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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Social Profile of South Africa 2002–2012 is the fourth annual report of this nature produced by Statistics South Africa. The report was first published in 2010 to analyse and explore changes in the situation of children, the youth, the elderly, and women over time. The report uses General Household Survey (GHS) data from 2002 to 2012.

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 and access to food; 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 comprised 36% and 37% of the total population in 2012. While the proportion of children has remained stable, the proportion of youth continued to increase. Older persons comprised less than 8% of the country's population, but this group was growing rapidly. The gender and population group dimensions further increase the vulnerability of these groups. The findings confirmed that household structures were severely disrupted and that these groups were disproportionately affected by poverty.

The data showed that 4% of children were double orphans, 10,6% paternal orphans, 3,2% maternal orphans and that the remaining 82,2% of children were not orphaned. Children were profoundly affected by this disruption, as the data showed that more than one-third (34,8%) of children lived with both parents. A further 23,0% lived with neither their parents, 3,4% lived with their fathers, and 38,8% lived with only their mothers. Approximately 7,8% of children lived in skip-generation households with their grandparents. Although females headed 41,2% of all households, the percentage seemed to increase with age, peaking at 63,5% for women in the age group 70 years and older. Female-headed households generally contained more dependents and had a larger average household size than male-headed households. Approximately 9,5% of female-headed households were skip-generation households compared to 2,8% of male-headed households. The percentage of skip-generation households was even larger among older persons (15,2%). Because of their longer life expectancy, elderly females were much less likely to be (still) married than younger females. While older black African individuals were more likely to live in extended households, the largest percentage of white older people resided alone, or in single generation households. Other household members relied on older people to share their social grants, and older people were increasingly called upon to take over the nurturing responsibilities that their children were unable to perform because of illness, or absence.

Approximately 64,5% of children lived in households that fell into the bottom two income quintiles and that had a per capita income of less than R765 per month. The vast difference between population groups is illustrated by the finding that 70,5% of black African children lived in low income households, compared to only 4,4% of white children. Approximately 32,4% of children lived in households without any employed members, and social grants and remittances were vital to improve the access to food and education. While 60,5% of youth in the age group 15–24 years lived in low-income households, 44% of older youth (aged 25–34 years) lived in low-income households. Similarly, 53,7% of households headed by youth aged 15–24 years experienced low incomes compared to 40% of households headed by older youth. Older youth were much more likely to engage in business (9% 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 (72% compared to 43,7%). Female-headed households were consistently more likely to be poor. More than half (57%) of female-headed households were poor compared to 36% of male-headed

households. Almost three-quarters (70%) of female-headed households in Limpopo reported a low income. Access to social grants increased notably since 2003 when the question was first asked. While 62% of children accessed social grants in 2012, 29,3% of the total population, and 68,4% of older persons accessed grants. Youth is not expressly targeted by any grants.

Youth aged 15–24 years were less likely to be employed than older youth. Nearly half (49,7%) of households headed by younger youth did not contain any employed members compared to less than one-fifth (18,9%) of households headed by older youth. Similarly, 40,6% of female-headed households were without a single employed member compared to nearly one-fifth (19,7%) of male-headed households. Elderly persons were less likely to be employed than their younger peers. Poverty patterns continue to be gendered and female-headed households were more likely to have low incomes, to be dependent on social grants, and less likely to have employed members. Women and female-headed households were predominantly responsible for the care of children.

The low household income observed for vulnerable groups contributed significantly to insufficient access to adequate food and increased experiences of hunger. The analysis shows that 22,2% of households without any employed members experienced hunger compared to 11,5% of households that contained at least one employed person. The percentage of households that experienced hunger declined consistently between 2002 and 2012. In 2012, 15,3% of all children resided in households that experienced hunger compared to 13,1% of the total population. Black African children were much more likely to experience hunger than Indian / Asian children (17% compared to 0,6%). The analysis shows that households which contained children, particularly child-inclusive female-headed households, were much more likely to have experienced hunger than other households. Nearly one-third (30,6%) 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, were more likely to report hunger than older youth or households headed by them. The report found that the elderly's likelihood of living in households that experienced hunger increased with the size of the household, and more particularly, the number of additional dependents with whom they share their resources.

Access to education had been improving consistently since 2002, and school attendance was virtually universal between the ages of 7 and 13 years, after which children rapidly started to drop out of educational institutions. Equitable access to education for boys and girls was 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, continued to lag behind other population groups in this regard. The largest percentage of the children (18,8%) and youth aged 15–24 years (39%) who dropped out of educational institutions, cited 'no money for fees' as main reason. A noticeably larger percentage of females (13,3%) than males (0,7%) cited 'family commitment'. By the age of 22, approximately 54,5% of youth were neither attending any educational institution, nor working, while 25% are working and 20,7% are still attending an educational institution. Many young people continue to be at risk of becoming unemployable and falling into chronic systemic poverty.



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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.

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 nucleus.

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 Act, 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 *shacks* or shanties in *informal settlements* 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 or 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.

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 aged of 60 years and older.

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 onsite 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 households refers to households that earn less than R765 per month per capita and which fall into the lowest two income quintiles.

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 person's between the ages of 15 and 24 or 34 or as specified in the specific analysis.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The South African Government has channelled 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. Even though many programmes aimed at improving the well-being of vulnerable groups have been implemented during the past 19 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 2012 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, data generated by a new battery of questions developed by the Washington group has not proved to be consistent, perhaps because a sample survey such as the GHS is not completely suitable to accurately measure relatively rare events such as disability.

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 further impetus by the establishment of the Department for Women, Children and Persons with Disabilities (DWCPD) in 2009.

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 a 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) comprised 37% of the total population in 2012 (Statistics South Africa, 2012) and this cohort grew faster than the population as a whole. 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 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 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 2002–2012 data series as indicated in the objectives. From 2008 an enhanced design was made and consists of a multi-stage stratified sample 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. In this regard, a design allocates proportionately to the provinces however taking into account that there are large variations in size, a disproportionate or over sampling is implemented for the Northern Cape and the Free State in the design for instance. 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 survey as part of the publicity campaign. The actual interviews took place soon after the publicity visits. A total of approximately 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 is spread over three months during the period July to September 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 analysis is made on this basis.

More details related to the sampling and fieldwork methodology can be found in the GHS reports and metadata (2002-2012).

Stats SA revised the population model to produce mid-year population estimates during 2013 in the light of the findings of the 2011 census. 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 2010. The data for the GHS 2002 to GHS 2012 as presented in this release are therefore comparable.

Household estimates that were developed using the UN headship ratio methodology were used to weight household files. Data from the Census 1996, 2001 and 2011 as well as the 2007 community survey were used to analyse trends and develop models to interpolate 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 sub-populations 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.

As a result of new statistical programs used for weighting, which discards 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 2002–2012.

SAS 9.0 and SAS Enterprise Guide was 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 2012, 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 fourth time in 2012, although there were certain provisions and conditions attached to it. 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.

1.5 Cautionary notes

It is important to note that the estimates reflected by this report are based on the GHS historical time series and that these have not been weighted to the findings of the recently released Census 2011. Instead, the survey has been weighted to the mid-August population estimates. Although distributions in terms of proportions might be similar, there will be differences in terms of absolute numbers.

Also note that, due to rounding, the displayed totals in the tables do not always match the sum of the displayed rows or columns.

2. SOCIAL PROFILE OF CHILDREN

2.1 Introduction

The status of South Africa's children is indicative of the extent to which the country has managed to protect and develop the human potential of children over the past decades. 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). Although the CSG was initially made available to children aged 0–6 years in 1998, it 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.

Statistics South Africa recently released a report entitled 'South Africa's young children: their family and home environment' which presented statistics on young children aged below five years in South Africa. The report highlights the profile of young children in South Africa and provides the characteristics of their biological parents

and the home environment in which children are raised. This report, therefore, provides the necessary evidence, based on quality statistics, to assist policy makers in making decisions towards the development of children in South Africa. This is in line with the theme of the 2013 African Statistics Day on “Quality Data to support African Progress” commemorated today (18 November 2013). This chapter on children extends the analysis to all children.

2.2 Demography of children

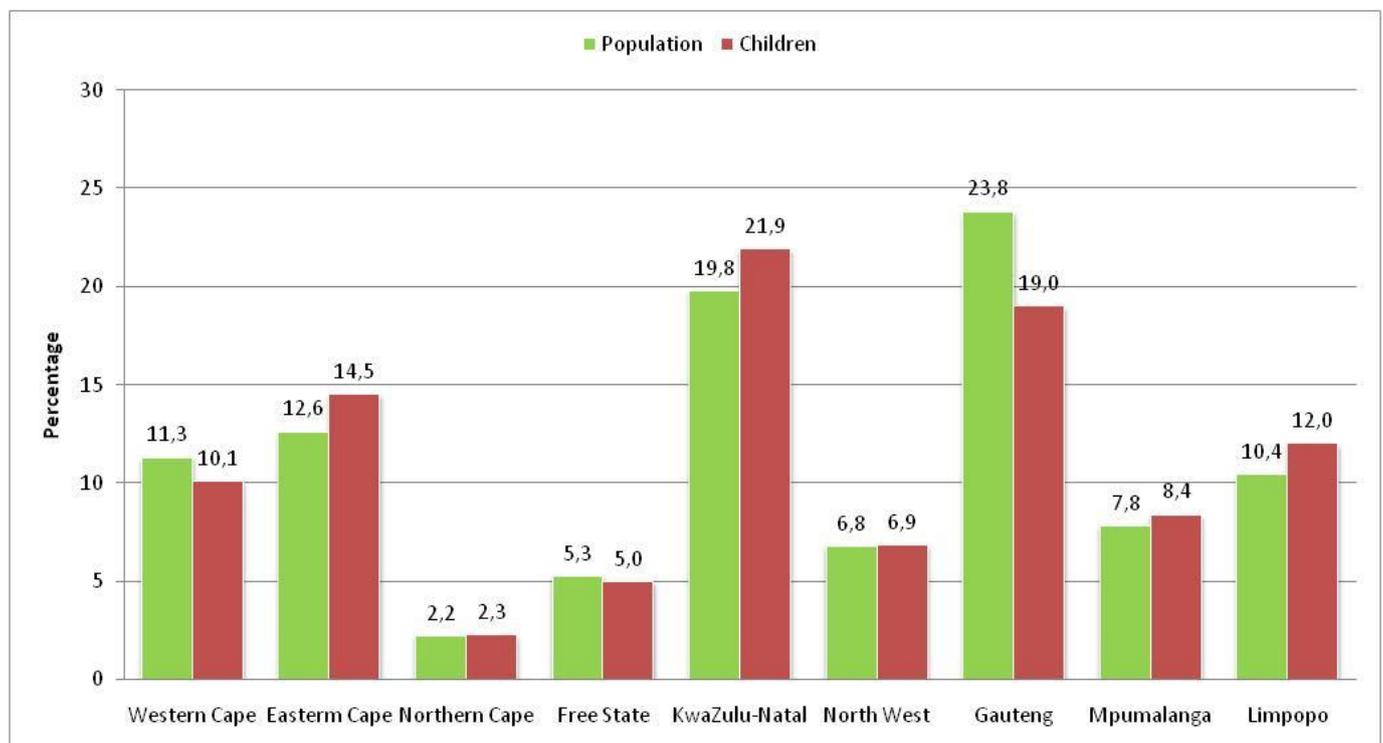
Children, defined by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa as 'individuals under the age of 18 years', comprised 35,5% of the country's population in 2012. According to Table 2.1, black African children comprised 84,2% of all children. This constituted the largest group in all provinces, except for Western Cape where 57,4% of children were classified as coloured.

Table 2.1: Distribution of children by population group and province, 2012

Province	Population group				Per cent	Total (thousands)
	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White		
Western Cape	29,5	57,4	0,8	12,4	100,0	1 873
Eastern Cape	92,3	4,8	0,3	2,6	100,0	2 696
Northern Cape	58,4	36,7	0,1	4,9	100,0	418
Free State	92,5	1,3	0,5	5,7	100,0	925
KwaZulu-Natal	91,9	0,9	5,6	1,6	100,0	4 071
North West	95,7	1,3	0,2	2,8	100,0	1 273
Gauteng	81,4	4,2	2,0	12,5	100,0	3 529
Mpumalanga	95,2	0,4	0,9	3,5	100,0	1 558
Limpopo	97,9	0,3	0,0	1,7	100,0	2 230
South Africa	84,2	8,5	1,8	5,4	100,0	18 574

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

Figure 2.1: Provincial distribution of children and the South African population, 2012



According to Figure 2.1, more than four-tenths of the children in South Africa were found in the two most populous provinces, namely KwaZulu-Natal (21,9%) and Gauteng (19,0%). 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 exceeded their respective shares of the population, the opposite was true for particularly Gauteng and Western Cape.

The percentage of orphaned and non-orphaned children living in South Africa during 2012 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 below one fifth (17,8%) of all children in South Africa, representing approximately 3,2 million individuals, were orphaned. The largest percentage of orphans were found in KwaZulu-Natal (23,8%) followed by Eastern Cape (23,3%) and Free State (19,8%). Less than 10% of children in Western Cape were classified as orphans.

Black African children were significantly more likely to be orphaned than children from any other population group. One fifth (20%) of black African children were classified as orphans compared to the 8,2% coloured, 5,3% Indian/Asian and 2,7% 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 orphanhood status, province and population group, 2012

Category	Province	Orphanhood status				Per cent	Total (thousands)
		Maternal	Paternal	Double	Not orphaned		
Province	Western Cape	1,3	5,8	1,1	91,8	100,0	1 857
	Eastern Cape	3,7	13,5	6,1	76,7	100,0	2 654
	Northern Cape	4,1	9,4	3,2	83,4	100,0	407
	Free State	3,6	10,6	5,5	80,2	100,0	896
	KwaZulu-Natal	3,7	14,3	5,9	76,2	100,0	3 999
	North West	3,4	9,7	3,8	83,1	100,0	1 221
	Gauteng	3,3	7,4	2,5	86,8	100,0	3 459
	Mpumalanga	3,2	10,8	3,8	82,3	100,0	1 531
	Limpopo	2,8	9,8	2,6	84,8	100,0	2 177
Population group	Black African	3,6	11,8	4,6	80,0	100,0	15 284
	Coloured	1,4	5,8	1,0	91,8	100,0	1 572
	Indian/Asian	0,8	3,7	0,7	94,7	100,0	341
	White	0,8	1,9	0,0	97,3	100,0	1 004
South Africa		3,2	10,6	4,0	82,2	100,0	18 201

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

These percentages are reinforced by the figures presented in Table 2.3. In 2012, the largest percentage of maternal, paternal and double orphans was located in KwaZulu-Natal, followed by Gauteng and Eastern Cape. More than one fifth (20,3%) of non-orphaned children resided in KwaZulu-Natal and 20,1% in Gauteng.

Table 2.3: Percentage distribution of orphans by province, 2012

Province	Orphanhood status			
	Maternal	Paternal	Double	Not Orphaned
Western Cape	4,1	5,6	2,8	11,4
Eastern Cape	16,7	18,7	22,3	13,6
Northern Cape	2,9	2,0	1,8	2,3
Free State	5,6	5,0	6,8	4,8
KwaZulu-Natal	25,4	29,7	32,3	20,3
North West	7,0	6,1	6,5	6,8
Gauteng	19,7	13,3	11,7	20,1
Mpumalanga	8,3	8,6	8,0	8,4
Limpopo	10,3	11,1	7,8	12,3
Per cent	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0
Total (thousands)	586	1 920	727	14 968

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

The deterioration of South African family structures, inter alia as a result of labour migration and poverty, caused many children to grow up and live without their biological parents. Table 2.4 shows that more than one third (34,8%) of children consistently lived with both their parents, while almost one quarter (23%) lived with neither their biological parents. Children were far more likely to live with only their mothers (38,8%) than their fathers (3,4%). The percentage of children that lived with both parents was the highest in Western Cape (55,6%) and Gauteng (53,1%) and lowest in Eastern Cape (23,4%) and KwaZulu-Natal (24,5%). The percentage of children that resided with neither their biological parents was the highest in Eastern Cape (34,7%), KwaZulu-Natal (29,9%) and Limpopo (27,3%). The pattern varied substantially by race. While more than one quarter (26%) of black African children lived with neither their biological parents, only 9,5% black African, 7,8% Indian/Asian and 4% of white children lived with neither their biological parents. The extent to which particularly African families have been disrupted, is further accentuated by the observation that only 28,9% of black African children lived with both parents, compared to the 55,1% of coloured, 79,5% of Indian/Asian and 77,6% of 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, 2012

	Province	Parental living arrangements (percentage)				Per cent	Total (thousands)
		Mother	Father	Both	Neither		
Province	Western Cape	34,2	2,6	55,6	7,7	100,0	1 824
	Eastern Cape	37,8	4,1	23,4	34,7	100,0	2 674
	Northern Cape	40,3	2,6	32,6	24,6	100,0	409
	Free State	34,2	3,3	38,7	23,8	100,0	911
	KwaZulu-Natal	41,7	4,0	24,5	29,9	100,0	3 908
	North West	44,6	2,6	30,4	22,5	100,0	1 249
	Gauteng	30,7	4,2	53,1	12,1	100,0	3 407
	Mpumalanga	46,4	3,8	28,7	21,1	100,0	1 528
	Limpopo	44,3	1,8	26,7	27,3	100,0	2 194
Population group	African	41,6	3,5	28,9	26,0	100,0	15 236
	Coloured	32,5	2,9	55,1	9,5	100,0	1 552
	Indian	11,2	1,5	79,5	7,8	100,0	331
	White	14,9	3,6	77,6	4,0	100,0	985
South Africa		38,8	3,4	34,8	23,0	100,0	18 104

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

2.3 Child-headed households

Although less than one fifth of all children in South Africa were orphaned, and approximately 4,0% were double orphans, the low percentage of children that resided in child headed households (Table 2.5) suggests that orphaned children were probably absorbed into existing households.

Table 2.5: Percentage of children living in child-headed households by province, 2002–2012

Province	Year										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Western Cape	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,2	0,1	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,2
Eastern Cape	1,6	1,2	0,9	0,9	0,9	1,1	1,0	0,4	0,7	0,6	0,9
Northern Cape	0,1	0,2	0,1	0,3	0,3	0,2	0,1	0,2	0,3	0,1	0,0
Free State	0,7	0,5	0,4	0,6	0,4	0,7	0,3	0,3	0,5	0,5	0,4
KwaZulu-Natal	0,4	0,4	0,3	0,3	0,9	0,7	0,2	0,6	0,5	0,4	0,4
North West	0,2	0,9	1,0	0,8	0,2	0,4	0,7	0,3	0,1	0,4	0,2
Gauteng	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,2	0,0	0,2	0,2	0,1	0,1	0,0	0,2
Mpumalanga	0,5	0,3	0,4	0,8	0,6	0,6	0,9	0,7	0,7	0,5	0,5
Limpopo	1,4	1,3	1,5	1,5	1,5	2,2	1,5	1,7	1,1	1,2	1,3
South Africa	0,6	0,6	0,6	0,6	0,6	0,8	0,6	0,5	0,5	0,4	0,5
Total (thousands)	115	107	101	109	116	143	107	93	85	82	92

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

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 2012 the percentage of children that lived in child-headed households remained consistent below 1% of all children, even as the number of children in these households fluctuated between 82 000 and 143 000. Table 2.5 shows that approximately 0,5% (92,000) of children lived in child-headed households in 2012. Absolute numbers should, however, be used with caution as they are derived from percentages which are in turn based on mid-year estimates with additional uncertainty.

Table 2.6 shows that the percentage of child-headed households stayed between 0,4% and 0,7% of all households between 2002 and 2012. Child-only households comprised approximately 60 000 households in 2012. The highest percentage of child headed households was recorded in Limpopo and Eastern Cape. 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, 2002–2012

Province	Year										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Western Cape	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,1	0,2	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,2	0,1
Eastern Cape	1,8	1,6	1,1	1,0	1,1	0,8	1,2	0,4	0,9	1,1	0,7
Northern Cape	0,3	0,2	0,3	0,3	0,4	0,3	0,1	0,4	0,4	0,3	0,0
Free State	0,8	0,6	0,7	0,8	0,4	0,4	0,4	0,4	0,5	0,4	0,4
KwaZulu-Natal	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,9	0,9	0,4	0,5	0,6	0,5	0,2
North West	0,3	0,9	0,8	0,6	0,3	0,2	0,6	0,3	0,1	0,5	0,2
Gauteng	0,2	0,1	0,1	0,2	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,0	0,2
Mpumalanga	0,6	0,4	0,5	1,0	0,8	0,7	0,9	0,8	0,7	0,7	0,6
Limpopo	2,0	1,8	2,4	2,0	1,8	1,6	2,1	1,9	1,8	2,0	1,7
South Africa	0,7	0,6	0,7	0,7	0,6	0,7	0,6	0,4	0,5	0,5	0,4
Total (thousands)	74	70	74	76	70	86	73	59	72	76	60

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

Although a larger percentage of children in child-headed households was orphaned than children in the general population, it is interesting to note that only 14,1% of those children were double orphans. Furthermore, both parents were alive for 57,8% of children according to Figure 2.2. The majority of children that lived in child-headed households were not orphans at all as most had at least one parent who was alive. Almost one-fifth (17,8%) of South African children had lost one or both parents.

Figure 2.3 shows that 51,3% of children in child-headed households were older than 14 years of age, while more than a quarter (26,4%) fell into the age group 10–14 years.

Figure 2.2: Orphanhood status of children living in child-headed households compared to all children, 2012

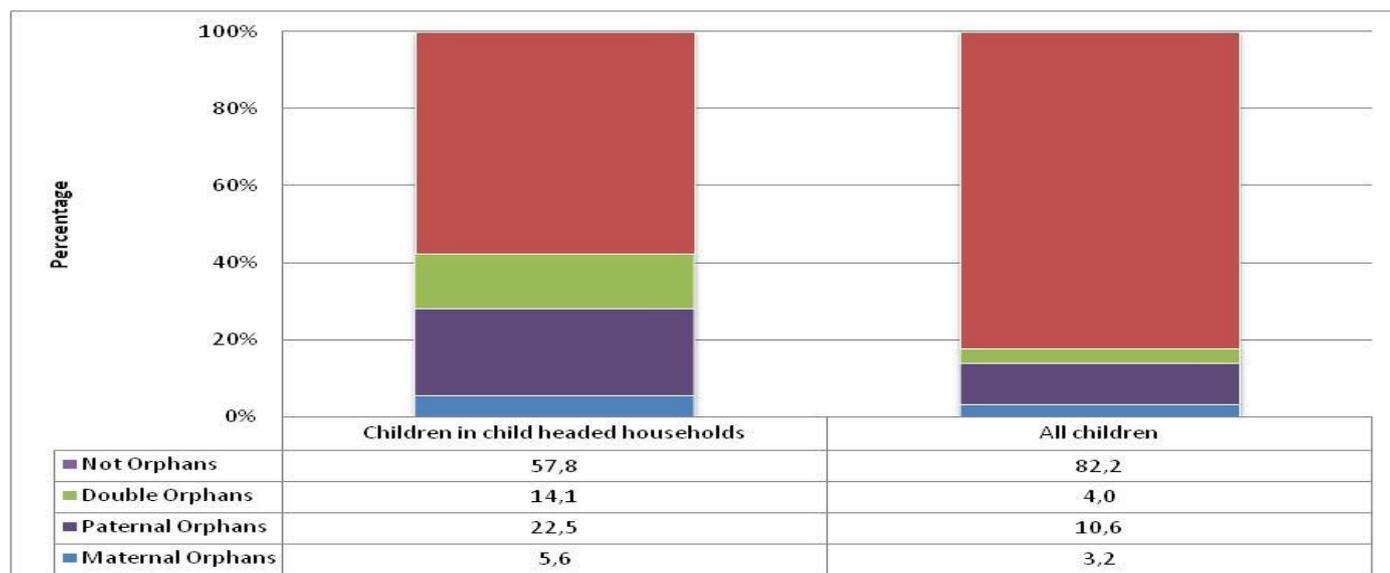
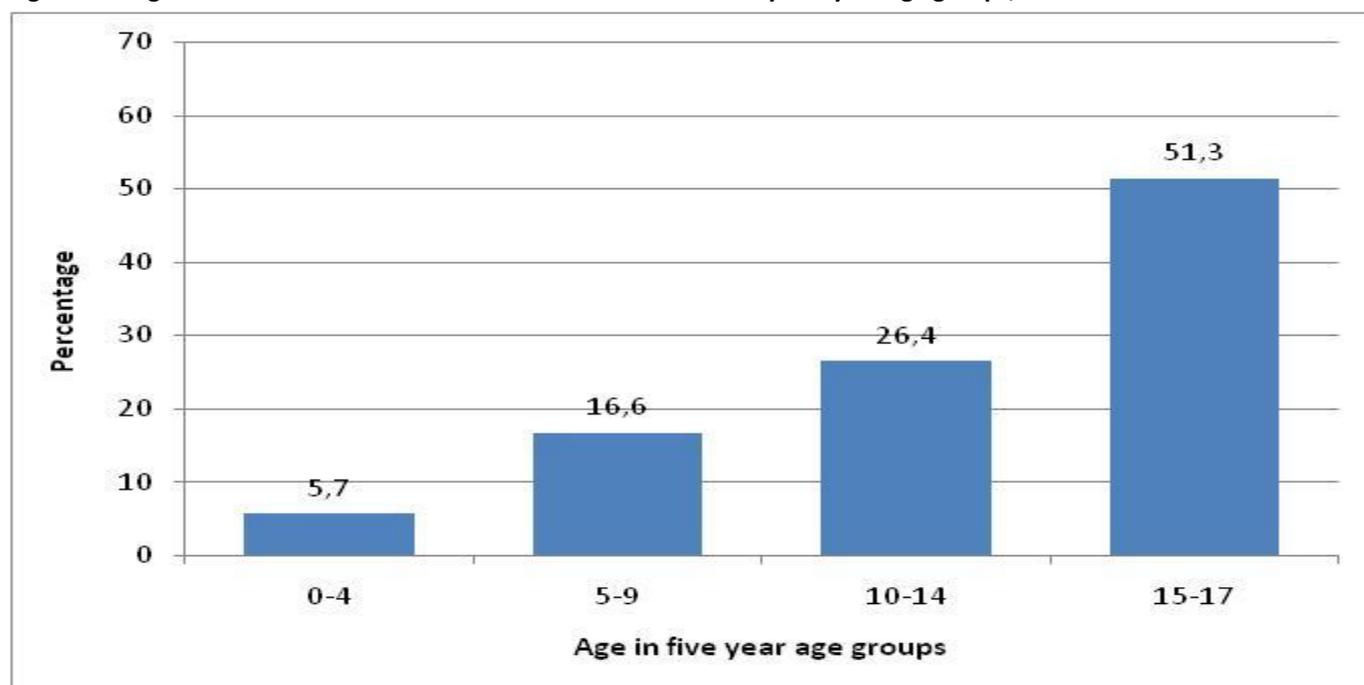


Figure 2.3: Age distribution of children in child headed households by five year age groups, 2012



2.4 Household characteristics

Households can be categorized according to a number of typologies. One such typology (Amoateng, Heaton and Kalule-Sabitj, 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. Figure 2.4 shows that 55% of South Africans and 62,8% of South African children lived in extended households while more than one third (34,7%) of children lived in nuclear households. The pattern, however, varies by population group. A much larger percentage of Indian and white children lived in nuclear families than black African and coloured children. While 30,5% of black African children lived in nuclear households compared to 67,6% in extended households, Approximately three quarters (75,6%) of white children lived in nuclear households compared to only 19,3% in extended households.

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 (50,2%) of children lived in households that contained at least two generations (i.e. their parents or guardians), while 38% lived in households that contained three or more generations. Almost 8% of children lived in skip-generation households with their grandparents. A significant variation was observed between population groups, as Indian/Asian and white children were much more likely to live in two-generation households than black African and coloured children. While 3,4% of black African children lived in single-generation households with their siblings.

Figure 2.4: Percentage of children living in different household types by population group, 2012

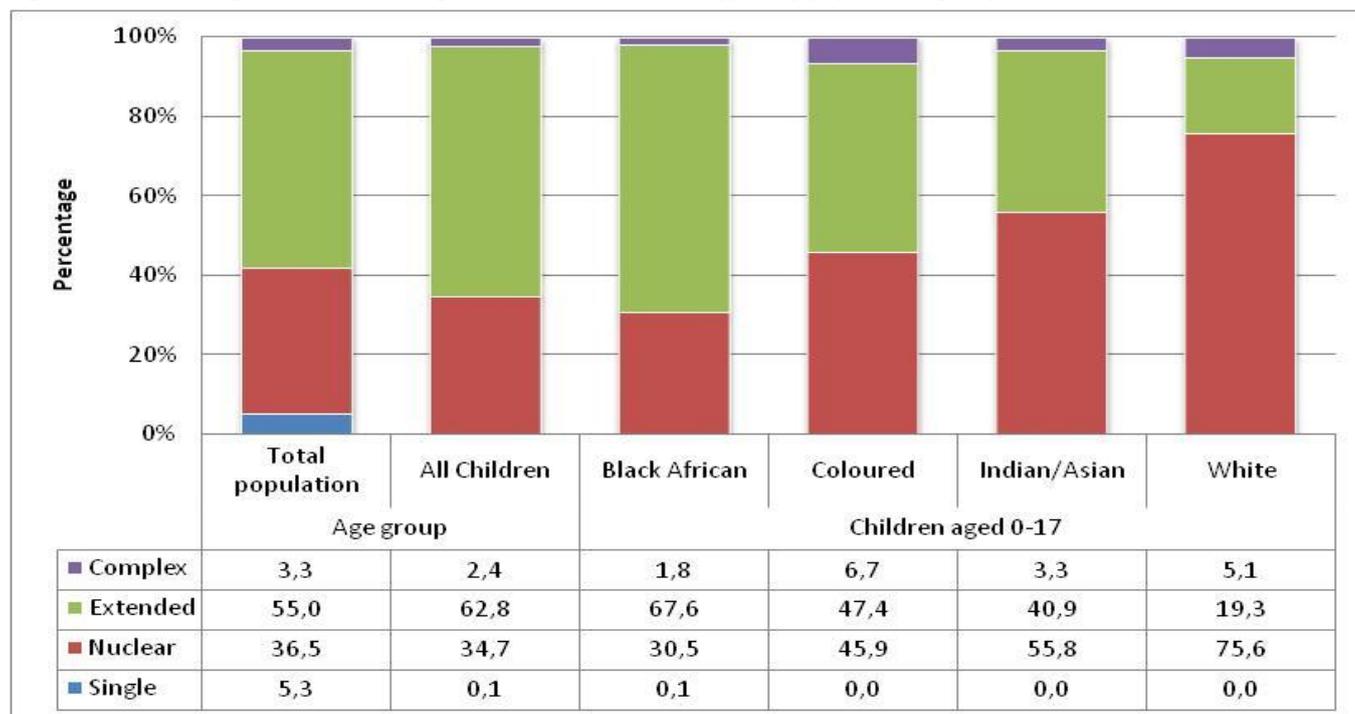
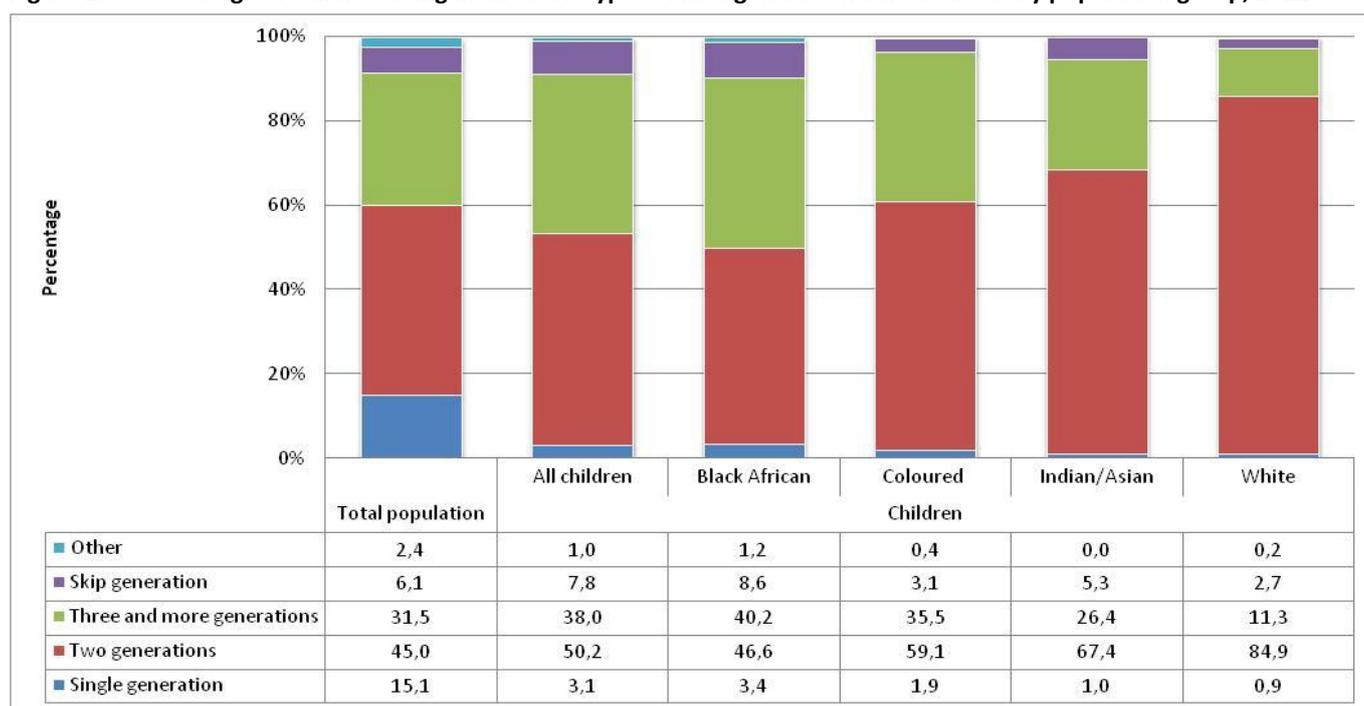


Figure 2.5: Percentage of children living in different types of intergenerational households by population group, 2012



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 a disproportionate focus on child-headed households. It is therefore 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.

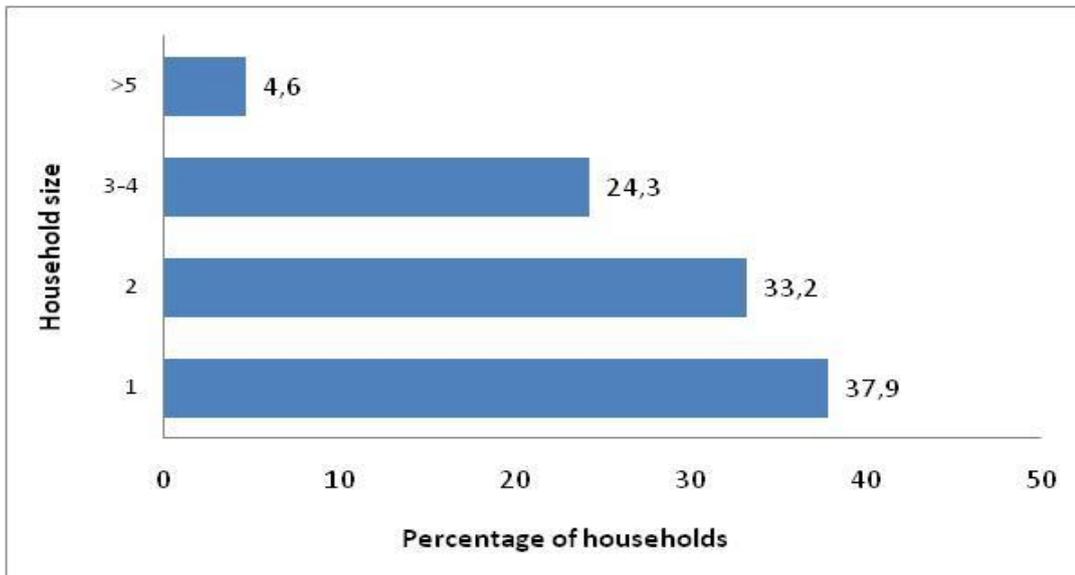
The mean size of South African households declined very gradually, if not somewhat unevenly from 3,7 in 2002 to 3,4 in 2012. The decline is also noticeable for the somewhat larger mixed-generation households, irrespective of whether they are male or female-headed, where the average household size declined from 5,1 to 4,8 persons per household between 2002 and 2012. Child-headed households were on average substantially smaller than mixed-generation households and its mean household size remained relatively constant at around two children per household between 2002 and 2012. This trend is further reinforced by Figure 2.6, which shows that less than three-quarters (71,1%) of child-headed households comprised two members or less, while slightly more than one-third (37,9%) of all child-headed households comprised just one member.

Mixed-generation households generally contained 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 could be expected, the presence of children under the age of 18 years increased the number of age-dependents in the population and therefore amplified 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 declined between 2002 and 2012. While the ratio had dropped under one for male headed households, the ratio remained above one for female headed households.

Table 2.7 : Household characteristics by different types of households, 2002–2012

Age	Indicator	Year										
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Mean household size												
Child headed household	Average	2,1	2,0	2,0	1,9	2,0	1,8	1,8	2,0	1,8	1,8	2,2
Households with children		5,1	5,0	4,9	4,9	4,8	4,9	4,9	4,8	4,9	4,8	4,8
Female headed with children		5,0	4,9	4,9	4,8	4,8	4,8	4,8	4,8	4,8	4,8	4,8
Male headed with children		5,2	5,0	5,0	5,0	4,9	4,9	5,0	4,9	4,9	4,8	4,8
All households		3,7	3,6	3,5	3,5	3,4	3,4	3,6	3,4	3,5	3,5	3,4
Female ratio												
Child headed household	% Female	0,48	0,48	0,48	0,48	0,47	0,48	0,47	0,47	0,47	0,47	0,47
All households with children		0,46	0,40	0,43	0,53	0,50	0,43	0,45	0,44	0,41	0,51	0,51
Total dependency ratio												
Male headed with children	Average ratio	1,00	0,98	0,97	0,96	0,94	0,95	0,94	0,94	0,94	0,92	0,92
Female headed with children		1,36	1,35	1,32	1,33	1,31	1,32	1,28	1,30	1,28	1,27	1,27
All households with children		1,15	1,13	1,12	1,12	1,10	1,10	1,08	1,10	1,09	1,08	1,08
Old age dependency ratio												
Male headed with children	Average ratio	0,09	0,09	0,10	0,09	0,09	0,09	0,09	0,09	0,09	0,09	0,09
Female headed with children		0,13	0,13	0,13	0,13	0,12	0,13	0,12	0,13	0,13	0,13	0,13
All households with children		0,11	0,11	0,11	0,11	0,10	0,11	0,11	0,11	0,11	0,11	0,11
Child dependency ratio												
Male headed with children	Average ratio	0,91	0,89	0,87	0,87	0,85	0,86	0,84	0,85	0,85	0,83	0,83
Female headed with children		1,23	1,22	1,19	1,20	1,18	1,19	1,16	1,18	1,15	1,14	1,14
All households with children		1,04	1,02	1,01	1,01	1,00	1,00	0,98	0,99	0,98	0,97	0,97

Figure 2.6 : Percentage distribution of child headed households by household size, 2012



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 it remained rather consistent over the period 2002 to 2012. The highest age dependency ratio was observed in female headed mixed generation households with a ratio of 0,13 compared to 0,09 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 followed an almost identical though lower trajectory than the general age dependency ratios. The burden of dependency was 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 2012 are presented in the Table 2.8. Child-headed households consistently listed remittances as their main source of income between 2002 and 2012. This is in line with a finding by Foster (2004) that children in child headed households were 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. Approximately 3% of all child-headed households indicated a complete lack of income during 2012, compared to 3,7% in 2002.

Table 2.8: Main source of income for child headed households, 2002–2012

Sources of income	Year										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Salaries and/or wages	8,4	8,6	14,5	12,3	8,9	14,0	9,8	5,0	7,4	7,0	2,0
Remittances	84,3	84,8	81,0	70,8	79,1	78,7	79,1	83,0	77,5	79,1	68,4
Social Grants	1,6	0,6	1,3	5,9	7,4	2,5	4,3	3,7	12,0	10,4	21,5
Sales of farm products	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,7	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Other non-farm income	1,9	0,0	1,9	2,3	0,5	2,5	0,5	6,0	2,0	1,0	5,0
No income	3,7	6,0	1,4	8,7	3,5	2,3	6,2	2,3	1,1	2,6	3,0
Per cent	100,0										
Total (thousands)	71	70	72	75	69	84	69	54	67	72	51

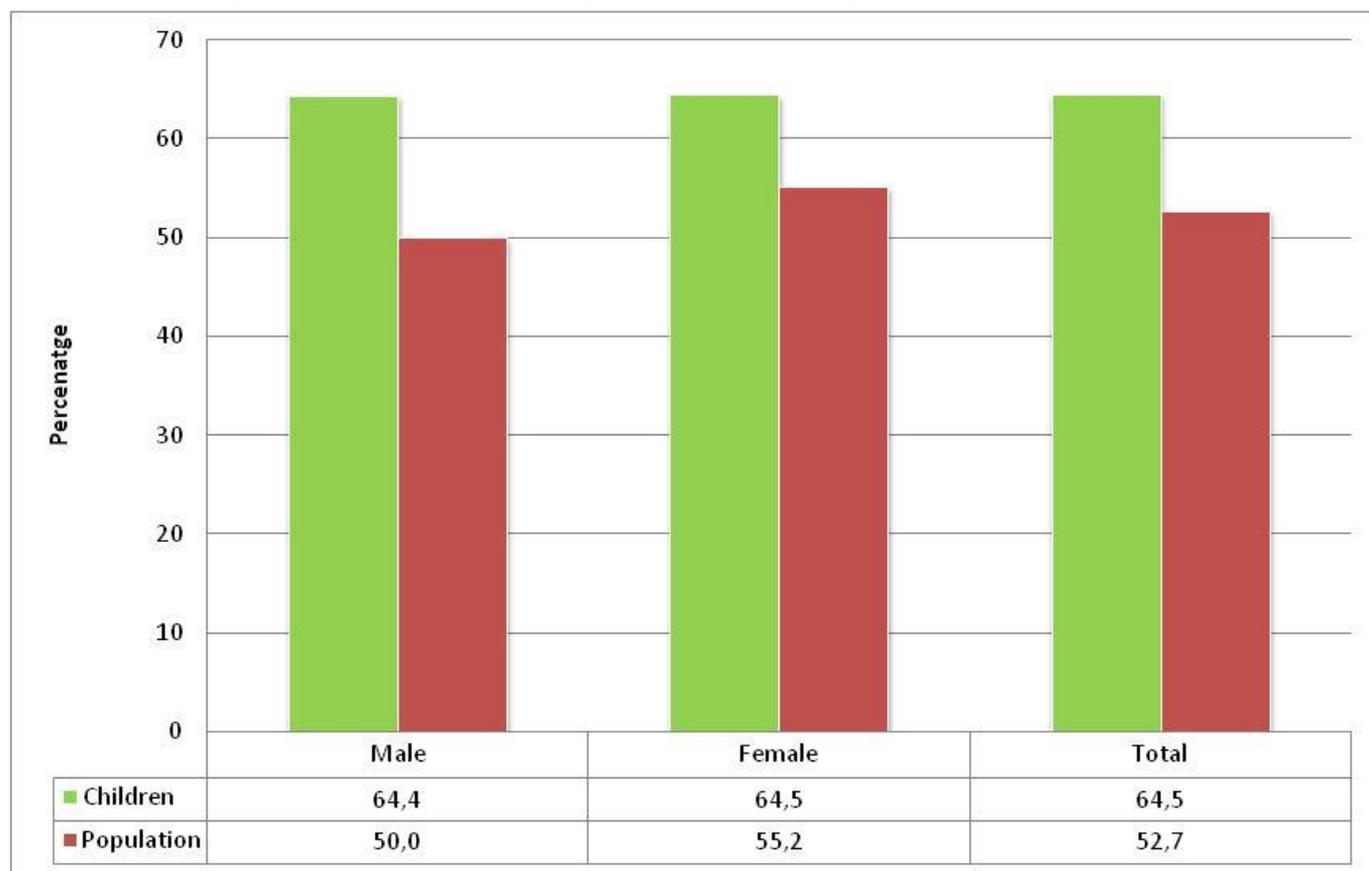
Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

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

To calculate the percentage of children that lived in low per capita income households, households were first divided into five quintiles based on households' average monthly per capita income. Poor or low-income households were defined as those that fell into the bottom two quintiles. The poorest 40% of households on average received an income of less than R765 per person per month while the poorest 20% of households earned less than R390 per person per month. These measures are important indicators 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.

The findings confirmed that children were disproportionately affected by poverty. While slightly more than (52,7%) of all South Africans lived in low-income households, nearly two-thirds (64,5%) of children resided in such households (Figure 2.7). It is interesting to note that males were slightly less likely to live in low-income households than females. The comparable figure for children was almost indistinguishable (64,4% for males compared to 64,5% for females).

Figure 2.7: Percentage of children compared to the general population living in low income households , 2012



The percentage of children that lived in households that fell into the lowest two income quintiles by province is presented in Figure 2.8. More than three-quarter of children in Limpopo (78,2%), Eastern Cape (77,8%) and slightly less than a three-quarter in KwaZulu-Natal (73,5%) lived in poor households. These provinces display strong rural characteristics and contain one or more of the independent homelands that were created during the seventies. The percentage of poor children was much smaller in the relatively prosperous and more urbanised provinces like Western Cape (43,2%) and Gauteng (43,3%) .

Figure 2.8: Percentage of children living in low income households by province, 2012

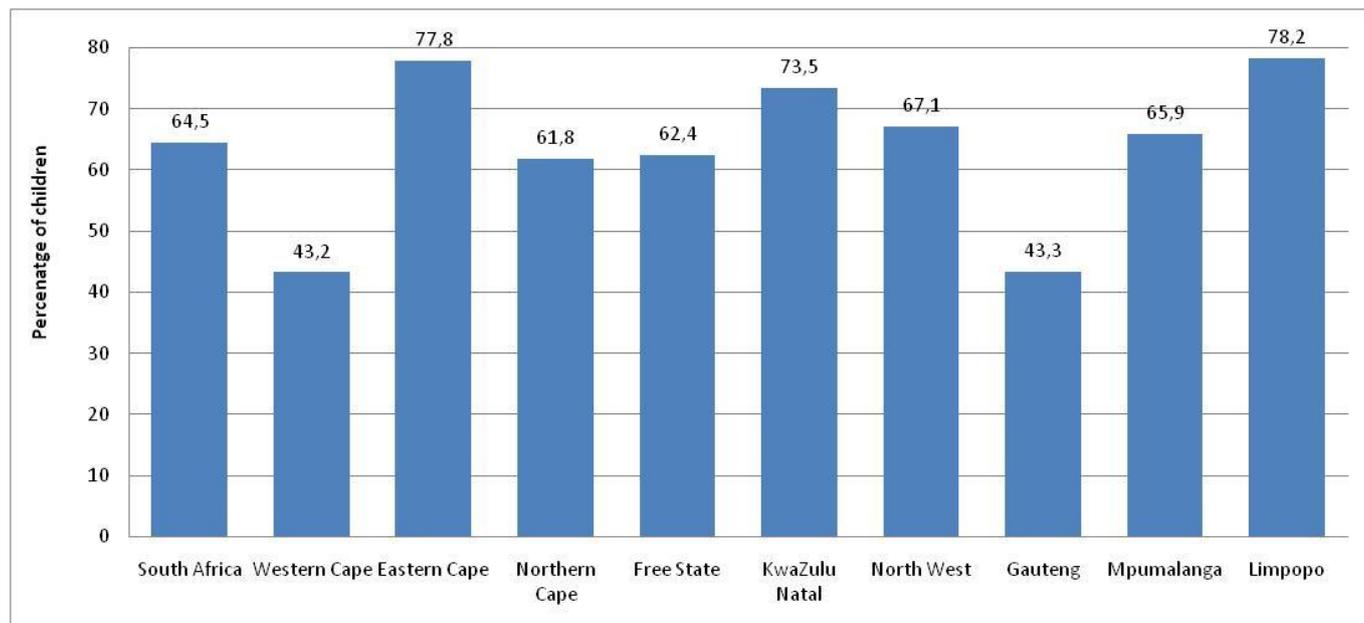
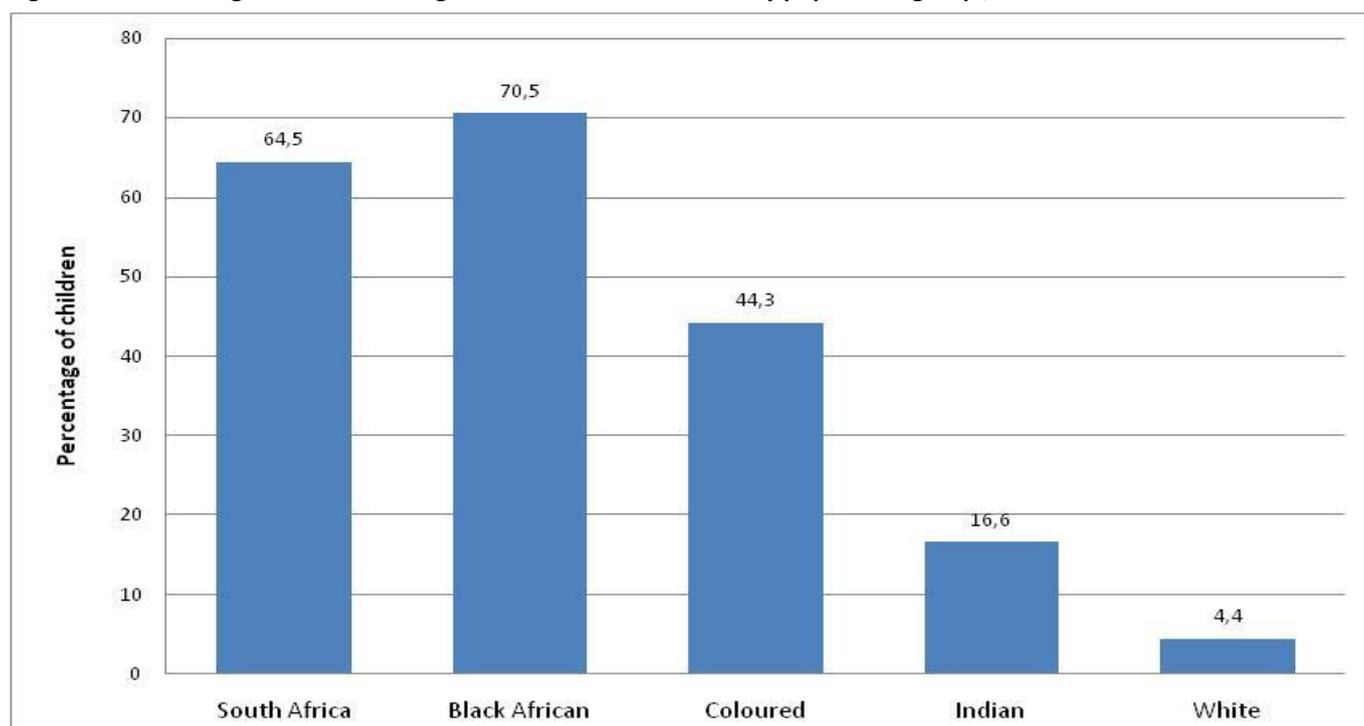


Figure 2.9 shows that black African children (70,5%) were more likely to live in low-income households than coloured (44,3%), Indian/Asian (16,6%) and white (4,4%) children.

Figure 2.9: Percentage of children living in low income households by population group , 2012



The percentage of children that resided in households in which no adults were 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.

Almost one-third (32, 4%) of South African children lived in households which did not contain a single employed member in 2012. This figure has remained relatively steady since 2002. Large provincial variations are evident. The largest percentage of children that lived in households without employed adults was observed in Eastern Cape (49,6%) and Limpopo (45,4%), while the smallest percentage of children was found in Western Cape (10%) and Gauteng (13,8%). 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 34,7% of children in Eastern Cape and 27,3% of children in Limpopo lived with neither of their biological parents. This is perhaps indicative of a practice where children are often sent to retired grandparents in these provinces.

Table 2.9: Percentage of children living in households without an employed adult by province, 2002-2012

Province	Year										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Western Cape	12,4	14,2	13,5	12,6	11,5	11,3	12,0	11,7	12,1	14,0	10,0
Eastern Cape	47,1	54,9	49,0	54,8	48,9	48,4	40,1	49,9	53,8	50,2	49,6
Northern Cape	26,5	32,2	33,0	38,8	39,5	37,1	41,4	43,1	40,6	40,0	33,8
Free State	28,3	31,8	32,3	38,3	36,0	36,2	33,7	31,1	33,0	32,6	31,4
KwaZulu-Natal	38,2	46,1	45,9	43,3	45,5	40,6	44,3	42,6	42,8	42,0	40,6
North West	35,8	37,0	45,1	40,9	41,9	40,5	41,4	40,5	35,0	35,5	35,5
Gauteng	17,1	20,1	20,5	19,5	19,5	16,4	15,0	14,9	14,9	14,6	13,8
Mpumalanga	31,3	34,1	37,0	34,9	39,5	37,7	33,6	32,9	28,6	27,6	28,8
Limpopo	48,9	58,0	54,2	54,1	56,7	56,0	55,9	52,9	49,2	47,7	45,4
South Africa	33,5	38,8	38,1	38,1	38,2	36,0	34,9	35,3	34,6	33,8	32,4

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 had access to all types of social grants increased remarkably 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 benefited from grants increased at a much faster rate than access for the population as a whole; increasing from 15% in 2003 to 61,8% by 2012. This figure is an indication of the large percentage of needy children in society as well as 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 children are currently eligible to receive these grants until their 18th birthday. 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 were consistently 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 accessed CGSs and who were living in all households containing children increased from 7,7% in 2003 to 27,1% in 2012. During the same period the percentage of children that lived in child-headed households and who received a Child Support grant increased from 1,3% to 54,3%.

Figure 2.10: Percentage of children accessing social grants compared to the total population receiving some kind of grant, 2003–2012

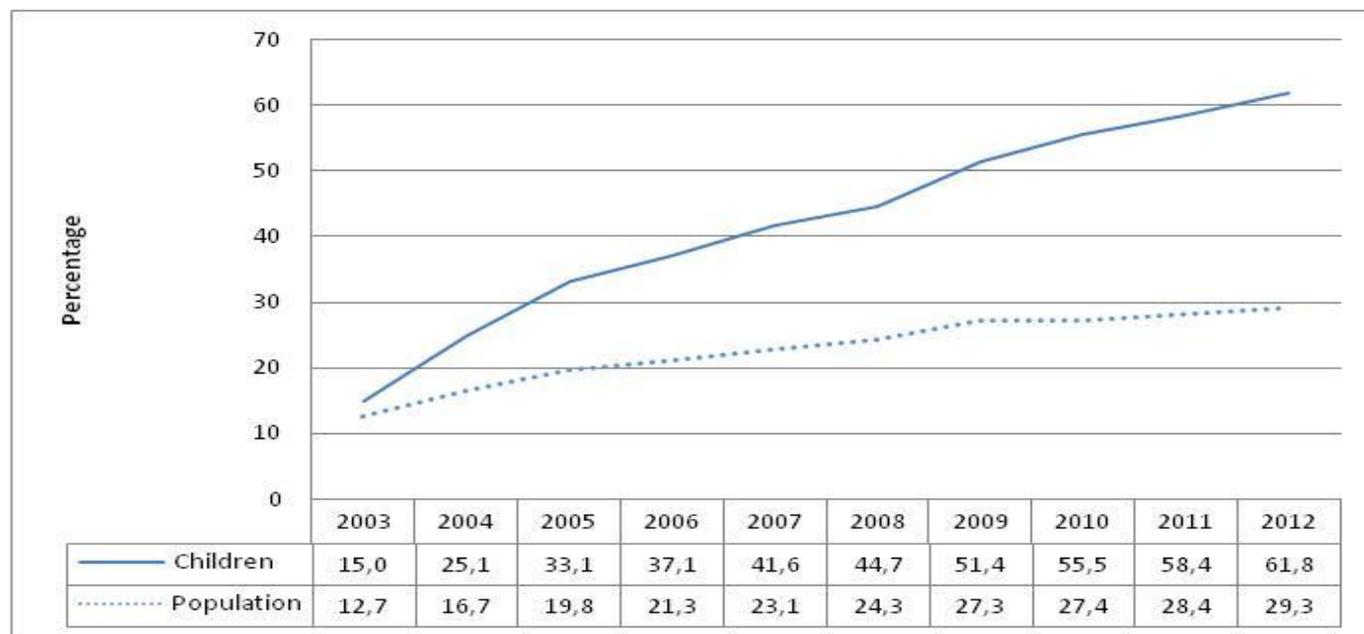
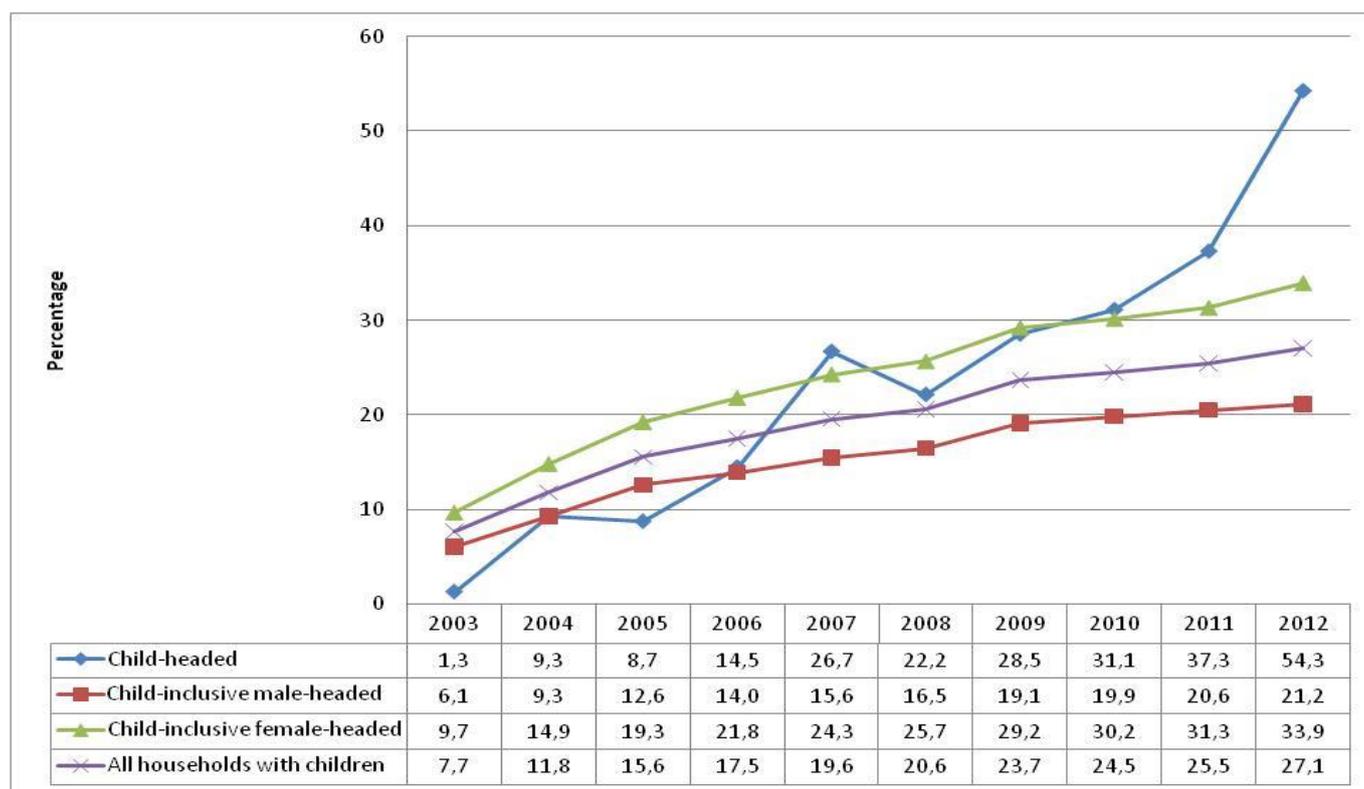


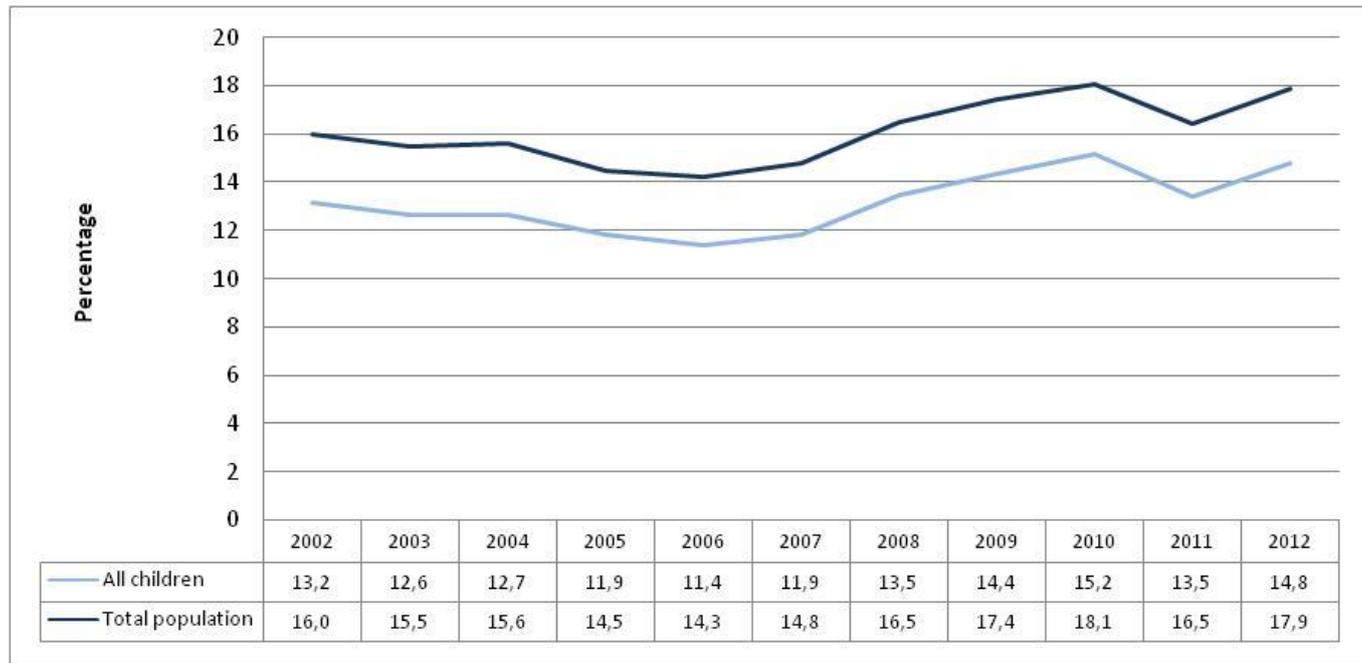
Figure 2.11: Relationship between the type of household and the percentage of children who receive a child support grant, 2003–2012



2.6 Health

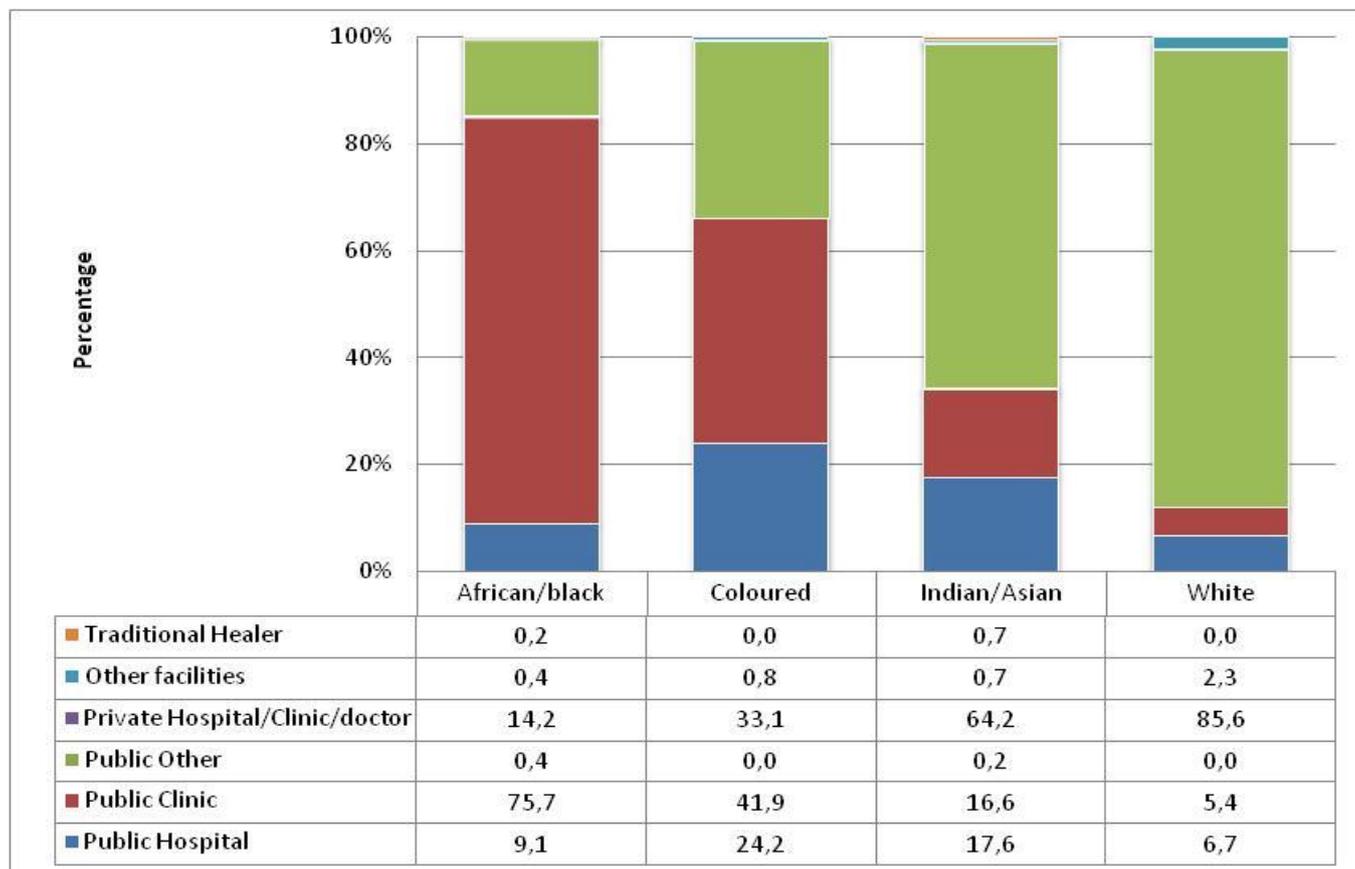
South Africa has, by most accounts, made good progress to improve the welfare of children and their families over the past decades. Health care is free for pregnant women and children below six years of age. However, the health care system mirrors the greater inequality found in the contemporary society. According to Figure 2.12 children were slightly less likely to be covered by a medical aid programme than the population as a whole. Approximately 15% of all children had access to medical aid in 2012, compared to 17,9% for the total population.

Figure 2.12: Percentage of children with access to medical aid, 2002–2012



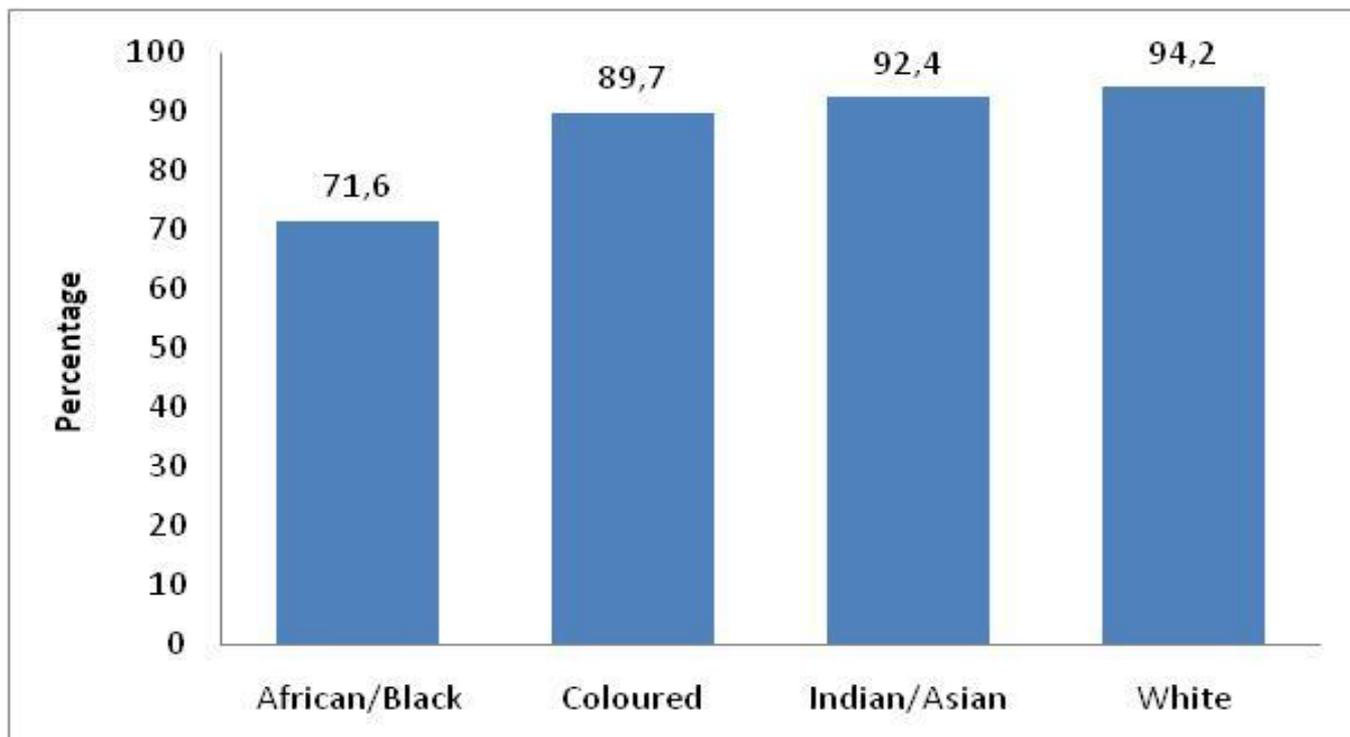
The asymmetrical access to quality health care is further illustrated by the different health care facilities used by different population groups. Figure 2.13 shows that 84,8% of black African and 66,1% of coloured child-inclusive households usually went to a public clinic or hospital first, 34,2% of Indian/Asian- and only 12,1% of white child-inclusive households did the same. In fact, 85,6% of white and 64,2% of Indian/Asian child-inclusive households indicated that they 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, 2012



The percentage of children that lived less than 30 minutes from the nearest health care facility is presented in Figure 2.14. Black African children were 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, 2012

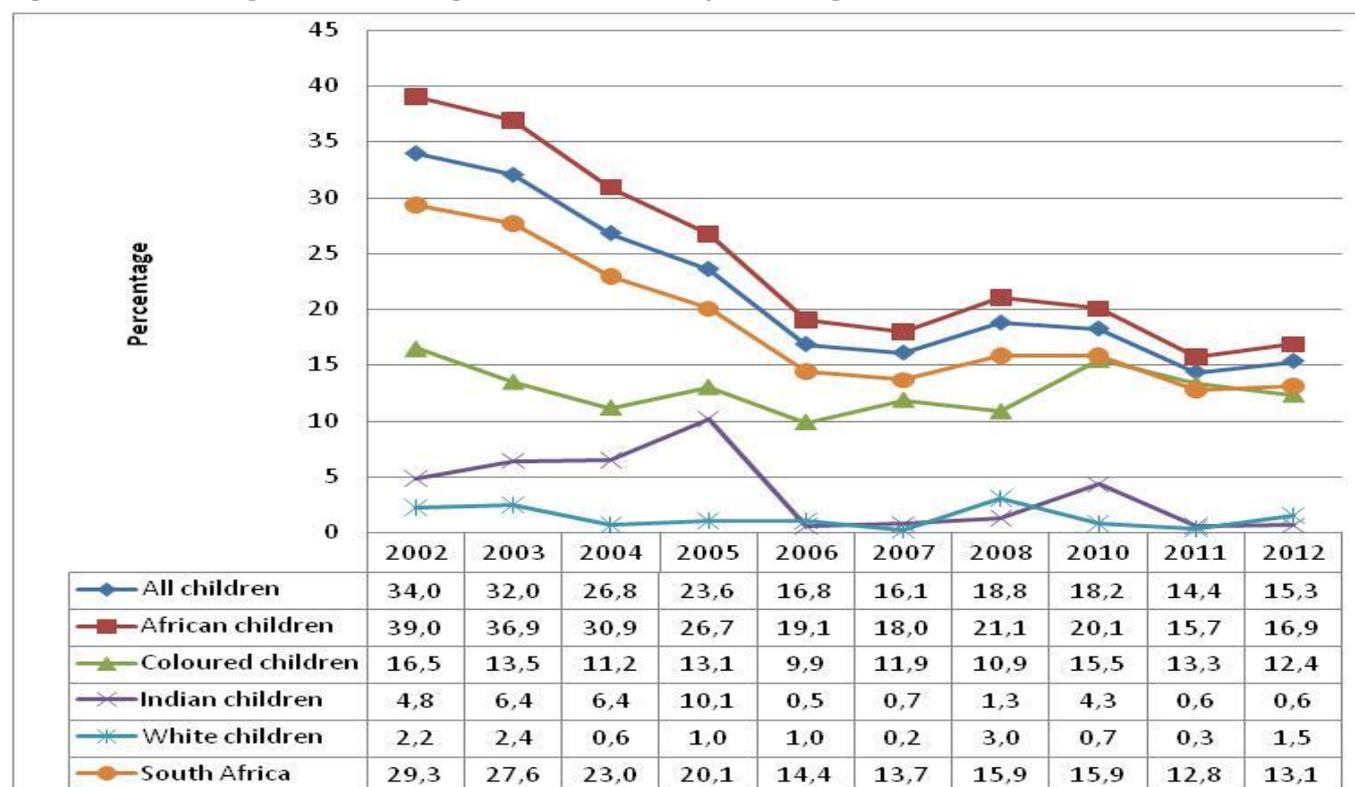


2.7 Vulnerability to hunger and access to food

Access to food is essential to human well-being and development. While vulnerability to hunger particularly affects individuals living in poverty, the effects of hunger and malnutrition on children are particularly dire. 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 remaining particularly vulnerable.

Figure 2.15 summarises the data on the percentage of various categories of children that lived in households that reported hunger during the year preceding the survey. The percentage of children that lived in households that experienced hunger generally exceeded the percentage of the general population that lived 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 that lived in food insecure households had on average declined relatively briskly until 2007. After a brief increase to 2012 levels where 15,3% of children and 13,1% of the general population lived in households that experienced hunger.

Figure 2.15: Percentage of children living in households that reported hunger, 2002–2008, 2010-2012¹



These patterns however hide significant variation between provinces. This is presented in Table 2.10. Although the percentage of children that lived in households that reported hunger had, for the most part, declined year on year between 2002 and 2012. In 2012, more than one fifth (22,5%) of children in the Eastern Cape lived in households that reported hunger, followed by North West (22,1%) and Northern Cape (20,4%). By contrast, only 3,9% of children in Limpopo resided in food insecure households in 2012.

Table 2.10: Percentage of children living in households that reported hunger by province, 2002–2008, 2010-2012

Province	Year									
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2010	2011	2012
Western Cape	20,3	20,8	17,6	21,2	13,9	17,3	14,1	17,5	13,6	17,1
Eastern Cape	52,1	46,2	40,5	34,2	20,8	24,2	22,7	24,4	18,4	22,5
Northern Cape	30,9	19,3	21,3	21,5	20,2	18,3	15,0	35,1	16,0	20,4
Free State	31,4	30,1	25,2	23,2	20,0	11,7	14,5	14,9	9,8	11,5
KwaZulu-Natal	37,3	37,8	30,1	22,9	19,3	16,2	25,1	25,5	11,9	16,9
North West	32,8	35,7	35,5	27,2	19,9	16,2	26,9	25,4	18,2	22,1
Gauteng	20,4	21,4	16,0	15,8	13,0	13,4	12,9	10,5	10,3	13,6
Mpumalanga	38,2	36,3	29,2	25,2	13,2	16,6	18,4	12,8	9,7	12,6
Limpopo	33,2	25,8	21,8	22,1	14,4	9,9	13,3	8,7	4,3	3,9
South Africa	29,3	27,6	23,0	20,1	14,4	13,7	15,9	15,9	13,1	13,1

The percentage of households that experienced hunger between 2002 and 2012 is presented in Figure 2.16. Female-headed households that contained children were most likely to report hunger. Although child-inclusive male-headed households were much less likely to report hunger, the figure shows that the difference between the reported vulnerability to hunger of child-inclusive male- and female-headed households had decreased significantly. Households without children remained less likely to report hunger than households with children.

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

Figure 2.16: Percentage of child inclusive households that reported hunger, 2002–2008, 2010–2012

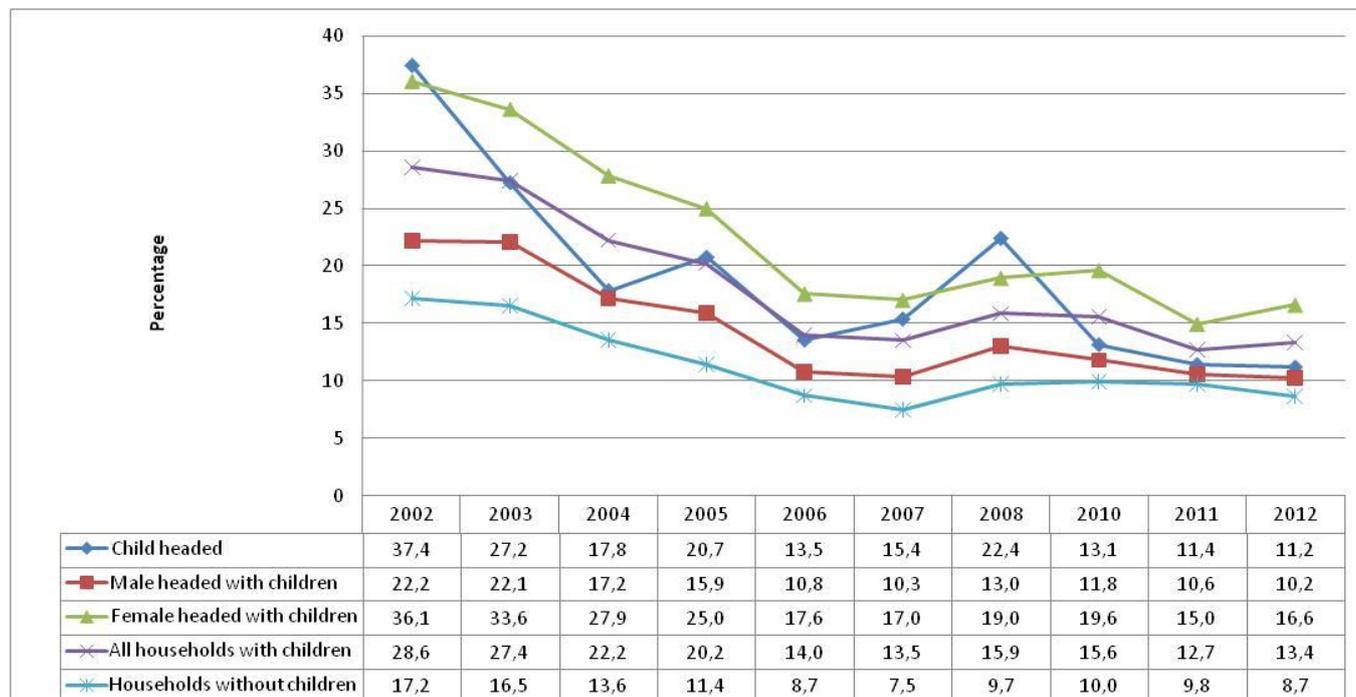
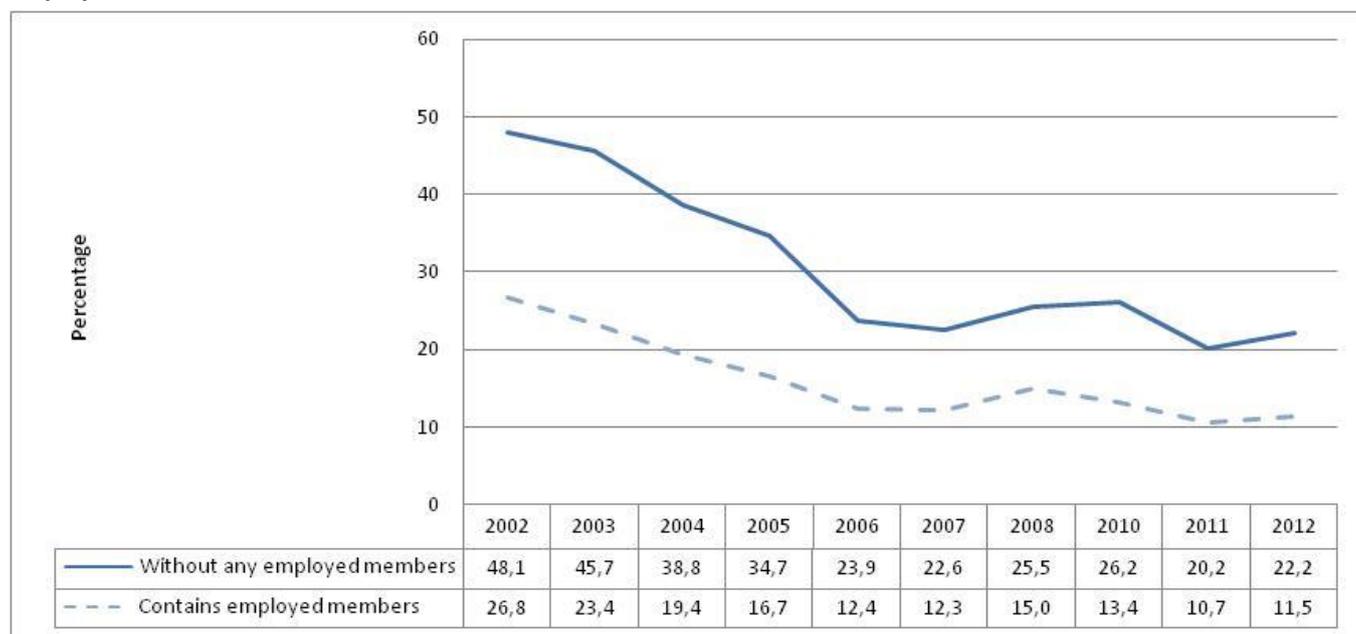


Figure 2.17 outlines the relationship between food security and poverty, presenting information on the percentages of children that reported living in households that experienced hunger according to whether the households contain any employed adults. Having an employed adult in the household could be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

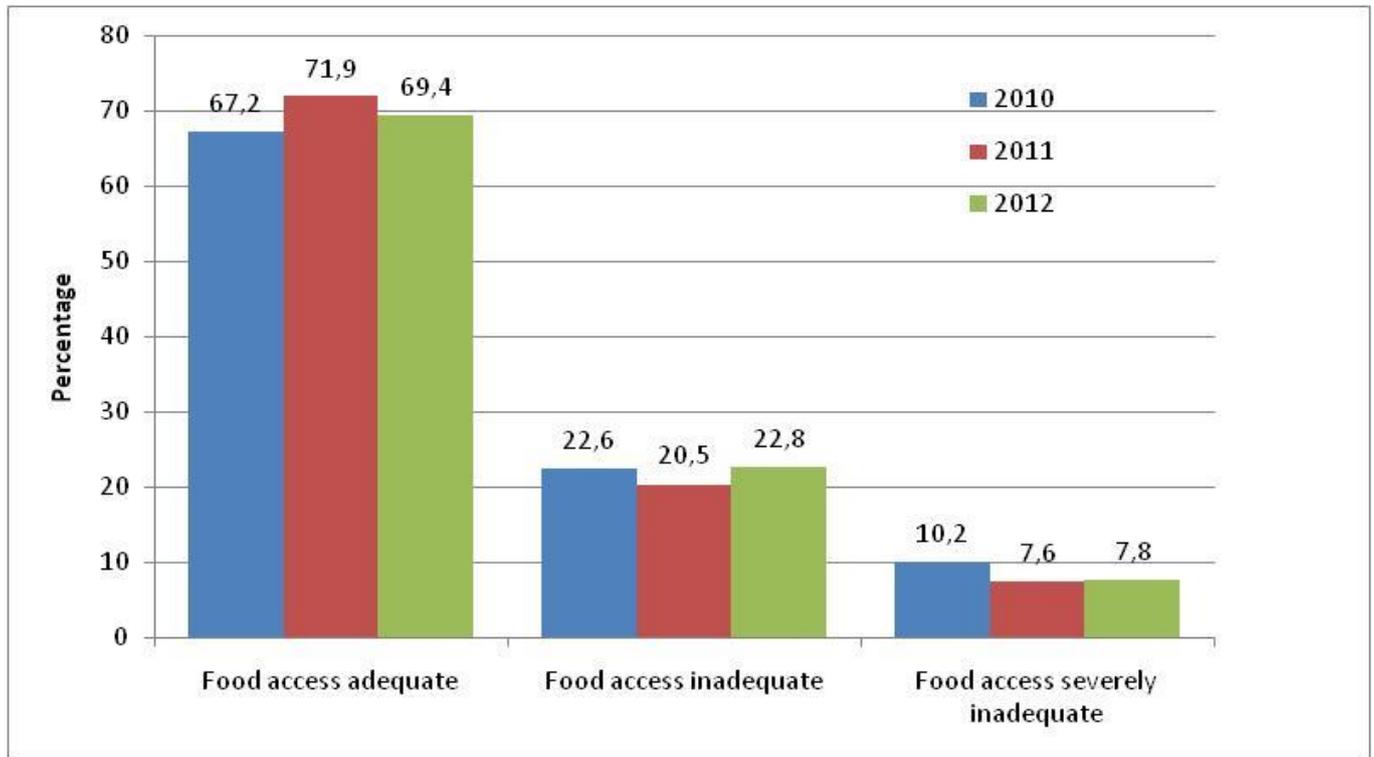
Figure 2.17: Percentage of children living in households that experienced hunger by whether the households contain employed adults, 2002–2008, 2010–2012



A battery of questions that can be used to assess more complex 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 from hunger. According to Figure 2.18, more than two-thirds (69,4%) of children lived in households that reported adequate

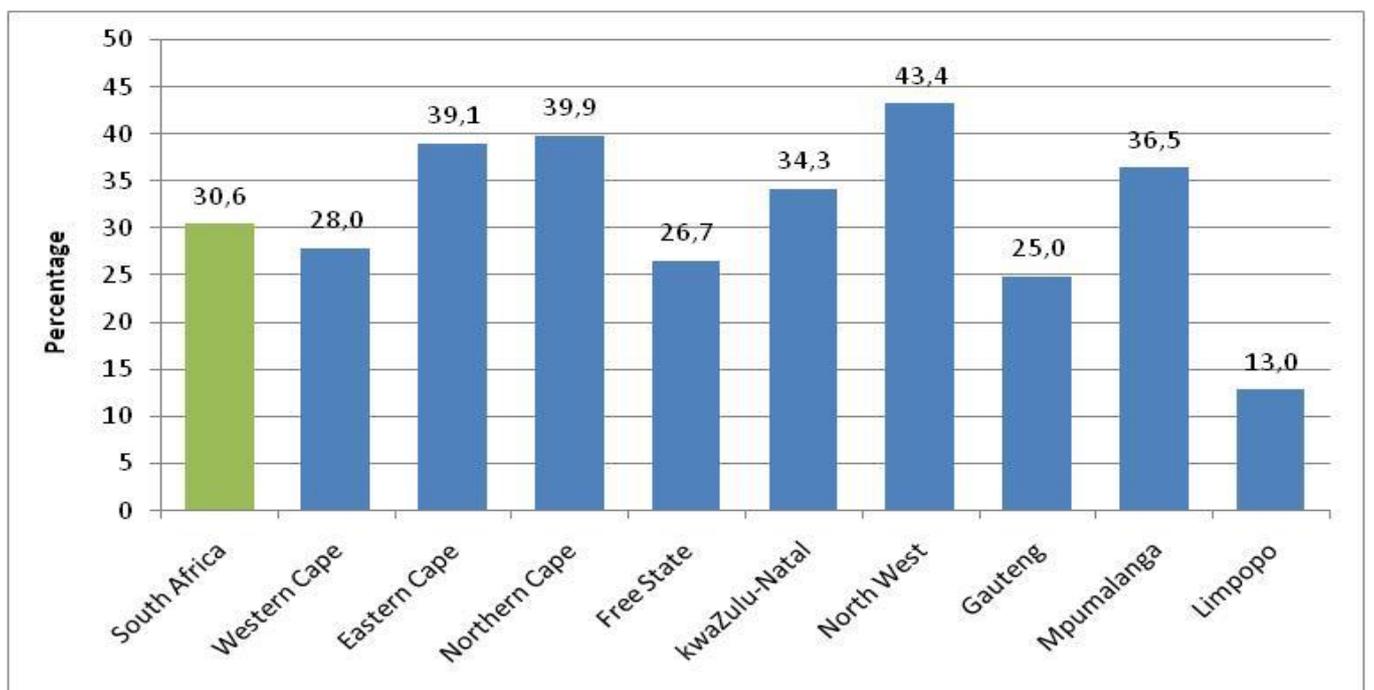
access to food in 2012 (up from 67,2% in 2010). Another 22,8% lived in households that reported inadequate access while a 7,8% lived in households that reported severely inadequate access to food. Overall, the figure points to an improvement in households' access to food between 2010 and 2012.

Figure 2.18: Percentage of children living in households by food adequacy, 2010-2012



According to Figure 2.19, about 30,6% of children that lived in South African households reported inadequate, or severely inadequate access to food during the 2012 survey. The most compromised access was reported by children in North West (43,4%), Northern Cape (39,9%), Eastern Cape (39,1%), and Mpumalanga (36,5%). Children that resided in Limpopo and Gauteng were least likely to have experienced inadequate access to food.

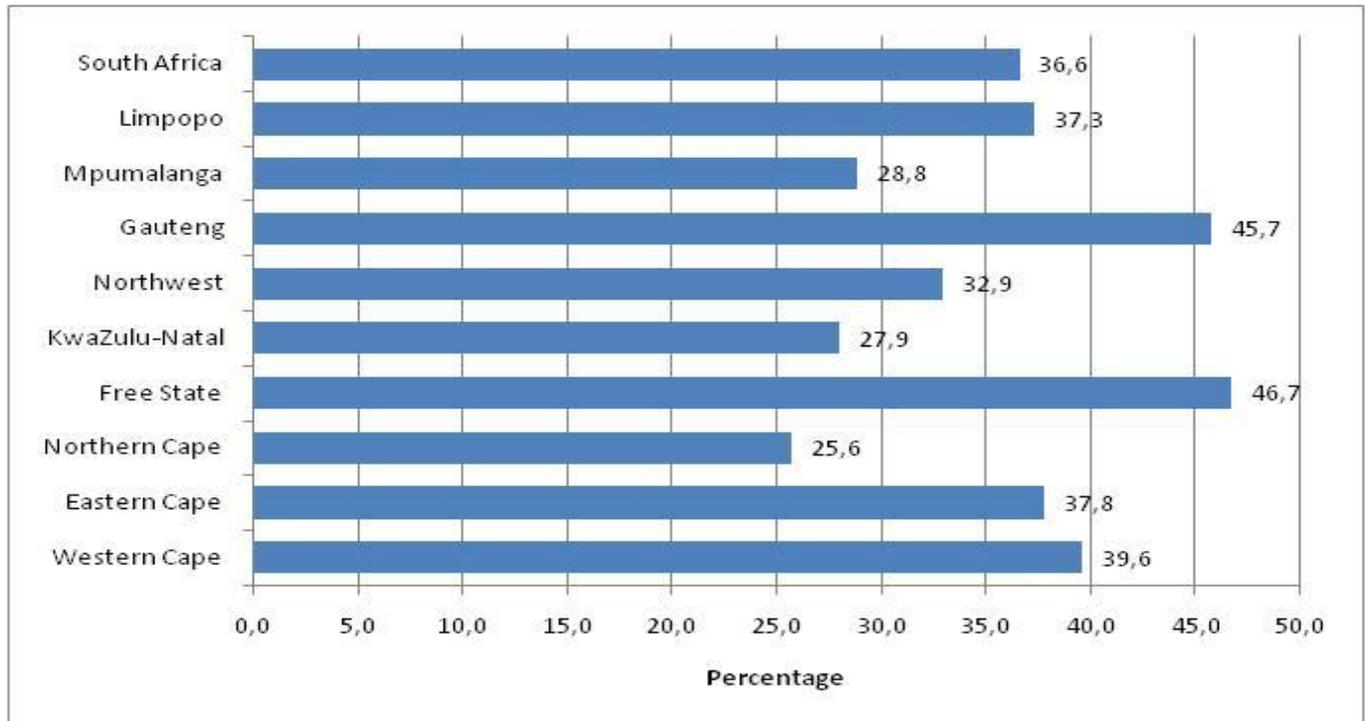
Figure 2.19: Percentage of children living in households that experienced inadequate or severely inadequate access to food by province, 2012



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 attempt to prepare children for compulsory schooling and their development toward well-functioning adults. According to Figure 2.20, more than one third (36,6%) of all children aged 0–4 years attended a day care centre, crèche, ECD centre, play group, nursery school or pre-primary school. The highest percentage was recorded in Free State (46,7%) and Gauteng (45,7%). The smallest participation was noted in KwaZulu-Natal (27,9%) and Northern Cape (25,6%).

Figure 2.20: 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, 2012



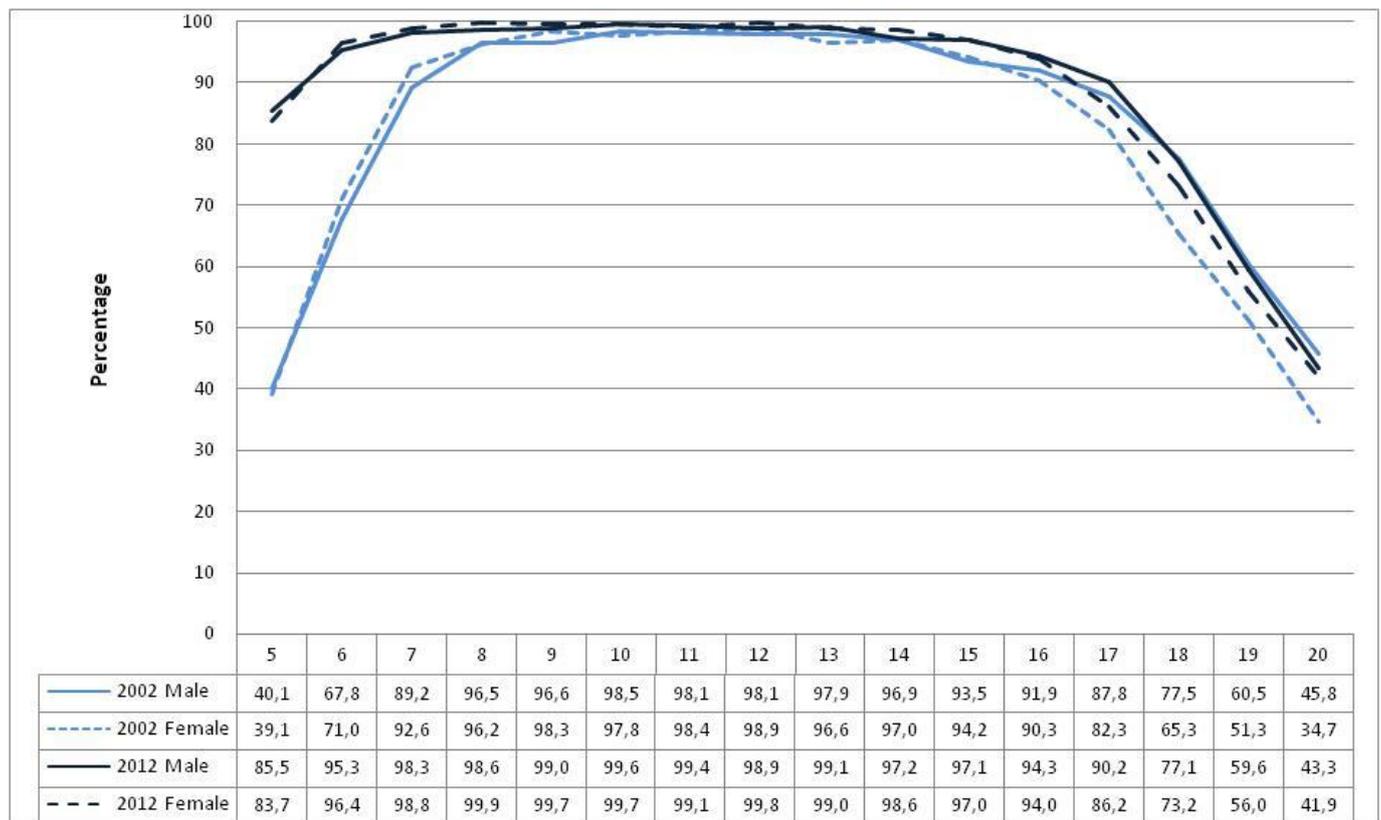
Section 29(1) (a) of the South African Constitution guarantees the right to basic education to all children and obliges the state to progressively make such education “available and accessible” (South Africa, 1996). In terms of the South African Schools Act, school attendance is compulsory for all children 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 attended any kind of educational institution remained very high between 2002 and 2012, particularly for the younger ages. Whereas more than 98% of children in the age group 8 to 14 years attended school, lower participation rates were observed for children in the older age groups. By the age of 17 years, less than 91% of males and females were still attending school.

Figure 2.21 reveals an overall improvement in attendance between 2002 and 2012, particularly for children below the age of 8 years. Although slight increases in enrolment were observed for males and females between 14 and 16 years, enrolment rates generally decreased after 16 years.

The growth in the percentage of children under the age of 7 years who were attending some kind of educational institution is evident. Between 2002 and 2011 the percentage of 5 year-olds who attended any kind of educational institution literally doubled from approximately 40% to 85%, while the percentage of 6 year-olds increased from below 69% to approximately 96%.

Figure 2.21: Attendance of an educational institution by age and sex, 2002 and 2012



According to Table 2.11 the percentage of children in the age group 7 to 13 years who had access to education increased from 96,7% in 2002 to about 99,2% in 2012. Virtually all children in this age group participated in education and it is furthermore clear that, based on the strength of a Gender Parity Index (GPI) of 1, equitable access to education was achieved for boys and girls.

Table 2.11: Percentage participation of children in the age group 7–13 year in educational institutions, by gender, 2002–2012

Gender	Year										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Male	96,4	97,0	98,0	98,1	97,9	98,0	98,2	98,8	99,0	99,0	99,0
Female	97,0	97,9	98,5	98,3	98,3	98,6	98,2	99,0	99,1	99,1	99,4
Total	96,7	97,5	98,2	98,2	98,1	98,3	98,2	98,9	99,1	99,0	99,2
GPI	1,01	1,01	1,01	1,00	1,00	1,01	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00

The percentage of children between the ages of 14 and 17 who attended an educational institution increased from 91,7% in 2002 to 94,3% in 2012. Although the figure implies that about 6% of children in this age group did not attend any institutions, it is encouraging to note that males and females in this age group were equally likely to attend an educational institution. Girls' participation in education improved from 90,9% in 2002 to 93,9% in 2012.

Table 2.12: Percentage participation of children in the age group 14–17 year in educational institutions, by gender, 2002–2012

Gender	Year (percentage)										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Male	92,6	92,7	93,0	93,9	92,5	93,6	93,1	93,0	94,0	93,9	94,7
Female	90,9	91,6	92,1	91,4	91,7	93,3	93,6	93,3	92,7	94,0	93,9
Total	91,7	92,1	92,6	92,6	92,1	93,4	93,3	93,2	93,4	93,9	94,3
GPI	0,98	0,99	0,99	0,97	0,99	1,00	1,01	1,00	0,99	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 2012 is presented in Figure 2.22. Whereas school attendance for children during the primary school ages (7–13 years) was very similar across all provinces, ranging between 98,9% in North West and 99,5% in Limpopo, much larger inter-provincial inconsistencies were noted for the age group 14–17 years. The participation percentage for this age group ranged from 90,8% in Western Cape to 98,2% in Limpopo.

Figure 2.22: Participation of children in the age groups 7–13 years and 14-17 year in educational institutions, by province, 2012

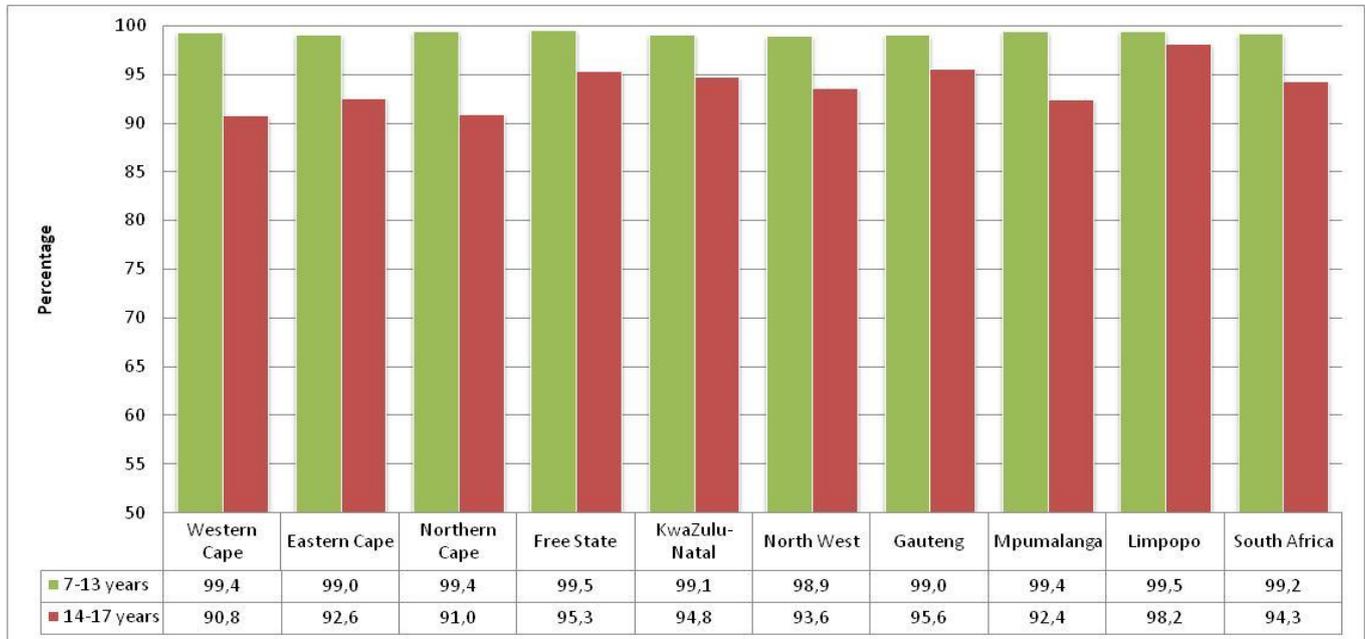
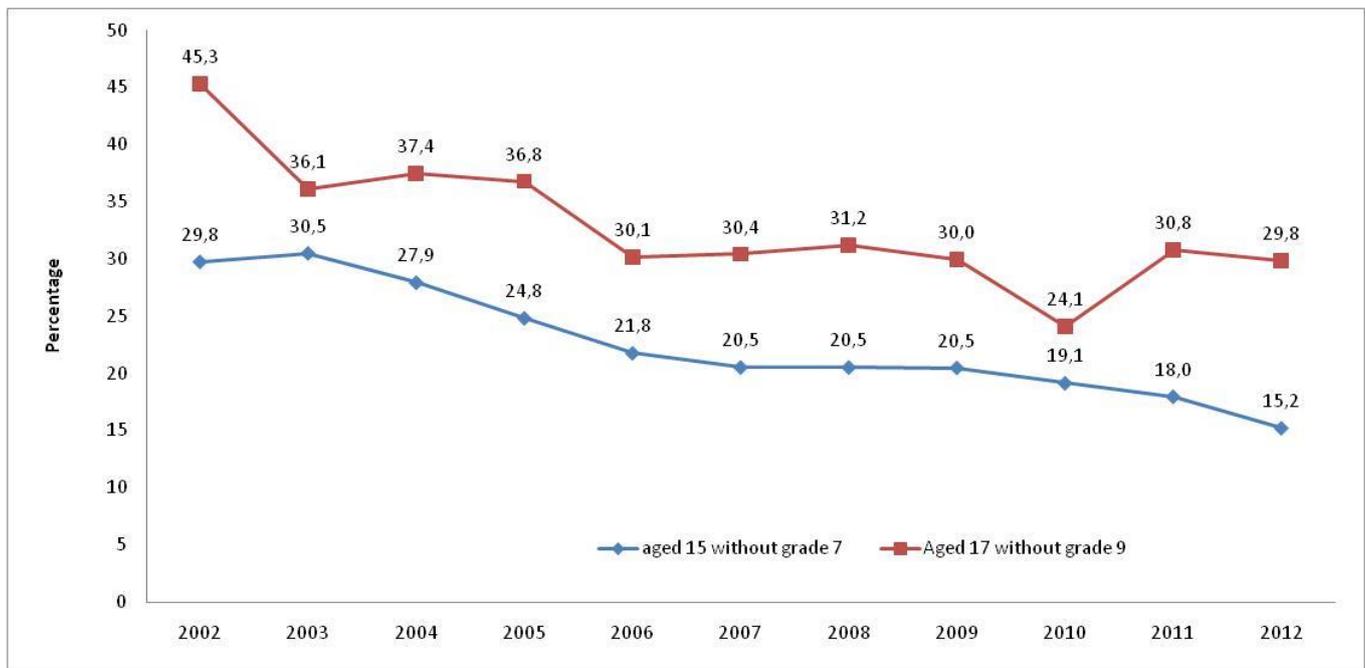


Figure 2.23: Percentage of children aged 15 years who have not completed Grade 7 compared to the percentage of children aged of 17 years who have not completed Grade 9, 2002–2012



Only using participation rates might, however, be deceptive, as a large percentage of children often fail to pass Grade 7 by the age of 15 years, while even more children are often unable to complete Grade 9 by the age of 17 years. This is indicated in Figure 2.23. 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 (15,2%) of all children aged 15 years still had to complete primary school (grade 7) by this age, the percentage had nonetheless improved from less than one-third (29,8%) in 2002. The percentage of 17 year-olds without at least a Grade 9 pass also remained high (29,8%), even though it had decreased significantly from 45,3% in 2002. The high percentage of 17-year-olds who still had 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.

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 2012, an estimated 13,9% of children in the age group 7–13 years, and 20,4% of children in the age group 14–17 years travelled more than 30 minutes to their closest school. Although the percentage of primary school aged children who lived far from schools had declined markedly in KwaZulu-Natal, more than one-fifth (21,8%) of children in the province were still affected. Almost one third (29,8%) of children between the ages of 14 and 17 years who live in KwaZulu-Natal were also not close to schools in 2012. Since there are fewer high schools in South Africa it is probably not surprising that children who attended secondary schools were more likely to live further than 30 minutes away from school. It is noticeable that the percentage of children that lived more than 30 minutes from the nearest school had 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 2012

Province	Aged 7–13		Aged 14–17	
	2002	2012	2002	2012
Western Cape	8,4	7,3	13,7	10,5
Eastern Cape	19,7	13,2	23,3	19,8
Northern Cape	8,0	10,6	12,1	14,4
Free State	16,0	9,5	18,6	15,3
KwaZulu-Natal	26,7	21,8	30,9	29,8
North West	15,5	15,4	23,4	23,0
Gauteng	14,8	11,4	17,8	13,6
Mpumalanga	17,7	12,3	18,7	20,8
Limpopo	11,2	11,7	19,9	22,0
South Africa	17,4	13,9	21,7	20,4

Figure 2.24: Mode of transport used to get to school by household income, 2012

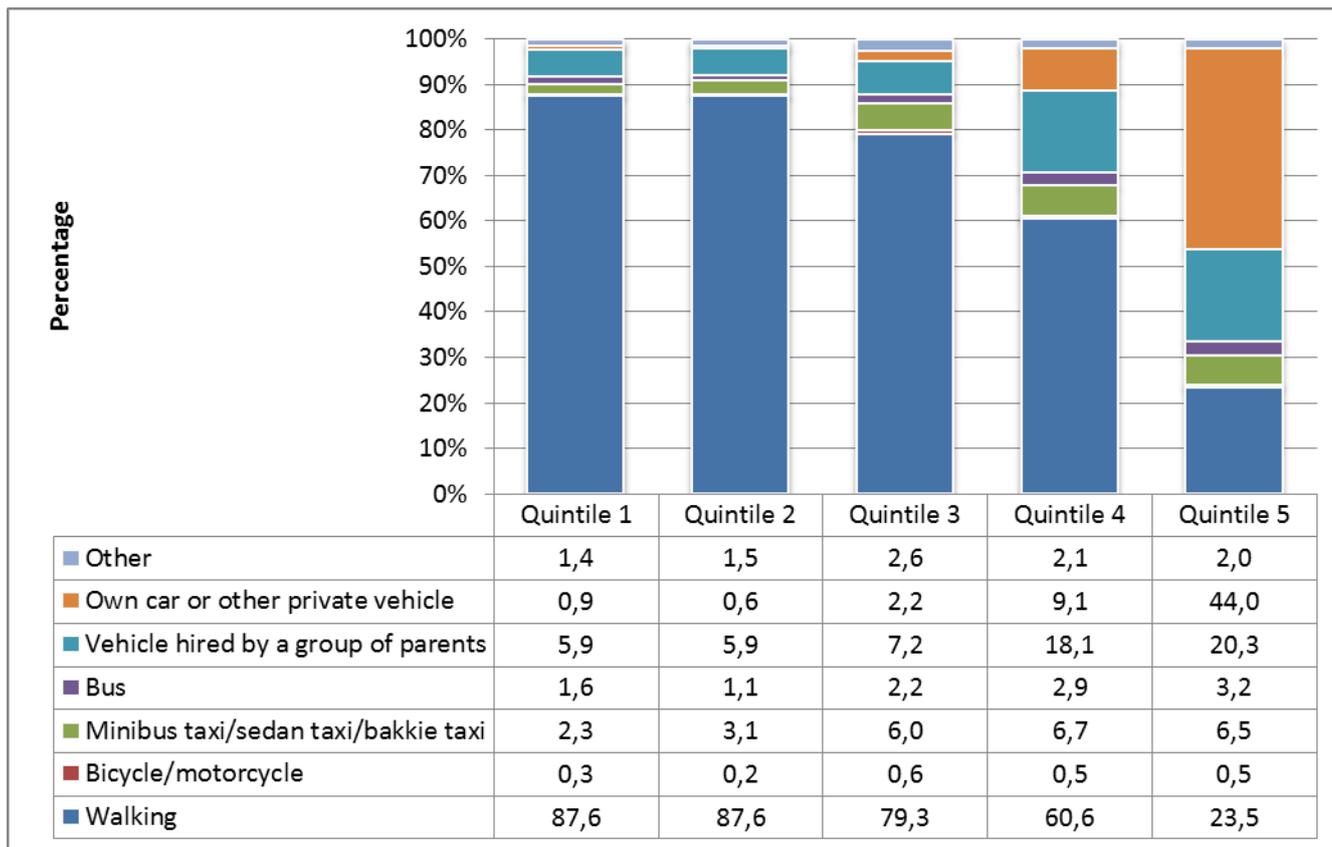


Figure 2.24 show that the means of transport that was usually used by children to get to the educational institution differed considerably by per capita household income. While children from the poorest households were likely to walk to school, less than one-quarter of children from the wealthiest households did so. Almost three-quarters of these children were transported to school by vehicle compared to 10,7% of children from the poorest households. Similar patterns are observed for children from quintile 1 and 2 households, and the percentage of children that walk decrease continuously from quintile 3 to 5.

Children's reasons for not attending any educational institution are presented in Table 2.14. Not having money for fees was cited in 18,8% of the cases, followed by "poor academic performance" at 14,1% and "education not useful" (12,7%). Disability was blamed by 9,1% of respondents.

According to Table 2.15, 17% of learners were exposed to some form of violence, punishment or verbal abuse while attending school during 2012. The vast majority of those experiences related to corporal punishment by teachers (91,5%), followed by physical abuse by other learners (8,0%) and verbal abuse by other learners (7,6%). Black African children were significantly more likely to be exposed to any form of violence/punishment or abuse than children from other population groups. There were no significant differences between genders and the abuse was most likely to occur in Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and Free State.

Table 2.14: Percentage distribution of reasons for children aged 7–17 years who are not attending any educational institution by province, 2012

Reasons for not attending any educational institution	Province									
	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZ	NW	GP	LP	MP	SA
Too old	1,5	0,0	0,0	2,7	8,8	0,0	1,8	8,7	1,8	3,4
Has completed school/education	9,2	9,7	7,5	5,6	3,4	3,1	0,0	4,7	0,0	5,1
Transport difficulties	0,0	1,0	4,6	0,0	0,8	0,0	3,2	0,0	0,0	1,0
No money for fees	13,8	21,1	6,7	27,9	18,3	16,9	23,7	25,3	3,0	18,8
Working, do not have time	9,2	1,6	2,7	2,9	2,4	0,0	1,9	0,0	0,0	2,6
Family commitments	10,1	5,7	13,9	4,0	15,3	12,3	8,3	6,0	8,7	9,6
Education not useful	36,7	20,5	2,8	13,5	3,7	7,8	3,8	7,4	0,0	12,7
Poor academic performance	8,2	10,4	39,3	13,1	9,8	22,7	18,9	13,0	23,6	14,1
Illness	1,4	11,4	5,7	0,0	12,7	3,0	4,9	2,7	23,7	7,8
Disability	6,1	11,2	1,9	10,8	6,0	10,0	7,3	8,4	30,8	9,1
Pregnancy	0,6	4,2	5,3	4,9	4,0	5,6	5,5	13,2	3,6	4,9
Other	3,1	3,4	9,9	14,7	14,8	18,7	20,8	10,6	4,9	10,9
Per cent	100,0									
Total (thousands)	41	58	9	11	61	22	41	29	15	287

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

Table 2.15: Experience of violence/punishment/abuse at school by learners attending school regardless of age, 2012

Indicator		As a percentage of all learners	As a percentage of learners that have experienced violence etc.
Experienced some violence, punishment or verbal abuse		17,0	
Type of violence experienced	Corporal punishment	15,4	91,5
	Physical violence by teacher	0,7	4,0
	Verbal abuse (insulted, teased, harassed) by teacher	0,8	4,7
	Verbal abuse (insulted, teased, harassed) by other learners	1,3	7,6
	Physical abuse (hit or punched) by another learner	1,4	8,0
	Other	0,1	0,6
Population group	Black African	18,9	
	Coloured	9,9	
	Indian/Asian	2,0	
	White	2,8	
Gender	Male	17,2	
	Female	16,8	
Province	Western Cape	10,2	
	Eastern Cape	30,0	
	Northern Cape	12,9	
	Free State	19,0	
	KwaZulu-Natal	22,3	
	North West	16,4	
	Gauteng	6,0	
	Mpumalanga	13,5	
	Limpopo	15,6	

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 during the period 2002 to 2012 is presented in Table 2.16. It is surprising to observe that more than two-thirds (71,5%) of child-headed households lived in formal houses as opposed to informal structures and other less adequate housing. This observation supports other findings 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 that lived in traditional dwellings declined from 32% in 2002 to 17,5% in 2012.

Table 2.16: Percentage of child headed households by type of dwelling, 2002–2012

Type of dwelling	Year										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Formal	63,6	70,0	72,2	63,6	66,4	69,8	63,8	71,1	63,9	69,6	71,5
Traditional	32,1	22,9	19,7	21,8	21,9	19,3	20,1	17,2	26,4	19,5	17,5
Informal	4,3	7,1	8,1	12,6	10,3	10,2	16,0	11,7	9,7	10,3	11,0
Other	0,0	0,0	0,0	2,1	1,5	0,7	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,6	0,0
Per cent	100,0										
Total (thousands)	71	70	73	75	69	84	70	59	72	76	59

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

More than three-quarters (75,8%) of children resided in formal housing in 2012, up from 70% in 2002. This is presented in Table 2.17. While the percentage of children that lived in formal dwellings increased between 2002 and 2012, the percentage that lived in informal, traditional or ‘other’ housing declined.

Table 2.17: Percentage of children living in formal, informal and traditional housing, 2002–2012

Type of dwelling	Year										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Formal	70,0	71,1	69,2	67,6	71,4	70,7	72,4	72,9	75,4	76,3	75,8
Traditional	18,3	18,0	20,4	19,4	16,7	17,0	17,6	17,7	16,2	16,1	15,1
Informal	11,2	10,5	10,1	12,5	11,4	11,5	9,6	8,9	8,2	7,5	9,0
Other	0,5	0,4	0,3	0,5	0,5	0,8	0,4	0,5	0,2	0,1	0,1
Per cent	100,0										
Total (thousands)	18 161	18 160	18 186	18 313	18 422	18 445	18 466	18 513	18 476	18 071	18 048

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. Although Table 2.18 shows that children were less likely to live in dwellings with piped water than the population in general, the percentage of children that had access to piped water improved from 56,6% in 2002 to 63,1% in 2012.

Having access to pit toilets that are fitted with ventilation pipes, or 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 improved sanitation facilities have generally improved, children were consistently less likely to live in households with flush toilets than the general population. In 2012, 70,6% of children lived in dwellings with access to improved sanitation compared to 75,2% of the individuals in the general population.

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. With the exception of 2008, access to refuse removal had been increasing relatively continuously since 2002 for both children as well as the general population.

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 that had **access to mains electricity** had been increasing steadily since 2002. Between 2002 and 2012, the percentage of children that lived in households with access to mains electricity increased from 71,4% to 85,8%. This was once again smaller than the general population's access which were measured at 87,2%.

Table 2.18: Comparison of the basic living condition indicators for children and the total population, 2002–2012

Access to service indicator	Age cohorts	Year										
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Access to water: % population living in dwellings with piped water in house or yard	0–17	56,6	56,8	57,3	58,6	60,8	61,7	62,0	60,9	62,5	64,0	63,1
	Population	63,7	64,3	64,6	65,7	67,2	68,2	68,2	67,4	68,8	70,3	69,4
Sanitation: % population living in dwellings with flush toilet with on or off site disposal	0–17	47,7	50,2	53,4	55,1	56,4	60,0	61,5	64,7	68,7	70,7	70,6
	Population	55,8	58,1	60,6	61,9	63,3	66,2	67,4	69,8	72,8	74,6	75,2
Refuse/Waste: % living in dwellings with rubbish removed by municipality	0–17	45,1	45,7	46,0	48,8	49,5	49,7	49,1	49,4	51,9	52,8	52,8
	Population	52,8	53,8	53,8	56,6	57,2	57,3	56,7	57,1	59,6	60,4	60,4
Electricity: % living in dwellings with connected to mains	0–17	71,4	73,2	76,0	76,8	77,9	80,0	79,9	80,6	83,3	84,7	85,8
	Population	75,3	77,0	79,4	80,0	80,4	81,9	82,5	83,2	85,1	86,2	87,2
Solid fuels for cooking: % population living in dwellings with wood, coal and animal dung as the energy for cooking	0–17	37,8	37,8	36,5	32,8	30,0	29,8	30,7	29,8	26,9	24,6	23,8
	Population	30,6	30,0	29,1	25,3	23,3	23,4	23,7	22,8	20,8	19,0	18,1
Telephone: % living in dwellings with landline or cellular phone in the dwelling	0–17	41,9	45,3	54,7	67,8	73,7	80,4	82,4	88,6	91,8	94,8	97,1
	Population	46,7	49,2	57,8	69,5	74,8	80,3	82,9	88,2	91,3	94,1	96,4
Internet²: % living in dwellings with access to internet	0–17				3,7				6,0	7,4	7,0	7,0
	Population				5,2				8,1	9,6	9,2	9,2

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

Many households, however, continue to use alternative sources of energy for cooking, heating and lighting, often despite being connected to the mains electricity. Although sources, such as solid fuels, are often readily available and cheaper than electricity, they generate substantial emissions of many health-damaging pollutants. Women and children bear the largest burden of health risks from these exposures. Although the percentage of children that lived in households that use **solid fuels for cooking** had declined since 2002, just below a quarter (23,8%) of all children were still potentially exposed to the resultant pollutants. Children were more likely to live in households that used solid fuels than the population in general.

Access to **telephones** is defined as the percentage of children that lived in households that had access to landlines or cell phones. The percentage of South Africans that had access to landlines or cell phones at home increased enormously over the past years, growing from 41,9% in 2002 to 97,1% in 2012. 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 had access to the **Internet** at home had similarly increased from 3,7% in 2005 (the first time the question was asked in the GHS questionnaire) to 7% in 2012. Growth took place relatively slowly and data shows that only 9,2% of all households had access to the Internet in 2012 compared to 5% in 2005.

2.10 Conclusions

Black African children comprised 84% of all children and above one fifth (21%) of them lived in KwaZulu-Natal. Just under one fifth (17,8%) of children were either maternal, paternal or double orphans. Double orphans represented 4% of the child population. Almost a quarter of all orphans lived in KwaZulu-Natal. Even though black African children constituted the largest percentage of orphans, there was 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. More than one third (34,8%) of South African children consistently lived with both their biological parents while almost one quarter (23%) lived with neither their biological parents. Of the children who lived with neither their biological parents, more than half (57,8%) still had both their parents alive, while only 14,1% 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 came home over weekends. Parents with this profile were not considered part of the household, and were not considered to live with their biological children.

Black African children were least likely to live with both their parents, while Indian children were most likely to do so. The percentage of children that lived with both parents was the highest in Western Cape (55,6%) and Gauteng (53,1%), both migrant reception provinces, and lowest in Eastern Cape (23,4%) and KwaZulu-Natal (24,5%). Although these patterns were 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 lived in extended households, while approximately 35% of children live in nuclear households. The pattern, however, varies by population group and a much larger percentage of Indian and white children lived in nuclear families than African and coloured children.

Less than one per cent (0,4%) of South African households only consisted of and were headed by individuals younger than 18 years. Even though children in child-headed households were more likely to be orphans than households in general, almost two-thirds (57,8%) of them still had both parents alive and only 14% were double orphans. Child-headed households largely consisted of boys. Male-headed households that contain children had a slightly smaller average household size than their female peers. The total dependency ratio for male-headed mixed-generation households was consistently measured at approximately one dependent for each person of working age. The burden of child dependency was highest for female-headed, mixed-generation households and lowest in male-headed, mixed-generation households. Female-headed, mixed-generation households had a total dependency ratio of approximately 1,3 dependents per adult, albeit with a slight decline since 2002.

Children are disproportionately affected by poverty. While more than half (52,7%) of all South Africans lived in households that had a low per capita income, 64,5% of children lived in such households. More than three-quarters of children living Eastern Cape (77,8%) and Limpopo (78,2%) lived in low income households. Although the percentage of poor children was much smaller in the relatively prosperous and much more urbanised provinces of Western Cape and Gauteng, poor children still comprised more than 44% of all children in each province. These provincial patterns showed a close resemblance to the distribution of children living in households where one or more adult was employed, indicating the close relationship between income poverty and employment. Child-headed households consistently listed remittances as their main source of income between 2002 and 2012. 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 benefited from grants increased at a much faster rate than access for the population as a whole, increasing from 15% in 2003 to approximately 62% by 2012. The expansion of eligibility criteria for the Child Support Grant impacted significantly on increases in grant receipts. Female-headed households with children (33,9%) and child-headed households (54,3%) were most likely to access CSGs.

A relatively unequal access to health care is highlighted by the observation that 84,8% of black Africans and 66,1% of coloured children would go to public hospitals or clinics if they needed medical attention while 85,6% of white and 64,2% of Indian children would attend private health care facilities. Approximately 28% of black African children live further than 30 minutes from the nearest health facility.

It is estimated that 15,3% of children and 13,1% of the general population lived in households that experienced hunger in 2012. Male-headed and child-inclusive households remained less likely to report hunger than female-headed households with children, but the gap between them had narrowed over time. Households without children were less likely to report hunger than households with children regardless of whether they were male or female headed. In 2012, children that experienced hunger were most likely to be found in Northern Cape, Eastern Cape and North West. The data supports the notion that children that lived in households without any employed adults were indeed much more vulnerable to hunger than children that lived in households that contained at least one employed adult. Almost one third of (30,6%) children lived in households that reported inadequate or severely inadequate access to food in 2012. The most compromised access was reported in Eastern Cape (39,1%), Northern Cape (39,9%), North West (43,4%) and Western Cape (28%) while households in Limpopo (13%) and Gauteng (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 96,7% to 99,2%, while there was an increase from 91,7 to 94,3% 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 still had to complete Grade 9 is particularly worrying as it is sure to have had a knock-on effect on the percentage of children and youth who managed 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. Almost one fifth (18,8%) of children cited financial constraints as the main reason for not attending any educational institution.

The percentage of children below the age of 8 years who attended educational institutions improved significantly between 2002 and 2012. During this period the percentage of 5 year-olds who attended any kind of educational institution doubled from approximately 40% to 85%, while the percentage of 6 year-olds increased from below 70% to 96%. This points towards some success in broadening the education base and improving children's readiness for school through ECD programmes. About 17% of learners were exposed to some form of violence, punishment or verbal abuse while attending school during 2012. Most of those cases related to corporal punishment by teachers (91,5%). Only 7,6% were related to verbal abuse by other learners and another 8,0% to physical abuse by other learners.

One of the aspects investigated by this study was whether the living conditions of children have changed between 2002 and 2012. The percentage of children living in formal housing has increased slightly from 70% in 2002 to 76% in 2012. During the same time those who lived in informal dwellings declined from 11% to 9%, while the percentage of those who lived in dwellings classified as traditional dwellings, declined slightly from 18% to 15%. Although access to water in the dwelling or yard increased, for both children as well as the general population between 2002 and 2012, the growth was tempered by slight declines in 2009. Children were consistently less likely to live in households with flush toilets, refuse removal and electricity than the general population. The percentage of children that lived in households with access to mains electricity increased from 71% in 2002 to approximately 86% in 2012. Children's access to the Internet at home increased from 3,7% in 2005 (the first time the question was asked in the GHS questionnaire) to 7% in 2012.

2.11 Recommendations

- The study found that large percentages of especially black African children did 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.
- 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

3.1 Introduction

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 friction (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 19,1 million (Statistics South Africa, 2012). 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

In 2012, individuals in the age group 15-34 comprised 37% of the total population and was estimated to 19,1 million (Statistics South Africa, 2012) .Table 3.1 indicates the percentage distribution of youth by population group and province. Black African youth constituted 82,9% of South Africa’s youth population and comprised the majority of youth in all provinces except for Western Cape, where about half (52,0%) of the youth were coloured.

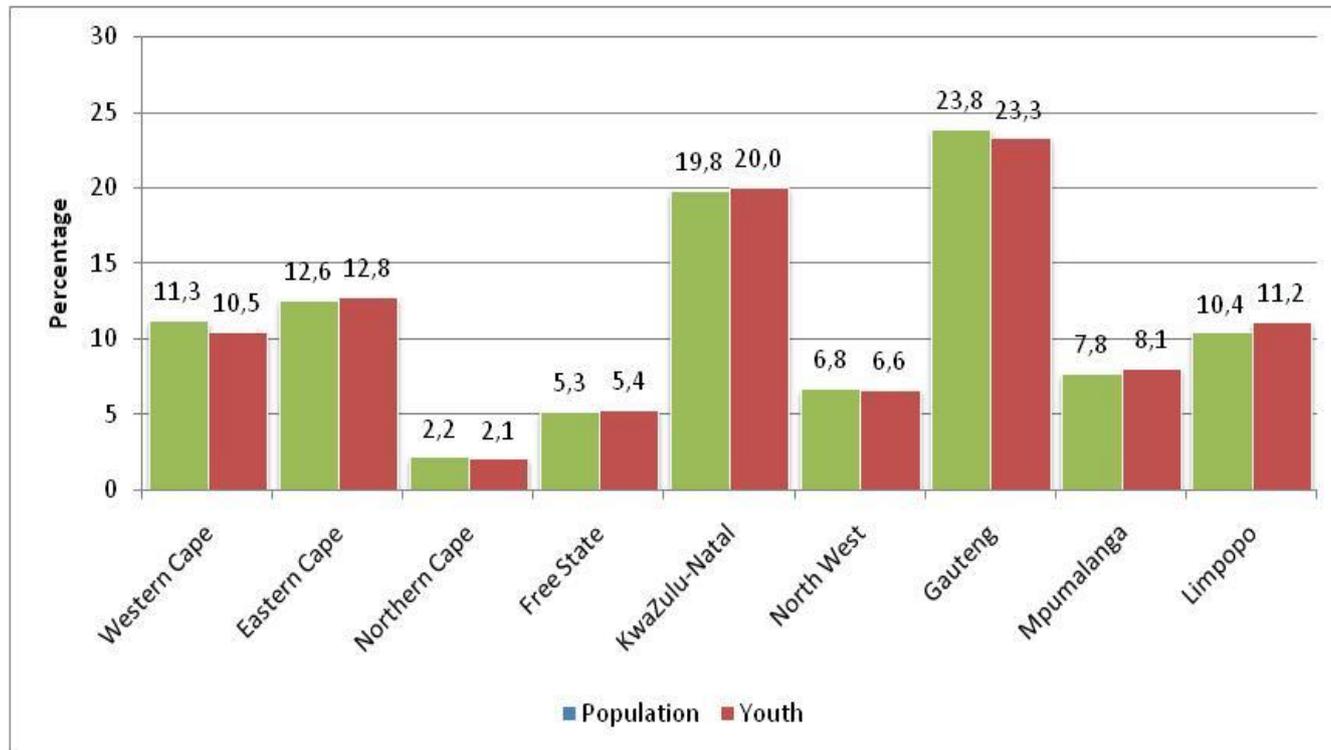
Table 3.1: Percentage distribution of youth (15-34) by population group and province, 2012

Province	Population group				Percent	Total (thousands)
	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White		
Western Cape	35,1	52,0	0,9	12,0	100,0	2 012
Eastern Cape	89,4	6,9	0,5	3,2	100,0	2 455
Northern Cape	55,9	39,4	0,2	4,5	100,0	400
Free State	91,6	1,6	0,3	6,6	100,0	1 023
KwaZulu-Natal	88,5	1,5	8,0	2,0	100,0	3 835
North West	95,4	1,2	0,2	3,1	100,0	1 270
Gauteng	81,8	2,8	2,1	13,3	100,0	4 451
Mpumalanga	94,5	0,6	0,7	4,2	100,0	1 551
Limpopo	97,7	0,3	0,2	1,7	100,0	2 139
South Africa	82,9	8,4	2,4	6,4	100,0	19 140

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 lived in the two most populous provinces, namely Gauteng (23,3%) and KwaZulu-Natal (20%) while the smallest percentage (2,0%) was 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, 2012



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.

It is clear from Table 3.2 that only 5,6% of households were headed by youth aged 15 to 24 years of age in 2012. This figure has remained relatively even since 2002. The largest percentages of households headed by youth in this age group were consistently found in Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Eastern Cape and Free State.

More than a fifth (21,1%) of South African households were headed by youth in the older age category (25–34 years) in 2012, down from 23,1% in 2002. While similar percentages of households were headed by older teens across most provinces, the largest percentage was noticed in Gauteng (23%) and the lowest in Eastern Cape (18,4%).

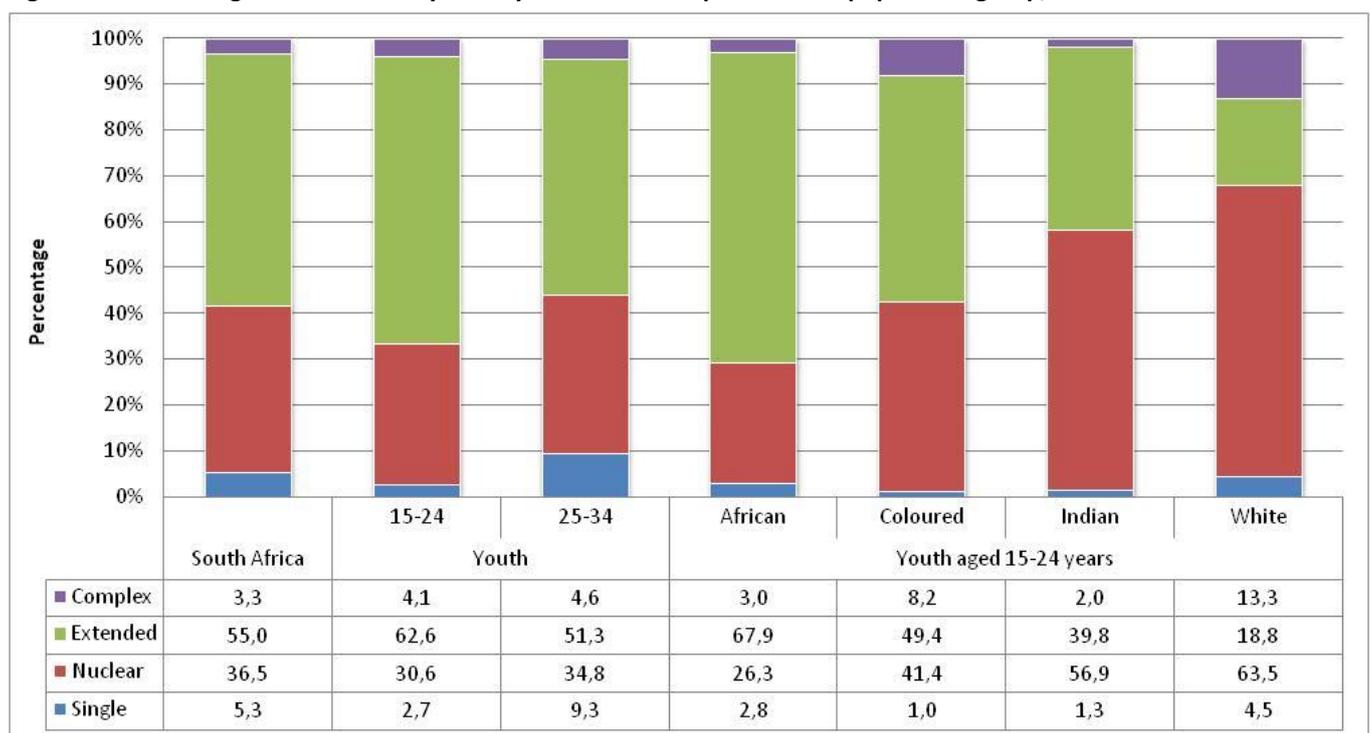
Households can be categorised according to a number of typologies. One such typology (Amoateng, Heaton and Kalule-Sabiti, 2007) categorises households into single-person, nuclear, extended and complex households. Nuclear households are defined as 'households consisting of household heads, their spouses 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

Table 3.2: Percentage of households headed by youth aged 15–24 and 25–34, by province, 2002–2012

Province	Year										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
15-24 years											
Western Cape	6,0	5,0	4,2	3,5	4,1	5,2	5,2	4,3	4,3	3,9	3,5
Eastern Cape	8,0	8,2	6,9	7,6	8,6	7,7	7,1	5,5	6,8	7,1	6,3
Northern Cape	4,0	4,9	4,6	5,7	4,8	4,6	4,2	5,3	5,5	4,2	4,4
Free State	7,6	6,9	7,6	8,8	8,6	8,1	7,2	6,7	7,4	7,0	7,3
KwaZulu-Natal	6,3	6,9	6,4	7,4	7,4	6,9	5,8	5,1	6,3	6,0	5,1
North West	7,0	5,6	7,4	7,5	6,1	7,5	6,1	5,4	6,2	6,4	6,4
Gauteng	4,9	5,6	4,7	5,5	5,8	6,2	5,9	5,1	5,7	4,9	4,1
Mpumalanga	6,2	8,3	7,8	8,4	8,6	8,7	7,4	7,7	8,8	7,6	7,2
Limpopo	9,9	12,0	11,5	11,1	10,4	11,0	11,1	10,2	11,1	10,9	9,6
South Africa	6,6	7,0	6,5	7,0	7,1	7,2	6,6	5,9	6,6	6,2	5,6
25-34 years											
Western Cape	23,2	23,8	24,1	24,2	22,9	21,3	20,6	21,0	20,6	20,6	20,6
Eastern Cape	16,5	16,3	17,7	17,0	15,9	16,6	17,4	19,3	17,9	17,6	18,4
Northern Cape	22,1	21,0	20,9	19,7	20,1	19,9	20,2	18,7	18,3	19,4	19,1
Free State	22,5	23,0	22,1	20,4	20,3	20,3	21,0	21,0	20,1	20,2	19,5
KwaZulu-Natal	20,9	20,3	20,8	19,8	19,7	20,0	20,9	21,4	19,9	20,1	20,9
North West	20,8	22,2	20,2	20,3	21,7	20,2	21,5	22,2	21,5	21,3	21,3
Gauteng	29,4	28,2	28,3	26,8	25,8	24,4	24,0	24,0	22,8	23,0	23,2
Mpumalanga	25,7	23,6	24,0	23,1	22,6	22,2	23,1	22,4	20,8	21,8	21,9
Limpopo	20,1	18,5	18,7	19,2	19,7	18,8	18,5	19,2	18,2	17,8	18,9
South Africa	23,1	22,6	22,8	22,0	21,6	21,0	21,3	21,7	20,5	20,7	21,1

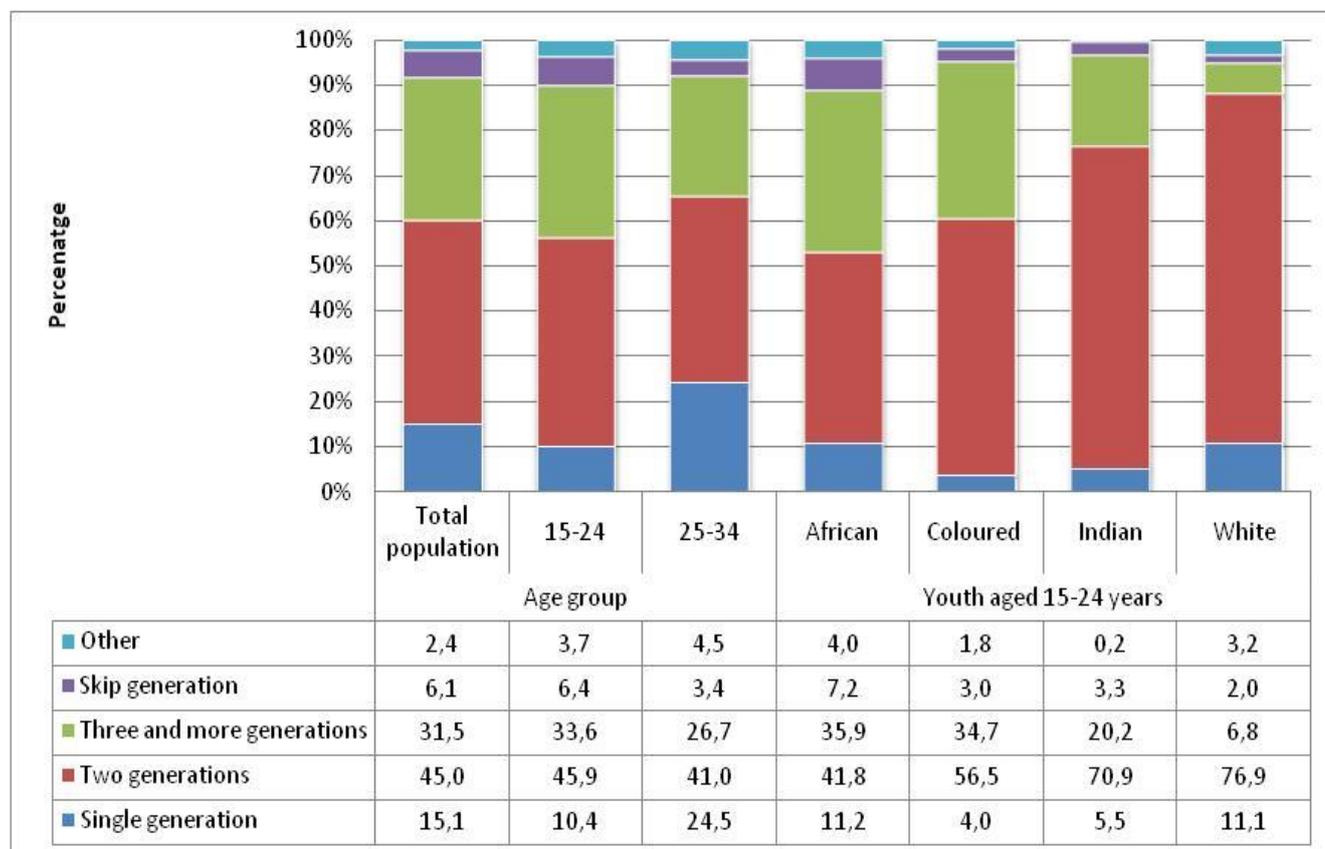
The distribution of youth in the age categories 15–24 and 25–34 is presented in Figure 3.2. Whereas almost two-thirds (62,6%) of the youth aged 15 to 24 years lived in extended households, slightly more than half (51,3%) of older youth lived in these households. Older youth were much more likely than 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 were most likely to live in extended households while Indian/Asian and white youths were much more likely to live in nuclear households.

Figure 3.2: Percentage distribution of youth by household composition and population group, 2012



The distribution of youth across intergenerational household types is presented in Figure 3.3. More than three-quarters (79,5%) of youth aged 15–24 and two-thirds (67,7%) of youth aged 25–34 lived in either double or triple-generation households. Youth in the age group 15 to 24 were more likely to still live with probably 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 had perhaps settled down to start their own families. This is confirmed by the high child dependency ratio which is outlined in Table 3.3. More than seven per cent (7,2%) of black African youths aged 15 to 24 lived in skip-generation households with their grandparents. Approximately one third (41,8%) of black African youth lived in double-generation households compared to 56,5% of coloured, 70,9% of Indian and 76,9% of white youth. Compared to youth from other population groups, white youth were most likely to live in households that contained other family members and non-relatives.

Figure 3.3: Percentage distribution of youth across inter-generational household types, by age group and population group, 2012



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 were more likely to consist of a single person than households headed by older persons. By contrast, these households were less likely to be nuclear, that is, consisting of spouses and/or children. Households headed by White youths aged 15–24 were 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, were 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 did not generally contain grandparents, and that households headed by younger youth (aged 15–24) were less likely than their older youth peers to have lived in dual-generation households. Older youths were probably more likely to live with their own children. White household heads aged 15–24 were least likely to live in dual-generation households and Black Africans were 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, 2012

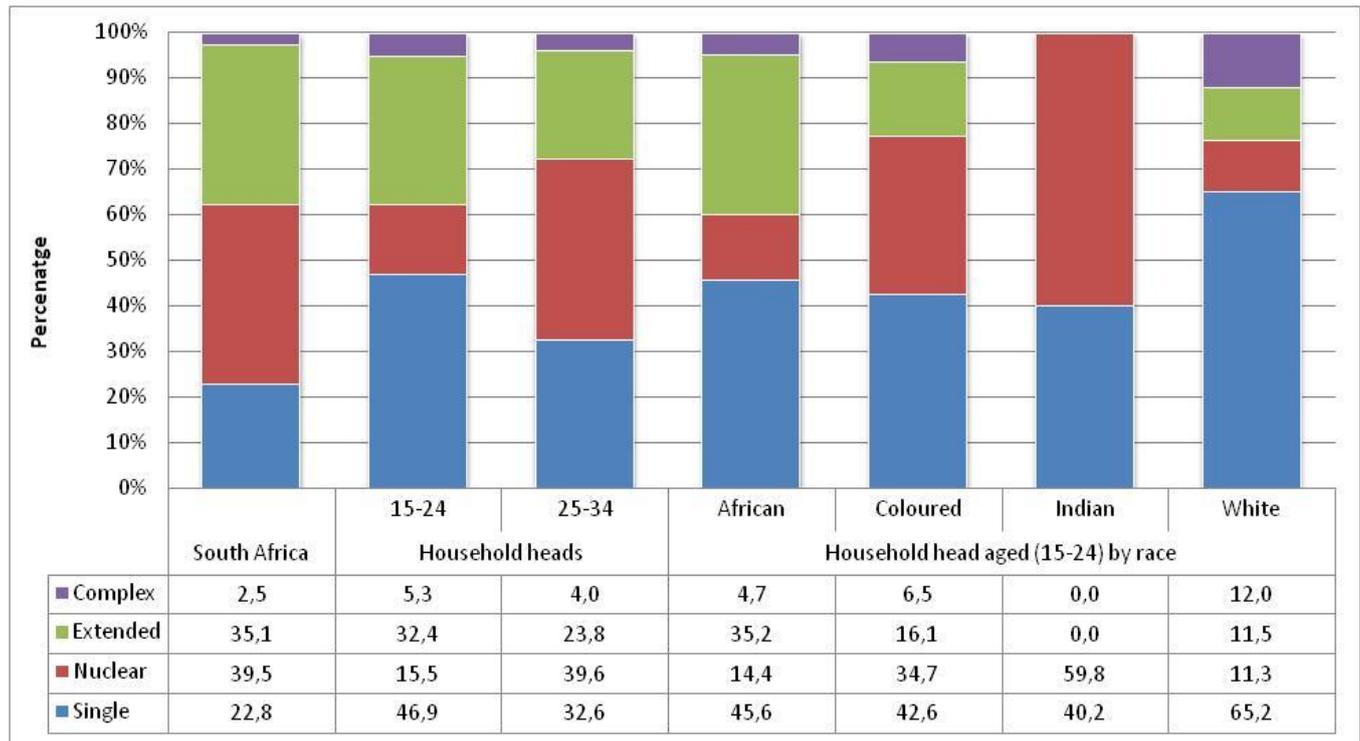
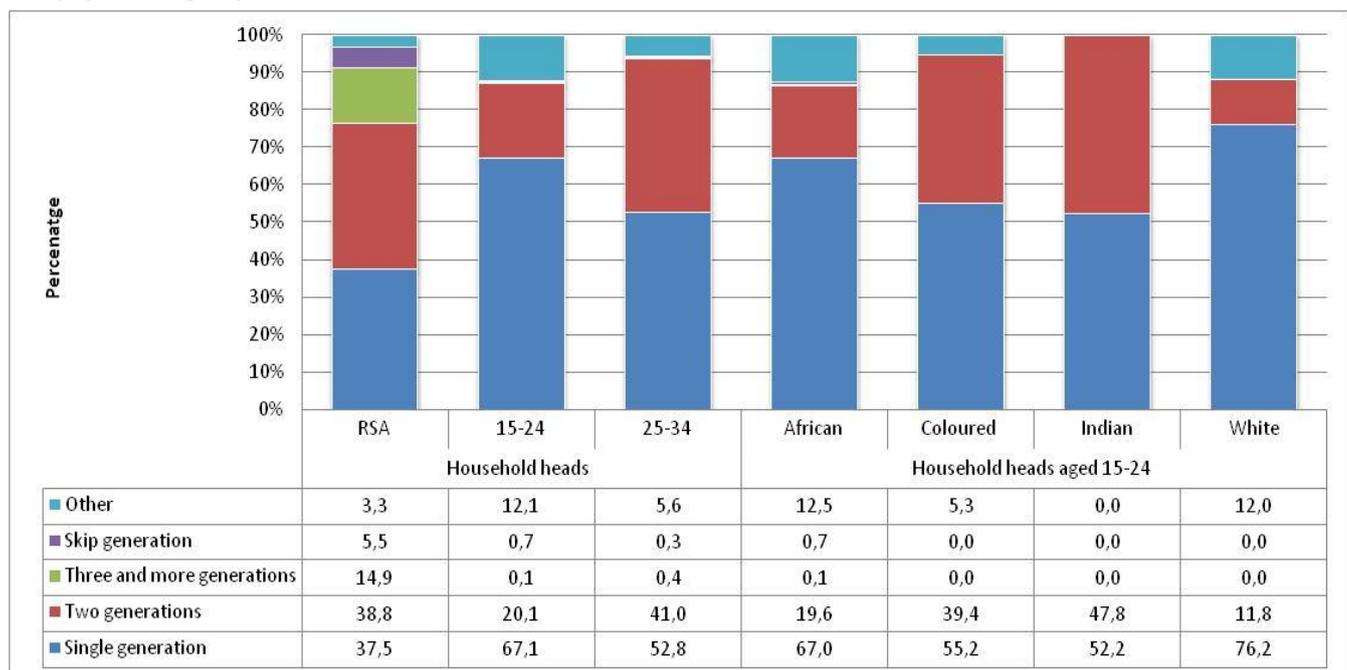


Figure 3.5: Percentage distribution of youth headed households across inter-generational household types, by age group and population group, 2012



Some general characteristics of youth-headed households are presented in Table 3.3. The **average size** of households in South Africa generally declined between 2002 and 2012. By 2012, households headed by youths aged 15–24 years had a smaller mean size (2,0) than households headed by older youth (2,6) or all households (3,4). This can be explained by the higher percentage of single households that was 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 remained relatively constant between 2002 and 2012 at about 0,8. Total dependency ratios were lower for both categories of youth-

headed households, particularly for households headed by younger youth (0,49). 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. In 2012, the ratio for households headed by older youth (25–34) was 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 had a slightly smaller child dependency ratio than households as a whole. While being very similar, the ratio was slightly higher for households headed by older youth (0,52) than for households headed by younger youth (0,49).

The **youth proportion** expresses the proportion of individuals between the ages of 15 and 34 of the total household size. While this proportion was calculated at around 0,37 for South African households in general, the proportion was much larger for households headed by youth aged 15–24 (0,76) and slightly less for households headed by older youth (0,67).

Table 3.3: Youth headed households by household size, sex of the head, and dependency ratios, 2002–2012

Age	Indicator	Year										
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Mean household size												
15–24	Average	2,1	2,0	2,0	1,9	2,0	1,9	2,1	2,0	2,0	2,0	2,0
25–34		2,8	2,6	2,6	2,7	2,6	2,5	2,7	2,6	2,6	2,6	2,6
15–34		2,6	2,5	2,4	2,5	2,4	2,3	2,6	2,5	2,5	2,5	2,5
South Africa		3,7	3,0	2,8	3,5	3,2	3,4	3,6	3,5	3,5	3,5	3,4
Total dependency ratio												
15–24	Average ratio	0,64	0,57	0,62	0,53	0,54	0,51	0,53	0,52	0,47	0,49	0,49
25–34		0,62	0,58	0,58	0,59	0,57	0,53	0,56	0,55	0,57	0,57	0,52
15–34		0,62	0,58	0,59	0,58	0,56	0,52	0,56	0,54	0,55	0,55	0,52
South Africa		0,84	0,81	0,80	0,80	0,77	0,78	0,79	0,78	0,79	0,77	0,75
Old-age dependency ratio												
15–24	Average ratio	0,01	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,01	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
25–34		0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,00	0,00
15–34		0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,00	0,01	0,00	0,00
South Africa		0,13	0,14									
Child dependency ratio												
15–24	Average ratio	0,64	0,57	0,62	0,53	0,54	0,50	0,53	0,52	0,47	0,48	0,49
25–34		0,61	0,57	0,58	0,58	0,56	0,52	0,56	0,55	0,57	0,56	0,52
15–34		0,61	0,57	0,58	0,57	0,56	0,52	0,55	0,54	0,55	0,55	0,51
South Africa		0,72	0,68	0,67	0,67	0,65	0,65	0,66	0,65	0,65	0,63	0,62
Youth proportion												
15–24	Average ratio	0,71	0,73	0,73	0,76	0,76	0,76	0,75	0,76	0,78	0,77	0,76
25–34		0,63	0,64	0,65	0,64	0,65	0,66	0,65	0,65	0,65	0,65	0,67
15–34		0,65	0,66	0,66	0,66	0,67	0,68	0,67	0,67	0,67	0,67	0,68
South Africa		0,38	0,38	0,37	0,37	0,38	0,37	0,38	0,37	0,37	0,37	0,37

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 2012 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 71,9% of income for

households headed by older youths was derived from salaries and wages, only 43,7% of households headed by younger youth predominantly relied upon this source. Inversely, 39,8% of households headed by youth aged 15–24 relied mainly upon remittances compared to 9,0% for households headed by older youth.

Table 3.4: Percentage distribution of main sources of income for youth-headed households, 2002–2012

Income source	Year										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Youth headed (15-24)											
Salaries and/or wages	39,1	42,1	38,3	40,8	44,4	45,8	48,0	40,8	46,8	40,5	43,7
Remittances	48,4	47,2	49,6	46,2	41,6	37,6	36,3	44,4	41,7	47,0	39,8
Pensions and grants	1,2	1,6	2,0	4,6	5,1	4,2	6,3	7,1	6,6	7,1	8,3
Sales of farm products	0,3	0,4	0,3	0,2	1,1	0,5	0,2	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,1
Other non-farm income	5,3	2,1	5,5	4,1	2,4	4,7	2,2	6,1	3,3	3,5	6,9
No income	5,7	6,7	4,4	4,1	5,4	7,3	7,1	1,6	1,6	1,9	1,3
Per cent	100,0										
Total (thousands)	708	774	739	820	856	900	852	779	910	879	814
Youth headed (25-34)											
Salaries and/or wages	71,2	70,2	71,0	70,5	73,0	75,5	75,22	70,8	70,7	70,8	71,9
Remittances	15,8	17,4	16,8	13,4	12,0	10,4	11	11,8	11,1	10,5	9,0
Pensions and grants	3,1	3,6	5,1	8,3	8,3	7,5	8,68	9,1	9,5	9,7	8,9
Sales of farm products	0,6	0,5	0,8	0,8	0,8	0,6	0,49	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Other non-farm income	5,0	4,1	4,4	4,3	2,4	2,9	1,34	7,4	7,7	7,8	8,9
No income	4,3	4,2	2,1	2,8	3,5	3,1	3,27	0,9	1,1	1,2	1,2
Per cent	100,0										
Total (thousands)	2 484	2 505	2 601	2 589	2 600	2 601	2 719	2 803	2 758	2 843	2 971

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

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

To calculate the percentage of youth living in low per capita income households, households were divided into five equal parts, or quintiles, based on the average monthly per capita income of household members. Poor or low-income households were defined as those that fell into the bottom two quintiles. The poorest 40% of households on average received an income of less than R765 per person per month while the poorest 20% of households earned less than R390 per person per month. These measures are important indicators of the extent to which individuals are lagging behind in welfare terms and how their access to education, health care and nutrition might be negatively affected.

The percentage of youth that lived in low-income households by gender and population group is presented in Figure 3.6. It is evident that youth aged 15–24 were much more likely to live in low-income households than older youth. Similarly, the black African youth of both age groups were more likely to live in low-income households than youth from the other population groups. Female youth in both age categories were also more likely to live in lower-income households than their male counterparts. It is surprising that white and coloureds males were slightly more likely to live in low income households than their female counterparts.

Figure 3.6: Percentage of youth living in low income households by gender and population group, 2012

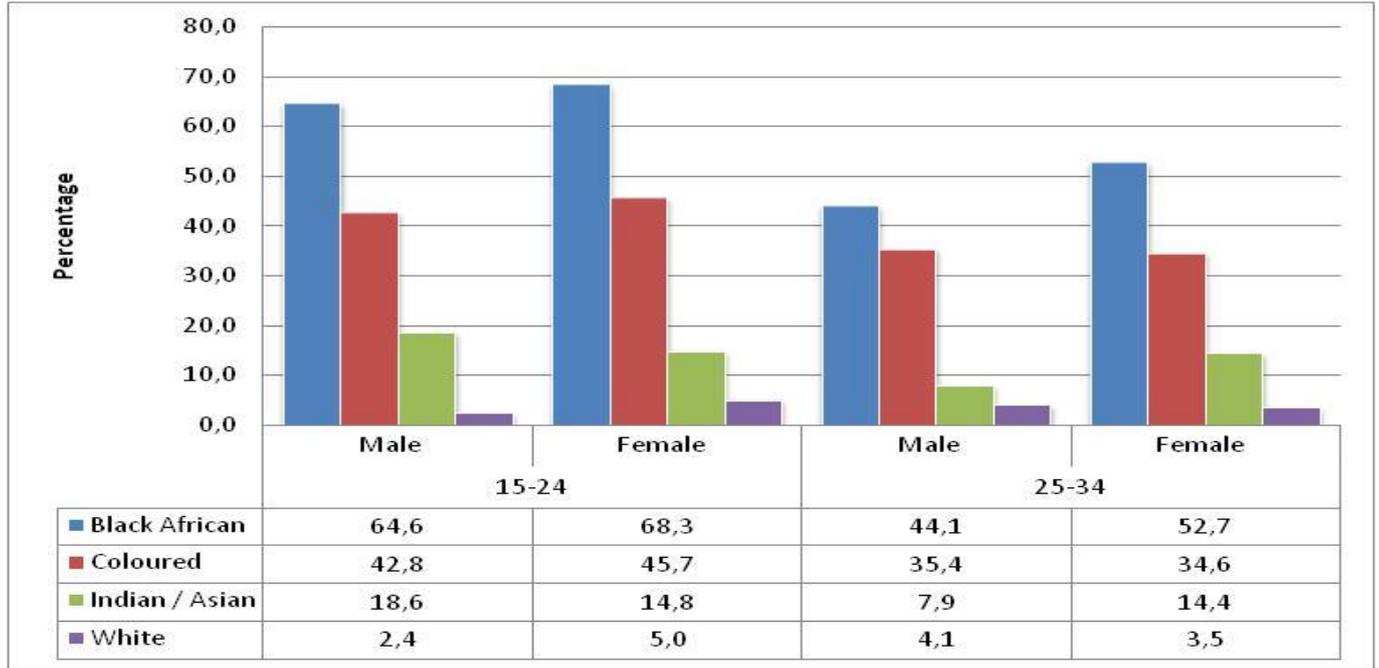


Figure 3.7 shows that youth aged 15–24 years were consistently more likely to live in low-income households than youth in the older age category, across all provinces. In 2012, 60,5% of South African youth aged 15–24 years lived in low-income households compared to 44% of youth in the older age group. Youth in Limpopo (76,2%) were most likely to live in low-income households while youth in Western Cape and Gauteng (44,6% and 38,0% respectively) were least likely to do so. The South African population was 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 3.7: Percentage of youth living in low income households by age group and province, 2012

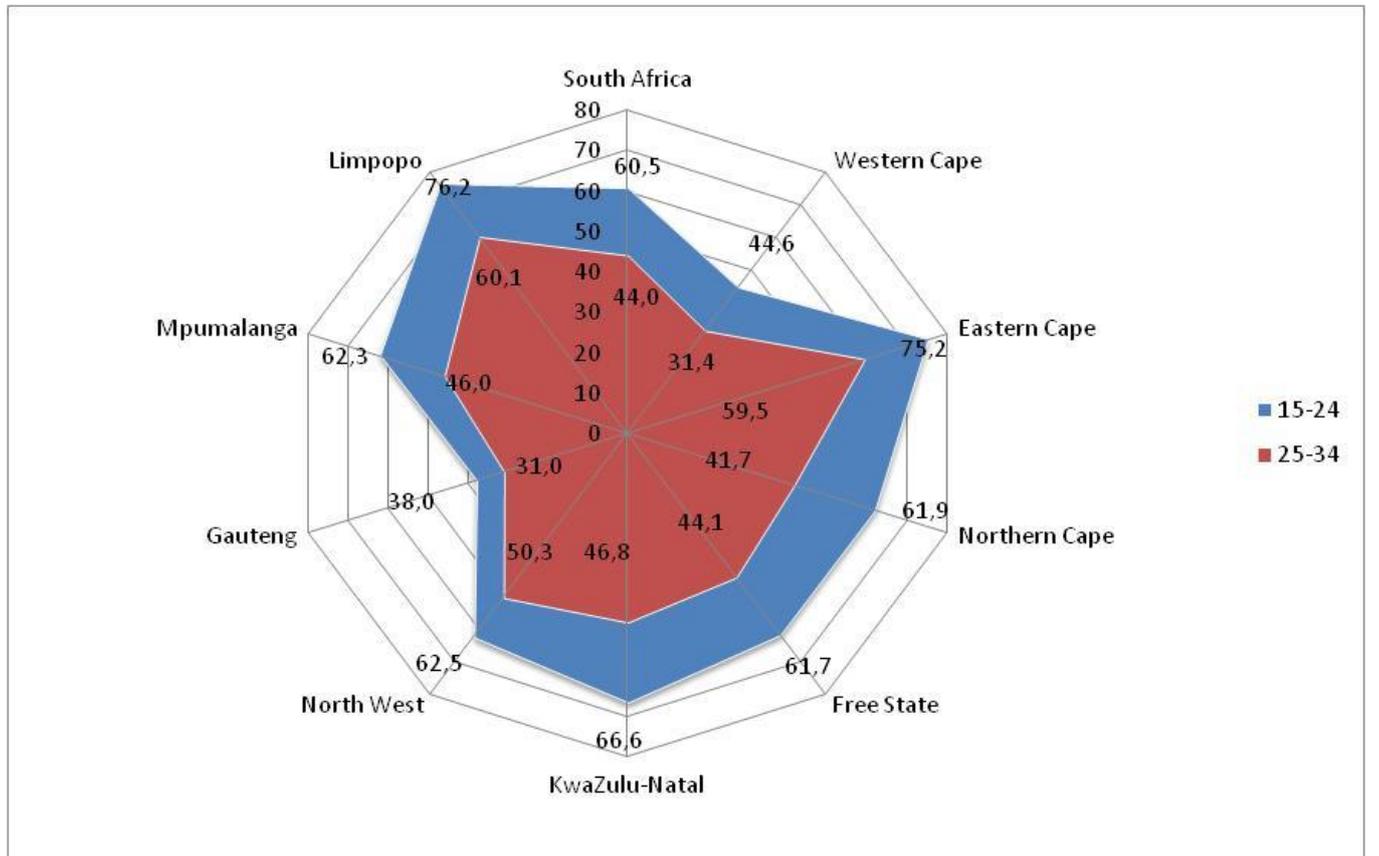
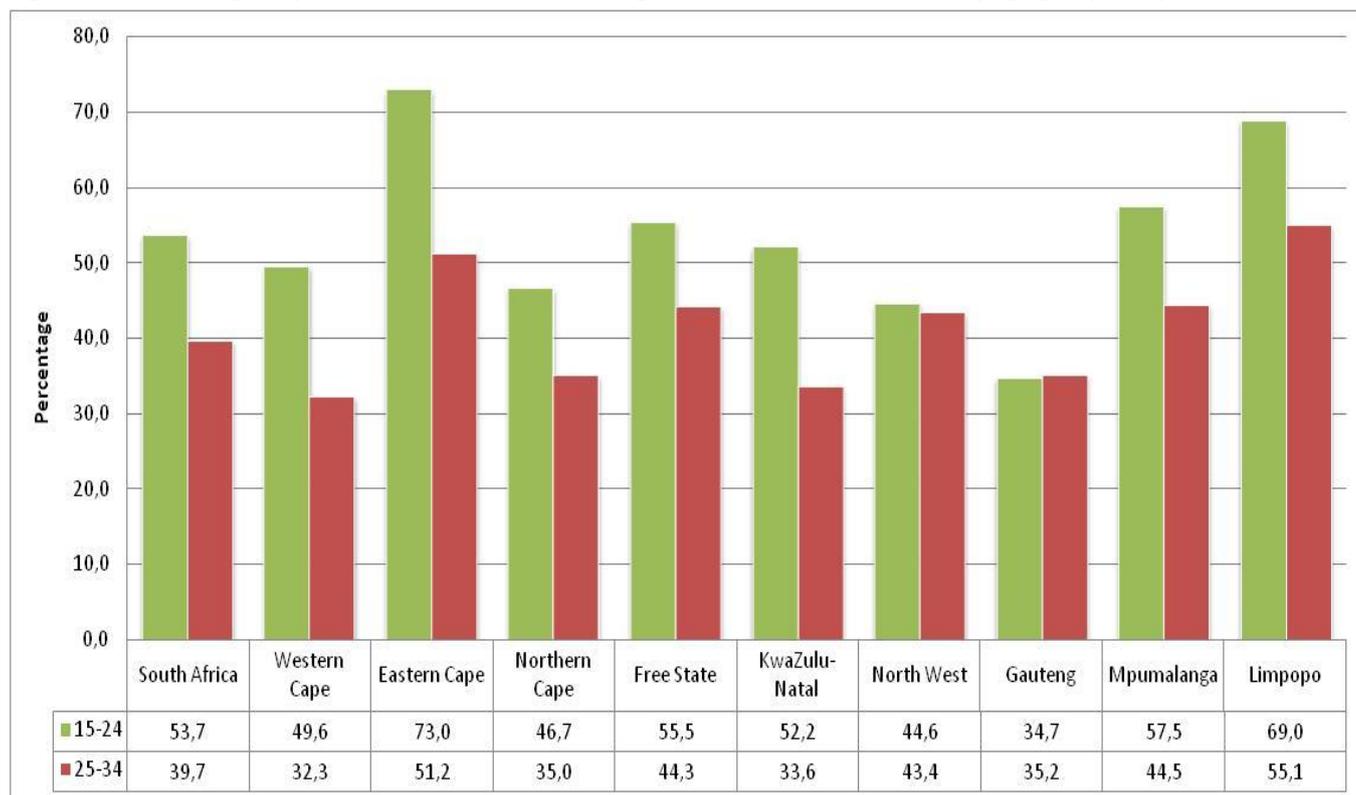


Figure 3.8 shows that households headed by youth aged 15-24 years were more likely to have a per capita income of less than R765 per month than household headed by older youth nationally, and across all provinces. Youth-headed households were least likely to have low incomes in Western Cape and Gauteng, and most likely to fall into the bottom two income quintiles in Eastern Cape and Limpopo. The largest percentage difference between households headed by younger and older youth was observed in Eastern Cape where 73% of households headed by youth 15–24 years lived in low income households compared to 51,2% of households headed by youth aged 25–34 years.

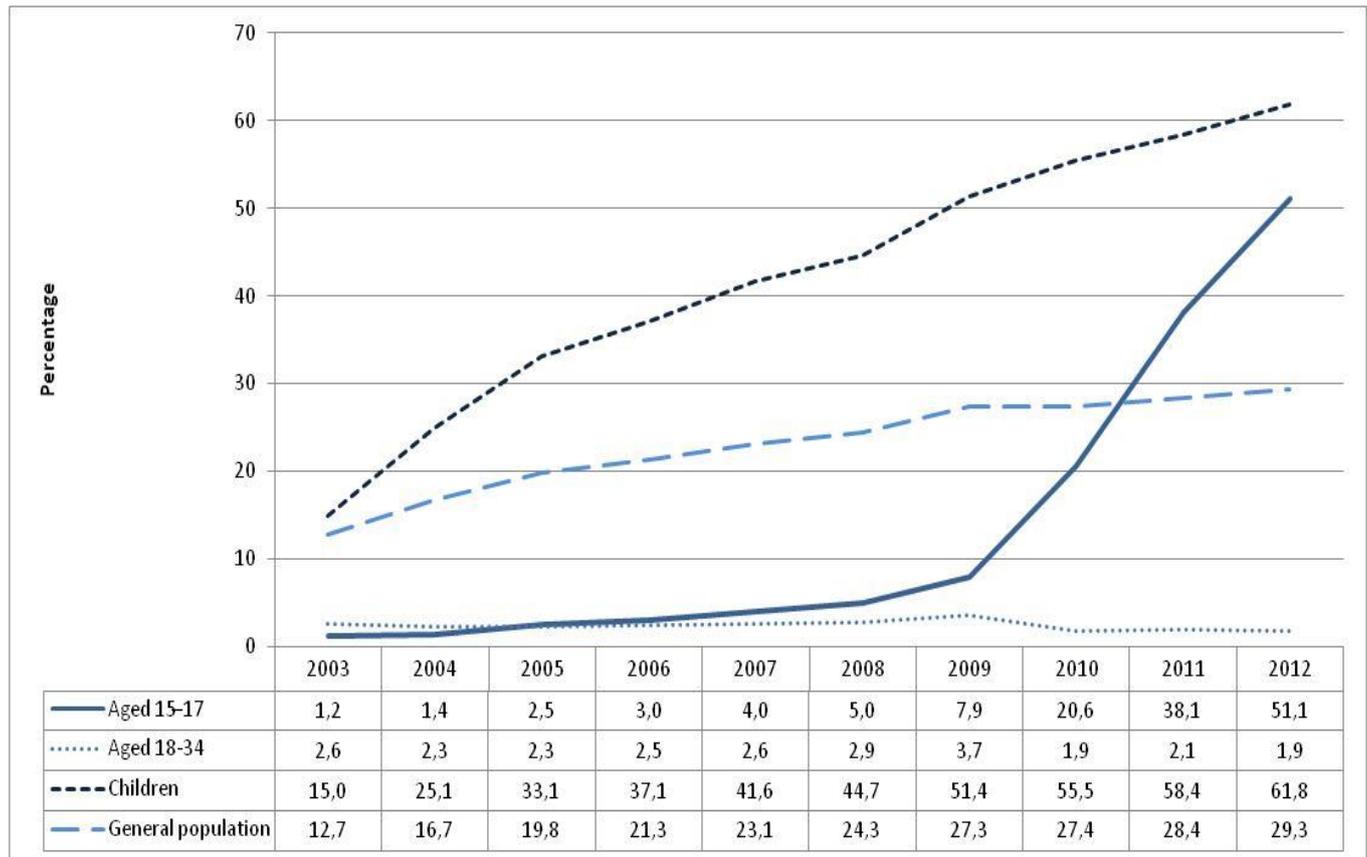
Figure 3.8: Percentage of youth-headed households living in low-income households, by age group and province, 2012



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 18 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 was 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 2003 to 61,8% in 2012 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 expanded to include children under the age of 18 years by 2012.

Figure 3.9: Percentage of youth beneficiaries of social grants, 2003–2012



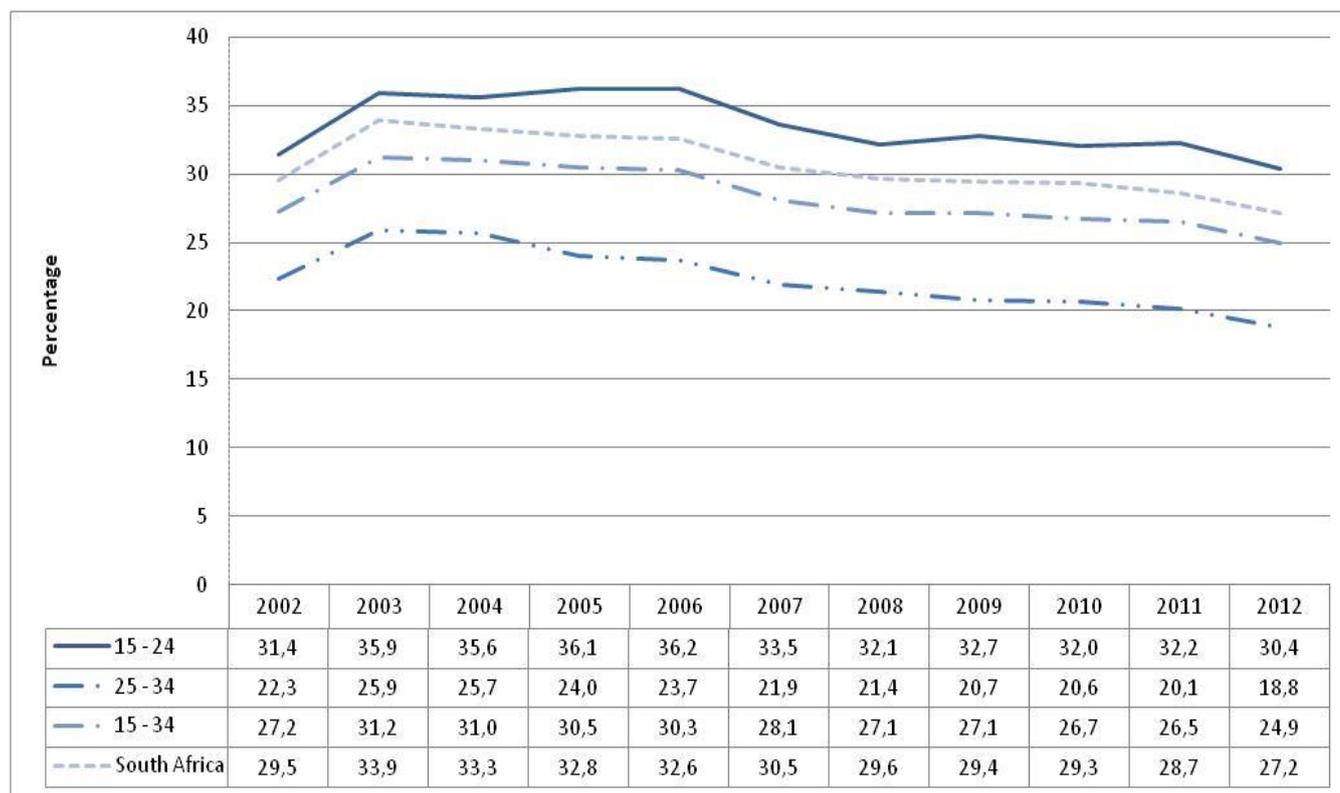
The number of employed household members as a proportion of the mean household size is presented in Table 3.5. Members of households headed by youth in the age group 25–34 years were more likely to be employed than members of South African households in general, or indeed households headed by youth in the age category 15–24 years.

Table 3.5: Proportion of employed household members as proportion of the mean household size by the age of household head, 2002–2012

Age Group	Measure	Year										
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
15 - 24	Proportion	0,25	0,26	0,25	0,27	0,27	0,29	0,30	0,27	0,31	0,28	0,29
25 - 34		0,36	0,37	0,38	0,38	0,39	0,40	0,39	0,40	0,40	0,40	0,43
15 - 34		0,34	0,35	0,35	0,36	0,36	0,38	0,37	0,38	0,38	0,38	0,40
South Africa		0,26	0,25	0,26	0,27	0,28	0,28	0,28	0,28	0,29	0,29	0,29

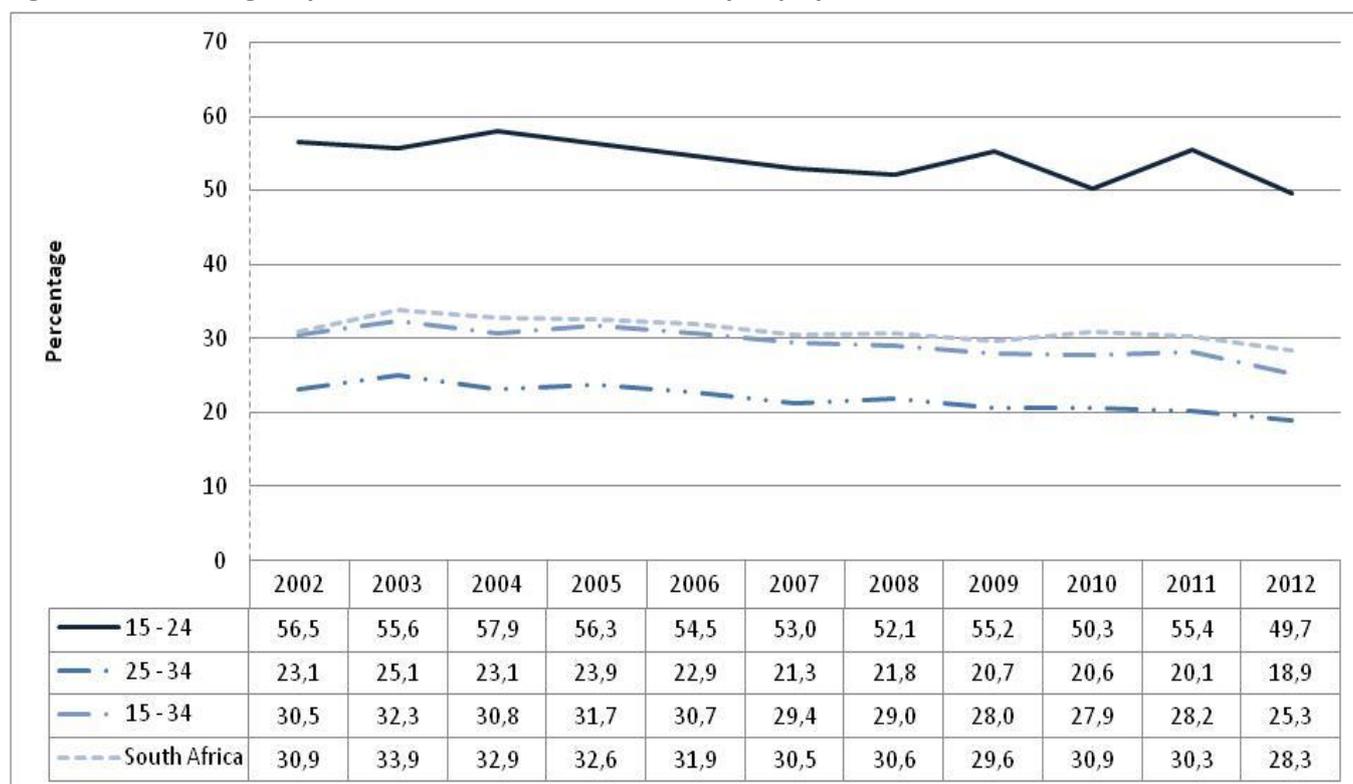
The percentage of youth that lived in households in which nobody was employed in either the formal or informal sector is presented in Figure 3.10. The definition of work includes regular or irregular work for wages or salary, as well as unpaid work in a family business, farming or household maintenance 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 24,9% of all youth in South Africa lived in households where not a single household member was working compared to about a third (27,2%) of all South Africans. This rate has remained relatively constant over the period 2002 to 2012. Youth aged 15–24 were much more likely to live in such households than youth aged 25–34.

Figure 3.10: Percentage of individuals living in households without an employed member (15 years and older), 2002–2012



The percentage of youth-headed households without any employed household members is presented in Figure 3.11. In 2012, South African households in general were more likely to have contained no employed members than households headed by youth aged 15–34 (28,3% compared to 25,3%). However, households headed by youth aged 15–24 were much less likely to contain employed adults than the older groups. Nearly half (49,7%) of these households did not contain any employed individuals in 2012.

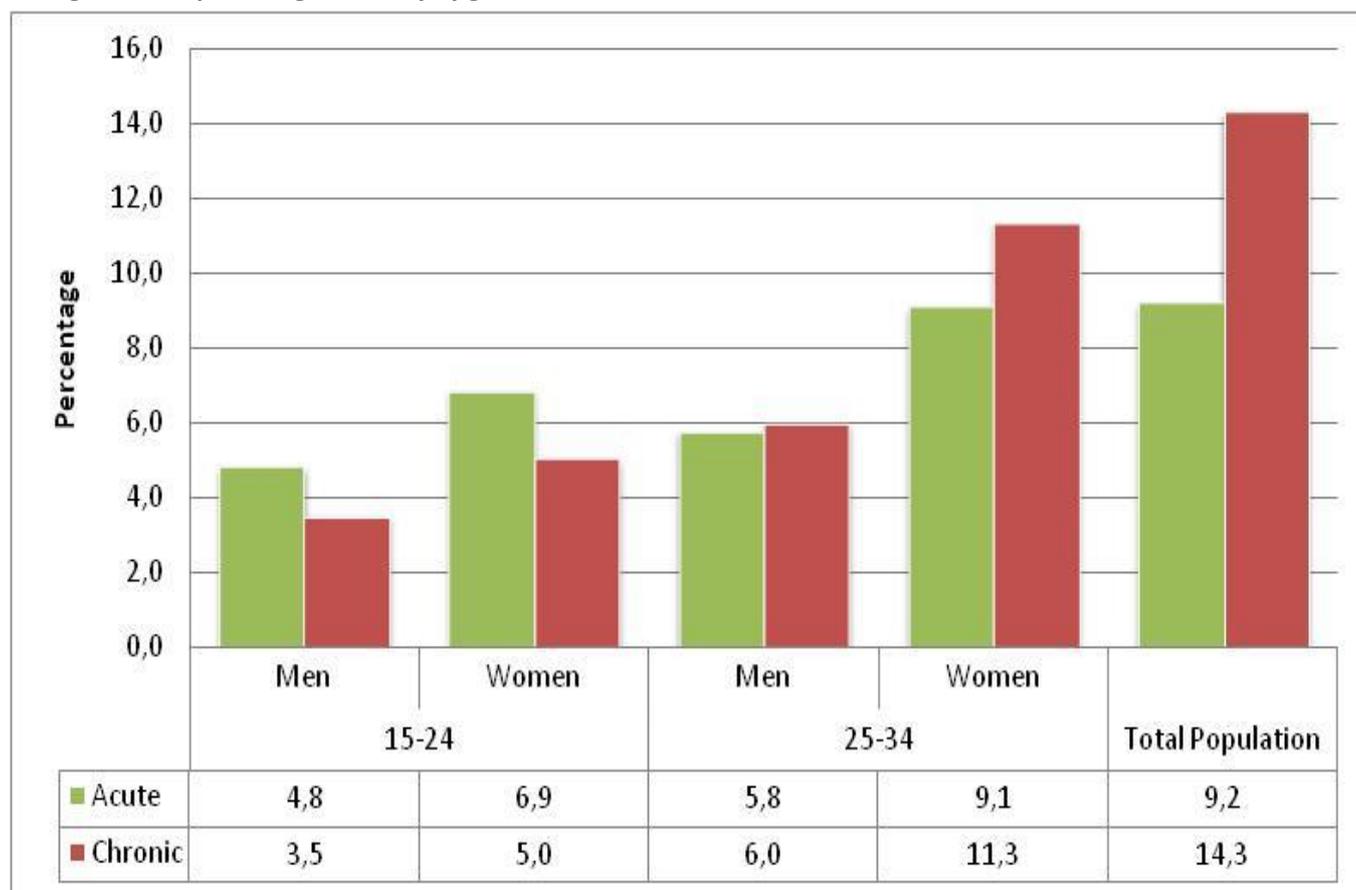
Figure 3.11: Percentage of youth-headed households without any employed household members, 2002–2012



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 3.12 presents the percentage of youth who reported suffering from acute (including accidents or injuries) or chronic illnesses during the week preceding the survey. Females were generally more likely to have suffered from acute or chronic conditions than males across both age cohorts. Youth aged 15–24 and 25–34 were furthermore less likely to have suffered either condition than the population as a whole.

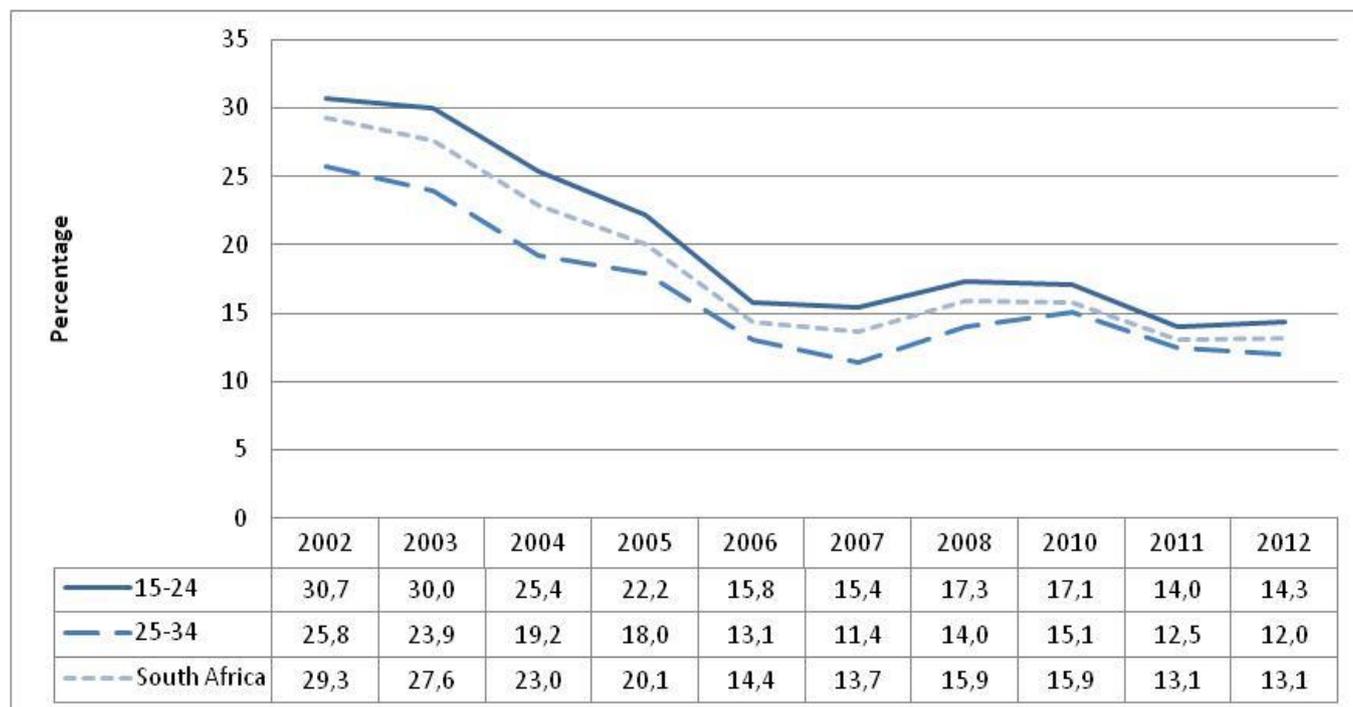
Figure 3.12: Percentage distribution of youth aged 15–24 and 25–34 who reported suffering from acute or chronic illness during the week preceding the survey by gender, 2012



3.6 Vulnerability to hunger and access to food

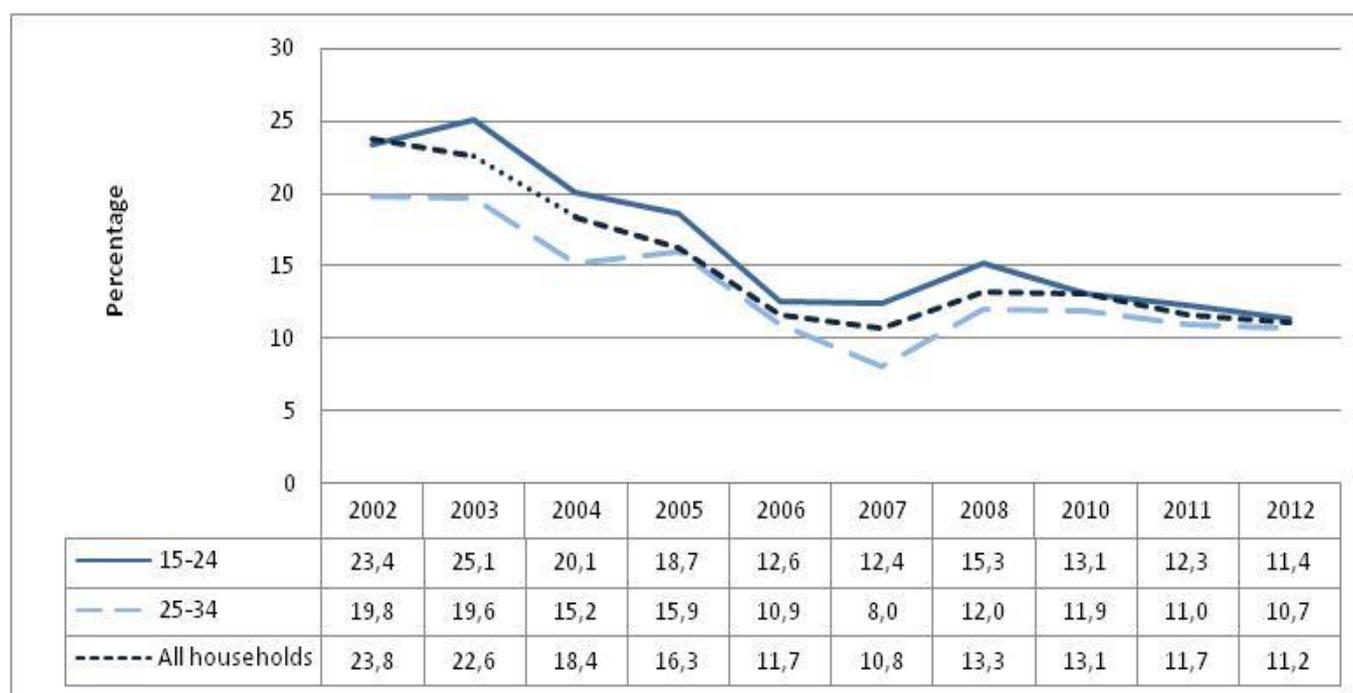
Access to food is essential to human well-being and development. Households are very sensitive to livelihood shocks and low income households with a large percentage of dependents remaining particularly vulnerable. The GHS asks respondents a battery of questions to establish whether any household members 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 that lived in households that reported hunger decreased from 29,3% in 2002 to 13,1% in 2012. According to Figure 3.13 youth aged 15–24 were more likely to live in households that reported hunger than youth aged 25–34, or South Africans in general.

Figure 3.13: Percentage of youth living in households that reported hunger, 2002–2008, 2010–2012³



Although households headed by youth aged 15–24 were historically more likely to report hunger than households in general or households headed by youth aged 25–34 years, the figures subsequently converged. By 2012 households headed by younger youth (11,4%) were only slightly more likely than all households (11,2%) to have reported hunger while households headed by older youth (10,7%) were least likely to have done so. This is presented in Figure 3.14.

Figure 3.14: Percentage of households headed by youth aged 15-24 and 25-34 that reported hunger, 2002–2008, 2010–2012



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

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 3.15. Youth in the age group 15–24 were more likely to live in households that have experienced inadequate or severely inadequate food access than youth in the age category 25–34.

Figure 3.15: Percentage of youth (aged 15–24 and 25–34 years) that lived in households that had experienced adequate, inadequate and severely inadequate access to food, 2012

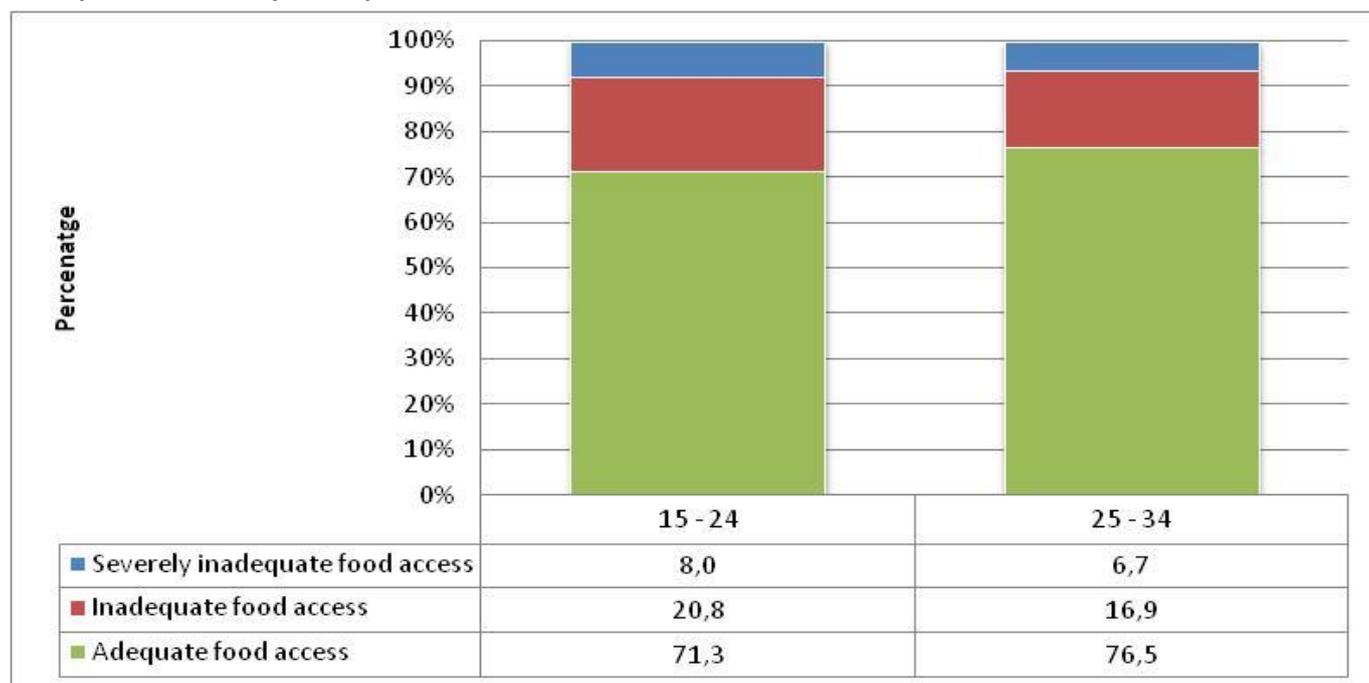
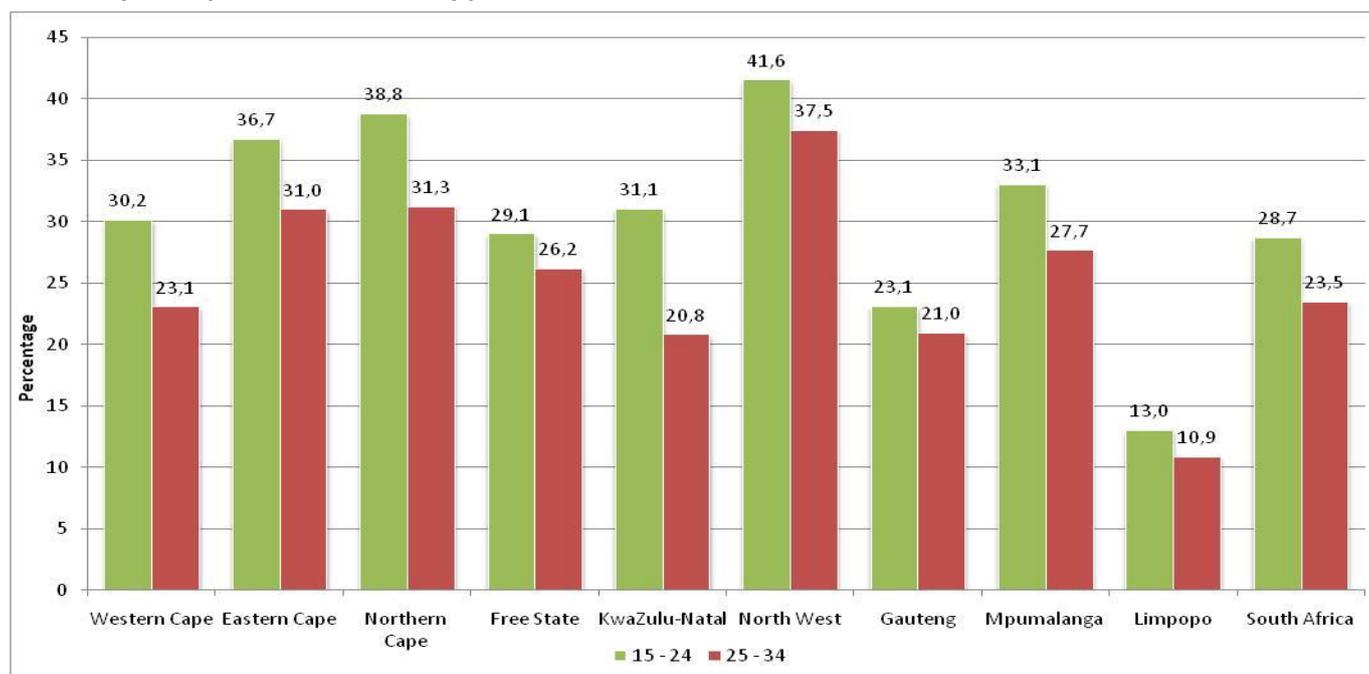


Figure 3.16: Percentage of youth (aged 15–24 and 25–34 years) that lived in households that had experienced inadequate or severely inadequate access to food by province, 2012



Households headed by youth aged 15–24 were 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 3.16. Youth

from both age groups were most likely to live in households that experienced inadequate or severely inadequate access to food in North West, Northern Cape and Eastern Cape. Although considered a poor province, Limpopo presented the lowest percentage of households with inadequate or severely inadequate access to food.

3.7 Education

The percentage of youth aged 15 to 34 that attended an education institution during 2002 and 2012 is presented in Figure 3.17. Although more than 90% of individuals attended educational institutions between the ages of 15 and 16 years of age, educational attendance decreased very quickly beyond this age. After the age of 16, the percentage of youth that attended an educational institution declined to approximately ten per cent by age 24, and even lower beyond that. Female participation increased markedly between 2002 and 2012 for the ages 15 to 21.

The percentage of youth that attended an educational institution for different population groups across three age cohorts (15–17, 18–24 and 25–34) is presented in Figure 3.18. The first observation is that coloured individuals were less likely than their peers from other population groups to have attended education institutions during any of these ages. Only 87,2% of the coloured population in the age group 15–17 years for instance attended an educational institution compared to figures in excess of 93% for other population groups. Overall, for the age group 15–34, 34,3% of White youth attended educational institutions compared to 31,4% of black African youth, 25% of Asian and coloured youth. However, the high observed 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/Asian youth. This observation is confirmed by Figure 3.19 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 remained in school after the age of eighteen compared to their Indian and white counterparts who subsequently moved into higher education.

Whereas 74,5% of black Africans in the age category 18–24 still attended school in 2012, only 54,4% of the coloured, 37,1% of the Indian and 24,1% of white population did so. By contrast, 65,0% of the white, 51,3% of the Indian/Asian and 27,1% of the coloured populations were attending higher education compared to only 9,3% of black Africans.

Figure 3.17: Percentage of youth who attended an educational institution by age and sex, 2002 and 2012

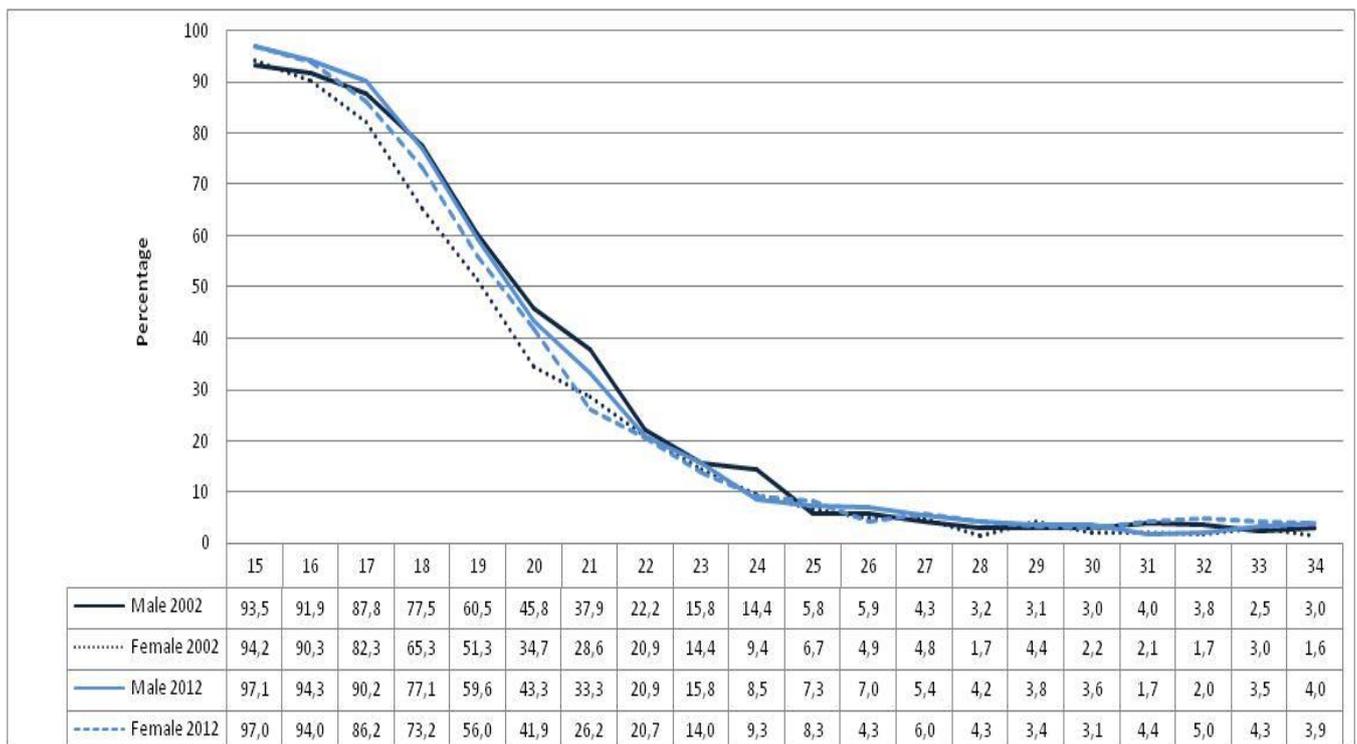


Figure 3.18: Percentage of youth that attended an educational institution by population group and age, 2012⁴

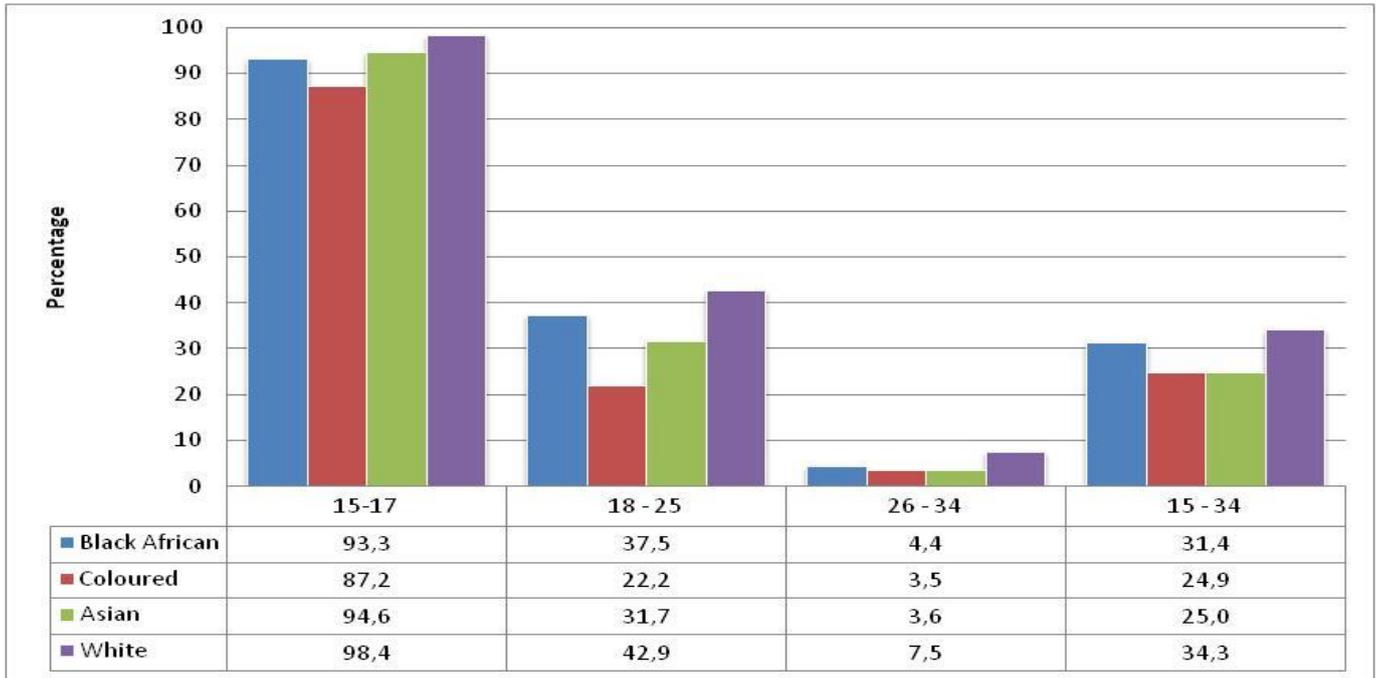
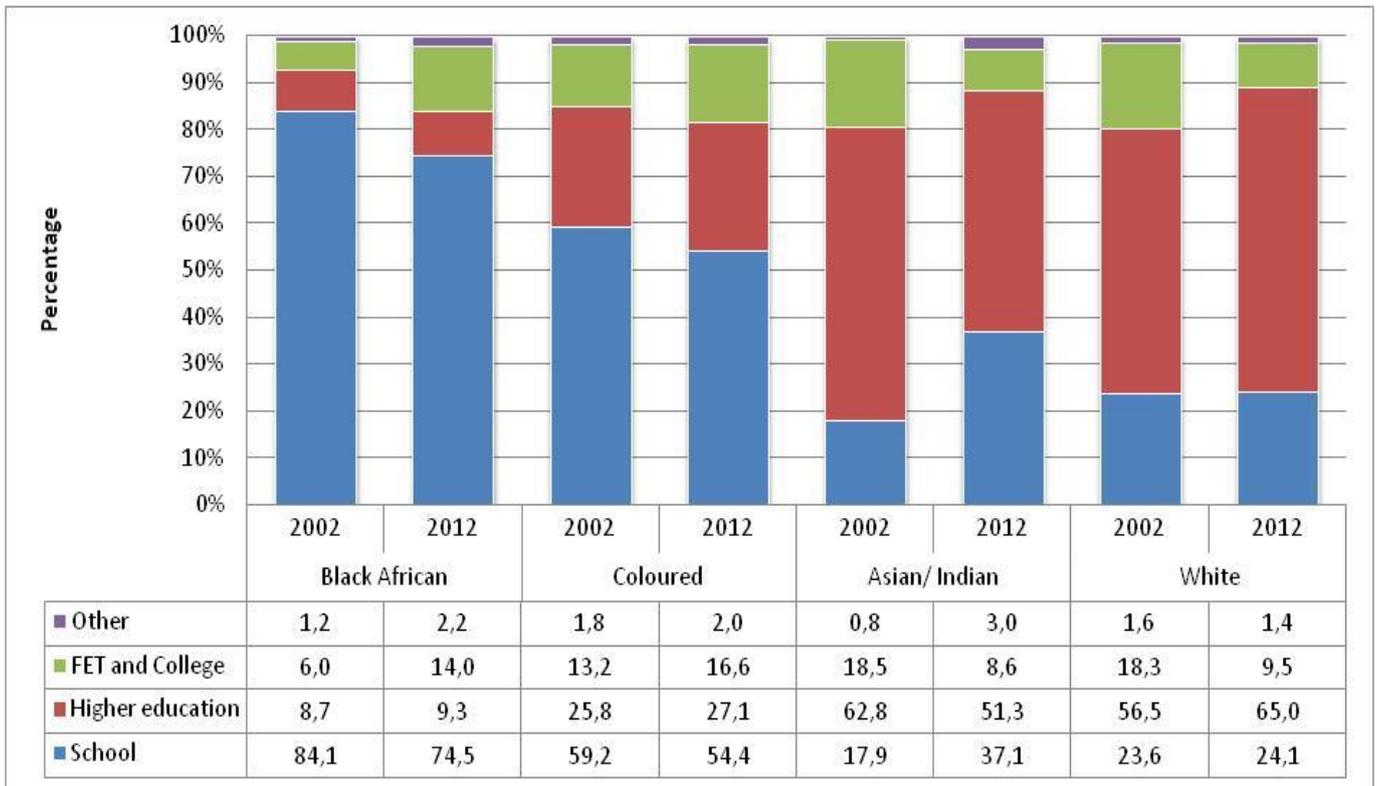


Figure 3.19: Type of educational institution attended by youth aged 18–24, by population group, 2002 and 2012



The highest level of education attained by the 18–24 and 25–34 age cohorts is presented in Table 3.6. The table shows that the percentage of youth who had completed secondary school education improved markedly between 2002 and 2012 for youth in both age cohorts and for all race groups. Between 2002 and 2012 the percentage of youth in the age cohorts 18 to 24 and 25 to 34 that had completed their secondary education increased from 27,1% to 33,4% and from 29,4% to 34,3% respectively. While the percentage of individuals who attained some

⁴Youth are divided into three age categories that are aligned more closely to their likelihood of attending educational institutions. Youth in the age group 15–17 are most likely to be at school, while those in the age group 18–24 years are most likely to attend universities. Individuals in the age category 25–34 years were least likely to attend any educational institutions.

post-school qualification also increased considerably for both age cohorts between 2002 and 2012, a much smaller percentage of black African and coloured youth achieved these qualifications than their white and Indian/Asian 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 2012

Highest level of education achieved	Population group									
	Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White		Total	
	2002	2012	2002	2012	2002	2012	2002	2012	2002	2012
18–24										
No schooling	1,4	0,6	1,1	0,6	0,7	0,0	0,2	0,0	1,3	0,6
Some primary	9,8	4,6	7,5	3,7	2,0	3,8	0,5	0,9	8,8	4,3
Primary	7,1	3,8	7,0	3,2	0,8	0,2	0,4	0,6	6,4	3,4
Incomplete secondary	56,3	56,7	48,3	51,9	28,3	20,1	28,0	17,8	52,8	52,9
Secondary	23,0	29,7	33,5	37,1	59,1	63,6	53,1	64,7	27,1	33,4
Post-school	2,3	4,1	2,5	3,3	8,9	12,1	17,8	15,9	3,6	5,0
Other	0,1	0,5	0,2	0,3	0,2	0,2	0,0	0,2	0,1	0,4
Per cent	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0
Total (thousands)	5 111	5 749	535	576	149	159	469	450	6 266	6 935
25–34										
No schooling	4,4	1,1	3,3	0,2	0,2	0,0	0,1	0,1	3,8	0,9
Some primary	14,3	6,2	13,7	3,6	1,2	4,2	0,1	1,1	12,7	5,6
Primary	6,5	4,0	9,2	3,1	1,2	0,9	0,3	0,7	6,1	3,6
Incomplete secondary	38,9	44,1	41,6	46,7	30,9	16,2	16,7	12,2	37,1	41,6
Secondary	27,5	33,2	25,4	34,9	45,7	51,2	47,4	41,2	29,4	34,3
Post-school	8,3	11,1	6,9	11,1	20,6	27,5	35,1	44,6	10,7	13,7
Other	0,1	0,4	0,0	0,4	0,3	0,1	0,3	0,1	0,2	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)	6 194	7 390	750	744	189	236	657	573	7 792	8 944

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 3.20.

The growth of the "NEETs" category seems to be inversely related to the decline in attendance of educational institutions. While the percentage of youth that attended any educational institution declined steadily after age 17, the percentage of youth who were not employed or in education increased until it eventually seemed to peak at age 22. By the age of 23 years, 52,1% of youth were neither in school nor working, while a further 33,1% were in employment and 14,8% in education. By the age of 24, more than one-third (38,8%) of youth were employed while 52,3% were still unemployed and not attending any educational institution.

Following Figure 3.20, Table 3.7 compares the percentage of males and females in the age group 15–24 who were attending an educational institution; those that were employed; and those that neither attended any educational institution and who were also not working. It is clear from the table that females were less likely than males of the same age group to be employed or to be attending education, but 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 3.20: Percentage of youth aged 15–24 who are not attending any educational institution and who are not employed, 2012

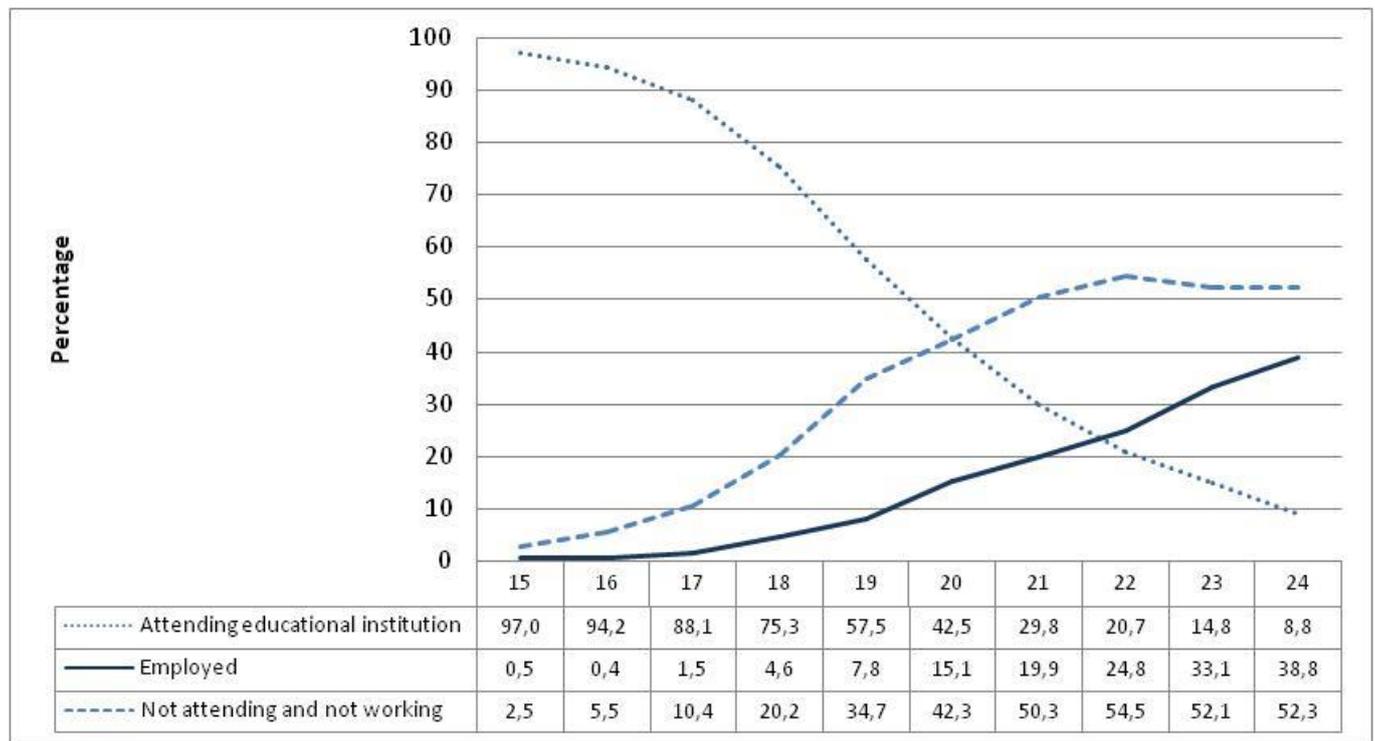


Table 3.7: Percentage of youth aged 15–24 who are not attending any educational institution and who are not working, by gender, 2012

Economic status	Gender	Age (percentage)									
		15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
Attending educational institution	Total	97,0	94,2	88,1	75,3	57,5	42,5	29,8	20,7	14,8	8,8
	Male	97,1	94,3	90,2	77,1	59,3	43,2	33,2	20,6	15,8	8,4
	Female	97,0	94,0	86,2	73,2	55,7	41,8	26,2	20,7	13,9	9,3
Employed	Total	0,5	0,4	1,5	4,6	7,8	15,1	19,9	24,8	33,1	38,8
	Male	0,6	0,6	2,0	6,5	9,7	18,5	24,2	30,2	36,4	46,7
	Female	0,3	0,1	1,1	2,5	6,0	11,5	15,4	19,2	29,9	31,1
Not attending any educational institution and not working	Total	2,5	5,5	10,4	20,2	34,7	42,3	50,3	54,5	52,1	52,3
	Male	2,4	5,1	7,8	16,4	31,0	38,3	42,6	49,2	47,8	44,9
	Female	2,7	5,8	12,8	24,3	38,3	46,7	58,4	60,1	56,2	59,7

The reasons why youth in the age cohort 15–24 were not attending educational institutions are presented in Table 3.8. Roughly 39% 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 20,4% reported that they were working and that they had no time. Less than 5% blamed poor academic performance. Although the reasons that were provided were generally the same for males and females, a much larger percentage of females than males reported family commitments (13,3% versus 0,7%) and pregnancy (4,8% versus 0,1%). This could perhaps explain the larger percentage of females in these ages that were 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 were much more likely to site a lack of fees than white youth (42,7% compared to 13,6% of white youth), 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, 2012

Reasons for not attending an educational institution	Gender		Population group				Age group 15–24
	Male	Female	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	
Too old	1,3	0,9	0,9	3,1	0,3	0,5	1,1
Has completed school/education	7,9	8,4	6,5	17,1	5,5	15,6	8,2
Transport difficulties	0,1	0,2	0,1	0,2	0,0	0,0	0,1
No money for fees	39,1	38,7	42,7	24,7	34,4	13,6	38,9
Working, do not have time	24,8	16,1	16,5	25,1	50,7	57,5	20,4
Family commitments	0,7	13,3	7,4	6,4	3,1	5,2	7,1
Education not useful	9,4	4,9	7,3	9,5	2,4	1,1	7,1
Poor academic performance	5,6	3,0	4,5	5,2	0,4	1,1	4,3
Illness / disability	2,8	2,3	2,7	2,3	0,0	2,3	2,5
Pregnancy	0,1	4,8	2,6	1,9	0,8	2,0	2,5
Other	8,3	7,4	8,9	4,5	2,5	1,1	7,8
Per cent	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0
Total (thousands)	2 068	2 141	3 421	471	95	221	4 210

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 2012 is presented in Table 3.9. While the percentage of youth-headed households that were living in informal structures increased from 18,6% to 23,5% between 2002 and 2012, the percentage of youth-headed households that lived in formal structures decreased by 2,3% to 68,1% during the same period. The percentage of youth-headed households that resided in traditional dwellings also decreased slightly.

Table 3.9: Percentage of households headed by youth (aged 15–34) living in formal, informal and traditional housing, 2002-2012

Housing type	Year										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Formal	70,4	70,3	72,0	65,2	67,1	66,8	66,6	68,7	70,3	72,4	68,1
Traditional	7,0	7,4	7,3	7,3	7,3	6,4	7,4	7,7	6,4	6,9	6,5
Informal	18,6	19,2	17,6	24,2	22,6	24,3	24,8	22,5	22,3	20,4	23,5
Other	4,0	3,1	3,1	3,3	3,0	2,6	1,2	1,1	1,0	0,4	1,9
Per cent	100,0										
Total (thousands)	3 204	3 283	3 342	3 410	3 463	3 498	3 578	3 662	3 730	3 772	3 854

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

Table 3.10 shows that the percentage of youth that lived in formal housing increased from 72,7% in 2002 to 77,6% in 2012. Simultaneously, the percentage of youth that lived in informal as well as traditional dwellings decreased.

Table 3.10: Percentage of youth (aged 15–34) living in formal, informal and traditional housing, 2002–2012

Housing type	Year										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Formal	72,7	72,8	73,2	70,0	72,8	72,3	74,3	74,5	77,6	78,7	77,6
Traditional	12,3	12,8	14,0	13,0	12,0	12,1	11,9	12,5	11,2	12,4	10,7
Informal	13,8	13,4	12,0	15,7	14,1	14,5	13,1	12,3	10,9	8,7	11,2
Other	1,2	1,0	0,8	1,2	1,1	1,2	0,7	0,8	0,3	0,2	0,4
Percent	100,0										
Total (thousands)	16 998	17 241	17 456	17 681	17 866	17 970	18 241	18 479	18 654	18 488	18 749

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

A comparison of the basic living condition indicators of youth and the total population between 2002 and 2012 is presented in Table 3.11.

The percentage of the total population as well as the youth aged 15–24 and 25–34 that lived in dwelling that were **fully or partially owned** declined between 2002 and 2012. Youth aged 15–24 were most likely to live 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 increased for both age cohorts as well as for the population as a whole between 2002 and 2012. The percentage of youth aged 15–24 that **had access to piped water in the dwelling and yard** improved from 61,5% in 2002 to 66,2% in 2012 while access for youth aged 25 to 34 similarly improved to 72,4% in 2012. Access for youth in the age cohort 25 to 34 remained consistently higher than that for the younger youth age cohort.

Having access to pit toilets with ventilation pipes, or flush toilets that are in or near the house and which dispose of waste safely is used as a proxy for adequate basic sanitation. Youth’s access to **adequate sanitation** had been improving consistently since 2002. Youth between the ages of 25 and 34 years were more likely to have had 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 were more likely to live in households whose rubbish was removed than the general population or indeed youth in the younger age category. The percentage of individuals that had access to refuse removal increased slightly between 2002 and 2012.

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 had increased steadily since 2002. The percentage of youth aged 15–24 that lived in households with **access to mains electricity** increased to 87,1%, up from 75% in 2002. A slightly larger percentage of individuals in this age group lived in households with access to electricity than the population in general or individuals in the older age group.

Despite having access to electricity from the mains, many households continue to use alternative sources of energy for energy intensive activities such as cooking and heating, mainly because solid fuels are often available more cheaply. These sources unfortunately generate substantial emissions of many health-damaging pollutants. Despite noticeable declines in the proportion of households that had been using **solid fuels for cooking** over the past decade, households headed by younger youth (21%) were still more likely to use solid fuels for cooking than households headed by older youth (13,2%) or indeed, household in general (18,1%).

Table 3.11: Comparison of the basic living condition indicators of youth and the total population, 2002-2012

Access to service indicator	Age cohorts	Year										
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Tenure status % youth living in dwellings that are partially or fully owned	15-24	79,3	82,2	82,0	83,5	82,2	81,3	83,8	76,5	78,7	72,9	74,1
	25-34	69,7	70,9	69,7	71,8	69,4	66,3	71,5	62,9	66,4	62,4	62,9
	15-34	74,9	76,9	76,3	78,0	76,2	74,3	78,0	70,1	72,9	68,0	68,8
	Population	78,6	81,0	79,8	81,4	80,6	78,4	81,8	74,2	76,5	71,0	72,6
Access to water % youth living in dwellings with piped water in house or yard	15 - 24	61,5	61,8	61,5	62,9	64,2	65,0	65,5	64,4	66,3	67,9	66,2
	25 - 34	69,3	70,0	70,9	70,9	72,2	73,2	71,3	70,5	72,0	73,9	72,4
	15 - 34	65,1	65,7	65,9	66,7	67,9	68,8	68,2	67,3	69,0	70,7	69,2
	Population	63,7	64,3	64,6	65,7	67,2	68,2	68,2	67,4	68,8	70,3	69,4
Sanitation % youth living in dwellings with flush toilet with on or off site disposal	15-24	52,9	55,1	57,3	58,9	59,6	62,5	64,4	66,9	70,2	71,6	72,6
	25-34	61,8	64,1	66,5	66,3	68,4	70,7	70,7	72,5	75,4	77,0	77,5
	15-34	57,0	59,3	61,6	62,3	63,7	66,3	67,4	69,5	72,6	74,1	74,9
	Population	55,8	58,1	60,6	61,9	63,3	66,2	67,4	69,8	72,8	74,6	75,2
Refuse/Waste % youth living in dwellings with rubbish removed by municipality	15-24	50,9	51,3	50,4	53,1	53,4	53,6	53,2	52,9	56,2	56,5	55,1
	25-34	59,3	60,4	60,8	63,1	63,5	63,7	61,6	62,3	64,5	65,3	63,7
	15-34	54,8	55,5	55,3	57,8	58,1	58,3	57,1	57,3	60,1	60,6	59,2
	Population	52,8	53,8	53,8	56,6	57,2	57,3	56,7	57,1	59,6	60,4	59,5
Electricity % youth living in dwellings which are connected to mains	15-24	75,0	75,9	78,6	79,5	79,9	81,8	82,5	83,2	85,8	86,8	87,1
	25-34	77,5	79,3	81,2	80,6	80,8	81,8	82,8	83,0	83,4	84,9	86,1
	15-34	76,1	77,5	79,8	80,0	80,3	81,8	82,6	83,1	84,7	85,9	86,7
	Population	75,3	77,0	79,4	80,0	80,4	81,9	82,5	83,2	85,1	86,2	87,2
Used solid fuels for cooking % youth using solid fuels for cooking	15-24	31,9	32,2	31,7	27,7	26,2	26,6	26,4	25,8	22,8	21,5	21,0
	25-34	23,6	21,7	21,2	17,6	16,8	17,1	16,9	16,1	15,9	14,4	13,2
	15-34	28,1	27,3	26,8	23,0	21,8	22,2	21,9	21,3	19,6	18,2	17,3
	Population	30,6	30,0	29,1	25,3	23,3	23,4	23,7	22,8	20,8	19,0	18,1
Telephone % youth living in dwellings with landline or cellular phone in the dwelling	15-24	46,0	48,3	57,4	70,1	75,6	80,9	84,0	89,4	91,9	94,8	97,1
	25-34	48,6	51,9	60,0	71,0	76,7	81,1	84,1	88,5	91,4	94,3	96,7
	15-34	47,2	50,0	58,6	70,5	76,1	81,0	84,0	89,0	91,7	94,6	96,9
	Population	46,7	49,2	57,8	69,5	74,8	80,3	82,9	88,2	91,3	94,1	96,2
Internet⁵ % youth living in dwellings with access to internet	15-24				4,3				6,8	8,5	7,7	7,4
	25-34				3,9				7,5	8,7	8,1	8,1
	15-34				4,1				7,1	8,6	7,9	7,7
	Population				5,2				8,1	9,6	9,2	9,2

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 that had access to landlines or cell-phones at home increased enormously over the past years, rising from 46,7% in 2002 to 96,2% in 2012. Access to telephones and cell phones became almost universal and no apparent difference could be discerned between the two youth groups and the population as a whole.

Although the percentage of youth that had access to another communication medium, the Internet, had also increased since 2005 (the first time the question was asked in the GHS questionnaire), growth has been lethargic and access at home remained limited. Only 9,2% of all households had access to the Internet in 2012 compared to 5,2% in 2005, and 8,1% in 2009.

⁵Questions on access to the Internet at home was only included in the questionnaire in 2005, 2009 and 2010

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 19,1 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 into activities that 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 master the opportunities that the youth offer. While critical in their own right, demand-side issues fall outside the scope of this paper. The chapter outlined profile of youth and focused 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 was observed in Limpopo (9,6%) and Free State (7,3%). These households were 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 were more likely to be single-generation households than those headed by older youth, and these households were also more likely to contain other non-related members. This may reflect 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 were primarily dependent on income from salaries and/or wages (43,7% in 2012) and remittances (39,8% in 2012), whilst households headed by older youth were significantly more likely to cite salaries and wages (71,9%) than remittances (9,0%) as their main source of income. Using a poverty threshold of R765 per person per month, it is clear that youth aged 15–24 were much more likely to live in poor households than their older counterparts. Youth in the age group 15–24 were most likely to live in poor households in Eastern Cape (73,0%), Limpopo (69,0%) and Mpumalanga (57,5%).

Although the provincial distribution is similar for older youth, they were 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 continue 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 (30,4%) of youth aged 15–24 lived in households in which not a single person was employed in 2012, compared to 18,8% of youth aged 25–34 and 27,2% for all individuals.

The situation is equally desperate for households headed by youth aged 15–24 in that nearly half (49,7%) did not contain any employed members, compared to nearly a fifth (18,9%) for households headed by older youth and

28,3% for all households. A larger proportion of individuals in households headed by older youth were employed (0,43 compared to 0,29 in households headed by younger youth).

A large proportion of youth was neither in employment nor studying. They represent a loss to the economy as well as a serious social challenge. The proportion of youth who were not employed or in education increases briskly after age seventeen until it eventually seem to peak by age 23. By the age of 23 years, 52,1% of youth were neither in school nor working, while a further 33,1% were in employment and 14,8% in education. By the age of 24, only about one-third (38,8%) of youth were employed while 52,3% were still unemployed and not attending any educational institution. The study confirms that female youth were at a considerable disadvantage when it comes to employment as well as being out of education. The percentage of females that were 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 (38,9%), working/having no time to study (20,4%) and has completed school/education (8,2%). 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 10%. Participation in education for women aged 18 years and older increased significantly between 2002 and 2012. 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 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 2012. For the age cohort 18 to 24 there was an increase from 27,1% to 33,4%, whilst for the ages 25 to 34 the secondary completion rates increased from 29,4% to 34,3%. While the percentage of individuals who have attained some post school qualification increased considerably for both age cohorts between 2002 and 2012, a much smaller percentage of African and coloured youth 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 2012. Households headed by younger youth (aged 15–24) were more likely to have experienced hunger than households headed by older youth (11,4% compared to 10,7%). Similarly youth aged 15–24 were 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 were 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, increased from 1,2% in 2003 to 51,1% in 2012, 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 (29,3%) and children younger than 18 years (61,8%).

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 were living in formal dwellings. However, significantly more youth headed households were living in traditional or informal dwellings. For youth in general the percentage of youth who lived in traditional dwellings remained stable at approximately 11%, whilst the percentage living in informal dwellings declined slightly from 13,8% to 11,2% between 2002 and 2012.

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 2012. 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 households headed by youth in the age group 15–24.

Despite having access to electricity from the mains, many households continue to use alternative sources of energy for energy intensive activities such as cooking and heating, mainly because solid fuels are often available more cheaply. These sources unfortunately generate substantial emissions of many health-damaging pollutants. Despite noticeable declines in the proportion of households that had been using solid fuels for cooking over the past decade, households headed by younger youth (21,0%) were still more likely to use solid fuels for cooking than households headed by older youth (13,2%) or indeed, household in general (17,3%).

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 2012 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

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 comprised approximately 52% of South Africa's population in 2011 (Statistics South Africa, 2011). Although more boys than girls are usually born, the proportion 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 2011 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 102 for the 0–4 age cohort, to 101 for 25–29, 84 for 50–54, 79 for 60–64 and finally 42 for the population over the age of 85 years. This implies that there were 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 was very similar to that for males. Black African women represented the majority of women in eight provinces. Coloured women outweighed women from other population groups in Western Cape and also had a significant presence in Northern Cape. White women constituted sizeable minorities in Gauteng and Western Cape.

Table 4.1: Percentage distribution of women by population group and province, 2012

Province	Population group				Per cent	Total (thousands)
	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White		
Western Cape	28,5	52,7	0,6	18,2	100,0	3 095
Eastern Cape	88,5	6,6	0,3	4,7	100,0	3 389
Northern Cape	53,7	39,5	0,0	6,8	100,0	585
Free State	89,4	1,8	0,4	8,5	100,0	1 404
KwaZulu-Natal	87,0	1,5	8,5	3,1	100,0	5 481
North West	93,6	1,2	0,2	5,0	100,0	1 778
Gauteng	77,3	3,3	2,1	17,3	100,0	6 099
Mpumalanga	92,9	0,3	0,9	5,9	100,0	2 104
Limpopo	97,7	0,3	0,2	1,8	100,0	2 887
South Africa	79,7	9,1	2,4	8,8	100,0	26 822

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 80,1% and 68,6% of males and females in the age group 18–34 years were respectively classified as never married in 2012, only 5,6% of males and 9,6% of females over the age of 60 years were never married. Although women were more likely to be married or cohabitating than men in the

age group 18–34 (29,8% compared to 19,1%), a smaller percentage of women were 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 were more likely to be married or cohabitating than women, but it is important to note that 10,2% of women in this age group were widowed (compared to 2,3% of men), while approximately 7,1% were 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 slightly more than three-quarters 75,5% of males over the age of 60 years were still married or living with a partner, this was true for only 32,6% of females. It is important to note that more than half (51,3%) of women over the age of 60 years were widowed compared to only 14,6% 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: Marital or relationship status by gender and age group, 2012

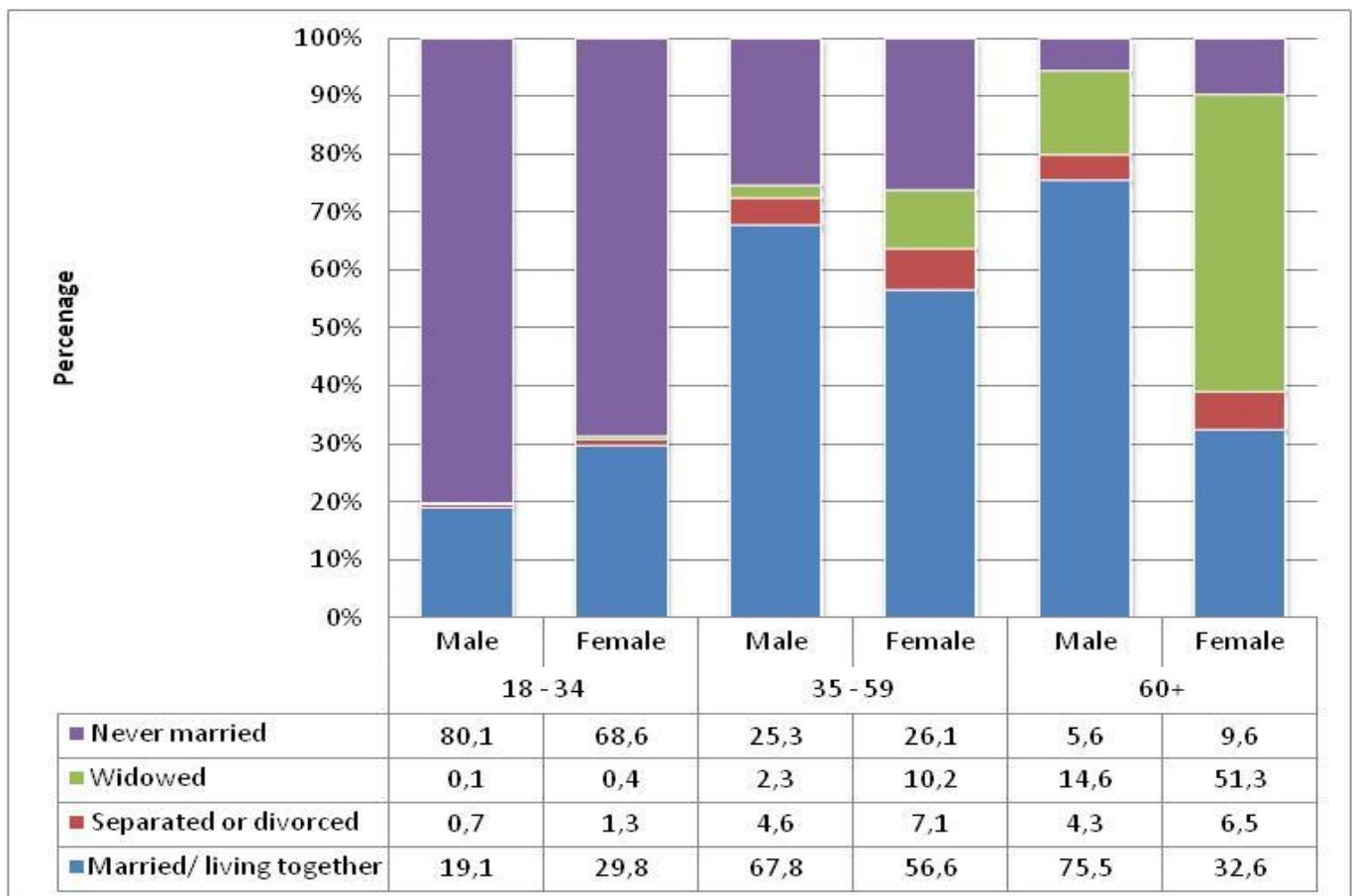
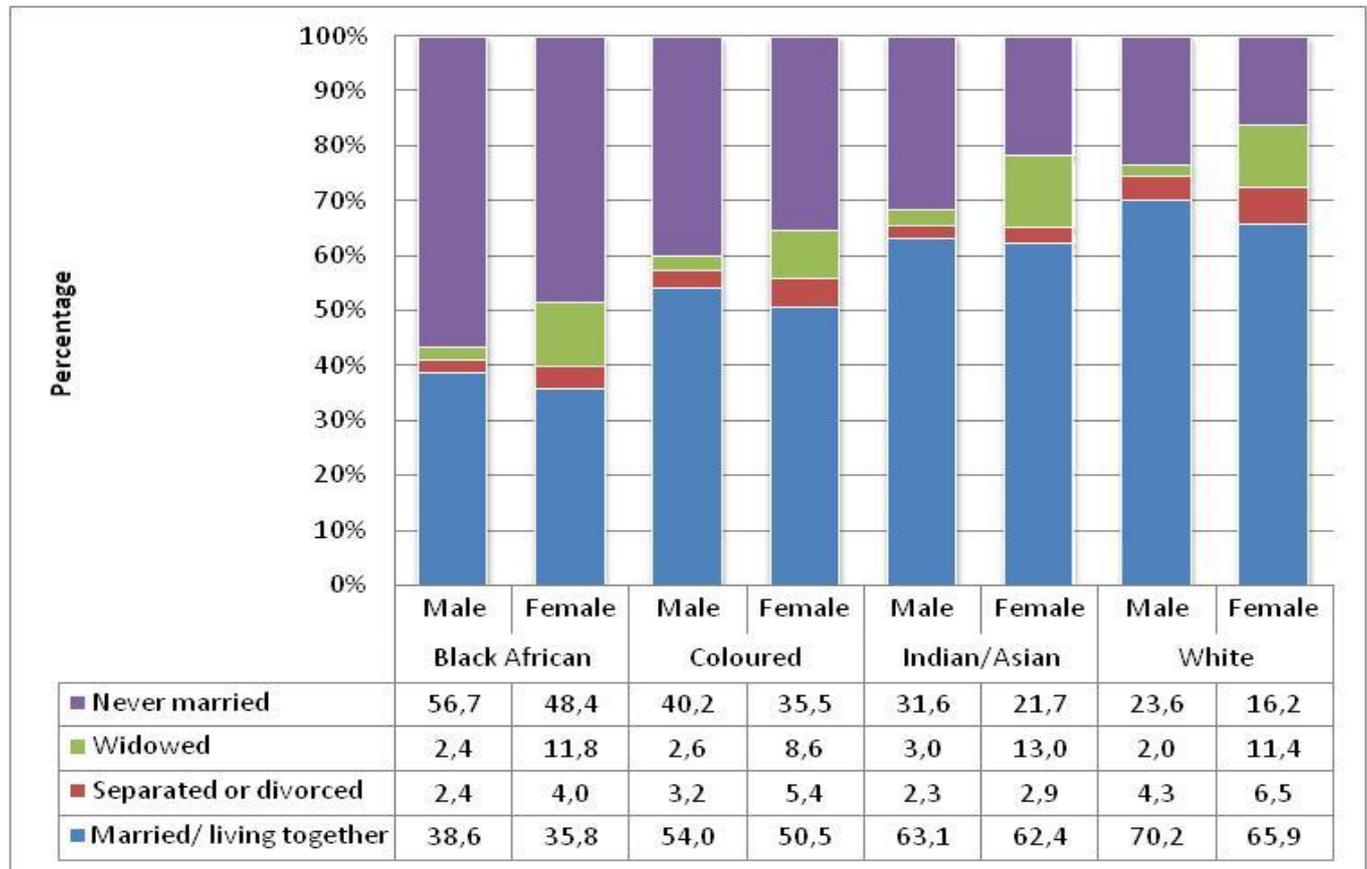


Figure 4.2 indicates that, of all population groups, black Africans were generally least likely to get married. Whereas 70,2% of white males and 65,9% of white females were married or living together, 63% of Indians/Asians females and 50,5% of coloured females did so. Males were generally more likely than females to be married or living together, but also less likely to be separated or divorced. According to Figure 4.2 relatively few partners were divorced or separated.

Figure 4.2: Marital or relationship of individuals aged 18 years and older by gender and population group, 2012



According to Table 4.2 approximately 41% of the country's households were headed by women. The highest percentage of female-headed households were recorded in Limpopo (51,4%), followed by Eastern Cape (49,4%) and KwaZulu-Natal (48,2%). Gauteng (31,3%), North West (39,3%) and Western Cape (39,4%) had the smallest percentage of female-headed households.

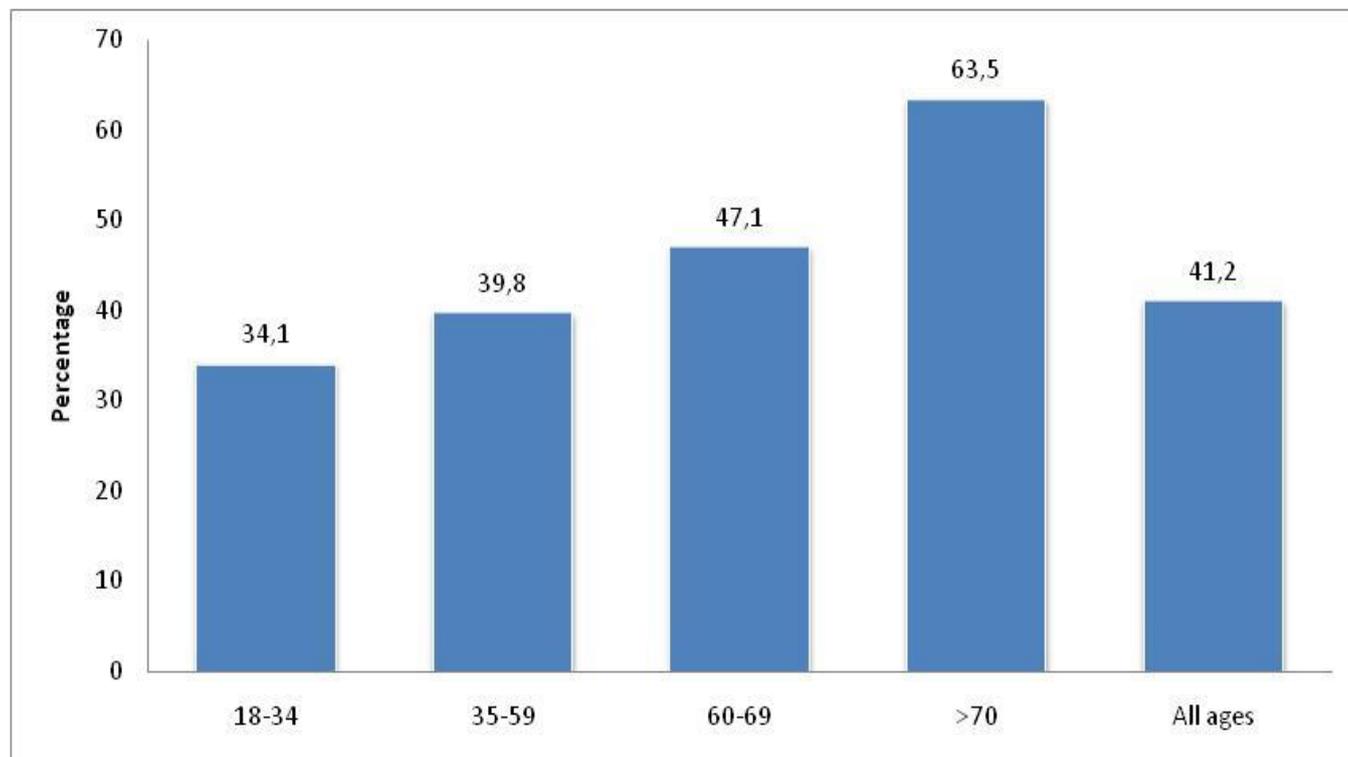
Table 4.2: Percentage distribution of female-headed households by province, 2002–2012

Province	Year										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Western Cape	32,3	33,1	33,4	33,6	35,6	34,7	34,4	33,5	34,3	35,2	39,4
Eastern Cape	50,7	51,1	50,6	51,2	50,8	50,6	50,0	49,1	47,8	49,7	49,4
Northern Cape	31,2	33,6	32,8	39,5	40,0	39,5	37,5	40,6	42,7	40,8	41,0
Free State	34,2	33,8	32,9	36,4	38,1	39,6	43,2	42,2	41,3	41,4	41,7
KwaZulu-Natal	46,5	46,6	47,3	47,0	45,1	46,3	46,7	47,8	47,4	47,4	48,2
North West	39,0	36,8	36,4	35,7	36,6	38,3	36,5	36,4	37,1	37,1	39,3
Gauteng	30,8	32,2	32,3	31,4	31,1	31,7	31,0	32,6	33,2	32,3	31,3
Mpumalanga	39,7	38,1	41,0	40,8	43,2	41,3	44,2	42,3	42,2	43,0	41,5
Limpopo	53,5	52,8	52,5	53,7	54,6	52,8	54,4	52,8	53,6	53,8	51,4
South Africa	40,0	40,1	40,3	40,5	40,6	40,7	40,8	40,9	41,0	41,1	41,2
Total (thousands)	10 814	11 113	11 425	11 754	12 107	12 485	12 886	13 303	13 731	14 173	14 631

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

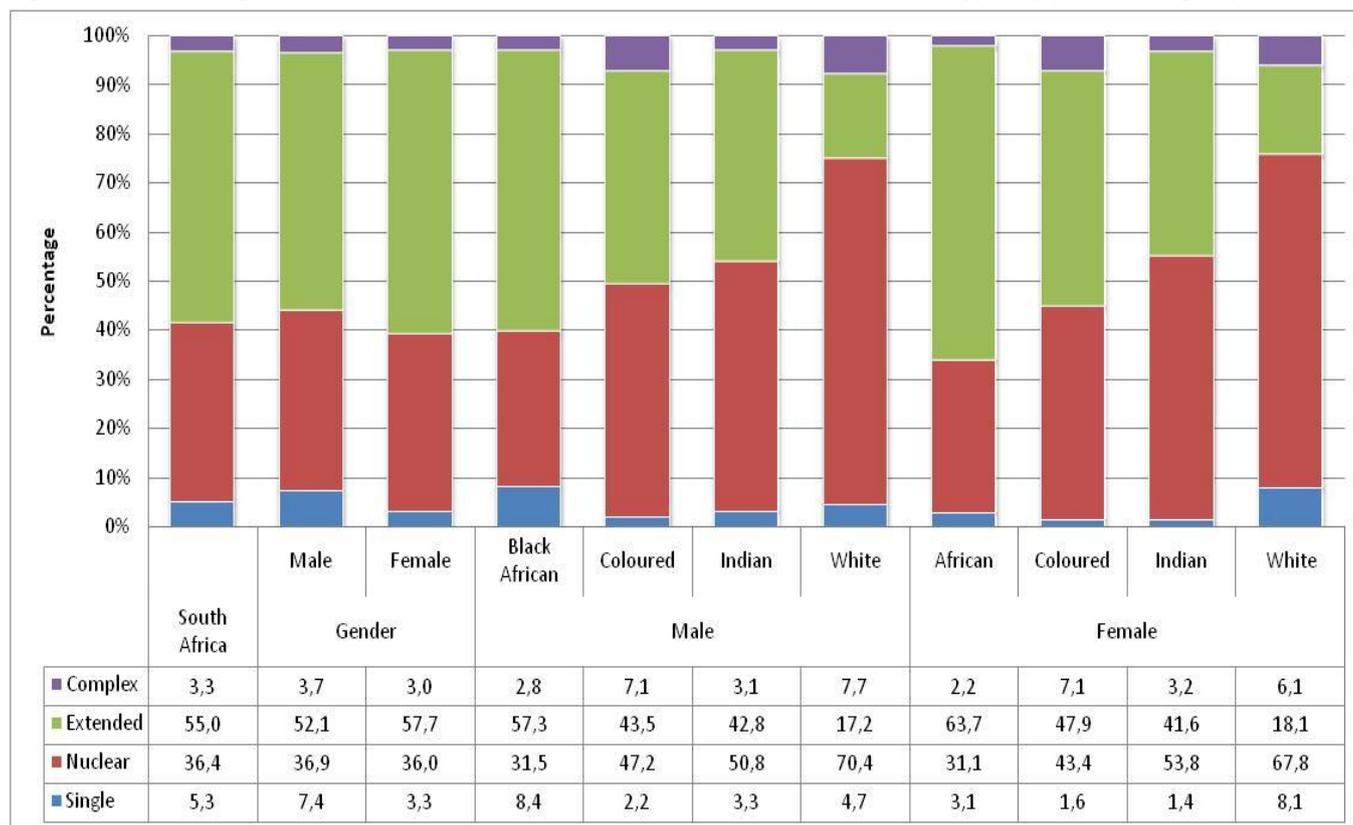
The distribution of female-headed households seems to increase with age. Figure 4.3 indicates that the percentage of female-headed households were larger in successive age groups, rising from 34,1% for the age group 18–34 years to 63,5% for the age group over 70 years. This increase can undoubtedly be associated with the greater prevalence of widowhood among women with age.

Figure 4.3: Percentage distribution of female-headed households by age group, 2012



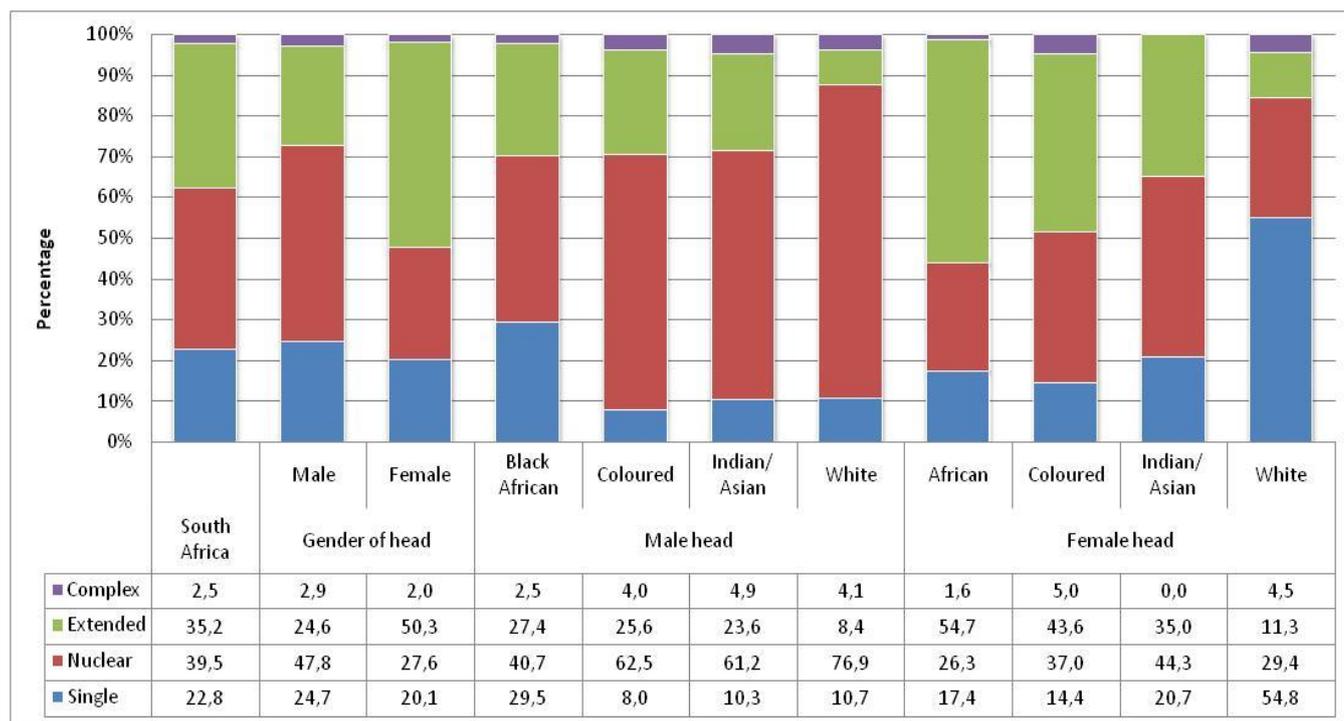
Males and females were distributed very similarly across different household types. Figure 4.4 shows that the largest percentage of males and females lived in extended or nuclear families. The variation between population groups was, however, more visible. While black Africans and coloured people were most likely to live in extended households, Indians/Asians and whites were more likely to live in nuclear households.

Figure 4.4: Percentage distribution of males and females across different household types by population group, 2012



Nationally, 39,5% of household were classified as nuclear while a further 35,2% were classified as extended households. According to Figure 4.5, female-headed households were however more likely to be extended than male-headed ones, which, in turn, were more likely to be nuclear households. A slightly larger percentage of male-headed households were single. Gender differences are accentuated by population group. More than three-quarters (76,9%) of households headed by white males were nuclear compared to only 29,4% of white female-headed households. Similarly, more than half (54,8%) of all households headed by white females were single households, most likely due to the higher level of divorce and widowhood for women over 60 years, while only 10,7% of white male-headed households were single person households. Households headed by black African women tended to be extended households.

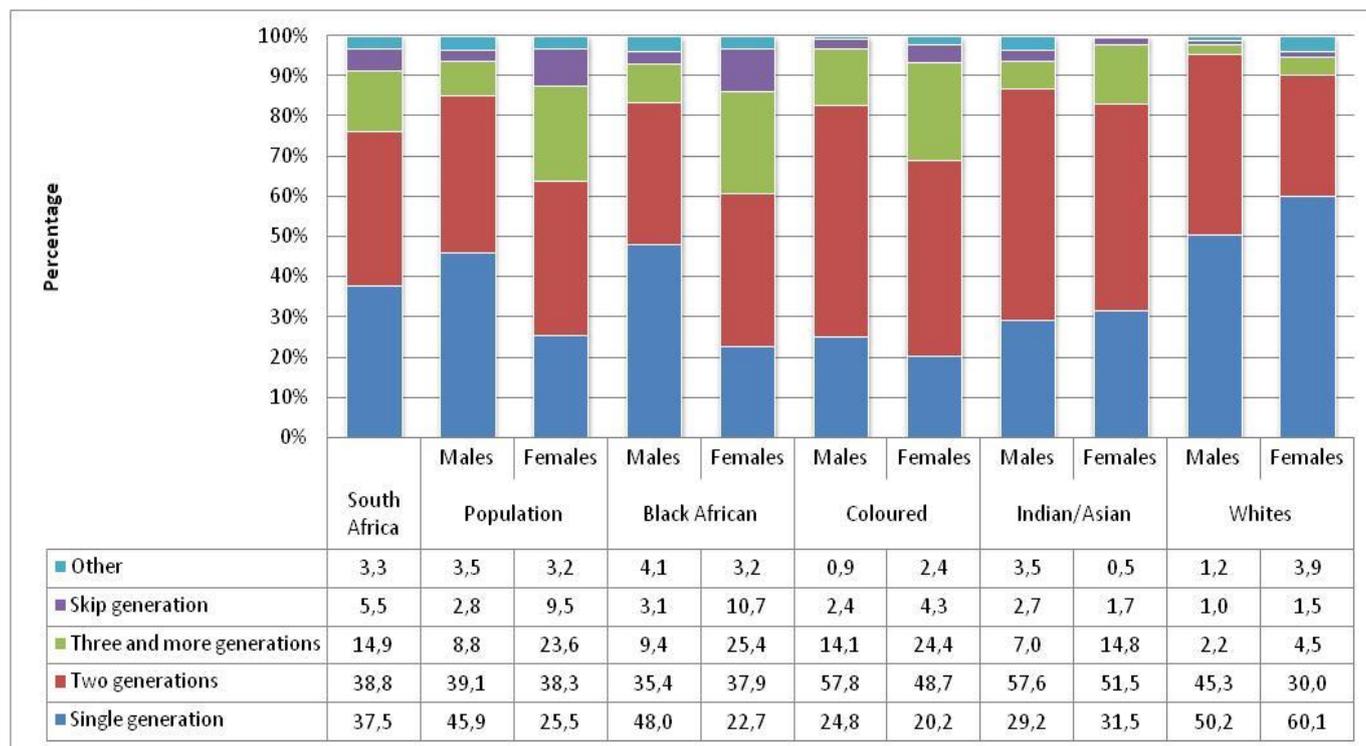
Figure 4.5: Percentage distribution of male- and female-headed households by household composition and population group, 2012



The percentage distribution of male and female-headed households by population group across different kinds of intergenerational household types is presented in Figure 4.6. Female-headed households were less likely to contain only one generation than male-headed households. Furthermore, female-headed households were much more likely to be skip-generation households, or households that contained three or more generations. Households headed by black African and coloured female heads showed a very similar trend. White male (50,2%) and specifically white female-headed households (60,1%) were 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 were also much less likely than households of other population groups to be a skip-generation household, or to contain three or more generations.

Some general characteristics of male and female headed households are presented in Table 4.3. The **mean size** of South African households gradually declined from 3,7 in 2002 to 3,4 in 2012. Female-headed households were generally larger than households headed by males (3,7 compared to 3,2 in 2012).

Figure 4.6: Percentage of households by type of intergenerational household, gender of the household head and population group, 2012



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 had a substantially higher dependency ratio than male-headed households. In 2012, each working-age person in female-headed households supported 0,98 persons compared to 0,60 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 was larger for female-headed households. On Average, each person in female-headed households was expected to support 0,16 older persons while each person in male-headed households was expected to support 0,12 older persons.

The **child dependency ratio** refers to the ratio of children (below 18 years) to working-age individuals. Female-headed households had a child dependency ratio of approximately 0,83 compared to only 0,48 for male-headed households.

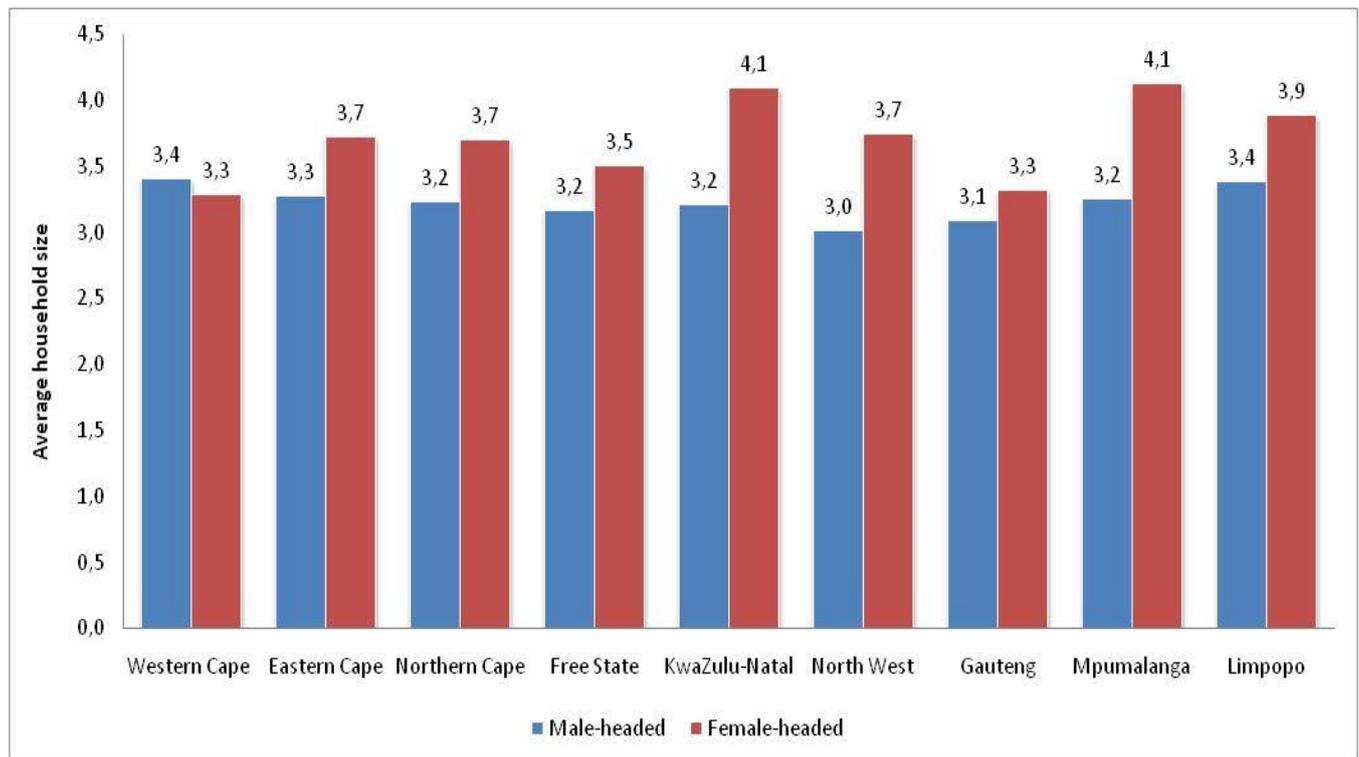
The **mean proportion of children** per household is a measure of the average proportion of children (defined as individuals below the age of 18 years) of the household size. It is not surprising to note that the proportion of children was higher in female-headed households (0,42) than in male-headed households (0,30). Female-headed households did not only on average contain a larger proportion of children, but the burden of support was 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, 2002–2012

Gender	Indicator	Year										
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Mean household size												
Male	Average	3,6	3,4	3,3	3,4	3,3	3,2	3,4	3,3	3,3	3,3	3,2
Female		3,9	3,8	3,7	3,7	3,7	3,7	3,8	3,7	3,8	3,8	3,7
South Africa		3,7	3,6	3,5	3,5	3,4	3,4	3,6	3,4	3,5	3,5	3,4
Total dependency ratio												
Male	Average	0,71	0,68	0,67	0,65	0,63	0,64	0,64	0,63	0,64	0,62	0,60
Female		1,07	1,03	1,02	1,04	1,01	1,01	1,02	1,02	1,01	1,00	0,98
South Africa		0,84	0,81	0,80	0,80	0,77	0,78	0,79	0,78	0,79	0,77	0,75
Old-age dependency ratio												
Male	Average	0,12	0,12	0,12	0,12	0,12	0,12	0,12	0,12	0,12	0,12	0,12
Female		0,14	0,14	0,14	0,15	0,15	0,15	0,15	0,15	0,15	0,16	0,16
South Africa		0,13	0,14	0,14								
Child dependency ratio												
Male	Average	0,59	0,56	0,54	0,54	0,51	0,52	0,52	0,51	0,52	0,50	0,48
Female		0,93	0,89	0,87	0,89	0,86	0,85	0,87	0,86	0,86	0,84	0,83
South Africa		0,72	0,68	0,67	0,67	0,64	0,65	0,66	0,65	0,65	0,63	0,62
Mean proportion of children per household												
Male	Average	0,34	0,33	0,33	0,32	0,31	0,32	0,32	0,31	0,32	0,31	0,30
Female		0,45	0,44	0,43	0,43	0,43	0,43	0,43	0,43	0,43	0,42	0,42
South Africa		0,39	0,38	0,37	0,37	0,36	0,36	0,37	0,36	0,37	0,36	0,35

The average household size of male and female headed households per province is presented in Figure 4.7. On average, female-headed households were larger than male-headed households in all provinces but Western Cape. The average size of female headed households was largest in KwaZulu-Natal (4,1), Mpumalanga (4,1), Limpopo (3,9), North West, Northern and Eastern Cape (3,7 each) and smallest in Western Cape (3,3) and Gauteng (3,3).

Figure 4.7: Mean household size by gender of the household head and province, 2012



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 households main sources of income in Table 4.4. While more than two-thirds (68,1%) of male-headed households had consistently reported income from salaries and/or wages as the main source of income, only 46% of female-headed households did so. Female-headed households have historically tended to rely more on remittances, as well as pensions and grants than male-headed households. In 2012, more than one-third (35,2%) of female-headed households reported pensions and grants as their main source of income, compared to only 14,6% of male-headed households. The percentage of male and female-headed households that reported remittances as a main source of income declined consistently since 2002, while the percentage of households with social grants/pensions as main source of income increased 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 that indicated that they did not have any income, has declined to 0,5% for female-headed households and to 1,1% for male-headed households.

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

Table 4.4: Percentage distribution of the main sources of income for households by gender of the household head, 2002–2012

Source of income	Year										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Male-headed											
Salaries and/or wages	69,0	67,8	67,8	69,7	70,5	72,9	72,9	68,1	66,6	65,6	68,1
Remittances	9,0	10,1	9,6	8,5	7,8	6,8	6,9	6,0	6,9	6,8	5,1
Pensions and grants	12,0	12,8	13,5	13,9	14,7	13,8	14,9	15,5	15,4	15,8	14,6
Sales of farm products	1,1	1,0	1,3	1,1	1,4	1,0	0,8	0,2	0,2	0,1	0,1
Other non-farm income	6,0	5,5	6,0	4,9	3,2	3,0	2,0	9,3	9,9	10,5	11,0
No income	2,9	2,9	1,8	1,9	2,4	2,6	2,4	0,9	1,1	1,2	1,1
Per cent	100,0										
Total (thousands)	6 457	6 642	6 809	6 976	7 138	7 351	7 579	7 654	7 829	8 078	8 233
Female-headed											
Salaries and/or wages	45,2	43,9	43,4	44,4	46,0	47,4	47,5	45,3	45,1	44,9	46,0
Remittances	22,9	23,1	22,4	17,8	15,7	15,5	14,5	13,7	14,7	13,6	12,3
Pensions and Grants	22,6	24,9	27,0	30,7	31,6	30,8	33,1	34,5	34,3	34,8	35,2
Sales of farm products	0,7	0,8	0,7	0,7	1,2	1,0	0,6	0,1	0,1	0,0	0,0
Other non-farm income	5,4	4,1	5,1	4,3	3,1	3,3	1,9	5,9	5,3	6,0	6,1
No income	3,3	3,1	1,5	2,2	2,4	2,0	2,4	0,6	0,6	0,6	0,5
Per cent	100,0										
Total (thousands)	4 301	4 452	4 599	4 744	4 890	5 057	5 235	5 238	5 334	5 565	5 655

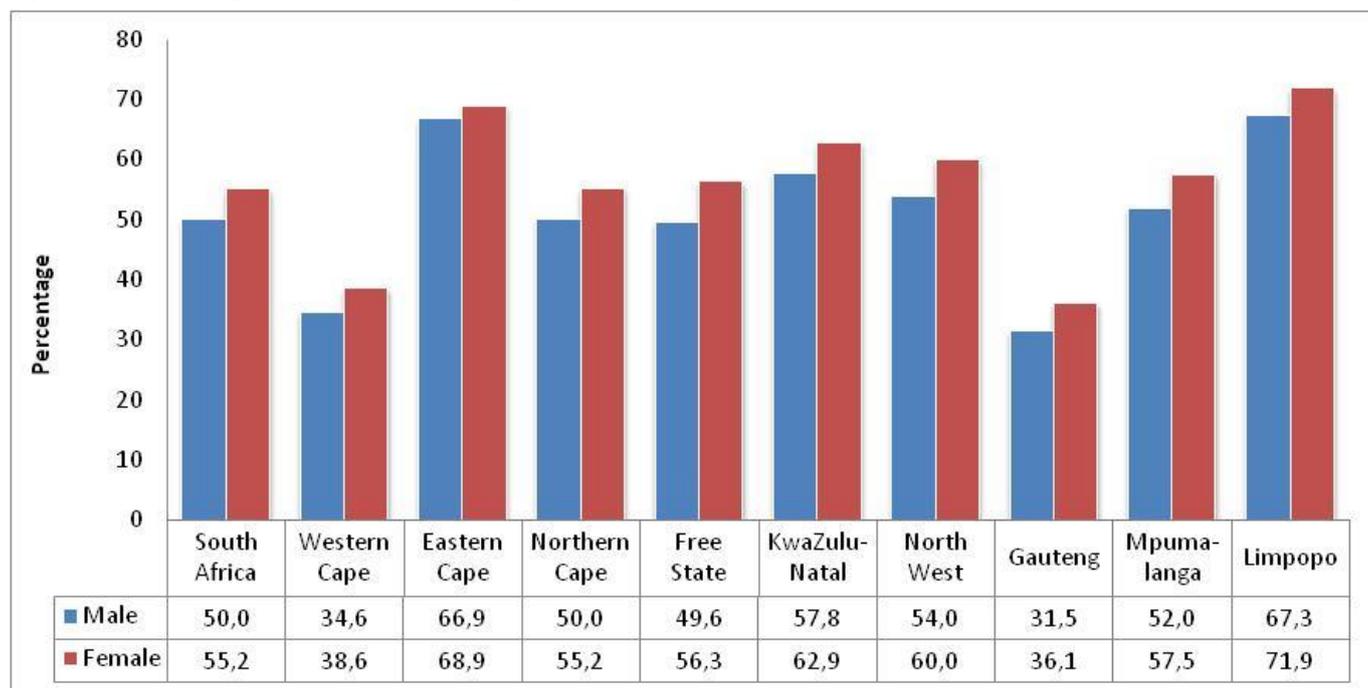
Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

Households in the lowest quintile (quintile 1) earned less than R390 per person per month, while households in quintile 5 earned more than R3997 per capita per month. Female-headed households were clearly more likely than male-headed households to be classified as quintile 1 or 2 households, but much less likely to fall into the wealthiest income quintiles.

The percentage of males and females that lived in low-income households by province is presented in Figure 4.8. Households were categorised into income quintiles based on their per capita monthly income. Low-income households were classified as the poorest 40% of households that had a per capita monthly income of less than

R765 in 2012. The figure reveals that females were generally more likely to live in low-income households than males across all provinces. The percentage of low-income households was highest in Limpopo, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal, and lowest in Western Cape and Gauteng.

Figure 4.8: Percentage of the population living in low income households by gender and province, 2012



It is clear from Figure 4.9 that females were more likely to live in poor households than males across all population groups. The only exception is for Indian/Asians where women were slightly less likely to live in low-income households. Nationally, 55,2% of females lived in poor households compared to approximately 50% of males in 2012. Black African males and females were also much more likely to live in poor households than individuals from any other population group.

Figure 4.9: Percentage of the population living in low income households by gender and population group, 2012

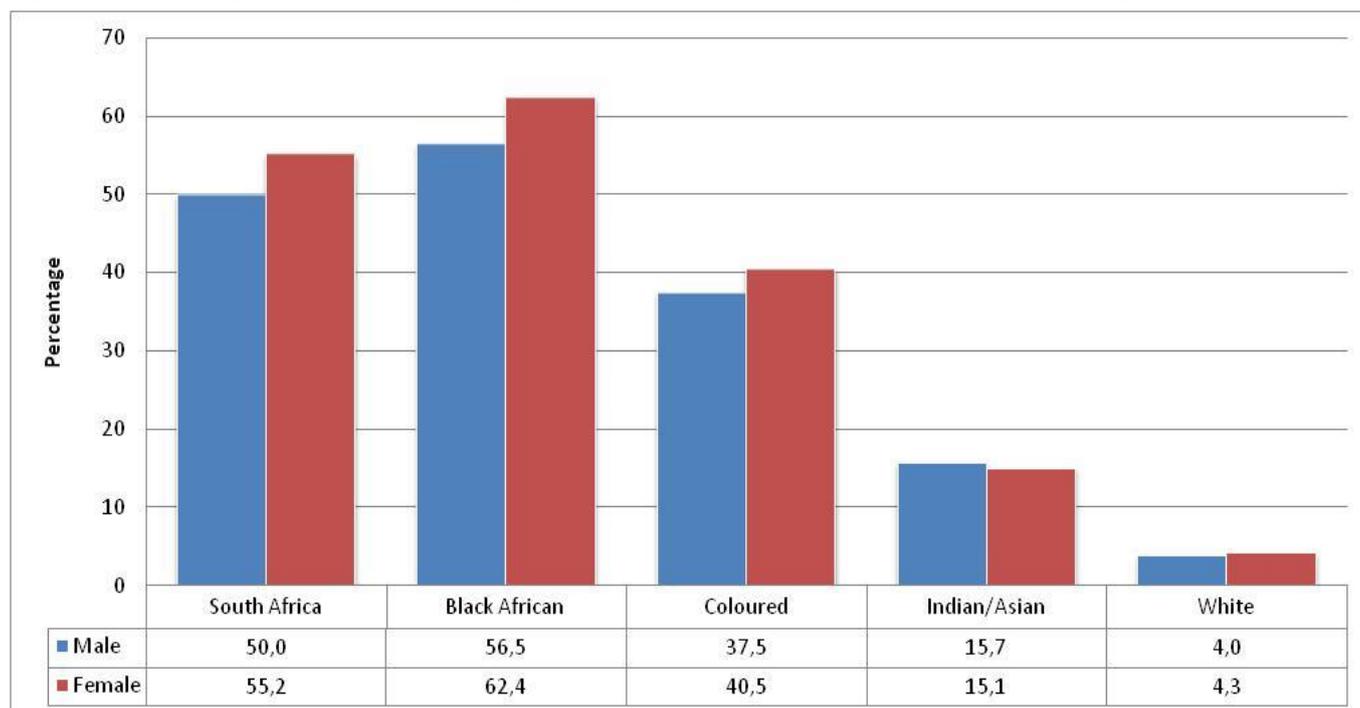
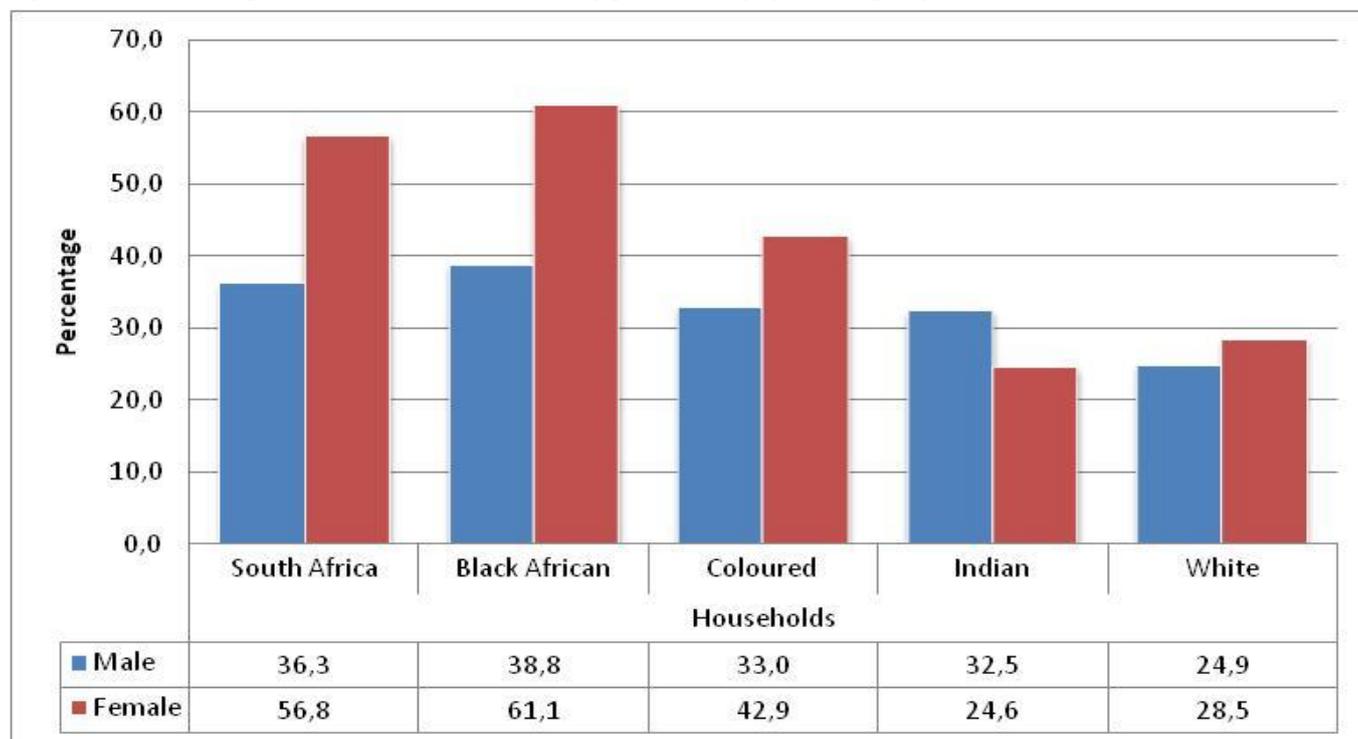


Figure 4.10 shows that female headed households were strikingly more likely to have a low income than male headed households. More than half (56,8%) of female headed households declared an income of less than R765 per capita per month compared to more than a third (36,3%) of male headed households. Households headed by black African, coloured and white females were much more likely to be poor than households headed by males in these population groups. Indian/Asian female-headed households were less likely to be low-income households than Indian/Asian male-headed households.

Figure 4.10: Percentage of low-income households by gender and population group of the household head, 2012



According to Figure 4.11, female headed households were more likely to be poor than male headed households across all provinces. Female headed households were most likely to be poor in Limpopo (69,8%), followed by Free State (65,3%) and Eastern Cape (64,3%). In general, households were least likely to be poor in Western Cape and Gauteng.

Figure 4.11: Percentage of male and female headed households living in low income households by province, 2012

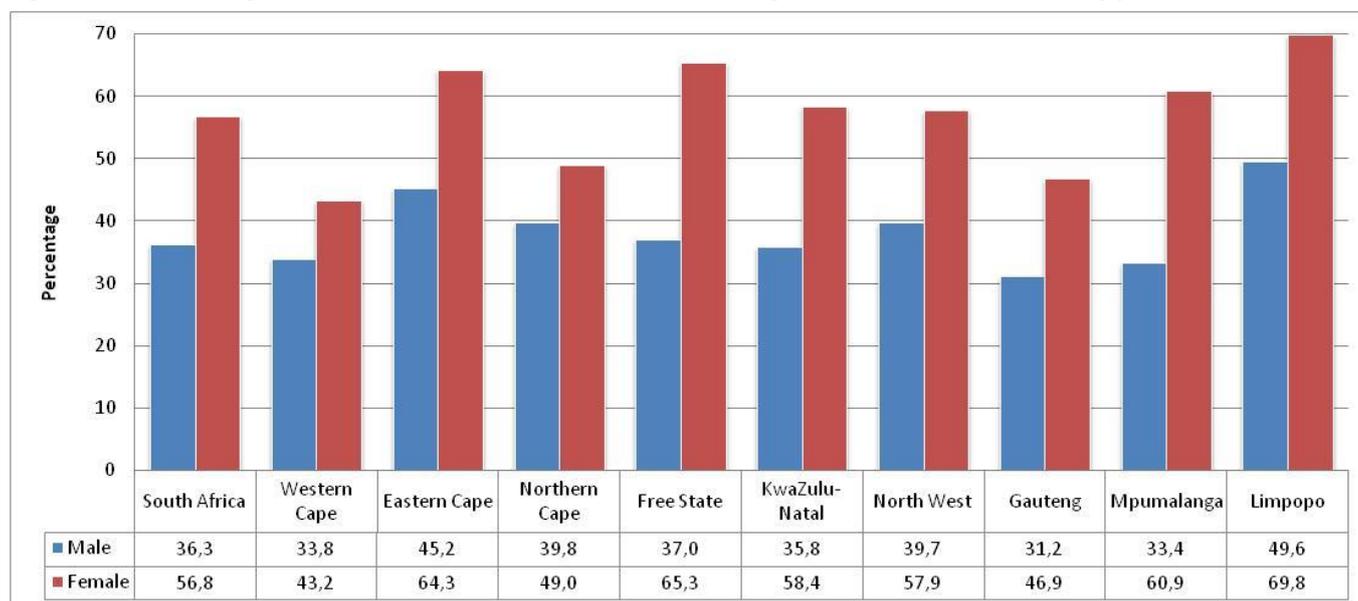
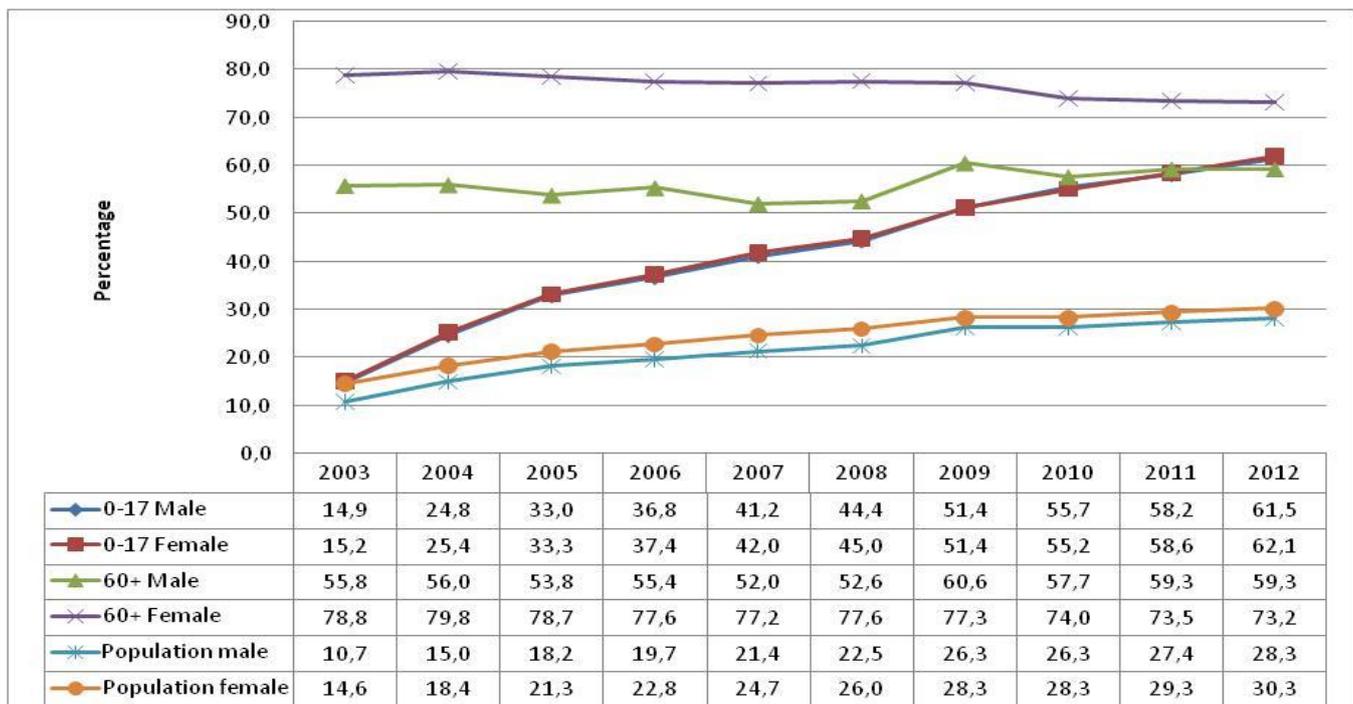


Figure 4.12 presents the percentage of males and females that were beneficiaries of any kind of social grant. Social assistance in South Africa is fundamentally designed to assist children, persons with disabilities, and older persons, hence it can be expected that significant percentages of grant beneficiaries would be children or older persons. 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 started to benefit from the same age as women in 2010, the former practice led to a situation where women were significantly more likely to be grant beneficiaries than men. The sharp increase that began in 2008 is expected to eventually lead to a normalisation of the situation.

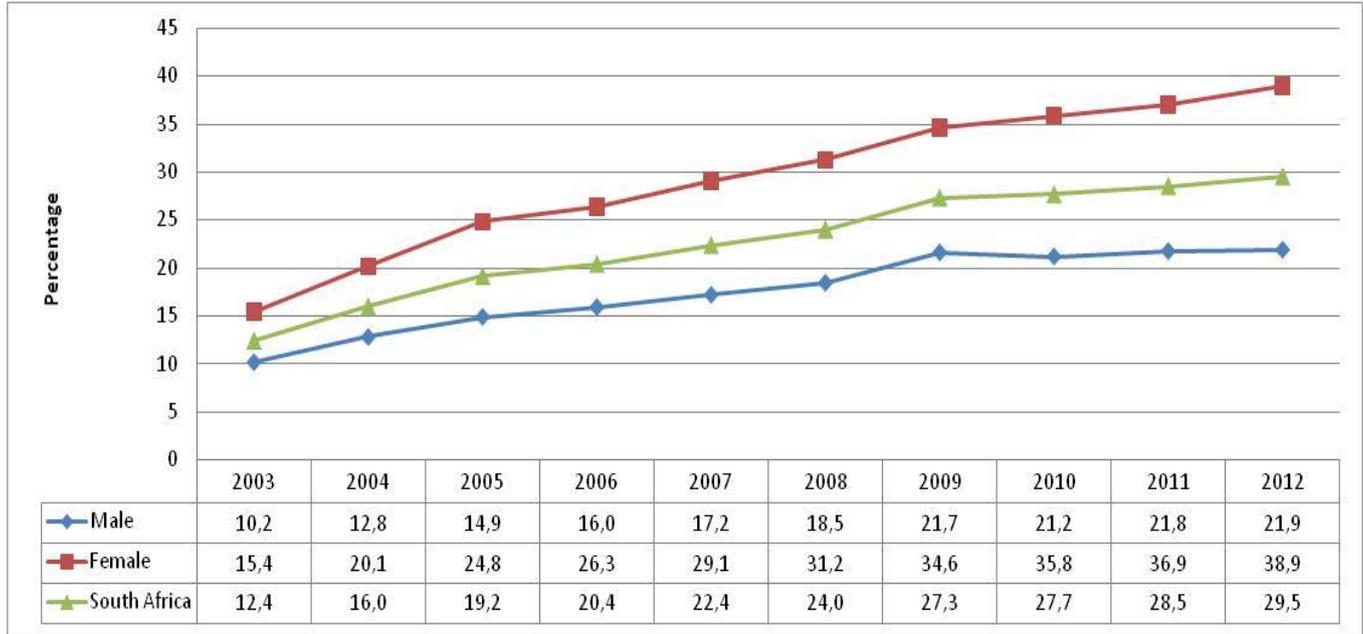
Boys and girls have always been submitted to the same non-discriminatory eligibility criteria and the difference between their respective uptakes is almost insignificant, as shown in Figure 4.13. As a result of the large variation between the percentage of elderly males and females who were beneficiaries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

Figure 4.12: Percentage of the population with access to social grants by gender and age group, 2003–2012



Female-headed households were significantly more likely to contain one or more grant beneficiaries than male-headed ones. Figure 4.13 illustrates the mean percentage of grant beneficiaries per household using the gender of the household head as reference point. By 2012, more than a third (38,9%) of the members of female-headed households were grant recipients, compared to 22% of male-headed households and 29,5% of 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 increased steadily since 2003 for both male and particularly female-headed households.

Figure 4.13: Mean percentage of grant beneficiaries per household by gender of the household head, 2003–2012



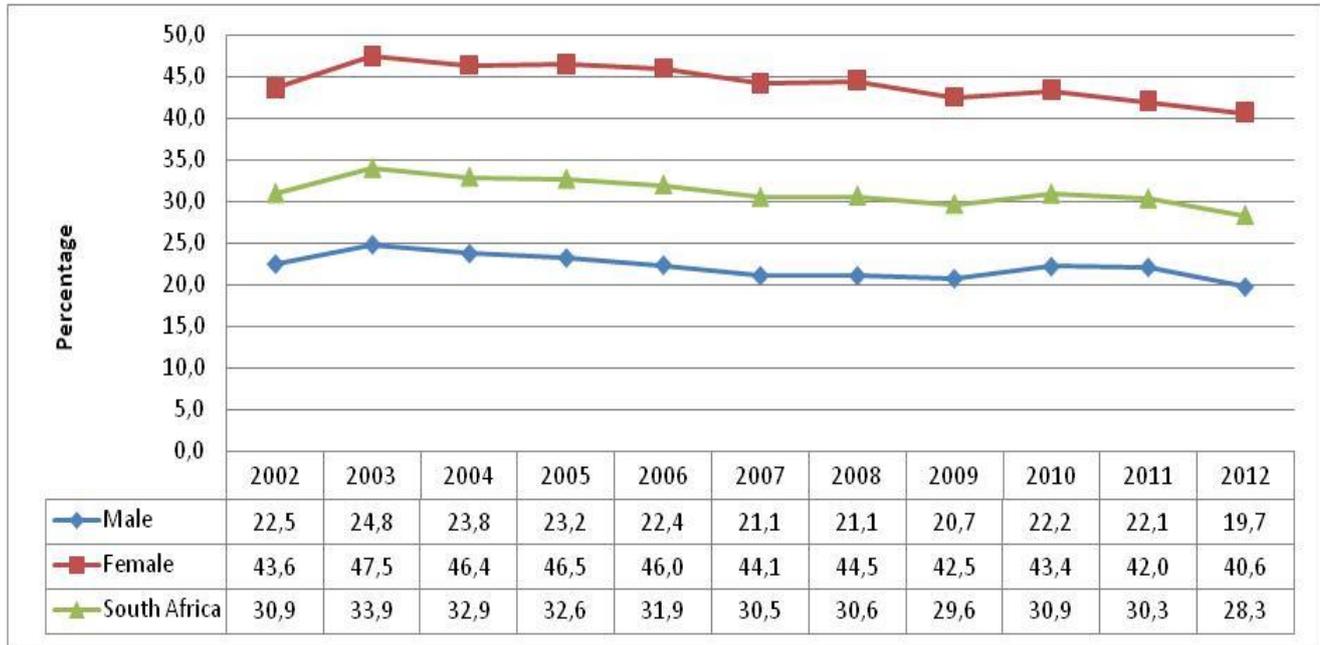
Since 1994, several pieces of legislation have been enacted to create an enabling environment for vulnerable groups such as women, and to improve their participation in income generating activities in the economy. Table 4.5 summarises the situation with regard to household participation in the economy by looking at the average proportion of employed household members according to the gender of the household head. 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. A larger proportion of household members in their economically active years have historically been employed in male-headed than in female-headed households. By 2012, this proportion was 0,38 for male-headed households compared to 0,21 for female-headed households.

Table 4.5: Average proportion of employed household members by gender of the household head, 2002–2012

Household head	Indicator	Year										
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Male	Average ratio	0,32	0,31	0,32	0,33	0,34	0,35	0,35	0,36	0,35	0,36	0,38
Female		0,18	0,17	0,18	0,18	0,19	0,20	0,19	0,20	0,20	0,20	0,21
South Africa		0,26	0,25	0,26	0,26	0,27	0,28	0,28	0,29	0,29	0,29	0,31

Figure 4.14 reveals that female-headed households were much more likely than male-headed households to not contain a single employed household member. Although the percentage of male and female-headed households without employed members had been declining since 2002, about 40,6% of female-headed households, and just below one-fifth (19,7%) of male-headed households were affected. It is important to keep in mind, however, that a large percentage of female heads were pensioners (see Figure 4.3) taking care of their children and often their grand children as well.

Figure 4.14: Percentage of households without any employed members by gender of the household head, 2002–2012



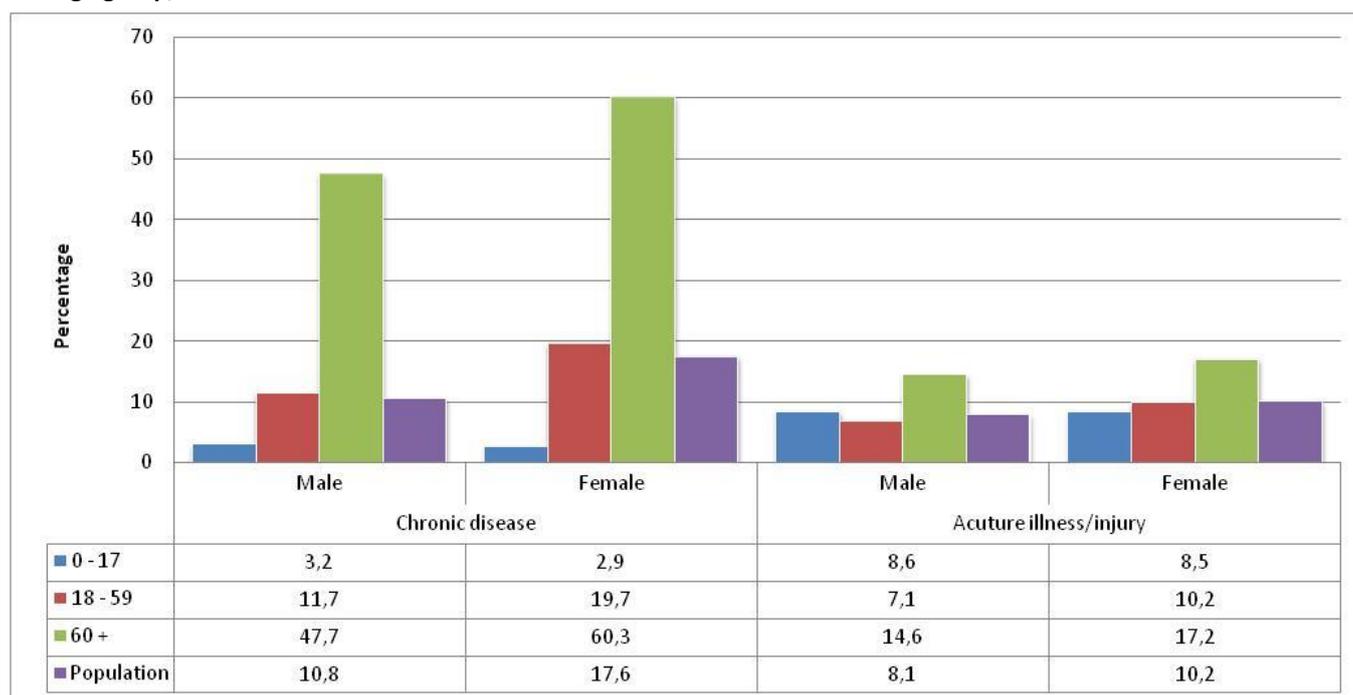
4.5 Health

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 differs 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 4.15 that women seem 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 exhibited 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 were about as likely as males to suffer from any chronic disease under the age of 17 years, their likelihood surpassed that of males in the other two age groups. A substantially larger percentage of females (60,3%) than males (47,7%) in the age group 60 years and older suffered from chronic conditions.

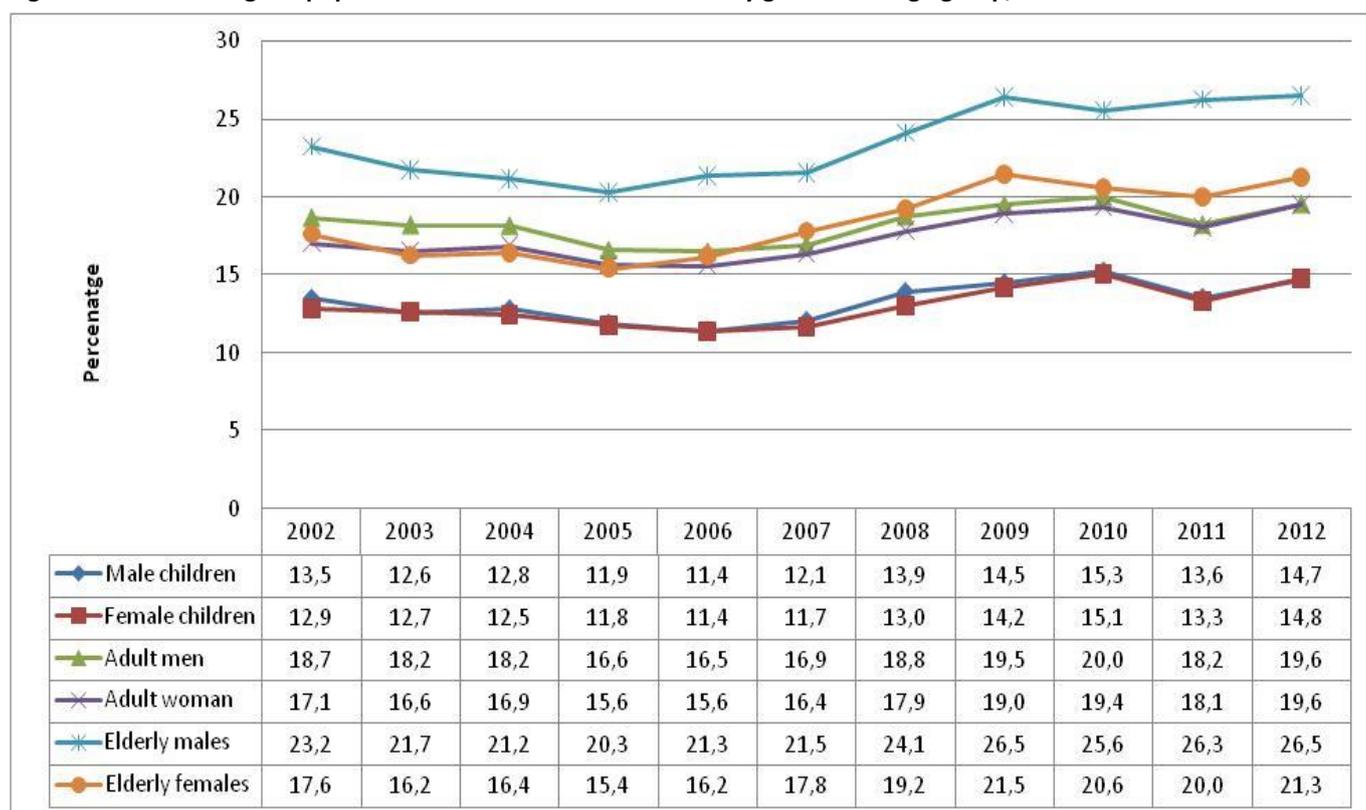
Due to women's longer life expectancy, a much greater percentage of the female population is comprised of women over the age of 75 years who have a higher likelihood of suffering some chronic diseases. This perhaps explains women's higher likelihood of suffering from chronic illnesses.

Figure 4.15: Percentage of males and females with chronic conditions or reporting acute injuries and/or illness by gender and age group, 2012



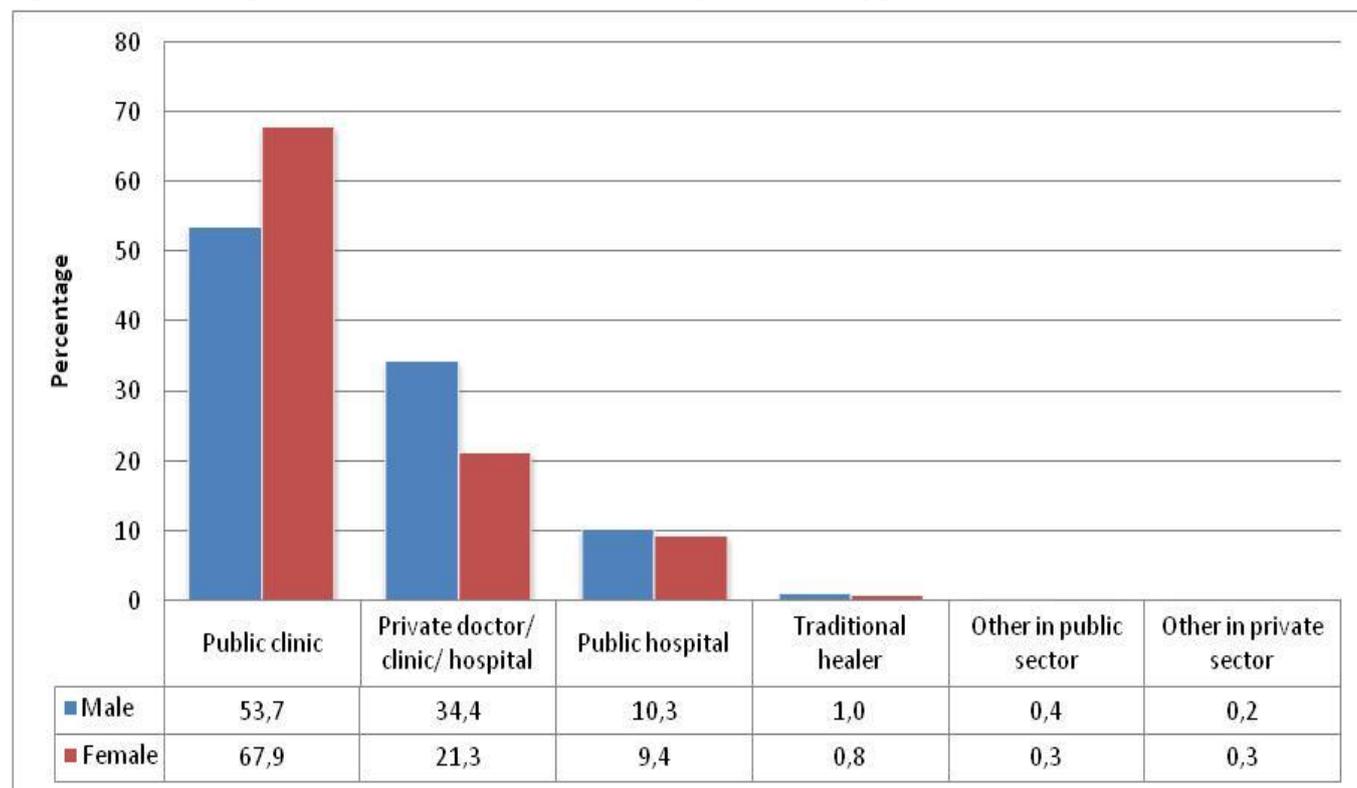
Although the Government has greatly improved access to affordable health care at public hospitals and clinics, the broader health care system still mirrors the large inequalities found in the contemporary society. According to Figure 4.16, older males were generally more likely to be members of medical aid schemes than older females. Access to medical aid was 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 had increased slightly between 2002 and 2012.

Figure 4.16: Percentage of population with access to medical aid by gender and age group, 2002–2012



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. Female-headed households were more willing than male-headed households to approach a public clinic for medical assistance (67,9% compared to 53,7%). About one-third (34,4%) of male-headed households preferred to use private doctors/clinics/hospitals compared to about one-fifth (21,3%) of female-headed households.

Figure 4.17: Percentage distribution of health facilities used by households by gender of the household head, 2012



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 4.18 that vulnerability to hunger is strongly associated with population groups. Black African males and females experienced the highest vulnerability to hunger during 2002 and 2012, followed in sequence by coloured people, and white Indians/Asians people. Although noticeable, the difference between male and

female experiences of hunger was relatively small. In 2012, Indians/Asians were less likely to live in households that reported hunger.

Figure 4.18: Percentage of males and females living in households that reported hunger, by gender and population group, 2002 and 2012

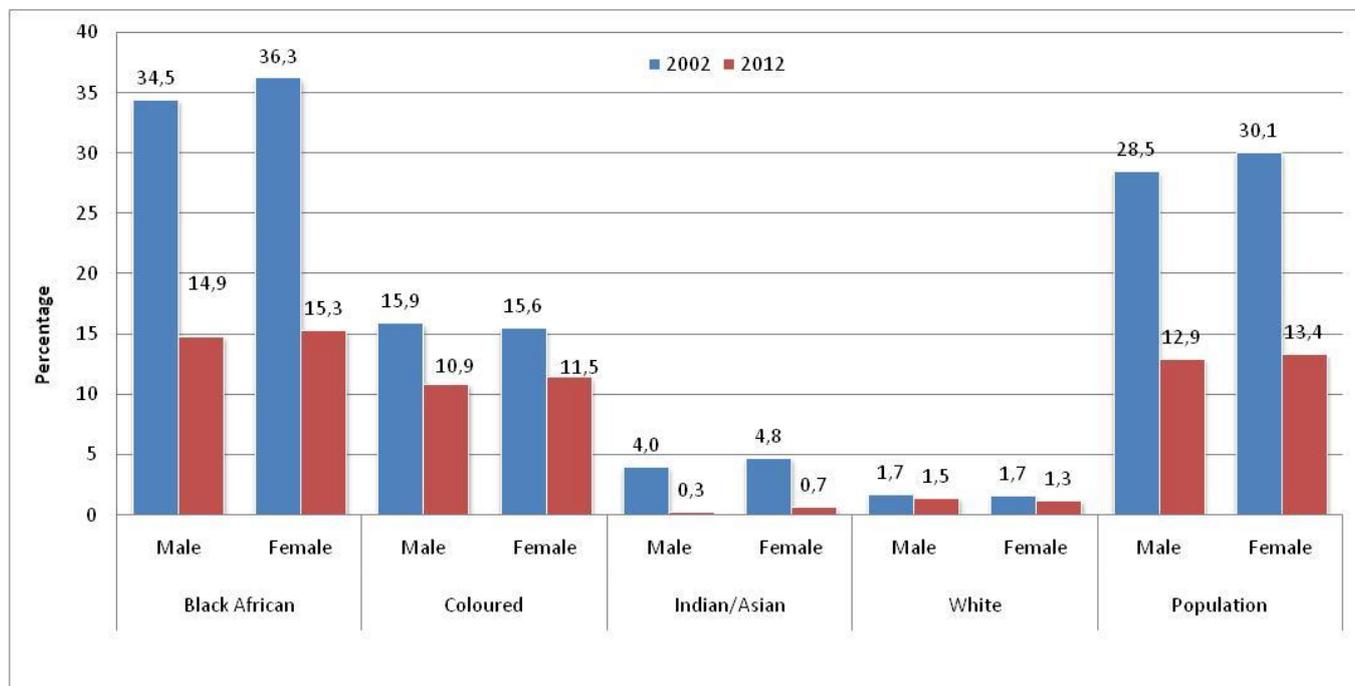


Table 4.6 explores the association between the age of the household head and the household's vulnerability to hunger within the context of apparent gender differences. It is clear from this table that female-headed households were consistently more likely to have experienced hunger than their male-headed equivalents across all age groups. In fact, if the six groups (male and female in each of the three 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 household heads in households that reported hunger by age group, 2002–2008, 2010-2012⁶

Age	Gender	Year									
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2010	2011	2012
18-34	Male	17,5	19,1	15,1	14,5	10,0	8,4	11,8	10,9	11,0	9,5
	Female	24,7	23,5	18,3	19,9	13,7	10,3	14,3	14,5	11,9	13,4
35-59	Male	19,6	18,5	15,3	12,9	9,6	9,0	11,6	11,1	11,1	9,5
	Female	33,3	30,0	24,8	21,4	15,7	15,8	17,5	18,5	14,9	15,5
Over 60	Male	21,9	20,5	15,8	14,3	9,4	8,7	10,1	9,9	8,0	7,7
	Female	30,8	29,2	24,4	18,3	12,7	12,5	14,0	13,7	11,9	11,2

The percentage of households that experienced hunger by population group and gender is presented in Figure 4.19. This figure shows that, despite improvements since 2002, female-headed households remained more likely than male-headed households to have experienced hunger across all population groups.

⁶ Questions on hunger were replaced by questions to measure food access and supply in 2009. The battery of questions was reinserted in 2010.

Figure 4.19: Percentage of households that have experienced hunger by population group and gender of the household head, 2002 and 2012

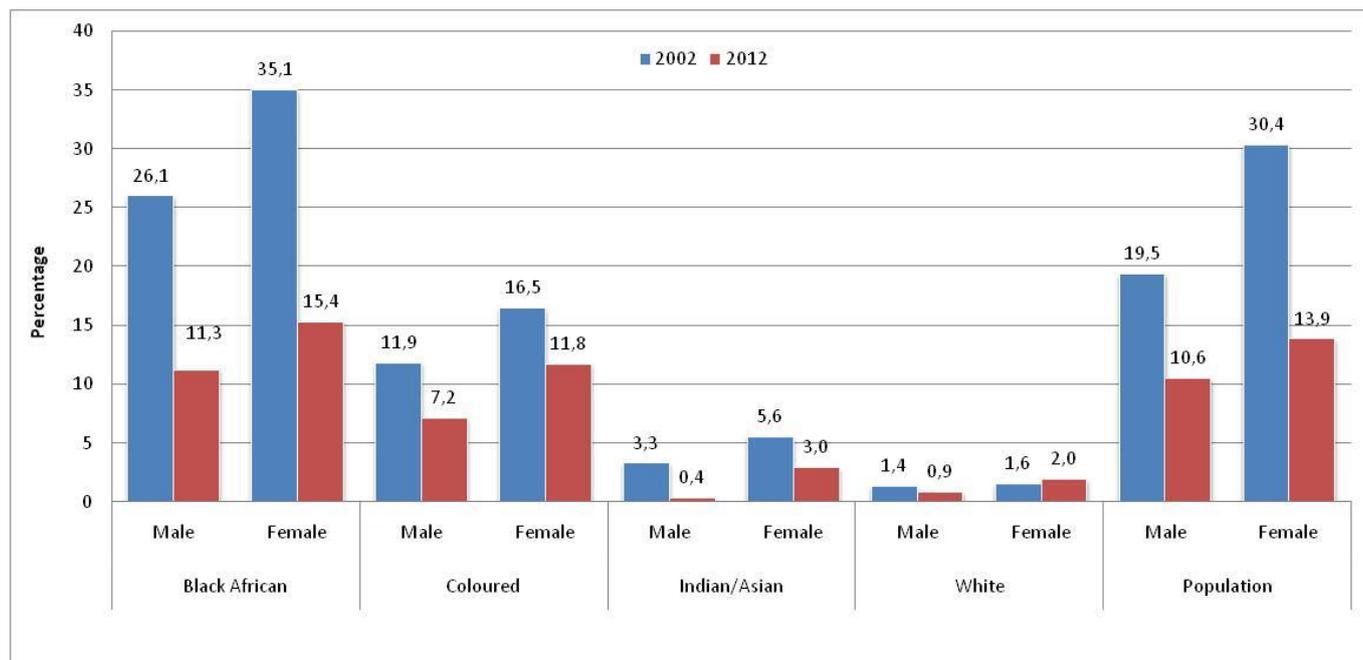
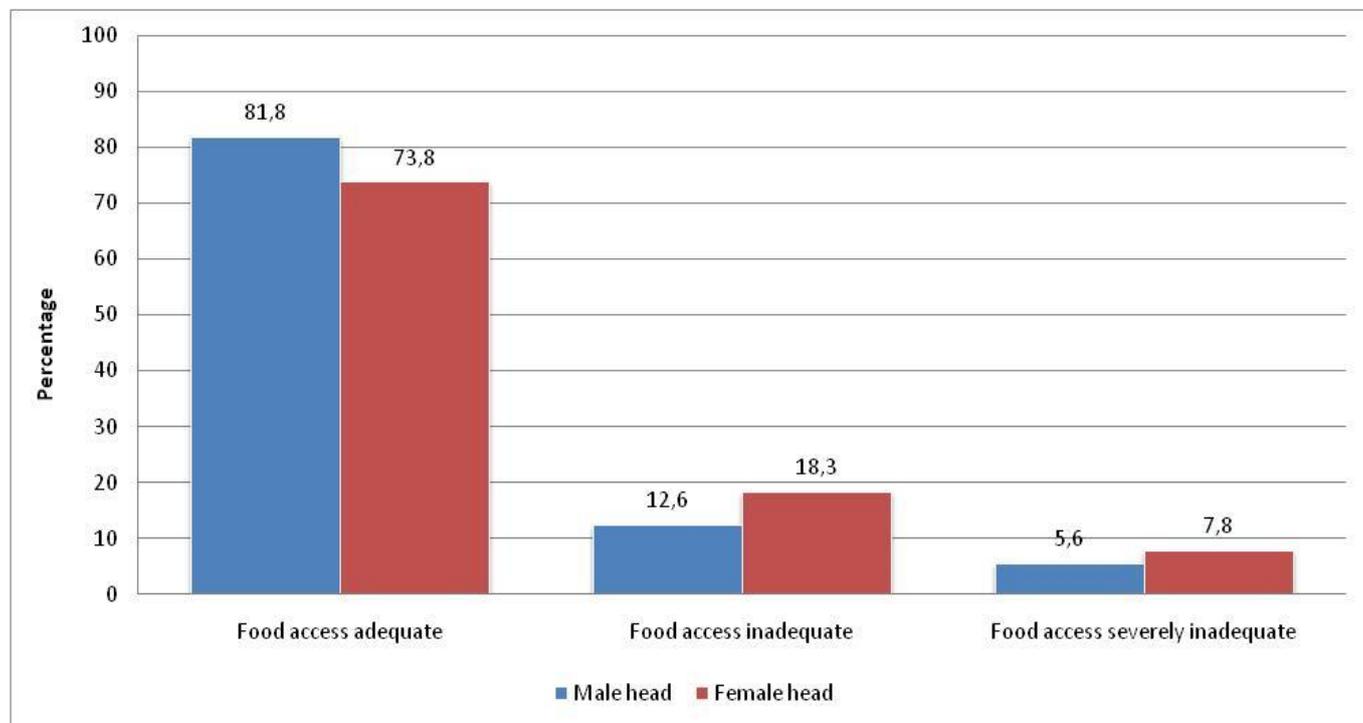


Figure 4.20 confirms the observation that female headed households were more likely to have experienced hunger by revealing that households headed by females were also less likely to have had access to adequate food, and notably more likely to have had inadequate or severely inadequate access to food than households headed by males.

Figure 4.20: Percentage of male- and female-headed households by access to food, 2012



Female-headed households have consistently been more likely to experience inadequate or severely inadequate access to food across all nine provinces (Figure 4.21). Households in Limpopo (10,2%), Gauteng (18,3%) and KwaZulu-Natal (19,8%) were least likely to have experienced inadequate or severely inadequate access to food, while households in North West, Northern and Eastern Cape were most vulnerable.

Figure 4.21: Percentage of male and female headed households that experienced inadequate or severely inadequate access to food by province, 2012

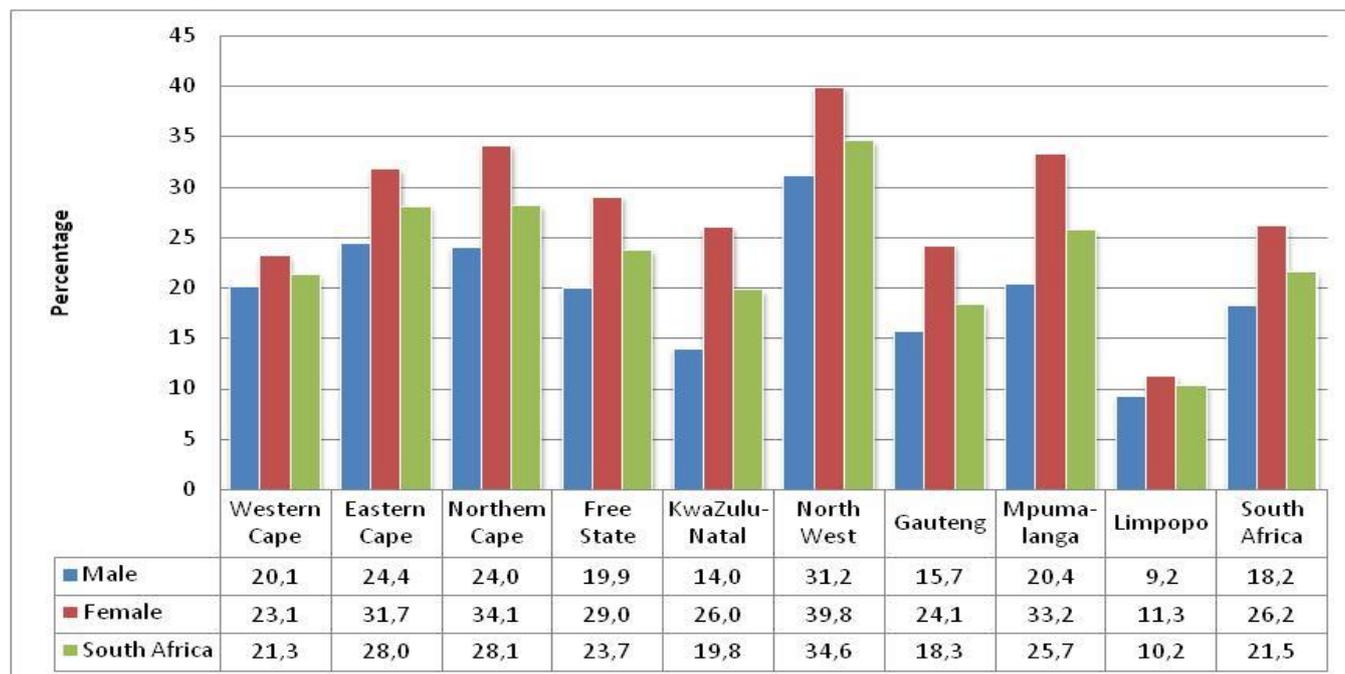
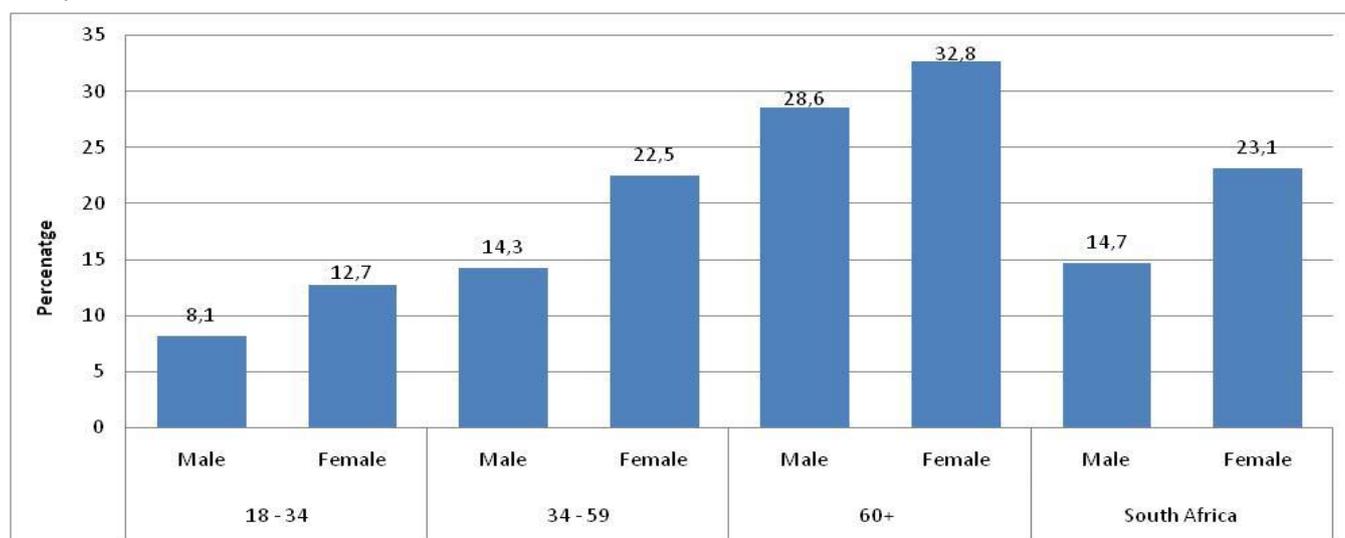


Figure 4.22 compares the participation of male and female-headed households in agricultural production. It is noticeable that female-headed households were more likely than male-headed households to participate in agricultural activities across all three age groups. Although female-headed households were much more likely to be involved in agricultural production than male-headed households before the age of 60 years, male and female-headed households were almost equally likely to engage in some form of agricultural production after the age of 60 years.

Figure 4.22: Percentage of households that participate in agricultural production, by gender and age of the household head, 2012



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.

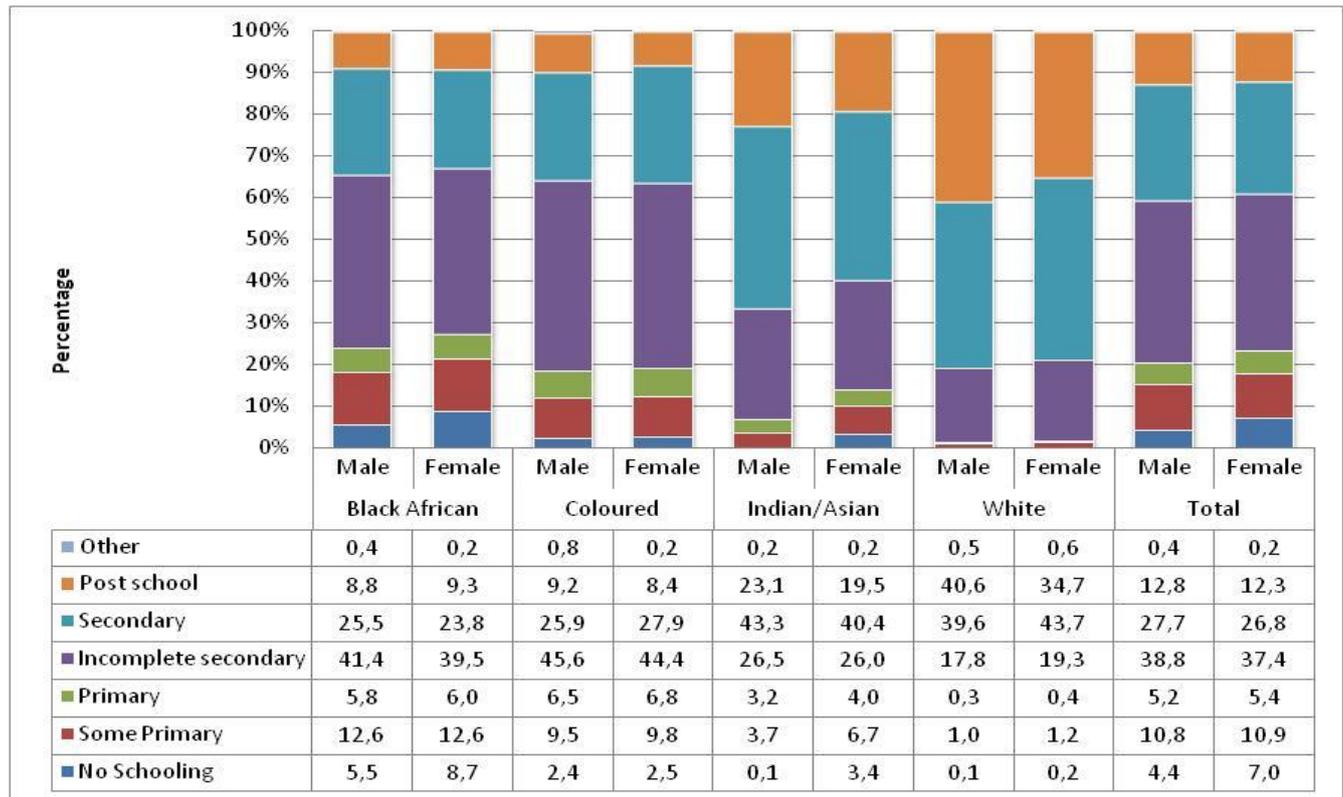
Functional literacy is defined as someone who has completed primary education (Grade 7 or above). Although this definition lends itself superbly to comparison across years and even to other studies, it has been criticised for not really reflecting the literacy status of individuals, but rather focusing 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 had been classified as literate between 2002 and 2012. Although the literacy rate decreased steadily since 2002, the figures hide considerable variation between various age groups. Individuals over 60 years of age were much less likely to be literate than persons in younger age cohorts, while persons in the age cohort 20–39 years were most likely to be literate. It is interesting to note that in the older age groups, males were more likely to be literate than females, but that the situation was reversed for the youngest age category (20–39 years) where 94,1% of females are classified as literate compared to 92% of males.

Table 4.7: Percentage of the population that are functional literacy by gender and age group for persons 20 years and older, 2002-2012

Gender	Age cohort	Year										
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Male	20–39	82,8	85,4	85,3	87,0	87,3	87,8	88,4	90,3	91,0	91,5	92,0
	40–59	65,0	66,7	66,7	67,6	68,1	69,2	71,0	75,2	75,2	77,3	79,5
	60+	47,4	50,4	49,0	52,2	52,7	53,9	55,4	58,3	58,1	58,5	59,9
Female	20–39	84,4	86,2	87,4	87,7	88,5	89,3	89,5	92,1	93,0	93,5	94,1
	40–59	59,7	60,9	62,6	62,0	62,9	65,3	64,9	69,8	70,7	73,5	76,3
	60+	40,6	40,9	41,9	42,9	43,1	44,5	44,0	47,7	47,9	50,1	51,4
Total	20–39	83,6	85,8	86,4	87,4	88,0	88,6	88,9	91,2	92,0	92,5	93,1
	40–59	62,2	63,7	64,5	64,6	65,3	67,1	67,7	72,4	72,8	75,2	77,8
	60+	43,2	44,5	44,6	46,5	46,7	48,1	48,3	51,8	51,8	53,3	54,7
South Africa	Male	74,2	76,5	76,3	77,9	78,2	79,0	80,0	82,6	83,0	83,8	84,9
	Female	71,4	72,7	73,9	73,9	74,5	75,8	75,5	78,9	79,6	80,9	82,2
	Total	72,8	74,5	75,1	75,8	76,3	77,3	77,6	80,7	81,2	82,3	83,5

The highest level of education attained by persons over the age 20 years by population group and gender is summarised in Figure 4.23. It is clear from this figure that a slightly higher percentage of females (7,0%) than males (4,4%) had not received any schooling, while similar percentages (27,7% for males and 26,8% for females) completed secondary school. The combined figure however hides much of the inequality between population groups. While 43,7% of white and 40,4% of Indian/Asian females over the age of 20 years completed secondary school, only 27,9% of coloured and 23,8% of black African females managed to complete secondary school. The figure shows that a smaller percentage of females than males completed secondary school nationally. Less than 10% of black African and coloured persons had attained post-secondary qualifications by 2012, compared to much higher figures for white and Indian/Asian individuals. Nearly 40% of black African women and 44,4% of coloured women dropped out somewhere between Grade 8 and 12, and therefore only attained an incomplete secondary school qualification.

Figure 4.23: Highest level of education for persons aged 20 years and older, by gender and population group, 2012



The attendance of educational institutions by males and females is presented in Table 4.8. Participation in education is inversely related to age. Nearly all individuals aged 14–17 years attended educational institutions, compared to approximately (95% and 94%) males and females respectively. Individuals aged 18–24 were less likely to participate in educational institutions than individuals from other age groups. The difference between genders was insignificant for the age groups 7–13 and 14–17, but more pronounced for the age group 18–24 years.

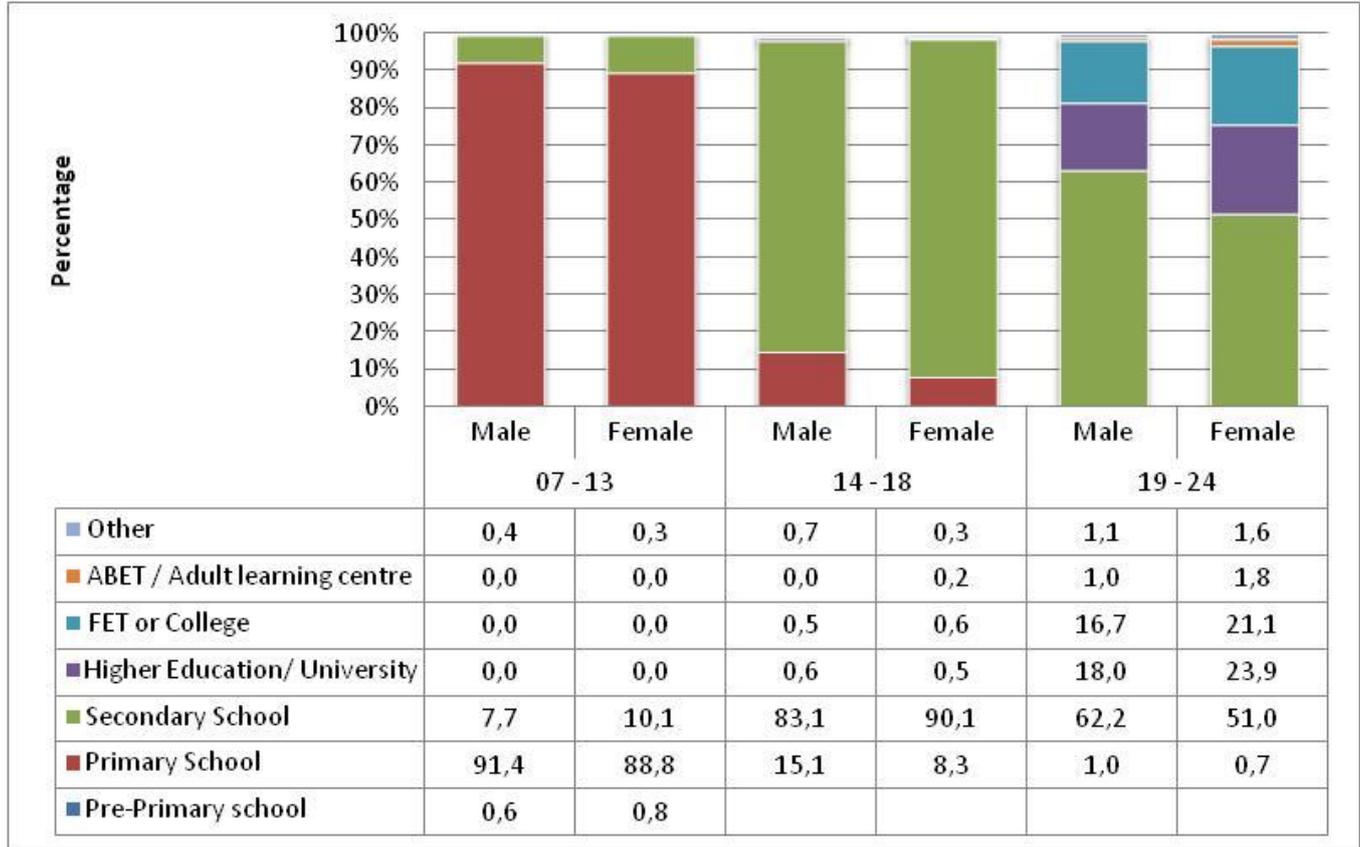
Table 4.8: Percentage of the population that are attending educational institutions, by gender and age group, 2002–2012

Age group	Gender	Year										
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
7–13	Male	96,4	97,0	98,0	98,1	97,9	98,0	98,2	98,8	99,0	99,0	99,0
	Female	97,0	97,9	98,5	98,3	98,3	98,6	98,2	99,0	99,1	99,1	99,4
14–17	Male	92,6	92,7	93,0	93,9	92,5	93,6	93,1	93,0	94,0	93,9	94,7
	Female	90,9	91,6	92,1	91,4	91,7	93,3	93,6	93,3	92,7	94,0	93,9
18–24	Male	40,4	41,1	40,5	40,6	39,7	39,9	37,8	37,4	36,7	38,1	37,9
	Female	32,7	35,2	35,2	34,4	34,3	35,9	35,4	35,6	32,5	34,3	35,0

The relative participation rates among young people might, however, be deceiving, as a larger percentage of males seemed to remain in secondary school after the age of 18 years. Figure 4.24 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 had already transferred to secondary school during this period (10,1% for girls compared to 7,7% 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 failed to complete primary school as approximately 15,1% continued to attend primary school compared to almost 8,3% of girls. This is supported by the results of Figure 4.24, which shows that a smaller percentage of boys than girls have actually completed their primary school education by the

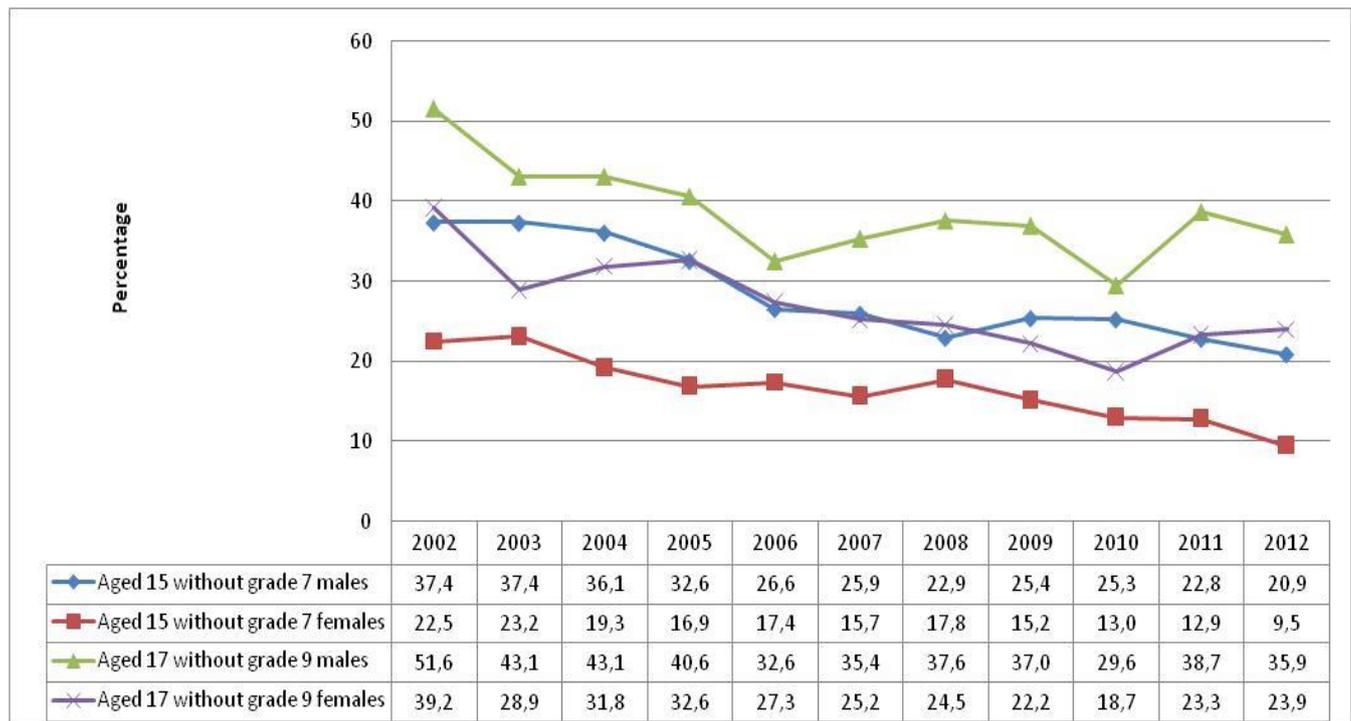
time they turn 15 years old. Less than two-thirds (62,2%) of males between the ages of 19 and 24 years who attend any educational institution, was still at school compared to 51,0% of females. In this age category (19–24 years),18,0% of males attended higher education compared to 23,9% of females. Females were also more likely to have attended Further Education and Training (FET) and colleges than their male counterparts.

Figure 4.24: Type of educational institution attended by gender and age group, 2012



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 often fail to complete Grade 9 by the time they turn 17 years old. This is presented in Figure 4.25. It is important to note girls have consistently performed better than boys on both indicators. A higher percentage of girls achieved Grade 7 by the time they turn 15 years old (90,5% compared to 79,1% of boys), while a smaller percentage of girls than boys did not manage to complete Grade 9 by their seventeenth birthday (24% for females compared to 36% 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 4.25: Percentage of individuals aged 15 years who have not completed Grade 7 compared to the percentage of individuals aged 17 years who have not completed Grade 9, by gender, 2002–2012



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 4.25), 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 were 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 were working and that they did not have time. Males were more likely to specify this reason. Most boys aged 14 to 18 years old who had dropped out of school cited financial constraints (26,2%) as their main reason, followed by 'education is not useful' (17,3%). A slightly higher percentage of females in this age group also referred to financial constraints (27,0%). Girls were more likely than boys to select 'pregnancy' and 'family commitments' (27,1% compared to only 0,9% of males). These findings seem to support the persistence of particular gender roles in society.

Table 4.9: Percentage distribution of reasons for not attending an education institution, by gender and age group, 2012

Reasons for not attending an educational institution	Age groups			
	14 - 18		19 - 24	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Too old	0,3	1,7	1,7	1,4
Has completed school/education	8,6	3,3	8,1	8,3
Transport difficulties	1,0	0,2	0,3	0,4
No money for fees	26,2	27,0	35,8	38,7
Working, do not have time	13,3	5,7	25,8	16,5
Family commitments	0,4	19,0	0,7	12,5
Education not useful	17,3	7,6	6,2	4,0
Poor academic performance	16,0	10,5	11,9	6,6
Illness / disability	7,5	7,7	2,5	2,1
Pregnancy	0,5	8,1	0,1	3,2
Other	9,0	9,3	7,0	6,5

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 individuals, 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 2012 is presented in Table 4.10. The table reveals very similar patterns for male and female-headed households over this period. In 2012, about 77% of male and female-headed households resided in formal dwellings. Female-headed households were, however, much more likely to live in traditional structures (11,2% compared to 5,9% for male-headed households). This is consistent with the observation in Table 4.2 that most female-headed households were found in more rural provinces such as Limpopo, Eastern Cape KwaZulu-Natal, and Mpumalanga. Male-headed households were slightly more likely to live in informal dwellings than female-headed households (16,2% compared to 11,0%).

Table 4.10: Percentage of households living in formal, informal and traditional housing, by gender of the household head, 2002–2012

Type of dwelling	Year										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Male											
Formal	74,2	75,7	75,5	70,7	73,6	72,9	74,5	75,8	77,2	78,6	76,8
Traditional	7,6	7,2	7,9	7,5	6,8	6,6	7,2	6,9	6,6	6,9	5,9
Informal	14,1	13,7	13,2	18,1	16,6	17,7	17,2	16,2	15,5	14,2	16,2
Other	4,1	3,4	3,4	3,8	3,0	2,8	1,1	1,2	0,8	0,3	1,1
Percent	100,0										
Total (thousands)	6 485	6 649	6 816	6 991	7 178	7 352	7 599	7 859	8 100	8 258	8 540
Female											
Formal	73,0	72,4	73,0	71,5	73,4	73,8	74,8	75,2	77,8	78,3	77,1
Traditional	14,5	14,9	16,1	15,1	13,1	13,1	13,7	13,7	12,2	12,5	11,2
Informal	12,0	12,1	10,5	12,9	12,7	12,3	10,9	10,6	9,8	9,0	11,0
Other	0,6	0,5	0,4	0,5	0,8	0,8	0,6	0,5	0,3	0,2	0,7
Percent	100,0										
Total (thousands)	4 319	4 458	4 603	4 750	4 904	5 041	5 248	5 443	5 630	5 774	5 943

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

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

Table 4.11: Percentage of individuals living in formal, informal and traditional housing, by gender 2002–2012

Type of dwelling	Year										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Male											
Formal	72,8	73,6	72,9	70,2	73,6	72,9	74,8	75,3	77,8	79,2	78,2
Traditional	13,4	13,1	14,8	13,8	12,0	12,2	12,5	12,7	11,7	11,8	11,1
Informal	12,3	11,8	11,0	14,4	13,0	13,5	12,0	11,3	10,1	8,8	10,4
Other	1,6	1,5	1,3	1,7	1,3	1,5	0,7	0,8	0,4	0,2	0,4
Per cent	100,0										
Total (thousands)	22 072	22 389	22 693	23 020	23 331	23 542	23 975	24 381	24 690	24 540	24 980
Female											
Formal	72,9	73,7	72,9	71,1	73,9	73,4	75,7	76,0	78,9	79,7	79,3
Traditional	14,9	14,9	16,7	15,5	13,7	13,9	14,0	13,9	12,4	12,5	11,4
Informal	11,6	11,0	10,1	12,8	11,8	11,8	9,8	9,5	8,5	7,7	9,1
Other	0,5	0,5	0,3	0,6	0,6	0,9	0,5	0,6	0,2	0,1	0,3
Per cent	100,0										
Total (thousands)	23 708	24 003	24 290	24 584	24 860	25 038	25 479	25 842	26 113	25 917	26 189

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

The percentage of male- and female-headed households that lived in dwellings that were **partially or fully owned** is presented in Table 4.12. Female-headed households were notably and consistently more likely to live in households that were partially or fully owned than male-headed households or households in general

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 increased relatively jaggedly for both male- and female-headed households between 2002 and 2012. Female-headed households were less likely to have had access to water than their male-headed peers.

Having access to **improved sanitation**, e.g. pit toilets with ventilation pipes, or 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 generally improved for both male and female-headed households, male-headed households continued to enjoy better access.

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 were once again much more likely than female-headed households to have their rubbish removed (68,3% versus 57,8% in 2012).

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 had been **connected to mains electricity** had been increasing steadily since 2002. Despite lagging male-headed households for much of the last 8 years, a larger percentage of female-headed households were connected to mains electricity in 2012.

Since solid fuels are often cheaper than electricity, many households continue to use these for particularly energy intensive activities such as cooking and heating. These sources unfortunately generate substantial emissions of many health-damaging pollutants. Women and children bear the largest burden of health risks from these exposures. Despite noticeable declines in the proportion of households that had been **using solid fuels for cooking** over the past decade, female-headed households (17,6%) were still more likely to use solid fuels for cooking than male-headed households (9,1%) in 2012.

Table 4.12: Comparison of the basic living condition indicators for South African households by gender of the household head, 2002–2012⁷

Access to service indicator	Sex of head	Year										
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Tenure status % living in dwellings that are partially or fully owned	Male	64,9	67,3	64,2	66,9	64,8	63,0	69,1	60,0	62,8	57,2	58,3
	Female	73,8	76,4	74,5	74,7	76,7	73,6	79,2	70,7	73,2	67,9	69,1
	Total	68,5	70,9	68,4	70,1	69,6	67,3	73,2	64,4	67,1	61,6	62,7
Access to water % living in dwellings with piped water in house or yard	Male	74,0	75,0	74,9	74,4	75,9	76,4	74,9	74,0	75,4	76,3	75,1
	Female	60,6	61,6	62,4	64,0	65,4	67,0	65,4	65,2	67,0	69,1	68,1
	Total	68,6	69,6	69,9	70,2	71,7	72,5	71,0	70,4	72,0	73,4	72,2
Improved sanitation % living in dwellings with flush toilet with on or off site disposal or pit toilet with ventilation pipe	Male	68,5	70,3	71,2	71,5	73,3	74,5	73,9	75,5	78,2	78,4	79,2
	Female	53,2	55,6	59,2	60,3	61,4	64,5	64,6	68,0	71,3	72,6	73,6
	Total	62,3	64,4	66,4	67,0	68,5	70,4	70,1	72,4	75,4	76,0	76,9
Refuse/waste removal % living in dwellings with rubbish removed by municipality	Male	62,3	64,4	63,6	66,4	67,1	66,8	65,2	65,6	67,9	68,3	68,3
	Female	52,2	52,6	53,6	55,8	56,1	56,7	54,4	55,3	57,5	57,9	57,8
	Total	58,3	59,6	59,5	62,1	62,7	62,7	60,8	61,4	63,6	64,0	64,0
Electricity % living in dwellings that are connected to mains	Male	79,6	81,0	82,6	82,0	81,8	82,2	82,3	83,0	82,6	82,7	84,9
	Female	73,3	75,1	78,3	79,4	79,1	81,7	81,4	82,1	83,4	85,3	85,9
	Total	77,1	78,7	80,9	80,9	80,7	82,0	81,9	82,7	82,9	83,8	85,3
Energy for cooking % of households using solid fuels for cooking	Male	17,7	16,8	16,0	13,5	11,7	11,8	12,9	12,1	11,3	10,2	9,1
	Female	30,0	29,1	27,4	24,5	23,2	22,6	24,9	23,3	20,8	19,0	17,6
	Total	22,6	21,7	20,6	18,0	16,4	16,2	17,8	16,7	15,2	13,8	12,6
Telephone % living in dwellings with landline or cellular phone in the dwelling	Male	50,2	51,9	58,8	67,5	72,7	76,9	80,6	84,7	88,7	91,2	93,4
	Female	39,5	42,9	50,3	62,4	68,7	74,9	78,7	85,1	89,1	91,4	94,1
	Total	45,9	48,3	55,4	65,4	71,1	76,1	79,8	84,8	88,9	91,3	93,7
Internet % living in dwellings with access to internet	Male				8,8				11,8	13,9	12,9	12,6
	Female				2,8				4,8	5,5	6,0	5,7
	Total				6,4				8,9	10,5	10,1	9,8

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 had **access to landlines or cellphones** increased tremendously over the past years; from approximately 46% in 2002 to 94% in 2012. Starting from a lower base, the growth in female-headed households exceeded the growth in male-headed households. Since 2009 female-headed households had been more likely to have a telephone in the dwelling.

While a larger percentage of female-headed households had access to telephones, male-headed households were 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 12,6% in 2012, compared to female-headed households' access of almost 3% in 2005 to 5,7% in 2012. This is almost certainly linked to the higher percentage of female-headed households that can be classified as poor when using a threshold of R765 per capita per month.

⁷Questions on access to the Internet at home was only included in the questionnaire in 2005, 2009 - 2012.

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 are 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 about 30% of females in the age category 18–34 years were married compared to only 19% of men, while 68% of men in the age category 35–59 years were, however, married compared to 57% of females. This variation is partly explained by the relatively high percentage of widows (10%) in this age group. More than one-fifth of males and females in this age group remained unmarried. The effect of death and socio-cultural choices became even more apparent in the elderly age group (60 years and older), in which it was clear that 76% of males remained married, while the percentage of married women fell to about 33%. This was in large part caused by widowhood and men being married to younger wives. White people were most likely to be married or to live together, while black Africans were least likely to do so.

The analysis suggests that women's extended life expectancy could in many cases contribute to their health and socio-economic status. 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 about 64% of all households headed by individuals over the age of 70 years were 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 comprised approximately 41% of all households in the country. They were particularly prevalent in Limpopo, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal where female-headed households represented more than 47% of all households. Although the majority of female heads were 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 were more likely to be extended households with a larger average household size and matching dependency ratios. Female-headed households had an average household size of 3,7 compared to 3,2 for males, and the mean dependency ratio was estimated at 0,98. This means that every person in the age group 18–59 years had 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 potentially constituted a significantly larger burden for female-headed households (0,83) than for their male-headed counterparts (0,48). Children on average constituted 42% of all the members of female-headed households compared to about 30% for male-headed households. Female-headed households were 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), constituted almost 10% of all female-headed households. The prevalence differs by population group, and black Africans, in particular black African females, were 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 were relatively common among black Africans, coloured people and female-headed Indian households, nuclear households containing two-generations or less was much more common among white people.

The study confirms that female-headed households were much more likely to have low incomes than their male-headed equivalents, regardless of population group or province. Population groups were however strongly associated with poverty, as can be seen from the observation that 62% of black African women lived in low-income households compared to less than 5% of white women.

Male-headed households were much more likely to indicate salaries or wages as the main source of income (68%) than female-headed households (46%). Female-headed households seemed to be much more dependent on remittances and pensions. It is notable that the frequency of remittances as a source of income had been declining for female-headed households, while pensions and grants had become more important (increasing from 23% in 2002 to 35% in 2012). Although a smaller percentage of male-headed households indicated pensions/grants as a main source of income, this percentage had also been increasing steadily since 2002 (from 13% to 15% in 2012). 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) were grant beneficiaries compared to 59% of males. The latter percentage was 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 one-third of males and females in the general population received some kind of social grant. Female-headed households were much more likely to contain one or more grant beneficiaries than male-headed households. On average 39% of the members of female-headed households were grant recipients, compared to 22% for male-headed households.

The dependence on grants is in part caused by the relative absence of employed household members. Female-headed households were shown to have a lower proportion of economically active and employed household members than male-headed households. The relative disadvantage of female-headed households was further borne from the observation that 41% did not contain a single employed household member, compared to one-fifth for male-headed households. Although this might be associated with the fact that many male and particularly female-headed households were 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 was 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 grew to about 60% for women over the age of 60 years. Women were 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 conditions increased considerably after the age of 60 years, the prevalence differences between the first two age groups were 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 were members of a medical scheme compared to more than one-quarter of elderly men (26,5%) and women (21,3%).

The level of vulnerability to hunger is strongly associated with population groups. Black Africans experienced the highest vulnerability to hunger, followed by coloured people, Indians/Asians and then whites. It is noticeable that the difference between male and female experiences of hunger was 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 were much more likely to alternate positions. The vulnerability to hunger suffered by female-headed households was 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 (15%), followed by female-headed households in the age category 18–34 years (13%) 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 were similarly more likely to experience inadequate or severely inadequate access to food. It is noticeable that a larger percentage of female-headed households were generally engaged in agricultural production than male-headed households.

The literacy rate for persons over the age of 20 years had been improving steadily for males and females in South Africa. Males over the age of 20 years were 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 has reduced considerably. In fact, when the literacy rates for males and females in the age group 20–39 years are considered, it seemed as if women have managed to surpass males (92% literacy for males compared to 94% for females in 2012). The largest differences were still noted for the age group over 60 years. Large inequality was however revealed when the educational outcomes between population groups are considered. While more than 40% of white people and Indians/Asians had completed secondary school, the figure stood at less than 30% for coloured people and at less than 25% for Africans. Although a smaller percentage of females than males in the age group 20 years and older completed secondary school, women were making rapid progress and the difference could be expected to disappear in time. The poor state of education for black African children in the age group 14–18 years was highlighted by the high percentage of children who still attended primary school when they should have been in secondary school. The observation was confirmed by the finding that 21% of boys and 10% of girls had not achieved Grade 7 by the time they turned 15 years old, and that even more children had not completed Grade 9 by the time they turn 17 years old (36% boys and 24% girls).

Financial constraints were the main reason given for dropping out of school for both males and females in the age categories 14–18 years and 19–24 years. Girls were more likely to identify family related reasons than boys in both age groups, and 8% of girls blamed pregnancy for dropping out of school.

The study showed very little variation between the types of dwellings inhabited by male and female-headed households. More than three quarters of both male and female-headed households resided in formal structures. A smaller percentage of women than men, however, live in informal structures (6% compared to 11%), while a much larger percentage of women inversely live 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 were more likely to have access to water, sanitation, refuse removal and electricity than female-headed households. Male and female-headed households have almost 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

- 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 41% 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

5.1 Introduction

Older persons are a primary target group for service delivery. This group has, perhaps more than any other generation been deprived of adequate education, employment and socio-economic opportunities. 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.

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 200 per month for persons aged 60–74 years and R1 220 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 number and proportion of older people in South Africa have increased considerably over the past decades. Between 2002 and 2012, the total number of persons over the age of 60 years increased to more than 4 million. During 2012 the percentage of older persons was of 7,7%, making South Africa the country with arguably the largest percentage of older persons on the 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.

According to Table 5.1, older persons from black African descent comprised nearly 64,7% (or 2,6 million) of the total population over 60 years in South Africa, followed by white people (23,1%), coloured people (8,7%) and Indians/Asians (3,5%). Black Africans constituted about 96,6% of older persons in Limpopo, and over 80% each in North West, Mpumalanga and Eastern Cape. The older person population in Western Cape comprised 44,7% coloured people and 45,7% white people. Similarly, in Gauteng 49,8% of the older population were black African compared to 44,5% from the white population group.

Black Africans comprised the majority of the elderly population in eight 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 and Gauteng.

Table 5.1: Provincial distribution of older persons by population group, 2012

Province	Population group				Total	
	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Per cent	Thousands
Western Cape	9,5	44,7	0,1	45,7	100,0	477
Eastern Cape	84,0	6,3	0,2	9,5	100,0	569
Northern Cape	43,5	40,3	0,0	16,2	100,0	99
Free State	79,0	1,3	0,5	19,3	100,0	215
KwaZulu-Natal	70,6	2,4	15,2	11,8	100,0	748
North West	84,8	1,0	0,1	14,1	100,0	268
Gauteng	49,8	3,6	2,1	44,5	100,0	946
Mpumalanga	84,7	0,3	1,2	13,8	100,0	273
Limpopo	96,6	0,7	0,1	2,7	100,0	415
South Africa elderly	64,7	8,7	3,5	23,1	100,0	4 011
South Africa all ages	79,6	9,0	2,5	8,8	100,0	52 275

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

5.3 Household characteristics

The role of older persons in households is continuously being affected by issues such as labour migration, poverty, as well as HIV/AIDS. Although it has traditionally been assumed that extended families and the community will take care of older persons, many families are simply too disjointed to look after the well-being of older persons (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 18,1% in 2002 to 19,7% in 2012. Eastern Cape (26,8%) had the highest percentage of these households, followed by Limpopo (22,9%), and KwaZulu-Natal (22,6%) respectively. Gauteng (15,1%) had the smallest percentage of these households, probably because of the high rates of in-migration of younger individuals.

Table 5.2: Percentage distribution of households headed by older persons by province, 2002–2012

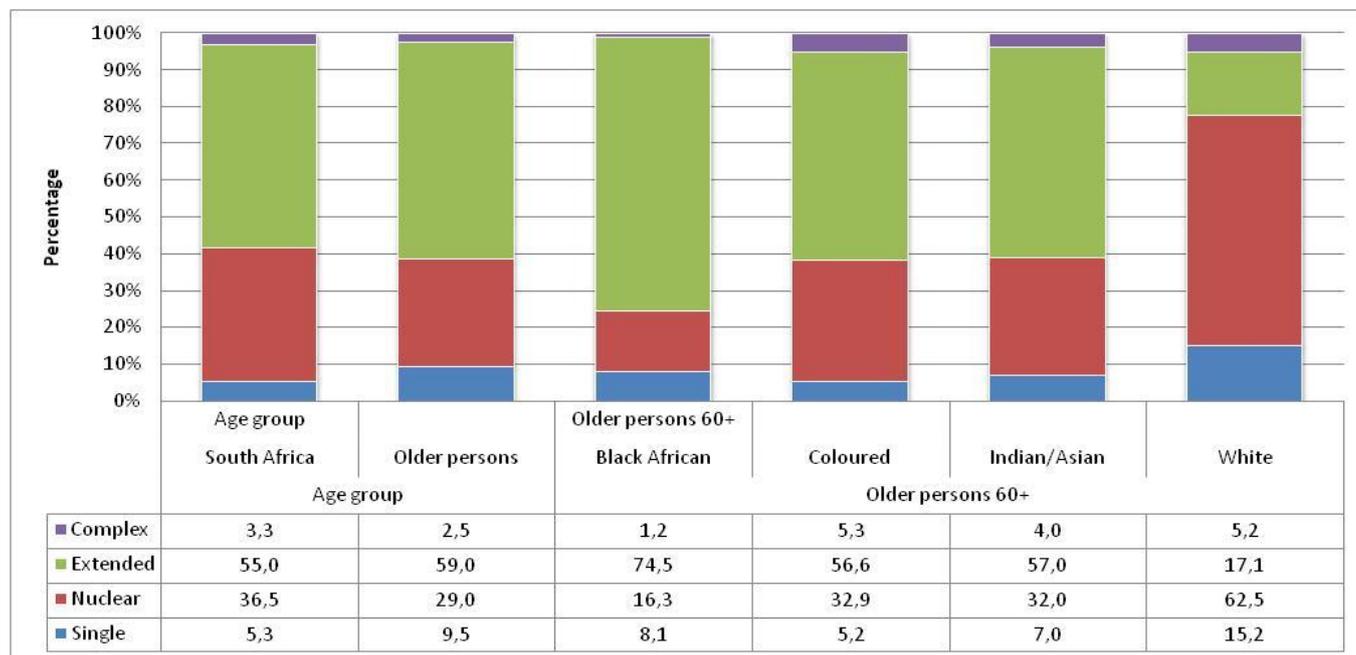
Province	Year										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Western Cape	17,0	16,3	16,6	16,5	16,6	20,0	18,3	18,7	18,8	19,4	18,0
Eastern Cape	25,9	26,4	26,7	25,7	25,5	27,7	26,3	26,1	27,1	26,7	26,8
Northern Cape	20,1	19,0	20,5	19,2	19,6	21,3	21,9	21,1	21,9	22,6	22,2
Free State	16,6	17,1	16,7	17,9	18,5	20,3	18,8	18,8	18,9	19,5	20,0
KwaZulu-Natal	20,0	21,3	20,8	21,7	20,5	22,2	21,6	22,3	22,2	22,0	22,6
North West	17,6	17,5	18,5	17,8	17,6	19,9	19,4	19,2	19,7	19,4	19,3
Gauteng	12,9	12,3	13,0	13,3	13,3	14,5	14,0	14,0	13,9	14,5	15,1
Mpumalanga	17,3	17,2	17,5	15,7	16,5	19,6	16,4	16,5	16,9	16,7	18,0
Limpopo	20,4	20,4	20,4	21,3	20,8	24,9	21,6	21,7	22,4	22,5	22,9
South Africa	18,1	18,1	18,3	18,4	18,2	20,6	19,0	19,1	19,3	19,4	19,7
Total (thousands)	1955	2 011	2 096	2 160	2 197	1 986	2 450	2 541	2 649	2 755	2 884

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. The GHS questionnaire 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 lived within families of at least two persons. In 2012, older persons were more likely to live in single person households than the population in general (9,5% compared to 5,3%), but slightly less likely to live 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 about 15% of white older persons lived alone, while a further 62,5% lived in nuclear households. The majority of persons in poorer population groups (particularly black Africans and coloured people) were 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, 2012



According to Figure 5.2, more than half (55,9%) of all households headed by older people could be categorised as extended households, while 26,2% could best be categorised as nuclear households. Households headed by older persons were 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, coloured and Indian/Asian households were extended, only 9,8% of white households could be classified as extended. About 30% of households headed by white older persons were single households, compared to 11,9% of coloured, 13,2% of black African and 15,6% of Indian/Asian households. A relatively small percentage of elderly households across all population groups contained non-relatives.

Figure 5.2: Household composition of households headed by older people by population group of household head, 2012

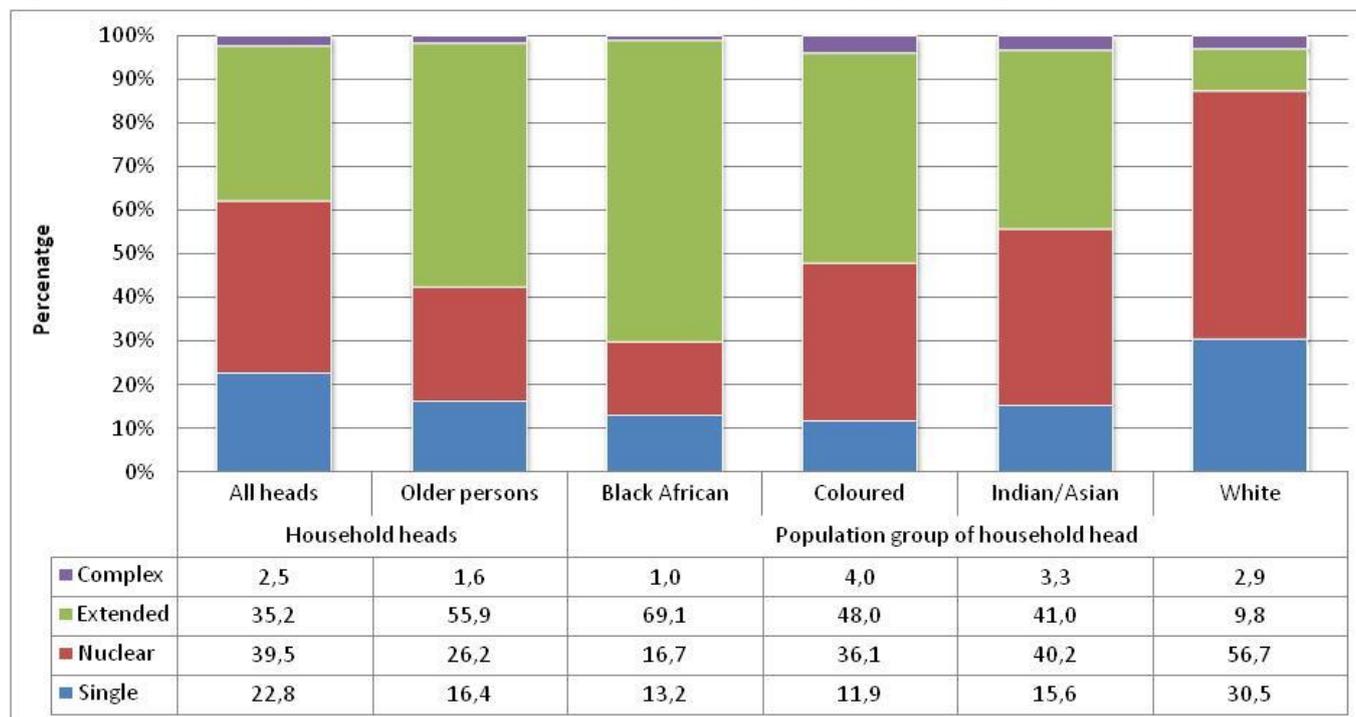
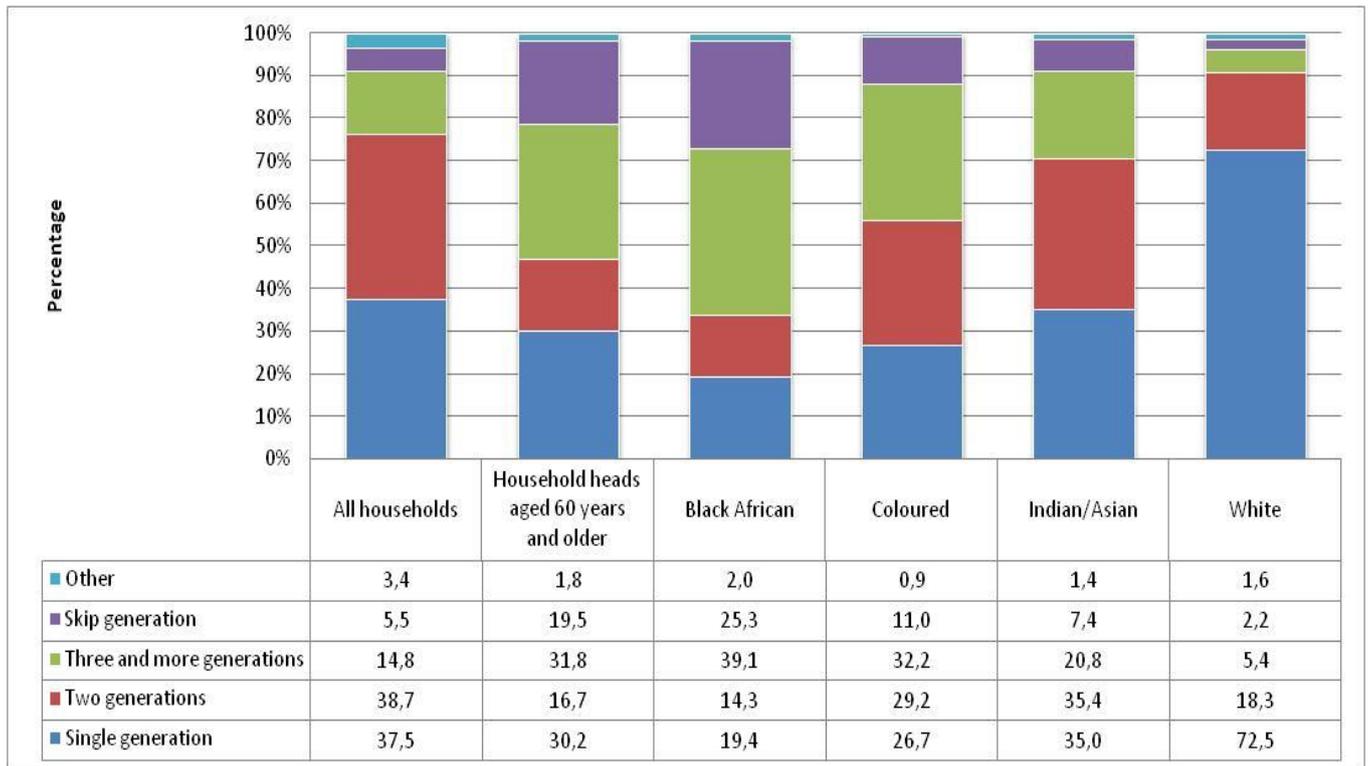


Figure 5.3 summarises the distribution of households headed by older persons according to whether they contain individuals from different generations. Nearly half (48,5%) of households headed by older persons and more than half (53,5%) of households in general, contained two or at least three generations. While 5,5% of all households were classified as skip-generation households, these households constituted 19,5% of all households headed by older persons. Households headed by black Africans (25,3%) were most likely to be skip-generation households, followed by households headed by coloured people (11%). By contrast to the largely multi-generational households headed by particularly black Africans and coloured individuals, 72,5% of households headed by white individuals and 35% of households headed by Indians/Asian individuals were single-generation households.

Figure 5.3: Household composition of households headed by older people, by population group and generation, 2012



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 that lived 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 lived in households that contain three or more generations, while an additional 15,2% lived in so-called skip-generation households with their grandchildren. About a fifth (20,0%) of older persons resided with their children or parents in households that contain two generations. Considerable variation is evident when population groups are compared. Whereas 89,7% of older white people lived in single or bi-generation households, the comparable figure for the coloured population was 53,7% and 31,1% for the black African population. Black Africans were 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, decreased with age. Individuals were more likely to be separated/divorced/widowed by the time they reached 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 were married/living together increased slightly from 76,9% during their fifties to 77,4% in their seventies, the percentage of women who were still married/living together dropped sharply from almost 54,4% during their fifties to only 24,6% 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 had no partner, or who were 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, 2012

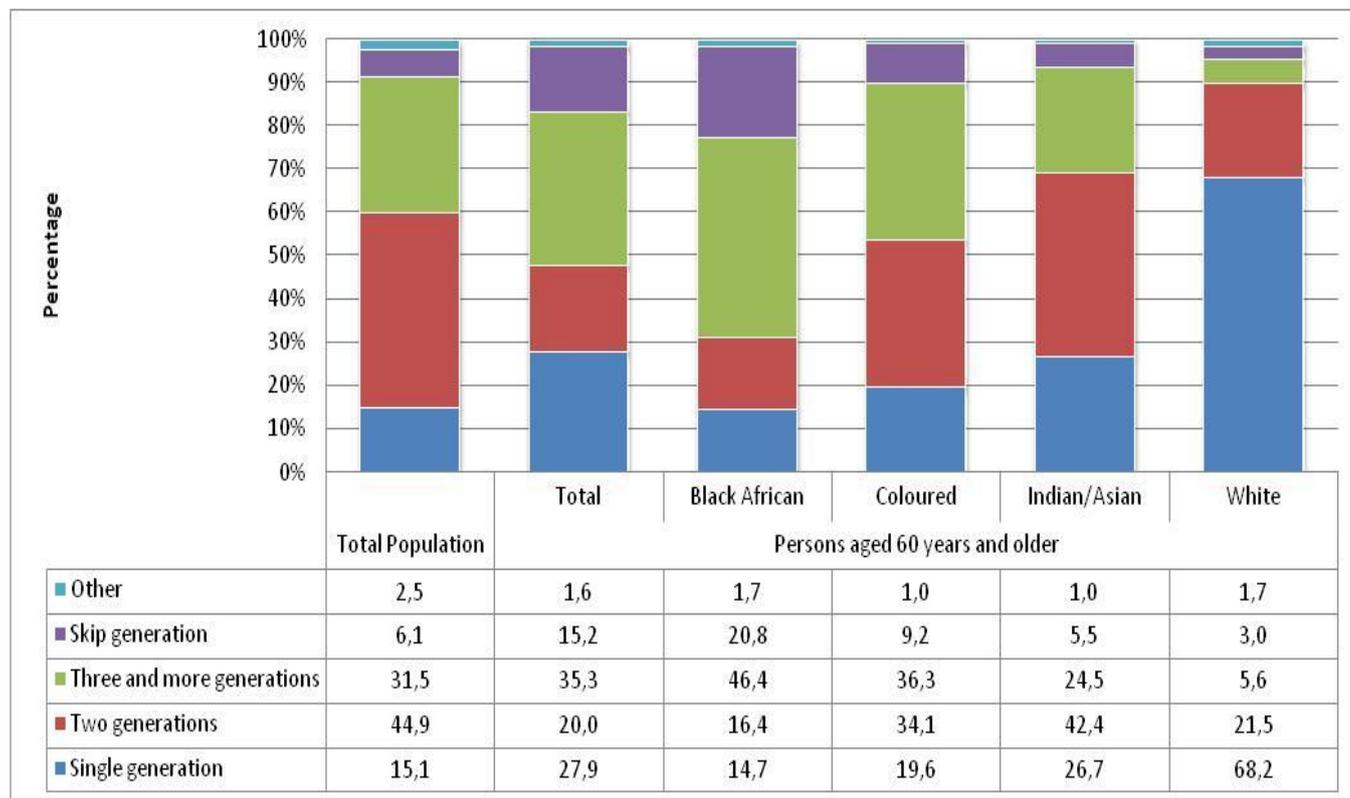
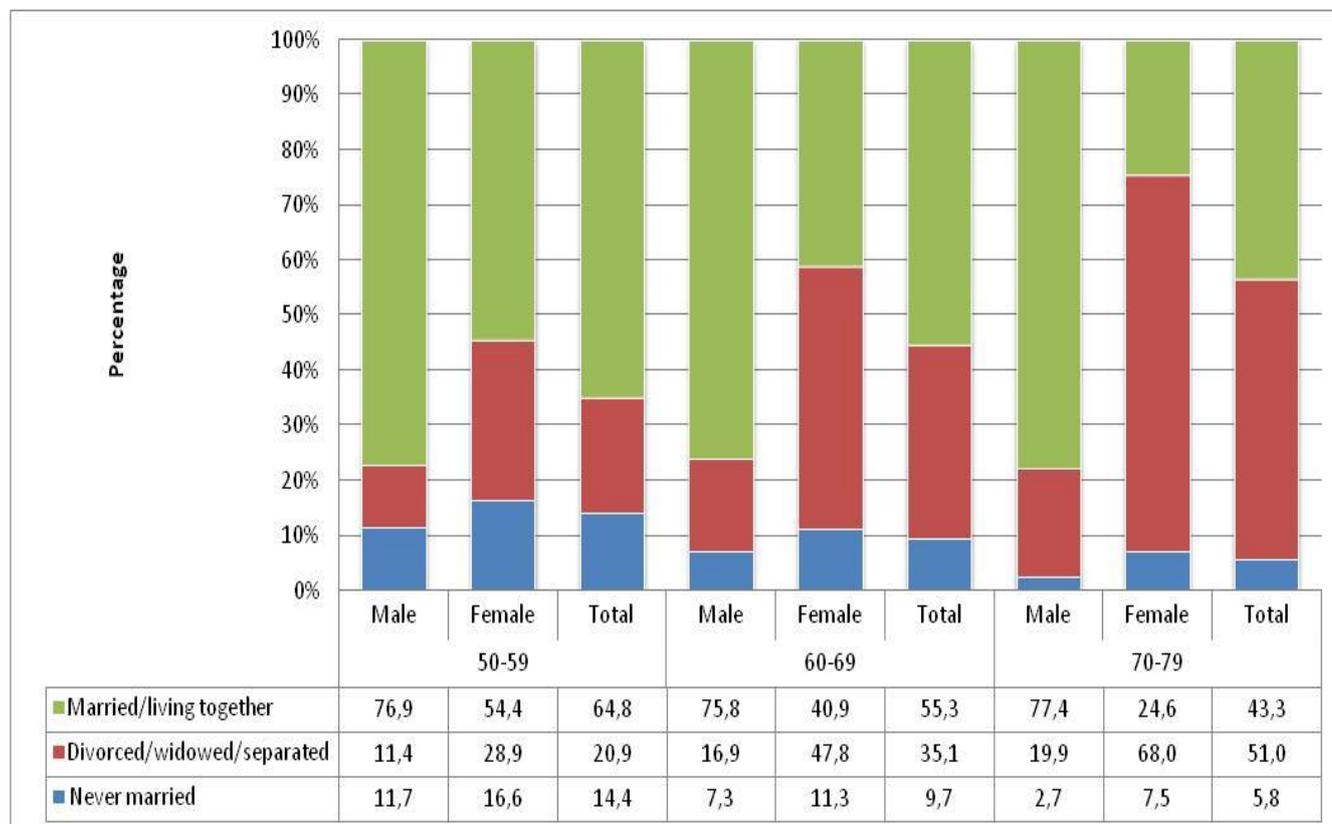


Figure 5.5: Marital status of older people by age group and gender, 2012



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, 2002–2012

Household characteristics	Indicator	Year										
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Mean household size												
Elderly male-headed	Average	4,4	4,3	4,2	4,1	3,9	3,8	4,1	4,0	4,1	4,0	3,9
Elderly female-headed		4,6	4,4	4,4	4,2	4,1	4,1	4,1	4,0	4,1	4,1	4,0
All older person-headed		4,6	4,4	4,3	4,2	4,0	4,0	4,1	4,0	4,1	4,0	3,9
Households with elderly		4,6	4,4	4,3	4,2	4,2	4,1	4,3	4,1	4,2	4,1	4,0
Elderly-headed with children		6,3	6,1	6,1	5,9	5,8	5,8	5,9	5,8	5,9	5,8	5,7
Headed by 18–59-year-olds		3,5	3,4	3,3	3,4	3,3	3,3	3,5	3,3	3,4	3,4	3,3
South Africa		3,7	3,6	3,5	3,5	3,4	3,4	3,6	3,4	3,5	3,5	3,4
Total dependency ratio												
Elderly male-headed	Average ratio	1,77	1,81	1,82	1,81	1,84	1,88	1,84	1,82	1,83	1,84	1,82
Elderly female-headed		1,74	1,73	1,71	1,76	1,74	1,78	1,72	1,75	1,76	1,75	1,73
All older person-headed		1,75	1,77	1,76	1,78	1,78	1,82	1,77	1,78	1,79	1,79	1,77
Households with elderly		1,65	1,67	1,66	1,68	1,70	1,72	1,65	1,68	1,69	1,67	1,66
Elderly-headed with children		1,78	1,84	1,78	1,81	1,82	1,85	1,83	1,82	1,83	1,84	1,84
Headed by 18–59-year-olds		0,68	0,64	0,63	0,63	0,61	0,61	0,62	0,61	0,61	0,60	0,58
South Africa		0,84	0,81	0,80	0,80	0,77	0,78	0,79	0,78	0,79	0,77	0,75
Old-age dependency ratio												
Elderly male-headed	Average ratio	0,92	0,96	1,00	0,99	1,05	1,09	1,02	1,05	1,03	1,07	1,07
Elderly female-headed		0,63	0,65	0,66	0,70	0,71	0,72	0,70	0,72	0,71	0,72	0,73
All older person-headed		0,77	0,80	0,81	0,83	0,86	0,88	0,85	0,87	0,85	0,88	0,88
Households with elderly		0,71	0,74	0,75	0,77	0,80	0,82	0,77	0,81	0,80	0,81	0,81
Elderly-headed with children		0,54	0,57	0,56	0,58	0,59	0,59	0,58	0,59	0,59	0,60	0,59
Headed by 18–59-year-olds		0,02	0,02	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,02	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01
South Africa		0,13	0,14	0,14								
Child dependency ratio												
Elderly male-headed	Average ratio	0,85	0,85	0,82	0,82	0,79	0,79	0,83	0,77	0,80	0,77	0,76
Elderly female-headed		1,11	1,08	1,05	1,07	1,03	1,06	1,01	1,02	1,05	1,03	1,00
All older person-headed		0,99	0,97	0,94	0,95	0,92	0,94	0,93	0,91	0,94	0,92	0,89
Households with elderly		0,94	0,94	0,91	0,91	0,90	0,90	0,89	0,87	0,89	0,86	0,84
Elderly-headed with children		1,24	1,27	1,22	1,24	1,24	1,26	1,24	1,23	1,24	1,24	1,24
Headed by 18–59-year-olds		0,66	0,63	0,62	0,62	0,60	0,59	0,61	0,60	0,60	0,58	0,57
South Africa		0,72	0,68	0,67	0,67	0,65	0,65	0,66	0,65	0,65	0,63	0,62
Proportion of older persons												
Elderly male-headed	Proportion	0,33	0,34	0,35	0,35	0,37	0,38	0,36	0,37	0,36	0,38	0,38
Elderly female-headed		0,23	0,24	0,24	0,25	0,26	0,26	0,26	0,26	0,26	0,26	0,27
All older person-headed		0,28	0,29	0,30	0,30	0,31	0,31	0,31	0,31	0,31	0,31	0,32
Households with elderly		0,27	0,28	0,28	0,29	0,30	0,30	0,29	0,30	0,30	0,30	0,31
Elderly-headed with children		0,20	0,20	0,20	0,20	0,21	0,21	0,21	0,21	0,21	0,21	0,21
Headed by 18–59-year-olds		0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01
South Africa		0,07	0,08	0,08	0,08							
Proportion of children												
Elderly male-headed	Average ratio	0,31	0,30	0,29	0,29	0,28	0,27	0,29	0,27	0,28	0,27	0,27
Elderly female-headed		0,41	0,40	0,39	0,39	0,38	0,38	0,37	0,37	0,38	0,37	0,37
All older person-headed		0,36	0,35	0,34	0,34	0,33	0,33	0,33	0,33	0,34	0,33	0,32
Headed by 18–59-year-olds		0,39	0,38	0,38	0,38	0,37	0,37	0,37	0,37	0,37	0,37	0,36
South Africa		0,39	0,38	0,37	0,37	0,36	0,36	0,37	0,36	0,37	0,36	0,35
Ratio of children to older persons in households headed by older persons												
Elderly male-headed	Average ratio	0,92	0,89	0,83	0,83	0,75	0,72	0,81	0,74	0,78	0,72	0,71
Elderly female-headed		1,76	1,66	1,60	1,53	1,46	1,48	1,44	1,42	1,49	1,42	1,38
All older person-headed		1,28	1,22	1,16	1,14	1,07	1,06	1,10	1,05	1,10	1,04	1,02

The **mean size** of South African households has been declining very gradually from 3,7 in 2002 to 3,4 in 2012. 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, was 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 was estimated at 4,0 in 2012, slightly larger than the average size for older male (3,9) and households headed by all older persons (3,9).

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 had a much higher dependency ratio than households headed by younger persons, or households in general. In 2012, elderly headed households with children had the highest total dependency ratio (1,84), followed by elderly male-headed (1,82) and all older-person-headed households (1,77). Households headed by individuals aged between 18–59 years, as well as South African households in general, had the lowest total dependency ratios, at 0,58 and 0,75 respectively. Households headed by older males had a higher total dependency ratio (1,82 on average) than those headed by older females (1,73 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 2012, elderly male-headed households (1,07) had a higher old-age dependency ratio than elderly female-headed households (0,73). Households headed by 18–59-year-olds had a dependency ratio of 0,01 and South African households in general have a dependency ratio of 0,14. The old-age dependency ratio was higher for all older-person-headed households than for households that contained elderly persons.

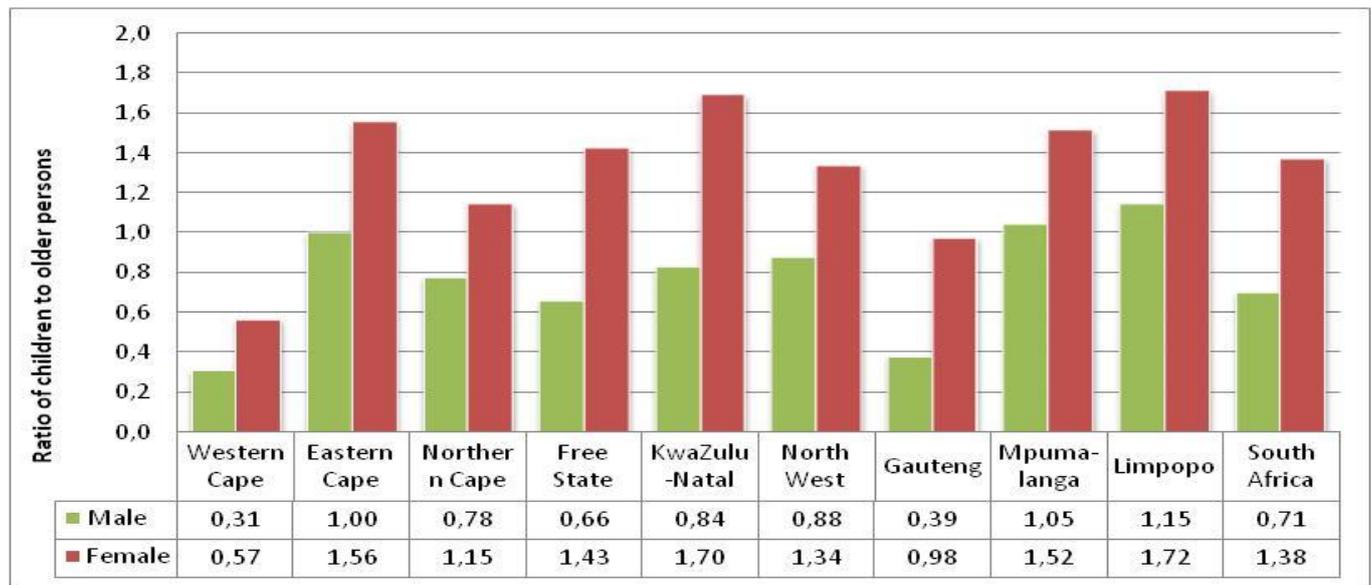
The **child dependency ratio** represents the ratio of household members under the age of 18 years to the economically active population. Whereas the old-age dependency ratio has increased slightly since 2002, an overall decrease in the child dependency ratio was observed between 2002 and 2012. This 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 2012 remained high at 1,24 and 1,00 respectively.

The **proportion of older persons** in households reveals that older persons, on average, comprised a larger proportion of households headed by older persons (0,32) than households headed by persons in the age group 18–59 years (0,01) or households in general (0,08). Older persons comprised 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 were more likely to have a higher proportion of children than the other 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 supports the argument that older female-headed households are much more likely to contain children. The largest ratios in older female-headed households were observed in Limpopo, KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape 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, 2012

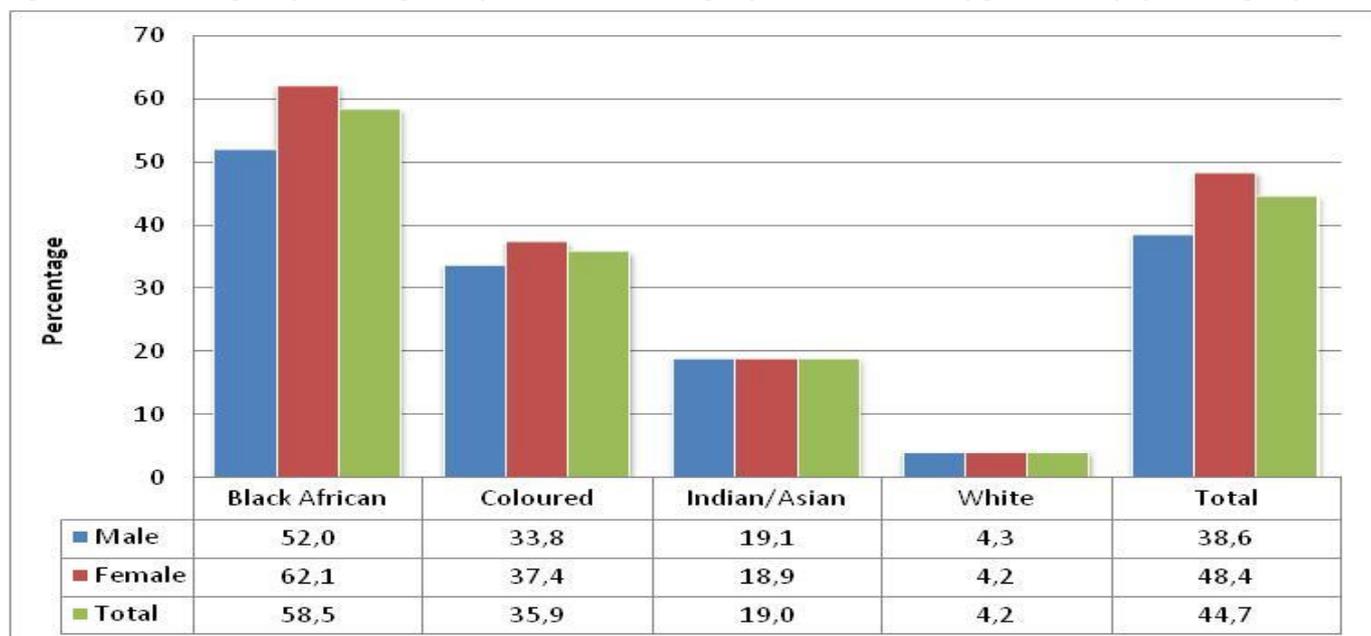


5.4 Income, poverty, economic activity and social grants

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 2012 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 underestimate their income, while in-kind payments are often disregarded in the case of lower-earning households.

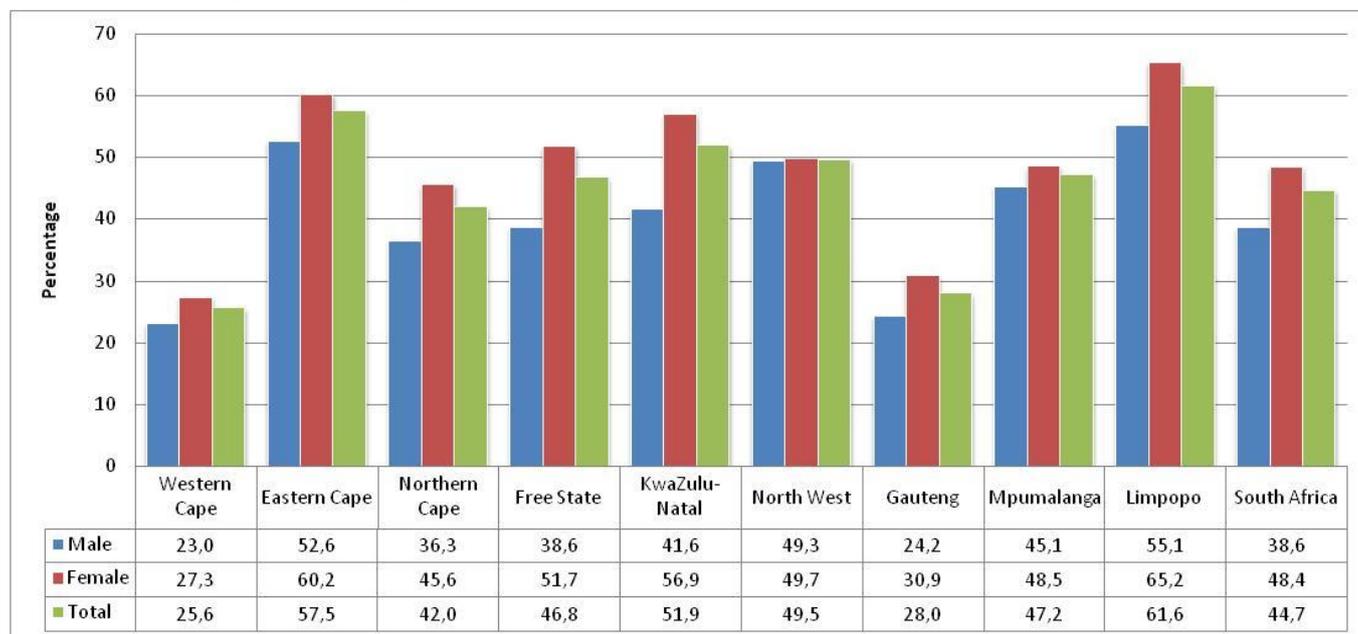
The percentage of older persons who resided in low-income households that had a monthly income of less than R765 per person per month is presented in Figure 5.7. The figure reveals that older females were generally more likely to live in low-income households than older males, except for Indians/Asian and white individuals. Elderly black Africans were most likely to live in low-income households, followed by coloured, Indian/Asian and White individuals. Almost 60% of elderly black Africans lived in low-income households, compared to almost 36% of elderly coloured people, 19% Indians/Asians and 4,2% white people.

Figure 5.7: Percentage of persons aged 60 years and older living in poor households, by gender and population group, 2012



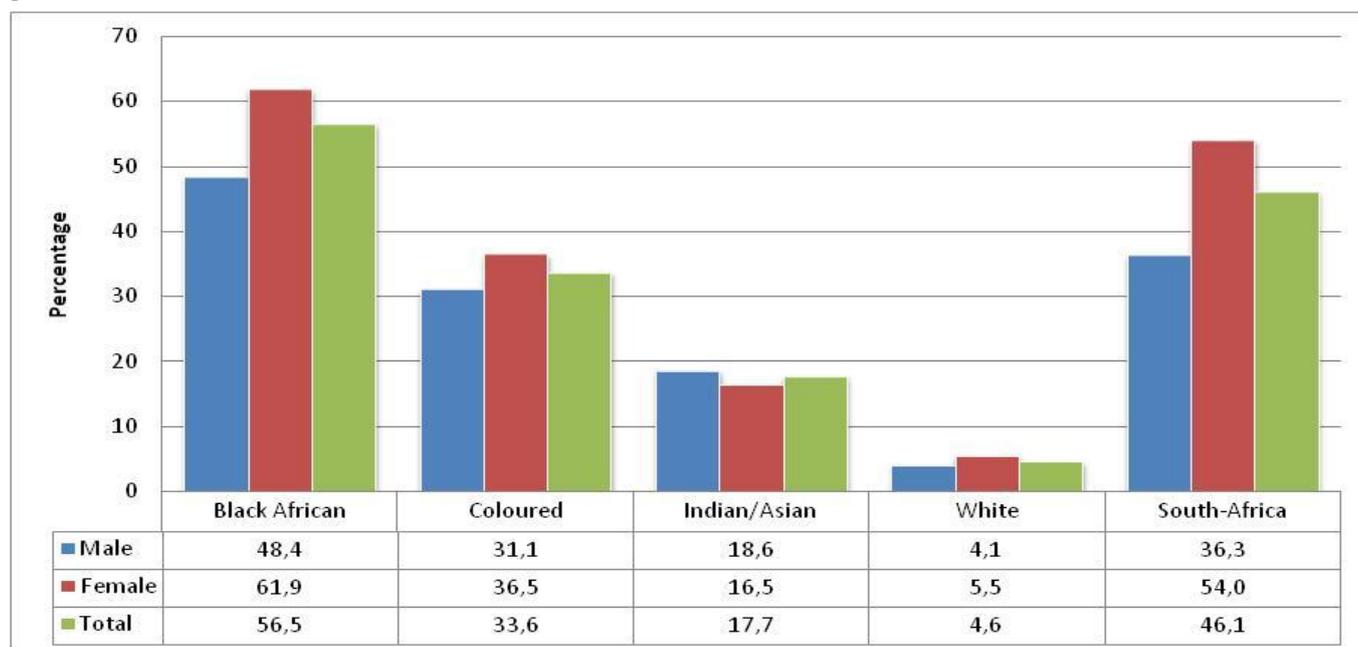
The percentage of older persons that resided in low-income households by gender and province is presented in Figure 5.8. Older persons in Limpopo were most likely to live in low-income households, followed by older persons in Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. Older persons in Western Cape and Gauteng were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

Figure 5.8: Percentage of persons aged 60 years and older living in low-income households, by gender and province, 2012



The percentage of low-income households headed by older persons from various population groups is presented in Figure 5.9. The figure shows that households headed by older black Africans were much more likely to have had a low income (56,5%) compared to households headed by elderly coloured people (33,6%), Indians/Asians (17,7%) and white people (4,6%). Female-headed households were, with the exception of Indian/Asian people, more likely to have a low income than their male peers in the same population group.

Figure 5.9: Percentage of low-income households headed by persons aged 60 years and older, by population group and gender of household head, 2012

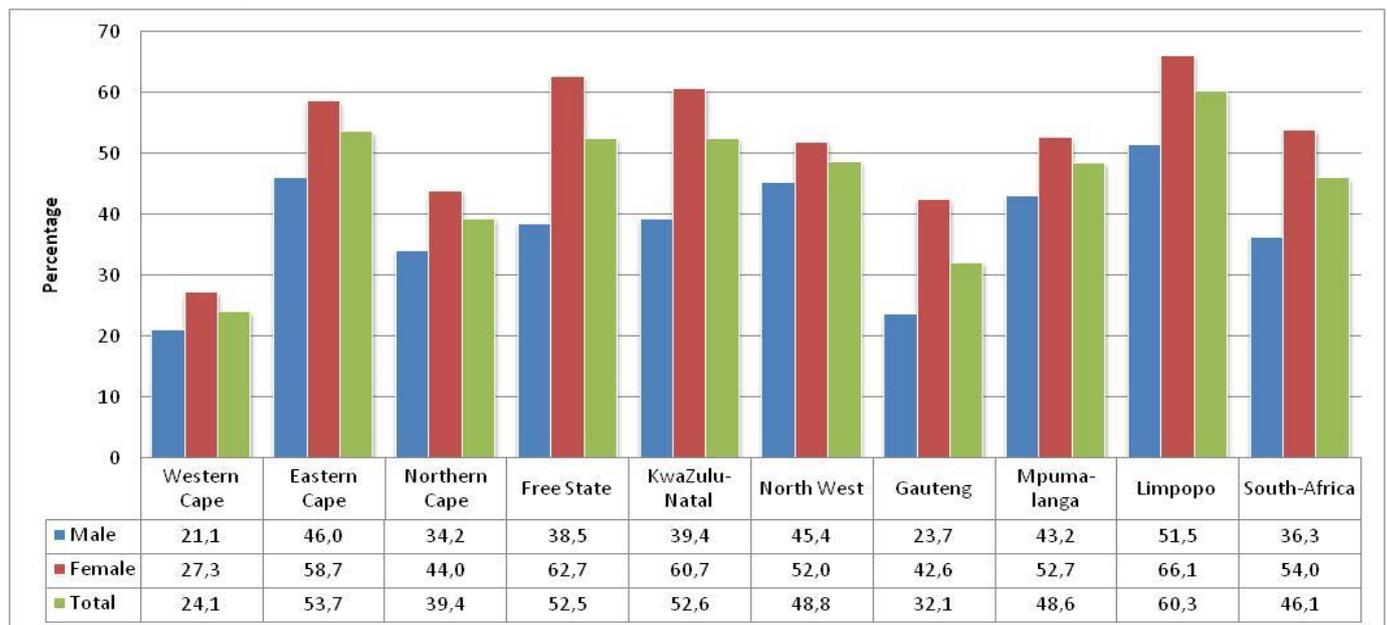


The provincial distribution of low-income households headed by older persons is presented in Figure 5.10. Households in Limpopo (60,3%), Eastern Cape (53,7%), KwaZulu-Natal (52,6%) and Free state (52,5%) were most

likely to be low-income households, while households in Western Cape (24,1%) and Gauteng (32,1%) were least likely to fall into this category.

Households headed by older females were consistently more likely to fall into the lowest two income quintiles than households headed by older males across all provinces. The largest percentage point difference was observed in Limpopo where 66,1% of female-headed households fell into the bottom two quintiles, compared to 51,5% of male-headed households. The smallest percentage point difference is observed in Western Cape.

Figure 5.10: Percentage of low-income households headed by persons over the age of 60 years, by gender of the household head and province, 2012



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 2012 are presented in the Table 5.4. In 2012, the majority of elderly-headed households (66,3%) 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 2,7% identified remittances as their main source of income. Only 0,1% reported income from the sales of farm products, while 5,7% 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, 2002–2012

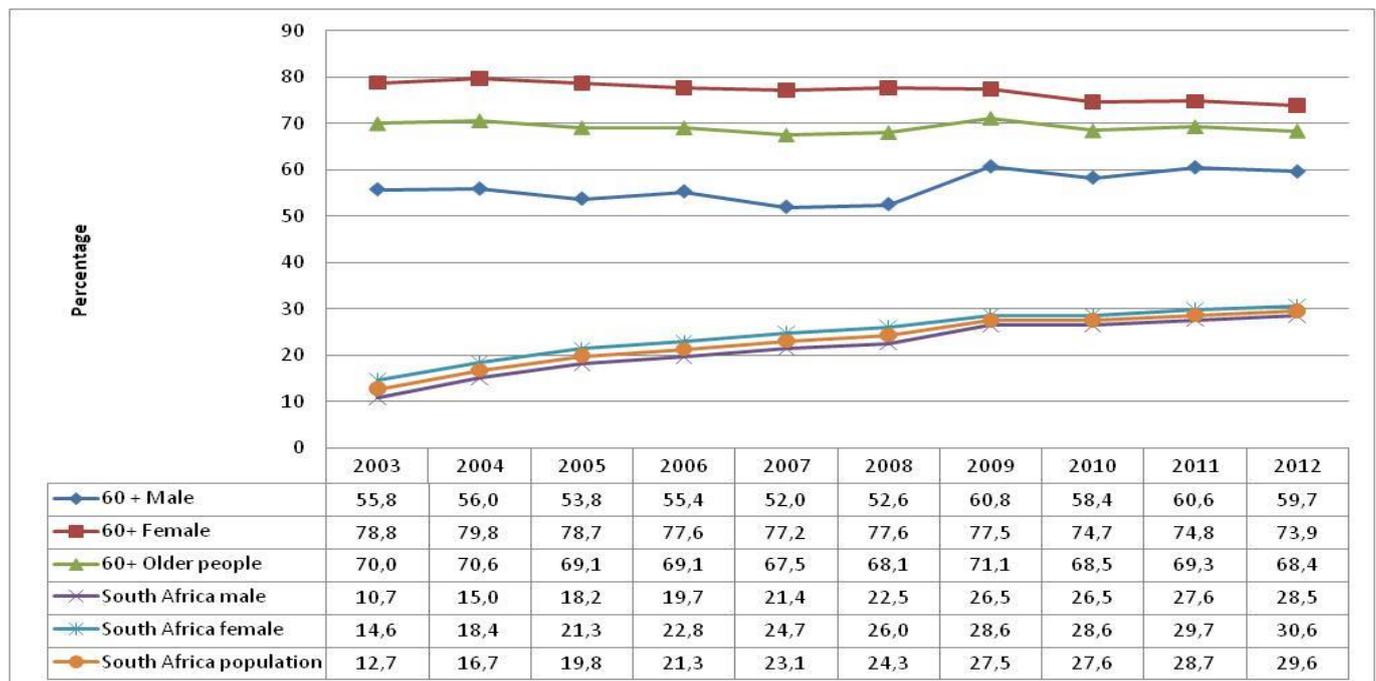
Income sources	Year										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Salaries and/or wages	25,3	22,6	21,7	24,7	24,3	27,6	26,8	25,5	25,4	24,9	25,1
Remittances	4,8	5,0	4,8	3,9	3,7	4,5	4,0	2,5	3,3	2,6	2,7
Pensions and grants	62,8	66,1	65,9	64,8	66,6	63,2	65,2	66,9	64,9	66,9	66,3
Sales of farm products	0,7	0,7	0,9	0,8	0,8	0,8	0,7	0,1	0,2	0,1	0,1
Other non-farm income	5,2	4,5	6,0	5,4	3,7	3,0	2,6	4,8	6,0	5,4	5,7
No income	1,3	1,1	0,6	0,5	1,0	1,0	0,8	0,2	0,1	0,1	0,1
Per cent	100,0										
Total (thousands)	1 942	2 008	2 094	2 148	2 181	2 300	2 441	2 451	2 390	2 558	2 645

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 this figure, 68,4% of older persons received some kind of social grant in 2012. The figure shows that females have consistently been more likely than their male peers to be social grant beneficiaries, predominantly

because males could, for the longest part, only apply for old age grants at the age of 65 years compared to 60 years for women. 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 68,4% of older persons received some kind of government grant in 2012, the corresponding figure for the general population was 29,6%.

Figure 5.11: Percentage of older people who are beneficiaries of social grants compared to the total population, by gender, 2003–2012



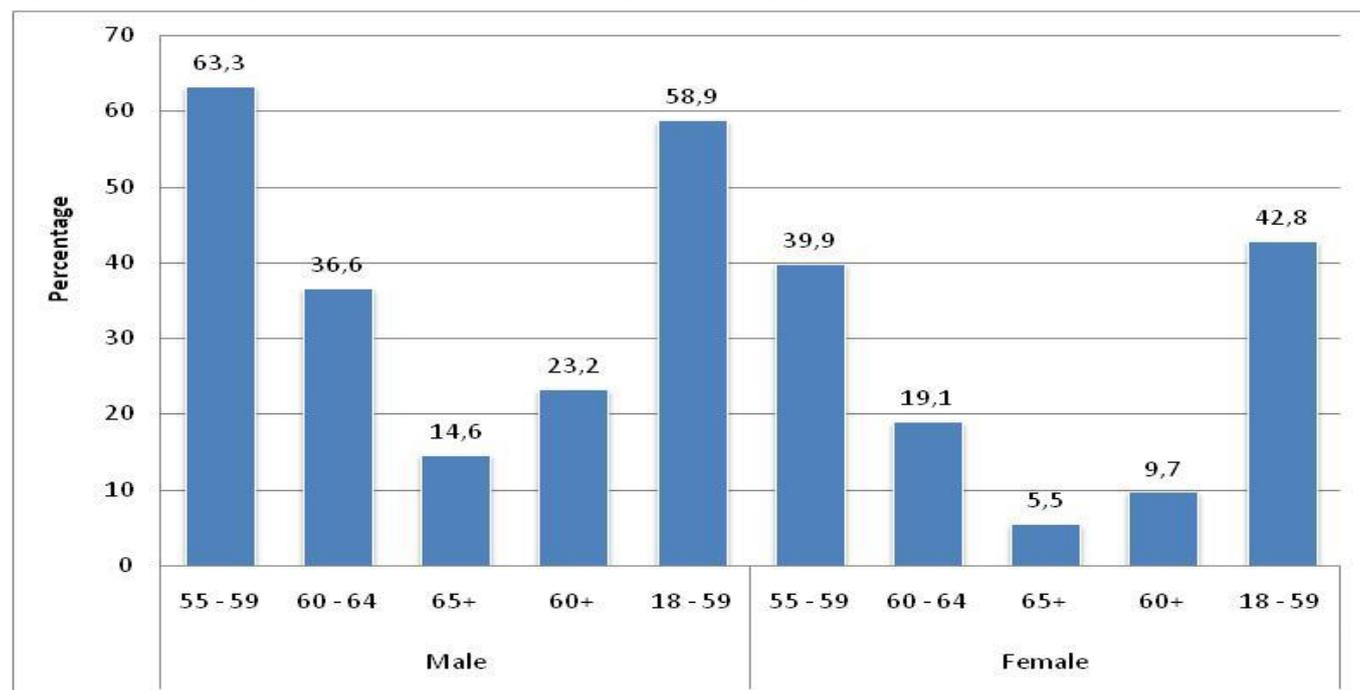
The importance of social grants as a mechanism to support households and to alleviate poverty is explored in Table 5.5. Between 2003 and 2012, the average proportion of grant recipients amongst all South African households more than doubled from 0,12 to 0,30. The proportion of grant recipients was highest for elderly-headed households with children (0,52) followed by households headed by older females (0,51). As can be expected, a relatively small proportion of households headed by individuals in the age group 18–59 years were grant recipients.

Table 5.5: Proportion of grant recipients by household, 2003-2012

Household characteristics	Year									
	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Average proportion of grant recipients										
Male-headed	0,27	0,30	0,33	0,36	0,37	0,37	0,42	0,42	0,44	0,44
Female-headed	0,27	0,32	0,37	0,39	0,41	0,44	0,47	0,49	0,50	0,51
All older-person-headed	0,27	0,31	0,35	0,37	0,39	0,41	0,44	0,46	0,47	0,48
Households including elderly	0,27	0,30	0,34	0,36	0,38	0,39	0,43	0,44	0,45	0,46
Elderly-headed with children	0,25	0,30	0,34	0,37	0,40	0,42	0,45	0,48	0,50	0,52
Headed by 18-59-year-olds	0,08	0,12	0,15	0,16	0,18	0,19	0,23	0,22	0,23	0,24
South Africa	0,12	0,16	0,19	0,20	0,22	0,24	0,27	0,28	0,29	0,30

According to Tati (2009), older people often delay their retirement from economic activity by remaining in the workforce as business owners, or as casual, domestic or farm workers. Figure 5.12 shows that the proportion of employed individuals decreased with age. Females were less likely to be employed than their male peers across all age groups.

Figure 5.12: Percentage of employed older persons, by gender and age group, 2012



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 working household members were largest in households headed by individuals between the ages of 18–59 years. Elderly-headed households and households that contain older persons exhibit very similar proportions. 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.

The highest unemployment ratio was observed for households headed by individuals aged 18–59 years. It was generally lower for households headed by, or containing older persons. This is an indication that many older persons had probably become economically inactive.

Table 5.6: Distribution of working household members by household characteristics, 2002–2012

Household characteristics	Indicator	Year										
		2002	2003	2004	205	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Working members (15 - 64 years) as a proportion of the household												
Older male-headed	Proportion	0,15	0,13	0,14	0,14	0,15	0,16	0,16	0,17	0,16	0,17	0,17
Older female-headed		0,09	0,08	0,08	0,10	0,10	0,11	0,11	0,12	0,12	0,12	0,13
All older-person-headed		0,12	0,10	0,11	0,12	0,12	0,13	0,13	0,14	0,14	0,14	0,15
Households including elderly		0,13	0,12	0,12	0,13	0,13	0,15	0,15	0,15	0,15	0,16	0,16
Elderly-headed with children		0,09	0,08	0,09	0,09	0,10	0,10	0,11	0,11	0,11	0,11	0,11
Headed by 18–59-year-olds		0,30	0,30	0,31	0,31	0,32	0,33	0,32	0,34	0,33	0,33	0,35
South Africa		0,26	0,25	0,26	0,27	0,28	0,28	0,28	0,29	0,29	0,29	0,31

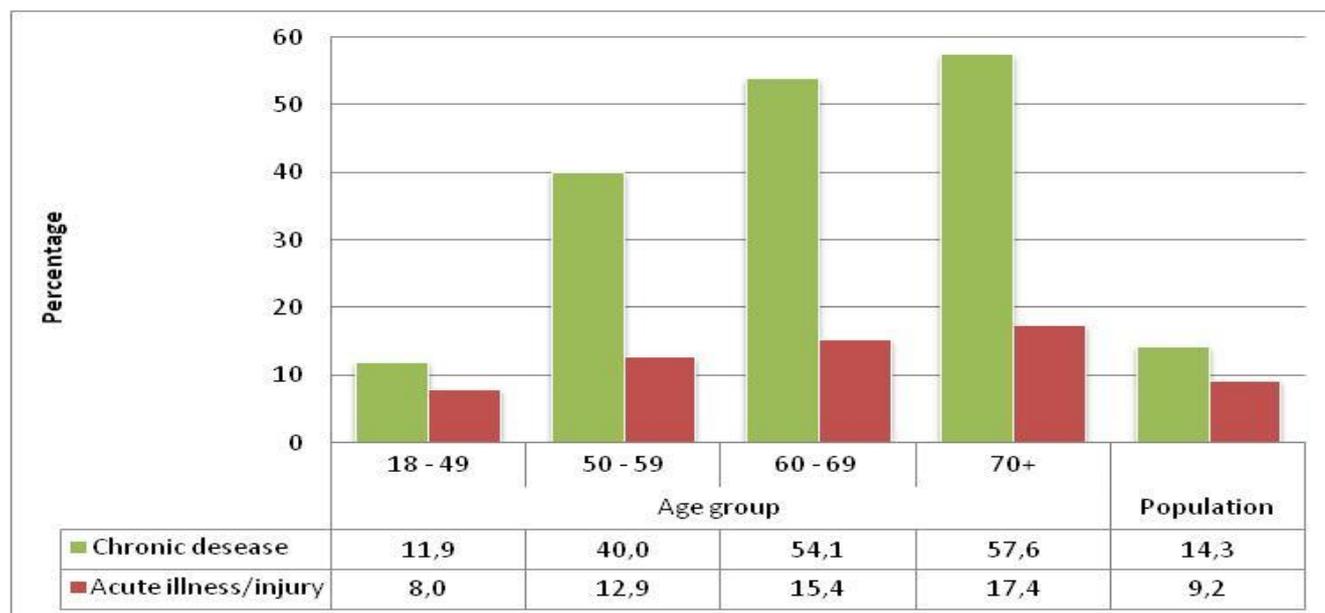
5.5 Health

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.

According to Figure 5.13, the prevalence of acute and particularly chronic diseases seems to increase with age. While 8% 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 increased to 12,9% for the age group 50–59 years, 15,4% for the age group 60–69 years, and finally

17,4% for persons above the age of 70 years. The increased incidence for chronic diseases is more pronounced, growing from 11,9% for individuals in the age group 18–49 years to 57,6% for individuals over the age of 70 years.

Figure 5.13: Percentage of people suffering from any chronic illness or acute illness/injury, by age group, 2012



The healthcare system mirrors inequalities found in contemporary society. Although membership of medical schemes has, according to Figure 5.14, increased slightly since 2006, less than one-quarter (23,3%) of the older population, and only 17,9% of South Africans in general were members, or had access to a medical aid in 2012. Males were slightly more likely to be members of medical aid schemes than females, perhaps because a larger percentage was employed in the formal sector.

Figure 5.14: Percentage of older people with access to a medical aid, 2002–2012

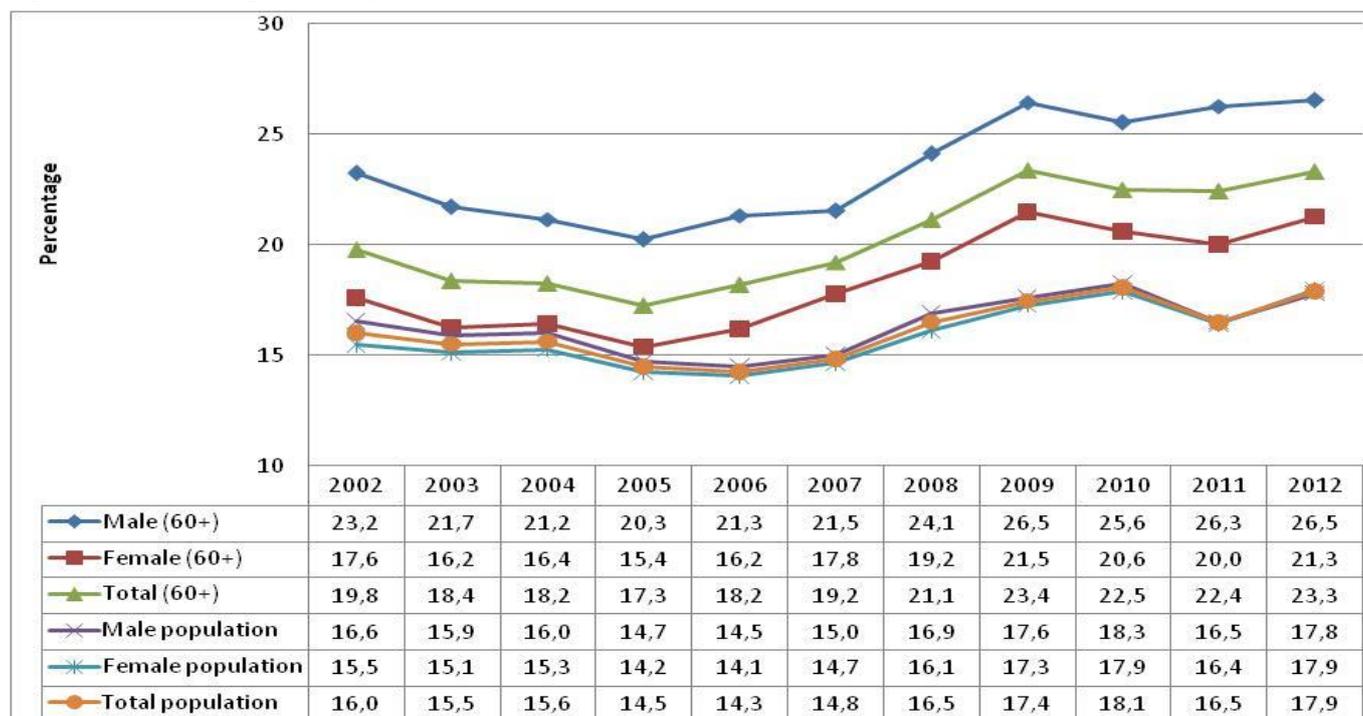


Figure 5.15 conceals huge differences in access to a medical aid by population group. In 2012, more than seven-tenths (73,9%) of elderly white people had access to a medical aid, compared to only 35% of elderly Indians/Asians, 15,9% of elderly coloured people and 5,5% of black Africans.

Figure 5.15: Percentage of older people with access to a medical aid by population group, 2002–2012

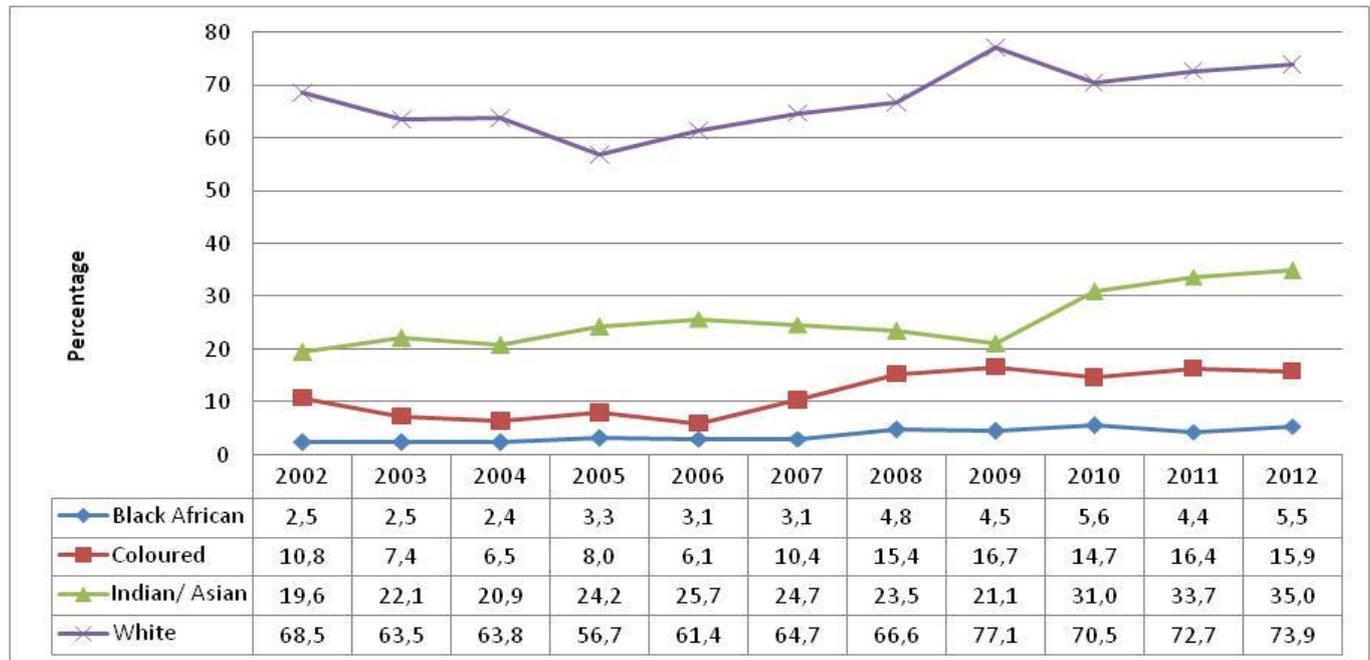
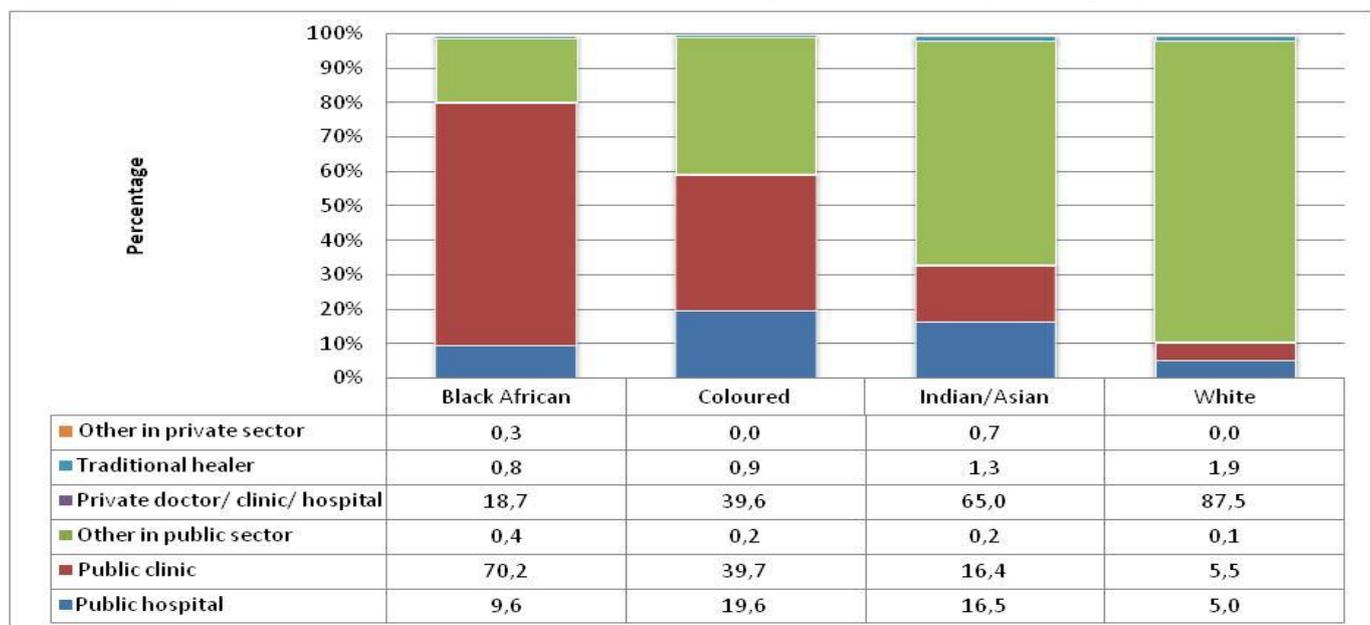


Figure 5.16 outlines the type of healthcare facilities visited by individuals from different population groups. The relative affluence of white people is clear from the fact that 87,5% indicated that they would consult a private doctor, or go to a private clinic/hospital if needed. This observation is confirmed by the high percentage of whites and Indians/Asians that had access to a medical scheme in Figure 5.15, 65% of Indians/Asians indicated that they would access private healthcare if needed. About 70% of black Africans, and 39,7% of coloured people indicated that they would make use of public healthcare facilities if needed. It is interesting to note that approximately 40% 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, 2012

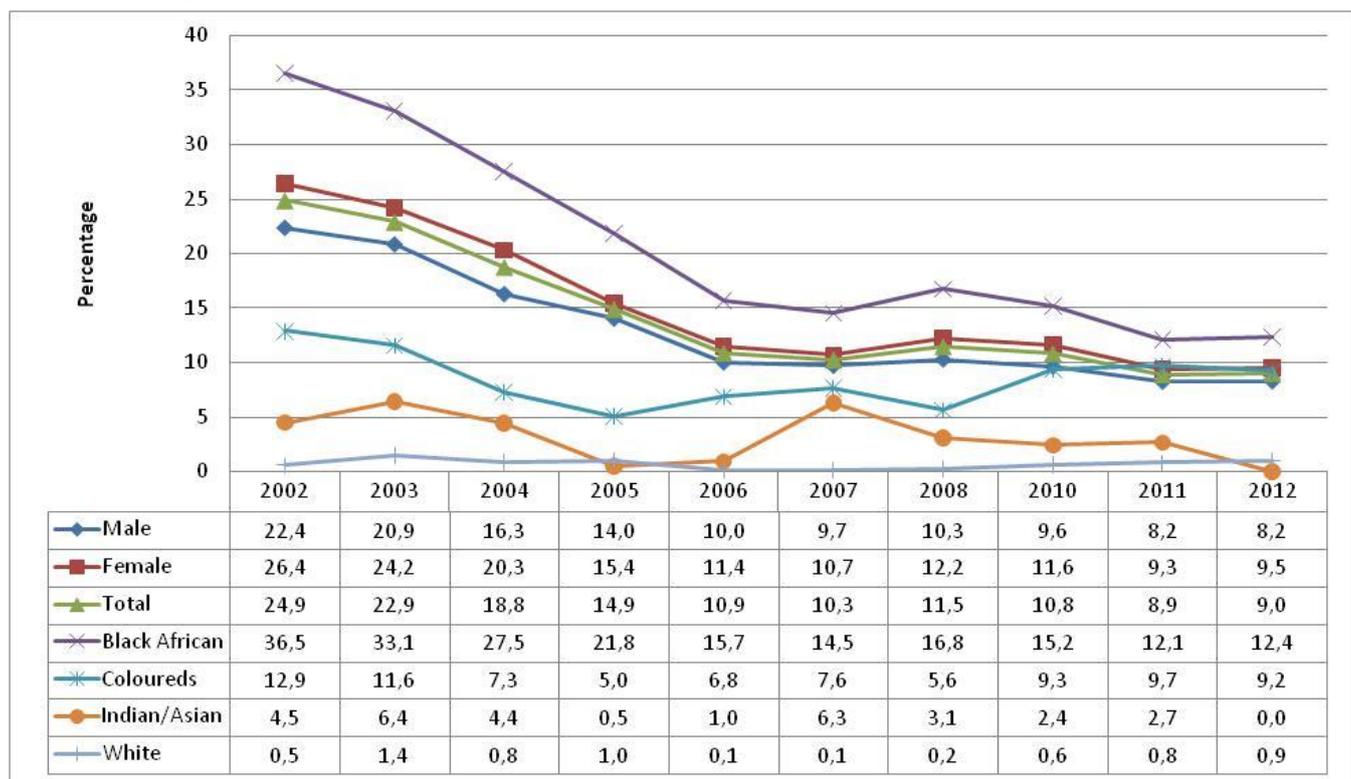


5.6 Vulnerability to hunger and access to food

Vulnerability to hunger particularly affects vulnerable groups living in poverty. 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 2012, elderly black Africans (12,4%) were much more likely to have experienced hunger than elderly coloured people (9,2%) and elderly whites (0,9%). It is noticeable that none of the elderly Indians/Asians were likely to go hungry in 2012. Elderly females were also slightly more likely to have experienced hunger than males. The percentage of individuals that experienced hunger has declined relatively 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 2012 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, 2010-2012⁸



A notable variation between provinces is presented in Table 5.7. The percentage of older persons that live in households which experienced hunger declined consistently between 2002 and 2007. After increasing again between 2008 and 2010, a lower percentage of older persons that lived in households that reported hunger were subsequently noted in 2011 and 2012.

⁸ Questions on hunger were replaced by questions to measure food access and supply in 2009. The battery of questions was reinserted in 2010.

Between 2002 and 2007, Eastern Cape contained the largest percentage of food-insecure older persons, while the smallest percentages were generally found in Gauteng, Western Cape and Limpopo. After prolonged declines, the percentage of older persons that lived in households that experienced hunger once again increased in 2008 before dropping, in most provinces, until 2012. In 2012, older people in North West (15,6%) were most likely to live in households that experienced hunger, followed by Eastern Cape (14,8%) and Northern Cape (12,5%). Older people in Limpopo, Free State and Western Cape were least likely to have suffered hunger.

Table 5.7: Percentage distribution of elderly living in households that reported hunger by province, 2002–2012

Province	Year									
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2010	2011	2012
Western Cape	6,8	7,8	4,4	7,7	6,7	6,5	5,4	7,5	7,8	6,2
Eastern Cape	38,6	33,9	32,1	25,6	17,0	17,2	16,5	15,8	11,8	14,8
Northern Cape	26,0	13,6	16,5	10,9	10,3	12,4	9,1	22,6	17,7	12,5
Free State	23,3	19,4	14,7	14,3	9,6	5,6	6,8	7,5	8,9	5,3
KwaZulu-Natal	30,0	30,3	23,8	14,6	13,5	13,2	15,7	16,5	11,2	8,8
North West	26,3	28,0	26,7	18,4	14,1	11,2	20,1	18,6	11,6	15,6
Gauteng	14,0	14,3	9,2	8,9	5,7	7,7	7,2	4,9	7,0	8,2
Mpumalanga	30,4	28,9	22,5	18,8	8,8	10,7	14,6	8,5	8,8	8,8
Limpopo	29,6	20,3	15,4	14,8	11,0	5,5	8,0	5,0	2,6	3,4
All elderly	24,9	22,9	18,8	14,9	10,9	10,3	11,5	10,8	8,9	9,0
South Africa	29,3	27,6	23,0	20,1	14,4	13,7	15,9	15,9	13,1	13,1

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

Table 5.8: Percentage distribution of households that have experienced hunger by characteristics of the household head and the type of household, 2002–2012

	Year									
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2010	2011	2012
Characteristics of head										
Male 60+	21,9	20,4	15,6	14,0	9,1	8,6	9,9	9,6	10,2	10,6
Female 60+	30,7	29,0	24,2	18,1	12,5	12,3	13,8	13,5	13,1	12,7
Total 60+	26,4	24,8	20,0	16,2	10,9	10,6	12,4	11,7	11,9	11,9
Type of households										
Household with members aged 60 years and older	25,7	24,1	19,4	15,8	10,8	10,4	12,0	11,4	11,8	11,4
Households headed by persons aged 60 years and older with child members	35,8	34,3	27,4	21,9	15,2	14,7	16,9	15,5	14,6	13,9
All households headed by persons aged 18–59 years	23,1	22,0	17,8	16,1	11,6	10,6	13,3	13,3	17,3	17,5

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, 2002–2012

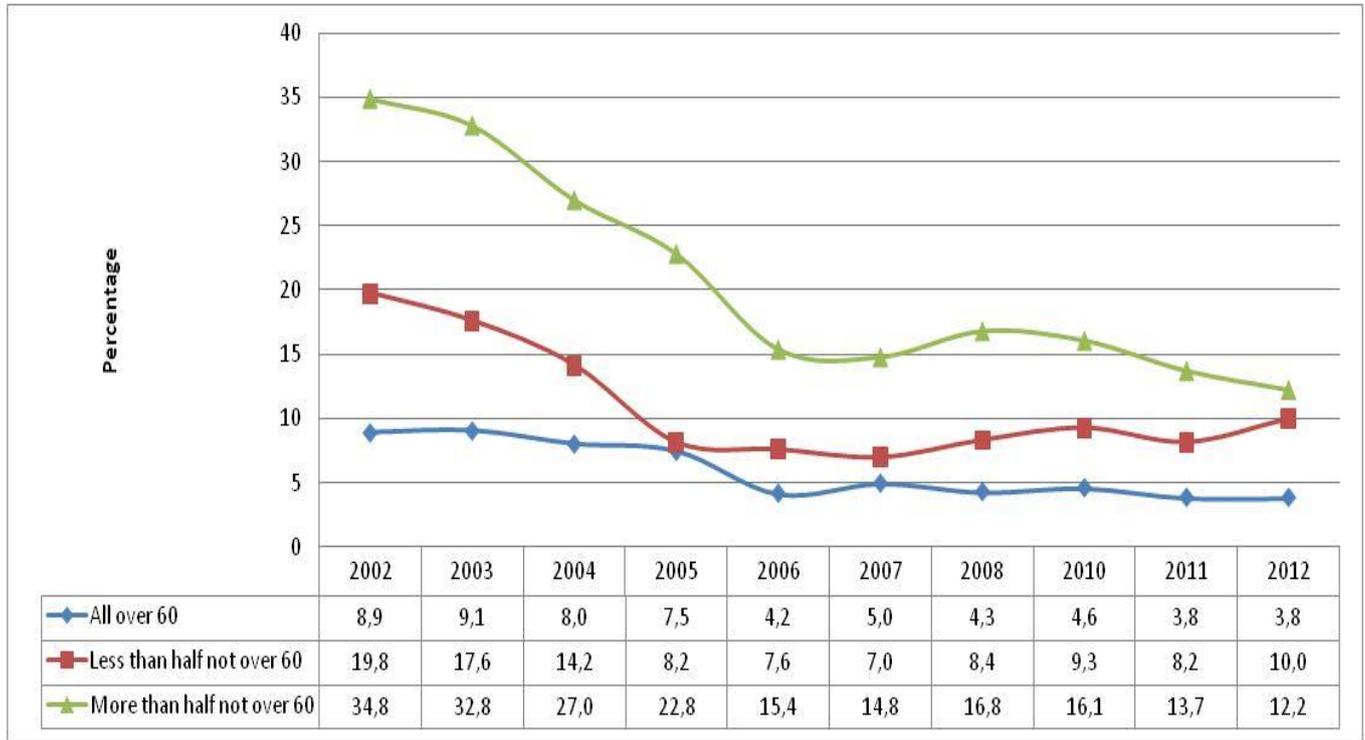
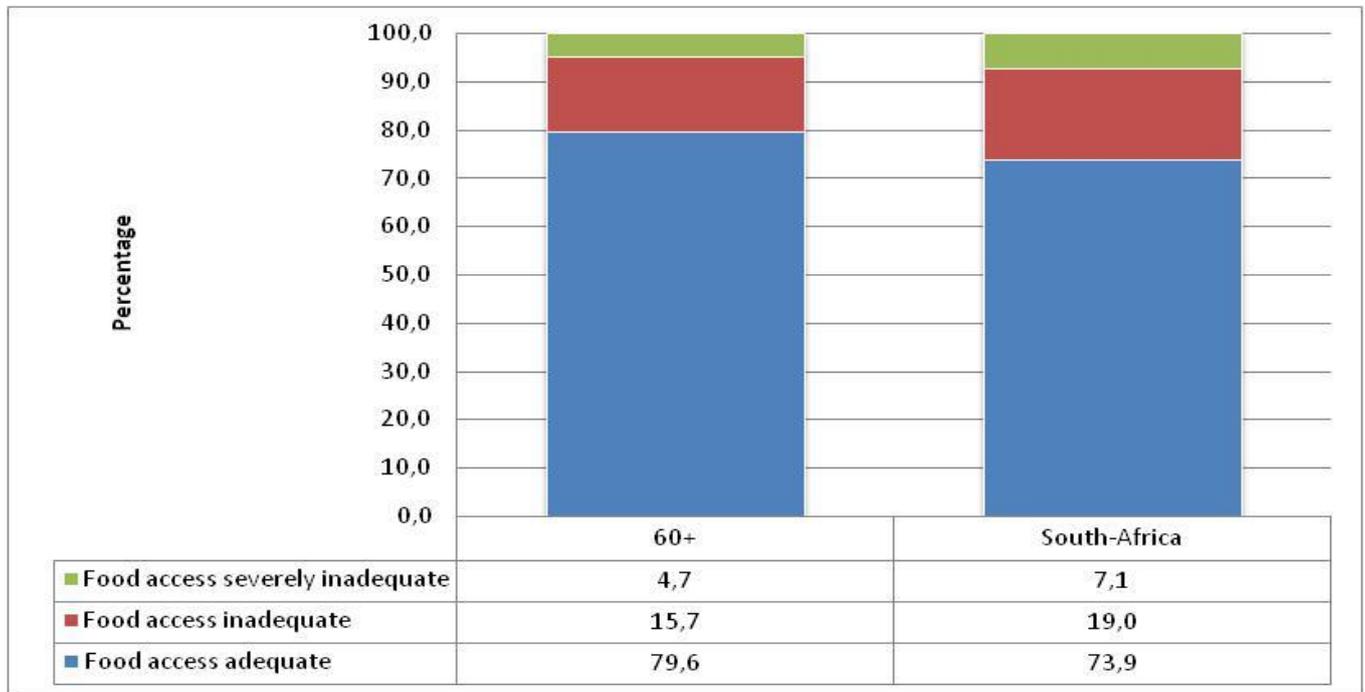


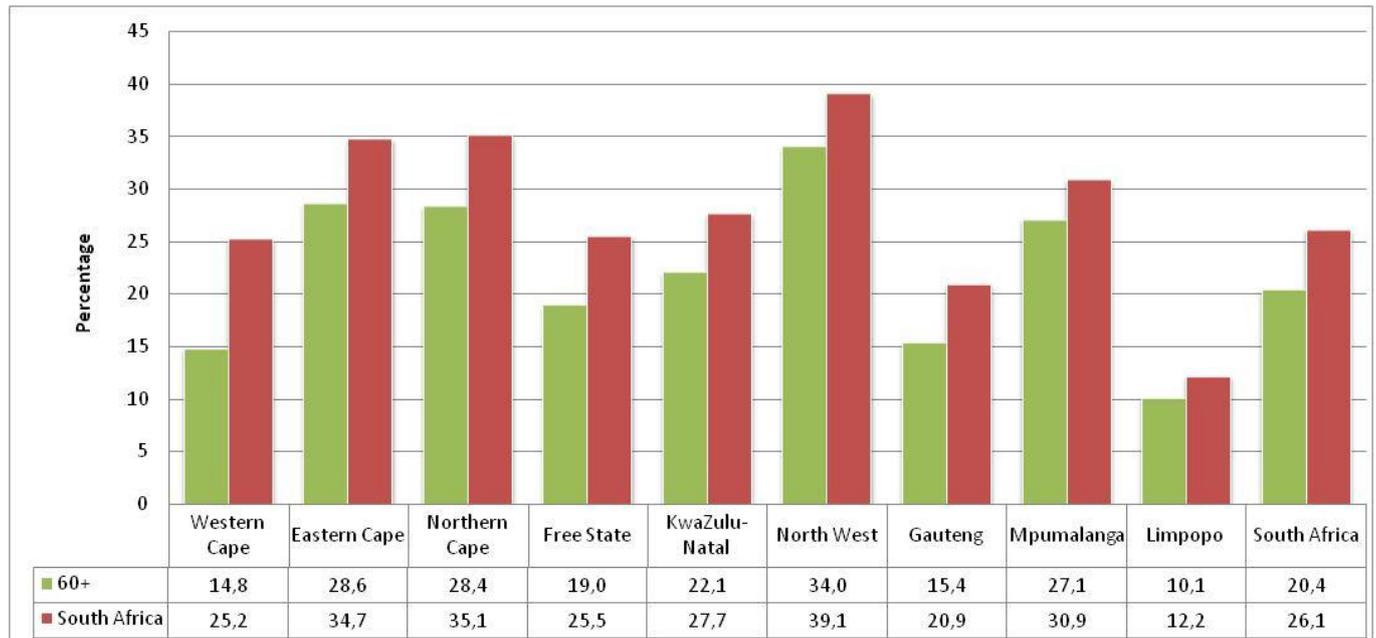
Figure 5.19 confirms the general trend that older persons are generally less likely to experience hunger than the population in general, by revealing that older persons were more likely to report adequate food access and less likely to report inadequate or severely inadequate access to food than the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

Figure 5.19: Percentage distribution of older persons by household access to food, 2012



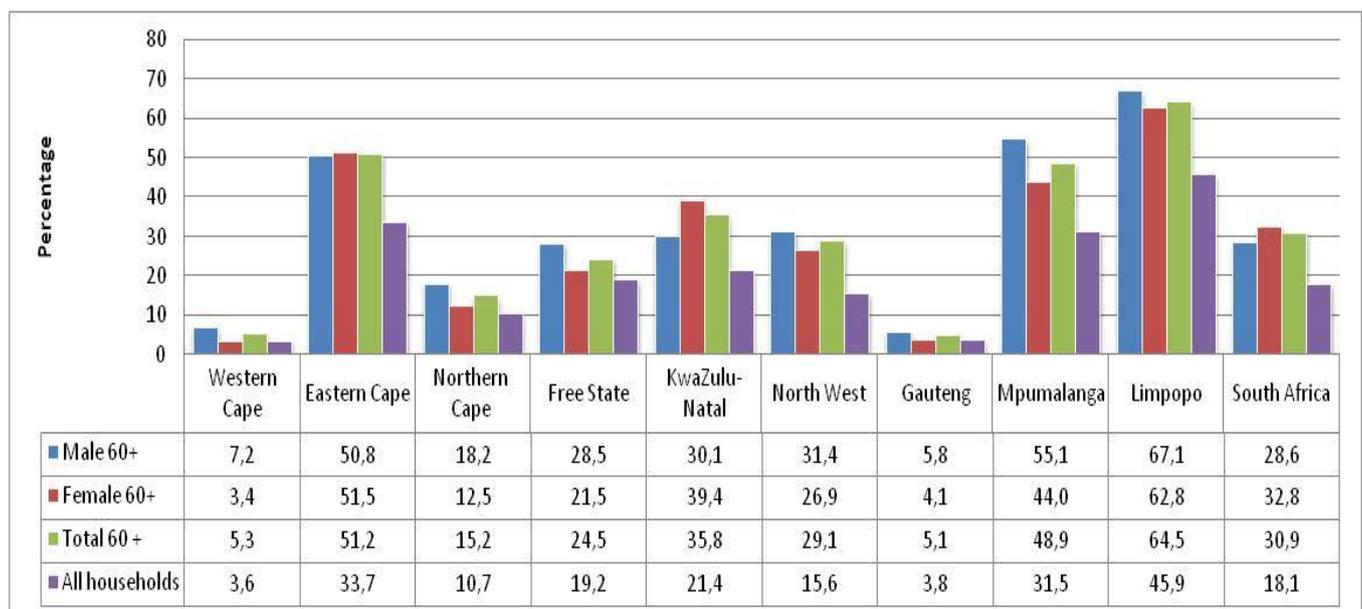
According to Figure 5.20, older persons were least likely to experience inadequate access to food in Limpopo, Gauteng and Western Cape, and most likely to suffer impeded access in North West, Northern Cape and Eastern Cape.

Figure 5.20: Percentage distribution of older persons by household access to food and province, 2012



Households headed by older persons were more likely to engage in some kind of agricultural production than households in general in all nine provinces. This is presented in Figure 5.21. Nationally, 30,9% of elderly-headed households engaged in agriculture in 2012 compared to 18,1% of households in general. Older persons were particularly likely to participate in agriculture in Limpopo (64,5%), Eastern Cape (51,2%), Mpumalanga (48,9%), and KwaZulu-Natal (35,8%), and least likely to have been involved in Gauteng (5,1%) and Western Cape (5,3%). Nationally, a slightly smaller proportion of elderly male-headed households engaged in agriculture than elderly female-headed households. Male-headed households were less likely to participate in agriculture in Eastern Cape and Kwazulu-Natal .

Figure 5.21: Percentage of elderly headed households and households in general that are engaged in agricultural activity by province, 2012



5.7 Education

The limited educational opportunities that the majority of older people had when they were younger is emphasised in the literature. It is clear from Figure 5.22 that the literacy rate of older persons has historically been 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 have consistently remained 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, 2002–2012

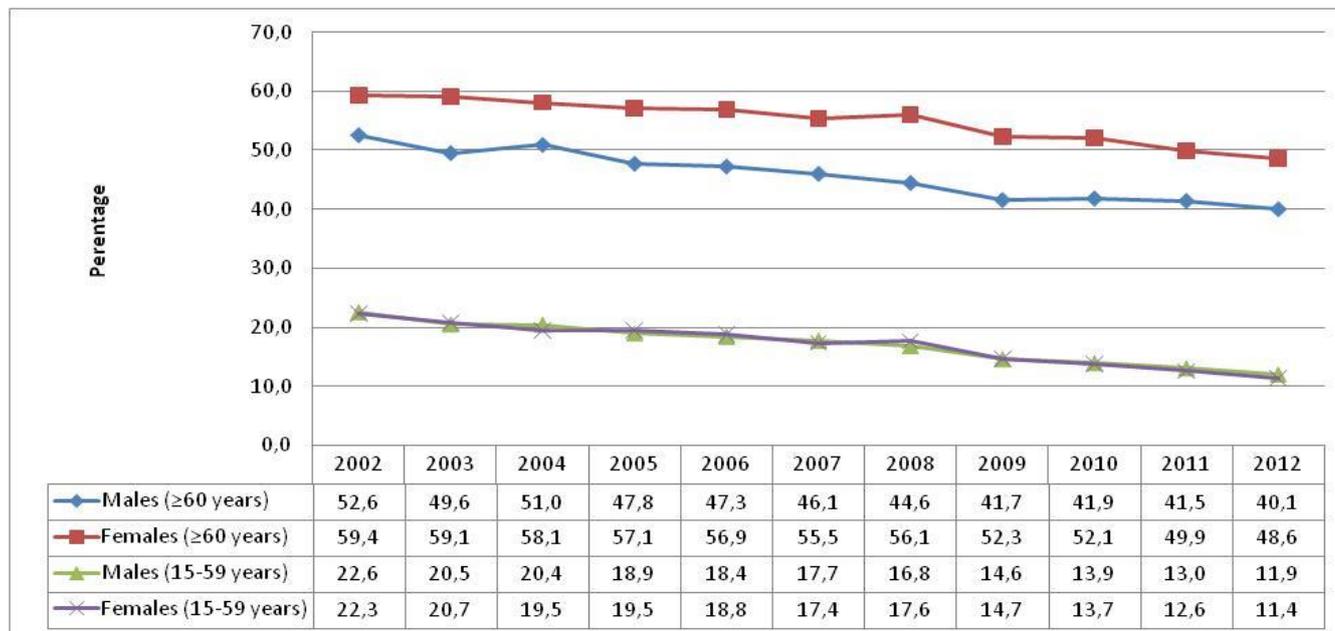


Figure 5.23: Highest level of education of persons aged 60 years and older, by gender, 2002 and 2012

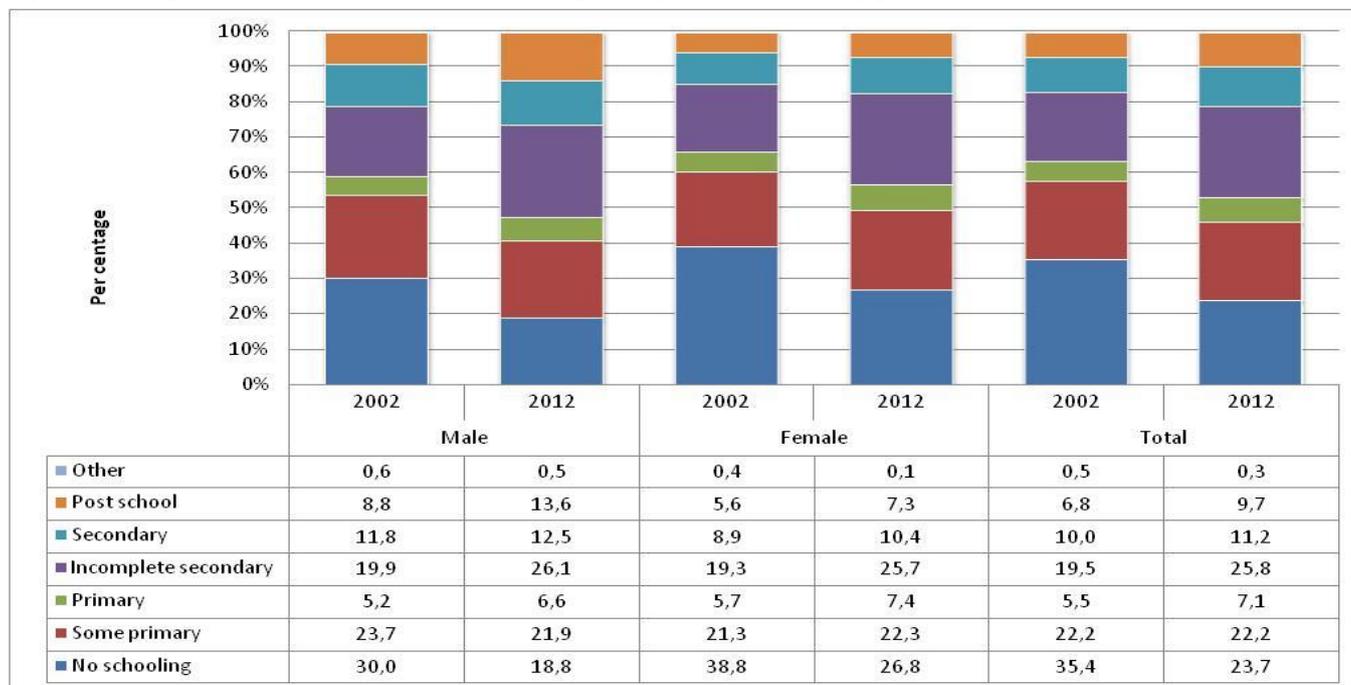


Figure 5.23 illustrates the improvement of older persons' education by gender between 2002 and 2012. Although the percentage of older people, and particularly elderly women who have not attended school remained very high in 2012, substantial reductions took place since 2002. In addition, the percentage of older persons who had achieved at least a Grade 7 education (completed primary school) are slowly increasing, as is the percentage of older people who had 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 race-based inequality can be gauged from Table 5.9. While 34,8% of elderly black Africans had never attended school in 2012, an almost insignificant percentage of white people (0,3%) had never done so. By contrast, 36,2% of elderly white people completed secondary school, while and a further 30.7% had some post school qualification (including tertiary education). By contrast, only 2,5% and 3,0% of elderly black Africans respectively completed secondary school or achieve post-school qualifications. While 13,8% of Indian/Asians completed secondary school, only 8,1% completed post-school qualifications.

Table 5.9: Highest level of education for older persons by population group, 2002 and 2012

	Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White		Total		
	2002	2012	2002	2012	2002	2012	2002	2012	2002	2002	2012
Older persons aged 60+											
No Schooling	28,8	34,8	31,9	10,0	30,8	9,0	0,7	0,3	22,2	23,7	28,8
Some primary	50,7	29,7	27,3	25,2	17,7	15,7	0,2	1,3	35,4	22,2	50,7
Primary	6,3	8,7	9,2	11,6	10,1	10,2	1,7	0,4	5,5	7,1	6,3
Incomplete secondary	12,0	21,3	25,3	41,1	28,9	43,1	36,3	30,0	19,5	25,8	12,0
Secondary	1,2	2,5	2,0	7,8	6,5	13,8	36,3	36,2	10,0	11,2	1,2
Post school	1,0	3,0	4,3	4,1	6,1	8,1	23,0	30,7	6,8	9,7	1,0
Other	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,0	0,0	1,7	1,1	0,5	0,3	0,1
Per cent	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0
Total (thousands)	1 834	2 547	223	343	88	136	696	920	2 841	3 946	1 834

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 2012 is presented in Table 5.10. The table reveals that the percentage of elderly-headed households living in formal structures had increased relatively consistently from nearly 75% in 2002 to 82.1% in 2012. Simultaneously, the percentage of these households that resided in informal and traditional dwellings declined noticeably.

Table 5.10: Percentage of elderly headed households living in formal, informal and traditional housing, 2002–2012

Type of dwelling	Year										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Formal	75,0	75,0	74,3	73,8	77,7	78,3	78,4	79,1	81,3	80,3	82,1
Traditional	18,1	19,1	20,4	18,0	15,4	14,9	16,3	16,2	14,9	15,7	13,2
Informal	6,3	5,3	4,8	7,4	6,2	5,9	4,9	4,4	3,6	3,8	4,3
Other	0,6	0,6	0,5	0,8	0,7	1,0	0,5	0,3	0,2	0,2	0,5
Per cent	100,0										
Total (thousands)	1 955	2 011	2 095	2 154	2 194	2 297	2 449	2 541	2 649	2 727	2 849

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

Table 5.11 shows that the percentage of elderly living in formal housing increased from 77,2% in 2002 to 83,8% in 2010, before dropping to 81,7% in 2011 and increasing again to 84,4% in 2012. By contrast, the percentage of elderly living in informal and traditional dwellings declined relatively consistently until 2010, before increasing to 18,1% in 2011 and dropping again to 15,1% in 2012.

Table 5.11: Percentage of elderly living in formal, informal and traditional housing, 2002–2012

Type of dwelling	Year										
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Formal	77,2	77,3	76,1	76,9	80,6	80,3	80,6	81,6	83,8	81,7	84,4
Traditional	16,7	17,4	19,4	16,1	13,8	13,7	14,8	14,4	13,2	15,2	11,8
Informal	5,7	4,8	4,0	6,4	5,2	5,3	4,3	3,6	2,9	2,9	3,3
Other	0,5	0,6	0,43	0,6	0,5	0,7	0,3	0,4	0,2	0,2	0,5
Per cent	100,0										
Total (thousands)	2 884	2 974	3 070	3 168	3 279	3 370	3 508	3 630	3 745	3 270	3 943

Totals exclude unspecified and missing values

The percentage of elderly persons that lived in dwellings that were partially or fully owned is presented in Table 5.12. The table shows that older persons have been more likely to live in households that are **partially or fully owned** than the population in general. After floating above 85% since 2002, the percentage of older persons that enjoyed some tenure status declined to 81,9% in 2011. There was an increase in the year 2012 (85%) compared to 2011.

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. Although access to water in the dwelling or yard has increased for older persons, as well as the general population between 2002 and 2011, there was a general decrease in 2012 for both older persons and the general population. Older persons were likely to have access to tap water than the general population.

While access to flush toilets has improved consistently between 2002 and 2012 for older persons as well as the general population, older persons remained slightly more likely to live in households with flush toilets than the general population (77,5% of older headed households compared to 75,2% of the general population in 2012). **Improved sanitation** includes flushing toilet connected to a sewage system or a septic tank, or indeed pit toilet with ventilation pipes.

The percentage of households for which **refuse is removed by a municipality** at least once a week is often used as an indicator of environmental cleanliness. Older persons seem to be slightly more likely than the general population to have lived in households whose rubbish was removed by a municipality (61,2% of older headed households compared to 59,7% of the general population in 2012). It is notable that access to refuse removal increased relatively continuously until 2007, after it declined for two consecutive years before recovering for the next two years and declining again in the year 2012 (57,9% for the general population in 2012 compared to 60,4 the previous year).

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 since 2002 for the elderly as well as the population in general. Approximately 91,6% of older persons and 87,2% of the population in general lived in households that were connected to the mains electricity in 2012.

While the percentage of households with access to mains electricity improved between 2002 and 2012, the percentage of the elderly and the population in general that relied on solid fuels (wood, coal and animal dung) to cook their food, declined consistently. The use of solid fuels by older persons declined from 33,7% in 2002 to 19,6% in 2012.

Table 5.12: Comparison of the basic living condition indicators for the elderly and the total population, 2002–2012

Access to service indicator	Age cohorts	Year										
		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Tenure status % elderly living in dwellings that are partially or fully owned	60+	85,5	88,7	87,3	88,9	90,3	88,4	90,9	84,5	86,8	81,9	85,0
	Population	78,6	81,0	79,8	81,4	80,6	78,4	81,8	74,2	76,5	71,0	72,6
Access to water % living in dwellings with piped water in house or yard	60+	64,5	65,2	64,2	66,9	68,7	69,9	69,3	68,5	70,5	71,7	71,5
	Population	63,7	64,3	64,6	65,7	67,2	68,2	68,2	67,4	68,8	70,3	69,4
Improved sanitation: % of elderly living in dwellings with a flushing toilet connected to a sewage system or a septic tank, pit toilet with ventilation pipe	60+	58,0	59,2	62,0	63,4	65,1	68,7	69,5	71,9	73,4	75,2	77,5
	Population	55,8	58,1	60,6	61,9	63,3	66,2	67,4	69,8	72,8	74,6	75,2
Refuse/waste % living in dwellings with rubbish removed by municipality	60+	52,5	53,1	52,9	56,7	57,8	58,5	58,0	58,6	60,0	60,7	61,2
	Population	52,8	53,8	53,8	56,6	57,2	57,3	56,7	57,1	59,6	60,4	59,7
Electricity % living in dwellings with connected to mains	60+	77,2	78,3	80,7	84,1	84,2	85,9	85,2	87,0	89,1	89,8	91,6
	Population	75,3	77,0	79,4	80,0	80,4	81,9	82,5	83,2	85,1	86,2	87,2
Energy for cooking % of elderly living in dwellings with wood, coal and animal dung as the energy for cooking	60+	33,7	33,6	32,7	26,0	24,1	24,5	25,0	24,5	22,3	20,7	19,6
	Population	30,6	30,0	29,1	25,3	23,3	23,4	23,7	22,8	20,8	19,0	18,1
Telephone % living in dwellings with landline or cellular phone in the dwelling	60+	50,6	51,3	58,2	68,5	71,7	76,7	78,7	84,9	88,3	91,3	92,9
	Population	46,7	49,2	57,8	69,5	74,8	80,3	82,9	88,2	91,3	94,1	96,4
Internet⁹ % living in dwellings with access to the Internet	60+				6,6				10,1	11,6	12,9	13,2
	Population				5,2				8,1	9,6	9,2	9,2

Access to telephones is defined as the percentage of older persons living in households with access to landlines or cell phones. The percentage of South Africans that had **access to landlines or cell phones at home** has increased enormously over the past years, growing from 46,7% in 2002 to 96,4% in 2012. During the same period, the percentage of older persons who had access to telephones increased from 50,6% to 92,9%. In 2012, a slightly smaller percentage of older persons had access to telephones in their dwellings compared to the general population.

Older persons were more likely to have access to the Internet at home than members of the general population. The percentage of older persons who had **access to the Internet at home** increased from 6,6% in 2005, the first time the question was asked in the GHS questionnaire, to about 13% in 2012. During this time access by the population in general increased from 5,2% in 2005 to 9,2% in 2012.

⁹Questions on access to the Internet at home was only included in the questionnaire in 2005, 2009 and 2010

5.9 Summary and conclusions

Black Africans over the age of 60 years constituted about 65% of the total population of elderly people in South Africa, and comprised the majority of the elderly population in eight of the nine provinces. Although white people only constituted about 9% of the total South African population, white people comprised almost one-quarter (23,1%) of the population in the age group 60 years and above. White people constituted a high percentage of the older population in Western Cape, Gauteng and Free State, while older coloured people comprised a large percentage of older persons in Western and Northern Cape.

The percentage of households headed by older persons had increased slightly from 18,1% in 2002 to approximately 20% in 2012. Households headed by older persons were most prevalent in Eastern Cape (27%) and least common in Gauteng (15%). Slightly less than one-quarter of all persons in South Africa lived 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 were more likely to live alone than individuals in general (about 10% 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 lived in extended households compared to only 17% of white people. More than 62% of older white people lived in nuclear households, while another 15% lived alone. Both figures were much higher than the norm for older persons from the other three population groups. White people were furthermore much less likely to live in households that contained at least three generations, or which were classified as skip-generation households than older black Africans, coloured people or Indians/Asians. In fact, less than one-third (31%) of all households headed by older whites contained 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, about 46% of older Africans lived in households that contain at least three generations, or which were classified as skip-generation households. More than one-fifth (20,8%) of older Africans lived in skip-generation households (compared to 3% 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 were consistently more likely to be married than females in those age groups, females in those age groups were consistently more likely to never being married, divorced, widowed or separated. While the percentage of males who are married/living together increased slightly from 77% during their fifties to just above 77% for those older than 70 years, the percentage for women drops sharply from about 54% 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 their male partners often being older than them.

The mean size of households that merely contain older persons was estimated at 4,0, while the average size for households headed by older persons (male and female-headed) was estimated at 3,9 and 4,0 respectively, which is higher than the national average of 3,4 persons per household. These observations seem to support the argument that older people were playing an active caring and support role in households. The total dependency ratios of elderly-headed households that included children (1,84) and households headed by older males (1,82), surpass those of households headed by individuals aged between 18–59 years (0,58) and South African households in general (0,75).

The child dependency ratio for child-inclusive households that were headed by older persons remained high at 1,24, while it was estimated at 1,00 for all older female-headed households. This ratio highlights the substantial

burden carried by older persons, particularly females. Older persons have to support almost 1,4 children for every older person in elderly female-headed households.

When using a low-income threshold of R765 per person per month, e.g. households in the bottom two income quintiles, the report found that 58,5% of elderly black Africans lived in low-income households, compared to 35,9% of coloured people, 19% of Indians/Asians and about 4.2% of white people. Older persons were least likely to live in low-income households in Western Cape and Gauteng, and most likely to do so in Limpopo, where 61,6% of older persons lived in low-income households. The majority of elderly-headed households (66% in 2012) 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 0,1% 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 2012, 68,4% of older persons received some kind of government grant compared to only 29,6% of persons in the general population. Elderly women were more likely to receive grants than men. The proportion of grant recipients within households headed by older persons increased from 0,27 in 2003 to 0,48 in 2012. The grant recipient ratio was 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 were more likely to have children than elderly male-headed households. Elderly male-headed households contained a substantially higher percentage of employed adults than any of the other household types with elderly household heads.

The prevalence of acute and particularly chronic diseases increases with age. While 8% 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 were afflicted by an acute condition increased to 13% for the age group 50–59 years, before settling at 17,4% for persons above the age of 70 years. The increase for chronic disease was even more pronounced, growing from 12% for individuals in the age group 18–49 years to about 58% 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 2012. Once again, significant differences were noted between the different population groups.

Vulnerability to hunger is closely linked to population groups. While approximately 0% of Indian/Asian and less than 1% of white older people lived in households that experienced hunger, about 9% for coloured and about 12% for African older persons lived in such households. Older persons were, 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 was 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, made a difference. Racial divisions in terms of educational attainment persist. While about 35% of elderly black Africans had never attended school by 2012, an almost insignificant percentage of white people (0,3%) had never attended school. The situation is even more pronounced when secondary and post-school qualifications are considered. Thirty six per cent of elderly white people completed secondary school, and a further 31% had some post-school qualification (including tertiary education), compared with the 5,5% of elderly black Africans that completed both phases, or the 14% of Indians/Asians who have completed secondary school, and the 8% that have completed some post-school qualification.

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 increased consistently since 2002, and older persons were 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 increased for older persons, as well as the general population between 2002 and 2012. 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.

5.11 References

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