

The Marginalised Groups Series V:

The Social Profile of Youth



IMPROVING LIVES THROUGH DATA ECOSYSTEMS



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Marginalised Groups Series V: The Social Profile of the Youth, 2014–2020

Statistics South Africa

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Foreword

South Africa's population has been steadily increasing over the years. The present report reveals that the youth population steadily grew from 20,2 million to 20,6 million between 2014 and 2021, and contribute around 34,3% to the total population. As a youthful population, South Africa, has a potential to fully engage the number of persons of working age in productive activities. However, when young people cannot find employment; high dependency – when they cannot earn a living – this youth bulge becomes a demographic time bomb, as large masses of frustrated youth become a product of social and economic uncertainty.

The increasing youth population really means that a well-educated and healthy youth population could potentially propel the economy and the country onto a new growth trajectory. But the question needs to be asked: where are we now? The purpose of this report is to provide a general picture of a wide spectrum of demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the youth. As you will see, the analyses in this report highlight areas of success, as well as challenges that perhaps require different and/or more effective interventions.

Of particular interest in the report are issues relating to employment, crime, health and poverty. In terms of the participation of youth in the labour market, the high rates of youth unemployment and its challenges, which are largely structural by nature, are causes of concern in relation to the well-being of youth and the general economic growth in the country. Efforts to tackle the scourge of youth unemployment therefore have to address structural factors relating to education and skills development.

For example, Chapter 4 of this report will show that the labour participation rate of youth decreased from 48,2% to 44,7% between 2014 and 2021 respectively. The unemployment rate of the youth in South Africa increased by 12,5 percentage points from 36,8% in 2014 to 49,3% in 2021. Of the unemployed youth in 2021, 42,0% had worked before. However, the share of the unemployed youth decreased between 2014 and 2021.

An analysis of poverty highlights the disparities between rural and urban households with regard to the sources of income for households with young people. For example, an analysis on poverty revealed that females aged 15–34 years accounted for a higher proportion of youth living below all the three poverty lines than their male counterparts, who seemed to be much better off.

On the other hand, the causes of death pertaining to youth demonstrate that during 2013 and 2018 a high percentage of young people died from 'certain infectious and parasitic diseases' (mostly females), symptoms and signs not elsewhere classified (mostly females) as well as 'external causes of morbidity and mortality' (mostly males).



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Abbreviations

AIDS:	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ACHPR:	African Charter of Human and People's Rights
AU:	African Union
GPSJS:	Governance, Public safety and Justice Survey
GBV:	Gender Based Violence
HIV:	Human Immune Deficiency Virus
ICESR:	International Covenant of Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
IES:	Income and Expenditure Survey
FPL:	The Food Poverty Line
LBPL:	The Lower Bound Poverty Line (FPL)
LCS:	Living Conditions Survey
MACOD:	Mortality and Causes of Deaths
MTSF:	Medium Term Strategic Framework
MYPE:	Mid-Year Population Estimates
NDP:	National Development Plan
NHTS:	National Household Travel Survey
QLFS:	Quarterly Labour Force Survey
SASSA:	South African Social Security Agency
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
STATS SA:	Statistics South Africa
UBPL:	The Upper Bound Poverty Line (UPL)
VOCS:	Victims of Crime Survey

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background

South Africa's youth make up roughly 34,3 per cent of the entire population. Definitions of youth vary considerably amongst countries. The United Nations defines the youth as those aged between 15 and 24 years¹, however, it recognises that each region may have its specific definition of youth. In South Africa, youth is defined as those aged 15 to 34 years.

Research indicates that youth make up a large share of the labour force, and that youth are often ill-equipped with the skills needed and relevant to employers during a certain period of era, resulting in high levels of unemployment and discouragement among youth. Young people between the ages of 15 and 34 accounted for over 70% of total unemployment over the last decade. The global pandemic Covid-19 has had a negative socio-economic impact on South African youth employment.

The pandemic disrupted education across all education sectors in South Africa, and while some schools managed to continue using online resources and rotation systems, some students have been unable to return to school as a result of this disruption. Remote learning required an adequate home environment suitable for learning in order to be effective. Many students had to deal with shared areas, interruptions, and distractions from other family members because they did not have convenient study spaces. With the closing of schools in 2020, most of these students would be unable to benefit from the school-feeding program, which provides underprivileged students with their main daily meal. The impact to workers due to the lockdowns included, closure of businesses job losses and the deepening of the inequalities as job losses disproportionately impacted low-income workers.

These challenges facing the South African youth as mentioned above could lead to far-reaching, over-arching socio-economic consequences for young people, putting them at a higher risk of falling into poverty, criminal behaviour, ill health and drug use (Barron, 2014; Hammarstrom, 1994)². Unless ameliorated through effective policy implementation, the current youth situation may lead to long-term detrimental impacts on the general economic, social and physiological well-being amongst our young members of society.

Notwithstanding the challenges facing today's young people, notable progress in access to education and skills development has been achieved. Successes around making education and training accessible are large due to policies around the introduction of free basic education and with the establishment of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) colleges, which has seen an overwhelming increase of young people in tertiary education. Access to free primary health care is another success story, with more young people accessing free primary health care services. However, much remains to be done to reduce the number of youth dying from infectious and parasitic diseases such as tuberculosis (TB), influenza and pneumonia. The number of youth dying from external causes of morbidity and mortality is also of concern.

This report updates the 2016 Vulnerable Groups Series I report and focuses on the socio-economic and demographic profile of the youth. It offers a broad understanding of the situation of young people in South Africa by analysing data that highlights some of the concerns, challenges and successes experienced by the youth.

¹ <http://social.un.org/youthyear/docs/UNPY-presentation.pdf>

² Barron, S. W. 2003. Self-control, social consequences and criminal behaviour: Street youth and the general theory of crime *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 40 (4), pp 403-425

Hammarstrom, A. 1994. Health consequences of youth unemployment, *Public health*, 108 (6), pp 403-412

1.2 Legislation and policy frameworks

The situation of youth in this country exists against a backdrop of a strong legal framework in terms of policies and legislation to improve the circumstances for youth in the country. This section describes the legislative framework, policies, and measures implemented in South Africa and around the world to ensure youth development.

1.3.1 International Context

Sustainable Development Goals (SDG)

Commonwealth Youth Charter, 2005: Provides the parameters within which youth policies in all Commonwealth countries can be developed.

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) 2030 recognises the need for inclusion of youth and aims to achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value by 2030. The SDGs also calls for substantially reducing the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training by 2020.

1.3.2 Regional Context

African Youth Charter, 2006: is aligned with international agreements and declarations on youth development and flags the sacrifices that youth have made to the liberation and promotion of democratic processes on the continent.

1.3.3 National Context

Nationally, various policies, legislations, and programmes are in place for youth development. These include:

- **The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996:** This is the supreme law of the country entrenching specific rights, responsibilities and principles that everybody must uphold. It lays the foundation for youth economic empowerment.
- **National Youth Commission Act, 1996:** Provide for the establishment, constitution objects and functions of a National Youth Commission; and provide for matters connected therewith.
- **National Development Plan:** Youth development is one of the priorities in the National Development Plan (NDP) (2030), which is the government's vision of advanced economic development, job creation, growth, and equitable access to opportunities and services for all while fostering an inclusive society and economy.
- **National Youth Development Policy Framework, 2000–2007:** was designed to accelerate the mainstreaming of youth development as an integral part of the transformation agenda of the democratically elected Government of South Africa.
- **National Youth Policy, 2020–2030:** aims to strengthen youth development during and post Covid era and to seek creative ways to address unemployment in the country. The policy includes inherent commitments by the government; young South Africans; and society at large on interventions and services that would have to be rolled out to ensure effective and efficient mainstreaming of our youth development in the socio-economic mainstream.

1.4 Objective of the report

This report aims to provide analysis relating to the socio-economic and demographic profile of the youth in South Africa using data from Stats SA. The general analysis in the report covers socio-economic and demographic trends of the youth over six years (i.e. covering the period 2014–2020).

1.5 Data sources

The current report focuses mainly on presenting data comparing the years 2014 and 2020. However, where data representing the years 2014 and 2020 were not available, the most recent survey data available were used.

The main sources of statistics on a household, demographic and labour statistics that will be used in this study are the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS), the General Household Survey (GHS), The National Travel Survey and the Governance, Public Safety and Justice Survey (GPSJS). Youth Mortality data was sourced from causes of death data.

1.6 Limitations of the study

Since the report relies on sample surveys that depend on population estimates and a weighting process to extrapolate sample estimates to population estimates, the absolute number of cases will not always correspond with census or administrative data sources. In addition, due to the sample sizes of the surveys, disaggregation of indicators by some of the variables may not be possible.

1.7 Definitions

- **Youth:** Generally, the youth in this report are defined as persons between the ages 15–34 years. This age group is sometimes disaggregated further to distinguish between younger (15–24) or older (25–34 years) youth.
- **Adults:** Persons aged 35–64 years.
- **Geo-type:** Census 2011 definitions for urban and rural geographical areas have been applied. According to Stats SA, an urban area is defined as a continuously built-up area with characteristics such as type of economic activity and land use. Cities, towns, townships, suburbs, etc. are typical urban areas.
 - An **urban area** is one which was proclaimed or classified as such (i.e. in an urban municipality under the old demarcation), or classified as such during census demarcation by Stats SA, based on its observation of aerial photographs or on other information.
 - A **rural area** is defined as any area that is not classified as urban. Rural areas may comprise one or more of the following: tribal areas, commercial farms and rural formal areas.
- **Household:** A household is a group of persons who live together, and provide for themselves jointly with food and other essentials for living, or a person who lives alone.
- **Household head:** A person recognised as such by the household and in most cases the key decision-maker, or the person who owns or rents the dwelling, or the person who is the main breadwinner
- **Informal housing:** Refer to shacks or shanties in informal settlements or in backyards
- **Labour market:** Economic activities are those that contribute to the production of goods and services in the country. There are two types of economic activities, namely:
 - 1) Market production activities (work done for others and usually associated with pay or profit); and
 - 2) Non-market production activities (work done for the benefit of the household, e.g. subsistence farming).
- The **labour force:** Comprises all persons who are employed plus all persons who are unemployed.
- **Labour force participation rate:** The proportion of the working-age population that is either employed or unemployed.
- **Employed persons:** Those aged 15–64 years who, during the reference week, did any work for at least one hour, or had a job or business but were not at work (temporarily absent).

- **Not economically active:** Persons aged 15–64 years who are neither employed nor unemployed in the reference week.
- **Unemployment rate:** The proportion of the labour force that is unemployed.
- **Discouraged job-seeker:** A person who was not employed during the reference period, wanted to work, was available to work/start a business but did not take active steps to find work during the last four weeks, provided that the main reason given for not seeking work was any of the following: No jobs available in the area; Unable to find work requiring his/her skills; Lost hope of finding any kind of work.
- **Morbidity:** The prevalence of a certain disease within a certain geographical location.
- **Mortality:** The state of being susceptible to death.
- **Poverty line:** This is a monetary threshold that allows for reporting on the levels of poverty. A person falling below the poverty line is said to be living in poverty.
- **The youth dependency ratio** is the number of the youth population (ages 15-34) per 100 people of working age (ages 15–64).

1.8 Layout of the report

- **Chapter 1** is the introduction and briefly provides context to the socio-economic profile of the youth. Moreover, this chapter seeks to establish the rationale for producing the report by providing a background to the policy framework for the report. The rest of the report focuses on covering various socio-economic and demographic profiling of the youth through different chapters.
- **Chapter 2** contextualises figures reported in the rest of the publication by detailing the country's demographic profile and changes over the period 2014 to 2020 with a focus on the youth.
- **Chapter 3:** deals with household characteristics. This chapter provides information about the number of youth-headed households, characteristics of the household heads, household composition as well as generational household types.
- **Chapter 4** of this report explores the participation of youth in the labour market. Data analysed in this chapter include the analysis of trends in employment and unemployment.
- **Chapter 5** examines youth perceptions about crime; trust in public institutions, and the various types of crimes that are perceived to affect young people. The types of crimes analysed in this part of the report include assault, robbery and property theft.
- **Chapter 6** looks at trends in causes of death amongst youth between the years 2013 and 2018. Data sources used in this chapter include Causes of deaths data.
- **Chapter 7** examines young people's travel patterns and provides a more in-depth analysis of the modes of transportation that youth most likely use using the National Household Travel Survey (NHTS) 2020.
- **Chapter 8** analyses the living conditions and hunger experiences of young people in the country.
- **Chapter 9:** looks at the attendance at educational institutions, educational attainment and no tuition fees.
- **Chapter 10:** concludes the report by summarising some of the main highlight discussions from the publication.

CHAPTER 2: DEMOGRAPHY OF YOUTH

2.0 Background

Demographic trends provide invaluable information that describes changes in a population over time, for example, changes in demographic factors such as sex ratio, median age and race composition to mention a few. According to Mid-Year Population Estimates (MYPE, 2021), South Africa's population has steadily increased over the years. The population was 60, 1 million in 2021, with the youth population (15–34 years) numbered over 20,6 million (34,3%). The youth population is the largest segment of the population that requires a concerted effort in human capital investment to ensure the attainment of quality education and relevant skills. The size of a country's youth population determines its ability and potential for growth particularly when critical investments are made; for example, a large youth population usually denotes an increase in the labour force supply. When given the knowledge and opportunities necessary to thrive youth can be a positive force for development³.

This chapter focuses on the population dynamics of young people aged 15–34 years which includes population changes in size and structure over the period between 2014 and 2021. Other data sources used is the General Household Survey 2014 and 2020.

2.1 Youth population

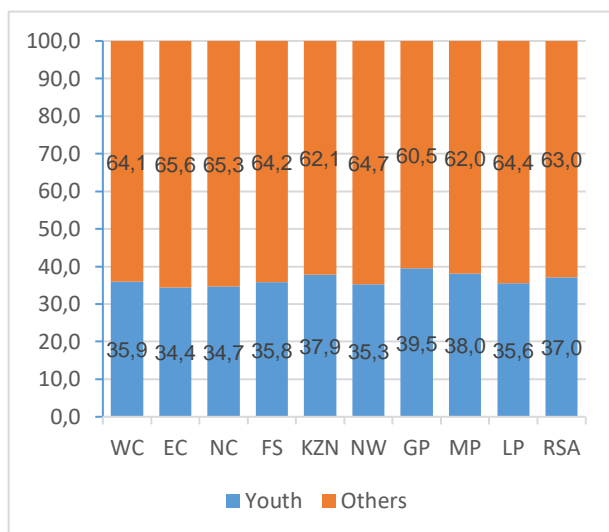
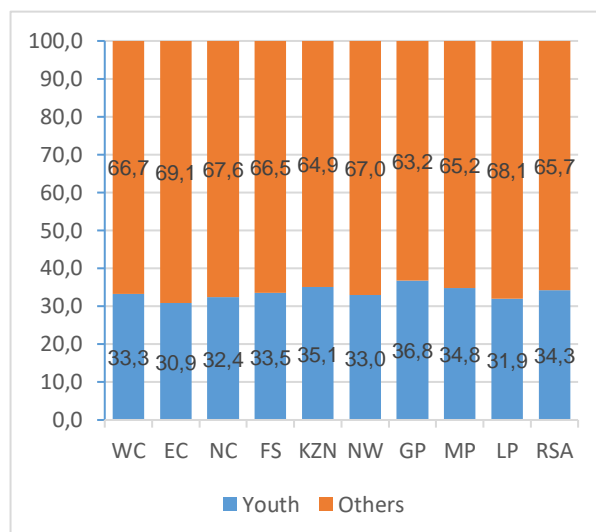
Table 2.1 Distribution of SA and youth population (15–34 years) and exponential growth by province, 2014 and 2021

Province	2014		2021		Exponential growth	
	SA Population	Youth Population	SA Population	Youth Population	SA Population	Youth Population
	(N'000)	(N'000)	(N'000)	(N'000)	%	%
WC	6 246	2 244	7 114	2 370	13,0	5,5
EC	6 651	2 290	6 677	2 063	0,4	-10,4
NC	1 197	416	1 303	423	8,5	1,7
FS	2 834	1 016	2 932	982	3,4	-3,4
KZN	10 689	4 046	11 514	4 039	7,4	-0,2
NW	3 699	1 306	4 100	1 360	10,3	4,1
GP	13 306	5 252	15 810	5 824	17,2	10,3
MP	4 282	1 629	4 744	1 650	10,2	1,3
LP	5 584	1 988	5 927	1 892	6,0	-4,9
RSA	54 488	20 186	60 120	20 604	9,8	2,1

Source: MYPE 2021

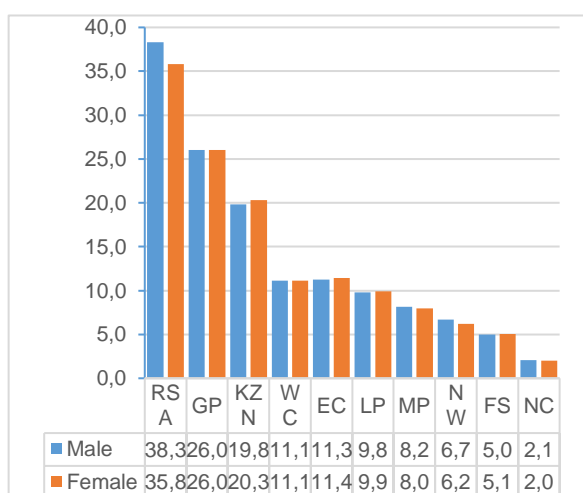
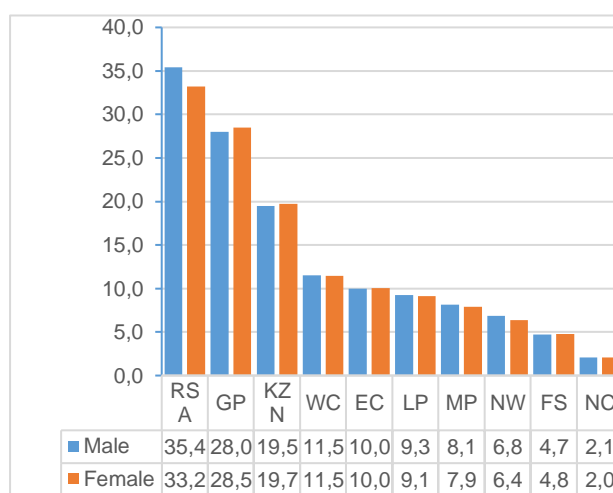
Table 2.1 above shows the percentage growth of the youth population between 2014 and 2021 in relation to the general population. Population growth was calculated using exponential growth. Generally, all provinces experienced positive growth for the general population, while the youth population showed negative growth in four provinces (Eastern Cape, Free State KwaZulu- Natal and Limpopo). As a result, the youth population increased at a lower rate of 2.1% than the general population, which grew by 9.8%, a difference of 7.7 percentage points.

³ United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA). 2015. Population Facts No.2015/1

Figure 2.1a Percentage share of youth by province, 2014**Figure 2.1b Percentage share of youth by province, 2021**

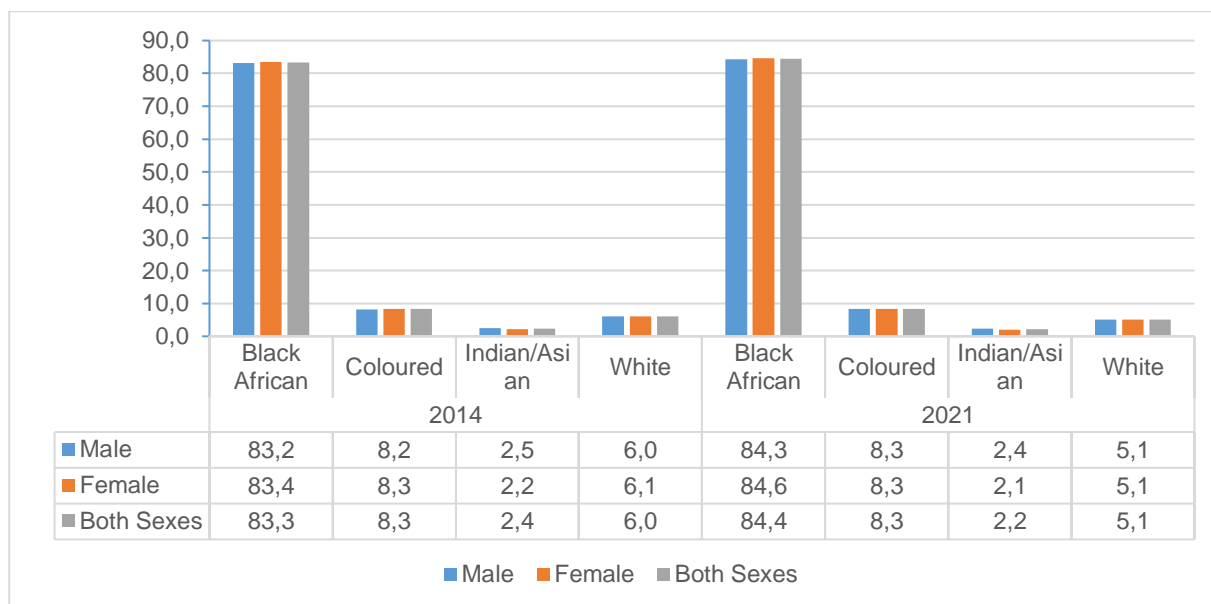
Source: MYPE 2021

Figures 2.1a and 2.1b above show the youth population distribution within each province in 2014 and 2021. Between 2014 and 2021, the South African youth population decreased from 37,0% to 34,3%. The drop in the youth population was mostly driven by decreases observed amongst the share of youth in all nine provinces.

Figure 2.2a Percentage distribution of youth population by province and sex, 2014**Figure 2.2b Percentage distribution of youth population by province and sex, 2021**

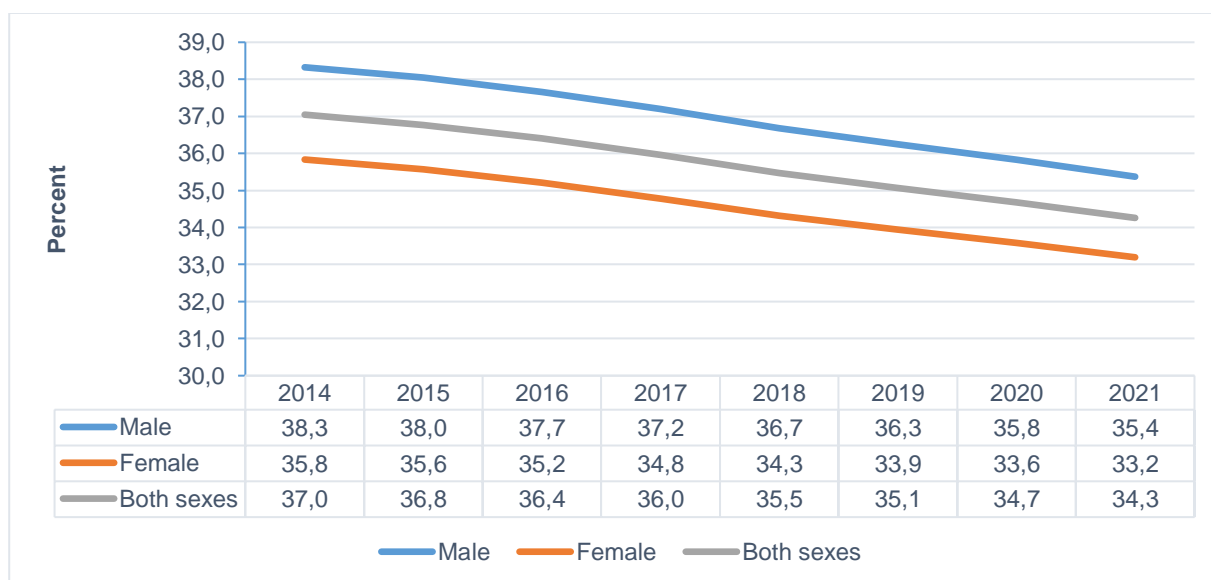
Source: MYPE 2021

Figures 2.2a and 2.2b illustrates the percentage distribution of the youth population by province and sex in 2014 and 2021. In 2021, the youth population declined slightly for both sexes (i.e. dropped by 2,6 and 2,9 percentage points for females and males respectively). The analysis also reveals that KwaZulu-Natal and Gauteng provinces had higher proportions of youth for both sexes for both years of reporting, these provinces are known to be populous provinces and present better economic prospects to the youth.

Figure 2.3 Percentage distribution of youth (15–34) by population group and sex, 2014 and 2021

Source: MYPE 2021

Figure 2.3 depicts the distribution of youth by different population categories. In 2021, the youth population accounted for 20,6 million individuals, with black Africans accounting for 84,4% of the population, up from 83,3% in 2014. There were slightly more females among youth across all population groups except for the Indian/Asian. During this period, a slight increase among males was observed for both black African and coloured population, while the Indian/Asian and coloured population groups observed a slight decline in the youth population. The whites showed a decrease for both males and females (0,9 and 1 percentage points).

Figure 2.4 Percentage share of youth to the overall population, 2014-2021

Source: MYPE 2021

Figure 2.4 shows the percentage share of youth to the overall population by sex over 8 years. There has been a steady decline in the share of the youth to the overall population for both sexes during the reporting period. The males reported the highest percentage share of youth to the overall population compared to their female counterparts.

Table 2.2 Distribution of young people by age group and sex, 2014 and 2021

Age group	2014					
	Male		Female		Both sexes	
	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%
15–24	5 067	49,9	5 007	49,9	10 074	49,9
25–34	5 092	50,1	5 019	50,1	10 111	50,1
15–34	10 159	100,0	10 026	100,0	20 186	100,0
	2021					
	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%
15–24	4 853	46,7	4 796	47,0	9 649	46,8
25–34	5 542	53,3	5 413	53,0	10 955	53,2
15–34	10 395	100,0	10 209	100,0	20 604	100,0

Source: MYPE 2021

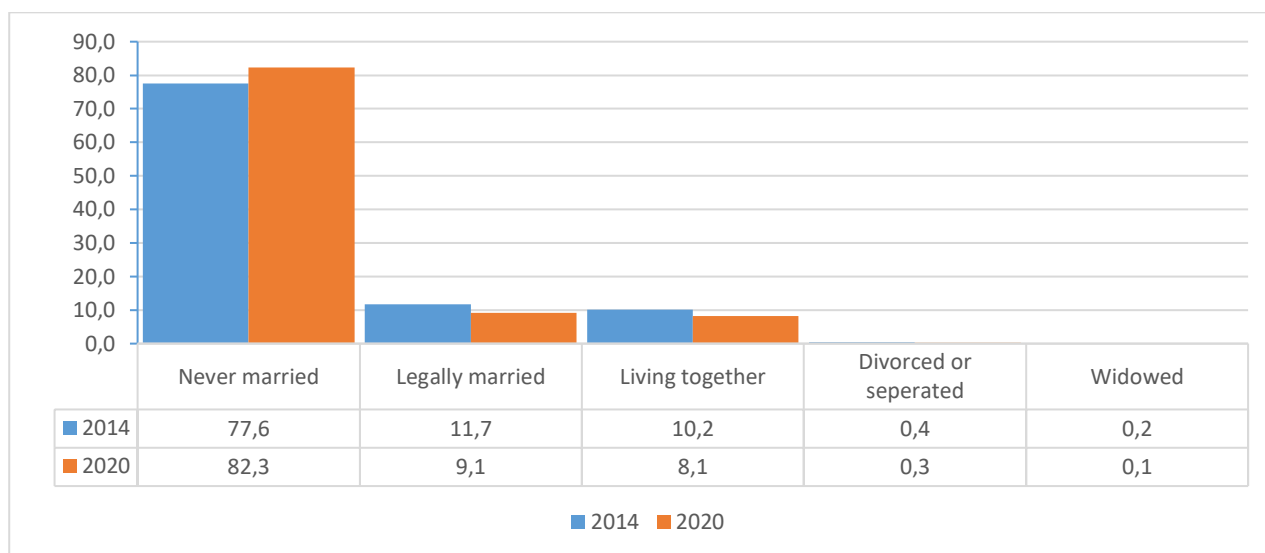
Table 2.2 above shows the distribution of young people by age group and sex. In 2014, there were 20, 2 million young people in South Africa, and they increased by 418 000 to 20, 6 million in 2021. The majority of the youth were those in age category 25–34 years. Both the males and females youth aged 15–24 years showed a decrease in population from 2014 to 2021. Conversely, both the males and females aged 25–34 years recorded an increase in population from 2014 to 2021.

2.2 Marital status of youth

According to various research, children are better off when both of their parents raise them in a stable home where parents have a happy and healthy relationship. Therefore, it is imperative to support marriage and lifelong committed relationships as they positively impact the upbringing of children.⁴ However, according to the literature the percentage of adults who have never married has been steadily increasing since around the year 2000, and people are getting married and becoming parents later in life.⁵ Furthermore, additional educational opportunities afforded to modern women compared to their older counterparts have changed the way they perceive marriage.

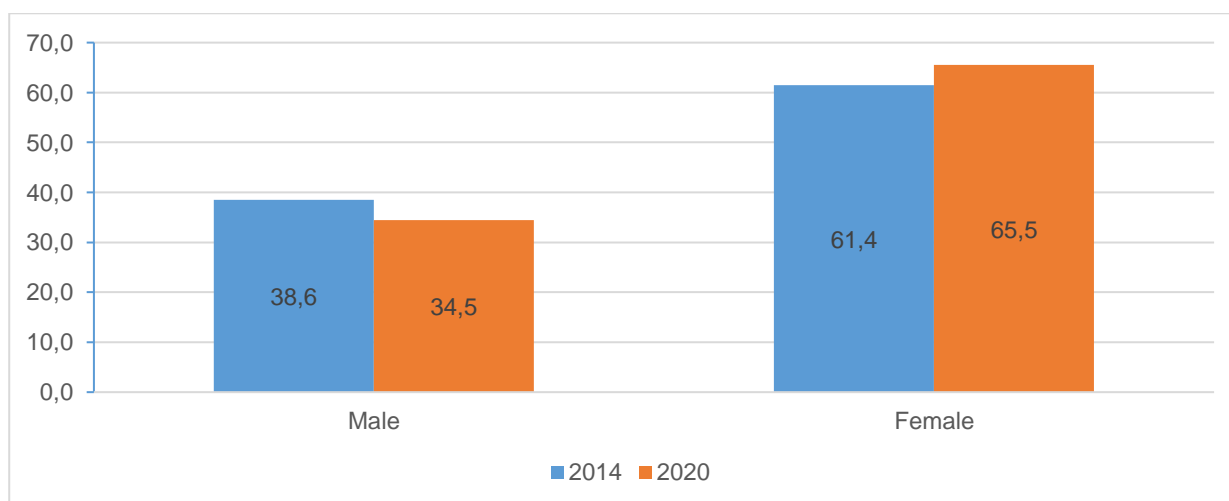
⁴ <https://www.deseret.com/2021/10/12/22696492/young-adults-attitude-toward-marriage-is-changing-why-thats-important-american-family-survey>

⁵ <https://www.lets mend.com/posts/why-single-young-adults-aren-t-getting-married/>

Figure 2.5 Marital status of youth, 2014 and 2020

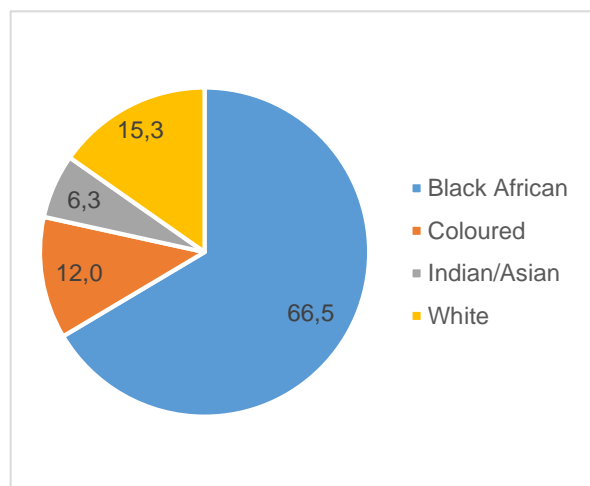
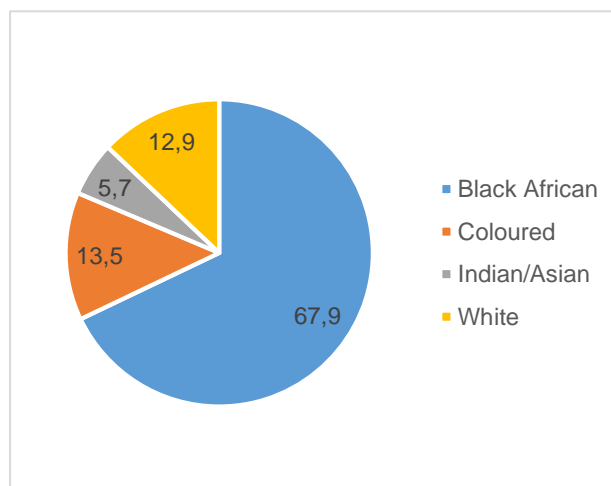
GHS 2014, GHS 2020

Figure 2.5 above shows the marital status of youth. In 2020, there were less young people married than in 2014. Between 2014 and 2020, the youth who were never married increased by 4,7 percentage points. Conversely, those who were legally married and living together decreased by 2,6 and 2,1 percentage points respectively.

Figure 2.6 Percentage of youth who are ever married by sex, 2014 and 2020

GHS 2014, GHS 2020

Figure 2.6 above shows the percentage of youth who are ever married by sex in 2014 and 2020. A higher percentage of young females recorded that they were married compared to young males in both years. Between 2014 and 2020 young males recorded an increase of 4,1 percentage points among those who were ever married while females observed a decreased of the same percentage points.

Figure 2.7a Percentage of youth who are ever married by population group, 2014**Figure 2.7b Percentage of youth who are ever married by population group, 2020**

GHS 2014, GHS 2020

The above figure 2.7a and 2.7b depicts the percentage of youth who are ever married by population group. More than a two-thirds of the black African youth reported to have been married in both years (66,5% and 67,9% respectively). Between 2014 and 2020, the black African and coloured youth reported an increase (1,5 percentage points each), while Indian/Asian and white youth reported a decrease in the youth that were married.

2.3 Conclusion

Over the past eight years, the share of youth in the overall population declined. Generally, all South African provinces experienced growth for the general population while the youth population showed negative growth in four provinces (Eastern Cape Free State KwaZulu-Natal and Limpopo). However, the general population observed a higher percentage growth than the youth population in all provinces. In 2020, young people were less likely to be married than they were in 2014. The majority of the African youth reported that they were ever married in both years.

CHAPTER 3: HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS

3.0 Background

Households are the building blocks of society and household characteristics affect the social and economic wellbeing of the members of the households. Any analysis of the socio-economic characteristics of youth cannot look at youth in isolation, but needs to consider the broader context of the state of the households in general. A household is defined as all individuals who live together under the same roof or in the same yard, and who share resources such as food or money to keep the household functioning. The definition is much more restrictive than the concept of a family, which usually refers to individuals who are related by blood and who may live very far apart. Although household members are usually related, blood relations are not a prerequisite for the formation of a household.

Over the years, there has been changes in the characteristics of the households in South Africa. These changes range from the increasing youth headed households, the changes in the household composition from nuclear households to single, multiple and extended households. The living arrangements of these households therefore would have implications in the resources that are required to sustain the members of the households. The household characteristics section provides information about the number of youth-headed households; characteristics of the household heads; household composition as well as the generational household types.

3.1 Youth headed households

Table 3.1: Proportions of youth-headed households by age groups, 2014 and 2020

Province	2014							
	RSA Households		15–24 Yrs		25–34 Yrs		15–34 Yrs	
	N (' 000)	Per cent	N (' 000)	Per cent	N (' 000)	Per cent	N (' 000)	Per cent
Western Cape	1 720	76,6	45	2,6	358	20,8	403	23,4
Eastern Cape	1 695	75,3	113	6,7	305	18,0	418	24,7
Northern Cape	312	76,9	17	5,4	55	17,6	72	23,1
Free State	883	73,7	58	6,6	174	19,7	232	26,3
KwaZulu-Natal	2 663	74,2	154	5,8	535	20,1	688	25,8
North West	1 177	72,5	61	5,2	263	22,3	324	27,5
Gauteng	4 501	73,7	218	4,8	967	21,5	1 185	26,3
Mpumalanga	1 168	71,6	77	6,6	255	21,8	332	28,4
Limpopo	1 483	71,8	126	8,5	291	19,6	418	28,2
RSA	15 602	73,9	870	5,6	3 202	20,5	4 072	26,1
2020								
Western Cape	1 962	75,7	57	2,9	420	21,4	477	24,3
Eastern Cape	1 709	78,1	53	3,1	322	18,8	375	21,9
Northern Cape	354	77,1	14	4,0	67	18,9	81	22,9
Free State	931	74,9	26	2,8	208	22,3	234	25,1
KwaZulu-Natal	3 026	73,6	92	3,0	706	23,3	798	26,4
North West	1 267	74,6	36	2,8	286	22,6	322	25,4
Gauteng	5 174	70,1	143	2,8	1 403	27,1	1 546	29,9
Mpumalanga	1 354	74,0	50	3,7	302	22,3	352	26,0
Limpopo	1 641	73,2	65	4,0	375	22,9	440	26,8
RSA	17 418	73,5	537	3,1	4 088	23,5	4,624	26,5

Source: GHS 2014, GHS 2020

Table 3.1 illustrates the proportions of youth-headed households by province and age groups. This analysis measures the prevalence of households headed by youth between 2014 and 2020 in relation to the total number of households in South Africa. At the national level, households slightly decreased from 73,9 per cent to 73,5 per cent. The decrease was observed in three provinces, with a sizeable decrease observed in Gauteng (3,6 percentage points). The Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal provinces observed a decrease of 0,9 percentage points and 0,5 percentage points, respectively.

Overall, households headed by youth (15 to 34 years) in South Africa increased from 26,1 per cent in 2014 to 26,5 per cent in 2020. Over this period, however, the households headed by youth aged 15 to 24 years decreased by 2,5 percentage points, and the decreases were observed within all provinces apart from Western Cape, where there was an increase of 0,3 percentage points.

The households headed by youth aged 25 to 34 years increased by 2,9 percentage points. The increase were observed within all provinces, and Gauteng showed the highest increase of 5,6 percentage points, followed by Limpopo and KwaZulu-Natal with an increase of 3,2 percentage points, respectively.

Older youth (25 to 34 years) were more likely to have youth-headed households than younger youth (15–24 years) within each province. The data above show that in 2020, households headed by youth aged 15 to 24 years accounted for 3 per cent of the total households in South Africa, while those headed by their older counterparts accounted for 23 per cent.

Figure 3.1a: Percentage distribution of youth-headed households by province and age group, 2014

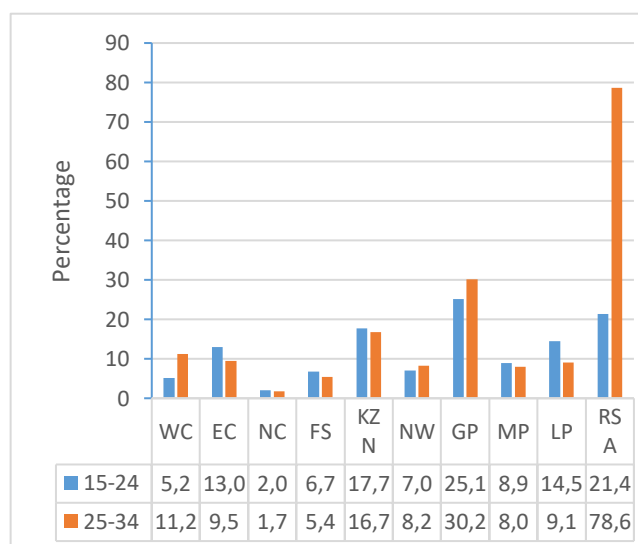
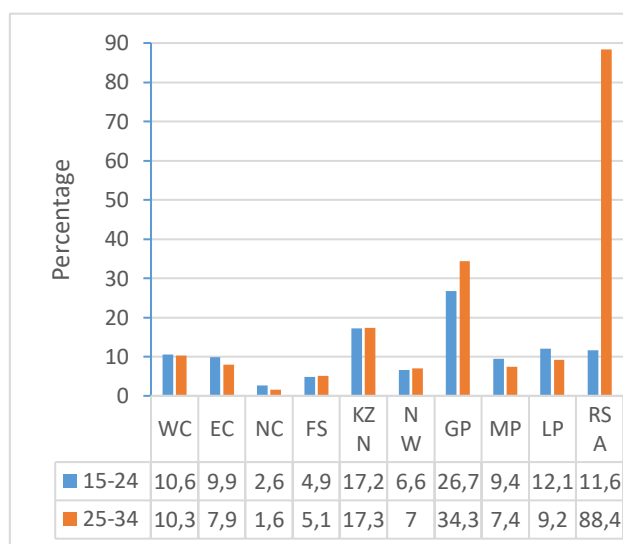


Figure 3.1b: Percentage distribution of youth-headed households by province and age group, 2020



Source: GHS 2014, 2020

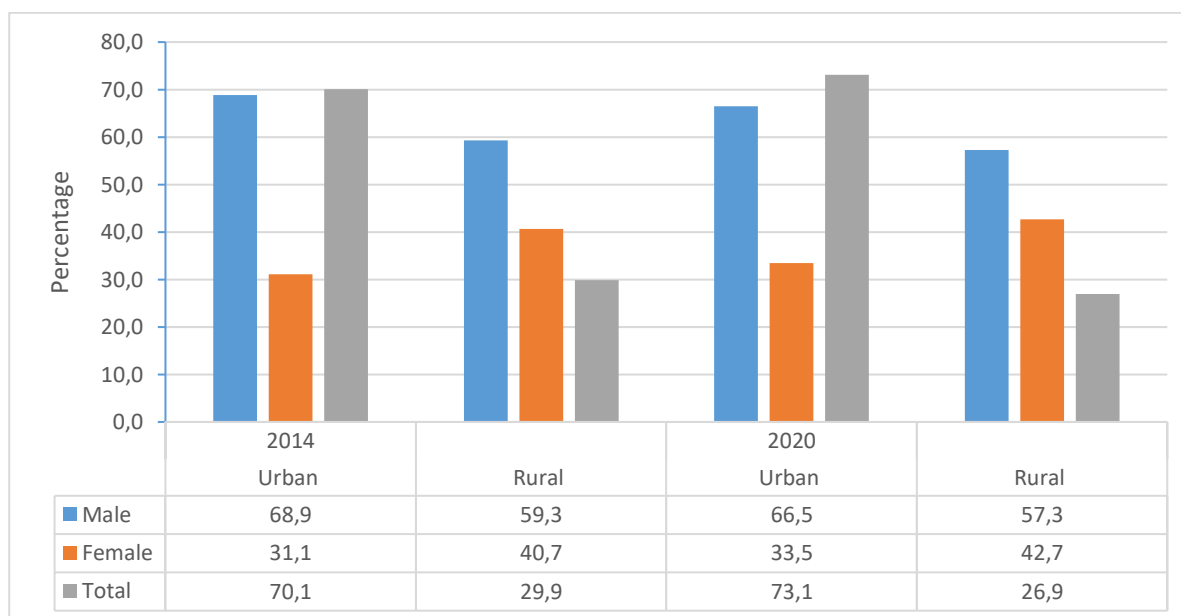
Figure 3.1 depicts the percentage distribution of youth-headed households by province and different age categories. During the year 2020, 11,6% of all the youth headed households were headed by youth aged 15 to 24 years and 88,4% were headed by youth aged 25 to 34 years. In the age group 15 to 24 years, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and Limpopo had the highest percentage shares of youth-headed households. Although Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal continued to maintain the largest shares among older (25–35 years) youth-headed households, the third-largest percentage share of older youth-headed households was found in the Western Cape.

Between 2014 and 2020, provincial variations revealed that youth-headed households had experienced erratic growth across all provinces as some provinces had both increases and decreases among the two age group

categories. Among the 15–24-year age group, four provinces recorded increases when the years 2014 and 2020 were compared. The increases were observed in Western Cape (5,4 percentage points) Gauteng (1,6 percentage points), Northern Cape (0,6 percentage points), and Mpumalanga (0,5 percentage points).

On the other hand, among those aged 25–34, increases were observed in the percentage shares of youth-headed households in three provinces, namely Gauteng (4,1percentage points), KwaZulu-Natal(0,6 percentage points) and Limpopo (0,1percentage points). However, among the 25–34 age group category, the youth-headed households increased by 4,1 percentage points.

Figure 3.2: Percentage distribution of youth-headed households by sex and geographic type, 2014 and 2020

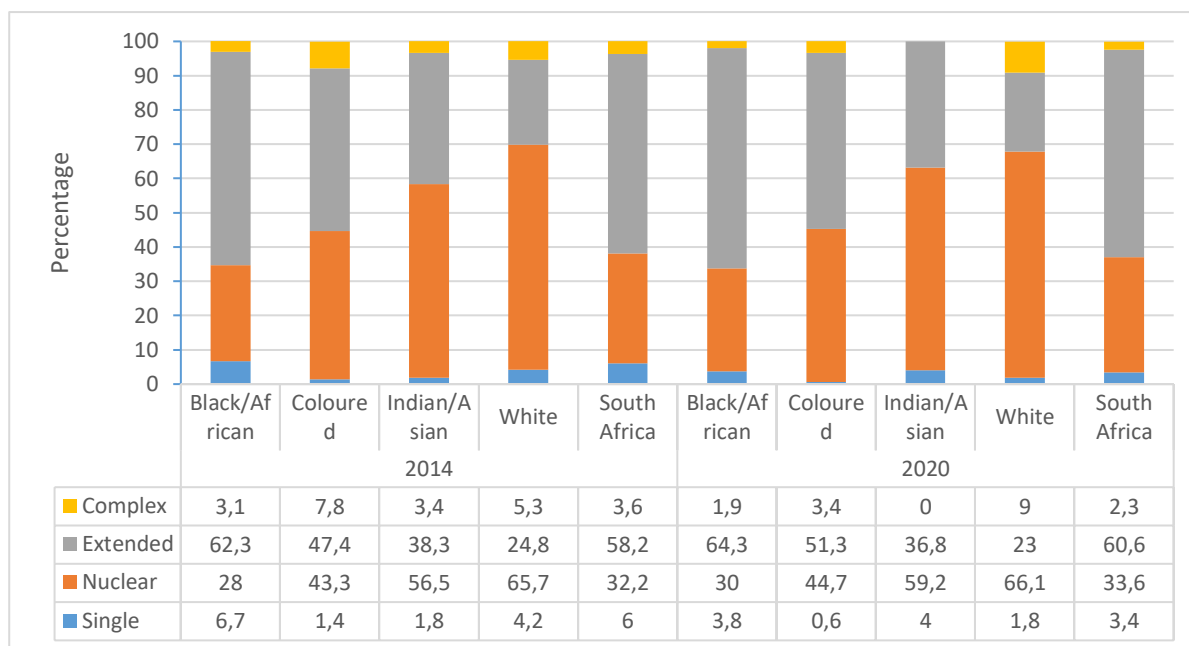


Source: GHS 2014, GHS 2020

Figure 3.2 shows the percentage distribution of youth-headed households by sex and geographic type for 2014 and 2020. The findings showed that on a national level, there was an overall percentage increase of youth-headed households in urban areas while a decline was observed in rural areas (3,0 percentage points respectively). The majority of household heads were males for both urban and rural areas. Between 2014 and 2020, female-headed households in both urban and rural areas increased by 2,4 and 2,0 percentage points, respectively. In contrast, male-headed households observed a decline of the same percentage points observed as increases for females in urban and rural areas.

3.2 Household Composition

Figure 3.3: Percentage distribution of youth by household composition and population group, 2014 and 2020

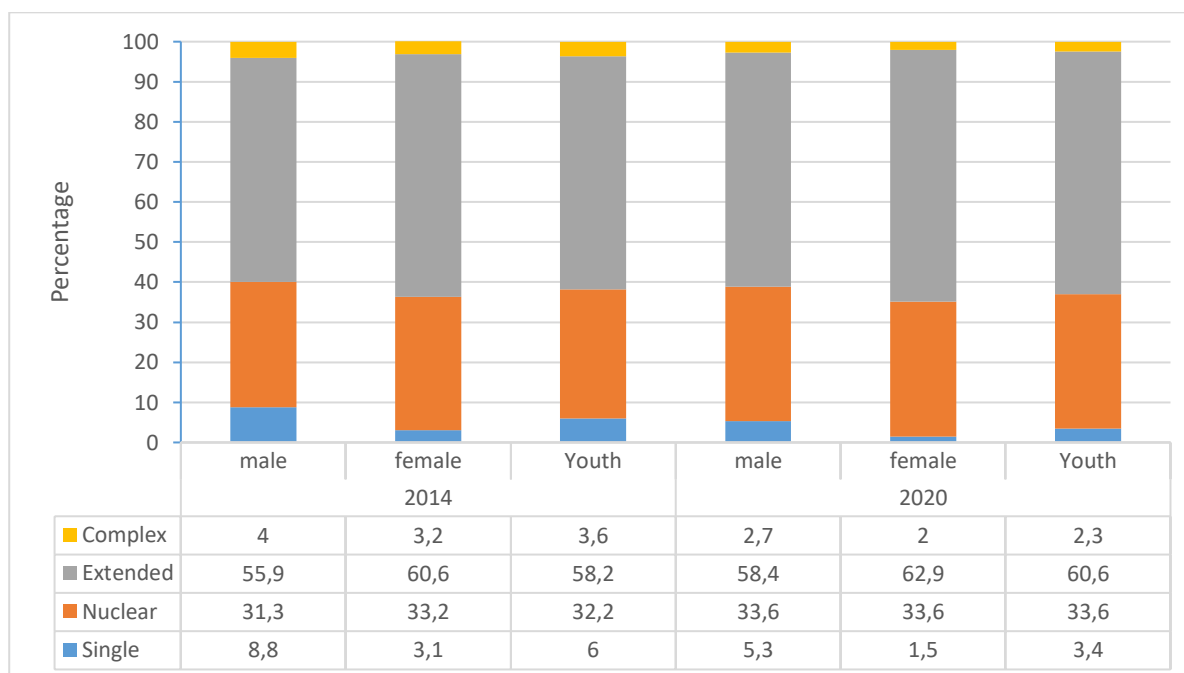


Source: GHS 2014, GHS 2020

Household composition is derived from information about the relationship of each household member to the household head. Households have been categorised into four broad household types: single, nuclear, extended and complex. A single household is a one-person household. Nuclear households are defined as 'households consisting of household heads, their spouses and offspring', while the extended household would include other relatives in addition to the nucleus. Complex households are households with members not related to the household head.⁶

Figure 3.3 depicts the distribution of youth by household composition and population group and indicate that the black African and coloured youth were more likely to live in extended households during 2014 and 2020. The period 2014 and 2020 saw the percentage of youth in extended households increasing nationally from 58,2% to 60,6%. These increases were mainly driven by increases in the percentage of youth amongst black African and Coloured population groups. On the other hand, the Indian/Asian and white population groups were more likely to live in nuclear households. Between 2014 and 2020, the percentage of youth among the Indian/Asian population groups in nuclear households increased from 56,5% to 59,2%, while the percentage of youth among the white population group increased from 65,7% to 66,1%. The percentage of youth living in single households decreased nationally from 6,0% to 3,4%.

⁶ United Nations Statistics Division – Demographic and Social Statistics: <http://unstats.un.org>

Figure 3.4: Percentage distribution of youth by household composition by sex, 2014 and 2020

Source: GHS 2014, GHS 2020

Figure 3.4 depicts the distribution of youth by household composition and sex. The findings show that single-person households were more prevalent amongst male youth than their female counterparts. Young males were more likely to live in single-person households. However, a decline of 3,5 percentage points was observed among this group between 2014 and 2020. This high proportion of males living in single households can be attributed to migration as males seek better opportunities elsewhere, thereby establishing single-person households. Also, between the ages of 25 to 45, research has shown that more men live alone than women.

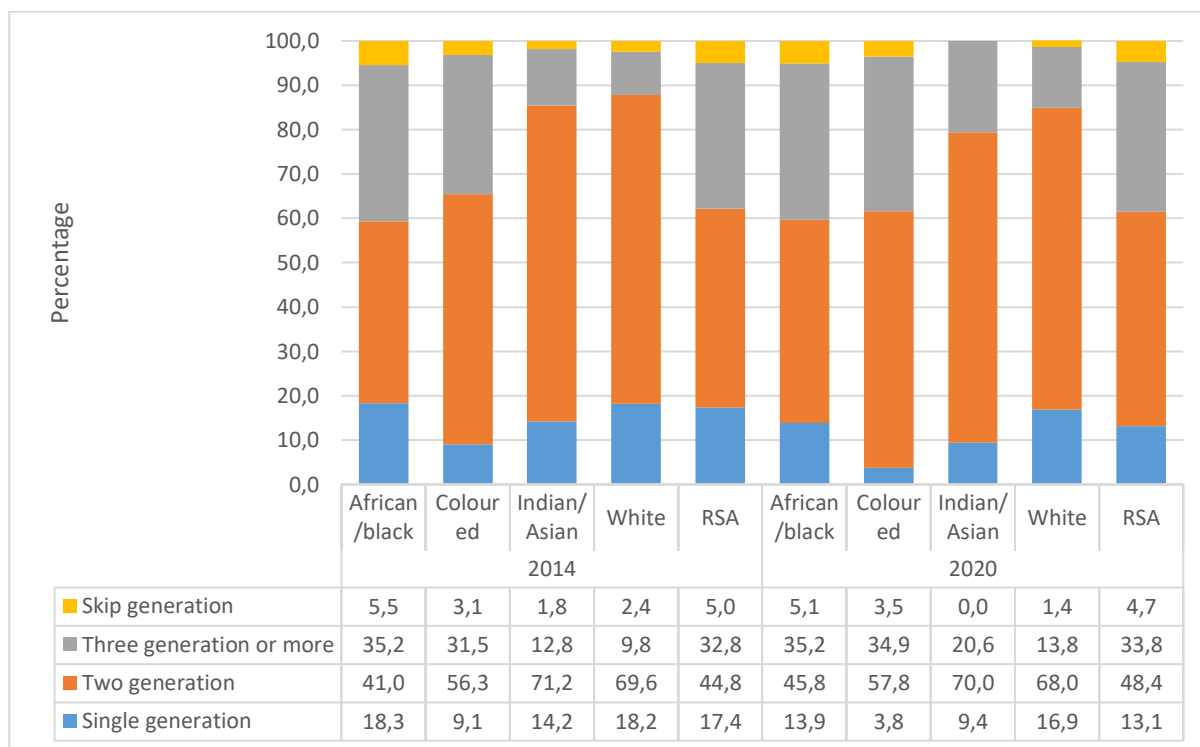
Between 2014 and 2020, higher proportions among young females were more likely to live in extended households than their male counterparts. Extended households were the most common among both sexes. The proportion of young males who were likely to live in extended households increased by 2,5 percentage points while the proportion of young females increased by 2,3 percentage points.

3.4 Intergenerational household types

Intergenerational households in this report are classified into four main groups, i.e. one (single) generation, two generations, two or more generations and skip generations (Wolf and Folbre, 2012)⁷. A one-(or single) generation household consists of people of the same age group: a married or cohabiting couple, a single person, siblings, or roommates. A two-generation family household includes a parent or parents and their child or children under age 25. In more than three generations households, the ages in the household can range from infancy to extreme old age. Lastly skipped-generation households includes grandchildren living with one or more grandparents in the absence of any biological parents.

⁷ Wolf, D. & Folbre, N. 2012. *Universal Coverage of Long Term care in the United States*, Russel Sage Foundation: ISBN-13 / ISBN-10 978-1-61044-799-7

Figure 3.5: Percentage distribution of youth across intergenerational households by population group, 2014 and 2020

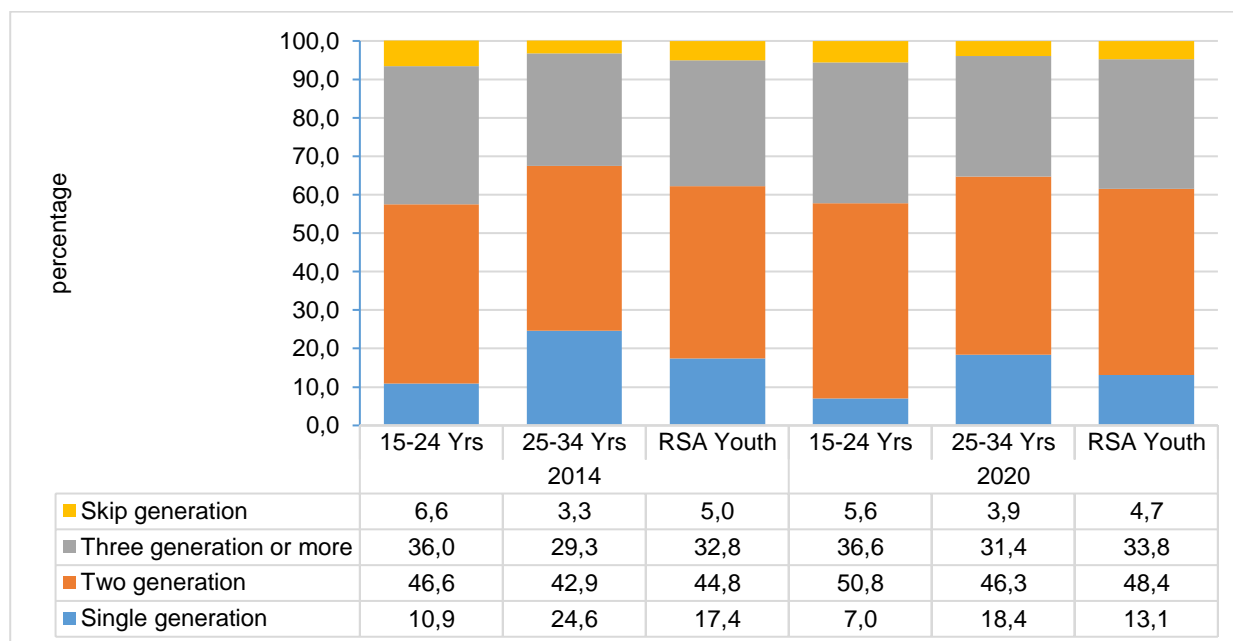


Source: GHS 2014, GHS 2020

Data from Figure 3.5 above shows that between 2014 and 2020, there were fairly large differences between population groups with regard to intergenerational households. In 2014, youth from the black African population group were most likely than other population groups to live in single generation and three generations or more and skip generation households. In 2020, youth from the African /black population group were most likely than other population groups to live in three generations or more and skip generation households, whilst the youth from the white population group were most likely to live in single-generation households.

Between the two reference years, there were increases in the proportion of youth living in two and three generations. On the other hand, the percentage of youth living in a single generation and skip generation households decreased.

Figure 3.6: Percentage distribution of youth across intergenerational households by age group, 2014 and 2020



Source: GHS 2014, GHS 2020

Figure 3.6 shows the distribution of youth across intergenerational household types by age group. During the five-year reporting period, the proportion of youth living in single-generation households declined from 10,9% to 7,0% among the 15-24 age group and from 24,6% to 18,4% for the 25-34 age group. Double-generation households were the most prevalent amongst youth of both age groups and observed an increase between 2014 and 2020. Youth living in skip-generation households declined by 0,3 percentage points at national level. Amongst age categories, youth aged 15 to 24 were more likely to live in skip-generation households (with their grandparents) than youth aged 25 to 34 years.

Table 3.8: Share of youth living with their parents by province and age group, 2014 and 2020

Province	2014					
	15–24 Yrs		25–34 Yrs		Total	
	N (' 000)	Per cent	N (' 000)	Per cent	N (' 000)	Per cent
Western Cape	741	62,9	438	37,1	1 178	100,0
Eastern Cape	833	65,6	438	34,4	1 271	100,0
Northern Cape	147	67,3	71	32,7	219	100,0
Free State	339	68,6	155	31,4	494	100,0
KwaZulu-Natal	1 370	61,3	865	38,7	2 235	100,0
North West	432	64,3	240	35,7	673	100,0
Gauteng	1 561	62,6	931	37,4	2 492	100,0
Mpumalanga	562	61,6	350	38,4	911	100,0
Limpopo	811	63,9	457	36,1	1 268	100,0
RSA	6 795	63,3	3 946	36,7	10 741	100,0
2020						
Western Cape	848	56,1	665	43,9	1 513	100,0
Eastern Cape	737	54,6	614	45,4	1 350	100,0
Northern Cape	178	62,2	108	37,8	286	100,0
Free State	359	61,7	223	38,3	582	100,0
KwaZulu-Natal	1 466	53,2	1 291	46,8	2 757	100,0
North West	417	57,9	304	42,1	721	100,0
Gauteng	1 787	57,5	1 321	42,5	3 108	100,0
Mpumalanga	543	56,2	424	43,8	966	100,0
Limpopo	724	57,9	527	42,1	1 250	100,0
RSA	7 059	56,3	5 476	43,7	12 535	100,0

Source: GHS 2014, 2020

Individuals live in shared households for a variety of reasons, such as caregiving needs, benefits from pooling financial resources or short-term social and economic support during periods of acute hardship. Table 4.2 shows that between 2014 and 2020, a share of youth age 25–34 living with parents increased by 7,0 percentage points. In 2020, 43,7% of the 25–34 year olds lived with their parents, up from 36,7% in 2014. All the provinces observed an increase in the share of the youth aged 25–34 living with parents.

Table 3.9: Share of youth living with their parents by sex and age group, 2014 and 2020

Sex	2014					
	15–24 Yrs		25–34 Yrs		Total	
	N (' 000)	Per cent	N (' 000)	Per cent	N (' 000)	Per cent
Male	3 404	62,4	2 051	37,6	5 455	100,0
Female	3 391	64,2	1 894	35,8	5 286	100,0
Both sexes	6 795	63,3	3 946	36,7	10 741	100,0
2020						
Male	3 517	55,2	2 859	44,8	6 376	100,0
Female	3 542	57,5	2 617	42,5	6 159	100,0
Both sexes	7 059	56,3	5 476	43,7	12 535	100,0

Source: GHS 2014, 2020

Differences between the sexes showed that in the age group category 15-24 years, female youth were more likely than male youth to live with their parents. In contrast, for the age group 25-34 years, more young men than young women continued to live with their parents.

3.6 Conclusion

Over the period 2014 to 2020, South Africa experienced an increase of youth headed households which was mainly driven by the increase in the households headed by the youth aged 25-34. This increase resulted in changes in the living arrangements among the youth. The distribution of households by the household composition showed that the youth in South Africa were more likely to live in extended households, followed by nuclear households and single person households. Over the reference period, there was an increase in the percentage of youth living in two generations and three generations households. In contrast, a decrease in the youth living in single and skip generations households was observed. The analysis also showed that youth living with their parents increased.

When looking at the household headed by youth by geotype, the analysis showed that over the reference period the youth headed households increased in urban areas whilst rural observed a decline in the households headed by youth. An increase in the households headed by females was also observed in both urban and rural areas.

CHAPTER 4: YOUTH LABOUR MARKET PARTICIPATION

4.0 Background

Youth employment and economic empowerment are critical components of any society's strong foundation. Youth are the primary job seekers as they traverse their life course. Having a good job or any form of earning a living/income is essential for young people and their future. To ensure that no one is left behind in the current global development agenda, the United Nations General Assembly pledged to build dynamic, sustainable, innovative, and people-centred economies, with a focus on youth employment and women's economic empowerment, as well as decent work for all⁸. Unemployment is one of the country's most persistent problems, disproportionately affecting young people. Without adequate opportunities and investments, youth contribute to the country's costly problems, such as increased crime, violence, and unending service delivery protests.

This chapter will examine the extent to which youths participate in the labour market by analysing labour market participation rates and whether education enhances employment prospects. The data sources used is Quarterly Labour Force Survey Q3:2014 and Q3:2021.

4.1 Labour market participation rates

Many countries have suffered the impact of lockdowns as a result of Covid-19 inclusive of South Africa. Pandemic response policies have led to business closures, redundancies, and increasing rates of job insecurity, informality, and long-term unemployment.⁹ Most people lost their income and could no longer take care of their families. Vulnerable groups, such as women, black Africans, youth, and less educated groups, have been extremely affected by this¹⁰. The high unemployment rate among the youth has been further intensified by the decline in economic activity due to Covid-19¹¹. This put a strain on the government as it has to take international loans to try and help in a form of grants. In the long term, this has consequences on the working class as there would be a possibility of the tax increase for those who do not get grants.

Figure 4.1a: Youth (15–34 years) labour market indicators, 2014–2021

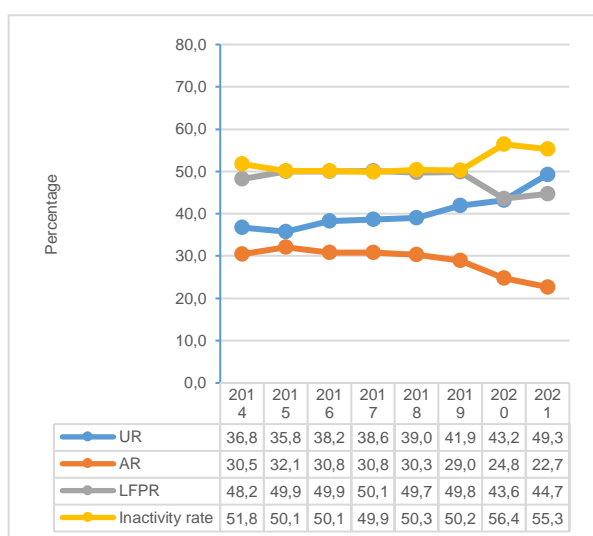
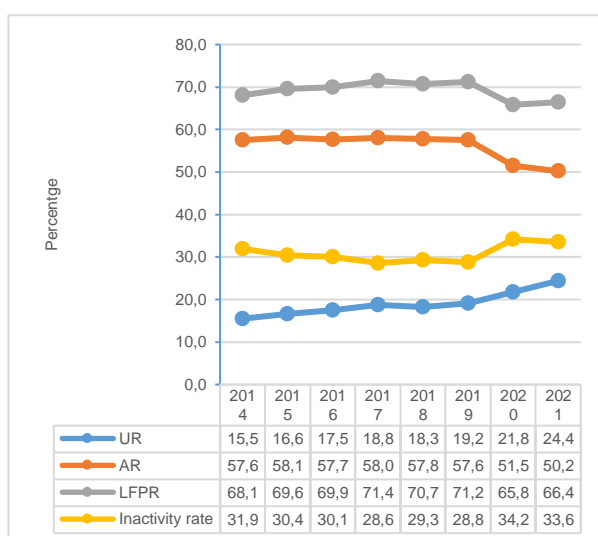


Figure 4.1b: Adult (35–64 years) labour market indicators, 2014–2021



Source: QLFS Q3: 2014, QLFS Q3: 2021

⁸ United Nations, General Assembly, 2015b, para. 27

⁹ Barford, Anna, Adam Coutts, and Garima Sahai. "Youth employment in times of COVID: a global review of COVID-19 policy responses to tackle (un)employment and disadvantage among young people." (2021).

¹⁰ Ranchhod, V., & Daniels, R. C. (2020). Labour market dynamics in South Africa in the time of COVID-19: Evidence from wave 1 of the NIDS-CRAM survey (Working paper no. 265). SALDRU, UCT

¹¹ Zeufack, A. G., Calderon, C., Kambou, G., Kubota, M., Cantu Canales, C., & Korman, V. (2020). Africa's pulse, no. 22, October 2020: An analysis of issues shaping Africa's economic future. World Bank. <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/3458>

The figures above show the time series of youth labour market indicators (Figure 5.1a) and adults (Figure 5.1b) over the period 2014 to 2021. The labour force participation rate is a measure of the proportion of a country's working-age population that engages actively in the labour market, either by working or looking for work. The proportion of economically active youth and adults fluctuated over the last eight years. Labour Force Participation of youth and adults show that the youth were less likely to participate in the labour market than the adults and that between 2014 and 2021, labour force participation rates amongst youth and adults decreased by 3,5 and 1,7 percentage points, respectively.

Similarly, the youth absorption rates were lower than the adult absorption rates and from 2014 to 2017, the absorption rates for both youth and adults fluctuated and a steady decline was noticed from 2017. The absorption rates for adults and youth dropped by 7,4 and 7,8 percentage points respectively.

The analysis of unemployment however, indicated that youth unemployment rates were higher than adults'. In addition, the youth unemployment rate increased from 36,8% in 2014 to 49,3% in 2021 while the adult unemployment rate increased from 15,5% in 2014 to 24,4% in 2021.

An analysis of the size and composition of the inactive group is useful in assessing potential labour supply and the likelihood of people in the inactive group moving into the labour market at some point in the future. In 2021, the inactivity rate for young people of was 55, 3% higher than 33,6% observed for adults.

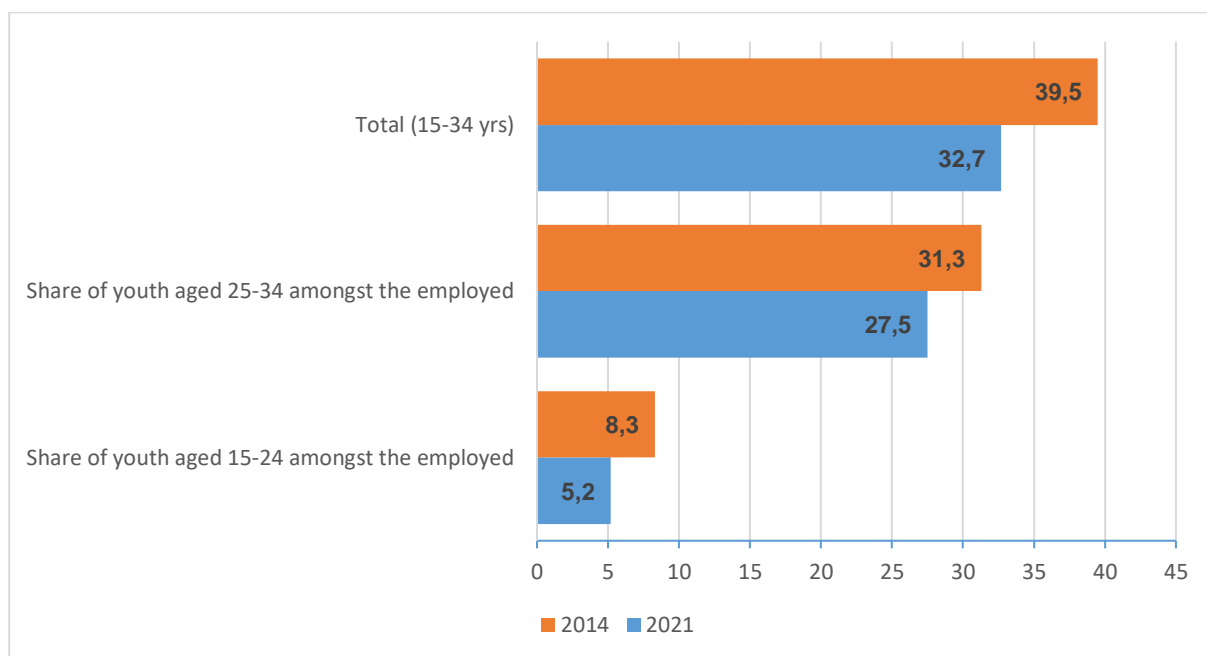
4.2 Youth Employment

Table 4.1: Employed youth by age and sex, 2014 and 2021

Age group	Male					
	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%
	2014		2021		Changes	
15–24yr	756	21,6	450	16,1	-306	-5,5
25–34yr	2 752	78,4	2 349	83,9	-403	5,5
15–34yr	3 508	100,0	2 799	100,0	-709	
	Female					
	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%
	2014		2021		Changes	
15–24yr	496	20,1	295	15,8	-201	-4,3
25–34yr	1 973	79,9	1 578	84,2	-396	4,3
15–34yr	2 469	100,0	1 873	100,0	-597	
	Both sexes					
	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%
	2014		2021		Changes	
15–24yr	1 252	20,9	745	15,9	-507	-5,0
25–34yr	4 725	79,1	3 927	84,1	-798	5,0
15–34yr	5 977	100,0	4 672	100,0	-1 305	

Source: QLFS Q3: 2014, QLFS Q3: 2021

In 2021; 4,7 million young people aged 15–34 years were employed, 1 305 less than in 2014. Both the males and females showed a decline in those employed; the males recorded the highest decline (709 000 people) as compared to females (597 000 people). The age group 25–34 years showed the highest decline in those employed compared to the 15–24 year group for both males and females. This can be attributed to the COVID-19 pandemic that saw most of the economic activities affected and people losing their jobs.

Figure 4.2: Share of youth amongst the employed, 2014 and 2021

Source: QLFS Q3: 2014, QLFS Q3: 2021

Figure 4.2 shows the share of youth amongst the employed between 2014 and 2021. Between 2014 and 2021, the share of the youth (15–34 years) amongst the employed declined by 6,8 percentage points (i.e. from 39,5% to 32,7%). The drop was slightly higher amongst those aged 25–34 years (down by 3,8 percentage points) than for those between those aged 15–24 years (a drop of 3,1 percentage points).

Employment by status in employment

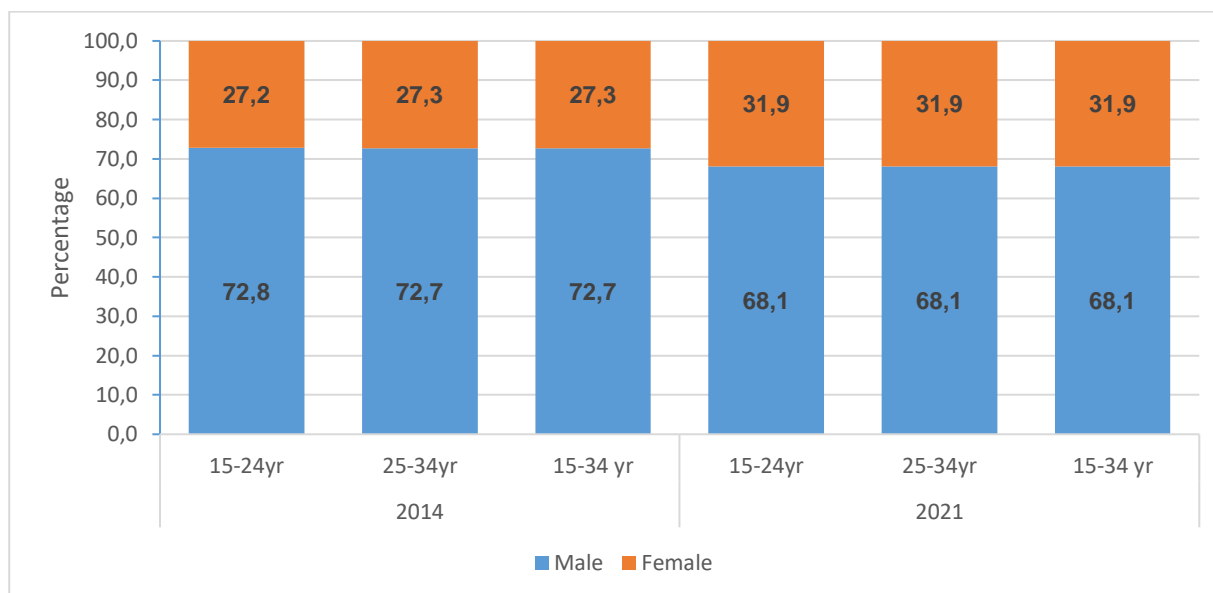
Table 4.2: Youth (15–34 years) employment by status in employment, 2014 and 2021

Type of employment	2014		2021	
	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%
Employee	5 354	89,6	4 049	86,7
Employer*	191	3,2	139	3,0
Own-account worker*	375	6,3	436	9,3
Unpaid household member	57	1,0	47	1,0
Total	5 977	100,0	4 672	100,0
Youth(15-34yrs) Entrepreneurs	566	9,5	575	12,3

Source: QLFS Q3: 2014, QLFS Q3: 2021

Table 4.2 shows the youth (15–34 years) employment by status in employment. Entrepreneurs in this report are defined as employers or the self-employed (own-account worker). In 2014, about 2 million employed persons in the country were classified as entrepreneurs, of which 566 000 were youth and increased to 575 000 in 2021. In 2021, about 2, 3 million employed persons were recorded as entrepreneurs. The youth entrepreneurs accounted for 12,3% of employment, an increase of 2,8% from 2014.

Figure 4.3: Share of youth (15–34 years) entrepreneurs amongst total entrepreneurs by age group and sex, 2014 and 2021



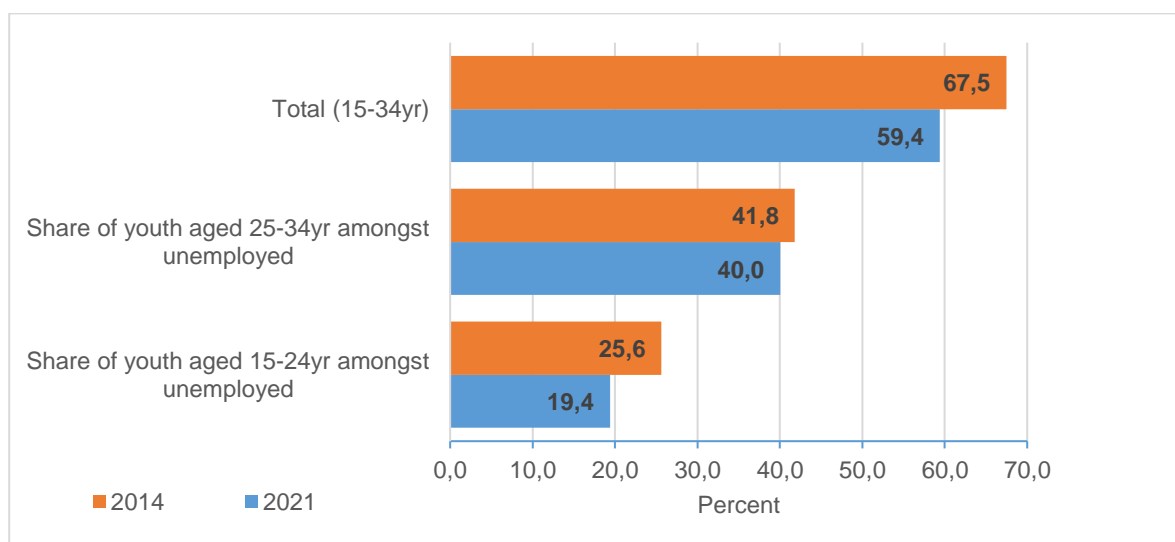
Source: QLFS Q3: 2014, QLFS Q3: 2021

Figure 4.3 above depicts the total share of young entrepreneurs by age group and sex. Young males accounted for a larger portion of those who were entrepreneurs as compared to their female counterparts. A noticeable increase of 4,6 percentage points was observed amongst young female entrepreneurs as opposed to their male counterparts who recorded a drop of 4,6 percentage points. In 2014, the younger males aged 15-24 years accounted for a slightly higher percentage compared those aged (25-34 years) with a slight 0,1 percentage point difference. The opposite was observed for the females. In 2021, there were no variations observed between the two age groups.

4.3 Youth Unemployment

The analysis below summarises trends in unemployment among the youth. The overall unemployment rate is a widely used measure of its unutilised labour supply. Measures of the youth unemployment rates are useful in identifying those most vulnerable to joblessness.

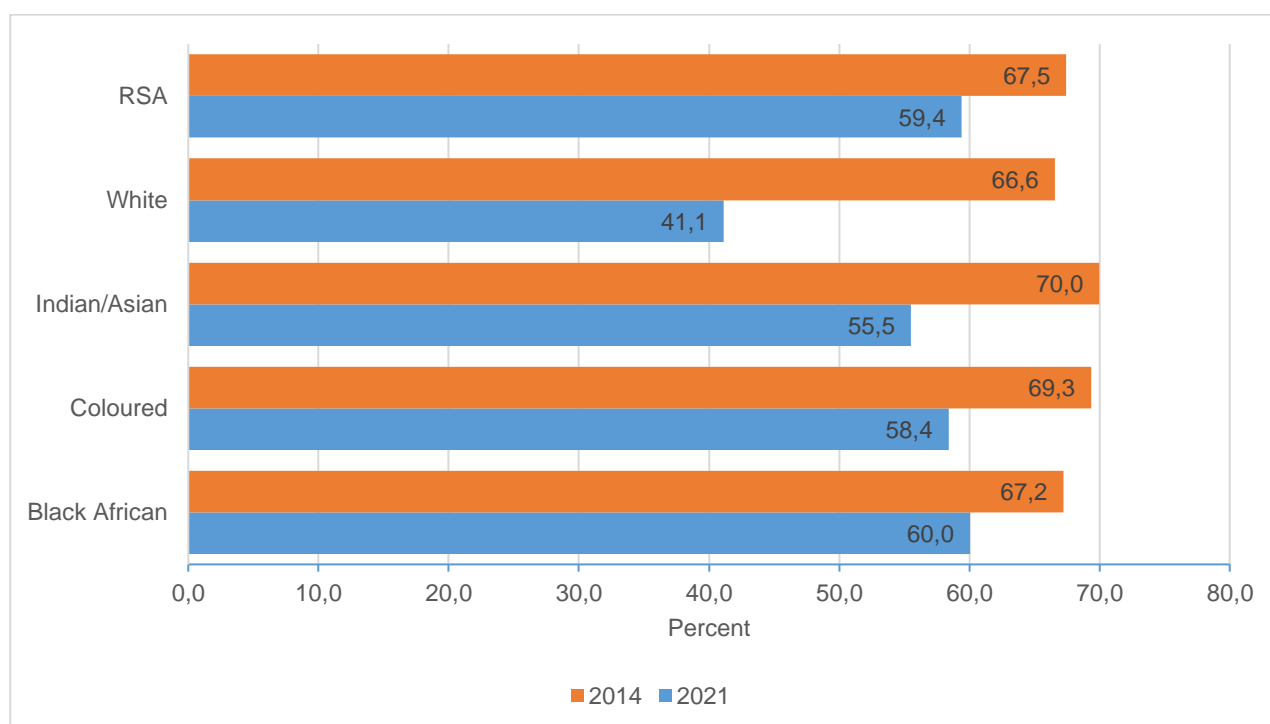
Figure 4.4: Share of youth amongst the unemployed, 2014 and 2021



Source: QLFS Q3: 2014, QLFS Q3: 2021

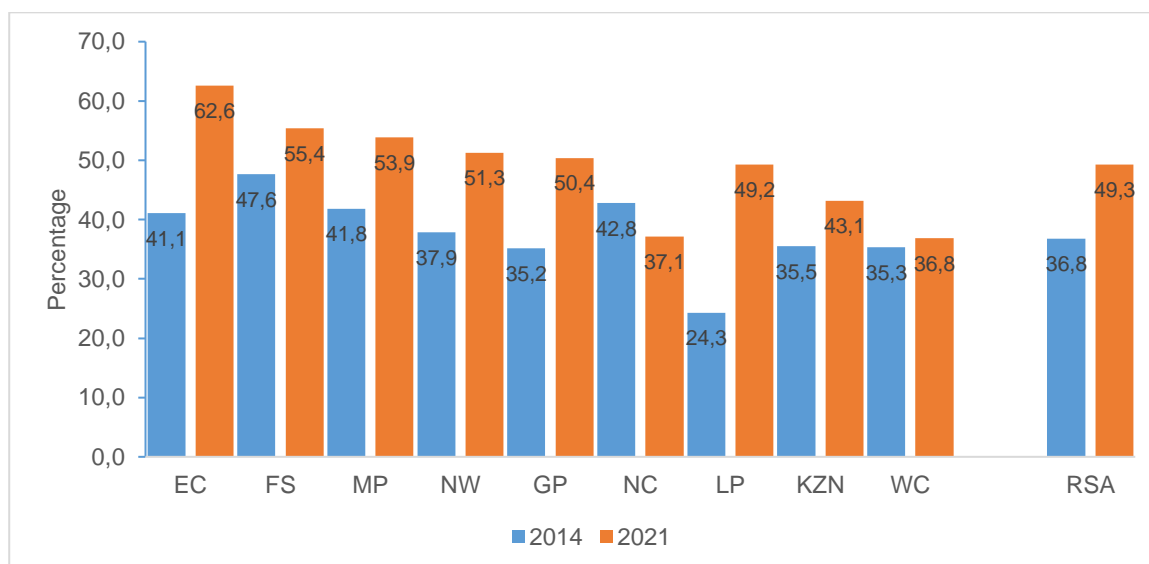
In 2014, more than 5 million South African youth were unemployed, increasing to 7,6 million in 2021. Young people aged 15–34 years made up approximately three quarters (3,5 million) of the unemployed and increased to 4,5 million in 2021 (an increase of 1 million). Figure 4.4 however, shows that the share of unemployed youth decreased by 8,1 percentage points from 67,5% to 59,4% between the years 2014 and 2021. Although the unemployed youth aged between 25–34 years contributed the biggest share of unemployed youth, the decline in the total share of youth unemployment was driven by younger persons between the ages of 15–24 years. The share of unemployed persons in this age bracket (i.e. 15–24 years) declined by 6,2 percentage points. This was considerably higher when compared to a drop of 1,8 of a percentage point recorded for their older counterparts (25–34 years).

Figure 4.5: Share of unemployed youth (15–34 years) as a proportion of the unemployed by population group, 2014 and 2021



Source: QLFS Q3: 2014, QLFS Q3: 2021

The figure above illustrates the share of unemployed youth within each population group in 2014 and 2021. Nationally, the share of unemployed youth declined between 2014 and 2021 (8,1 percentage points difference). In 2014, the largest share of unemployed youth was recorded amongst Indians, while for 2021, the largest share was amongst the black Africans. A decline in the share of unemployed youth was recorded in all population groups between 2014 and 2021. The white and Indian population groups recorded the largest drop (25,4 and 8,1 percentage difference respectively). The black African population recorded the lowest decline of 7,2 percentage points difference (the only one lower than the national figure) share in the unemployed youth.

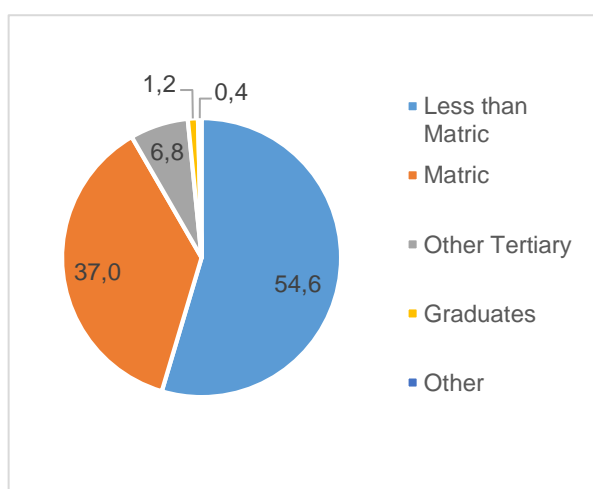
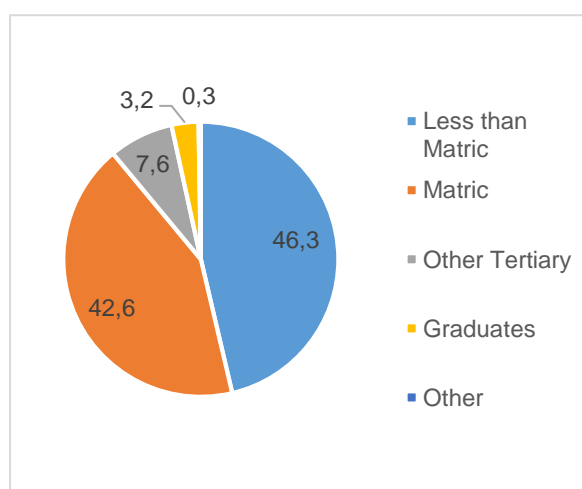
Figure 4.6: Youth (15–34 years) unemployment rate by province, 2014 and 2021

Source: QLFS Q3: 2014, QLFS Q3: 2021

Figure 4.6 shows the unemployment rate of youth in the nine provinces. The unemployment rate of the youth in South Africa increased by 12,5 percentage points from 36,8% in 2014 to 49,3% in 2021. In 2014, young people living in provinces such as the Free State (47,6%), Northern Cape (42,8%), Mpumalanga (41,8%), and the Eastern Cape (41,1%) were most likely to be unemployed. Although Limpopo had the lowest unemployment rate for the youth compared to other provinces in 2014.

However, in 2021 the youth unemployment rate in Limpopo doubled, and it became the third province with the least unemployment rate. Furthermore, during the same reference period, the unemployment rate for the youth increased in all provinces except Northern Cape, where it decreased by 12,8 percentage points. The largest increases were recorded in Limpopo (up by 25,0 percentage points, followed by Eastern Cape (up by 21,5 percentage points) and Gauteng (up by 15,2 percentage points each). In 2021, Eastern Cape recorded the highest unemployment rate for youth.

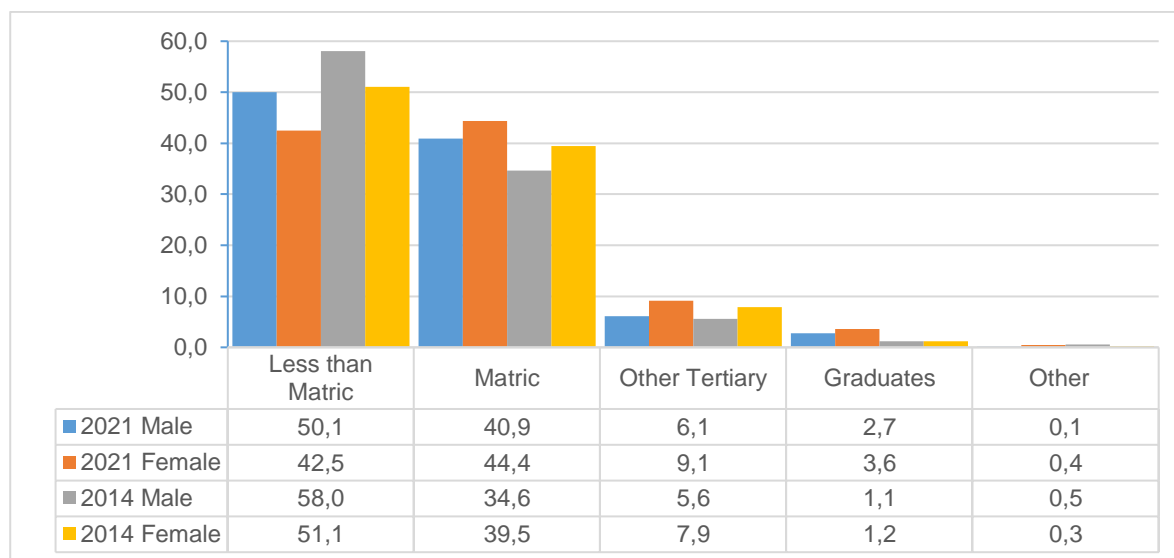
Youth unemployment and educational attainment

Figure 4.7a: Percentage of unemployed youth (15–34 years) by the highest level of education, 2014**Figure 4.7b: Percentage of unemployed youth (15–34 years) by the highest level of education, 2021**

Source: QLFS Q3: 2014, QLFS Q3: 2021

The two figures above (Figures 4.7a and 4.7b) illustrate that since 2014, youth with less than matric were most likely to be unemployed followed by those with matric. Moreover, the share of unemployed young people with less than matric decreased by 8,3% from 54,6% in 2014 to 46,3% in 2021. Over the period of reporting, a decline of 8,3 percentage points was observed amongst the share of young unemployed persons who had less than matric while those with matric recorded an increase of 5,6 percentage points (from 37,0% in 2014 to 42,6% in 2021). Young graduates (those who qualified with a degree tertiary qualification) and others were least likely to be unemployed.

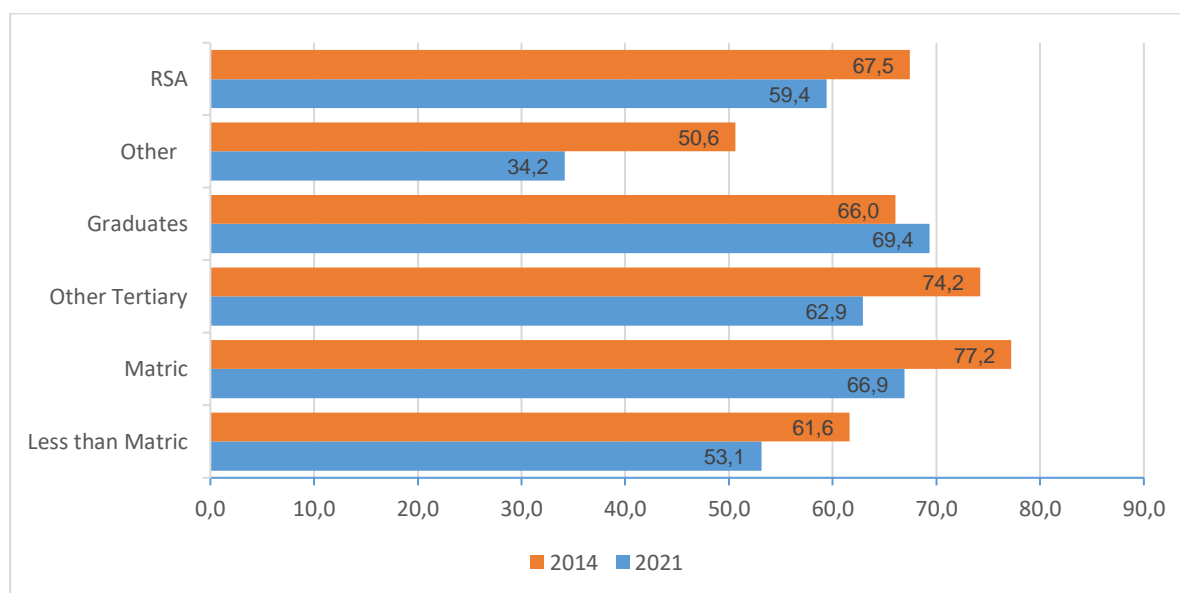
Figure 4.8: Percentage of unemployed youth by educational attainment and sex, 2014 and 2021



Source: QLFS Q3: 2014, QLFS Q3: 2021

In both 2014 and 2021, gender differences were observed in youth unemployment when educational attainment was considered. In addition, males with less than matric were more likely to be unemployed compared to their female counterparts. However, women were likely to be unemployed amongst those who had matric, including post matric qualifications (other tertiary and Graduates).

Figure 4.9: Share of the youth amongst the unemployed by education attainment, 2014 and 2021

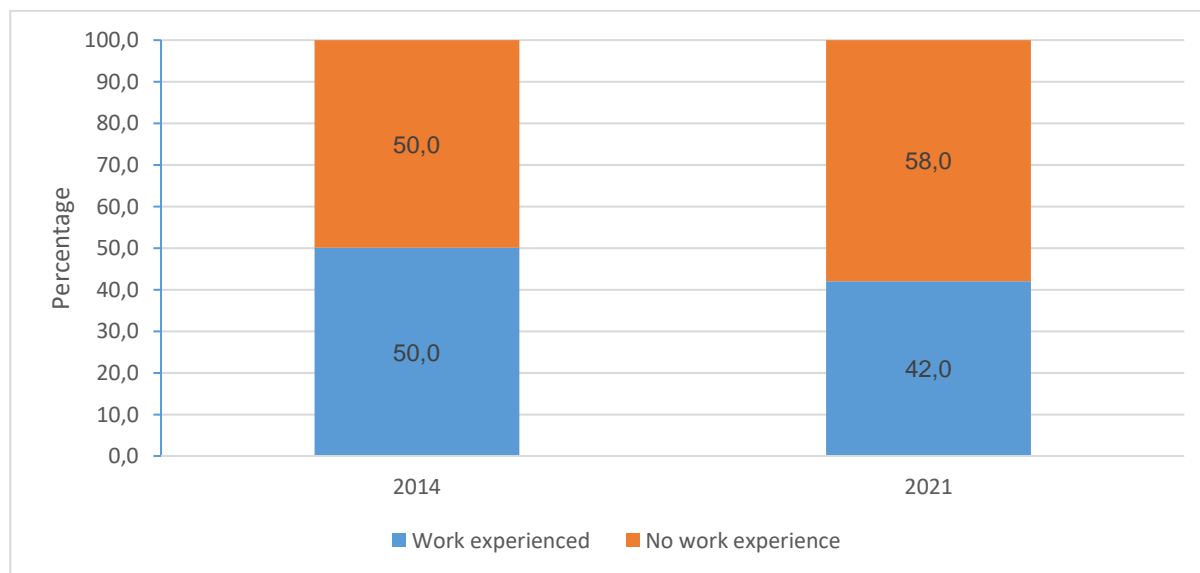


Source: QLFS Q3: 2014, QLFS Q3: 2021

The figure 4.9 above depicts the share of the youth amongst the unemployed by education attainment. In 2014, youth with matric and other tertiary were most likely to be unemployed with a decrease of 10,3 and 11,3 percentage points respectively in 2021. Although, the youth graduates were the third largest to be unemployed in 2014, they showed an increase of 3,4 percentage points (from 66% to 69,4%). They were more likely to be unemployed than those with other qualifications in 2021.

Unemployed youth and work experience

Figure 4.10: Percentage of unemployed youth who have some or no work experience, 2014 and 2021

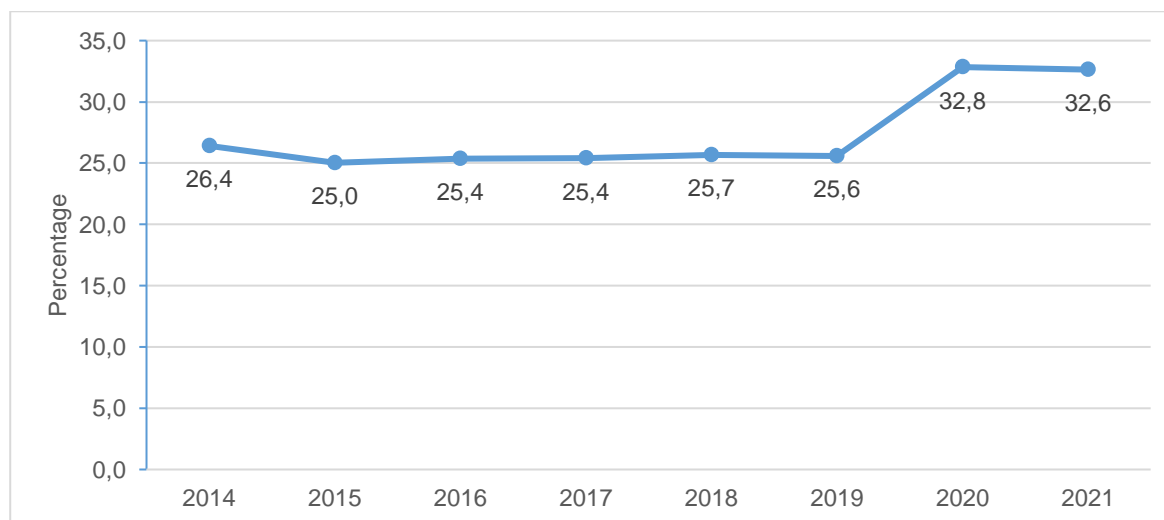


Source: QLFS Q3: 2014, QLFS Q3: 2021

In 2014, the unemployed youth with both work experience and no work experience had an equal percentage share of 50%. Of the 4,5 million unemployed youth in 2021, around 1,9 million (or 42,0%) had worked before. This was a decline of about 8 percentage points from 2014 (i.e. 50,0% in 2014). Conversely, the youth that had never worked before increased by 8 percentage points (from 50,0% in 2014 to 58,0% in 2021).

4.4 Youth and discouragement

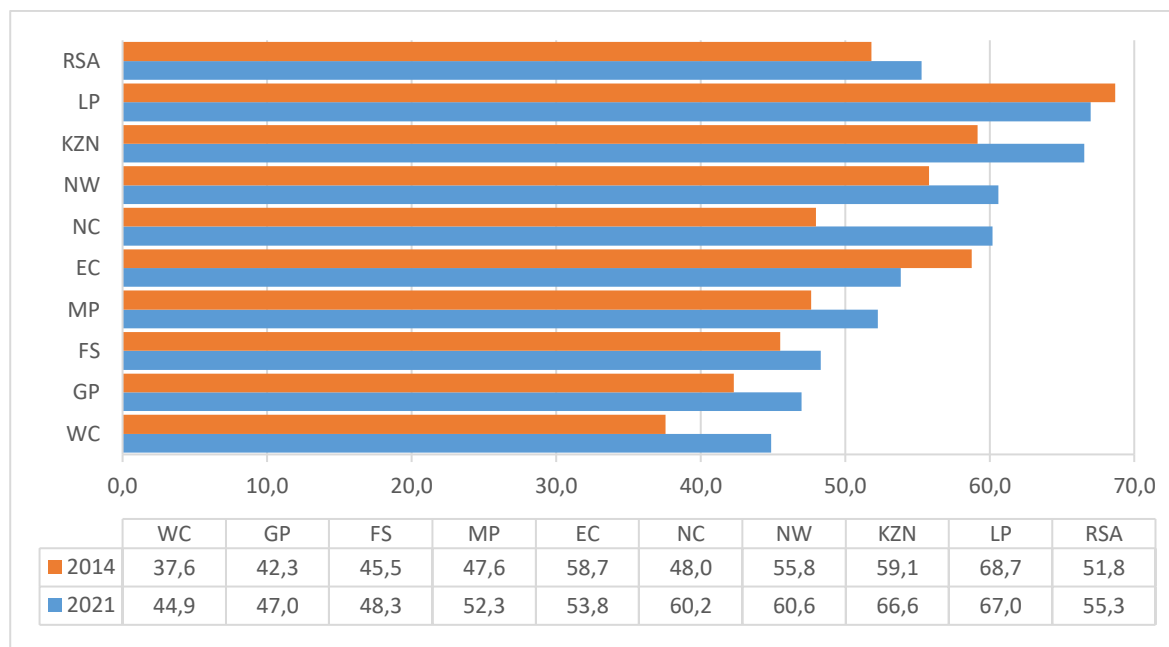
Figure 4.11: Inactivity rate for youth aged 25–34 years, 2014- 2021



Source: QLFS Q3: 2014, QLFS Q3: 2021

The analysis of inactivity is useful in assessing potential labour supply and the likelihood of people in the inactive group moving into the labour market at some point in the future. Figure 4.11 shows that for 2014 to 2019, the percentage of young people aged 25–34 years who were economically inactive fluctuated. From 2019, a very sharp increase of young people aged 25–34 years reported to be economically inactive. The inactivity rate amongst this group then slightly decreased by 0,2 percentage points (from 32,8% in 2020 to 32,6% in 2021).

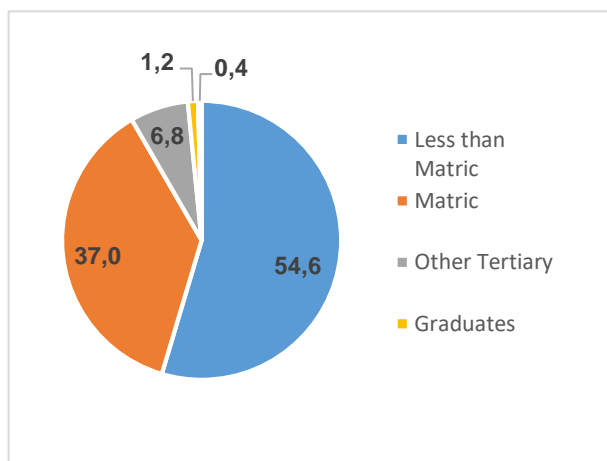
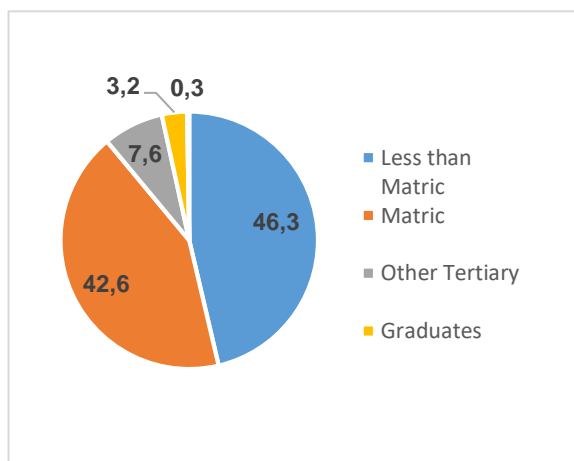
Figure 4.12: Inactivity rate of youth by province, 2014 and 2021



Source: QLFS Q3: 2014, QLFS Q3: 2021

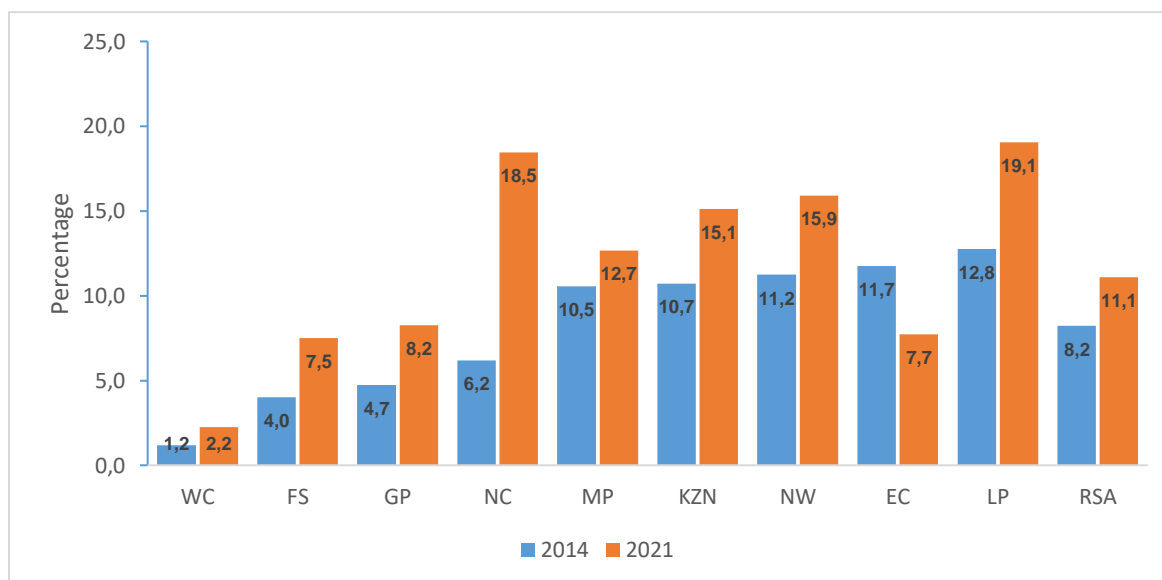
Figure 4.12 shows the inactivity rate of youth in the nine provinces. Between 2014 and 2021, the inactivity rate increased in all nine provinces with the exception of the Eastern Cape and Limpopo. The inactivity rate of the youth in South Africa increased by 3,5 percentage points from 51,8% in 2014 to 55,3% in 2021.

In 2014, young people living in provinces such as Limpopo (68,7%), KwaZulu-Natal (59,1%), Eastern Cape (58,7%), and North West (55,8%) were most likely to be inactive. Between the two reference period, three provinces (Northern Cape, Western Cape, and KwaZulu-Natal) recorded an inactivity rate above 5 percentage points (12,2; 7,3 and 7,5% respectively).

Figure 4.13a: Share of discouraged work seekers (15–34 years), 2014**Figure 4.13b: Share of discouraged work seekers (15–34 years), 2021**

Source: QLFS Q3: 2014, QLFS Q3: 2021

As shown in Figures 4.13a and 4.13b, generally, there was a decrease in the share of young people aged 15–34 years among the discouraged work-seekers with less than matric and other while those with Matric and postgraduate showed an increase. The discouraged youth that had less than matric decreased from 54,6% in 2014 to 46,3% in 2021 (a decrease of 8,3 percentage points). More young people with matric, the graduates, and those with other tertiary qualifications got discouraged (5,6 percentage points; 2 percentage points increase and 0,8 percentage points respectively) between the two reference period.

Figure 4.14: Percentage of youth discouraged work-seekers by province, 2014 and 2021

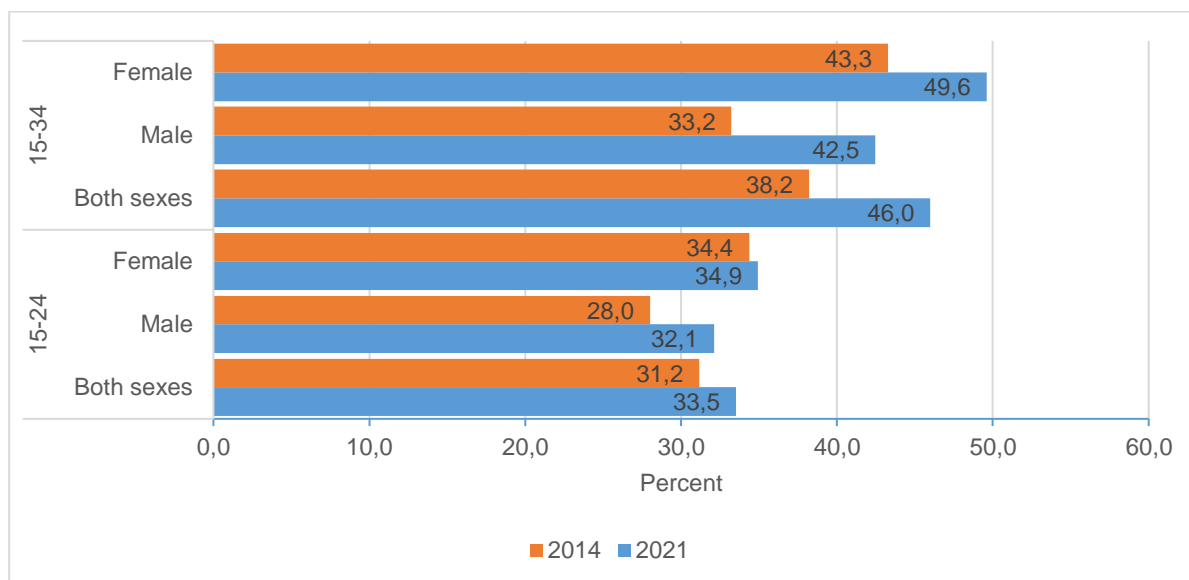
Source: QLFS 2014–2021

Figure 4.14 above further shows that Limpopo, Northern Cape, North West, and KwaZulu-Natal had the highest proportions of young discouraged work-seekers. All nine provinces recorded increases in youth discouragement except Eastern Cape. The largest increase was observed in Northern Cape and Limpopo (12,3, and 6,3-percentage points, respectively). The percentage of youth discouraged work-seekers in the Northern Cape was three times more than in 2014, the largest increase compared to other provinces.

4.6 Youth not in employment, education, or training (NEET)

Some young people have been discouraged with the labour market and they are also not building on their skills base through education and training – they are not in employment, education, or training (NEET). The NEET rate serves as an important additional labour market indicator for young people.¹²

Figure 4.15: Share of youth aged 15–24 years, not in employment, education, or training (NEET) by age group



Source: QLFS Q3: 2014, QLFS Q3: 2021

About 10,3 million young people aged 15-24 years in 2021, of which 33,5% were not in employment, education, or training (NEET) - 2,3 percentage points higher than in 2014. In this age group, the NEET rate for males and females increased by 4,1 percentage points and 0,6 percentage points, respectively. The NEET rate for females was higher than that of their male counterparts in both years.

The percentage of young persons aged 15-34 years who were not in employment, education, or training (NEET) increased by 7,8 percentage points from 38,2% to 46,0% (out of 20,5 million) in 2021. The NEET rate for males increased by 9,2 percentage points, while for females, the rate increased by 7,8 percentage points in 2021.

4.7 Conclusion

The unemployment rate of the youth in South Africa was 49,3% in 2021. Eastern Cape recorded the highest unemployment rate for youth. Young graduates (those who qualified with a degree tertiary qualification) and others were least likely to be unemployed. The inactivity rate increased in all nine provinces. The NEET rate for females was higher than that of their male counterparts in both years.

¹² P02113rdQuarter2021%20(1).

CHAPTER 5: YOUTH AND CRIME

5.0 Background

Crime does not have a single root cause. It is primarily the outcome of multiple adverse social, economic, cultural and family circumstances. Poverty, unemployment, and political circumstances are the major economic factors that contribute to crime initiation¹³. The Sustainable Development Agenda 2030, through goal 16 acknowledges the need to build peaceful, just and inclusive societies that provide equal access to justice and founded on human rights, the rule of law and good governance¹⁴. According to the existing literature, crime levels in South Africa remain a concern, particularly in urban areas, with young people constituting the majority of victims of violent crimes as well as the majority of perpetrators of crimes in these areas¹⁵. In South Africa, various government entities and civil society groups are spearheading strategies and interventions primarily focused on training and education in order to reduce crime levels and youth exposure to crime.

This chapter of the report investigates youth trust in government and public institutions, as well as their levels of satisfaction with the services provided by these institutions. Moreover, it provides insight into young people's experiences as victims of crime, with a focus on assault, robbery (excluding the residential robbery and car/truck hijackings), and property theft (excluding pick pocketing and bag snatching). In order to capture a larger group, the analysis focused on experiences from the past 5 years rather than those from the past 12 months. Youth in this chapter are defined as those falling between the ages 16–34 years as all questions relating to this chapter were administered to persons aged 16 years and older.

5.1 Trust in government and public institutions

Trust is the bedrock upon which the legitimacy of public institutions and a functioning democratic system is built. It is critical for political participation and social cohesion. Furthermore, it is crucial to the success of a wide range of public policies that rely on public behavioural responses, as public trust can lead to greater adherence to regulations¹⁶.

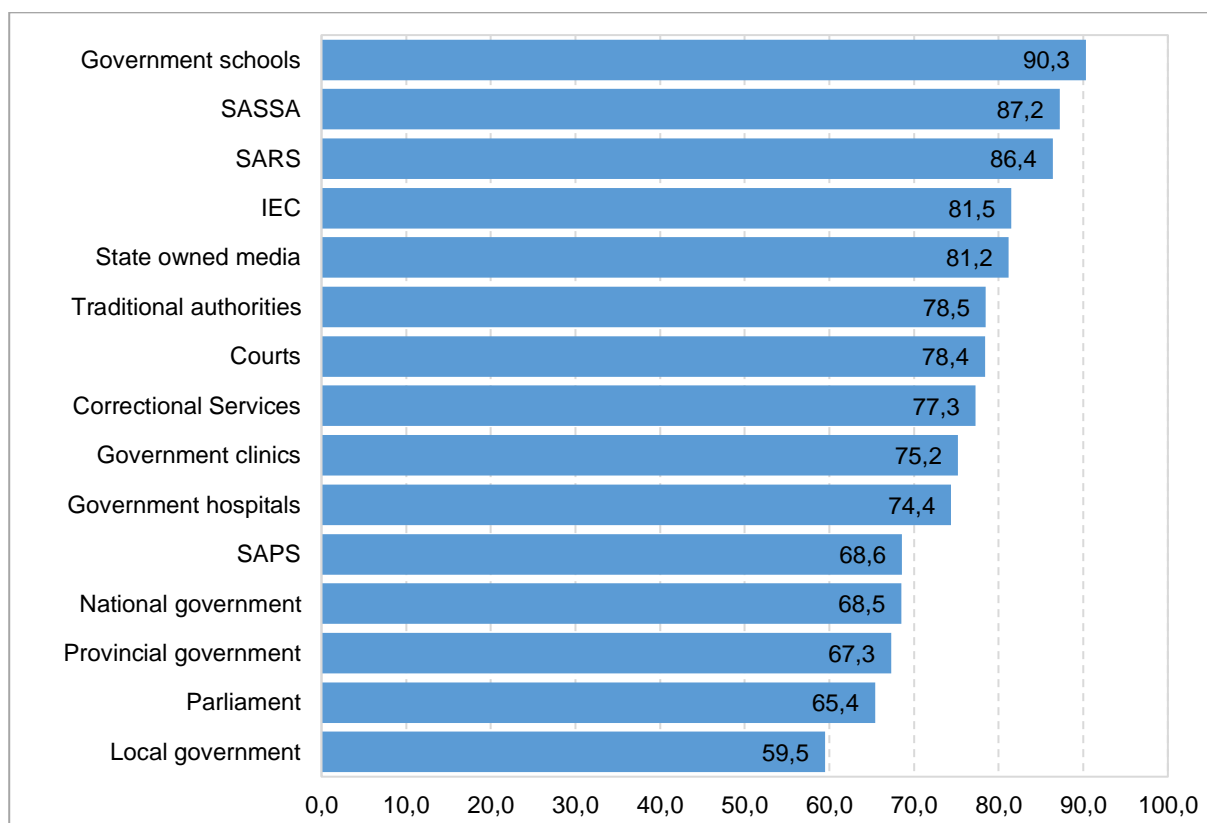
The Governance, Public Safety, and Justice Survey (GPSJS 2019/20) included a question about citizens' trust in the government and public institutions, with trust levels presented on a Likert scale ranging from strongly trust, trust, distrust, and strongly distrust. The analysis combined young citizens who indicated “strongly trust and trust” in these institutions to form a group of citizens who showed trust, and a separate group of young citizens who indicated “distrust and strongly distrust” in these institutions to form a group of citizens who distrust these institutions.

¹³ Muhammad Ali Shuja. 2008. Youth Crime: Causes and Remedies, University of Karach

¹⁴ United Nations, General Assembly, 2015b

¹⁵ Muncie, J. 2009. Youth and Crime, 2nd edition, London, UK: Sage Publication Ltd.

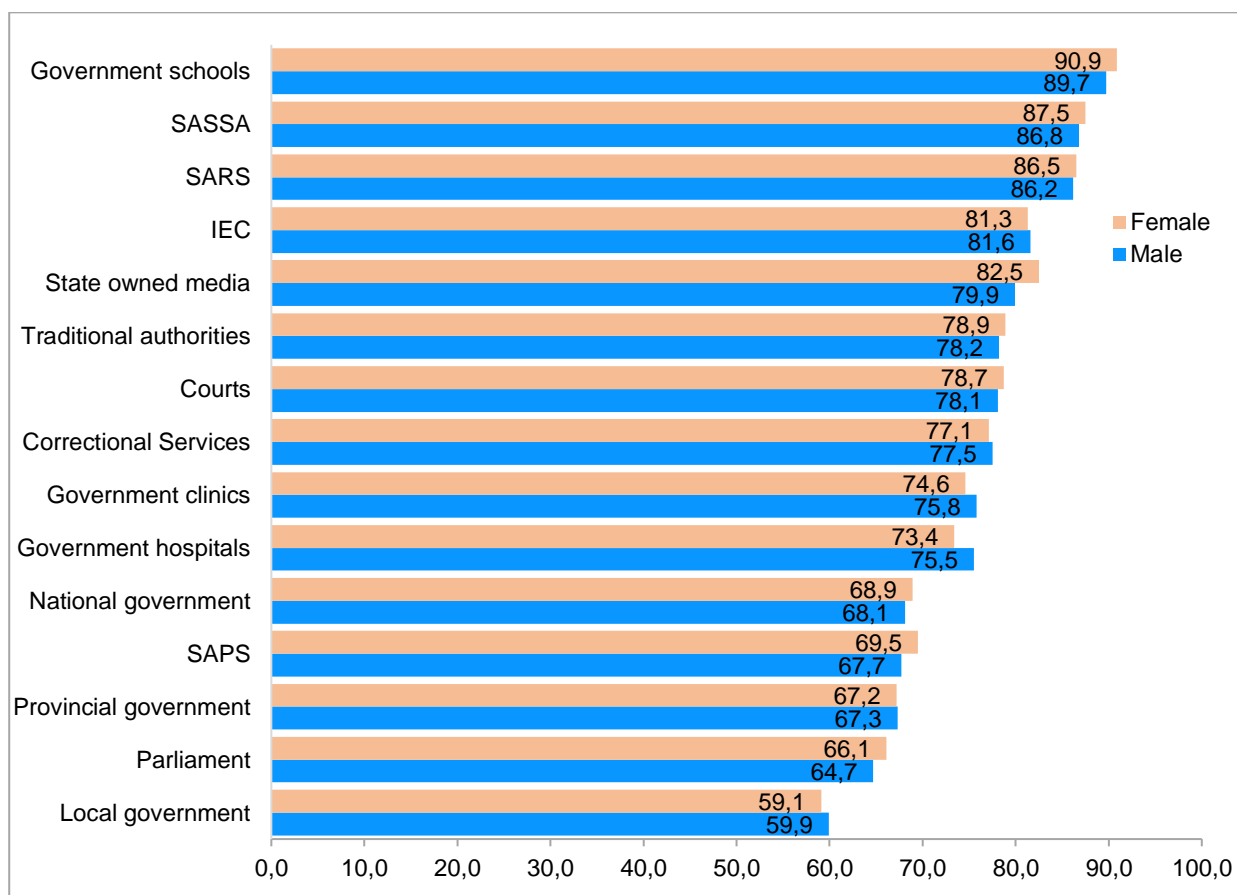
¹⁶ OECD (2013), “Trust in government, policy effectiveness and the governance agenda”, in *Government at a Glance 2013*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://dx.doi.org/10.1787/gov_glance-2013-6-en.

Figure 5.1: Level of youth trust in government and public institutions, 2019/20

Source: GPSJS 2019/20

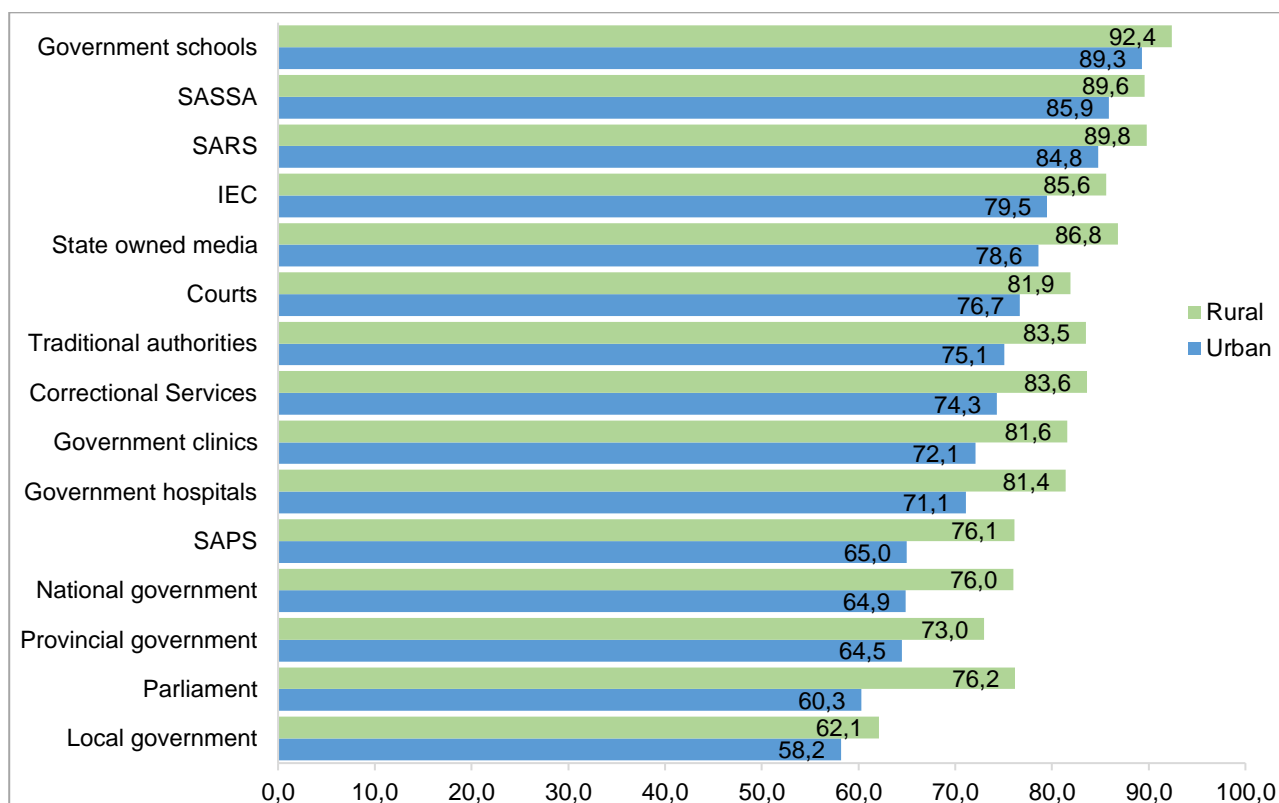
Figure 5.1 depicts the level of trust in government and public institutions by young people aged 16–34 years. Trust is essential for the credibility of governance institutions and a functioning democratic system¹⁷. Citizens' trust in the government usually results in greater compliance with and support for government programmes and policies. In South Africa, the youth population remains the largest segment of the population, with the potential to positively contribute to the country's development agenda. However, as shown in Figure 5.1 above, young people have demonstrated trust deficit with certain government and public institutions, particularly those that attained below 70% of youth who had trust in them, with local government (59,5%) obtaining the lowest percentage. Despite the low levels of trust demonstrated by youth in other government and public institutions, there were institutions that enjoyed the trust of young people, particularly those that attained highest percentages (over 80%) of youth that expressed their trust in them. Government schools, SASSA, SARS, IEC, and state-owned media were among the government and public institutions with the highest levels of trust among youth.

¹⁷ OECD (2013), "Trust in government, policy effectiveness and the governance agenda", in *Government at a Glance 2013*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://dx.doi.org/10.1787/gov_glance-2013-6-en.

Figure 5.2: Level of youth trust in government and public institutions by sex, 2019/20

Source: GPSJS 2019/20

Figure 5.2 depicts a similar pattern to Figure 5.1, with government schools enjoying the highest level of trust expressed by young people and local governments receiving the lowest percentage of youth who had trust in them. Despite the pattern being similar, the analysis revealed gender differences, some of which were negligible. However, it is worth highlighting some of the significant gender differences, such as those observed in state owned media, government clinics, government hospitals, SAPS and parliament. Nearly 76% of males aged 16–34 years trusted both government clinics and government hospitals, while females trusted state-owned media, SAPS, and parliament more than males.

Figure 5.3: Level of youth trust in government and public institutions by geography type, 2019/20

Source: GPSJS 2019/20

Figure 5.3 illustrates young people's trust in government and public institutions by geographic location. Figure 5.3 follows a pattern similar to the previous two figures (Figures 5.1 and 5.2), including the ranking of the institutions. However, this analysis reveals glaring trust differences, with youth in rural areas more likely to trust all of the government and public institutions depicted in the above figure than youth in urban areas. The majority of youth in rural areas had trust in parliament, with an overwhelming 15,9 percentage points higher than youth in urban areas, followed by SAPS (11,1 percentage points), national government (11,1 percentage points), government hospitals (10,3 percentage points), government clinics (9,5 percentage points), and correctional services (9,3 percentage points).

Table 5.1: Percentage of youth who trusted national, provincial and local government by province, 2019/20

Sphere of government	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	RSA
Local government	64,5	64,3	46,6	48,3	62,5	46,7	59,3	46,9	71,2	59,5
Provincial government	67,2	74,7	63,4	59,1	70,6	59,5	63,5	63,5	78,0	67,3
National government	62,9	78,0	65,5	60,6	71,6	64,6	63,3	71,4	79,6	68,5

Source: GPSJS 2019/20

South Africa is a constitutional democracy with three levels of government: national, provincial, and local. Provincial and local governments are critical to service delivery, whereas the national government is in charge of making laws, establishing policies for the country, and providing services that fall under national competencies. According to Table 5.1, the level of trust that young people have in different spheres of government varies greatly, and even more so when the analysis is done within provinces. In general, young people had a trust deficit in local government, with an average of 59.5% of youth trusting this level of government. Northern Cape (46,6%), Mpumalanga (46,9%), North West (46,7%), and Free State (48,3%) were the key drivers to the low average trust deficit attained at the local government level, with less than 50% of youth trusting their respective local governments.

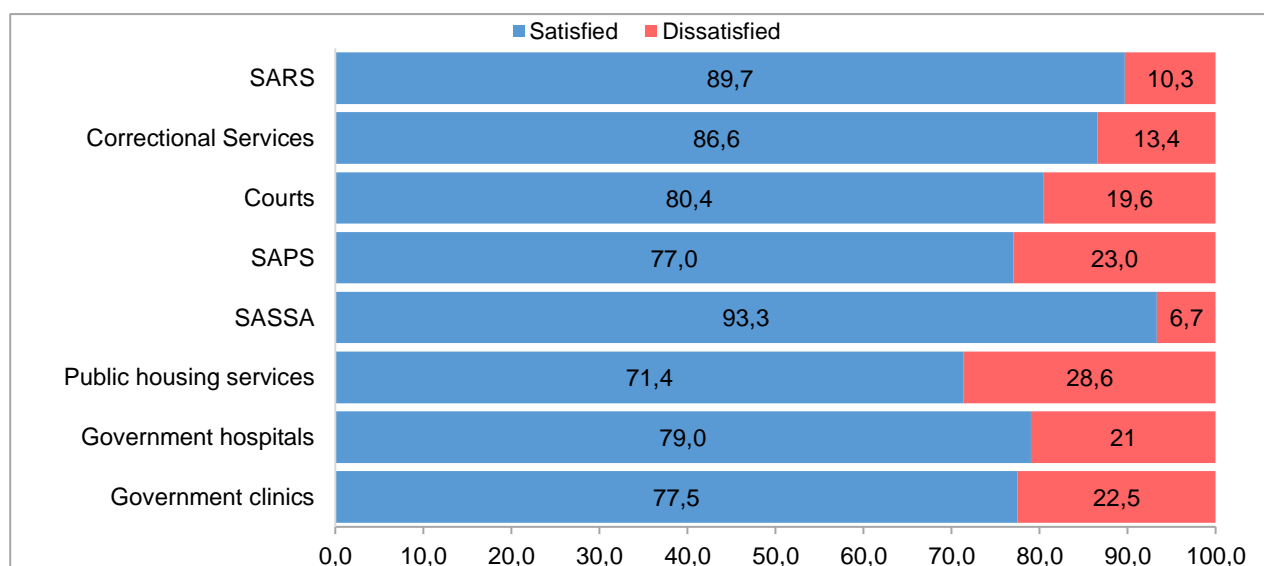
The analysis at the provincial government level revealed that youth had a reasonable level of trust in their provincial governments, with the exception of North West and Free State, which had less than 60% of youth trusting their provincial governments. On other hand, Youth from the Western Cape and Gauteng had more trust in their provincial governments than national governments, with the Western Cape recording a 4,3 percentage points higher of youth trusting in provincial government than national government, while Gauteng recorded a negligible percentage point difference of a 0,2. However, youth from other provinces had trust in the national government.

5.2 Levels of satisfaction with government services

Measuring youth satisfaction with public services is central to a citizen-centric approach to service delivery, which is a critical component of government performance strategies for continuous improvement¹⁸. Target 16.6 of the SDG 2030 acknowledges the need to develop effective, accountable, and transparent institutions at all levels in order to improve citizens' experiences with public services.

The Governance, Public Safety, and Justice Survey (GPSJS 2019/20) included a question about citizens' satisfaction with the quality of service provided by key government and public institutions, with satisfaction levels presented on a Likert scale ranging from very satisfied, satisfied, dissatisfied, and very dissatisfied. The analysis combined “very satisfied and satisfied” to create a group of satisfied citizens, and “dissatisfied and very dissatisfied” to create a group of dissatisfied citizens.

Figure 5.4: Levels of satisfaction with government and public institutions among youth, 2019/20



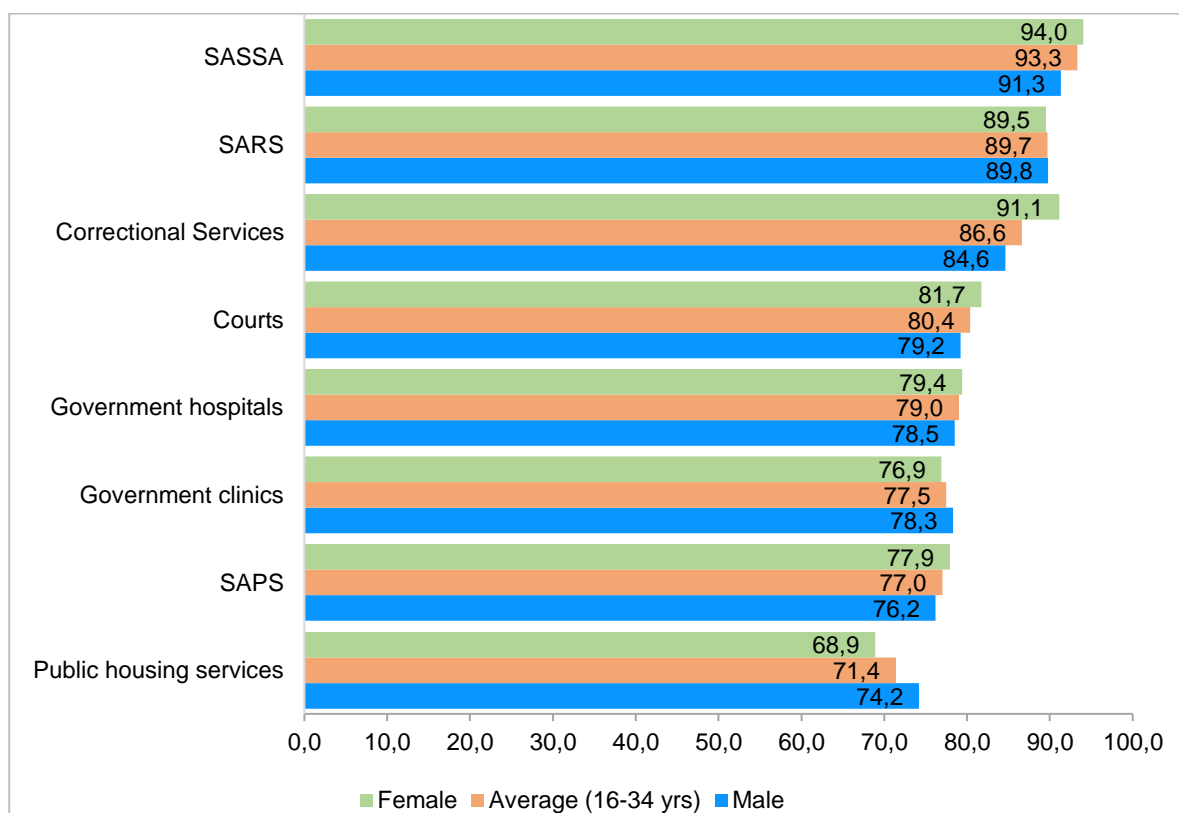
Source: GPSJS 2019/20

Figure 5.4 depicts the percentage of youth who were satisfied or dissatisfied with the quality of services provided by key government and public institutions in 2019/20. The existing body of literature states that levels of satisfaction with government performance influence citizens' degree of trust in government¹⁹. During the reporting period, there were government and public institutions that had higher levels of satisfaction among youth with the quality of service they provided, such as SASSA, SARS, correctional services and courts, which obtained more than 80% of youth who indicated that they were either very satisfied or satisfied with the quality of service provided by these institutions. Despite the fact that more than 70% of youth were satisfied with the quality of service provided by public housing services (RDP houses, subsidised houses), it obtained the lowest percentage of youth satisfaction when compared to other institutions. Institutions such as SAPS, government clinics, and government hospitals were also had lower levels of satisfaction among youth, falling below 80%.

¹⁸ OECD (2013), Government at a Glance 2013, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/gov_glance-2013-en

¹⁹ Salim, M. , Peng, X. , Almakhtary, S. and Karmoshi, S. (2017) The Impact of Citizen Satisfaction with Government Performance on Public Trust in the Government: Empirical Evidence from Urban Yemen. Open Journal of Business and Management, 5, 348-365.

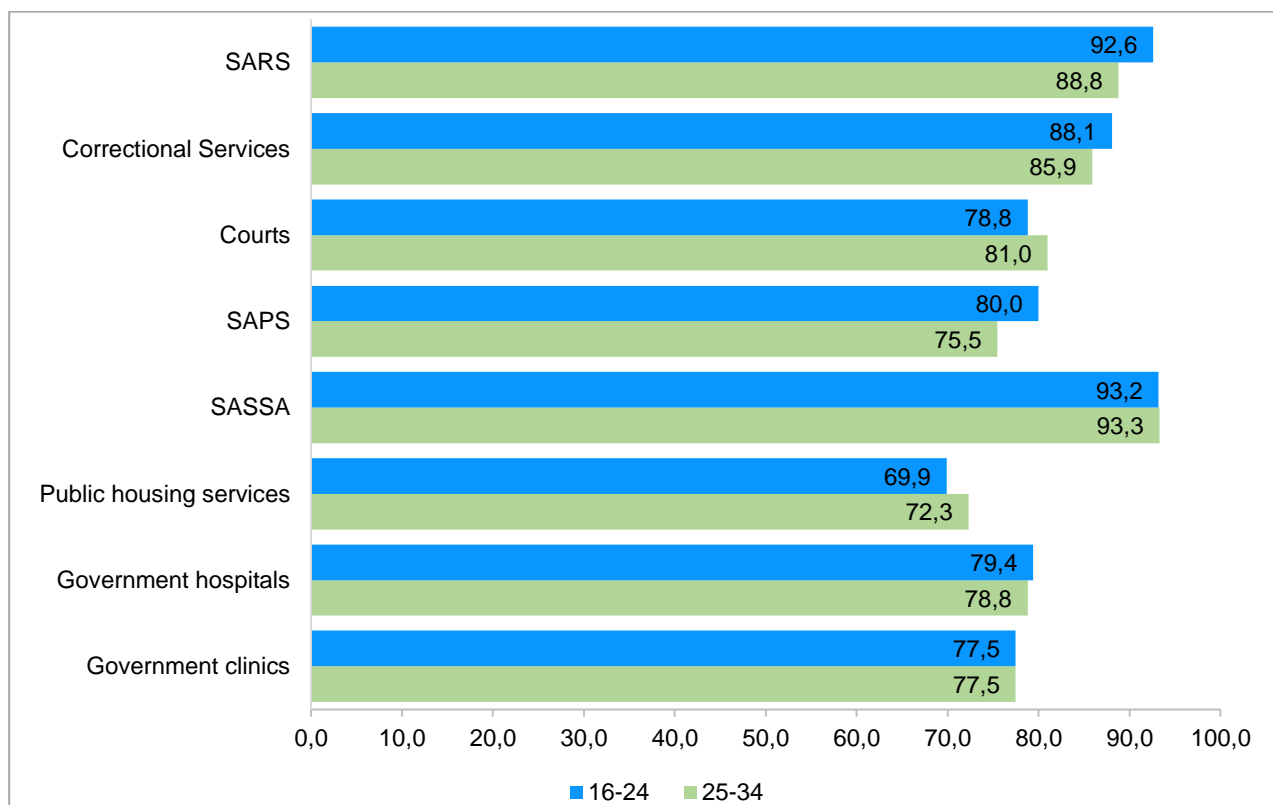
Figure 5.5: Percentage of youth who were satisfied with government and public institutions by sex, 2019/20



Source: GPSJS 2019/20

Figure 5.5: Percentage of youth who were satisfied with government and public institutions by sex in 2019/20. The national average of both sexes is represented by the average (16–34 yrs). According to the findings, young women were satisfied with the quality of service provided by the majority of government and public institutions, with satisfaction levels surpassing national averages. These institutions included correctional services (4,5 percentage points higher than the national average), courts (1,3 percentage point higher than the national average), SAPS (0,9 percentage point higher than the national average), SASSA (0,7 percentage point higher than the national average), and government hospitals (0,4 percentage point higher than the national average). On the other hand, young men, indicated that they were either very satisfied or satisfied with the quality of service provided by public housing services, government clinics, and SARS, which surpassed their respective national averages.

Figure 5.6: Percentage of youth who are satisfied with government and public institutions by age group, 2019/20



Source: GPSJS 2019/20

Figure 5.6 depicts the percentage of youth by age who were satisfied with the quality of service provided by government and public institutions in 2019/20. The younger youth are those aged 16–24, while the older youth are those aged 25–34. It is crucial to analyse data on perception by age because youth in these two groups are not homogeneous and are at different stages of life; they perceive issues differently and are influenced by different factors. According to Figure 5.6, there were virtually no age differences in the percentage of youth who were satisfied with the quality of service provided by institutions such as SASSA and government clinics, as both age groups attained nearly the same percentages. However, the analysis revealed that younger youth were either very satisfied or satisfied with the quality of service provided by SARS, correctional services, SAPS, and government hospitals, whereas older youth were either very satisfied or satisfied with the quality of service provided by courts and public housing services.

5.3 Experiences of crimes

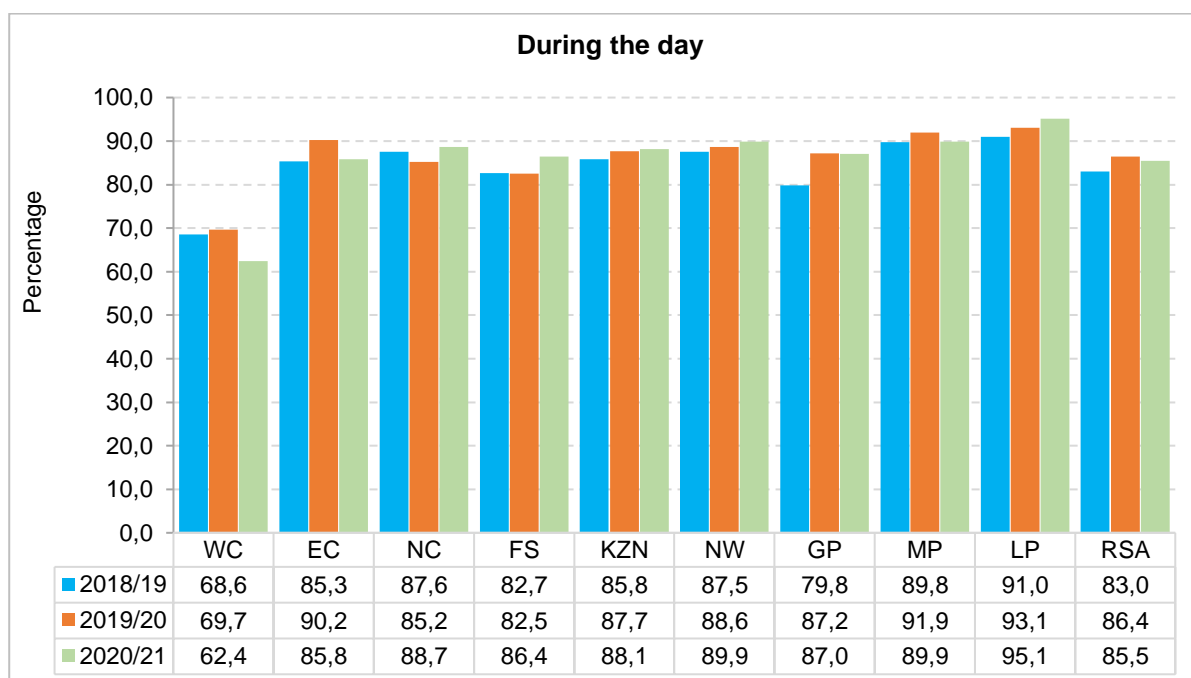
Chapter 12 of the National Development Plan lists crime reduction as one of its strategic priorities and envisions that people living in South Africa should have no fear of crime. In line with this, priority 6 of the Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) (2019–2024) advocate for: “Social Cohesion and Safer Communities”. One of the broad strategic outcomes of this priority is:

“Increased feelings of safety in communities”.

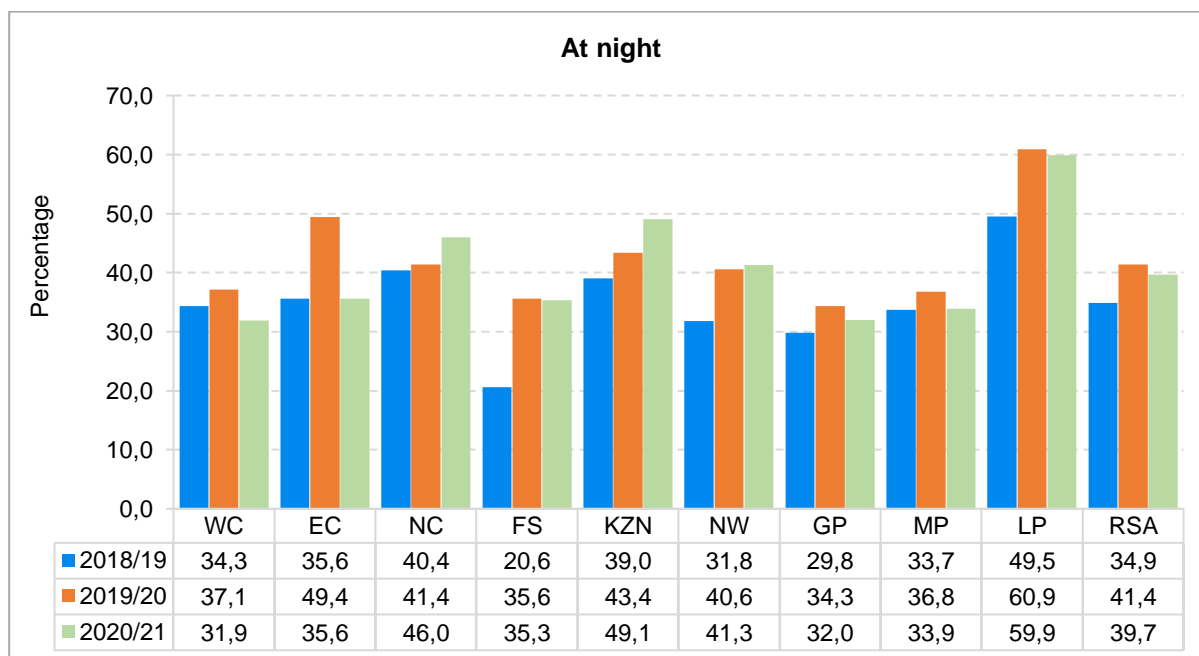
In this context, this section of the chapter examines how safe young people feel in their communities and whether they have been victims of crimes such as assault, robbery, and property theft. The primary data sources for this chapter are the Victims of Crime Survey (VOCS) and the Governance, Public Safety, and Justice Survey (GPSJS).

5.3.1 Feelings of safety

Figure 5.7: Percentage of youth who felt safe walking alone in the area where they live during the day and at night by province, 2018/19–2020/21



Source: GPSJS 2018/19 –2020/21

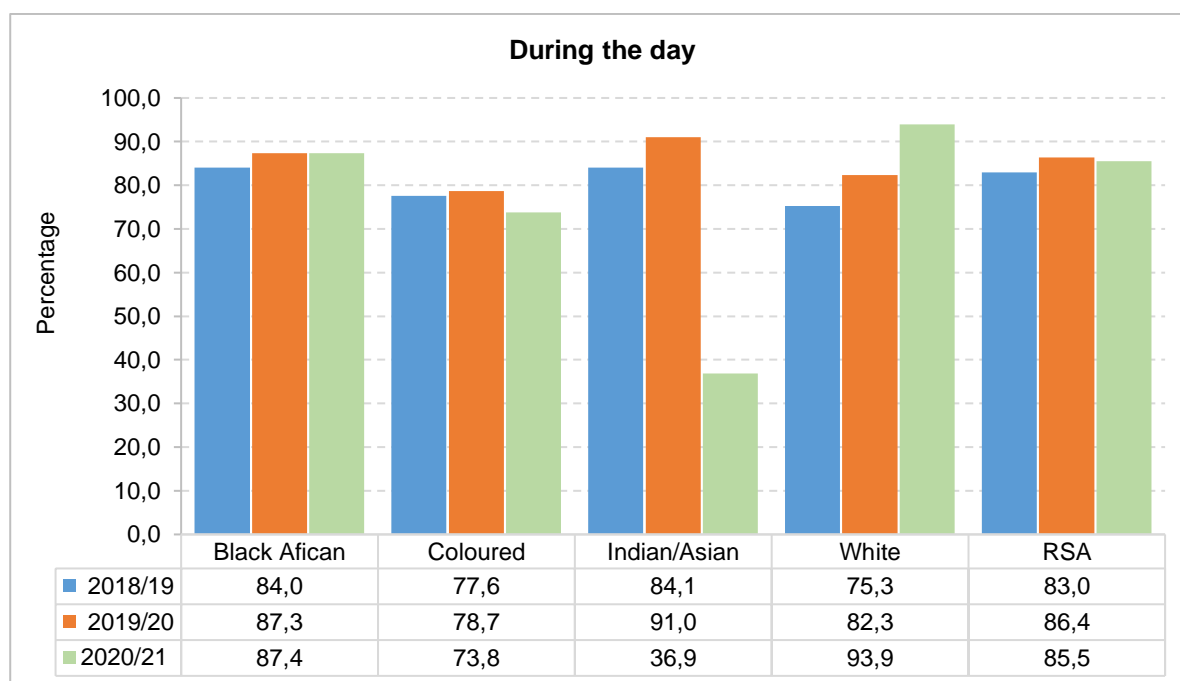


Source: GPSJS 2018/19 –2020/21

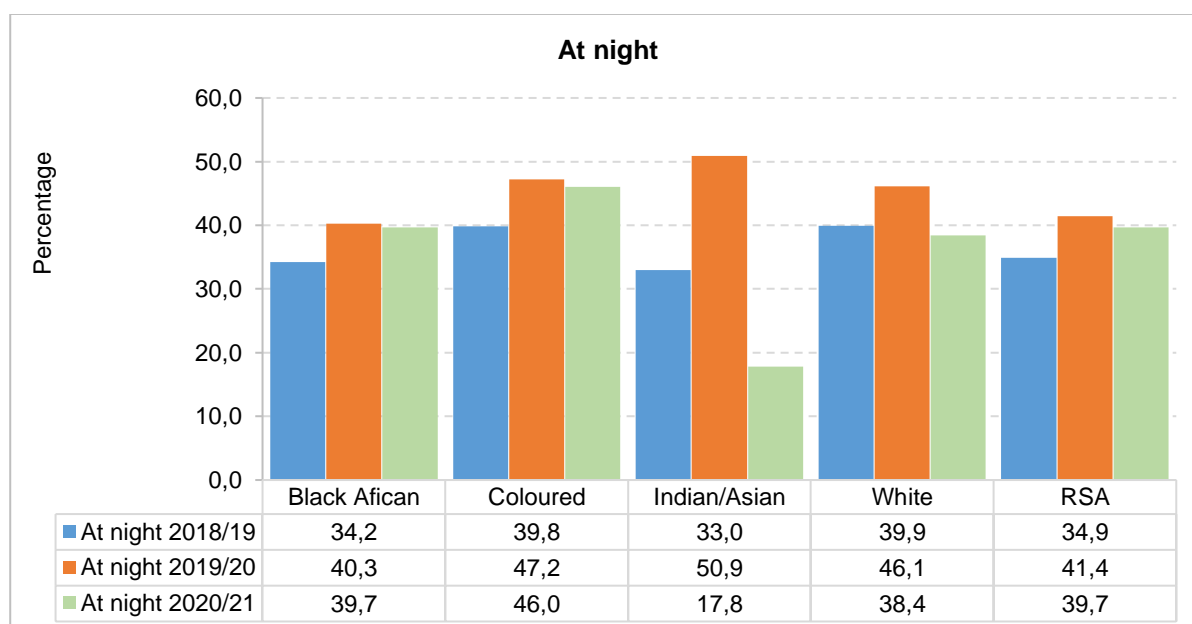
Figure 5.7 shows the percentage of youth who felt safe walking alone in the area where they live during the day and at night in 2018/19–2020/21. Nationally, the findings show that the percentage of young people who felt safe increased both during the day and at night between 2018/19 and 2019/20, before declining in 2020/21. However, this decline was more pronounced at night (1,7 percentage points) than during the day (0,9 of a percentage point).

Provincial analysis revealed that the percentage of young people who felt safe during the day increased in seven of the nine provinces between 2018/19 and 2019/20, with only Northern Cape and Free State recording decreases during this period. The number of provinces where young people were feeling safe during the day dropped to five in 2020/21, with the Western Cape (7,3 percentage points) and Eastern Cape (4,4 percentage points) recording the largest decreases compared to the other two provinces that also saw decreases (Mpumalanga and Gauteng). On the other hand, the decrease in the percentage of young people who felt safe at night at the national level in 2020/21 was mainly driven by decreases in six out of the nine provinces, such as the Eastern Cape, Western Cape, Mpumalanga, Gauteng, Limpopo and Free State, respectively. The Eastern Cape experienced the largest drop (13,8 percentage points), followed by the Western Cape (5,2 percentage points), Mpumalanga (2,9 percentage points), and Gauteng (2,3 percentage points).

Figure 5.8: Percentage of youth who felt safe walking alone in the area where they live during the day and at night by population group, 2018/19–2020/21



Source: GPSJS 2018/19 –2020/21



Source: GPSJS 2018/19 –2020/21

Figure 5.8 shows that during the past three years, feelings of safety during the day have improved for black Africans and whites, with whites experiencing a substantial increase of nearly 12% (11,6 percentage points), whereas black Africans saw a negligible increase of 0,1 of a percentage point. On the contrary, the Indian/Asian and Coloured population groups realised substantial decreases during this period, with Indian/Asian recording a sharp decline of 54,1 percentage points between 2019/20 and 2020/21, while the coloureds saw a drop of nearly 5% (4,9 percentage points). Similarly to the findings on feelings of safety during the day, the percentage of young people who felt safe at night increased between 2018/19 and 2019/20, before a general decrease was observed in 2020/21, with Indian/Asian youth recording a sharp decline of 33,1 percentage points.

Table 5.2: Percentage of youth who felt safe or unsafe walking alone in their area during the day and at night by sex, 2018/19 –2020/21

Time period	Year	Feelings of safety	Male	Female	RSA
During the day	2018/19	Safe	84,0	82,1	83,0
		Unsafe	16,0	17,9	17,0
	2019/20	Safe	87,5	85,4	86,4
		Unsafe	12,5	14,6	13,6
	2020/21	Safe	84,3	86,8	85,5
		Unsafe	15,7	13,2	14,5
At night	2018/19	Safe	37,3	32,5	34,9
		Unsafe	62,7	67,5	65,1
	2019/20	Safe	43,3	39,6	41,4
		Unsafe	56,7	60,4	58,6
	2020/21	Safe	40,4	39,0	39,7
		Unsafe	59,6	61,0	60,3

Source: GPSJS 2018/19 –2020/21

According to Table 5.2, males were more likely than females to feel safe when walking alone in their areas during the day between 2018/19 and 2019/20, though this decreased by 3,2 percentage points in 2020/21. On the contrary, while young women were less likely to feel safe than their male counterparts, the percentage of young women who felt safe increased consistently from 2018/19 to 2020/21, while the opposite was true for the young men.

Feelings of safety at night show that males were more likely to feel safe than females, though a similar pattern was observed for both sexes, with an increase in the percentage of youth who felt safe at night for both males and females between 2018/19/ and 2019/20, before they both experienced a drop in 2020/21.

5.4 Incidence of individual crimes

5.4.1 Assault

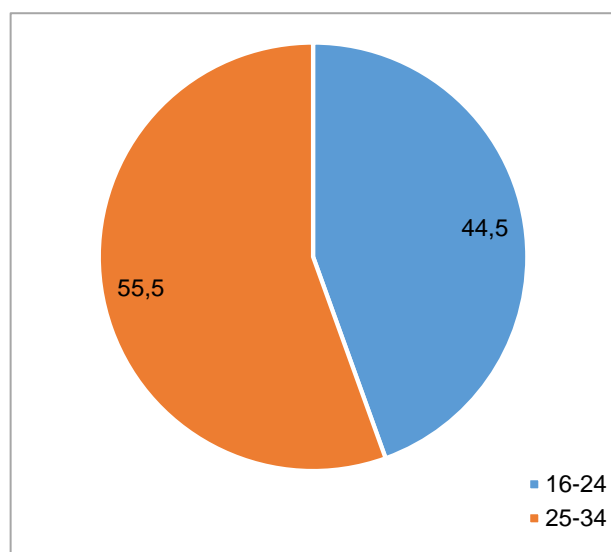
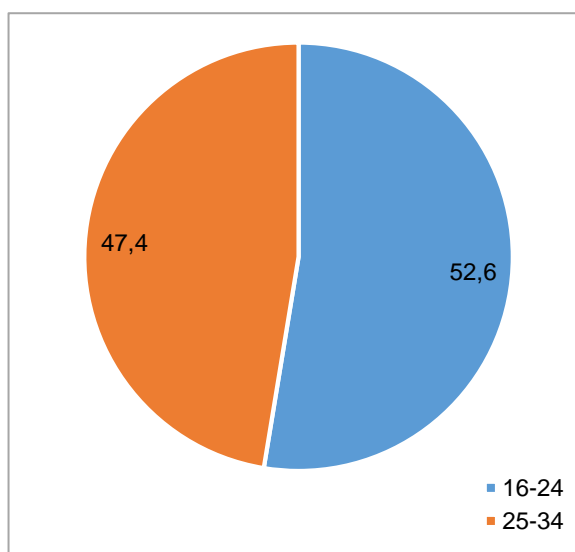
The following analysis focuses on assault-related crimes. Respondents in this section were therefore asked if they had been the victim of an assault crime in the five years preceding the date of the interview. The analysis focuses on changes that occur between 2013/14 and 2020/21.

Table 5.3: Victims of assault by age and sex, 2013/14 and 2019/20

Victims of assault	2013/14						
	Male		Female		Total		Total
	16-34	35+	16-34	35+	16-34	35+	
	N'(000)						
Yes	245	313	162	206	407	520	927
No	6 856	9 631	7 808	10 298	14 664	19 928	34 592
Total	7 101	9 944	7 970	10 504	15 071	20 448	35 519
Yes* (per cent)	26,4	33,8	17,5	22,2	43,9	56,1	100,0
	2019/20						
	Male		Female		Total		Total
	16-34	35+	16-34	35+	16-34	35+	
	N'(000)						
Yes	213	106	107	68	321	174	495
No	9 558	9 540	9 660	11 018	19 218	20 558	39 776
Total	9 772	9 646	9 767	11 086	19 539	20 732	40 271
Yes* (per cent)	43,0	21,4	21,6	13,7	64,8	35,2	100,0

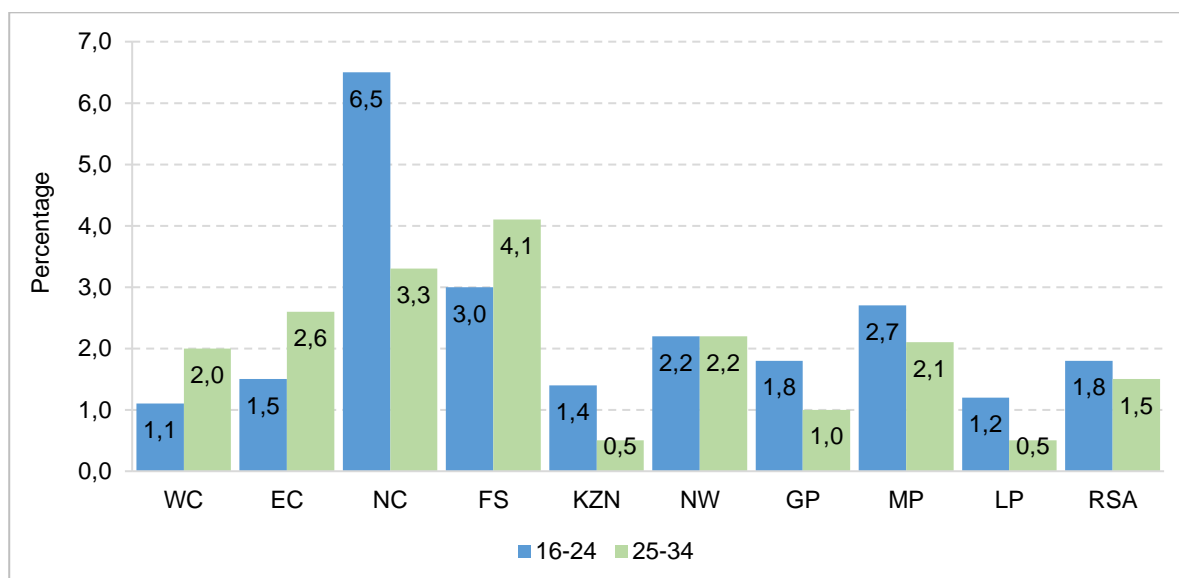
Source: VOCS 2013/14, GPSJS 2019/20

According to Table 5.3, 1,2% of people reported being victims of assault crimes in 2019/20, which was 1,4 percentage points lower than the seven years prior (2013/14). When comparing 2019/20 to 2013/14, a higher proportion of youth aged 16–34 years were victims of assault than adults (those aged 35 years and older). Furthermore, between 2013/14 and 2019/20, the proportion of young people who were assaulted increased by nearly 21% (from 43,9% to 64,8%). In terms of gender differences, young males were nearly twice as likely as their female counterparts to be victims of assault crimes in 2019/20. Between 2013/14 and 2019/20, the percentage of young males reporting being victims of assault increased by 16,6 percentage points (from 26,4% in 2013/14 to 43,0% in 2019/20).

Figure 5.9: Percentage of youth who experienced assault crimes by age, 2013/14 and 2019/20**2013/14****2019/20**

Source: VOCS 2013/14, GPSJS 2019/20

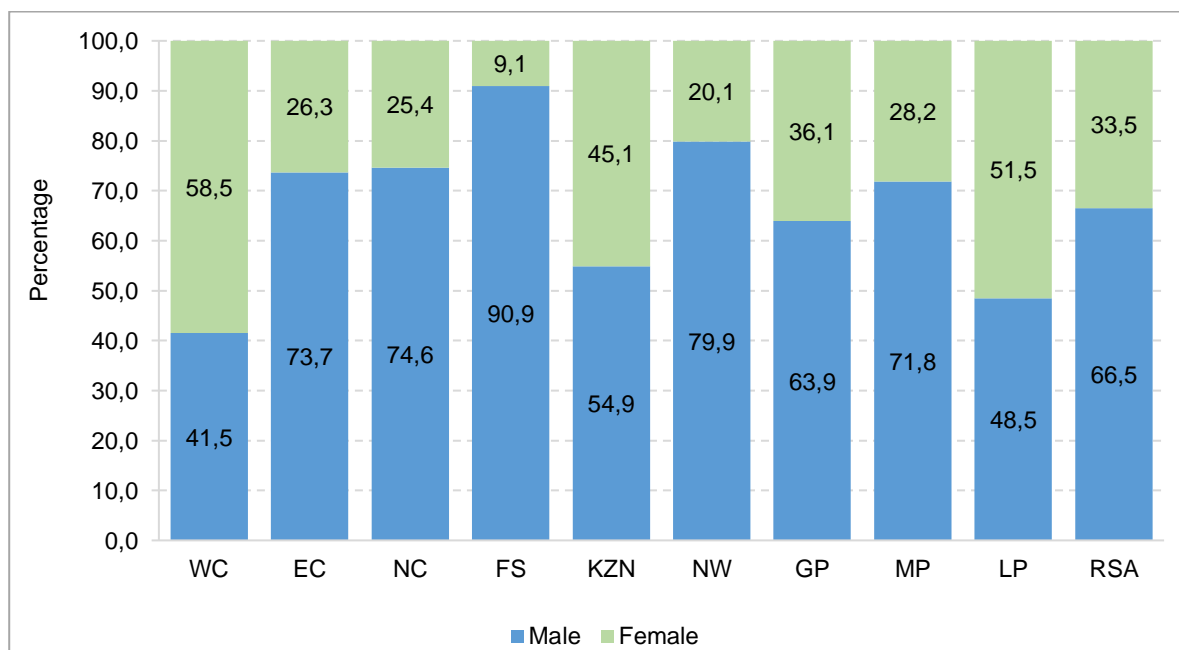
Figure 5.9 depicts the age group of youth who were victims of assault crimes during the reporting period. According to the findings, a higher percentage of assault victims were between the ages of 25–34 years in 2013/14, but this changed seven years later (2019/20), when those between the ages of 16–24 years became the most likely age group to have experienced assault crimes, with an increase of 8,1% (from 44,5% to 52,6%).

Figure 5.10: Percentage of youth who experienced assault crimes by province and age, 2019/20

Source: GPSJS 2019/20

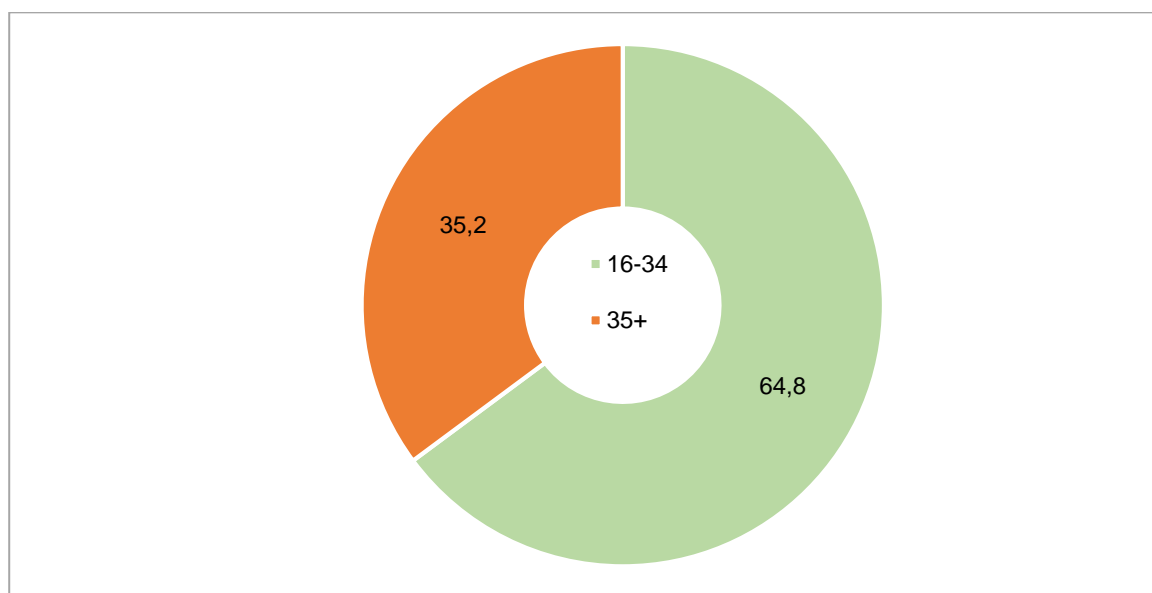
Figure 5.10 depicts the percentages of young victims of assault by province and age. Nationally, the findings show that younger youth (16–24 years) were more likely to be victims of assault than older youth (25–34 years).

Provincial differences revealed that the older youth were likely to have been victims of assault in Free State, Eastern Cape and Western Cape, while those aged between 16–24 years were mostly likely to be victims of assault in the Northern Cape, Mpumalanga, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and Limpopo. On the other hand, an equal percentage share of both younger and older youth reported assault victimisation in the North West.

Figure 5.11: Percentage of youth who experienced assault crimes by province and sex, 2019/20

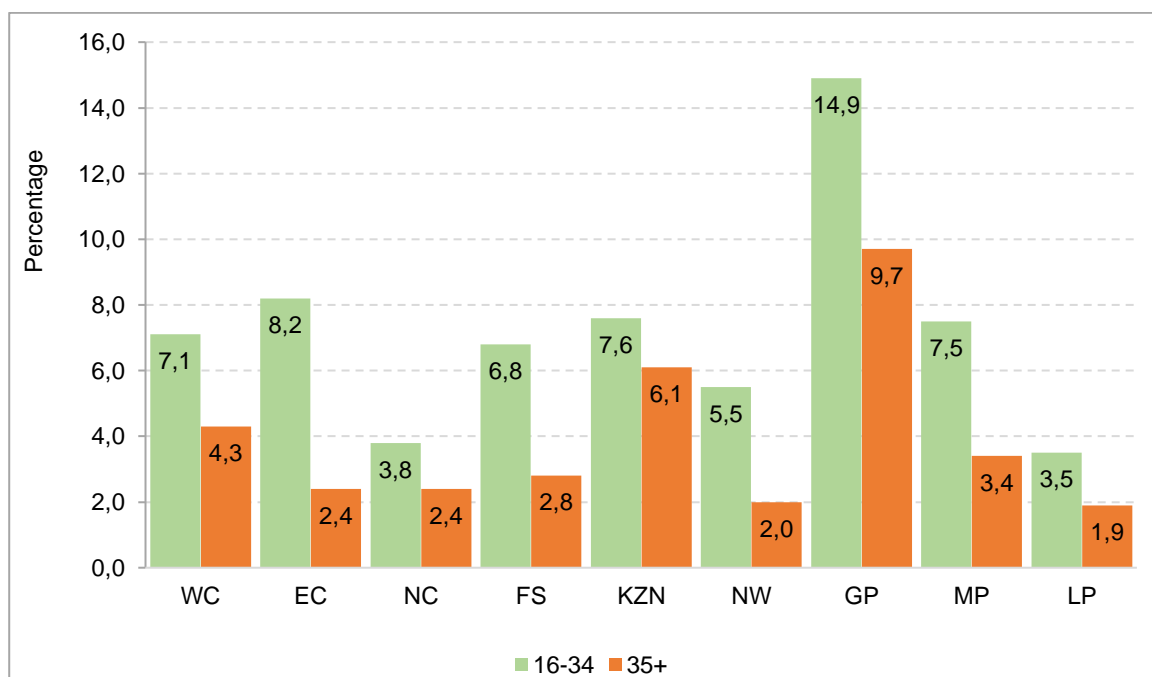
Source: GPSJS 2019/20

Figure 5.11 shows that in almost all provinces in 2019/20, males were more likely than females to have been assaulted. The Western Cape had the highest percentage share of female victims (58,5%), followed by Limpopo (51,5%) and KwaZulu-Natal (45,1%).

Figure 5.12: Percentage of victims of assault (16 years and older) by age, 2019/20

Source: GPSJS 2019/20

Figure 5.12 shows the percentage of victims of assault aged 16 years and older in 2019/20. According to this figure, youth (16–34 years) accounted for nearly 65% of all assault victims aged 16 years and older.

Figure 5.13: Percentage of victims of assault by age and province, 2019/20

Source: GPSJS 2019/20

Figure 5.13 provides the percentage of victims of assault by province and age. In 2019/20, young people (16–34 years) living in all nine provinces constituted a higher percentage of victims of assault. When compared to their adult counterparts, youth from Gauteng, the Eastern Cape, Mpumalanga, the Free State, and the Western Cape had a larger percentage of individuals who reported being assaulted among those reporting assault crimes.

5.4.2 Robbery

The section examines data relating to victims of robbery crimes between 2013/14 and 2019/20.

Table 5.4: Victims of robbery by age and sex, 2013/14 and 2019/20

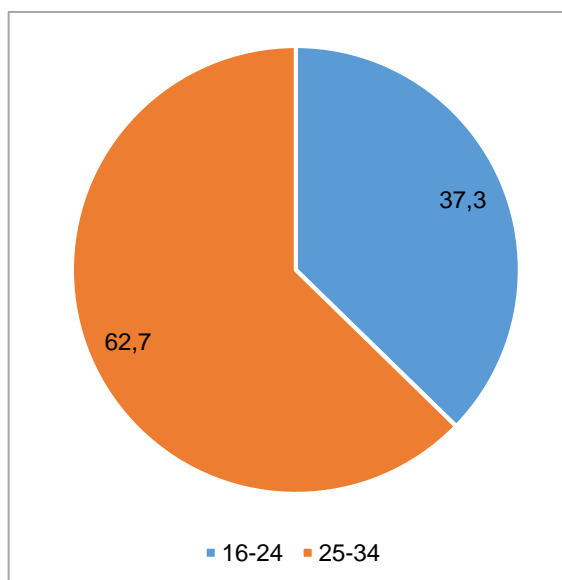
Victims of robbery	2013/14						
	Male		Female		Total		Total
	16–34	35+	16–34	35+	16–34	35+	
	N'(000)						
Yes	197	212	201	193	397	404	801
No	6 882	9 658	7 693	10 258	14 575	19 916	34 491
Total	7 079	9 869	7 893	10 451	14 973	20 320	35 293
Yes* (Percent)	24,6	26,5	25,1	24,1	49,6	50,4	100,0
	2019/20						
Yes	360	268	325	156	685	424	1 109
No	9 412	9 378	9 442	10 930	18 854	20 308	39 162
Total	9 772	9 646	9 767	11 086	19 539	20 732	40 271
Yes* (Percent)	32,5	24,2	29,3	14,1	61,8	38,2	100,0

Source: VOCS 2013/14, GPSJS 2019/20

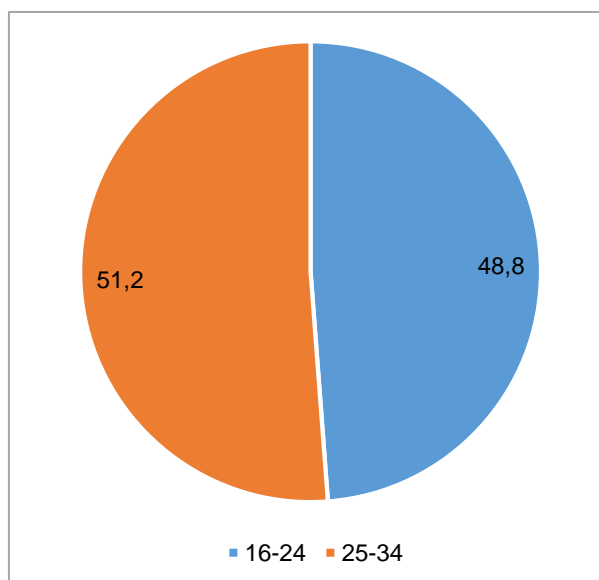
Table 5.4 shows that the percentage of people who were victims of robbery increased by half a percentage point between 2013/14 and 2019/20 (from 2,3% in 2013/14 to 2,8% in 2019/20). Between 2013/14 and 2019/20, the proportion of young people who were victims of robbery crimes increased by more than 12% (from 49,6 percent to 61,8 percent). Furthermore, the analysis revealed marked gender differences, with young females being more likely to be victims of robbery crimes in 2013/14. During the reporting period, both males and females saw large increases in the proportion of young people who were robbed. Males, on the other hand, saw the largest increase of nearly 8% (from 24,6% in 2013/14 to 32,5% in 2019/20), while females saw an increase of slightly more than 4% (from 25,1% in 2013/14 to 29,3% in 2019/20). It is worth noting that in both years, young females were more likely than adult females to be victims of robbery crimes, whereas males were the opposite.

Figure 5.14: Percentage of youth who experienced robbery crimes by age, 2013/14 and 2019/20

2013/14



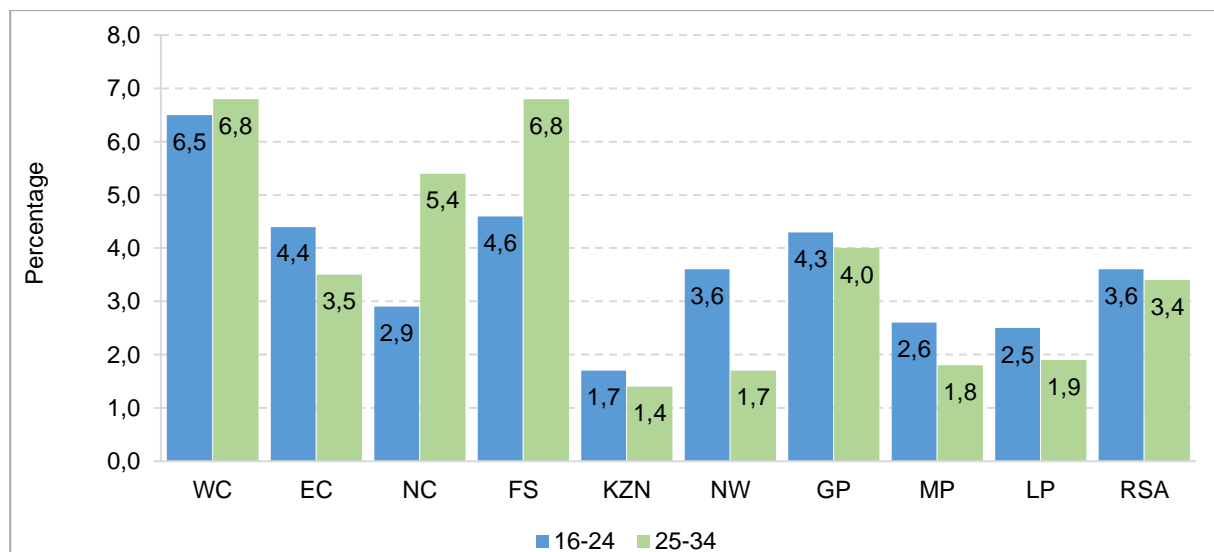
2019/20



Source: VOCS 2013/14, GPSJS 2019/20

Figure 5.14 shows that a higher proportion of young victims of robbery were between the ages of 25–34 in both years. However, there was a notable increase of nearly 12% (from 37,3% in 2013/14 to 48,8% in 2019/20) in the proportion of victims of robbery among the age 16–24 years, while older youth (25–34 years) experienced a decline of the equivalent percentage in the proportion of victims of robbery crimes.

Figure 5.15: Percentage of youth who experienced robbery crimes by province and age, 2019/20

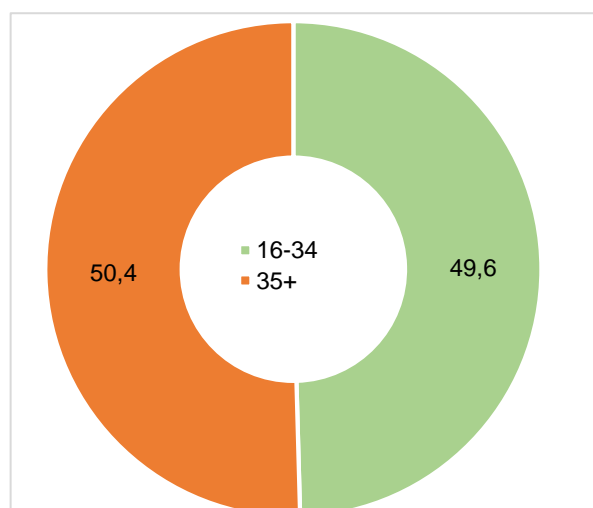


Source: GPSJS 2019/20

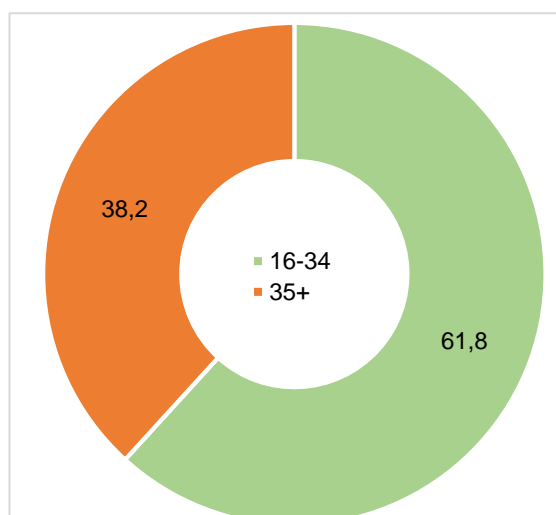
Figure 5.15 shows that in the Western Cape, youth were the most likely to be robbed. In 2019/20, the difference between older and younger victims of robbery crimes was more pronounced in the Free State and Northern Cape, where older youth (those aged 25–34 years) were more likely to be victims of robbery than their younger counterparts. Younger youth (16–24 years old) experienced notable differences in the Eastern Cape and North West, where they were more likely to be victims of robberies than their older counterparts.

Figure 5.16: Percentage of persons aged 16 years and older who experienced robbery crimes by age, 2013/14 and 2019/20

2013/14



2019/20



Source: VOCS 2013/14, GPSJS 2019/20

Figure 5.16 depicts the share of youth (16–34 years) amongst all reported cases of victims of robbery for persons 16 years and older. Between 2013/14 and 2019/20, the proportion of youth victims of robbery increased by more than 12% (from 49,6% in 2013/14 to 61,8% in 2019/20).

5.4.3 Property theft

The analysis below focuses on crimes relating to property theft. Similar to crimes discussed above, respondents in this section were asked to indicate if they had experienced property theft during the past five years from the date of the interview.

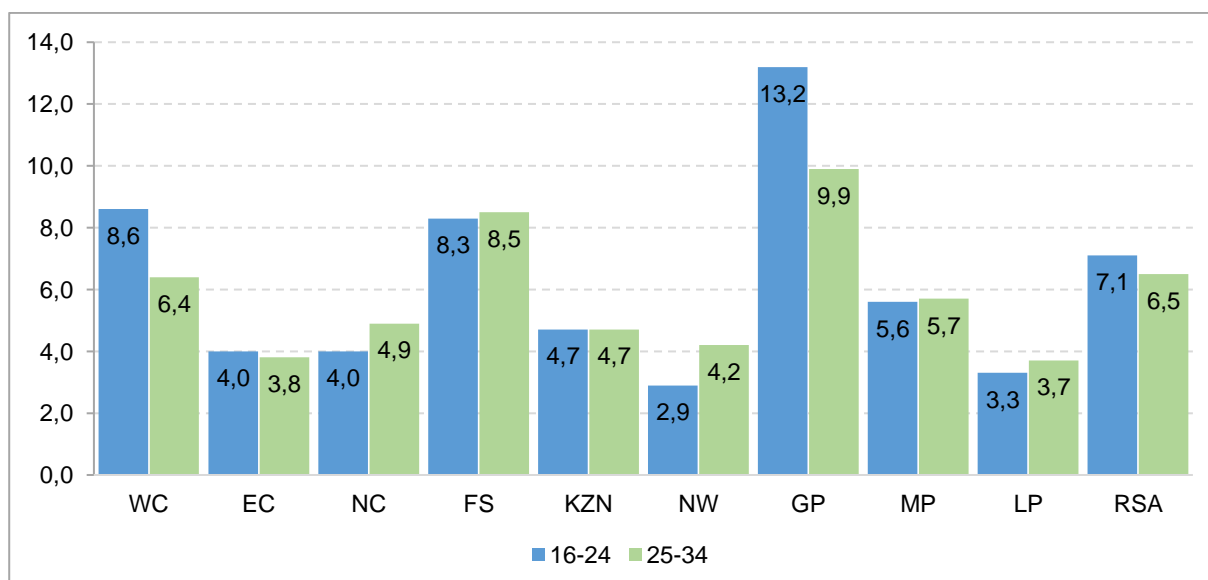
Table 5.5: Victims of property theft by age and sex, 2013/14 and 2019/20

Victims of property theft	2013/14						
	Male		Female		Total		Total
	16–34	35+	16–34	35+	16–34	35+	
	N'(000)						
Yes	515	560	548	548	1 062	1 109	2 171
No	6 567	9 332	7 380	9 916	13 948	19 248	33 196
Total	7 082	9 892	7 928	10 465	15 010	20 357	35 367
Yes*Percent	23,7	25,8	25,2	25,2	48,9	51,1	100,0
	2019/20						
Yes	709	514	618	558	1 328	1 072	2 400
No	9 063	9 132	9 148	10 527	18 211	19 660	37 871
Total	9 772	9 646	9 767	11 086	19 539	20 732	40 271
Yes*Percent	29,5	21,4	25,8	23,3	55,3	44,7	100,0

Source: VOCS 2013/14, GPSJS 2019/20

The percentage of victims of property theft decreased slightly in 2019/20. In 2013/14, 6,1% of South Africans aged 16 years and older were victims of property theft. This figure, however, dropped by 0,1 of a percentage point to 6,0% in 2019/20. Again, as with the analysis of assault and robbery, young people aged 16–34 years were more likely than adults to report being victims of property theft, particularly in 2019/20. Similarly to the reports on assault and robbery, where the proportion of young victims increased over the seven-year reporting period, an increase of 6,4 percentage points was observed among young victims of property theft (from 48,9% in 2013/14 to 55,3% in 2019/20).

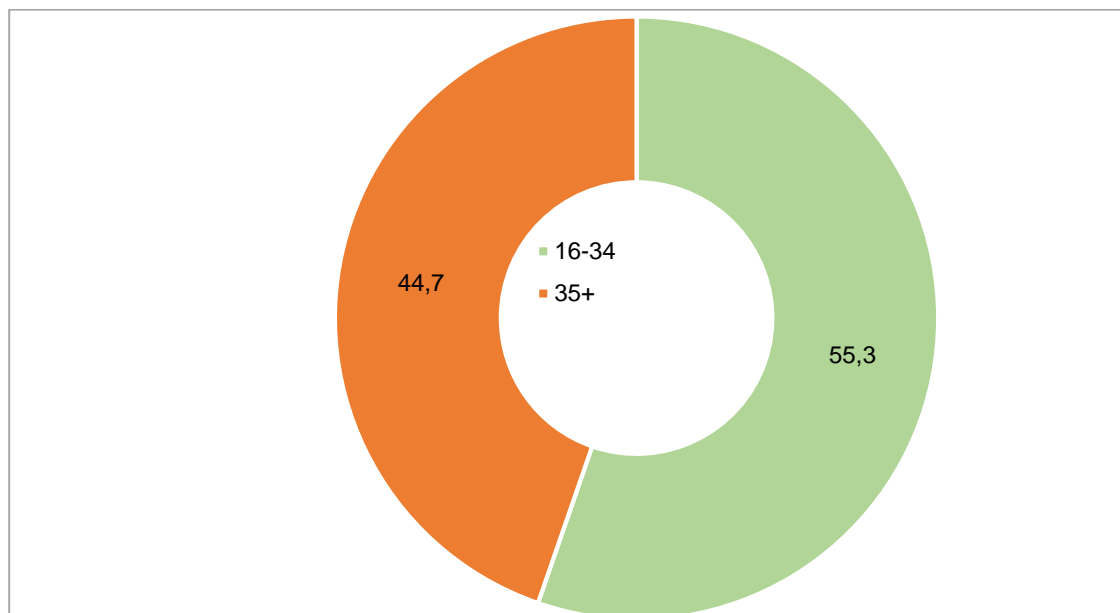
Figure 5.17: Percentage of youth who experienced property theft crimes by province and age, 2019/20



Source: GPSJS 2019/20

Figure 5.17 depicts variations in property theft experiences among youth in 2019/20. Property theft was more common among younger youth aged 16–24 years in Gauteng and the Western Cape. In contrast, victims of property theft-related crimes were more likely to be older (aged 25–34 years), particularly in North West, Northern Cape, and Limpopo. Provinces such as Free State, Mpumalanga, and the Eastern Cape had almost no differences between the two age groups, while KwaZulu-Natal had an equal distribution of both younger and older youth who were victims of property theft-related crimes.

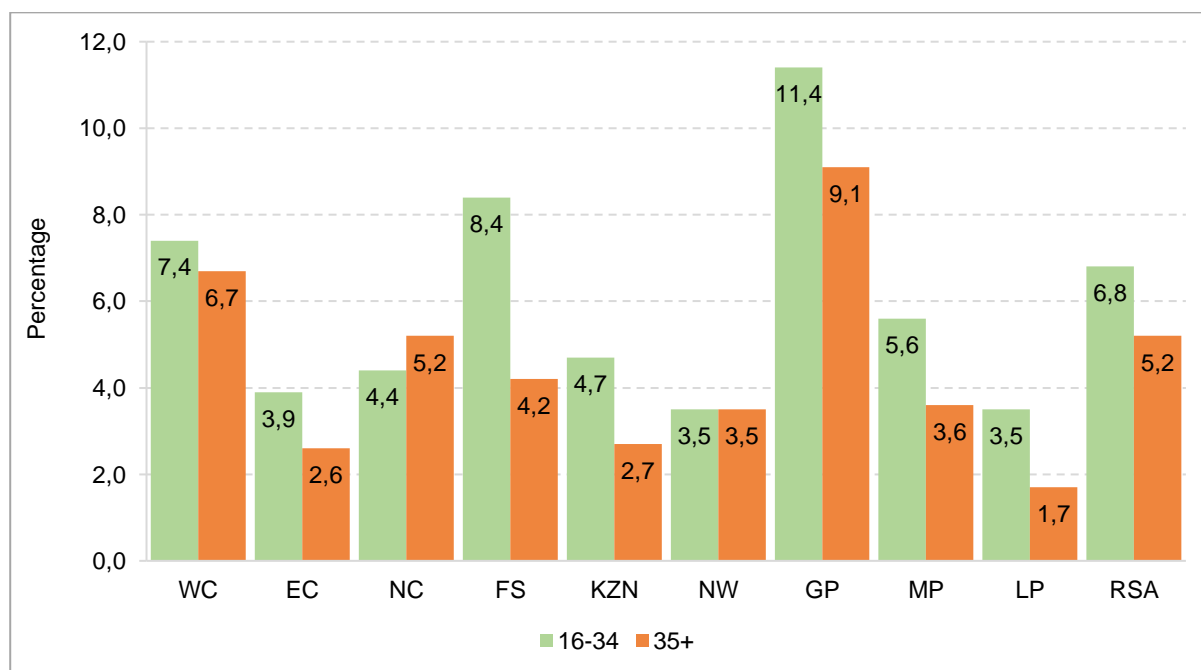
Figure 5.18: Percentage of victims of property theft by age (16 years and older), 2019/20



Source: GPSJS 2019/20

Figure 5.18 reflects a similar trend observed in the two previous crimes discussed in this chapter (assault and robbery). In 2019/20, youth (aged 16–34) were overrepresented among those aged 16 and older who reported property theft experiences.

Figure 5.19: Percentage of victims of property theft by age and province, 2019/20



Source: GPSJS 2019/20

Figure 5.19 depicts the percentage of victims of property theft crimes by province and age. On a national level, in 2019/20, a higher proportion of youth than adult population reported being victims of property theft-related crimes.

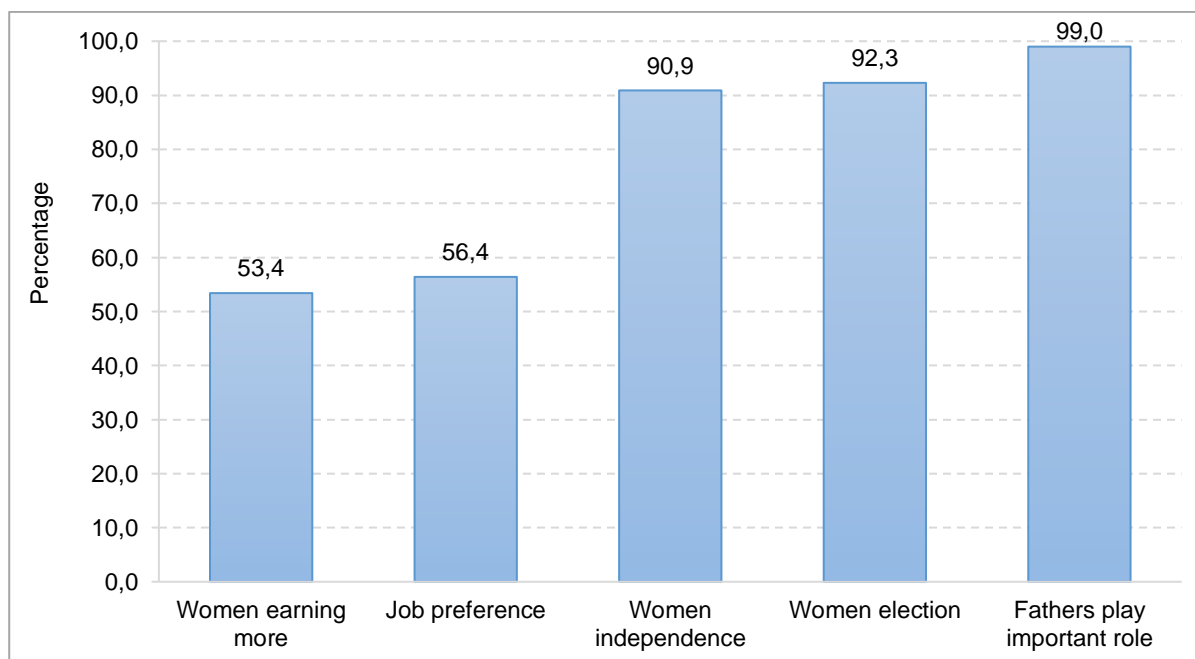
Provincial differences revealed that in 2019/20, youth (16–34 years) reported being victims of property theft crimes in seven of the nine provinces, with Gauteng and Free State having the highest percentage among those reporting property theft crimes. The North West province had an equal distribution of victims of property theft, whereas the Northern Cape is the only province with a higher proportion of those aged 35 years and older who reported being victims of property theft crimes.

5.5 General perceptions of youth in relation to gender norms and societal issues

The Sustainable Development Agenda 2030 acknowledges that women and girls must enjoy equal access to quality education, economic resources and political participation as well as equal opportunities with men and boys for employment, leadership and decision-making at all levels²⁰. South African society is traditionally patriarchal, with men holding positions of authority and women viewed as subordinate to men²¹. Women have customarily been domestic and subservient to men, responsible for raising children as well as the well-being, feeding, and caring of the family. However, the government has made strides in redressing discrimination against women and girls by enacting laws such as the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act of 2000 and signing regional and global agreements that advance women's rights. It is critical to understand how young citizens perceive gender norms imposed by society and inequality issues in order to assess the impact of the work done by various stakeholders, including the government, in educating and sensitizing people about the importance of respecting the rights of all citizens, including women.

The Governance, Public Safety, and Justice Survey (GPSJS 2020/21) included questions about individuals' general perceptions of gender equality and societal issues. Data on perceptions was collated using a Likert scale, with responses ranging from strongly agreeing to strongly disagreeing with a statement. The analysis combined "strongly agree and agree" to form a group of citizens who agreed with a given statement, while "disagree and strongly disagree" formed a group of citizens who disagreed.

Figure 5.20: Youth perceptions on gender roles and equality, 2020/21



Source: GPSJS 2020/21

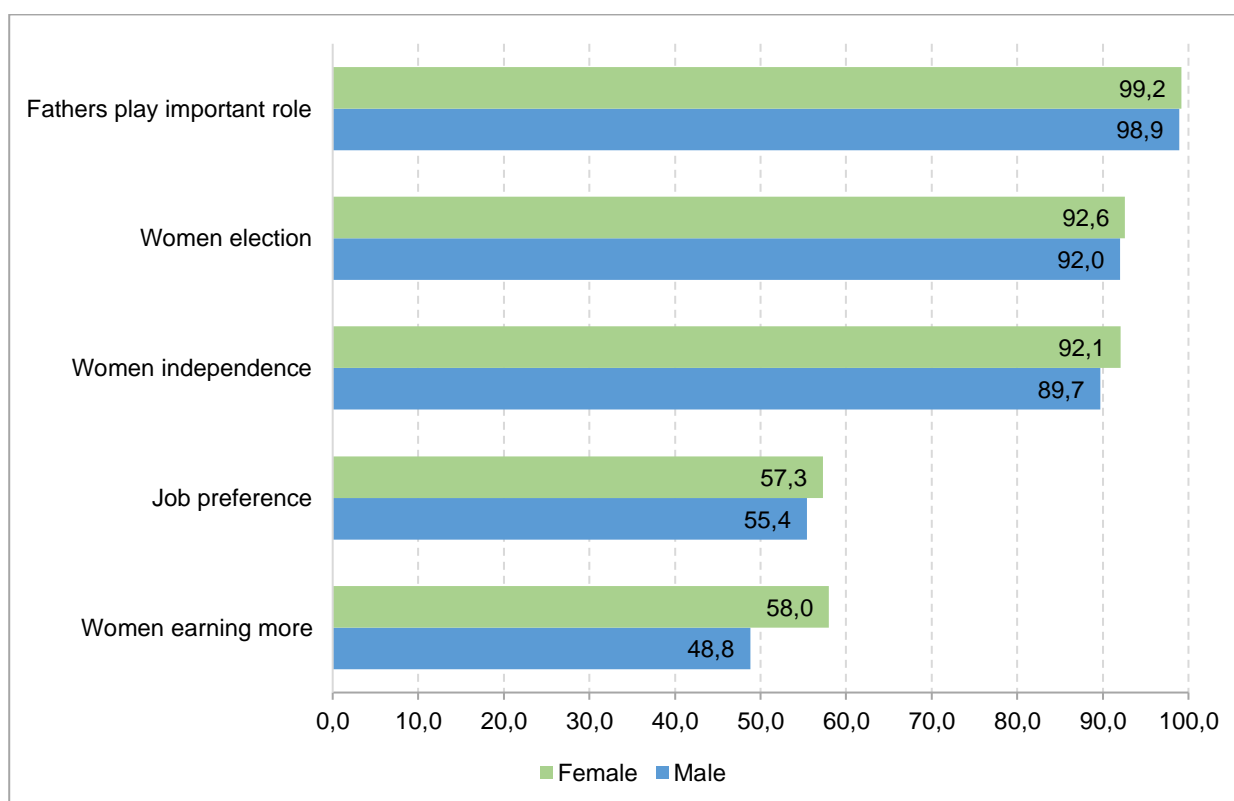
²⁰ United Nations, General Assembly, 2015b

²¹ <https://www.sahistory.org.za/article/history-womens-struggle-south-africa>

The analysis in Figures 5.20 to 5.22 is centered on five statements: "women should have the same chance as men of being elected to political office", "fathers should play a role in raising children", "when jobs are scarce, employers should give preference to women over men when filling posts", "if a woman earns more money than her man, it is almost certain to cause problems", and "having an income is the best way for a woman to be independent".

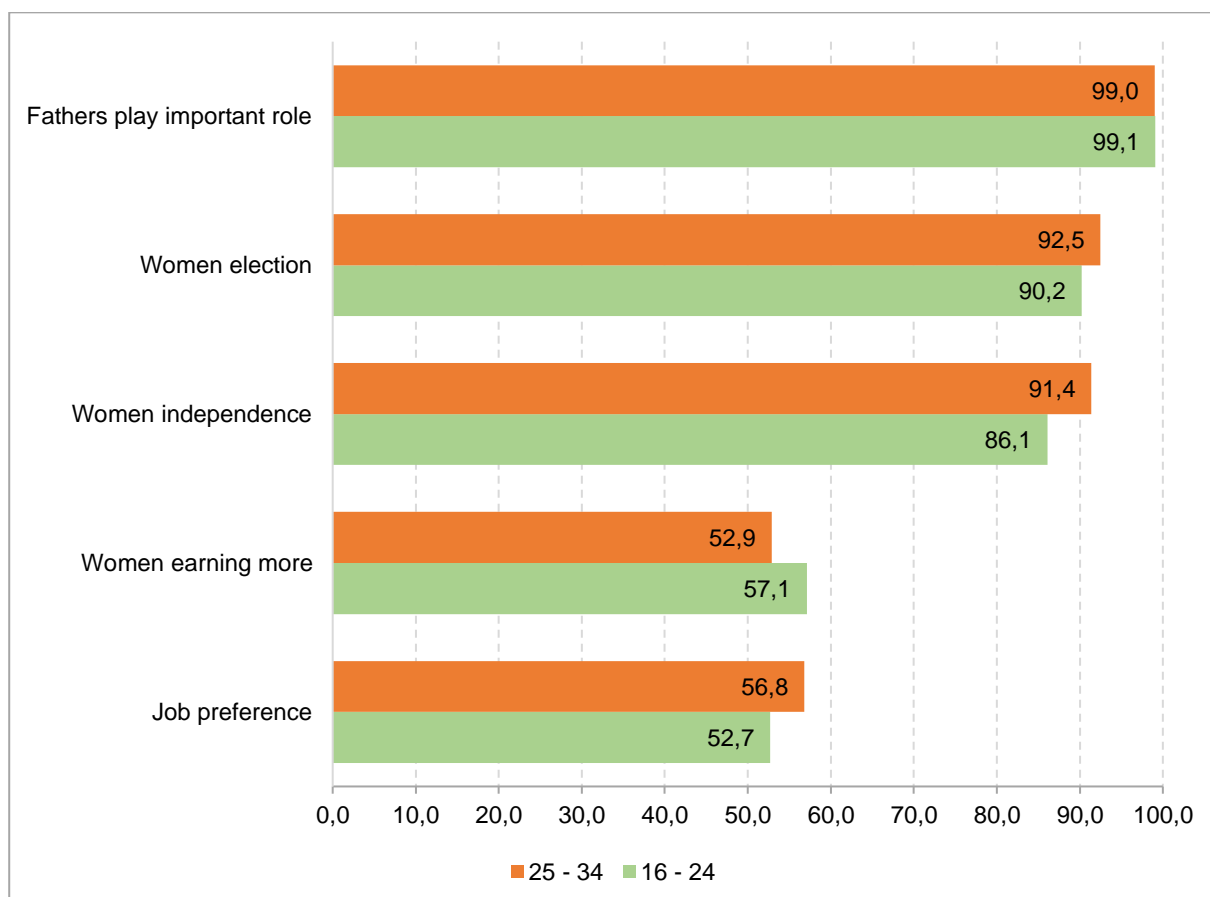
According to Figure 5.20, 99% of young people agreed that fathers should play a role in raising children, followed by a statement that women should have the same chance as men of being elected to political office (92,3%), and having an income as the best way for a woman to be an independent person (90,9%). On the contrary, young people did not believe that when jobs are scarce, employers should give women preference over men when filling posts, with only 56,4% of youth agreeing with this statement. Furthermore, when compared to the other statements mentioned, only 53,4% of youth agreed with the statement that when a woman earns more money than her man, it is almost certain to cause problems. These findings suggest that the country is progressively realising and embracing the roles of both men and women in various aspects of society without prejudice, in order to address gender inequality and women's empowerment.

Figure 5.21: Youth perceptions on gender roles and equality by sex, 2020/21



Source: GPSJS 2020/21

Figure 5.21 depicts a pattern similar to the national picture depicted in Figure 5.20. A higher proportion of youth agreed that fathers should play a role in raising children, that women should have the same chance as men to be elected to political office; and that having an income is the best way for a woman to be an independent person. In the first two statements, there were almost no gender differences. However, when it comes to women's independence, a higher proportion of young females than males agreed that having an income would be the best way for a woman to be independent, by a margin of 2,4 percentage points. Similarly, young women believed in the issue of job preference more than their male counterparts, recording 1,9 percentage points higher than males. The largest gender gap was found on the statement that when a woman earns more than her man, it is almost certain to cause problems, with a higher proportion of young females (9,2 percentage points) agreeing with this statement than males.

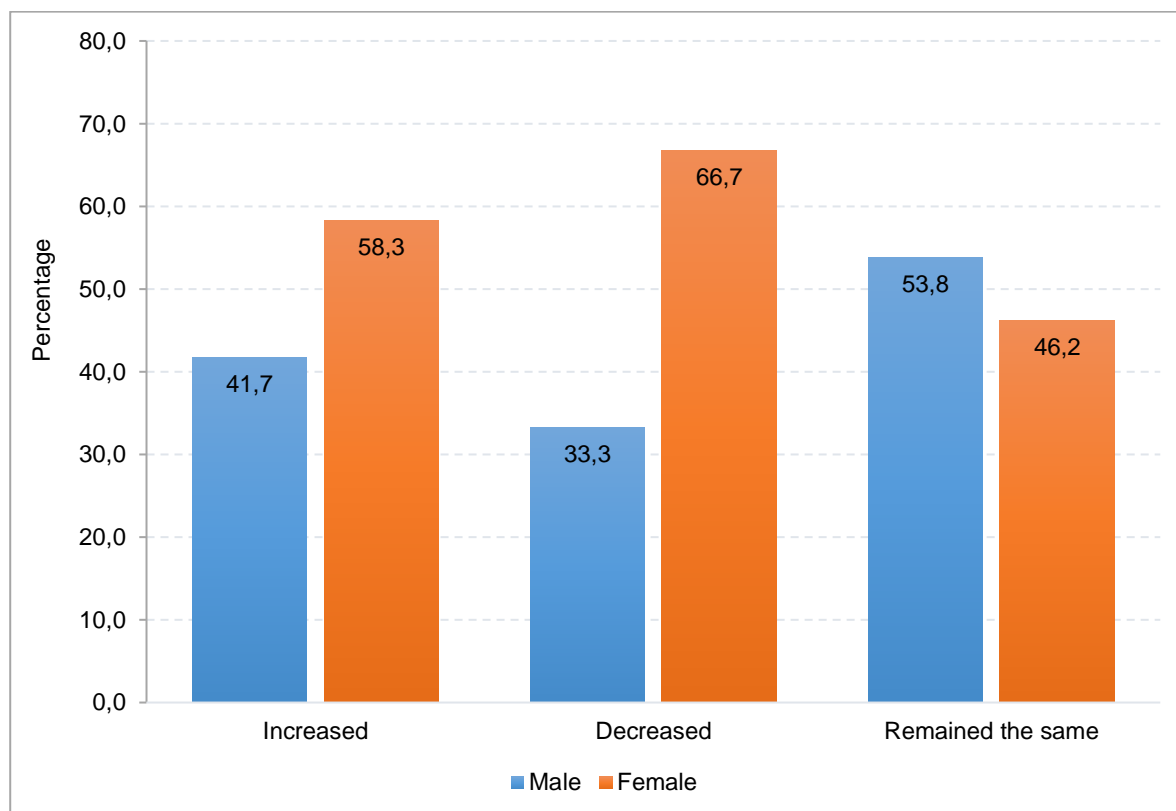
Figure 5.22: Youth perceptions on gender roles and equality by age, 2020/21

Source: GPSJS 2020/21

The findings in Figure 5.22 differ slightly from those depicted in Figures 5.20 and 5.21 in terms of the ranking of the five statements under analysis, job preference, and that when a woman earns more than her man, it is almost certain to cause problems, resulting in a different pattern when compared to Figures 5.20 and 5.21.

The age differences were more pronounced in the statements that having an income is the best way for a woman to be independent, that when a woman earns more than her man, it is almost certain to cause problems and that when jobs are scarce, employers should give preference to women over men when filling posts. Over 90% of older youth (those aged 25–34 years) agreed that having an income would be the best way for a woman to be independent, which was 5,3 percentage points higher than the percentage observed among younger youth (those aged 16–24 years). Over 57% of younger youth agreed with the statement that when a woman earns more than her man, it is almost certain to cause problems, which was 4,2 percentage points higher than the percentage observed for older youth. Moreover, a lower proportion of younger youth than older youth agreed with the statement of job preference for women, which was 4,1 percentage points lower than the percentage observed for the older youth.

Figure 5.23: Percentage of youth by whether GBV has increased, decreased or remained the same in their area, 2020/21

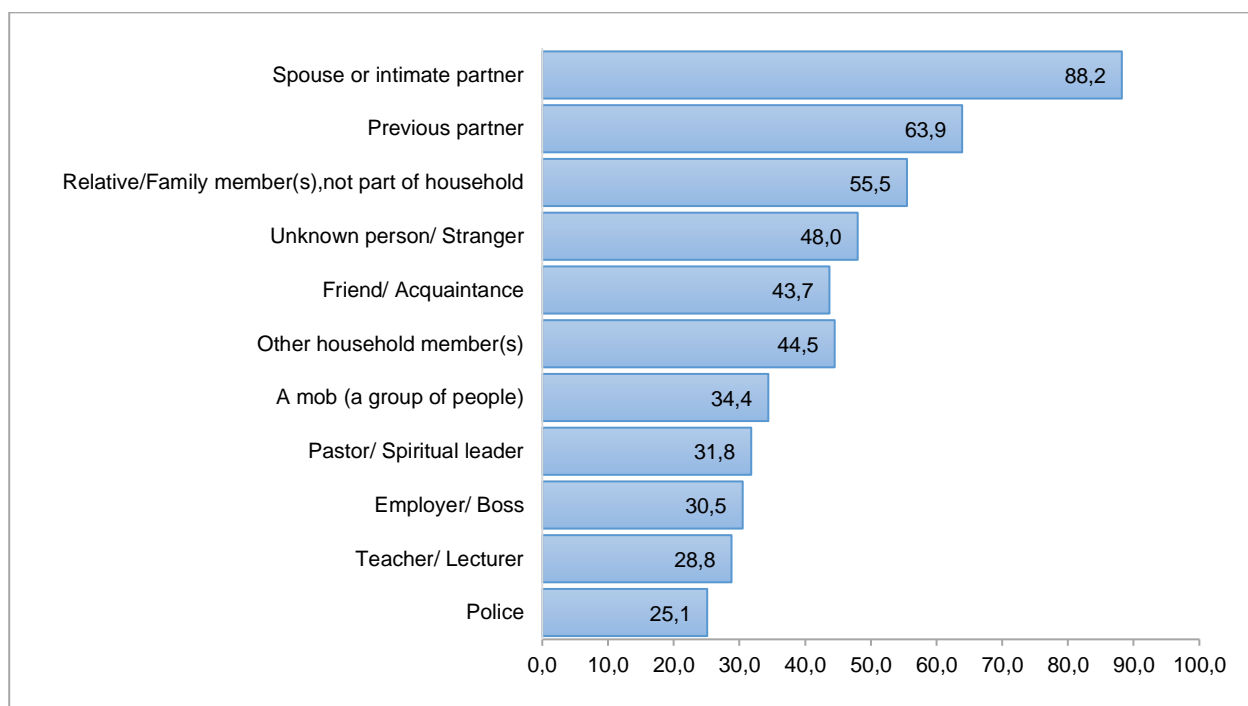


Source: GPSJS 2020/21

The National Strategic Plan on Gender-Based Violence (GBV) defines gender-based violence as violence that occurs as a result of normative role expectations associated with the gender associated with the sex assigned to a person at birth, as well as unequal power relations between the genders, within the context of a specific society. South Africa is characterised by high levels of gender-based violence, but there is a dearth of scientific data to measure the extent of this problem in the communities.

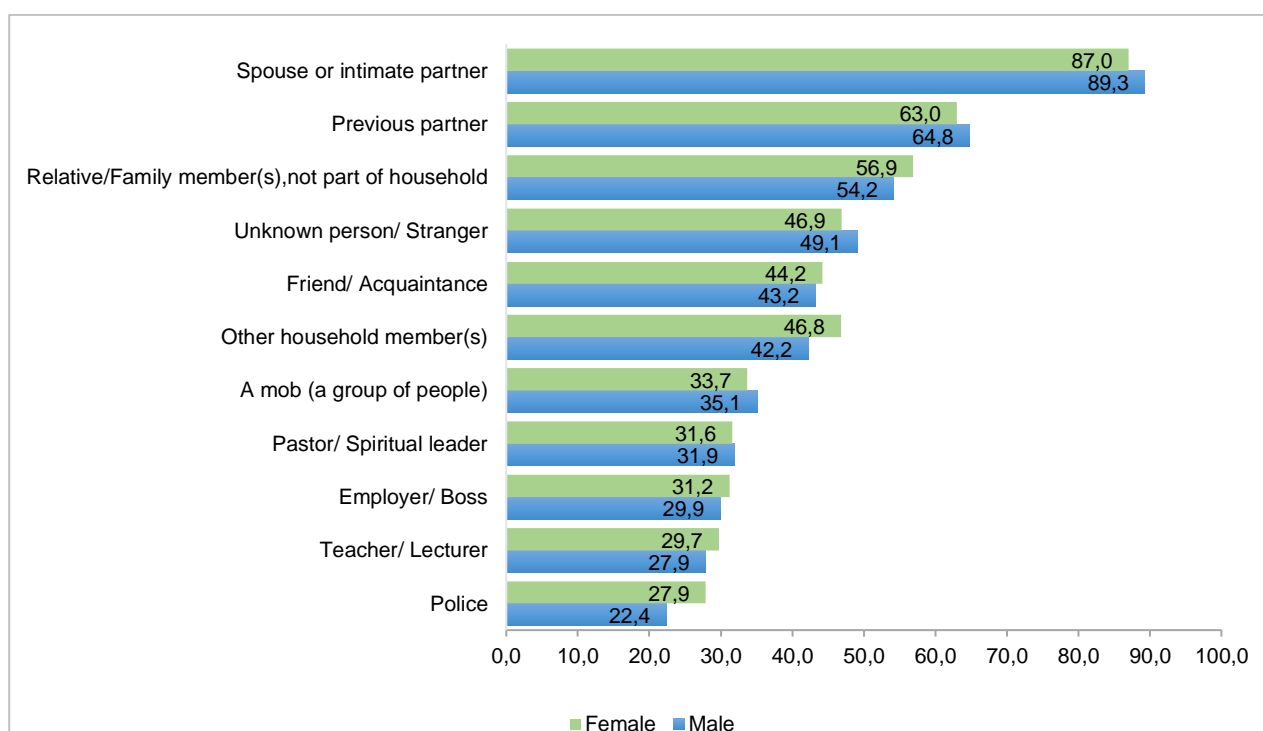
The Governance, Public Safety, and Justice Survey (GPSJS 2020/21) included questions about individuals' general perceptions of gender-based violence, including whether the status quo is improving or deteriorating further.

Figure 5.23 depicts findings from youth perceptions of what they believe is happening in relation to GBV issues by sex. The proportion of young females was higher among those who believed GBV incidences had increased, and even higher among those who believed GBV incidences had decreased (66,7% for females vs 33,3% for males). On the other hand, young males constituted a higher proportion of those who believed that GBV incidences had remained the same.

Figure 5.24: Percentage of youth by whom they think commits the most acts of GBV, 2020/21

Source: GPSJS 2020/21

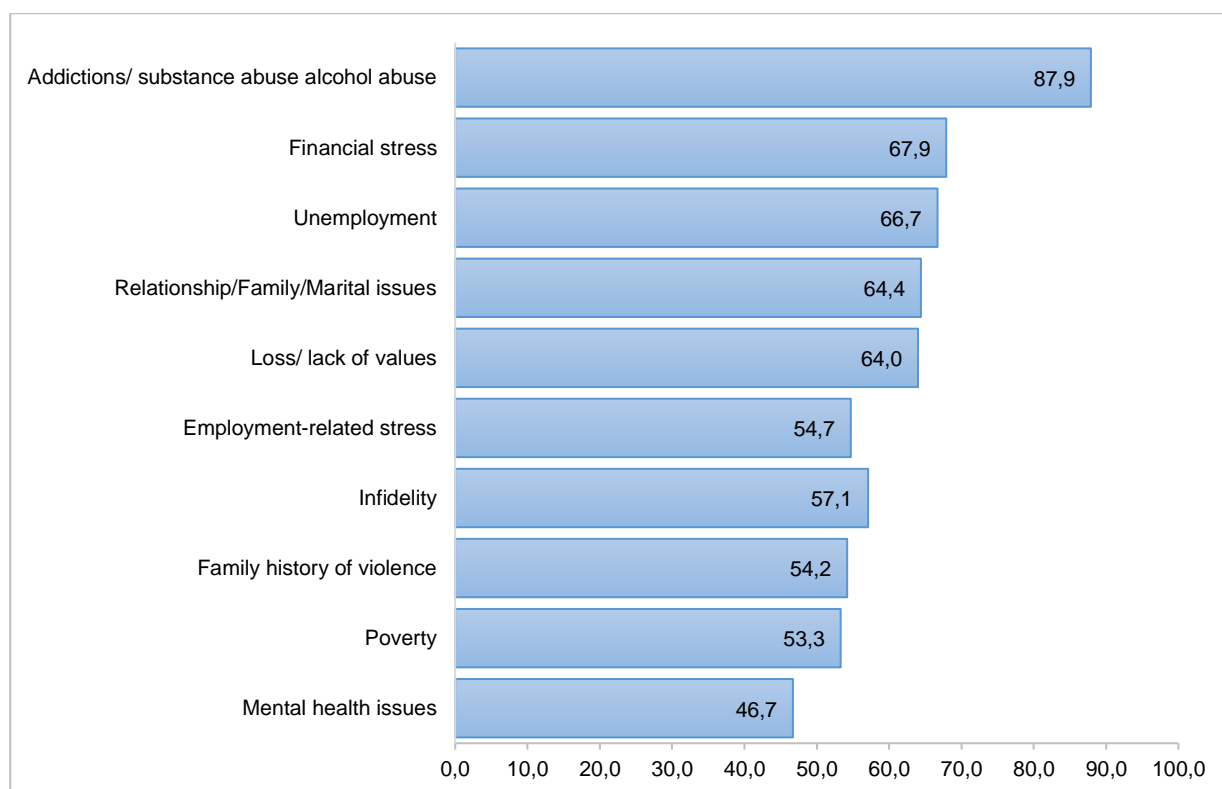
Figure 5.24 depicts an analysis of youth perceptions of who they believe committed the most acts of GBV in 2020/21. According to the findings, a higher proportion of youth believed the perpetrators of GBV were spouses or intimate partners (88,2%), followed by a previous partner (63,9%), and a relative or family member(s) who were not part of the household (55,5%). Despite the fact that police were ranked lower than all other perceived perpetrators, slightly more than a quarter (25,1%) of young people believed that police were the perpetrators of GBV.

Figure 5.25: Percentage of youth by whom they think commits the most acts of GBV by sex, 2020/21

Source: GPSJS 2020/21

Figure 5.25 examines gender differences in youth perceptions of who committed the most GBV acts in 2020/21. There were noticeable gender differences in who young people believed had committed the most acts of GBV, though the pattern resembled Figure 5.24. Young males were 2,3 percentage points more likely than young females to believe the perpetrators were spouses or intimate partners (89,3% for males vs 87,0% for females). A similar pattern emerged, with a higher proportion of males indicating that previous partners were the second most perceived perpetrators of GBV. On the contrary, a higher proportion of young females believed that perpetrators were relatives or family members who were not part of the households, which was 2,7 percentage points higher than the percentage observed for young males (56,9% for females vs 54,2% for males). Despite the fact that police remained the least perceived perpetrators even when analysis was done through a gender lens, a higher proportion of females than males believed that police were the perpetrators of GBV, by a margin of nearly 6% (5,5 percentage points).

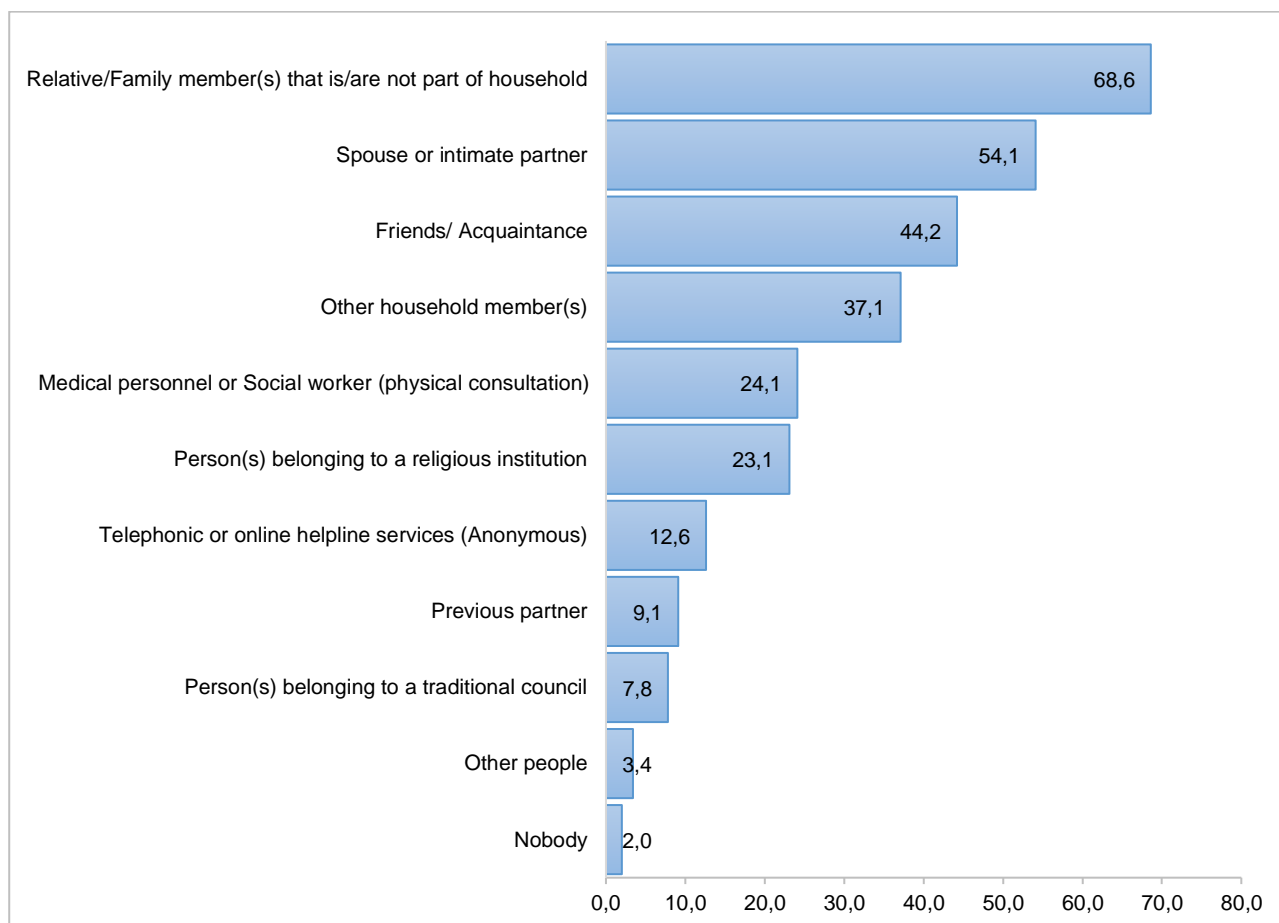
Figure 5.26: Percentage of youth by what they think causes violence against women and children, 2020/21



Source: GPSJS 2020/21

In general, a higher percentage of youth believed in all of the reasons presented in Figure 5.26 as potential triggers of violence against women and children, with the exception of mental health issues, which had the lowest percentage of youth believing it could be the cause. According to the analysis, the top five causes of violence against women and children were addictions or substance abuse, financial stress, unemployment, relationship/family/marital issues, and a lack of values.

Figure 5.27: Percentage of youth by whom they confide in when they have personal or family problems, 2020/21



Source: GPSJS 2020/21

Figure 5.27 depicts the percentage of youth by whom they confided in when they were having personal or family problems in 2020/21. When they were having problems, the majority of young people said they confided in relatives or family members who were not part of their households. A little more than 54% of youth said they had confided in a spouse or an intimate partner about their problems. As shown in the figure above, youth with no one to confide in accounted for 2%, the lowest of all available options.

5.6 Conclusion

Young people have demonstrated trust deficit with certain government and public institutions, particularly those that attained below 70% of youth that trusted them in 2019/20, with local government (59,5%) obtaining the lowest percentage. Youth in rural areas trusted government and public institutions more than youth in urban areas, with the largest trust gap in parliament, where youth in rural areas outnumbered youth in urban areas by 15,9 percentage points (76,2% for youth from rural areas vs 60,3% for youth in urban areas). Youth trust levels in government spheres varied, with youth in the Western Cape and Gauteng trusting their provincial governments more than national governments.

The analysis of levels of satisfaction with the quality of service provided by various government and public institutions revealed that youth were the least satisfied with the quality of service provided by public housing services (RDP houses, subsidised houses).

The analysis of feelings of safety showed a decrease in the number of provinces where young people felt safe during the day, with the Western Cape and Eastern Cape recording the largest decreases compared to the other two provinces that also observed decreases (Mpumalanga and Gauteng). Young people (16–34 years) were more likely than adults to be victims of assault, robbery, and property theft crimes.

An analysis of individuals' general perceptions of gender equality and societal issues revealed that 99% of youth agreed that fathers should play a role in raising children, that women should have the same chance as men of being elected to political office (92,3%), and that having an income would be the best way for a woman to be independent (90,9%). According to youth perceptions of gender-based violence (GBV), the proportion of young females was higher among those who thought GBV incidences had increased, and even higher among those who thought GBV incidences had decreased. Furthermore, youth believed that perpetrators of GBV were spouses or intimate partners, a previous partner, and a relative or family member(s) who were not part of the household.

CHAPTER 6: MORBIDITY AND MORTALITY

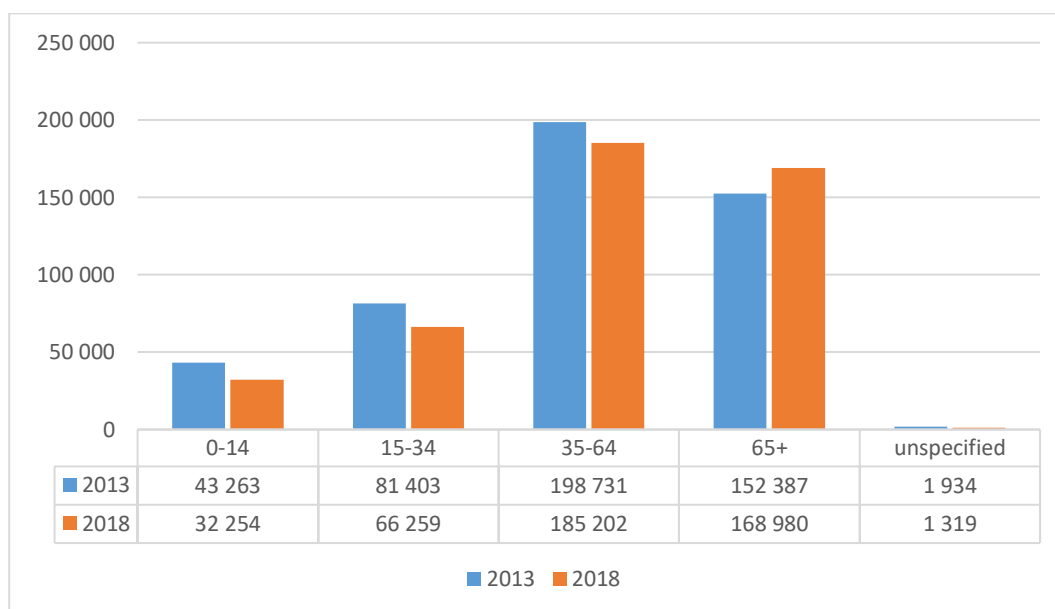
6.0 Background

Youth face greater health risks around the world, including physical and psychological trauma from sexual abuse, gender-based violence, other forms of accident and diseases in general²². According to N de Wet-Billings (2021), Non Communicable Diseases (NCDs) cause premature mortality among youth – these include diseases such as strokes, heart diseases, cancer, diabetes and chronic kidneys just to mention the few. This publication further suggests that younger youth, those aged 15–24 years are becoming more susceptible to Non Communicable Diseases as a result of their exposure to cheap fast foods and inactive lifestyles, which puts them at risk of lifestyle diseases such as obesity and diabetes. Poverty, unemployment, and a lack of access to quality education increase the risk of high blood pressure and coronary heart disease among young people in low- and middle-income countries²³. South Africa, as a middle-income country, is not immune to the stress-induced lifestyle diseases that are prevalent among young people.

This chapter looks at trends in the causes of death among youth using the data in respect of deaths that occurred during the years 2013 and 2018. Comparisons are, however, made initially with those in the 0–14, 35–64, and 65 and older age groups. Analysis of leading causes of death among the youth is also presented. Various comparisons are made between the sexes of the deceased.

6.1 Death occurrence

Figure 6.1: Total number of deaths by age groups, 2013 and 2018



Source: Causes of death, 2013, 2018

Figure 6.1 compares the number of deaths that occurred by age group focusing on the children, youth, adults and elderly in 2013 and 2018, respectively. The figure reveals that most deaths occurred amongst those aged 35–64 years followed by the deaths were more prevalent for those aged 65 or more over the two years. Deaths that occurred among those aged 15–34 were the third highest on both years.

²² Statistics South Africa, 2013. Morbidity and mortality patterns among the youth of South Africa, Report 03-09-12

²³ N de Wet-Billings, 2021. Preventable deaths among youth in South Africa: Measuring life expectancy in the absence of non-communicable diseases and its implications for the healthcare system

Table 7.1: Number of deaths by sex and age groups, 2013 and 2018

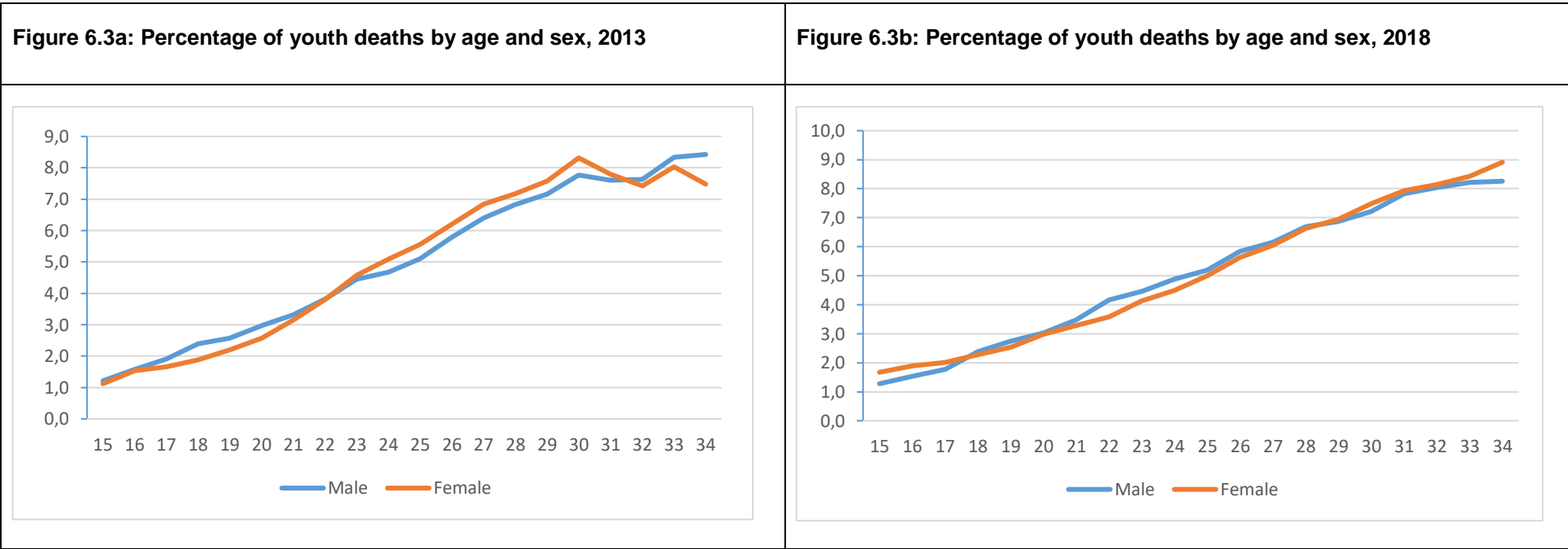
Age groups	2013						2018					
	N' (000)	Percent	Males	Percent	Females	Percent	N' (000)	Percent	Males	Percent	Females	Percent
0-14	42 663	9	22 872	9,2	19 791	8,8	31 966	7,1	17 440	7,3	14 526	6,8
15-34	81 008	17,1	43 948	17,7	37 060	16,4	65 952	14,6	40 031	16,8	25 921	12,1
35-64	198 223	41,8	115 878	46,7	82 345	36,5	184 731	40,9	107 665	45,3	77 066	36,1
65+	152 271	32,1	65 619	26,4	86 652	38,4	168 749	37,4	72 616	30,5	96 133	45,0
Total	474 165	100,0	248 317	100,0	225 848	100,0	451398	100,0	237 752	100,0	213 646	100,0

Source: Causes of death, 2013, 2018

Tables 6.1 show the number of deaths that occurred by age group and sex in 2013 and 2018, respectively. In 2013, 474 165 deaths were reported, with 248 317 male deaths and 225 848 female deaths. In 2018, the reported deaths decreased to 451 398, with 237 752 male deaths and 213 646 female deaths. The absolute total number of deaths for each age group also decreased with the youth deaths declined from 81 008 in 2013 to 65 952 in 2018. The youth made up 17,1% of all recorded deaths for 2013, and this percentage decreased to 14,6% in 2018.

Table 6.1 also shows that there were more male deaths than female deaths for all the age groups except for the 65 and older age group, where female deaths were higher than male deaths for both years. In 2013 and 2018, the age group 15–34 accounted for 17,7% and 16,8% of all male deaths, respectively. Females had a comparison rate of 16,4 per cent in 2013 and 12,1 per cent in 2018.

Figures 6.3a and 6.3b show the percentage of youth, out of all youth deaths, by age during 2013 and 2018, respectively. The figures show that the percentage of deaths increased progressively with age.



Source: Causes of death 2013, 2018

Figure 6.3.a.reveals that a higher percentage of males than females died between the ages 15 to 21 while the female deaths were higher than the males deaths from age 23 to 31 during 2013. Figure 6.3a and6.3b. shows that in 2018 a higher percentage of males than females died between the ages 18-28 except for the age 20 when female deaths and male deaths were the same.

6.2 Causes of death of youth (15 to 34 years)

Figure 6.2a: Most common broad underlying youth causes of death by sex, 2013

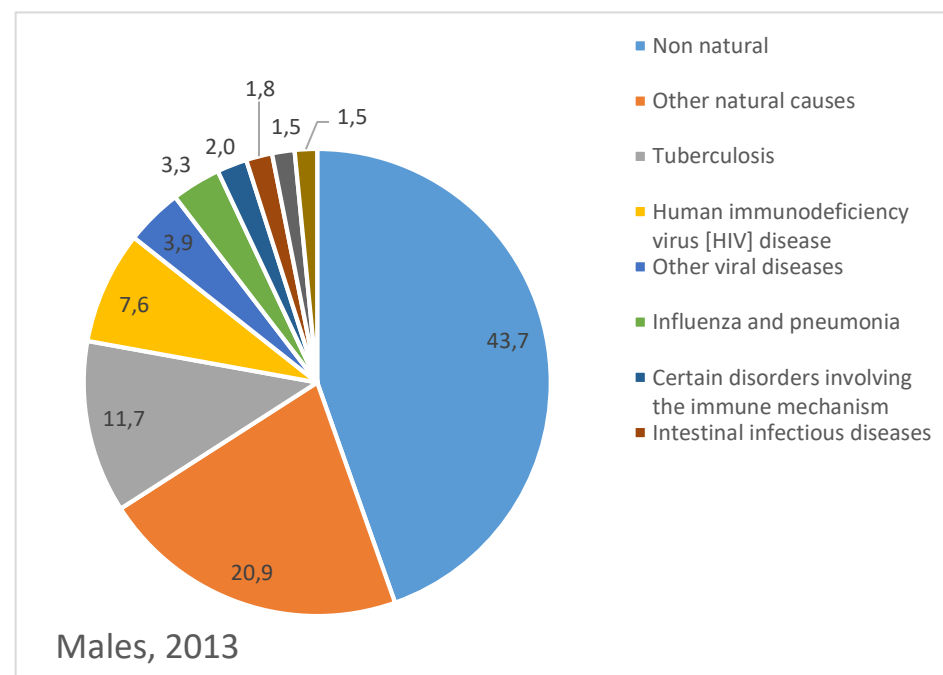
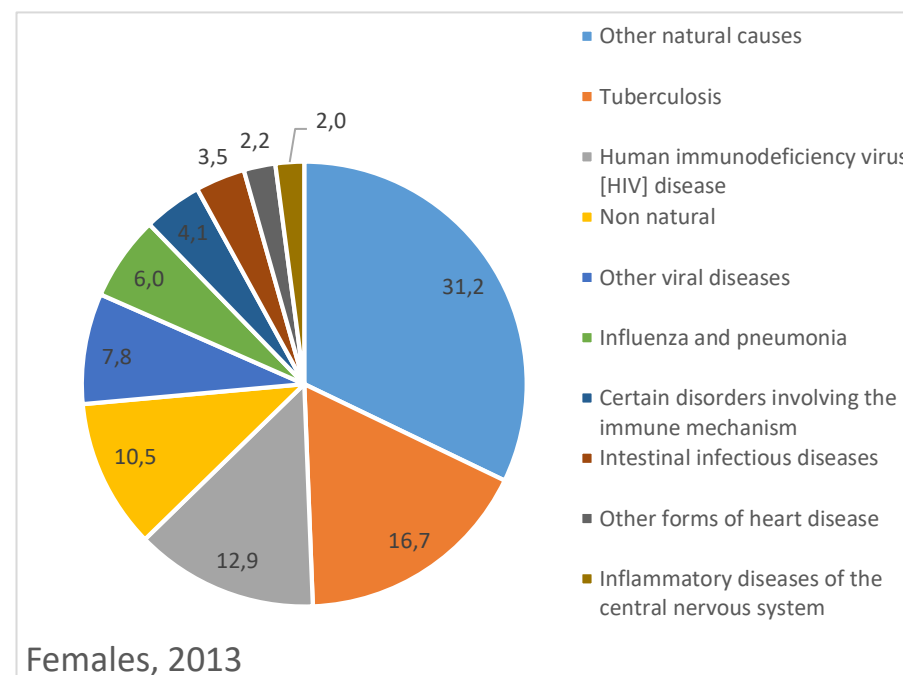


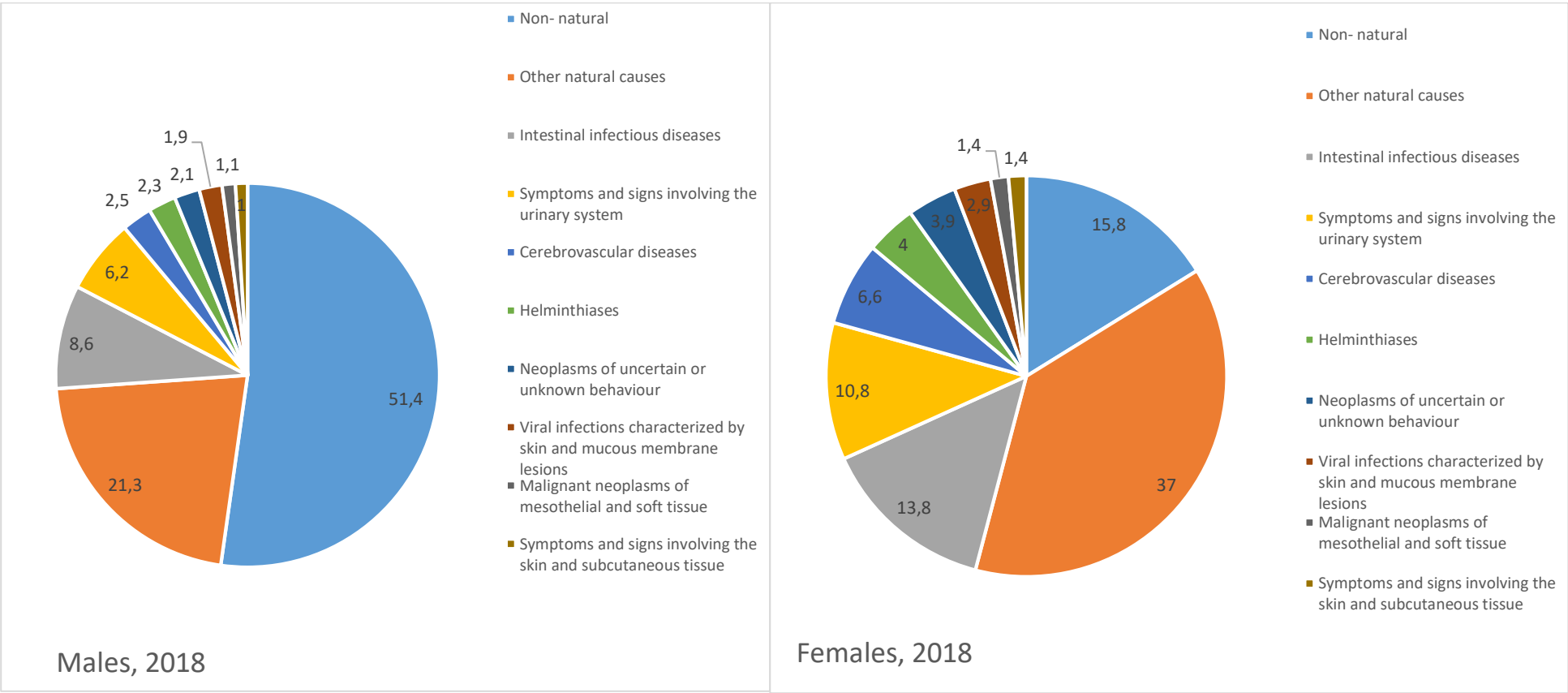
Figure 6.2b: Most common broad underlying youth causes of death by sex, 2018



Source: Causes of death 2013, Causes of death 2018

Figures 6.2a and 6.2b show the most common broad underlying causes of death by sex for 2013 and 2018. “Non-natural causes”, was a major cause of death for youth males during 2013 (representing 43,7% followed by other natural causes at 20,9% and Tuberculosis at 11,7%. The major cause of death for young females in 2013 was other natural causes representing 31,2 % of deaths followed by Tuberculosis at 16,7 % of deaths and HIV at 12,9%. In 2018, female youth were more likely than male youth to die of natural causes. Similarly, “non-natural causes”, was a major cause of death for young males in 2018, representing 51,4% of the recorded deaths followed by Other natural causes and Intestinal infectious diseases at 21,3% and 8,6%, respectively. For female youth, the main cause of death in 2018 remained other natural causes at 37% followed by Non-natural deaths and Intestinal infectious diseases at 15,8% and 13,8%, respectively.

Figure 6.2c: Most common broad underlying causes of death by sex, 2018



Source: Causes of death, 2018

Table 6.2: Youth: Main underlying causes of death by sex, 2013 and 2018

	Male	Female	Unspecified	Male	Female	Unspecified
Main group of underlying causes	2013			2018		
Certain infectious and parasitic diseases	27,1	44,7	30,6	19,6	36,3	19,9
Neoplasms	2,0	3,4	1,5	2,2	5,1	2,0
Diseases of the blood and immune mechanism	2,5	5,3	2,8	2,4	5,4	2,9
Endocrine, nutritional and metabolic diseases	1,1	1,5	0,5	1,0	1,8	0,3
Mental and behavioural disorders	0,1	0,1	0,0	0,5	0,2	0,7
Diseases of the nervous system	3,2	3,4	1,3	2,8	3,1	2,6
Diseases of the eye and adnexa	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Diseases of the ear and mastoid process	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,3
Diseases of the circulatory system	3,3	4,7	5,3	4,3	6,4	4,2
Diseases of the respiratory system	5,5	9,1	6,6	4,1	6,9	5,2
Diseases of the digestive system	2,0	2,5	1,5	1,9	2,8	2,9
Diseases of the skin and subcutaneous tissue	0,1	0,2	0,0	0,1	0,2	0,3
Diseases of the musculoskeletal system etc.	0,1	0,4	0,8	0,1	0,6	1,0
Diseases of the genitourinary system	1,0	1,4	0,8	1,1	1,7	1,6
Pregnancy, childbirth and puerperium	0,0	2,0	0,0	0,0	1,6	1,0
Congenital malformations	0,1	0,2	0,3	0,2	0,3	0,7
Symptoms and signs not elsewhere classified	8,2	10,7	13,9	8,1	11,9	12,4
External causes of morbidity and mortality	43,7	10,5	34,2	51,4	15,8	42,0
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Source: Causes of death, 2013, 2018

In 2013, around 43,7% of males died from morbidity and mortality external causes. This number increased to 51,4% in 2018, whereas only 10,5% and 15,8% of females died from this cause in 2013 and 2018 respectively. Infectious and parasitic diseases were the leading cause of death among females accounting 44,7 % in 2013 and 36,3% in 2018. However, infections and parasitic diseases accounted for 27,1% and 19,6% of males deaths in 2013 in 2018 respectively. The second highest cause of death for females in 2013 was found to be in respect of symptoms and signs not elsewhere classified at 10,7%. External causes of morbidity and mortality were the second leading cause of death for females in 2018, accounting for 15,8% of all deaths.

6.3 Certain infectious and parasitic diseases

This section discusses the top three most common causes of youth deaths, namely: “certain infectious and parasitic diseases”, “diseases of the respiratory system”, and “external causes of morbidity and mortality”. The analysis breaks down the underlying causes that are summarised under the heading of “certain infectious and parasitic diseases”.

Table 6.3: Certain infectious and parasitic diseases (youth 15–34) by sex, 2013 and 2018

Certain infectious and parasitic diseases	2013		2018	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Intestinal infectious diseases	6,5	7,8	4,3	3,6
Tuberculosis	43,1	37,5	43,8	32,5
Other bacterial diseases	2,4	2,5	0,0	0,0
Infections with a predominantly sexual mode of transmission	0,1	0,0	3,3	3,2
Other spirochaetal diseases	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,0
Rickettsioses	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Viral infections of the central nervous system	0,2	0,1	0,1	0,1
Arthropod borne viral fevers and viral haemorrhagic fevers	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Viral infections characterized by skin and mucous membrane lesions	0,2	0,2	0,1	0,1
Viral hepatitis	0,4	0,2	0,7	0,6
Human immunodeficiency virus [HIV] disease	28,2	28,9	31,5	37,9
Other viral diseases	14,2	17,5	13,0	18,2
Mycoses	1,2	1,1	1,1	1,1
Protozoal diseases	2,7	3,8	1,2	2,0
Helminthiasis	0,2	0,0	0,1	0,0
Pediculosis, acariasis and other infestations	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Sequelae of infectious and parasitic diseases	0,4	0,2	0,7	0,6
Other infectious diseases	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1

Source: Causes of death 2013, Causes of death 2018

Table 6.3 summarises the infectious and parasitic diseases underlying causes of deaths amongst young males and females during 2013 and 2018. The highest cause of deaths for both males and females in 2013 was tuberculosis (males: 43,1% and females: 37,5%). Tuberculosis remained the leading cause of death for males (43,8) in 2018 however, the leading cause of the death for females (37,9) in 2018 was human immunodeficiency virus [HIV] disease.

The second highest cause for both males and females during 2013 was human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) disease at 28,2% for males and 28,9% for females. HIV was the cause of 31,5% of male and 37,9% of female deaths during 2018; a substantial increase since 2013. Other viral diseases were the cause of 14,2% and 17,5% of the deaths of male and female youth during 2013. Other viral diseases contributed to 13,0% of male deaths and 18,2% of female deaths during 2018.

6.4 Diseases of the respiratory system

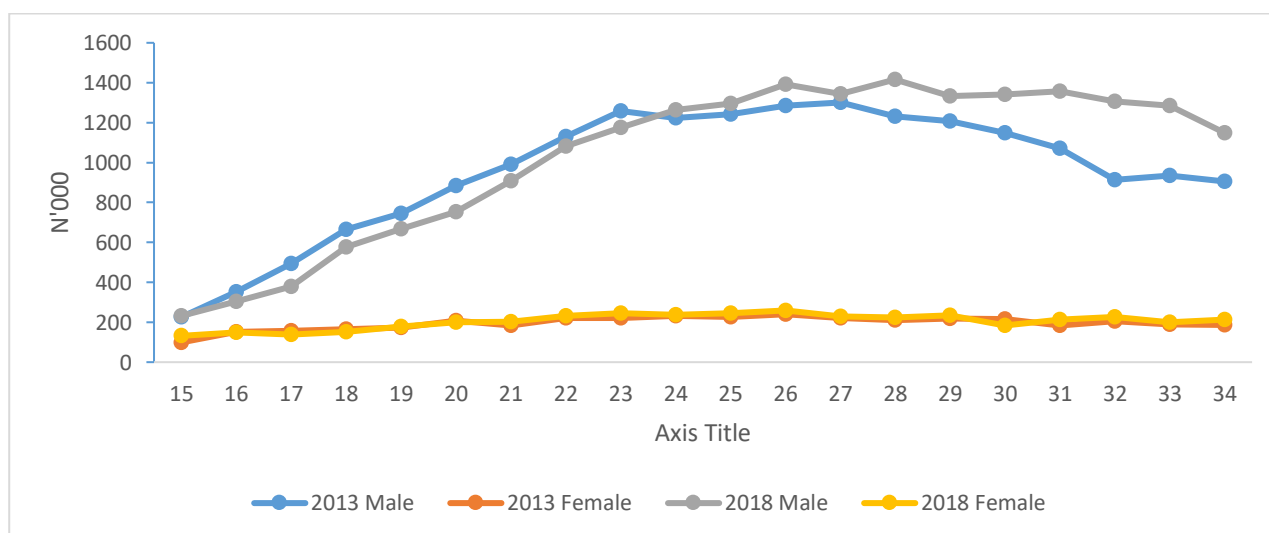
Table 6.4 Diseases of the Respiratory System, (youth 15–34) by sex, 2013 and 2018

Broad group of underlying causes	2013		2018	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Diseases of the respiratory system				
Acute upper respiratory infections	0,5	0,4	0,4	0,7
Influenza and pneumonia	61,3	65,5	55,1	57,8
Other acute lower respiratory infections	15,5	13,5	13,2	14,2
Other diseases of upper respiratory tract	0,8	0,3	1	0,3
Chronic lower respiratory diseases	8,1	8,4	12	11,5
Lung diseases due to external agents	1,3	0,7	1,9	1,1
Other respiratory diseases principally affecting the interstitium	2,6	2,8	4,7	4,6
Suppurative and necrotic conditions of lower respiratory tract	0,9	0,2	1	0,5
Other diseases of pleura	1,3	0,7	1,3	1,2
Other diseases of the respiratory system	7,7	7,4	9,4	8,0
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Table 6.4 shows the major underlying reasons for deaths that were classified as being due to diseases of the respiratory system during 2013 and 2018. More than 60 % of the deaths from respiratory diseases were due to Influenza and pneumonia in 2013, males deaths accounted for 61.3% and females deaths accounted for 65,5 %. Influenza and pneumonia remained the main reason for deaths due to respiratory diseases in 2018 with male deaths contributing to 55,1% while female deaths contributed to 57,8%. The second most prominent reason related to “other acute lower respiratory infections”. The percentages of male deaths in 2013 (15,5%) decreased considerably to 13,2% in 2018 and that of females increased from 13,5% to 14,2%.

6.5 External causes of morbidity and mortality

Figure 6.4: Youth: Deaths from external causes of morbidity and mortality: Actual number of deaths by age, 2013 and 2018



Source: Causes of death, 2013; Causes of death 2018

The significant difference between males and females in the actual numbers of deaths, which resulted from external causes of mortality and morbidity, can be seen in Figure 6.4 above. This difference is not evident when viewing proportions. The steep angle of the slope in respect of males shows that there is a substantial increase in the number of deaths with an increase in age until the age of 23 in 2013 and the age of 26 in 2018.

Table 6.5: External causes of morbidity and mortality for youth by sex, 2013 and 2018

Broad group of underlying causes	2013				2018			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Transport accidents	2 028	10,6	589	15,1	2 032	9,9	607	14,8
Other external causes of accidental injury	10 176	53,0	2 032	52,0	13 259	64,5	2 489	60,8
Intentional self harm	286	1,5	64	1,6	142	0,7	49	1,2
Assault	3 297	17,2	335	8,6	4 503	21,9	473	11,5
Event of undetermined intent	3 303	17,2	756	19,4	532	2,6	379	9,3
Complications of medical and surgical care	120	0,6	128	3,3	79	0,4	98	2,4
Sequelae of external causes of morbidity and mortality	3	0,0	2	0,1	9	0,0	2	0,0
Total	19 213	100,0	3 906	100,0	20 556	100,0	4 097	100,0

Source: Causes of death 2013, Causes of death 2018

Table 6.5 provides the immediate underlying causes of death due to external causes of morbidity and mortality that occurred during 2013 and 2018. Most of the reasons for male and female deaths in this regard were as a result of “other external causes of accidental injury”; 53,0% and 64,5% for males in 2013 and 2018 respectively and 52,0 % and 64,5% for females in 2013 and 2018 respectively. The second highest cause for males was “assault” at 17,2% in 2013 and 21,9 % in 2018. Similarly, assault was the second highest cause of death for females in 2013 at 8,6% in 2013 and 11,5% in 2018. More females than males died from “events of undetermined intent”, complications of medical and surgical care, Intentional self harm and from “transport accidents” in both years. The young males were more likely to die from assault as compared to their female counterparts.

6.6 Main causes of death by province where death occurred

The following tables show the percentages of the top four causes of youth deaths as percentages of all the causes of death for males and females within each province (Table 6.6 for 2013 and 2018).

Table 6.6: Top 4 causes of youth deaths by province of occurrence and sex, 2013

Province of death	Tuberculosis		HIV		Other viral diseases		External causes of mortality	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Western Cape	6,3	4,5	11,6	11,7	2,8	1,9	14,3	9,4
Eastern Cape	14,1	15,6	16,1	16,5	14,1	18,1	15,2	15,1
Free State	6,8	6,1	5,2	4,1	6,0	7,0	6,5	7,2
Gauteng	16,3	16,1	12,0	12,1	17,3	15,6	19,3	20,2
KwaZulu-Natal	32,7	30,2	32,3	30,3	30,8	25,4	22,0	21,8
Limpopo	6,5	8,7	4,4	6,6	7,5	11,4	6,5	8,1
Mpumalanga	8,0	10,1	7,3	7,4	13,1	11,0	7,3	8,2
North West	7,0	6,5	6,6	6,4	6,6	7,5	5,7	6,1
Northern Cape	2,0	2,0	4,2	4,7	1,5	2,0	2,8	3,2
Outside South Africa	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,1
Unknown	0,1	0,2	0,2	0,2	0,2	0,2	0,4	0,6
Unspecified	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,1
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Source: Causes of death, 2013

Table 6.7: Top 4 causes of youth deaths by province of occurrence and sex, 2018

Province of death	Tuberculosis		HIV		Other viral diseases		External causes of mortality	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Western Cape	9,4	8,1	13,1	14,3	2,9	3,7	14,2	9,2
Eastern Cape	16,4	18,6	18,9	20,2	11,4	16	15,5	14
Free State	5,7	5	7,2	4,9	7,7	7,3	5,4	7,1
Gauteng	14,8	13,2	10,6	8,7	18,9	16,2	18,1	18,8
KwaZulu-Natal	25,9	22,8	24,6	22,9	24,5	19,3	22,8	22,2
Limpopo	6,2	8,4	6,1	8,6	12	12,8	5,8	7,7
Mpumalanga	8	9,5	6,1	7	7,2	10,4	5,7	6,5
North West	6,8	7,5	5,9	6,3	10,3	8,2	4,6	6
Northern Cape	3,4	3,4	3,8	4,1	2,4	2,3	2,1	2,9
Unspecified	3,4	3,5	3,7	2,9	2,8	3,7	5,9	5,7
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Source: Causes of death, 2018

Tuberculosis by province

During 2013, the percentages of youth deaths resulting from “Tuberculosis” were higher for males than for females in the following provinces, Western Cape, Free State, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and North West. This was also the case for persons who died outside of South Africa. The highest percentage of young males and females who died from TB during 2013 was found in KwaZulu-Natal, followed by Gauteng and Eastern Cape respectively.

In 2018, the percentages of youth deaths resulting from “Tuberculosis” were higher for males than for females in the following provinces Western Cape, Free State, Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal. The highest percentage of young males and females who died from TB during 2013 was found in KwaZulu-Natal followed by Eastern Cape and Gauteng.

HIV by province

A review of HIV deaths by province indicate that KwaZulu-Natal, at 32.3 %, showed the highest percentage of male deaths from HIV during 2013. This was followed by Eastern Cape at 16,1% and Gauteng at 12,0%. The lowest percentage of deaths due to HIV was found among males in Northern Cape at 4,2%. In 2018, KwaZulu-Natal remained the province which showed the highest percentage of male deaths from HIV despite the highest decline of 7,7 percentage points between the review period. Other provinces which showed a decline in the deaths caused by HIV among young males were Gauteng, Mpumalanga North West and Northern Cape.

Female deaths from HIV in 2018 showed a similar pattern to the 2013, with the highest percentage in KwaZulu-Natal, at 30,3 %, followed by Eastern Cape (16,5%) and Gauteng (12,1%). The lowest percentage of deaths due to HIV was found among females in Free State at 4,1%. In 2018, KwaZulu-Natal remained the province which showed the highest percentage of female deaths from HIV despite the highest decline of 7,4 percentage points between the review period. Other provinces which showed a decline in the deaths caused by HIV among young females were Gauteng, Mpumalanga, North West and Northern Cape.

Other viral diseases

KwaZulu-Natal province reflected the highest percentage of deaths resulting from other viral diseases in 2013 and 2018 for both males (30,8 % in 2013 and in 24,5% 2018) and females (25,4% in 2013 and 19,3% in 2018). The second highest percentage for both males and females deaths were found in Gauteng followed by Eastern Cape in both years.

External causes of mortality

Females were more susceptible to dying from external causes of mortality and morbidity than males during 2013 and 2018 in 6 provinces namely; Free State, Gauteng, Limpopo, Mpumalanga North West and Northern Cape. KwaZulu-Natal province reflected the highest percentage of deaths in 2013 and 2018 for both males (22,0% in 2013 and in 22,8% 2018) and females (21,8% in 2013 and 22,2% in 2018). The second highest percentage for both males and females deaths were found in Gauteng followed by Eastern Cape in both years.

6.7 Conclusion

The findings on mortality and causes of deaths for youth show that youth deaths decreased from 474 165 deaths in 2013 to 451 398 deaths in 2018. There were more male deaths than female deaths. “Non natural causes”, was a major cause of death for youth males during 2013 and 2018 while young females in 2013 and 2018 were most likely to die of other natural causes.

A review of external causes of mortality indicated that more females than males died from “events of undetermined intent”, complications of medical and surgical care, Intentional self harm, and “transport accidents” in both years. When compared to their female counterparts young males were more likely to die from assault.

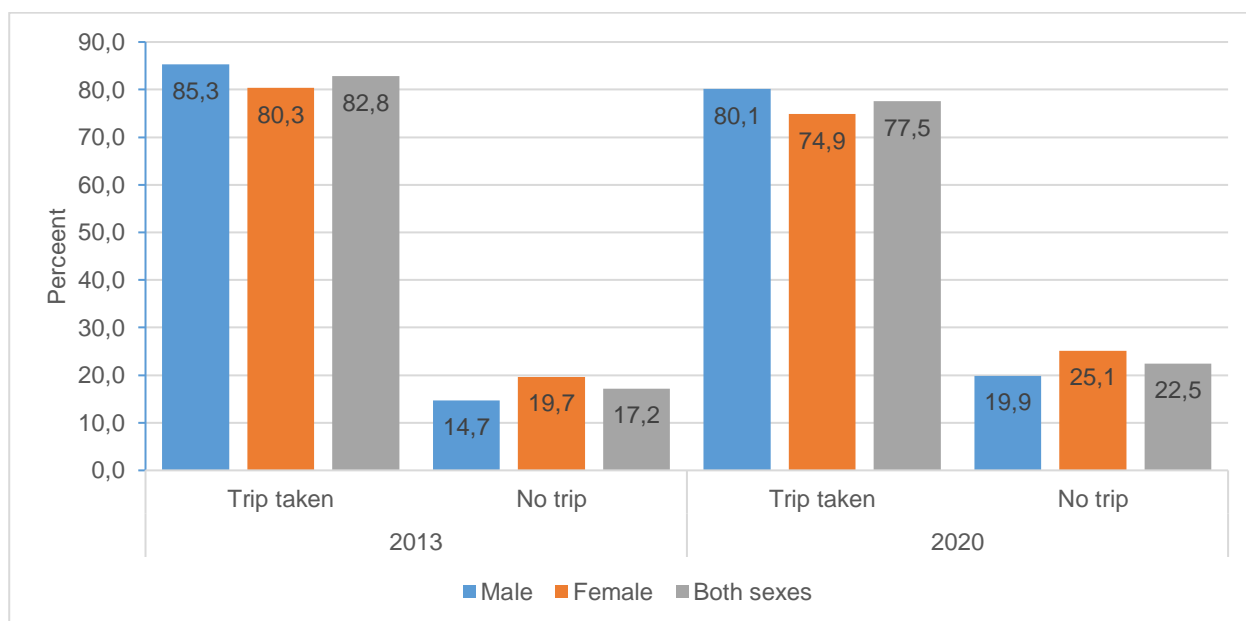
CHAPTER 7: YOUTH TRANSPORTATION DYNAMICS

7.0 Background

This chapter focuses on general trips taken by youth (15 to 34 years), possession of driving license, main mode of travel to educational institution and to work. According to the NHTS, a trip is defined as a one-way movement from an origin to a destination, to fulfil a specific purpose or undertake an activity. Travel patterns refer to trips other than work, education, and business-related trips. Some people travel on a weekly basis, monthly or once in three months.

7.1 General trips taken

Figure 7.1: Distribution of youth who undertook a trip and those who did not during the seven days prior to the interview by sex, 2013 and 2020



NHTS 2020

Figure 7.1 shows the distribution of youth who undertook a trip and those who did not by sex. Overall, the majority of youth indicated to have taken trips between 2013 and 2020, though a decline of 5,3 percentage points was observed (82,8% in 2013 and 77,5% in 2020). In both years, a higher proportion of males than females reported to have taken trips during this period; however, both males and females observed a decline of 5,2 and 5,4 percentage points, respectively. Conversely, the proportion of those who did not undertake any trip during the reporting period increased for both males and females.

Table 7.1: Distribution of youth who undertook a trip during the seven days prior to the interview by sex and province, 2020

Province	Male		Female		Both sexes	
	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%
Western Cape	913	10,9	861	11,3	1 775	11,1
Eastern Cape	759	9,1	683	8,9	1 442	9,0
Northern Cape	190	2,3	162	2,1	352	2,2
Free State	403	4,8	361	4,7	764	4,8
KwaZulu-Natal	1 416	16,9	1 319	17,3	2 735	17,1
North West	582	6,9	517	6,8	1 099	6,9
Gauteng	2 553	30,5	2 277	29,8	4 830	30,1
Mpumalanga	678	8,1	611	8,0	1 289	8,0
Limpopo	889	10,6	851	11,1	1 740	10,9
RSA	8 384	100,0	7 642	100,0	16 026	100,0

NHTS 2020

Table 7.1 shows the distribution of youth who undertook a trip by sex and province. According to the analysis, both males and females in four of the nine provinces travelled in 2020, with Gauteng (30,1%) and KwaZulu-Natal (17,1%) attaining the highest percentages. Northern Cape province had the least proportion of people who undertook trips. Female trips were slightly higher than male trips in Western Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, and Limpopo, while male trips were more in Eastern Cape, Northern Cape, Free State, Mpumalanga, Gauteng and North West.

7.2 Non-travelers

Table 7.2: Youth reasons for not travelling in the last 7 days prior to the survey by sex, 2020

Reasons for not travelling	Male		Female		Both sexes	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Did not need to travel	1 252 914	60,3	1 480 191	57,8	2 733 105	58,9
Financial reasons	406 619	19,6	373 801	14,6	780 420	16,8
No available public transport	3 809	0,2	4 880	0,2	8 689	0,2
Too old/young to travel	3 163	0,2	5 527	0,2	8 691	0,2
Taking care of children/sick/elderly relative	11 238	0,5	283 524	11,1	294 761	6,4
Disabled	43 445	2,1	25 043	1,0	68 487	1,5
Worried about safety/security/crime	3 455	0,2	2 476	0,1	5 932	0,1
Other	354 230	17,0	387 248	15,1	741 477	16,0
Total	2 078 873	100,0	2 562 690	100,0	4 641 562	100,0

NHTS 2020

Table 7.2 shows the reasons for youth not travelling in the seven days preceding the survey by sex. In 2020, more than 50% of those who did not travel stated that they did not need to travel (58,9%), 16,8% stated that they did not travel because of financial reasons and 6,4% indicated that they were caring for children/sick/elderly.

The majority of males reported that they did not need to travel, financial reasons and disability as reasons for not travelling compared to females. On the contrary, the female youth were more likely to care for children/sick/elderly than the males. This confirms what the literature suggests that women spend a disproportionate amount of time participating in unpaid care work than men²⁴.

²⁴ <https://www.caregiver.org/resource/women-and-caregiving-facts-and-figures/>

Table 7.3: Youth reasons for not travelling in the last 7 days prior to the survey by population group, 2020

	African	Coloured	Indian	White	RSA
Reasons for not travelling	N				
Did not need to travel	2 350 694	246 872	62 774	72 765	2 733 105
Financial reasons	720 345	30 384	23 637	6 055	780 420
No available public transport	6 464	2 225	0	0	8 689
Too old/young to travel	8 089	602	0	0	8 691
Taking care of children/sick/elderly relative	226 916	45 673	5 794	16 377	294 761
Disabled	58 989	5 135	445	3 919	68 487
Worried about safety/security/crime	5 639	0	0	293	5 932
Other	644 787	61 029	15 517	20 145	741 477
Total	4 021 922	391 919	108 167	119 554	4 641 562
	%				
Did not need to travel	58,5	63,0	58,0	60,9	58,9
Financial reasons	17,9	7,8	21,9	5,1	16,8
No available public transport	0,2	0,6	0,0	0,0	0,2
Too old/young to travel	0,2	0,2	0,0	0,0	0,2
Taking care of children/sick/elderly relative	5,6	11,7	5,4	13,7	6,4
Disabled	1,5	1,3	0,4	3,3	1,5
Worried about safety/security/crime	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,3	0,1
Other	16,0	15,6	14,4	16,9	16,0
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

NHTS 2020

Table 7.3 summarises the reasons for youth not travelling in the seven days preceding the survey by population group. Nationally, more than 58,9% of the youth across all population groups did not need to travel. Among the four population groups, a higher percentage of youth from white and coloured youth as compared to the other population groups stated that they did not travel taking care of children/sick/elderly relative. Caregiving can have negative impact on the lives of the youth. The literature states that the youth that are involved in caregiving are at risk for academic, social, and emotional difficulties if not getting enough support from school and social service policies.²⁵

²⁵ Social Policy Report Volume 34, Number 2 | 2021

Table 7.4: Youth reasons for not travelling in the last 7 days prior to the survey by province, 2020

Reasons for not travelling	Did not need to travel	Financial reasons	No available public transport	Too old/young to travel	Taking care of children/sick/elderly relative	Disabled	Worried about safety/security/crime	Other	Total
	N								
Western Cape	331 528	70 475	1 174	20	50 747	9 155	296	98 129	561 525
Eastern Cape	395 513	100 348	2 643	3 475	37 691	14 856	1 710	110 014	666 251
Northern Cape	48 107	3 779	0	0	9 353	1 183	0	7 805	70 227
Free State	116 533	38 168	214	422	19 597	4 613	928	40 895	221 370
KwaZulu-Natal	815 153	286 923	2 141	925	56 640	17 053	698	137 432	1 316 965
North West	102 049	35 674	445	301	37 353	1 462	260	80 813	258 357
Gauteng	591 426	119 195	0	622	48 031	10 239	843	154 367	924 724
Mpumalanga	208 539	78 501	1 641	652	13 168	3 561	1 120	53 480	360 662
Limpopo	124 257	47 356	430	2 273	22 180	6 366	75	58 543	261 481
RSA	2 733 105	780 420	8 689	8 691	294 761	68 487	5 932	741 477	4 641 562
	%								
Western Cape	59,0	12,6	0,2	0,0	9,0	1,6	0,1	17,5	100,0
Eastern Cape	59,4	15,1	0,4	0,5	5,7	2,2	0,3	16,5	100,0
Northern Cape	68,5	5,4	0,0	0,0	13,3	1,7	0,0	11,1	100,0
Free State	52,6	17,2	0,1	0,2	8,9	2,1	0,4	18,5	100,0
KwaZulu-Natal	61,9	21,8	0,2	0,1	4,3	1,3	0,1	10,4	100,0
North West	39,5	13,8	0,2	0,1	14,5	0,6	0,1	31,3	100,0
Gauteng	64,0	12,9	0,0	0,1	5,2	1,1	0,1	16,7	100,0
Mpumalanga	57,8	21,8	0,5	0,2	3,7	1,0	0,3	14,8	100,0
Limpopo	47,5	18,1	0,2	0,9	8,5	2,4	0,0	22,4	100,0
RSA	58,9	16,8	0,2	0,2	6,4	1,5	0,1	16,0	100,0

NHTS 2020

More than 50% of the youth reported that they did not travel because they did not need to travel in seven provinces except in North West and Limpopo. The financial reason was stated as the third reason for not travelling by youth in all provinces except Northern Cape, KZN , Mpumalanga and North West. More than 2% of youth in three provinces (Eastern Cape, Free State and Limpopo) reported that they were not able to travel because of disability.

7.3 Possession of driving license

Getting a driving license represents a transformative moment in the life of a young South African aspiring to join the middle class, not only in terms of their personal life cycle but also in terms of encountering and negotiating a relationship with the state for the first time on their own.²⁶ The driving licence is the official document which authorises the holder to drive a motor vehicle on a public road in South Africa. The minimum age to hold a licence is 18 years. Although the age category for the youth is people aged 15 to 34 years, for this section the age group to be used will be those aged 18 to 34 years.

Table 7.5: Persons aged 18 to 34 years who are in possession of a driving license by population group and sex, 2013 and 2020

Population group	2013			2020		
	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes
	N ('000)					
African	1 178	569	1 747	1 835	868	2 703
Coloured	165	91	256	199	109	308
Indian	130	86	216	148	94	242
White	422	365	787	387	375	762
RSA	1 894	1 112	3 005	2 569	1 447	4 016
	%					
African	17,5	8,6	13,1	24,2	11,8	18,1
Coloured	25,1	13,3	19,1	27,6	15,0	21,2
Indian	64,2	46,7	55,9	66,1	52,6	60,1
White	84,0	73,3	78,6	82,5	83,6	83,0
RSA	23,4	13,9	18,7	28,5	16,6	22,6

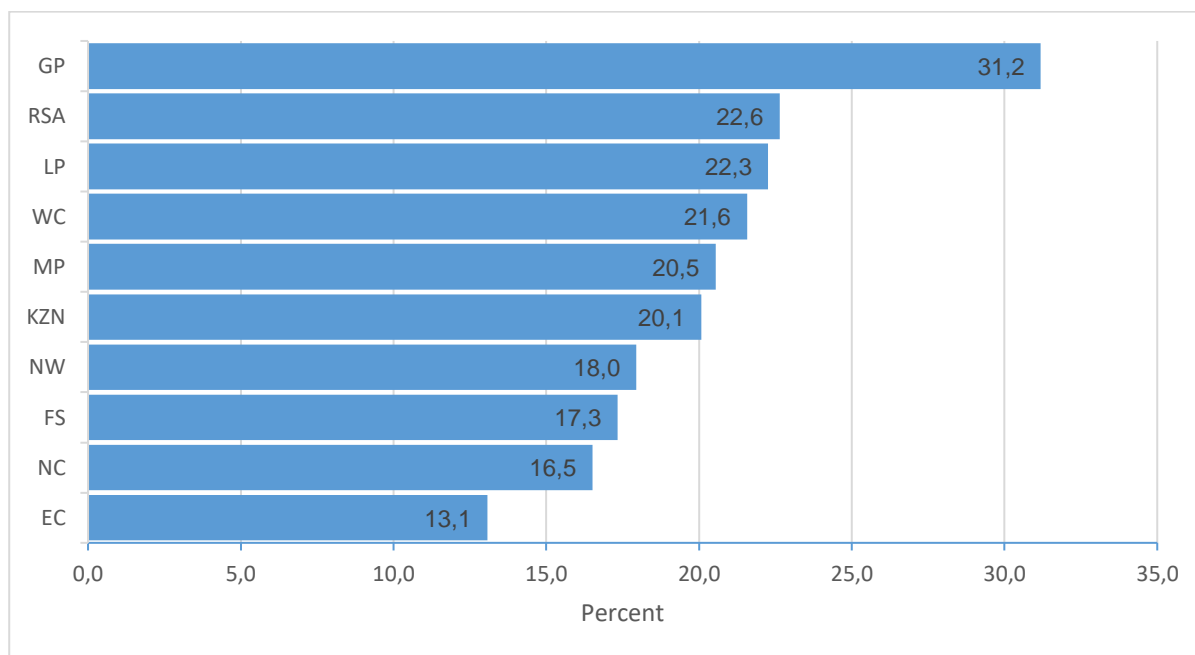
Source: NHTS 2020

Table 7.5 shows the distribution of persons aged 18 to 34 years who have a driving licence by population group and sex. Nationally, 18,7% of persons aged between 18 and 34 years had driving licence in 2013, and an increase of 3,9 percentage points to 22,6% was realised in 2020. Generally, between 2013 and 2020, there was an increase in the number of youth driving licence holders except for the white males which showed a 1,5 percentage decrease. Notwithstanding the generic increases observed across all population groups, the analysis revealed that whites youth were more likely than other population groups to have a driving licence in 2013. The same pattern was observed in 2020, however this figure increased by 4,4 percentage points. On the contrary, black Africans lagged behind all other population groups, below the national average in both years (national average: 18,7% vs black African: 13,1% in 2013 and national average: 22,6% vs black African: 18,1% in 2020).

Young women lagged behind men across all population groups in both years, except for the White population indicating a slight decrease in 2020. This revealed a significant gender disparities among young driving licence holders in 2020. Black African youth lagged behind all other population groups, with females from this population group recording the lowest percentage (13,1% in 2013 to 18,1% in 2020) when compared to females from other population groups.

²⁶ Hornberger, J. (2018). A ritual of corruption: how young middle-class South Africans get their driver's licenses. *Current Anthropology*, 59(S18), S138-S148.

Figure 7.2: Percentage distribution of youth aged 18 and 34 years who are in possession of a driving license by province, 2020



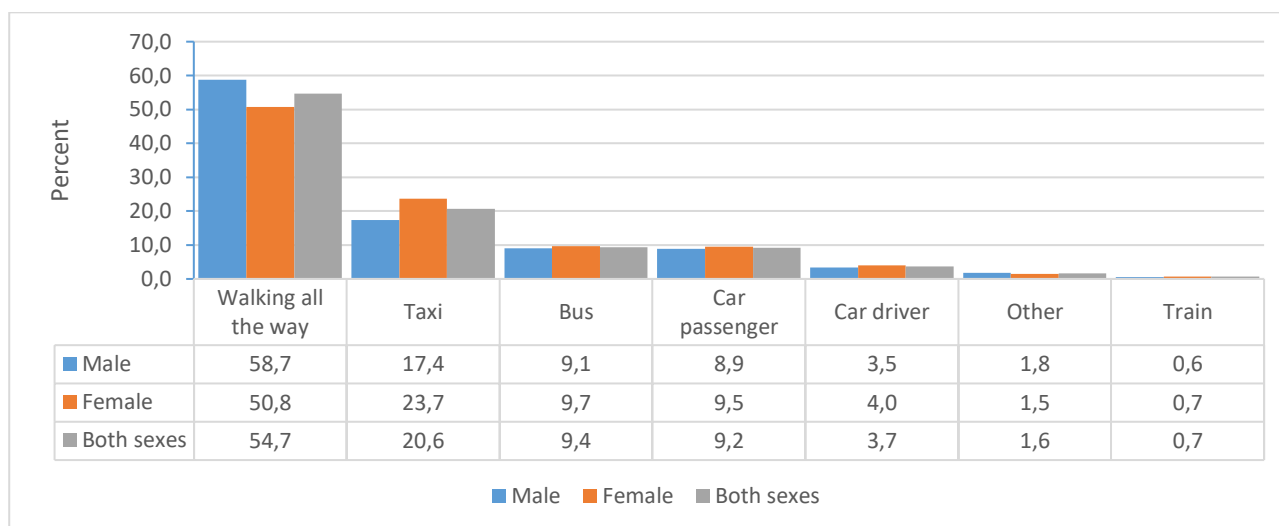
Source: NHTS 2020

Figure 7.2 shows the percentage distribution of youth who have a driving license by province. Gauteng recorded the highest percentage of youth with drivers licenses compared to other provinces, followed by Limpopo and Western Cape. Gauteng (31,2%) was the only province that reported the percentage above the national figure (22,6%) with a 8,6 percentage difference. Eastern Cape , Northern Cape and Free State had the least percentage of youth in possession of driving license (13,1%, 16,5% and 17,3% respectively).

7.4 Modes of travel to educational institution

One of the factors that embed inequality in the geography of South Africa is the apartheid's legacy. The poorer families live further from high-performing schools, thus requiring one to travel using any mode of travel to access those schools. Some of the barriers that young people in South Africa face to access a quality education is lack of sufficient transport²⁷ which impact on their safety.

²⁷ Amnesty International. (2020). Broken and unequal: The state of education in South Africa.

Figure 7.3: Main mode of travel of youth to educational institution by sex, 2020

Source: NHTS 2020

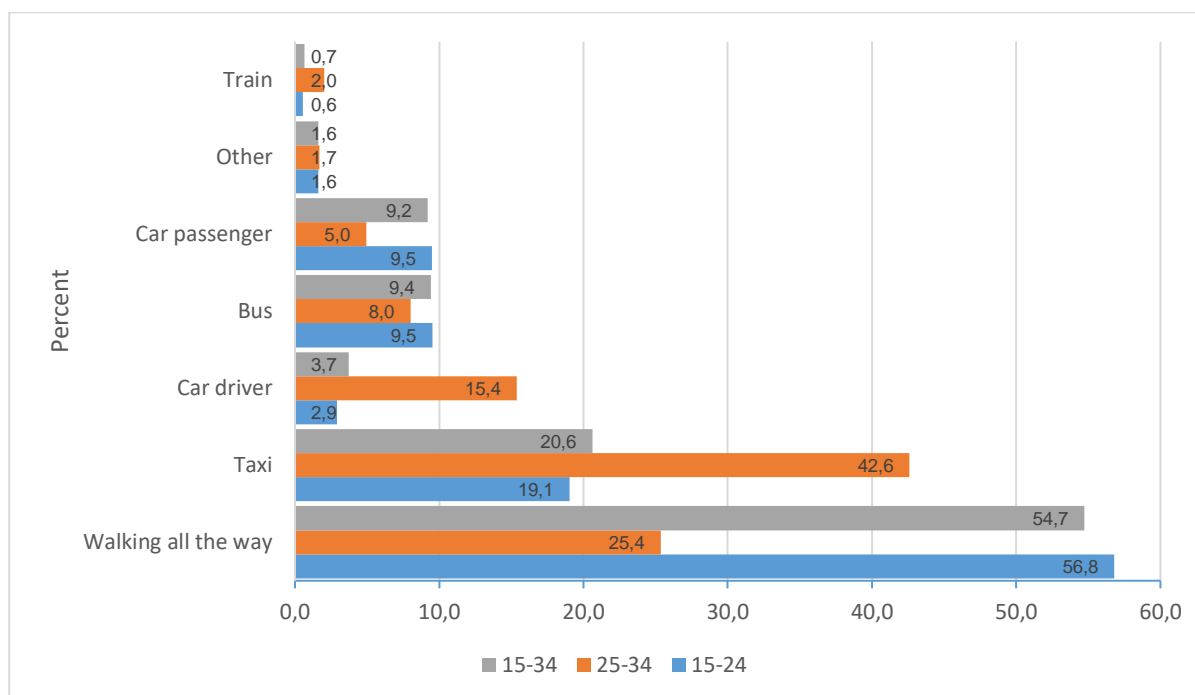
Figure 7.3 depicts data for modes of transport used by youth to an educational institution by sex. Generally, the majority of the youth indicated that they walked all the way, irrespective of their sex. This can be attributed to the Department of Education encouraging students to attend school within their neighbourhood. Young females were more likely to use almost all modes of transport available, except walking all the way and “other” where usage was skewed towards males. As such, more than 58% of males walked all the way to an educational institutions which was 7,9 percentage points higher than their female counterparts (50,8%). The second most popular mode of transport for both males and females youth was the taxi (17,4% and 23,7% respectively) while taking the train was the least popular mode of travel (0,6% and 0,7% respectively).

Table 7. 6: Main mode of travel of youth to educational institution by population group, 2020

Main mode of transport	African	Coloured	Indian	White	RSA
	(N'000)				
Train	29	2	0	0	31
Bus	408	25	12	4	449
Taxi	935	29	6	12	982
Car driver	51	36	19	72	178
Car passenger	215	57	37	130	439
Walking all the way	2 428	146	12	20	2 607
Other	61	2	9	6	78
Total	4 128	298	94	244	4 764
	%				
Train	0,7	0,8	0,0	0,0	0,7
Bus	9,9	8,3	12,5	1,7	9,4
Taxi	22,7	9,7	6,3	5,1	20,6
Car driver	1,2	12,2	20,0	29,4	3,7
Car passenger	5,2	19,2	39,0	53,2	9,2
Walking all the way	58,8	49,0	13,0	8,4	54,7
Other	1,5	0,8	9,3	2,3	1,6
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

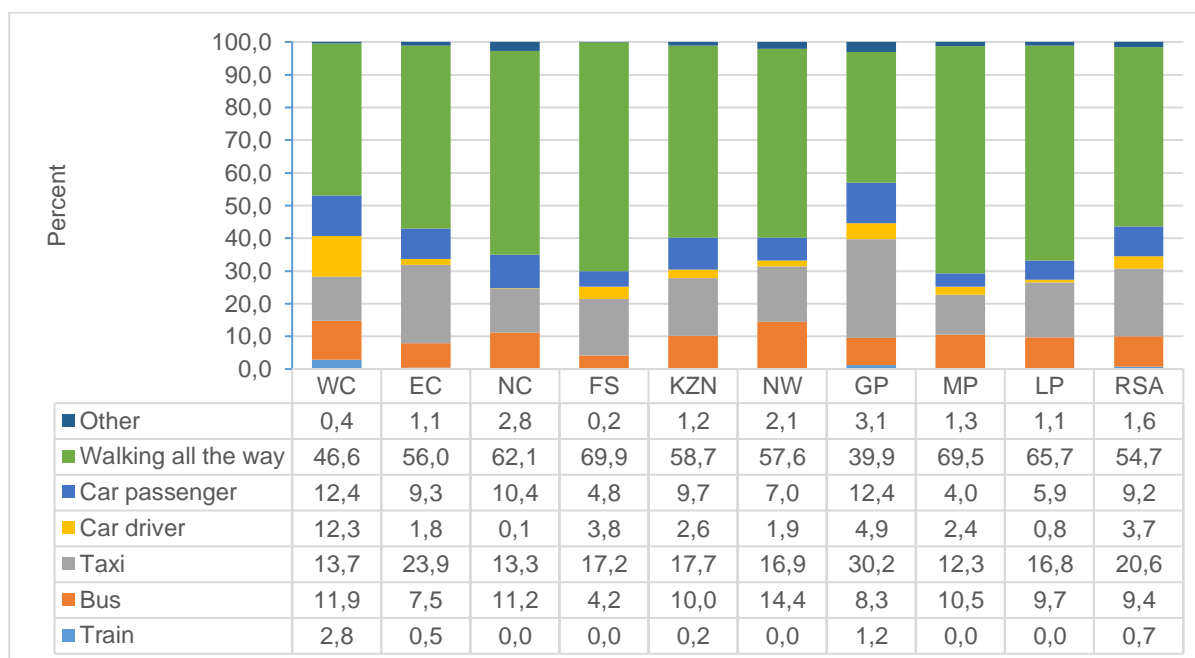
Source: NHTS 2020

Table 7.6 above shows the main mode of travel of youth to educational institution by population group. The majority of African and Coloured youth reported to have walked all the way to the educational institution while most of Indian and White used a car as a passenger. Beside walking all the way, most of the black African youth used the public transportation (taxi and bus) to travel to educational institution.

Figure 7.4: Main mode of travel of youth to educational institution by age group, 2020

Source: NHTS 2020

Figure 7.4 shows the main mode of travel of youth to educational institution by age group. The analysis revealed that the younger youth were more likely to walk all the way, use a bus and car as passenger to the educational institution while the older youth were more likely to use taxis, car as a driver and train. As such, 54,7% of younger youth walked all the way to an educational institutions as compared to 25,4% of the elder youth. The second most popular mode of transport for younger youth was the taxi (19,1%).

Figure 7.5: Main mode of travel of youth to educational institution by province, 2020

Source: NHTS 2020

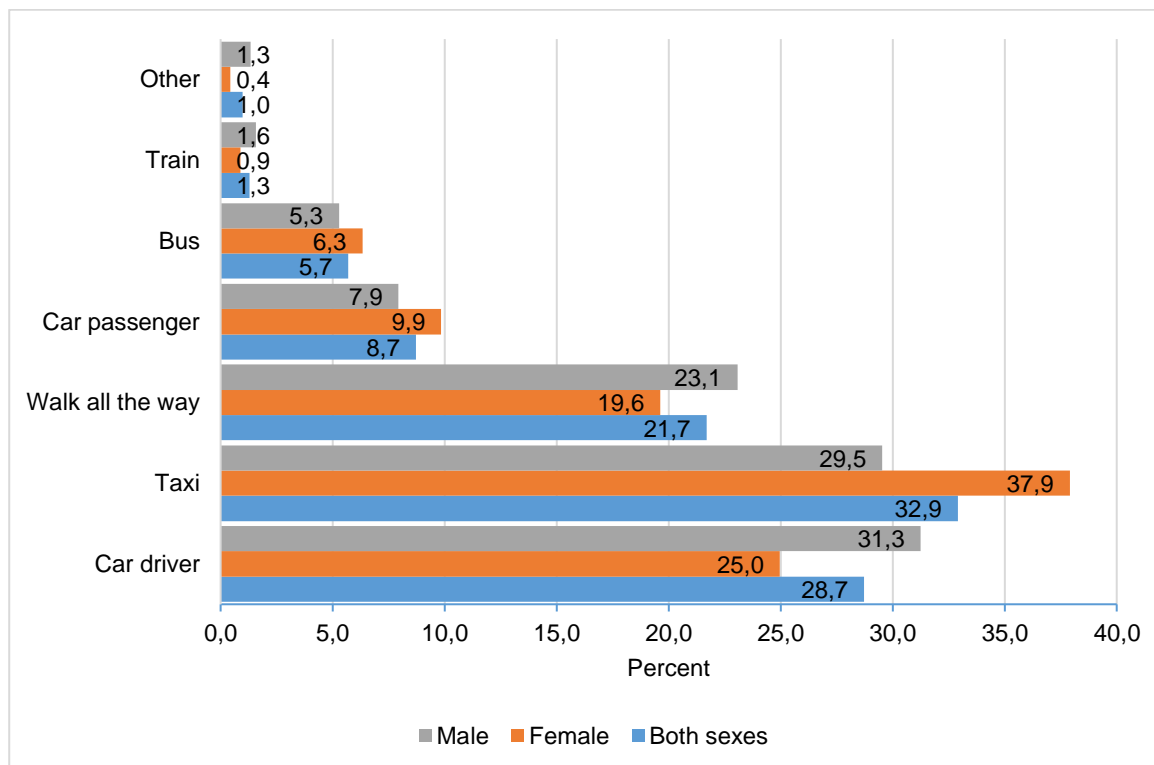
The figure above depicts the main mode of travel of youth to educational institution by province. The majority of young South Africans walked all the way to an educational institution, followed by those who used taxis in all the nine provinces.

Besides walking all the way and taxis, a large percentage of youth used cars as passengers except those in Northern Cape, KZN, North West, Mpumalanga and Limpopo. The usage of buses by young people was more dominant in North West followed by Western Cape and Northern Cape..

The use of trains were the least used mode of transport by youth to an educational institution in all provinces except in Western Cape. Although it was the least used mode of transport in Gauteng, many young people used this mode of travel to educational institutions.

7.5 Travel to work

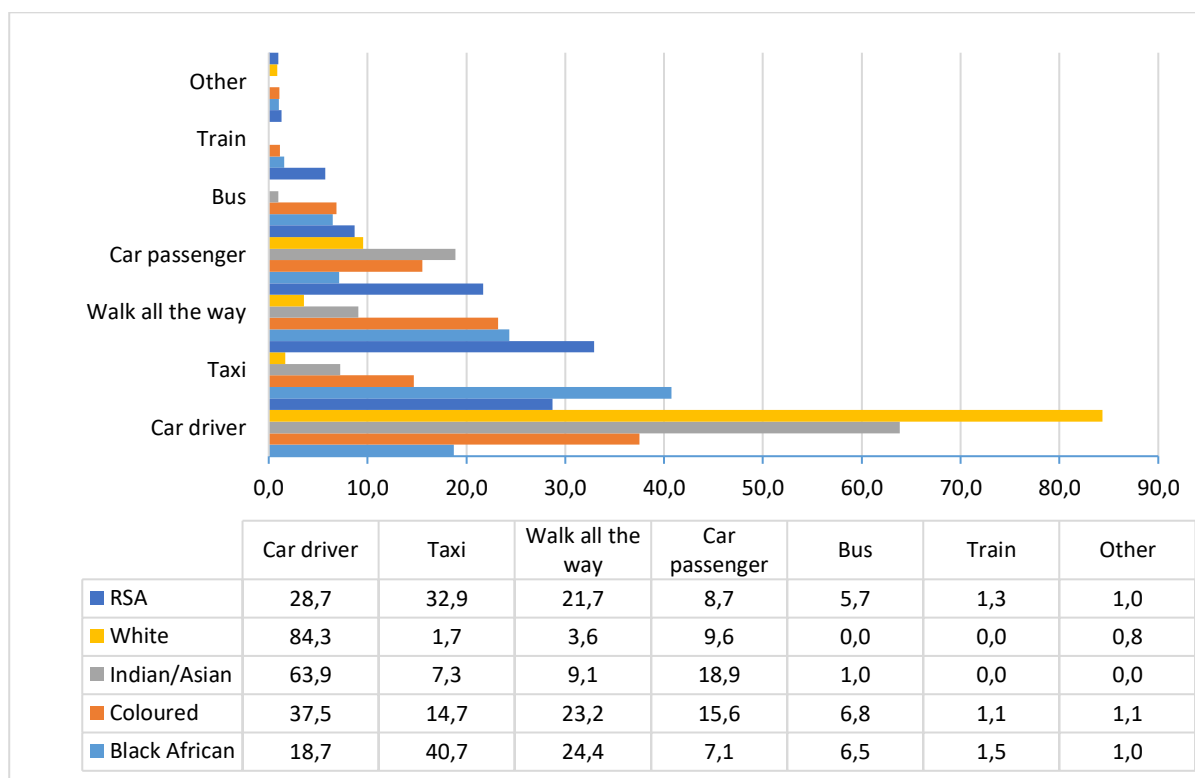
Figure 7.6: Main mode of travel of youth to work by sex, 2020



Source: NHTS 2020

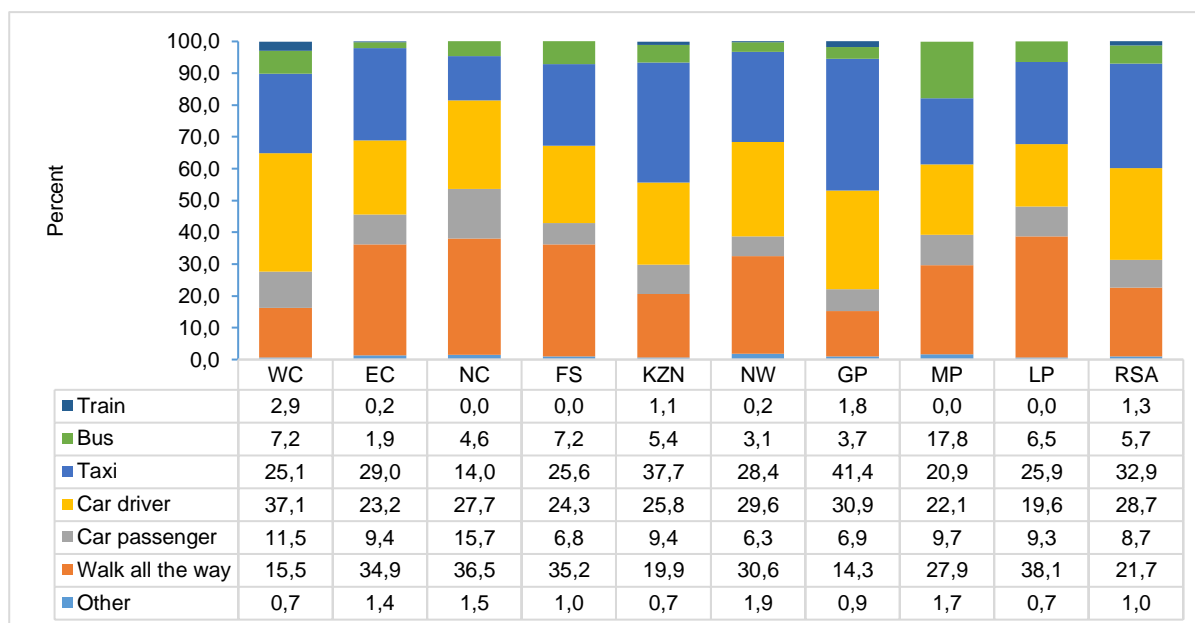
Figure 7.6 depicts the main mode of transport used by youth to place of employment by sex for 2020. Most young workers used taxis (32,9%), drove cars (28,7%) and walked all the way (21,7%) to get to their places of employment. The percentage of young males commuting as car drivers (31,3%) surpassed that of young females by 6,3 percentage points in 2020.

Taxis were the most popular mode of transportation for young females (37,9% in 2020) to get to employment places while most young males drove to their place of employment. Young females were also generally more likely to use buses and a car as a passenger than males. Those who walked all the way to work accounted for just about a fifth of the work commuting population, with 23,1% males and 19,6% females in 2020.

Figure 7.7: Main mode of travel of youth to work by population group, 2020

Source: NHTS 2020

Figure 7.7 above shows the main mode of travel of youth to work by population group. The majority of South African youth reported to have used a taxi to work followed by those who walked all the way. The majority in all the other population groups reported that they used a car as a driver.

Figure 7.8: Main mode of travel of youth to work by province, 2020

Source: NHTS 2020

The figure 7.8 above depicts the main mode of travel of youth to work by province. The majority of youth in South Africa used public transportation specifically taxi's, car as a driver and walk all the way to go to work. The majority of the youth in Gauteng and Kwa-Zulu Natal used taxis to go to work (41,4% and 37,7% respectively). Western Cape was the only province where majority of youth used the cars as drivers (37,1%). Walking all the way to work was the main mode of travel for in six out of the nine provinces except in Western Cape, Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal. Likewise, the usage of train was the least used mode of transport by youth to work in six out of nine provinces except in Western Cape, Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal where it was the second least used mode of travel to work

7.7 Conclusion

A higher proportion of males than females reported to have taken trips during the reference period, however, both males and females observed a decline of 5,2 and 5,4 percentage points, respectively. The youth across all population groups stated that they did not need to travel as the main reason for not travelling. The majority of males reported that they did not need to travel, financial reasons and disability as reasons for not traveling compared to females. On the contrary, the female youth were more likely to care for children/sick/elderly than the males.

Generally, between 2013 and 2020, there was an increase in the number of youth driving licence holders across all population groups except for the white males. The whites youth were more likely than the national average to have a driving licence in 2013 and the same pattern was observed in 2020. On the contrary, black African youth lagged behind all other population groups, below the national average. Young women lagged behind men across all population groups concerning possession of driving license in both years except for the White population indicating a slight decrease in 2020.

Generally, the majority of the youth indicated that they walked all the way to the educational institution, irrespective of their sex. Females were more likely to use almost all modes of transport available, except walking all the way and other where usage was skewed towards males. Taxis were the most popular mode of transportation for young females (37,9% in 2020) to get to places of employment while majority of young males drove to their place of employment. The majority of youth in six out of the nine provinces indicated that they walked all the way to work.

CHAPTER 8: YOUTH- LIVING CONDITIONS AND POVERTY

8.0 Background

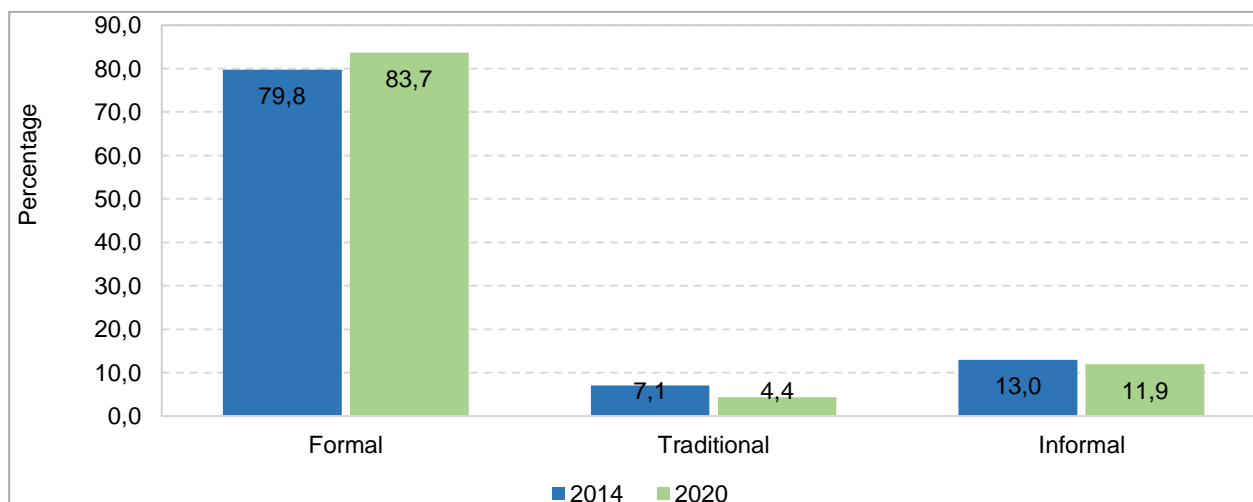
The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development is built on the promise of leaving no one behind, particularly marginalised groups who were previously more likely to be left behind in the country's developmental agenda. This agenda includes a dedicated goal on human settlements (SDG 11), which aims to make cities inclusive, safe, resilient, and sustainable, with Target 11.1 emphasising access to adequate, safe, and affordable housing and basic services for all, as well as the upgrading of informal settlements²⁸. Urbanisation has significantly contributed to the country's growing urban population and is one of the factors contributing to housing inadequacy²⁹. Young people are constantly on the move, frequently migrating from rural to urban areas in search of work and better opportunities. This rapid movement of youth in search of better opportunities is a catalyst to spatial inequalities, leading to some living in squalor, especially if they do not have access to the envisioned opportunities.

This section of the report examines the living conditions and hunger experiences of young persons aged 15–34 years. The chapter further provides analysis on main sources of income in households with youth and the extent of youth poverty.

8.1 Housing

The right to adequate housing is enshrined in the constitution and recognised by international human rights law, including in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. Both instruments emphatically state that everyone has the right to have access to adequate housing. Inadequate housing is a major impediment to social and economic development.

Figure 8.1: Distribution of households with youth by type of main dwelling, 2014 and 2020



Source: GHS 2014, 2020

Figure 8.1 illustrates the distribution of households with youth by type of main dwelling between 2014 and 2020. During this period, the majority of youth resided in formal dwellings; this proportion increased by 3,9 percentage points in 2020 (from 79,8% in 2014 to 83,7% in 2020). In contrast, the proportion of youth-accommodating households found in both traditional and informal dwelling types decreased (dropped by 2,7 percentage points for traditional dwellings and 1,1 percentage points for informal dwellings). The decline in informal dwellings is in line with the vision of the National Development Plan (NDP 2030), which seeks to eliminate informal settlements by 2050.

²⁸ <https://www.local2030.org/library/296/A-short-guide-to-Human-Settlements-Indicators-Goal-11.pdf>

²⁹ Marutlulle, N.K., 2021, 'A critical analysis of housing inadequacy in South Africa and its ramifications', Africa's Public Service Delivery and Performance Review 9(1), a372. <https://doi.org/10.4102/apsdpr.v9i1.372>

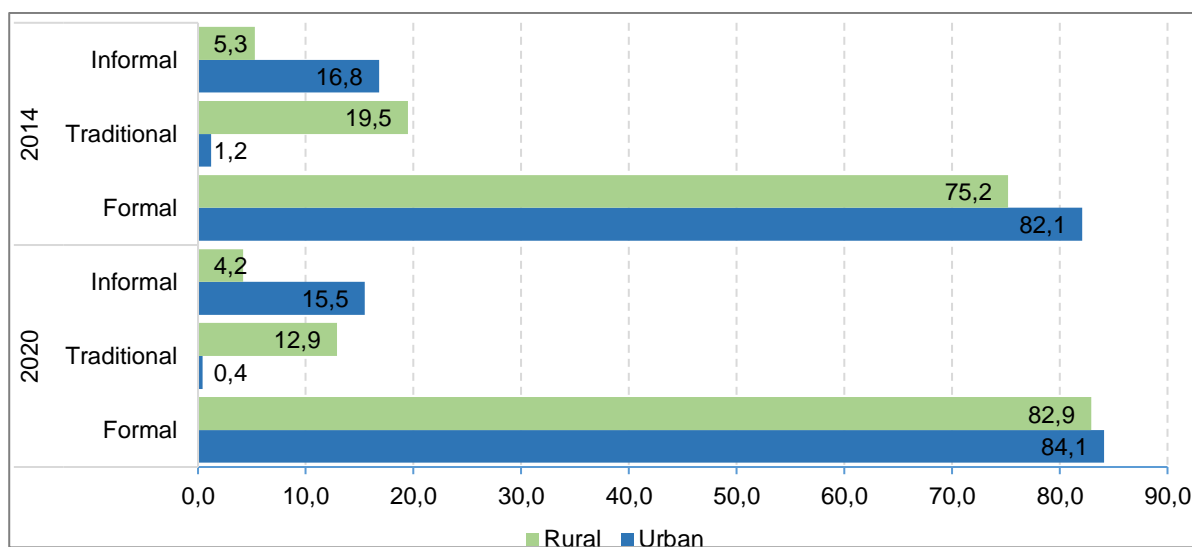
Table 8.1: Distribution of households with youth by province and type of main dwelling, 2014 and 2020

Province	Formal	Traditional	Informal	Total	Formal	Traditional	Informal	Total
	2014				2020			
	Per cent							
Western Cape	83,2	0,0	16,8	100,0	78,5	0,0	21,5	100,0
Eastern Cape	63,9	28,7	7,4	100,0	71,5	22,1	6,3	100,0
Northern Cape	87,0	1,8	11,2	100,0	84,3	0,4	15,3	100,0
Free State	83,9	2,1	14,0	100,0	81,9	1,2	16,9	100,0
KwaZulu-Natal	73,8	17,9	8,4	100,0	87,3	10,0	2,7	100,0
North West	79,4	0,9	19,7	100,0	84,7	0,0	15,3	100,0
Gauteng	80,0	0,1	19,9	100,0	81,3	0,0	18,7	100,0
Mpumalanga	88,8	4,4	6,7	100,0	89,1	4,2	6,7	100,0
Limpopo	93,2	2,7	4,1	100,0	97,1	1,1	1,8	100,0
RSA	79,8	7,1	13,0	100,0	83,7	4,4	11,9	100,0

Source: GHS 2014, 2020

Table 8.1 shows the type of main dwelling occupied by households with at least one member between the ages 15–34 in 2014 and 2020. During this period, six of the nine provinces observed an increase in the share of households with youth living in formal dwellings. The largest increases were recorded among households in KwaZulu-Natal (up by 13,5 percentage points), Eastern Cape (up by 7,6 percentage points) and the North West (up by 5,3 percentage points). On the other hand, the Western Cape province realised a substantial decline of nearly 5% (4,7 percentage points) in households with youth living in formal dwellings, whereas both the Northern Cape and Free State recorded a decline of less than 3% (2,7 and 2,0 percentage points respectively).

Households with youth living in traditional dwellings decreased across all provinces, but this trajectory was more pronounced in rural provinces such as KwaZulu-Natal (down by 7,9%) and the Eastern Cape (down by 6,6 percentage points). Similarly, the percentage of households with youth living in informal dwellings decreased in five of the nine provinces, with larger decreases recorded in KwaZulu-Natal, North West, and Limpopo (decreases of about 5,7, 4,4 and 2,3 percentage points respectively).

Figure 8.2: Households with youth by main type of dwelling and geotype, 2014 and 2020

Source: GHS 2014, 2020

The Rural Housing Programme, which is part of the Human Settlement Plan, was established to reduce the urban bias in housing delivery. Rural communities are marginalised and impoverished, resulting in poor service delivery. Figure 8.2 shows that the percentage of rural households with youth living in formal dwellings increased from 75% in 2014 to approximately 83% in 2020, an increase of nearly 8% (7,7 percentage points), while urban households increased by only 2 percentage points. On the contrary, the increase in youth households residing in formal dwellings was accompanied by a decrease in youth-accommodating households found in both traditional and informal dwellings, and this was true in both urban and rural areas.

8.2 Household income sources

Assessing changes in income sources and income distribution is important for gauging the individuals' and households' economic well-being as they influence households' ability to acquire the goods and services they require to meet their needs. Household income sources such as social grants are critical in improving household welfare as they help households to achieve some minimum standard of living³⁰.

Table 8.3: Percentage of households with youth aged 15–34 years by income source and province, 2014 and 2020

Income source	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	RSA (HH with youth)	RSA (HH without youth)
2014											
Salaries/wages/commission	78,4	43,2	58,1	54,5	50,9	53,8	70,1	52,6	39,3	58,0	58,1
Income from a business	6,1	5,3	4,2	6	7,3	7,2	10,6	8,3	7,5	7,8	8,8
Remittances	2,8	14,1	6,7	11,5	9,1	10,9	5,1	12	17,8	9,1	7,0
Pensions	0,6	1,2	1,3	1	1,1	1	2	1,1	1	1,3	3,5
Grants	10,6	35,6	28,9	26,1	30,9	25,5	9,3	25,1	33,3	22,2	20,6
Sales of farm products and services	0,0	0,1	0,2	0,0	0,1	0,2	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,1	0,1
Other income sources e.g. rental income, interest	1,5	0,4	0,5	0,8	0,5	1,4	2,9	0,8	0,9	1,4	1,9
2020											
Salaries/wages/commission	67,9	37,3	49,8	41,9	50,4	42,7	65,0	45,5	35,3	52,4	47,1
Income from a business	7,2	4,6	4,8	2,7	7,1	6,1	7,6	5,2	6,0	6,4	12,1
Remittances	3,7	11,9	5,4	10,5	10,3	14,7	7,8	13,7	13,1	9,8	6,3
Pensions	0,6	1,9	2,0	1,4	0,4	1,2	0,7	1,6	0,8	0,9	5,7
Grants	19,5	43,9	36,9	43,5	31,3	34,9	16,4	33,9	44,5	29,4	27,3
Sales of farm products and services	0,0	0,0	0,2	0,0	0,1	0,2	0,1	0,0	0,1	0,1	0,2
Other income sources e.g. rental income, interest	1,1	0,3	1,0	0,0	0,4	0,3	2,3	0,1	0,3	1,0	1,4

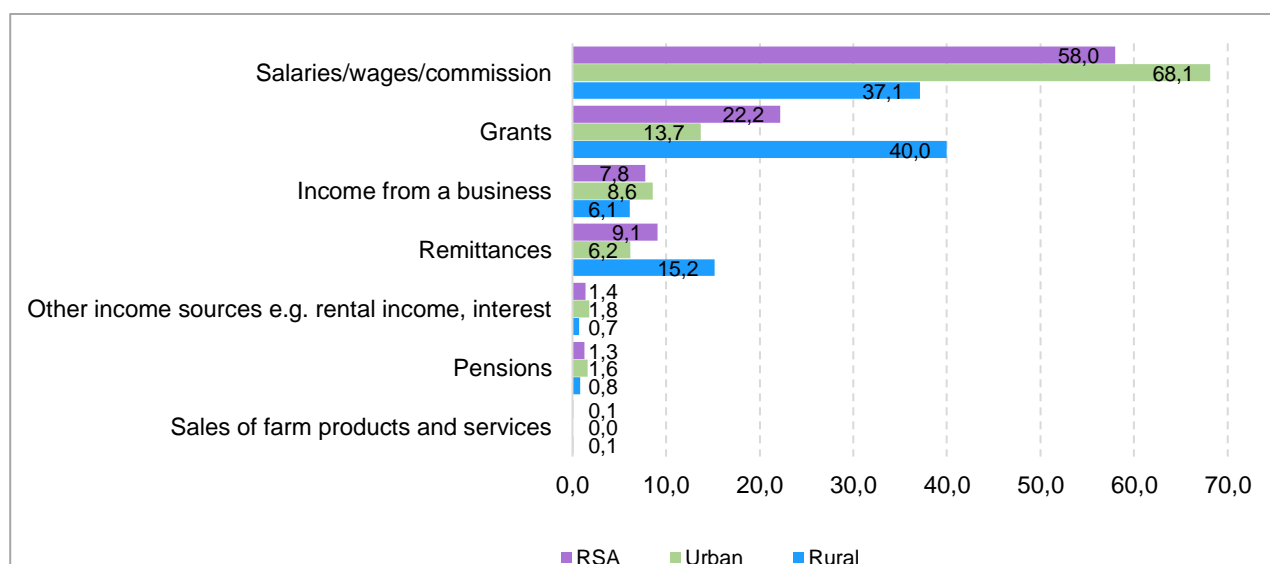
Source: GHS 2014, 2020

The analysis revealed significant differences in source of income between households with and without youth, particularly in 2020, though a similar pattern was observed for the top two main sources of income. Nationally, between 2014 and 2020, the top three main sources of income for households with youth were salaries/wages/commission, social grants and remittances respectively, whereas income from businesses was the third main source of income for households without youth.

³⁰ Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute, 2012, 'The role of social grants in supporting economic development (LED)'

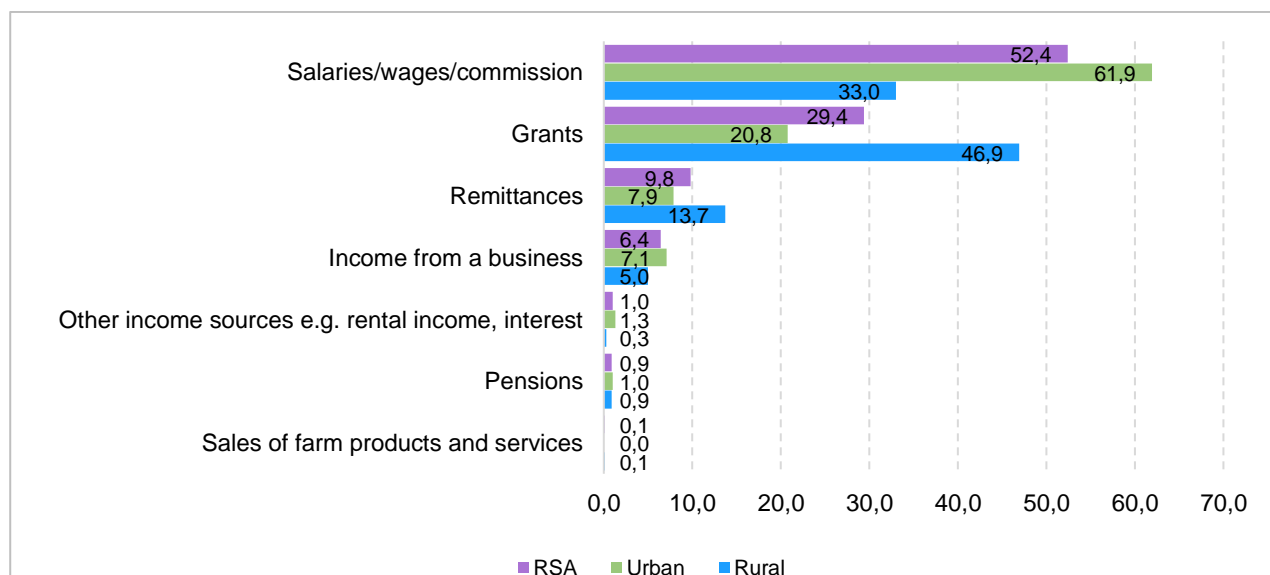
Provincial analysis revealed that salaries/wages/commission were the main source of income in all provinces for households with youth in 2014, although rural provinces (Eastern Cape and Limpopo) lagged behind. Grants were the second most common source of income in all provinces, with Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and Limpopo leading with more than 30% of households with youth relying in this type of income. However, this picture changed in 2020, with three of the nine provinces reported that grants had surpassed salaries/wages/commission as the main source of income. These provinces included the Eastern Cape, Free State and Limpopo. Except in affluent provinces such as the Western Cape and Gauteng, remittances remained the third largest main source of income for households with youth in both 2014 and 2020. The two well-off provinces differed in their third main source of income, with Western Cape having income from businesses in this position and Gauteng having other income such as interests.

Figure 8.3a: Percentage of households with youth aged 15-34 years by income source and geo-type, 2014



Source: GHS 2014

Figure 8.3b: Percentage of households with youth aged 15-34 years by income source and geo-type, 2020

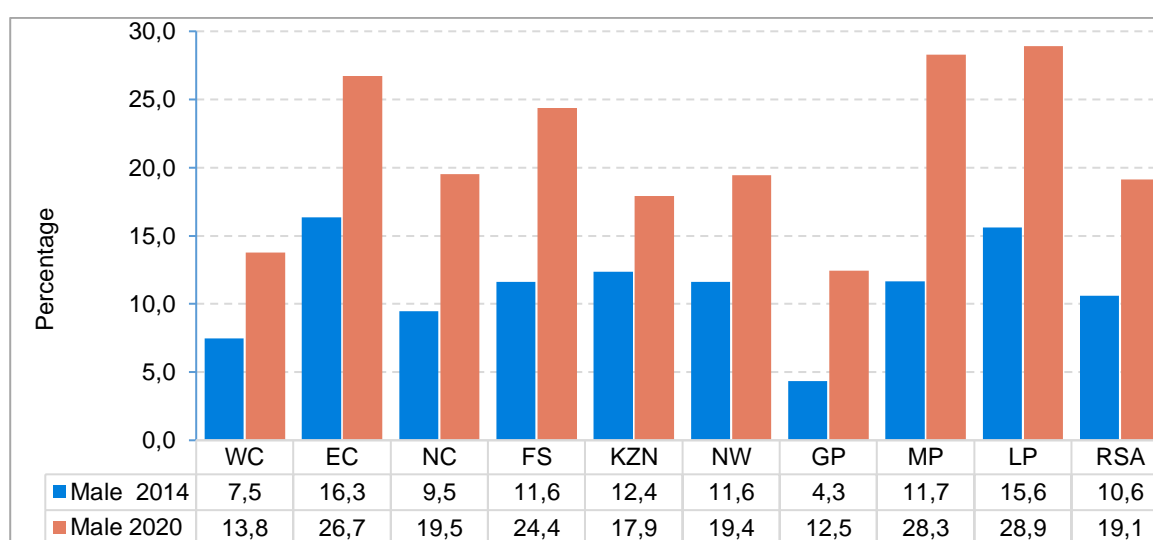


Source: GHS 2020

Rural areas are characterised by high levels of unemployment and poverty, and thus a majority of households are cushioned by cash transfers (in the form of grants) distributed by the state to the deserving and qualifying members of the households such as elderly, children and persons with disabilities. The World Bank defines cash transfers as the provision of assistance in the form of cash to the poor or to those who face a probable risk, in the absence of the transfer, of falling into poverty³¹. According to Figure 8.3a and 8.3b, the reliance on grants as the main source of income for rural households with youth increased by nearly 7% during the reporting period (from 40% in 2014 to 46,9% in 2020). Grants were consistently higher than the national average in both years of reporting, with grants being 17,8 percentage points higher in 2014 and 17,5 percentage points higher in 2020. Income from remittances was also common among households found in rural areas.

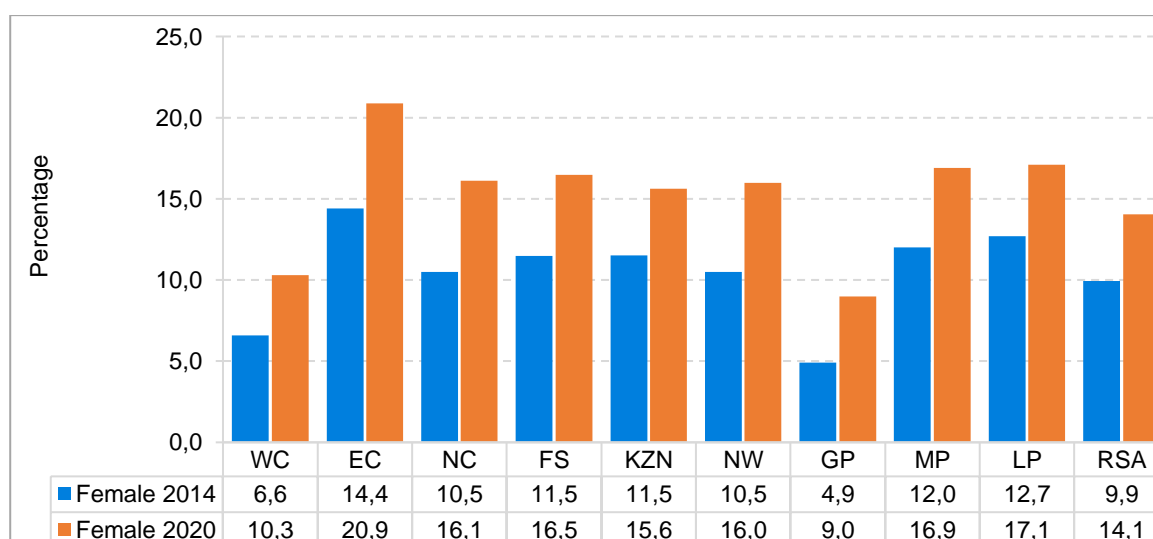
All other sources of income, with the exception of grants and remittances, were predominantly found in urban households, surpassing even the national average, though salaries/wages/commission remained the most dominant source of income relative to others.

Figure 8.4a: Percentage of male grant recipients aged 15–34 years by province, 2014 and 2020



Source: GHS 2014, 2020

Figure 8.4b: Percentage of female grant recipients aged 15–34 years by province, 2014 and 2020



Source: GHS 2014, 2020

³¹ World Bank Institute, 2002, 'Assisting the Poor with Cash: Design and Implementation of Social Transfer Programs'

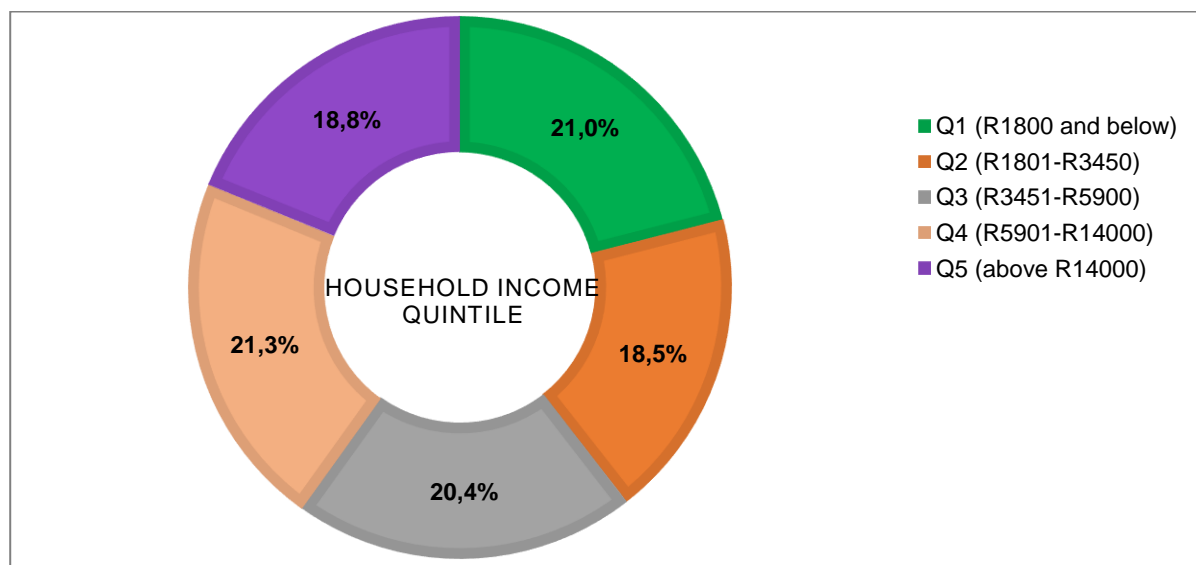
South Africa struggles with high unemployment, low labour market participation rates, and widespread poverty, including pockets of deep deprivation³². Social grants are a measure taken by the state to protect its citizens from the harsh socioeconomic effects of poverty, and they are an important source of income for low-income households. Figures 8.4a and 8.4b show that grant recipients among youth have continued to rise over the seven-year reporting period for both males and females. This increase was nearly 9% on average for males (an increase from 10,6% in 2014 to 19,1% in 2020) and slightly more than 4% for females (an increase from 9,9% in 2014 to 14,1% in 2020). The special COVID-19 Social Relief Grant, which was implemented to mitigate the negative economic consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic, could have exacerbated the increases in grant uptake observed in 2020.

Provincial variations revealed an increase in grant uptake across all the provinces for both males and females, though male recipients were substantially higher than female recipients. Over 10% of males in five of the nine provinces were grant recipients, with Mpumalanga (16,6 percentage points), Limpopo (13,3 percentage points) and Free State (12,8 percentage points) respectively leading. Notwithstanding the increases in grant uptake observed among females, it is worth noting that these increases were significantly lower than those observed among males across all provinces, with the largest increases recorded in the Eastern Cape (6,5 percentage points), Northern Cape (5,5 percentage points), and North West (5,5 percentage points).

8.3 Household Income quintiles: Access to basic services

Income is not evenly distributed among South African households, which could be attributed to the fact that households rely on different sources of income to make up their overall household income. However, some households rely solely on state cash transfers in the form of grants for survival and, as a result, fall into the bottom household income quintile. A household income quintile is a measure of neighbourhood socioeconomic status that divides the households into 5 income groups (from lowest income to highest income) so that approximately 20% of the population is in each group³³. The analysis in this section of the report will only focus on the year 2020 because household income quintiles in 2014 and 2020 are not the same and thus cannot be easily compared. For example, the lower-income quintile in 2014 was R2000 and below, while it is R1800 and below in 2020.

Figure 8.5: Household income quintile for households with youth, 2020



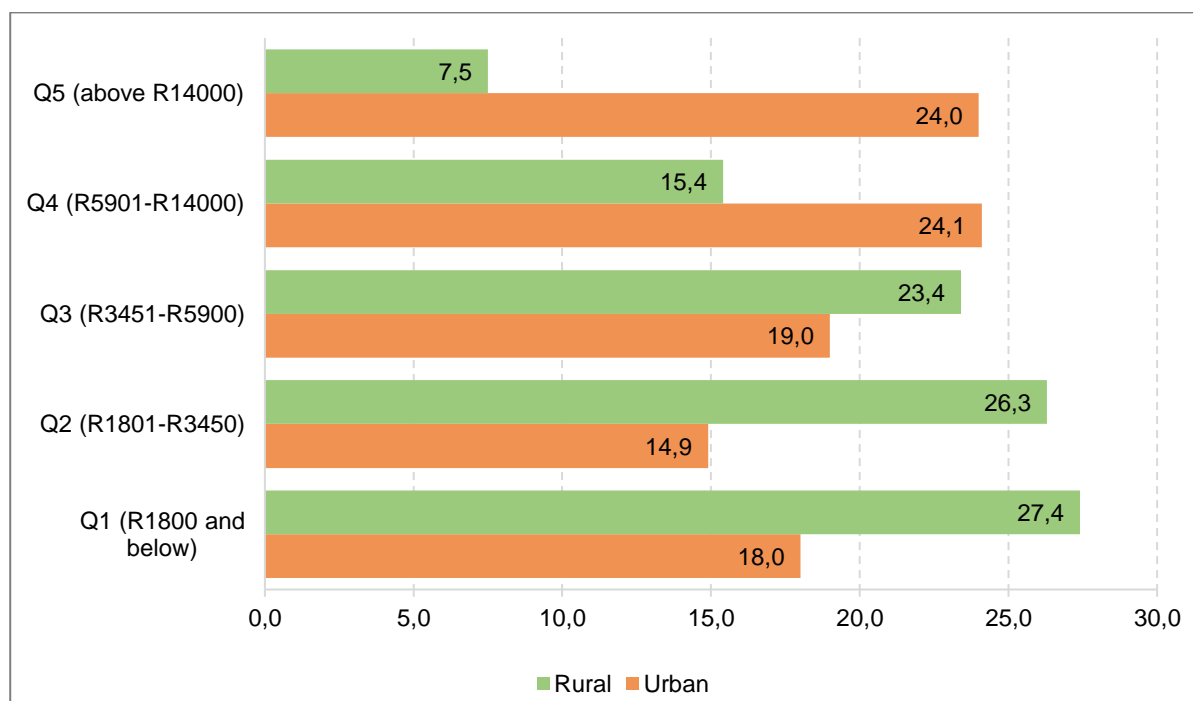
Source: GHS 2020

³² The World Bank, SOUTH AFRICA: SOCIAL ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS AND SYSTEM REVIEW

³³ <http://mchp-appserv.cpe.umanitoba.ca/>

The household income quintile is regarded as a proxy for a household's socioeconomic status. South Africa had more than 17,4 million households in 2020, with youth residing in more than 12,2 million of these. Figure 8.5 above depicts the household income quintiles for households with at least one member aged 15–34 years. According to the analysis, approximately 21% of youth-accommodating households fall into income quintile 1, with a monthly income of no more than R1 800. Notably, there were no significant differences in households with youth found in income quintiles 1, 3, and 4, as the differences were negligible. This was similar to what was observed in quintiles 2 and 5. However, it is worth noting that households with youth were much lower in quintiles 2 and 5 than in quintiles 1, 3, and 4, implying that households with youth are concentrated in quintiles 1, 3, and 4.

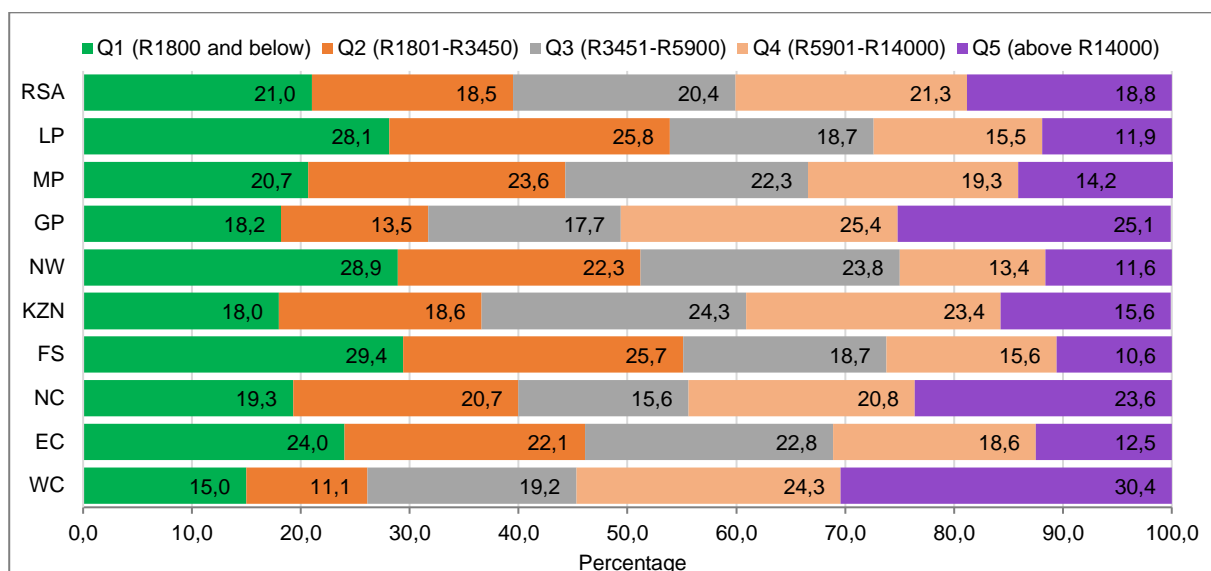
Figure 8.6: Household income quintile for households with youth by geo-type, 2020



Source: GHS 2020

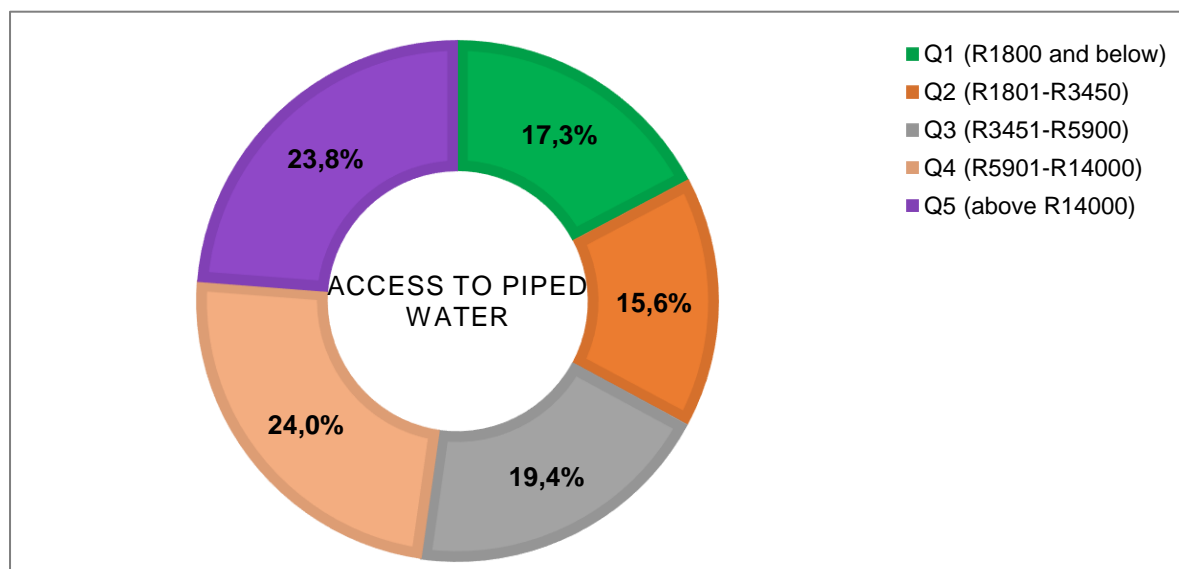
The analysis of household income quintile for households with youth by geographical location revealed significant disparities between income quintiles. The Shared United Nations System Framework for Action explicitly emphasises the need to do more to address the needs of people experiencing extreme poverty, including those in rural areas³⁴. Income is one of the key drivers of poverty. The findings showed that an overwhelming majority of rural households with youth were concentrated in lower-income quintiles (quintiles 1, 2, and 3), with more than a quarter of them in income quintiles 1 (27,4 percent) and 2 (26,3 percent), and more than one-fifth (23,4 percent) in income quintile 3. On the contrary, most urban households with youth were found in income quintile 4 (24,1%) and 5 (24,0%), whereas only about 7,5% of rural households were found in this income quintile. These findings highlight the inequalities that individuals and households in rural areas face, which serve as a catalyst for the poor socio-economic circumstances in which they often find themselves. Poor socio-economic circumstances are often characterised by hunger, poverty and sometimes poor service delivery.

³⁴ United Nations System Chief Executives, (2016). Board for Coordination Leaving No One Behind: Equality and Non-Discrimination at the Heart of Sustainable Development. The United Nations System Shared Framework for Action

Figure 8.7: Household income quintile for households with youth by province, 2020

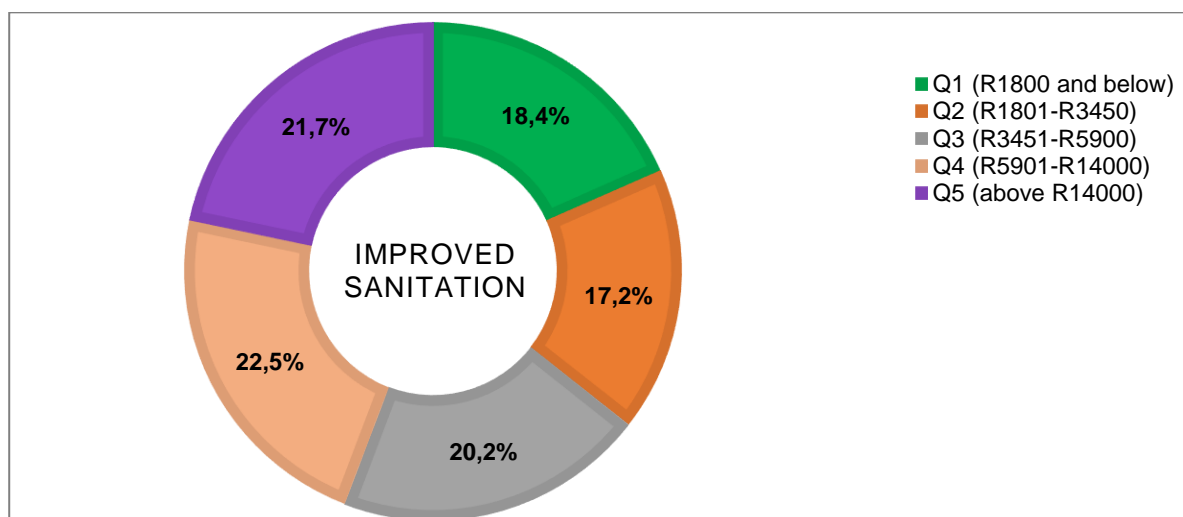
Source: GHS 2020

Figure 8.7 illustrates the household income quintile for household with youth by province in 2020. The analysis revealed glaring disparities between poor and affluent provinces in terms of the income quintiles in which households with youth were mostly likely to be found. Provinces that are not considered to be the country's economic hubs and have relatively poor economic prospects for young people had a lower percentage of households with youth in quintile 5, which was even lower than the national average of 18,8%. The affluent provinces, on the other hand, which are distinguished by better economic prospects for young people, had a significantly higher percentage of households with youth, ranging from 23,6% to 30,4%, with the Western Cape (30,4%) and Gauteng (25,15%) respectively leading the way.

Figure 8.8: Access to piped water for households with youth by income quintile, 2020

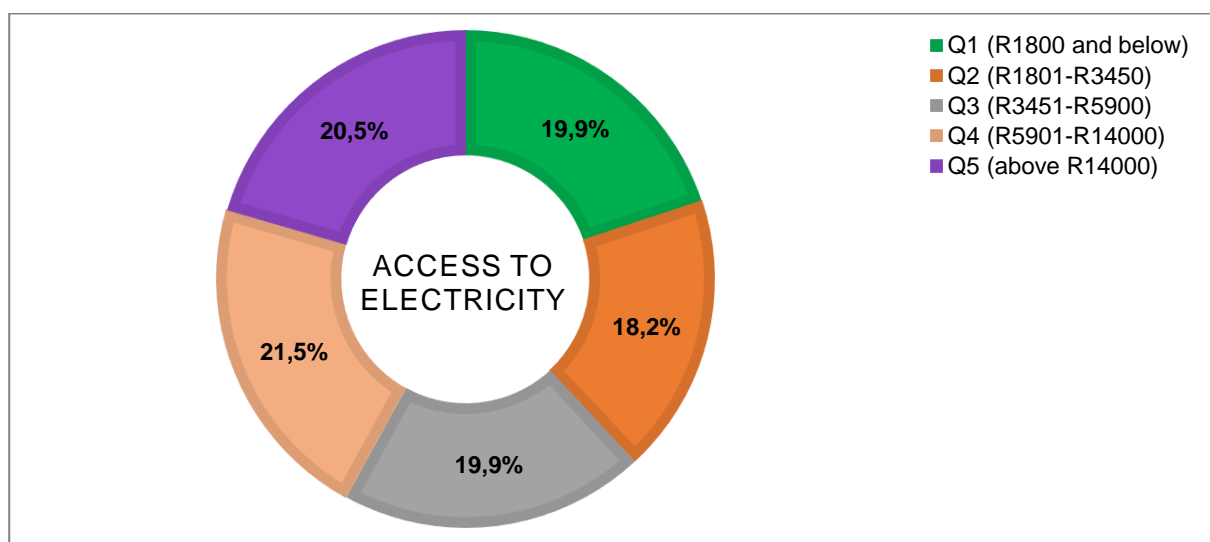
Source: GHS 2020

Figure 8.8 depicts access to piped water for households with youth by household income quintile in 2020. Households with youth numbered over 12,2 million in 2020, but a little more than 9 million indicated to have access to piped water, accounting for approximately 74,1% of all households with youth. The majority of households with youth who have indicated to have access to piped water were concentrated in income quintile 4 and 5, accounting for 23,8% and 24,0%, respectively. Households with youth in income quintile 2 lagged behind all other households found in other income quintiles, with only 15,6% having piped water.

Figure 8.9: Access to improved sanitation for households with youth by income quintile, 2020

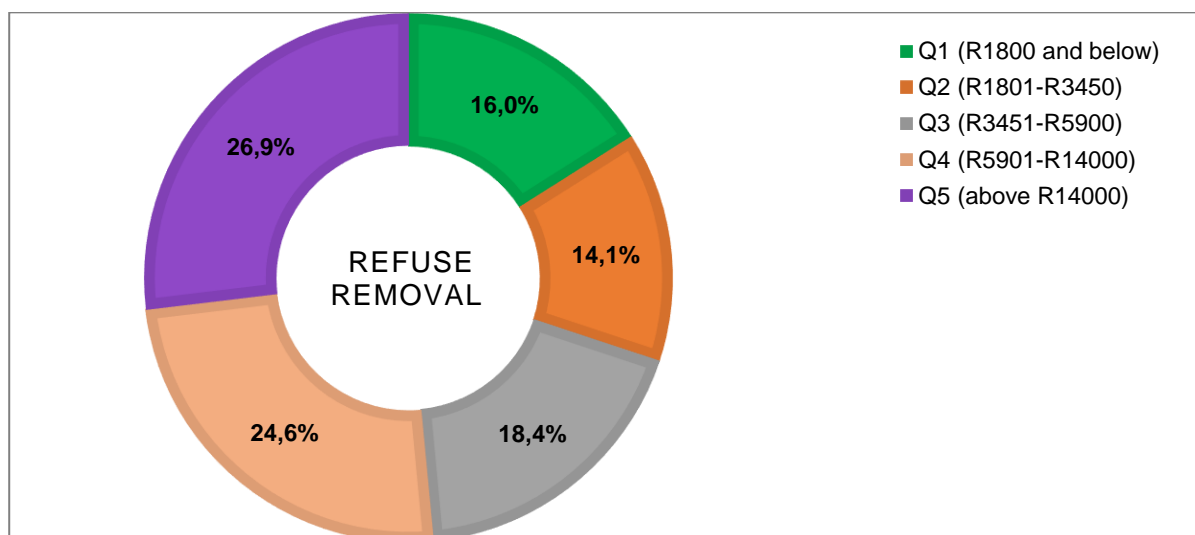
Source: GHS 2020

Figure 8.9 illustrates access to improved sanitation for households with youth by household income quintile in 2020. Households with youth numbered over 12,2 million in 2020, with more than 10,1 million of these households indicating access to improved sanitation, accounting for approximately 82,5% of all youth-accommodating households. Nearly two-thirds of these households were in income quintiles 1 to 3. In 2020, income quintile 4 (22,5%) had the highest percentage of households with youth who had access to improved sanitation, closely followed by income quintile 5 (21,7%), while income quintile 3 accounted for only one-fifth (20,2%) of households with such access. Similar to the findings for access to piped water, households with youth in income quintile 2 lagged behind, with slightly more than 17% indicating access to improved sanitation.

Figure 8.10: Access to electricity for households with youth by income quintile, 2020

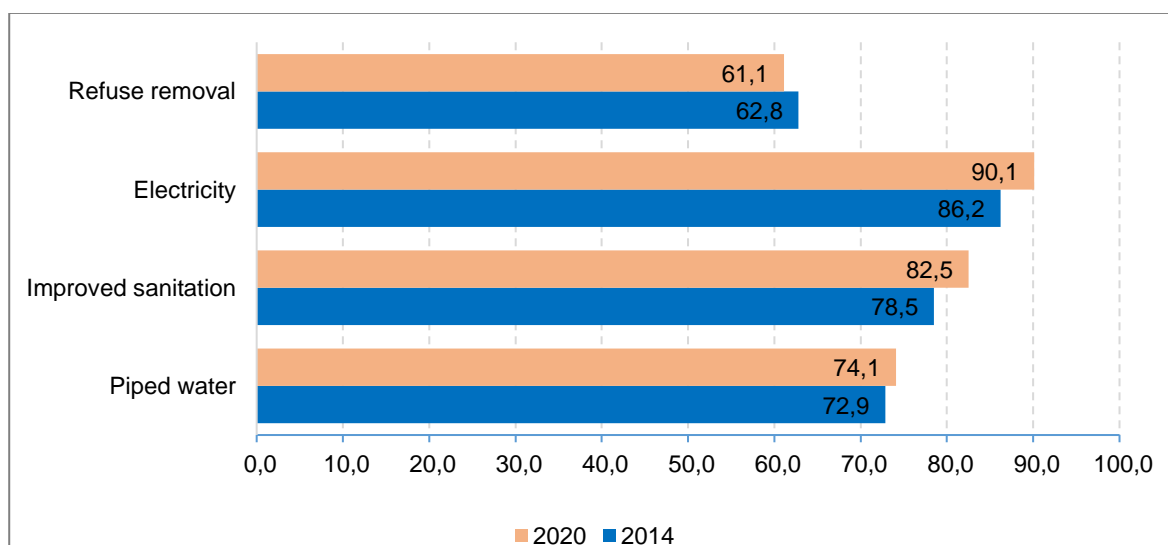
Source: GHS 2020

Figure 8.10 illustrates an analysis of access to electricity for households with youth by household income quintile in 2020. Households with youth numbered over 12,2 million in 2020, with more than 11 million of these households having access to electricity, accounting for approximately 90,1% of all youth-accommodating households. According to the findings, 42% of these households were concentrated in income quintiles 4 and 5. As with access to piped water and improved sanitation, youth-accommodating households in income quintile 4 appear to be dominant in terms of access to basic services, closely followed by those in income quintile 5. Households with youth in income quintile 2 (18,2%) lagged behind in access to electricity, as it was the case even in other types of basic services such as water and sanitation.

Figure 8.11: Access to refuse removal for households with youth by income quintile, 2020

Source: GHS 2020

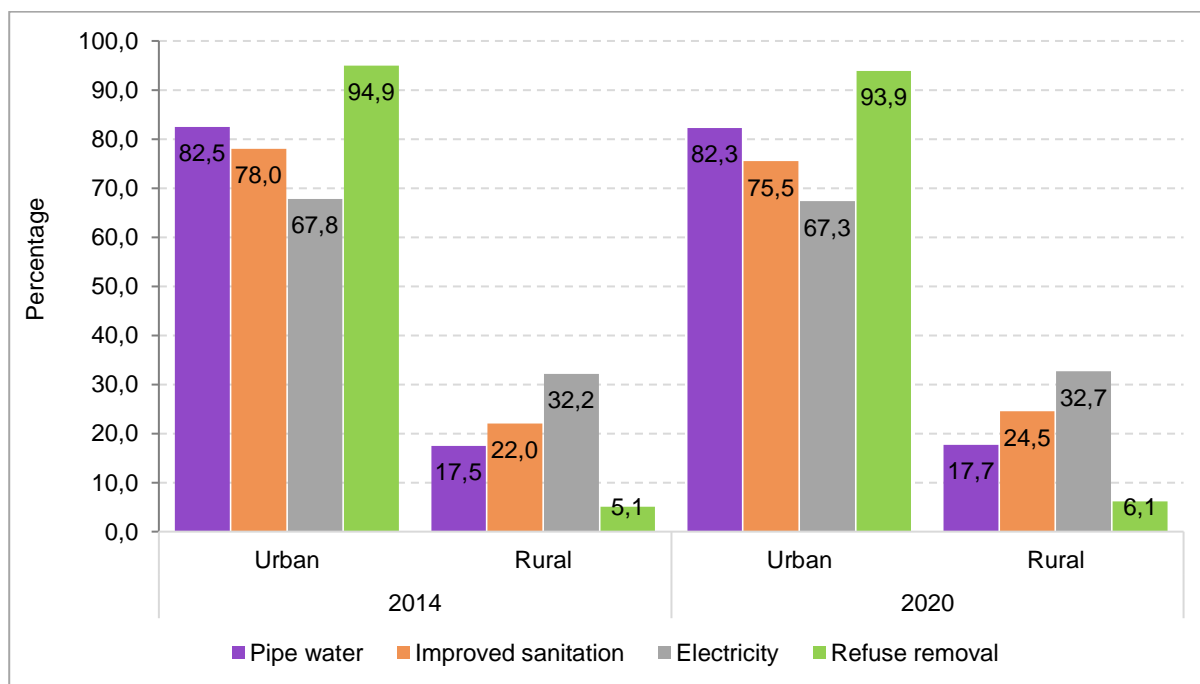
Figure 8.11 depicts access to the refuse removal services for households with youth by household income quintile in 2020. Households with youth numbered over 12,2 million in 2020, with more than 7,4 million of these households having access to refuse removal services, accounting for approximately 61,1% of all youth-accommodating households. Notably, over a quarter (26,9%) of youth-accommodating households in income quintile 5 had access to refuse removal services at least once a week. Access to this service by these households was significantly higher than their access to other types of basic services. As expected, nearly a quarter (24,6%) of households with youth in income quintile 4 had access to refuse removal services. Households with youth in income quintiles 1 and 2 were noticeably lower, with households in income quintile 2 accounting for only 14% of total households with youth who had access to refuse removal services, while those in income quintile 1 accounted for 16% of total households with access to this type of service.

Figure 8.12: Access to basic services for youth-accommodating households, 2014 and 2020

Source: GHS 2014, 2020

According to the South African Constitution, municipalities are responsible for ensuring that all citizens have access to services that meet their basic needs, and that the government takes reasonable steps to ensure that these services are available at an affordable cost. Figure 8.12 shows marked increases in access to basic services by youth-accommodating households, particularly piped water, improved sanitation, and electricity, over the seven-year reporting period. However, access to refuse removal services decreased by nearly 2% (1,7 percentage points) during this period.

Figure 8.13: Access to basic services for youth-accommodating households by geo-type, 2014 and 2020



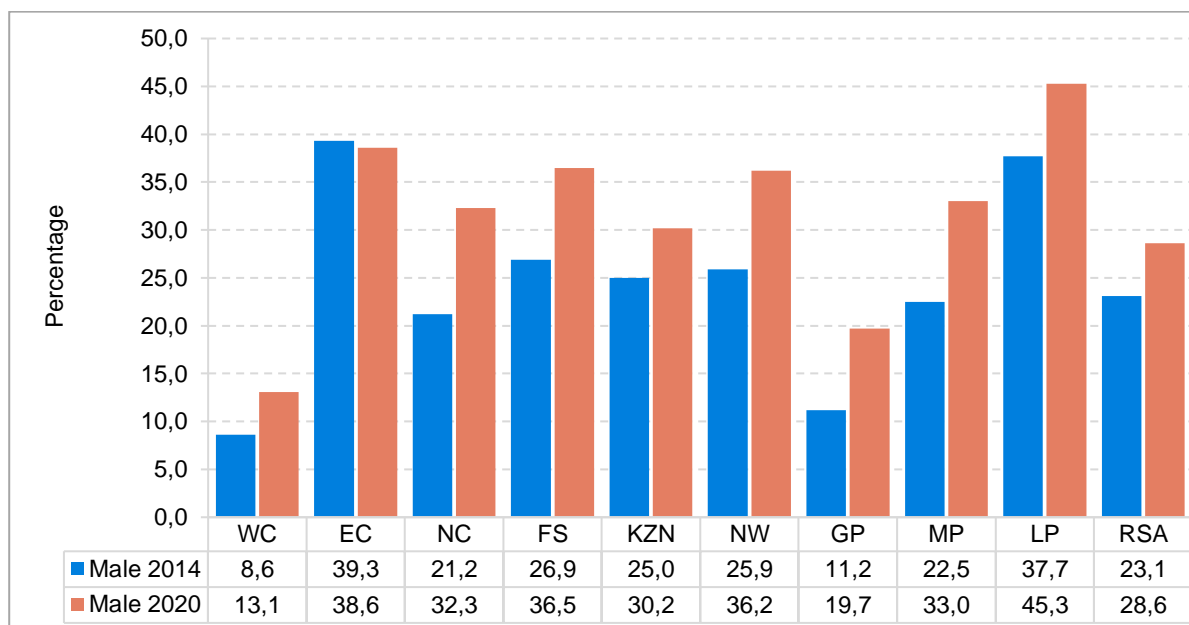
Source: GHS 2014, 2020

Nationally, between 2014 and 2020, there was an increase in access to basic services by youth-accommodating households (see Figure 8.12). However, as shown in Figure 8.13, this increase was primarily driven by increases realised in rural areas, as urban areas experienced a decline in access to all basic services. The largest increases were observed in access to improved sanitation (2,5 percentage points) and refuse removal services by a percentage point, while access to piped water (0,2 of a percentage point) and electricity (half a percentage point) increased by negligible percentage points.

8.4 Households without an employed adult

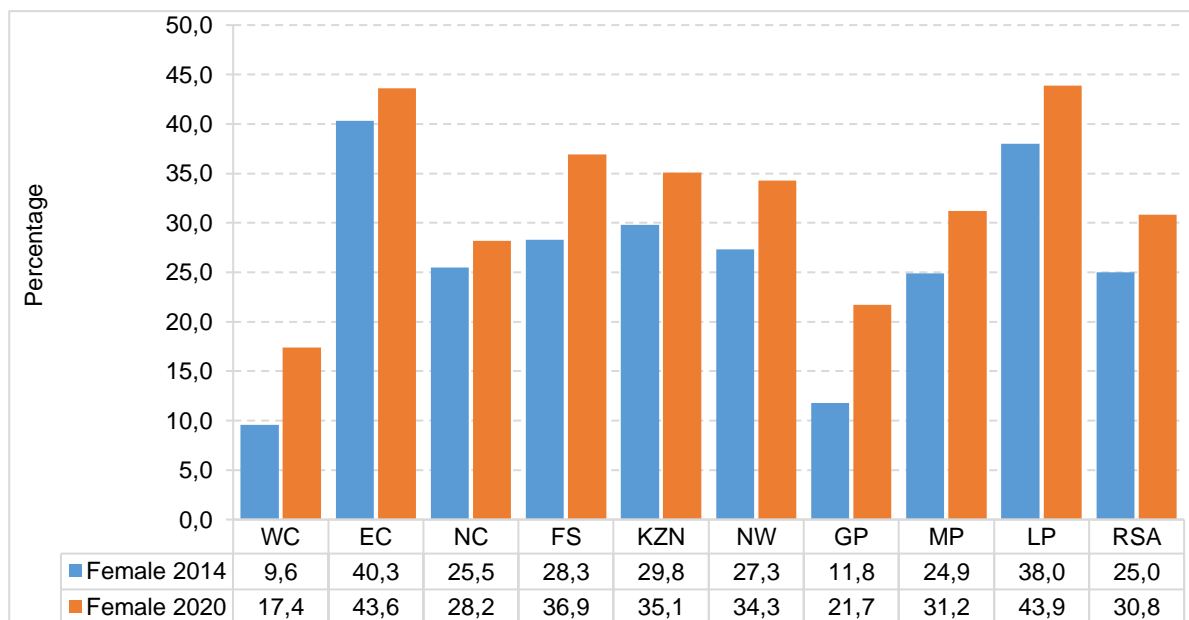
Households with no adults working are more likely to be poor, as employment is one of the most important sources of income and a key driver of escaping poverty. Unemployment disrupts the economic well-being of many households, especially when they need to attend to necessities such as education, health, transportation, and food, to name a few.

Figure 8.14a: Percentage of males aged 15–34 years living in households without an employed adult, 2014 and 2020



Source: GHS 2014, 2020

Figure 8.14b: Percentage of females aged 15–34 years living in households without an employed adult, 2014 and 2020



Source: GHS 2014, 2020

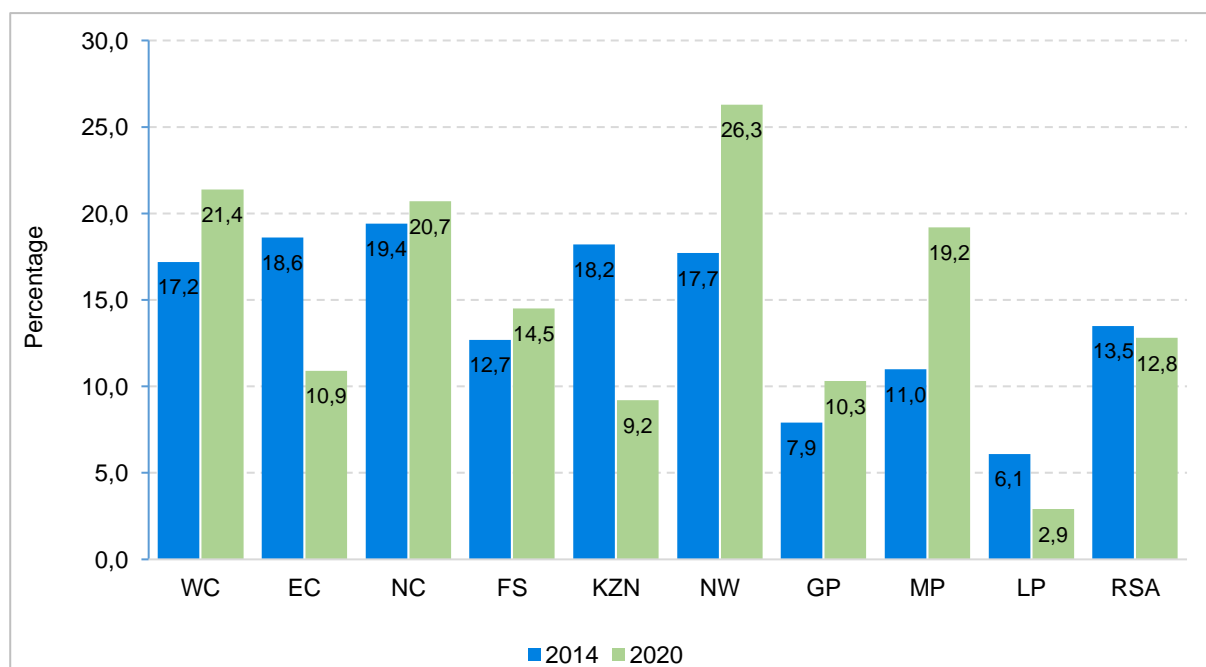
Figure 8.14a and b show the percentages of males and females aged 15–34 years living in households without an employed adult. Over the seven-year reporting period, the percentage of youth living in these vulnerable households has increased, with males increasing by an average of 5,5 percentage points (increased from 23,1% in 2014 to 28,6%) and females increasing by 5,8 percentage points (increased from 25,0% in 2014 to 30,8% in 2020). Generally, even before the observed increase, young women were more likely than their male counterparts to be found in these households where no adult worked.

Provincial analysis revealed that eight out of the nine province among males recorded increases in the percentage of youth living in households without an employed adult. The largest increases were observed in provinces such as Northern Cape (11,1 percentage points), Mpumalanga (10,5 percentage points) and North West (10,3 percentage points). Despite the negligible decrease of a 0,7 percentage point observed in the Eastern Cape and relatively less substantial increase of 7,6 percentage points in Limpopo compared to other provinces that recorded significant increases, the young men in the two provinces remain highly affected by the absence of employed adults in their households. Similarly, analysis among females showed a generic increase that was observed across all provinces, with only three province recording increases that were less than the nation average of 5,8 percentage points. The analysis revealed a feminisation effect attributed to the absence of employed adults in households with youth, which disproportionately affected young women across all provinces, making households with young women more susceptible to poverty. Similar to the findings in the analysis among males, young women in the Eastern Cape and Limpopo were more likely to be found in households without an employed adult than in other provinces.

8.5 Hunger and poverty

Poverty levels in South Africa remain relatively high, particularly among the marginalised groups, including youth. To combat extreme poverty, the government offers a "social wage package" that includes social grants, no-fee schools, free public health care, and the delivery of Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) houses³⁵. According to the NDP, food insecurity, which is a catalyst for hunger in many households, is both a cause and a result of poverty. While South Africa is food secure on a national level, the country is still food insecure at a household level because not all households have access to sufficient food³⁶.

Figure 8.15: Youth in households that experience hunger by province, 2014 and 2020



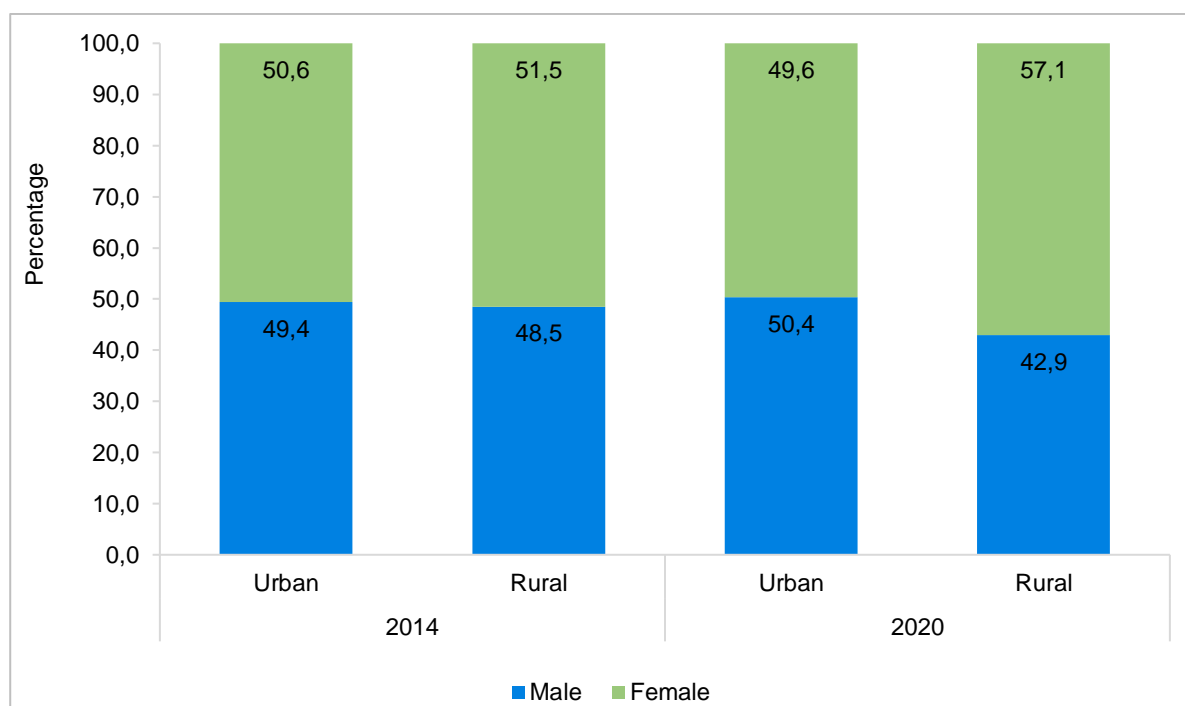
Source: GHS 2014, 2020

³⁵ Ariane De Lannoy, Murray Leibbrandt and Emily Frame. (2015). South African Child Gauge "A focus on youth: An opportunity to disrupt the intergenerational transmission of poverty"

³⁶ Statistics South Africa.(Report: 03-00-14). "Towards Measuring the extent of Food Security in South Arica: an examination of hunger and food inadequacy"

Figure 8.15 depicts youth in households that experience hunger by province in 2014 and 2020. Nationally, during this period, the proportion of youth in households that reported hunger declined by 0,7 of a percentage point (from 13,5% in 2014 to 12,8% in 2020). This decline was mainly driven by large decreases recorded in provinces such as KwaZulu-Natal (dropped by 9,0 percentage points), Eastern Cape (dropped by 7,7 percentage points) and Limpopo (dropped by 3,2 percentage points), which were below the national average. The decrease in hunger experiences in rural provinces is contrary to the anticipated impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, as people were not working and thus were not paid during the hard lockdown period. However, this could be attributed to the fact that rural households partly survive on subsistence farming, which can drastically reduce the incidences of hunger and food insecurity. The proportion of youth in households that reported hunger increased significantly in North West (up by 8,6 percentage points), Mpumalanga (up by 8,2 percentage points), and Western Cape (up by 4,2 percentage points).

Figure 8.16: Youth in households that experience hunger by geotype and sex, 2014 and 2020

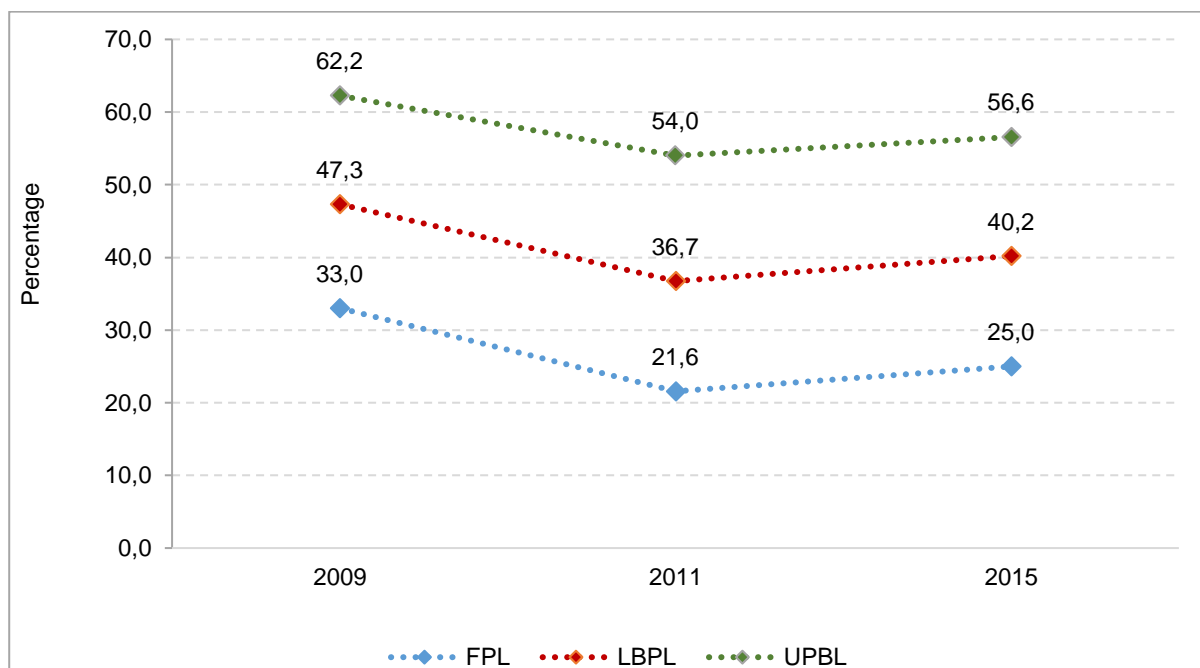


Source: GHS 2014, 2020

Women are more likely than men to go hungry as a result of income disparities, limited access to employment or means of production, and cultural practices that place them last or allow them smaller portions when food is scarce³⁷. According to Figure 8.16, females disproportionately bear the brunt of hunger and this was the case in both years across all the geographical locations except in urban areas in 2020, where households containing youth who were males reported slightly more experiences of hunger, with a negligible difference of just under a half percentage point (0,4 of a percentage point). Hunger experiences report by rural households with young women were significantly higher in both years, with the year 2020 recording largest percentage difference of 14,2 percentage points.

³⁷ www.oxfam.org/grow 'Hidden Hunger in South Africa'

Figure 8.17: Proportion of youth living below food poverty line, lower bound poverty line and upper bound poverty lines (2009, 2011 and 2015)



Source: LCS 2008/09, IES 2010/11 and LCS 2015

The Food poverty line (FPL) is the Rand value below which individuals are unable to purchase or consume enough food to supply them with minimum per-capita-per-day energy requirement for adequate health. The Rand values of the FPL were as follows: R318 in 2009, R335 in 2011, and R441 in 2015. The lower bound poverty line (LBPL) is an austere threshold below which individuals who do not have command over enough resources to purchase or consume both adequate food and non-food items and are therefore forced to sacrifice food to obtain essential non-food items. The Rand values of the LBPL were R456 in 2009, 501 in 2011 and R647 in 2015. The upper bound poverty line (UBPL) is a threshold of relative deprivation below which people cannot afford the minimum desired lifestyle by most South Africans. The Rand values of the UBPL were R709 for 2009, and R779 for 2011 and R992 for 2015.

Figure 8.17 shows the proportion of youth living below the FPL, LBPL and UBPL in 2009, 2011 and 2015. This proportion decreased for all three poverty lines from 2009 to 2011, however an upward trajectory was then recorded moving to 2015, with UBPL increasing by 2,6 percentage points (from 54,0% in 2011 to 56,6% in 2015), LBPL increased by 3,5 percentage points (from 36,7% in 2011 to 40,2% in 2015). The FPL realised an increase of 3,4 percentage points (from 21,6% in 2011 to 25,0% in 2015).

Figure 8.18a: Proportion of youth living below food poverty line by sex (2009, 2011 and 2015)

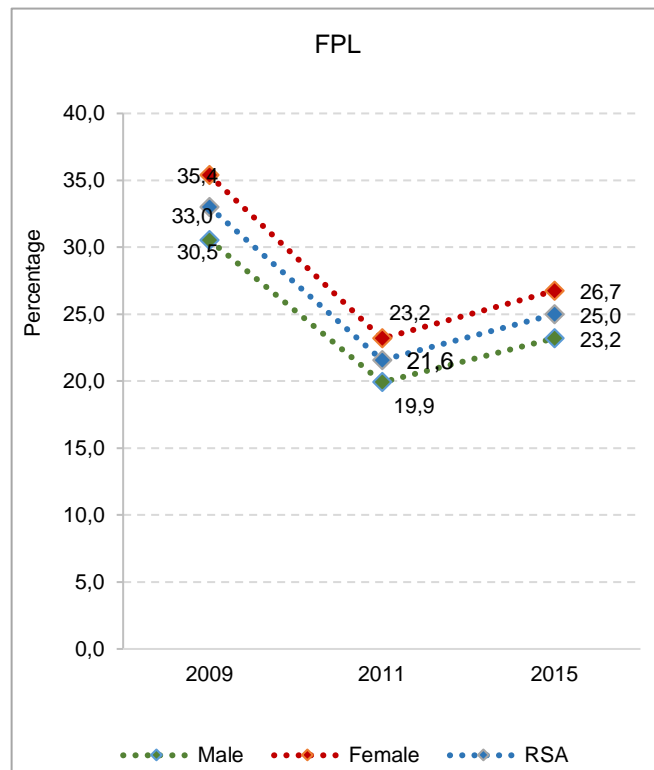


Figure 8.18b : Proportion of youth living below lower bound poverty line by sex (2009, 2011 and 2015)

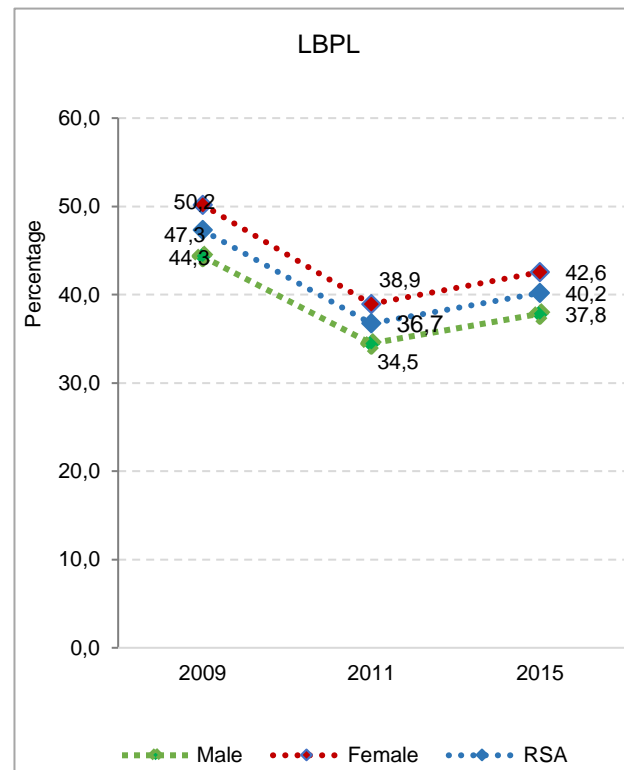
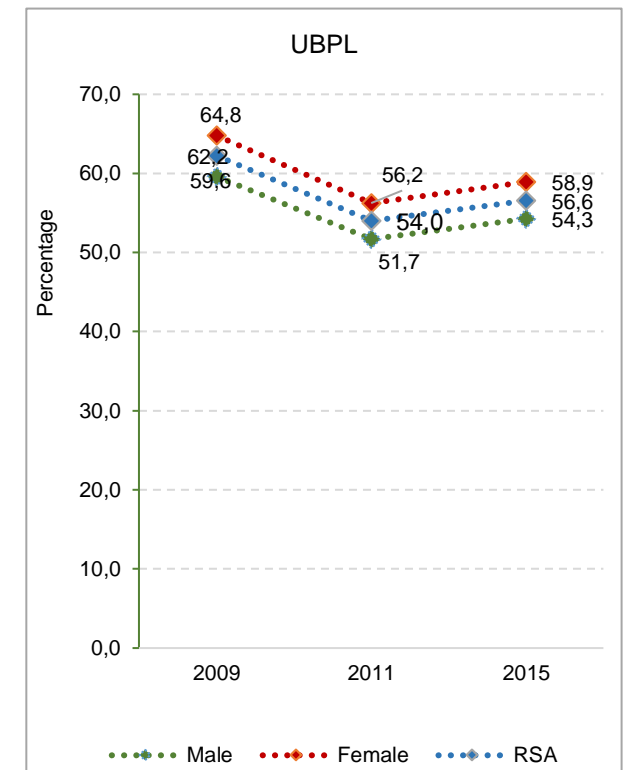


Figure 8.18c : Proportion of youth living below upper bound poverty line (2009, 2011 and 2015)



Source: LCS 2008/09, IES 2010/11 and LCS 2015

Figures 8.18a, 8.18b and 8.18c show the proportions of youth living below the FPL, LBPL and UBPL in, 2009, 2011 and 2015, respectively. Generally, females aged 15–34 years accounted for a higher proportion of youth living below all the three poverty lines than their male counterparts, who seemed to be much better off. These three figures mirror the national trend, which exhibited a decline in the proportion of youth living below all three poverty lines from 2009 to 2011, then increased from 2011 to 2015 (see Figure 8.7). Similarly, the proportion of youth among both males and females for all three poverty lines dipped in 2011 before projecting an upward trajectory moving to 2015.

8.6 Conclusion

The majority of youth resided in formal dwellings; this proportion increased from 79,8% in 2014 to 83,7% in 2020, whereas households with youth residing in traditional and informal dwellings declined. Between 2014 and 2020, the top three main sources of income for households with youth were salaries/wages/commission, social grants and remittances, though salaries/wages/commission decreased in 2020. During the reporting period, rural households with youth relied on grants as their primary source of income, with an increase of nearly 7%. (from 40% in 2014 to 46,9% in 2020). Remittance income was also common among rural households. Furthermore, approximately 21% of youth-accommodating households fall into income quintile 1, with a monthly income of no more than R1 800.

Analysis of access to basic service revealed marked increases in youth-accommodating households, particularly access to piped water, improved sanitation, and electricity, which were mainly driven by increases realised by youth-accommodating households in rural areas. Over the seven-year reporting period, the percentage of youth living in households without an employed adult has increased, with males increasing from 23,1% in 2014 to 28,6% in 2020, and females increasing from 25,0% in 2014 to 30,8% in 2020. Analysis on poverty revealed that females aged 15–34 years accounted for a higher proportion of youth living below all the three poverty lines than their male counterparts, who seemed to be much better off.

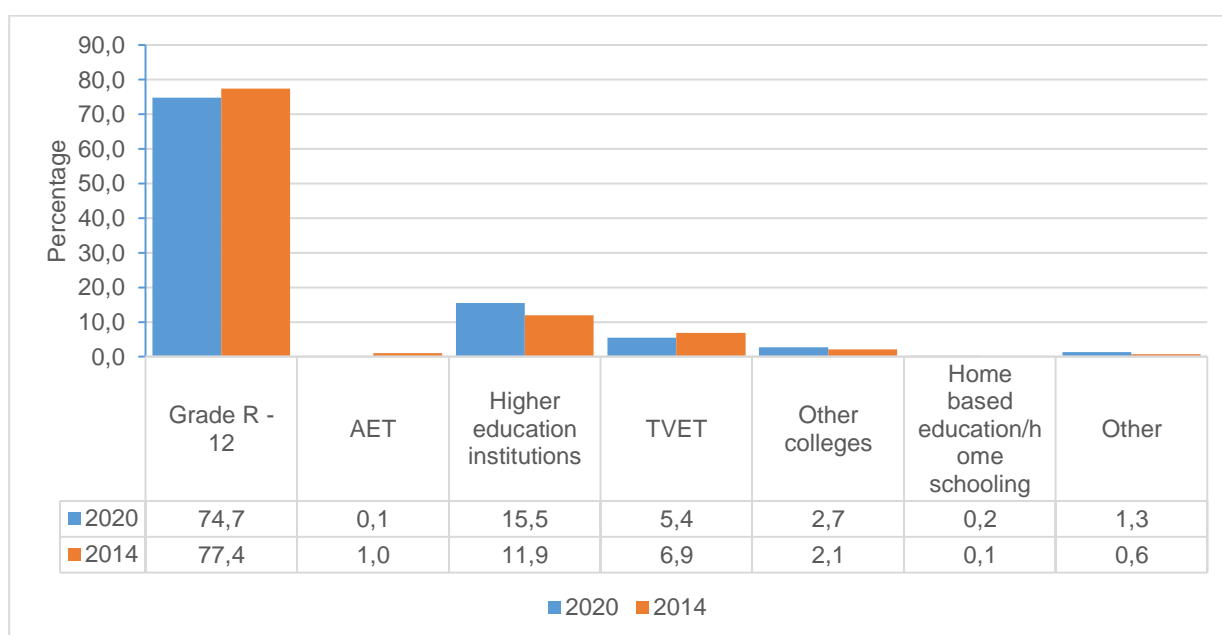
CHAPTER 9: YOUTH AND EDUCATION

9.0 Background

South Africa is one of the most unequal countries in the world and has one of the most unequal school systems in the world³⁸. With the principle that education drives the youth in the right, proper and straight direction³⁹, the youth forms part of a critical group in achieving SDG 4 which aims to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all. Evidence from various studies show that the formal education increase the likelihood for employment and that school attendance and getting matric with further post matric qualification immeasurably improve a young person's employment prospects.⁴⁰ This section looks at the youth attendance at educational institution, educational attainment and tuition fees.

9.1 Attendance

Figure 9.1: Percentage of youth attending educational institution, 2014 and 2020



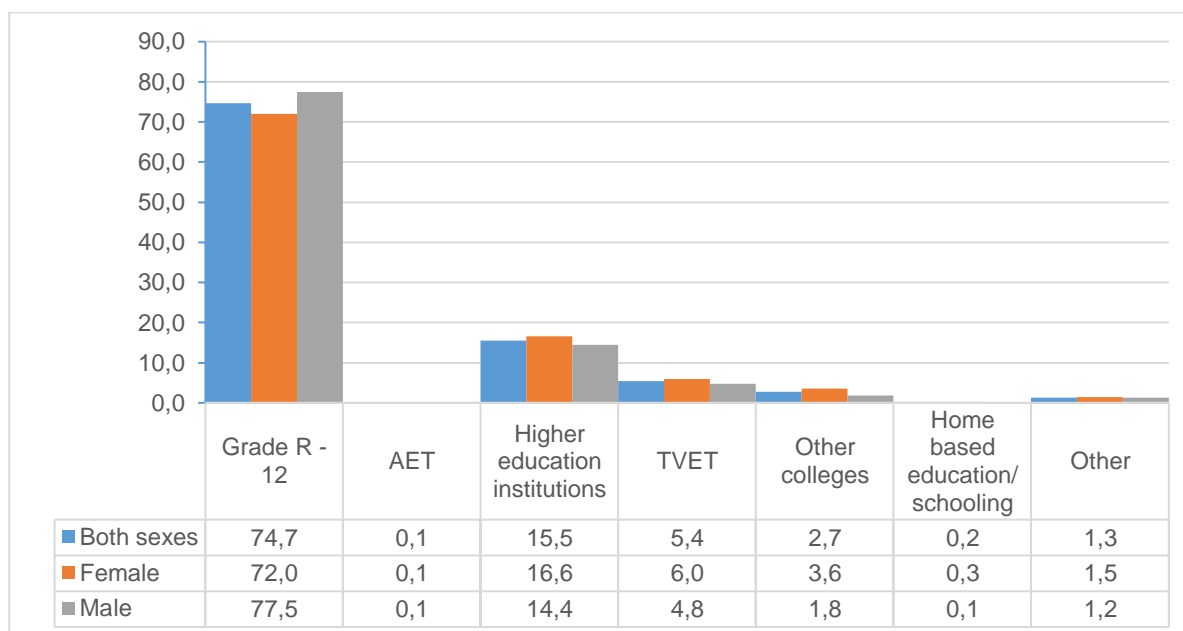
GHS 2014, GHS 2020

The figure above depicts percentage of youth attending educational institution. The attendance for youth was higher for those in schools in both years compared to other educational institutions. However, youth attendance at schools decreased with a 2,7 percentage point from 2014 to 2020. In 2020, there was an increase in the percentage of youth enrolled in University/University of Technology (3,6 percentage points), other (0,7 percentage points), other colleges (0,6 percentage points) and home based education/ home schooling (0,1 percentage points).

9.2 Education Attainment

³⁸Inchauste, G., Lustig, N., Maboshe, M., Purfield, C., Woolard, I., & Zikhali, P. (2017). The distributional impact of fiscal policy in South Africa. *Policy Research working paper*, 7194.

³⁹Odo, A. I. Youth Education: A Prerequisite for Peace-Building and Sustainable Development in Nigeria. *Pinisi Journal of Art, Humanity and Social Studies*, 1(2), 21-26.

Figure 9.2: Percentage of youth attending educational institution by sex, 2020

GHS 2020

The figure above shows youth attending educational institution by sex. The attendance for youth were higher for schools. In 2020, the majority of the youth were enrolled in schools (74,7%) , followed by those in University/University of Technology (15,5%), TVET (5,4%) and the least were those in AET (0,1%). Among the youth population, a higher percentage of males were in schools compared to females. A higher proportion of females than males attended at University/University of Technology, TVET and other colleges.

Table 9.1: Percentage of youth attending educational institution by population group, 2020

Education institution	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	RSA
	%				
Schools	77,0	75,2	41,2	49,7	74,7
AET	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,1
University/ University of Technology	12,9	15,8	46,2	46,1	15,5
TVET	5,9	4,2	1,3	0,0	5,4
Other colleges	2,7	3,5	0,0	2,9	2,7
Home based education/schooling	0,1	0,4	3,3	1,2	0,2
Other	1,3	1,0	8,1	0,0	1,3
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

GHS 2020

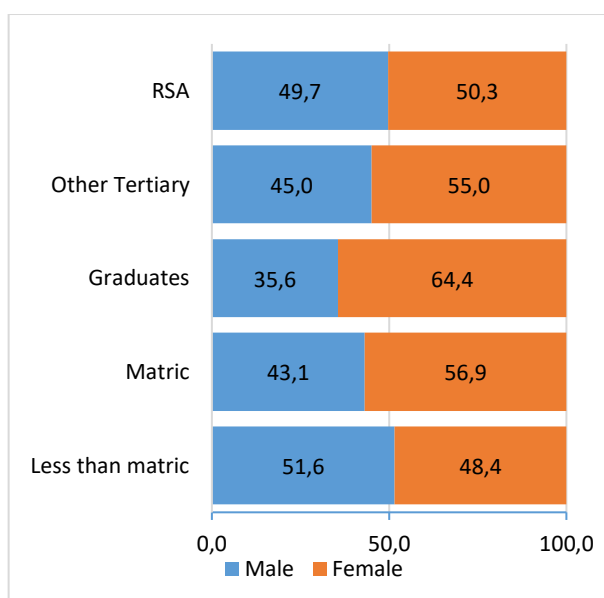
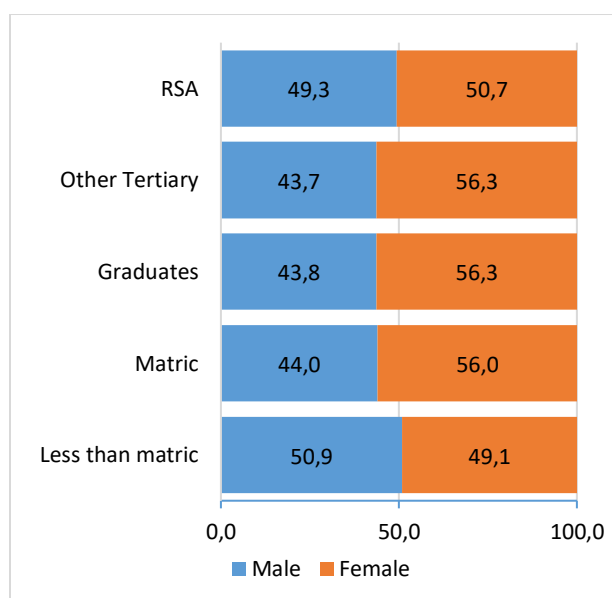
Table above shows the youth attending educational institution by population group. Among all the population groups, the Indian/Asian population and white had the highest percentage (46,2% and 46,1% respectively) of youth enrolled at university. Compared to other population groups, Indian/Asian had a higher percentage of 3,3% who enrolled for home based education /home schooling.

Table 9.2: Percentage of youth attending educational institution by geotype, 2020

Education institution	Urban		Rural		Total	
	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%
Grade R-12	2 446	67,4	1 982	86,3	4 428	74,7
AET	5	0,2	0	0,0	5	0,1
Higher education institutions	744	20,5	175	7,6	919	15,5
TVET	233	6,4	86	3,8	320	5,4
Other colleges	130	3,6	31	1,4	161	2,7
Home based education/ schooling	7	0,2	5	0,2	12	0,2
Other	63	1,7	17	0,7	80	1,3
Total	3 629	100,0	2 296	100,0	5 925	100,0

GHS 2020

The table above shows the youth attending the educational institution by geographical location. The analysis revealed that, irrespective of where the youth resided, the majority of the youth reported to have enrolled in schools (67,4% in urban areas and 86,3% in rural areas). Although both urban and rural areas had the highest percentage of youth in schools and University/University of Technology, huge differences were observed. 7,6% of youth in rural areas indicated to be attending University/University of Technology in 2020, as compared to 20,5 % of youth attending the same institutions among those residing in urban areas. Attendance to schools was higher in rural areas as compared to urban areas (86,3 % and 67,4% respectively). On the other, youth in urban areas were more likely to attend higher education institutions than those in rural areas (20,5% and 7,6% respectively). The enrolment in Adult Education and Training Learning Centre (ABET/AET Centre) was common in urban areas as compared to rural areas.

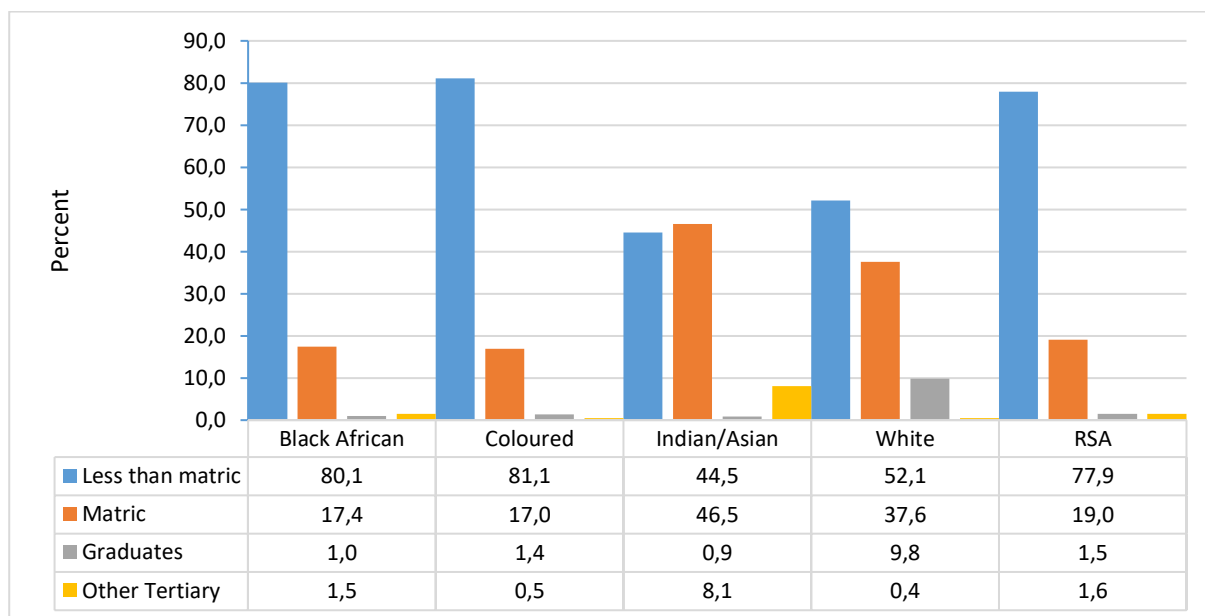
Figure 9.3a: Percentage of youth by educational attainment and sex, 2014**Figure 9.3b: Percentage of youth by educational attainment and sex, 2020**

GHS 2014, GHS 2020

Figure 9.3a and 9.3b above shows the percentage of youth by educational attainment and sex. Analysis revealed that a higher percentage of males than females attained the highest level of education of less than matric in both years. On the other hand, females were more likely to have attained the highest level of education of matric, other tertiary qualifications and have graduated from University/University of Technology. Despite the fact that females had a higher proportion of graduates, they observed a decline of 8,1 percentage points in 2021. According to literature, young women tend to gain more from a tertiary degree in the labour

market than their male counterparts, both in terms of employment and earnings.⁴¹ This may serve as a motivation for women to pursue higher education.

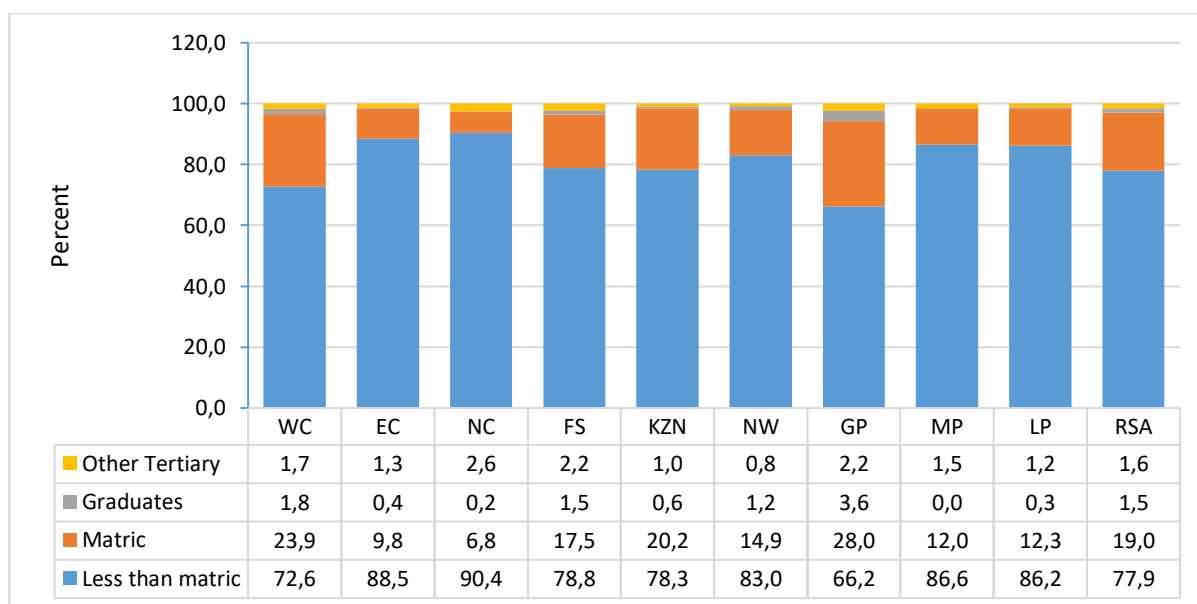
Figure 9.4: Percentage of youth by educational attainment and population group, 2020



GHS 2020

Figure 9.4 above shows the youth educational attainment by population group. Nationally, the majority of the youth indicated that they have less than matric (77,9%) followed by those with matric (19,0%), other tertiary (1,6%) and the least was graduates (1,5%) as their highest level of education. Indian/Asian population had a highest percentage of youth with matric and other tertiary qualifications as the highest level of education compared to other population groups. Whites had a highest percentage of youth who were graduates than other population groups.

Figure 9.5: Percentage distribution of youth by educational attainment and province, 2020



GHS 2020

⁴¹OECD (2021), "Why do more young women than men go on to tertiary education?", *Education Indicators in Focus*, No. 79, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/6f7209d1-en>.

Figure 9.5 above shows the percentage distribution of youth by educational attainment and province in 2020. Nationally, more than 75% of youth attained qualification less than matric, while 19,0% have attained matric. The highest percentage of youth reported to have less than matric followed by those with matric in all the nine provinces. However, graduates qualifications were most common in Gauteng (3,6%) and Western Cape (1,8%) and least common in Mpumalanga (0,0%).

9.3 Conclusion

Youth school enrolment was higher at a school level (grade R-12) in both years, with males being more likely than females to be enrolled at this level of education. On the other hand, females were more likely to be enrolled at the University/ University of Technology, TVET and Other colleges. Analysis by the population group revealed that youth from the white and Indian/Asian population groups were more than twice as likely to be attending the University/ University of Technology compared to other population groups.

CHAPTER 10: CONCLUSION

10.1 Conclusion

Youth population has increased from 20,2 million to 20,6 million between 2014 and 2021. This accounted for 34,3 percentage share to the general population. However, youth population experienced a decrease in four of the nine provinces, such as Eastern Cape, Free State, KwaZulu-Natal, and Limpopo. As such, there was a decline in the overall youth population.

Analysis of the household characteristics showed that youth headed households accounted for 26,5% to the total households in 2021, with those aged 25–34 years realising a higher percentage of youth-headed households (23,5%) compared to those aged 15–24 years observed just over 3%. The share of youth-headed households was higher in urban areas compared to rural areas (73,1% vs. 26,9%). The findings further showed that majority of households among youth were headed by males for both urban and rural areas, and these increased by 2,4 and 2,0 percentage points respectively. When the data was examined in relation to the household intergenerational structure, compared to youth from other population groups, black African and white youth were most likely to live in single-generation households. Indian/Asian were most likely to live in second-generation households. Black African and coloured youth were more likely to live in third or more generation households, compared to Indian/Asian and white youth. Although the proportions of youth living in skip-generation households declined slightly, black Africans were still more likely to live in this type of household compared to other population groups.

Analysis on the participation of young people in the labour market showed that unemployment rate was high among youth, accounting for nearly 60% of the unemployed in 2021. High rate of unemployment among youth is also one of the catalysts that induce higher levels of poverty among youth (see analysis in Chapter 8). Efforts directed towards tackling the scourge of youth unemployment have to address structural factors contributing to this phenomenon, including encouraging young people to enrol in the fields of education that increase their employment prospects and also skills development to increase their prospects of employability. This notion was supported by the findings that showed that unemployed youth were most likely to have a highest level of education of less than matric whilst young graduates (those who qualified with a degree tertiary qualification) and others were least likely to be unemployed.

Young people have shown a lack of trust in some government and public institutions in 2019/20, with local government receiving the lowest percentage (59,5%). Rural youth had a higher level of trust in government and public institutions than urban youth. Youth trust in government sectors differed by province, with youth in the Western Cape and Gauteng putting more trust in provincial governments than national governments. Youth were the least satisfied with the quality of service offered by public housing services.

The number of provinces where young people felt safe during the day decreased, with the Western Cape and Eastern Cape having the highest decreases when compared to the other two provinces that also saw decreases (Mpumalanga and Gauteng). Assault, robbery, and property theft offences were more common among youth than among adults.

According to youth perceptions of gender-based violence (GBV), the proportion of young females was higher among those who thought GBV incidences had increased, and even higher among those who thought GBV incidences had decreased. Furthermore, youth believed that perpetrators of GBV were spouses or intimate partners, a previous partner, and a relative or family member(s) who were not part of the household.

Generally, between 2013 and 2020, there was an increase in the number of youth driving licence holders across all population groups except for the white males. The white youth were most likely than to have a driving licence than other population groups. On the contrary, black African youth lagged behind all other population groups. Young women were least likely to have driving licence. Generally, the majority of the youth indicated that they walked all the way to the educational institution, irrespective of their sex. Taxis were the most popular mode of transportation for young females to get to places of employment while majority of young males drove to their place of employment.

A review of other labour market indicators point show that between 2014 and 2021, labour force participation rates (LFPR) amongst youth declined by 3,5 percentage points; whilst the inactivity rate increased with 3,5 percentage points. The percentage of young persons aged 15–34 years who were not in employment, education, or training (NEET) increased by 7,8 percentage points from 38,2% to 46,0% (out of 20,5 million) in 2021 with the NEET rate for males increasing by 9,2 percentage points, while for females increasing by 7,8 percentage points in 2021. These trends could have detrimental effects on the future work force of this country

Analysis on poverty revealed that females aged 15–34 years accounted for a higher proportion of youth living below the upper bound, lower bound and food poverty lines than their male counterparts, who seemed to be much better off. Furthermore, percentage of youth living in households without an employed adult has increased and as a result, rural households with youth relied mostly on grants as their primary source of income.

An analysis of the causes of death pertaining to youth showed that out deaths made up 17,1% of all recorded deaths for 2013. This percentage of youth deaths decreased to 14,6% of the recorded in 2018 (16,8% for males and 12,1% for females). The two leading causes of death amongst youth were 'certain infectious and parasitic disease' (e.g. tuberculosis (TB), intestinal infectious diseases, HIV, other viral diseases) and "external causes of morbidity and mortality' (i.e. unnatural death e.g. other external causes of accidental injury, assault).

