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Social profile of vulnerable groups in South Africa

2002–2010

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Social Profile of South Africa 2002–2010 is an annual report first produced by Statistics South Africa in 2009 to analyse and explore changes in the situation of children, the youth, the elderly, women and disabled persons over time. The report uses General Household Survey (GHS) data from 2002 to 2010.

The GHS is a household survey that has been executed annually by Stats SA since 2002 in response to a need expressed by the Government of South Africa to determine the level of development in the country and the performance of programmes and projects on a regular basis. The survey was specifically designed to measure multiple facets of the living conditions of South African households, as well as the quality of service delivery in a number of key service sectors. The data therefore lends itself well to an analysis of vulnerable groups in society.

The focal areas of this study have been chosen based on the current social agenda of the Government and strategic priorities related to vulnerable groups. The report focuses on a number of broad areas within each vulnerable group, namely: household characteristics and living arrangements; vulnerability to hunger; health; poverty and social grants; economic participation; education; and finally housing and access to basic services.

Vulnerable groups discussed in this document constitute a significant proportion of the South African population and will continue to expand in absolute numbers as the population grows. Children and youth respectively comprise 40% and 37% of the total population. While the proportion of children has started to decline because of fertility declines, the proportion of youth continues to increase. Older persons comprise less than 8% of the country's population, but this group is growing rapidly. The respective population distributions by gender and population groups largely reflect the national population distribution, with the exception of older persons where white elderly comprise 20% of the population compared to the white population's share of less than 10% of the total population. The gender and population group dimensions are believed to further increase the vulnerability of these groups. The data show that 4,4% of children are double orphans, 11,6% paternal orphans, 3,5% maternal orphans and that the remaining 80,4% of children are not orphaned.

The study confirms that household structures are severely disrupted and that these groups are disproportionally affected by poverty. Children are profoundly affected by this disruption, as the data show that only one-third (33,5%) of children live with both parents, while 23,9% live with neither their parents, 3,3% live with their father, and 39,3% live with only their mother. About 7,6% of children live in skip-generation households with their grandparents. Although females head 37,5% of all households, the percentage increases with age, peaking at 54,3% for women older than 70 years. Female-headed households generally contain more dependents and have a larger average household size than male-headed households. Approximately 10% of female-headed households are skip-generation households compared to 3,2% of male-headed households. The percentage of skip-generation households is even larger among older persons (15,1%). Because of their longer life expectancy, elderly females are much less likely to be (still) married than younger females. While black African older people are more likely to live in extended households, the largest percentage of white older people reside alone, or in single generation households. Other household members rely on older people to share their social grants, and older people are increasingly called upon to take over the nurturing responsibilities that their children are unable to perform because of illness, or absence as a result of labour migration.

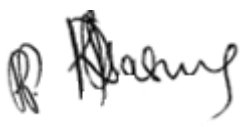
Approximately 62,1% of children live in households with a per capita income of less than R570 per month. The vast difference between population groups is illustrated by the finding that 68,4% of black African children live in-low income households, compared to only 3% of white children. Approximately 36% of children live in households without any employed members, and social grants and remittances are vital to improve the access to food and education. While 57% of youth in the age group 15–24 years live in low-income households, 42,7% of older youth (aged 25–34 years) live in low-income households. Similarly, 42,7% of households headed by youth aged 15–24 years experienced low incomes compared to 30,9% of households headed by older youth. Older youth are much more likely to engage in business (7,8% cited non-farm income as their main source of income) and to cite salary and wages as their main source of income than younger youth (71% compared to 47,7%). Female-headed households are consistently more likely to be poor. More than half (51,4%) of female-headed households are

poor compared to 29,5% of male-headed households. Almost three-quarters (73,7%) of female-headed households in Limpopo reported a low income. Older persons are less likely to live in low-income households than the population in general (40,7% compared to 51%). Access to social grants has increased notably since 2003 when the question was first asked. While 56% of children accessed social grants in 2010, 28,4% of the total population, and 68% of older persons accessed grants. Youth is not expressly targeted by any grants.

Youth aged 15–24 years are less likely to be employed than older youth. Almost half (49,3%) of households headed by younger youth do not contain any employed members compared to 20,2% of households headed by older youth. Similarly, 44,3% of female-headed households were without a single employed member compared to 23,5% of male-headed households. Economic activity decreases with age and elderly persons are less likely to be economically active or employed than their younger peers. Poverty patterns continue to be gendered and female-headed households are more likely to have low incomes, to be dependent on social grants, and less likely to have employed members. Women and female-headed households are predominantly responsible for the care of children.

The low household income observed for vulnerable groups contributes significantly to insufficient access to adequate food and increased experiences of hunger. The analysis shows that 26,7% of households without any employed members experienced hunger compared to 14% of households that contained at least one employed person. The percentage of households that are experiencing hunger has declined consistently since 2002. In 2010, 18,6% of all children resided in households that experienced hunger compared to 16,2% of the total population. Black African children are much more likely to experience hunger than white children (20,4% compared to 0,8%). The analysis shows that households which contain children, particularly child-inclusive female-headed households, are much more likely to have experienced hunger than other households. Nearly one-third (33,2%) of children had inadequate, or severely inadequate access to food. Youth in the age group 15–24 years and households headed by individuals from this age group, are more likely to report hunger than older youth or households headed by them. A larger percentage of elderly-headed households reported hunger than households headed by individuals aged 18–59 years (15,2% compared to 12,6%). The report found that the elderly's likelihood of living in households that experienced hunger increases with the size of the household, and more particularly, the number of additional dependents with whom they share their resources. It therefore makes sense that a larger percentage of households containing children (28,7%) engaged in agriculture than households without children (13,8%) and the South African population in general (22%). Households in Limpopo, Eastern Cape and Mpumalanga are most likely to engage in agriculture.

Access to education has improved consistently since 2002, and school attendance is virtually universal between the ages of 6 and 14 years, after which children rapidly start to drop out of educational institutions. Equitable access to education for boys and girls has been achieved in both the primary, as well as secondary school phases, but the report questions the poor conversion of educational attendance into the completion of the secondary school phase, entry into higher education and completion of post-school qualifications. Black Africans, and to a lesser extent coloured people, continue to lag behind other population groups in this regard. The largest percentage of the children (28,2%) and youth aged 15–24 years (36,8%) who dropped out of educational institutions, cited 'no money for fees' as main reason. A noticeably larger percentage of females (13%) than males (0,6%) cited 'family commitment'. By the age of 22, 56,6% of youth are neither attending any educational institution, nor working, while 28,7% are working and 14,7% are still attending an educational institution. The youth is at risk of becoming unemployable and falling into chronic systemic poverty.



Mr. Pali Lehohla
Statistician-General: Statistics South Africa

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Acronyms

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CDG	Care Dependency Grant
CSG	Child Support Grant
ECD	Early Childhood Development
EPWP	Expanded Public Works Programme
FCG	Foster Care Grant
FET	Further Education and Training
GHS	General Household Survey
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HSRC	Human Sciences Research Council
NEET	Not in Employment, Education or Training
UN	United Nations
WHO	World Health Organization

Definitions of terms

Acting household head is any member of the household acting on behalf of the head of the household.

Age specific enrolment ration refers to the percentage of the population of a specific age that are enrolled, irrespective of education.

Child is a person under the age of 18 years

Child Support Grant is a government grant received on behalf of a child of a specific age as determined by legislation, in underprivileged families.

Child-headed households are households headed by a child and that contains only children.

Complex households consist of all households in which one or more non-related individuals are considered members of the household.

Double orphans are children whose biological parents have passed away.

Economically active person is a person of working age who is available to work, and is either employed, or is unemployed but has taken active steps to find work in reference period.

Educational attendance refers to enrolment at and going regularly to any accredited educational institution (public or private) for organised learning at any level of education.

Electricity for cooking, heating and/or lighting refers to electricity from the public supplier.

Extended households are households that typically include other relatives in addition to the nucleuss.

Formal dwelling *is* a structure built according to approved plans, i.e. house on a separate stand, flat or apartment, townhouse, room in backyard, rooms or flatlet elsewhere. This is contrasted with *informal dwelling* and *traditional dwelling.*

Functional literacy refers to individuals that have attained at least a Grade 7 qualification.

Grade refers to that part of an educational programme which a learner may complete in one school year, or any other educational programme which the member of the Executive Council may deem equivalent thereto.

Grant is financial assistance provided by government

Higher education refers to all learning programmes leading to qualifications higher than Grade 12 or its equivalent in terms on the National Qualifications Framework as contemplated in the South African Qualifications Authority Ac, 1995 (Act No. 58 of 1995), including tertiary education as contemplated in schedule 4 of the Constitution.

Highest level of education refers to the highest grade completed at school or the highest post-school qualification obtained. Synonymous with educational attainment.

Household head is the main decision-maker, or the person who owns or rents the dwelling, or the person who is the main breadwinner.

Household income refers to receipts by all household members of a household, in cash and in kind, in exchange for employment, or in return for capital investment, or receipts obtained from other sources such as pensions etc.

Household is a group of persons who live together and provide themselves jointly with food and/or other essentials for living, or a single person who lives alone.

> **Note:** The persons basically occupy a common dwelling unit (or part of it) for at least four nights in a week on average during the past four weeks prior to the survey interview, sharing resources as a unit. Other explanatory phrases can be 'eating from the same pot' and 'cook and eat together'.
>
> Persons who occupy the same dwelling unit but do not share food or other essentials, are regarded as separate households. For example, people who share a dwelling unit, but buy food separately, and generally provide for themselves separately, are regarded as separate households within the same dwelling unit. Conversely, a household may occupy more than one structure.
>
> If persons on a plot, stand or yard eat together, but sleep in separate structures (e.g. a room at the back of the house for single young male members of a family), all these persons should be regarded as one household.

Hygienic toilet facility refers to flush toilet, chemical toilet or pit latrine with ventilation pipe.

Informal dwelling is a makeshift structure not erected according to approved architectural plans, for example *shack*s or shanties in *informal settlement*s or in backyards

Living together as a married couple is where two people who live together in the same household as a married couple but who are not married to each other: a cohabiting couple

Marital status refers to the personal status of each individual in relations to the marriage laws or customs of a country.

Marriage is the act, ceremony of process by which the legal relationship of husband and wife is constituted.

Maternal orphans are children whose mothers have passed away, but whose fathers are still alive.

Multiple households occur when two or more households live in the same dwelling unit.

> **Note:** If there are two or more households in the selected dwelling unit and they do not share resources, all households are to be interviewed. The whole dwelling unit has been given one chance of selection and all households located there were interviewed using separate questionnaires.

Non-orphans are children whose biological parents are alive.

Not economically active persons are persons that are not available for work, such as full-time scholars and students, full-time homemakers, those who are retired and those who are unable or unwilling to work.

Nuclear households are households consisting of heads of households, and/or their spouses and/or offspring.

Old-age grant refers to financial assistance provided by the government to elderly people who comply with the means test.

Older persons are individuals over the age of 60 years.

Orphans are children whose mother, father or both biological parents have died.

Paternal orphans are children whose fathers have passed away, but whose mothers are still alive.

Piped water in dwelling or on site is piped water inside the household's own dwelling or in their yard. It excludes water from a neighbour's tap or a public tap that is not on site.

Poor or low income household (for the purposes of this report) refers to households that earn less than R570 per month per capita.

Poverty threshold is drawn at a particular level of income or consumption. For the purposes of this document the threshold is established at R570 per capita income per month.

Relationship to the head of acting head of the household refers to relationships through blood, marriage, adoption or other circumstances.

Separated refers to a situation where a married couple have parted without divorcing, thus allowing for reuniting if they wish at some time in the future.

Single refers to a person who is not married or cohabiting.

Traditional dwelling is a dwelling/hut/structure made of traditional materials.

Widowed refers to the marital status of a person whose spouse has died and who has not married again.

Youth refers to young persons between the ages of 14 and 24 or 34 or as specified in the specific analysis.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Since 1994, the South African Government has increasingly adopted a social agenda, channelling a significant amount of effort and resources towards identifying vulnerable groups in society, crafting legislation that would protect their interests and develop and implement programmes and strategies to support them. Today, the vulnerabilities of children, the youth, the elderly, women and the disabled are still inextricably linked to harsh apartheid-era legislation, aimed at subjugating black South Africans and further exacerbated by systemic poverty and inequality which continues to manifest itself along a racial divide.

Even though many programmes aimed at improving the well-being of vulnerable groups have been implemented during the past 17 years, less effort has been put into establishing the extent to which service delivery has had an impact on the situation of these vulnerable groups over time. This report is produced by the Social Statistics division and uses General Household Survey data from 2002 to 2010 to analyse and explore changes in the situation of children, the youth, the elderly and women over time.

Although people with disabilities are perhaps the most vulnerable group, a proposed chapter on disability was not included because inconsistent findings were noticed when comparing the GHS 2009 and 2010 data. Statistics South Africa introduced a new set of disability questions in 2009 and their effectiveness is still being evaluated. The inclusion of disability data will once again be reconsidered once additional disability data from GHS 2011 becomes available.

1.2 Rationale

The focal areas of this study have been chosen based on the current social agenda of the Government and strategic priorities related to vulnerable groups. The Department of Social Development has been the main driver in the implementation of social policy. However, the Government's social agenda and its intention to protect and develop the human potential of vulnerable groups, were given more impetus by the establishment of the Department for Women, Children and Persons with Disabilities when the current administration came into power.

The legislative framework of South Africa is rooted in the Constitution (Act No. 108 of 1996) and encapsulated in the Bill of Rights, which affords all South Africans certain basic socio-economic rights such as the right to have access to healthcare services; social security; sufficient food and water; adequate housing and a safe environment. Over and above these rights, additional protection afforded to children includes the right to basic nutrition, shelter, basic healthcare services, social services and protection from abuse and neglect. Black African children continue to be indirectly affected by the poverty and unequal education opportunities their parents have suffered, but they currently also have the biggest opportunity to eradicate many of these problems. One of the major tools aimed at directly improving the lot of children, is the Social Assistance Act, No. 13 of 2004, which provides a safety net for children living in poverty through the Child Support Grant (CSG), Foster Care Grant (FCG) and Care Dependency Grant (CDG). The Children's Act (Act No. 38 of 2005, as amended by the Children's Amendment Act, Act No. 41 of 2007) sets out principles related to the care and protection of children. Some of the most important principles include early childhood development and compulsory education. The National Health Act, No. 6 of 2003, ensures access to free primary healthcare, and in particular free healthcare to pregnant women and children younger than six years old.

The age cohort 15–34 years (youth) comprises 37% of the total population (Statistics South Africa, 2011) and this cohort has been growing faster than the population as a whole because of declining fertility levels. This shift presents an opportunity, also referred to as the demographic 'dividend' (Bloom, Canning, Sevilla, 2002; Ross, 2004), which enables governments to channel investments previously channelled towards children into investment in general economic development, and more specifically, improved healthcare. All of these measures are ultimately aimed at strengthening the workforce and generate more and better employment opportunities. Currently, young people represent a major focal point of policymakers, mainly because of their potential to be a major resource for national development. Another consideration may also be that they have the potential to

create social upheaval, unless their needs are adequately addressed. Currently, the National Youth Policy 2009–2014 governs work related to the youth. This policy relies on information of the particular needs and circumstances of the country's youth to address identified gaps and challenges (National Youth Policy, 2009:5–6) and relies on the National Youth Commission Act, No. 19 of 1996, the White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997; the National Youth Policy, 2000; the National Youth Development Policy Framework, 2000–2007; and the Draft National Youth Policy, 2008–2013 for its implementation.

South Africa is one of the most rapidly ageing populations in Africa, and there has been a considerable increase in the absolute and relative numbers of older people in South Africa. Despite having special needs, older people continue to play a crucial socio-economic and nurturing role. This is particularly true in the black African community, where they act as caretakers of grandchildren and are often the primary source of income to poor households through old-age grants (May, 2008; Eckley, in Lombard and Kruger, 2009: 126). Currently, this non-contributory, means-tested old-age grant forms the primary support mechanism provided by the Government to older persons. Since the current age cut-off for this grant is 60 years, the elderly have, for the purposes of this study, been defined as individuals aged 60 years and older. The White Paper on Social Welfare (1997) addresses the constitutional mandate to protect the human rights of older people by removing all forms of racial discrimination and by addressing inequality in government-funded services. The Older Persons' Act, No. 13 of 2006, aims to establish a framework to empower and protect older persons and to maintain and promote their status, rights, well-being, safety and security.

Since the 1970s, the empowerment of women has increasingly been incorporated into national development agendas. In South Africa, the Constitution (Act No. 108 of 1996) enshrines equal rights for men and women. During the past decade, various quota systems and equity mechanisms, aimed at measuring the levels of participation of women in the economy and decision-making have been introduced. Government's growing commitment towards equity, as well as the provision of development opportunities for these three vulnerable groups, was further underscored by the establishment of the Department of Women, Children and People with Disabilities in May 2009. In addition to this, four of the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that South Africa has committed itself to, are directly related to gender. The country also made a number of key international, regional and subregional commitments aimed at promoting gender equality, such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the Beijing Platform for Action and the South African Development Countries (SADC) protocol on Gender and Development.

All these policies and strategies and legislative frameworks are aimed at reducing vulnerability and promoting development in the groups they target. However, not much work has been done to assess their suitability and the impact they have on vulnerable groups.

1.3 Methodology

This study used the GHS 2002–2010 data series as indicated in the objectives. Even though there were some variations in sampling methodologies over time, a multi-stage design with probability proportional to size selection of primary sampling units (PSUs) at the first stage, and sampling of dwelling units (DUs) with systematic sampling at the second stage. After allocating the sample to the provinces, the sample was further stratified by geography (primary stratification), and by population attributes using the Census 2001 data (secondary stratification). Survey officers employed and trained by Stats SA visited all the sampled dwelling units in each of the nine provinces. During the first phase of the survey, sampled dwelling units were visited and informed about the coming survey as part of the publicity campaign. The actual interviews took place four weeks later. A total of 30 000 households were interviewed during consecutive years using face-to-face interviews. Between 2002 and 2008, data collection took place over a period of two weeks in July of each year. Since GHS 2009, data collection has been spread over three months during the period July to August of each year. As a result of the sample size and stratification design, data can only be aggregated down to provincial level. Data for the whole series, as presented in this release, were therefore comparable, and the comparative analysis made was based on the premise that all samples were representative of the population of South Africa at the time when the survey was conducted.

More details related to the sampling and fieldwork methodology can be found in the GHS reports and metadata (2002–2010).

Stats SA revised the population model to produce mid-year population estimates during 2008 in the light of the findings of the Community Survey 2007 and new HIV/AIDS and mortality data. The new data have been used to adjust the benchmarking for all previous datasets. Weighting and benchmarking were also adjusted for the provincial boundaries that came into effect in December 2006. The data for the GHS 2002 to GHS 2010,as presented in this release, are therefore comparable.

As a result of new statistical programs used for weighting, which discard records with unspecified values for the benchmarking variables, namely age, sex and population group, it became necessary to impute missing values for these variables. A combination of logical and hot-deck imputation methods was used to impute the demographic variables of the whole series from 2002 to 2010.

As with the 2009 report, household estimates that were developed using the UN headship ratio methodology were used to weight household files. The databases of Census 1996, Census 2001, Community Survey 2007, Labour Force Survey 2003, Labour Force Survey 2005, and Quarterly Labour Force Survey (Quarter 3) of 2009 were used to analyse trends and develop models to predict the number of households for each year. The weighting system was based on tables for the expected distribution of household heads for specific age categories per population group and province. Missing values and unknown values were excluded from totals used as denominators for the calculation of percentages, unless otherwise specified. Frequency values have been rounded off to the nearest thousand. Population totals in all tables reflect the population and subpopulations as calculated with SAS and rounded off. This will not always correspond exactly with the sum of the preceding rows, because all numbers are rounded off to the nearest thousand.

SAS 9.0 and SAS Enterprise Guide were used for the data analysis. Unspecified values (item non-response) were excluded from the totals that were used to calculate percentages.

1.4 Limitations of the data

The study is based on secondary data that have been collected as part of the GHS between 2002 and 2010, and did not include questions specific to vulnerable groups beyond the general socio-economic indicators measured by the questionnaire. The data also have some limitations; being sourced from a general survey, none of the content areas is measured in great detail. Measures of employment estimated from the GHS are, for example, rough estimates, rather than the detailed and precise measures that can be provided by the Quarterly Labour Force Survey. Certain aspects, for example household income, were estimated for only the second time in 2010, although there were certain provisions and conditions attached to it. Other concepts, such as disability, were measured differently since 2009 in order to align the question better with international standards. This, therefore, precluded an analysis of changes over time, resulting in a focus on 2009 in this report. Throughout the report, these limitations are highlighted and the process of data interrogation has inevitably identified areas where the GHS questionnaire can be improved for future use.

The sample design of the GHS is based on a sample of dwellings and the sampling frame excludes institutions such as student hostels, old-age homes and hospitals, but includes workers' hostels and retirement villages. This is an important factor to bear in mind when considering the chapter on the elderly, as a number of them live in old-age homes. Members of vulnerable groups living on the street, i.e. the homeless, were also not included in the samples.

2. SOCIAL PROFILE OF CHILDREN 2002–2010

2.1 Introduction

The status of South Africa's children is a litmus test of the extent to which the country has managed to address the stark effects of apartheid over the past decades. The majority of children's lives continue to be disrupted by socio-economic inequalities that were shaped long before they were born; inequalities that are perpetuated even today by continued poverty and unemployment. The vast majority of children continue to live in poverty and are faced with considerable inequalities that continue to inhibit their access to better life opportunities, enhanced educational levels and improved health outcomes.

South Africa is committed to the progressive realisation of children's rights and a broad range of laws, policies and programmes have been introduced to achieve this. The Bill of Rights affords all South Africans certain basic socio-economic rights; the rights to have access to health care services; social security; sufficient food and water, adequate housing as well as the right to live in a safe environment. Over and above these rights, additional protection of children includes the right to basic nutrition, shelter, basic health care services, social services and protection from abuse and neglect. Some laws have major implications for children.

The Social Assistance Act addresses social security by regulating access to social grants for children living in poverty. Although seven types of grants are provided for, the Child Support Grant (CSG), Foster Care Grant (FCG) and Care Dependency Grant (CDG) accounted for 38% of the total grant expenditure during 2007/08. The CSG accounted for 31% of all expenditure on its own and is widely recognized for improving children's access to food, education and basic services (Presidency, 2009: 5; Hall, 2010: 107). Initially the CSG was first made available to children aged 0–6 years in 1998, but was slowly extended to children under 15 years in 2009. An amendment to the Social Assistance Act in 2009 removed the CSG age restriction and made it accessible to caregivers of children born after 31 December 1993, while at the same time prolonging their eligibility until the age of 18 years (Hall, 2010: 107).

The Children's Act (Act No. 38 of 2005, as amended by the Children's Amendment Act No. 41 of 2007) sets out principles relating to the care and protection of children. The Act recognises the role of Early Childhood Development (ECD) for children's growth and their preparation for formal education. School enrolment is compulsory for children between the ages of 7 and 15 years, or between Grades 1 to 9, whichever is reached first. Although South Africa has almost achieved universal access to basic education and gender parity, the number of children who have never been in school, or who have dropped out remains a problem (Presidency, 2009).

The National Health Act ensures access to free primary health care, particularly for pregnant women and children under the age of six. Inadequate household food security poses serious challenges to children's health and a variety of policy initiatives are used to address the underlying causes. These initiatives include the provision of social grants, the National School Nutrition Programme, and the Integrated Food Security and Nutrition Programme (Hendricks, 2009). Although small-scale agricultural production is often proposed as an alternative livelihood strategy, a study of the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) (Altman, Hart and Jacobs, 2009) found that households producing their own food are not necessarily more food secure.

The health and social welfare of children is as much influenced by their access to housing and basic amenities as it is influenced by their access to health care services. The basic right of access to water is guaranteed by the Water Services Act enacted through free basic water allocation of at least six kilolitres of drinkable water per month per household (Presidency, 2009:13). The provision of basic amenities is closely related to children's housing conditions. Children in informal dwellings are much less likely to have access to basic services such as water and sanitation, and far more likely to live in areas that are far from school and major transport routes, hence jeopardising both their health and school attendance (Presidency, 2009: 20). A range of subsidy instruments is provided to address the housing backlog.

Government’s efforts to protect and develop the human potential of the country’s children are spearheaded by the relatively new Department for Women, Children and Persons with Disabilities.

2.2 Demography of children

Children, defined by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa as 'individuals under the age of 18 years', comprise 40% of the country's population. According to Table 2.1, black African children constitute 84,8% of all children; the largest group in all provinces, except for Western Cape where 57,9% of children are classified as coloured.

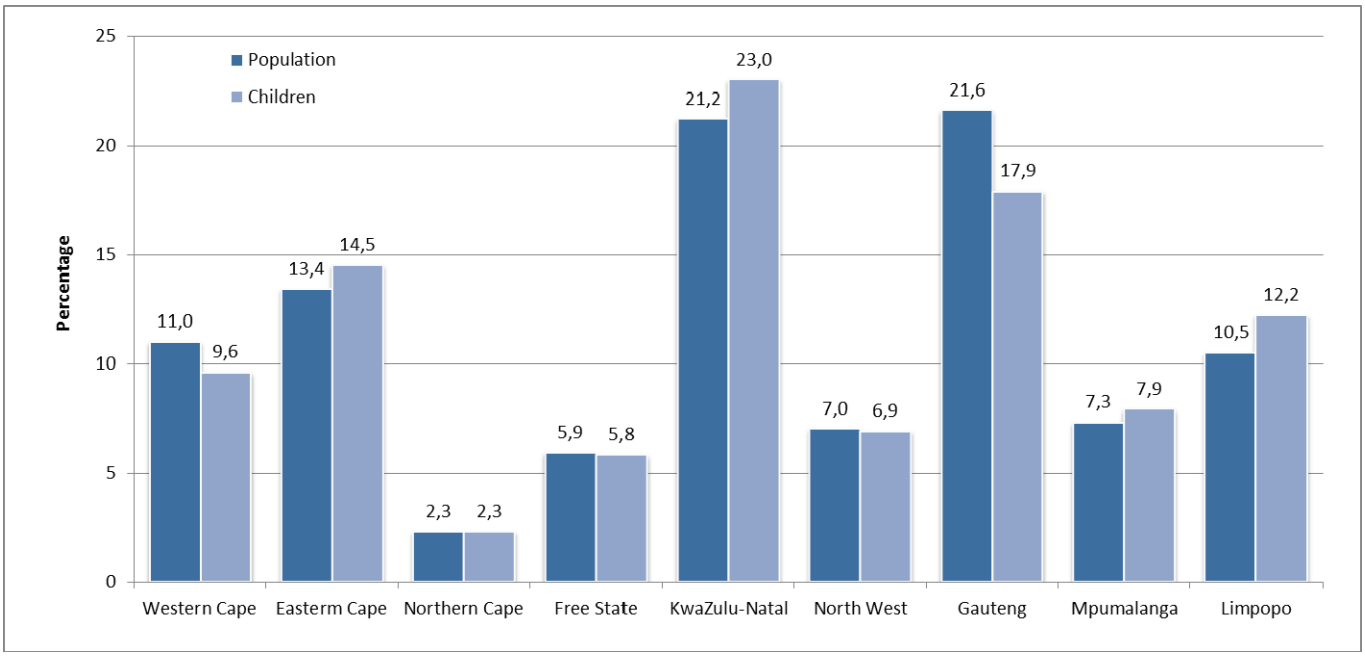
Table 2.1: Distribution of children by population group and province, 2010

	Population group (percentage)				Per cent	Total (thousands)
Province	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White		
Western Cape	33,0	57,9	0,6	8,6	100,0	1 771
Eastern Cape	93,5	4,2	0,3	2,0	100,0	2 684
Northern Cape	61,7	34,1	0,2	4,0	100,0	430
Free State	91,6	2,6	0,3	5,5	100,0	1 071
KwaZulu-Natal	91,9	0,6	5,2	2,4	100,0	4 267
North West	93,4	1,4	0,1	5,1	100,0	1 276
Gauteng	80,1	3,3	3,0	13,6	100,0	3 310
Mpumalanga	94,2	1,0	0,9	3,9	100,0	1 460
Limpopo	98,9	0,1	0,1	0,9	100,0	2 258
South Africa	**84,8**	**8,0**	**1,9**	**5,3**	**100,0**	**18 527**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

According to Figure 2.1, more than four-tenths of the children in South Africa resided in the two most populous provinces, namely KwaZulu-Natal (23,0%) and Gauteng (17,9%). Only 2,3% of children resided in Northern Cape, the least populous province. Whereas the percentage of children in KwaZulu-Natal , Eastern Cape, Mpumalanga and Limpopo exceeds their respective shares of the population, the opposite is true for particularly Gauteng and Western Cape.

Figure 2.1: Provincial distribution of children and the South African population, 2010



The percentage of orphaned and non-orphaned children living in South Africa during 2010 by province and population group is presented in Tables 2.2 and 2.3. An orphan is defined as 'a child whose mother, father or both biological parents have died'. Children whose mothers have passed away, but whose fathers are still alive are defined as 'maternal orphans' while 'paternal orphans' refers to the death of only the father. When both biological parents have passed away, a child is defined as a 'double orphan'.

According to Table 2.2 just under one fifth (19,6%) of all children in South Africa, representing approximately 3,6 million individuals, are orphaned. The largest percentage of orphans are found in KwaZulu-Natal (26,9%) followed by Eastern Cape (24,7%) and Free State (21,9%). Less than 10% of children in Western Cape are classified as orphans. When compared to the racial distribution of children, black African children are significantly more likely to be orphaned than children from any other population group. More than one fifth (22%) of black African children are classified as orphans compared to the 9,6% coloured, 4,2% Indian/Asian and 2,5% white children. Meintjies and Hall (2009: 102) ascribe the large percentage of paternal orphans to higher male mortality rates, together with the frequent absence of fathers. This argument is supported by the large percentage of paternal orphans in three provinces that are generally considered to be migration-sending provinces, namely: KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape and Limpopo.

Table 2.2: Percentage of orphans by orhanhood status, province and population group, 2010

Category	Province	Orphanhood status (percentage)					
		Maternal	Paternal	Double	Not orphaned	Per cent	Total (thousands)
Province	Western Cape	1,7	6,3	1,1	90,9	100,0	1 753
	Eastern Cape	4,3	14,3	6,1	75,4	100,0	2 635
	Northern Cape	3,8	9,6	3,4	83,3	100,0	426
	Free State	3,9	11,6	6,4	78,1	100,0	1 041
	KwaZulu-Natal	5,2	15,2	6,5	73,2	100,0	4 224
	North West	3,4	9,2	4,2	83,2	100,0	1 215
	Gauteng	2,1	9,1	2,6	86,2	100,0	3 256
	Mpumalanga	4,5	11,0	5,0	79,5	100,0	1 440
	Limpopo	2,2	12,1	2,8	83,0	100,0	2 193
Population group	Black African	3,9	13,0	5,1	78,0	100,0	15 389
	Coloured	2,5	6,2	0,9	90,4	100,0	1 467
	Indian/Asian	0,6	2,7	0,9	95,8	100,0	356
	White	0,2	2,2	0,1	97,5	100,0	971
South Africa		**3,5**	**11,7**	**4,4**	**80,4**	**100,0**	**18 182**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

These percentages are reinforced by the figures presented in Table 2.3. The largest percentage of maternal, paternal and double orphans is located in KwaZulu-Natal, followed by Eastern Cape and Gauteng. Approximately 40% of children who are not orphaned reside in KwaZulu-Natal (21,1%) and Gauteng (19,2%).

Table 2.3: Percentage distribution of orphans by province, 2010

	Orphanhood status (percentage)			
Province	Maternal	Paternal	Double	Not Orphaned
Western Cape	4,7	5,2	2,4	10,9
Eastern Cape	17,7	17,7	20,0	13,6
Northern Cape	2,5	1,9	1,8	2,4
Free State	6,3	5,7	8,4	5,6
KwaZulu-Natal	34,2	30,2	34,1	21,1
North West	6,4	5,3	6,3	6,9
Gauteng	10,7	14,0	10,5	19,2
Mpumalanga	10,1	7,5	9,0	7,8
Limpopo	7,5	12,5	7,6	12,5
Per cent	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**
Total (thousands)	**644**	**2 120**	**800**	**14 618**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

The deterioration of South African family structures as a result of labour migration and poverty has led to many children not growing up with their biological parents. This is indicated in Table 2.4. While only one third (33,5%) of

children consistently lived with both their parents, about 39% lived with only their mothers. Less than 4% of children lived exclusively with their fathers. Almost one quarter of all children (23,9%) lived with neither of their biological parents.

The percentage of children living with both parents is the highest in Western Cape (54,1%) and Gauteng (50,4%) and lowest in Eastern Cape (22,1%) and Limpopo (25,3%). The percentage of children living with neither their biological parents is the highest in Eastern Cape (34,1%), followed by KwaZulu-Natal (29%) and Limpopo (26,9%). The pattern varies substantially by race. While more than one quarter (26,7%) of black African children live with neither their biological parents, only 5,8% Indian/Asian and 3,1% of white children live with neither their biological parents. The extent to which particularly African families have been disrupted, is further accentuated by the observation that only 28% of black African children live with both parents, compared to the 50,8% for coloured, 80,9% for Indian/Asian and 77,5% for white children.

Table 2.4: Percentage of children living with only their mothers, only their fathers, with both their parents, or with neither their parents by province and population group, 2010

		Parental living arrangements (percentage)					
	Province	Mother	Father	Both	Neither	Per cent	Total (thousands)
Province	Western Cape	31,9	3,5	54,1	10,6	**100,0**	**1 708**
	Eastern Cape	40,8	3,0	22,1	34,1	**100,0**	**2 641**
	Northern Cape	41,1	2,9	31,1	25,0	**100,0**	**415**
	Free State	39,1	3,1	33,2	24,5	**100,0**	**1 039**
	KwaZulu-Natal	40,5	4,7	25,9	29,0	**100,0**	**4 125**
	North West	39,3	3,0	31,5	26,3	**100,0**	**1 250**
	Gauteng	34,4	3,0	50,4	12,2	**100,0**	**3 160**
	Mpumalanga	42,0	4,0	29,5	24,6	**100,0**	**1 422**
	Limpopo	46,4	1,4	25,3	26,9	**100,0**	**2 193**
Population group	African	41,9	3,3	28,0	26,7	**100,0**	**15 235**
	Coloured	34,0	3,4	50,8	11,8	**100,0**	**1 417**
	Indian	11,2	2,1	80,9	5,8	**100,0**	**342**
	White	16,1	3,3	77,5	3,1	**100,0**	**958**
South Africa		**39,3**	**3,3**	**33,5**	**23,9**	**100,0**	**17 952**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

2.3 Child-headed households

Although approximately one fifth of all children in South Africa are orphaned, and about 4,4% are double orphans, the low percentage of children living in child headed households (Table 2.5) suggests that orphaned children are probably absorbed into existing households. Child-headed households, otherwise known as child-only households, are defined as households that comprise only individuals aged 18 years or younger.

Between 2002 and 2010 the percentage of children living in child-headed households has consistently remained below 1% of all children as their numbers fluctuated between 95 000 and 157 000. Table 2.5 shows that approximately 0,5% (100,000) of children lived in child-headed households in 2010. Absolute numbers should, however, be approached with caution as they are derived from percentages which are in turn based on mid-year estimates with additional uncertainty.

Table 2.5: Percentage of children living in child-headed households by province, 2002–2010

Province	Year (percentage)								
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Western Cape	0,0	0,1	0,1	0,1	1,2	0,1	0,1	0,0	0,0
Eastern Cape	1,7	0,9	0,9	1,0	1,0	1,2	1,1	0,4	0,8
Northern Cape	0,1	0,1	0,2	0,9	0,3	0,2	0,1	0,2	0,3
Free State	0,7	0,9	0,5	0,6	0,4	0,8	0,4	0,3	0,4
KwaZulu-Natal	0,4	0,8	0,6	0,4	1,0	0,8	0,3	0,6	0,6
North West	0,2	0,3	0,2	0,8	0,2	0,4	0,8	0,3	0,1
Gauteng	0,2	0,2	0,1	0,2	0,0	0,2	0,3	0,2	0,1
Mpumalanga	0,5	0,8	0,7	0,9	0,6	0,7	1,1	0,8	0,8
Limpopo	1,4	0,9	1,1	1,6	1,6	2,4	1,6	1,9	1,2
South Africa	**0,7**	**0,6**	**0,6**	**0,7**	**0,8**	**0,8**	**0,6**	**0,6**	**0,5**
Total (thousands)	**128**	**105**	**95**	**123**	**146**	**157**	**120**	**103**	**99**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

Table 2.6 presents information on child-headed households. The percentage of child-headed households has similarly lingered between 0,5% and 0,7% of all households, comprising approximately 81 000 households in 2010. Limpopo and Eastern Cape have the highest percentage of child headed households. Data should, however, be treated with care as extremely low sample sizes could lead to significant variation.

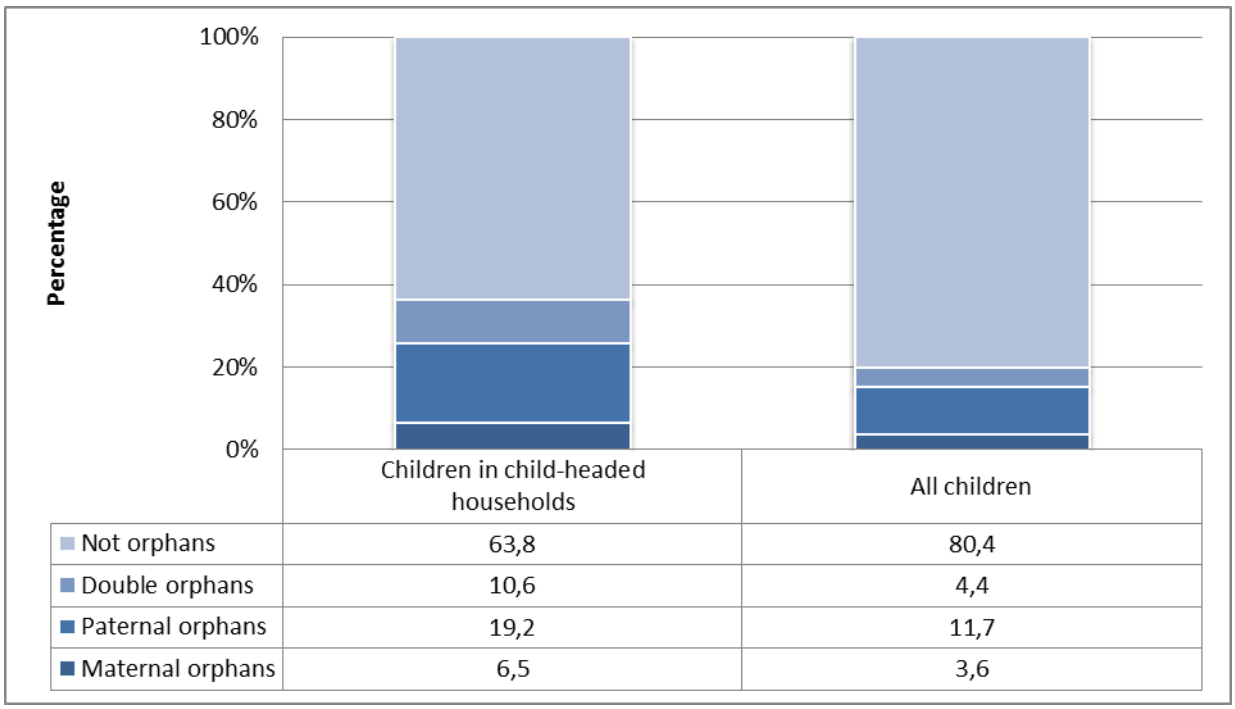
Table 2.6: Percentage of child headed households by province, 2002–2010

Province	Year (percentage)								
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Western Cape	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,0	0,0
Eastern Cape	1,8	1,6	1,1	1,0	1,2	1,4	1,2	0,4	1,0
Northern Cape	0,3	0,2	0,3	0,3	0,4	0,3	0,1	0,3	0,4
Free State	0,8	0,6	0,7	0,9	0,4	0,5	0,4	0,4	0,5
KwaZulu-Natal	0,5	0,5	0,6	0,5	0,9	0,8	0,4	0,5	0,7
North West	0,3	0,8	0,7	0,5	0,2	0,3	0,5	0,2	0,1
Gauteng	0,2	0,1	0,1	0,2	0,0	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1
Mpumalanga	0,5	0,4	0,6	1,0	0,7	0,7	0,9	0,8	0,8
Limpopo	2,0	1,8	2,3	1,9	1,7	2,4	2,0	1,9	1,8
South Africa	0,7	0,6	0,6	0,6	0,6	0,7	0,6	0,5	0,6
Total (Thousands)	**77**	**72**	**76**	**78**	**75**	**91**	**77**	**64**	**81**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

Although a larger percentage of children in child-headed households is orphaned compared to children of the general population, it is interesting to note that only approximately one tenth of those children are double orphans; in 63,8% of the cases the parents are still alive (Figure 2.2). The majority of children living in child-headed households are not orphans at all; they have at least one parent who is alive.

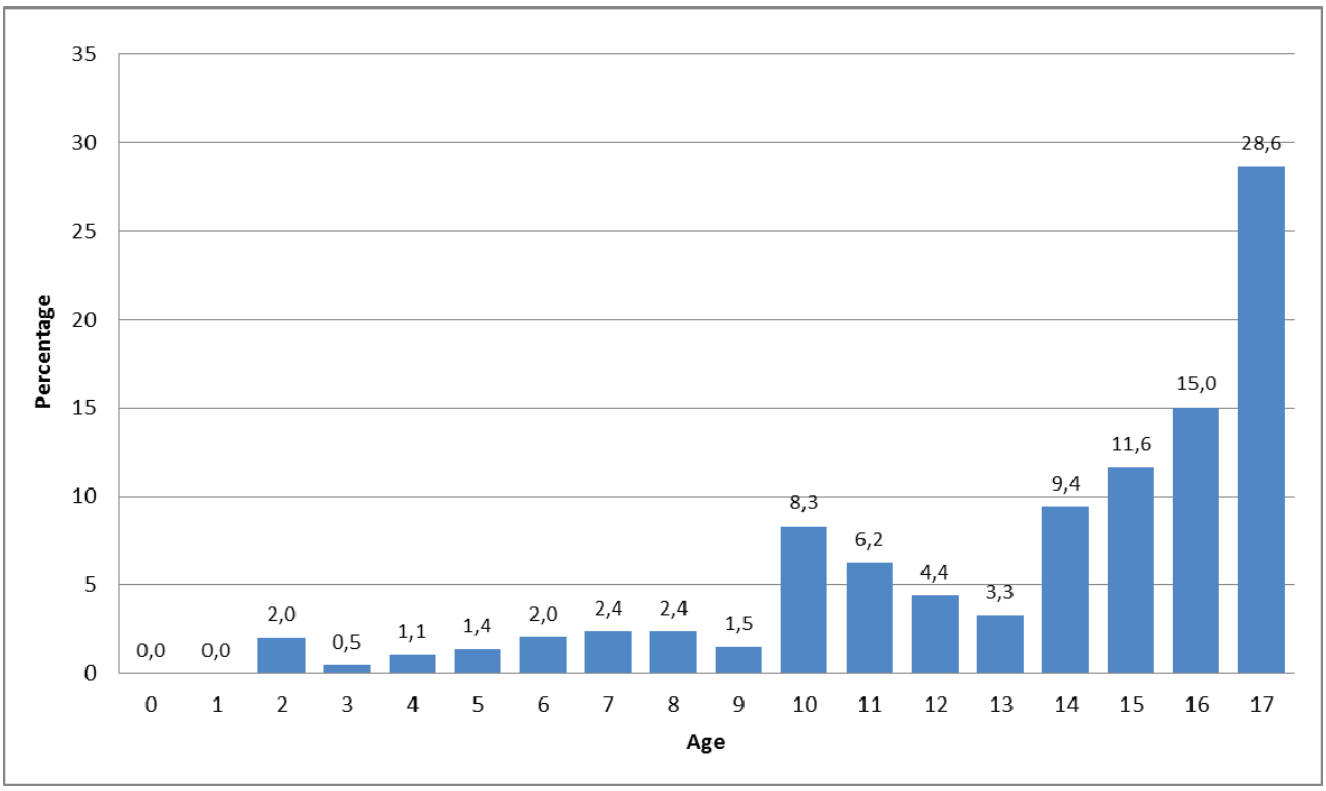
Figure 2.2: Orphanhood status of children living in child-headed households compared to all children, 2010



	Children in child-headed households	All children
Not orphans	63,8	80,4
Double orphans	10,6	4,4
Paternal orphans	19,2	11,7
Maternal orphans	6,5	3,6

Figure 2.3 suggests that more than two-thirds (64,6%) of children in child-headed households are older than 14 years, while almost one third (28,6%) are at least 17 years old.

Figure 2.3: Age distribution of children in child headed households, 2010

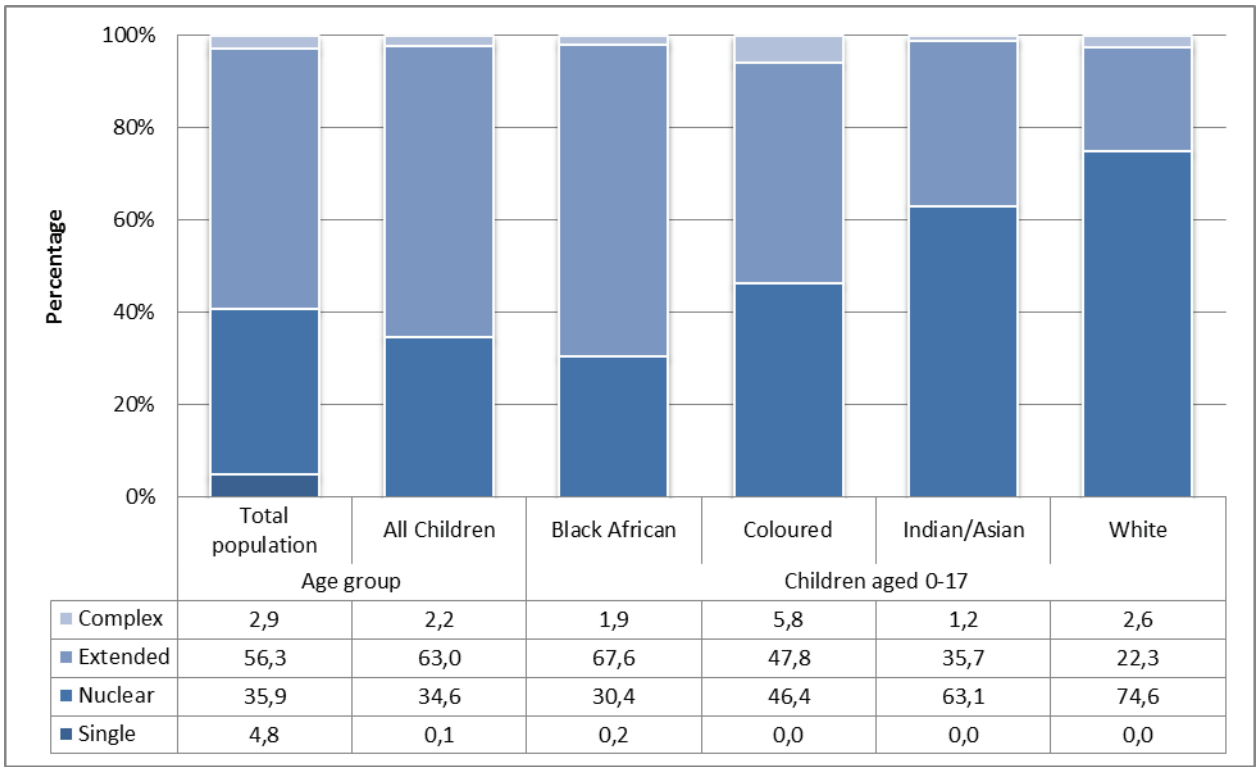


2.4 Household characteristics

Households' living arrangements are influenced by aspects such as politics, access to housing, health, education and socio-economic amenities. One could therefore expect the household structure to correspond to changes in the aforementioned conditions. Households can be categorized according to a number of typologies. One such typology (Amoateng, Heaton and Kalule-Sabiti, 2007) categorises households into single-person, nuclear, extended and complex households. Nuclear households are defined as households consisting of household heads, their spouses and offspring, while the extended household would typically include other relatives in addition to the nucleus. Complex households are households with members who are not related to the household head.

According to Amoateng et al (2007: 56) respectively 40% and 36% of all households were classified as either nuclear or extended, based on the 2001 Census. It is clear from Figure 2.4 that more than half of South Africans and 63% of South African children live in extended households while approximately 35% of children live in nuclear households. The pattern, however, varies by population group. A much larger percentage of Indian and white children live in nuclear families than black African and coloured children. While 30,4% of black African children live in nuclear households compared to 67,6% in extended households, almost three quarters (74,6%) of white children live in nuclear households compared to only 22,3% in extended households.

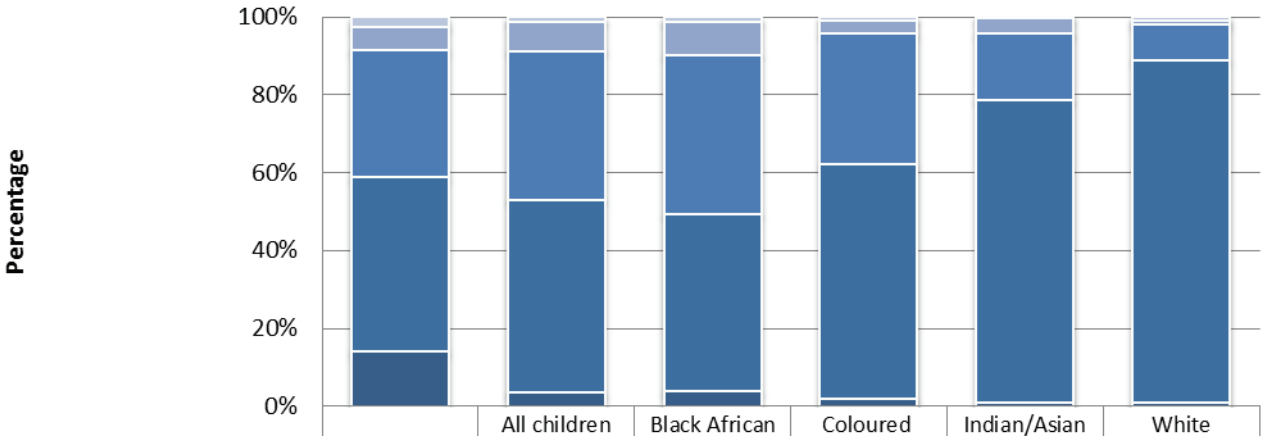
Figure 2.4: Percentage of children living in different household types by population group, 2010



	Total population	All Children	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White
	Age group		Children aged 0-17			
Complex	2,9	2,2	1,9	5,8	1,2	2,6
Extended	56,3	63,0	67,6	47,8	35,7	22,3
Nuclear	35,9	34,6	30,4	46,4	63,1	74,6
Single	4,8	0,1	0,2	0,0	0,0	0,0

The living arrangements of children are explored further in Figure 2.5 in terms of their distribution among intergenerational households. As expected the vast majority (49,6%) of children live in households of two generations (i.e. their parents or guardians), while 38,2% live in households that contain three or more generations. Approximately 8% of children live in skip-generation households with their grandparents. A significant variation is observed between population groups, as Indian/Asian and white children are much more likely to live in two-generation households than black African and coloured children. Almost 4% of black African children live in single-generation households with their siblings who might already be adults, or in some instances still be children, making it a child-headed household.

Figure 2.5: Percentage of children living in different types of intergenerational households by population group, 2010



	Total population	Children				
		All children	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White
Other	2,5	1,2	1,3	1,0	0,3	0,8
Skip generation	6,2	7,6	8,5	3,3	4,1	1,3
Three and more generations	32,6	38,2	41,0	33,5	16,9	9,0
Two generations	44,7	49,6	45,5	60,2	77,8	88,1
Single generation	14,1	3,4	3,8	1,9	0,9	0,8

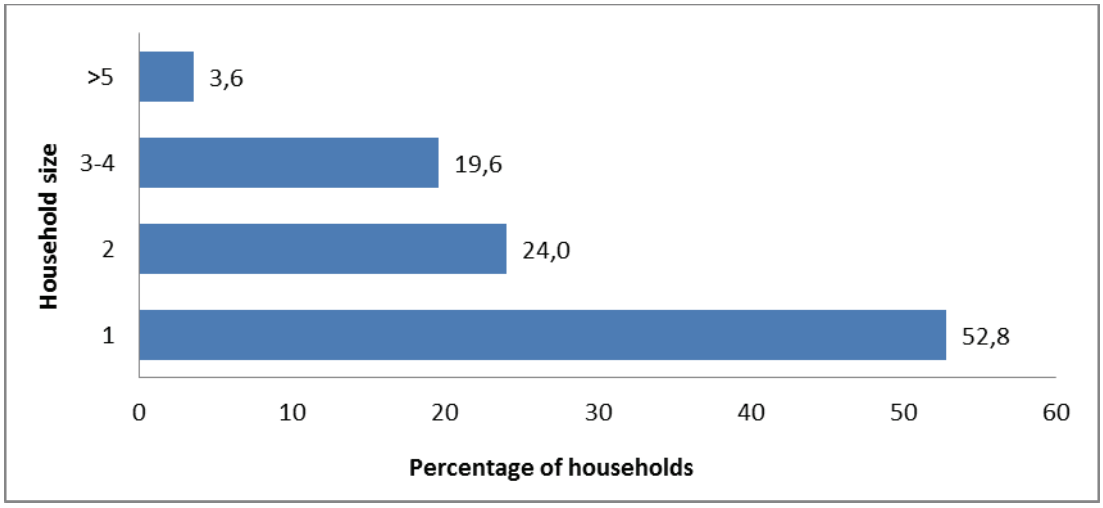
Although children in child headed households are known to be more vulnerable to poor living conditions than children in mixed generation households, children in mixed generation households who suffer similar burdens of poverty and inadequate service delivery might be compromised by an excessive focus on child-headed households. Hence it is important to consider the conditions of children across a wider range of households than child headed households only. For this reason, Table 2.7 also presents information on mixed-generation households in general, as well as mixed-generation households with male and female heads in addition to child headed households.

The **mean size** of South African households has been declining very gradually, if not somewhat unevenly from 3,7 in 2002 to 3,5 in 2010. The decline is also noticeable for the somewhat larger mixed-generation households, irrespective of whether they are male or female-headed, where the average household size declined from 5,1 to 4,9 persons per household between 2002 and 2010. Child-headed households are on average substantially smaller than mixed-generation households and its mean household size has remained relatively constant at around two children per household between 2002 and 2010. This trend is further reinforced by Figure 2.6, which shows that almost three-quarters (76,8%) of child-headed households comprised two members or less, while more than half (52,8%) of all child-headed households comprised just one member.

Table 2.7 : Household characteristics by different types of households, 2002–2010

Age	Indicator	Year								
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Mean household size										
Child headed household	Average	2,1	2,0	1,9	1,8	2,0	1,8	1,8	1,9	1,8
Households with children		5,1	5,0	5,0	5,0	4,9	4,9	4,9	4,9	4,9
Female headed with children		5,2	5,1	5,0	5,0	4,9	4,9	5,0	4,9	5,0
Male headed with children		5,1	5,0	4,9	4,9	4,8	4,9	4,8	4,8	4,9
All households		3,7	3,6	3,5	3,5	3,4	3,4	3,6	3,5	3,5
Female ratio										
Child headed household	% Female	0,432	0,382	0,405	0,503	0,470	0,414	0,430	0,420	0,389
All households with children		0,543	0,542	0,543	0,545	0,547	0,548	0,545	0,550	0,547
Total dependency ratio										
Male headed with children	Average ratio	1,007	0,988	0,977	0,972	0,954	0,956	0,951	0,955	0,962
Female headed with children		1,356	1,351	1,319	1,326	1,305	1,319	1,285	1,306	1,279
All households with children		1,142	1,129	1,113	1,112	1,094	1,101	1,084	1,096	1,091
Old age dependency ratio										
Male headed with children	Average ratio	0,098	0,098	0,101	0,097	0,094	0,095	0,101	0,102	0,105
Female headed with children		0,129	0,132	0,128	0,129	0,122	0,128	0,124	0,126	0,125
All households with children		0,110	0,111	0,111	0,110	0,105	0,108	0,110	0,112	0,113
Child dependency ratio										
Male headed with children	Average ratio	0,909	0,890	0,877	0,875	0,859	0,862	0,850	0,853	0,858
Female headed with children		1,227	1,219	1,191	1,198	1,183	1,191	1,161	1,180	1,153
All households with children		1,032	1,018	1,001	1,002	0,988	0,993	0,974	0,984	0,978

Figure 2.6 : Percentage distribution of child headed households by household size, 2010



Mixed-generation households generally contain a slightly larger proportion of females than males, while child-headed households largely comprise boys.

The **age dependency ratio** is commonly used to measure the socio-economic impact of the dependent-age population (defined here as children under the age of 18 years and older persons above the age of 60 years) to the adult working-age population aged 18 to 59 years. It is important to note that the age dependency ratio is a measure of age composition rather than economic dependency.

As expected, the presence of children under the age of 18 years increases the number of age-dependents in the population and therefore amplifies the total dependency ratio for households. It is clear from Table 2.7 that the total dependency ratio for male and female headed mixed generation households has declined between 2002 and 2010. While the ratio has dropped under one for male headed households, the ratio remains above 1,28 for female headed households.

The **old age dependency ratio** expresses the ratio of household members above 60 years of age to household members aged 18 to 59 years, often considered to be the economically active household members. The ratio has varied somewhat over time but has remained rather stable over the period 2002 to 2010. The highest age dependency ratio is observed in female headed mixed generation households with a ratio of 0,125 compared to 0,105 for male headed households.

The **child dependency ratio** represents the ratio of the population under the age of 18 years to household members aged 18 to 59 years. Since children comprise the majority of age dependents in households that contains children, the child dependency ratios follow an almost identical though lower trajectory than the general age dependency ratios. The burden of dependency is highest for female-headed mixed-generation households and lowest for male-headed mixed-generation households.

2.5 Income, poverty, economic activity and social grants

Households rely on a variety of income sources, such as salaries and wages from resident members, remittances from absent members and social grants. The main sources of income for child-headed households between 2002 and 2010 are presented in the Table 2.8. Child-headed households have consistently listed remittances as their main source of income between 2002 and 2010. This is in line with a finding by Foster (2004) that children in child headed households are often supported by relatives. Salaries and/or wages were identified as the second most important source of income between 2002 and 2009, before being replaced by social grants in 2010. Just over 1% of all child-headed households indicated a complete lack of income during 2010, compared to 3,7% in 2002.

Table 2.8: Main source of income for child headed households, 2002–2010

	Year (percentage)								
Sources of income	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**
Salaries and/or wages	8,6	8,8	15,8	12,4	9,2	14,0	9,9	5,1	6,8
Remittances	84,1	84,5	79,4	70,9	78,2	79,1	78,8	82,8	77,4
Social Grants	1,5	0,6	1,3	5,7	7,9	2,0	4,2	3,9	12,2
Sales of farm products	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,8	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Other non farm income	2,1	0,0	1,9	2,5	0,5	2,6	0,5	5,8	2,4
No income	3,7	6,1	1,5	8,4	3,5	2,4	6,6	2,5	1,2
Per cent	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**
Total (thousands)	**75**	**72**	**74**	**77**	**73**	**89**	**72**	**102**	**81**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

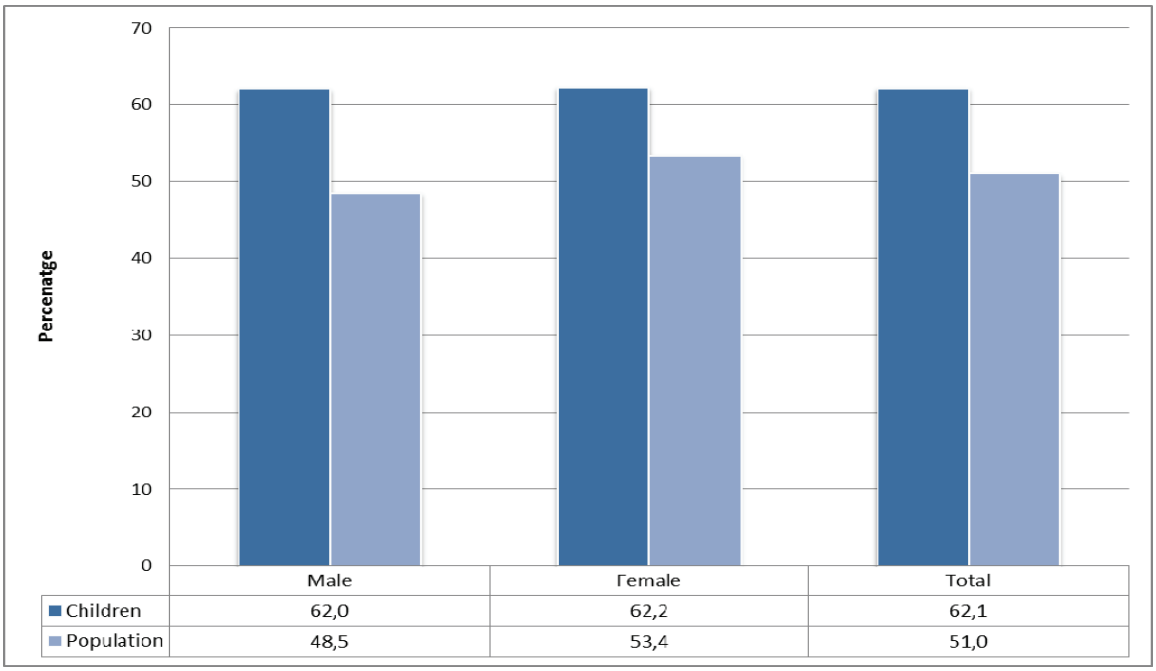
The GHS provides estimates of income earned from employment, government transfers through social grants as well as remittances. Although data on other sources such as rent, dividends and interest are more difficult to obtain, the 2010 questionnaire asked for income from private pensions. This is a great improvement, since the 2009 questionnaire failed to inquire about the amount of income pensioners earned from private pensions in addition to other sources of income. Great care is taken to improve income data, but figures should be treated with caution as the literature (Casale and Desmond, 2007) suggests that high earners often tend to diminish their income while in-kind payments are often disregarded in the case of lower earning households.

The percentage of children living in low per capita income households is established by using a poverty threshold that was proposed by Statistics South Africa (2007). The "upper-bound" threshold, which provides for essential food and non-food consumption, was set at R322 per capita per month in 2000 prices. Statistics South Africa (2007) provides a detailed overview of the determination. When increased with inflation the threshold is equivalent to R570 in 2010. This amount is merely used to identify low income households and should not be considered an official poverty line. An official poverty line based on household expenditure will be published during 2012. Using GHS data, per capita income is calculated by adding all reported income for the household, including remittances, social grants and income from private pensions, and then dividing the sum by the number of household members. The 2010 adjusted poverty threshold is used to determine the number of children living above and below it, hence providing an indication of the extent to which children are lagging behind in welfare terms and how their access to education, health care and nutrition might be negatively affected.

Children are disproportionately affected by poverty. While approximately half (51%) of all South Africans live in households that fall below this threshold, nearly two-thirds (62,1%) of children lived in such households (Table 2.7). It is interesting to note that females are slightly more likely to live in low-income households than males. The comparable figure for children is almost indistinguishable (62,0% for males compared to 62,2% for females).

The percentage of children that live in households that fall below the low-income threshold by province is presented in Figure 2.8. More than 70% of children living in Limpopo (77,9%), Eastern Cape (73,4%) and KwaZulu-Natal (71,1%) live in households that fall below the poverty threshold. These provinces display strong rural characteristics and contain one or more of the independent homelands that were created in the seventies. The percentage of poor children is much smaller in the relatively prosperous and more urbanised provinces like Western Cape (36%) and Gauteng (42,6%).

Figure 2.7: Percentage of children compared to the general population living in low income households, 2010



	Male	Female	Total
Children	62,0	62,2	62,1
Population	48,5	53,4	51,0

Figure 2.8: Percentage of children living in households with a per capita income of less than R570 per person per month by province, 2010

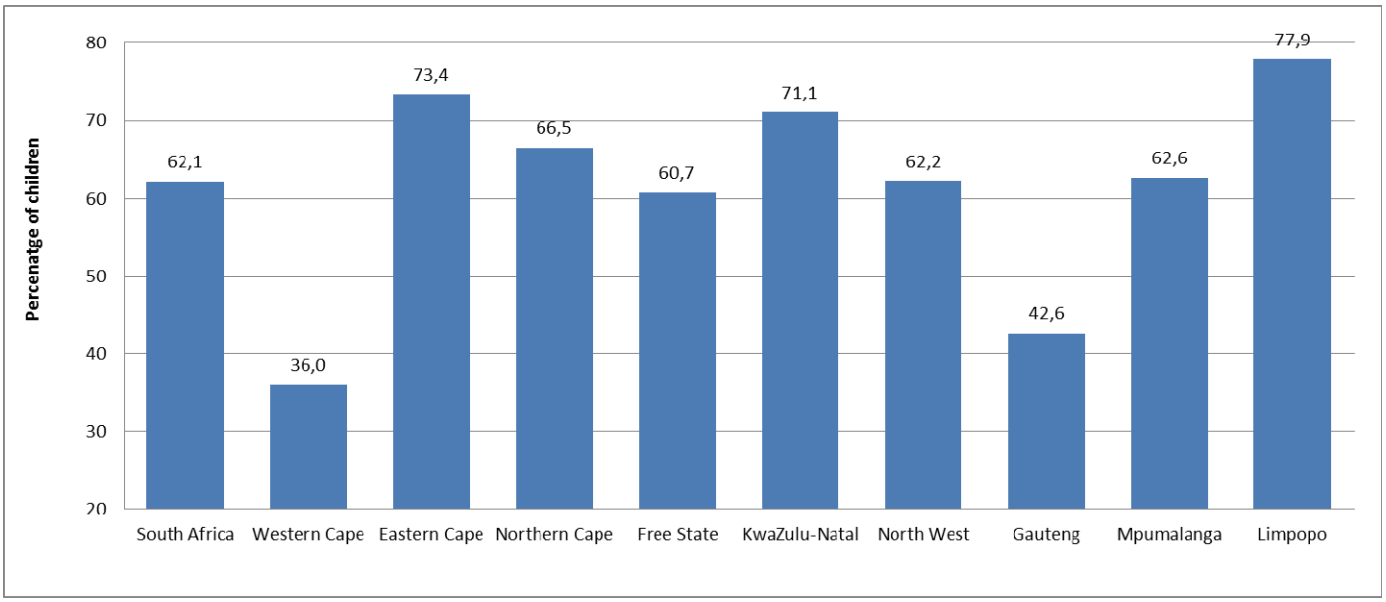
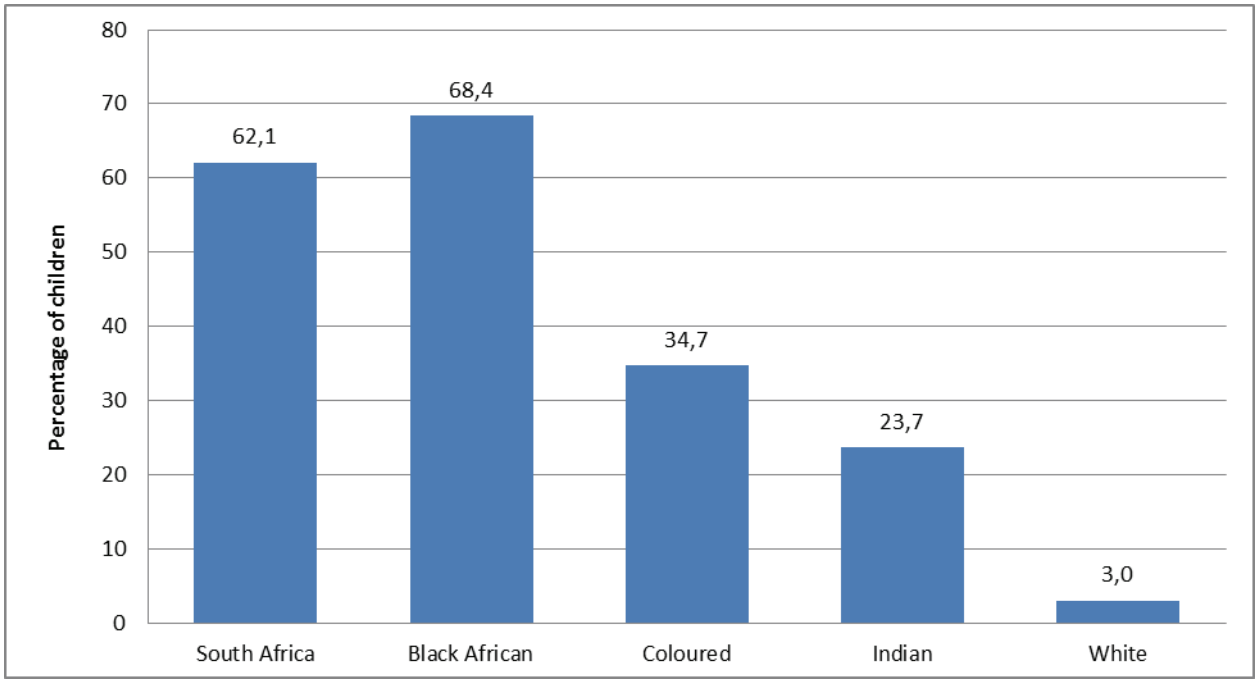


Figure 2.9 shows that while black African children (68,4%) are most likely to live in low-income households followed by coloured (34,7%) and Indian/Asian (23,7%) children, white children (3%) are less likely to live in low-income households.

Figure 2.9: Percentage of children living in households with a per capita income of less than R570 per person per month by population group, 2010



The percentage of children living in households in which no adults are employed is presented in Table 2.9. Having one or more employed adults in the household can benefit children living in the household. In addition to being a source of valuable income, employed adults often offer better social networks for employment opportunities. Improved access to medical benefits like a medical aid might be an additional benefit. The distribution of households that do not contain any employed adults by province bears some resemblance to the distribution of

children that live in low income households. Although the percentages seem slightly less pronounced, the largest percentage of children living in households without employed adults are found in Eastern Cape (54,5%) and Limpopo (50,7%), while the smallest percentage of children is found in Western Cape (12,6%) and Gauteng (16,8%). These figures are probably indicative of the concentration of economic opportunities in these two provinces. The finding is compounded by an observation in Table 2.4 that shows that about 34% of children in Eastern Cape and 26,9% of children in Limpopo live with neither of their biological parents. This is perhaps indicative of a practice where children are often sent to retired grandparents in these provinces. It is interesting to note that the percentage of children living in households that do not contain any employed members have remained relatively stable since 2002.

Table 2.9: Percentage of children living in households without an employed adult by province, 2002-2010

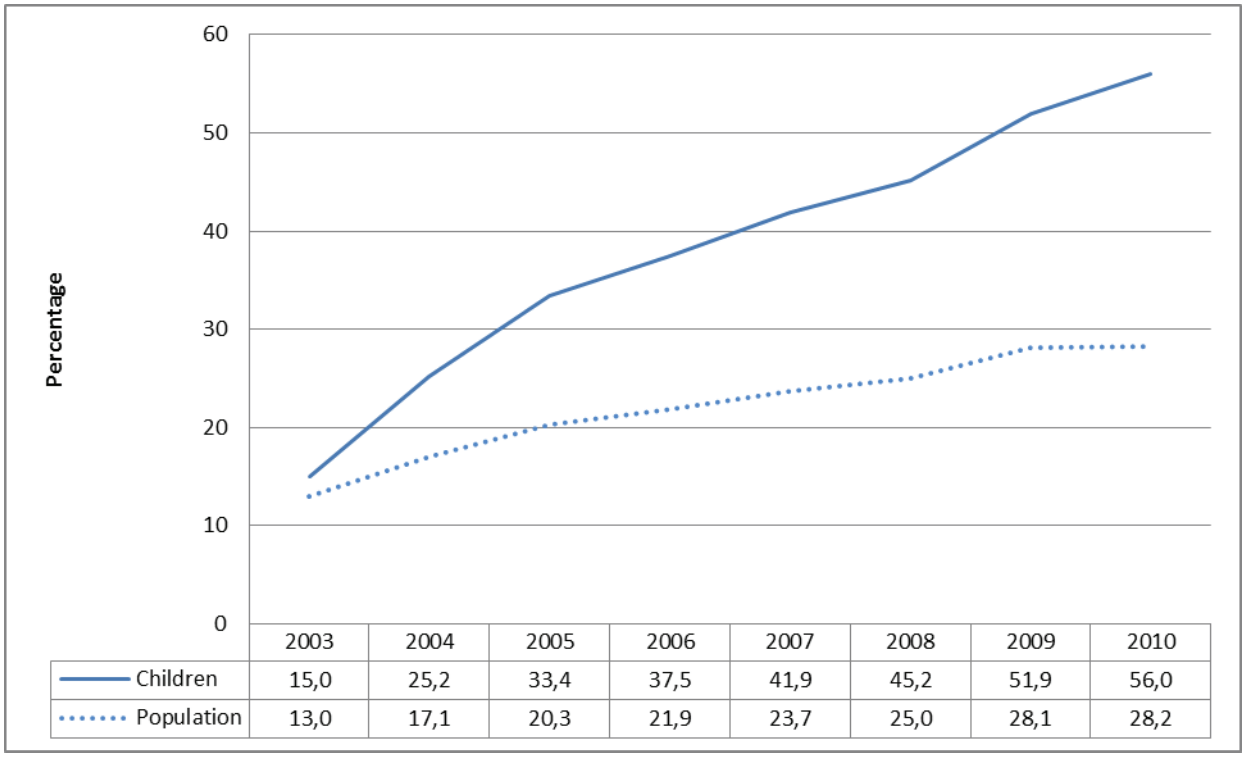
	Year (percentage)								
Province	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**
Western Cape	12,8	14,6	13,7	13,2	11,4	12,2	13,0	12,2	12,6
Eastern Cape	48,2	55,7	49,8	56,3	49,9	49,2	40,4	50,9	54,5
Northern Cape	26,7	33,3	34,5	40,6	42,2	38,9	45,5	45,7	43,9
Free State	29,0	32,7	33,1	39,4	37,2	37,6	35,6	32,6	35,1
KwaZulu-Natal	38,9	47,1	46,5	43,9	46,0	40,8	44,5	42,8	42,9
North West	36,1	37,0	45,5	41,2	42,7	41,0	43,4	42,0	35,8
Gauteng	17,6	20,7	21,2	20,6	20,3	17,4	17,4	16,3	16,8
Mpumalanga	32,4	35,2	38,1	36,3	41,1	39,2	35,2	34,0	29,9
Limpopo	50,0	58,9	55,1	55,3	58,1	57,2	57,4	54,2	50,7
South Africa	34,7	40,1	39,3	39,5	39,6	37,3	36,0	36,6	36,0

Social assistance grants are aimed at ensuring that households meet their basic subsistence needs. The grants play a vital role to alleviate poverty and improve access to food and education (Altman et al, 2009).

The percentage of children who access all types of social grants has increased tremendously since 2003 when the GHS first measured access to grants. This is pointed out in Figure 2.10. Since 2003 the percentage of children who benefits from grants has increased at a much faster rate than access for the population as a whole; increasing from 15% in 2002 to more than 56% by 2010. This figure is an indication of the large percentage of needy children in society as it is of improved coverage of eligible children. The percentage of children who access grants will continue to increase as more eligible children are drawn into the system while the coverage is simultaneously extended to include all children. When the CSG was initially implemented in 1998 it only covered children under the age of 6 years. The threshold age was increased over time to 16 years at the beginning of 2010, and it will be expanded to include children under the age of 18 years by 2012. It is also important to note that the eligibility criteria have changed significantly since 1998. Between 1998 and 2008, children were eligible for the CSG only if their parents or caregivers had a joint monthly income of below R800 when living in a formal house in an urban area, or R1100 when living in rural areas or informal housing. As from 2008, the income criteria were changed to be a multiple of 10 of the CSG grant. With a value of R250 per month this means that a single caregiver has to earn less than R2 500, while a caregiver and his/her spouse have to earn less than R5 000 per month (Hall, 2009).

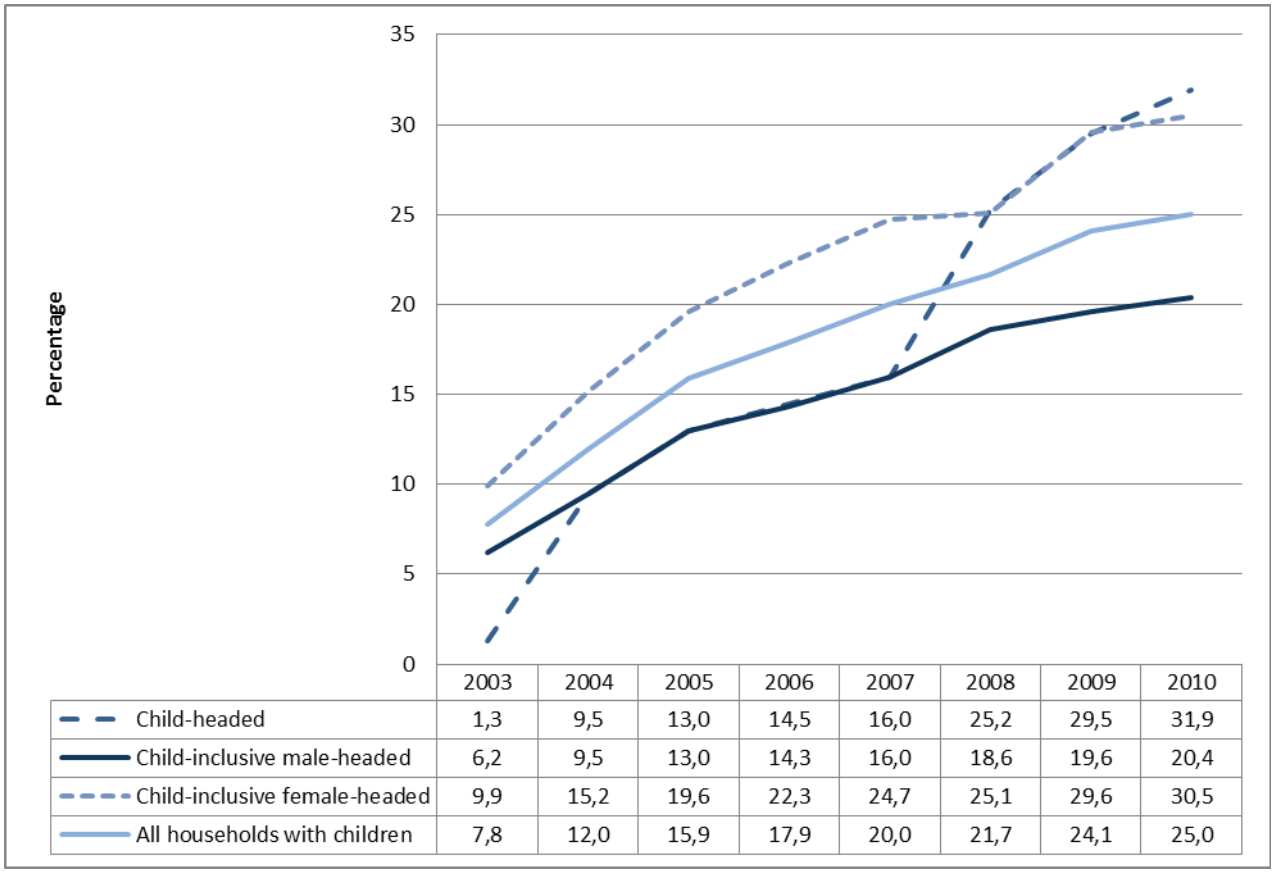
According to Figure 2.11, children in child-inclusive female headed households have consistently been more likely to access CSGs than children in child-inclusive male-headed households. The figure clearly illustrates the rapid increase in the uptake of CSGs since 2003, particularly in child headed households. The percentage of children that access CGSs and who are living in all households containing children has increased from 7,8% in 2003 to 25,0% in 2010. During the same time the same percentage of children living in child-headed households increased from 1,3% to 31,9%.

Figure 2.10: Percentage of children accessing social grants compared to the total population receiving some kind of grant, 2003–2010



	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Children	15,0	25,2	33,4	37,5	41,9	45,2	51,9	56,0
Population	13,0	17,1	20,3	21,9	23,7	25,0	28,1	28,2

Figure 2.11: Relationship between the type of household and the percentage of children who receive a child support grant, 2003–2010

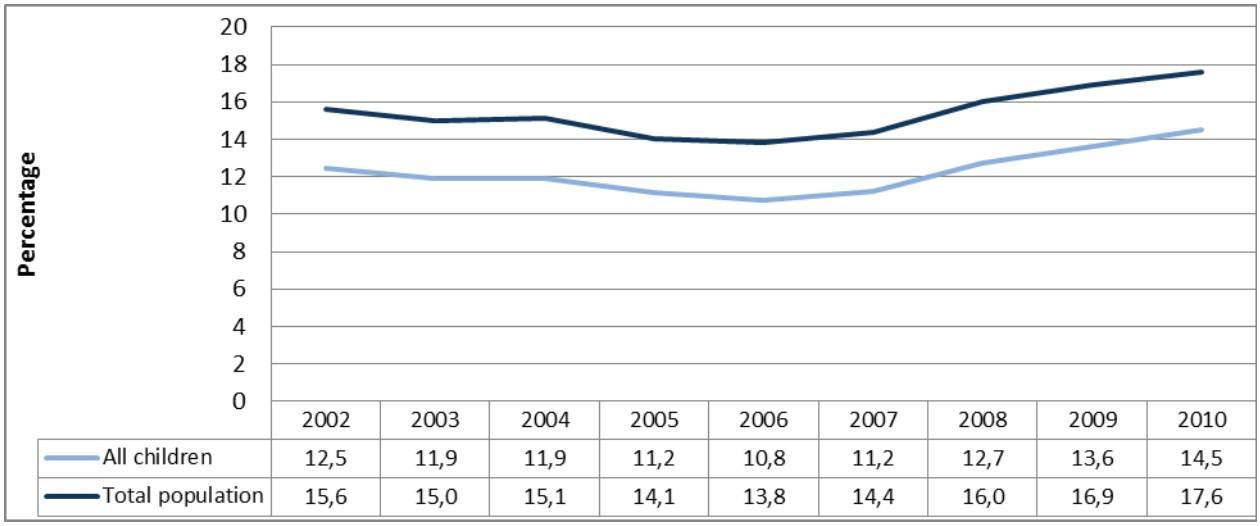


	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Child-headed	1,3	9,5	13,0	14,5	16,0	25,2	29,5	31,9
Child-inclusive male-headed	6,2	9,5	13,0	14,3	16,0	18,6	19,6	20,4
Child-inclusive female-headed	9,9	15,2	19,6	22,3	24,7	25,1	29,6	30,5
All households with children	7,8	12,0	15,9	17,9	20,0	21,7	24,1	25,0

2.6 Health

South Africa has by most accounts made good progress to improve the welfare of children and their families over the past decades. Health care is free for pregnant women and children below six years of age. However, the health care system mirrors the greater inequality found in the contemporary society. According to Figure 2.12 children are slightly less likely to be covered by a medical aid programme than the population as a whole. Less than 15% of all children had access to medical aid in 2010, compared to about 17,6% for the total population.

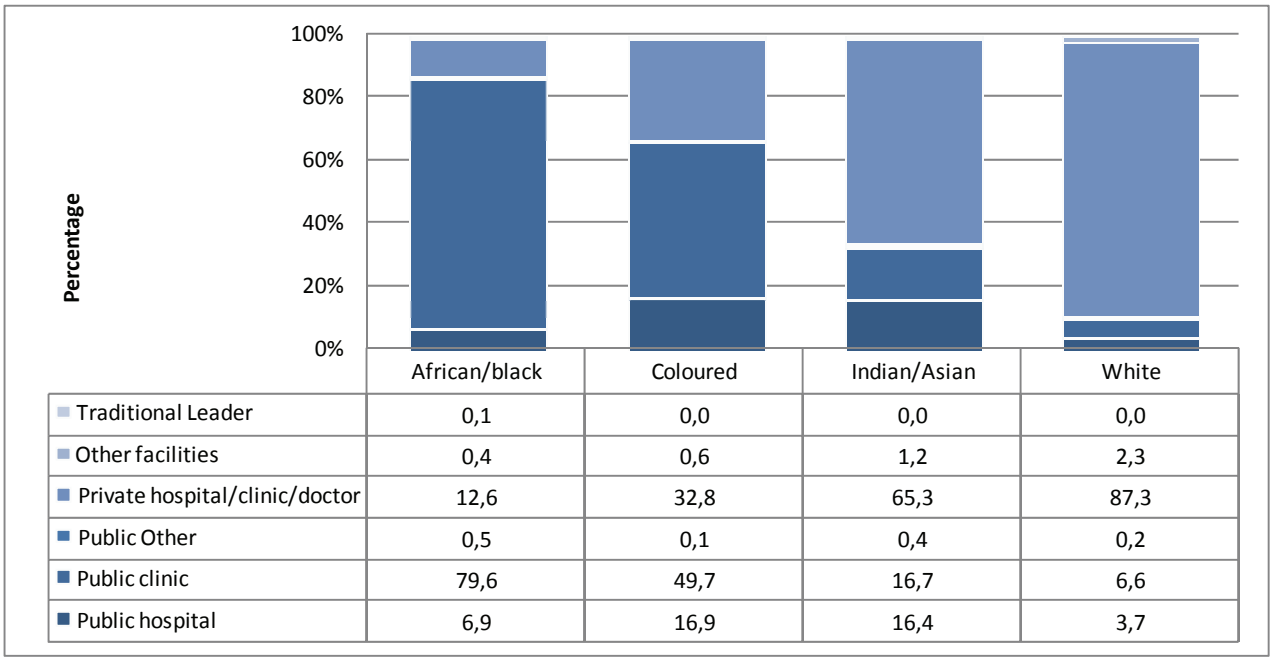
Figure 2.12: Percentage of children with access to medical aids by gender, 2002–2010



	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
All children	12,5	11,9	11,9	11,2	10,8	11,2	12,7	13,6	14,5
Total population	15,6	15,0	15,1	14,1	13,8	14,4	16,0	16,9	17,6

The asymmetrical access to quality health care is further illustrated by the different health care facilities used by different population groups. While 86,5% of black African and 66,6% of coloured child-inclusive households would first approach a public clinic or hospital, only about one third of Indian/Asian- and 10,3% of white child-inclusive households would do the same. In fact, 87,3% of white and 65,3% of Indian/Asian child inclusive households would first approach private health care facilities such as private doctors, clinics or hospitals.

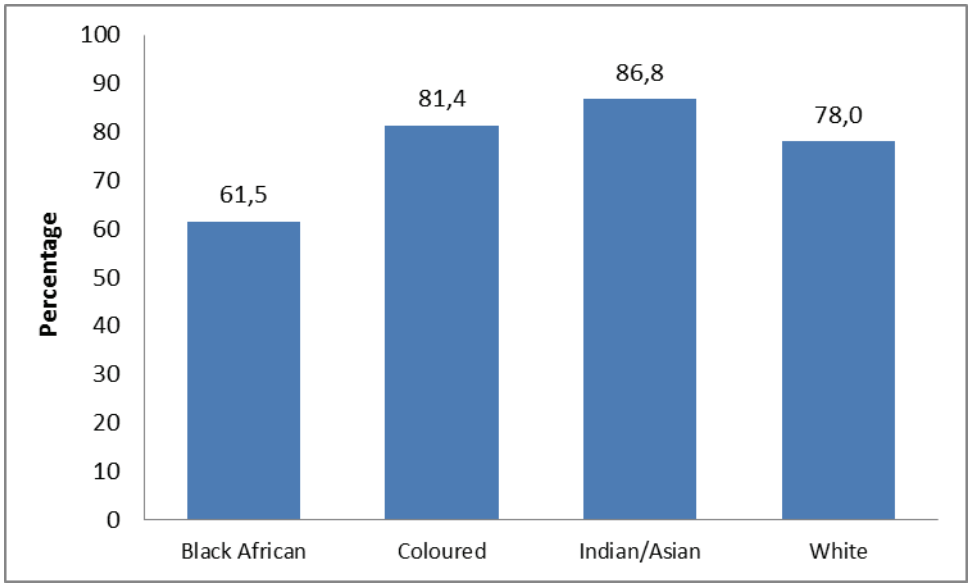
Figure 2.13: Percentage distribution of child inclusive households by health facilities used and population group, 2010



	African/black	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White
Traditional Leader	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,0
Other facilities	0,4	0,6	1,2	2,3
Private hospital/clinic/doctor	12,6	32,8	65,3	87,3
Public Other	0,5	0,1	0,4	0,2
Public clinic	79,6	49,7	16,7	6,6
Public hospital	6,9	16,9	16,4	3,7

The percentage of children living less than 30 minutes from the nearest health care facility is presented in Figure 2.14. Black African children are least likely to live within 30 minutes from health care facilities. The percentages are probably correlated to the different urbanisation rates of population groups with large percentages of black African children in rural areas impacting negatively on this measure.

Figure 2.14: Percentage of children living less than 30 minutes from the nearest health care facility, 2010



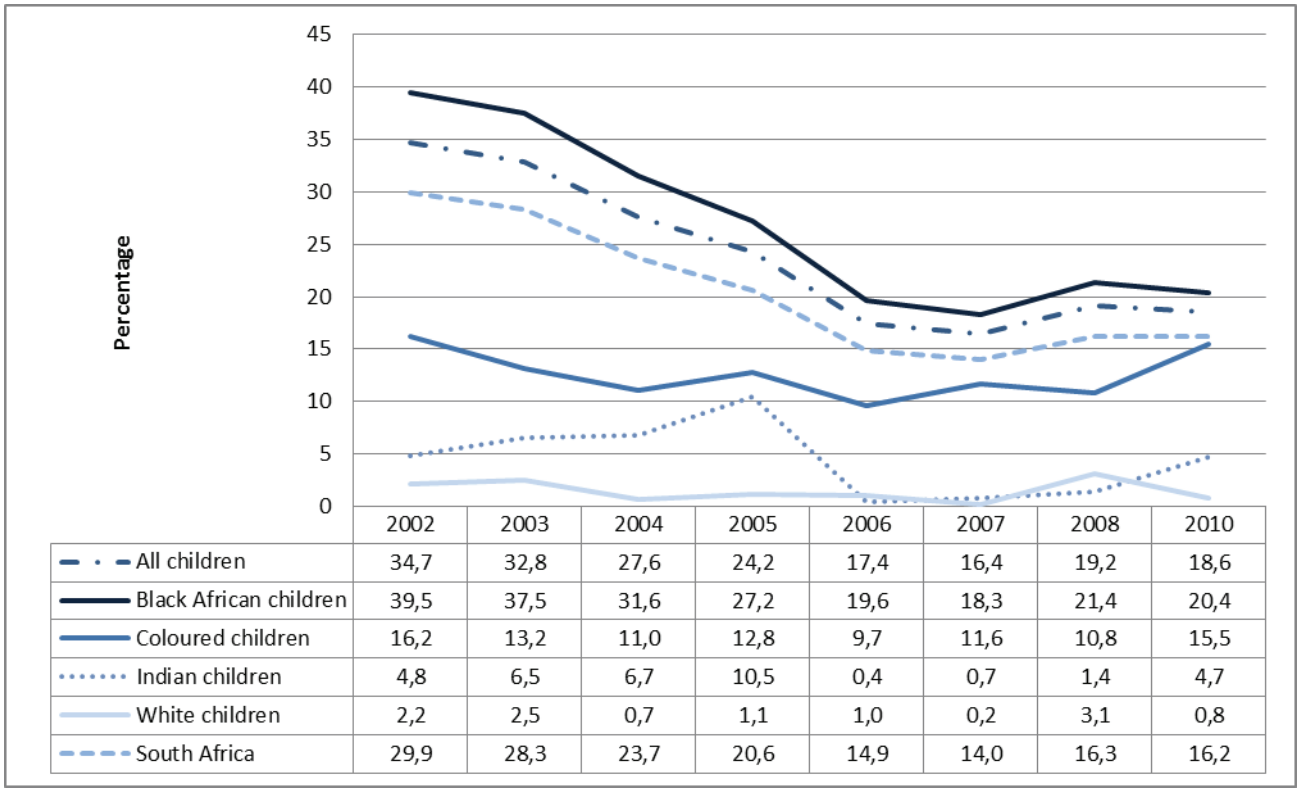
2.7 Vulnerability to hunger and access to food

Access to food is essential to human well-being and development. Vulnerability to hunger particularly affects vulnerable groups under a common bond of poverty and is particularly severe under conditions of high inequality and unemployment. Although the interrelationship between hunger and poverty has been studied intensively since the term "food security" was first coined at the World Food Conference held in Rome in 1974 (Van Zyl, 1992 : 170), the concept is still plagued by imprecise and inconsistent definitions while lacking standard measures to monitor it (Altman et al, 2009).

Access to food is influenced by a variety of factors and a clear understanding of the interactions is vital to identify and implement appropriate policies and programmes. The GHS asks respondents a battery of questions to establish whether any household members experienced hunger during the preceding year and to establish the severity of hunger. These questions were however not asked during 2009. Self-assessed hunger is used as a proxy for inadequate food intake and is associated with not consuming enough food. Although this is definitely more imprecise than variables designed to measure under nutrition, it does provide analysts with the opportunity to explore the relationship between vulnerability to hunger and poverty, and particularly the impact of social grants to alleviate hunger. Poor households are very sensitive to livelihood shocks and low income households with a large proportion of dependents remain particularly vulnerable.

Figure 2.15 summarises the data on the percentage of various categories of children living in households that reported hunger during the year preceding the survey. The percentage of children living in households that experience hunger generally exceeds the percentage of the general population living with hunger. This can perhaps be ascribed to the higher mean household size and dependency rates characterising these households. It is evident from Figure 2.15 that the percentage of individuals living in food insecure households has on average declined relatively briskly until 2007, after which it increased slightly to the levels where 18,6% of children and 16,2% of the general population live in households that experienced hunger. The upswing can perhaps partly be ascribed to the financial downturn experienced in 2008. Black African children are most likely to live in food insecure households while vulnerability to hunger among white and Indian children seems to be much more limited. Although the percentage of coloured children living in food insecure households has declined between 2002 and 2006, it has since returned to 2002 levels (15,5%).

Figure 2.15: Percentage of children living in households that reported hunger, 2002–2008, 2010[1]



	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2010
All children	34,7	32,8	27,6	24,2	17,4	16,4	19,2	18,6
Black African children	39,5	37,5	31,6	27,2	19,6	18,3	21,4	20,4
Coloured children	16,2	13,2	11,0	12,8	9,7	11,6	10,8	15,5
Indian children	4,8	6,5	6,7	10,5	0,4	0,7	1,4	4,7
White children	2,2	2,5	0,7	1,1	1,0	0,2	3,1	0,8
South Africa	29,9	28,3	23,7	20,6	14,9	14,0	16,3	16,2

The overall patterns however hide significant variation between provinces. This is presented in Table 2.10. Although the percentage of children living in households that reported hunger has for the most part declined year on year between 2002 and 2006, the 2006 levels have since been surpassed in a few provinces such as Northern Cape, Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal. In 2010, more than two-thirds (36,7%) of children in the Northern Cape lived in households that reported hunger, followed by KwaZulu-Natal (25,5%), North West (24,9%), and Eastern Cape (24,5%). By contrast, Limpopo (8,8%) has remained the province with the smallest percentage of children living in food insecure households since 2006.

Table 2.10: Percentage of children living in households that reported hunger by province, 2002–2008, 2010

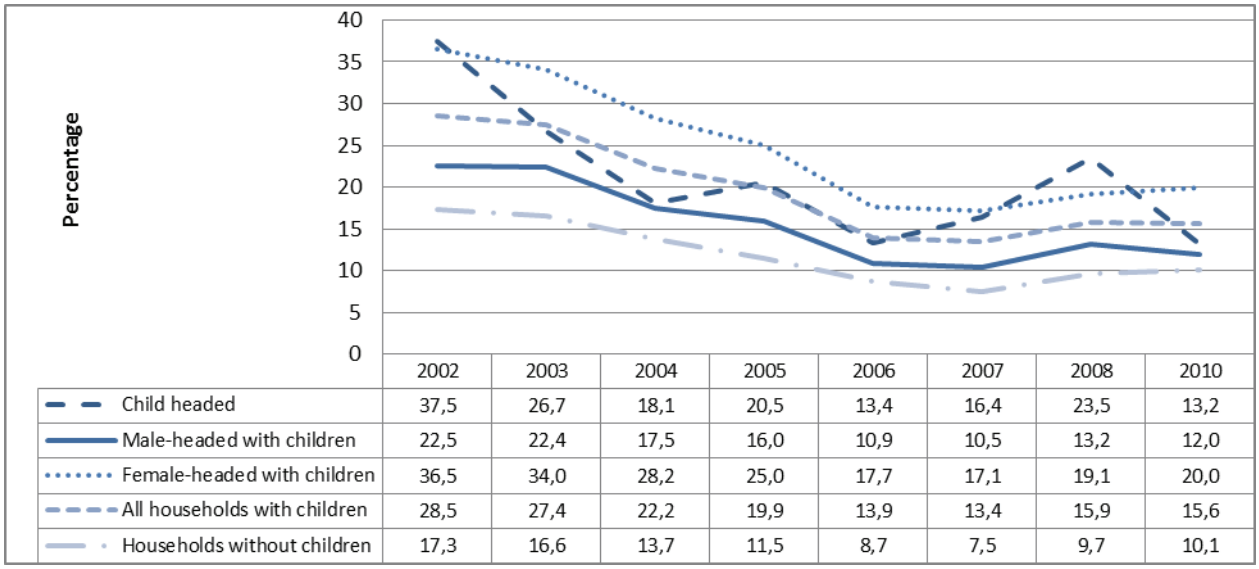
	Year (percentage)							
Province	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2010**
Western Cape	20,8	21,7	18,7	22,2	14,8	18,3	14,7	18,0
Eastern Cape	52,7	46,8	41,2	34,8	21,1	24,7	22,9	24,5
Northern Cape	31,6	19,4	21,8	22,2	21,5	19,2	14,5	36,7
Free State	31,6	30,6	25,8	23,8	20,5	12,0	14,9	15,6
KwaZulu-Natal	37,7	38,5	30,8	23,3	19,7	16,3	25,5	25,5
North West	33,0	36,3	35,8	27,0	20,5	16,2	27,2	24,9
Gauteng	20,7	21,7	16,6	16,6	13,3	13,8	13,0	10,8
Mpumalanga	38,5	36,6	29,6	25,4	13,3	16,7	18,8	13,0
Limpopo	33,4	26,3	21,9	22,5	14,8	10,1	13,6	8,8
South Africa	**29,9**	**28,3**	**23,7**	**20,6**	**14,9**	**14,0**	**16,3**	**16,2**

Since 2002, households have followed a very similar trajectory to the percentage of children that experienced hunger (Figure 2.16). After sustained declines between 2002 and 2006, the percentage of households that reported hunger returned to levels that are very similar to, if not higher than the levels recorded in 2006. Female headed households that contain children are most likely to report hunger. Although child inclusive male headed households are much less likely to report hunger, it is noticeable that the difference between the reported

[1] Questions on hunger were replaced by questions to measure food access and supply in 2009. The battery of questions were reinserted in 2010.

vulnerability to hunger levels of child inclusive male and female headed households has decreased significantly. Households without children remain less likely to report hunger than households with children.

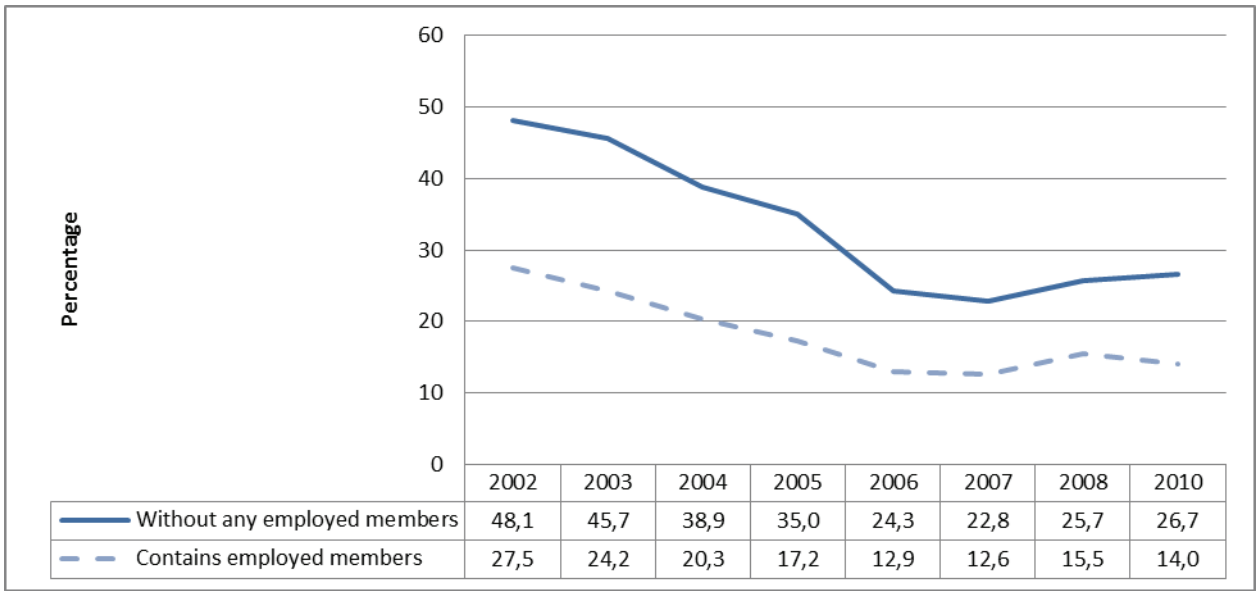
Figure 2.16: Percentage of child inclusive households that reported hunger, 2002–2008, 2010



	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2010
Child headed	37,5	26,7	18,1	20,5	13,4	16,4	23,5	13,2
Male-headed with children	22,5	22,4	17,5	16,0	10,9	10,5	13,2	12,0
Female-headed with children	36,5	34,0	28,2	25,0	17,7	17,1	19,1	20,0
All households with children	28,5	27,4	22,2	19,9	13,9	13,4	15,9	15,6
Households without children	17,3	16,6	13,7	11,5	8,7	7,5	9,7	10,1

Figure 2.17 outlines the relationship between food security and poverty, presenting information on the percentages of children that reported living in households that experienced hunger according to whether the households contain any employed adults. Having an employed adult in the household can in all probability be used as a proxy for higher household income. It is clear from the figure that children living in households without any employed adults are more vulnerable to hunger than children living in households that contain at least one employed adult.

Figure 2.17: Percentage of children living in households that experienced hunger by whether the households contain employed adults, 2002–2008, 2010

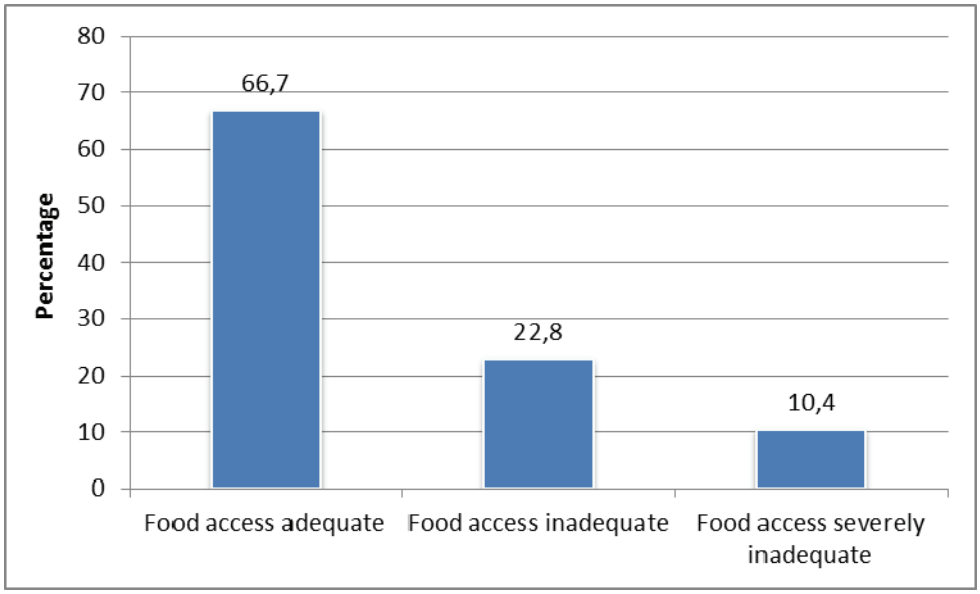


	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2010
Without any employed members	48,1	45,7	38,9	35,0	24,3	22,8	25,7	26,7
Contains employed members	27,5	24,2	20,3	17,2	12,9	12,6	15,5	14,0

A battery of questions to assess access to food was introduced into the GHS questionnaire in 2009 and refined in 2010. These questions differ from the questions on hunger as they attempt to establish the availability of food in the household rather than whether the household necessarily suffered from hunger. According to Figure 2.18, two-thirds (66,7%) of children lived in households that reported adequate access to food in 2010. Another 22,8%

however lived in households that reported inadequate access while a tenth lived in households that reported severely inadequate access to food.

Figure 2.18: Percentage of children living in households by food adequacy, 2010



According to Figure 2.19, one third (33,3%) of children living in South African households reported inadequate, or severely inadequate access to food during the 2010 survey. The most compromised access was reported by children living in households in North West (45,8%), KwaZulu-Natal (42,4%), Northern Cape (39,7%) and Western Cape (32,6%). Children living in Gauteng, Limpopo and Mpumalanga households were least likely to have been exposed to inadequate access.

Figure 2.19: Percentage of children living in households that experienced inadequate or severely inadequate access to food by province, 2010

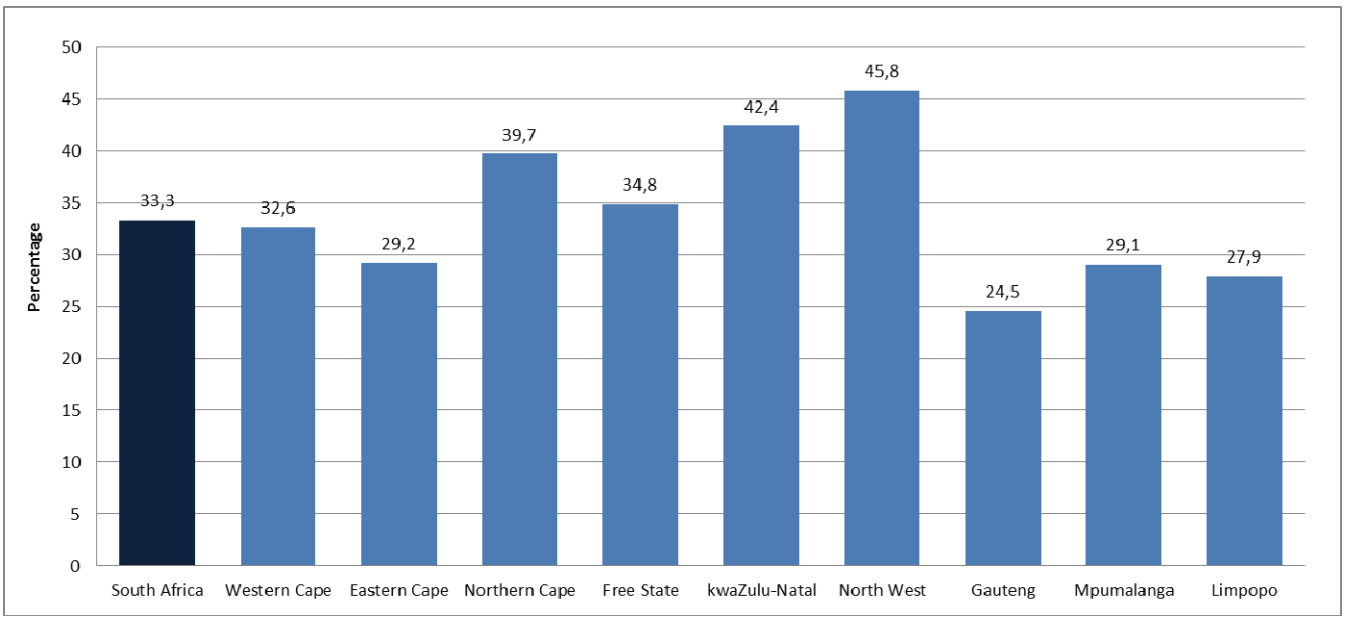
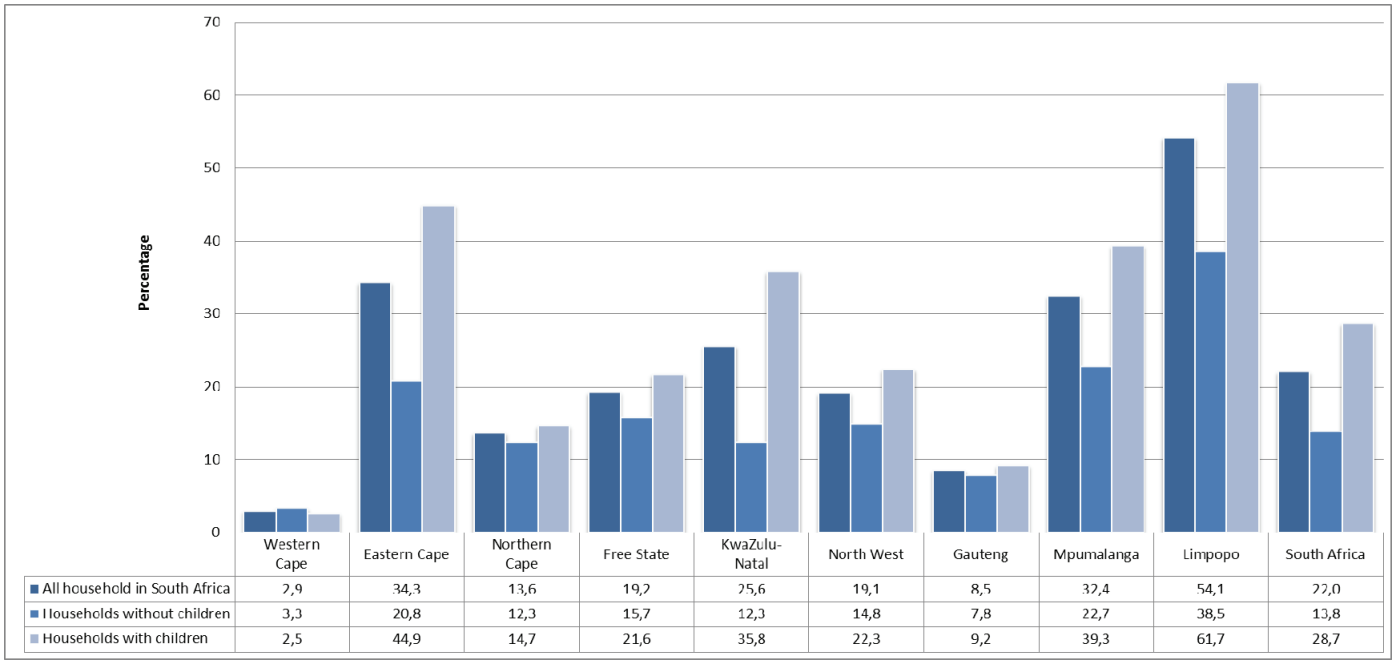


Figure 2.20 presents information on the percentage of households that engaged in agricultural activity in 2010 by province. It is noticeable that the households containing children and that reported relatively low experiences of hunger or largely adequate access to food in largely poor provinces such as Limpopo, Mpumalanga and Eastern Cape, have been more likely to engage in agricultural activity than households in arguably more affluent provinces. This is particularly true for child inclusive households in Limpopo and Eastern cape where 61,7% and

44,9% respectively engaged in agricultural activity. Child inclusive households are generally more likely to engage in some kind of agricultural activity than households in general or households that do not contain children across all provinces. This finding seems to suggest that households engagement in some sort of agricultural activity could improve a households' access to food, thus limiting vulnerability to hunger.

Figure 2.20: Percentage of households engaging in agricultural activity, by province, 2010

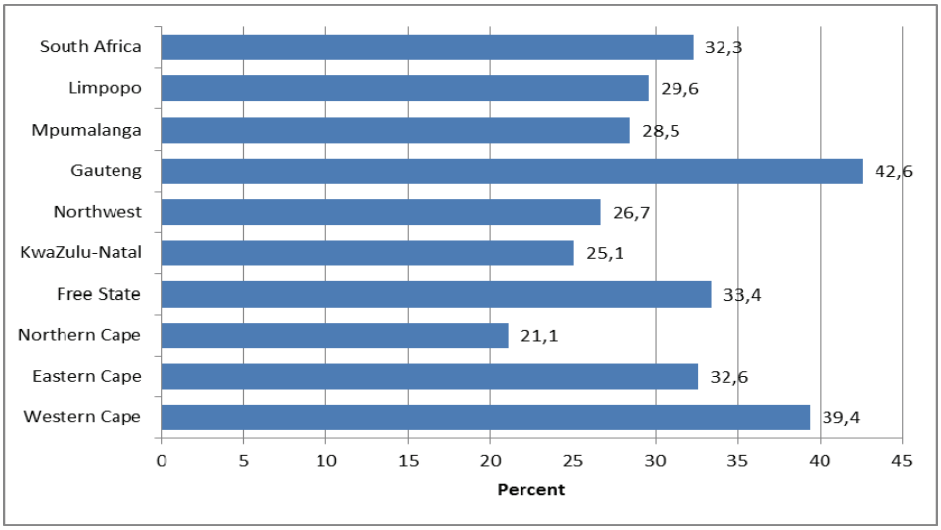


	Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	KwaZulu-Natal	North West	Gauteng	Mpumalanga	Limpopo	South Africa
All household in South Africa	2,9	34,3	13,6	19,2	25,6	19,1	8,5	32,4	54,1	22,0
Households without children	3,3	20,8	12,3	15,7	12,3	14,8	7,8	22,7	38,5	13,8
Households with children	2,5	44,9	14,7	21,6	35,8	22,3	9,2	39,3	61,7	28,7

2.8 Education

Early Childhood Development (ECD) encompasses all the processes that enable emotional, cognitive, sensory, spiritual, moral, physical, social and communication development of children from birth to school-going age. The programmes attempts to prepare children for compulsory schooling and their development toward well-functioning adults. According to Figure 2.21, approximately one third (32,3%) of all children aged 0–4 year attend a day care centre, crèche, ECD centre, play group, nursery school or pre-primary school. The highest percentage is found in Gauteng (42,6%) and Western Cape (39,4%) and the smallest percentage is observed in Northern Cape (21,1,%). While 28,1% of children are exposed to ECD at a centre, more than half (51%) are exposed at home. Almost two-thirds (63,5%) of children are exposed in general.

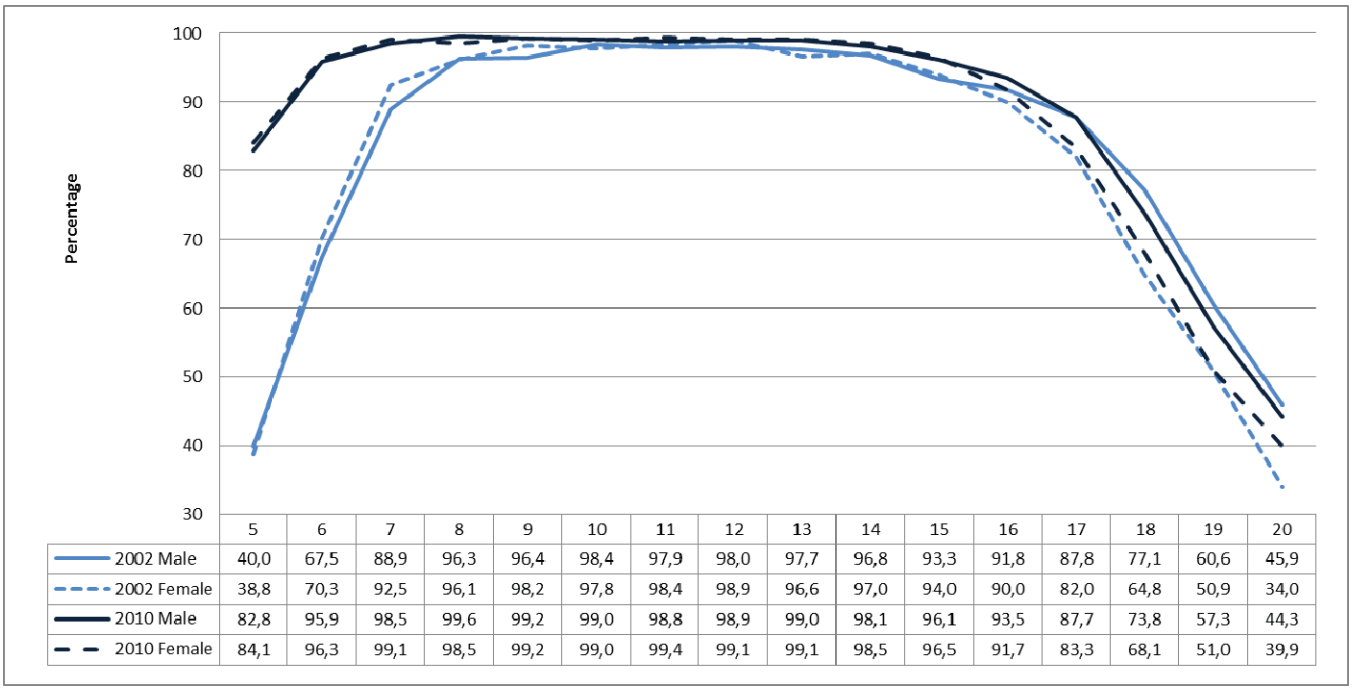
Figure 2.21: Percentage of children aged 0–4 that attend a day care centre, crèche, ECD centre, play group, nursery school or pre-primary school, by province, 2010



Section 29(1)(a) of the South African Constitution guarantees the right to basic education to all children and obliges the state to progressively make such education "available and accessible" (South Africa, 1996). In terms of the South African Schools Act, school attendance is compulsory for all children between the ages of 7 to 15 years, or Grade 9.

The percentage of children of school-going age (between the ages of 7 and 17 years) who attends any kind of educational institution is very high and has shown little change since 2002, particularly for the younger ages. The percentage of children who attend school hovers between 98% and 99% for ages 8 to 14 years before it starts to decline. At first the decline is gradual, but later becomes much higher until less than 85% of children aged 17 years and even fewer youth people aged 20 years are still attending any kind of educational institution. Figure 2.22 reveals an overall improvement in attendance between 2002 and 2010, particularly for children under the age of 8 years. Although slight increases in enrolment are observed for males and females between 14 and 16 years, male enrolment rates generally decrease after 16 years, while female rates slightly increase.

Figure 2.22: Attendance of an educational institution by age and sex, 2002 and 2010



	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
2002 Male	40,0	67,5	88,9	96,3	96,4	98,4	97,9	98,0	97,7	96,8	93,3	91,8	87,8	77,1	60,6	45,9
2002 Female	38,8	70,3	92,5	96,1	98,2	97,8	98,4	98,9	96,6	97,0	94,0	90,0	82,0	64,8	50,9	34,0
2010 Male	82,8	95,9	98,5	99,6	99,2	99,0	98,8	98,9	99,0	98,1	96,1	93,5	87,7	73,8	57,3	44,3
2010 Female	84,1	96,3	99,1	98,5	99,2	99,0	99,4	99,1	99,1	98,5	96,5	91,7	83,3	68,1	51,0	39,9

It is noticeable that the growth in the percentage of children under the age of 7 years who are attending some kind of educational institution has been even more evident. Between 2002 and 2010 the percentage of 5 year-olds who attend any kind of educational institution has literally doubled from approximately 39% to 83%, while the percentage of 6 year-olds increased from below 70% to over 96%.

According to Table 2.11 the percentage of children in the age group 7 to 13 years who had access to education has increased from 96,6% in 2002 to about 99% in 2010. Virtually all children in this age group participate in education and it is furthermore clear that based on the strength of a Gender Parity Index (GPI) of 1, equitable access to education has been achieved for boys and girls.

Table 2.11: Participation of children in the age group 7–13 year in educational institutions, by gender, 2002–2010

	Year (percentage)								
Gender	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**
Male	96,2	96,9	97,9	98,0	97,8	98,0	98,1	98,8	99,0
Female	96,9	97,9	98,4	98,3	98,3	98,6	98,2	99,0	99,1
Total	**96,6**	**97,4**	**98,1**	**98,2**	**98,1**	**98,3**	**98,2**	**98,9**	**99,0**
GPI	1,01	1,01	1,01	1,00	1,01	1,01	1,00	1,00	1,00

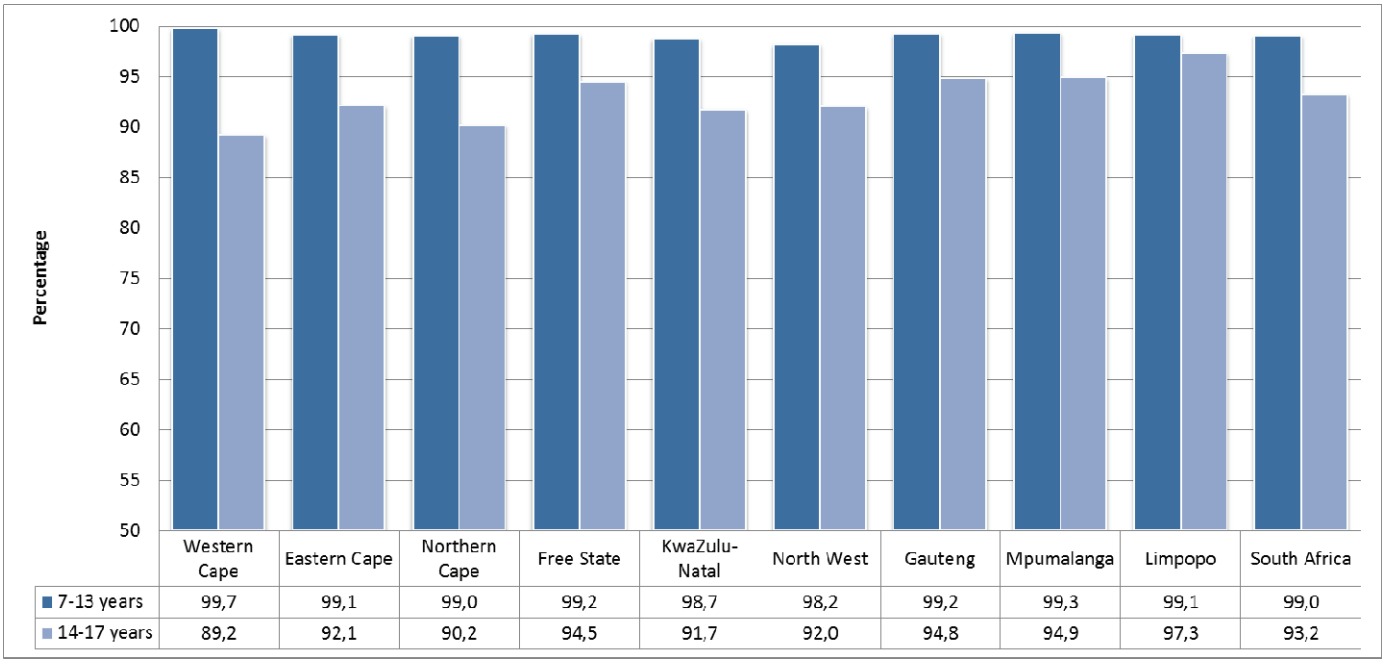
The percentage of children between the ages of 14 and 17 who are attending an educational institution has increased from 91,6% in 2002 to 93,2% in 2010. Although the figure implies that up to 7% of children in this age group were not attending any institutions, it is encouraging to note that males and females in this age group are almost equally likely to attend an educational institution. There has been a significant improvement in girls' participation; from 90,7% in 2002 to 92,6% in 2010.

Table 2.12: Participation of children in the age group 14–17 year in educational institutions, by gender, 2002–2010

Gender	Year (percentage)								
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Male	92,5	92,6	93,0	93,7	92,5	93,5	93,1	92,8	93,9
Female	90,7	91,5	91,9	91,2	91,7	93,1	93,5	93,1	92,6
Total	**91,6**	**92,1**	**92,5**	**92,5**	**92,1**	**93,3**	**93,3**	**93,0**	**93,2**
GPI	0,98	0,99	0,99	0,97	0,99	1,00	1,00	1,00	0,99

The percentage of children in the age groups 7–13 years and 14–17 years that attended an educational institution in the various provinces in 2010 is illustrated in Figure 2.23. Whereas school attendance for children during the primary school ages (7–13 years) is very similar across all provinces, ranging between 98,7% in KwaZulu-Natal and 99,7% in Western Cape, much larger inter-provincial inconsistencies are noted for the age group 14–17 years. The participation percentage for this age group ranges from 90,2% in Northern Cape to 97,3% in Limpopo.

Figure 2.23: Participation of children in the age groups 7–13 years and 14-17 year in educational institutions, by province, 2010



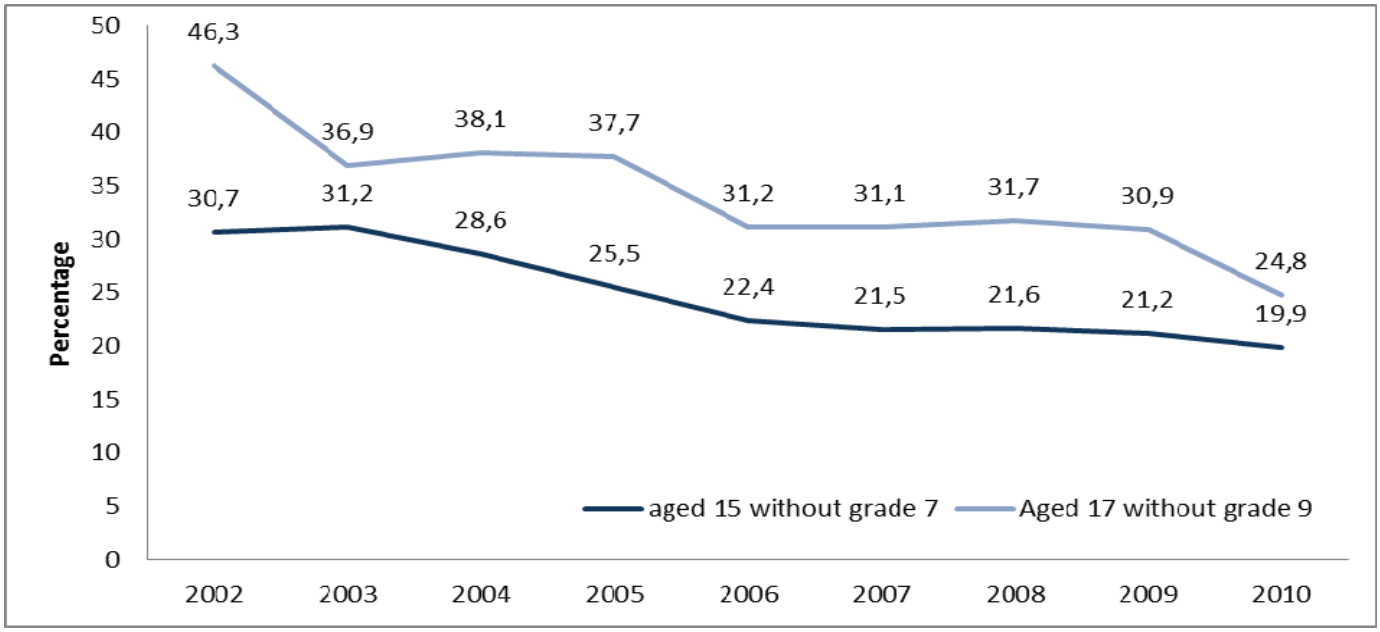
	Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	KwaZulu-Natal	North West	Gauteng	Mpumalanga	Limpopo	South Africa
7-13 years	99,7	99,1	99,0	99,2	98,7	98,2	99,2	99,3	99,1	99,0
14-17 years	89,2	92,1	90,2	94,5	91,7	92,0	94,8	94,9	97,3	93,2

Using participation rates only might, however, be deceptive, as a large percentage of children has failed to pass Grade 7 by the age of 15 years, and more children have not managed to complete Grade 9 by the age of 17 years. This is indicated in Figure 2.24. The two ages, 15 and 17 years, represents approximately two years after which a child should have completed a particular grade assuming the child entered school in the year he/she turned 7 and further assuming that the child did not have to repeat any grades.

Although one fifth (19,9%) of all children aged 15 years has not completed primary school (grade 7) by this age, the percentage has nonetheless decreased from a third (30,7%) in 2002 to 19,9% in 2010. Although the percentage of 17 year-olds without at least a Grade 9 pass remains high (24,8%) it has decreased significantly from 46% in 2002. The high percentage of 17-year-olds who have yet to complete Grade 9 is particularly worrying

as it is sure to have a knock-on effect on the percentage of children and youth who manage to complete their secondary school education and access tertiary education or employment.

Figure 2.24: Percentage of children over the age of 15 years who have not completed Grade 7 compared to the percentage of children over the age of 17 years who have not completed Grade 9, 2002–2010



The distance that children have to travel to attend school can be an important predictor of regular school attendance and punctuality. The distance may result in poor families spending more money on public transport, or alternatively requiring children to undertake long, often physically taxing, journeys to and from school that would not only take a lot of time but will probably also impact negatively on children's capacity to concentrate and learn. The length of time it takes for a child to reach the nearest school is used as a proxy for distance travelled. Thirty minutes is used as a threshold value to determine whether children live far (more than 30 minutes travel time), or near (less than 30 minutes' travel time) to the nearest school.

In 2010, an estimated 15,5% of children aged 7 to 13 years, and 22,1% of children aged 14 to 17 years did not live within 30 minutes from the closest school. Although the percentage of primary school aged children who live far from schools has declined markedly in KwaZulu-Natal, it is worrying to see that almost one quarter (24,8%) of children in the province are still affected. More than one third (34,4%) of children between the ages of 14 and 17 years who live in KwaZulu-Natal were also not close to schools in 2010. Since there are fewer high schools in South Africa it is probably not surprising that children who attend secondary schools are more likely to live further than 30 minutes away from school. It is noticeable that the percentage of children living more than 30 minutes from the nearest school has actually increased in a number of provinces. Although the reasons for this might vary across provinces and by the type of school attended, it can at least in part be attributed to rapid population growth and migration. Both are more likely to affect the poorest sectors of society who are often also living in informal areas on the periphery of established townships, and far from available schools.

Table 2.13: Percentage of children living more than 30 minutes away from the nearest school, 2002 and 2010

Province	Aged 7–13		Aged 14-17	
	2002	2010	2002	2010
Western Cape	8,4	7,6	13,7	12,4
Eastern Cape	19,9	16,4	23,7	22,4
Northern Cape	1,1	3,5	12,0	8,8
Free State	5,1	12,8	18,1	15,4
KwaZulu-Natal	35,5	24,8	31,5	34,4
North West	5,7	12,1	23,0	19,4
Gauteng	12,4	13,3	17,9	15,0
Mpumalanga	8,3	13,4	18,7	19,1
Limpopo	8,8	13,2	19,9	21,9
South Africa	**17,7**	**15,5**	**22,8**	**22,1**

Children's reasons for not attending any educational institution are presented in Table 2.14. Not having money for fees is cited in 28,2% of the cases, followed by “poor academic performance” and “education not useful”. Disability is cited by 6,4% of respondents for not attending any educational institution.

Table 2.14: Reasons for children aged 7–17 years who are not attending any educational institution by province, 2010

Reasons for not attending any educational institution	Province (percentage)									
	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZ	NW	GP	LP	MP	SA
Too old	1,3	4,8	0,0	5,8	1,8	0,0	1,6	0,0	2,2	2,1
Has completed school/education	11,1	2,0	6,6	0,0	6,9	3,3	1,4	5,9	1,8	4,8
Transport difficulties	1,9	1,5	0,0	5,0	0,3	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,8
No money for fees	12,4	34,6	10,5	13,5	39,1	20,1	30,7	20,1	20,0	28,2
Working, do not have time	8,4	0,6	2,2	1,9	4,3	11,9	7,0	2,5	1,8	4,7
Family commitments	2,8	5,6	6,2	5,5	10,1	5,5	4,6	6,7	4,8	6,5
Education not useful	26,0	18,2	14,4	13,3	9,0	17,4	7,8	9,1	2,1	13,0
Poor academic performance	17,4	16,3	35,3	23,2	7,3	13,6	16,4	11,7	15,1	14,0
Illness	0,0	4,8	5,6	7,6	5,8	8,8	2,8	4,7	15,3	5,5
Disability	0,5	6,8	5,8	5,1	5,6	4,4	6,2	9,3	21,8	6,4
Pregnancy	1,7	2,0	2,5	10,8	3,3	2,7	3,9	7,2	10,0	3,9
Other	16,6	2,7	10,7	8,3	6,7	12,4	17,6	22,9	5,2	10,1
Per cent	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**
Total (thousands)	**39 559**	**59 424**	**8 949**	**16 295**	**103 590**	**30 311**	**43 360**	**20 651**	**22 100**	**344 240**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

According to Table 2.15, 15,2% of learners were exposed to some form of violence, punishment or verbal abuse while attending school. The vast majority of those experiences related to corporal punishment by teachers (92,6%), followed by verbal abuse by other learners (7,3%) and physical abuse by other learners (6,3%). Black African children were significantly more likely to be exposed to these forms of violence/punishment or abuse than children in other population groups. There were no significant differences between genders and the abuse was most likely to occur in North West, KwaZulu-Natal and Northern Cape.

Table 2.15: Experience of violence/punishment/abuse at school by learners attending school regardless of age, 2010

Indicator		Percentage of learners (Percentage of those who experienced violence etc.)
Experienced some violence, punishment or verbal abuse		15,2
Type of violence experienced	Corporal punishment	(14,4) 92,6
	Physical violence by teacher	(0,6) 3,7
	Verbal abuse (insulted, teased, harassed) by teacher	(0,8) 4,6
	Verbal abuse (insulted, teased, harassed) by other learners	(1,1) 7,3
	Physical abuse (hit or punched) by another learner	(0,9) 6,3
	Other	(0,2) 1,1
Population group	Black African	16,9
	Coloured	7,8
	Indian/Asian	8,0
	White	1,9
Gender	Male	15,1
	Female	15,3
Province	Western Cape	7,3
	Eastern Cape	23
	Northern Cape	19,5
	Free State	16,4
	KwaZulu-Natal	21,3
	North West	23,5
	Gauteng	8,3
	Mpumalanga	7,4
	Limpopo	9

2.9 Housing and basic services

Access to basic social services plays a significant role in determining the well-being of individuals. Services such as access to clean water and sanitation are particularly important, as these services are closely associated with the health status of households, particularly young children. Housing, water, sanitation, a clean environment, food security and poverty are generally considered some of the most important social determinants of health.

For the purposes of this publication, housing is categorized as formal, informal, traditional and other. Formal housing consists of dwellings or brick structures on separate stands; flats or apartments; cluster houses; town houses; semi-detached houses; and rooms, flatlets or servant's quarters. Informal housing comprises informal dwellings or shacks in backyards or in informal settlements. Traditional housing is defined as “a traditional dwelling/hut/structure made of traditional materials”. The other category refers to caravans and tents. Formal housing is considered a proxy for adequate housing.

The percentage of housing types inhabited by child headed households for the years 2002 to 2010 is presented in Table 2.16. It is surprising to observe that almost two-thirds (61,6%) of child-headed households are living in formal houses as opposed to informal structures and other less adequate housing. This observation supports the finding that many child headed households are created for a limited period of time through necessity but that it continues to be supported by an adult family. According to this table the percentage of children living in traditional dwellings has declined from almost 34% in 2002 to less than 30% in 2010 after having declined to as low as 19,2% in 2009.

Table 2.16: Percentage of child headed households by type of dwelling, 2002–2010

Type of dwelling	Year (percentage)								
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Formal	62,1	69,6	70,6	62,3	65,5	68,9	64,1	69,9	61,6
Traditional	33,7	23,2	21,4	23,2	23,0	20,7	21,4	19,2	29,1
Informal	4,2	7,2	8,0	12,4	10,0	9,9	14,6	10,9	9,3
Other	0,0	0,0	0,0	2,1	1,5	0,6	0,0	0,0	0,0
Per cent	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,1**	**100,1**	**100,0**	**100,0**
Total (thousands)	**77**	**72**	**75**	**76**	**73**	**90**	**73**	**64**	**81**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

The percentage of children who live in formal housing increased by 6% to just under three-quarters (74,7%) between 2002 and 2010. This is presented in Table 2.17. Simultaneously, the percentage of children living in traditional, informal and "other" housing has declined.

Table 2.17: Percentage of children living in formal, informal and traditional housing, 2002–2010

Type of dwelling	Year (percentage)								
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
0–17 years									
Formal	68,7	69,5	67,5	65,7	70,2	69,7	71,7	72,2	74,7
Traditional	19,4	19,0	21,5	20,4	17,6	17,7	18,3	18,3	16,8
Informal	11,1	10,3	10,1	12,5	11,4	11,7	9,7	9,0	8,3
Other	0,7	1,1	0,9	1,3	0,9	0,9	0,3	0,5	0,2
Per cent	**99,9**	**99,9**	**100,0**	**99,9**	**100,1**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**
Total (thousands)	**18 525**	**18 523**	**18 551**	**18 603**	**18 649**	**18 555**	**18 568**	**18 607**	**18 524**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

In addition to improving the quality of life and general well-being of families and individuals, having access to clean piped water also drastically reduces vulnerability to diseases such as diarrhoea and cholera. **Access to piped water** is defined as having water piped directly into their dwellings, or having access to taps on the site of the dwelling or yard. Access to water in the dwelling or yard has increased constantly for both children, as well as the general population between 2002 and 2010. Just under 62% of children lived in households with adequate access to water in 2010 compared to 68% of the population.

Having access to flush toilets that are in or near the house and which dispose of waste safely is used as a proxy for adequate **basic sanitation**. While access to flush toilets has generally improved for children, as well as the general population, children have been consistently less likely to live in households with flush toilets than the general population. Less than half (49,5%) of children lived in households with flush toilets or off-site disposal.

The percentage of households for which **refuse** is removed by the municipality is used as an indicator of environmental cleanliness. As with access to water and sanitation, it seems as if children were less likely to live in households with rubbish removal than the general population. It is worth noting that access to refuse removal increased relatively continuously until 2009 when it dropped rather suddenly before returning to 2008 levels in 2010.

Although the connection to mains electricity does not preclude the use of other sources of energy for cooking, heating and lighting for example, connection to mains electricity does benefit households and the individuals living in them in a variety of ways. As a result of sustained efforts in this regard, the percentage of households with access to mains electricity has increased steadily over the past 8 years. The percentage of children living in households with **access to mains electricity** has increased from 70% in 2002 to 83,2% in 2010. This is once again smaller than the general population's access which stands at 84,9%.

Table 2.18: Comparison of the basic living condition indicators for children and the total population, 2002–2010

Access to service indicator	Age cohorts	Year (Percentage)								
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Access to water: % children living in dwellings with piped water in house or yard	0–17	54,7	55,1	55,8	57,1	59,6	60,5	61,0	60,0	61,8
	Population	**62,1**	**62,7**	**63,1**	**64,3**	**66,1**	**67,0**	**67,2**	**66,4**	**68,0**
Sanitation: % children living in dwellings with flush toilet with on or off site disposal	0–17	39,8	40,5	40,6	42,5	43,7	44,8	45,5	45,7	49,5
	Population	**48,6**	**49,6**	**49,5**	**51,0**	**52,0**	**53,0**	**53,6**	**53,9**	**57,7**
Refuse/Waste: % living in dwellings with rubbish removed by municipality	0–17	43,2	43,9	44,3	47,2	48,1	48,4	48,0	41,6	47,1
	Population	**51,0**	**52,0**	**52,1**	**55,1**	**55,8**	**56,0**	**55,5**	**48,3**	**54,4**
Electricity: % living in dwellings with connected to mains	0–17	70,2	72,3	75,1	76,0	77,4	79,6	79,5	80,3	83,2
	Population	**74,3**	**76,2**	**78,7**	**79,4**	**80,1**	**81,7**	**82,1**	**82,9**	**84,9**
Telephone: % living in dwellings with landline or cellular phone in the dwelling	0–17	40,6	44,2	53,9	67,4	73,6	80,3	82,3	88,6	92,9
	Population	**45,6**	**48,4**	**57,2**	**69,2**	**74,6**	**80,3**	**82,8**	**88,3**	**92,1**
Internet[2]**:** % living in dwellings with access to internet	0–17				3,5				5,6	7,0
	Population				**5,0**				**7,8**	**9,3**

Access to telephones is defined as the percentage of children living in households with access to landlines or cell phones. The percentage of South Africans having access to landlines or cell phones at home has increased enormously over the past years, increasing from 40,6% in 2002 to 92,9% in 2010. The growth seems to have been relatively uniform across all households and very little difference can be discerned between access by children and the population as a whole.

The percentage of children who have access to the Internet at home has increased from 3,5% in 2005 (the first time the question was asked in the GHS questionnaire) to 7,0% in 2010. Growth has been relatively slow and data shows that only 9,3% of all households had access to the Internet in 2009 compared to 5% in 2005.

2.10 Conclusions

Black African children comprise almost 85% of all children and almost one quarter (23%) of them lives in KwaZulu-Natal. Just under one fifth (19,6%) of children are either maternal, paternal or double orphans. Double orphans represents 4,4% of the child population. More than a third of all orphans live in KwaZulu-Natal. Even though black African children constitute the largest percentage of orphans, there is an exceptionally large percentage of paternal orphans amongst them. This is especially noticeable in KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape and Limpopo, the three provinces that are generally considered to be migration sending provinces, as well as Gauteng, a predominantly urban province characterised by large in-migration streams.

The impact of migration on family structures and children is most noticeable in the statistics on the percentage of children living with their biological parents. If living with your children is used as a proxy of parental engagement in the process of raising children, the data suggest that most biological parents play a limited role in their children's lives. Only about one third (33,5%) of South African children consistently live with both their biological parents while almost one quarter (23,9%) live with neither their biological parents. Of the children who lived with neither their biological parents, more than half (63,8%) still had both their parents alive, while only 11% were double orphans. It is important to note that the definition of households used in the GHS only considers household members who spent at least four nights during the past four weeks at home as household members.

This means that the preceding figures also include households where one or more parent only comes home over weekends. Parents with this profile would not have been considered part of the household, nor would they have been considered as living with their biological children.

Black African children are least likely to live with both their parents, while Indian children are most likely to do so. The percentage of children that live with both parents is the highest in Western Cape (54,1%) and Gauteng (50,4%), both migrant reception provinces, and lowest in Eastern Cape (22,1%) and Limpopo (25,3%). Although

[2] Questions on access to the Internet at home was only included in the questionnaire in 2005, 2009 and 2010

these patterns are quite alarming according to Western models of family and households, it is quite common in most African cultures to have a more expanded view of parenthood and the raising of children. Uncles and aunts are generally also considered to be your mothers and fathers and sending children away to be raised by grandparents is often preferred to hiring a stranger as child minder while the parents work.

More than half of South Africans and 63% of South African children live in extended households, while approximately 36% of children live in nuclear households. The pattern, however, varies by population group and a much larger percentage of Indian and white children live in nuclear families than African and coloured children.

Less than one per cent (0,6%) of South African households only consist of and are headed by individuals younger than 18 years. Even though children in child-headed households are more likely to be orphans than households in general, almost two-thirds (63,8%) of them still have both parents alive and only 10% are double orphans. Child headed households largely consist of boys.

Male-headed households that contain children have a slightly smaller average household size than its female peer. The total dependency ratio for male-headed mixed-generation households has consistently measured at approximately one dependent for each person of working age. The burden of child dependency is highest for female headed, mixed generation households and lowest in male headed, mixed generation households. Female headed, mixed generation households have total dependency ratios of approximately 1,3 dependents per adult, albeit with a slight decline since 2002.

Children are disproportionately affected by poverty. While approximately half (51,0%) of all South Africans live in households that have a per capita income of less than R570 per person per month, 62% of children are living in such households. More than three-quarters of children living Eastern Cape (73,4%) and Limpopo (77,9%) live in low income households. Although the percentage of poor children is much smaller in the relatively prosperous and much more urbanised provinces of Western Cape and Gauteng, poor children still comprise more than 36% of all children in each province. These provincial patterns show a close resemblance to the distribution of children living in households where one or more adult is employed indicating the close relationship between income poverty and employment.

Child-headed households have consistently listed remittances as their main source of income between 2002 and 2010. This is in line with a finding by Foster (2004) that children in child headed households are often supported by relatives.

The study confirmed that social grants play a vital role in alleviating poverty and improving access to food and education. Since 2003, when access to grants was first measured by the GHS, the percentage of children who benefit from grants has increased at a much faster rate than access for the population as a whole, increasing from 15% in 2003 to 56% by 2010. The expansion of eligibility criteria for the Child Support Grant impacted significantly on increases in grant receipts. Female-headed households with children (30,5%) and child-headed households (31,9%) are most likely to access CSGs.

A relatively unequal access to health care is highlighted by the observation that 86,5% of black Africans and 67,6% of coloured children would go to public hospitals or clinics if they needed medical attention while 87,3% of white and 65,3% of Indian children would attend private health care facilities. More than one third of black African children live further than 30 minutes from the nearest health facility.

It is estimated that 18,6% of children and 16,2% of the general population lived in households that experienced hunger in 2010. Black African children are most likely to live in households that have experienced hunger. Male-headed child inclusive households remain less likely to report hunger than female-headed households with children, but the gap between them has narrowed over time. Households without children are less likely to report hunger than households with children regardless of whether they are male or female headed. Considering trends since 2002, children that experienced hunger are most likely to be found in Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and the North West and the least likely in Gauteng and Western Cape. The data supports the notion that children living in households without any employed adults are indeed much more vulnerable to hunger than children living in

households that contain at least one employed adult. Over one quarter of households (27,1%) reported inadequate or severely inadequate access to food in 2010. The most compromised access was reported in North West (44,3%), KwaZulu-Natal (40,4%) and Northern Cape (39,1%) while households in Gauteng (22,4%) and Mpumalanga (25%) enjoyed the best access

One of the fundamental rights enshrined in the Constitution (Act No. 108 of 1996) is the right to education. Since 2002, the percentage of children aged 7 to 13 years attending any kind of educational institution increased from 96,6% to 99%, while there was an increase from 91,6 to 93,2% for the age group 14 to 17 years during the same period. The relatively high participation rates amongst children might, however, be deceiving as a large percentage of children have failed to pass grade 7 by the age of 15 years. The limited progress with regard to the percentage of 17 year-olds who have yet to complete Grade 9 is particularly worrying as it is sure to have a knock-on effect on the percentage of children and youth who manage to complete their secondary school education. Most progress has been made with regards to the percentage of children who at least completed primary school by the time they turn 15 years old. More than one quarter (28%) of children cited financial constraints as the mains reasons for not attending any educational institution.

The percentage of children below the age of 8 years who attend educational institutions improved significantly between 2002 and 2010. During this period the percentage of 5 year-olds who attend any kind of educational institution nearly doubled from approximately 39% to 83%, while the percentage of 6 year-olds increased from below 70% to over 96%. This shows to some success in broadening the education base and improving children's readiness for school through ECD programmes. About 16% of learners were exposed to some form of violence, punishment or verbal abuse while attending school during 2010. Most of those cases related to corporal punishment by teachers (92,6%). Only 7,3% were related to verbal abuse by other learners and another 6,3% to physical abuse by other learners. There were no significant differences between genders, but black African children were likely to be more affected than other population groups.

One of the aspects investigated by this study was whether the living conditions of children have changed between 2002 and 2010. The percentage of children living in formal housing has increased slightly from 69% in 2002 to 75% in 2010. During the same time those who lived in informal dwellings declined from 11% to 8%, while the percentage of those those living in dwellings classified as traditional dwellings, has declined slightly from 19% to 17%. Although access to water in the dwelling or yard has increased, for both children as well as the general population between 2002 and 2010, the growth has been tempered by slight declines in 2009. Children have been consistently less likely to live in households with flush toilets, refuse removal and electricity than the general population. The percentage of children living in households with access to mains electricity has increased from 70% in 2002 to 85% in 2010. Children's access to the Internet at home has increased from 3% in 2005 (the first time the question was asked in the GHS questionnaire) to 7% in 2010.

2.11 Recommendations

The study found that large percentages of especially black African children do not live with their biological parents. This may influence the extent to which resources such as remittances and social grants are used for the general improvement of their well-being. Other risks such as physical, emotional and sexual abuse of children may also be augmented by the physical distance between biological parents and their children. Public information and education campaigns, stressing the importance of the active involvement of parents and or caregivers in the education and development of their children may to some extent mitigate the potential negative impact that this may have on child development and well-being. Even though child-headed households make up a very small percentage of all households in South Africa, their percentage has remained virtually unchanged during the past 8 years, possibly indicating that more needs to be done to create safety nets for them. The fact that more than half of them had one or more of their biological parents alive may indicate that these households developed as a result of the demands of labour migration.

Efforts to improve the basic living conditions of South Africa’s households are beginning to show progress. However, households with children generally continue to be poorer with reduced access to basic services than households in general. Consideration should be given to changing the means test for grants and other basic

services from household income to income per capita, as this will to some extent better identify vulnerable households with children.

Attempts to address the social determinants of health through the provision of housing and basic services, as well as greater access to basic education and social grants should be intensified.

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3. SOCIAL PROFILE OF YOUTH, 2002-2010

3.1 Introduction

Young people have become the focus of intense interest of policymakers. The youth are critical for a country's continued development and demographic evolution. This population represents new entrants into a country's labour force and will also serve as the basis for future demographic growth. The youth can therefore be either a major source of national development, or serious social strife (Xenos and Kabamalam, 1998) depending on the success with which they are incorporated into the labour market and other social structures.

A number of different definitions for youth are being used globally. The United Nations (In Du Toit, 2003) defines youth as people between the ages of 14 and 24 years, while the Black African Youth Charter defines youth as those between the ages of 15 and 34 years of age (Africa Union, 2006). The National Youth Policy 2009–2014 (2009:12) defines young people as men and women falling within the age group of 14 to 35 years. In this report, youth will be defined as all people falling within the age group 15 to 34 years. These age groups were selected because they correspond to the 5- year age groups used to benchmark the GHS sample and will therefore ensure more accurate estimates.

South Africa, like many other developing countries, has a relatively young population in which more than two-thirds (68,3%) of the population comprises individuals below the age of 35 years. The 15–34-year age cohort (youth) comprises 37% of the total population and is estimated to number 18,7 million (Statistics South Africa, 2011). Youth are also considered important by virtue of their sheer numbers; a fact that is accentuated by the observation that young people have been growing faster than the population as a whole due to declines in fertility.

The relative upsurge in the proportion of people of working age relative to the proportion of dependants such as children and older people might provide a demographic impetus for development in which fewer investments are needed to meet the needs of the youngest age groups, and resources are released for investment in the economic development and family welfare. This opportunity is known as the demographic 'dividend' (Bloom, Canning, Sevilla, 2002; Ross, 2004).

In order to capitalise on this opportunity, effective policies are needed in key areas. Health and sanitation interventions need to be prioritised in order to lay the foundation for a healthy workforce, while education and training should be improved in order to transform the population into a productive work force. The developmental potential can, however, only be unlocked if adequate job opportunities are created. The inability to engage the youth meaningfully into the society and the economy might lead to high unemployment, increased crime and ultimately political instability (Bloom, Canning, Fink and Finlay, 2007: 4).

To reap the impending benefits and to realise the potential of youth, South Africa has been successful in developing integrated and comprehensive legislation and policies aimed at protecting and promoting the rights and development prospects of young people. Despite improvements, the marginalisation of youth persists as can be seen with unemployment, poverty, often poor education, family and community disintegration, and exposure to crime and violence (Morrow et al, 2005).

Youth development in South Africa is largely guided by the National Youth Policy 2009–2014 which is based on a series of legislative and policy frameworks which have been implemented since 1994. These include the National Youth Commission Act, 1996 (Act No. 19 of 1996); White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997; National Youth Policy, 2000; National Youth Development Policy Framework, 2000–2007; and the Draft National Youth Policy, 2008–2013. The policy relies upon information on the particular needs and circumstances of the country's youth to address identified gaps and challenges (National Youth Policy, 2009:5–6).

Young people do not, however, comprise a homogenous group and their experiences can be characterised as "diverse, and at times paradoxical" (Morrow, 2005). The group is therefore often segmented further by age cohort and other characteristics such as gender and population group. In particular, the National Youth Policy 2009–2014 (2009:14) identifies priority target groups and argues that immediate attention should be given to young women, youth with disabilities, unemployed youth, school-age out-of-school youth, and youth at risk. For purposes of comparison, the age cohort will be segmented into the age group 15–24 and 25–34 years.

The National Youth Policy 2009–2014 prioritises four policy imperatives, namely education; health and well-being; economic participation; and social cohesion. The methodology followed by the GHS makes it a rich source of data on all these areas, with perhaps the exception of the last category – social cohesion – where more specialised instruments are needed.

The health of individuals is heavily affected by social determinants such as poverty, access to housing, clean water, sanitation, clean energy and food security. Available data will be used to explore the health and well-being of young people. Educational attainment is a critical determinant of young people's future work prospects, earnings and contributions to society (Nugent, 2006) and this chapter will explore access to secondary and tertiary education by young men and women of all population groups, and delve into the impact of poverty on education. Economic participation is vital to eradicate poverty, but studies suggest that young people are disproportionately affected by unemployment. Young people, particularly those in the age group 15–24 years, as well as those with low levels of education, women and black Africans are seemingly worst affected.

3.2 Demography of youth

Individuals in the age group 15-34 comprises 37% of the total population and is estimated to number 18,7 million (Statistics South Africa, 2011). Table 3.1 indicates the percentage distribution of youth by population group and province. Black African youth constitute 83% of South Africa's youth population and comprises the majority of youth in all provinces except for Western Cape, where about half (50,3%) of the youth are coloured.

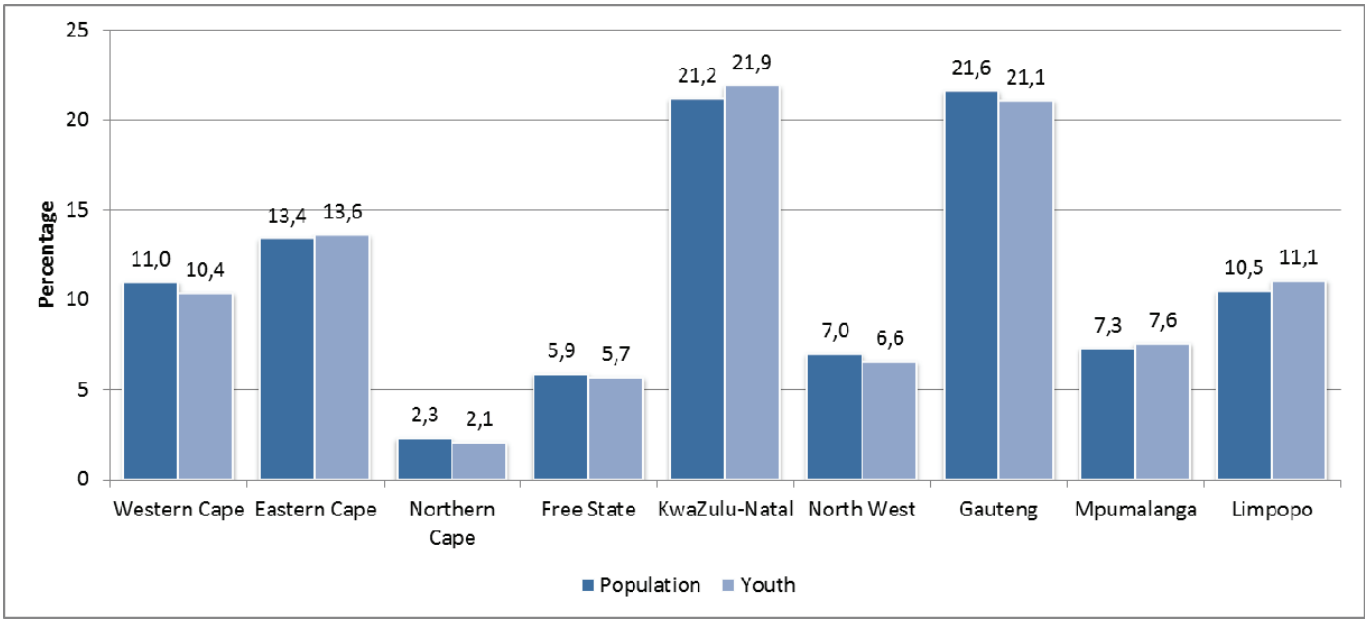
Table 3.1: Percentage distribution of youth (15-34) by population group and province, 2010

	Population group (percentage)					
Province	**Black African**	**Coloured**	**Indian/Asian**	**White**	**Per cent**	**Total (thousands)**
Western Cape	37,8	50,3	0,9	11,1	**100,0**	1 949
Eastern Cape	89,3	7,4	0,6	2,8	**100,0**	2 537
Northern Cape	61,3	33,7	0,2	4,8	**100,0**	397
Free State	88,0	2,8	0,5	8,7	**100,0**	1 071
KwaZulu-Natal	89,2	0,8	7,6	2,4	**100,0**	4 092
North West	93,6	1,4	0,3	4,8	**100,0**	1 233
Gauteng	80,3	3,9	2,5	13,3	**100,0**	3 935
Mpumalanga	93,9	1,2	1,1	3,8	**100,0**	1 411
Limpopo	98,7	0,0	0,0	1,3	**100,0**	2 066
South Africa	**83,0**	**8,3**	**2,5**	**6,2**	**100,0**	**18 691**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

Figure 3.1 presents the provincial distribution of youth and the general population. Most of the youth in South Africa live in the two most populous provinces, namely KwaZulu-Natal (22%) and Gauteng (21%) while the smallest percentage (2,1%) is found in the province with the smallest population, namely Northern Cape. The distribution of youth across provinces is very similar to the distribution of the general population.

Figure 3.1: Provincial distribution of youth (15–34) and the population by province, 2010



3.3 Household characteristics of youth

The broad definition of youth (14–35 years) includes both vulnerable individuals in their late teens and early twenties, as well as persons in their prime adult years. This analysis will therefore subdivide this category into the 15–24 and 25–34-year age categories. The National Youth Policy 2009–2014 (2009: 18) maintains that the youth in youth-headed households (probably the younger households) are often forced to take on responsibility for themselves and their siblings as a result of the death or absence of their parents and that they are therefore more vulnerable to abuse, exploitation and dropping out of school.

Table 3.2: Percentage of households headed by youth aged 15–24 and 25–34, by province, 2002–2010

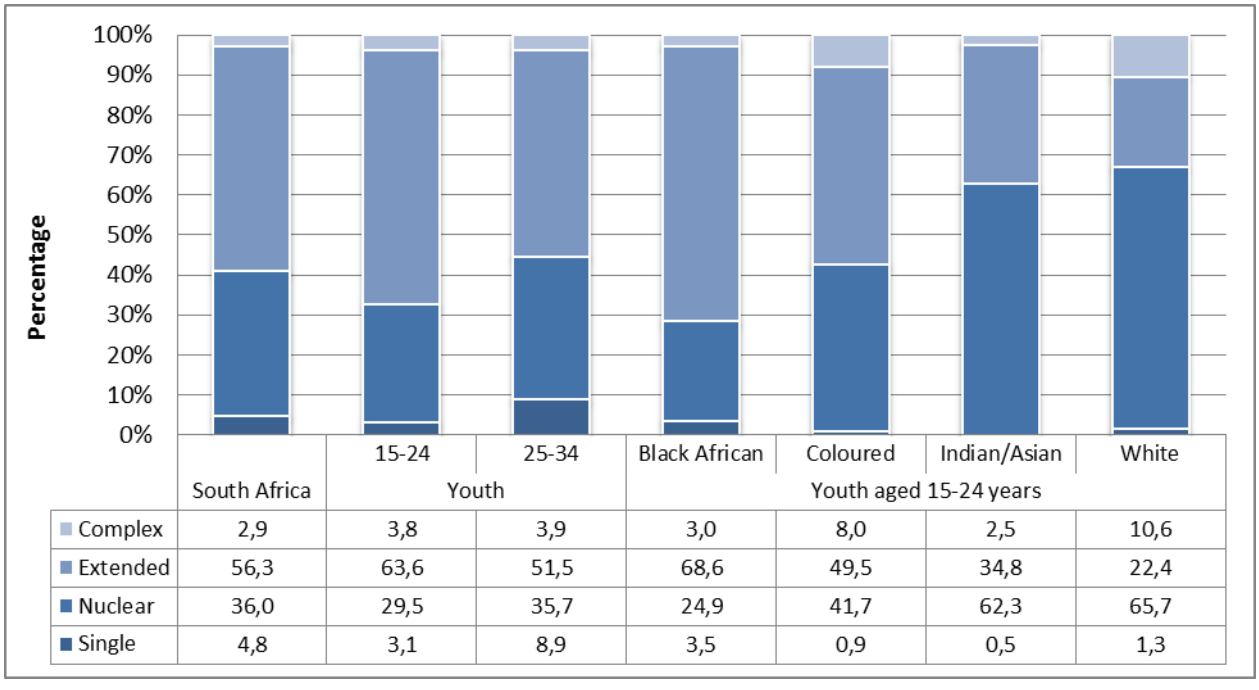
Province	Year (percentage)								
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
15–24 years									
Western Cape	5,7	4,7	3,9	3,2	4,1	5,1	5,1	4,2	4,1
Eastern Cape	8,1	8,3	6,9	7,6	8,9	8,0	7,4	5,7	7,3
Northern Cape	4,1	5,0	4,7	6,0	5,0	4,8	4,3	5,5	5,8
Free State	7,6	6,9	7,5	8,8	8,4	7,9	7,2	6,7	7,2
KwaZulu-Natal	6,4	7,1	6,5	7,8	7,9	7,4	6,3	5,5	6,8
North West	6,5	5,0	6,3	6,1	4,6	5,6	4,4	3,8	3,9
Gauteng	4,8	5,6	4,7	5,5	5,9	6,3	6,0	5,2	5,7
Mpumalanga	6,0	8,1	7,7	8,3	8,4	8,6	7,4	7,7	9,1
Limpopo	9,7	11,7	11,1	10,6	10,1	10,8	10,9	10,1	10,8
South Africa	6,5	6,9	6,4	6,9	7,1	7,2	6,6	5,9	6,6
25–34 years									
Western Cape	23,3	23,8	24,0	24,1	22,7	21,1	20,5	20,8	20,4
Eastern Cape	16,7	16,5	18,0	17,5	16,2	17,1	18,1	20,2	18,6
Northern Cape	22,8	21,7	21,5	19,9	20,5	20,3	20,9	19,4	19,2
Free State	83,0	23,3	22,3	20,5	20,5	20,5	21,1	21,3	20,5
KwaZulu-Natal	21,3	21,0	21,7	20,7	20,7	21,3	22,5	23,3	22,0
North West	20,0	20,3	17,6	16,8	17,2	15,2	15,5	15,2	14,2
Gauteng	29,9	28,7	29,0	27,6	26,7	25,4	24,8	24,8	23,6
Mpumalanga	25,2	23,1	23,3	22,5	22,1	21,8	22,8	22,4	20,7
Limpopo	19,3	17,8	17,9	18,5	19,0	18,2	18,1	19,0	18,4
South Africa	23,1	22,5	22,7	22,0	21,5	21,0	21,3	21,8	20,7

As indicated in Table 3.2, the percentage of households headed by youth aged 15 to 24 years of age has remained between six and seven per cent between 2002 and 2010. The largest percentage of households headed by youth in this age group has consistently been found in Limpopo, followed by Mpumalanga. By contrast, the percentage of households headed by youth in the older age category (25–34 years) has declined consistently since 2002, down to 20,7% in 2010. Almost a quarter of households in Gauteng, and less than 15% of households in North West are headed by individuals in this age category.

Households' living arrangements are influenced by aspects such as politics, access to housing, health, education and socio-economic amenities. One could therefore expect the household structure to correspond to changes in these conditions. Households can be categorised according to a number of typologies. One such typology (Amoateng, Heaton and Kalule-Sabiti, 2007) categorises households into single-person, nuclear, extended and complex households. Nuclear households are defined as 'households consisting of household heads, their spouses and offspring', while the extended household would typically include other relatives in addition to the nucleus. Complex households are all households with members who are not related to the household head. According to Amoateng et al (2007: 56) respectively 40% and 36% of all households were classified as either nuclear or extended, based on the 2001 Census. Studies cited by the authors, however, report an increasing tendency towards more complex households in response to changing socio-economic conditions

The distribution of youth in the age categories 15–24 and 25–34 is presented in Figure 3.2. Whereas almost two-thirds (63,6%) of the youth aged 15 to 24 years live in extended households, slightly more than half (51,5%) of older youth live in these households. Older youth are much more likely than younger youth to live in nuclear households, probably due to the fact that individuals at this age have started to settle down and have children. The black African youth are most likely to live in extended households while Indian/Asian and white youths are much more likely to live in nuclear households.

Figure 3.2: Percentage distribution of youth by household composition and population group, 2010

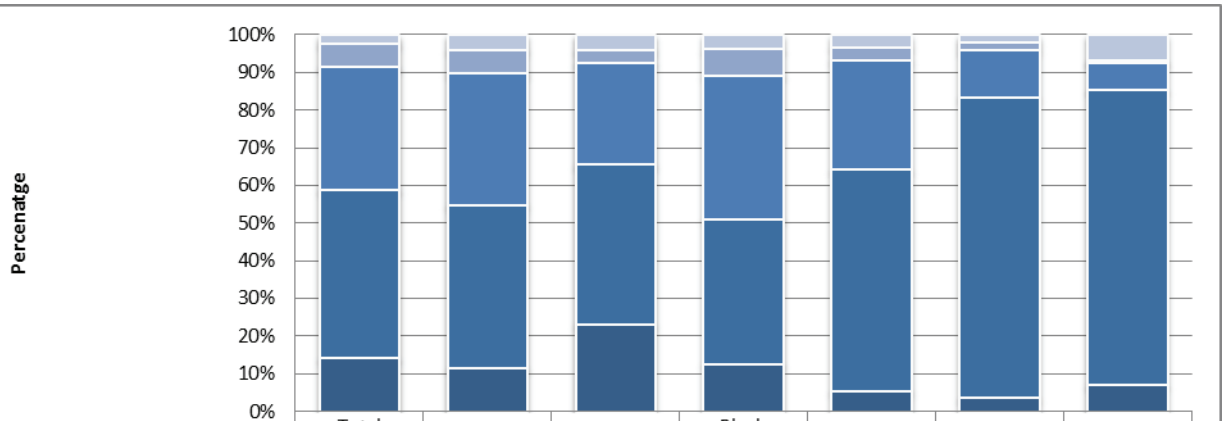


	South Africa	Youth		Youth aged 15-24 years			
		15-24	25-34	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White
Complex	2,9	3,8	3,9	3,0	8,0	2,5	10,6
Extended	56,3	63,6	51,5	68,6	49,5	34,8	22,4
Nuclear	36,0	29,5	35,7	24,9	41,7	62,3	65,7
Single	4,8	3,1	8,9	3,5	0,9	0,5	1,3

The distribution of youth across intergenerational household types is presented in Figure 3.3. More than three-quarters (78,3%) of youth aged 15–24 and two-thirds (69,4%) of youth aged 25–34 live in either double or triple-generation households. Youth in the age group 15 to 24 are probably more likely to still live with their parents or guardians in either a nuclear or extended family setup as indicated in Figure 3.2, whereas many youth between the ages of 25 to 34 have perhaps settled down to start their own families. This is confirmed by the high child

dependency ratio which is outlined in Table 3.3. Seven per cent of black African youths aged 15 to 24 live in skip-generation households with their grandparents. Approximately a third (38,4%) of black African youth live in double-generation households compared to 58,7% of coloured, 79,7% of Indian and 78,2% of white youth. Almost seven per cent of white youth live in households that contain non-related household members, compared to only 3,9% of black African youth.

Figure 3.3: Percentage distribution of youth across inter-generational household types, by age group and population group, 2010

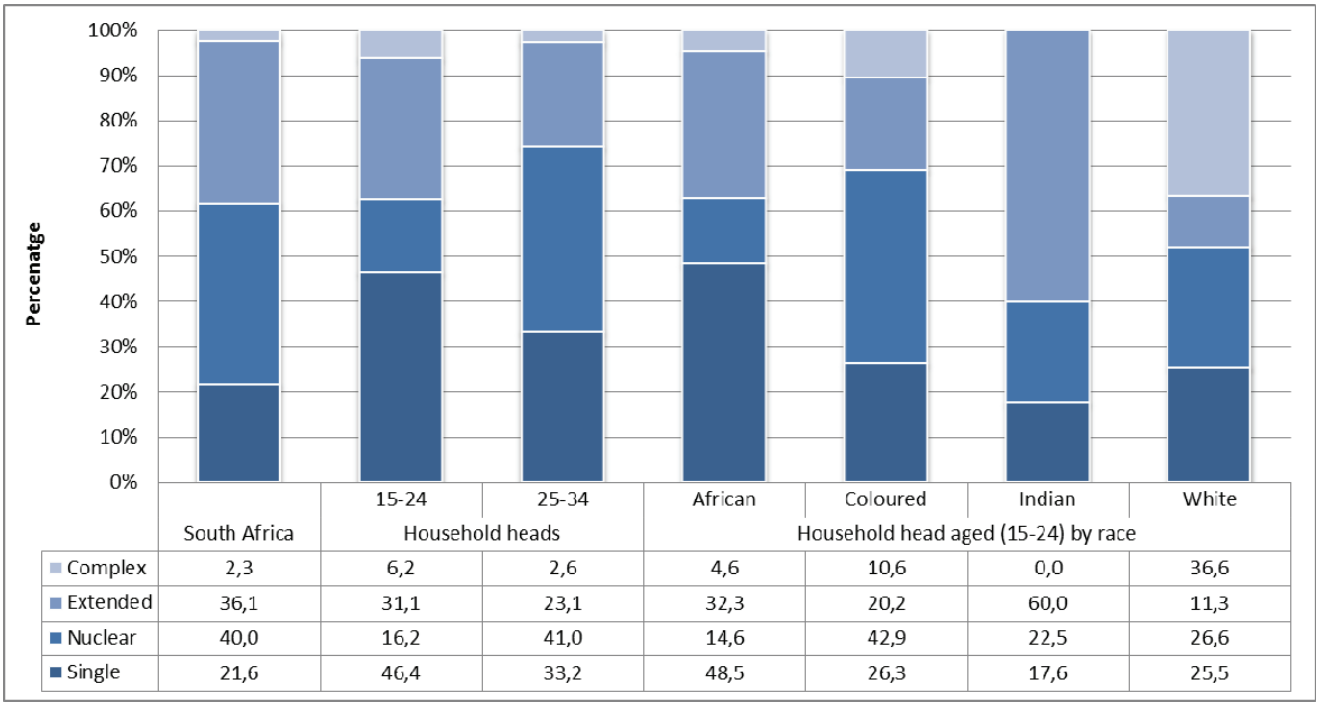


	Total population	15-24	25-34	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White
	Age group			Youth aged 15-24 years			
Other	2,4	4,0	4,1	3,9	3,3	2,1	6,9
Skip generation	6,2	6,2	3,3	7,0	3,5	2,0	0,7
Three and more generations	32,6	35,0	27,1	38,1	29,1	12,7	7,2
Two generations	44,7	43,3	42,3	38,4	58,7	79,7	78,2
Single generation	14,1	11,6	23,1	12,7	5,4	3,6	7,0

The percentage distribution of youth-headed households according to the typology by Amoateng et al (2007) is presented in Figure 3.4. Households headed by youth aged 15–24 years are more likely to consist of a single person than households headed by older persons. By contrast, these households are less likely to be nuclear, that is, consisting of spouses and/or children. Households headed by black African youths aged 15–24 are more likely to be single than households headed by other population groups of this age. In comparison to households headed by heads of all ages, households headed by youth, particularly those aged 15–24 years, are more likely to have complex structures (also including non-relatives).

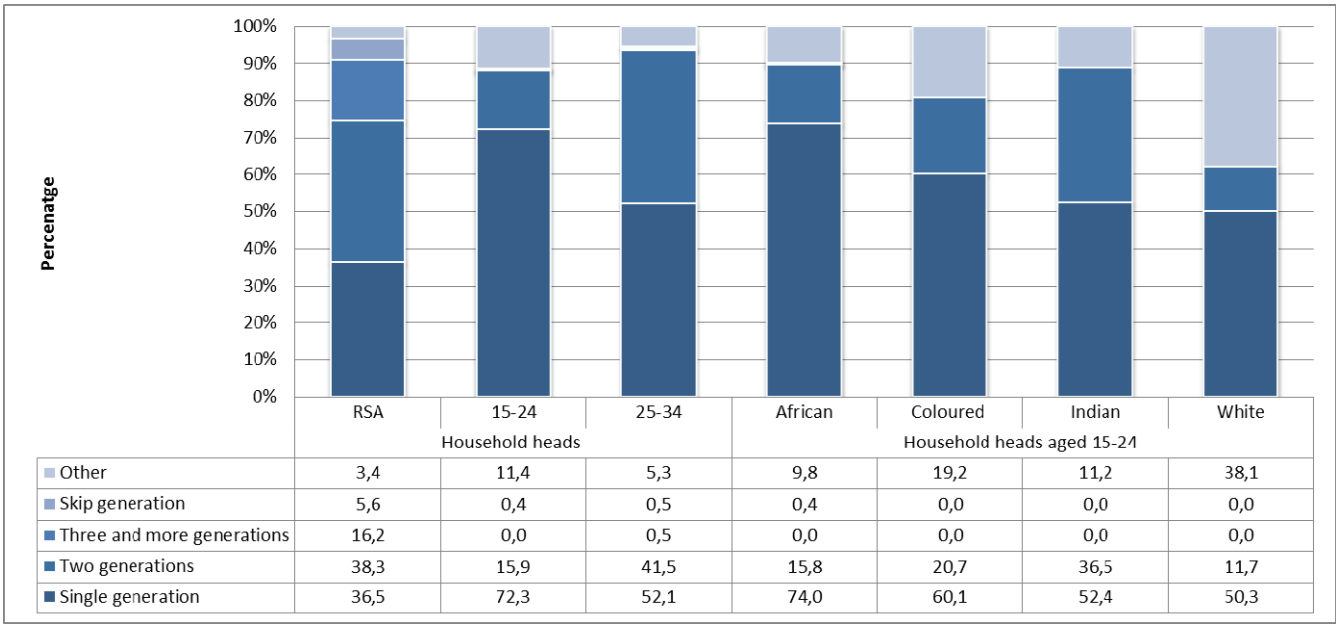
Figure 3.5 presents information on the distribution of youth-headed households across different household types categorised according to their intergenerational nature. It is clear from the graph that youth-headed households generally do not contain grandparents, and that households headed by younger youth (aged 15–24) are less likely than their older youth peers to live in dual-generation households, as their older peers probably live with their own children. White youth household heads aged 15–24 are least likely to live in dual-generation households and most likely to live in households with friends and other relatives.

Figure 3.4: Percentage distribution of youth headed households by household types and population group, 2010



	South Africa	15-24	25-34	African	Coloured	Indian	White
		Household heads		Household head aged (15-24) by race			
Complex	2,3	6,2	2,6	4,6	10,6	0,0	36,6
Extended	36,1	31,1	23,1	32,3	20,2	60,0	11,3
Nuclear	40,0	16,2	41,0	14,6	42,9	22,5	26,6
Single	21,6	46,4	33,2	48,5	26,3	17,6	25,5

Figure 3.5: Percentage distribution of youth headed households across inter-generational household types, by age group and population group, 2010



	RSA	15-24	25-34	African	Coloured	Indian	White
	Household heads			Household heads aged 15-24			
Other	3,4	11,4	5,3	9,8	19,2	11,2	38,1
Skip generation	5,6	0,4	0,5	0,4	0,0	0,0	0,0
Three and more generations	16,2	0,0	0,5	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Two generations	38,3	15,9	41,5	15,8	20,7	36,5	11,7
Single generation	36,5	72,3	52,1	74,0	60,1	52,4	50,3

Some general characteristics of youth-headed households are presented in Table 3.3. The **average size** of households in South Africa has generally declined between 2002 and 2010. Households headed by youths aged 15–24 years have a smaller means size (approximately 2 in 2010) than households headed by older youth (2,6 in 2010) or all households (3,5 persons per household). This can be explained by the higher percentage of single households observed for youth-headed households (see Figure 3.4).

The **total dependency ratio** represents the ratio of the sum of individuals in their dependent years (0–17 and 60+) to all adults aged 18–59 years. The total dependency ratio for South African households has remained relatively constant at about 0,8. Total dependency ratios are lower for both categories of youth-headed households, particularly for households headed by younger youth (15–24) for which a total dependency ratio of 0,5 was estimated in 2010. This matches the household composition presented in Figure 3.4.

The **old-age dependency ratio** represents the ratio of the sum of individuals over the age of 60 years to all adults aged 18–59 years. This ratio has consistently been much lower for youth-headed households than that for all South African households. The ratio for households headed by older youth (25–34) is marginally higher than that for household headed by younger youth (15–24).

The **child dependency ratio** is calculated as the sum of children (below the age of 18 years) divided by adults aged 18–59 years. Households headed by the youth have a slightly smaller child dependency ratio than households as a whole. While being very similar, the ratio is slightly higher for households headed by older youth (0,543) than for households headed by younger youth (0,468).

The **youth proportion** expresses the proportion of individuals between the ages of 15 and 34 of the total household size. Whereas this proportion is estimated at around 0,4 for South African households in general, the proportion is double that for households headed by youth aged 15–24 (0,780 in 2010) and slightly less for households headed by older youth (0,655 in 2010).

Table 3.3: Youth headed households by household size, sex of the head, and dependency ratios, 2002–2010

Age	Indicator	Year								
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Mean household size										
15–24	Average	2,1	2,0	2,0	1,9	2,0	1,9	2,1	2,0	2,0
25–34		2,8	2,6	2,6	2,7	2,6	2,5	2,7	2,6	2,6
15–34		2,6	2,5	2,4	2,5	2,4	2,3	2,6	2,5	2,5
South Africa		3,7	3,6	3,5	3,5	3,4	3,4	3,6	3,5	3,5
Total dependency ratio										
15–24	Average ratio	0,634	0,565	0,603	0,523	0,525	0,505	0,520	0,517	0,470
25–34		0,601	0,567	0,565	0,568	0,551	0,515	0,549	0,535	0,551
15–34		0,607	0,566	0,572	0,560	0,546	0,513	0,543	0,532	0,534
South Africa		0,844	0,814	0,804	0,801	0,774	0,784	0,794	0,786	0,792
Old-age dependency ratio										
15–24	Average ratio	0,005	0,004	0,003	0,001	0,001	0,004	0,005	0,001	0,002
25–34		0,011	0,009	0,006	0,009	0,006	0,008	0,006	0,004	0,008
15–34		0,010	0,008	0,006	0,007	0,005	0,007	0,006	0,004	0,007
South Africa		0,133	0,135	0,138	0,137	0,134	0,140	0,141	0,144	0,145
Child dependency ratio										
15–24	Average ratio	0,629	0,561	0,600	0,522	0,525	0,501	0,514	0,516	0,468
25–34		0,590	0,557	0,559	0,560	0,545	0,507	0,543	0,531	0,543
15–34		0,597	0,558	0,566	0,553	0,541	0,506	0,537	0,528	0,528
South Africa		0,711	0,679	0,666	0,664	0,640	0,644	0,653	0,642	0,647
Youth proportion										
15–24	Average ratio	0,718	0,738	0,742	0,767	0,766	0,762	0,757	0,757	0,780
25–34		0,638	0,649	0,652	0,648	0,659	0,666	0,655	0,660	0,655
15–34		0,652	0,666	0,668	0,669	0,680	0,686	0,675	0,677	0,680
South Africa		0,375	0,374	0,373	0,372	0,377	0,371	0,374	0,367	0,370

3.4 Income, poverty, economic activity and social grants

Households rely on a variety of income sources. Salaries and wages from resident members, or indeed remittances from absent members, and also social grants form a major part of this. The main sources of income for households between 2002 and 2010 are presented in Table 3.4.

The varying nature and vulnerability of households headed by youth from the two age groups is clearly illustrated by the different main sources of income declared by the different households. Whereas 71% of income for households headed by older youths is derived from salaries and wages, only 47,7% of households headed by younger youth predominantly relied upon this source. Inversely, almost 41% of households headed by youth aged 15–24 rely mainly upon remittances compared to 11% for households headed by older youth. These figures need to be contextualised by noting that households that rely on remittances have generally decreased between 2002 and 2010, while the percentage of households headed by youth aged 15–24 who rely upon salaries and wages has increased since 2002.

Table 3.4: Main sources of income for youth-headed households, 2002–2010

Income source	Year (percentage)								
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Youth-headed (15–24)									
Salaries and/or wages	39,1	42,4	38,8	41,0	44,5	46,4	47,8	41,1	47,7
Remittances	48,6	47,0	49,4	46,5	41,8	37,4	36,5	44,3	40,8
Pensions and grants	1,1	1,5	1,8	4,5	4,8	4,1	6,1	7,1	6,6
Sales of farm products	0,3	0,4	0,3	0,2	1,1	0,5	0,2	0,0	0,0
Other non-farm income	5,3	2,0	5,3	3,8	2,4	4,7	2,2	6,0	3,2
No income	5,7	6,6	4,4	4,0	5,4	7,0	7,2	1,6	1,7
Per cent	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Total (thousands)	**714**	**784**	**748**	**832**	**874**	**924**	**880**	**756**	**910**
Youth-headed (25–34)									
Salaries and/or wages	71,9	70,9	71,5	71,2	73,5	76,2	75,7	71,4	71,0
Remittances	15,3	16,8	16,3	12,9	11,8	10,1	10,8	11,4	11,0
Pensions and grants	3,0	3,4	4,9	8,0	8,0	7,2	8,4	8,9	9,1
Sales of farm products	0,6	0,5	0,8	0,8	0,9	0,6	0,5	0,0	0,0
Other non-farm income	4,9	4,1	4,5	4,3	2,4	2,9	1,3	7,5	7,8
No income	4,3	4,2	2,1	2,8	3,5	3,0	3,3	0,8	1,0
Per cent	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Total (thousands)	**2 530**	**2 554**	**2 660**	**2 652**	**2 669**	**2 688**	**2 823**	**2 926**	**2 896**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

The GHS provides estimates of income earned from employment, government transfers through social grants as well as remittances. Although data on other sources such as rent, dividends and interest are more difficult to obtain, the 2010 questionnaire asked for income from private pensions. This is a great improvement over 2009 when the questionnaire failed to inquire about the amount of income pensioners were earning from private pensions in addition to other sources of income. Great care is taken to improve income data, but figures should be treated with circumspect as the literature (Casale and Desmond, 2007) suggests that high earners often tend to diminish their income while in-kind payments are often disregarded in the case of lower earning households.

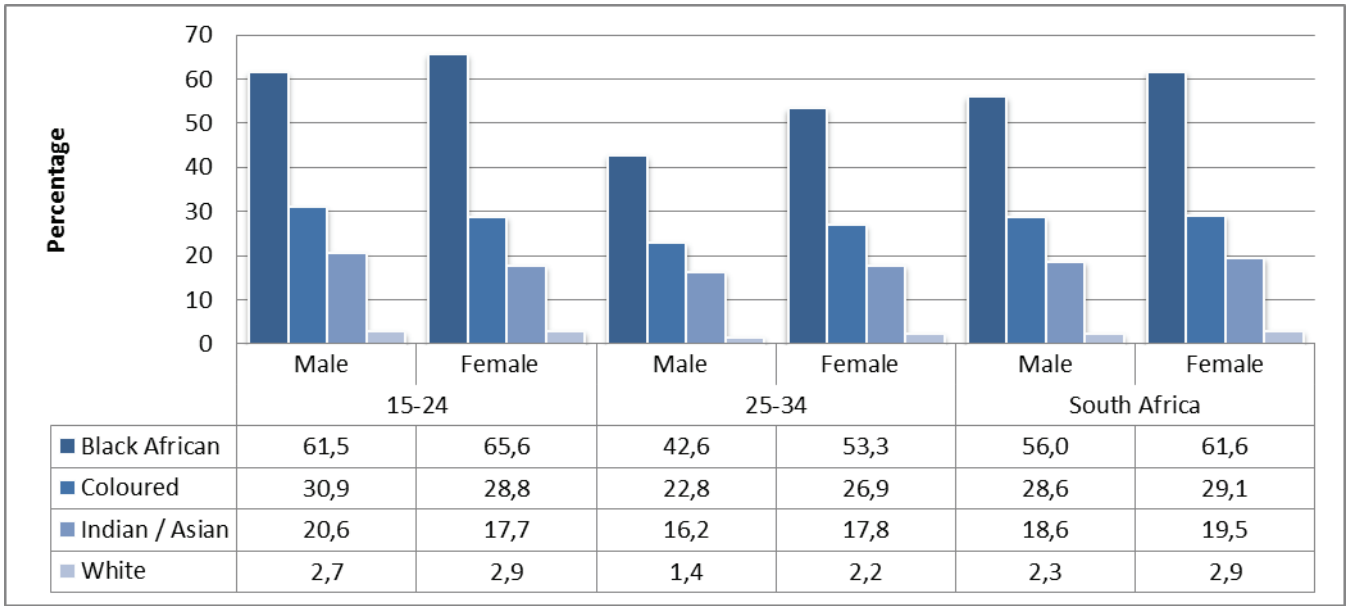
The percentage of youth living in low per capita income households is established by using a poverty threshold that was proposed by Statistics South Africa (2007). The “upper-bound” threshold, which provides for essential food and non-food consumption, was set at R322 per capita per month in 2000 prices. Statistics South Africa (2007) provides a detailed overview of the determination. When increased with inflation the threshold is equivalent to R570 in 2010. This amount is merely used to identify low income households and should not be considered an official poverty line. An official poverty line based on household expenditure will be published during 2012. Using GHS data, per capita income is calculated by adding all reported income for the household, including remittances, social grants and income from private pensions, and then dividing the sum by the number of household members. The 2010 adjusted poverty threshold is used to determine the number of youth living above and below it, hence providing an indication of the extent to which youth are lagging behind in welfare terms and how their access to education, employment, health care and nutrition might be negatively affected.

The percentage of youth living in low-income households by gender and population group is presented in Figure 3.6. It is evident that youth aged 15–24 are much more likely to be living in low-income households than older youth. Similarly, the black African youth of both age groups are more likely to be living in low-income households

than youth from the other racial groups. Female youth in both age categories are also more likely to live in lower-income households than their male counterparts, regardless of their population group or province of residence.

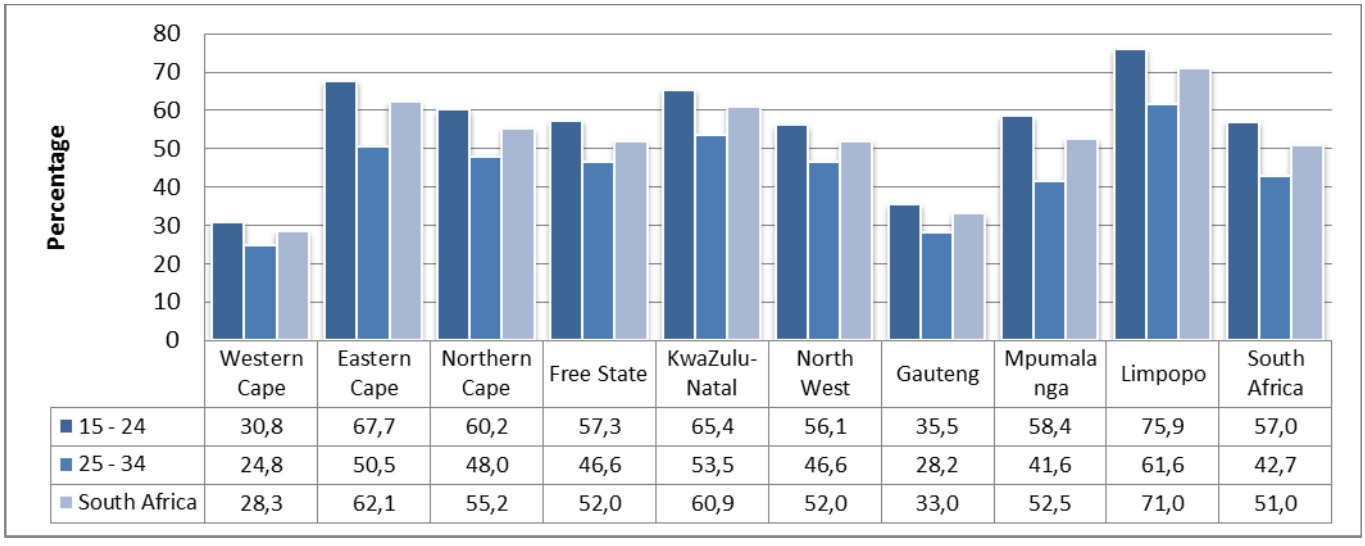
Following Figure 3.7, youth aged 15–24 years are consistently more likely to live in low-income households than youth in the older age category across all provinces. Approximately 57% of South African youth aged 15–24 years live in low-income households compared to slightly less than 43% of youth in the older age group. Youth in Limpopo are most likely to live in low-income households while youth in Western Cape are least likely to do so. The South African population in generally less likely to live in poverty than youth from the age group 15-24, but more likely to do so than older youth.

Figure 3.6: Percentage of youth living in households with a per capita income of less than R570 per month by gender and population group, 2010



	15-24 Male	15-24 Female	25-34 Male	25-34 Female	South Africa Male	South Africa Female
Black African	61,5	65,6	42,6	53,3	56,0	61,6
Coloured	30,9	28,8	22,8	26,9	28,6	29,1
Indian / Asian	20,6	17,7	16,2	17,8	18,6	19,5
White	2,7	2,9	1,4	2,2	2,3	2,9

Figure 3.7: Percentage of youth living in households with a per capita income of less than R570 per month by age group and province, 2010

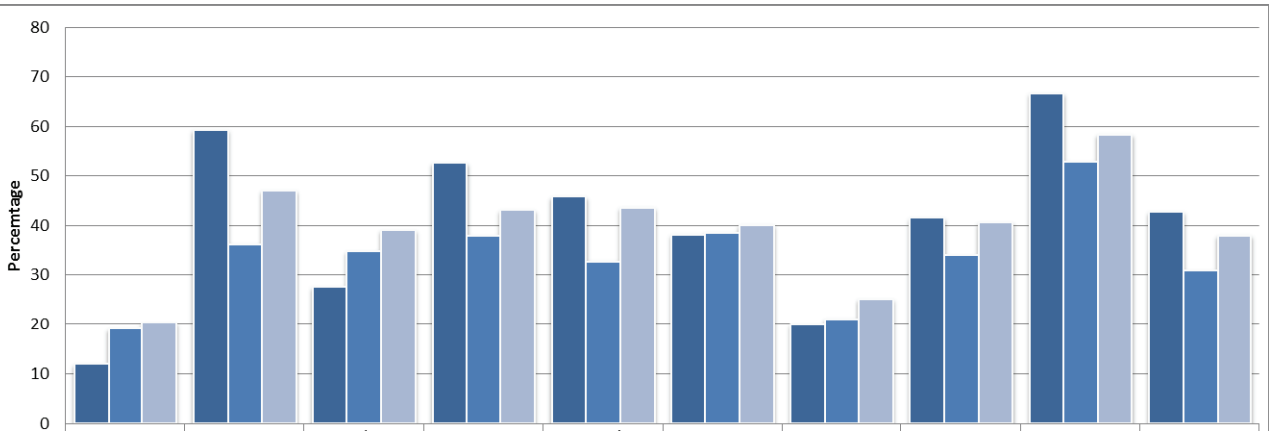


	Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	KwaZulu-Natal	North West	Gauteng	Mpumalanga	Limpopo	South Africa
15 - 24	30,8	67,7	60,2	57,3	65,4	56,1	35,5	58,4	75,9	57,0
25 - 34	24,8	50,5	48,0	46,6	53,5	46,6	28,2	41,6	61,6	42,7
South Africa	28,3	62,1	55,2	52,0	60,9	52,0	33,0	52,5	71,0	51,0

A curious picture emerges from Figure 3.8. Households headed by youth aged 15-24 years are less likely to have a per capita income of less than R570 per month than household headed by older youth and households in four provinces: Western Cape, Gauteng, Northern Cape and North West, while being more likely to be poor nationally as well as in the other provinces. Households are least likely to have low incomes in Western Cape and Gauteng,

and most likely to do so in Limpopo and Eastern Cape. The largest percentage difference between households headed by younger and older youth is observed in Eastern Cape where 59,4% of households headed by youth 15–24 years live in low income households compared to 36,2% of households headed by youth aged 25–34 years.

Figure 3.8: Percentage of youth-headed households with a per capita income of less than R570 per month, by age group and province, 2010



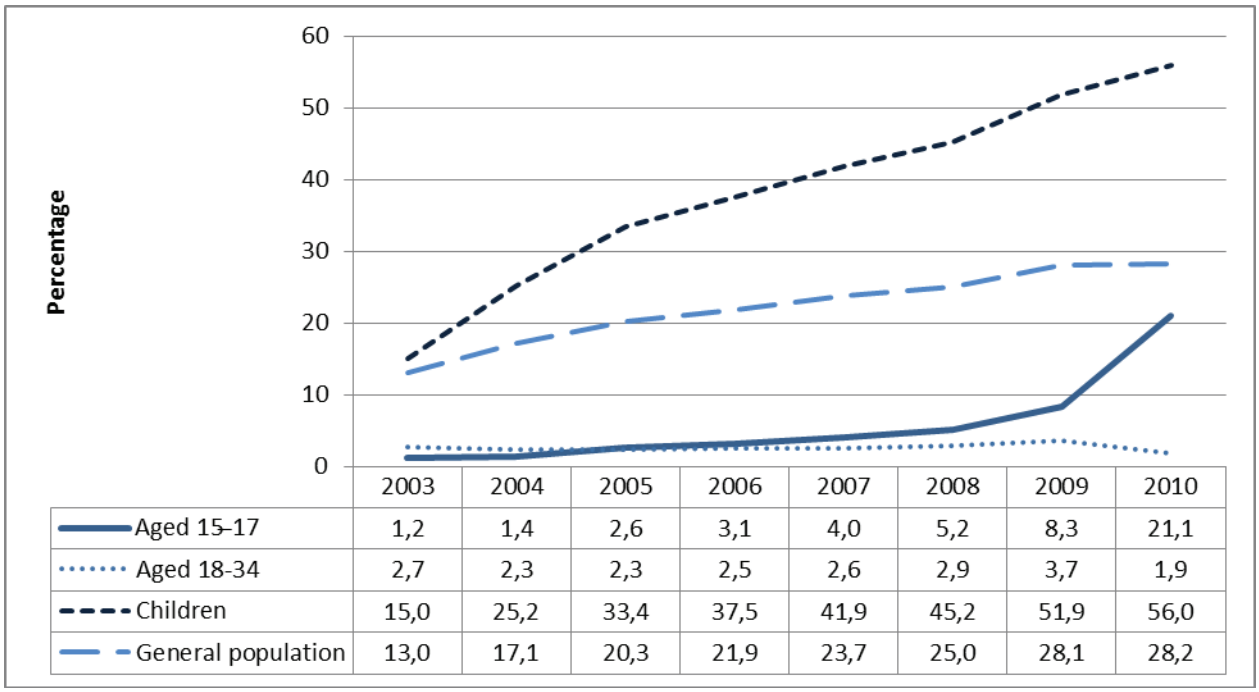
	Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	KwaZulu-Natal	North West	Gauteng	Mpumalanga	Limpopo	South Africa
15 - 24	11,9	59,4	27,6	52,5	45,7	38,2	20,0	41,5	66,7	42,7
25 - 34	19,1	36,2	34,8	37,8	32,7	38,5	21,2	33,9	52,7	30,9
South Africa	20,2	47,0	39,0	43,0	43,6	40,1	25,2	40,5	58,4	37,9

Youth is generally not targeted by South Africa's social welfare system. While child recipients of the child support and other targeted grants will progressively remain eligible to receive such grants until the age of 17 years, youth in the age group 18–34 years of age can only benefit directly from disability grants, if they are disabled, and indirectly from the various child grants if they are care givers. The percentages of youth that are beneficiaries to any social grant are presented in Figure 3.9.

The percentage of youth grant recipients is much lower than the average for the general population, and specifically the average for children. Whereas the percentage of youth beneficiaries between the ages of 18 and 34 has generally remained below 3%, reaching a peak of 3,7% in 2009, the percentage of child beneficiaries has increased from 15% in 2002 to 56% in 2010 as the coverage of particularly the child support grant (CSG) was extended. The gradual extension of the eligibility age for the child support grant is reflected in the slight increase in the percentage of grant beneficiaries in the age group 15–17 years. When the CSG was first implemented in 1998, it only covered children under the age of 6 years. The threshold age was gradually increased to 16 at the beginning of 2010, and it will be expanded to include children under the age of 18 years by 2012.

The proportion of economically active and employed household members as a proportion of the mean household size is presented in Table 3.5. The **economically active proportion** expresses the proportion of economically active members (i.e. who are either employed or looking for employment) in the age group 15–64 of the total number of individuals in the same age group. Members of households headed by youth in the age group 25 to 34 are more likely to be economically active than members of South African households in general, or indeed households headed by youth in the age category 15–24. This is to be expected, as large numbers of youth between the ages of 15 and –24 are often engaged in education and not actively looking for work. It is noticeable that households headed by 25 to 34 year olds contain a larger proportion of employed members, expressed as a proportion of the total household size, than households in general, or households headed by younger youth (15–24).

Figure 3.9: Percentage of youth beneficiaries of social grants, 2003–2010



	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Aged 15-17	1,2	1,4	2,6	3,1	4,0	5,2	8,3	21,1
Aged 18-34	2,7	2,3	2,3	2,5	2,6	2,9	3,7	1,9
Children	15,0	25,2	33,4	37,5	41,9	45,2	51,9	56,0
General population	13,0	17,1	20,3	21,9	23,7	25,0	28,1	28,2

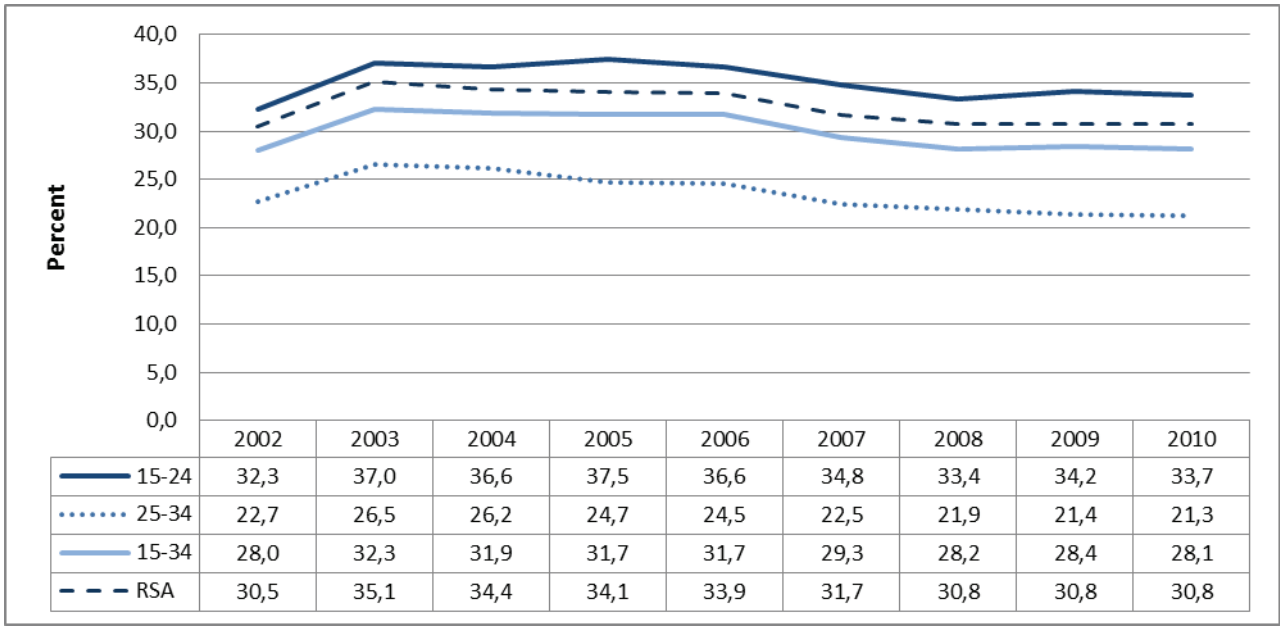
Table 3.5: Proportion of economically active and employed household members as proportion of the mean household size by the age of household head, 2002–2010

Age group	Measure	Year								
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Economically active proportion (15–64)										
15–24	Proportion	0,500	0,505	0,479	0,492	0,502	0,503	0,527	0,620	0,658
25–34		0,738	0,744	0,735	0,732	0,739	0,745	0,757	0,876	0,875
15–34		0,693	0,695	0,686	0,683	0,687	0,689	0,708	0,827	0,826
South Africa		0,568	0,551	0,553	0,552	0,571	0,566	0,580	0,718	0,715
	Proportion of employed household members age 15–64									
15–24	Proportion	0,254	0,263	0,254	0,273	0,277	0,294	0,298	0,275	0,313
25–34		0,371	0,372	0,384	0,381	0,392	0,408	0,398	0,411	0,406
15–34		0,350	0,351	0,361	0,361	0,369	0,383	0,379	0,387	0,388
South Africa		0,259	0,252	0,260	0,264	0,273	0,282	0,278	0,290	0,283

The percentage of youth living in households in which nobody is employed in either the formal or informal sector is presented in Figure 3.10. The definition of work includes regular or irregular work for wages or salary, as well as unpaid work in a family business, farming or household maintenance projects. The percentage of employed household members is important as these individuals provide income that could be used to advance household members' general well-being (Hall, 2010). They could also improve the job prospects of fellow household members by unlocking social networks. Approximately 28% of all youth in South Africa lives in households where not a single household member is working compared to about a third (30,8%) of all South Africans. This rate has remained relatively constant over the period 2002 to 2010. Youth aged 15–24 are much more likely to live in such households than youth aged 25–34.

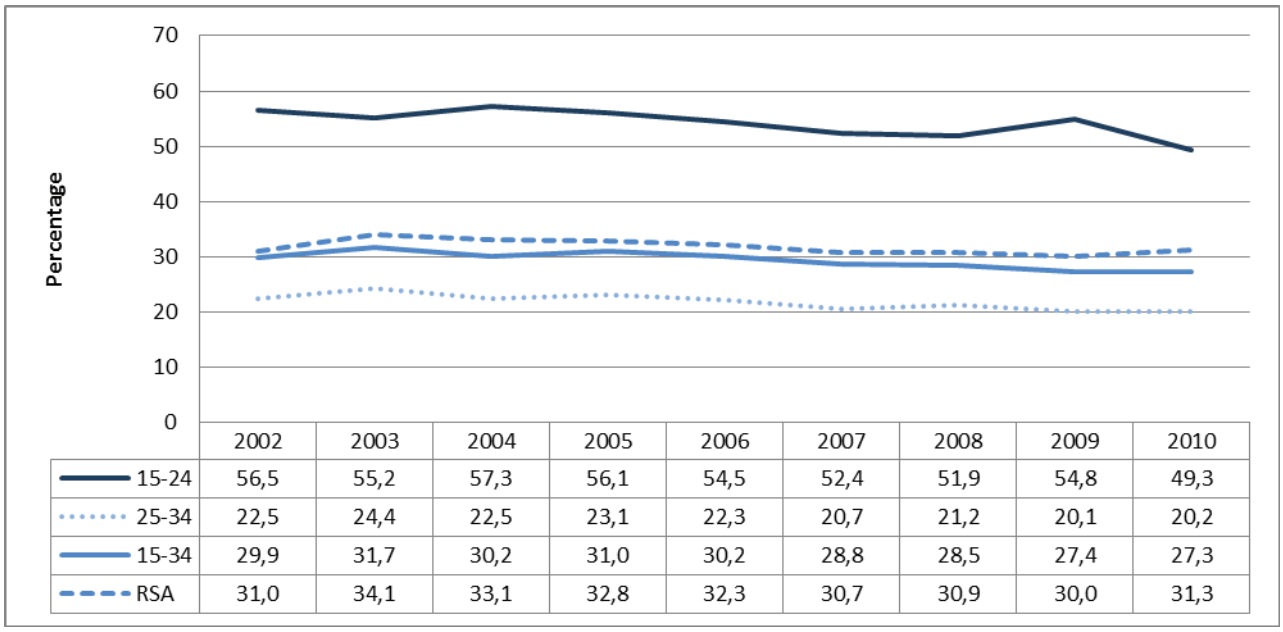
The percentage of youth-headed households without any employed household members is presented in Figure 3.11. In 2010, South African households in general were slightly more likely to contain no employed members than households headed by youth aged 15–34 (31,3% compared to 27,3%). However, households headed by youth aged 15–24 were much less likely to contain employed adults than the older groups. The percentage of these households that do not contain any employed members declined from 56,5% in 2002 to 49,3% in 2010.

Figure 3.10: Percentage of individuals living in households without an employed member (15 years and older), 2010



	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
15-24	32,3	37,0	36,6	37,5	36,6	34,8	33,4	34,2	33,7
25-34	22,7	26,5	26,2	24,7	24,5	22,5	21,9	21,4	21,3
15-34	28,0	32,3	31,9	31,7	31,7	29,3	28,2	28,4	28,1
RSA	30,5	35,1	34,4	34,1	33,9	31,7	30,8	30,8	30,8

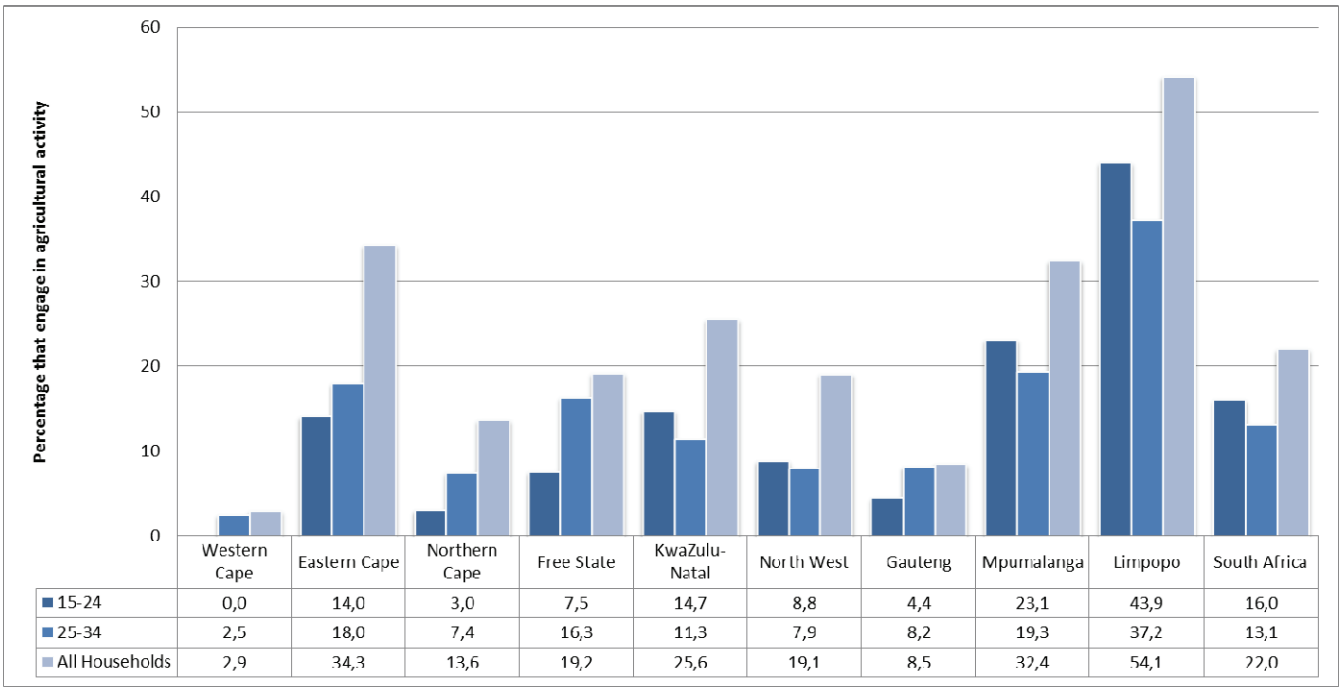
Figure 3.11: Percentage of youth-headed households without any employed household members, 2002–2010



	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
15-24	56,5	55,2	57,3	56,1	54,5	52,4	51,9	54,8	49,3
25-34	22,5	24,4	22,5	23,1	22,3	20,7	21,2	20,1	20,2
15-34	29,9	31,7	30,2	31,0	30,2	28,8	28,5	27,4	27,3
RSA	31,0	34,1	33,1	32,8	32,3	30,7	30,9	30,0	31,3

Youth-headed households are less likely to engage in agricultural production than households in general. According to Figure 3.12, just over a fifth (22%) of all South African households engage in agricultural activity compared to 16% of households headed by youth aged 15–24 years and 13,1% of households headed by youth aged 25–34 years. Households in Limpopo, including those headed by youth, are more likely to engage in agricultural activities than households in other provinces. The elevated agricultural interest by youth-headed households in Limpopo is followed by more subdued participation in Mpumalanga, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. The weakest participation is noticed in the most urbanised provinces, namely Western Cape and Gauteng, where only 2,9% and 8,5% of all households indicated involvement in agricultural activities.

Figure 3.12: Percentage of youth headed households and households in general involved in agricultural production, 2010

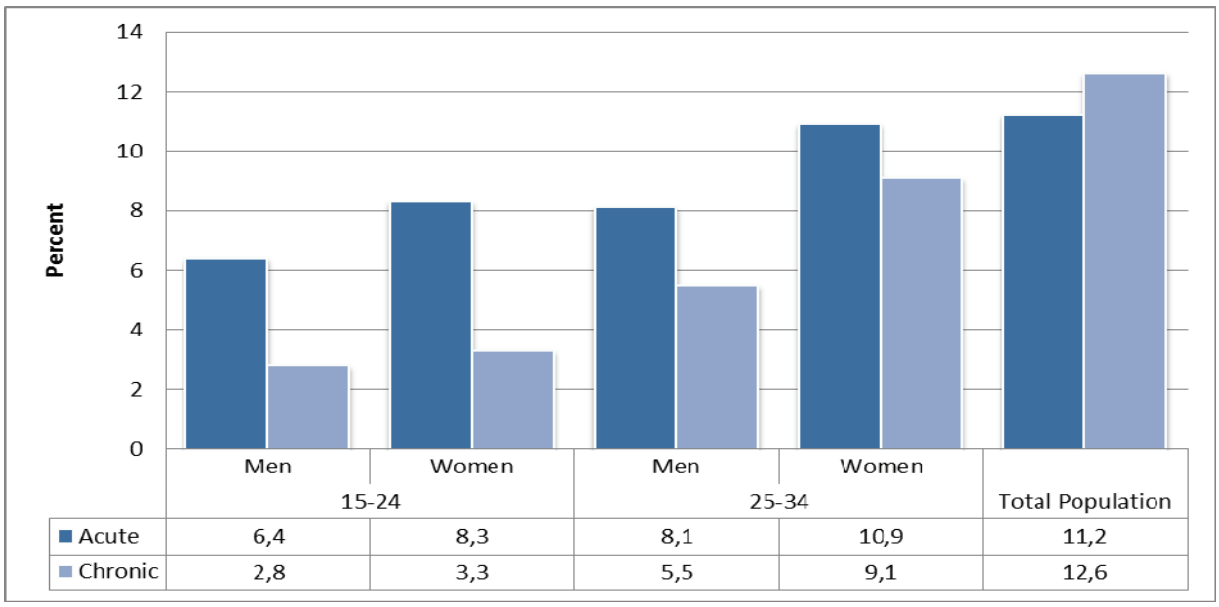


	Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	KwaZulu-Natal	North West	Gauteng	Mpumalanga	Limpopo	South Africa
15-24	0,0	14,0	3,0	7,5	14,7	8,8	4,4	23,1	43,9	16,0
25-34	2,5	18,0	7,4	16,3	11,3	7,9	8,2	19,3	37,2	13,1
All Households	2,9	34,3	13,6	19,2	25,6	19,1	8,5	32,4	54,1	22,0

3.5 Health

Young people generally comprise the healthiest section of society. Poor health, like inadequate education, can severely limit a young person's opportunities to inter alia socialise and access employment. Figure 3.13 presents the percentage of youth who reported suffering from acute (including accidents or injuries) or chronic illnesses during the week preceding the survey. Females are generally more likely to have suffered from acute or chronic conditions than males across both age cohorts. Youth aged 15–24 and 25–34 are furthermore less likely to have suffered either condition than the population as a whole.

Figure 3.13: Percentage distribution of youth aged 15–24 and 25–34 who reported suffering from acute or chronic illness during the week preceding the survey by gender, 2002–2010

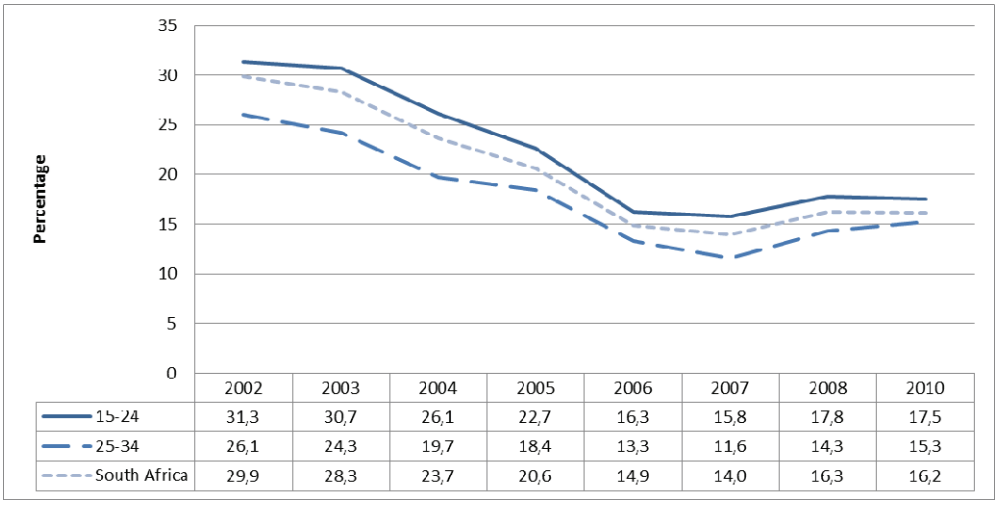


	Men	Women	Men	Women	
	15-24		25-34		Total Population
Acute	6,4	8,3	8,1	10,9	11,2
Chronic	2,8	3,3	5,5	9,1	12,6

3.6 Vulnerability to hunger and access to food

Access to food is essential to human well-being and development. Households are very sensitive to livelihood shocks and low income households with a large percentage of dependents remain particularly vulnerable. The GHS asks respondents a battery of questions to establish whether any household members experienced hunger during the preceding year and to establish the severity of hunger. These questions were however not asked during 2009. Self-assessed hunger is used as a proxy for inadequate food intake and is associated with not consuming enough food. Although this is definitely more imprecise than variables designed to measure under nutrition, it does provide analysts with the opportunity to explore the relationship between vulnerability to hunger and poverty, and particularly the impact of social grants in alleviating hunger. The percentage of South Africans of all ages living in households that reported hunger has decreased from 29,9% in 2002 to 16,2% in 2010. According to Figure 3.14 youth aged 15–24 are more likely to live in households that reported hunger than youth aged 25–34, or South Africans in general.

Figure 3.14: Percentage of youth living in households that reported hunger, 2002–2008, 2010[3]

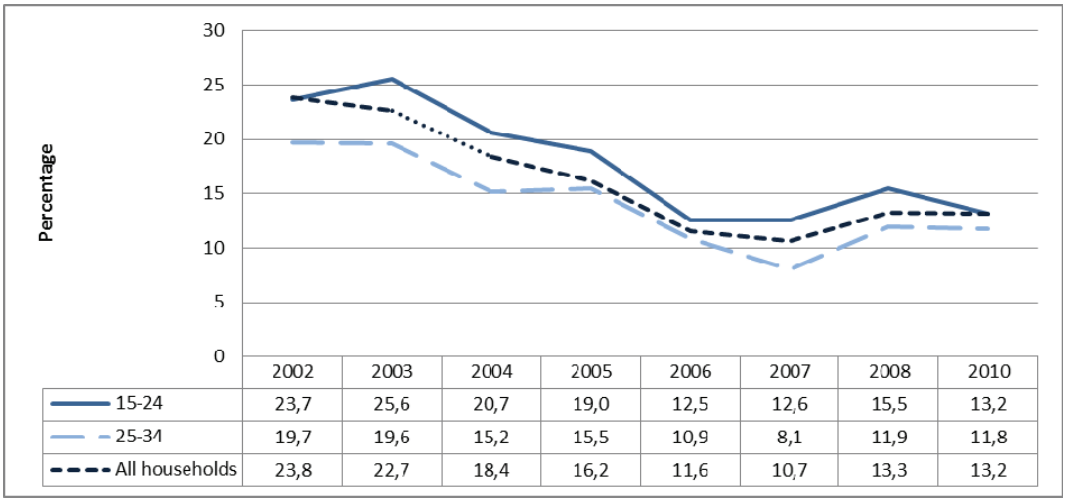


	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2010
15-24	31,3	30,7	26,1	22,7	16,3	15,8	17,8	17,5
25-34	26,1	24,3	19,7	18,4	13,3	11,6	14,3	15,3
South Africa	29,9	28,3	23,7	20,6	14,9	14,0	16,3	16,2

Figure 3.15 shows that households headed by youth aged 15–24 have consistently been more likely to have reported hunger than households in general or households headed by youth aged 25–34 years. In 2010, the percentage of households headed by youth aged 15–24 that reported hunger, however, dips to 13,2% , the same as all households.

[3] Questions on hunger were replaced by questions to measure food access and supply in 2009. The battery of questions were reinserted in 2010.

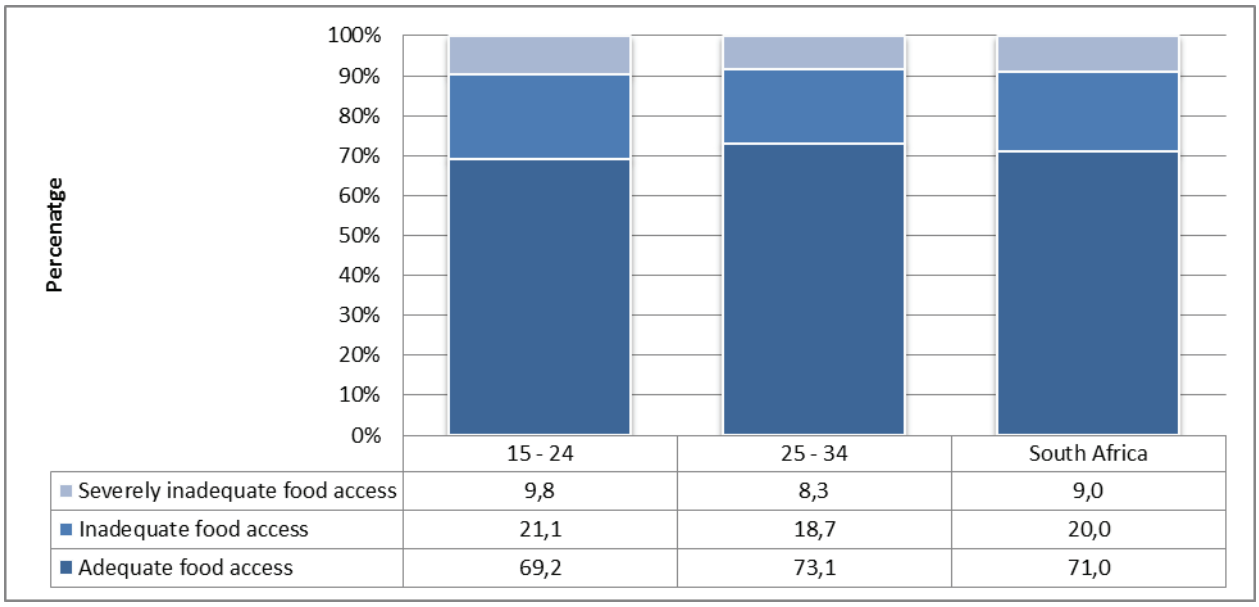
Figure 3.15: Percentage of households headed by youth aged 15-24 and 25-34 that reported hunger, 2002–2008, 2010



	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2010
15-24	23,7	25,6	20,7	19,0	12,5	12,6	15,5	13,2
25-34	19,7	19,6	15,2	15,5	10,9	8,1	11,9	11,8
All households	23,8	22,7	18,4	16,2	11,6	10,7	13,3	13,2

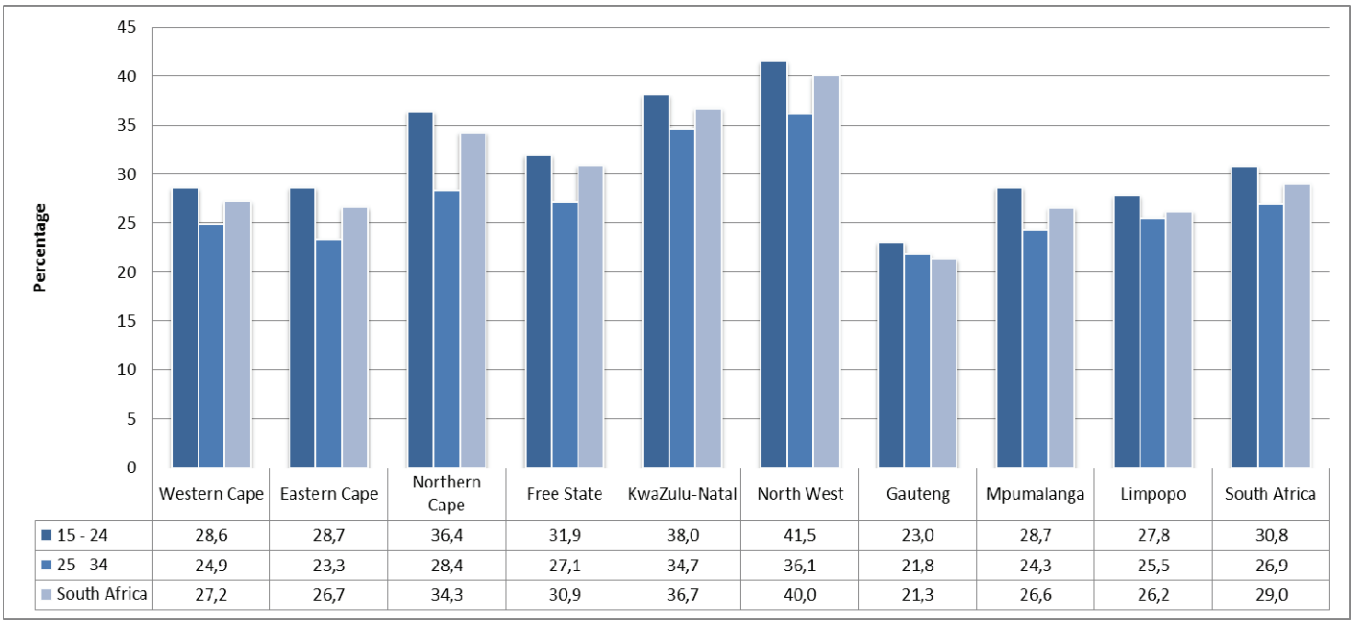
A battery of questions to assess access to food was introduced into the GHS questionnaire in 2009. These questions differ from the questions on hunger as they attempt to establish the availability of food in the household rather than whether the household necessarily suffered hunger. A comparison of the experiences of youth in the two age groups (15-24 and 25-34) is presented in Figure 3.16. Youth in the age group 15–24 are more likely to live in households that have experienced inadequate or severely inadequate food access than youth in the age category 25–34.

Figure 3.16: Percentage of youth (15–24 and 25–34) and the general population living in households by food adequacy, 2009–2010



	15 - 24	25 - 34	South Africa
Severely inadequate food access	9,8	8,3	9,0
Inadequate food access	21,1	18,7	20,0
Adequate food access	69,2	73,1	71,0

Figure 3.17: Percentage of youth (15–24 and 25–34) and the general population living in households that experienced inadequate or severely inadequate access to food by province, 2010



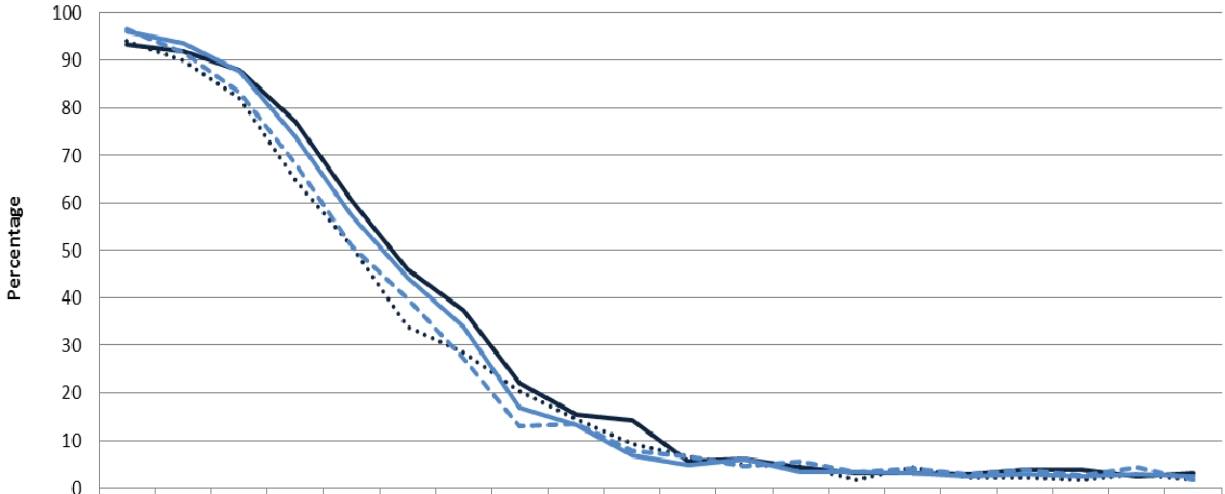
	Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	KwaZulu-Natal	North West	Gauteng	Mpumalanga	Limpopo	South Africa
15 - 24	28,6	28,7	36,4	31,9	38,0	41,5	23,0	28,7	27,8	30,8
25 34	24,9	23,3	28,4	27,1	34,7	36,1	21,8	24,3	25,5	26,9
South Africa	27,2	26,7	34,3	30,9	36,7	40,0	21,3	26,6	26,2	29,0

Households headed by youth aged 15–24 are more likely to experience inadequate or severely inadequate access to food than households in the age group 25-34 across all provinces. This is presented in Figure 3.17. Youth from both age groups are most likely to live in households that experienced inadequate or severely inadequate access to food in North West, KwaZulu-Natal and Northern Cape. Despite registering high levels of poverty and unemployment, high household agriculture participation rates Limpopo and Mpumalanga (see Figure 3.12) almost certainly contribute to access to food indicators that compare favourably to that in wealthy provinces such as Western Cape and Gauteng.

3.7 Education

The percentage of youth aged 15 to 34 attending an education institution during 2002 and 2010 is presented in Figure 3.18. The graph shows very similar levels of educational attendance between the ages of 15 and 16 during both years as more than 90% of children attended an educational institution. Educational attendance drops down very quickly beyond this age. After the age of 16, the percentage of youth attending an educational institution steadily declines to approximately ten per cent by age 24, and even lower beyond that. Female participation increased markedly between 2002 and 2010 for the ages 15 to 21 before dropping for the ages 23 to 26.

Figure 3.18: Percentage of youth who attended an educational institution by age and sex, 2002 and 2010

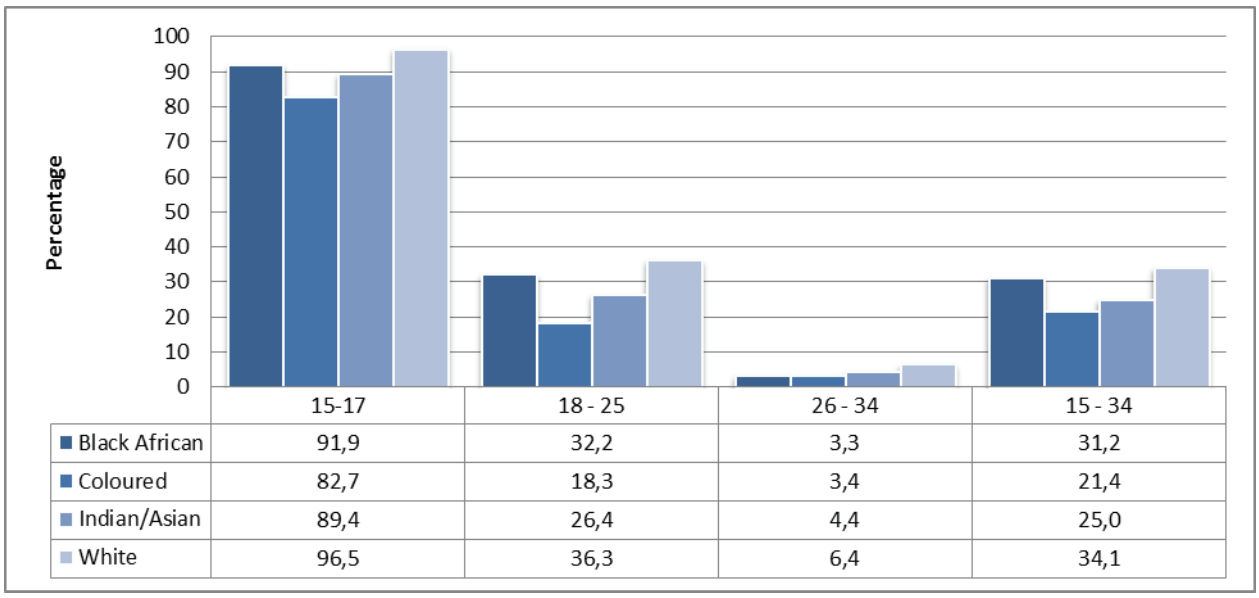


	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34
Male 2002	93,3	91,8	87,8	77,1	60,6	45,9	37,4	22,0	15,5	14,2	5,6	6,0	4,2	3,1	3,0	2,9	3,9	3,8	2,4	3,1
Female 2002	94,0	90,0	82,0	64,8	50,9	34,0	28,5	20,5	14,4	9,3	6,6	4,7	4,5	1,6	4,4	2,2	2,0	1,7	2,9	1,5
Male 2010	96,1	93,5	87,7	73,8	57,3	44,3	34,0	16,8	13,1	6,7	4,9	6,1	3,3	3,3	3,1	2,4	2,9	2,4	2,9	2,4
Female 2010	96,5	91,7	83,3	68,1	51,0	39,9	27,3	13,0	13,3	7,8	6,5	4,6	5,5	3,5	4,2	2,9	3,9	2,6	4,3	1,6

The likelihood of attending an educational institution for different population groups across three age cohorts (15–17, 18–24 and 25–34) is presented in Figure 3.19. Although black African participation rates closely match those of the Indian and white population in all age categories, the high participation rates for black African youth during the ages 18 to 25 do not necessarily reflect their progression to higher education, as it does for white and Indian youth. This observation is confirmed by Figure 3.20 in which the relatively low black African participation rate in higher education compared to that of the white and Indian population is presented. Although the situation is improving, a much larger percentage of black African and, to a lesser extent, coloured youth remain in school after the age of eighteen compared to their Indian and white counterparts who move into higher education.

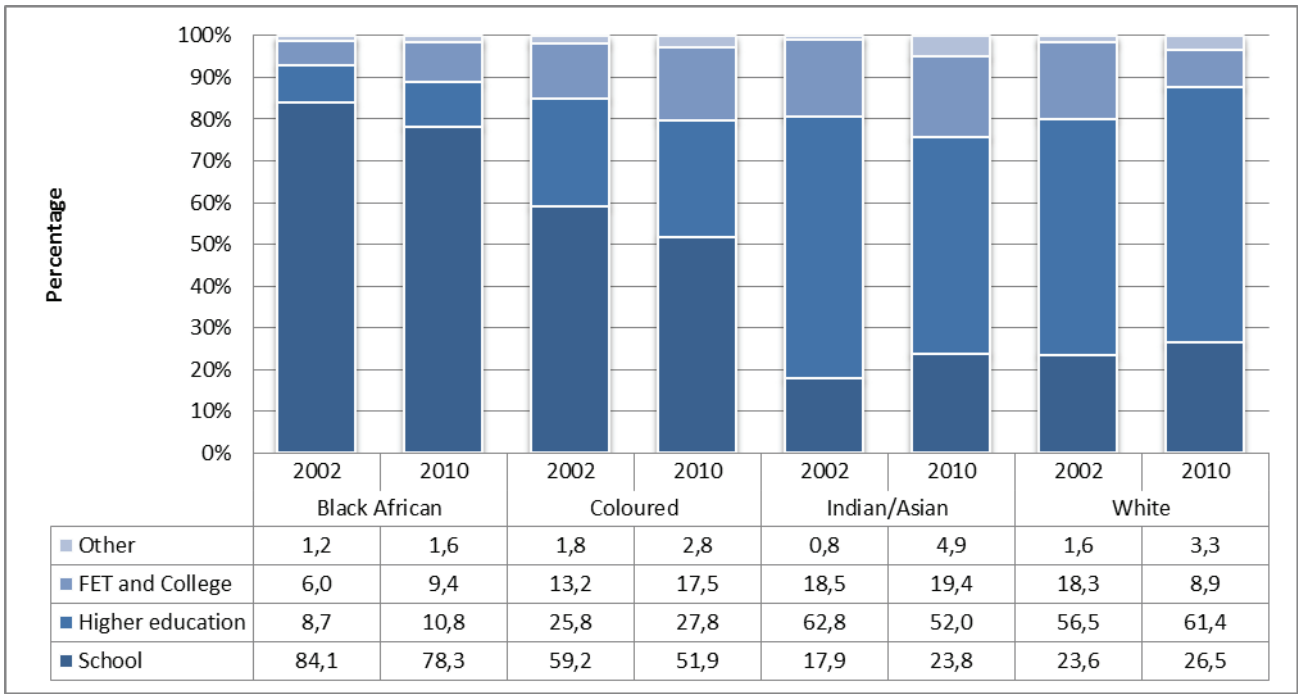
Whereas 78,3% of black Africans in the age category 18–24 still attended school in 2010, only 51,9% of the coloured, 23,8% of the Indian and 26,5% of white population did so. By contrast, 61,4% of the white, 52,0% of the Indian and 27,8% of the coloured population were attending higher education compared to only 10,8% of black Africans.

Figure 3.19: Percentage of youth attending an educational institution by population group and age, 2002 and 2010



	15-17	18 - 25	26 - 34	15 - 34
Black African	91,9	32,2	3,3	31,2
Coloured	82,7	18,3	3,4	21,4
Indian/Asian	89,4	26,4	4,4	25,0
White	96,5	36,3	6,4	34,1

Figure 3.20: Type of educational institution attended by youth aged 18–24, by population group, 2002 and 2010



	2002	2010	2002	2010	2002	2010	2002	2010
	Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White	
Other	1,2	1,6	1,8	2,8	0,8	4,9	1,6	3,3
FET and College	6,0	9,4	13,2	17,5	18,5	19,4	18,3	8,9
Higher education	8,7	10,8	25,8	27,8	62,8	52,0	56,5	61,4
School	84,1	78,3	59,2	51,9	17,9	23,8	23,6	26,5

The highest level of education attained by the 18–24 and 25–34 age cohorts is presented in Table 3.6. The table clearly shows that the percentage of youth who have completed secondary school education has improved markedly between 2002 and 2010 for youth in both age cohorts and for all race groups. Between 2002 and 2010 the percentage of youth in the age cohorts 18 to 24 and 25 to 34 that have completed their secondary education increased from 26% to 33% and 29% to 33% respectively. While the percentage of individuals who have attained some post-school qualification has increased considerably for both age cohorts between 2002 and 2010, a much smaller percentage of black African and coloured youth has achieved these qualifications than their white and Indian counterparts.

Table 3.6: Percentage distribution of youth aged 18–24 and 25–34 by the highest level of education and population group, 2002 and 2010

Highest level of education achieved	Population group									
	Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White		Total	
	2002	2010	2002	2010	2002	2010	2002	2010	2002	2010
18–24										
No schooling	1,5	0,7	1,2	0,4	0,7	0,3	0,2	0,4	1,3	0,6
Some primary	10,1	5,2	7,3	2,8	1,8	0,4	0,5	0,7	9,0	4,6
Primary	7,2	3,9	7,0	4,0	0,8	1,8	0,5	0,0	6,6	3,6
Incomplete secondary	56,7	56,7	48,1	49,1	29,2	17,4	27,9	22,0	53,2	53,1
Secondary	22,3	29,6	33,7	40,0	58,6	67,0	53,3	60,8	26,4	33,1
Post-school	2,2	3,8	2,6	3,3	8,8	12,2	17,6	16,0	3,5	4,6
Other	0,1	0,3	0,2	0,4	0,2	0,9	0,0	0,3	0,1	0,3
Per cent	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**
Total (thousands)	**5 146**	**5 947**	**535**	**574**	**151**	**159**	**457**	**423**	**6 289**	**7 104**
25–34										
No schooling	4,4	1,9	3,2	0,5	0,3	0,3	0,1	0,0	3,8	1,6
Some primary	14,5	7,2	13,7	3,8	1,3	0,1	0,1	0,3	12,9	6,3
Primary	6,6	4,2	9,0	5,8	1,2	1,8	0,3	0,4	6,2	4,0
Incomplete secondary	39,2	46,2	41,4	40,7	31,3	15,9	16,9	16,5	37,4	42,9
Secondary	27,0	31,2	25,6	39,6	45,3	45,5	47,4	43,3	29,0	33,1
Post-school	8,2	9,1	7,1	9,3	20,3	36,4	34,9	39,1	10,6	11,8
Other	0,2	0,1	0,0	0,3	0,3	0,0	0,3	0,4	0,2	0,2
Per cent	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**
Total (thousands)	**5 847**	**6 857**	**745**	**741**	**184**	**240**	**608**	**541**	**7 384**	**8 379**

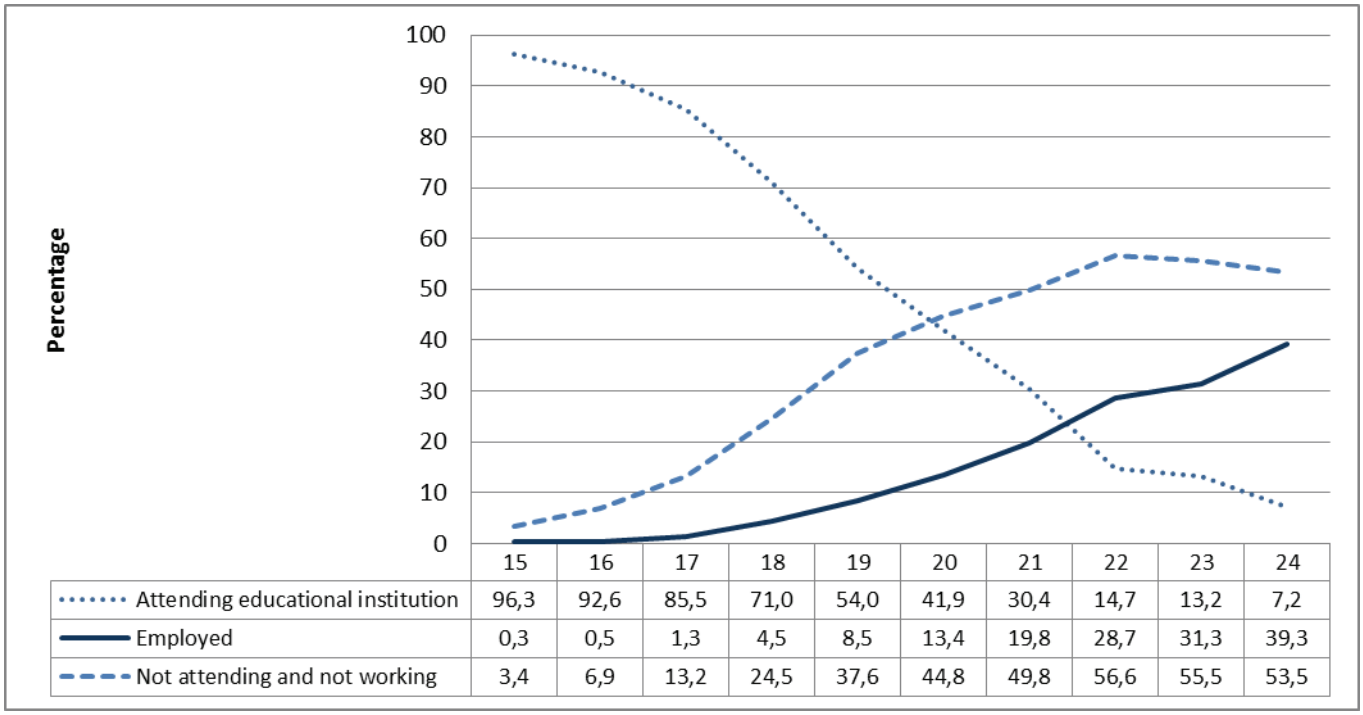
Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

The National Youth Policy (2009:16) describes individuals who are neither in employment nor studying, as probable premature dropouts who are largely unskilled and unable to access economic opportunities due to their lack of adequate qualifications or skills, often including basic literacy and numeracy skills. The youth policy argues that individuals falling into this category should be provided with focused support to facilitate improved economic participation and socialisation. The analysis excludes individuals who are either employed, or still attending some educational institution, but includes individuals who are not economically active as at least some of these could be classified as discouraged job-seekers. Sheppard (2009:43) refers to this group as "NEETs" as they are Not in Employment, Education or Training. The percentage of youth, by single year, in the age cohort 15 to 24 who are not attending any educational institution and who are not employed is presented in Figure 3.21.

The growth of the "NEETs" category seems to be inversely related to the decline in attendance of educational institutions. While the percentage of youth attending any educational institution declines steadily after age 17, the percentage of youth who are not employed or in education increases until it eventually seems to peak at age 23. By this time more than half (56,6%) of all youth in that age category are neither in school nor working, compared to about 28,7% in employment and slightly over 14,7% in education. By the age of 24, less than four-tenths of youth are employed while 53,5% are still unemployed and not attending any educational institution.

Following Figure 3.21, Table 3.7 compares the percentage of males and females in the age group 15–24 who are currently attending an educational institution, who are employed, who are not attending any educational institution and who are also not working. It is clear from the table that females are less likely than males of the same age group to be employed but more likely to be in education, or to be neither attending an educational institution nor working. It is noticeable that females are notably more likely than males to be unemployed while also not attending an educational institution. The reasons for this might become clear when studying the reasons for not attending an educational institution in Table 3.8.

Figure 3.21: Percentage of youth aged 15–24 who are not attending any educational institution and who are not employed, 2010



	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
Attending educational institution	96,3	92,6	85,5	71,0	54,0	41,9	30,4	14,7	13,2	7,2
Employed	0,3	0,5	1,3	4,5	8,5	13,4	19,8	28,7	31,3	39,3
Not attending and not working	3,4	6,9	13,2	24,5	37,6	44,8	49,8	56,6	55,5	53,5

Table 3.7: Percentage of youth aged 15 – 24 who are not attending any educational institution and who are not working, by gender, 2010

Economic status	Gender	Age (percentage)									
		15	**16**	**17**	**18**	**19**	**20**	**21**	**22**	**23**	**24**
Attending educational institution	**Total**	**96,3**	**92,6**	**85,5**	**71,0**	**54,0**	**41,9**	**30,4**	**14,7**	**13,2**	**7,2**
	Male	96,1	93,5	87,7	73,8	57,1	44,0	33,8	16,8	13,1	6,7
	Female	96,5	91,7	83,3	68,0	51,0	39,6	27,2	12,9	13,3	7,8
Employed	**Total**	**0,3**	**0,5**	**1,3**	**4,5**	**8,5**	**13,4**	**19,8**	**28,7**	**31,3**	**39,3**
	Male	0,3	0,6	1,3	5,4	10,7	15,8	23,9	33,6	36,5	44,0
	Female	0,2	0,3	1,3	3,6	6,3	10,7	15,9	24,4	25,7	34,3
Not attending any educational institution and not working	**Total**	**3,4**	**6,9**	**13,2**	**24,5**	**37,6**	**44,8**	**49,8**	**56,6**	**55,5**	**53,5**
	Male	3,7	5,9	11,1	20,8	32,2	40,2	42,3	49,6	50,4	49,3
	Female	3,2	8,0	15,4	28,4	42,8	49,7	56,9	62,8	61,1	57,9

The reasons why youth in the age cohort 15–24 are not attending educational institutions are presented in Table 3.8. Roughly 37% of all youth in the age cohort 15–24 who are not attending an educational institution lamented a lack of money to pay fees. Another 22,4% reported that they were working and that they had no time. Just under a tenth (8,8%) blamed poor academic performance. Although the reasons given are generally the same for males and females, a much larger percentage of females than males reported family commitments (13% versus 0,6%) and pregnancy (4,1% versus 0,1%). This could perhaps explain the larger percentage of females in these ages who are not attending educational institutions and not working either, because family commitments and pregnancy could render them economically inactive as opposed to being unemployed but still looking for work. Black African youth are much more likely to site a lack of fees than white youth (40,3% compared to 9,7%), while white and Indian youth were more likely to report not having time due to employment commitments than either their black African or coloured counterparts.

Table 3.8: Reasons for youth aged 15–24 not attending an educational institution by gender, age group and population group, 2010

Reasons for not attending an educational institution	Gender		Population group				Age group
	Male	Female	Black African	Coloured	Indian/ Asian	White	15–24
Too old	1,6	1,1	1,0	3,7	1,4	2,9	1,3
Has completed school/education	7,1	6,7	5,3	17,0	13,7	9,2	6,9
Transport difficulties	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,4	0,4	0,4	0,5
No money for fees	35,6	37,8	40,3	24,2	26,1	9,7	36,8
Working, do not have time	27,2	17,9	18,4	30,4	43,6	62,8	22,4
Family commitments	0,6	13,0	7,5	4,1	5,6	3,7	6,9
Education not useful	6,9	4,1	5,7	6,7	0,4	1,1	5,4
Poor academic performance	10,9	6,8	9,9	4,7	0,0	3,2	8,8
Illness / disability	2,8	2,3	2,7	1,5	2,0	2,5	2,6
Pregnancy	0,1	4,1	2,4	1,2	0,0	0,3	2,2
Other	6,5	5,8	6,3	6,0	6,8	4,2	6,2
Per cent	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**
Total (thousands)	**2 340**	**2 473**	**3 967**	**484**	**118**	**243**	**4 813**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

3.8 Housing and basic services

Access to basic social services plays a significant role in determining the well-being of individuals. Services such as access to clean water and sanitation are particularly important, as they have been shown to be closely associated with the health status of households. The National Youth Policy (2007: 27) identifies housing, water, sanitation, a clean environment, food security and poverty as some of the most important social determinants of health.

For the purposes of this publication, housing is categorised as formal, informal, traditional and other. Formal housing consists of dwellings or brick structures on separate stands; flats or apartments; cluster houses; town houses; semi-detached houses; and rooms, flatlets or servant's quarters. Informal housing comprises informal dwellings or shacks in backyards or in informal settlements. Traditional housing is defined as 'a traditional dwelling/hut/structure made of traditional materials'. The other category refers to caravans and tents. Formal housing is generally considered a proxy for adequate housing.

The percentage of housing types inhabited by youth-headed households for the years 2002 to 2010 is presented in Table 3.9. It is clear from this table that the percentage of youth-headed households that are living in informal structures has increased from 18,7% to 22,5% between 2002 and 2010 while the percentage of youth-headed households living in formal structures has decline by 0,7% to 69,5% during the same period. The percentage of youth-headed households residing in traditional dwellings increased slightly.

Table 3.9: Percentage of households headed by youth (15–34) living in formal, informal and traditional housing, 2002-2010

Housing type	Year								
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Formal	70,2	69,9	71,4	64,7	67,0	66,6	66,4	68,2	69,5
Traditional	7,1	7,7	7,6	7,7	7,8	7,0	8,1	8,5	7,5
Informal	18,7	19,2	17,8	24,3	22,2	23,9	24,4	22,1	22,5
Other	4,0	3,2	3,2	3,3	3,0	2,6	1,1	1,1	0,6
Per cent	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,1**	**100,0**	**99,9**	**100,1**
Total (thousands)	**3 256**	**3 344**	**3 410**	**3 485**	**3 558**	**3 613**	**3 716**	**3 818**	**3 907**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

Table 3.10 shows that the percentage of youth living in formal housing has increased from 73% in 2002 to 77% in 2010. Simultaneously, the percentage of youth living in traditional and informal dwellings have decreased from 13% to 12% and from 13% to 11% respectively.

Table 3.10: Percentage of youth (15–34) living in formal, informal and traditional housing, 2002–2010

Housing type	Year								
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Formal	72,7	72,4	72,5	69,5	72,3	71,6	73,5	73,6	76,8
Traditional	13,2	13,6	15,0	14,0	13,0	13,0	12,9	13,5	12,2
Informal	13,5	13,0	11,8	15,4	13,8	14,3	12,9	12,1	10,8
Other	1,1	1,0	0,8	1,2	1,0	1,1	0,7	0,8	0,3
Percent	**100,1**	**100,1**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**
Total (thousands)	**16 674**	**16 984**	**17 251**	**17 518**	**17 736**	**17 878**	**18 185**	**18 474**	**18 688**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

A comparison of the basic living condition indicators of youth and the total population between 2002 and 2010 is presented in Table 3.11.

The percentage of the total population as well as the youth aged 15–24 and 25–34 that live in dwelling that are fully or partially owned declined between 2002 and 2010. Youth aged 15–24 is more likely than the population as a whole or the older youth age cohort to be living in such tenure.

Besides improving the quality of life and general well-being of families and individuals, having access to clean piped water also drastically reduces vulnerability to diseases such as diarrhoea and cholera. Access to piped water is defined as having water piped directly into their dwellings, or having access to taps on the site of the dwelling or yard. Access to piped water in the dwelling or yard has increased for both age cohorts as well as for the population as a whole between 2002 and 2010. The percentage of youth aged 15–24 that have access to piped water in the dwelling and yard improved from 59,6% in 2002 to 64,8% in 2010. Access for youth aged 25 to 34 has similarly improved by 2% to 71,5% in 2010. Access for youth in the age cohort 25 to 34 has remained consistently higher than that for the younger youth age cohort.

Having access to flush toilets that are in or near the house and which dispose of waste safely is used as a proxy for adequate basic sanitation. Despite a slight increase towards the end of the period, the youth's access to adequate sanitation has consistently improved since 2002. Youth between the ages of 25 and 34 years are more likely to have access to adequate sanitation than their younger counterparts and the population as a whole.

The percentage of households for which refuse is removed by the municipality is used as an indicator of environmental cleanliness. As with access to water and sanitation, it seems as if youth between the ages of 25 and 34 are more likely to live in households whose rubbish is removed than the general population or indeed youth in the younger age category. The percentage of individuals having access to refuse removal has increased slightly from 2002 to 2010.

Although the connection to mains electricity does not preclude the use of other sources of energy for cooking and heating for example, connection to mains electricity does benefit households and the individuals living in them in a variety of ways. As a result of sustained efforts in this regard, the percentage of households with access to mains electricity has increased steadily over the past nine years. The percentage of youth aged 15–24 living in households with access to mains electricity has been increasing since 2002. Access to electricity has s increased steadily since 2002 across all age cohorts and the percentage of youth aged 15–24 years that have access to main electricity transcended the percentage of the population with the same in 2010.

Access to telephones is defined as the percentage of youth living in households with access to landlines or cellular phones. The percentage of South Africans having access to landlines or cell-phones at home has increased enormously over the past years, rising from 45,% in 2002 to 89,2% in 2010. There is almost no discernable difference between access by the two youth groups or indeed the population as a whole.

Although the percentage of youth having access to another communication medium, the Internet, has similarly increased since 2005 (the first time the question was asked in the GHS questionnaire), growth has been lethargic

and access at home remains limited. Less than a tenth of all households had access to the Internet in 2010 compared to 5% in 2005, and 7,7% in 2009.

Table 3.11: Comparison of the basic living condition indicators of youth and the total population, 2002-2010

Access to service indicator	Age cohorts	Year (percentage)								
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Tenure status % youth living in dwellings that are partially or fully owned	15–24	79,8	82,7	82,5	84,0	82,8	81,9	84,1	76,9	78,5
	25–34	69,9	71,2	70,1	72,3	70,2	67,0	72,0	63,4	66,8
	15–34	75,4	77,5	76,9	78,7	77,1	75,1	78,6	70,7	73,2
	Total population	79,1	81,6	80,4	82,0	81,3	79,1	82,3	74,7	76,8
Access to water % youth living in dwellings with piped water in house or yard	15–24	59,6	60,0	59,7	61,4	62,7	63,5	64,2	63,0	64,8
	25–34	68,5	69,2	70,1	70,2	71,7	72,5	70,8	69,9	71,5
	15–34	63,6	64,2	64,4	65,4	66,7	67,6	67,2	66,1	67,8
	Total population	62,1	62,7	63,1	64,3	66,0	67,0	67,1	66,4	68,0
Sanitation % youth living in dwellings with flush toilet with on or off site disposal	15–24	45,4	46,0	45,1	46,8	47,2	48,0	49,2	48,0	52,9
	25–34	55,6	56,9	57,3	57,0	58,7	59,0	58,3	59,0	63,2
	15–34	50,0	50,9	60,6	51,5	52,4	53,0	53,3	53,8	57,5
	Total population	48,6	49,6	49,5	51,0	52,0	53,0	53,6	53,8	57,7
Refuse/Waste % youth living in dwellings with rubbish removed by municipality	15–24	48,9	49,3	48,5	51,5	51,7	52,0	51,6	44,1	50,4
	25–34	58,3	59,4	59,9	62,2	62,8	62,9	60,9	54,5	59,4
	15–34	53,1	53,8	53,6	56,4	56,7	56,9	55,8	48,8	54,4
	Total population	51,0	52,0	52,1	55,1	55,8	56,0	55,4	48,3	54,4
Electricity % youth living in dwellings which are connected to mains	15–24	73,9	75,0	77,7	78,8	79,3	81,2	81,7	82,5	85,1
	25–34	77,0	78,9	80,8	80,4	80,7	81,4	82,6	82,8	83,3
	15–34	75,3	76,7	79,1	79,5	79,9	81,4	82,1	82,6	84,3
	Total population	74,3	76,2	78,7	79,4	80,1	81,7	82,1	82,9	84,9
Telephone % youth living in dwellings with landline or cellular phone in the dwelling	15–24	44,6	47,2	56,4	69,5	75,1	80,2	83,4	88,3	89,8
	25–34	47,9	51,4	59,7	70,9	76,6	80,9	83,6	88,0	90,1
	15–34	46,1	47,9	57,9	70,2	75,8	80,6	83,4	88,1	90,0
	Total population	45,5	48,3	57,1	69,2	74,4	80,0	82,5	87,3	89,2
Internet[4] % youth living in dwellings with access to internet	15–24				4,1				6,3	7,8
	25–34				3,8				7,2	8,4
	15–34				4,0				6,7	8,1
	Total population				5,0				7,7	9,1

3.9 Conclusions

South African youth (defined as individuals aged 15–34) comprises 37% of the total population and is growing faster than the total population due to declines in fertility. The estimated 18,7 million youth are key to future socio-economic and demographic growth. Youth represents individuals at critical junctures of development: those who are being prepared through education to enter society and the labour market (predominantly age 15–24); youth who have entered the labour market and who are either searching for work or who are trying to establish themselves in the labour market (ages 25–34); and individuals who are entering into relationships, starting families and contributing to demographic growth.

The relative growth of youth compared to the population and particularly children and other dependent age groups, creates a prospect for development called the 'demographic dividend' in which resources can be invested

[4] Questions on access to the Internet at home was only included in the questionnaire in 2005, 2009 and 2010

into activities than promote economic development and growth. Creating adequate employment opportunities is a vital component of growth, and failure to engage youth in employment will undermine development efforts and promote instability. The findings of this chapter show that the country has thus far been unable to muster the opportunities that the youth offer. While critical in their own right, demand-side issues fall outside the scope of this paper. The chapter outlines a profile of youth focusing on factors such as household composition, education, health, access to food, and access to basic services that can impact on the supply of healthy, educated and productive workers and citizens.

Although youth is officially defined as individuals in the age group 14–35 (15–34 for the purposes of this chapter), this chapter has clearly shown that this group is not homogeneous and the relative challenges and opportunities of sub-groups are perhaps better described within the confines of two sub-groups, namely 15–24 and 25–34 years. Access to housing, health, education and socio-economic amenities is influenced by a household's composition. Household members are often more vulnerable to poverty and unemployment when living in households in which young members are forced to take on responsibility for themselves and their siblings as a result of the death or absence of their parents. The highest percentage of households headed by youth aged 15–24 is observed in Limpopo (10,8%) and Mpumalanga (9,1%). These households are characterised by a smaller household size and total dependency ratio than households headed by adult youth (24–35), and indeed all South African households. Households headed by younger youth are more likely to be single or single-generation households than those headed by older youth, and these household are also more likely to contain other non-related members. This is illustrates a greater fluidity and inversely perhaps weaker social networks.

High youth unemployment, out-of-school youth and poverty were defined as some of the most pressing youth related challenges in the literature. Households headed by younger youth are primarily dependent on income from salaries and/or wages (47,7% in 2010) and remittances (40,8% in 2010), whilst households headed by older youth are significantly more likely to cite salaries and wages (71,0%) than remittances (11,0%) as their main source of income. Using a poverty threshold of R570 per person per month, it is clear that youth aged 15–24 are much more likely to live in poor households than their older counterparts. Youth in the age group 15–24 are most likely to live in poor households in Limpopo, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal, provinces in which between two-thirds and three-quarters of youth in this age group live in poor households. Although the provincial distribution is similar for older youth, they are slightly less likely to live in poor households, perhaps due to their greater reliance upon salaries and wages as opposed to remittances.

The National Youth Policy (2009) identified youth unemployment as a critical problem that needs to be addressed with urgency to alleviate the high rates of poverty that continues to ravage the youth’s potential to become productive citizens. Youth are by all accounts disproportionately affected by unemployment and Morrow et al (2005) argue that poverty among youth is linked more to unemployment than to direct dependence upon already impoverished households. The study found that more than a third (33,7%) of youth aged 15–24 lived in households in which not a single person is employed in 2010, compared to 21,4% of youth aged 25–34 and 30,8% for all individuals.

The situation is equally desperate for households headed by youth aged 15–24 in that almost half do not contain any employed members, compared to a fifth (20,2%) for households headed by older youth and 31,3% for all households. Despite an increase since 2002, the proportion of economically actively household members in households headed by youth 15–24 still lags that of households headed by older youth and indeed households in general. Similarly, a larger proportion of individuals in households headed by older youth are employed (0,406 compared to 0,313 in households headed by younger youth).

A large proportion of youth is neither in employment nor studying. They represent a loss to the economy as well as a serious social challenge. Out of a total of 10,1 million individuals in the 15 to 24 age cohort, 34% were neither employed nor attending an educational institution. Of the total age groups, approximately half (52%) were still studying while 14,2% have taken on employment. The proportion of youth who are not employed or in education increases briskly after age seventeen until it eventually seem to peak by age 23, at which time more than half of all youth are neither in school nor working. The study confirms that female youth are at a considerable disadvantage when it comes to employment as well as being out of education. The percentage of females that are

neither attending educational institutions nor working exceeds the percentage for males of the same age in the age cohort 15 to 24 years. The main reasons for not attending educational institutions that were given by youth in this age cohort were a lack of money (37%), working/having no time to study (22%) and poor academic performance (9%). African youth were more likely to cite a lack of money than whites or Indian youth, whilst being too busy working was more often provided as a reason by the latter two groups.

Education is a vital prerequisite for youth to gain entry into the labour market and dropping out of education negatively affects future opportunities. The youth start to drop out of the educational system in significant numbers after the age of 16. Attendance of educational institutions is still high at more than 90% for the ages 14 to 16. However, by 18 years of age slightly more than 70% of youth are still attending and by age 24 less than 8%. Participation in education for women aged 18 years and older increased significantly between 2002 and 2010. For men, on the other hand, rates have remained the same or declined slightly for the same age groups. The study found that a much larger proportion of African and coloured youth remain in school after their eighteenth birthday while a large percentage of their Indian and white counterparts move into higher education.

Even though the early drop-out out rate of the education system is still a problem for the youth there has been significant improvements in secondary school completion rates between 2002 and 2010. For the age cohort 18 to 24 there was an increase from 26% to 33%, whilst for the ages 25 to 34 the secondary completion rates increased from 29% to 33%. While the percentage of individuals who have attained some post school qualification has increased considerably for both age cohorts between 2002 and 2010, a much smaller percentage of African and coloured youth has achieved these qualifications than their white and Indian counterparts.

Despite a significant reduction in the vulnerability to hunger for youth and youth headed households between 2002 and 2006, the percentage of youth and youth headed household that experienced hunger increased slightly between 2002 and 2010. Households headed by younger youth (aged 15–24) are more likely to have experienced hunger than households headed by older youth (15,5% compared to 13,9%). Similarly youth aged 15–24 are more likely to live in households that have experienced hunger than older youth. A similar pattern is observed in terms of access to food where youth aged 15–24 are more likely to live in households that have experienced inadequate or severely inadequate access to food than older youth.

Since 1994, the government has expanded the social safety net, primarily through the system of social grants. Due to an increase in the eligibility age cut-offs for child support grants the percentage of youth below the age of 18 years that access some grant, predominantly the Child Support Grants, has increased from 1,2% in 2003 to 21,1% in 2010, up from only eight percent in 2009. Less than 2% of youth aged 18 to 34, received social grants. This is significantly lower than the population in general (28%) and children younger than 18 years (56%).

The living conditions of youth are relevant in that access to basic social services plays a significant role in determining the well-being and health status of individuals. Since 2002, a larger percentage of youth-headed households as well as youth are living in formal dwellings. However, significantly more youth headed households are living in traditional or informal dwellings. For youth in general the percentage of youth who live in traditional dwellings has remained stable at approximately 12%, whilst the percentage living in informal dwellings has declined slightly from 13,6% to 10,8%.

The percentage of youth that have access to piped or tap water in the dwelling or yard, flush toilets, electricity and access to landlines/cell phones increased notably between 2002 and 2010. Access and changes over time for households headed by youth in the age cohort 25 to 34 were similar to those of the general population, but have been consistently higher than those for household headed by youth in the age group 15–24.

Although the percentage of youth that have access to the Internet has also increased since 2005 (the first time the question was asked in the GHS questionnaire), approximately 9% of all households had access to the internet in 2010 compared to 5% in 2005.

3.10 Recommendations

The study identified that households headed by youth aged 15 to 24 years are significantly more vulnerable to hunger, and are more likely to suffer from poor living conditions, low incomes and joblessness.

Youth that find themselves in households without anyone who is employed will inevitably be at a disadvantage as they will have less access to a social network that may help them find a job. Those who live in a tri-generational household are perhaps better off than those who are single, as they have a social support network that can help them improve their life circumstances. Programme interventions that strengthen and increase the social networks of especially unemployed youth will be very important if these youth are to be integrated into the main-stream economy.

At face value these findings confirm the need for support programmes that will allow potentially disaffected youth who are neither working nor studying to complete their education, and perhaps to access some kind of post school education at universities, colleges or Further Education and Training (FET) institutions. In addition, opportunities such as internships should be explored to facilitate their entry into the labour market.

The findings also underscore the urgent need to address problems in the education system that may contribute towards relatively low levels of secondary-school completion by especially the black African youth.

Young women are shown to be a particularly vulnerable group that faces significant challenges and the finding emphasises the need for gender-focused interventions aimed at young women.

Realising full and productive employment for all young people should be a dominant priority as this would, more than any other instruments, lead to the eradication of poverty and the full realisation of the individual's human rights. Youth are not supported by the social safety nets that are available to children and to older persons, and the findings support the necessity to target youth in social development programmes, EPWPs, and social protection and social welfare services.

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4. SOCIAL PROFILE OF WOMEN, 2002–2010

4.1 Introduction

The achievement of gender equality in South Africa lies at the heart of the process to create a free, open and equal society where the rights of all people are promoted, irrespective of attributes such as race, gender, age, disability and sexual preference. The Constitution of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) guarantees equal and inalienable rights to men and women and instructs the Government and civil society to uphold the values of equality and to remedy the heritage of "gender inequality, discrimination and oppression that continue to shape new and old forms of inequality in our society" (Hicks, 2010). It is clear from the literature that women have been burdened on multiple levels in the past, which led to the negative effect of institutional racism, under-development and dislocation, as well as persisting patriarchal attitudes and prejudice, to name a few.

South Africa is committed to achieve gender equality and has endorsed a number of key international, regional and sub-regional commitments aimed at promoting gender equality, such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the Beijing Platform for Action and the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Protocol on Gender and Development. The country is committed to achieve the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which, inter alia, call for the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger, the achievement of universal primary education and the attainment of gender equality and the empowerment of women. Four of the eight goals are directly related to gender: achieving universal primary education, promoting gender equality and the empowerment of women, reducing infant and child mortality, and improving maternal health. A few more goals, in particular the eradication of poverty and hunger, are very closely connected to gender.

These commitments are supported by comprehensive legislation, and the continuous development and integration of gender sensitive policies and practices. These efforts can, however, only be successful if the extent to which results have been achieved and objectives have been met are evaluated. Gender statistics go beyond the mere segregation of indicators into male and female categories, but also attempt to identify issues that affect men and women and the different roles and positions in society. Women are, however, faced with a wide range of serious obstacles that prevent them from attaining complete equality.

Poverty patterns are inherently influenced by gender. Women, particularly female-headed households, are generally much poorer than men (Bhorat & Van der Westhuizen, 2008). In the past women were unable to access the same economic resources and opportunities than men. The resulting inequality was, and still is, intensified by additional race-based discrimination and inequality. According to May (1998), female-headed households tend to have fewer adults of working age, while also experiencing higher unemployment rates. Women are over-represented in low-skilled, low-paying jobs and the wage gap between male and female earnings persists, particularly in low and semi-skilled occupations (May, 1998; Bhorat 2009). Hence, a continual division in labour between men and women exists; women's roles are underrated in economic terms and their work is demoted to being domestic and unpaid.

Women's living conditions are directly affected by the basic services their households receive. In addition to often being responsible to secure basic needs (fetching water and wood), women are often also the primary caregivers of children, orphans, the elderly and people living with disabilities. Improved access to basic services and social grants often assists marginal households to secure secondary sources of income. The persistent lack of access to basic services increases these poor households' vulnerability to disease. Larger percentages of household income is often spent on increasingly less diverse and less nutritious sources of food, which does not promote the health situation in female-headed households (Altman et al 2009).

The provision of adequate healthcare to vulnerable citizens remains a major challenge, particularly in light of chronic poverty and the high prevalence of HIV/AIDS. The health status of women and men are known to differ. Access to social services and population ageing are some of the dimensions that should be explored.

The Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995 recognised that investing in the formal and non-formal education and training of girls and women, with its exceptionally high social and economic return, has proved to be one of the best means to achieve sustainable development and economic growth (UN, 1995). In fact, studies have shown that female education is unparalleled in reducing poverty and improving child survival (Quisumbin & McClafferty, 2006). Although it should be clear that numbers alone cannot adequately capture the diversity and complexity of women's lives, these statistics can help to monitor the fulfilment of commitments to progress (Heyzer in Moser, 2007).

4.2 Demography

The size and age-sex composition of a population, as well as its changes over time, have important implications for the status of women and men in society. Demographic changes determine the current and future needs of a population and are therefore likely to influence government priorities. Many inequalities that are based on gender are often deepened by characteristics such as age, disability, and geographical location. Women comprise approximately 52% of South Africa's population (Statistics South Africa, 2011) and the percentage of women in age cohorts normally increases with age. The sex ratio [number of males divided by number of females x k (100)] can be used to illustrate this change. Census 2001 data are used for this purpose. Note that a sex ratio that is smaller than 100 indicates that there are more females than males in the particular age group. The sex ratio gradually decreases from 100 for the 0–4 age cohort, to 93 for 25–29, 89 for 50–54, 72 for 60–64 and finally 41 for the population over the age of 85 years. This implies that there are many more women in the older age groups than there are men. Since the GHS is not meant to replace the official Statistics South African mid-year population estimates or other demographic reports, readers are encouraged to refer to these sources for more detailed information on these patterns.

The distribution of women by population group and province is presented in Table 4.1. Since women essentially represent half of the population, these patterns of distribution will be similar than that for males and will predominantly be influenced by the provincial distribution of population groups. Black African women represent the majority of women in eight provinces, while coloured women outweigh women from other population groups in Western Cape and have a significant presence in Northern Cape as well. White women constitute sizeable minorities in Gauteng and Western Cape.

Table 4.1: Percentage distribution of women by population group and province, 2010

Province	Population group (percentage)					
	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Per cent	Total (thousands)
Western Cape	31,1	54,1	0,9	13,9	100,0	2 814
Eastern Cape	88,7	6,6	0,4	4,3	100,0	3 426
Northern Cape	56,5	36,2	0,2	7,1	100,0	601
Free State	86,7	3,2	0,3	9,8	100,0	1 504
KwaZulu-Natal	87,1	0,8	8,3	3,9	100,0	5 553
North West	91,2	1,6	0,1	7,0	100,0	1 733
Gauteng	74,4	3,8	2,4	19,4	100,0	5 405
Mpumalanga	92,5	1,1	1,0	5,5	100,0	1 877
Limpopo	98,1	0,2	0,1	1,6	100,0	2 796
South Africa	**79,5**	**9,0**	**2,6**	**8,9**	**100,0**	**25 708**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

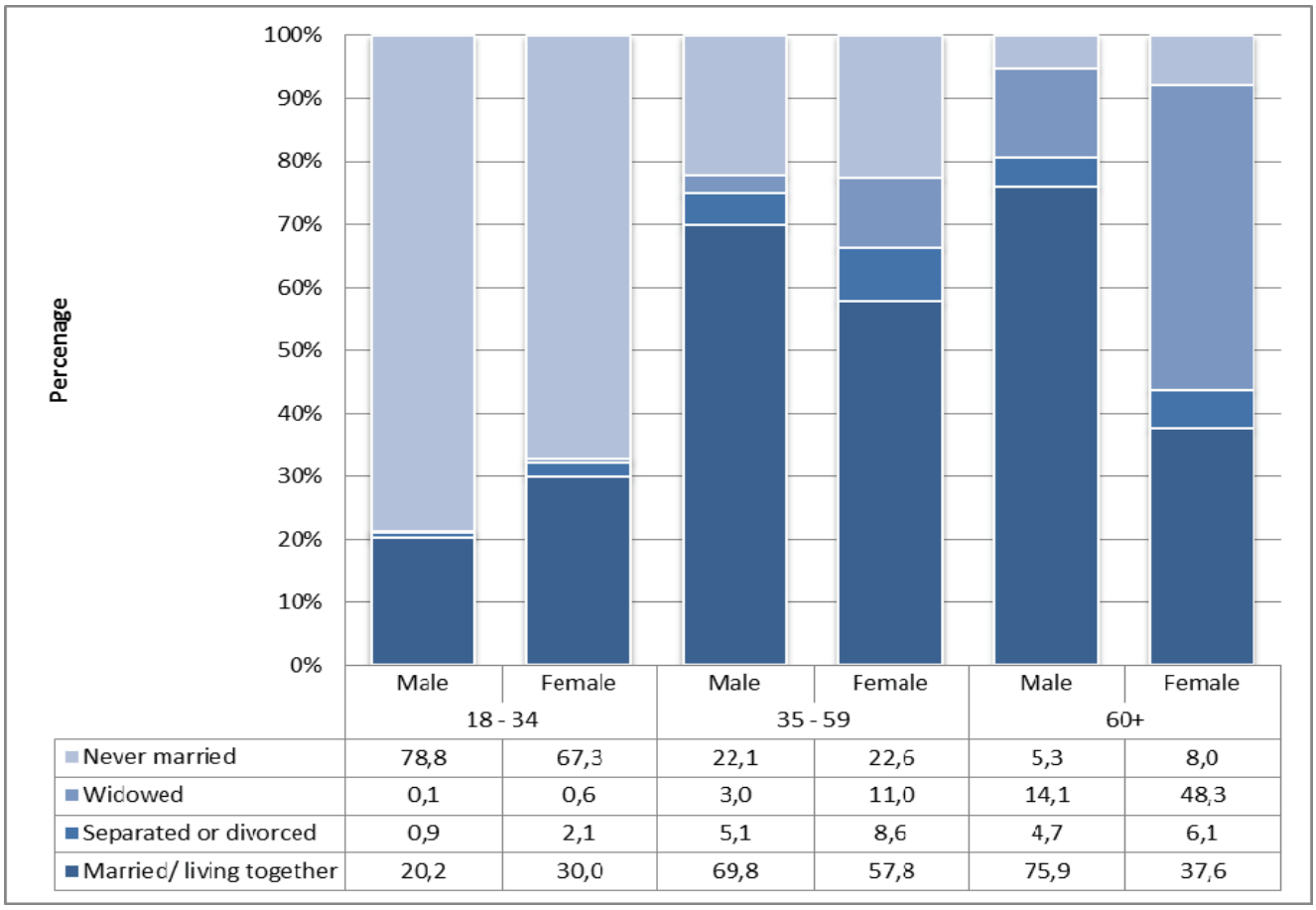
4.3 Household characteristics

Marriage, divorce, cohabitation and separation are key events in the formation or dissolution of families and can have a strong and lasting impact on men and women's living arrangements, their access to resources, their opportunities and responsibilities. The relationship status of males and females by age group is presented in Figure 4.1.

Marital status is positively related to age. While 78,8% and 67,3% of males and females in the age group 18–34 years were respectively classified as never married in 2010, only 5,3% of males and 8% of females over the age of 60 years have never been married. Although women are more likely to be married or cohabitating than men in the age group 18–34 (30% compared to 20,2%), a smaller percentage of women are married in subsequent age groups. This can perhaps be ascribed to the tendency for women to marry older partners. Men in the age group 35–59 years are more likely to be married or cohabitating than women, but it is important to note that 11% of women in this age group have been widowed (compared to 3% of men), while approximately 9% have been separated or divorced. The combined effect of a longer life expectancy for females, as well as the trend of females to marry older male partners, creates an important variation among older persons. Although more than 75,9% of males over the age of 60 years are still married or living with a partner, this is true for less than 38% of females. Almost half of women over the age of 60 years are widowed compared to less than 15% of men.

The dissolution of families often leads to the formation of female-headed households or the integration of surviving females into extended family units. Both results increase the challenge households have to face, and it is not surprising to note that female-headed households are disproportionately affected by poverty (see Presidency, undated; Bhorat & Van der Westhuizen, 2008). A better understanding of household characteristics is therefore vital to address issues of poverty and household resource allocation.

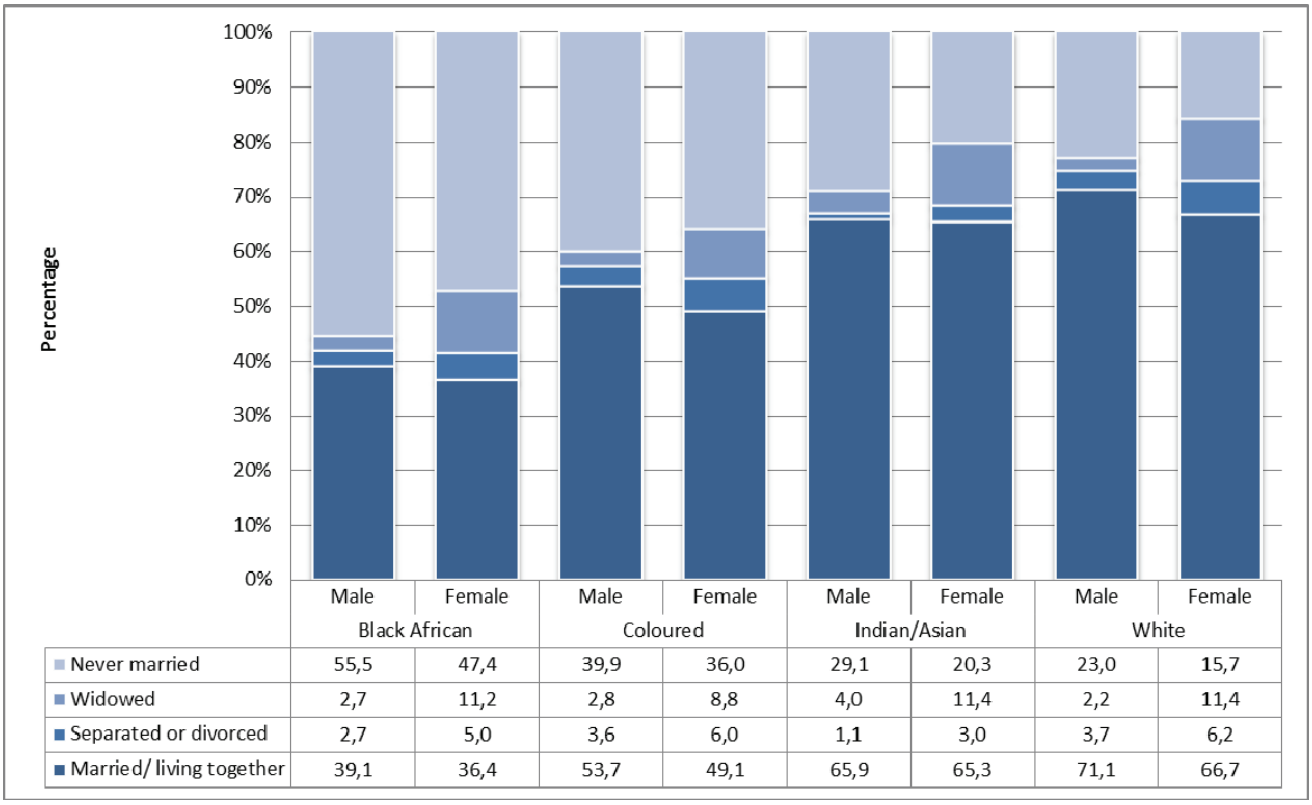
Figure 4.1: Relationship (marital) status by gender and age group, 2010



	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	18 - 34		35 - 59		60+	
Never married	78,8	67,3	22,1	22,6	5,3	8,0
Widowed	0,1	0,6	3,0	11,0	14,1	48,3
Separated or divorced	0,9	2,1	5,1	8,6	4,7	6,1
Married/ living together	20,2	30,0	69,8	57,8	75,9	37,6

Figure 4.2 indicates that, of all population groups, black Africans were generally least likely to get married. A higher percentage of white males (71,1%) and females (66,7%) were married or living together, followed by more than 65% of Indians/Asians and approximately 50% of coloured people. Males are generally more likely than females to be married or living together, but also less likely to be separated or divorced. According to Figure 4.2 fewer partners divorce or separate, with white and coloured people dominating in this regard.

Figure 4.2: Relationship (marital) status by gender and population group, 2010



According to Table 4.2 approximately 37,5% of the country's households are headed by women. Limpopo has the highest percentage of female-headed households (49,1% in 2010), followed by KwaZulu-Natal and Eastern Cape with 43,7% and 43% respectively. Gauteng and Western Cape had the smallest number of female-headed households (approximately 30% in 2010).

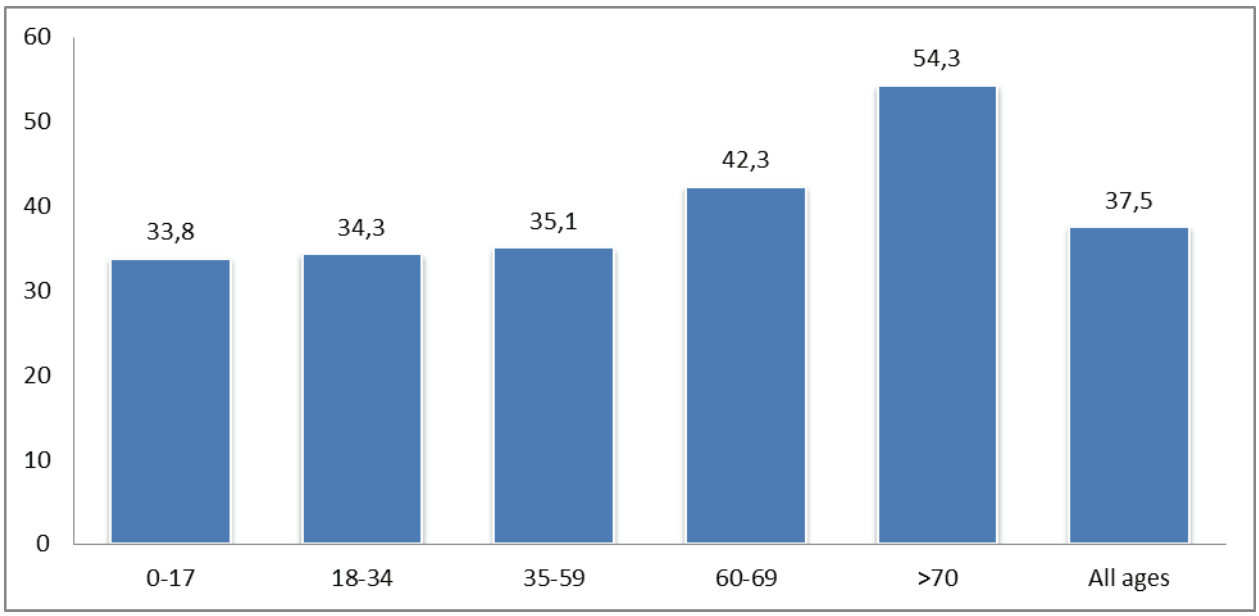
Table 4.2: Distribution of female-headed households by province, 2002–2010

	Year (percentage)								
Province	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**
Western Cape	29,4	29,8	30,1	30,3	32,0	31,1	30,5	29,8	30,3
Eastern Cape	47,4	47,6	46,9	47,6	47,1	46,9	45,5	44,5	43,0
Northern Cape	29,2	31,2	30,3	36,4	36,6	36,3	34,3	37,0	37,2
Free State	31,3	31,0	29,8	33,3	34,9	36,2	39,1	38,1	36,6
KwaZulu-Natal	43,5	43,7	44,2	43,7	41,7	43,1	42,9	44,1	43,7
North West	36,5	34,3	34,3	32,9	33,9	34,9	33,9	33,2	33,4
Gauteng	28,0	29,1	29,2	28,1	27,7	28,0	27,8	29,1	30,2
Mpumalanga	37,2	35,7	38,0	37,6	39,9	38,0	40,1	38,4	38,1
Limpopo	50,3	49,6	49,3	50,0	50,7	48,9	50,3	48,6	49,1
South Africa	**37,4**	**37,4**	**37,5**	**37,5**	**37,5**	**37,5**	**37,5**	**37,5**	**37,5**
Total (thousands)	**11 013**	**11 362**	**11 712**	**12 075**	**12 476**	**12 901**	**13 351**	**13 812**	**14 304**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

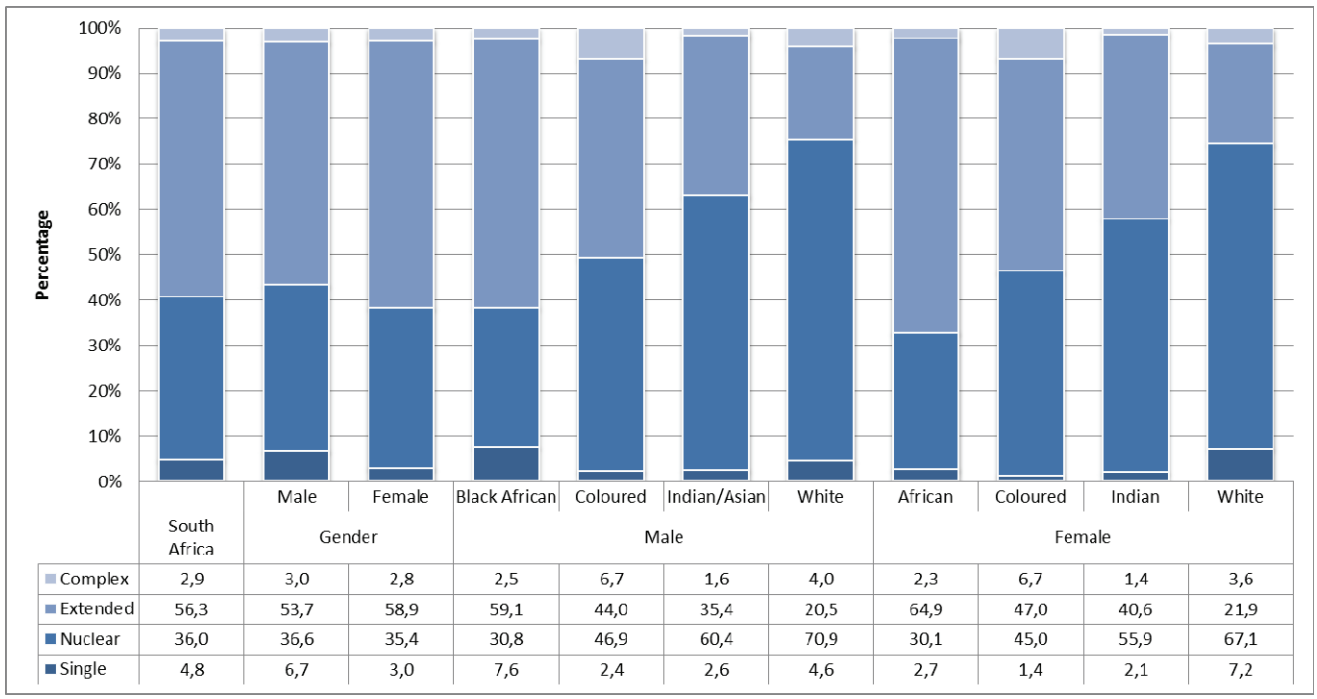
The distribution of female-headed households seems to increase with age. Figure 4.3 indicates that the percentage of female-headed households consistently increases for successive age groups, rising from 34,3% for the age group 18–34 years to 54,3% for the age group over 70 years. This increase can undoubtedly be associated with the greater prevalence of widowhood among women with age.

Figure 4.3: Percentage distribution of female-headed households by age group, 2010



There is only a small variation between males and females with regard to their distribution across different household types. The largest percentage of males and females live in extended or nuclear families. The variation between population groups is, however, more visible. While black Africans and coloured people are most likely to live in extended households, Indians/Asians are more likely to live in nuclear households (Figure 4.4).

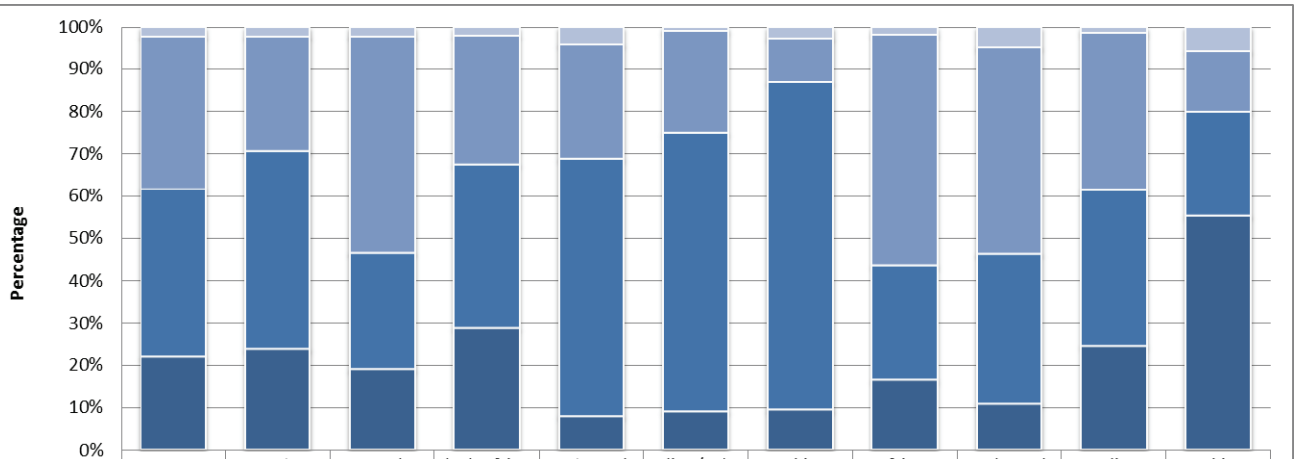
Figure 4.4: Percentage distribution of males and females across different household types by population group, 2010



	South Africa	Gender		Male				Female			
		Male	Female	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	African	Coloured	Indian	White
Complex	2,9	3,0	2,8	2,5	6,7	1,6	4,0	2,3	6,7	1,4	3,6
Extended	56,3	53,7	58,9	59,1	44,0	35,4	20,5	64,9	47,0	40,6	21,9
Nuclear	36,0	36,6	35,4	30,8	46,9	60,4	70,9	30,1	45,0	55,9	67,1
Single	4,8	6,7	3,0	7,6	2,4	2,6	4,6	2,7	1,4	2,1	7,2

While the percentage of extended and nuclear households is very equally distributed (36,1% compared to 39,8%), it is noticeable from Figure 4.5 that female-headed households are more likely to be extended. The largest percentage of male-headed households are nuclear households. A slightly larger percentage of male-headed households are single. Gender differences are accentuated by population group. More than three-quarters of households headed by white males are nuclear, while this is true for less than a quarter (24,7%) of households headed by white females. More than half of all households headed by white females are single households, most likely due to the higher level of divorce and widowhood for women over 60 years. By contrast, households headed by black African women tend to be extended households.

Figure 4.5: Percentage distribution of male and female headed households by household composition and population group, 2010

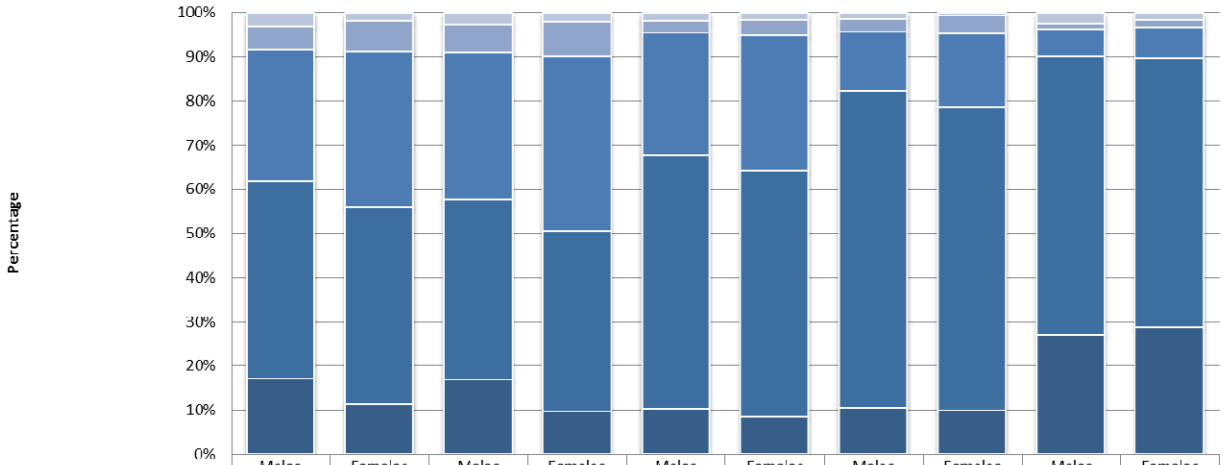


	South Africa	Gender of head		Male head				Female head			
		Male	Female	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	African	Coloured	Indian	White
Complex	2,3	2,3	2,3	2,1	4,3	1,0	2,8	1,8	5,0	1,4	5,9
Extended	36,1	27,0	51,3	30,4	26,9	24,2	10,4	54,8	48,7	37,2	14,2
Nuclear	39,8	47,1	27,7	38,7	61,0	65,9	77,5	27,1	35,5	37,0	24,7
Single	21,8	23,6	18,8	28,8	7,9	9,0	9,3	16,4	10,8	24,4	55,2

Figure 4.6 explores the distribution of individuals across households containing one or more generations by population group. Very similar percentages of males and females live in the various households, with two-generational households being the most common for both sexes. Dual-generation households are most common amongst Indians/Asians, followed by white people, coloured people and black Africans. Conversely, triple-generation households are most common amongst black Africans and least common amongst white people. Skip-generation households are defined as households inhabited by grandparents and their biological or adopted grandchildren in the absence of the children's parents.

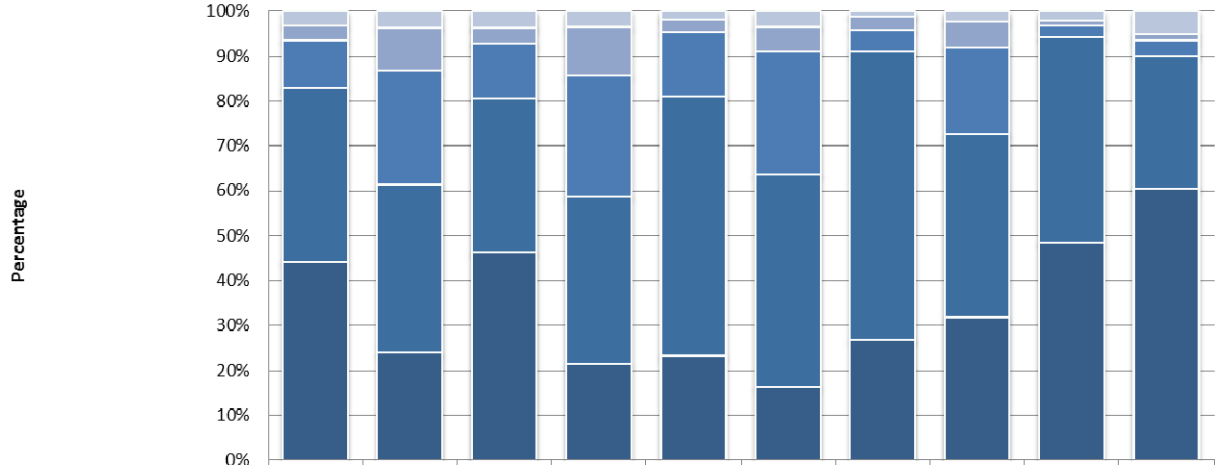
The percentage distribution of male and female-headed households by population group across different kinds of intergenerational household types is presented in Figure 4.7. Female-headed households are less likely to contain only one generation than male-headed households. Female-headed households are much more likely to be a skip-generation household, or a household containing three or more generations. Households headed by black African and coloured female heads show a very similar trend. White males (48,5%) and specifically white female-headed households (60,6%) are more likely to contain only a single generation (including women living alone) than other households headed by individuals from other population groups and households in general. Households headed by white people are also much less likely than households of other population groups to be a skip-generation household, or a household containing three or more generations.

Figure 4.6: Percentage distribution of males and females by type of intergenerational households and population group, 2010



	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
	Population		Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		Whites	
Other	3,0	1,9	2,6	2,0	1,9	1,6	1,4	0,5	2,5	1,7
Skip generation	5,5	6,8	6,4	7,8	2,6	3,6	3,0	4,3	1,3	1,7
Three and more generations	29,8	35,3	33,2	39,6	27,7	30,7	13,2	16,5	6,1	6,9
Two generations	44,7	44,7	40,9	40,9	57,3	55,7	71,8	68,7	63,3	60,9
Single generation	17,0	11,3	16,9	9,8	10,4	8,6	10,7	10,0	26,9	28,9

Figure 4.7: Percentage of households by type of intergenerational household, gender of the household head and population group, 2010



	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
	Population		Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		Whites	
Other	3,2	3,6	3,6	3,5	1,8	3,4	1,1	2,4	2,1	5,1
Skip generation	3,2	9,7	3,6	10,8	2,8	5,6	3,1	5,8	1,1	1,5
Three and more generations	10,8	25,3	12,3	27,0	14,4	27,3	4,8	19,2	2,7	3,4
Two generations	38,8	37,6	34,2	37,4	57,8	47,4	64,3	40,9	45,6	29,5
Single generation	44,1	23,9	46,3	21,4	23,3	16,3	26,8	31,8	48,5	60,6

Some general characteristics of male and female headed households are presented in Table 4.3. The **mean size** of South African households have gradually declined from 3,7 in 2002 to 3,5 in 2010. Female-headed households are generally larger than households headed by males (3,8 compared to 3,4 in 2010).

The **total dependency ratio** expresses the ratio of the dependent population (children below the age of 18 years and older persons above the age of 60 years) to the working-age population (18–59 years). The higher the ratio, the more dependents each potential worker has to support. Conversely, a lower ratio means that each potential worker will have to support fewer dependents. Female-headed households have a substantially higher dependency ratio than male-headed households. In 2010, each working-age person in female-headed households supported 1,02 persons compared to 0,66 in male-headed households. This is a clear illustration of the higher burden that is often placed upon females in society.

The **old-age dependency ratio** expresses the ratio of older persons (above 60) to working age individuals (18–59 years). It is once again noticeable that the old-age dependency ratio is larger for female-headed households; on average, each person is expected to support 0,15 older persons in female-headed households as compared to 0,13 in male-headed households.

The **child dependency ratio** refers to the ratio of children (below 18 years) to working-age individuals. Female-headed households have a child dependency ratio of approximately 0,87 compared to only 0,52 for male-headed households.

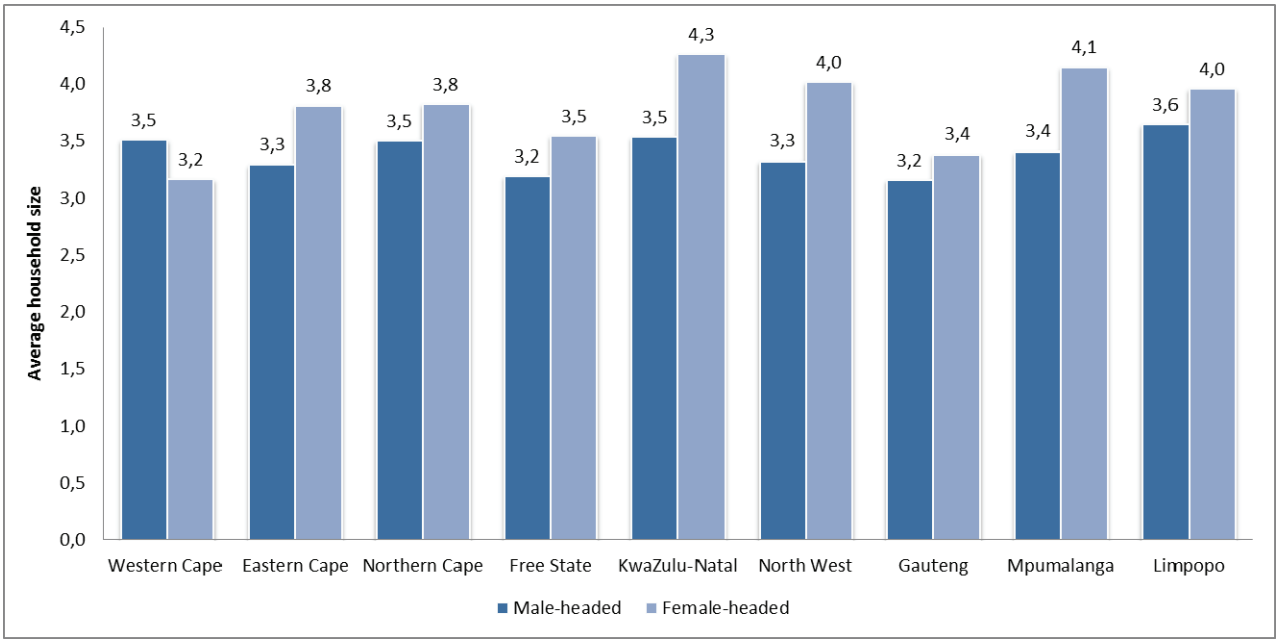
The **mean proportion of children** per household is a measure of the average proportion of children (defined as individuals below the age of 18 years) of the household size. It is not surprising to note that the proportion of children is higher in female-headed households (0,43) than in male-headed households (0,32). Female-headed households not only on average contain a larger proportion of children, but the burden of support is also, as indicated by the dependency ratios, larger in these households.

Table 4.3: Mean household size, and total dependency ratios by gender of the household head, 2010

Gender	Indicator	Year								
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Mean household size										
Male	Average	3,6	3,4	3,4	3,4	3,3	3,3	3,5	3,3	3,4
Female		3,9	3,8	3,8	3,7	3,7	3,7	3,9	3,7	3,8
South Africa		3,7	3,6	3,5	3,5	3,4	3,4	3,6	3,5	3,5
Total dependency ratio										
Male	Average ratio	0,716	0,688	0,679	0,669	0,644	0,654	0,665	0,652	0,663
Female		1,082	1,043	1,030	1,045	1,013	1,018	1,030	1,027	1,022
South Africa		0,844	0,814	0,804	0,801	0,774	0,784	0,794	0,786	0,792
Old-age dependency ratio										
Male	Average ratio	0,125	0,127	0,132	0,127	0,127	0,131	0,133	0,137	0,139
Female		0,149	0,149	0,149	0,155	0,149	0,156	0,154	0,156	0,155
South Africa		0,133	0,135	0,138	0,137	0,134	0,140	0,141	0,144	0,145
Child dependency ratio										
Male	Average ratio	0,591	0,561	0,547	0,542	0,517	0,523	0,532	0,515	0,524
Female		0,933	0,895	0,880	0,889	0,864	0,862	0,876	0,871	0,868
South Africa		0,711	0,679	0,666	0,664	0,640	0,644	0,653	0,642	0,647
Mean proportion of children per household										
Male	Proportion	0,345	0,332	0,326	0,325	0,315	0,316	0,319	0,312	0,315
Female		0,448	0,438	0,434	0,435	0,429	0,427	0,431	0,430	0,429
South Africa		0,386	0,374	0,369	0,369	0,361	0,361	0,364	0,359	0,361

The average household size of male and female headed households per province is presented in Figure 4.8. On average, female-headed households are larger than male-headed households in all provinces but Western Cape. The average size of female headed households is largest in KwaZulu-Natal, Mpumalanga, North West and Limpopo and smallest in Western Cape and Gauteng.

Figure 4.8: Mean household size by gender of the household head and province, 2010



4.4 Income, poverty, economic activity and social grants

Individuals in female-headed households tend to be more vulnerable than those in male-headed households, as they usually have access to fewer assets, face a different set of constraints, adopt different strategies than men, and pursue different outcomes. The relative disadvantage is illustrated by the main sources of income by households in Table 4.4. While nearly two-thirds of male-headed households have consistently reported income from salaries and/or wages as the main source of income, less than half of female-headed households have done so. Female-headed households rely more on remittances, as well as pensions and grants than male-headed households. In 2010 more than one-third of female-headed households reported pensions and grants as their main source of income, compared to only 17,1% of male-headed households. The percentage of male and female-headed households that reported remittances as a main source of income has declined consistently since 2003, while the percentage of households with social grants/pensions has been increasing at a seemingly inverse rate. Income from business has become substantially more common for both male and female-headed households, while the percentage of households indicating that they did not have any income, has declined to less than 1% for female-headed households and to 1% for male-headed households.

The GHS provides estimates of income earned from employment, government transfers through social grants, as well as remittances. Although data on other income sources such as rent, dividends and interest are more difficult to obtain, the 2010 questionnaire asked about income from private pensions. This is a great improvement from 2009 when the questionnaire failed to enquire about the amount of income pensioners earned from private pensions in addition to other income sources. Great care is taken to improve income data, but figures should be treated with circumspect, as the literature (Casale and Desmond, 2007) suggests that high earners often tend to diminish their income, while in-kind payments are often disregarded in the case of lower earning households.

The percentage of individuals living in low per capita income households is established by using a poverty threshold that was proposed by Statistics South Africa (2007). The “upper-bound” threshold, which provides for essential food and non-food consumption, was set at R322 per capita per month in 2000 prices. Statistics South Africa (2007) provides a detailed overview of the determination. When increased with inflation the threshold is equivalent to R570 in 2010. This amount is merely used to identify low income households and should not be considered an official poverty line. An official poverty line based on household expenditure will be published during 2012. Using GHS data, per capita income is calculated by adding all reported income for the household, including remittances, social grants and income from private pensions, and then dividing the sum by the number of household members.

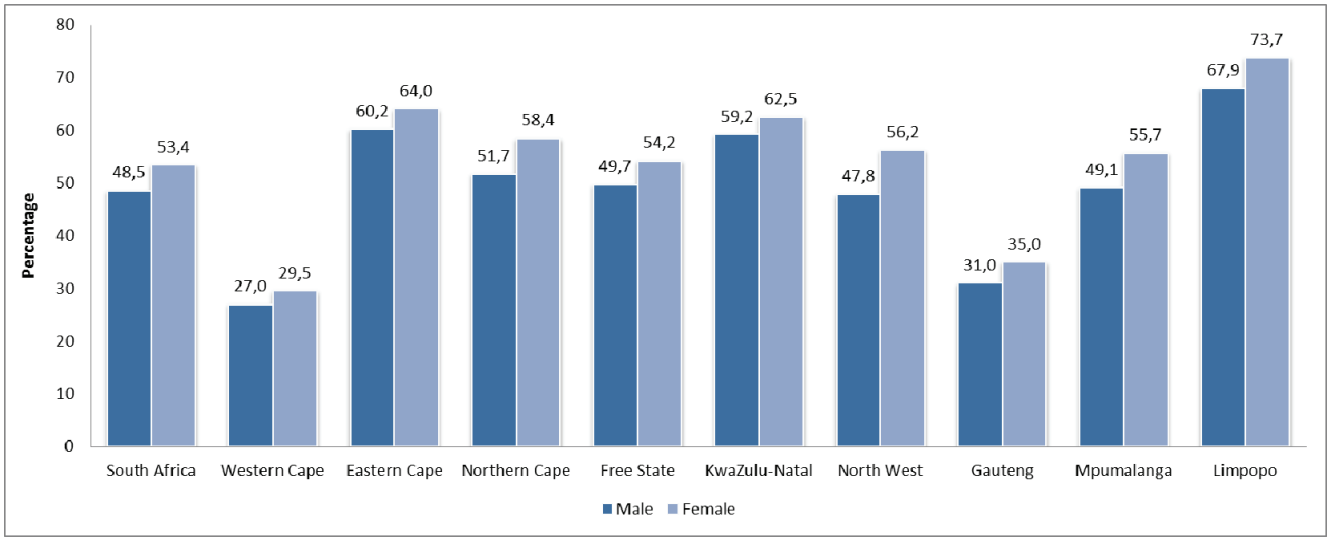
Table 4.4: Main sources of income for households by gender of the household head, 2002–2010

Source of income	Year (percentage)								
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Male-headed									
Salaries and/or wages	68,3	66,9	66,7	68,6	69,2	71,6	71,4	66,7	65,3
Remittances	9,2	10,3	9,8	8,6	8,0	7,0	7,1	6,1	6,8
Pensions and grants	12,5	13,5	14,3	14,7	15,8	14,9	16,3	17,0	17,1
Sales of farm products	1,2	1,0	1,3	1,1	1,4	1,1	0,9	0,2	0,3
Other non-farm income	6,0	5,5	6,2	5,0	3,3	3,0	2,1	9,2	9,6
No income	2,9	2,9	1,8	1,9	2,3	2,5	2,4	0,9	1,0
Per cent	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**
Total (thousands)	**6 863**	**7 100**	**7 311**	**7 522**	**7 736**	**8 004**	**8 292**	**8 397**	**8 627**
Female-headed									
Salaries and/or wages	44,4	43,0	42,4	43,5	45,1	46,5	46,4	44,3	44,1
Remittances	23,0	23,2	22,5	18,0	16,0	15,8	14,9	13,9	15,0
Pensions and Grants	23,3	25,8	27,8	31,4	32,3	31,5	33,9	35,3	35,2
Sales of farm products	0,7	0,8	0,7	0,7	1,2	1,0	0,6	0,1	0,1
Other non-farm income	5,4	4,1	5,1	4,3	3,1	3,3	1,9	5,8	5,1
No income	3,2	3,1	1,5	2,1	2,3	1,9	2,4	0,6	0,5
Per cent	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**
Total (thousands)	**4 092**	**4 242**	**4 383**	**4 517**	**4 657**	**4 816**	**4 988**	**4 985**	**5 079**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

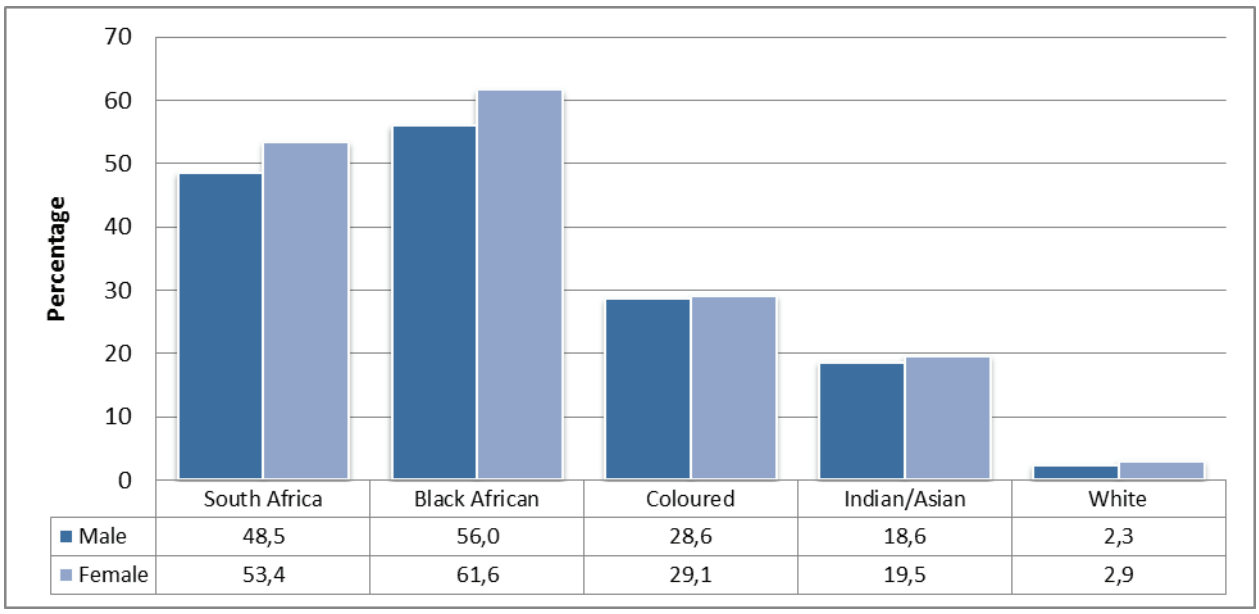
The percentage of males and females living in households with a per capita income of less than R570 per month by province is presented in Figure 4.9. It is evident that females are generally more likely to live in households with a per capita income of less than R570 per month than their male counterparts. Males and females living in Limpopo are most likely to live in poor households followed by Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. Individuals living in Western Cape are least likely to live in poor households

Figure 4.9: Percentage of the population living in households with per capita income less than R570 per month by gender and population group, 2010



It is clear from Figure 4.10 that females are more likely to live in poor households than males across all population groups. Nationally, 53,4% of females lived in poor households compared to 48,5% of males in 2010. Black African males and females are also much more likely to live in poor households than individuals from any other population group.

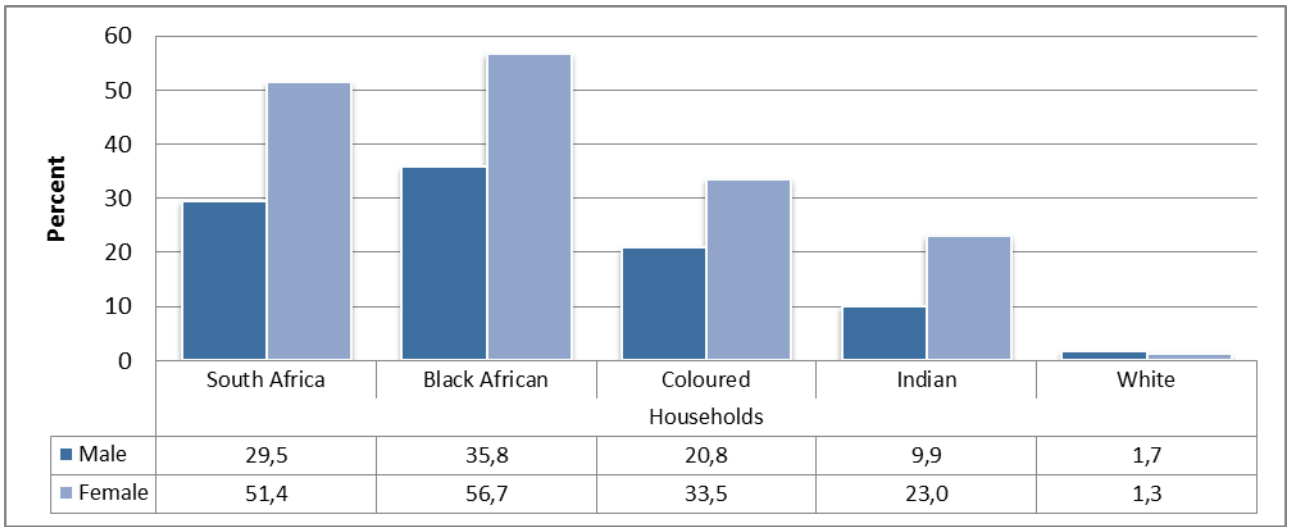
Figure 4.10: Percentage of the population living in households with per capita income of less than R570 per month by gender and province, 2010



	South Africa	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White
Male	48,5	56,0	28,6	18,6	2,3
Female	53,4	61,6	29,1	19,5	2,9

Figure 4.11 shows that female headed households are strikingly more likely to be poor than male headed households. More than half (51,4%) of female headed households declared an income of less than R570 per capita per month compared to less than a third (29,5%) of male headed households. Households headed by black African, coloured and Indian/Asian females are much more likely to be poor than households headed by males in these population groups. Very similar percentages are calculated for white male and female headed households.

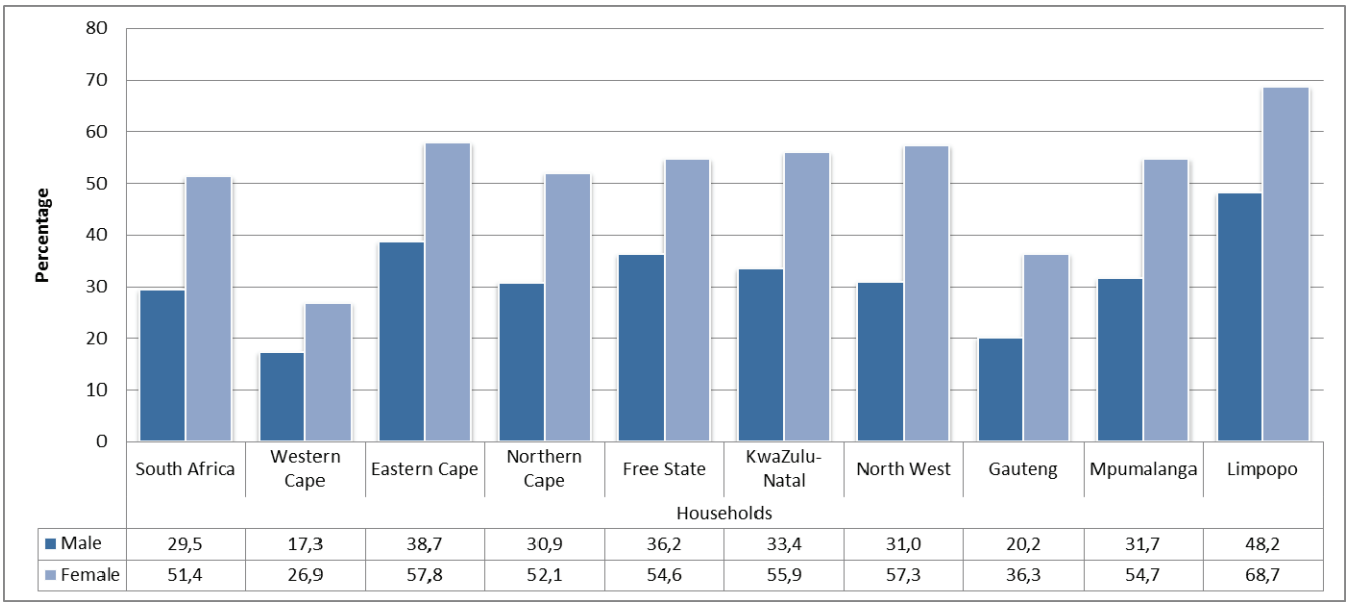
Figure 4.11: Percentage of households headed by individuals with a per capita income of less than R570 per month by gender and population group of the household head, 2010



	South Africa	Black African	Coloured	Indian	White
Male	29,5	35,8	20,8	9,9	1,7
Female	51,4	56,7	33,5	23,0	1,3

According to Figure 4.12, female headed households are more likely to be poor than male headed households across all provinces. Female headed households are most likely to be poor in Limpopo (68,7%), followed by Eastern Cape (57,8%) and North West (57,3%). In general, households are least likely to be poor in Western Cape and Gauteng.

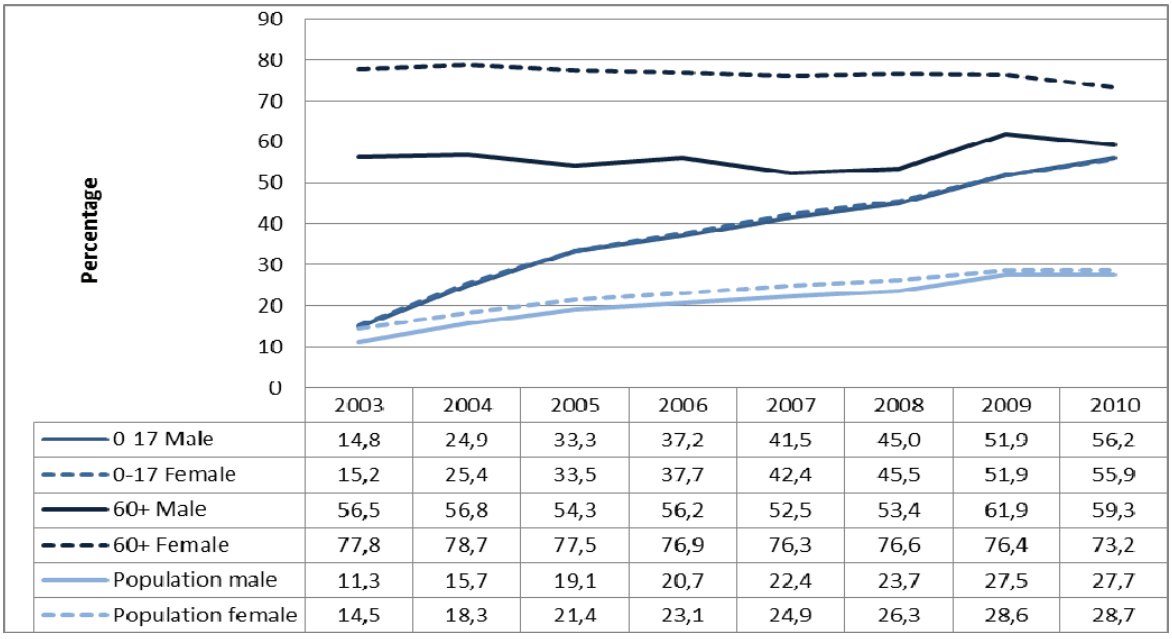
Figure 4.12: Percentage of male and female headed households with a per capita income of less than R570 per month by province, 2010



	South Africa	Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	KwaZulu-Natal	North West	Gauteng	Mpumalanga	Limpopo
Male	29,5	17,3	38,7	30,9	36,2	33,4	31,0	20,2	31,7	48,2
Female	51,4	26,9	57,8	52,1	54,6	55,9	57,3	36,3	54,7	68,7

Figure 4.13 presents the percentage of males and females that are beneficiaries of any kind of social grant. Social assistance in South Africa is fundamentally designed to assist children, disabled individuals and older persons, hence it can be expected that significant percentages of grant beneficiaries would be found among children and older people. Grants are generally means-tested and do not discriminate on the basis of race or gender. This was however not always the case for old-age grants, as men formerly only became eligible to be considered for grants at the age of 65 years compared to 60 years for females. The discrepancy was subsequently corrected through the Social Assistance Amendment Act (Act No. 6 of 2008), in which the eligibility age for men was incrementally reduced from 65 to 63 in 2008, to 61 in 2009 and finally to 60 in 2010. Although men will benefit from the same age as women in 2010, the former practice has led to a situation where women are significantly more likely to be grant beneficiaries than men. The sharp increase since 2008 is however an indication that the situation will normalise.

Figure 4.13: Percentage of the population with access to social grants by gender and age group, 2002–2010

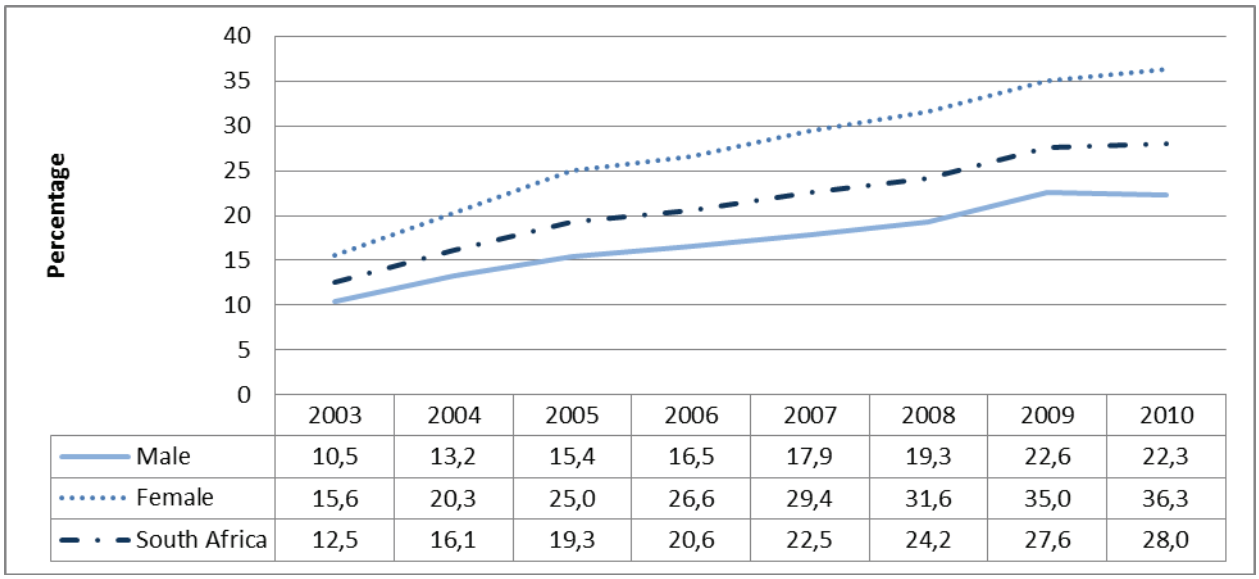


	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
0 17 Male	14,8	24,9	33,3	37,2	41,5	45,0	51,9	56,2
0-17 Female	15,2	25,4	33,5	37,7	42,4	45,5	51,9	55,9
60+ Male	56,5	56,8	54,3	56,2	52,5	53,4	61,9	59,3
60+ Female	77,8	78,7	77,5	76,9	76,3	76,6	76,4	73,2
Population male	11,3	15,7	19,1	20,7	22,4	23,7	27,5	27,7
Population female	14,5	18,3	21,4	23,1	24,9	26,3	28,6	28,7

By contrast, boys and girls have always been submitted to the same non-discriminatory eligibility criteria and the difference between their respective uptakes is almost insignificant, as shown in Figure 4.13. As a result of the large variation between the percentage of elderly males and females who are beneficiaries of grants, females in the general population are still slightly more likely to be grant beneficiaries than their male peers. The variation is, however, decreasing.

Female-headed households are significantly more likely to contain one or more grant beneficiaries than male-headed ones. Figure 4.14 illustrates the mean percentage of grant beneficiaries per household using the gender of the household head as reference point. On average, more than a third (36,3%) of the members of female-headed households were grant recipients in 2010, compared to 22,3% of male-headed households and 28% for households in general. This disparity can perhaps be explained by noting that females are more likely to be grant recipients themselves and that female-headed households are more likely to contain and care for children (refer to Table 4.3), many of whom are beneficiaries of child support and foster care grants themselves. It is noticeable that the mean percentage of grant recipients per household has been increasing steadily since 2003 for both male and particularly female-headed households.

Figure 4.14: Mean percentage of grant beneficiaries per household by gender of the household head, 2003–2010



	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Male	10,5	13,2	15,4	16,5	17,9	19,3	22,6	22,3
Female	15,6	20,3	25,0	26,6	29,4	31,6	35,0	36,3
South Africa	12,5	16,1	19,3	20,6	22,5	24,2	27,6	28,0

Since 1994, several pieces of legislation have been enacted to create an enabling environment for vulnerable groups such as women, and to improve their participation in income generating activities in the economy. Table 4.5 summarises the situation with regard to household participation in the economy by looking at the economically active, and employment and unemployment ratios according to the gender of the household head. The proportion of economically active household members expresses the proportion of economically active household members in a household of the total number of household members in their economically active years (15–64 years). This population includes members who are employed and those who are unemployed, but excludes people who are unavailable for work, such as fulltime students, homemakers and pensioners. The economically active ratio for male-headed households is visibly higher than for female-headed households. The ratio has remained relatively constant between 2002 and 2008 before showing downward movement to 0,9 and 0,8 for male and female-headed households respectively in 2010. This figure implies that, on average, eight out of every ten household members in their economically active years are economically active.

The proportion of employed household members conveys the proportion of employed members of a household of the total number of household members in their economically active years. The definition of employment includes regular or irregular work for a wage or salary, as well as unpaid work in a family business, or farming and household maintenance projects. Male-headed households display a substantially higher ratio than female-headed households.

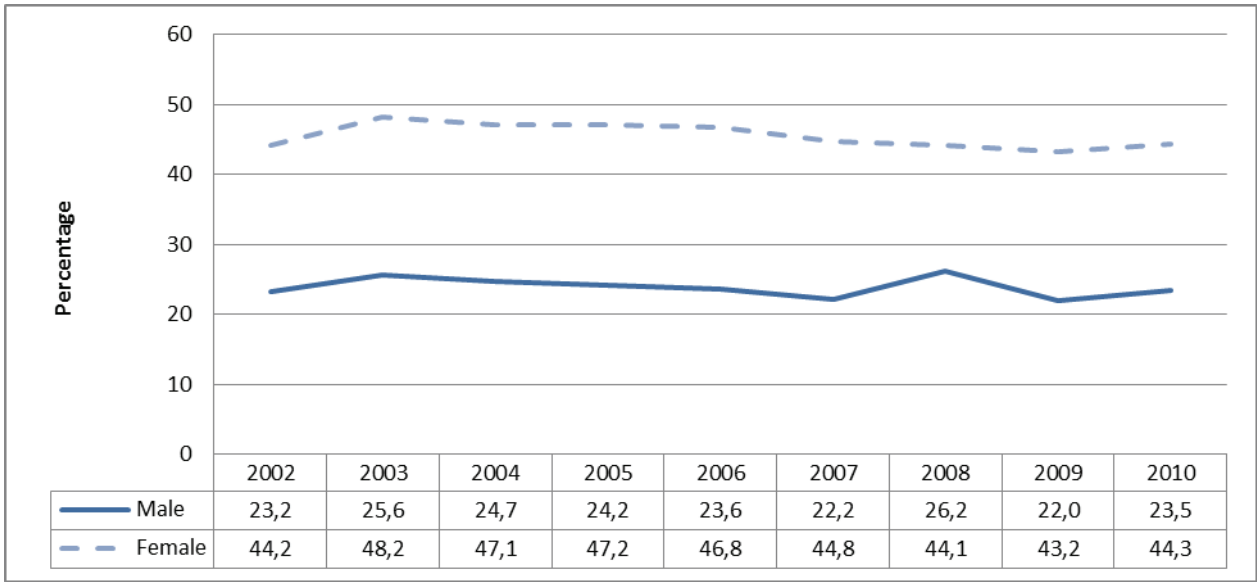
The unemployed ratio expresses the proportion of unemployed household members of the total number of household members in their economically active years. Statistics South Africa's official definition of unemployment is used, which defines the unemployed as persons within the economically active population who: (a) did not work during the seven days prior to the interview, (b) want to work and are available to start work within two weeks of the interview, and (c) have taken active steps to look for work, or start some form of self-employment in the four weeks prior to the interview. The proportion of unemployed household members is lower for male-headed households, indicating a lower mean number of unemployed individuals in male-headed households to the total number of household members who are available to work, than in female-headed households. Individuals in female-headed households are therefore less likely to be economically active, less likely to be employed, but more likely to be unemployed than their compatriots in male-headed households.

Table 4.5: Average proportion of economic active, employed and unemployed household members by gender of the household head, 2002–2010

Household head	Indicator	Year								
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Economically active proportion										
Male	Average ratio	0,884	0,857	0,860	0,847	0,861	0,866	0,903	0,864	0,864
Female		0,826	0,764	0,760	0,772	0,798	0,789	0,825	0,803	0,801
South Africa		0,864	0,824	0,824	0,821	0,839	0,839	0,875	0,842	0,841
Employed proportion										
Male	Average ratio	0,315	0,310	0,321	0,325	0,338	0,346	0,343	0,356	0,348
Female		0,179	0,170	0,175	0,178	0,183	0,195	0,189	0,202	0,194
South Africa		0,261	0,254	0,262	0,266	0,275	0,285	0,281	0,294	0,286
Unemployed proportion										
Male	Average ratio	0,138	0,139	0,130	0,127	0,133	0,119	0,134	0,166	0,170
Female		0,165	0,156	0,151	0,146	0,160	0,141	0,159	0,194	0,202
South Africa		0,148	0,146	0,138	0,135	0,144	0,128	0,144	0,177	0,183

Figure 4.15 reveals that female-headed households are much more likely than male-headed households to not have a single employed household member. Although the percentage of male and female-headed households without employed members have gradually been declining, about 44,3% of female-headed households, and just below one-fifth (23,5%) of male-headed households are affected. It is important to keep in mind, however, that a large percentage of female heads are pensioners (see Figure 4.3) taking care of their children and often their grandchildren as well.

Figure 4.15: Percentage of households without any employed members by gender of the household head, 2002–2010



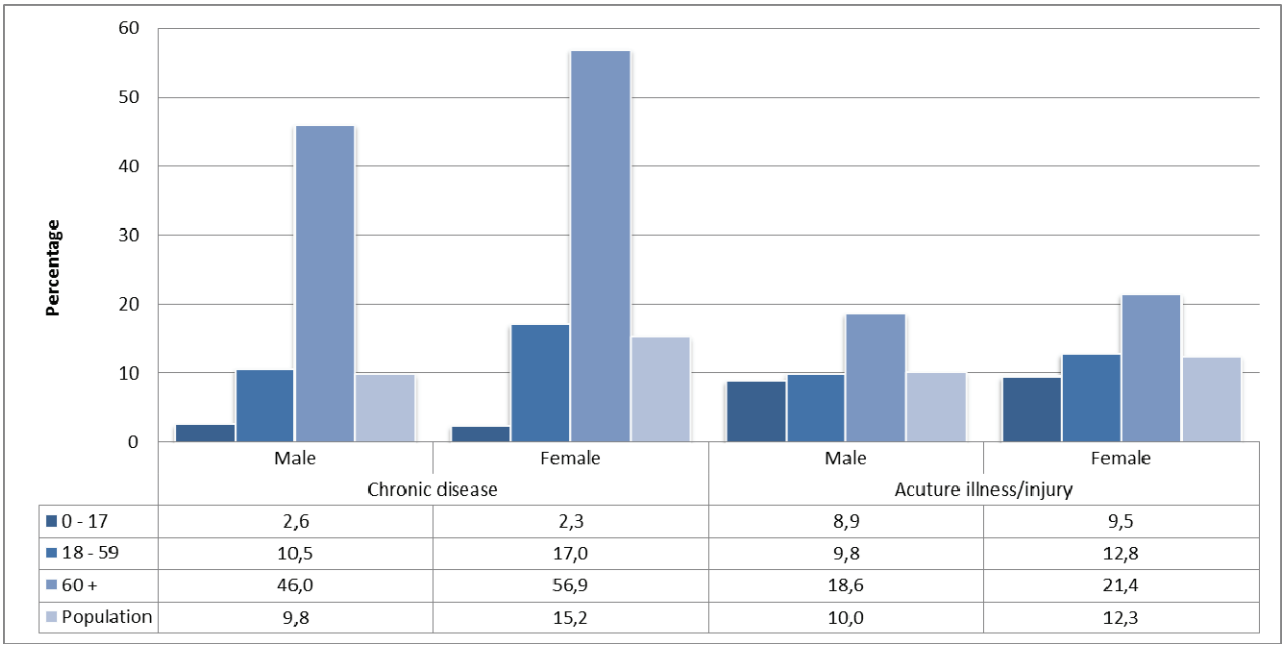
4.5 Health

The 1995 Beijing Platform for Action emphasises that women have the right to enjoy the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health (United Nations, 1995). The health status of men and women is different during various life stages. Although some of the variation can be ascribed to biological and physical differences, prevailing gender norms and values, as well as socio-economic differences can play an important role in determining health and access to health care (United Nations, 2010). While the provision of basic services such as water and sanitation could lead to further declines in the prevalence of acute diseases, our ageing society is being faced by an increasing surplus of women in the older age groups, bringing with it far-reaching implications for health.

It should be clear from Figure 4.16 that women seems to be more likely to suffer from chronic conditions, or to contract acute illnesses than their male peers in the same age group. Females across age groups seem to have a slightly higher prevalence of acute injuries and/or illness than their male peers in the corresponding age groups. The high prevalence of acute injuries and/or illness after the age of 60 years, for both men and women, is particularly noticeable. While females are about as likely as males to suffer from any chronic disease under the age of 17 years, their likelihood surpasses that of males in the other two age groups. A substantially larger percentage of females (56,9%) over the age of 60 years suffer from chronic conditions than males (46%).

Due to women's greater longevity, a much greater percentage of the female population is comprised of frail women over the age of 75 years who have a higher likelihood of suffering some chronic diseases. This perhaps explains women's higher likelihood of suffering from chronic illnesses.

Figure 4.16: Percentage of males and females with chronic conditions or reporting acute injuries and/or illness by gender and age group, 2010

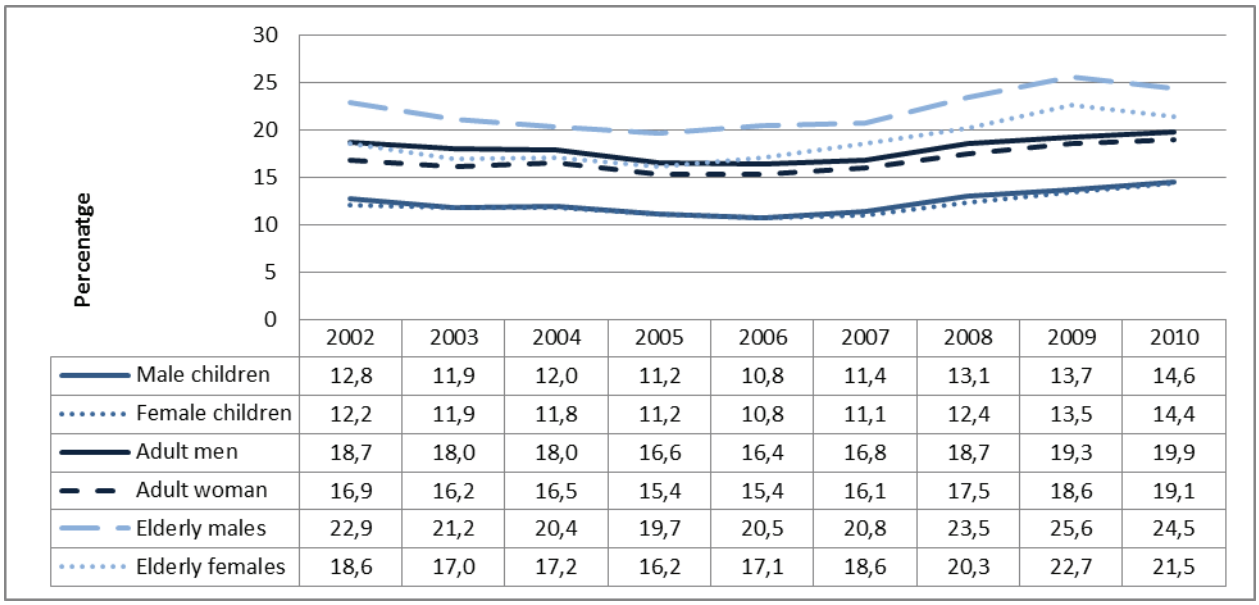


	Chronic disease		Acuture illness/injury	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
0 - 17	2,6	2,3	8,9	9,5
18 - 59	10,5	17,0	9,8	12,8
60 +	46,0	56,9	18,6	21,4
Population	9,8	15,2	10,0	12,3

Although the Government has greatly improved access to affordable health care at public hospitals and clinics, the broader health care system still mirrors the large inequalities found in the contemporary society. According to Figure 4.17, males are generally more likely to be members of medical aid schemes than females. Access to medical aid is the highest for older persons and lowest among children. Membership remains rather exclusive and out of reach for the majority of South Africans. It is noticeable that the percentage of individuals with membership of medical aid schemes has decreased slightly between 2002 and 2006 before increasing to higher levels in 2010 than in 2002.

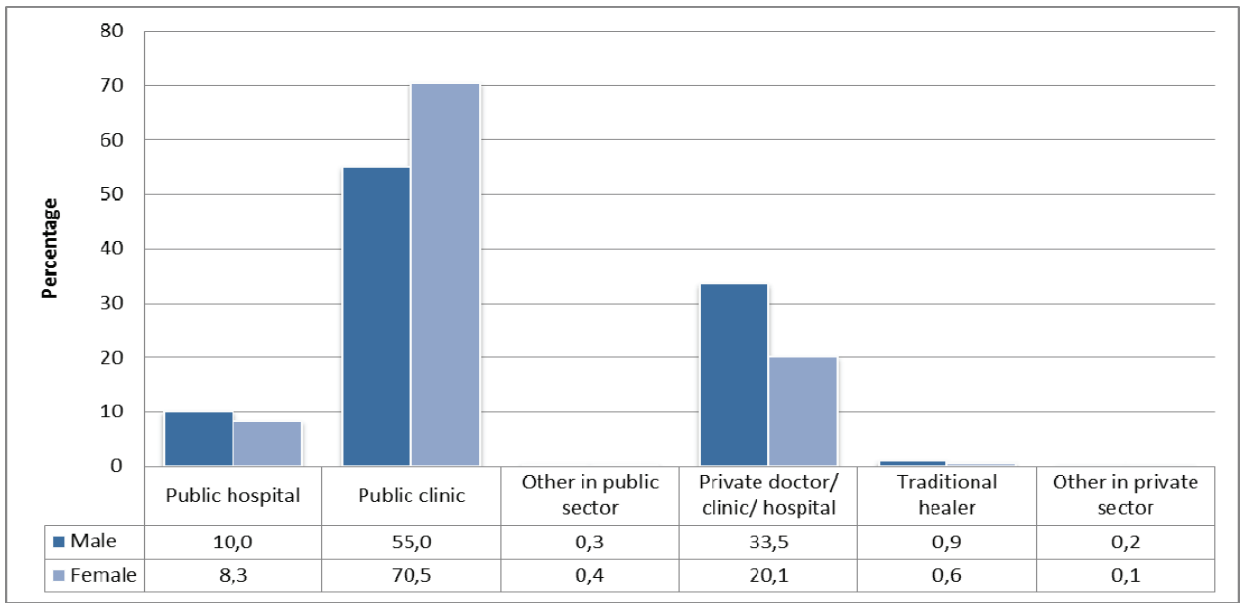
The health facilities used by male and female-headed households are influenced by access to medical aid and almost by implication, whether the household head is employed or not. While 70% of female-headed households indicated that they would first approach a public clinic (compared to 55%) of male-headed households, one-third of male-headed households preferred to use private doctors/clinics/hospitals compared to about one-fifth of female-headed households.

Figure 4.17: Percentage of population with access to medical aid by gender and age group, 2002–2010



	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Male children	12,8	11,9	12,0	11,2	10,8	11,4	13,1	13,7	14,6
Female children	12,2	11,9	11,8	11,2	10,8	11,1	12,4	13,5	14,4
Adult men	18,7	18,0	18,0	16,6	16,4	16,8	18,7	19,3	19,9
Adult woman	16,9	16,2	16,5	15,4	15,4	16,1	17,5	18,6	19,1
Elderly males	22,9	21,2	20,4	19,7	20,5	20,8	23,5	25,6	24,5
Elderly females	18,6	17,0	17,2	16,2	17,1	18,6	20,3	22,7	21,5

Figure 4.18: Percentage distribution of health facilities used by households by gender of the household head, 2010



	Public hospital	Public clinic	Other in public sector	Private doctor/ clinic/ hospital	Traditional healer	Other in private sector
Male	10,0	55,0	0,3	33,5	0,9	0,2
Female	8,3	70,5	0,4	20,1	0,6	0,1

4.6 Vulnerability to hunger and access to food

The Bill of Rights in the South African Constitution guarantees the right to have access to health care services, social security, including social assistance, adequate housing, and the right to live in an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being. Section 27(1) specifically states that 'Everyone has the right to have access to sufficient food and water'. The very first MDG is aimed at eradicating extreme poverty and hunger. The literature suggest that investment in women's health and nutritional status reduces chronic hunger and undernourishment, which in the long run, increases productivity and well-being.

The GHS asks respondents a battery of questions to establish whether any household member experienced hunger during the preceding year, and to establish the severity of hunger. Hunger is used as a proxy for inadequate food intake and is associated with not consuming enough food. Although this is definitely more imprecise than variables designed to measure malnutrition, it gives analysts the opportunity to explore the relationship between vulnerability to hunger and poverty. Mainly, it also gives them the opportunity to look at the influence that social grants have on alleviating hunger. Households are very sensitive to livelihood shocks and low-income households with a large percentage of dependents, such as female-headed households in general, remain particularly vulnerable.

It is clear from Figure 4.19 that vulnerability to hunger is strongly associated with population groups. Black African males and females experienced the highest vulnerability to hunger in 2002 and 2010, followed in sequence by coloured people, Indians/Asians and white people. Black African females are noticeably more likely to experience vulnerability to hunger than their male peers. The difference between male and female experiences of hunger is much smaller in the other population groups.

Figure 4.19: Percentage of males and females living in households that reported hunger, by gender and population group, 2002 and 2010

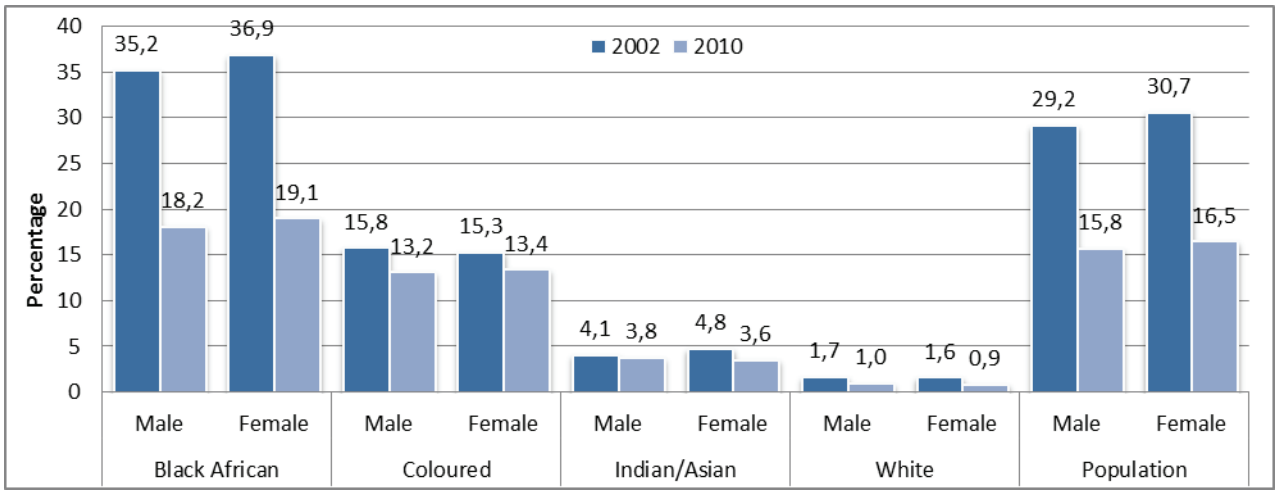


Table 4.6 explores the association between the age of the household head and the household's vulnerability to hunger within the context of apparent gender differences. It is clear from this table that female-headed households are consistently more likely to have experienced hunger than their male-headed equivalents across all age groups. In fact, if the six groups (male and female in each of the four age groups) are arranged from high to low according to the percentage of households that have experienced vulnerability to hunger, female-headed households will fill the first three places.

Table 4.6: Percentage of males and female-headed households that reported hunger by age group, 2002–2008, 2010[5]

Age	Gender	Year							
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2010
18-34	Male	17,7	19,3	15,3	14,2	9,8	8,4	11,8	10,9
	Female	25,3	24,2	18,1	19,4	13,9	10,5	14,4	14,8
35–59	Male	19,9	18,7	15,1	12,6	9,8	9,0	11,7	11,4
	Female	33,9	30,5	24,8	21,2	15,8	15,8	17,9	19,2
Over 60	Male	21,8	20,5	15,6	14,1	9,4	8,8	10,2	10,0
	Female	30,1	28,7	23,6	17,8	12,6	12,5	13,8	13,6

[5] Questions on hunger were replaced by questions to measure food access and supply in 2009. The battery of questions was reinserted in 2010.

The percentage of households that have experienced hunger by population group and gender is presented in Figure 4.20. This figure shows that, despite improvements since 2002, female-headed households remain more likely than male-headed households to have experienced hunger across all population groups. It is interesting to note that the situation improved in 2010 for almost all population groups, except for Indian/Asian females.

Figure 4.20: Percentage of households that have experienced hunger by population group and gender of the household head, 2010

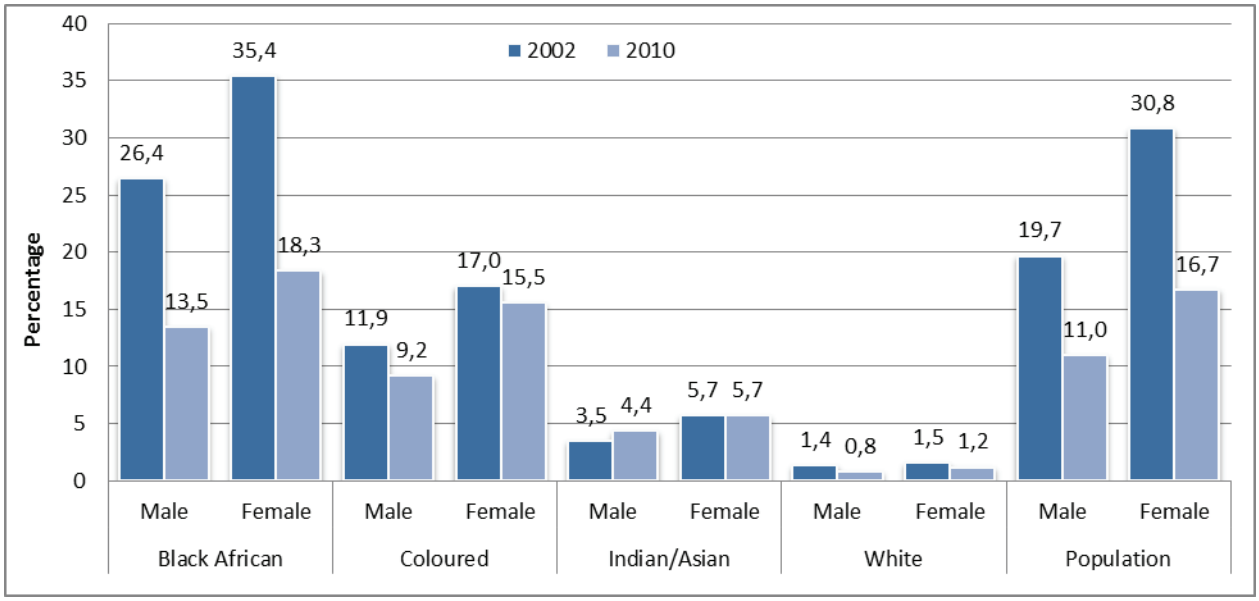
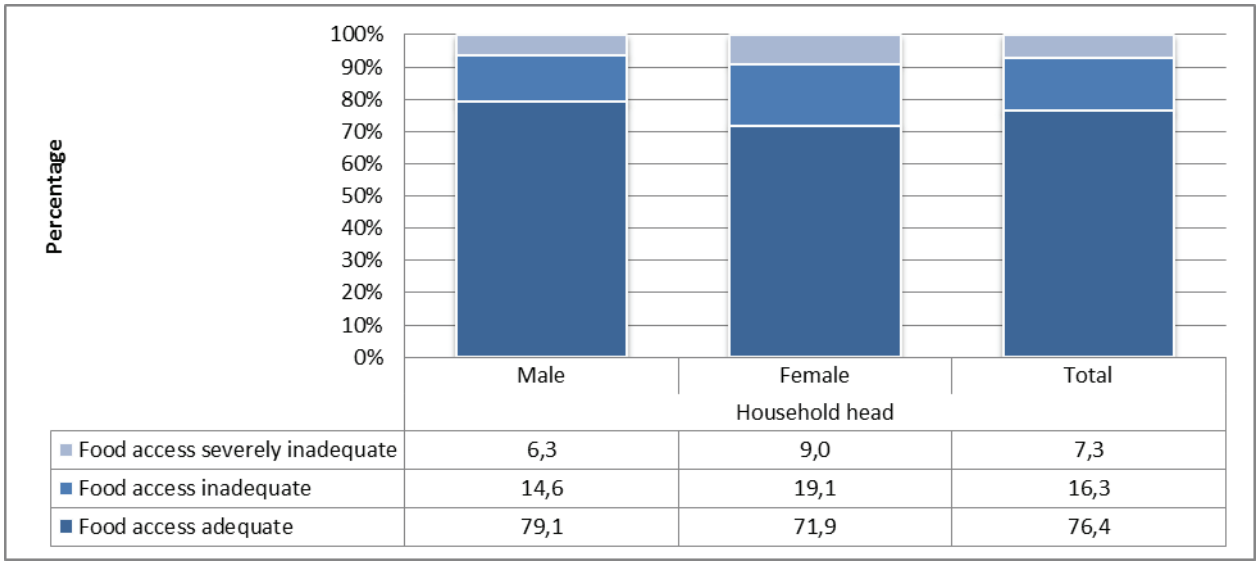


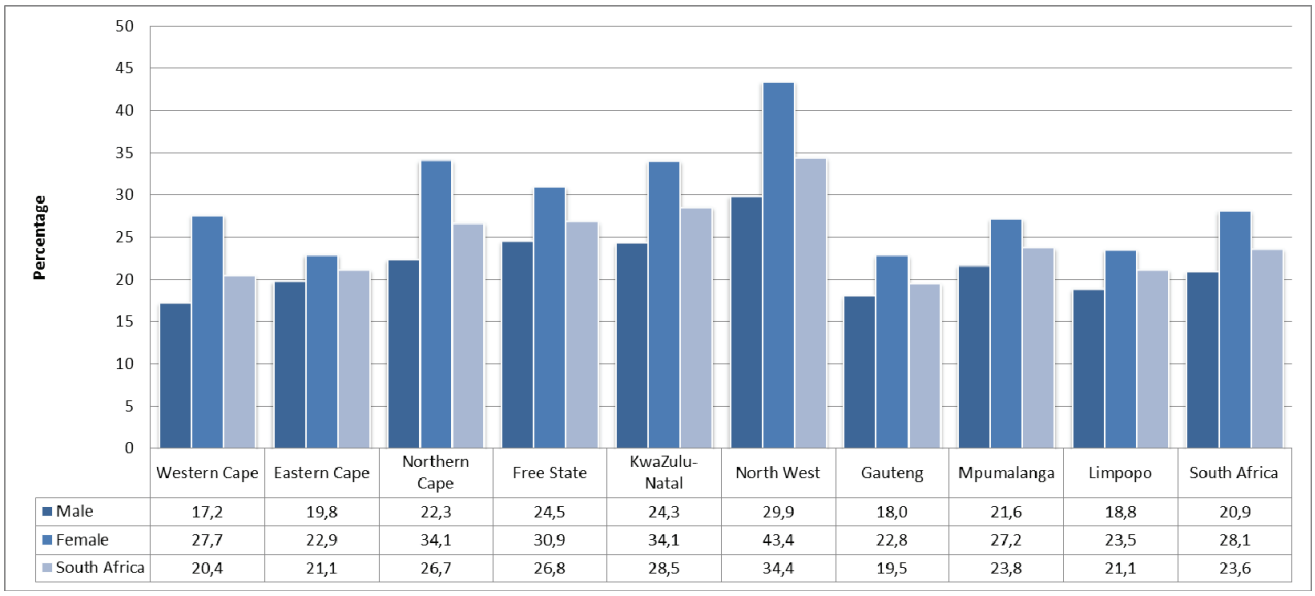
Figure 4.21 confirms the general trend that female headed households are more likely to have experienced hunger by revealing that households headed by females are less likely to have access to adequate food, and notably more likely to have inadequate or severely inadequate access to food than households headed by males.

Figure 4.21: Percentage of male- and female-headed households by access to food, 2010



Nationally, as well as in all nine provinces, female-headed households are consistently more likely to have experienced inadequate or severely inadequate access to food (Figure 4.22). These households are least likely to have adequate access to food in North West, Northern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. Male and female-headed households in Gauteng, Eastern Cape and Limpopo are most likely to have adequate access to food.

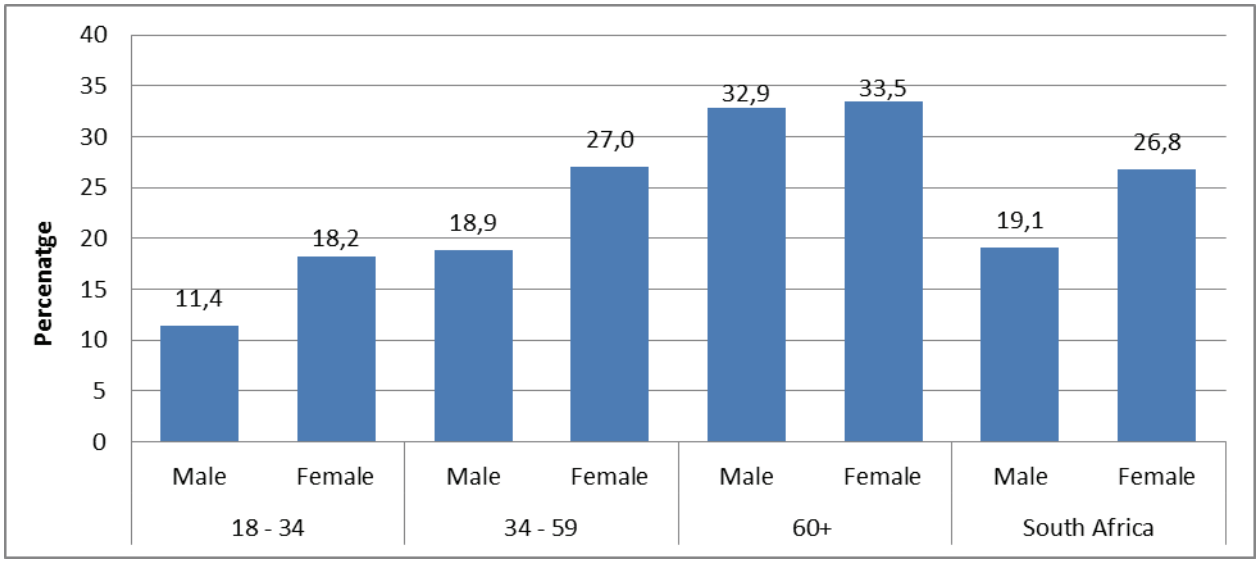
Figure 4.22: Percentage of male and female headed households that experienced inadequate or severely inadequate access to food by province, 2010



	Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	KwaZulu-Natal	North West	Gauteng	Mpumalanga	Limpopo	South Africa
Male	17,2	19,8	22,3	24,5	24,3	29,9	18,0	21,6	18,8	20,9
Female	27,7	22,9	34,1	30,9	34,1	43,4	22,8	27,2	23,5	28,1
South Africa	20,4	21,1	26,7	26,8	28,5	34,4	19,5	23,8	21,1	23,6

Figure 4.23 compares the participation of male and female-headed households in agricultural production. It is noticeable that female-headed households are more likely than male-headed households to participate in agricultural activities across all three age groups. Although female-headed households are much more likely to be involved in agricultural production than male-headed households before the age of 60 years, male and female-headed households are almost equally likely to engage in some form of agricultural production after the age of 60 years. Although not represented in the text, data from the GHS shows that female-headed households are somewhat more likely to grow produce for home consumption than male-headed households, which tend to sell more of the produce.

Figure 4.23: Percentage of households that participate in agricultural production, by gender and age of the household head, 2010



4.7 Education

Education for women and girls is regarded as fundamental to empower women and to achieve gender equality. Literacy in South Africa is improving steadily as successive cohorts access education. South Africa has ensured almost universal access to education with nearly all children attending educational institutions during the foundation years. The improved access to education is continuously contributing to the improved literacy rate for South Africans in general.

Functional literacy is defined as someone who has completed primary education (Grade 7 or above). Although this definition lends itself superbly to comparison across years and even to other studies, it has been criticised for not really reflecting the literacy status of individuals, but rather focusing on the completion of a particular grade. Completing primary school does not necessarily ensure literacy. Table 4.7 reveals that a larger percentage of males than females have generally been classified as literate between 2002 and 2010. Although the literacy rate has been increasing steadily since 2002, the figures hide considerable variation between various age groups. Individuals over 60 years of age are much less likely to be literate than persons in younger age cohorts, while persons in the age cohort 20–39 years are most likely to be literate. It is interesting to note that in the older age groups, males are more likely to be literate than females, but that the situation is reversed for the youngest age category (20–39 years) where 93% of females are classified as literate compared to 91% of males.

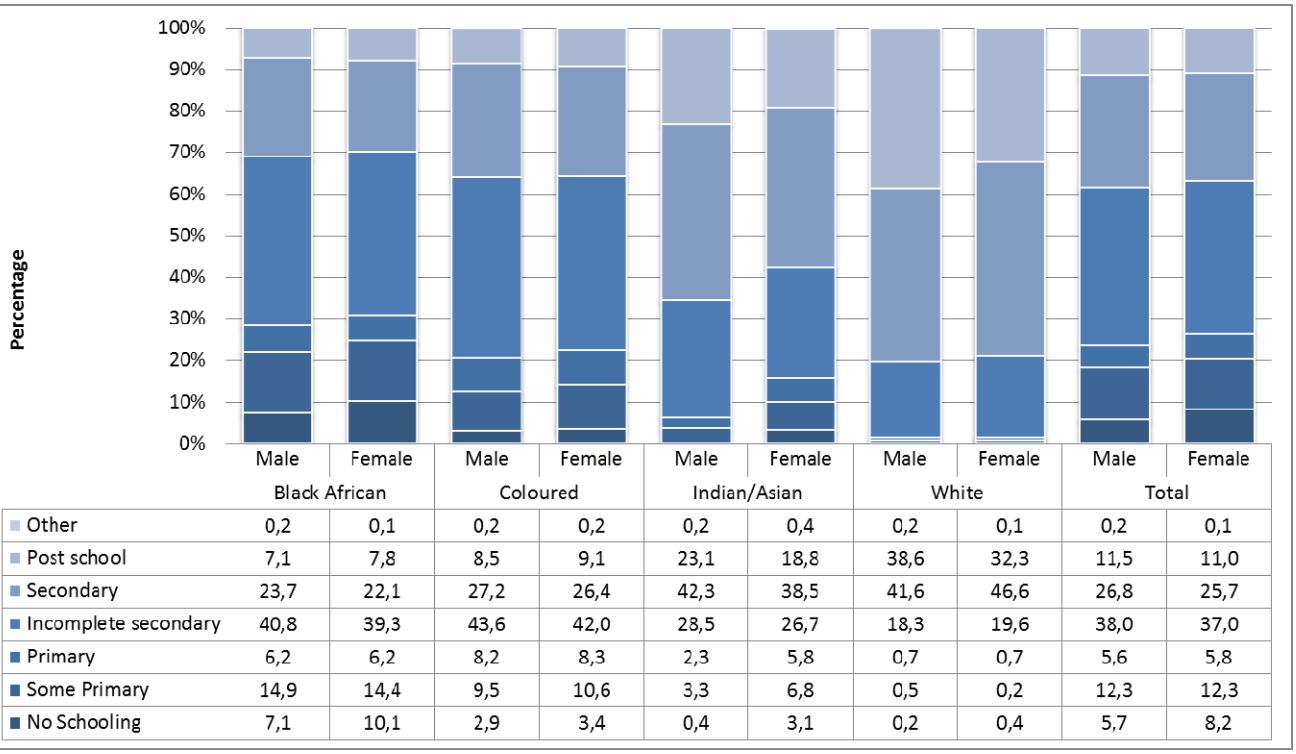
Table 4.7: Percentage of the population that are functional literacy by gender and age group for persons 20 years and older, 2002-2010

Gender	Age cohort	Year (percentage)								
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Male	20–39	82,8	85,3	85,4	87,1	87,4	87,8	88,5	90,3	91,0
	40–59	64,0	65,8	65,8	66,9	67,3	68,4	70,2	74,4	74,3
	60+	46,5	49,3	47,8	51,0	51,1	52,4	53,9	56,8	56,7
Female	20–39	84,2	86,0	87,3	87,5	88,5	89,2	89,3	92,0	93,0
	40–59	58,5	59,6	61,2	60,8	61,6	64,2	63,4	68,5	69,4
	60+	41,3	41,5	42,6	43,8	44,2	45,6	44,9	48,9	48,7
Total	20–39	83,6	85,7	86,4	87,3	88,0	88,6	88,9	91,2	92,0
	40–59	61,0	62,5	63,3	63,6	64,3	66,2	66,6	71,3	71,7
	60+	43,5	44,7	44,8	46,8	47,1	48,5	48,7	52,2	52,1
South Africa	**Male**	73,3	75,6	75,5	77,0	77,4	78,1	79,2	81,8	82,2
	Female	71,0	72,3	73,6	73,7	74,4	75,8	75,4	78,9	79,7
	South Africa	72,1	73,9	74,5	75,2	75,8	76,9	77,2	80,3	80,8

The highest level of education attained by persons over the age 20 years by population group and gender is summarised in Figure 4.24. It is clear from this figure that a slightly higher percentage of females (8,2%) than males (5,7%) have not received any schooling, while 26,8% of males have completed secondary school compared to 25,7% of females. The combined figure however hides much of the inequality between population groups. More than 46,6% of white females over the age of 20 years have on average completed secondary school compared to 38,5% for Indian, 26,6% for coloured and 22,1% for black African females. The figure shows that a smaller percentage of females than males have completed secondary school in all the population groups except for the white group. In 2010, less than 10% of black African and coloured persons attained post-secondary qualifications; over 40% dropped out somewhere between Grade 8 and 12, only attaining an incomplete secondary school qualification.

The attendance of educational institutions by males and females is presented in Table 4.8. Participation in educational institution is inversely related to age. Nearly all individuals aged 13–17 years participate in educational institutions, compared to approximately 93% of individuals aged 14–17. Individuals aged 18–24 are less likely to participate in educational institutions than individuals from other age groups. The difference between genders is insignificant for all age groups.

Figure 4.24: Highest level of education for persons aged 20 years and older, by gender and population group, 2010



	Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Other	0,2	0,1	0,2	0,2	0,2	0,4	0,2	0,1	0,2	0,1
Post school	7,1	7,8	8,5	9,1	23,1	18,8	38,6	32,3	11,5	11,0
Secondary	23,7	22,1	27,2	26,4	42,3	38,5	41,6	46,6	26,8	25,7
Incomplete secondary	40,8	39,3	43,6	42,0	28,5	26,7	18,3	19,6	38,0	37,0
Primary	6,2	6,2	8,2	8,3	2,3	5,8	0,7	0,7	5,6	5,8
Some Primary	14,9	14,4	9,5	10,6	3,3	6,8	0,5	0,2	12,3	12,3
No Schooling	7,1	10,1	2,9	3,4	0,4	3,1	0,2	0,4	5,7	8,2

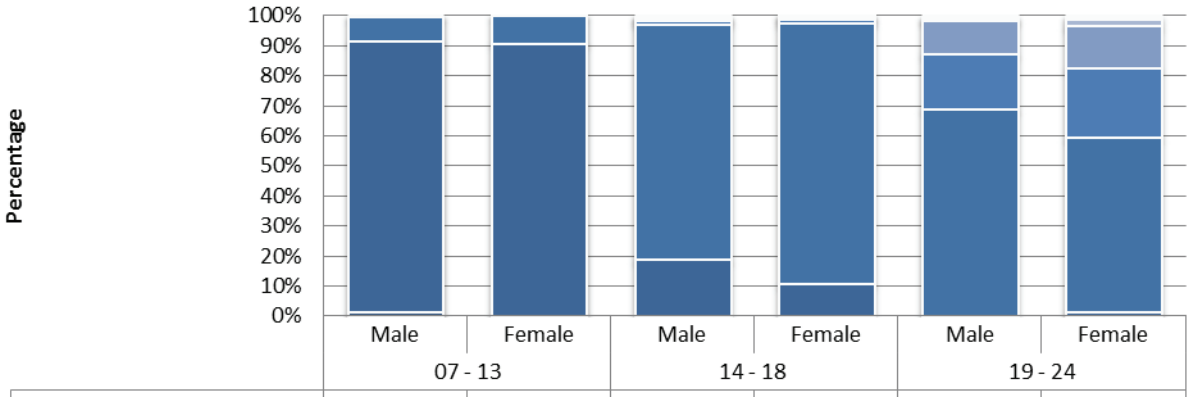
Table 4.8: Percentage of the population that are attending educational institutions, by gender and age group, 2002–2010

Age group	Gender	Year (percentage)								
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
7–13	Male	96,2	96,9	97,9	98,0	97,8	98,0	98,1	98,8	99,0
	Female	96,9	97,9	98,4	98,3	98,3	98,6	98,2	99,0	99,1
14–17	Male	92,5	92,6	93,0	93,7	92,5	93,5	93,1	92,8	93,9
	Female	90,7	91,5	91,9	91,2	91,7	93,1	93,5	93,1	92,6
18–24	Male	40,5	41,6	40,9	41,2	40,4	40,4	38,0	37,5	36,7
	Female	32,5	35,3	35,3	34,7	34,6	35,9	35,3	35,5	32,5

The relative participation rates among young people might, however, be deceiving, as a larger percentage of males seem to remain in secondary school after the age of 18 years. Figure 4.25 presents information on the type of educational institution attended by males and females by age groups that corresponds with the ideal ages that children should be when attending primary school (7–13 years), secondary school (14–18 years) and post-school education (19–24 years). Very similar percentages of girls and boys attended primary school between 7 and 13 years, although a slightly higher percentage of girls have already transferred to secondary school during this period (9,1% for girls compared to 8,1% for boys). It is very difficult to read too much into it without further analysis, as it could perhaps also be caused by practices like sending girls to school at a younger age. The distribution of children between the ages of 14 and 18 years (when they should ideally be attending secondary school), however, suggests that more boys might be failing to complete primary school as approximately 19% continue to attend primary school compared to almost 11% of girls. This is supported by the results of Figure 4.26, which shows that a smaller percentage of boys than girls have actually completed their primary school education by the time they turn 15 years old.

Almost two-thirds of males between the ages of 19 and 24 years who attend any educational institution, will still be at school compared to about 58% of females. In this age category (19–24 years), 18,4% of males are attending higher education compared to 23,1% of females, while a larger percentage of females also attend Further Education and Training (FET) and colleges.

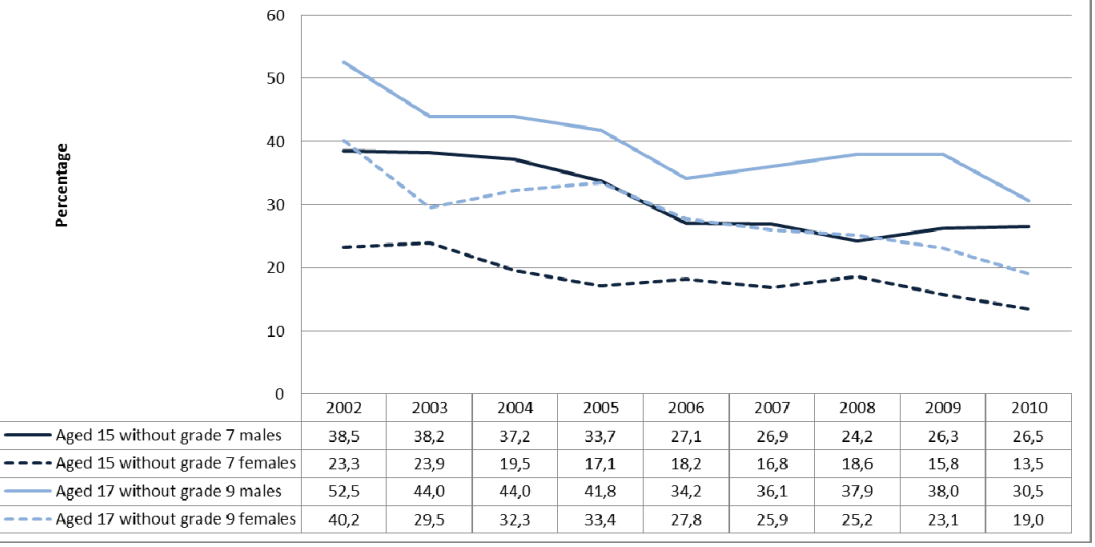
Figure 4.25: Type of educational institution attended by gender and age group, 2002–2010



	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	07 - 13		14 - 18		19 - 24	
Other	0,5	0,2	0,5	0,2	1,0	1,0
ABET / adult learning centre	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,1	0,5	2,5
FET or college	0,0	0,0	1,1	1,2	11,4	14,2
Higher education/ university	0,0	0,0	1,1	1,4	18,4	23,1
Secondary school	8,1	9,1	78,5	86,8	67,8	57,8
Primary school	90,3	89,9	18,6	10,5	0,9	1,4
Pre-primary school	1,2	0,9	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0

The relative participation rates among children might however be deceiving, as a large percentage of children fail to pass Grade 7 by the age of 15 years, as mentioned earlier. Even more children fail to complete Grade 9 by the time they turn 17 years old. This is presented in Figure 4.26. It is important to note girls have consistently performed better than boys on both indicators. A higher percentage of girls are consistently able to achieve Grade 7 by the time they turn 15 years old (87% compared to 74% of boys), while a smaller percentage of girls than boys do no manage to complete Grade 7 by their seventeenth birthday (19% for females compared to 31% for males). These findings seem to confirm the progress that has been made to improve access to education for girls, as well as their capacity to make the most of it. The large percentage of boys who fail to obtain the grades is, however, a very serious concern.

Figure 4.26: Percentage of individuals over the age of 15 years who have not completed Grade 7 compared to the percentage of individuals over the age of 17 years who have not completed Grade 9, by gender, 2002–2010



	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Aged 15 without grade 7 males	38,5	38,2	37,2	33,7	27,1	26,9	24,2	26,3	26,5
Aged 15 without grade 7 females	23,3	23,9	19,5	17,1	18,2	16,8	18,6	15,8	13,5
Aged 17 without grade 9 males	52,5	44,0	44,0	41,8	34,2	36,1	37,9	38,0	30,5
Aged 17 without grade 9 females	40,2	29,5	32,3	33,4	27,8	25,9	25,2	23,1	19,0

The reasons for not attending an educational institution are presented in Table 4.9 according to age group and gender. Since attendance is almost universal between the ages of 7 and 13 years (Figure 4.26), the number of children who are not attending was too small to use. Hence, it has been decided to omit this age group. Financial constraints are the main reason cited by both boys and girls in different age groups for not attending school. While males and females in the age group 14–18 years also cited poor academic performance and questioned the usefulness of education, a large percentage of individuals from the age group 19–24 years argued that they are working and have no time. Males are more likely to specify this reason. Most boys aged 14 to 18 years old who have dropped out of school cited financial constraints (31,2%) as their main reason, followed by 'education is not useful' (14,7%). A slightly higher percentage of females in this age group also referred to financial constraints (35,4%). Girls were more likely than boys to select 'pregnancy' and 'family commitments' (12,4% compared to less than 1% of males). These findings seem to support the persistence of particular gender roles in society.

Table 4.9: Reasons for not attending an education institution, by gender and age group, 2010

Reasons for not attending an educational institution	Age groups (percentage)			
	14 - 18		19 - 24	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Too old	0,7	0,5	1,8	1,1
Has completed school/education	6,6	6,4	7,2	6,7
Transport difficulties	0,5	0,4	0,5	0,5
No money for fees	31,2	35,4	36,2	38,0
Working, do not have time	13,5	7,3	28,9	19,4
Family commitments	0,6	12,4	0,6	13,0
Education not useful	14,7	5,8	6,0	3,9
Poor academic performance	16,2	11,2	10,3	6,2
Illness / disability	6,3	5,3	2,4	2,0
Pregnancy	0,3	9,2	0,1	3,4
Other	9,5	6,2	6,1	5,8

4.8 Housing and basic services

Access to basic social services plays a significant role in determining the well-being of individuals. Services such as access to clean water and sanitation are particularly important, as it is closely associated with the health status of households, particularly young children. Housing, water, sanitation, a clean environment, food security and poverty are generally considered some of the most important social determinants of health. The provision of basic services such as adequate housing, water, sanitation, refuse removal and energy sources is of particular importance to women due to their roles as mothers, homemakers and caregivers (Unifem, 2009).

For the purposes of this publication, housing is categorised as formal, informal, traditional and other. Formal housing refers to dwellings or brick structures on separate stands; flats or apartments; cluster houses; townhouses; semi-detached houses and rooms, flatlets or servant's quarters. Informal housing refers to informal dwellings or shacks in backyards or in informal settlements. Traditional housing is defined as 'a traditional dwelling/hut/structure made of traditional materials'. 'Other' refers to caravans and tents. Formal housing is generally considered a proxy for adequate housing.

The percentage of housing types inhabited by male and female-headed households for the period 2002 to 2010 is presented in Table 4.10. The table reveals very similar patterns for male and female-headed households over this period. In 2010, approximately three-quarters of male and female-headed households resided in formal dwellings. Female-headed households are, however, much more likely to live in traditional structures (13,3% compared to 7,5% for males in 2010). This is consistent with the observation in Table 4.2 that most female-headed households are found in more rural provinces such as Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. Male-headed households are slightly more likely to live in informal dwellings than female-headed households (15% compared to 9,7% in 2010).

Table 4.10: Percentage of households living in formal, informal and traditional housing, by gender of the household head, 2002–2010

Type of dwelling	Year (percentage)								
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Male									
Formal	74,3	75,7	75,4	70,8	73,9	73,2	74,7	76,0	77,0
Traditional	8,0	7,7	8,4	8,0	7,3	7,1	7,9	7,6	7,5
Informal	13,8	13,4	12,9	17,6	15,9	16,9	16,3	15,3	15,0
Other	4,0	3,3	3,3	3,6	2,9	2,7	1,0	1,1	0,5
Per cent	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**
Total (thousands)	**6 892**	**7 108**	**7 319**	**7 538**	**7 780**	**8 007**	**8 314**	**8 629**	**8 937**
Female									
Formal	72,6	72,0	72,5	71,1	73,2	73,5	74,3	74,7	76,7
Traditional	15,1	15,7	16,9	15,9	13,9	14,0	14,6	14,6	13,3
Informal	11,7	11,8	10,2	12,5	12,1	11,7	10,5	10,2	9,7
Other	0,6	0,5	0,4	0,5	0,8	0,8	0,6	0,5	0,3
Per cent	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**
Total (thousands)	**4 111**	**4 248**	**4 386**	**4 522**	**4 670**	**4 801**	**5 000**	**5 183**	**5 367**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

As could be expected, the distribution of male and female across the various dwelling types is very similar. This is presented in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Percentage of individuals living in formal, informal and traditional housing, by gender 2002–2010

Type of dwelling	Year (percentage)								
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Male									
Formal	74,1	75,2	73,8	71,7	74,9	73,9	76,6	77,1	77,2
Traditional	12,1	11,1	12,5	11,8	10,2	10,2	10,8	10,6	12,6
Informal	12,2	11,7	11,4	14,5	13,4	14,1	12,0	11,4	9,9
Other	1,6	2,1	2,3	2,0	1,5	1,8	0,6	0,9	0,4
Per cent	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**
Total (thousands)	**27 475**	**27 170**	**27 165**	**27 719**	**27 472**	**27 312**	**28 631**	**29 104**	**24 160**
Female									
Formal	67,8	67,4	66,5	64,7	69,6	69,4	71,4	72,1	78,3
Traditional	20,0	20,8	23,1	21,6	18,8	19,0	18,9	19,1	13,0
Informal	11,0	10,4	9,0	11,8	10,5	10,4	9,1	8,4	8,5
Other	1,1	1,4	1,4	2,0	1,1	1,1	0,6	0,4	0,2
Per cent	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,**	**100,0**
Total (thousands)	**17 590**	**18 530**	**19 138**	**18 978**	**19 776**	**20 134**	**19 797**	**20 278**	**25 700**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

The percentage of male and female-headed households living in dwellings that are partially or fully owned is presented in Table 4.12. Female-headed households have been notably and consistently more likely to live in households that are partially or fully owned than male-headed households or households in general. It is notable that the percentages of male and female-headed households that have this tenure status in 2010 dropped below the levels measured in 2002 after fluctuating visibly between 2002 and 2008.

In addition to improving the quality of life and general well-being of families and individuals, having access to clean piped water also drastically reduces vulnerability to diseases such as diarrhoea and cholera. Access to piped water is defined as having water piped directly into their dwellings, or having access to taps on the site of the dwelling or yard. Access to water in the dwelling or yard has increased for male and female-headed households between 2002 and 2010. It is noticeable that female-headed households are noticeably less likely to have access to water than their male-headed counterparts.

Having access to flush toilets that are in or near the house and which dispose of waste safely is used as a proxy for adequate basic sanitation. While access to flush toilets have generally improved for both male and female-headed households, the former remain much more likely to have access to flush toilets.
The percentage of persons living in households for which refuse is removed by the municipality is used as an indicator of environmental cleanliness. Male-headed households are once again much more likely than female-headed households to have their rubbish removed (61,5% versus 51,3% in 2010).

Table 4.12: Comparison of the basic living condition indicators for South African households by gender of the household head, 2002–2010[6]

Access to service indicator	Sex of head	Year (Percentage)								
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Tenure status % living in dwellings that are partially or fully owned	Male	65,2	67,6	64,6	67,2	65,5	63,6	70,0	61,2	63,4
	Female	74,5	77,0	75,2	75,3	77,4	74,3	80,0	71,7	73,6
	Total	**68,7**	**71,1**	**68,6**	**70,3**	**70,0**	**67,6**	**73,8**	**65,1**	**67,2**
Access to water % living in dwellings with piped water in house or yard	Male	73,3	74,4	74,3	73,9	75,3	75,8	74,3	73,4	73,8
	Female	59,8	60,7	61,5	63,1	64,4	65,9	64,3	64,2	65,3
	Total	**68,3**	**69,3**	**69,5**	**69,9**	**71,2**	**72,1**	**70,5**	**69,9**	**70,6**
Sanitation % living in dwellings with flush toilet with on or off site disposal	Male	63,1	64,4	63,8	64,1	65,1	65,7	63,8	64,1	66,8
	Female	46,5	47,5	48,7	49,8	50,2	51,0	50,0	50,9	54,2
	Total	**56,9**	**58,1**	**58,2**	**58,7**	**59,5**	**60,2**	**58,6**	**59,2**	**62,0**
Refuse/waste removal % living in dwellings with rubbish removed by municipality	Male	61,6	63,6	62,8	65,8	66,5	66,1	64,4	56,9	61,5
	Female	51,3	51,7	52,5	54,8	55,1	55,5	53,1	46,8	51,3
	Total	**57,8**	**59,1**	**59,0**	**61,7**	**62,2**	**62,1**	**60,2**	**53,1**	**57,7**
Electricity % living in dwellings with connected to mains	Male	79,3	80,7	82,3	82,0	81,8	82,2	82,2	83,2	81,9
	Female	73,8	74,6	77,8	78,9	78,9	81,2	80,8	81,7	82,2
	Total	**76,8**	**78,4**	**80,6**	**80,8**	**80,7**	**81,8**	**81,7**	**82,6**	**82,0**
Telephone % living in dwellings with landline or cellular phone in the dwelling	Male	49,7	51,5	58,3	67,1	72,2	76,2	79,7	83,9	86,6
	Female	38,7	42,1	49,6	61,7	68,1	74,2	78,0	84,2	86,9
	Total	**45,6**	**48,0**	**55,1**	**65,1**	**70,6**	**75,4**	**79,1**	**84,0**	**86,7**
Internet % living in dwellings with access to internet	Male				8,7				11,6	13,3
	Female				2,5				4,3	4,8
	Total				**6,4**				**8,8**	**10,1**

Although the connection to mains electricity does not preclude the use of other sources of energy for cooking, heating and lighting, connection to mains electricity does benefit households in many ways. As a result of sustained efforts in this regard, the percentage of male and female-headed households that are connected to mains electricity has increased steadily since 2002. Despite being consistently less likely to be connected to the mains than male-headed households, a slightly larger percentage of female than male-headed households were connected to mains electricity in 2010.

Access to telephones is defined as the percentage of households with access to landlines or cellphones in the household. The percentage of South African households that have access to landlines or cellphones has increased tremendously over the past years; from approximately 46% in 2002 to 86,7% in 2010. Starting from a lower base, the growth in female-headed households exceeded the growth in male-headed households. Since 2009 female-headed households have been more likely to have a telephone in the dwelling.

While a larger percentage of female-headed households have access to telephones, male-headed households are much more likely to have access to the Internet. The percentage of male-headed households with access to the Internet grew from almost 9% in 2005 to 13,3% in 2010, compared to female-headed households' access of almost 3% in 2005 to 4,8% in 2010. This is almost certainly linked to the higher percentage of female-headed households that can be classified as poor when using a threshold of R570 per capita per month.

[6] Questions on access to the Internet at home was only included in the questionnaire in 2005, 2009 and 2010.

4.9 Summary and conclusions

This section attempts to provide some gender-sensitive analyses of a number of indicators that are of particular relevance to men and women in society. Women constitute approximately 52% of the South African population, but a much larger percentage of the older age cohorts. Since women essentially comprise half the population, their racial and provincial distribution is generally reflective of the provincial distribution of the population as a whole. The distribution of males and females is often skewed by demographic factors such as migration of particularly male labour. This effect can be seen in Gauteng, where a larger percentage of males than females is found.

The importance of events such as marriage and cohabitation is increasingly being questioned, since it is no longer universal, and characterised by high divorce rates, unofficial cohabitation, single parenthood and remarriages at advanced ages. Cohabitation, whether it is formally legalised as a marriage or not, does, however, still clearly influence the living arrangements and opportunities men and women will have access to. Studies have shown that marriage enhances household income and wealth and promotes the well-being of spouses and children (Weeks, 2002). The literature suggests that women usually marry earlier than men, and that they often marry partners that are significantly older than them. These choices often mark the start of fundamentally unequal relationships in which women will often have to be disproportionately burdened by household chores. This thesis is supported by the observation that 30% of females in the age category 18–34 years are married compared to only one-fifth of men, while more than 70% of men in the age category 35–59 years are, however, married compared to approximately 60% of females. This variation is partly explained by the relatively high percentage of widows (11%) in this age group. More than one-fifth of males and females in this age group remain unmarried. The effect of death and socio-cultural choices become even more apparent in the elderly age group (60 years and older), in which it is clear that 75% of males remain married, while the percentage of married women falls to about 37%. This is in large part caused by widowhood and men being married to younger wives. White people are most likely to be married or live together, while black Africans are least likely to do so.

The analysis suggests that women's extended life expectancy can in many cases contribute to their health and socio-economic problems. Being a widow or a divorcee statistically increases the odds of health and social problems (Weeks, 2007). The problem is particularly severe for already disadvantaged individuals who have to take over the control of households out of necessity (widowhood) rather than choice (Lund, 2006). This is perhaps confirmed by the observation that 54% of all households headed by individuals over the age of 70 years are headed by females. It is therefore not surprising to note from the literature that women-headed households are disproportionately affected by poverty. Female-headed households comprise approximately 38% of all households in the country. They are particularly prevalent in Limpopo, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal where female-headed households represent more than 43% of all households. Although the majority of female heads are African, the rapid increase of white female household heads poses a different set of equally important challenges. White women are part of a generation that is living longer than before, often out-living their husbands/partners by decades and who spends longer periods of time living independently from children and families. The literature suggests that this group of usually elderly women has an elevated risk of falling into poverty. The risk is accentuated for white people by the observation that 55% of white female-headed households consist of single-person households.

Female-headed households are more likely to be extended households with a larger average household size and matching dependency ratios. Female-headed households have an average household size of 3,8 compared to 3,4 for males, and the mean dependency ratio is estimated at 1,02. This means that every person in the age group 18–59 years has to support one child (below 18 years) or older person (over 60 years), irrespective of whether they are actually employed or not. The child dependency rate constitutes a significantly larger burden for female-headed households (0,868) than for their male-headed counterparts (0,524). Children on average constitute 42% of all the members of female-headed households compared to about 32% for male-headed households. Female-headed households are more likely to contain older persons than male-headed households, and the old-aged dependency ratio is slightly higher for female-headed households.

The responsibility that children present to female-headed households, particularly those headed by older women, can be illustrated by the high percentage of skip-generation households. Skip-generation households (where a grandparent lives with his/her grandchildren in the absence of their parents), constitute almost 11% of all female-headed households. The prevalence differs by age and population group, and black Africans, in particular black African females, are much more likely to head skip-generation households than male or female heads from other population groups. This represents a significant burden to households that are often devoid of employed adults and who are largely dependent on social grants. While households with three or more generations, including skip-generation households are relatively common among black Africans, coloured people and female-headed Indian households, nuclear households containing two-generations or less is much more common among white people.

The study confirms that female-headed households are much more likely to have low incomes than their male-headed equivalents, regardless of population group or province. Population groups are however strongly associated with poverty, as can be seen from the observation that 62% of black African women live in low-income households compared to less than 3% of white women.

Male-headed households are much more likely to indicate salaries or wages as the main source of income (65%) than female-headed households (44%). These households seem to be much more dependent on remittances and pensions. It is notable that the frequency of remittances as a source of income has been declining for female-headed households, while pensions and grants have become more important (increasing from 23% in 2002 to 35% in 2010). Although a smaller percentage of male-headed households indicated pensions/grants as a main source of income, this percentage has also been increasing steadily since 2002 (from 13% to 17% in 2010). The importance of social grants for women is illustrated by the fact that about 73% of females over the age of 60 years (often heads of households themselves) are grant beneficiaries compared to 59% of males. The latter percentage is however expected to increase, as more men become eligible for the old-age pension once the age threshold is standardised at 60 years by 2012. Just below 30% of males and females in the general population receive some kind of social grant. Female-headed households are much more likely to contain one or more grant beneficiaries than male-headed households. On average 36% of the members of female-headed households are grant recipients, compared to approximately 22% for male-headed households.

The dependence on grants is in part caused by the relative absence of employed household members. Female-headed households are shown to have a lower proportion of economically active and employed household members than male-headed households. The relative disadvantage of female-headed households is further borne from the observation that 44% do not contain a single employed household member, compared to 24% for male-headed households. Although this might be associated with the fact that many male and particularly female-headed households are headed by pensioners, it raises serious questions about their vulnerability to poverty and hunger, as many studies have linked the presence of employed individuals in households to improved living conditions.

The prevalence of chronic conditions is shown to increase with age for both males and females. While less than 3% of females indicated being afflicted by some kind of chronic disease under the age of 17 years, the percentage grows to more than 56% for women over the age of 60 years. Women are also more likely to suffer from a chronic disease than men in the corresponding age group. The large difference between the gender specific prevalence of chronic conditions above 60 years might be ascribed to the higher life expectancy of women and the high percentage of frail older persons in this age group. The prevalence of acute disease has a much looser association with the age groups under 60 years. While the prevalence of acute conditions increases considerably after the age of 60 years, the prevalence differences between the first two age groups are much more subtle. Access to medical aid is as much an indication of access to excellent medical services as it is an indicator of socio-economic privilege. Less than one-fifth of all South African men and women are members of a medical scheme compared to less than one-quarter of elderly men (24,5%) and women (21,5%).

The level of vulnerability to hunger is strongly associated with population groups. Black Africans experience the highest vulnerability to hunger, followed by coloured people, Indians/Asians and then white people. It is noticeable that the difference between male and female experiences of hunger is much larger between black African males and females than in any of the other population groups. Besides exhibiting a much smaller gender based difference, it is also noticeable that males and females are much more likely to alternate positions. The vulnerability to hunger suffered by female-headed households is illustrated by noting the large variance with male-headed households in each of the three age groups, 18–34 years, 35–59 years and over 60 years. Female-headed households in the age category 35–59 years were most likely to suffer hunger (19%), followed by female-headed households in the age category 18–34 years (14,8%) and then female-headed households in the oldest age category. The three male headed-households were each less likely to have experienced hunger than any of the female-headed households. Nationally, as well as across all nine provinces, female-headed households are similarly more likely to experience inadequate or severely inadequate access to food. It is noticeable that a larger percentage of female-headed households are generally engaged in agricultural production below the age of 60 years. After the age of 60 years, male and female-headed households are almost equally likely to engage in some sort of agricultural production.

The literacy rate for persons over the age of 20 years has been improving steadily for males and females in South Africa. Males over the age of 20 years are still slightly more likely than females in the same age group to be literate (according to the definition used, to have completed at least a primary school education), but the gap between males and females seems to reduce very quickly. In fact, when the literacy rates for males and females in the age group 20–39 years are considered, it seems as if women have managed to surpass males (91% literacy for males compared to 93% for females in 2010). The largest differences are still noted for the age group over 60 years. Large inequality is however revealed when the educational outcomes between population groups are considered. While more than 80% of white people and 65% of Indians/Asians have completed secondary school, the figure stands at less than 40% for coloured people and at approximately 30% for Africans. Although a smaller percentage of females than males in the age group above 20 years have completed secondary school, women are making rapid progress and the difference can be expected to disappear in time. This is once again confirmed by the observation that gender parity has been achieved for the age groups 7–13 years and 14–17 years, and that the number of females attending education institutions in actual fact surpasses the number of males at school in these age groups. The poor state of education for black African children in the age group 14–18 years is highlighted by the high percentage of children who still attend primary school when they should be in secondary school. The observation is confirmed by the observation that 27% of boys and 14% of girls have not achieved Grade 7 by the time they turned 15 years old, and that an even more children have not completed Grade 9 by the time they turn 17 years old (31% boys and 19% girls).

Financial constraints are the main reason for dropping out of school for both males and females in the age categories 14–18 yeas and 19–24 years. Girls are more likely to identify family related reasons than boys in both age groups, and 9% of girls blamed pregnancy for dropping out of school.

The study shows very little variation between the types of dwellings inhabited by male and female-headed households. Three quarters of both male and female-headed households resided in formal structures. A smaller percentage of women than men, however, lives in informal structures (10% compared to 15%), while a much larger percentage of women inversely lives in traditional dwellings.

Female-headed households were, however, much more likely than male-headed households to fully, or partially own the dwelling unit they lived in. Male-headed households are more likely to have access to water, sanitation, refuse removal and electricity than female-headed households. Male and female-headed households have similar access to telephones (either fixed line or cell phone) in the dwelling, but male-headed households were much more likely than female-headed households to have access to an internet connection at home.

4.10 Policy recommendations

Indicators alone do not produce gender equality, but they do provide users with some tools to measure and assess progress and shortcomings. This chapter has attempted to provide a very brief overview of some of the most relevant gender-sensitive indicators. Many more have however been left untouched, perhaps for other researchers to analyse. The analysis suggests that real, though sometimes uneven, progress has been made to achieve greater gender equality. Statistics, however, often hide as much as they reveal. Hence, it is important to further investigate existing indicators, while actively engaging subject specialist regarding the development of new ones.

Households remain the primary agents for the socialisation of children, and household-based care is increasingly becoming more important for the provision of care and support to vulnerable individuals, including the elderly, people living with disabilities, orphans, and people who suffer from HIV/AIDS. The analysis confirms that the burden is often disproportionately carried by female-headed households, which are much more likely to have lower household income and rely more on social grants than male-headed households. Additional support is needed for households where the potential burden, as indicated by the total and child dependency ratios, is so severe. The important role of elderly female household heads in raising their grandchildren is stressed by the existence of skip-generation households, particularly in rural provinces. It is vital that authorities ensure that child support grants are particularly used in households where children live, rather than by the parents who might be living elsewhere. Black African female-headed households are much more vulnerable to hunger than black African male-headed households, or households from other population groups. This vulnerability can be associated with a combination of low income and high dependencies, and can only be addressed by using a multidimensional approach. Part of the solution is to improve households' participation in agricultural activity through engagement in small-scale agriculture. By increasing the scale, households might be able to not only produce food for own consumption, but also sell it to supplement the household's income.

Although females' access to education has improved tremendously over the past eight years, even surpassing the outcomes registered by males, the study raises concerns about the apparent deterioration of male outcomes. Although many males remain at school well into their early twenties, they take longer to complete certain milestone grades (Grade 5 and Grade 7 were used in the analysis), and they are eventually forced to leave school without a completed education for a variety of reasons, often financial in nature. Young people without at least a secondary education have very few opportunities of finding any decent job in this depressed economy. Financial constraints and poor academic performance are given as common reasons for why males and females do not continue with education after completing secondary school. Ways have to be found to mediate and fund post-school training for individuals who cannot afford it, including but not primarily at universities. An allowance should also be given to those individuals who might need some remedial attention.

While females' access to and completion of primary and secondary education have improved greatly, their access to the labour market still seems more restricted. It is disturbing to note that up to one-fifth of male and 44% of female-headed households do not contain a single employed adult member. This state of affairs will have to be addressed urgently, as children living in households without employed adults revealed to be more poorly educated and socialised.

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5. SOCIAL PROFILE OF OLDER PERSONS, 2002-2010

5.1 Introduction

Older persons are a primary target group for service delivery. This group has, perhaps more than any other generation, borne the brunt of a system where the majority of the people were deprived of adequate education, employment and socio-economic opportunities which conspired to relegate them to chronic structural poverty. Women were additionally burdened by being relegated to low positions in their rural and cultural settings (Makiwane and Kwizera, 2006). Without the means to break free from the bondage of poverty, the majority of older people were unable to provide for their old age through secure retirement benefits (Wachipa, 2006) or by ensuring that their children would flourish. Older persons not only need assistance, they deserve it.

Recognising the many challenges older people face, the White Paper on Social Welfare (1997) addresses the constitutional mandate to protect the human rights of older people by removing all forms of racial discrimination and by addressing inequality in government-funded services. Ageing is recognised as an inevitable stage of life, which requires special needs. The developmental paradigm aims to enable older persons to live active, healthy and independent lives for as long as possible.

The high standard of life that white people in particular enjoyed before 1994, is at odds with the poverty and disadvantages so many black South Africans had to face. Institutional care favoured by pre-1994 governments is also expensive and at odds with the principle of 'participatory social welfare' outlined in the White Paper on Social Welfare (Republic of South Africa, 1997). Services are therefore increasingly shifted from primarily institutional care to community-based care with the view to keep older people in their communities for as long as possible. The Older Persons' Act, No. 13 of 2006, aims to establish a framework to empower and protect older persons and to maintain and promote their status, rights, well-being, safety and security.

Old-age pensions form the primary support mechanism for older persons. This grant is a non-contributory, means-tested grant that was paid over to approximately 2,69 million persons over the age of 60 years in April 2011 (South African Social Security Agency, 2011).

Older persons were formerly defined by the Older Persons' Act, No. 13 of 2006, as persons who are, in the case of males, 65 years or older, and in the case of women, 60 years or older. This differentiation clearly diminished men's eligibility to access the old-age grant. It was successfully challenged in 2006 on the grounds that the differentiation based on age and gender was unfair and in direct opposition to the equality clause in the Constitution (Wachipa, 2006). The discrepancy was corrected through the Social Assistance Amendment Act, No. 6 of 2008, in which the eligibility age for men was reduced from 65 to 63 years in 2008. In 2009 it was further reduced to 61 years, and finally 60 years in 2010. Although there does not seem to be a standard United Nations' (UN) numerical criterion, the UN generally uses 60 years as the commencement of old age (World Health Organisation, undated). For the purposes of this report, older persons are defined as all individuals older than the age of 60 years.

Although old-age grants (R1 140 per month for persons aged 60–74 years and R1 060 for persons aged 75 years and older), are paid to individuals, various authors (Wachipa, 2006; Lombard and Kruger, 2009) have remarked on the important contribution a old-age grant makes to a household's income and its role as safety net for other household members. Old-age grants are often the only source of income for households and there is pressure on pensioners to share their grants with unemployed family and children (May, 2008; Eckley, in Lombard and Kruger, 2009:126). In addition to providing a source of income and alleviating poverty in many households, it also improved households' access to basic services. Sharing the meagre grant with unemployed family members might, however, severely diminish its per capita effect. A qualitative study quoted by May (2003:35) shows that old-age pensions were shared when older persons were living in multi-generation households, while this was not the case when older persons were living alone.

Older persons are extremely vulnerable to disease, and their health is often affected by poor nutrition, quality access to medical care and poverty. All South Africans are entitled to free primary healthcare services. In addition, older persons, who are beneficiaries of old-age grants, are eligible to receive free secondary healthcare services at public hospitals (Burns, in Lombard and Kruger, 2009). Only a small percentage of the elderly have access to medical schemes.

As individuals age, they often lose spouses, siblings and parents. This diminishes their support structures (May, 2003). The observations are strongly associated with gender and population groups. Widowhood tends to increase with age. On average, women live longer than men and they also tend to marry older men. According to Makiwane and Kwizera (2006), the vast majority of older persons live in multi-generational households with younger relatives, while a significant percentage live in skip-generation households with grand-children. The composition of households is caused by serious social disruptions, including HIV/AIDS. This compels older persons to be financial contributors and prime caretakers of sick children and orphaned grandchildren (see Lombard and Kruger, 2009: 124).

An important limitation of this chapter is that it does not cover older people who live in institutions, as many older people do.

5.2 Demography

The absolute and relative numbers of older people in South Africa has increased considerably over the past decades. This phenomenon is known as 'population ageing' and results when fertility declines in conjunction with an increase in the percentage of people who reach old age. Statistics South Africa (2010) estimates that there were approximately 3,9 million older people in South Africa in 2011. This comprises 7,7% of the total population, making it one of the countries will the largest percentage of older populations on the African continent. This figure is expected to increase further over the next decades. A single figure for South Africa necessarily hides the significant variation between population groups. While older people comprise 6,2% black Africans and 7,3% coloured people, there are significantly more older Indians/Asians (11,1%) and white people (20,6%).

According to Table 5.1, older persons from black African descent comprise nearly 63% of the total population over 60 years in South Africa, followed by white people (24%), coloured people (8,7%) and Indians/Asians (3,9%). Black Africans constitute nearly 97% of older persons in Limpopo, and over 80% each in North West, Mpumalanga and Eastern Cape. The older person population in Western Cape comprises nearly 46% coloured people and 41,1% white people. Gauteng has almost similar percentages of older black Africans and white people.

Africans comprise the majority of the elderly population in six of the nine provinces. Because of the much older profile of the white population, white people comprise substantial proportions of the older population in the provinces where sizeable percentages of whites are located, namely Western Cape, Gauteng and Northern Cape.

Table 5.1: Provincial distribution of older persons by population group, 2010

Province	Population group (percentage)				Total	
	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Per cent	Thousands
Western Cape	11,7	45,8	1,5	41,1	100,0	488
Eastern Cape	80,2	4,7	1,2	13,9	100,0	607
Northern Cape	45,0	36,0	0,0	19,1	100,0	102
Free State	73,7	3,0	0,1	23,3	100,0	218
KwaZulu-Natal	71,4	0,9	14,4	13,3	100,0	738
North West	81,1	1,6	0,5	16,9	100,0	295
Gauteng	48,6	2,7	2,7	45,9	100,0	805
Mpumalanga	80,5	0,7	2,2	16,6	100,0	215
Limpopo	96,6	0,2	0,0	3,2	100,0	376
South Africa elderly	**62,9**	**8,7**	**3,9**	**24,0**	**100,0**	**3 843**
South Africa all ages	**79,5**	**9,0**	**2,6**	**8,9**	**100,0**	**49 869**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

5.3 Household characteristics

The role of older persons in households has changed tremendously over the past decades because of issues such as labour migration, poverty, as well as HIV/AIDS. Many families are severely disjointed and are unable to look after the well-being of older persons, as it has traditionally been assumed that extended families and the community will take care of them (Fernandez-Castilla, in Lombard and Kruger, 2009). In fact, older persons are increasingly required to play an active care and support role in their respective households. The percentage of households headed by older persons (Table 5.2) has increased slightly from 18,7% in 2002 to 20,5% in 2010. Eastern Cape (27,3%) has the highest percentage of these households, followed by Northern Cape (24%), and a number of provinces where more than one-fifth of the households are headed by older persons. Gauteng has the smallest percentage of these households, probably because of the high rates of in-migration of younger individuals.

Table 5.2: Distribution of households headed by older persons by province, 2002–2010

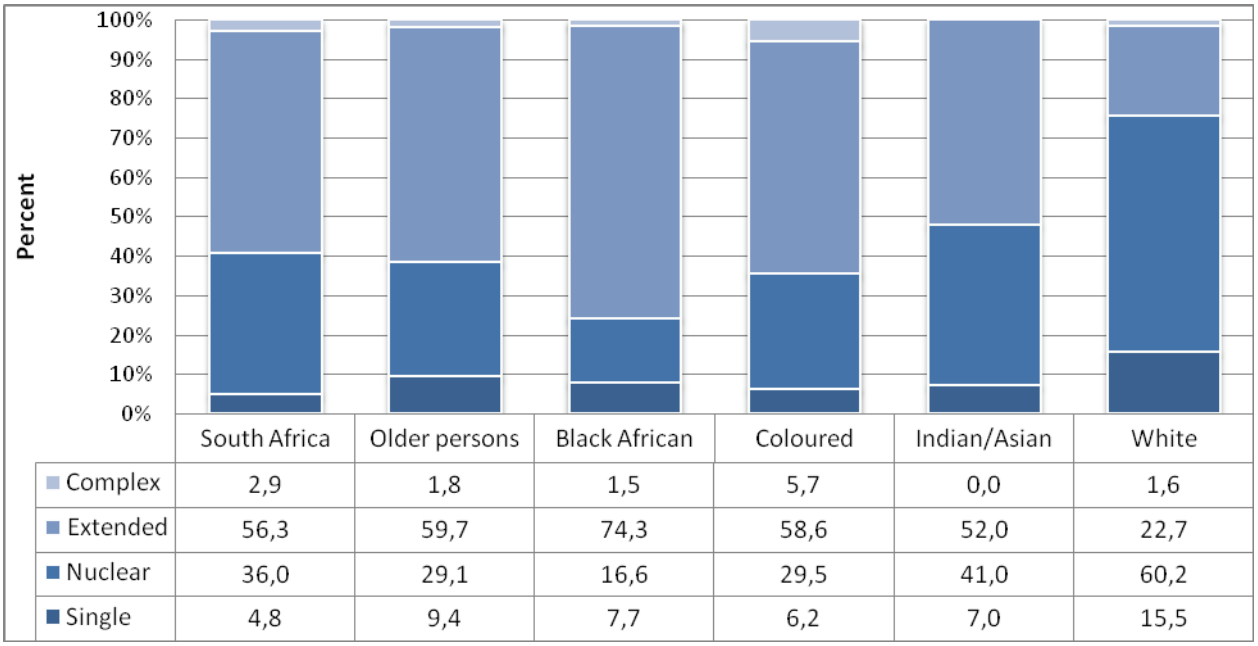
Province	Year (percentage)								
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Western Cape	17,6	17,2	17,9	18,1	18,5	20,7	21,0	21,7	22,0
Eastern Cape	26,3	26,8	27,1	26,1	25,8	25,6	26,6	26,4	27,3
Northern Cape	20,3	19,5	21,4	20,3	21,0	21,9	24,0	23,3	24,0
Free State	16,7	17,3	16,9	18,3	19,0	19,3	19,2	19,3	19,3
KwaZulu-Natal	20,1	21,3	20,7	21,6	20,1	20,4	21,0	21,4	21,1
North West	18,7	18,9	20,2	19,7	19,7	19,0	22,3	22,4	23,0
Gauteng	13,5	13,1	13,9	14,3	14,4	14,6	15,3	15,5	15,7
Mpumalanga	18,0	17,8	18,1	16,2	17,0	16,9	16,7	16,8	17,3
Limpopo	20,6	20,5	20,4	21,2	20,5	21,1	20,9	20,9	21,7
South Africa	**18,7**	**18,8**	**19,1**	**19,2**	**19,0**	**19,3**	**20,0**	**21,1**	**20,5**
Total (thousands)	**2 055**	**2 134**	**2 236**	**2 314**	**2 367**	**2 495**	**2 667**	**2 782**	**2 925**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

An examination of the relationship to the household head provides interesting information on the residential and living arrangements of older persons. Statistics South Africa distinguishes between the following categories: head; husband, wife or partner; son, daughter, stepchild, adopted child; brother, sister, stepsister; father, mother, stepmother, stepfather; grandparent; great grandparent; grandchild, great grandchild; other relatives; and finally, non-related persons. An analysis of this data allows one to establish with whom older persons are living. Figure 5.1 presents the distribution of older persons according to their relationship to the household head within four broad household types: single person; nuclear; extended; and complex or non-related households. Nuclear households are defined as households consisting of one or more parents and/or their children. When other family members are added to the nucleus, it is considered to be an extended household. Complex or non-related households refer to households where one or more non-related individuals are considered members of the household.

It is clear from Figure 5.1 that the majority of South Africans live within families of at least two persons. It is interesting to note that less than half the percentage of older people, as compared to the South African population as a whole, (4,8% compared to 9,4%) live alone, while a substantially larger section lives in nuclear households. Some authors argue that the present household living arrangements may be positively associated with income and that separate living arrangements will generally rise when income does, and vice versa (Amoateng, Heaton and Kulule-Sabiti, 2007). This hypothesis is seemingly supported by the observation that almost 16% of white older persons live alone, while a further 60,2% live in nuclear households. The majority of persons in poorer population groups (particularly black Africans and coloured people) were predominantly living in extended households where resources could be shared more easily.

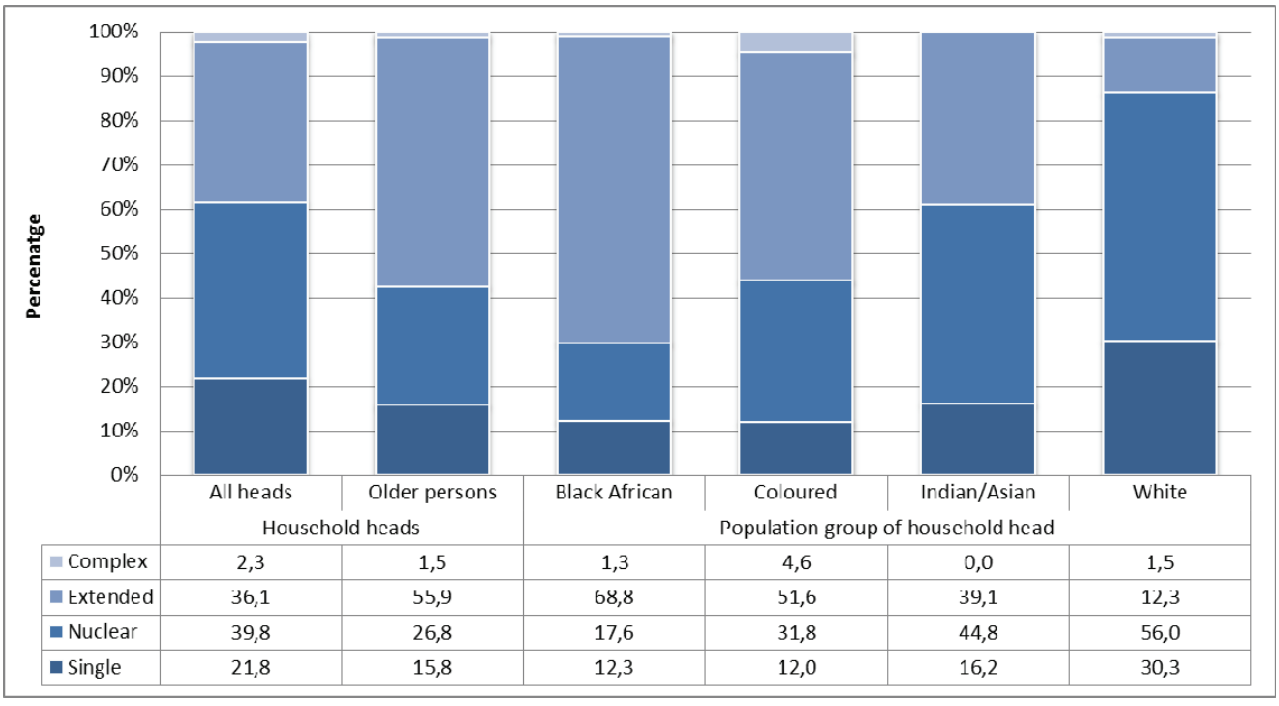
Figure 5.1: Percentage distribution of persons aged 60 years and older across different household types by population group, 2010



	South Africa	Older persons	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White
Complex	2,9	1,8	1,5	5,7	0,0	1,6
Extended	56,3	59,7	74,3	58,6	52,0	22,7
Nuclear	36,0	29,1	16,6	29,5	41,0	60,2
Single	4,8	9,4	7,7	6,2	7,0	15,5

According to Table 5.2, more than half (55,9%) of all households headed by older people can be categorised as extended households, while more than one-quarter (26,8%) can best be categorised as nuclear households. Households headed by older persons are more likely to be extended households than households in general, and less likely to be single or nuclear households. Considerable variation is noticeable between various racial groups. While the majority of black African and coloured households are extended, only 39,1% of Indian/Asian and less than 13% of white households are extended. Almost one-third of households headed by white older persons are single households, compared to less than 13% of coloured and black African households. A relatively small percentage of elderly households across all population groups contains non-relatives.

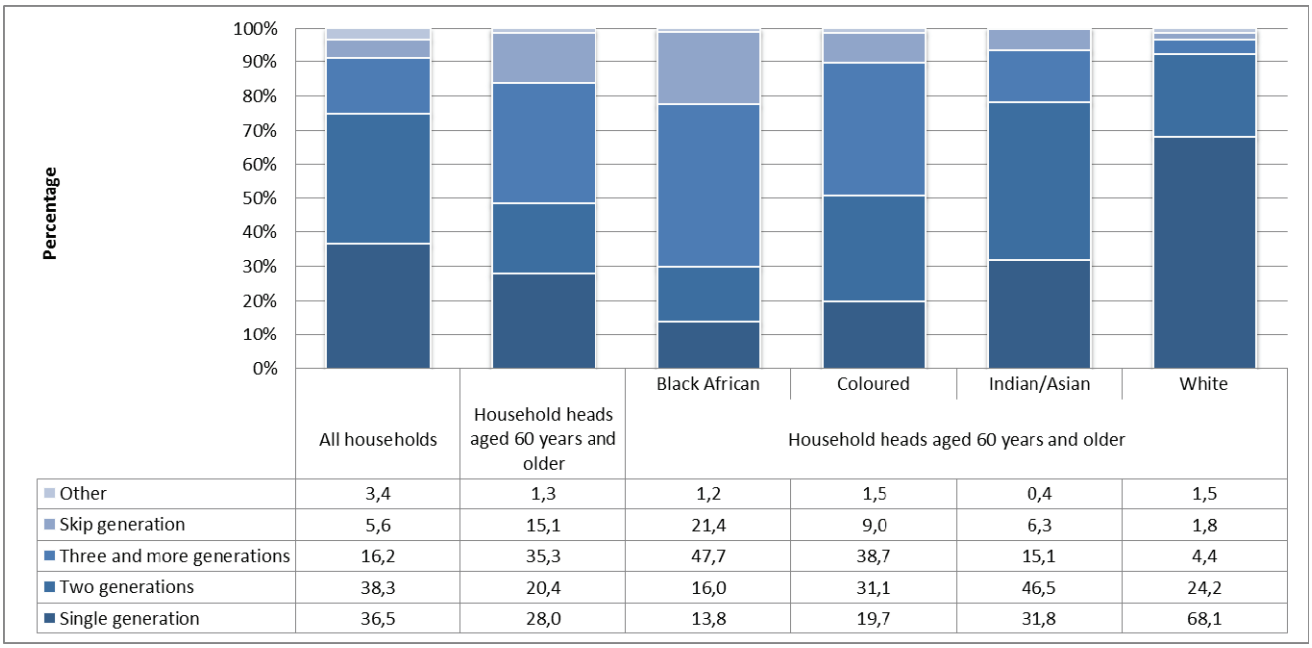
Figure 5.2: Household composition of households headed by older people by population group of household head, 2010



	All heads	Older persons	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White
	Household heads		Population group of household head			
Complex	2,3	1,5	1,3	4,6	0,0	1,5
Extended	36,1	55,9	68,8	51,6	39,1	12,3
Nuclear	39,8	26,8	17,6	31,8	44,8	56,0
Single	21,8	15,8	12,3	12,0	16,2	30,3

Figure 5.3 summarises the distribution of households headed by older persons according to whether they contain individuals from different generations. Approximately 60% of households headed by older persons and households in general, contain two or at least three generations. While 5,6% of all households are classified as skip-generation households, these households constitute more than 15% of all households headed by older persons. Households headed by black Africans are most likely to be skip-generation households, followed by households headed by coloured people. By contrast to the largely multi-generational households inhabited by particularly black Africans and coloured people, more than two-thirds of white people and just over 31% of Indians/Asians live in single-generation households.

Figure 5.3: Household composition of households headed by older people, by population group and generation, 2010

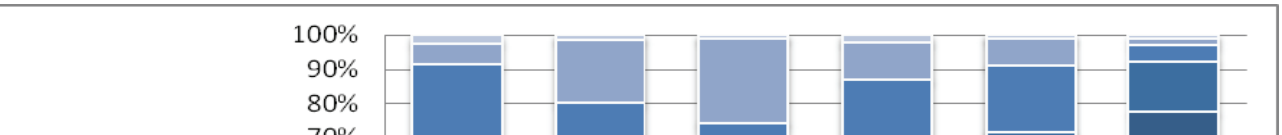


	All households	Household heads aged 60 years and older	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White
Other	3,4	1,3	1,2	1,5	0,4	1,5
Skip generation	5,6	15,1	21,4	9,0	6,3	1,8
Three and more generations	16,2	35,3	47,7	38,7	15,1	4,4
Two generations	38,3	20,4	16,0	31,1	46,5	24,2
Single generation	36,5	28,0	13,8	19,7	31,8	68,1

Since many older persons live in households headed by different generations of people, it is important to explore the distribution of older people across these households. The percentage of older persons living with children, grandchildren, siblings and even parents, is presented in Figure 5.4. The importance of extended households is stressed by the observation that more than one-third of older persons live in households that contain three or more generations, while an additional 18,6% live in so-called skip-generation households with their grandchildren. About 16% of older persons still live with their children or parents in households that contain two generations. Considerable variation is evident when population groups are compared. More than 90% of older white people live in single or bi-generation households. This is true for less than one-third of black Africans and approximately 51% of coloured people. Older black Africans are much more likely than any of their counterparts to live in skip-generation households.

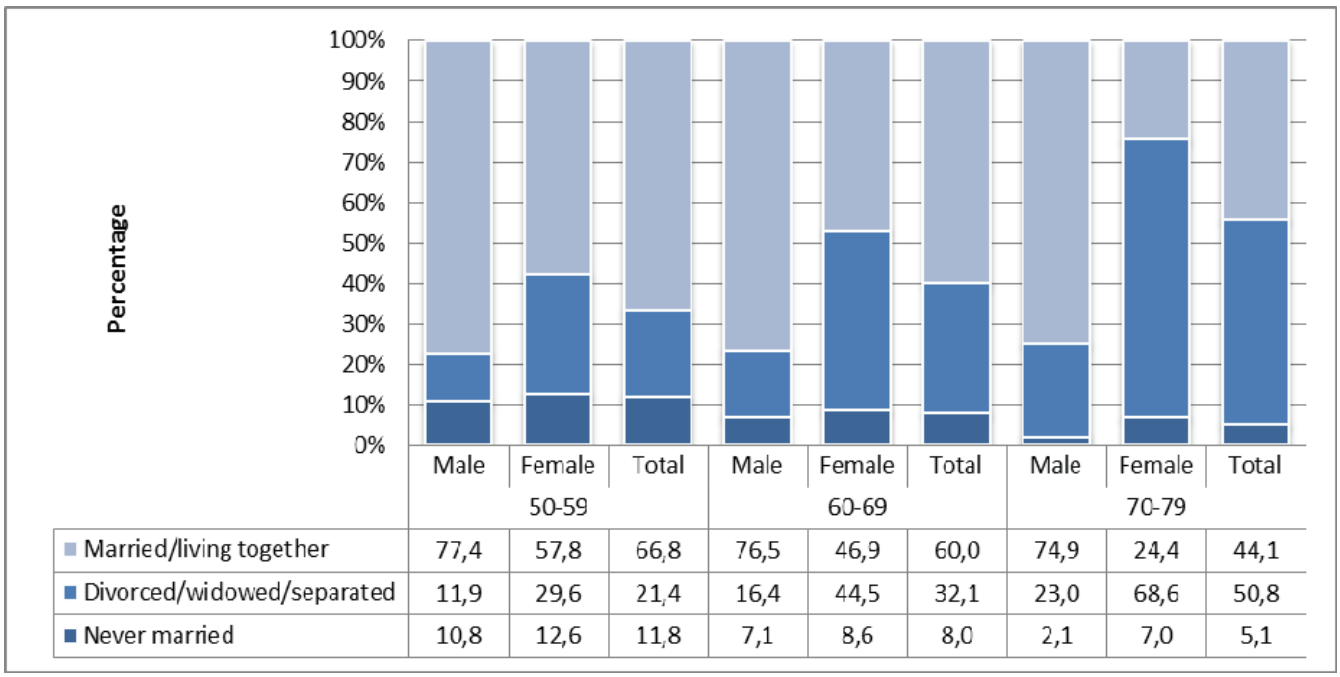
The marital or relationship status of older people across different age groups is presented in Figure 5.5. The figure reveals that the likelihood of being married/living together, or never being married, decreases with age. Individuals are more likely to be separated/divorced/widowed by the time they reach the age group 70–79 years than individuals in the age group 50–59 years. The figure also reveals noticeable gender differences. While the percentage of males who are married/living together decreases slightly from 77,4% during their fifties to just below 75% in their seventies, the percentage of women who are still married/living together drops sharply from almost 58% during their fifties to less than 30% in their seventies. As mentioned in the introduction, this can be attributed to the fact that women generally live longer than males, combined with the fact that their partners are usually older than they are. The high percentage of older people who either have no partner, or who are divorced/widowed/separated, might point towards inadequate family support networks.

Figure 5.4: Distribution of older persons across different household types, by population group and generation, 2010



	SA	Total	Black African	Coloured	Indian/ Asian	White
		Persons aged 60 years and older				
Other	2,5	1,4	1,3	2,4	1,3	1,2
Skip generation	6,2	18,6	24,4	10,8	7,8	1,9
Three and more generations	32,6	33,5	41,4	37,0	19,2	4,6
Two generations	44,7	15,9	14,4	24,6	32,6	14,9
Single generation	14,1	30,7	18,5	25,2	39,2	77,4

Figure 5.5: Marital status of older people by age group and gender, 2010



	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
	50-59			60-69			70-79		
Married/living together	77,4	57,8	66,8	76,5	46,9	60,0	74,9	24,4	44,1
Divorced/widowed/separated	11,9	29,6	21,4	16,4	44,5	32,1	23,0	68,6	50,8
Never married	10,8	12,6	11,8	7,1	8,6	8,0	2,1	7,0	5,1

Some general characteristics of households headed by older persons that also contain older persons are presented in Table 5.3. The information is contextualised by comparing it to information for households with a variety of characteristics.

Table 5.3: Households headed by older person by household size, sex of the household head, and dependency ratios, 2002–2010

Household characteristics	Indicator	Year								
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Mean household size										
Elderly male-headed	Average	4,4	4,3	4,2	4,1	3,9	3,9	4,1	4,0	4,0
Elderly female-headed		4,6	4,4	4,3	4,2	4,1	4,1	4,1	4,0	4,0
All older person-headed		4,5	4,3	4,2	4,1	4,0	4,0	4,1	4,0	4,0
Households with elderly		4,6	4,5	4,4	4,3	4,1	4,1	4,3	4,1	4,1
Elderly-headed with children		6,3	6,1	6,1	6,0	5,8	5,8	5,9	5,8	5,9
Headed by 18–59-year-olds		3,6	3,4	3,4	3,4	3,3	3,3	3,5	3,3	3,4
South Africa		3,7	3,6	3,5	3,5	3,4	3,4	3,6	3,5	3,5
Total dependency ratio										
Elderly male-headed	Average ratio	1,792	1,837	1,848	1,832	1,861	1,905	1,873	1,849	1,863
Elderly female-headed		1,773	1,759	1,730	1,761	1,738	1,770	1,717	1,744	1,763
All older person-headed		1,783	1,798	1,789	1,797	1,800	1,836	1,797	1,798	1,815
Households with elderly		1,669	1,698	1,687	1,693	1,715	1,731	1,672	1,700	1,710
Elderly-headed with children		1,803	1,854	1,788	1,806	1,823	1,837	1,829	1,819	1,833
Headed by 18–59-year-olds		0,672	0,635	0,625	0,624	0,601	0,603	0,618	0,604	0,604
South Africa		0,844	0,814	0,804	0,801	0,774	0,784	0,794	0,786	0,792
Old-age dependency ratio										
Elderly male-headed	Average ratio	0,938	0,975	1,015	1,003	1,067	1,106	1,033	1,064	1,046
Elderly female-headed		0,650	0,667	0,672	0,703	0,714	0,722	0,709	0,727	0,714
All older person-headed		0,797	0,823	0,844	0,856	0,892	0,911	0,874	0,901	0,886
Households with elderly		0,727	0,758	0,776	0,789	0,827	0,843	0,790	0,835	0,824
Elderly-headed with children		0,552	0,577	0,568	0,579	0,594	0,595	0,590	0,602	0,597
Headed by 18–59-year-olds		0,017	0,015	0,014	0,015	0,012	0,013	0,016	0,012	0,013
South Africa		0,133	0,135	0,138	0,137	0,134	0,140	0,141	0,144	0,145
Child dependency ratio										
Elderly male-headed	Average ratio	0,854	0,862	0,833	0,829	0,793	0,798	0,840	0,785	0,817
Elderly female-headed		1,123	1,092	1,058	1,058	1,024	1,048	1,008	1,017	1,049
All older person-headed		0,985	0,975	0,945	0,941	0,908	0,925	0,922	0,898	0,929
Households with elderly		0,942	0,940	0,910	0,904	0,888	0,888	0,881	0,865	0,885
Elderly-headed with children		1,251	1,277	1,220	1,227	1,229	1,242	1,239	1,217	1,236
Headed by 18–59-year-olds		0,655	0,620	0,610	0,610	0,590	0,590	0,602	0,592	0,591
South Africa		0,711	0,679	0,666	0,664	0,640	0,644	0,653	0,642	0,647
Proportion of older persons										
Elderly male-headed	Proportion	0,336	0,344	0,356	0,354	0,373	0,381	0,360	0,373	0,365
Elderly female-headed		0,235	0,242	0,246	0,255	0,261	0,261	0,261	0,265	0,258
All older person-headed		0,287	0,294	0,303	0,306	0,319	0,321	0,313	0,322	0,315
Households with elderly		0,272	0,281	0,289	0,293	0,305	0,309	0,296	0,309	0,304
Elderly-headed with children		0,197	0,202	0,204	0,206	0,210	0,210	0,209	0,213	0,211
Headed by 18–59-year-olds		0,010	0,009	0,009	0,009	0,007	0,008	0,010	0,008	0,008
South Africa		0,072	0,074	0,077	0,076	0,076	0,079	0,078	0,081	0,081
Proportion of children										
Elderly male-headed	Average ratio	0,306	0,304	0,293	0,293	0,277	0,275	0,292	0,276	0,285
Elderly female-headed		0,405	0,396	0,388	0,383	0,374	0,378	0,371	0,371	0,380
All older-person-headed		0,354	0,348	0,339	0,337	0,324	0,326	0,330	0,321	0,330
Headed by 18–59-year-olds		0,392	0,379	0,376	0,375	0,368	0,368	0,372	0,369	0,368
South Africa		0,386	0,374	0,369	0,369	0,361	0,361	0,364	0,359	0,361
Ratio of children to older persons in households headed by older persons										
Elderly male-headed	Average ratio	0,910	0,884	0,821	0,826	0,743	0,722	0,813	0,738	0,781
Elderly female-headed		1,726	1,638	1,575	1,505	1,434	1,453	1,421	1,398	1,469
All older-person-headed		1,236	1,184	1,119	1,100	1,017	1,015	1,055	0,997	1,049

The mean size of South African households has been declining very gradually from 3,7 in 2002 to 3,5 in 2010. A virtually parallel decline is noticeable across all the households included for comparative purposes. It is surprising to note that the mean size of households headed by individuals in the age category 18–59 years, the age in which household formation and procreation normally occurs, is substantially smaller than the mean household size for any of the elderly-headed households. By comparison, the mean size of households that merely contain older persons is estimated at 4,1 in 2010, while the average size for male and female-headed households, as well as households headed by older persons, was estimated at 4,0. These observations seem to support the argument that older people are increasingly required to play a more active caring and support role in households. Elderly-headed households that contain children have the largest average household size, namely 5,9 persons per household in 2010.

The total dependency ratio expresses the ratio of the dependent population (children below the age of 18 years and older persons above the age of 60 years) to the working-age population in the age group 18–59 years. The higher the ratio is, the more dependants each potential worker (aged 18–59 years) has to support. Conversely, a lower ratio means that each potential worker supports fewer dependents. Elderly-headed households have a much higher dependency ratio than households headed by younger persons, or households in general. In 2010, elderly male-headed households had the highest total dependency ratio (1,86), followed by households that include children (1,83) and all older-person-headed households (1,82). Households headed by individuals aged between 18–59 years, as well as South African households in general, had the lowest total dependency ratios, at 0,60 and 0,79 respectively. Households headed by older males had a higher total dependency ratio (1,86 on average) than those headed by older females (1,76 on average).

The old-age dependency ratio expresses the ratio of household members above the age of 60 years to economically active household members. In 2010, elderly male-headed households (1,046) had a higher old-age dependency ratio than elderly female-headed households (0,714). Households headed by 18–59-year-olds have a dependency ratio of 0,591 and South African households in general have a dependency ratio of 0,145. The old-age dependency ratio is likely to be higher for all older-person-headed households compared to households that contain elderly persons.

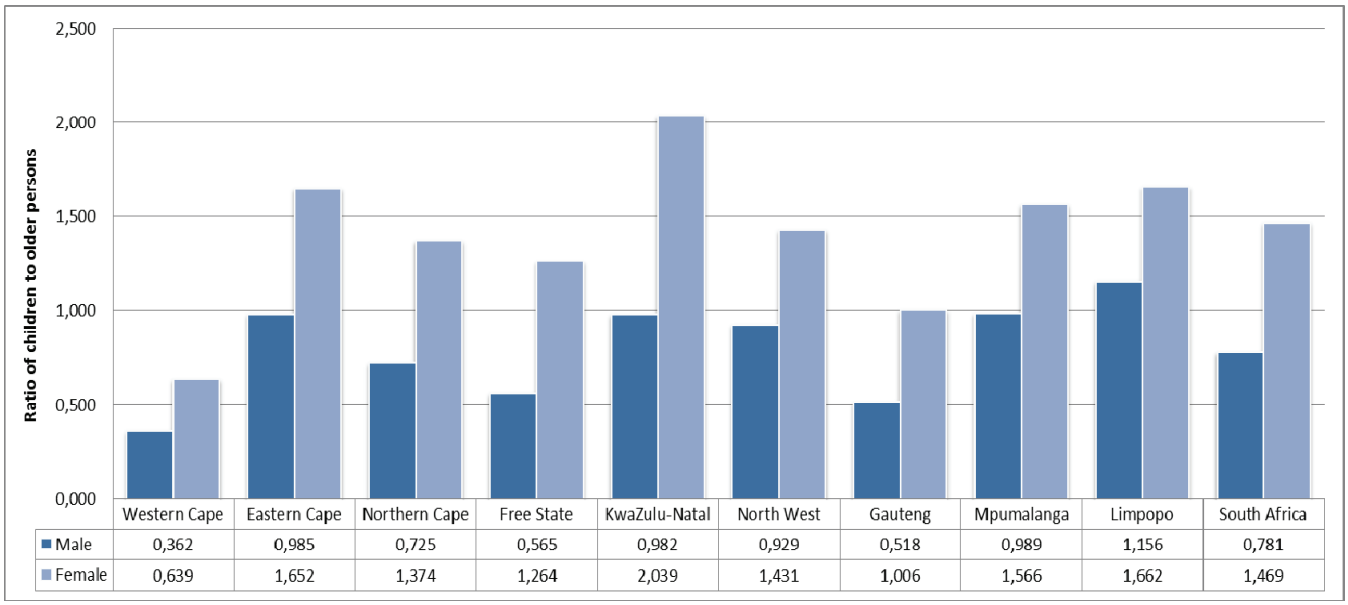
The child dependency ratio represents the ratio of household members under the age of 18 years to the economically active population. Whereas the old-age dependency ratio has been increasing slightly since 2002, an overall decrease in the child dependency ratio has been observed between 2002 and 2010. This is in line with the prolonged decline in fertility observed in South Africa, and the subsequent decrease in the child population. Despite these declines, the child dependency ratio for elderly-headed child-inclusive households and households headed by older females in 2010 remains high at 1,236 and 1,049 respectively.

The proportion of older persons in households reveals that older persons, on average, comprise a larger proportion of households headed by older persons (0,32) than households headed by persons in the age group 18–59 years (0,008) or households in general (0,08). Older persons comprise a larger proportion of older male than older female-headed households.

The proportion of children expresses the proportion of children under the age of 18 years of the household size. This ratio has been declining since 2002. Like the child dependency ratio, female-headed households are more likely to have a higher proportion of children than the other households. Childs ratio range from 0,3 to 0,4 across all the households.

The ratio of children to older persons expresses the ratio of children under the age of 18 years to older persons aged 60 years and older. It is noticeable that the ratio is noticeably higher in households headed by older females than older males, confirming the earlier observation that female-headed households are more likely to look after children than male-headed households. The ratio is illustrated according to province in Figure 5.6. The figure confirms that older female-headed households are much more likely to contain children. The largest ratios in older female-headed households are observed in KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape, Limpopo and Mpumalanga.

Figure 5.6: Ratio of children to older persons in households headed by older persons by gender of the household head and province, 2010



	Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	KwaZulu-Natal	North West	Gauteng	Mpumalanga	Limpopo	South Africa
Male	0,362	0,985	0,725	0,565	0,982	0,929	0,518	0,989	1,156	0,781
Female	0,639	1,652	1,374	1,264	2,039	1,431	1,006	1,566	1,662	1,469

5.4 Income, poverty, economic activity and social grants

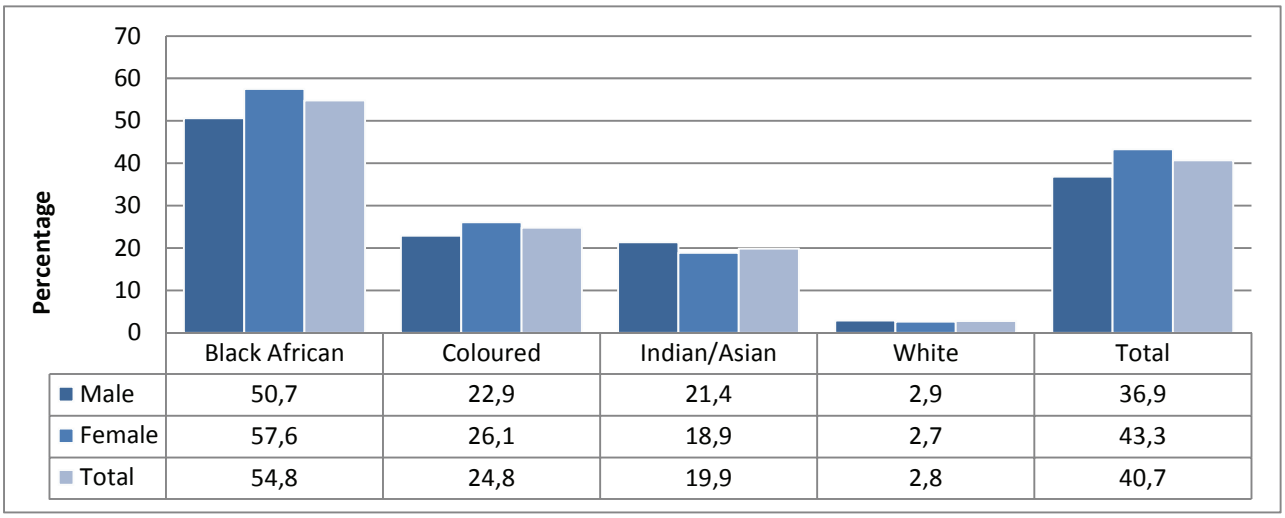
The GHS provides estimates of income earned from employment, government transfers through social grants, as well as remittances. Although data on other sources such as rent, dividends and interest are more difficult to obtain, the 2010 questionnaire asked questions about income from private pensions. Although care is taken to ensure the accuracy of income data, figures should be treated with circumspect, as the literature (Casale and Desmond, 2007) suggests that high earners often tend to diminish their income, while in-kind payments are often disregarded in the case of lower-earning households.

The percentage of older persons living in low per capita income households is established by using a poverty threshold that was proposed by Statistics South Africa (2007). The "upper-bound" threshold, which provides for essential food and non-food consumption, was set at R322 per capita per month in 2000 prices. Statistics South Africa (2007) provides a detailed overview of the determination. When increased with inflation the threshold is equivalent to R570 in 2010. This amount is merely used to identify low income households and should not be considered an official poverty line. An official poverty line based on household expenditure will be published during 2012. Using GHS data, per capita income is calculated by adding all reported income for the household, including remittances, social grants and income from private pensions, and then dividing the sum by the number of household members. The 2010 adjusted poverty threshold is used to determine the number of older persons living above and below it.

The percentage of older persons who reside in households with a monthly income of less than R570 per person per month is presented in Figure 5.7. The figure reveals that older females are generally more likely to live in low-income households than older males, except for Indians/Asians and white people. Elderly black Africans are more likely to live in low-income households than coloured people, Indians/Asians and white people. Almost half of elderly black Africans live in low-income households, compared to approximately one-quarter of elderly coloured people, 19,9% Indians/Asians and less than 3% white people.

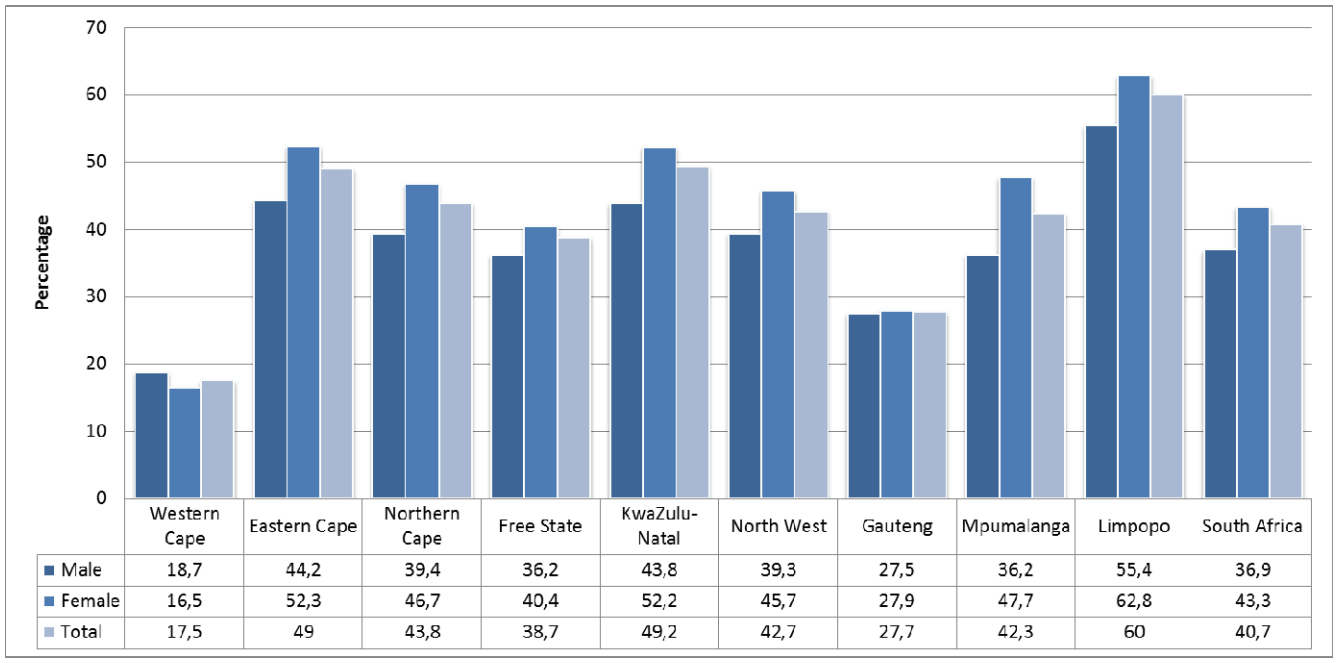
The percentage of older persons living in low-income households by gender and province is presented in Figure 5.8. Older persons in Limpopo are most likely to live in low-income households, followed by older persons in KwaZulu-Natal and Eastern Cape, while older persons in Western Cape and Gauteng are least likely to live in low-income households.

Figure 5.7: Percentage of older persons (60 years and older) living in households with a per capita income of less than R570 per month, by gender and population group, 2010



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Male	50,7	22,9	21,4	2,9	36,9
Female	57,6	26,1	18,9	2,7	43,3
Total	54,8	24,8	19,9	2,8	40,7

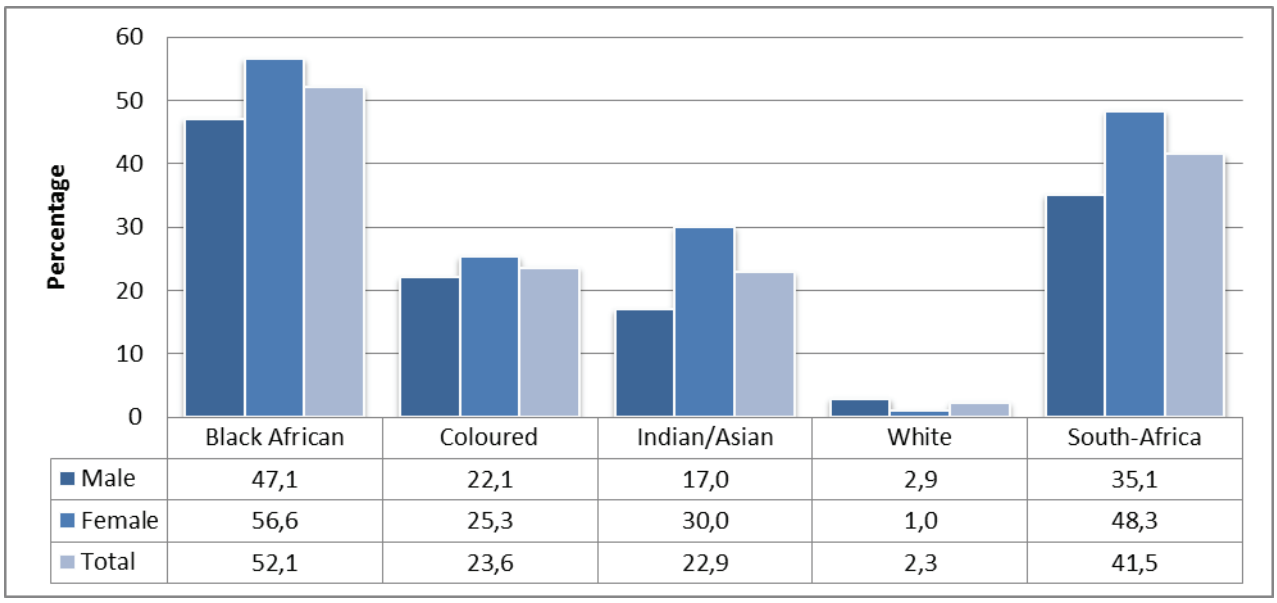
Figure 5.8: Percentage of older persons (60 years and older) living in households with a per capita income of less than R570 per month, by gender and province, 2010



	Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	KwaZulu-Natal	North West	Gauteng	Mpumalanga	Limpopo	South Africa
Male	18,7	44,2	39,4	36,2	43,8	39,3	27,5	36,2	55,4	36,9
Female	16,5	52,3	46,7	40,4	52,2	45,7	27,9	47,7	62,8	43,3
Total	17,5	49	43,8	38,7	49,2	42,7	27,7	42,3	60	40,7

The percentage of households headed by older persons with a per capita income of less than R570 month is presented in Figure 5.9 by the population group of the household head. The figure shows that households headed by older black Africans are much more likely to have a low income (52,1%) compared to households headed by elderly coloured people (23,6%), Indians/Asians (22,9%) and white people (2,3%). Female-headed households are, with the exception of white people, more likely to have a low income than their male peers in the same population group.

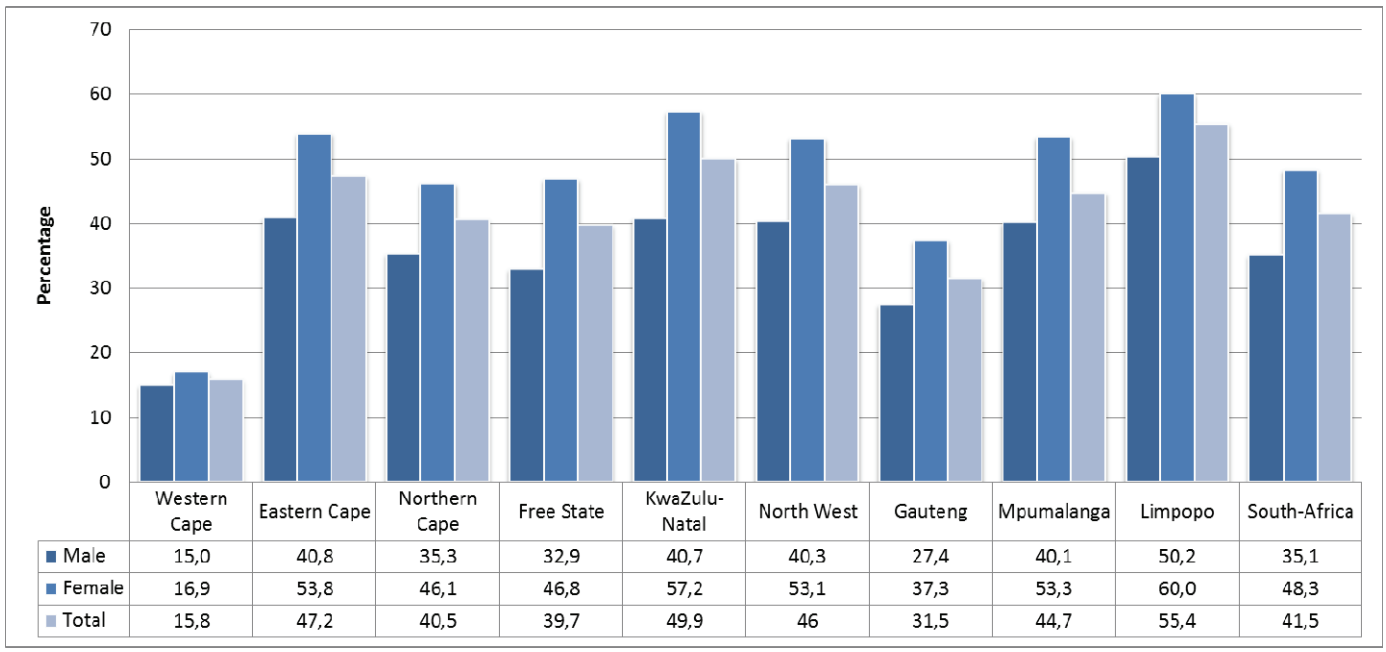
Figure 5.9: Percentage of households headed by older persons (aged 60 years and older) with a per capita income of less than R570 per month, by population group and gender of household head, 2010



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	South-Africa
Male	47,1	22,1	17,0	2,9	35,1
Female	56,6	25,3	30,0	1,0	48,3
Total	52,1	23,6	22,9	2,3	41,5

The provincial distribution of low-income households headed by older persons is presented in Figure 5.10. The figure confirms that households headed by older females are consistently more likely to have a per capita income of less than R570 per month than households headed by older males across all provinces. Households headed by older persons in Limpopo are particularly likely to have low incomes (55,4%), followed by KwaZulu-Natal (49,9%) and Eastern Cape (47,2%), while households headed by older persons are least likely to have low incomes in Western Cape (15,8%). This could partially be attributed to the racial and socio-economic composition of older populations in the province.

Figure 5.10: Percentage of households headed by older persons (aged 60 years and older) with a per capita income of less than R570 per month, by gender of the household head and province, 2010



	Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	KwaZulu-Natal	North West	Gauteng	Mpumalanga	Limpopo	South-Africa
Male	15,0	40,8	35,3	32,9	40,7	40,3	27,4	40,1	50,2	35,1
Female	16,9	53,8	46,1	46,8	57,2	53,1	37,3	53,3	60,0	48,3
Total	15,8	47,2	40,5	39,7	49,9	46	31,5	44,7	55,4	41,5

Households usually rely on a variety of income sources, including salaries and wages, government grants, remittances and private pensions. The main sources of income for households headed by older persons between 2002 and 2010 are presented in the Table 5.4. In 2010, the majority of elderly-headed households (65%) considered grants and pensions as their main source of income. Approximately 25% of households headed by older persons listed salaries and/or wages as their main source of income, while 3,1% have identified remittances as their main source of income. Only 0,3% reported income from the sales of farm products, while 6,3% reported income from non-farm business. The percentage distribution of sources of income has remained relatively stable since 2002.

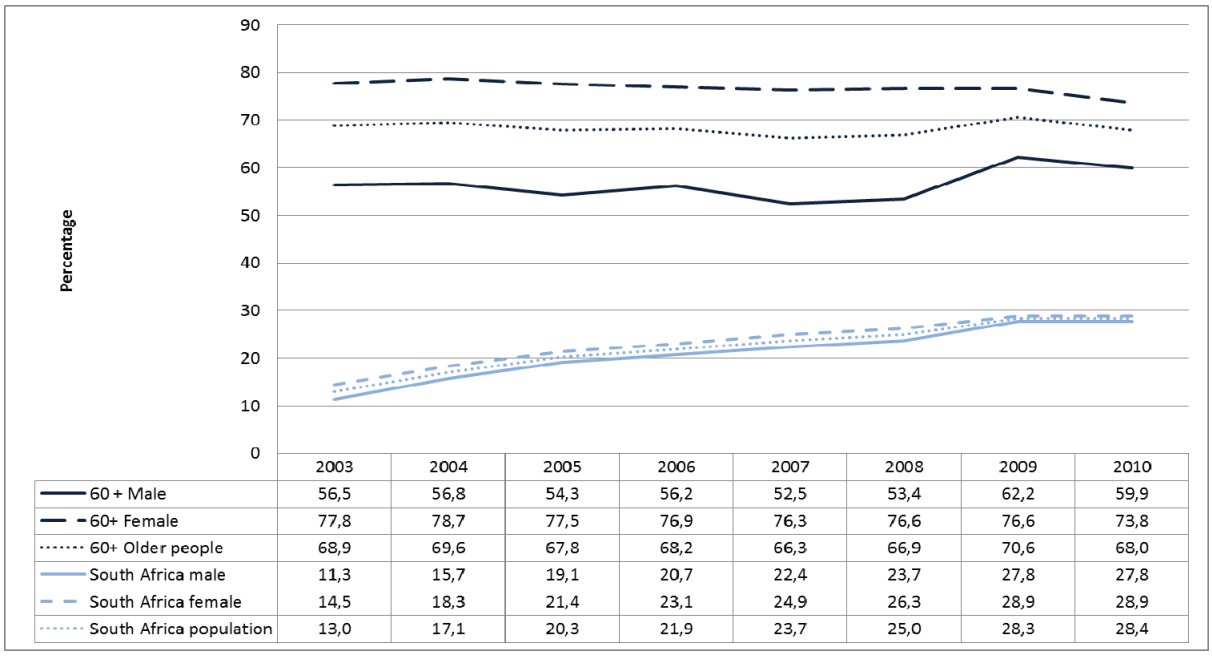
Table 5.4: Main sources of income for households headed by older persons, 2002–2010

Income sources	Year								
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Salaries and/or wages	25,4	22,7	21,8	25,0	24,35	27,81	27,0	25,6	25,2
Remittances	4,9	5,2	4,9	4,0	3,8	4,5	4,2	2,5	3,1
Pensions and grants	62,3	65,5	65,2	63,9	66,07	62,6	64,6	66,5	65,0
Sales of farm products	0,7	0,8	1,0	0,8	0,87	0,82	0,7	0,1	0,3
Other non-farm income	5,4	4,9	6,4	5,8	3,86	3,14	2,7	5,1	6,3
No income	1,4	1,1	0,7	0,5	1,05	1,04	0,8	0,3	0,1
Per cent	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**
Total (thousands)	**2 050**	**2 130**	**2 234**	**2 302**	**2 340**	**2 483**	**2 658**	**2 682**	**2 637**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

The percentage of older people that are beneficiaries of any kind of social grant is presented in Figure 5.11. According to the data, the percentage of older persons who access grants was measured at 68% in 2010, after fluctuating between 66% and 71% since 2003. A larger percentage of females than males in this age category are grant beneficiaries, because of the fact that males were only entitled to apply for social grants at the age of 65 years compared to 60 years for women in the past. Following a Constitutional Court challenge, the eligibility age for men was incrementally reduced from 65 years to 63 years in 2008, 61 years in 2009 and finally, 60 years in 2010. The subsequent increase in the number of males eligible for and receiving old-age grants can clearly be seen. As can be expected, elderly people are much more likely to be recipients of some kind of social grant than the general population. While 68% of older persons received some kind of government grant in 2010, the corresponding figure for the general population was 28,4%.

Figure 5.11: Percentage of older people who are beneficiaries of social grants compared to the total population, by gender, 2003–2010



	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
60 + Male	56,5	56,8	54,3	56,2	52,5	53,4	62,2	59,9
60+ Female	77,8	78,7	77,5	76,9	76,3	76,6	76,6	73,8
60+ Older people	68,9	69,6	67,8	68,2	66,3	66,9	70,6	68,0
South Africa male	11,3	15,7	19,1	20,7	22,4	23,7	27,8	27,8
South Africa female	14,5	18,3	21,4	23,1	24,9	26,3	28,9	28,9
South Africa population	13,0	17,1	20,3	21,9	23,7	25,0	28,3	28,4

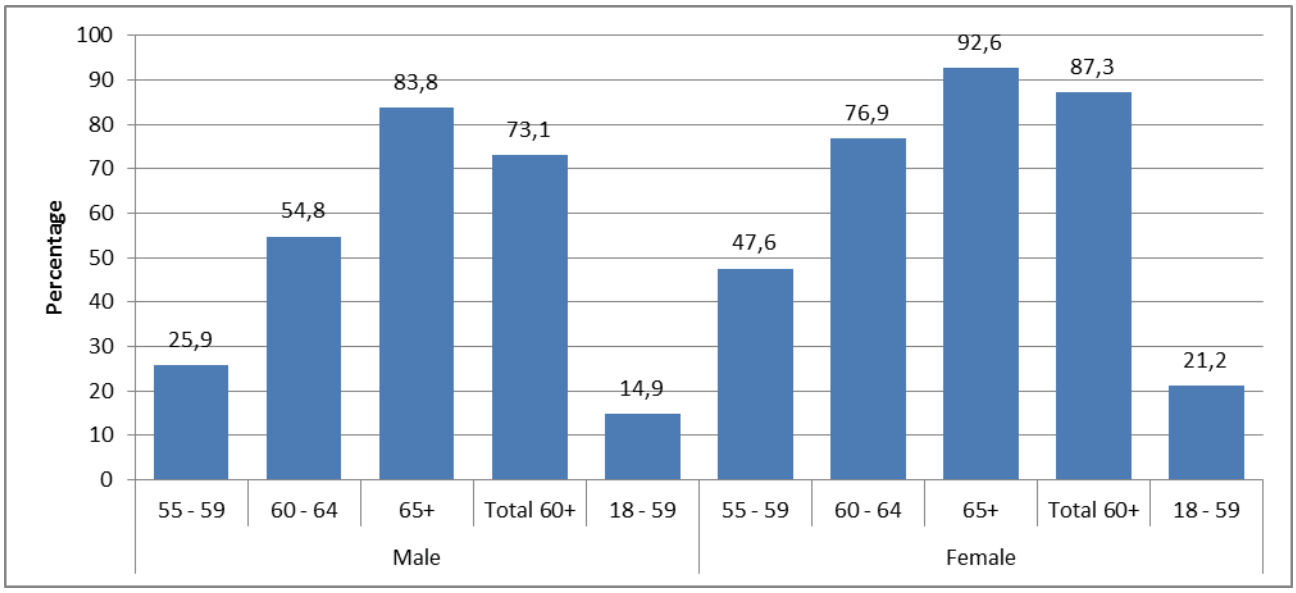
The importance of social grants as a mechanism to support households and to alleviate poverty is explored in Table 5.5 by looking at the proportion of grant recipients in each household by the characteristics of the household, or the household head. The proportion of grant recipients amongst resident household members has doubled between 2003 and 2010 for households in general (0,125 to 0,280), as well as for households headed by older persons (0,271 to 0,455). The proportion of grant recipients is higher for households headed by older females than for any of the other households. As can be expected, a relatively small proportion of households headed by individuals in the age group 18–59 years are grant recipients.

Table 5.5: Proportion of grant recipients by household, 2003-2010

Household characteristics	Year							
	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Average proportion								
Male-headed	0,269	0,304	0,329	0,359	0,369	0,375	0,422	0,427
Female-headed	0,273	0,320	0,372	0,390	0,412	0,435	0,466	0,486
All older-person-headed	0,271	0,312	0,350	0,374	0,390	0,403	0,443	0,455
Households including elderly	0,265	0,302	0,337	0,364	0,376	0,387	0,432	0,442
Elderly-headed with children	0,246	0,294	0,339	0,367	0,394	0,416	0,453	0,481
Headed by 18-59-year-olds	0,082	0,116	0,147	0,158	0,177	0,194	0,225	0,225
South Africa	0,125	0,161	0,193	0,206	0,225	0,242	0,276	0,280

According to Tati (2009), older people often delay their retirement from economic activity by remaining in the workforce as business owners, or through casual work, paid domestic work or farm work. Figure 5.12 shows that the proportion of economically inactive individuals, i.e. individuals that are unemployed, or who are available to start employment, increases rapidly after the age of 60 years. The proportion of economically inactive individuals rapidly rises from 25,9% males and 47,6% females in the age group 55–59 years, to 54,8% males and 76,9% females in the age group 60–64 years, and finally 83,8,% males and 92,6% females in the age group above 65 years. A small proportion of older persons, however, remains economically active, sometimes well into their later years. The magnitude of economic inactivity is accentuated by the comparison with the age group 18–59 years.

Figure 5.12: Percentage of economic inactive older people, by gender and age group, 2002–2010



The economic characteristics of households headed by, or containing older persons, are presented in Table 5.6. As can be expected, the table shows that the proportion of economically active household members (i.e. employed or looking for employment) is largest in households headed by individuals between the ages of 18–59 years.

Elderly-headed households and households that contain older persons are clustered together, exhibiting very similar proportions.
The proportion of working adults in households is similarly highest in households headed by individuals in the age group 18–59 years. It is interesting to note that elderly male-headed households contain a noticeably higher proportion of employed adults than any of the other elderly-headed households.

Unemployed members, as a proportion of the household, are presented in Table 5.6. The highest unemployment ratio is observed for households headed by individuals aged 18–59 years. It is generally lower for households headed by, or containing older persons. This is an indication that many older persons have become economically inactive

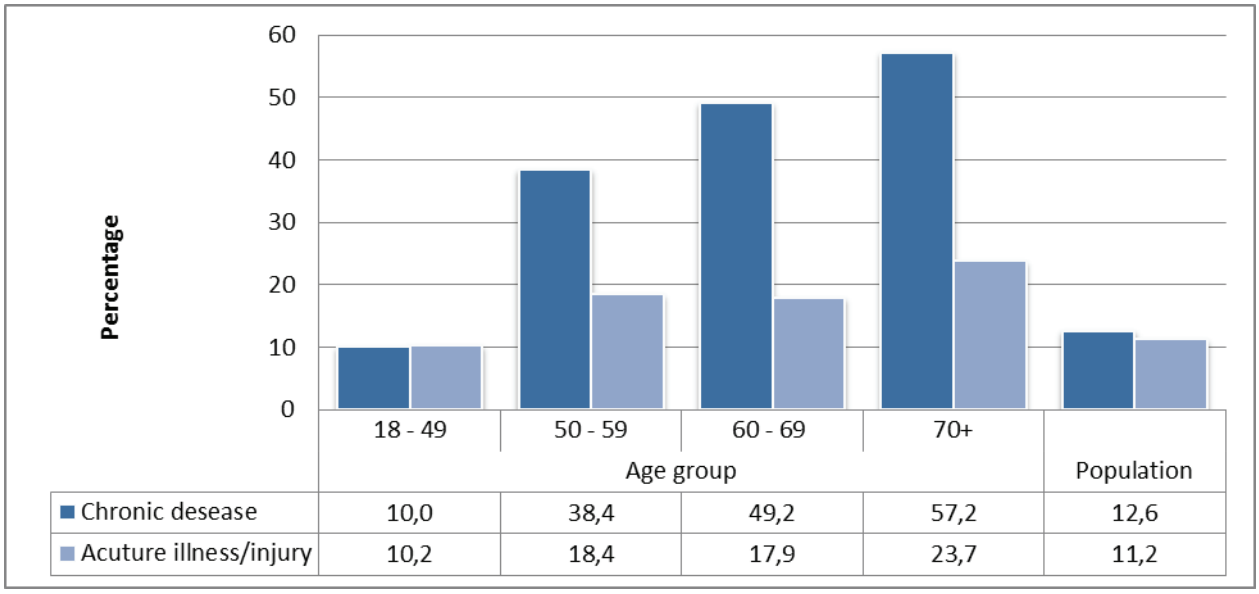
Table 5.6: Economic activity, employment and unemployment ratios by household characteristics, 2002–2010

Household characteristics	Indicator	Year								
		2002	2003	2004	205	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Economically active members as proportion of total household										
Older male-headed	Proportion	0,225	0,205	0,212	0,205	0,228	0,222	0,223	0,303	0,302
Older female-headed		0,205	0,185	0,185	0,191	0,209	0,198	0,215	0,297	0,298
All older-person-headed		0,215	0,195	0,199	0,199	0,218	0,210	0,219	0,300	0,300
Households including elderly		0,225	0,206	0,209	0,208	0,225	0,222	0,234	0,309	0,310
Elderly-headed with children		0,195	0,172	0,178	0,179	0,196	0,186	0,199	0,282	0,286
Headed by 18–59-year-olds		0,408	0,404	0,408	0,405	0,421	0,418	0,424	0,518	0,518
South Africa		0,363	0,355	0,359	0,357	0,375	0,370	0,376	0,466	0,465
Working adults as proportion of the household										
Older male-headed	Proportion	0,142	0,124	0,135	0,132	0,141	0,150	0,153	0,161	0,152
Older female-headed		0,095	0,084	0,085	0,100	0,102	0,114	0,112	0,117	0,116
All older-person-headed		0,119	0,105	0,111	0,116	0,122	0,132	0,133	0,140	0,135
Households including elderly		0,132	0,117	0,124	0,128	0,131	0,145	0,152	0,152	0,148
Elderly-headed with children		0,094	0,080	0,088	0,094	0,097	0,104	0,110	0,112	0,109
Headed by 18–59-year-olds		0,301	0,297	0,306	0,308	0,317	0,327	0,321	0,337	0,330
South Africa		0,259	0,252	0,260	0,264	0,273	0,282	0,278	0,290	0,283
Unemployed members as proportion of the household										
Older male-headed	Proportion	0,083	0,081	0,077	0,074	0,087	0,072	0,070	0,142	0,150
Older female-headed		0,110	0,101	0,100	0,091	0,107	0,084	0,102	0,180	0,182
All older-person-headed		0,096	0,091	0,088	0,082	0,096	0,078	0,086	0,160	0,165
Households including elderly		0,093	0,089	0,085	0,080	0,094	0,077	0,082	0,156	0,162
Elderly-headed with children		0,101	0,092	0,090	0,085	0,099	0,082	0,089	0,171	0,177
Headed by 18–59-year-olds		0,107	0,107	0,102	0,097	0,103	0,091	0,103	0,181	0,188
South Africa		0,104	0,103	0,098	0,094	0,102	0,088	0,099	0,176	0,182

5.5 Health

South Africa has made good progress in improving the general population's access to healthcare. In addition to providing free primary healthcare, beneficiaries of old-age grants are eligible to receive free secondary health services at public hospitals. While improvements in the provision of basic healthcare and basic services such as water and sanitation lead to future declines in the prevalence of acute diseases, the prevalence of chronic diseases can be expected to increase as the population ages. The prevalence of acute and particularly chronic diseases seems to increase with age. While 10% of individuals in the age group 18–49 years indicated that they suffered from an acute condition (illness or injuries) in the month before the survey, the percentage of individuals that have been afflicted by an acute condition increases to 18,4% for the age group 50–59 years, 17,9% for the age group 60–69 years, and finally 23,7% for persons above the age of 70 years. The increased incidence for chronic diseases is more pronounced, growing from 10% for individuals in the age group 18–49 years to more than 57% for individuals over the age of 70 years. This is presented in Figure 5.13.

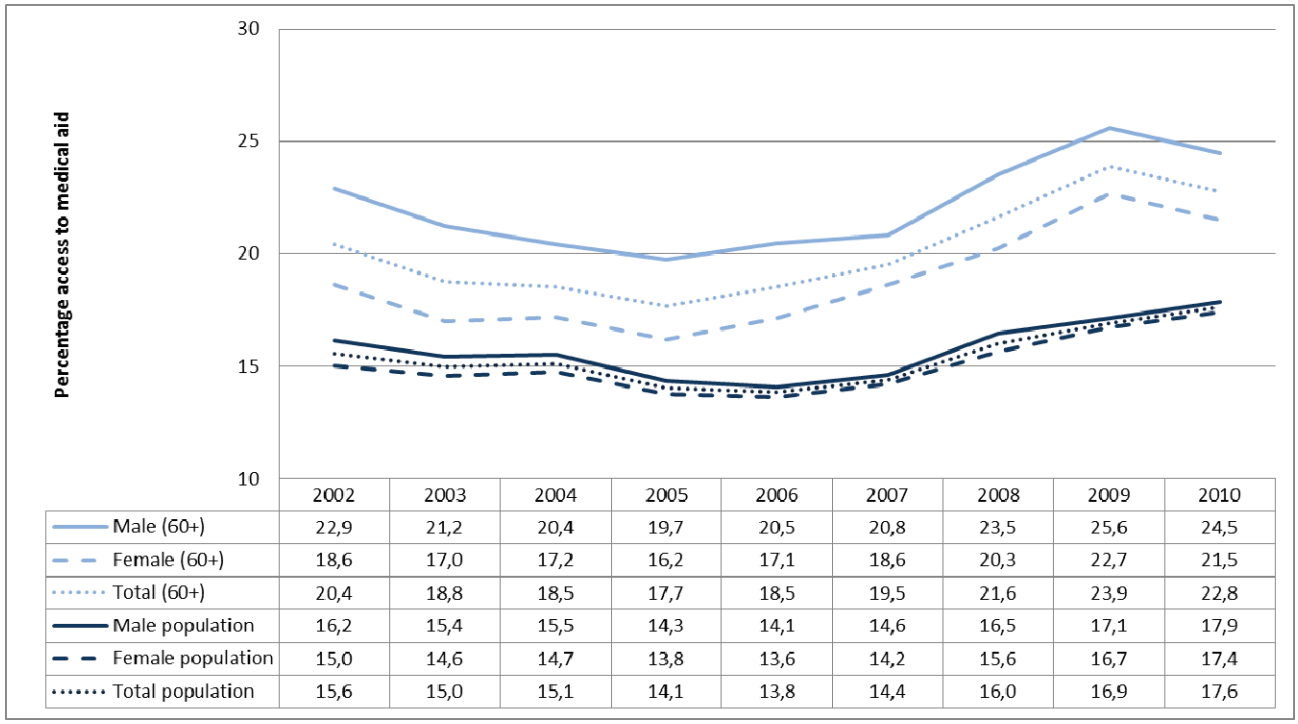
Figure 5.13: Percentage of people suffering from any chronic illness or acute illness/injury, by age group, 2010



	18 - 49	50 - 59	60 - 69	70+	Population
	Age group				
Chronic desease	10,0	38,4	49,2	57,2	12,6
Acuture illness/injury	10,2	18,4	17,9	23,7	11,2

The healthcare system clearly mirrors inequalities found in contemporary society. Although membership of medical schemes has increased slightly since 2005 according to Figure 5.14, less than one- quarter (22,8%) of the older population, and only about 18% of South Africans in general were members, or had access to a medical aid in 2010. Males are slightly more likely to be members of medical aid schemes than females, perhaps because a larger percentage is employed in the formal sector.

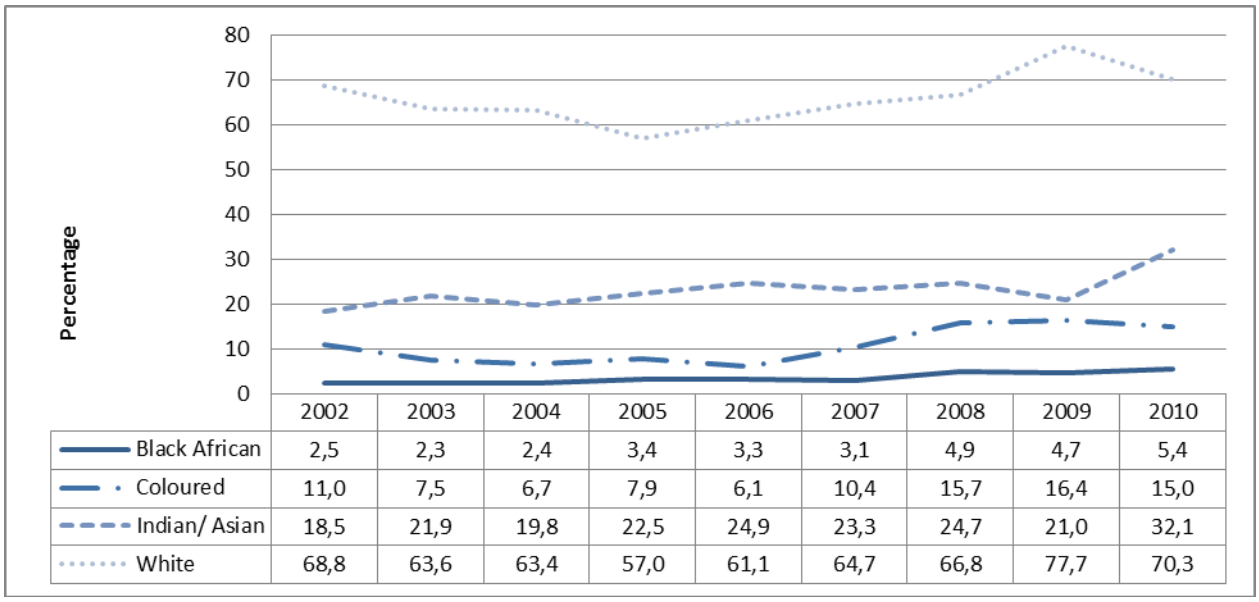
Figure 5.14: Percentage of older people with access to a medical aid, 2002–2010



	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Male (60+)	22,9	21,2	20,4	19,7	20,5	20,8	23,5	25,6	24,5
Female (60+)	18,6	17,0	17,2	16,2	17,1	18,6	20,3	22,7	21,5
Total (60+)	20,4	18,8	18,5	17,7	18,5	19,5	21,6	23,9	22,8
Male population	16,2	15,4	15,5	14,3	14,1	14,6	16,5	17,1	17,9
Female population	15,0	14,6	14,7	13,8	13,6	14,2	15,6	16,7	17,4
Total population	15,6	15,0	15,1	14,1	13,8	14,4	16,0	16,9	17,6

Figure 5.15 conceals the appalling unequal access to a medical aid by population group. In 2010, more than 70% of elderly white people had access to a medical aid, only 32,1% of elderly Indians/Asians, and 15% of elderly coloured people were members of medical aids, compared to 5,4% of black Africans.

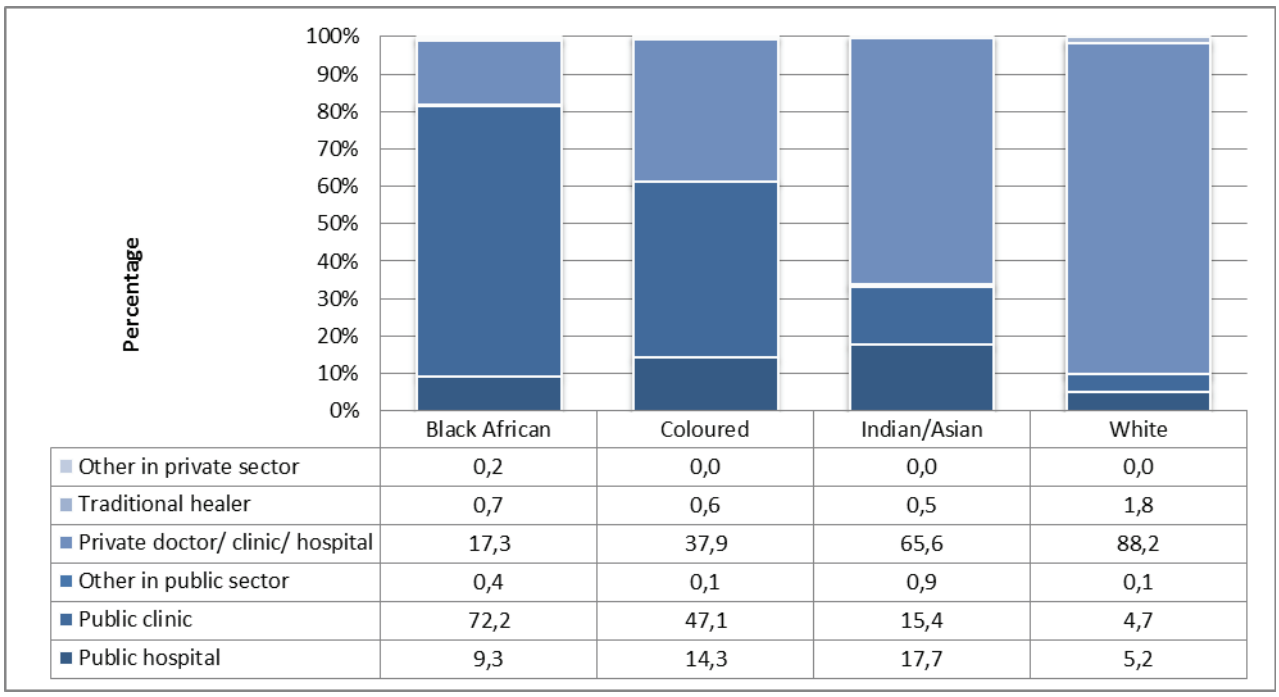
Figure 5.15: Percentage of older people with access to a medical aid by population group, 2002–2010



	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Black African	2,5	2,3	2,4	3,4	3,3	3,1	4,9	4,7	5,4
Coloured	11,0	7,5	6,7	7,9	6,1	10,4	15,7	16,4	15,0
Indian/ Asian	18,5	21,9	19,8	22,5	24,9	23,3	24,7	21,0	32,1
White	68,8	63,6	63,4	57,0	61,1	64,7	66,8	77,7	70,3

Figure 5.16 outlines the type of healthcare facilities visited by individuals from different population groups. The relative affluence of white people is clear from the fact that 88% indicated that they would consult a private doctor, or go to a private clinic/hospital if needed. This observation is confirmed by the high percentage of white people who indicated that they have access to a medical scheme in Figure 5.15. Despite the fact that only 32,1% of Indians/Asians were members of a medical aid scheme in 2010, about two-thirds indicated that they would nevertheless access private healthcare if needed. Nearly three-quarters of black Africans, and almost half of coloured people indicated that they would make use of public healthcare facilities if needed. It is interesting to note that approximately 38% of coloured people preferred to use more expensive private healthcare providers to the much cheaper public services. This raises questions about the accessibility, or quality of services provided by the public sector.

Figure 5.16: Type of health care facility visited by persons over the age of 60 years by population group, 2010



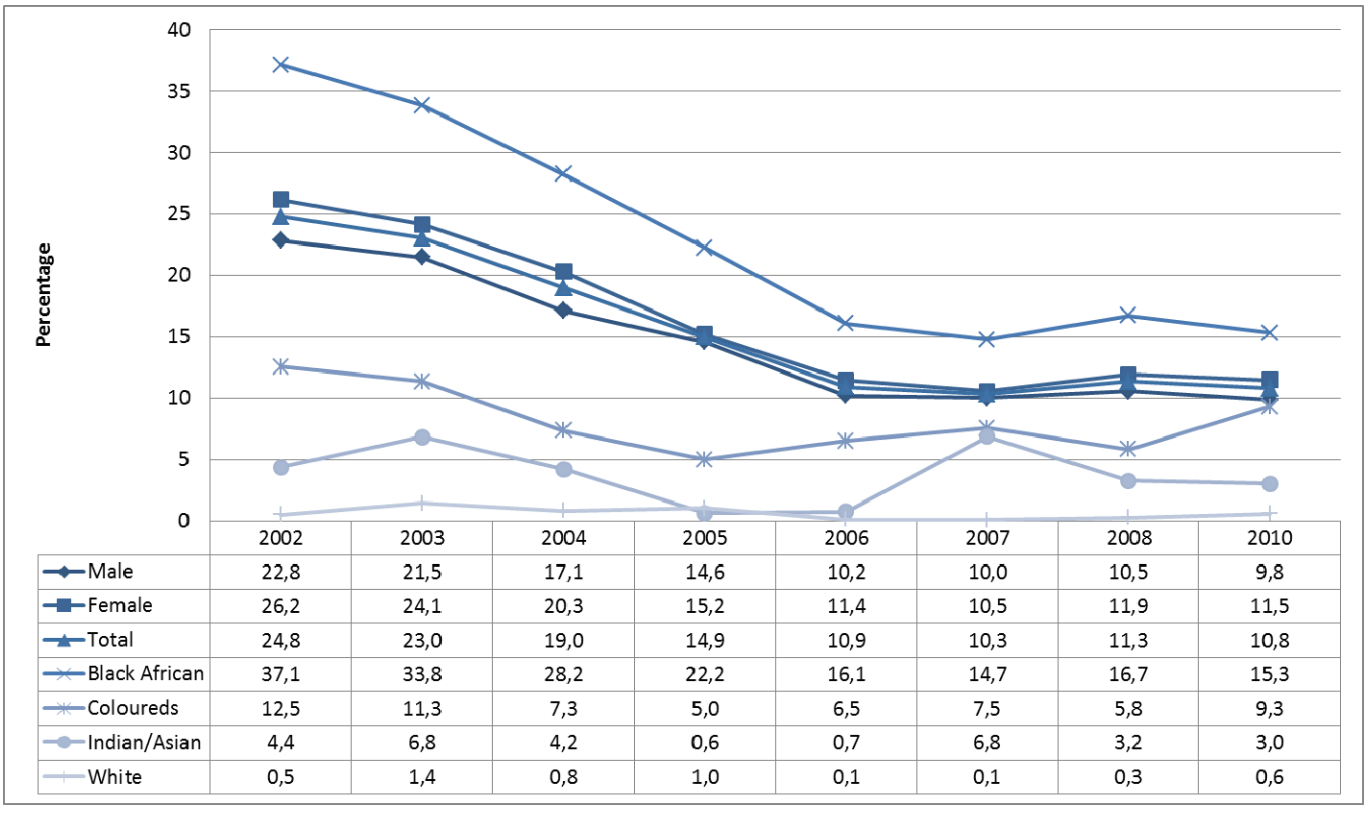
	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White
Other in private sector	0,2	0,0	0,0	0,0
Traditional healer	0,7	0,6	0,5	1,8
Private doctor/ clinic/ hospital	17,3	37,9	65,6	88,2
Other in public sector	0,4	0,1	0,9	0,1
Public clinic	72,2	47,1	15,4	4,7
Public hospital	9,3	14,3	17,7	5,2

5.6 Vulnerability to hunger and access to food

Vulnerability to hunger particularly affects vulnerable groups under a common bond of poverty and is particularly severe under conditions of high inequality and unemployment. The GHS asks respondents a battery of questions to establish whether any household members experienced hunger during the preceding year and to establish the severity of hunger. Hunger is used as a proxy for inadequate food intake and is associated with not consuming enough food. Although this is definitely more imprecise than variables designed to measure under nutrition, it does provide analyst with the opportunity to explore the relationship between vulnerability to hunger and poverty, and particularly the impact of social grants in alleviating hunger. Households are very sensitive to livelihood shocks and low income households with a large percentage of dependents, such as female headed households in general, remain particularly vulnerable.

Figure 5.17 summarises the data on the percentage of older persons living in households that reported hunger during the year preceding the study. This table clearly illustrates the stark disparities that exist with regard to vulnerability to hunger for older persons according to population group. In 2010, elderly black Africans (15,3%) were much more likely to have experienced hunger than elderly coloured people (9,3%), elderly Indians (3%) and elderly whites (0,6%). Elderly females were also slightly more likely to have experienced hunger than males. The percentage of individuals that experienced hunger has declined relative consistently since 2002 for elderly males and females, as well as elderly black Africans. Despite a decline over the period, the decline between 2002 and 2010 has been more jagged for white people, coloured people and Indians/Asians.

Figure 5.17: Percentage of older persons (aged 60 years and above) living in households that reported hunger by gender and population group, 2002–2008, 2010[7]



	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2010
Male	22,8	21,5	17,1	14,6	10,2	10,0	10,5	9,8
Female	26,2	24,1	20,3	15,2	11,4	10,5	11,9	11,5
Total	24,8	23,0	19,0	14,9	10,9	10,3	11,3	10,8
Black African	37,1	33,8	28,2	22,2	16,1	14,7	16,7	15,3
Coloureds	12,5	11,3	7,3	5,0	6,5	7,5	5,8	9,3
Indian/Asian	4,4	6,8	4,2	0,6	0,7	6,8	3,2	3,0
White	0,5	1,4	0,8	1,0	0,1	0,1	0,3	0,6

A significant variation between provinces is presented in Table 5.7. The percentage of older persons that live in households which experienced hunger has declined consistently between 2002 and 2007, before increasing to its current levels in 2010. Older persons seem to be less prone to be vulnerable to hunger than the population as a whole, although the trajectory almost mirrors the pattern for all South Africans. Between 2002 and 2007, Eastern

[7] Questions on hunger were replaced by questions to measure food access and supply in 2009. The battery of questions was reinserted in 2010.

Cape contained the largest percentage of food-insecure older persons, while the smallest percentages were generally found in Gauteng and Limpopo in 2010. After prolonged declines, the percentage of food-insecure older persons for the most part started to increase in 2008. In 2010, older people in Northern Cape were most likely to live in households that experienced hunger, followed by North West and Eastern Cape. Older people in Gauteng, Limpopo and Free State were least likely to have suffered hunger.

Table 5.7: Percentage of elderly living in households that reported hunger by province, 2002–2010

Province	Year (percentage)							
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2010
Western Cape	6,8	8,1	4,7	7,1	6,3	6,4	4,9	7,1
Eastern Cape	38,4	34,0	31,8	25,7	16,5	17,4	16,1	15,7
Northern Cape	26,0	13,3	17,2	11,2	10,9	12,9	8,8	22,8
Free State	22,8	19,7	14,5	14,8	9,6	5,7	6,6	7,4
KwaZulu-Natal	29,4	30,2	23,9	14,4	13,6	13,1	15,9	15,9
North West	25,8	28,1	26,6	17,6	14,5	11,6	20,0	18,3
Gauteng	12,8	13,1	8,6	8,3	5,3	7,2	6,3	4,4
Mpumalanga	29,7	28,4	22,2	18,6	9,5	11,0	14,9	9,1
Limpopo	29,3	20,6	15,4	15,7	11,2	5,6	8,1	5,0
All elderly	24,8	23,0	19,0	14,9	10,9	10,3	11,3	10,8
South Africa	29,9	28,3	23,7	20,6	14,9	14,0	16,3	16,2

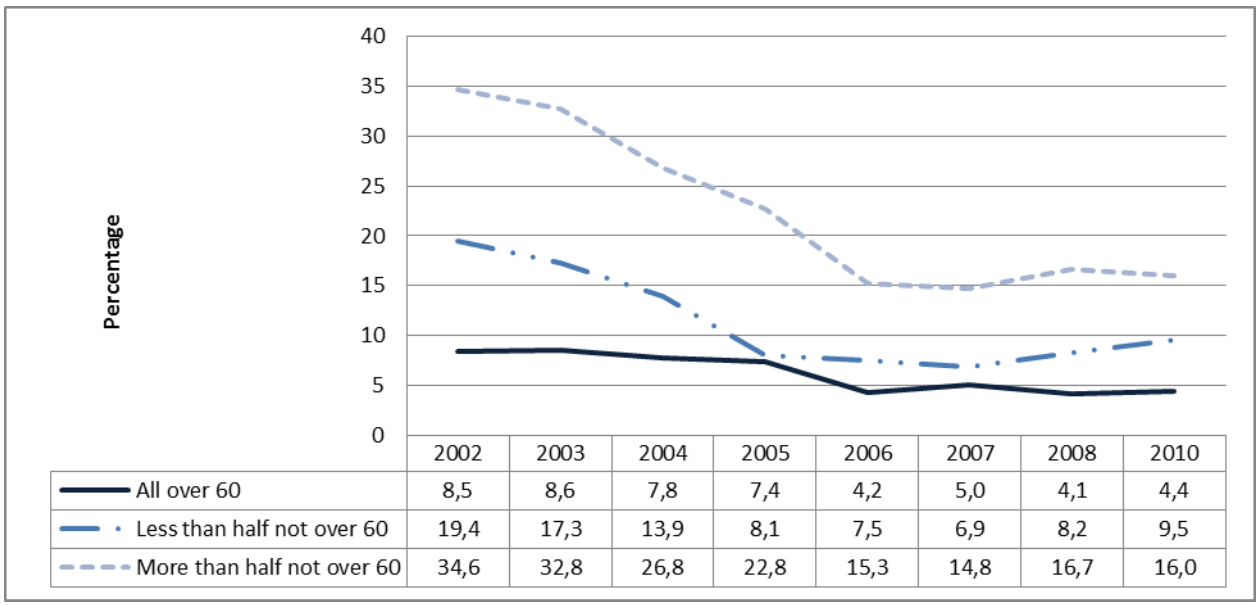
Table 5.8 shows that child-inclusive elderly-headed households are noticeably more likely to have experienced hunger than households headed by older males, and that male-headed households are in fact generally less likely to have experienced hunger that households headed by elderly females. Elderly female-headed households are very likely to contain children and have higher dependency ratios than households without children. Therefore, experiencing hunger seems to be a result of the number of people with whom older people have to share their available resources.

Table 5.8: Percentage of households that have experienced hunger by characteristics of the household head and the type of household, 2002–2010

Characteristics of head	Year (percentage)							
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2010
Male 60+	21,8	20,4	15,7	14,0	9,0	8,7	9,9	9,4
Female 60+	30,1	28,5	23,8	17,8	12,4	12,3	13,6	13,2
Total 60+	**25,8**	**24,3**	**19,5**	**15,9**	**10,6**	**10,4**	**11,7**	**11,2**
Type of households	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2010**
Household with members aged 60 years and older	25,2	23,6	19,1	15,5	10,6	10,3	11,7	11,1
Households headed by persons aged 60 years and older with child members	35,6	34,4	27,2	21,9	15,1	14,7	16,7	15,2
All households headed by persons aged 18–59 years	23,8	22,5	18,2	16,0	11,4	10,5	13,0	12,6

Figure 5.18 explores the impact that sharing of resources might have on older persons' experiences of hunger in households headed by older persons. Using the proportion of elderly per household, three categories were determined: all over 60 years, at least half over 60 years, and less than half over 60 years. From the figure it is clear that older persons living in households where all household members are over 60 years (including single-person households), are less likely to experience hunger than households where smaller proportions of the household members are over the age of 60 years. In fact, having a smaller proportion of elderly household members, seems to be positively correlated with higher reported vulnerability to hunger.

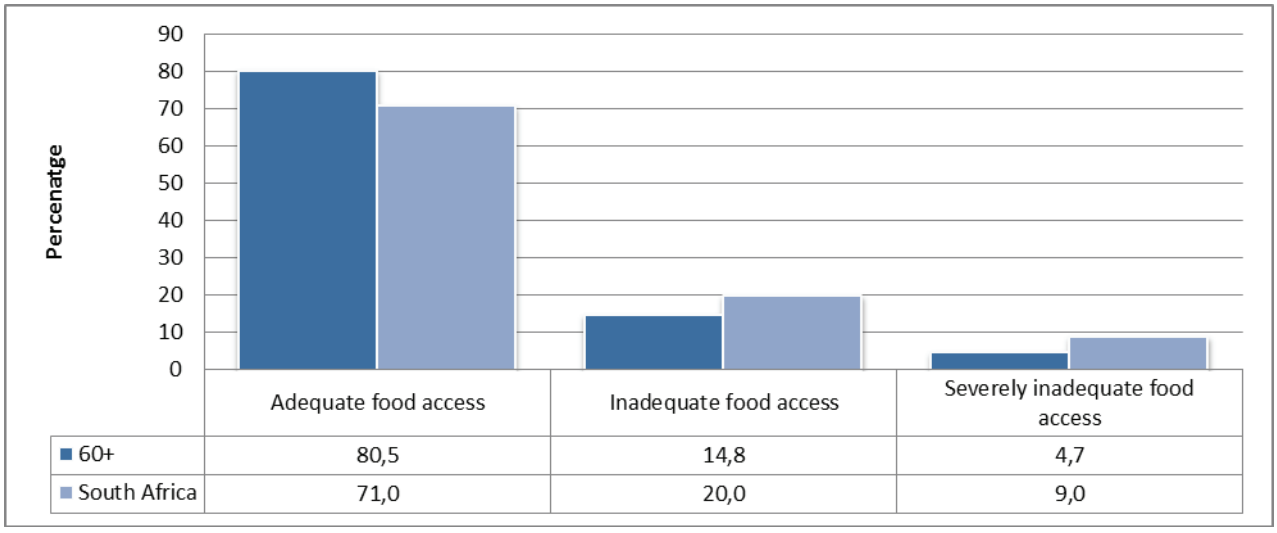
Figure 5.18: Percentage of elderly headed households reporting hunger by the proportion of elderly living in the households, 2002–2010



	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2010
All over 60	8,5	8,6	7,8	7,4	4,2	5,0	4,1	4,4
Less than half not over 60	19,4	17,3	13,9	8,1	7,5	6,9	8,2	9,5
More than half not over 60	34,6	32,8	26,8	22,8	15,3	14,8	16,7	16,0

Figure 5.19 confirms the general trend that older persons are generally less likely to experience hunger than the population in general, by revealing that older persons are more likely to report adequate food access and less likely to report inadequate or severely inadequate access to food than the population in general.

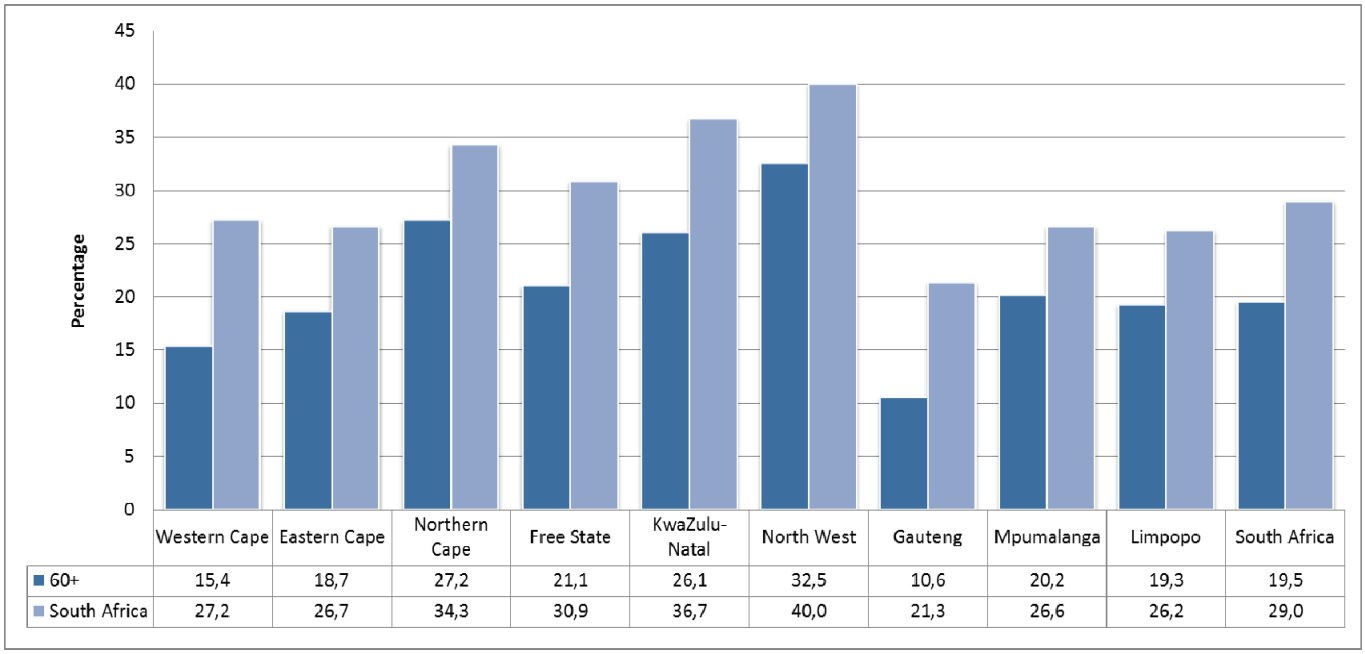
Figure 5.19: Percentage distribution of older persons by household access to food, 2009–2010



	Adequate food access	Inadequate food access	Severely inadequate food access
60+	80,5	14,8	4,7
South Africa	71,0	20,0	9,0

Persons over the age of 60 years are consistently less likely to experience inadequate or severely inadequate access to food than the population in general. According to Figure 5.20, older persons are least likely to experience inadequate access to food in Gauteng, Western Cape, Eastern Cape and Limpopo, and most likely to suffer impeded access in North West and KwaZulu-Natal and Northern Cape.

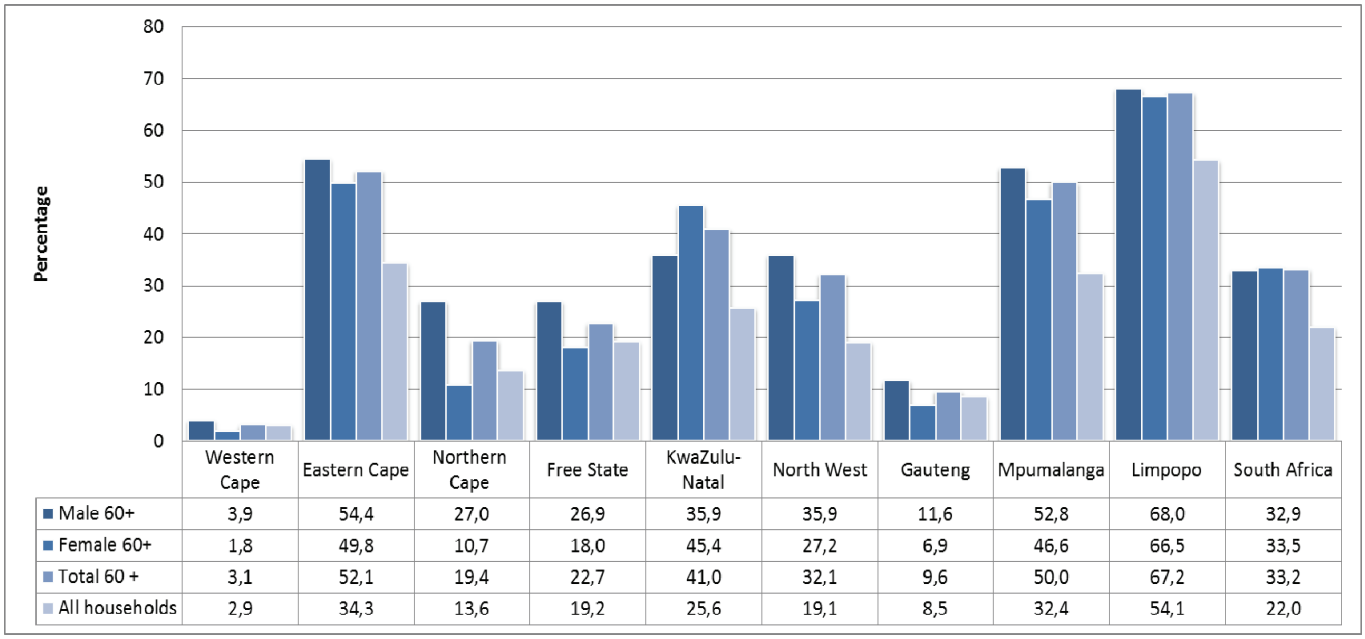
Figure 5.20: Percentage distribution of older persons by household access to food and province, 2010



	Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	KwaZulu-Natal	North West	Gauteng	Mpumalanga	Limpopo	South Africa
60+	15,4	18,7	27,2	21,1	26,1	32,5	10,6	20,2	19,3	19,5
South Africa	27,2	26,7	34,3	30,9	36,7	40,0	21,3	26,6	26,2	29,0

Households headed by older persons are more likely to engage in some kind of agricultural production that households in general in all nine provinces. This is presented in Figure 5.21. Nationally, 33,2% of elderly-headed households engaged in agriculture in 2010 compared to 22,0% of households in general. Older persons were particularly likely to participate in agriculture in Limpopo (67,2%), Eastern Cape (52,1%), Mpumalanga (50,0%) and KwaZulu-Natal (41,0%), and least likely to be involved in Western Cape (3,1%) and Gauteng (9,6%). Nationally, a slightly smaller proportion of elderly male-headed households engaged in agriculture than elderly female-headed households. Male-headed households were, however, more likely to participate in agriculture in eight of the nine provinces, the exception being KwaZulu-Natal where 45,5% of female-headed households were engaged in agriculture compared to 35,9% of male-headed households.

Figure 5.21: Percentage of elderly headed households and households in general that are engaged in agricultural activity by province, 2010

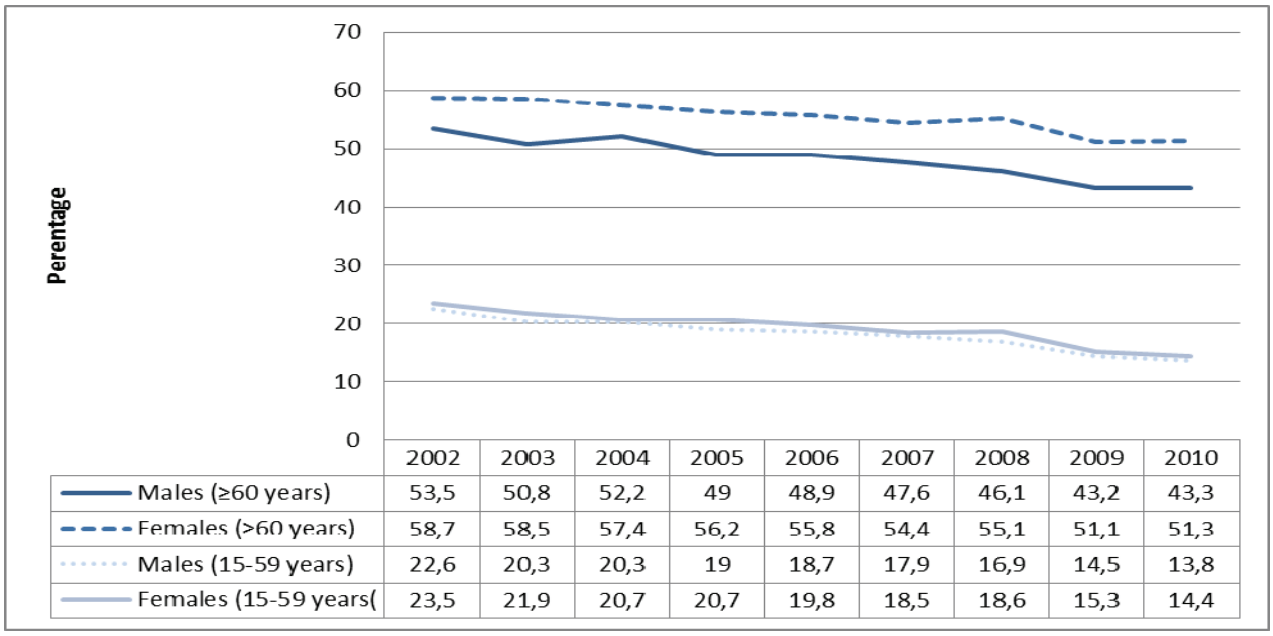


	Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	KwaZulu-Natal	North West	Gauteng	Mpumalanga	Limpopo	South Africa
Male 60+	3,9	54,4	27,0	26,9	35,9	35,9	11,6	52,8	68,0	32,9
Female 60+	1,8	49,8	10,7	18,0	45,4	27,2	6,9	46,6	66,5	33,5
Total 60 +	3,1	52,1	19,4	22,7	41,0	32,1	9,6	50,0	67,2	33,2
All households	2,9	34,3	13,6	19,2	25,6	19,1	8,5	32,4	54,1	22,0

5.7 Education

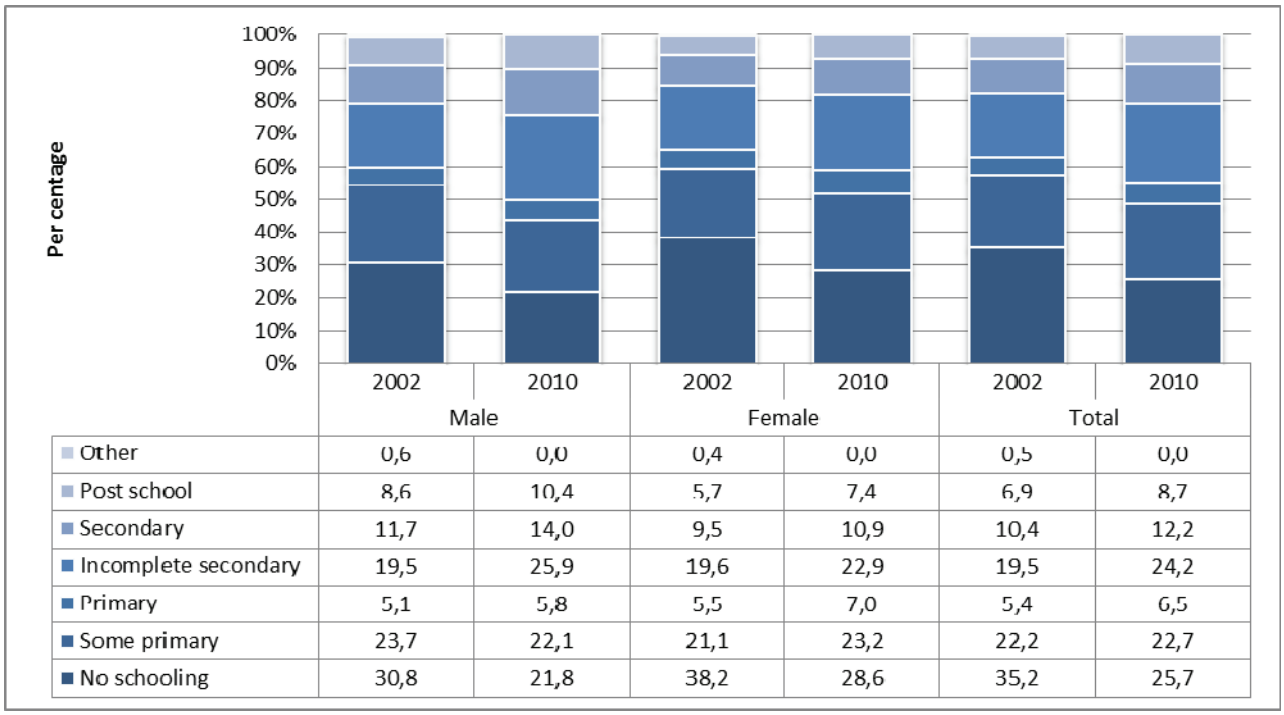
The literature emphasises the limited educational opportunities that the majority of older people had when they were younger. It is clear from Figure 5.22 that the literacy rate of older persons is much lower than the average for the country as a whole. This probably reflects improved access to primary education for children, particularly black African and coloured children, who were not afforded similar opportunities during past generations. Although elderly literacy is generally increasing because of various adult based literacy programmes and improved literacy levels among new entrants into this age group, the gender gap persists. Females in the age groups 60 years and older, and 15–59 years are more likely to be functionally illiterate than men.

Figure 5.22: Percentage persons aged 15–59 years and 60 years and older who are functionally illiterate by gender, 2002–2010



	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Males (≥60 years)	53,5	50,8	52,2	49	48,9	47,6	46,1	43,2	43,3
Females (>60 years)	58,7	58,5	57,4	56,2	55,8	54,4	55,1	51,1	51,3
Males (15-59 years)	22,6	20,3	20,3	19	18,7	17,9	16,9	14,5	13,8
Females (15-59 years(	23,5	21,9	20,7	20,7	19,8	18,5	18,6	15,3	14,4

Figure 5.23: Highest level of education, by gender, 2002–2010



	2002	2010	2002	2010	2002	2010
	Male		Female		Total	
Other	0,6	0,0	0,4	0,0	0,5	0,0
Post school	8,6	10,4	5,7	7,4	6,9	8,7
Secondary	11,7	14,0	9,5	10,9	10,4	12,2
Incomplete secondary	19,5	25,9	19,6	22,9	19,5	24,2
Primary	5,1	5,8	5,5	7,0	5,4	6,5
Some primary	23,7	22,1	21,1	23,2	22,2	22,7
No schooling	30,8	21,8	38,2	28,6	35,2	25,7

Figure 5.23 illustrates the improvement of older persons' education by gender between 2002 and 2010. Although the percentage of older people, and particularly elderly women who have not attended school remains very high, substantial reductions can be observed between 2002 and 2010. In addition, the percentage of older persons who have achieved at least a Grade 7 education (completed primary school) is slowly increasing, as is the percentage of older people who have completed, or partially completed secondary school and beyond. Since very few large-scale programmes target elderly people directly, most of the future improvements will probably be through the entrance in this age group of better qualified individuals from younger generations that enjoyed better opportunities to access education.

The persistence of a race-based inequality can be gauged from Table 5.9. While 38,2% of elderly black Africans have never attended school in 2010, an almost insignificant percentage of white people (0,7%) have never attended school. By contrast, 40,2% of elderly white people have completed secondary school, and a further 29,1% have some post school qualification (including tertiary education), compared to the 4% of elderly black Africans that have completed either phase, or the 18,7% of Indians who have completed secondary school and the 3,1% that have completed some post-school qualification.

Table 5.9: Highest level of education for older persons by population group, 2002 and 2010

	Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White		Total	
	2002	2010	2002	2010	2002	2010	2002	2010	2002	2010
Older persons aged 60+										
No Schooling	51,1	38,2	27,2	11,4	18,6	8,2	0,2	0,7	35,2	25,7
Some primary	29,1	31,2	31,5	23,0	30,6	23,5	0,7	0,1	22,2	22,7
Primary	6,1	7,8	9,1	11,1	10,1	8,5	1,7	1,1	5,4	6,5
Incomplete secondary	11,5	18,8	25,7	45,6	28,3	38,1	36,4	28,7	19,5	24,2
Secondary	1,2	2,1	2,0	5,5	6,2	18,7	36,7	40,2	10,4	12,2
Post school	1,0	1,9	4,4	3,5	6,2	3,1	22,7	29,1	6,9	8,7
Other	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	1,7	0,0	0,5	0,0
Per cent	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**
Total (thousands)	**1 816**	**2 408**	**233**	**323**	**97**	**148**	**727**	**912**	**2 872**	**3 791**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

5.8 Housing and basic services

Access to basic social services plays a significant role in determining the well-being of individuals. Services such as access to clean water and sanitation are particularly important, as they are closely associated with the health status of individuals. Housing, water, sanitation, a clean environment, food security and poverty are generally considered some of the most important social determinants of health.

For the purposes of this publication, housing is categorised as formal, informal, traditional and other. Formal housing consists of dwellings or brick structures on separate stands; flats or apartments; cluster houses; townhouses; semi-detached houses; and rooms, flatlets or servant's quarters. Informal housing comprises informal dwellings or shacks in backyards or in informal settlements. Traditional housing is defined as 'a traditional dwelling/hut/structure made of traditional materials'. The 'Other' category refers to caravans and tents. Formal housing is generally considered a proxy for adequate housing.

The percentage of housing types inhabited by elderly-headed households for the years 2002 to 2010 is presented in Table 5.10. The table reveals that the percentage of elderly-headed households living in formal structures has increased relatively consistently from nearly 75% in 2002 to 81,1% in 2010. Simultaneously, the percentage of these households residing in informal and traditional dwellings has declined noticeably.

Table 5.10: Percentage of elderly headed households living in formal, informal and traditional housing, 2002–2010

Type of dwelling	Year								
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Formal	74,5	74,9	74,0	73,6	77,6	77,8	78,4	79,2	81,1
Traditional	18,1	19,1	20,3	17,9	15,4	14,8	16,3	16,0	15,0
Informal	6,2	5,2	4,7	7,4	6,0	5,8	4,9	4,4	3,7
Other	1,2	0,8	0,1	1,1	1,1	1,6	0,4	0,3	0,2
Per cent	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,1**	**100,0**	**100,1**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**
Total (thousands)	**2 044**	**2 121**	**2 225**	**2 293**	**2 350**	**2 458**	**2 655**	**2 782**	**2 925**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

Figure 5.11 shows that the percentage of elderly living in formal housing has increased from 76% to 83% between 2002 and 2010, while the percentage of elderly living in informal and traditional dwellings has declined.

Table 5.11: Percentage of elderly living in formal, informal and traditional housing, 2002–2010

Type of dwelling	Year								
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Formal	76,3	76,9	75,4	76,3	80,0	79,8	80,2	81,4	83,3
Traditional	17,2	17,8	20,0	16,6	14,1	13,9	15,2	14,5	13,6
Informal	5,6	4,7	3,9	6,3	5,1	5,2	4,4	3,7	3,0
Other	1,0	0,7	0,7	0,9	0,9	1,2	0,3	0,4	0,2
Per cent	**100,1**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,1**	**100,1**	**100,0**	**100,1**	**100,0**	**100,0**
Total (thousands)	**2 903**	**2 996**	**3 106**	**3 209**	**3 326**	**3 412**	**3 567**	**3 719**	**3 842**

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

The percentage of elderly living in dwellings that are partially or fully owned is presented in Table 5.12. Older persons are more likely to live in households that are partially or fully owned than the population in general. After floating above 87% for the larger part of six years, the percentage of older persons enjoying some tenure status declined slightly to 84,6% in 2009 before returning to nearly 87% in 2010.

In addition to improving the quality of life and the general well-being of families and individuals, having access to clean piped water also drastically reduces vulnerability to diseases such as diarrhoea and cholera. Access to piped water is defined as having water piped directly into their dwellings, or having access to taps on the site of the dwelling or yard. Access to water in the dwelling or yard has increased for older persons, as well as the general population between 2002 and 2010, and it is noticeable that older persons are slightly more likely to have access to water than the general population.

Having access to flush toilets that are in or near the house and which dispose of waste safely is used as a proxy for adequate basic sanitation. While access to flush toilets has improved consistently between 2002 and 2010 for older persons as well as the general population, older persons are slightly more likely to live in households with flush toilets than the general population.

The percentage of households for which refuse is removed by a municipality at least once a week is used as an indicator of environmental cleanliness. Older persons seem to be slightly more likely than the general population to live in households whose rubbish is removed by a municipality. It is notable that access to refuse removal increased relatively continuously until 2007, after it declined for two consecutive years before recovering somewhat in 2010.

Although the connection to mains electricity does not preclude the use of other sources of energy for cooking and heating for example, connection to mains electricity does benefit households and the individuals living in them in a number of ways. As a result of sustained efforts in this regard, the percentage of households with access to mains electricity has increased steadily over the past eight years for the elderly, as well as the population in

general. Approximately 89% of older persons and 85% of the population in general lived in households that are connected to the mains electricity in 2010.

Table 5.12: Comparison of the basic living condition indicators for the elderly and the total population, 2002–2010

Access to service indicator	Age cohorts	Year (Percentage)								
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Tenure status % elderly living in dwellings that are partially or fully owned	60+	85,5	88,7	87,1	88,7	90,0	88,1	90,9	84,6	86,7
	Population	79,1	81,6	80,4	82,0	81,4	79,1	82,4	74,8	76,8
Access to water % living in dwellings with piped water in house or yard	60+	63,7	64,4	63,5	66,4	68,4	69,6	69,2	68,4	70,4
	Population	62,1	62,7	63,1	64,3	66,1	67,0	67,2	66,4	68,0
Sanitation % living in dwellings with flush toilet with on or off site disposal	60+	52,3	52,6	52,5	55,1	56,7	57,5	58,2	58,4	60,9
	Population	48,6	49,6	49,5	51,0	52,0	53,0	53,6	53,9	57,7
Refuse/waste % living in dwellings with rubbish removed by municipality	60+	51,5	52,3	52,2	56,3	57,7	58,4	57,9	49,7	56,3
	Population	51,0	52,0	52,1	55,1	55,8	56,0	55,5	48,3	54,4
Electricity % living in dwellings with connected to mains	60+	76,6	78,0	80,5	83,9	84,3	85,7	85,0	87,0	89,0
	Population	74,3	76,2	78,7	79,4	80,1	81,7	82,1	82,9	84,9
Telephone % living in dwellings with landline or cellular phone in the dwelling	60+	50,3	51,2	58,3	68,8	72,0	77,0	79,0	85,0	89,0
	Population	45,6	48,4	57,2	69,2	74,6	80,3	82,8	88,3	92,1
Internet[8] % living in dwellings with access to the Internet	60+				6,7				10,1	11,7
	population				5,0				7,8	9,3

Access to telephones is defined as the percentage of older persons living in households with access to landlines or cellphones. The percentage of South Africans having access to landlines or cellphones at home has increased enormously over the past years, growing from 45,6% in 2002 to 92,1% in 2010. During the same period, the percentage of older persons who have access to telephones increased from 50,3% to 89%. In 2010, a slightly smaller percentage of older persons had access to telephones in their dwellings compared to the general population.

Older persons are more likely to have access to the Internet at home than members of the general population. The percentage of older persons who has access to the Internet at home increased from 6,7% in 2005, the first time the question was asked in the GHS questionnaire, to 10,1% in 2009 and nearly 12% in 2010. During this time access by the population in general increased from 5% in 2005 to 9,3% in 2010.

5.9 Summary and conclusions

Black Africans over the age of 60 years constitute 63% of the total population of elderly people in South Africa, and comprise the majority of the elderly population in six of the nine provinces. Although white people only constitute 9% of the total South African population, white people comprise almost one-quarter (24%) of the population in the age group 60 years and above. White people constitute a high percentage of the older population in Western Cape, Gauteng and Northern Cape, while older coloured people comprise a large percentage of older persons in Western and Eastern Cape.

[8] Questions on access to the Internet at home was only included in the questionnaire in 2005, 2009 and 2010

The percentage of households headed by older persons has increased slightly from 18,7% in 2002 to approximately 21% in 2010. Households headed by older persons are most prevalent in Eastern Cape (27%) and least common in Gauteng (16%). Slightly less than one-quarter of all persons in South Africa live in a household headed by a person aged 60 years and older.

A considerable amount of the analysis focused on the composition of households headed by the elderly, as well as the relationships between household members. In the case of the elderly this is particularly important, as older persons both provide and rely on social support networks. Older persons are more likely to live alone than individuals in general (9% compared to 5%), and less likely to live in nuclear households. These figures are profoundly influenced by the underlying population composition of older persons. Almost three-quarters of black African older people live in extended households compared to only 23% of white people. More than 60% of older white people live in nuclear households, while another 16% live alone. Both figures are much higher than the norm for older persons from the other three population groups. White people are furthermore much less likely to live in households that contain at least three generations, or which are classified as skip-generation households than older black Africans, coloured people or Indians/Asians. In fact, almost one-third of all households headed by older whites contain only one person, while more than two-thirds contain only a single generation. These findings confirm white older people's greater affluence that allows them to reside independently. It, however, raises questions about weaker social networks. By contrast, almost two-thirds of older Africans live in households that contain at least three generations, or which are classified as skip-generation households. Almost one-quarter of older Africans live in skip-generation households (compared to less than 2% of white people), while households headed by black Africans are also much more likely to be skip-generation households than white, coloured or Indian/Asian-headed households. This clearly reflects the central supporting role played by black African older people. These findings are supported by earlier findings quoted in Lombard and Kruger (2009:124).

The report identified notable differences between males and females, as well as older persons of different ages in terms of marital or relationship status. While males in the age group 50–59 years, 60–69 years and older than 70 years are consistently more likely to be married than females, females in these age groups are consistently more likely to never being married, divorced, widowed or separated. While the percentage of males who are married/living together decreases slightly from 77% during their fifties to just below 75% for those older than 70 years, the percentage for women drops sharply from 58% during their fifties, to less than 25% for women in their seventies. This can be attributed to the fact that women generally live longer in addition to the fact that their male partners are often older than them.

The mean size of households that merely contain older persons is estimated at 4,1, while the average size for households headed by older persons (male and female-headed) was estimated at 4, which is higher than the national average of 3,5 persons per household. These observations seem to support the argument that older people are increasingly required to play a more active caring and support role in households. The total dependency ratios of elderly-headed households that include children (1,83) and households headed by older males (1,86), surpass those of households headed by individuals aged between 18–59 years (0,6) and South African households in general (0,79).

The child dependency ratio for child-inclusive households that are headed by older persons remain high at 1,24, while it is estimated at 1,1 for all older female-headed households. This ratio highlights the substantial burden carried by older persons, particularly females. Older persons have to support almost 1,5 children for every older person in elderly female-headed households.

When using a low-income threshold of R570 per person per month, more than half of elderly black Africans live in low-income households, compared to approximately 25% of coloured people, 20% of Indians/Asians and about 3% for white people. Older persons are least likely to live in low-income households in Western Cape and Gauteng, and most likely in Limpopo, where almost 60% of older persons live in low-income households. The majority of elderly-headed households (65% in 2010) cited grants and pensions as their main source of income, compared to one-quarter that cited salaries and/or wages as their main source of income. Approximately 3% identified remittances, while another 6% thought sales of non-farm products was their main source of income.

Several authors refer to the important role that old-age grants play in the lives of particularly poor households (May 2008, Lombard and Kruger, 2009). The elderly in South Africa are very dependent on grants. In 2009, 69% of older persons received some kind of government grant compared to only 28% of persons in the general population. Elderly women are more likely to receive grants than men. The percentage of grant recipients within households headed by older persons has increased from one-third in 2003 to 0,486 in 2010. The grant recipient ratio is higher in female-headed households than male-headed households, and is probably closely associated with the extension of the eligibility age for the Child Support Grant. Elderly female-headed households are more likely to have children than elderly male-headed households. Elderly male-headed households contain a substantially higher percentage of employed adults than any of the other household types with elderly household heads, while elderly female-headed households are more likely to contain a higher proportion of unemployed members than other households headed by, or containing older persons.

The prevalence of acute and particularly chronic diseases increases with age. While 10% of the individuals in the age group 18–49 years indicated that they suffered from an acute condition (illness or injuries) in the month prior to the survey, the percentage of individuals that have been afflicted by an acute condition increases to 18% for the age group 50–59 years, before settling at 24% for persons above the age of 70 years. The increase for chronic disease is even more pronounced, growing from 10% for individuals in the age group 18–49 years to more than 57% for individuals over the age of 70 years. Even though there is greater disease prevalence among the elderly, they tend to be poorly protected against unforeseen medical expenses. Less than one- quarter (23 %) of the older population, and only about 18% of South Africans in general, were members of, or had access to a medical aid in 2010. Once again there are significant inequalities between the different population groups with more than 70% of white people having access to a medical aid in 2010 compared to the much lower percentages of Indians/Asians and coloured people, as well as black Africans (approximately 5%).

Vulnerability to hunger is closely linked to population groups. While approximately 3% of Indian/Asian and less than 1% of white older people lived in households that experienced hunger, almost 9% for coloured and more than 15% for African older persons lived in such households. Older persons are, however, less prone to be vulnerable to hunger than the population as a whole. The relatively high percentage of comparatively affluent white people in the elderly population probably influences the comparative differences with the general population significantly. Child-inclusive elderly-headed households are substantially more likely to have experienced hunger than households headed by older males. In fact, older male-headed households are generally less likely to have experienced hunger than households headed by older females. Therefore, experiencing hunger seems to be a result of the number of people with whom older people have to share their meagre resources.

Past race and gender based discrimination continues to resonate in higher illiteracy rates for women and for black Africans and coloured people in particular. The illiteracy rate among older persons is much higher than the average for the country as a whole. However, decreases in illiteracy rates over time and increases in the percentage for those with at least Grade 7, suggest that the various literacy programmes, as well as new entrants to the group of elderly, are beginning to make a difference. Racial divisions in terms of educational attainment persist. While 38% of elderly black Africans have never attended school in 2010, an almost insignificant percentage of white people (0,7%) have never attended school. The situation is even more unequal when considering secondary and post-school qualifications. Forty per cent of elderly white people have completed secondary school, and a further 29% have some post-school qualification (including tertiary education), compared with the 4% of elderly black Africans that have completed either phase, or the 19% of Indians/Asians who have completed secondary school, and the 3% that have completed some post-school qualification. It is clear that these older persons have borne the brunt of the apartheid system, and judging from the expenditure data and reliance on social grants outlined earlier, they continue to suffer the consequences of an inadequate education.

The living conditions of the elderly are perhaps even more important for them than for the population as a whole, as they tend to be more vulnerable to disease and infections and are less able to walk long distance to fetch water and wood as they grow older. The percentage of older persons in formal housing has increased consistently since 2002, and older persons are more likely to live in dwellings that are partially or fully owned than the

population in general. Access to piped or tap water in the dwelling or yard has increased for older persons, as well as the general population between 2002 and 2010. Older persons are more likely to have access to piped water, flush toilets and electricity than the general population. This may be influenced by the relatively large percentage of white persons relative to the other population groups among the elderly. Older persons seem to be slightly more likely than the general population to live in households whose rubbish is removed. General access to landline and mobile telephone services has increased significantly during the past eight years, and older persons are once again more likely to have access to the Internet than the population in general.

5.10 Policy recommendations

The relatively high percentage of comparatively affluent white people who survive to old age to some extent masks the inequality and poverty of older people when looking at averages for the group as a whole. Even though the black African elderly are more likely to live in extended households which could provide a better social support network, these larger families place a lot of demands on them and increase the chances that they will be exposed to vulnerability to hunger in addition to the extra responsibilities of looking after a number of family members. The expansion of the eligibility for the Child Support Grant has not only benefited children, but has taken some of the pressure off from older persons in poor households in particular, who used to be reliant on old-age grants for sustenance. However, consideration should be given to either increasing the size, or targeting the old-age grant to further support the improvement of the quality of life of the elderly. Community programmes aimed at sensitising them towards the special needs of the elderly, will probably also benefit this important and growing segment of our population.

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