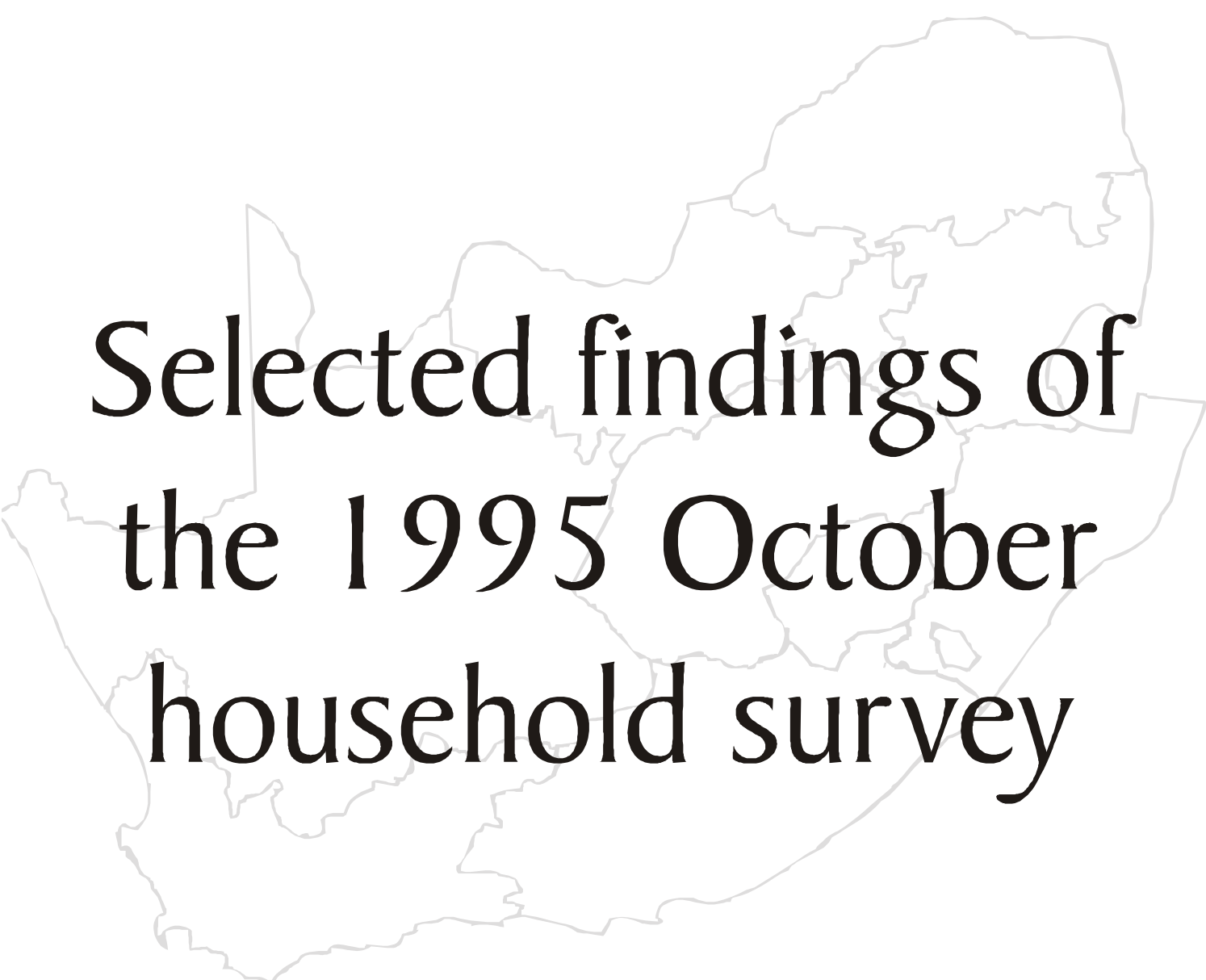


Living in South Africa

A faint, light gray outline map of South Africa is positioned in the background, centered behind the text.

Selected findings of
the 1995 October
household survey

CSS

Central Statistics

Living in South Africa

Selected findings of the 1995 October household survey

**Central Statistics
1998
Dr FM Orkin
Head**

Published by Central Statistical Service
Private Bag X44
Pretoria
0001
Tel: (012) 310-8911

ISBN 0-621-17597-8

© Central Statistical Service, 1996

Prepared for CSS by Dr Ros Hirschowitz, Chief Director of Research and Development, and Dr Mark Orkin, Head of CSS.

The detailed statistical tables on which this publication is based are available in CSS Statistical Release P0317, *October Household Survey, 1995*, available from the Central Statistical Service, Pretoria.

Material from this publication may be applied, processed or reproduced, provided that the Central Statistical Service is acknowledged as the source of the original data.

Other CSS reports in this series:

Living in South Africa. Selected findings of the 1995 October household survey (1996)
Earning and spending in South Africa. Selected findings of the 1995 income and expenditure survey (1997)
Living in Gauteng. Selected findings of the 1995 October household survey (1997)
Living in Free State. Selected findings of the 1995 October household survey (1998)
Living in KwaZulu-Natal. Selected findings of the 1995 October household survey (1998)
Living in Eastern Cape. Selected findings of the 1995 October household survey (1998)
Living in Northern Cape. Selected findings of the 1995 October household survey (1998)
Living in Northern Province. Selected findings of the 1995 October household survey (1998)
Living in North West. Selected findings of the 1995 October household survey (1998)
Living in Western Cape. Selected findings of the 1995 October household survey (1998)
Living in Mpumalanga. Selected findings of the 1995 October household survey (1998)

Contents

	Page
Section 1: Introduction	
Background	1
The research process	1
The questionnaire	1
Drawing a sample	2
The fieldwork	3
Data capture	3
Weighting the sample	3
Data analysis and report writing	4
Comparison with 1994 data	4
Section 2: The main findings regarding individuals	
The population of South Africa	5
The age distribution of South Africans	7
The distribution of education among South Africans	11
Employment and unemployment in South Africa	13
The economically active population	13
The unemployed	14
The employed in formal economy	18
Economic sector	22
Trade union membership	23
The informal economy	24
Section 3: The main findings regarding households	
Types of dwellings in which households live	27
Access to facilities and services	29
Access to electricity	29
Obtaining wood for domestic use among Africans in non-urban areas	30
Water for drinking	31
Sanitation	31
Telephones	32
Access to health-care facilities	34
Household income	34
Feelings of safety and security	35
Section 4: Disability in South Africa	
Section 5: Conclusion	

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) 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 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 is a summary of the findings of the 1995 OHS. It paints a demographic, social and economic picture of life in South Africa.

The research process

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 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.

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.

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 30 000 households, representing all households in the country.

- Altogether, 3 000 enumerator areas (EAs) were drawn for the sample, 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-urban area 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. For two of these states (Bophuthatswana and Venda), district-level information was available for size estimates, but not for the others.
 - ⇒ 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.
 - ⇒ In other areas of the country, particularly 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 for new informal settlements, which were springing up all over South Africa, to be incorporated into the 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 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 when CSS staff were busy demarcating new EA boundaries for the 1996 census. As a consequence, during fieldwork for the OHS, sometimes old 1991 census and new 1996 census EA boundaries were 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 which were sampled throughout South Africa, 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 the IES. The fieldworkers first administered the OHS questionnaire, and they 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 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 household was used as the weight for the household.

Data on individuals within households were weighted by age, race and gender, according to CSS population 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 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. Additional provincial and thematic reports and a combined OHS – IES report are presently being planned.

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 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 country 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, because, on the basis of two surveys, we cannot, as yet, calculate whether variations in answers are due to genuine developmental changes, or to sampling error, or else 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

Section 2

The main findings regarding individuals

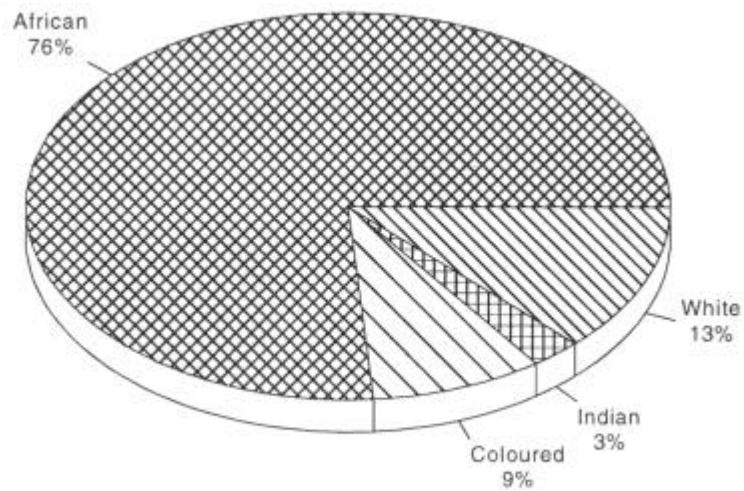
The population of South Africa

The CSS has estimated that the size of the South African population in 1995 was approximately 41,5 million people. 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 all relevant figures in this report may not, as a result of rounding, add up to exactly 100%.)

The 1995 OHS further shows that half of the entire South African population (50%) lives in urban, and half (50%) lives in non-urban areas in all nine provinces that constitute the country. Figure 2 shows that the province containing the highest number of people (8,8 million) is KwaZulu-Natal, while the province containing the lowest number of people (0,7 million) is the Northern Cape. It also shows that some provinces are largely urban, while others consist largely of non-urban areas. The Northern Province contains the largest proportion of non-urban inhabitants (89%), followed by the Eastern Cape (65%), while Gauteng contains the smallest proportion of non-urban inhabitants (6%), followed by the Western Cape (13%). The most populous province, KwaZulu-Natal, contains 62% non-urban inhabitants.

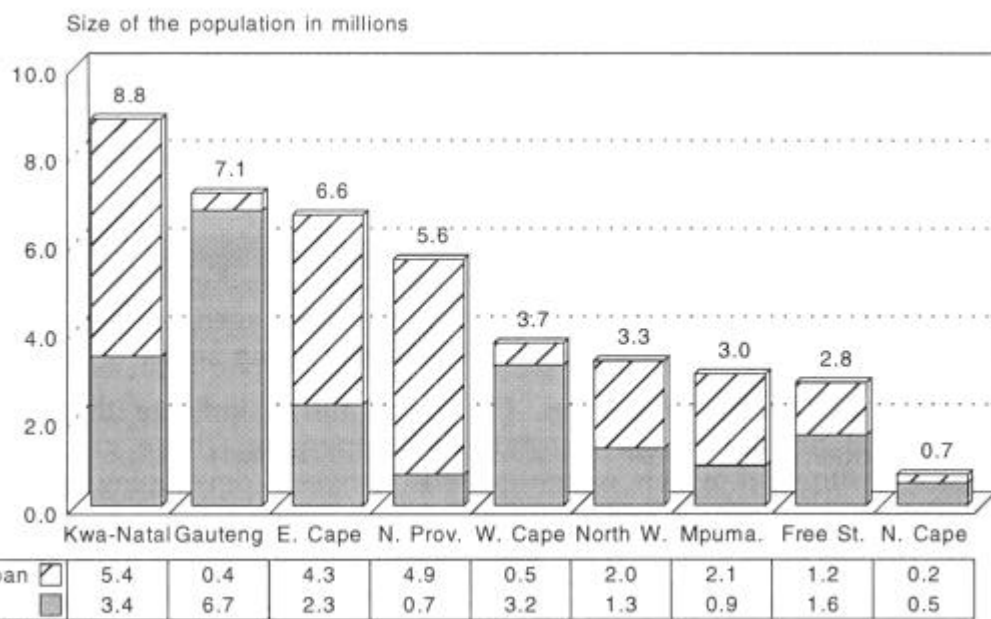
Although half of the South African population lives in rural areas, the distribution of people in urban and non-urban areas varies according to race. Almost two thirds (63%) of Africans live in non-urban areas as against a far smaller proportion of coloureds (16%), Indians (5%) and whites (9%).

Figure 3 indicates that Africans constitute the majority of people in all provinces, except in the Western and Northern Cape, where coloureds are in the majority.



Source: 1995 October household survey

Figure1: Population of South Africa by race



Source: 1995 October household survey

Figure 2: Population of South Africa in urban and non-urban areas by province

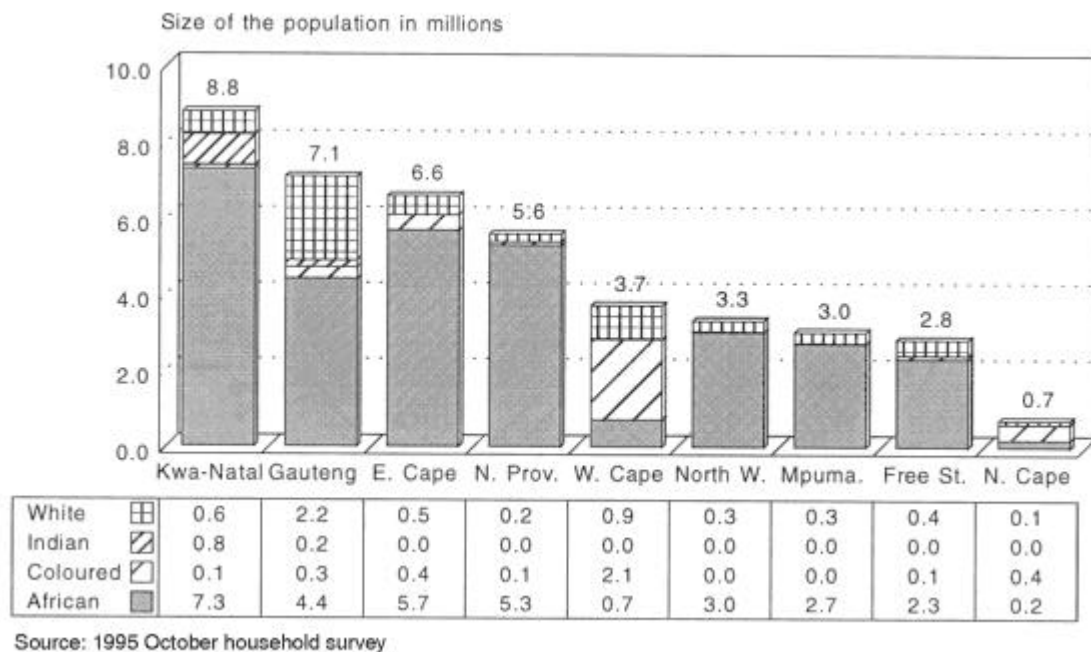


Figure 3: Population of South Africa by province and population group

The age distribution of South Africans

The extent of underdevelopment that the African population of South Africa endured under apartheid is clear when we look at the age distribution of the South African population by race and gender.

Figure 4, showing distribution by age among Africans, resembles the typical age-pyramid of developing countries. A large proportion of people are infants and young children, while among those aged 15 years or more, the proportion of people in each age category steadily decreases.

In South Africa, as many as 15% of all African males and 14% of all African females are aged between 0 to 4 years. A further 14% of all African males and 13% of all African females are aged between 5 and 9 years. This proportion decreases with increasing age.

Among coloureds and Indians, Figures 5 and 6 indicate that a transitional profile of age distribution is emerging. These graphs depict a situation which is somewhere between developing and developed countries. Approximately the same proportion of people (1 in 10) are aged 0 to 4 years, compared to those aged 5 to 9, 10 to 14, 15 to 19 and 20 to 24 years. After the age of 25 to 29 years, this proportion starts to decrease with increasing age.

This decrease is more sharp among coloureds. For example, 7% of all coloured males are aged between 35 to 39 years, dropping steeply to 4% for the age category 45 to 49 years and then to 2% for the age category 60 to 64 years.

This decreasing pattern is less sharp among Indians. For example, 8% of all coloureds are aged between 35 to 39 years, and 6% are aged between 45 to 49 years.

Among whites, the picture of age distribution by gender, as illustrated in Figure 7, is typical of industrialised countries. 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. Approximately one in every seven (15%) white females and one in every eight (12%) white males in the country is aged 60 years or more.

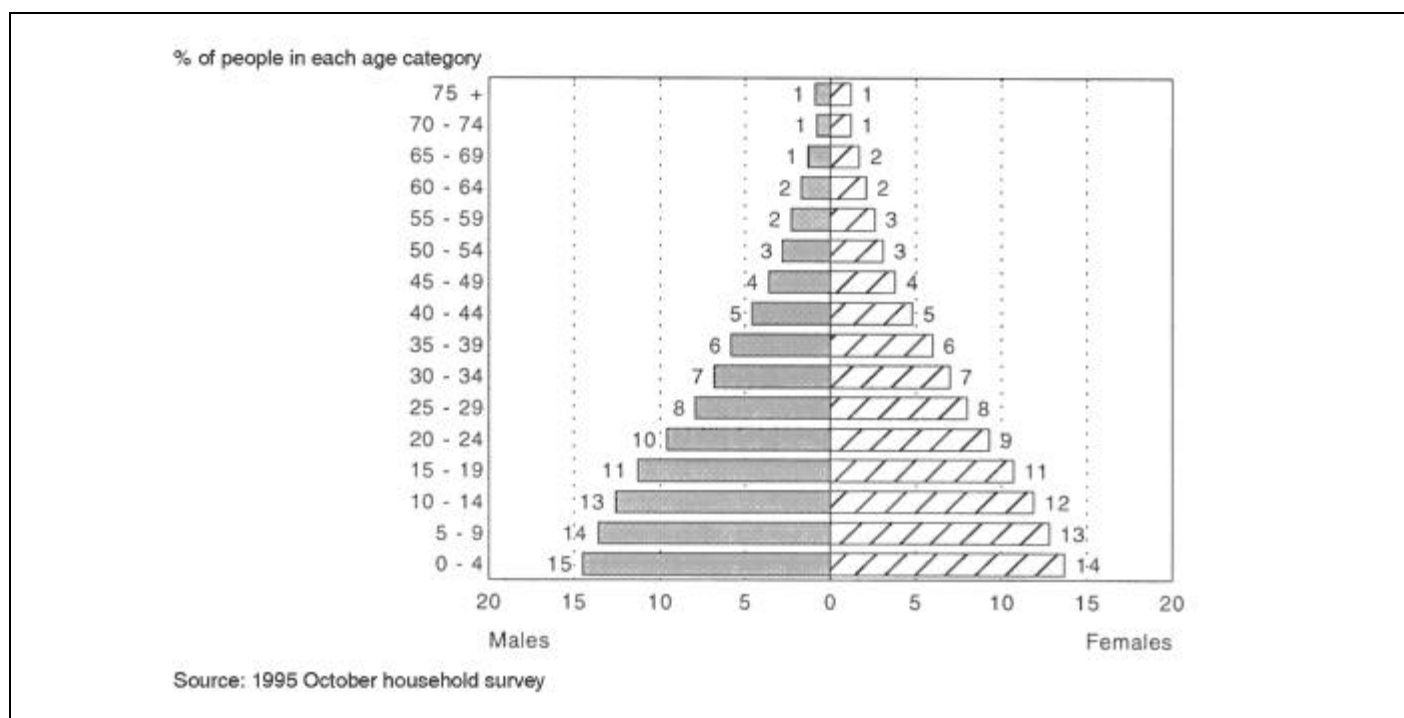
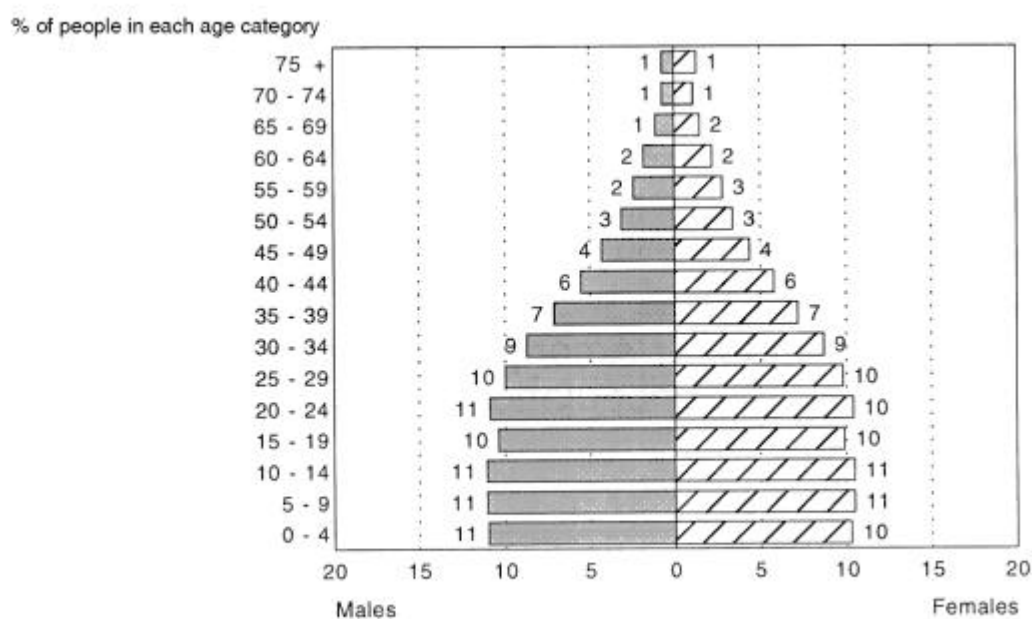


Figure 4: Among Africans, age of the population by gender

In other words, South Africa has a relatively young and expanding African population, compared with the coloured and Indian population, and an ageing, shrinking white population.

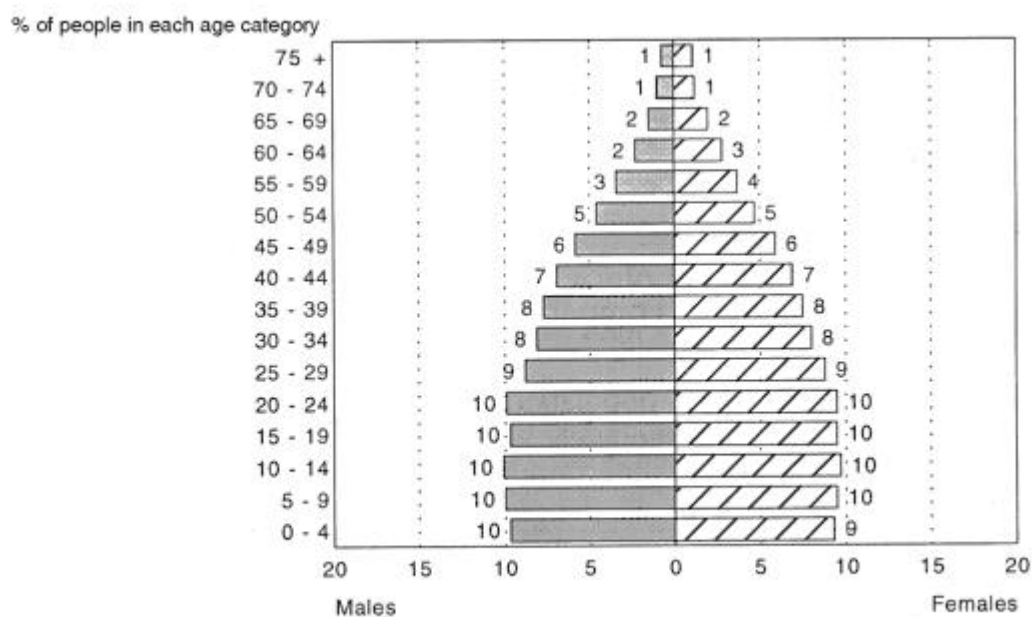
Figure 8 examines the population distribution within four broad age categories. The proportionately younger African population, and the proportionately older white population is clearly shown. The graphs indicate that 84% of all people aged 0 to 4 years are African, decreasing to 82% among those aged 5 to 14 years, and then decreasing even further to 73% among those aged 15 to 64 years, and yet further still to 63% among those 65 years or more. While only 7% of those in the age category 0 to 4 years are white, as many as 28% of aged 65 years or more are white.

These statistics point to a need for re-prioritisation. Investment in human resources should increasingly be focused on young Africans, particularly those living in rural areas. This applies particularly to education.



Source: 1995 October household survey

Figure 5: Among coloureds, age of the population by gender



Source: 1995 October household survey

Figure 6: Among Indians, age of the population by gender

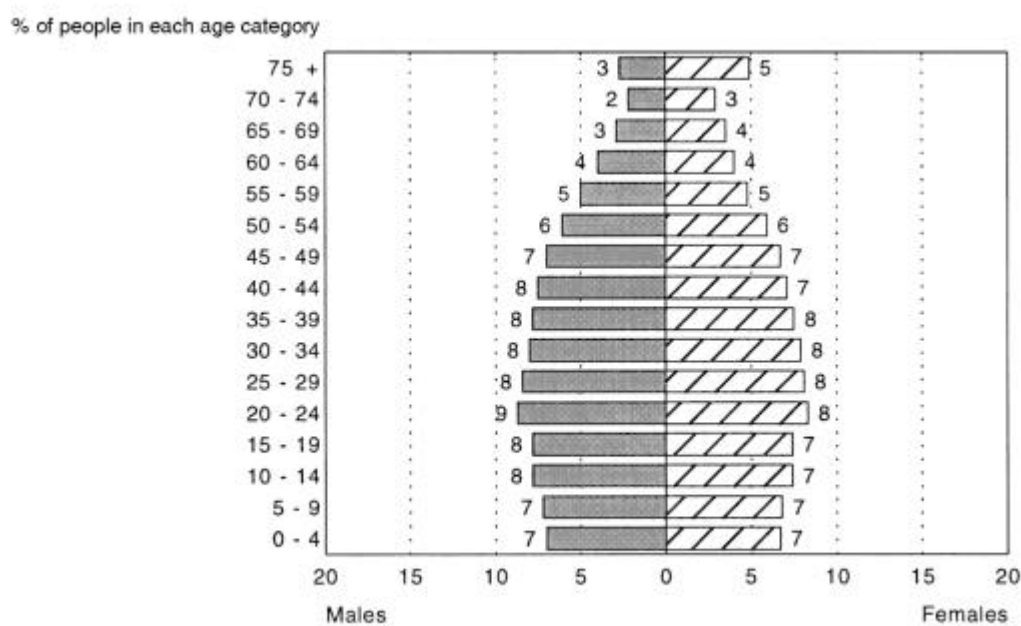


Figure 7: Among whites, age of the population by gender

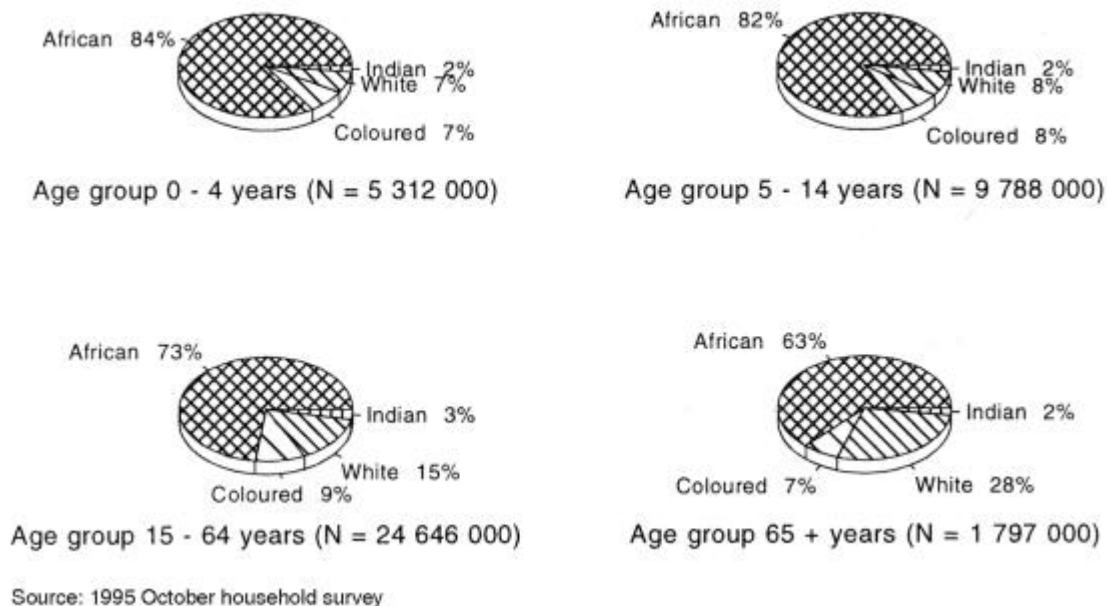


Figure 8: Population of South Africa by age and race

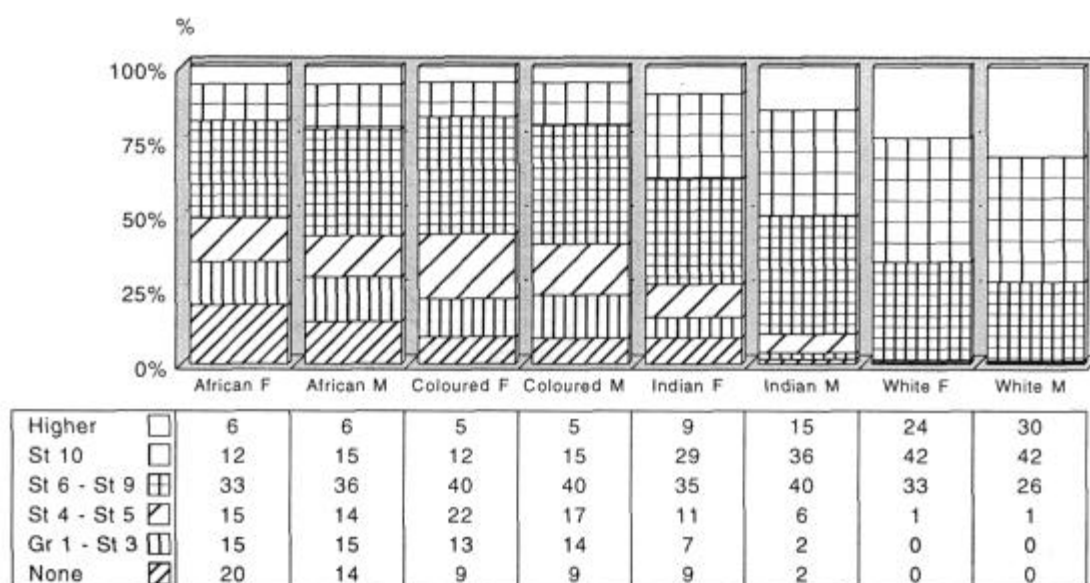
The distribution of education among South Africans

In the past, access to education has not been equally available to all South Africans. As a consequence, educational attainment among South Africans varies, not only by race, but also by gender.

Figure 9 indicates that, among all those aged 20 years or more, African females have the lowest educational attainments in the country, followed by African males, while white females and males have the highest educational attainments. For example, on the one hand, one in every five (20%) African women have received no education at all, compared with one in every seven (14%) African males. On the other hand, only one in every 500 (0,2%) white males and females have received no education at all.

At the upper end of the educational scale, almost all whites aged 20 years or more (99%) have received at least some secondary school education (Standard 6 or higher), while 30% of white males and 24% of white females in this age category have obtained post-school qualifications.

Among African males and females, however, only 6% have attained post-school qualifications.



Source: 1995 October household survey

Figure 9: Level of education by race and gender among those aged 20 years + (N=22 099 000)

In spite of the large discrepancy in access to education amongst Africans compared with coloureds, Indians and whites, the situation has shown a steady improvement over time. Figure 10 indicates that only 3% of Africans aged 10 to 14 years and 2% of Africans aged 15 to 19 years have received no education, increasing to 12% of those aged 35 to 39 years, then to 29% of those aged 50 to 54 years, and 40% of those aged 60 to 64 years and finally to 56% of those aged 65 years or more. Therefore, proportionately more people are entering schools over time to obtain at least some basic education.

It is not only access to basic education, but also the quality of this education, and the level of schooling that people actually manage to attain within the educational system, which require further exploration.

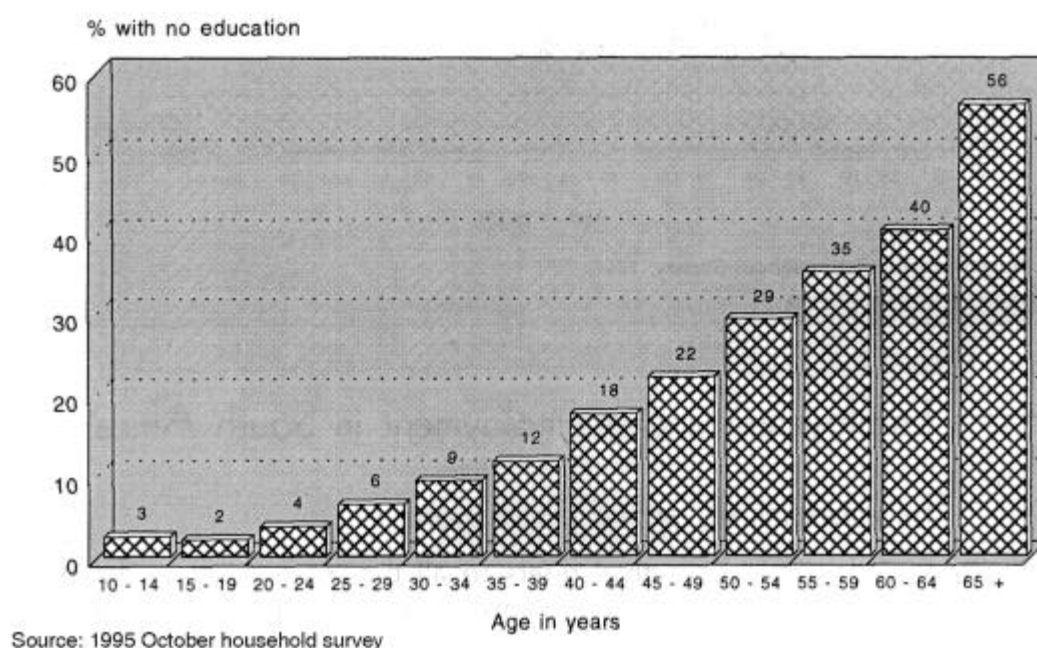
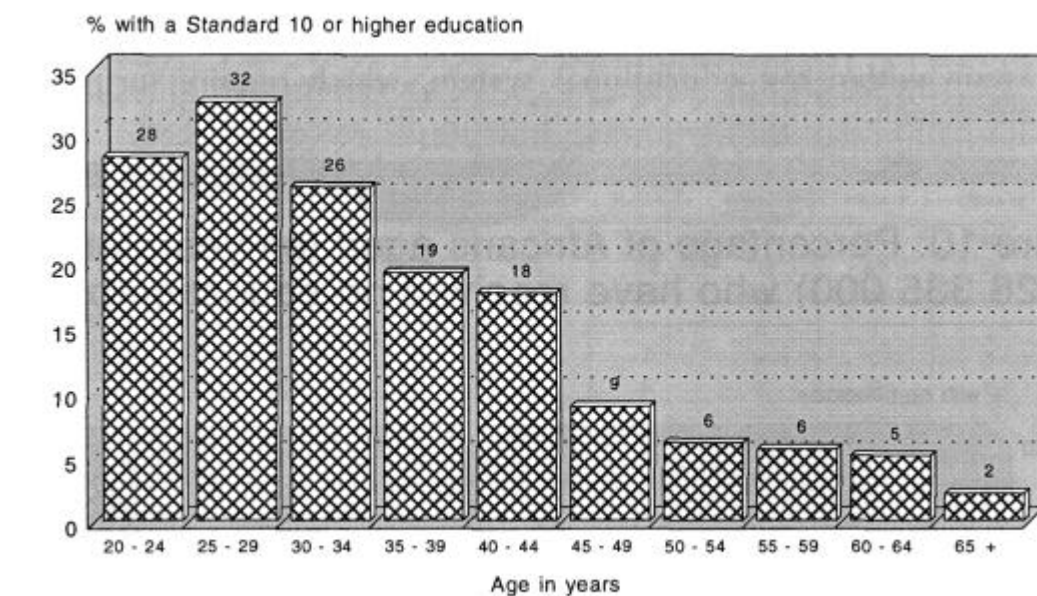


Figure 10: Percentage of Africans aged ten years or more (N=26 335 000) who have received no education by age

Figure 11 indicates the proportion of Africans in each age category, from the age of 20 years, who have attained a Standard 10 (12 years of schooling) or higher level of education. This graph shows that 28% of those aged 20 to 24 years have attained at least a Standard 10 education. This proportion rises at first to 32% of those aged 25-29 years, and then steadily drops to reach 18% of those aged 40 to 44 years, 6% of those aged 50 to 54 years and 2% of those aged 65 years or more. Therefore, proportionately more Africans have completed their schooling and have entered post-school education during recent years.

Nevertheless, we need to remember that 73% of white males, and 67% of white females aged 20 years or more, have attained a Standard 10 or higher level of education, as shown previously in Figure 9.



Source: 1995 October household survey

Figure 11: Percentage of Africans aged twenty years or more (N=15 675 000) who have completed Standard 10, or who have attained a higher level of education, by age

Employment and unemployment in South Africa

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 world-wide as being outside the labour market.

In October 1995, there were 26,4 million people aged 15 years or more. Of these people, 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 in informal work, while 4,2 million indicated that they were unemployed.

The unemployed

At least two definitions of unemployment are used in South Africa – the strict and the expanded definition. Both definitions include people who are aged 15 years or older, and who are not employed, but who are available for work. But 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 to work, irrespective of whether or not the person has taken active steps to find work.

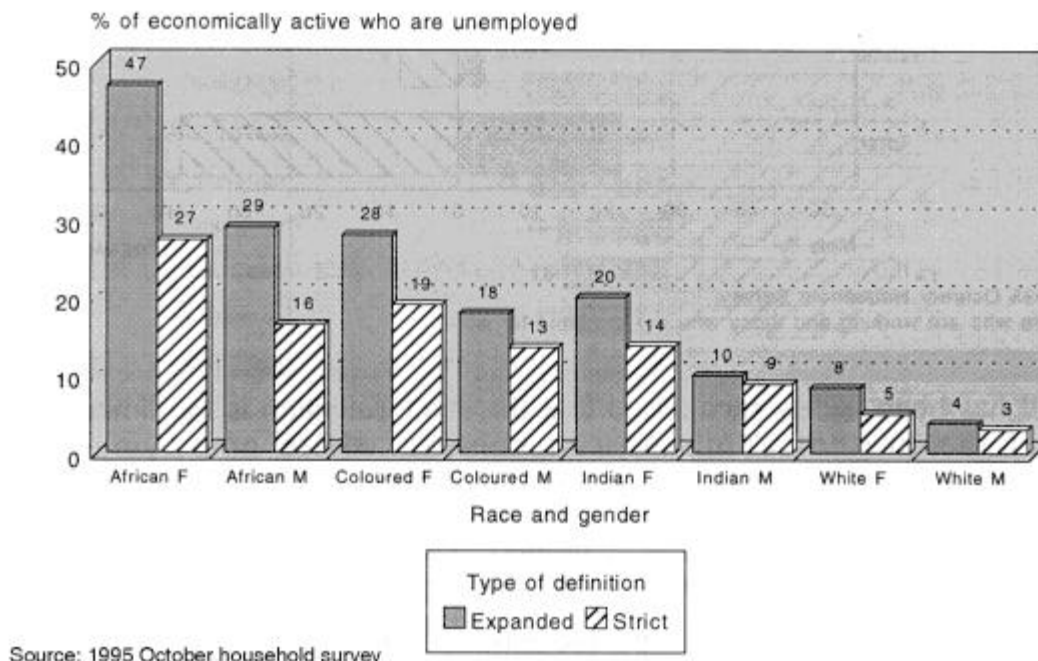
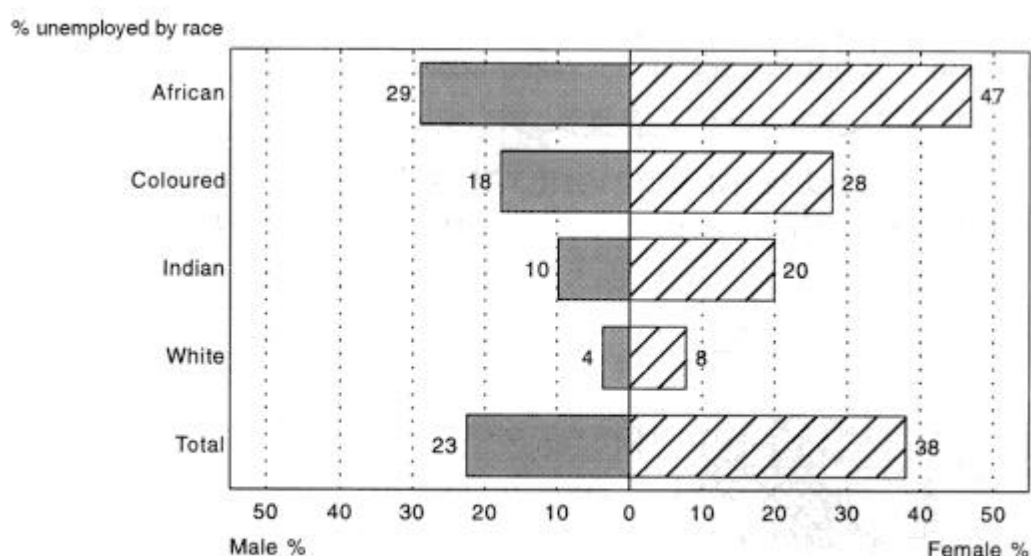


Figure 12: Unemployment rates by race and gender: Strict definition compared with expanded definition

According to the 1995 October household survey, 16,5% of this population were found to be unemployed, using the strict definition, while 29,3% of the economically active were found to be unemployed when using the expanded definition.

Figure 12 compares the unemployment rates among males and females of the various population groups of the country, using the strict and the expanded definition of unemployment.

Figure 12 indicates that 47% of African women could be counted as being unemployed when using the expanded definition, compared with 27% when using the strict one. Likewise, 8% of white women could be counted as being unemployed when using the expanded definition, compared with 5% when using the strict one. It therefore seems as if women are more likely than men to say they have been unable to look for work in the four weeks' period prior to a given point in time – in this case, the interview for the OHS.



Source: 1995 October household survey

* Both those who are working and those who are available for work

Figure 13: Unemployment rates in South Africa by population group and gender among the economically active population (N=14 356 000)*

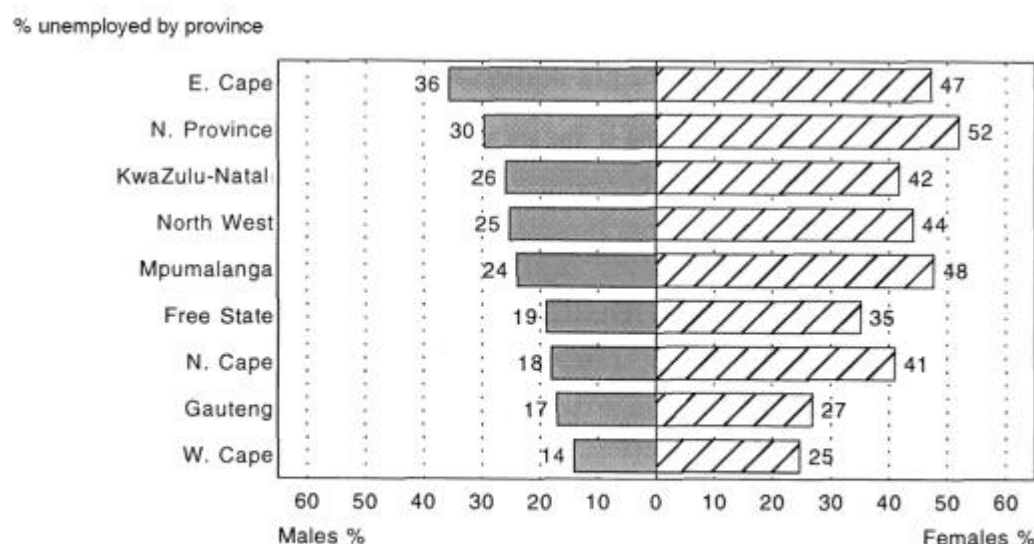
It has been widely recognised that the strict definition is too limited in the present South African context, where employment opportunities are extremely limited, and many unemployed people have ceased to seek work actively. Transport and other costs entailed in job seeking, often with negative results, 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. All of the following graphs are consequently based on the expanded definition of unemployment.

Figure 13 gives the unemployment rate among males and females by race. It shows that African economically active women are most likely to be unemployed (47%), followed by African males (29%), and then by coloured women (28%). White females (8%) and males (4%) are least likely to be unemployed.

When we look at unemployment in the provinces, Figure 14 indicates that it is highest in the Eastern Cape for economically active males (36%), while it is highest in the Northern Province for economically active women (52%). It is lowest in the Western Cape for both males (14%) and females (25%).



Source: 1995 October household survey

* Expanded definition

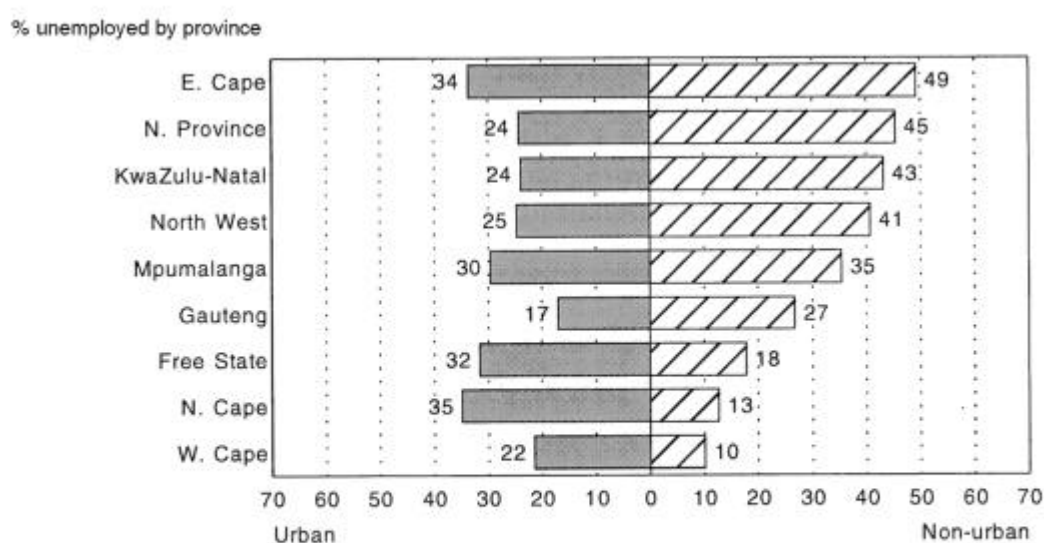
** Those aged 15 years or more who are working or who are available for work

Figure 14: Unemployment rates* in South Africa by province and gender among the economically active population (N=14 356 000)**

When we compare unemployment in urban and non-urban areas in the various provinces of South Africa, Figure 15 shows that, with some exceptions such as the Western Cape, which in any case is largely urbanised, it tends to be higher in non-urban, rather than in urban areas.

In non-urban areas, unemployment is highest in the Eastern Cape (49%) followed by the Northern Province (45%) and KwaZulu-Natal (43%). It is lowest in Gauteng (21%), which, in any case, is almost entirely urban, and the Western Cape (10%).

In urban areas, unemployment is highest in the Northern Cape (35%), which is characterised by the predominance of small towns providing services for commercial agriculture, rather than metropolitan areas, followed by the Eastern Cape (34%) and the Free State (32%). It is lowest in the Western Cape (22%) and Gauteng (17%).

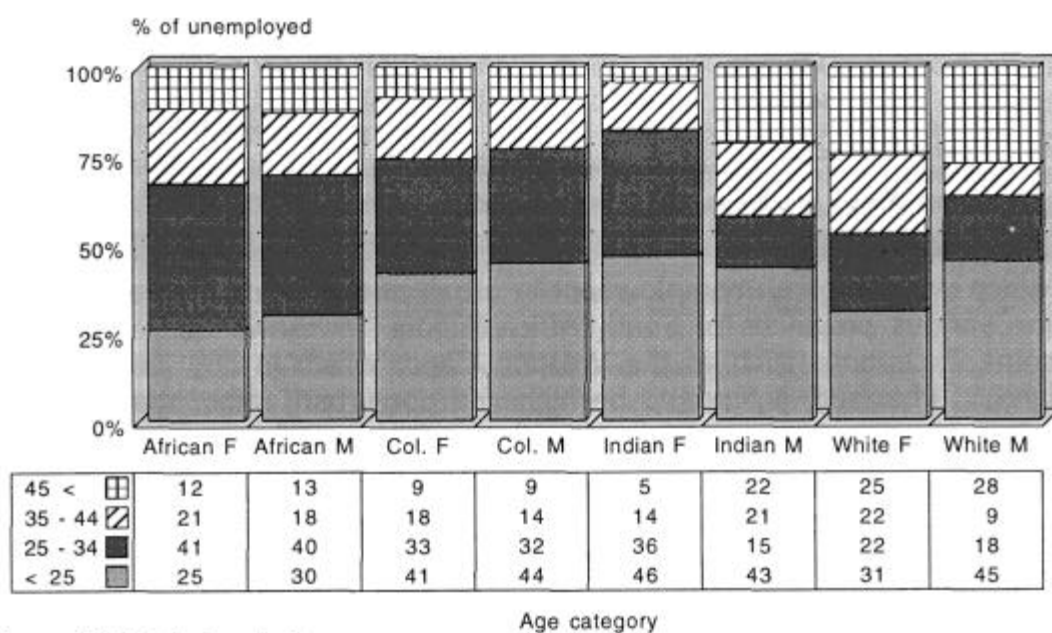


Source: 1995 October household survey

* Expanded definition

** Those aged 15 years or more who are working or who are available for work

Figure 15: Unemployment rates* in South Africa by urban and non-urban areas in each province among the economically active population (N=14 356 000)**



Source: 1995 October household survey

Figure 16: Distribution of the unemployed by age, race and gender

Figure 16 examines the distribution of unemployment within race and gender by four age categories. This graph indicates that unemployed Africans tend, on average, to be older than unemployed people in other population groups. The largest proportion of unemployed Africans (41% of females and 39% of males) is found in the age category '25 to 34 years'. Amongst unemployed coloureds and Indians, and amongst unemployed white males, however, the largest proportion (for example, 46% of Indian females, 45% of white males and 44% of coloured males) is found in the age category 'younger than 25 years'. Unemployment amongst white females is found across the whole age spectrum.

This finding among Africans may reflect the effects of uprisings against and resistance to the apartheid-based education system, particularly during the 1980s. People did not complete their education, and as a result, may be struggling to find work.

Figure 17 shows that, among the economically active, the proportion of unemployed is 34% or higher for those who have attended or who have not completed school. However, it drops to 18% among those who have completed at least Standard 10.

The employed in the formal economy

The type of work done by employed people in the South African formal economy varies by race and gender. Figure 18 shows that, amongst employed Africans, 34% of males, and 50% of females are working in elementary occupations such as cleaning, garbage collecting and agricultural labour. A further 20% of African males are in operator, assembler and related occupations, for example they are working as assembly-line operators. Almost one in five (19%) African females are in semi-professional occupations, for example nursing assistants. Fewer than 4% of African males and 2% of African females are in managerial posts.

Amongst employed coloureds, Figure 19 shows that, whilst a large proportion of both males (35%) and females (42%) are still found in elementary occupations, there is some movement among males into more skilled artisan and craft jobs (23%). Among females, there is a move into sales and service (16%) and clerical (16%) jobs. As with Africans, an extremely small proportion of coloured workers (3% of males and 1% of females) are in managerial posts.

Amongst employed Indians, a different picture emerges, which, as we shall see, is beginning to resemble the picture found amongst whites. Figure 20 shows that, amongst males, an extremely small proportion (1%) is found in elementary occupations, but otherwise they are well represented in all occupational categories. A relatively large proportion (14%) is found in managerial occupations. Indian females, on the other hand, tend to be found in clerical occupations (36%).

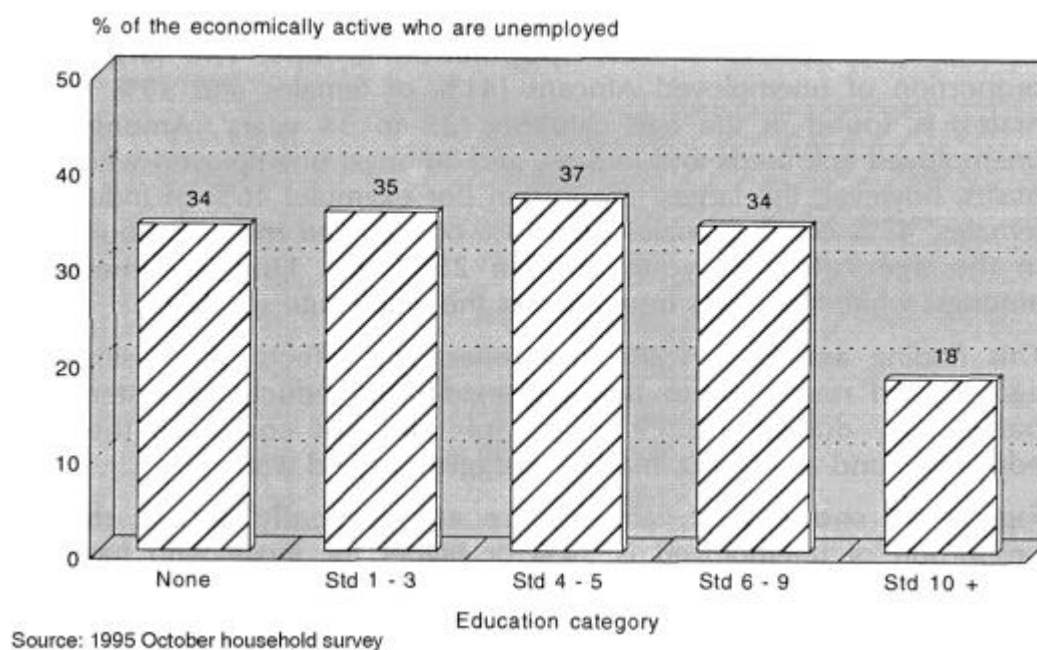


Figure 17: Percentage who are unemployed among the economically active in each education category

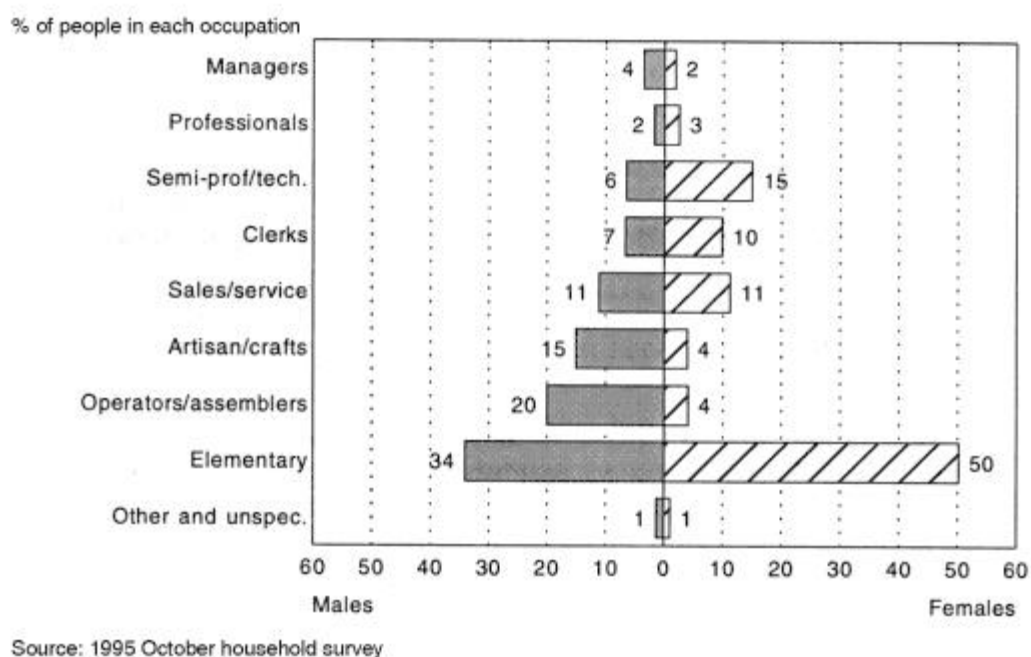


Figure 18: Occupation of employed Africans (N=6 260 000) by gender

Whites, on the other hand, particularly white males, tend to have access to occupations requiring higher levels of competencies. Thus, Figure 21 indicates that white males tend to be found in three main occupational categories. In white-collar occupations they are likely to be found in the top echelon of this type of work – management (19%), while in blue-collar jobs, they are more likely to be found in top echelon occupations requiring higher level competencies and longer-term training, namely artisans and craft workers (29%), rather than in operator or elementary occupations. In addition, a relatively large proportion of white males are also found in the semi-professional/technical category (17%), requiring post-school technical qualifications. White females, however, tend to be found largely in clerical occupations (47%).

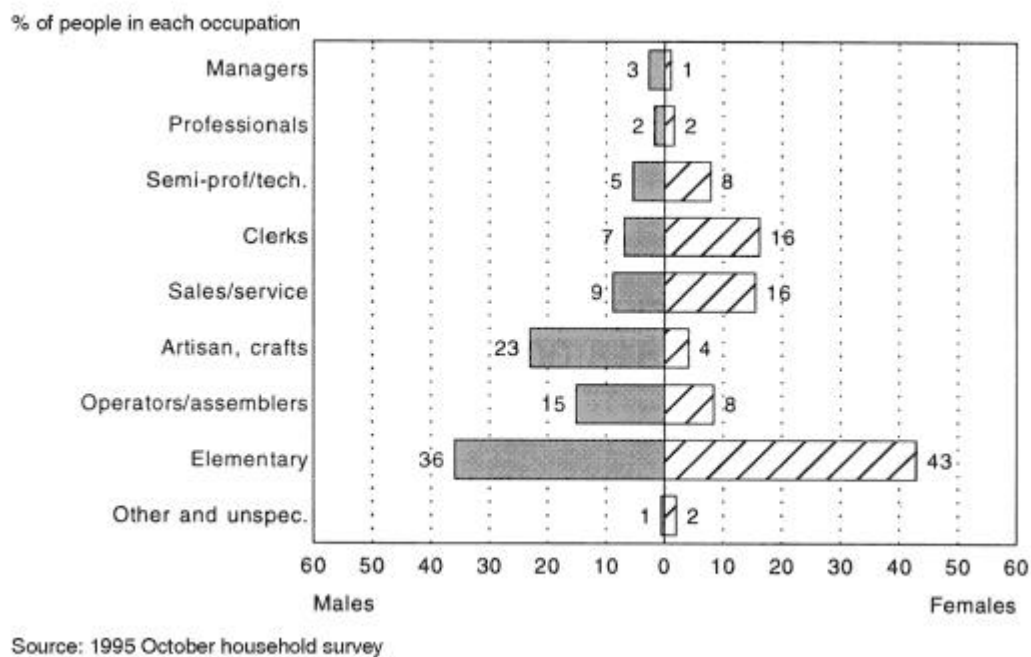


Figure 19: Occupation of employed coloureds (N=1 205 000) by gender

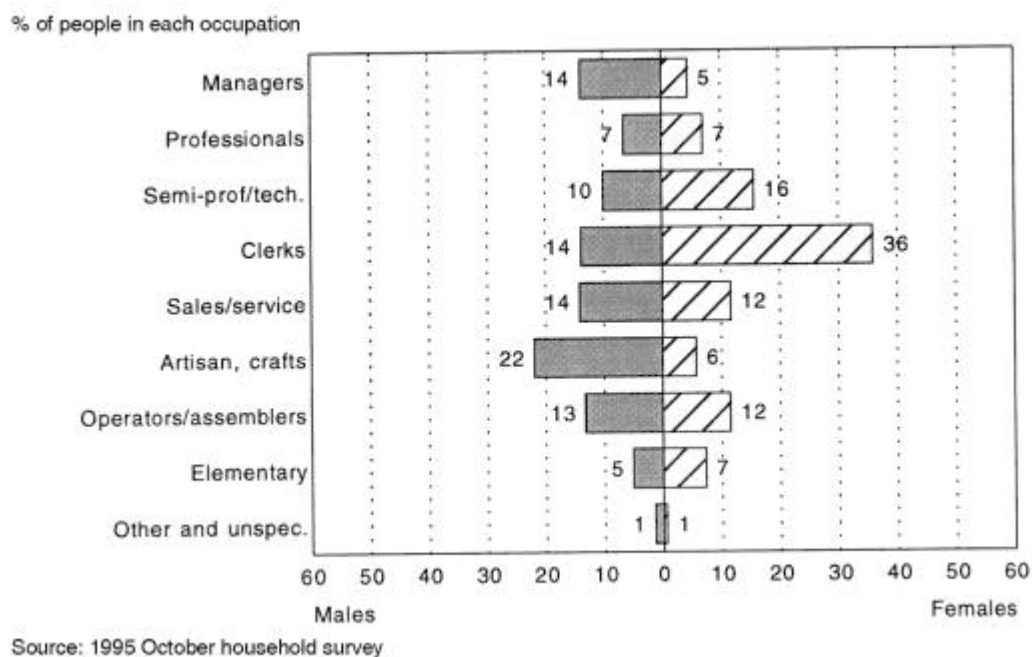


Figure 20: Occupation of employed Indians (N=369 000) by gender

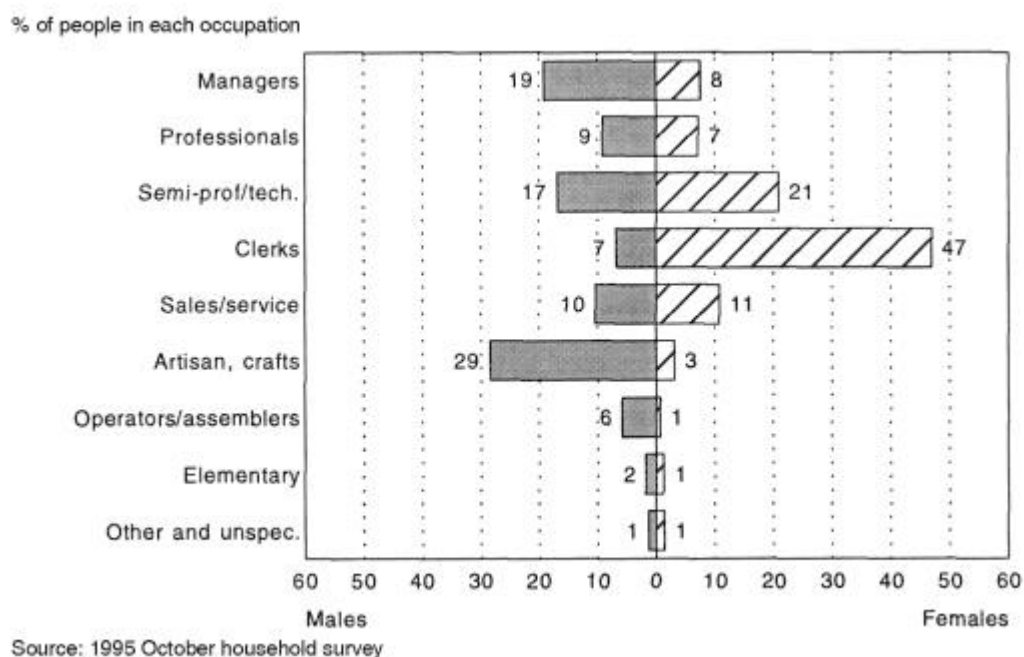
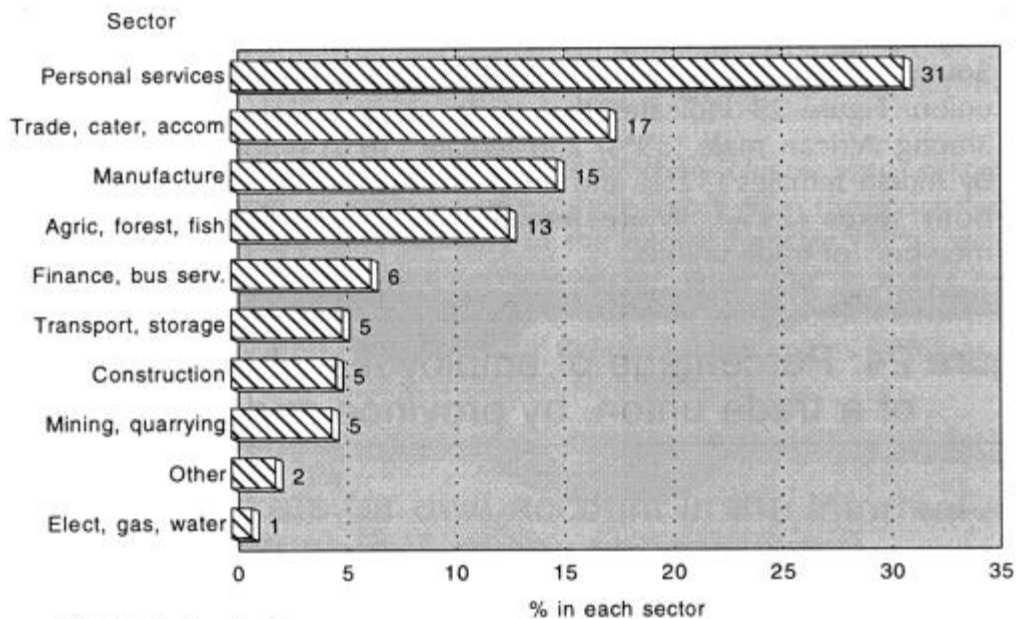


Figure 21: Occupation of employed whites (N=2 318 000) by gender

Economic sector

When examining the economic sector in which people employed in the formal sector tend to work, we find that there is a definite shift in the formal economy away from jobs being found in the primary and secondary industries towards jobs being found in tertiary industries. For example, Figure 22 indicates that almost a third of South Africans (31%) work in the personal services sector and an additional 17% work in trade, catering and accommodation, while only 15% work in the manufacturing and 13% in the agricultural sectors.



Source: 1995 October household survey

Figure 22: Economic sector of employer among all those who are working

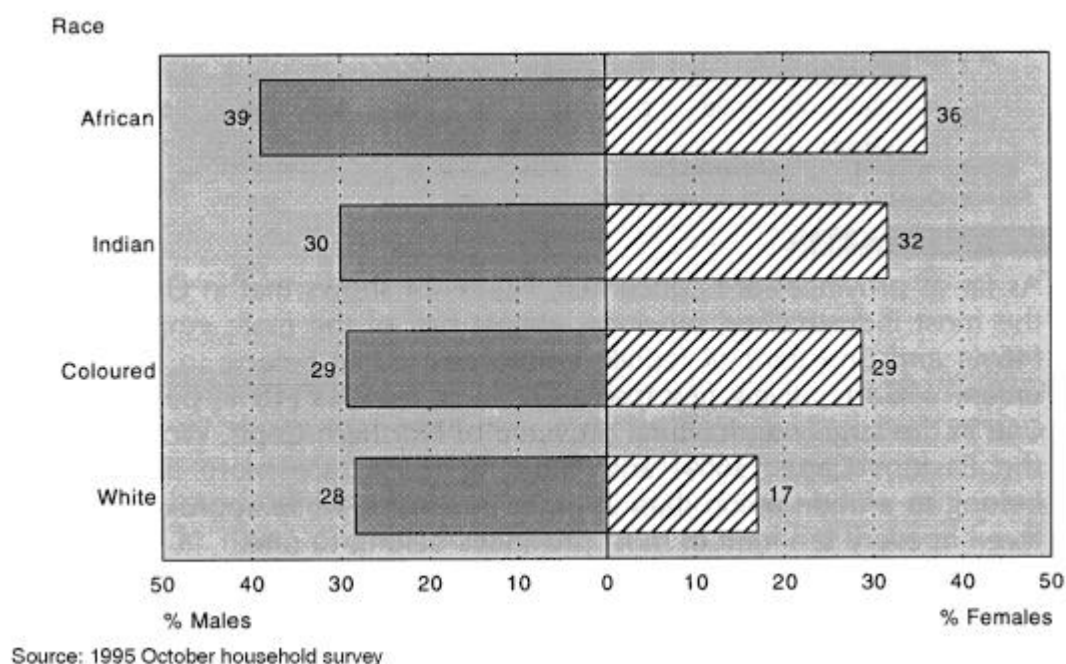


Figure 23: Percentage of employees who are members of a trade union, by race and gender

Trade union membership

Trade union membership was indeed an important aspect of life and work in South Africa, since it was a major outlet for democratic expression among the disenfranchised in the dying years of apartheid. Its importance has continued, and a large proportion of employees are members. In 1995, approximately one-third of all South African employees in the OHS said they belong to a trade union. Figure 23 indicates that trade union membership is highest among African male (39%) and female (36%) employees, followed by Indian females (32%) and Indian males (30%), and coloureds of both sexes (29%). White females (17%) are least likely to be members of trade unions.

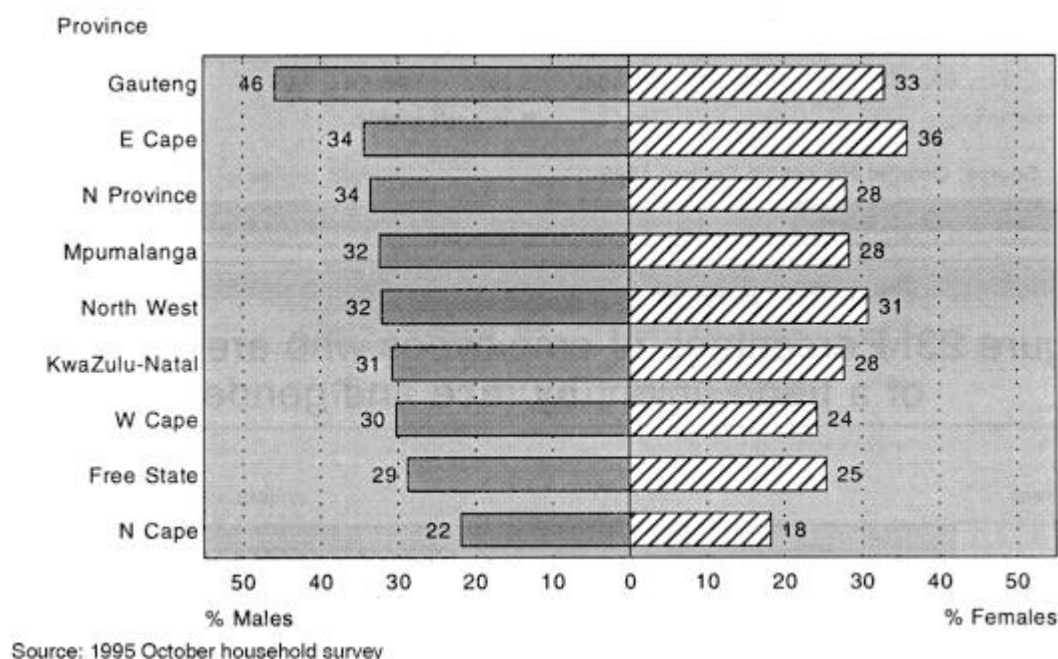


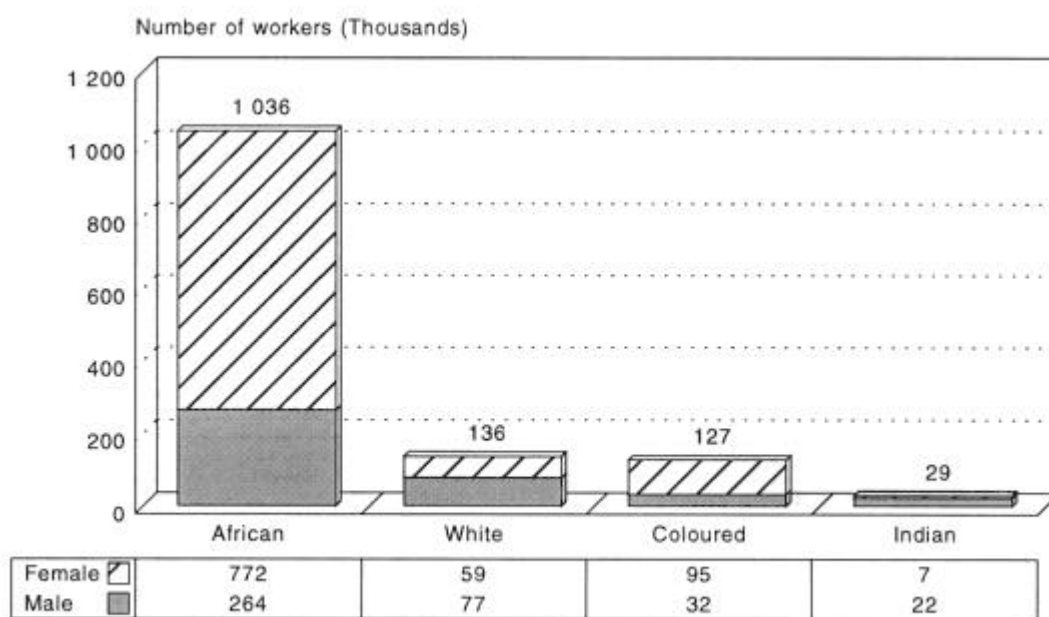
Figure 24: Percentage of employees who are members of a trade union, by province and gender

As far as provinces are concerned, Figure 24 shows that in Gauteng, the most industrialised province, almost half of the male employees (46%) and one-third of female employees (33%) belong to a trade union, while relatively few males (22%) or females (18%) belong to one in the largely agricultural province of Northern Cape. Women in the Eastern Cape (36%) and Gauteng (33%) are more likely to belong to a trade union than in other provinces, while approximately three in every ten men in most provinces belong to one.

The informal economy

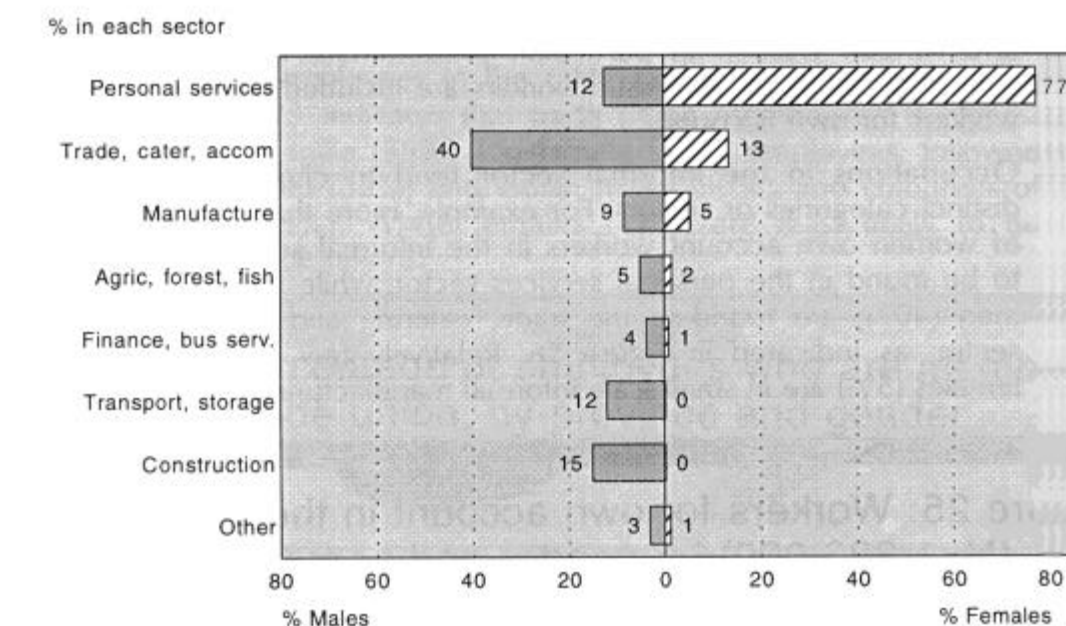
The informal sector of South Africa is a growing source of employment. Approximately 1,7 million people work in this sector, of whom 1,3 million work for their own account. Africans generally, and African women in particular, predominate in this sector as shown in Figure 25 (domestic workers are included here as informal workers for own account).

Occupations in the informal sector tend to cluster into certain distinct categories or sectors. For example, more than three-quarters of women own account workers in the informal sector (77%) tend to be found in the personal services sector, while four in every ten men (40%) are found in the trade, catering and accommodation sector, as indicated in Figure 26. Relatively few males (9%) and females (5%) are in small-scale informal manufacturing.



Source: 1995 October household survey

Figure 25: Workers for own account in the informal sector (N=1 326 000) by gender and population group



Source: 1995 October household survey

Figure 26: Workers for own account in the informal sector by economic sector and gender (N=1 327 000)

Figure 27 shows that more than eight in every ten females (82%) in the informal sector are in elementary informal occupations such as street vending, domestic work and scavenging, while males are found in more diverse occupations, for example artisan and craft activities such as building, house-painting and wood-working (37%). A large proportion of males described their occupation in terms of managing or running micro-businesses, for example running a taxi driving or hawking concern (20%).

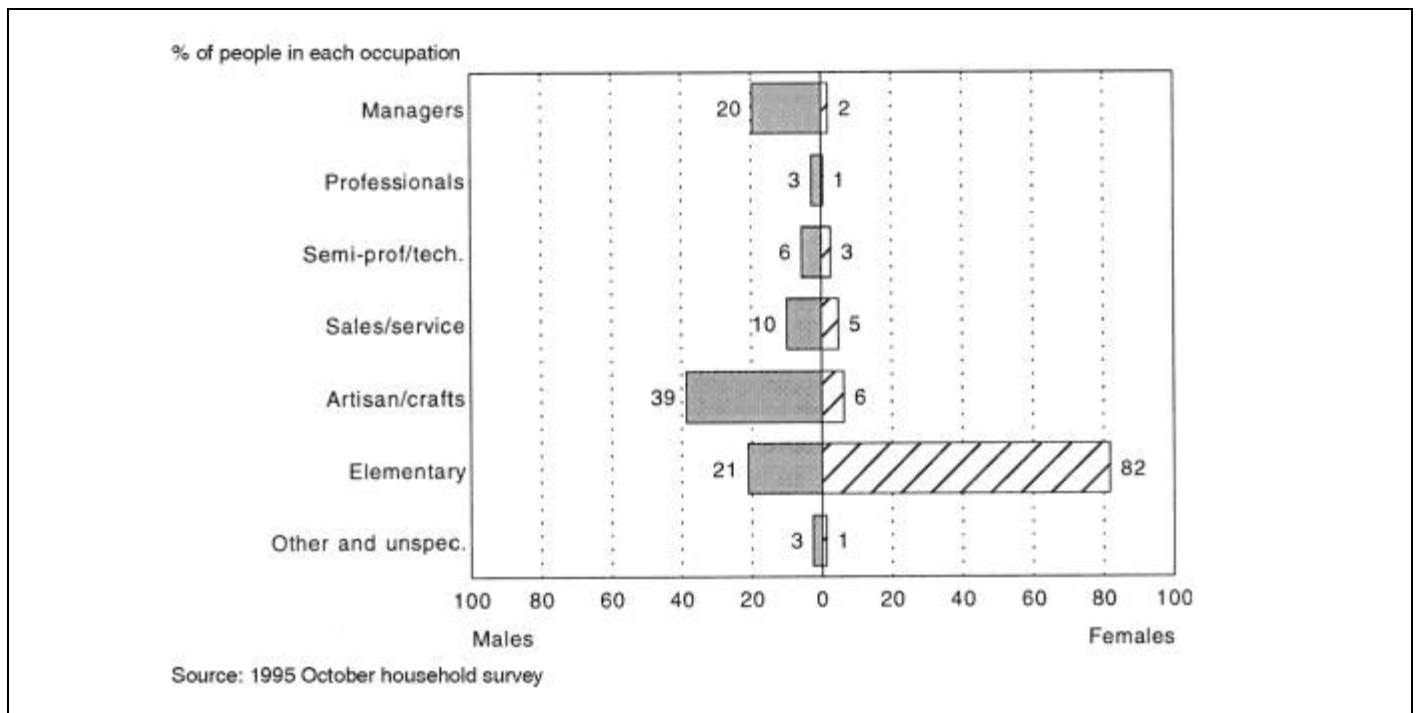


Figure 27: Workers for own account in the informal sector occupation by gender (N=1 326 000)

Section 3

The main findings regarding households

Types of dwellings in which households live

It was estimated that there were approximately 8,8 million households in South Africa, containing 41,5 million people. Almost three-quarters of these households (73%) are found in formal brick structures, such as a house or a flat or a backyard room, while 14% are found in traditional dwellings, 7% in shacks and 5% in hostels, compounds or single rooms in a building.

This distribution of dwellings among households varies by race. Among Africans, 61% of households live in formal brick structures (including 7% in backyard rooms), while 21% live in traditional dwellings, 10% in shacks, and 8% in hostels, compounds or single rooms in a building. Among coloureds, 91% of households live in formal brick structures, increasing to 99% among Indians and whites.

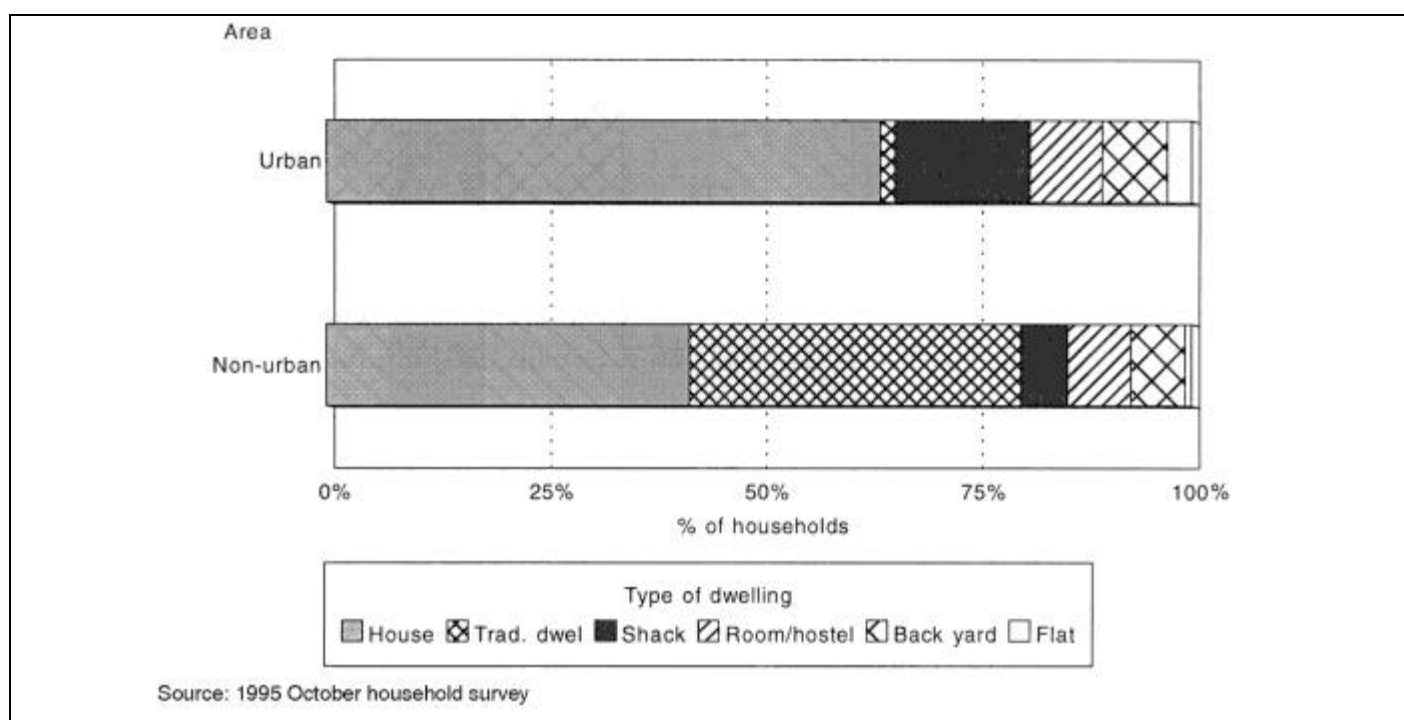
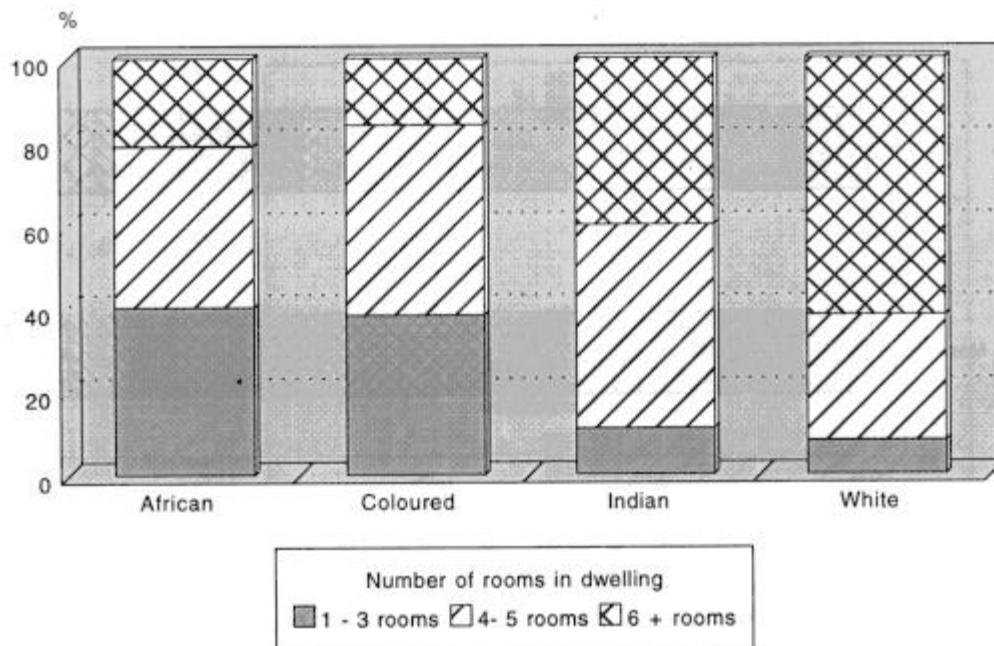


Figure 28: Type of dwelling in which African households live, in urban and non-urban areas

Among Africans, the type of dwelling in which the household lives varies according to urban and non-urban areas. As many as 38% of dwellings in non-urban areas are traditional, while 16% of dwellings in urban areas are shacks, as indicated in Figure 28.

Not only the type of dwelling, but also its size varies by race. Figure 29 shows that 79% of African and 84% of coloured households live in dwellings containing five or fewer rooms (counting kitchens, but excluding bathrooms), compared with 38% of white households.

While white households tend to live in larger dwellings, they are also more likely to contain fewer people. Figure 30 indicates that, on average, white households in both urban and non-urban areas consist of three people, while African households contain an average of five people in non-urban areas, and four people in urban ones.



Source: 1995 October household survey

Figure 29: Size of dwelling by race of head of household

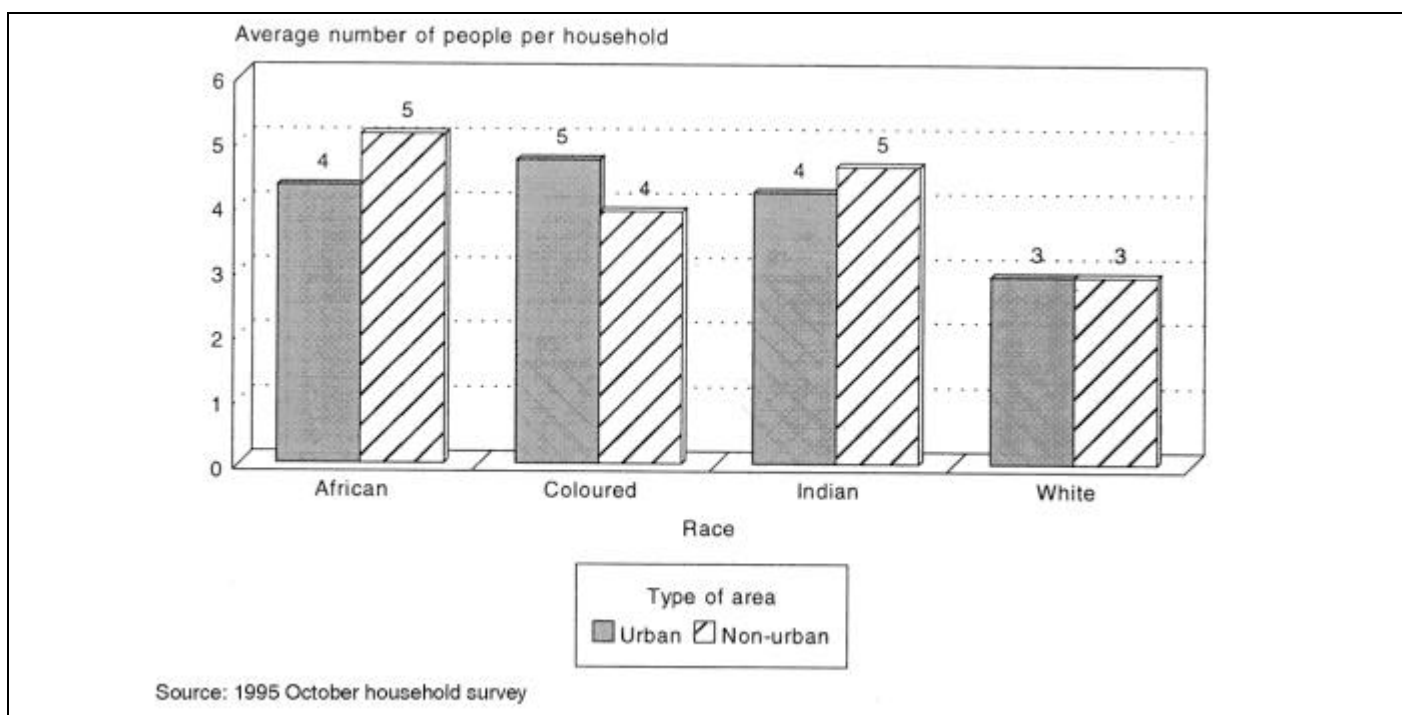


Figure 30: Average household size by race in urban and non-urban areas

Access to facilities and services

When comparing access to facilities and services such as electricity, piped tap water in the dwelling, not only race differences, but also urban/non-urban discrepancies are noteworthy.

Access to electricity

Electricity for lighting is unevenly distributed by race. Just over half (51%) of all African households use electricity as their main energy source for lighting, as against 84% of coloured and 99% of Indian and white households.

Among African households, however, there are marked urban/non-urban differences as far as access to electricity for lighting is concerned.

Figure 31 indicates that eight in every ten (81%) of African households in urban areas make use of electricity as the main source for lighting, as against one in every four (24%) in non-urban areas. Half of the non-urban households use candles for lighting (48%), and a further quarter (24%) use paraffin.

Proportionately fewer households make use of electricity as the main source for cooking, compared to lighting, probably because it is more expensive to use electricity for cooking.

Altogether, 42% of African households use electricity for cooking, compared with 75% of coloured, and 98% of both Indian and white households.

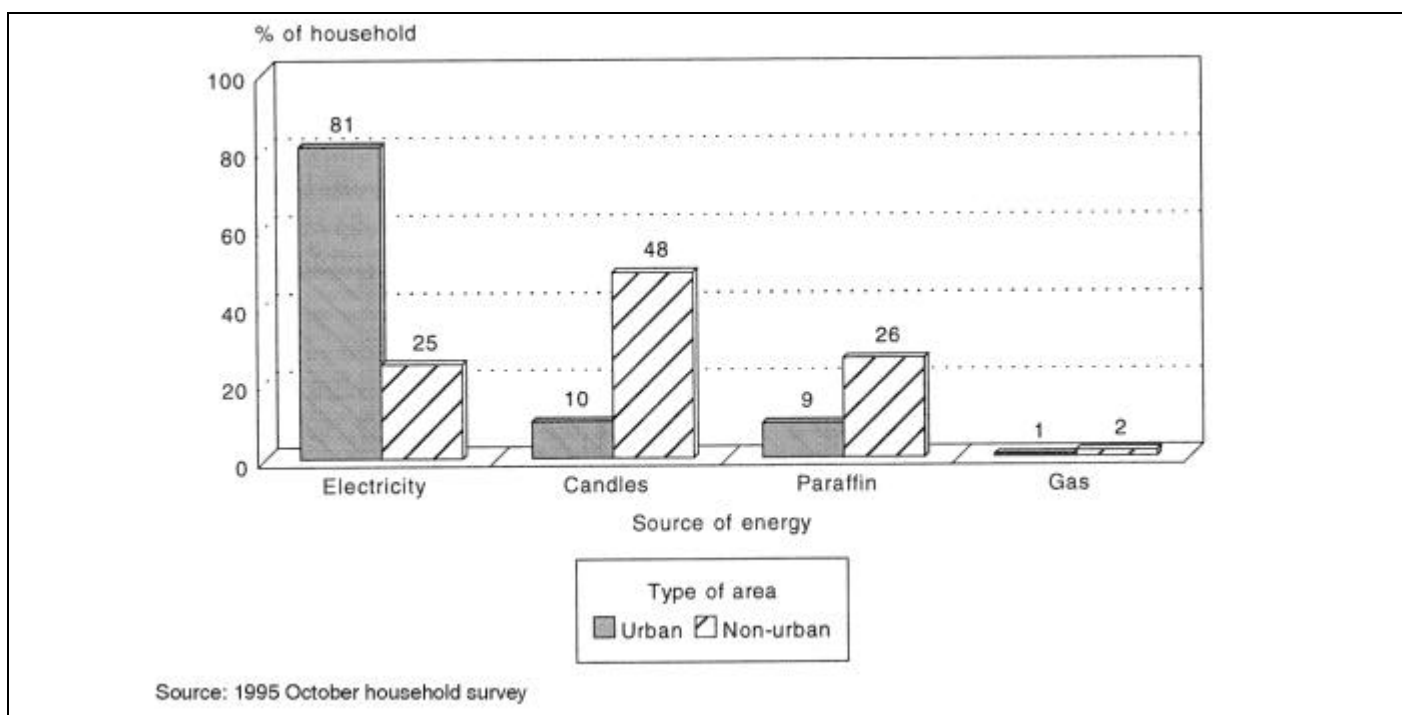


Figure 31: Source of energy for lighting in urban and non-urban African households

Obtaining wood for domestic use among Africans in non-urban areas

Among African households, Figure 32 indicates that 71% of those in urban areas use electricity for cooking, compared with only 16% in non-urban areas.

Figure 32 also shows that more than half (55%) of non-urban African households use wood and 20% use paraffin for cooking purposes.

A large proportion of African non-urban households that use wood obtain it either from the *veld* (52%) or from indigenous forests (23%), while relatively few obtain wood from woodlots (9%), commercial plantations (7%), merchants (6%) or trees growing on the site of the dwelling (3%).

Also in non-urban areas, 51% of Africans who fetch wood travel more than a kilometre to fetch it. Therefore large proportions of each day may be spent by household members walking long distances to fetch wood and then to bring it home for cooking. Time-use studies, which are planned by the CSS in 1997, should give a clear indication of the amount of time spent on fetching wood. Nevertheless, wood is a scarce resource, and three in every five households (60%) cannot always obtain the quantity of wood that they require for household use.

Regular payment for wood is relatively infrequent in African non-urban households – 15% always pay, 21% sometimes pay and 64% never pay for wood.

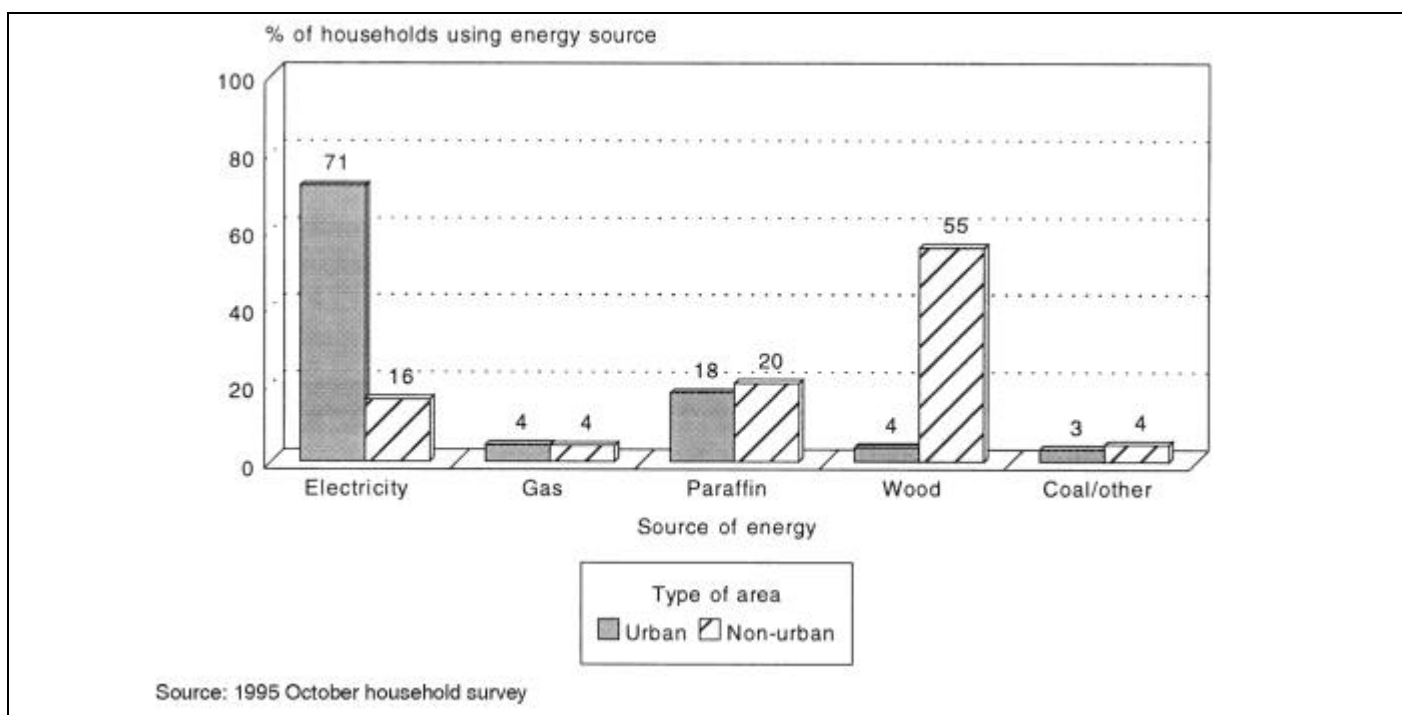


Figure 32: Source of energy for cooking in urban and non-urban African households

Water for drinking

Only 33% of African households, compared with 72% of coloured, and 97% of both Indian and white ones, have the use of running tap water inside the dwelling for drinking purposes.

Even among African households, however, the differences between urban and non-urban areas regarding type of water source used for drinking purposes are noteworthy. Figure 33 indicates that in urban areas, 56% of African households have a tap inside the dwelling, while a further 34% have a tap on site.

In non-urban areas, however, only 12% of African households have a tap inside the dwelling, and a further 21% have a tap on site. Almost one in every three (28%) African households in non-urban areas obtain water from a river, stream, dam or well, and almost one in six (16%) obtain water from a borehole.

Among African households who have to fetch water from a source which is not on site, as many as one in six (17%) travel at least one kilometre to reach the source.

Sanitation

Flush toilets inside the dwelling are found in almost all white (98%) and Indian (96%) households and in almost two-thirds (64%) of coloured ones. But only 22% of African households have flush toilets inside the dwelling. Instead, 18% of African households have a flush toilet on site, 35% have a pit latrine, and 6% have a bucket or chemical toilet on site, while 7% have access to toilet facilities off site, and 11% do not have access to any facilities.

The difference in access to sanitation among African households is again clear-cut along the urban/non-urban divide. Figure 34 indicates that 42% of urban African households have a toilet inside the dwelling, as against 5% of non-urban ones.

In non-urban areas, 67% of African households make use of a pit latrine, either on-site or off-site, while in urban areas only 9% of African households make use of this type of facility. One in every five (20%) African non-urban households has no toilet facility at all, compared to 1% of urban.

Telephones

Relatively few households in South Africa (32%) actually have a telephone inside the dwelling. While as many as 84% of white and 74% of Indian households have a telephone inside the dwelling, only 37% of coloured and 13% of African households have one.

Cellular telephones were relatively uncommon in 1995. Only 2% of households (8% of white, 4% of Indian, 1% of coloured and less than 1% of African households), had them.

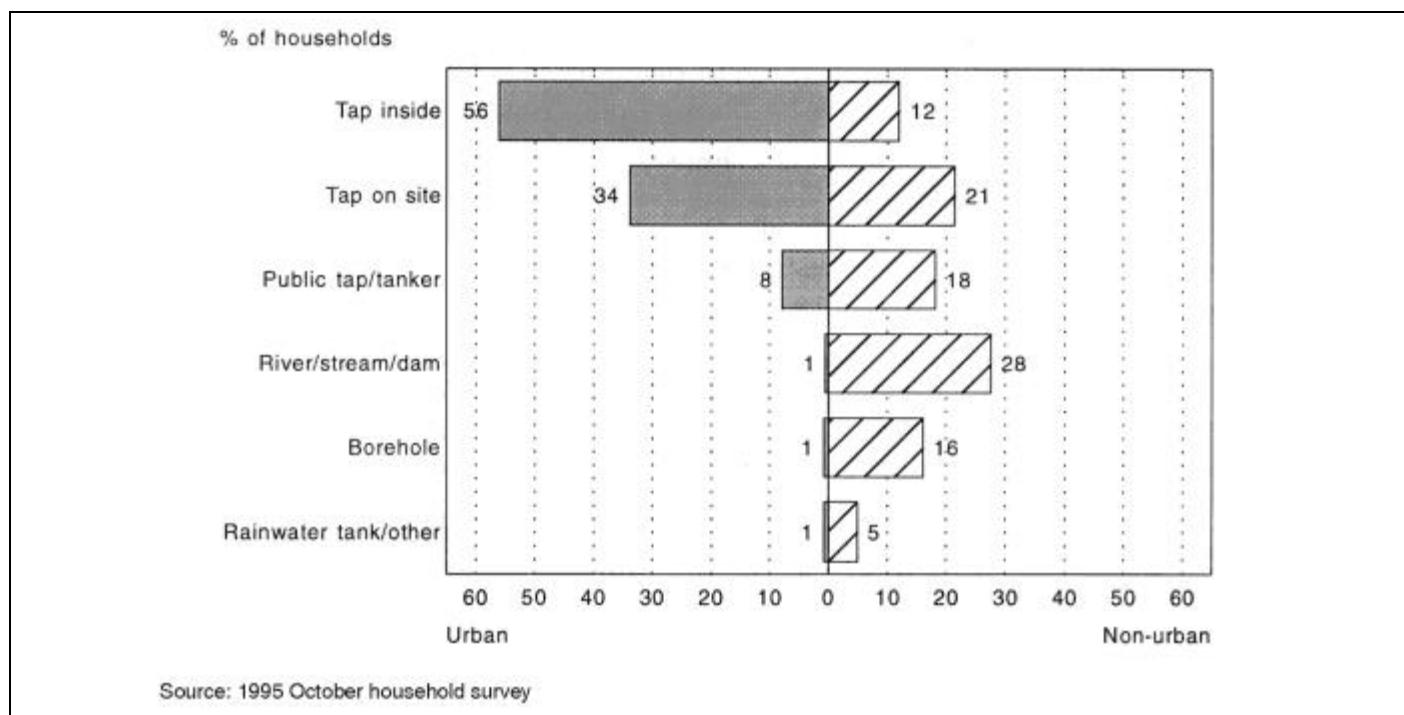


Figure 33: Where water for drinking is obtained in urban and non-urban African households

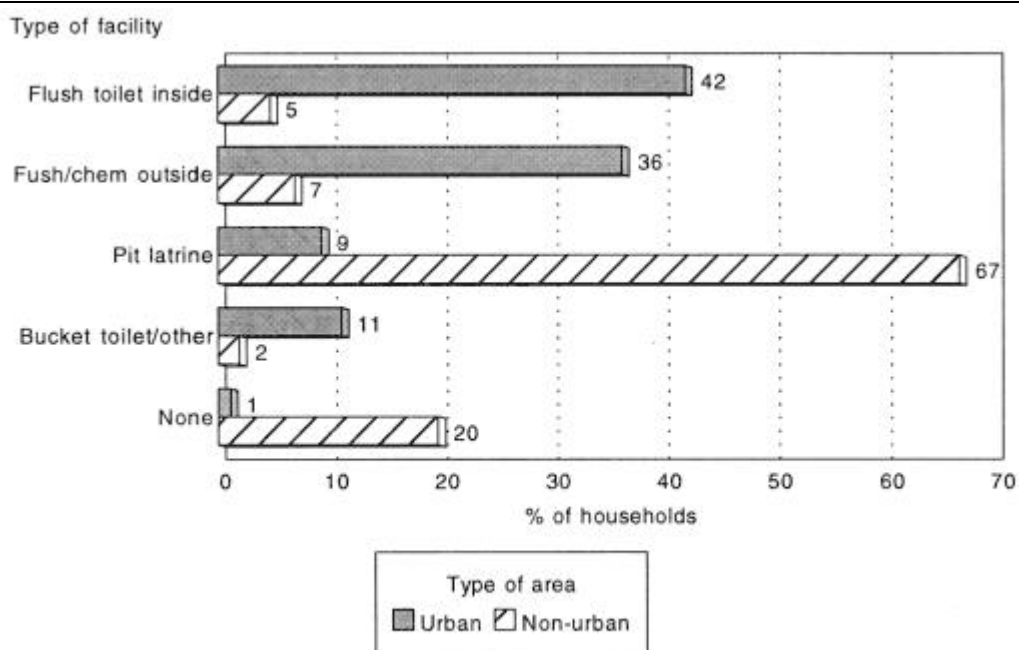


Figure 34: Type of sanitation used among African households in urban and non-urban areas

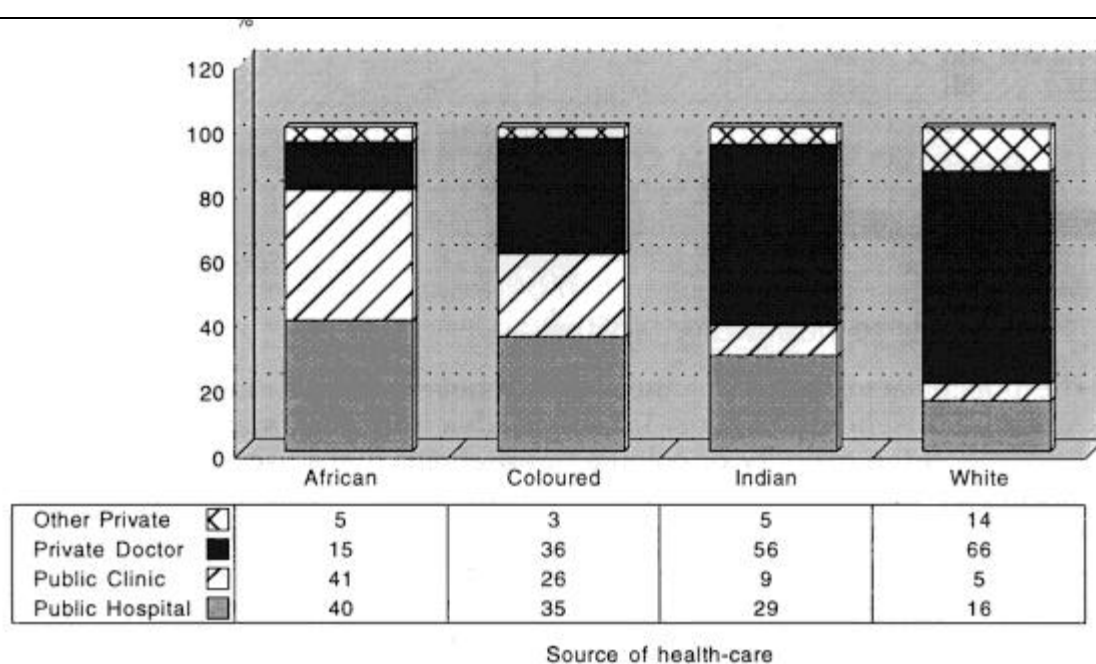


Figure 35: Source of health-care for households by race

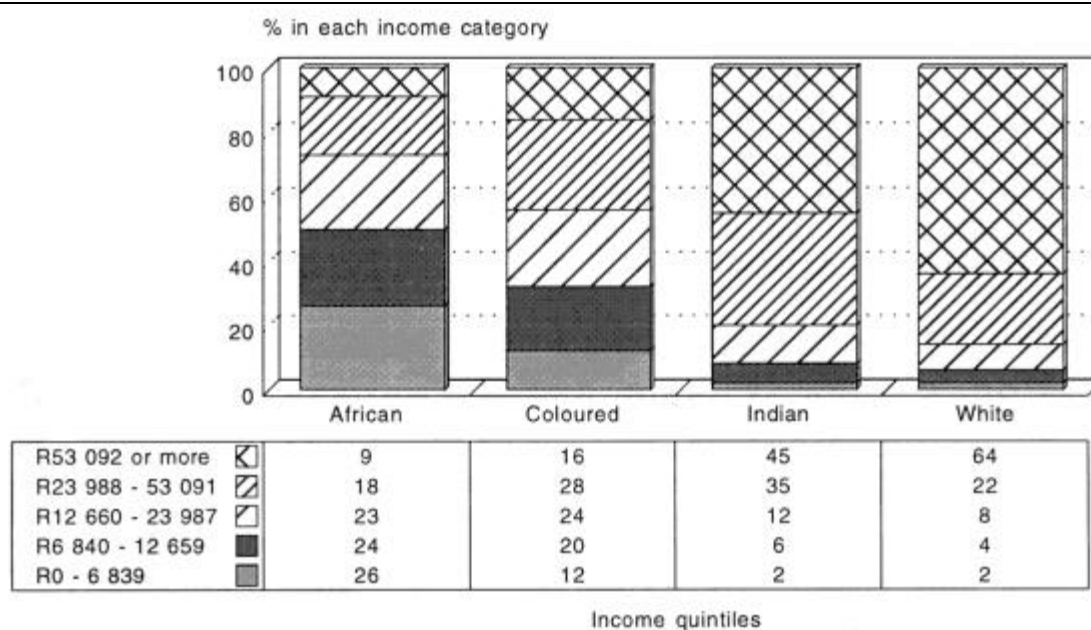
Access to health-care facilities

The public sector caters for the health requirements of most South African households. Figure 35 shows that the vast majority of African and the majority of coloured households make use of public health-care facilities when they need them, while Indian and white ones tend to use the private sector. As many as 81% of African households make use of public health-care facilities (41% go to a public clinic, and 40% to a public hospital when they need care), compared to 61% of coloured households (26% go to a public clinic and 35% go to a public hospital).

Two thirds of white households (66%), on the other hand, make use of private doctors, and a further 14% make use of other private facilities such as homeopaths and pharmacists when they require health care. Only one in five (20%) make use of public facilities.

Household incomes

The household incomes discussed in this section are based on data contained in the *Income and Expenditure Survey* (IES), not the OHS. However, the linking of the IES and the OHS data sets has made it possible to further explore the relationships between income and expenditure of households and other household variables, for example, access to piped tap water and sanitation. This will be done in additional reports to be published at a later stage. For the present, it is necessary, for a complete picture of South African living conditions and life circumstances, to point out income inequalities by race. Figure 36, which is based on a division of overall annual disposable South African household incomes into quintiles, indicates that African households tend to be the poorest in the country – 26% have incomes between R0 and R6 839 per annum, compared with only 12% of coloured, and 2% of both Indian and white households. Looking at 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.



Source: 1995 Income and Expenditure Survey

Figure 36: Percentage of households in each annual income quintile by race

There is a close correlation in the IES between income and expenditure. Therefore either income or expenditure can be used to describe the financial situation of South African households.

Feelings of safety and security

High unemployment and high levels of crime tend to go hand in hand. Members of 766 000 households had been a victim of crime in the twelve months prior to the interview in October 1995. The most common type of crime was robbery, which had occurred among members of 432 000 households (56% of all households that had experienced any crime), followed by assault, which had occurred among members of 188 000 households (25%).

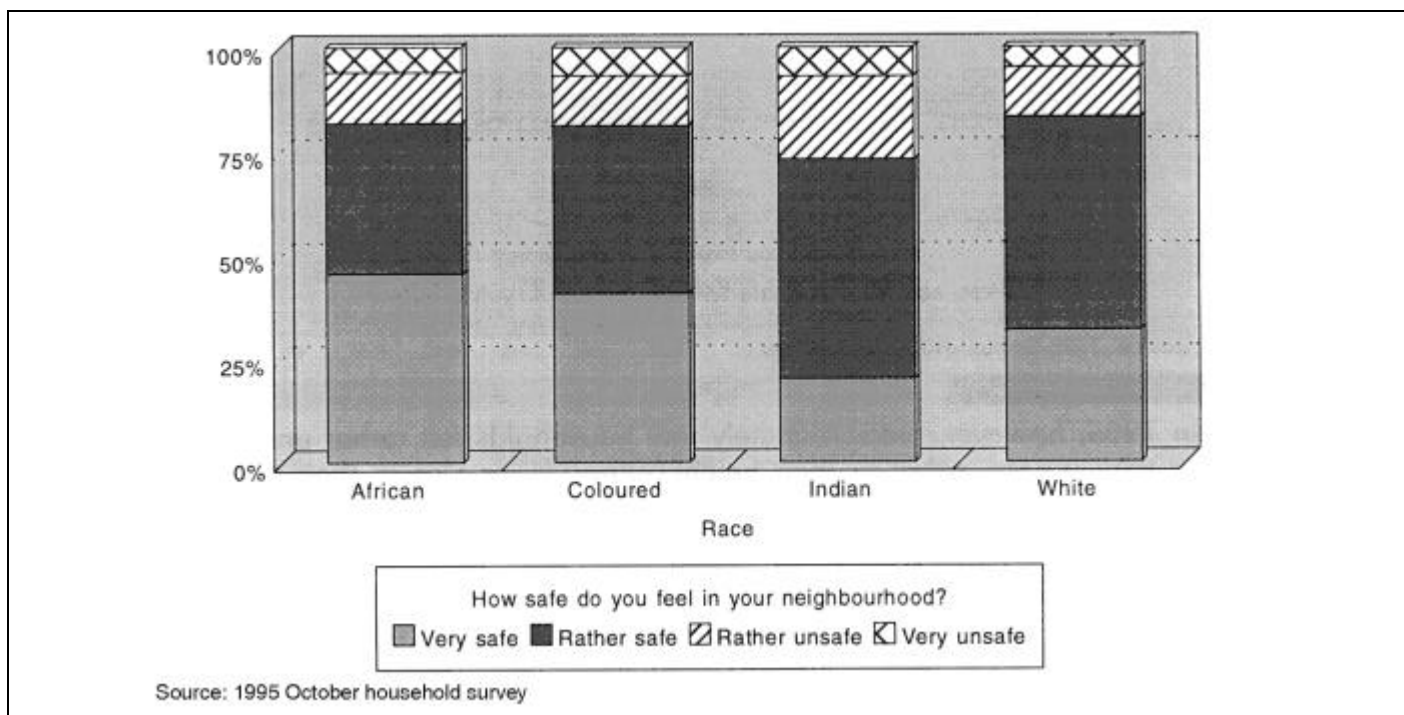


Figure 37: Feeling safe in one's neighbourhood, by race of head of household

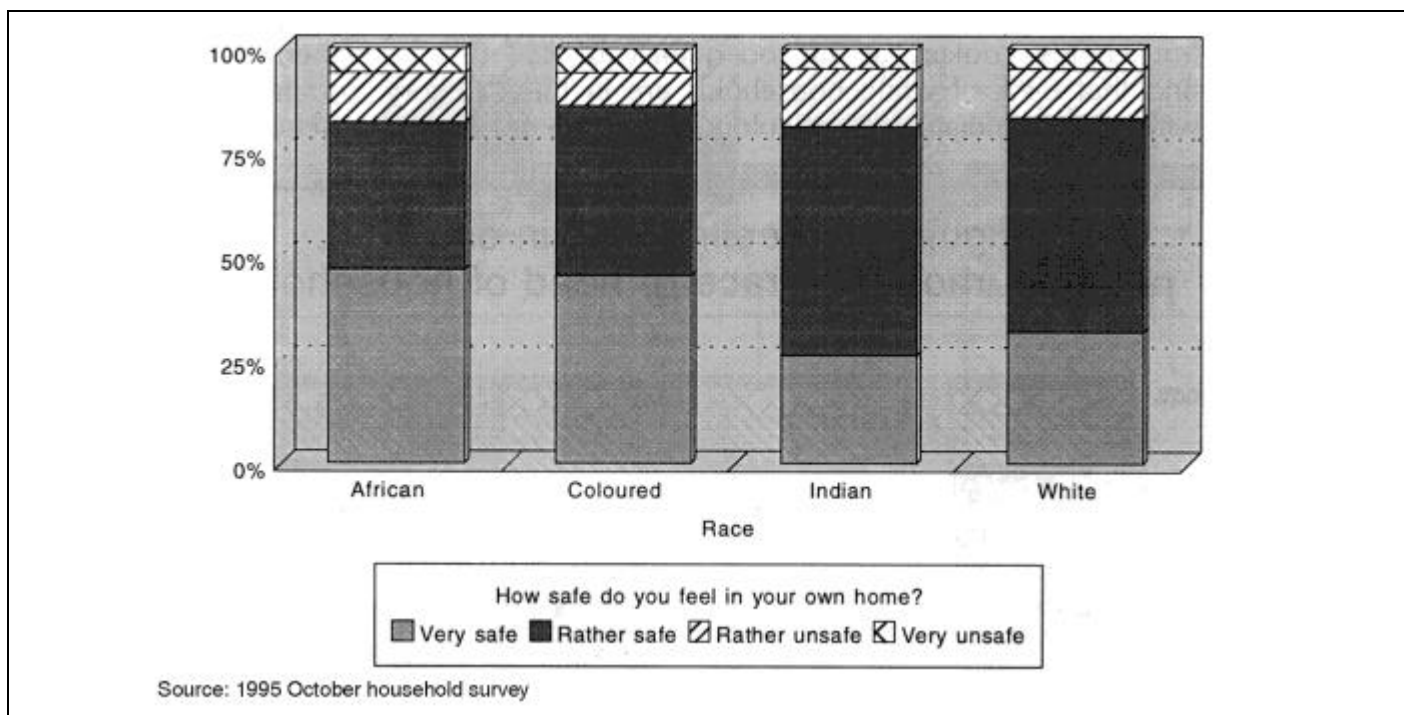


Figure 38: Feeling safe inside one's own home by race of head of household

In 1995, however, proportionately few households felt rather unsafe or very unsafe, either in their neighbourhoods, or else in their own homes, as indicated in Figures 37 and 38. On the contrary, more than three-quarters of respondents across all race groups said that members of the household felt safe.

Section 4

Disability in South Africa

Approximately one in every 20 (5%) people in the country are reported as being disabled, broken down as follows (percentages are given to one decimal place, because of the small proportions involved):

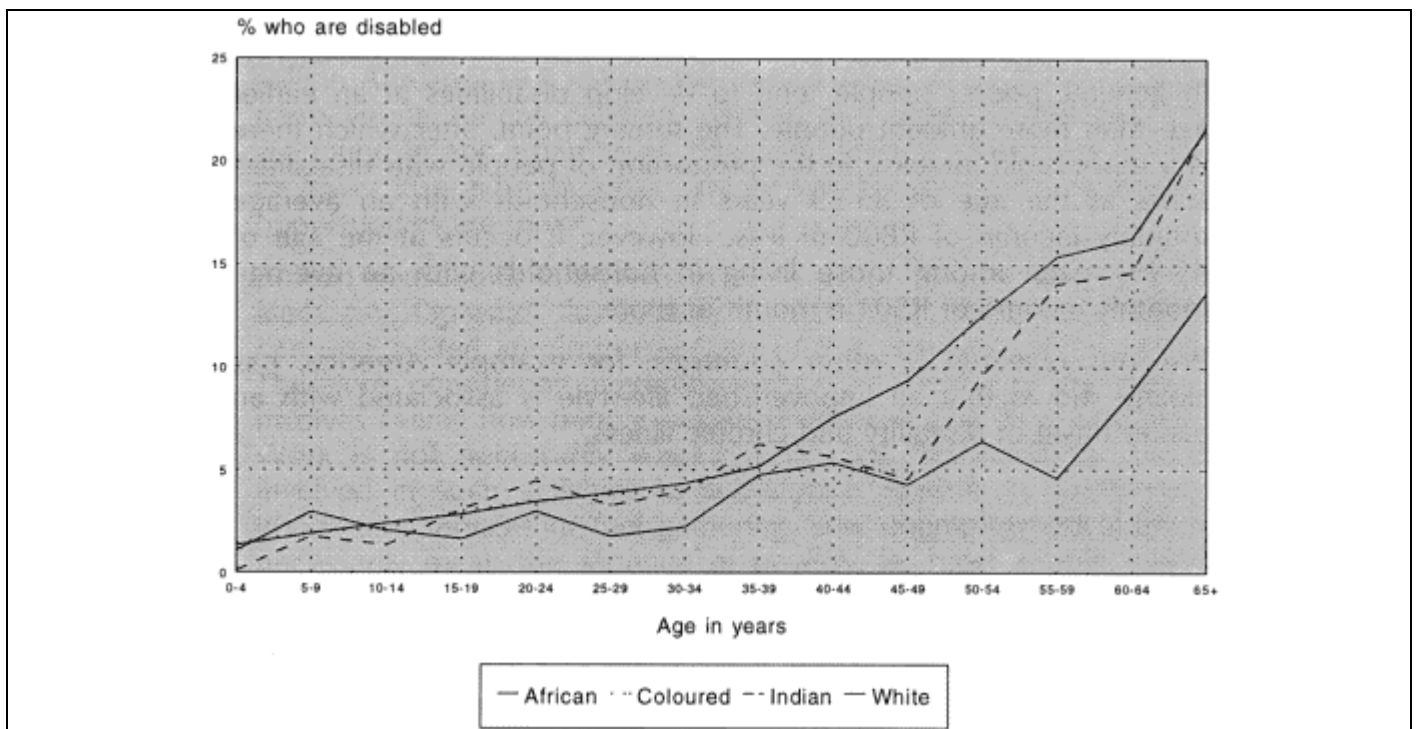


Figure 39: Disability by age and race

- 2,5% of the population have a visual disability,
- 0,7% of the population have a hearing or speech disability,
- 1,4% of the population have a physical disability,
- 0,4% of the population have a mental disability, and
- 0,3% of the population have multiple disabilities.

This 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 or non-urban areas (approximately 5% in each case) are reported as being disabled.

There is a higher proportion of disabled among older people compared to younger people. For example, only one in every 100 (1,3%) infants and pre-school children aged 0-4 years are disabled, compared to one in every five (19,6%) people aged 65 years or more.

Africans tend to develop disabilities at an earlier age than people of other population groups. Figure 39 shows that, among Africans, the proportion of disabled people increases slowly between the ages of 0 to 34 years (from 1,3% of all those aged 0-4 years to 4,4% of those

aged 30-34 years). After 35 years of age the proportion of disabled begins to rise more rapidly (from 7,6% of those aged 40-44 years to 21,6% of those aged 65 years or more).

Among coloureds, this time of change from a slow to a more rapid increase in the proportion of people who are disabled occurs approximately five years later, from 40 years, whilst among Indians, it occurs from approximately 45 years of age, and among whites, from approximately 55 years of age.

In general, poorer people tend to develop disabilities at an earlier age than more affluent people. The turning point, after which there is a more rapid increase in the proportion of people with disabilities starts at the age of 35-39 years in households with an average monthly income of R800 or less. However, it occurs at the age of 45-49 years among those living in households with an average monthly income of R801 a month or more.

Previous research in other countries, for example America, has clearly shown that an impoverished life-style is associated with an earlier onset of disability and chronic illness.

Section 5

Conclusion

There are a number of areas of South African life that have been brought into sharp focus in the 1995 OHS. These include racial and gender disparities in all 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 country, and the type of employment opportunities that are available have also been highlighted.

The 1995 OHS has shown that vast inequalities exist in the country. As these inequalities are addressed, not only racial differences, but also discrepancies in urban and non-urban life circumstances in South Africa will require careful monitoring in future. Of the 31,7 million Africans, 19,8 million live in non-urban areas. Proportionately more young African children, women and older people than men are found in non-urban areas. Education level of inhabitants tends to be lower in non-urban areas, and income-generating or employment opportunities are fewer.

African households in non-urban areas are unlikely to have access to electricity, tap water flush toilets or telephones. Fetching wood and carrying water are important non-urban life-sustaining activities. Therefore, considering unemployment in the context of development involves seeing how people sustain themselves and their households. 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. Low unemployment does not necessarily mean the absence of poverty, ie. 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%. The CSS will be required to redefine its methodology to take these alternative type of situations for survival into account.

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

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