

**Central Statistics**



**Women and men  
in South Africa**

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# **Women and men in South Africa**

**Central Statistics  
1998**

**Dr FM Orkin  
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Much of this report is based on data from the 1995 October household survey. The detailed statistical tables from that survey are available as 'October household survey', CSS statistical release **P0317** (South Africa as a whole), and **P0317.1** to **P0317.9** (the nine provinces). These can be ordered from Central Statistics, Pretoria, in both printed and electronic format.

Preliminary estimates of the size of the South African population, based on the population census conducted in October 1996, were issued by the CSS in July 1997. These indicated that there were fewer people (37,9 million) in the country, and that urbanisation (55%) had been more rapid, than was previously realised.

The new census numbers may have an effect on some of the weights and raising factors that were used in this report, since these are presently based on projections of population and household size to 1995, using the 1991 census estimates as baseline.

The CSS management believes that the model used to adjust the actual count of people found in the 1991 census probably overestimated population growth rates in the country, hence overestimating the size of the population and number of households.

*The percentages reported here may, accordingly, be modified in some cases once the CSS has more complete information from Census '96. Nevertheless, these overall indicators presented reflect broad gender patterns in South Africa.*



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# Introduction

In May 1994, South Africa was reunited under a new, democratically elected government. The interim constitution under which the new government operated, and the final constitution which came into effect in 1997, established non-discrimination as one of the most important guiding principles for the country. In particular, the government has committed itself to abolition of the race and gender inequality which previously characterised the country.

The new government reaffirmed its commitment to gender equality when it ratified the international Convention for the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) in 1995. In his March 1996 budget speech, the then Minister of Finance, Chris Liebenberg, promised that the government would disaggregate data by gender, introduce targets and indicators of gender equality, and develop a performance review mechanism in respect of gender.

At the time of the 1995 Beijing Conference on the status of women a number of countries produced booklets containing basic statistics on women and men. Although South Africa produced a narrative report for the conference, it was not yet ready to produce a 'Women and Men' statistical booklet. This report is South Africa's 'Women and Men' publication.

Gender statistics are urgently required. The Office on the Status of Women, the Commission on Gender Equality, and the gender desks within national departments and at provincial level, need information on the situation of women and men. All spheres of government need gender-disaggregated information to fulfil their planning functions. And, as time goes by, South Africans inside and outside government will want to measure whether policies and programmes are succeeding in addressing gender inequalities.

For the Central Statistical Service, this booklet also provides an opportunity to indicate the wealth of information that is available. While there are gaps in our information about many aspects of South African society, there is also a lot of data which is not being fully utilised, or has not been analysed. This report is an invitation to South Africans to improve levels of utilisation of what is available, and to make proposals on how the information base can be further expanded and improved.

## What are gender statistics?

Gender statistics extend beyond disaggregation of indicators into the categories of women and men. They focus on issues of particular relevance to women and men, girls and boys, and their different roles and positions in society. Statistics on household distance from water or fuel, for example, have different implications for women and men. For it is usually women who spend additional time collecting these necessities of life when they are not readily available to a household.

Virtually every aspect of society has its gendered aspect. Not all issues are measurable, and data are not yet available on many of those issues which can be measured. Nevertheless, there are far more gender statistics available than can be presented in this short booklet.

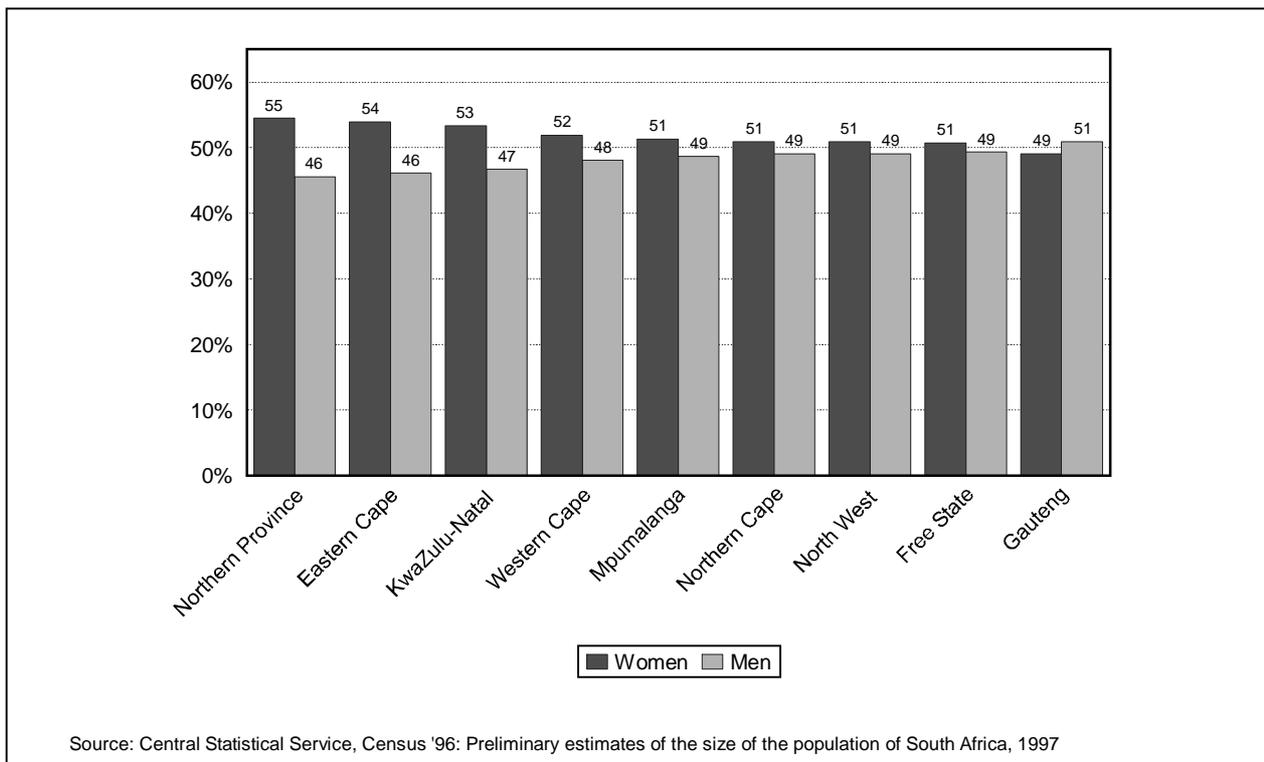
In making choices about what should be covered, priority has been given to some of the standard indicators covered in 'Women and Men' booklets from other countries. This enables comparison of South Africa's progress with that of countries at similar levels of development, and with similar problems. However, indicators have been adapted to measure our special problems. In particular, many of the indicators are further disaggregated by population group, or urban and non-urban areas.

Most of the statistics in this booklet are derived from the Central Statistics' annual October household survey. During the 1995 survey, 30 000 households, selected so as to be representative of the full population, were visited. Questions were asked both about the household, and about each of the individual members of the households surveyed. The results of the survey were then 'weighted up' so as to give figures for the full population.

The weighting of the 1995 October household survey was based on estimates of the population derived from the 1991 population census. However, preliminary results from the 1996 population census, released in June 1997, suggested that we have been overestimating the size of the country's population by about ten percent (CSS, 1997). One of the more important causes of previous overestimation was that demographers thought that the fertility rate, particularly in non-urban areas, was higher than it now seems. This means that the 1996 census will also probably show a decrease in the proportion of the population under the age of five years, a decrease in those of school-going age, and a decrease among those who live in non-urban areas and what were previously constituted as 'homelands' or bantustans.

Final results from Census '96 will only be available in September 1998. Until then, the CSS does not have enough accurate detailed information to recalculate weights for surveys such as the OHS. Figures shown in this booklet, therefore, are based on previous estimates of the population. To reduce possible error, most figures are reported as percentages rather than as absolute numbers. Nevertheless, the expected change in age, geographical and other aspects of the population profile suggest that even the percentages presented may, on occasion, be slightly inaccurate.

# Population: The provinces 1

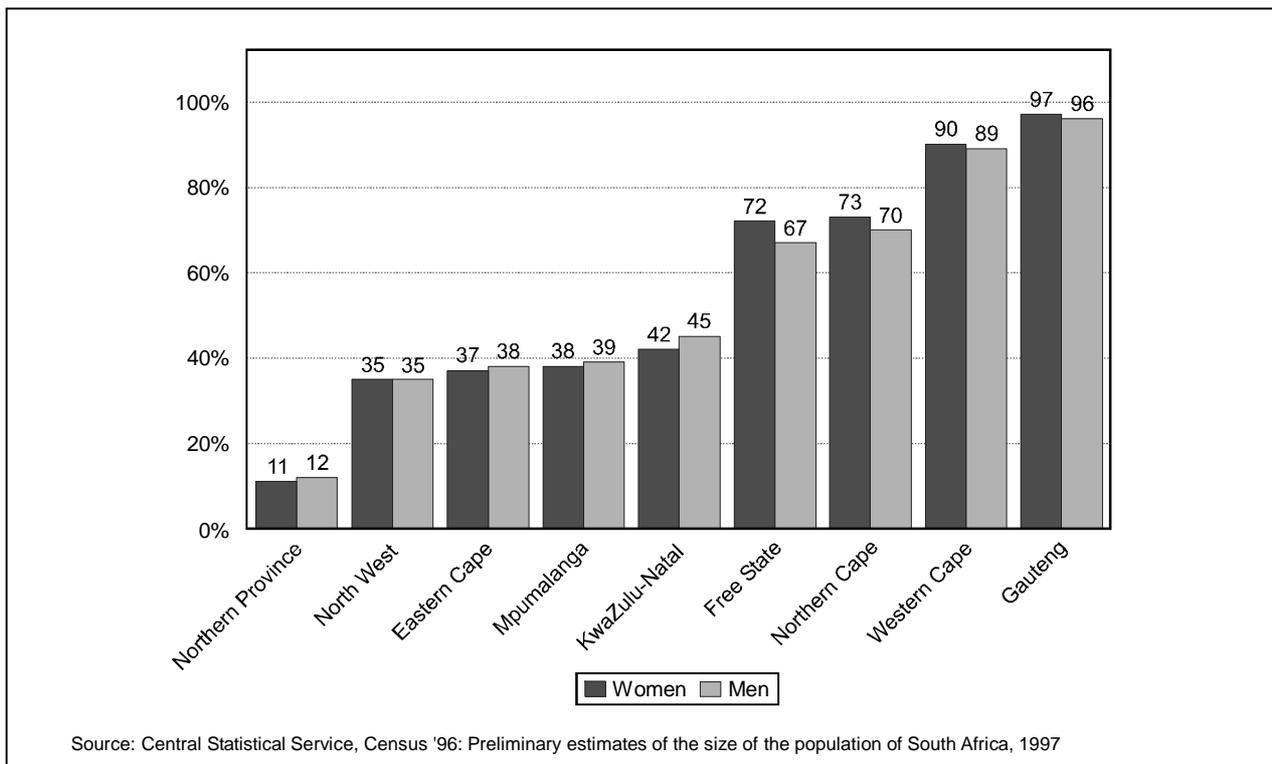


**Figure 1: Distribution of the population by province and gender**

- Figure 1 shows the gender breakdown of the population of each of the nine provinces, as indicated by the preliminary estimates of the 1996 population census.
- Those provinces of South Africa such as the Eastern Cape which are known to be largely non-urban<sup>1</sup> have a higher proportion of women in their population than more urban provinces. The extent of urbanisation in each province is indicated in Figure 2.
- Overall, the Central Statistical Service estimated that, as at October 1996, 52% of the population was female.
- Northern Province had the highest proportion of women and girls, at 55% of the total population, followed by Eastern Cape at 54%.
- Gauteng was the only province with more men and boys than women and girls. The female proportion of that province's population was 49%.

<sup>1</sup>In general, the CSS distinguishes between urban, semi-urban and non-urban, rather than urban and non-urban areas. An urban area is defined as one where there is a fully-established local government. A non-urban area does not have an established local authority (ie, it could be administered by a tribal or regional authority). A semi-urban area is one which is close to an urban area, but falls outside of its administrative boundaries.

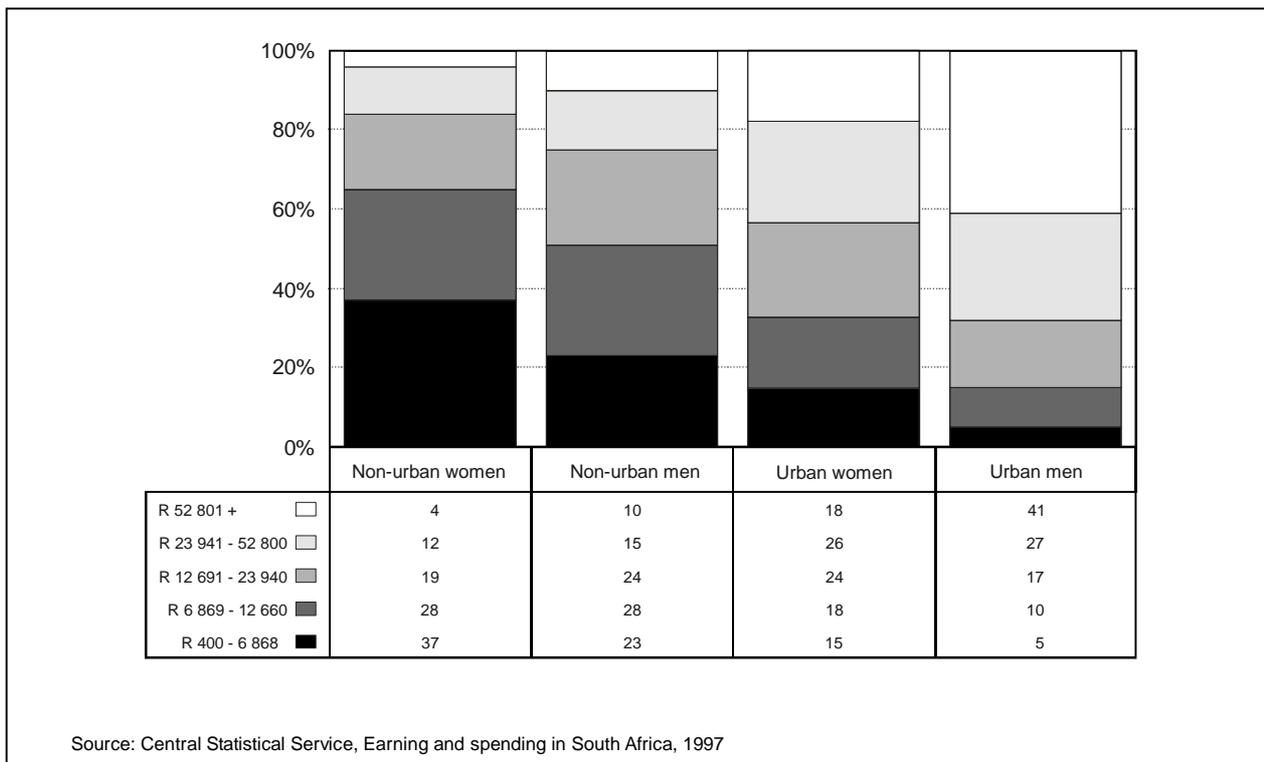
## Population: The provinces 2



**Figure 2: Urbanisation by province and gender**

- Figure 2 shows the variation in urbanisation between South Africa's provinces.
- Urbanisation is more common among men than women. Conversely, in non-urban areas, the proportion of women in the population tends to be higher.
- In October 1996, an estimated 54% of women and girls and 56% of men and boys lived in urban areas.
- Northern Province, Eastern Cape and North West are the most non-urban provinces. Figure 1 showed that the first two are also the provinces with the highest proportion of women.
- Gauteng and Western Cape are the most urban provinces. Gauteng is also the province with the highest proportion of women living in urban areas.
- In Free State and Northern Cape, women were noticeably more likely than men to live in urban areas. These are the smallest provinces in terms of population size. Together they account for less than 9% of the country's total population.

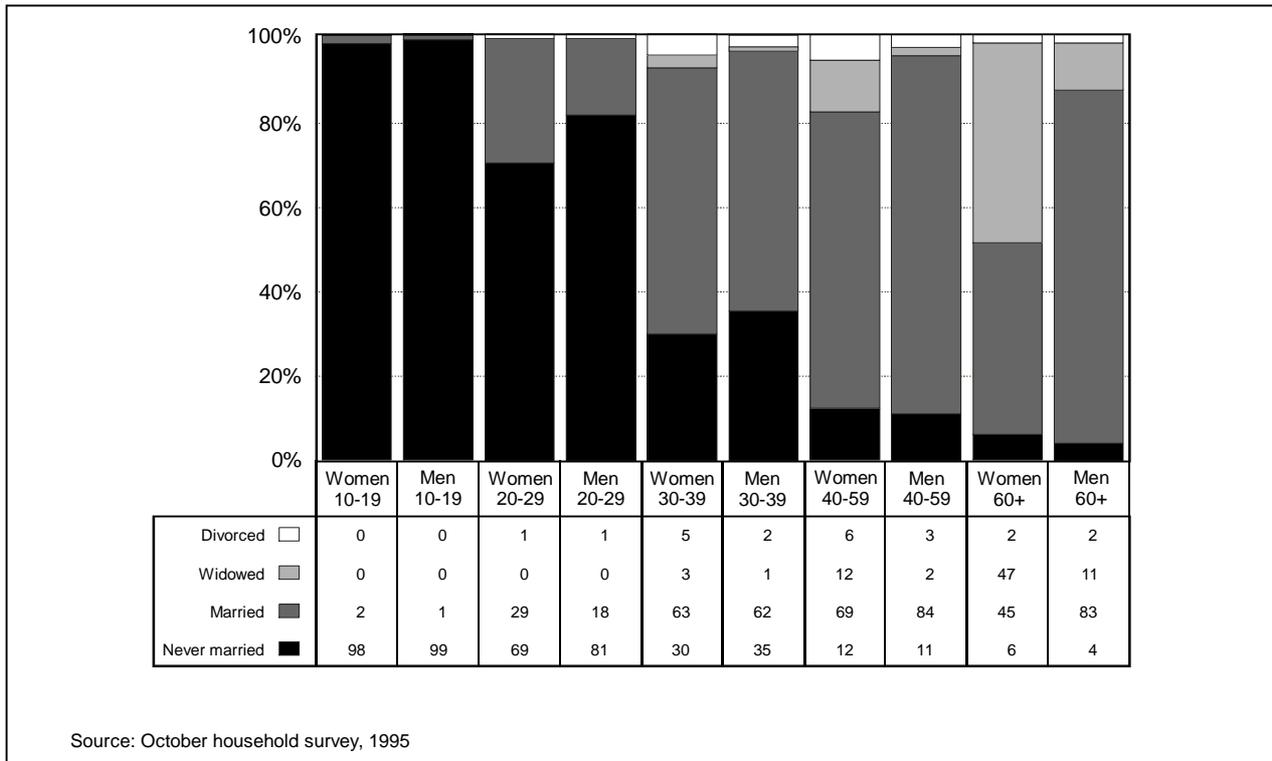
## Families and households: Income



**Figure 3: Income distribution: national quintiles by gender of household head and non-urban/urban location**

- Female-headed South African households in non-urban areas tend to be poorer than other households.
- Income quintiles divide households nationally into five groups from the wealthiest fifth of households down to the poorest fifth.
- Figure 3 shows that, in 1996, only one in every 25 (4%) non-urban households reported to be headed by a woman fell among the wealthiest fifth of households in the country. On the other hand, four in every ten (41%) male-headed households in urban areas fell in the wealthiest fifth.
- Over a third (37%) of non-urban women-headed households were among the poorest fifth of households, compared with nearly one in every four (23%) non-urban male-headed households.
- In urban areas, 15% of woman-headed households were among the poorest fifth, compared with one in every 20 (5%) male-headed households.
- The disparities shown in Figure 3 would be sharpened if income per capita was considered, in that non-urban households tend to be larger than urban ones.

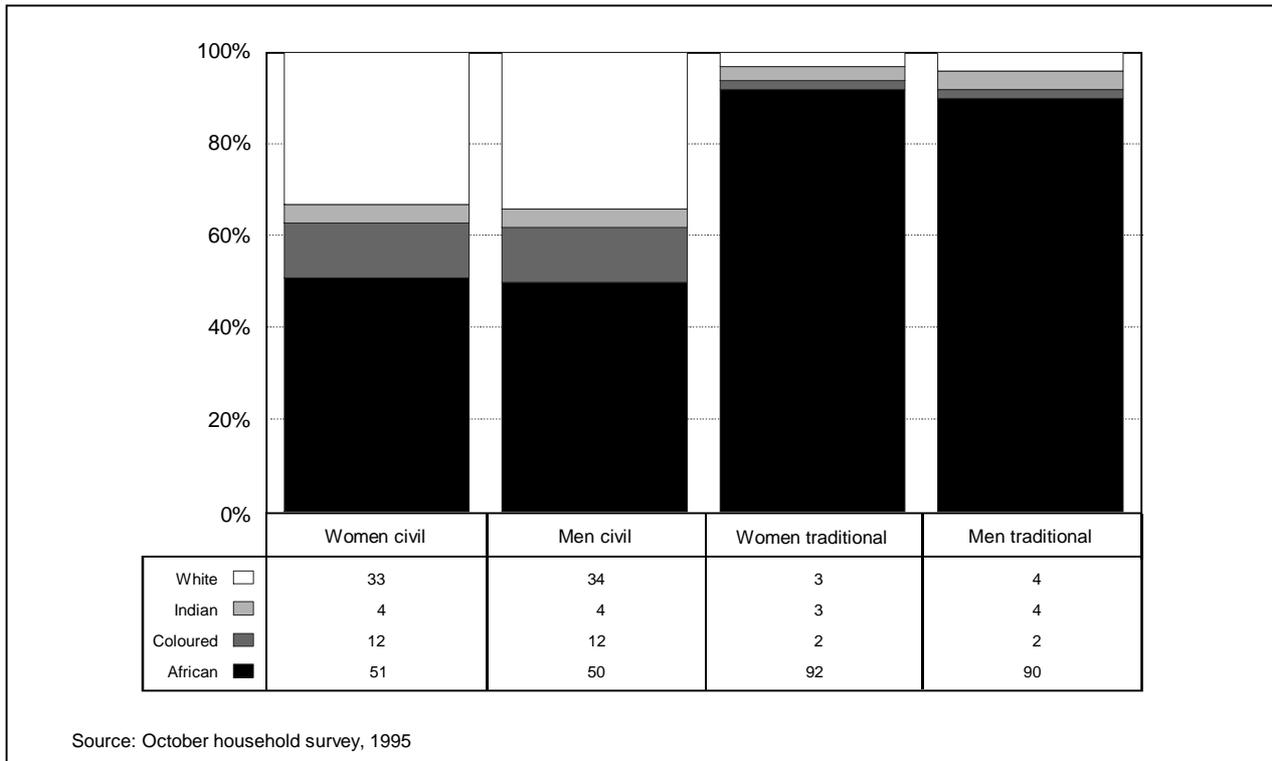
# Families and households: Marital status 1



**Figure 4: Distribution of marital status by age and gender**

- South African women tend to marry at a younger age than men. They often marry men who are older than themselves.
- Figure 4 shows, as expected, that the percentage of each age group which is single (nevermarried) decreases with age. In October 1995, more than 98% of those between 10 and 19 had never married.
- In the age group 20-29, 29% of women were either married or living together with partners. Fewer than one in five (18%) men in this same age group were married or living with partners.
- The percentages of women and men who are divorced or widowed increases with age. Within each age group, the percentage of widowed women exceeds the percentage of widowed men.

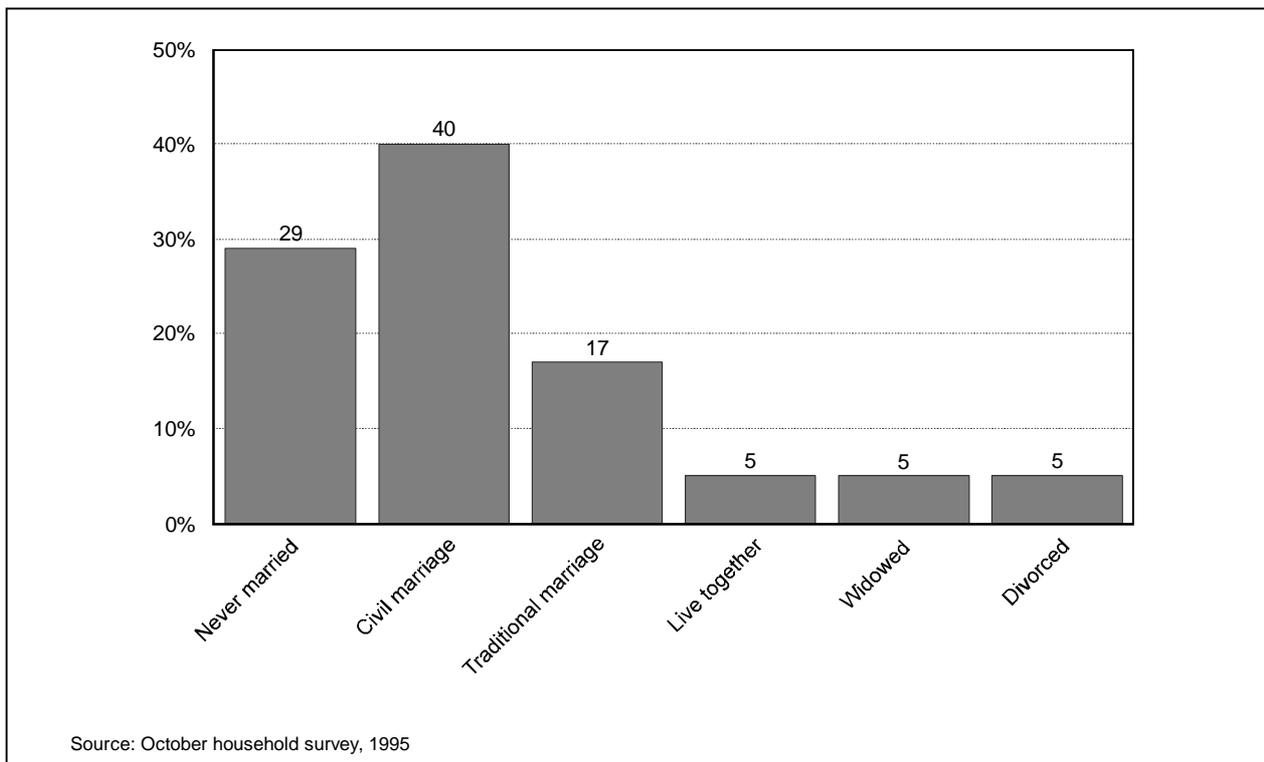
## Families and households: Marital status 2



**Figure 5: Form of marriage by population group and gender**

- African women and men are more likely to be married by traditional rites, whereas women and men in the other population groups are more likely to be married by civil or religious rites.
- Figure 5 shows that in October 1995 African women accounted for 92% of all women married by traditional or religious rites, and African men for 90% of men married in this way.
- African women and men accounted for around 50% of those married by civil rites, while white women and men accounted for around a third.
- Indian women and men accounted for around 4% of all those married by civil rites, and 4% of those married by traditional or religious rites. They were more likely than white and coloured people to be married by traditional and religious rites, but less likely than African people.

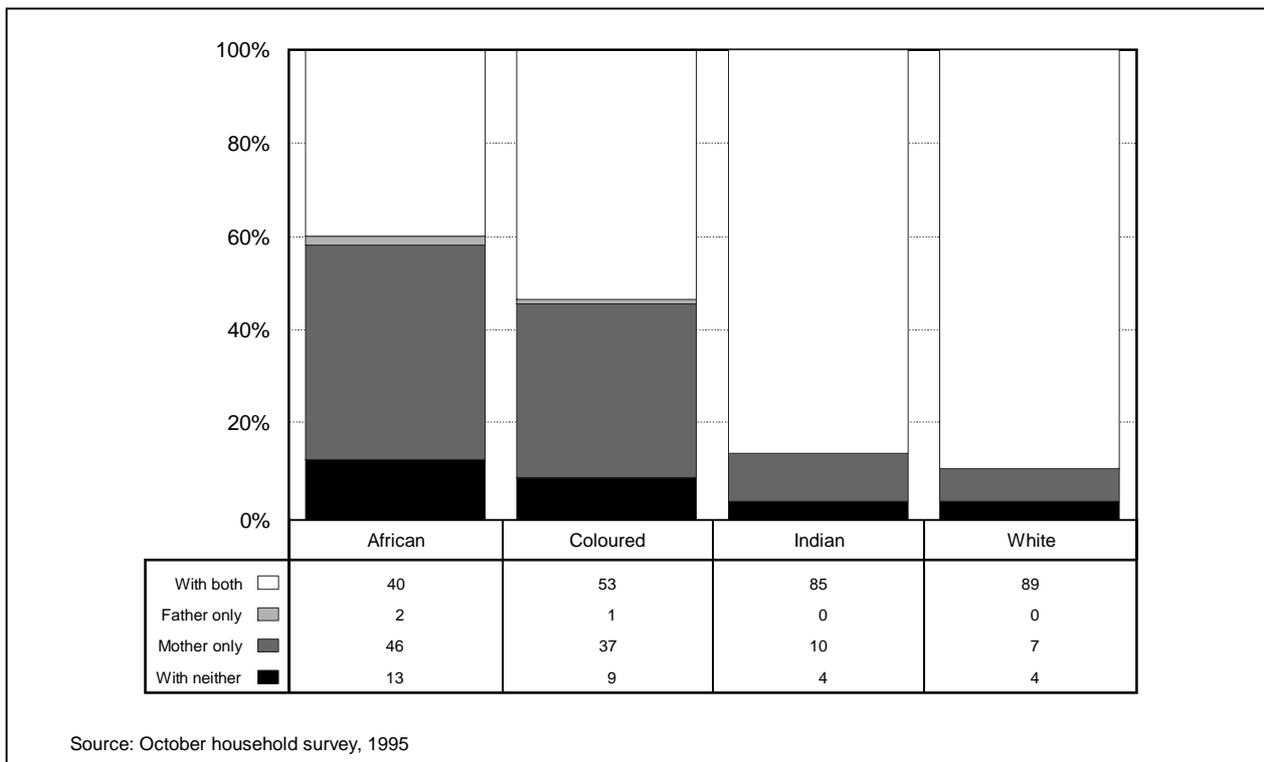
## Families and households: Childbearing



**Figure 6: Women who have given birth by marital status**

- In South Africa, having children is not necessarily associated with being married. A large proportion of women who have never been married have given birth.
- Figure 6 shows that, in October 1995, 29% of all women who had given birth at some time in their life had never been married.
- Over half (57%) of the women who had given birth were married, 40% by civil marriage and 17% by traditional or religious marriage. The recorded marital status is at the time of the survey and some women might have married after the birth of children.
- A third (33%) of non-urban women who had given birth had never been married at the time of the survey.

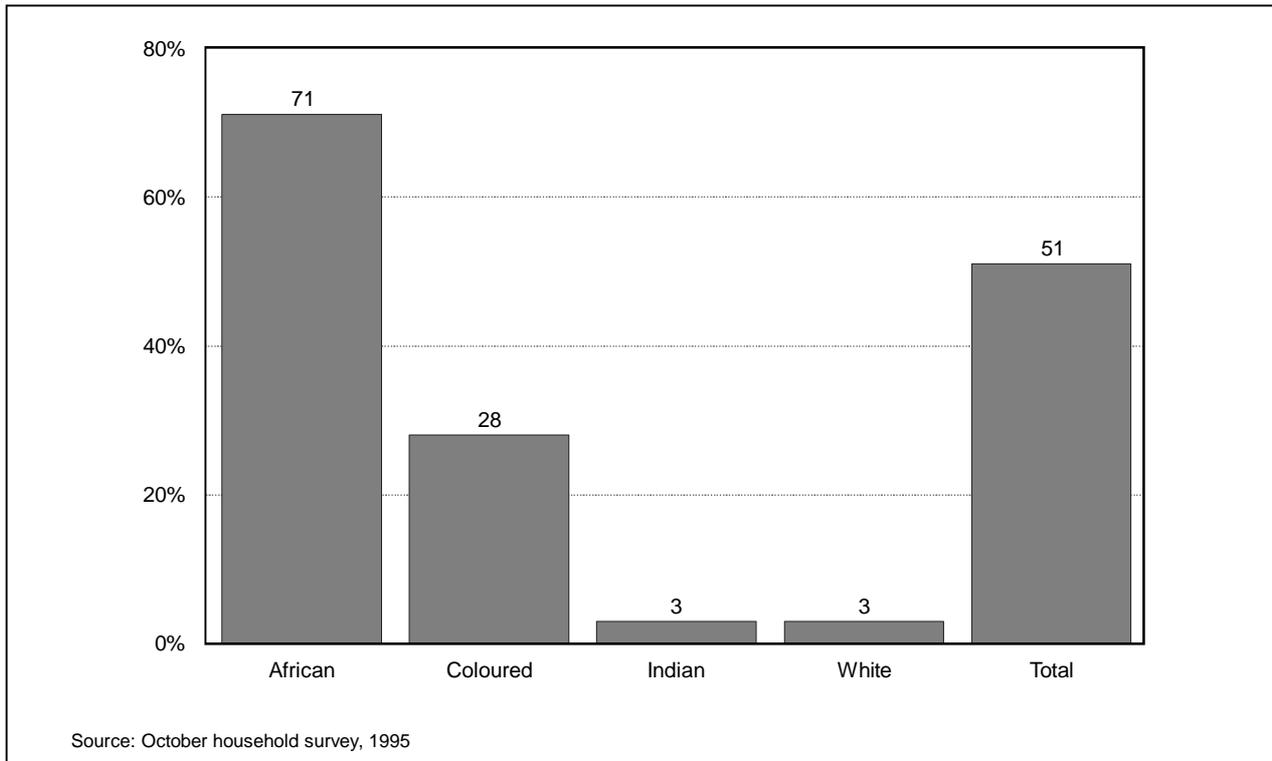
## Families and households: Children



**Figure 7: Household location of young children in relation to parents by population group**

- Many children in South Africa do not live in the same household as their parents.
- In October 1995, 12% of children under seven years of age were not living with either of their parents.
- Over four in ten (42%) children under seven years of age were living only with their mother, compared to 1% living only with their father.
- Figure 7 shows that African children were more likely than children of other population groups to be living with neither parent. Over a sixth (13%) of young African children were living with neither parent, compared to 9% of coloured children and 4% of white and Indian children.
- African children were also more likely than others to be living only with their mother. Forty-six percent of African children were in this situation, compared to 37% of coloured children and 10% or fewer of white and Indian children.

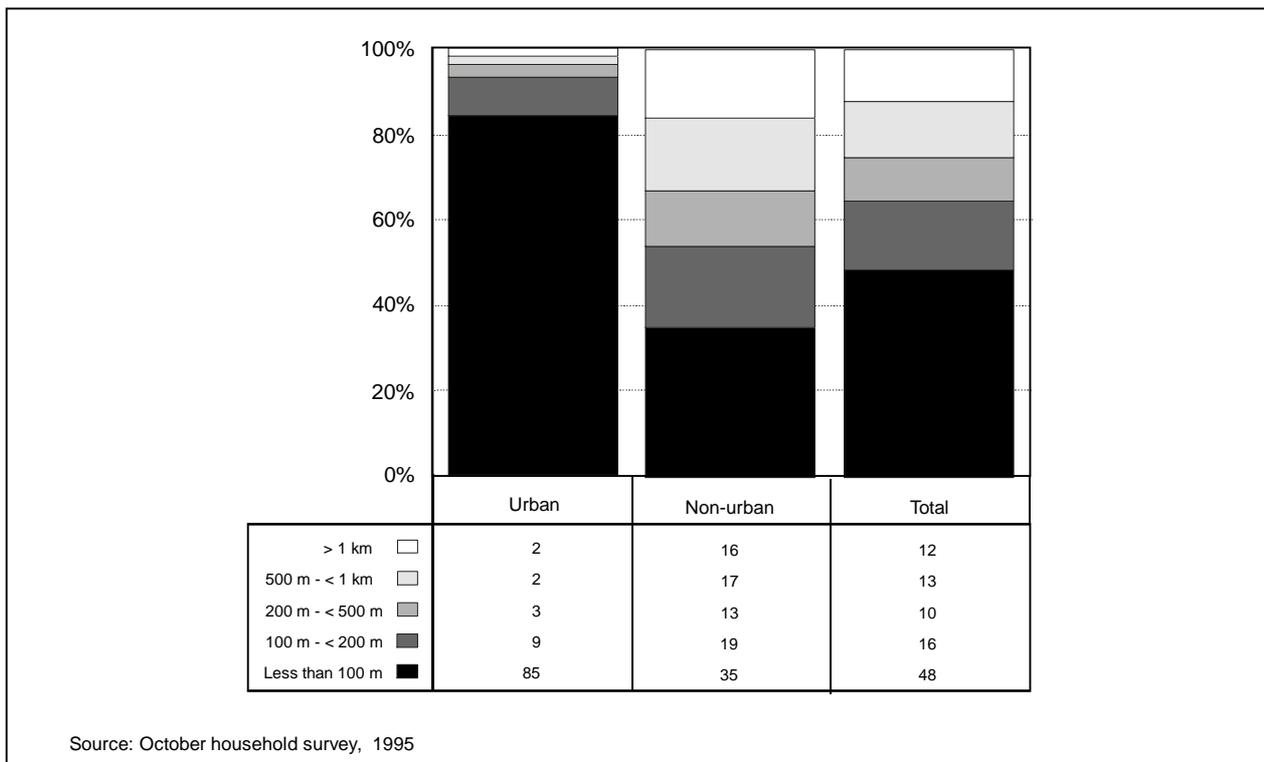
## Living conditions: Access to water 1



**Figure 8: Households fetching water for domestic use by population group**

- Many households in South Africa do not have access to a water source inside the home. Lack of access is more common in non-urban areas. As noted above, proportionately more women than men live in non-urban areas.
- Figure 8 shows that, in October 1995, over half (51%) of all households, over two-thirds (71%) of African households and over one-quarter (28%) of coloured households were fetching water from sources outside their homes. Only 3% of Indian and white households were in this position.
- There were marked urban/non-urban differences. Eighty-six percent of non-urban households, 63% of semi-urban households and 25% of urban households were fetching water.

## Living conditions: Access to water 2

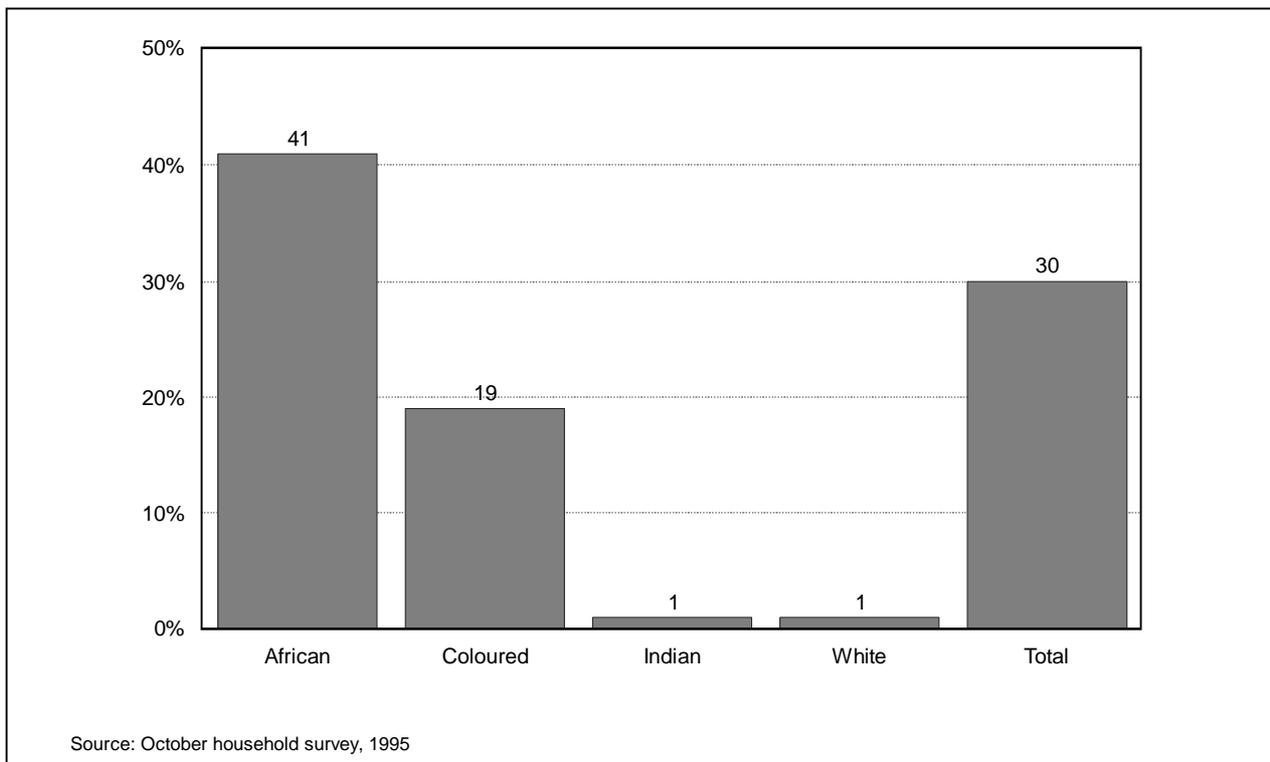


**Figure 9: Distance from water source among households fetching water for domestic use**

- The water source for people living in non-urban areas is often far from the dwelling. Household members must often walk long distances to fetch water.
- Figure 9 shows that, of households fetching water, 12% had to walk over a kilometre. One-sixth (16%) of households in non-urban areas were walking over a kilometre, compared to 2% in urban areas.
- In 1993, in those households forced to collect water, the median time spent by household members on the task was 100 minutes. The median time spent by individual women who collected water was 60 minutes. Just under half of all non-urban African women over the age of 18 were spending some time on water collection.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup>Calculations by Ingrid Woolard, using data generated by the project for statistics on living standards and development (the SALDRU/World Bank survey).

## Living conditions: Access to wood 1

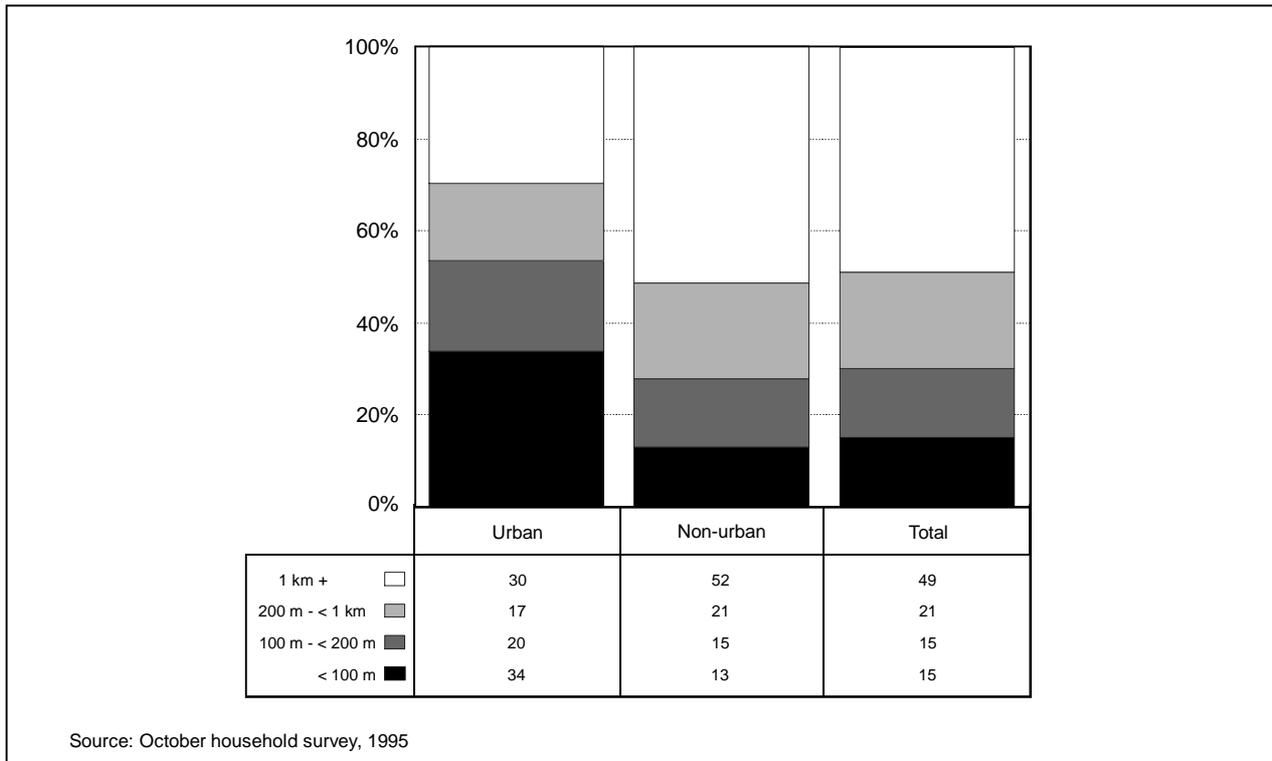


**Figure 10: Households fetching wood for domestic use by population group**

- Non-urban households are more likely than urban ones to use wood for cooking and heating. For many households, this entails fetching and carrying the wood from a source which is far from the dwelling.
- Figure 10 shows that, in October 1995, three in every ten (30%) of all households were having to fetch wood for cooking or heating purposes. Over two-fifths (41%) of African households and almost one-fifth (19%) of coloured households were fetching wood. Only 1% of Indian and white households were having to do so.
- Over half (52%) of non-urban African households that used wood for cooking, heating or lighting obtained it from the veld. Just under a quarter (23%) obtained it from indigenous forests. Only 3% obtained it from trees growing on the site of the dwelling (Hirschowitz and Orkin, 1996:30).
- In 1993, two-thirds (66%) of all those who spent time collecting wood were adult women, one-fifth (20%) were young girls, 10% were adult men and 4% young boys. The mean time spent each week on this task by those who collected wood ranged from just over 2½ hours (156 minutes) for adult men to close on 5½ hours (377 minutes) for adult women.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>3</sup>Calculations by Ingrid Woolard, using data generated by the project for statistics on living standards and development (the SALDRU/World Bank survey).

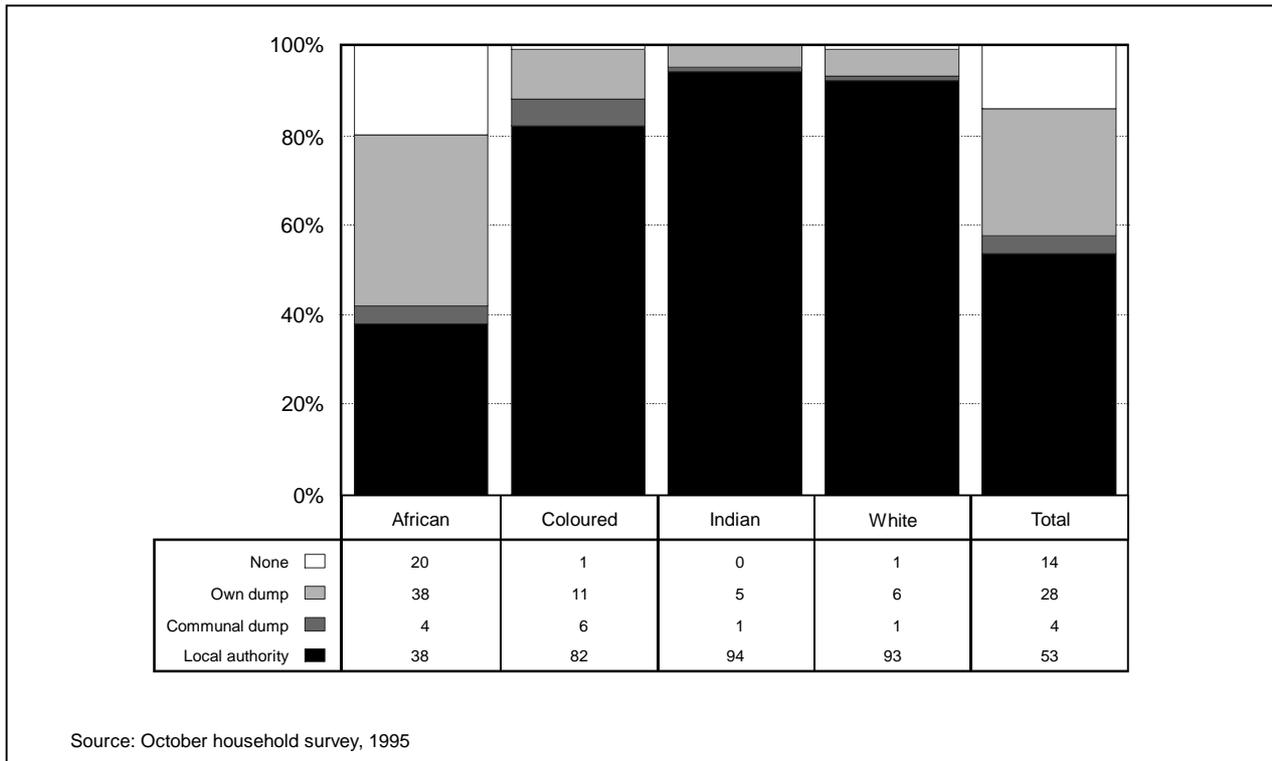
## Living conditions: Access to wood 2



**Figure 11: Distance from source of wood among households fetching wood**

- Figure 11 shows that almost half (49%) of households fetching wood were having to walk over a kilometre. The proportion of households having to walk such a long distance was much higher in non-urban areas (52%) than in urban areas (30%).
- Just over half (51%) of African households collecting wood walked over a kilometre, compared to just over a quarter (27%) of coloured households.

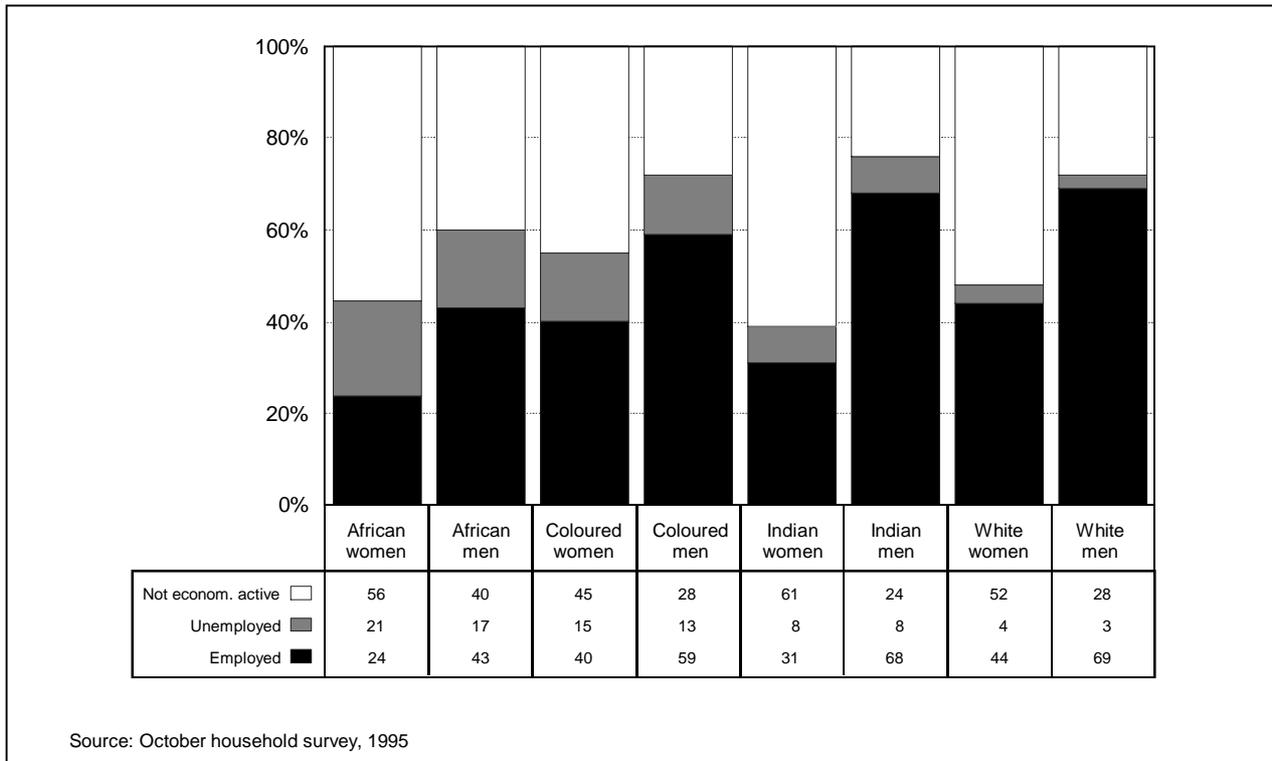
## Living conditions: Refuse disposal



**Figure 12: Refuse disposal by population group**

- Inadequate or non-existent refuse disposal endangers the health of household members. It can also increase the burden of everyday household maintenance activities.
- Figure 12 shows that, in 1995, just over half (53%) of all households had their refuse removed by the local authority, 4% used a communal refuse dump, 28% had their own dump and 14% had no system of refuse disposal.
- Over nine in ten of white households (93%) and Indian households (94%), and over eight in ten (82%) coloured households, were served by a local authority. Under four in ten (38%) of African households had this service, while over a fifth (20%) had no system of refuse disposal at all.

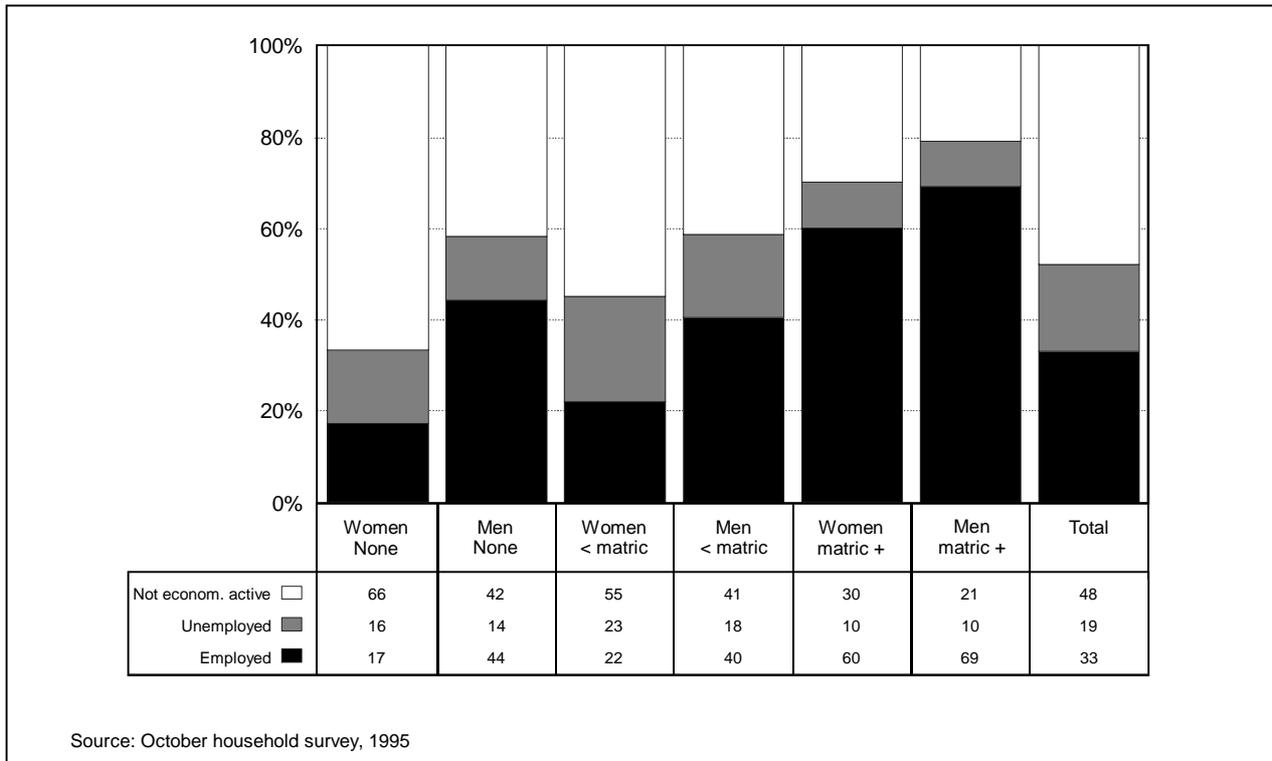
# Work: Economic status 1



**Figure 13: Economic status of those aged 15 years or more by population group and gender**

- The economically active population is defined as all those people of fifteen years and older whether employed or unemployed who are available for work. (Work, as defined here, does not include unpaid household and reproductive work in the home.) The economically active population excludes full-time scholars and students, pensioners and retired people, those who define themselves as housewives or homemakers, and those unable to work through disability.
- Figure 13 shows that, in October 1995, within each race group the percentage of women who were not economically active was at least 16 percentage points higher than the percentage of men not economically active. The relative gender difference was largest for Indian people, with 24% Indian men not economically active compared to 61% of Indian women.
- Overall, nearly two-thirds (63%) of men aged 15 years and above were classified as economically active, compared to under half (46%) of women. This gender difference was largely accounted for by those women who defined themselves or were defined by household respondents as housewives. Many of these women, and particularly African women in non-urban areas, may have been engaged in subsistence agriculture in addition to their household tasks, but the extent of these activities is unknown.
- Not all those who are economically active can find work. Those who are economically active, but cannot find work, are classified as unemployed. Figure 13 shows that, in 1995, 24% of African women aged 15 years and above were employed, compared to 43% of African men, 59% of coloured men, 68% of Indian men and 69% of white men.

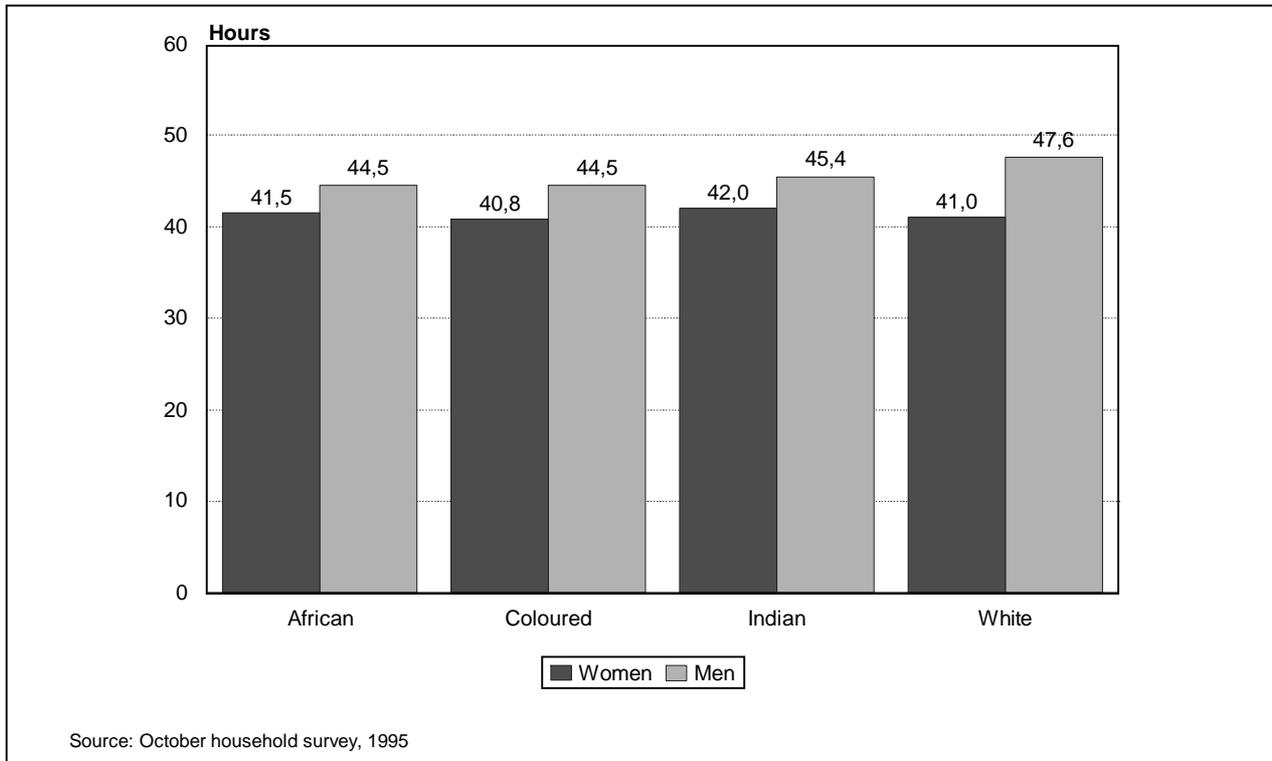
## Work: Economic status 2



**Figure 14: Economic status by education level and gender: African people 15 years and older**

- At all levels of education, women are more likely than men to be unemployed.
- Figure 14 shows that, for both African women and African men, the percentage employed generally increased with increasing education while the percentage who were not economically active fell.
- At each level of education, a higher proportion of African men than women were employed. Among those with no formal education, 44% of African men were employed compared to 17% of African women. Among those with matric, a diploma or more, 69% of men and 60% of women were employed.
- Conversely, at each level of education a higher proportion of African women than men were not economically active. Around two-thirds (66%) of African women with no formal education were described as being not economically active, compared to 42% of African men. Three in every ten African women with matric, a diploma or more were described as being not economically active, compared to just over one-fifth (21%) of African men.

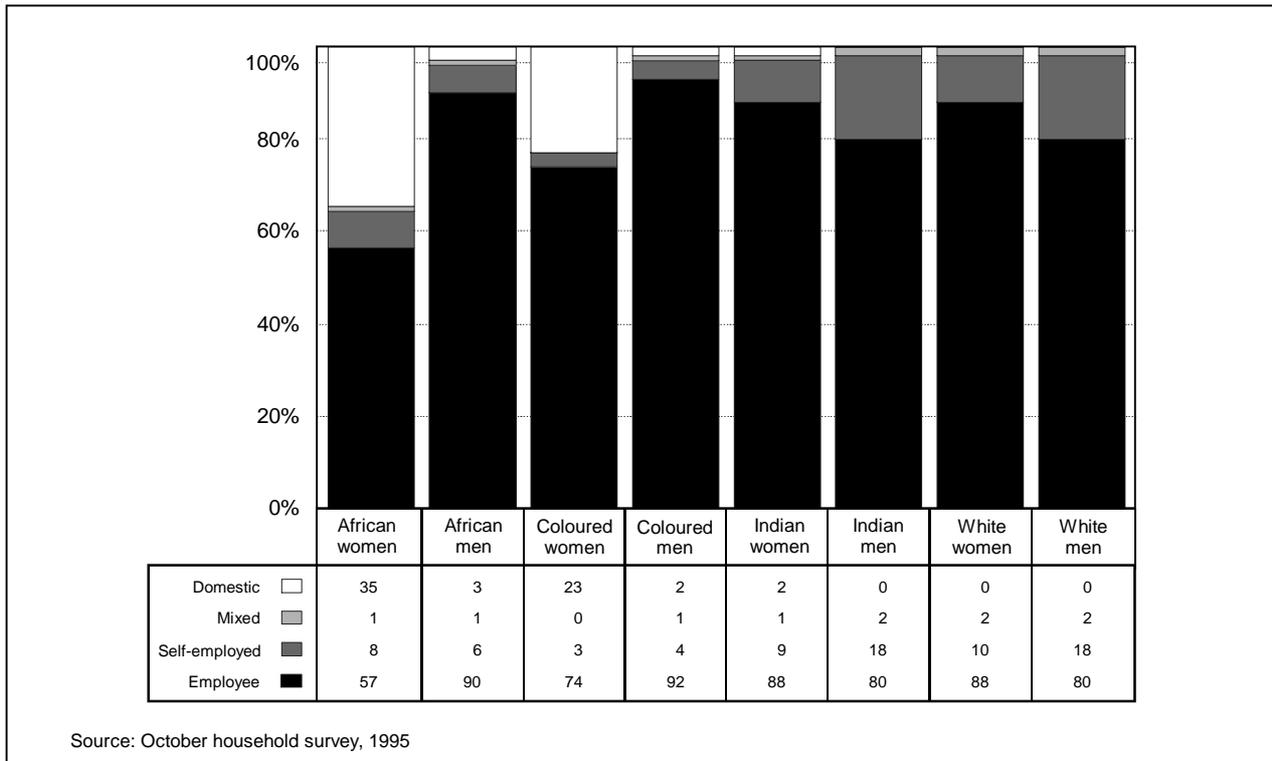
## Work: Hours worked



**Figure 15: Mean hours worked among those employed by population group and gender**

- In South Africa, women tend to work full-time, rather than part-time, even though, on average, men work longer hours than women do.
- Figure 15 shows that, in October 1995, mean hours worked by women in the four population groups were very similar, at between 40,8 (for coloured women) and 42 hours (for Indian women) per week.
- On average, men worked longer hours than women. The difference between women and men differed by population group. African men worked 7% more hours on average than African women (44,5 hours compared to 41,5 hours). White men worked 16% more hours than white women (47,6 hours compared to 41,0 hours).
- Just over an eighth (14%) of African, coloured and white women, and one in ten (10%) Indian women, worked part-time (fewer than 35 hours a week). Men were less likely to work part-time. Three percent of white men and between 5% and 7% of the other groups worked fewer than 35 hours a week.

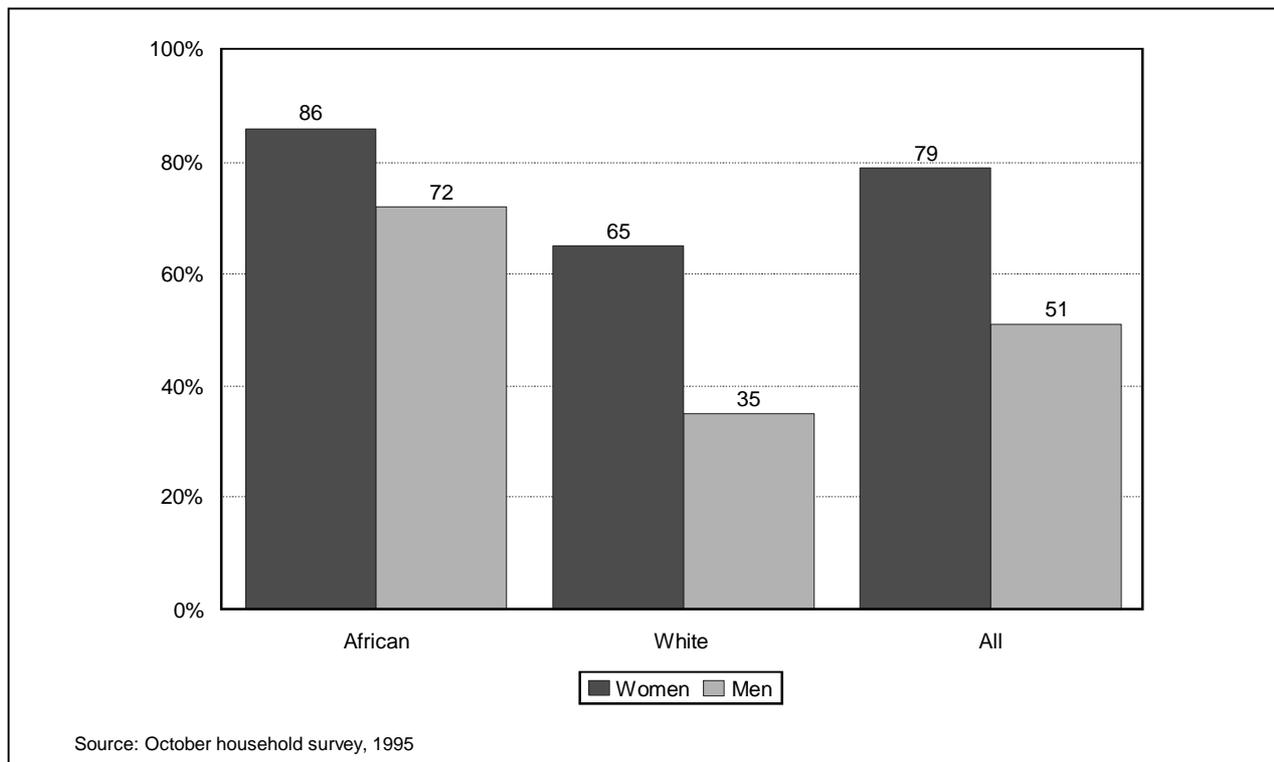
# Work: Work status 1



**Figure 16: Type of employment by population group and gender**

- A large proportion of African and coloured women work as domestic workers.
- Figure 16 shows that over a third (35%) of all African women who were employed in October 1995, and close on a quarter of all employed coloured women, worked as domestic workers. This category of work accounted for 3% or less of every other race-gender grouping.
- Around nine in every ten employed African and coloured men, and around eight in every ten white and Indian men, were employees, working for a wage or salary. Among women, employees accounted for 88% of white and Indian employed women, just under three-quarters (74%) of coloured employed women and 57% of African employed women.
- Self-employed people accounted for under one in ten of all race-gender groupings except white women and men and Indian men. The mixed category covers those people who were reported to be working both as employees and in self-employment.

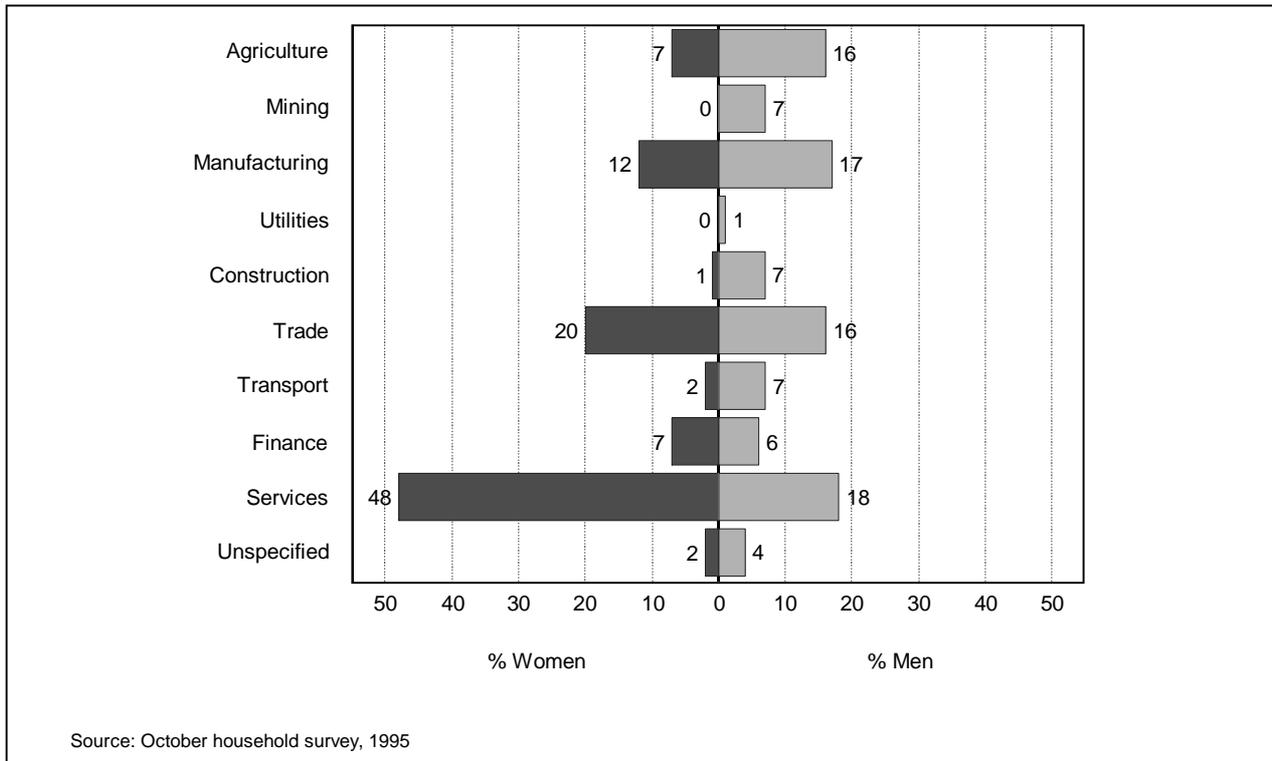
## Work: Work status 2



**Figure 17: People working alone as a percentage of those self-employed by population group and gender**

- Self-employment encompasses a range of very different situations. Some self-employed people are employers and employ other people to work for or with them. But over six in ten (61%) of those who were self-employed in October 1995 were working alone.
- Figure 17 shows that women were more likely to work alone than men. Just over half of all self-employed men were working alone, compared to over three-quarters of women.
- African women were most likely to work alone. Eighty-six percent of self-employed African women were working alone, compared to 72% of African men, 65% of white women and only 35% of white self-employed men.

## Work: Employment by sector



**Figure 18: Employment distribution by economic sector and gender**

- Employed women tend to be concentrated in relatively few economic sectors, while men are more evenly spread across a wider range of sectors.
- Figure 18 shows that approximately three in every ten (29%) employed women were in the services sector, and one in every five in trade (20%). Among men, there was a more even spread. Services (18%), trade (16%), agriculture (16%) and manufacturing (17%) each accounted for close on a fifth of employed men, but no single sector accounted for more than 18%.
- One can also look, within each sector, at the relative proportions of women and men workers. Such an analysis reveals that men accounted for the majority of workers in all sectors except the unspecified category and services. In these two sectors there were roughly equal numbers of women and men.
- Mining and construction were by far the most male-dominated sectors. Only 4% and 6% respectively of workers in these sectors were women. In trade and finance, on the other hand, women accounted for around 45% of workers.
- The October household survey suggested that men accounted for close on eight in every ten workers (79%) in agriculture. This is misleading, in that the survey did not record the large number of non-urban African women who engage in daily agricultural work on an unpaid, subsistence basis.

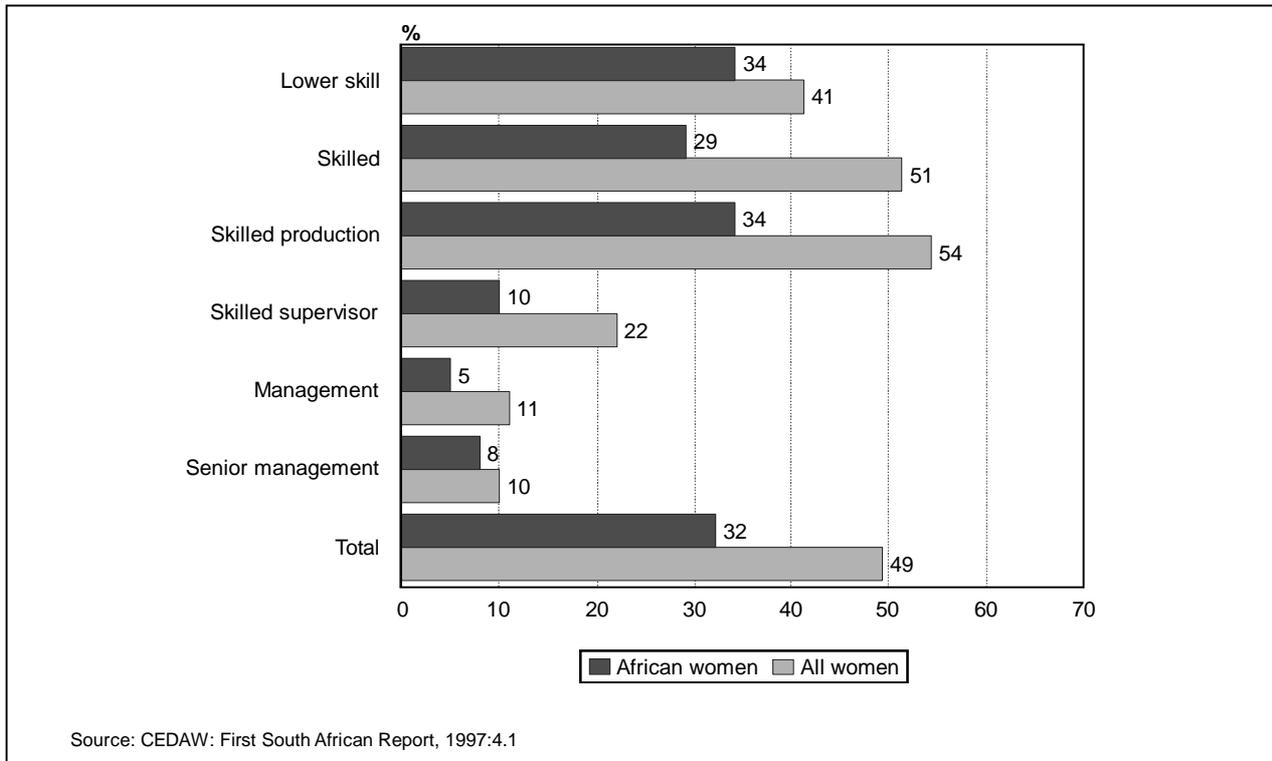
## Work: Employment by occupation



**Figure 19: Employment distribution by occupation and gender**

- Occupations in South Africa tend to differ by gender. A large proportion of women are found in elementary (or unskilled), clerical and semi-professional or technical occupations, while a large proportion of men are in elementary, operator and artisan or craft occupations.
- Figure 19 shows that 38% of all women who were employed in October 1995 were in elementary occupations.
- However, over half (51%) of employed African women were in elementary occupations. The percentages for men in such occupations were much lower, at 27% of all men and 36% of African men.
- A large number of women were also employed as clerks (20%), technicians and associate professionals (15%) and service or shop workers (12%). Among men, on the other hand, craft workers (17%) and operators (17%) predominated.
- Only 3% of women and 5% of men were managers, and 4% of women and 3% of men were professionals. Overall, under a quarter (22%) of the managers were women. Only 9% were African women and 45% were white men. Close on four out of ten (39%) of the professionals were women.
- Over a third (34%) of those employed in elementary occupations were domestic and related workers. Eighty-seven percent of all domestic and related workers were women. Three-quarters (75%) were African women.

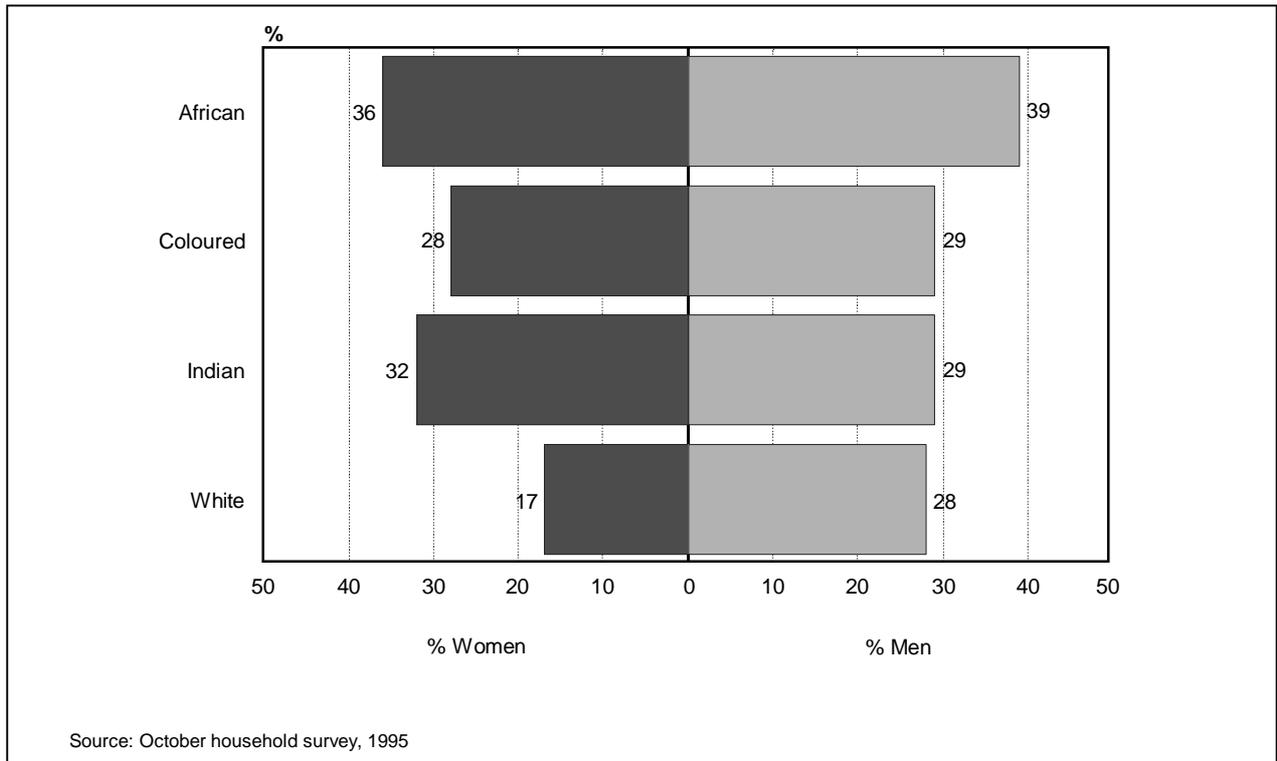
## Work: Public service employment



**Figure 20: Women in public service employment by level**

- Women working in the public sector tend to be found at lower levels than men.
- Figure 20 shows that, in December 1996, just under half (49%) of the 1,2 million public servants working for government were women. Close on a third (32%) of all employees were African women.
- Women were far less well represented than men at management and senior management level, accounting for just over one in ten of the public servants in these top decision-making and top earning positions. White men, on the other hand, accounted for 58% of management positions and 40% of senior management positions.
- Women accounted for over half of public servants in the large skilled and highly skilled production levels into which teachers and nurses fall. African women accounted for 29% of those in the skilled category and 34% of those in the skilled production category.

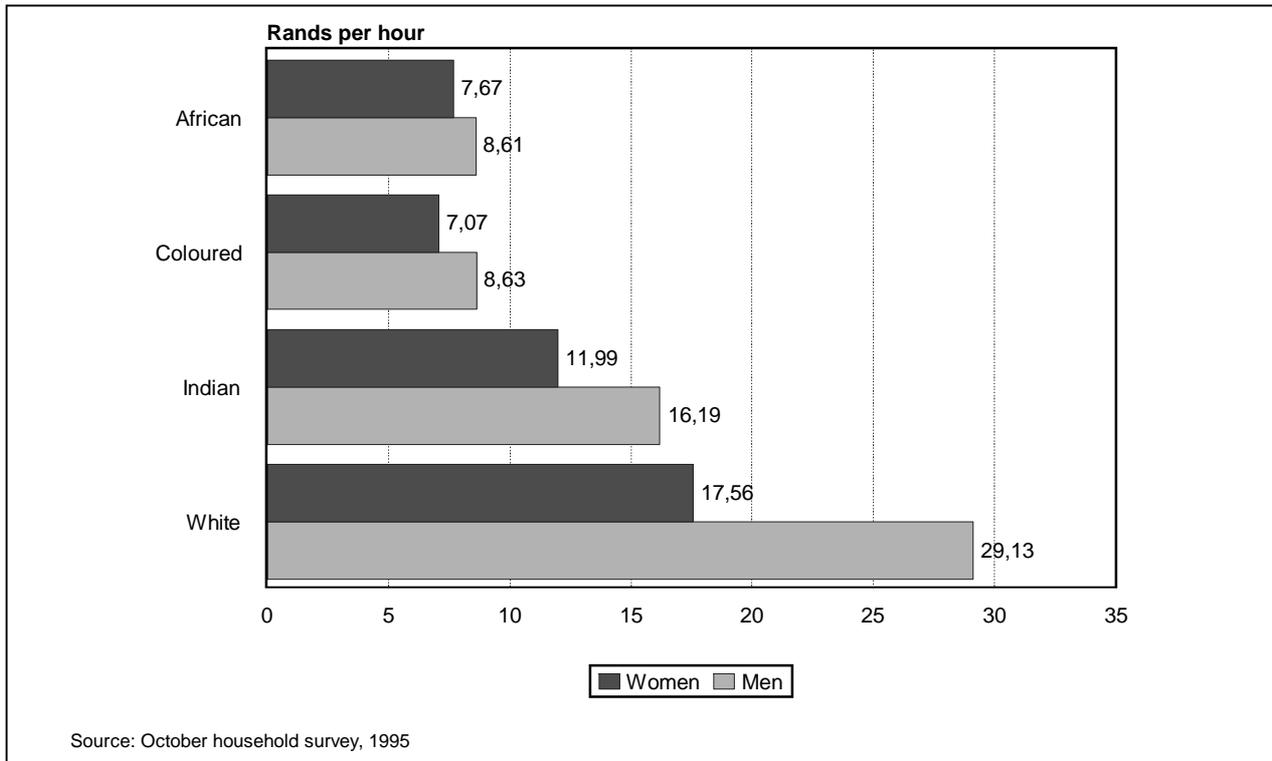
## Work: Trade unions



**Figure 21: Employees who are trade union members by population group and gender**

- In October 1995, just under a third of all non-domestic worker employees were members of trade unions. Membership was higher among men (35%) than women (29%).
- Figure 21 shows that membership was higher for both African women (at 36%) and African men (39%) employees than for women and men in any of the other population groups.
- Indians were the only population group where a higher proportion of women (32%) were trade union members than men (29%). Nevertheless, in overall terms there were more men than women union members even among Indian employees because of the larger absolute number of wage and salary earning men.
- Women accounted for around 30% of African and white union members and between 36% and 38% of Indian and coloured members.
- The percentages of African and coloured women who were trade union members would fall significantly if domestic workers were included in the calculations.

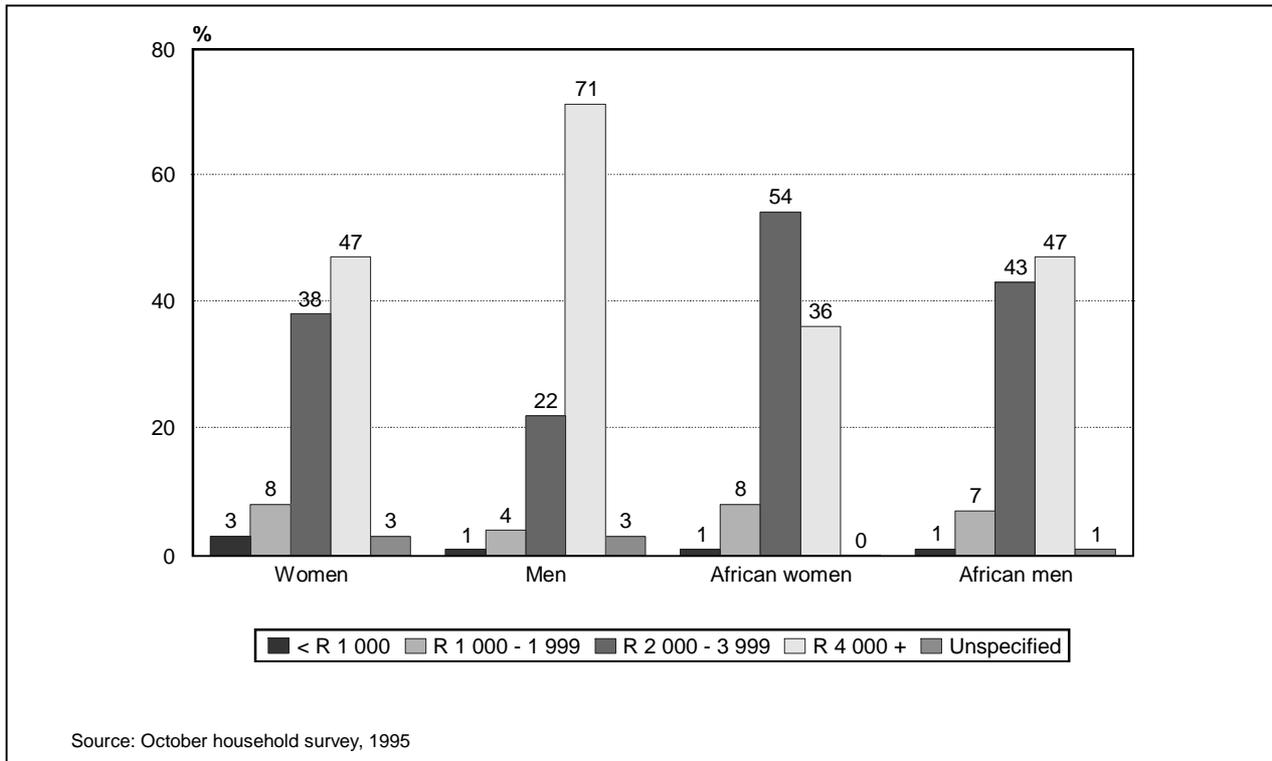
# Work: Wages and salaries 1



**Figure 22: Mean hourly earnings of employees by population group and gender**

- Women generally, and African and coloured women in particular, are remunerated less well than men.
- Figure 22 shows the differences in mean hourly earnings of women and men employees (including domestic workers) of different population groups as at October 1995. Mean hourly earnings are calculated by dividing weekly earnings by the number of hours worked in the most recent seven days worked.
- Within race groups, the gender difference was largest for white employees and smallest for African employees. White women's earnings averaged 60% of those of white men, while African women's earnings averaged 89% of those of African men.
- Race differences added to the gender differences. The average African woman employee's earnings were only 43% those of the average white woman employee and only just over a quarter (26%) of the average white man employee.

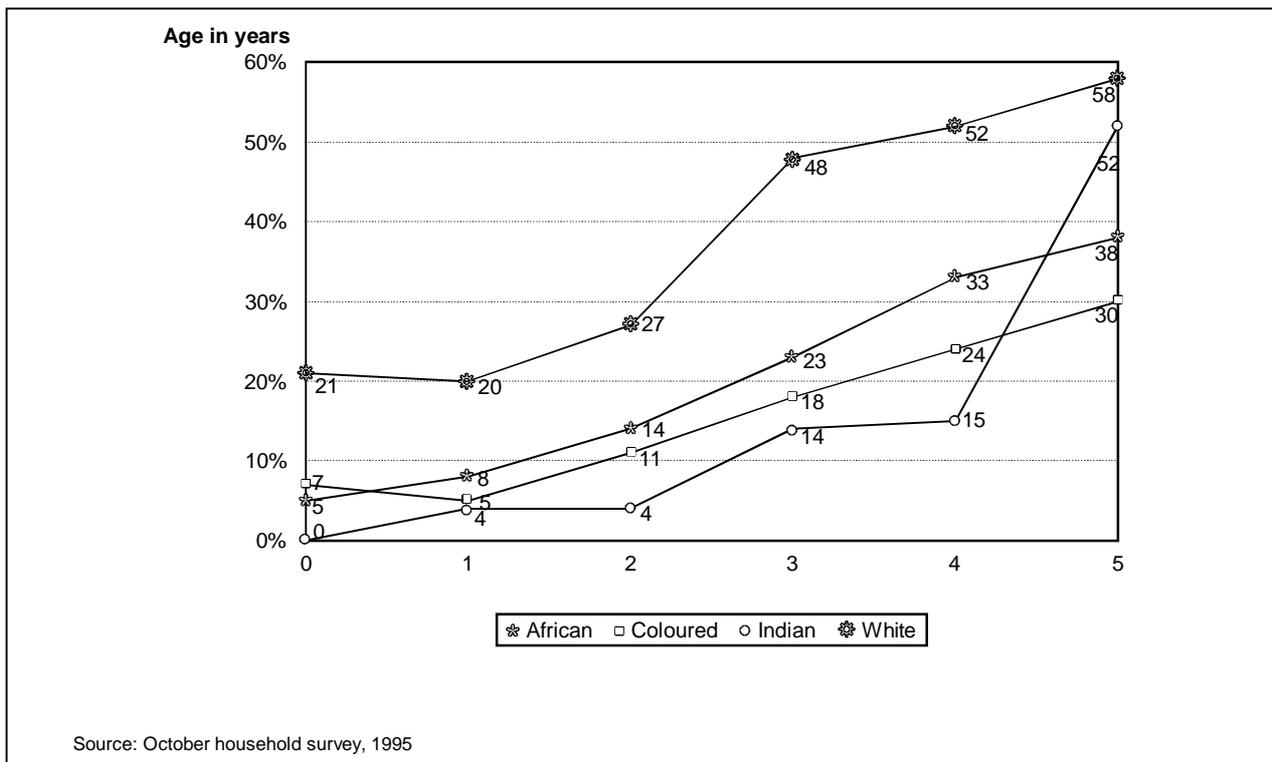
## Work: Wages and salaries 2



**Figure 23: Degree holders in each income category by population group and gender**

- Some differences in earnings can be explained by educational achievement. Nevertheless, gender differences in earnings persist even among those with similar educational achievement. This graph looks only at those with a university degree so as to control for the educational effect.
- Figure 23 shows that over seven in ten male employees with a university degree were earning R4 000 or more a month in October 1995, compared to under half (47%) of female employees with this level of education. At the other end of the scale, 3% of the women and 1% of the men were earning less than R1 000 a month.
- Among African employees with degrees, under half of the men (47%) and just over a third of the women were earning R4 000 or more a month.
- In each race group a significantly higher percentage of male degree holders were in the top earning bracket than female degree holders. Over eight in ten (82%) of white men with degrees were earning R4 000 or more.

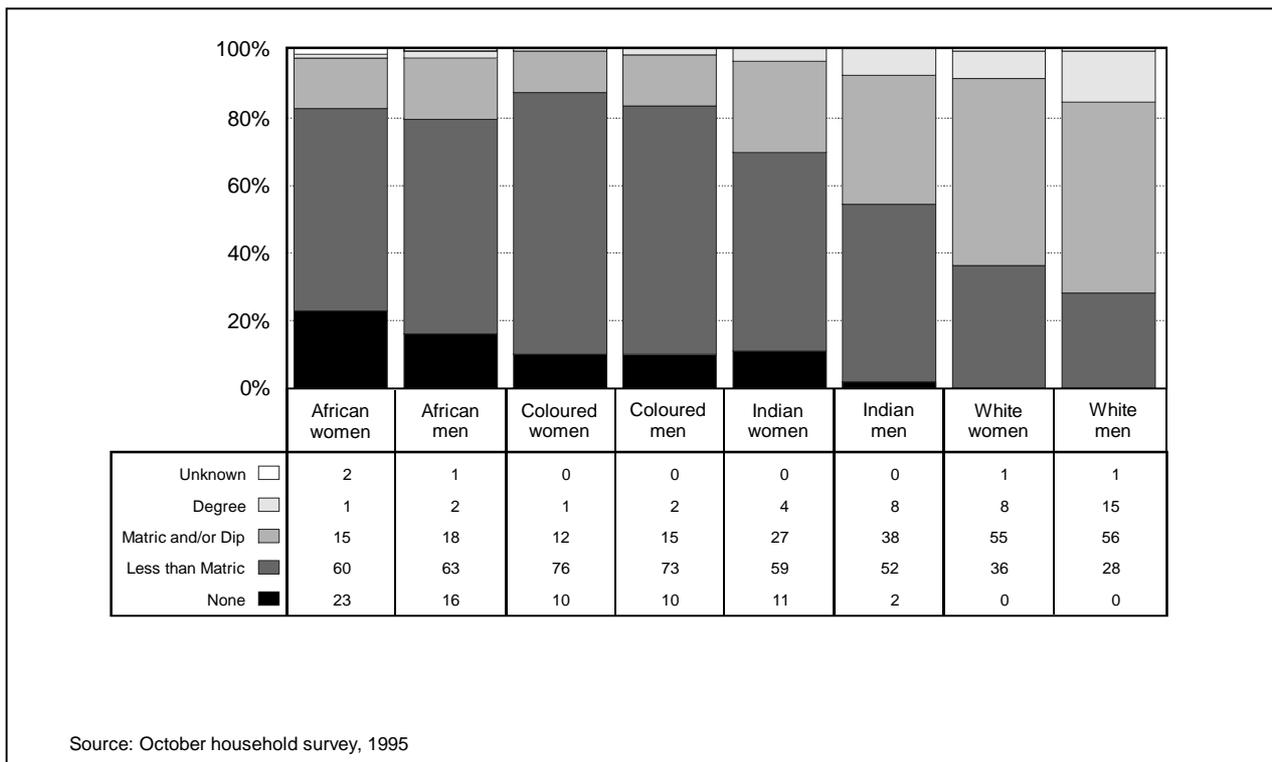
## Education and training: Preschool attendance



**Figure 24: Children in preschool education by population group and age**

- Children of both sexes have equal access to preschool education, but there are significant differences between population groups. Lack of preschool facilities tends to have a greater impact on the lives of women than men, in that women are more likely to be the primary care-givers of young children.
- In October 1995, just over a fifth (21%) of all children under the age of six years were said to be attending some form of preschool, creche or educare. There was little difference between girls and boys.
- Attendance was highest for white children (38% overall) and lowest for Indian (15%) and coloured (16%) children.
- Attendance increased with age from 6% of those under one year to 39% of five year olds.
- Figure 24 shows that the pattern of Indian attendance differed significantly from the other population groups. Up to and including the age of four years, the percentage of Indian children attending preschool was lower than for all other population groups. Among five-year olds, in the preschool preparatory year, attendance by Indian children was exceeded only by white children. More than half (52%) of Indian children were attending creche and nearly six of every ten white children (58%).

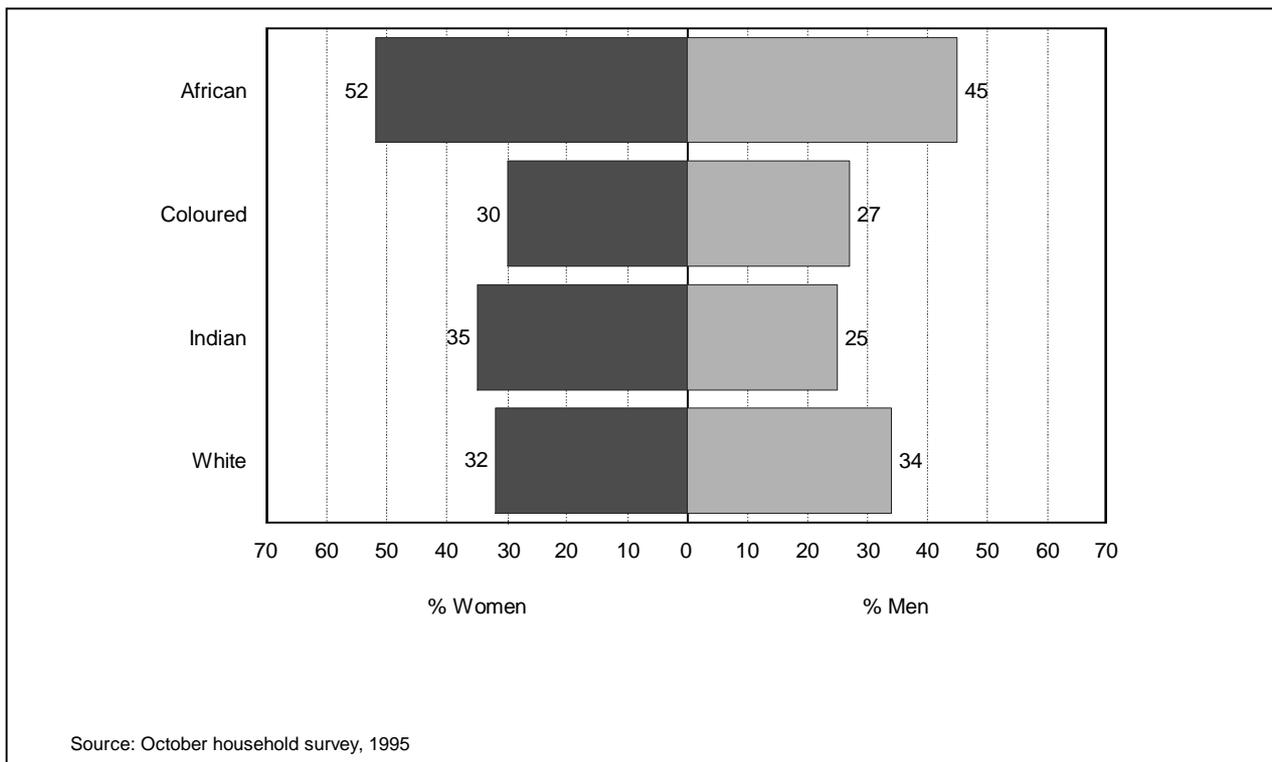
# Education and training: Educational achievement 1



**Figure 25: Educational achievement of people aged 25 years or more by population group and gender**

- Unequal access to education during the apartheid years has left distinct race and gender differences among those who grew up during this time.
- Figure 25 shows the educational achievement of people aged 25 years and older in October 1995. Educational achievement is measured by the highest standard passed.
- Nearly a quarter (23%) of all African women in this age group and 16% of African men had received no formal education at all. Conversely, 16% of African women had achieved a matric, diploma or higher education compared to 20% of African men.
- A similar pattern of overall lower educational levels for women than men holds within all population groups, but there are also large differences between population groups. For example, 15% of white men, 8% of Indian, and only 2% of African and coloured men had university degrees. The comparative percentages for women were 8%, 4% and 1% respectively, i.e. approximately half that of men in each case.

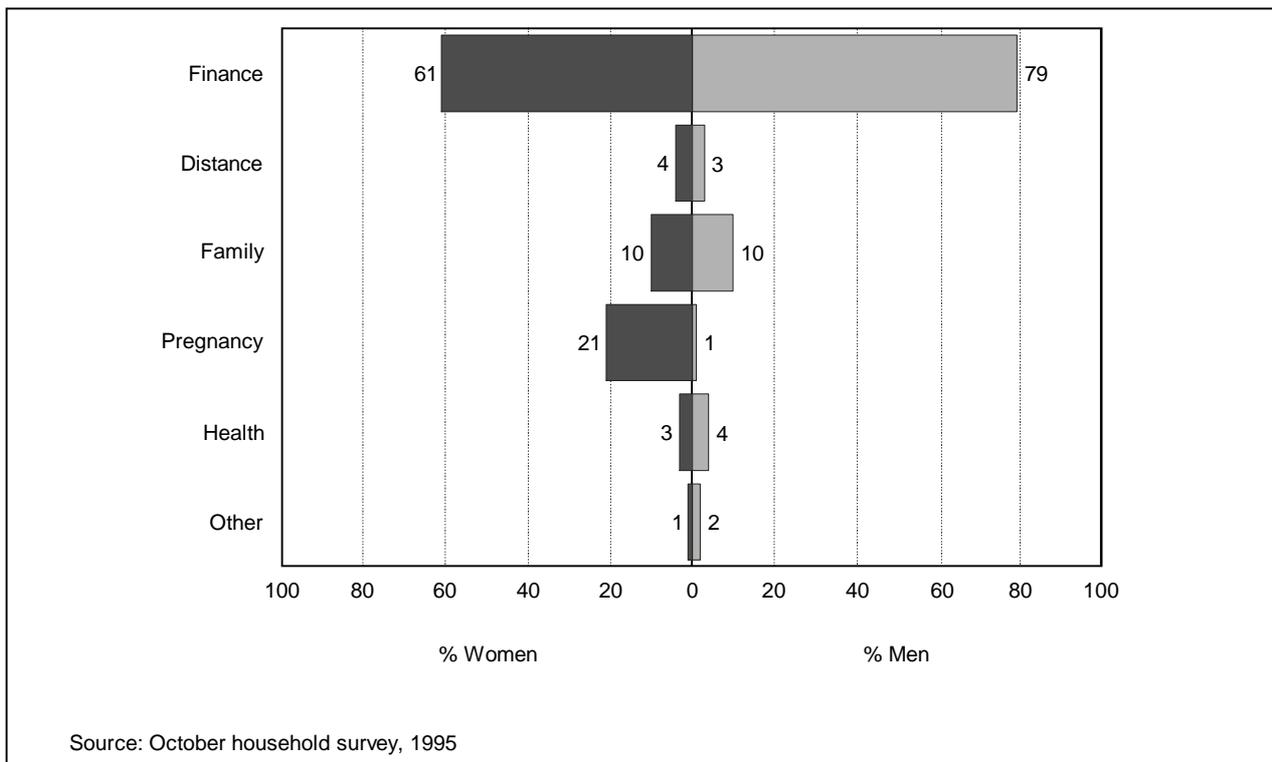
## Education and training: Educational achievement 2



**Figure 26: Percentage of 15-24 years olds who have not completed matric and want to study further by population group and gender**

- Large numbers of young South Africans are out of school but have not studied as far as they would have wished.
- In October 1995, over half (55%) of all those aged 15-24 years of age had not yet completed matric and were still studying. One-quarter of the women in this age group and 22% of the men had not completed matric but were not studying. One-sixth (13%) of the age group had completed matric and were not studying further and 9% had completed matric and were studying further.
- Overall, 45% of the young people who had not completed matric and were not studying were said to want to study further.
- Figure 26 shows that, among all population groups except whites, a higher percentage of women than men were said to want to study further.
- The gender gap was largest at 10% among Indian youth, but African youth displayed higher desires for further study overall.
- Over half (52%) of young African women non-completers wanted to study further. These young women accounted for just under half (49%) of all those who wanted to continue.

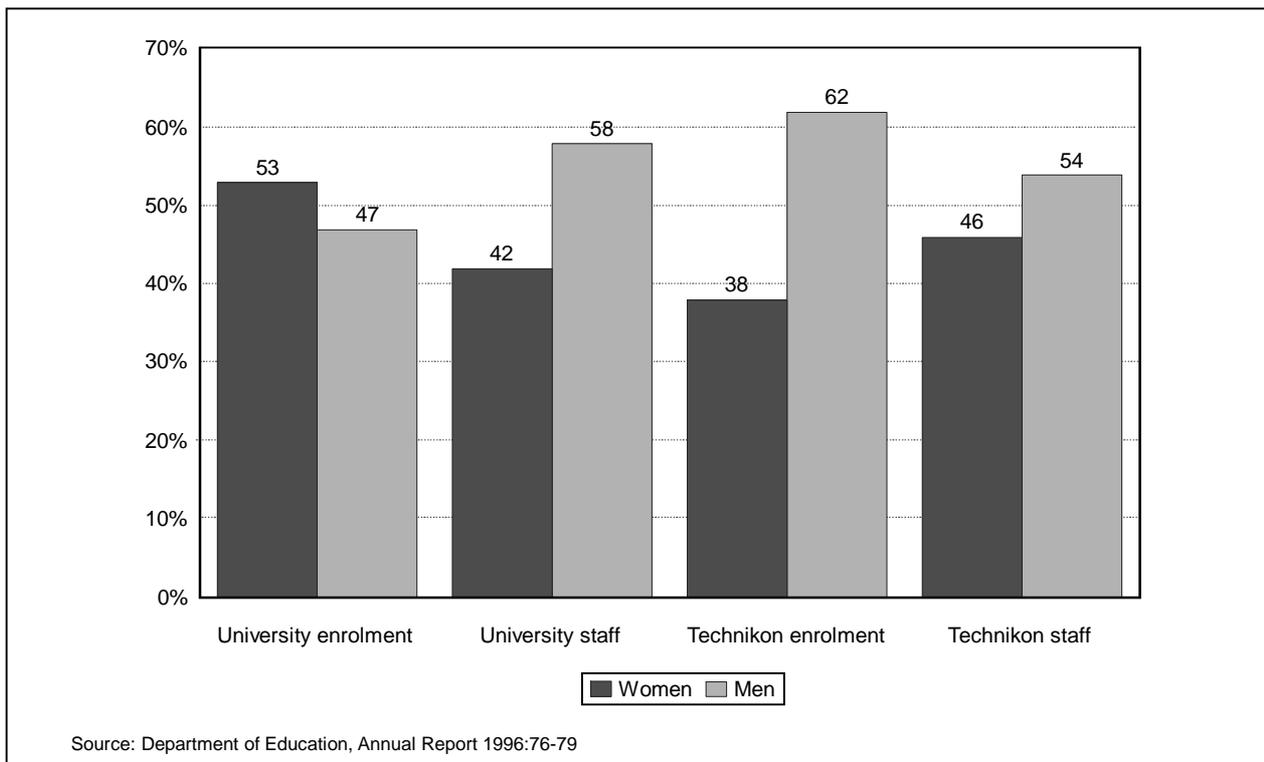
## Education and training: Educational achievement 3



**Figure 27: Reasons for non-completion of matric by gender**

- Among South Africans who drop out of school even though they wish to continue their education, financial reasons are among the most important for both women and men. In addition, pregnancy features as a significant reason for dropping out among women.
- Close on seven out of ten of the 15-24 year olds who had not completed matric and were not studying, but wished to study further, gave finances as their reason for not doing so.
- Figure 27 shows that a smaller percentage of women (61%) than men (79%) gave this reason. The difference between women and men in this respect is largely explained by the very large percentage (21%) of women citing pregnancy as their reason for not continuing.
- The problem of pregnancy was most severe among young African women. Just under a quarter (23%) of the young African women cited pregnancy, compared to 10% of young coloured women, 9% of young Indian women and 4% of young white women.
- Three in ten of the young Indian women, around one-fifth (18-20%) of young white and coloured women, and 8% of young African women cited other family reasons. Overall, the same percentage of women and men cited family reasons for not studying further.

## Education and training: Tertiary education

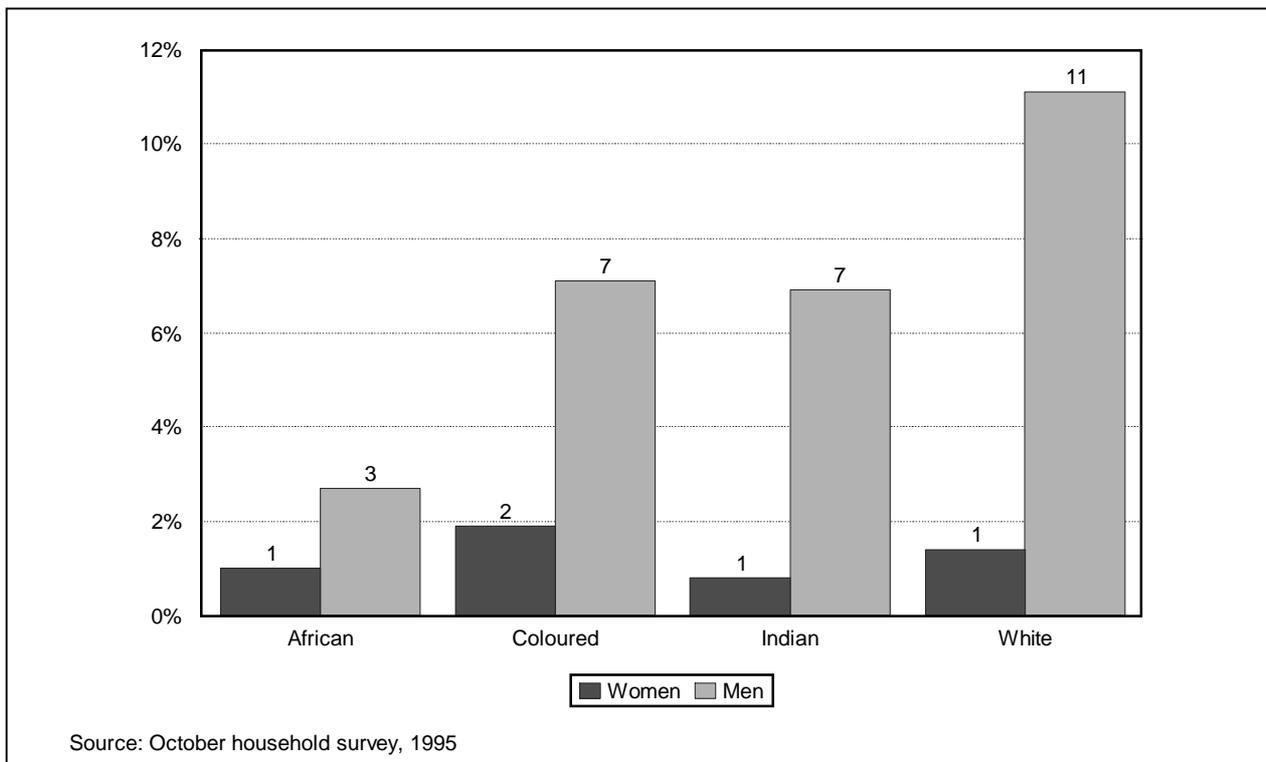


**Figure 28: University and technikon enrolments and permanent staff by gender**

- Women students are in the majority at universities, but in the minority at technikons. Women account for the minority of staff at both universities and technikons.
- Figure 28 shows that, in 1996, women slightly outnumbered men among university students, in that they made up 53% of the student body.
- Men outnumbered women among technikon staff, where they accounted for 54% of all those with permanent appointments. They were even more numerically dominant among university permanent staff (at 58% of the total) and among technikon students (62%).
- Figure 28 describes the situation in respect of all permanent appointments, which includes professional as well as administrative staff. Women generally congregate in the administrative positions. In 1997, one third (33%) of the research and instruction professionals at universities were women, while women made up 37% of the professionals at technikons.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>4</sup>Information supplied by the Department of Education.

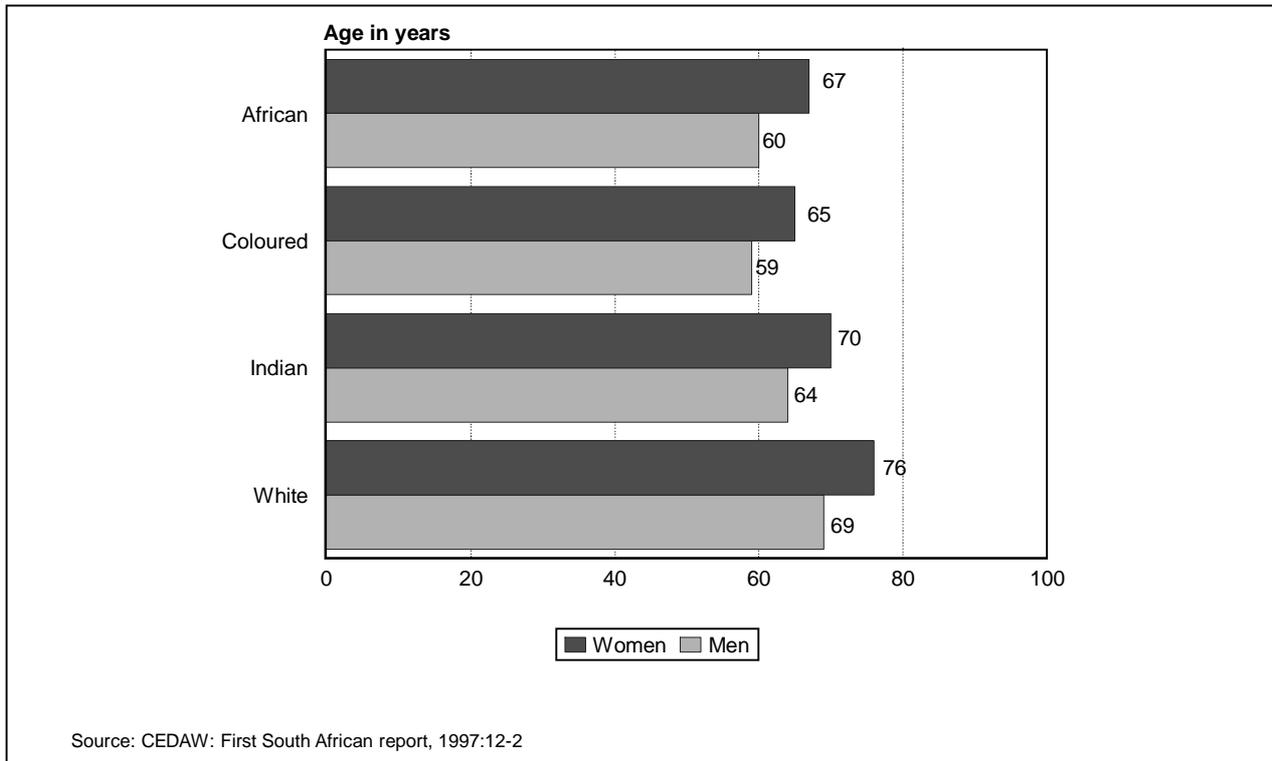
## Education and training: Skills training



**Figure 29: Women and men aged 18 years or more attending skills training by population group**

- A larger proportion of men than women, and a substantially higher proportion of white men, attend skills training courses.
- Under 3% of all those aged 18 and above in October 1995 were acquiring or had acquired artisan or operator skills. Five times as many men (5%) as women (1%) were acquiring or had acquired these skills.
- Figure 29 shows further differences by population group, particularly among men. Over 11% of white men attended skills training, compared to 3% of African men.
- Expressed differently, despite their different proportional presence in the overall population, white and African men each accounted for around a third of those acquiring skills. African women, on the other hand, accounted for only 13%.
- Nearly six in ten of the men who received training acquired skills related to craft occupations, another 17% received operator training and 9% acquired elementary skills. The percentage of women receiving elementary training was almost double that of men, at 17%. Percentages for craft (34%) and operator (12%) were significantly lower.

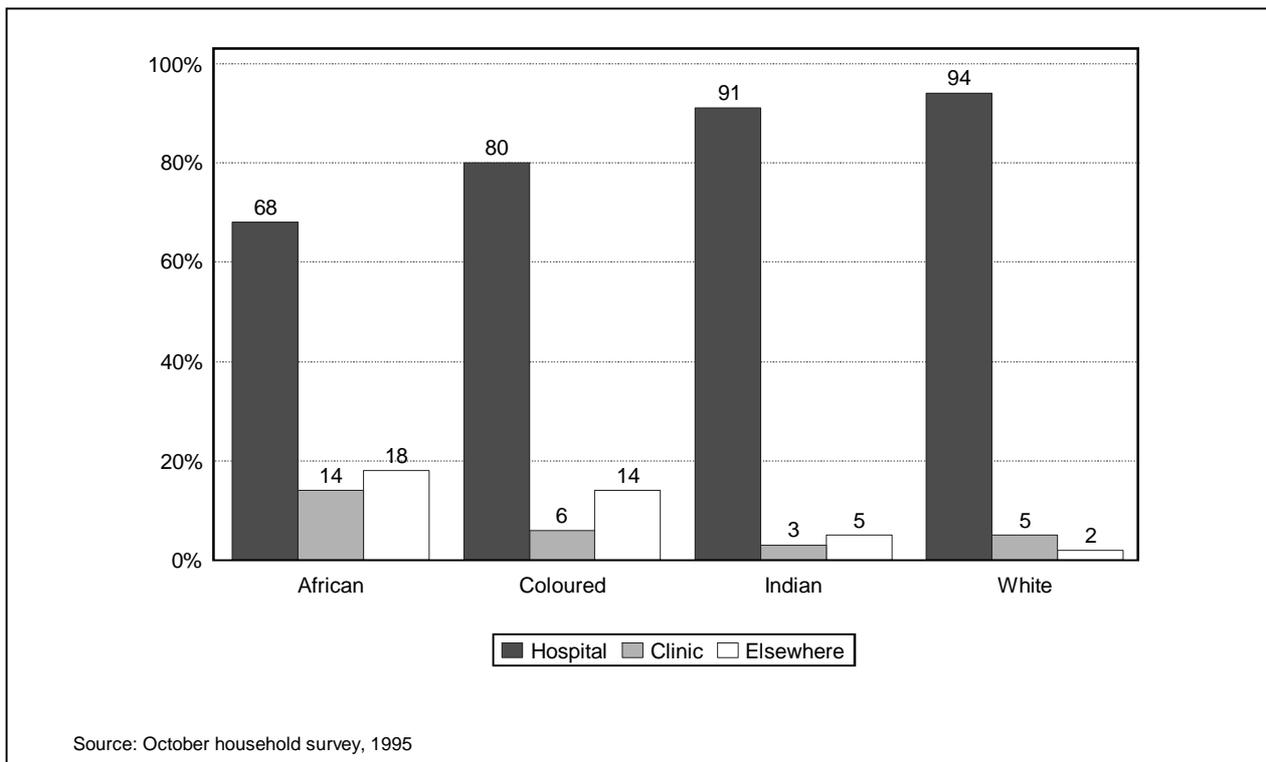
## Health: Life expectancy



**Figure 30: Life expectancy at birth by population group and gender**

- Figure 30 shows that women of each population group can expect to live six to seven years longer than their male counterparts.
- Coloured people have the lowest life expectancy – 65 years for women and 59 years for men.
- White women and men can expect to live more than ten years longer than their coloured counterparts.
- The racial differences largely reflect differences in wealth, living conditions, and access to health and other social services.

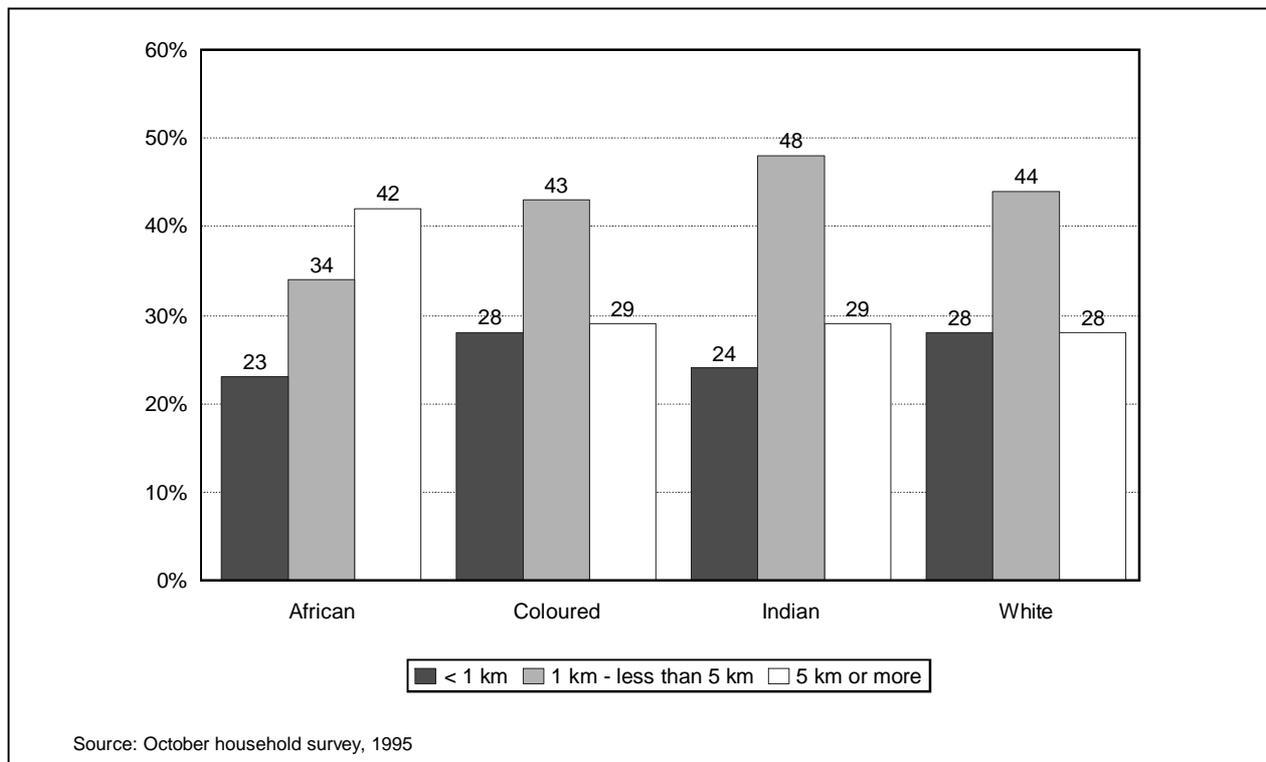
# Health: Facilities 1



**Figure 31: Where women under 55 years of age gave birth by population group**

- White women are highly likely to give birth in a hospital, whereas a relatively large proportion of African women (18%) give birth at venues outside the formal health-care system.
- Nearly three-quarters of women who were under 55 years of age in October 1995 gave birth to their children in a hospital and a further 12% in a clinic.
- Figure 31 shows that only 2% of the children born to white mothers were not born in formal health facilities, compared to 18% of children of African mothers and 14% of children of coloured mothers.
- Clinic utilisation was highest in the case of African mothers, at 14%, and less than half this rate for other population groups.
- The proportion of children born outside a hospital or clinic dropped from 27% of those born in the 1960s to 10% of those born in the first six years of the 1990s.

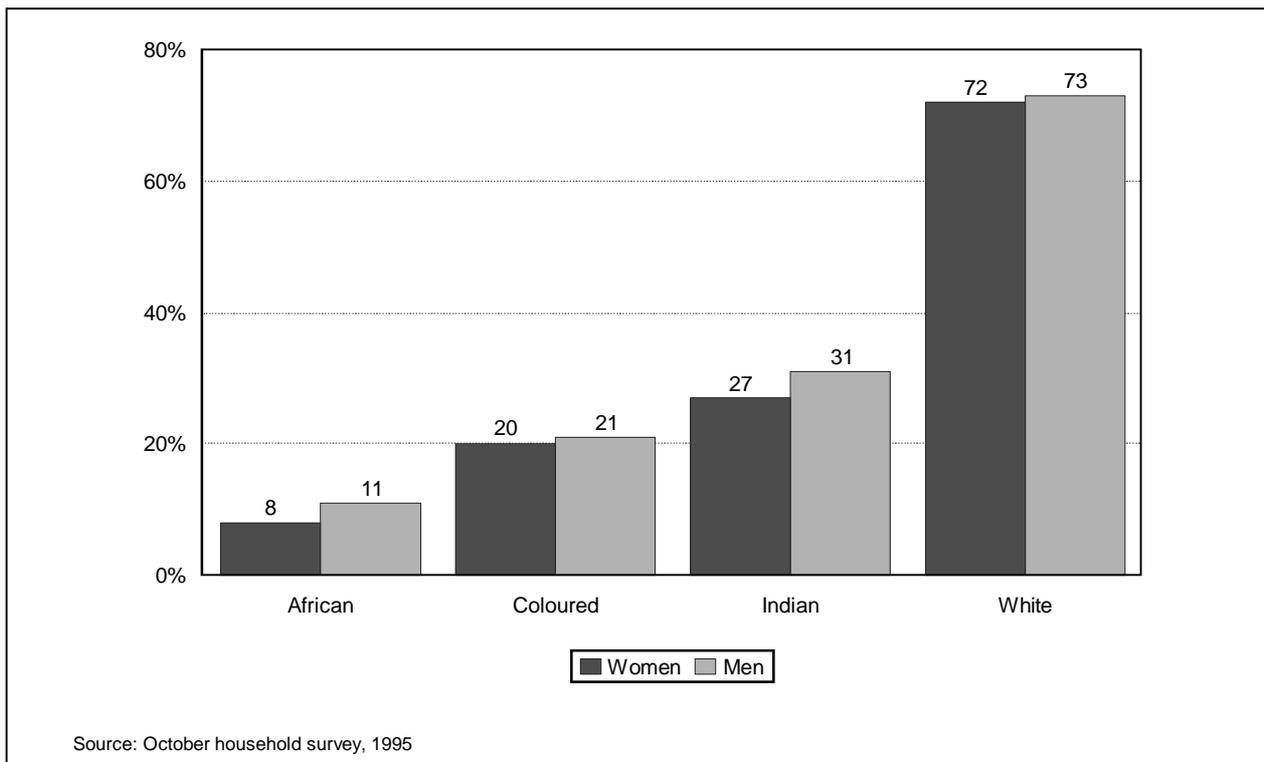
## Health: Facilities 2



**Figure 32: Distance to nearest health facility by population group**

- A larger proportion of African households than coloured, Indian and white ones are situated more than five kilometres from the nearest health facility.
- In October 1995, 38% of all South African households were more than five kilometres from the nearest hospital, clinic or doctor where they usually sought help when ill or injured.
- Figure 32 shows that over four in ten (42%) of African households had to travel this far, while fewer than a quarter were within a kilometre of the health facility. Over six in ten (62%) of all non-urban households were more than five kilometres from a health facility.
- In terms of time, these distances meant that only 18% of non-urban households and only just over a quarter (28%) of all African households were within 15 minutes of a health facility. Just under a quarter (23%) of non-urban households and 15% of all African households, urban and non-urban, had to travel for more than an hour. Among white households, only 1% had to travel for more than an hour.

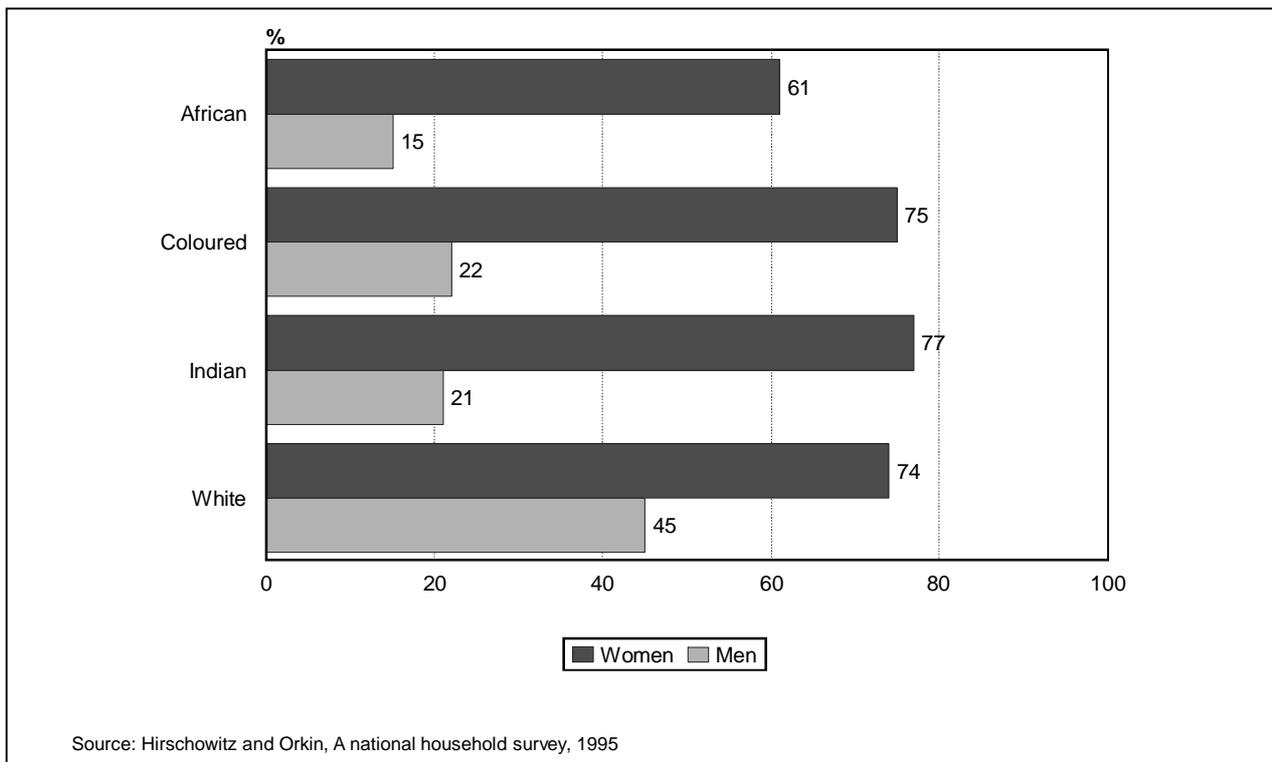
## Health: Medical aid



**Figure 33: Access by adults to medical aid by population group and gender**

- Medical aid is available primarily to people who are working in certain sectors and jobs in the formal sector, and to their dependants. The figures for access thus reflect the employment patterns of the country.
- Overall, 23% of South African men of 18 years or more and 20% of women had access to medical aid in October 1995.
- Figure 33 shows that, within each population group, women had less access than men.
- Access was poorest among Africans, where only 8% of women and 11% of men had medical aid benefits. Around a fifth of coloured women and men, and over a quarter of Indian women and men enjoyed access to medical aid benefits. Among white people, over 70% of both women and men had access to medical aid.

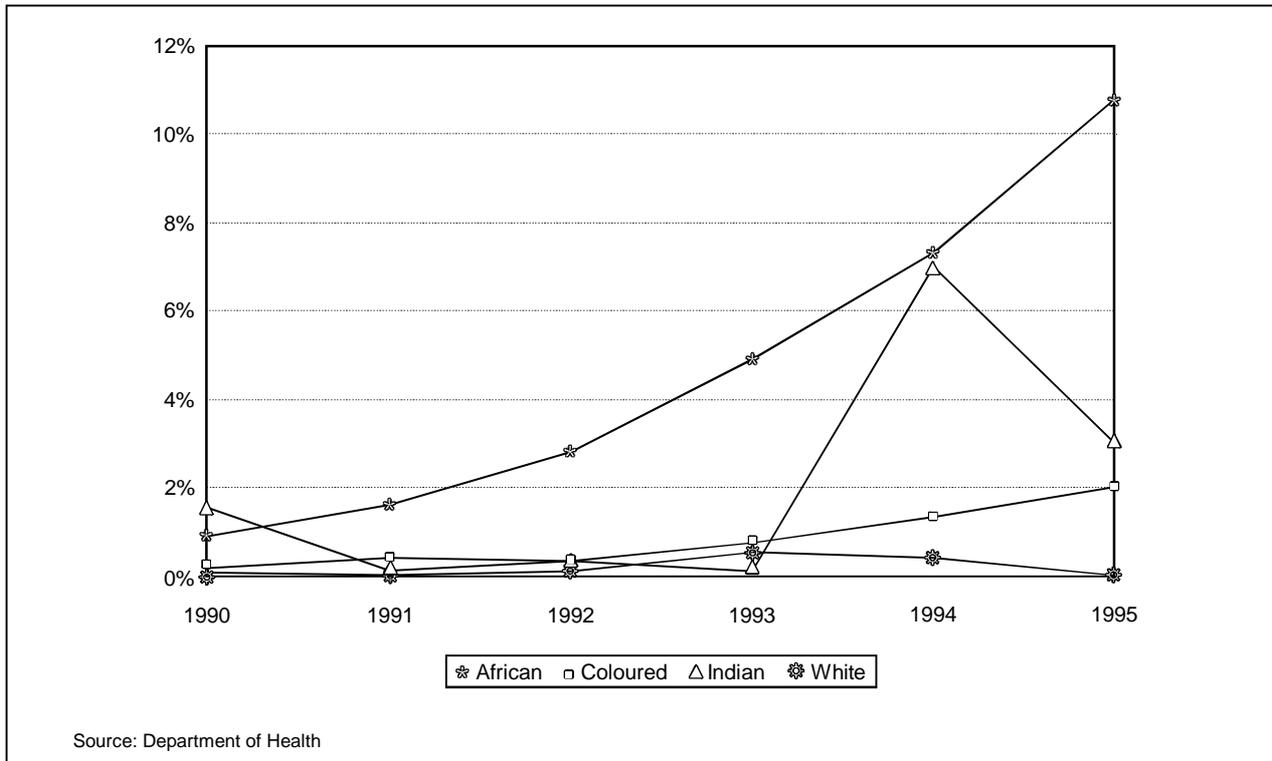
## Health: Contraception



**Figure 34: Use of contraceptives by population group and gender**

- Women, much more than men, tend to use contraceptives, while men tend to rely on their partners to prevent pregnancy.
- Figure 34 shows that, in late 1994, sexually active women were far more likely to use contraception than men. Nearly two-thirds of sexually active women claimed to use contraception, compared to only a fifth of men.
- The utilisation rate for African women was lowest, at just over six in ten (61%). Approximately three-quarters of women in other population groups claimed to use contraception.
- Close on half the sexually active white men (45%) claimed to use contraception, compared to around one in five coloured (22%) and Indian (21%) men and 15% of African men.
- Around half of the sexually active men not using contraception gave as their reason that they relied on their partner. Among women, the most common reasons were a desire to fall pregnant, lack of knowledge, infertility and fear (Hirschowitz and Orkin, 1995).

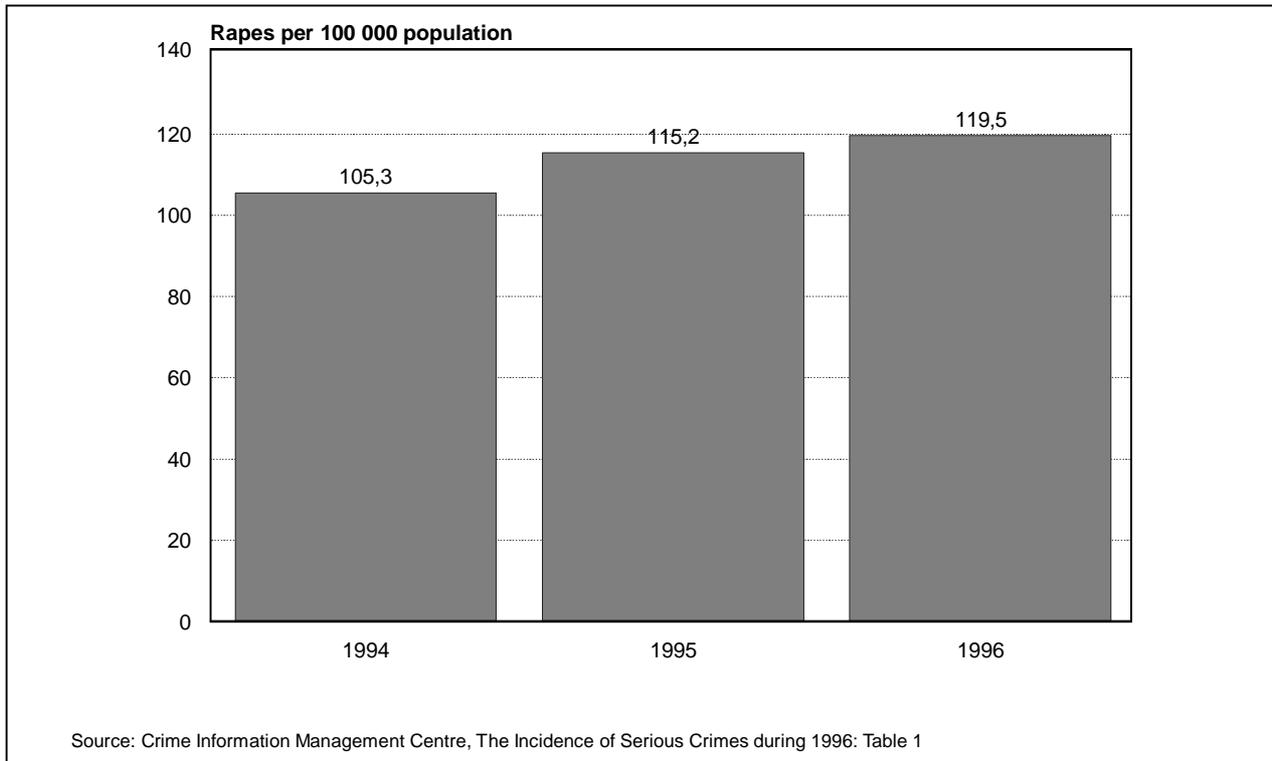
## Health: HIV/Aids



**Figure 35: HIV prevalence among women attending antenatal clinics by population group, 1990-1995**

- HIV is more prevalent among African women attending public sector antenatal clinics than it is among coloured, Indian and white women attending these clinics.
- The Department of Health conducts annual HIV surveys among women attending antenatal clinics. Figure 35 illustrates the relentless progression of the epidemic and the marked racial variations in seroprevalence levels.
- Figure 35 shows that, throughout the period of the studies, rates have always been highest among African women. The rate for African women has also increased faster than that for other population groups. In 1995, the African rate was 10,8%.
- Rates have always been lowest among white women consistently less than 1%.
- The hike in the percentage of Indian women testing HIV positive in 1994 may be due to the small number of women, generally, within this population group.

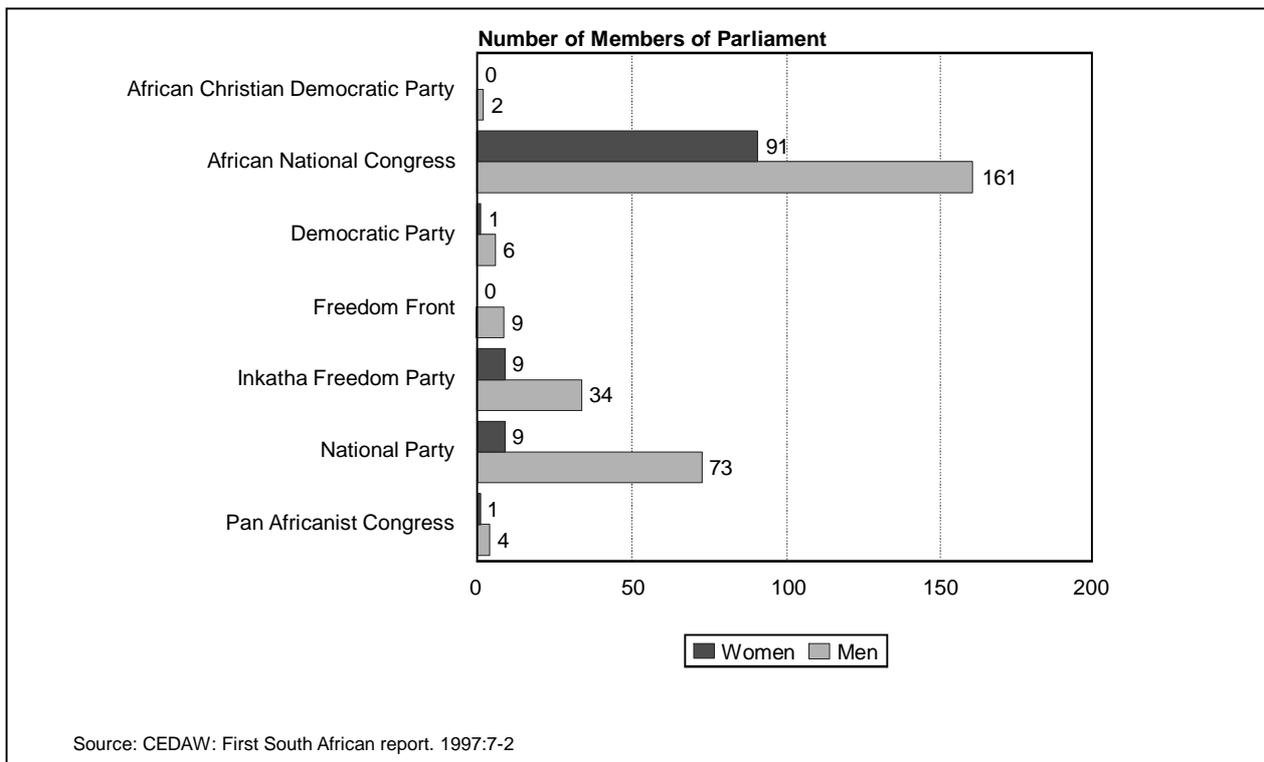
## Crime: Rape



**Figure 36: Reported rapes per 100 000 of the population**

- The incidence of reported rapes has increased steadily since 1994.
- Figure 36 shows that the number of reported rapes has increased faster than population growth over the last few years. Between 1994 and 1996, the number of reported rapes per 100 000 of the population increased from 105,3 to 119,5.
- This method of reporting underestimates the danger to individual women and girls in that the male half of the population is far less likely to be raped and, in terms of the legal definition used for these statistics, cannot be raped.
- Increased reporting could be a result both of a higher incidence of rape and/or a greater proportion of rapes being reported. Even with increased reporting, however, the majority of rapes go unreported. In 1994, police estimated that under 3% of rapes were reported (Govender *et al*, 1994:44).

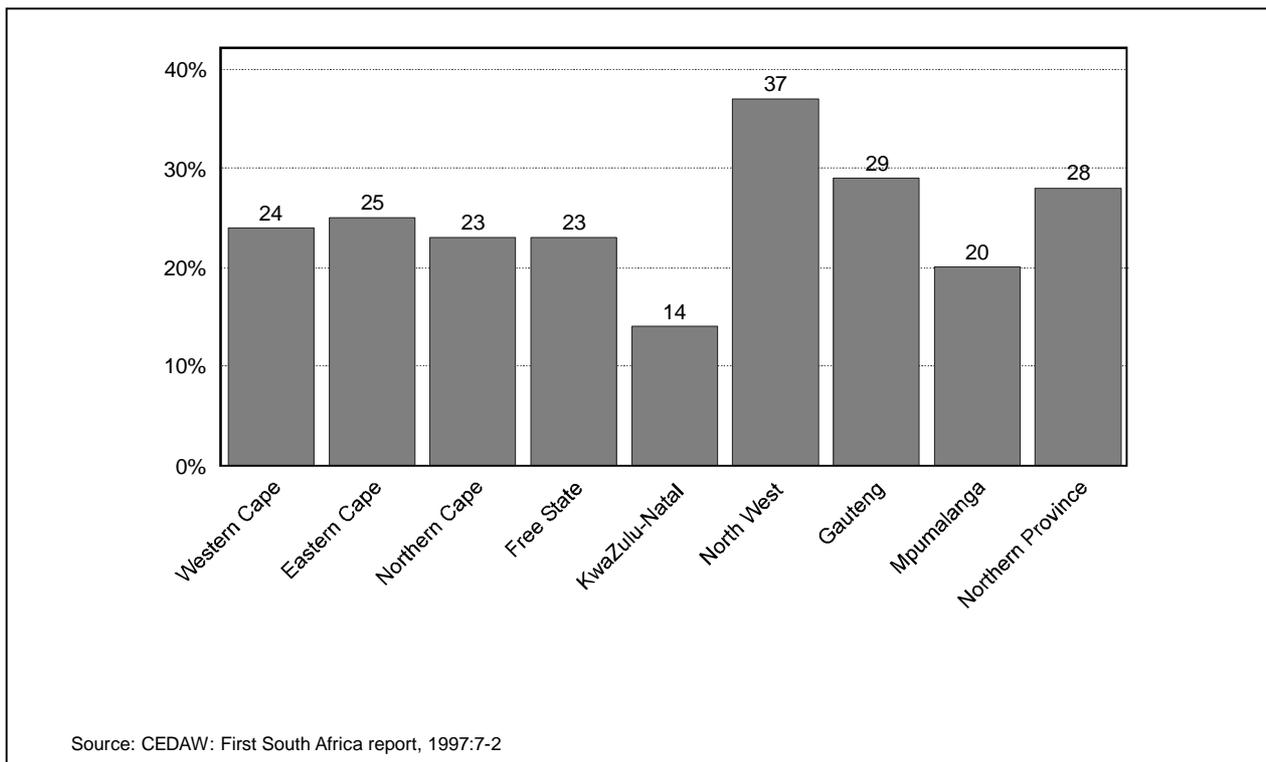
# Decision-making: National Assembly



**Figure 37: National Assembly representatives by political party and gender**

- Men are more likely than women to represent their political parties in South Africa's national parliament, but the proportion of women in parliament has increased in recent years.
- Before the democratic elections of 1994, less than 3% of parliamentarians were women. In mid-1997, 111 of the 400 parliamentarians were women.
- Figure 37 shows that over a third (36%) of the ruling African National Congress (ANC) representatives, and around one-fifth of the representatives of the Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP) and PanAfricanist Congress (PAC), were women.
- Before the elections there was one woman cabinet minister and one deputy minister. In the first post-election cabinet, there were three women and 24 men ministers, and three women and nine male deputy ministers. Subsequent cabinet reshuffles and reorganisation of ministries increased the representation of women in these key positions. In mid-1997, four of the 25 ministers, and eight of the 13 deputy ministers, were women.

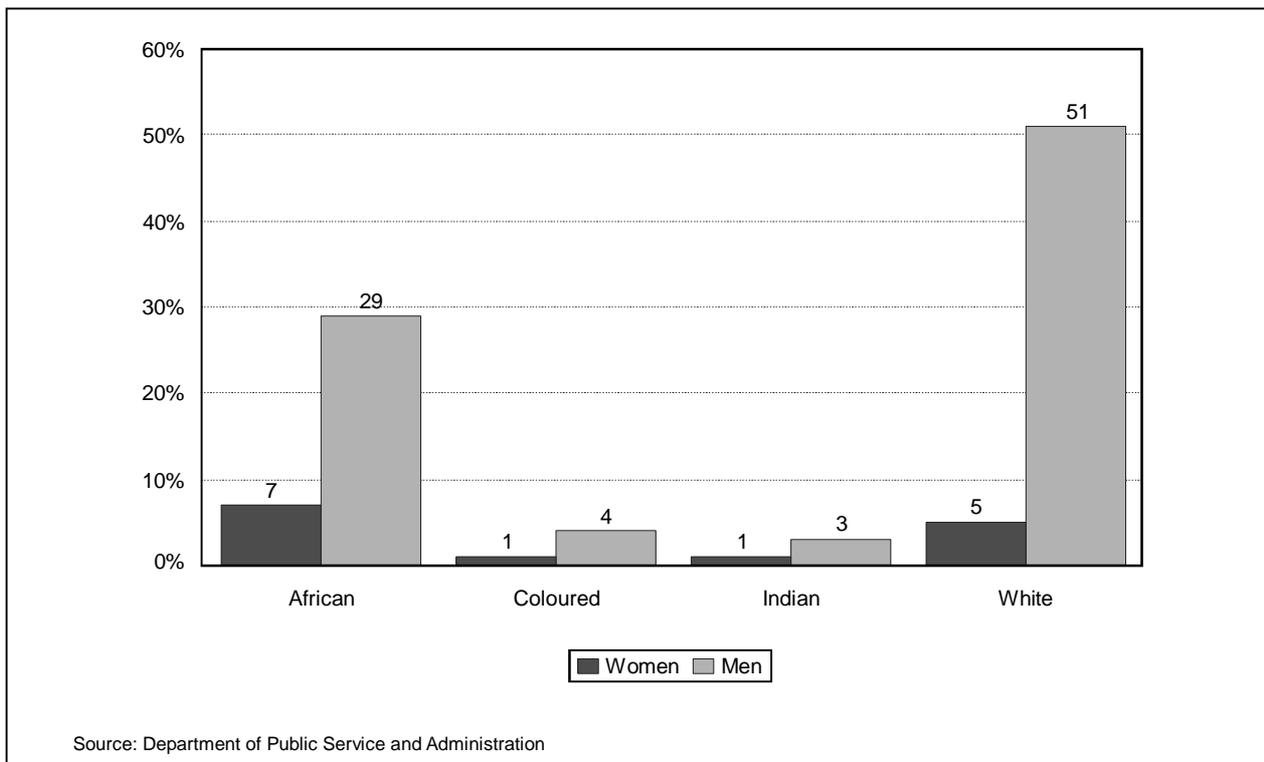
## Decision-making: Provincial legislatures



**Figure 38: Percentage of women in each provincial legislature**

- Overall, men outnumber women in provincial legislatures by a ratio of three to one.
- Each of the nine provinces has its own legislature. Women account for just under a quarter (102) of the 425 members of provincial legislatures (MPLs).
- The number of MPLs in each province varies from as few as 30 in North West, Free State and Northern Cape to as many as 86 in Gauteng.
- Figure 38 shows that close on four out of ten of the MPLs in North West (37%) are women. At the other end of the scale, only 14% of MPLs in KwaZulu-Natal are women.

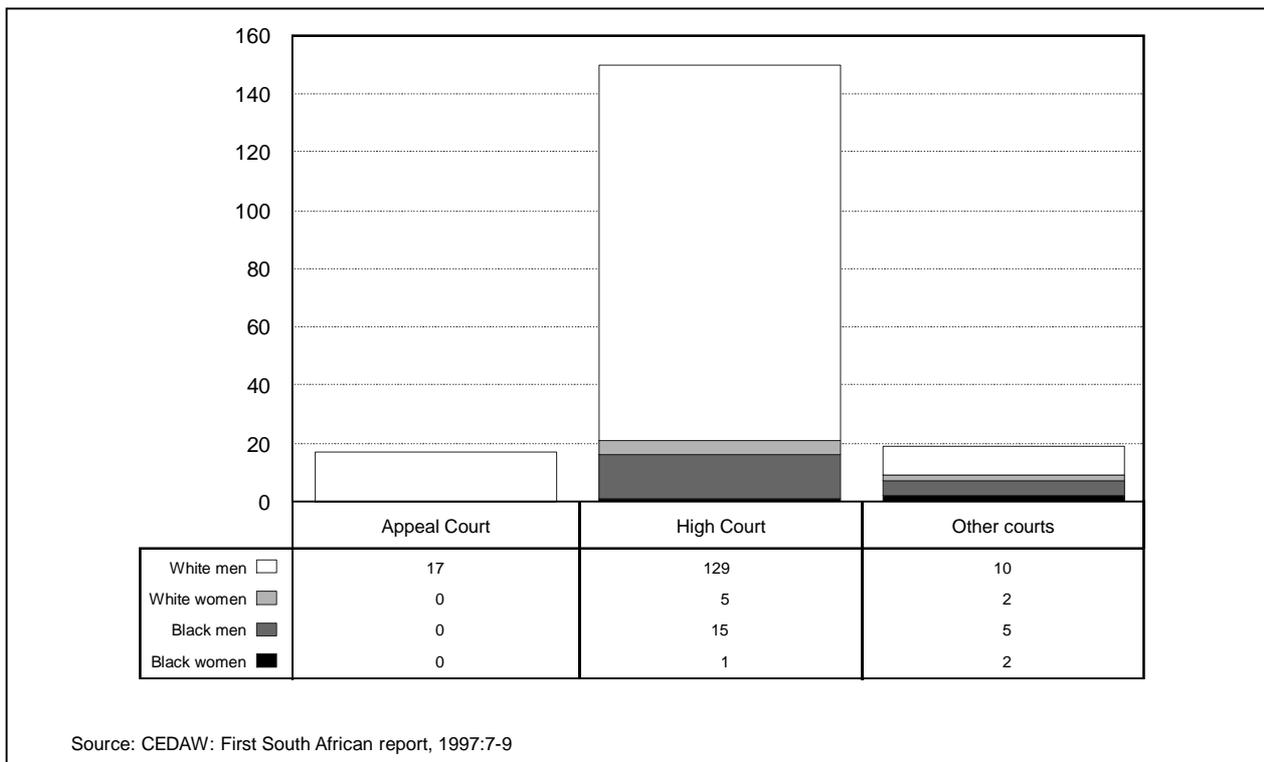
## Decision-making: Public service management



**Figure 39: Managers in the public service by population group and gender**

- Management in the public service is defined as all those holding a post of director or above. Approximately one in every 200 national departmental employees and fewer than two in every thousand provincial employees are classified as managers.
- Figure 39 shows that, in December 1997, just over half of all public sector managers were white men. Over a quarter were African men.
- Within each population group, the number of women at management level was a third of the number of men or even lower. There was less than one white woman manager for every ten white men managers.

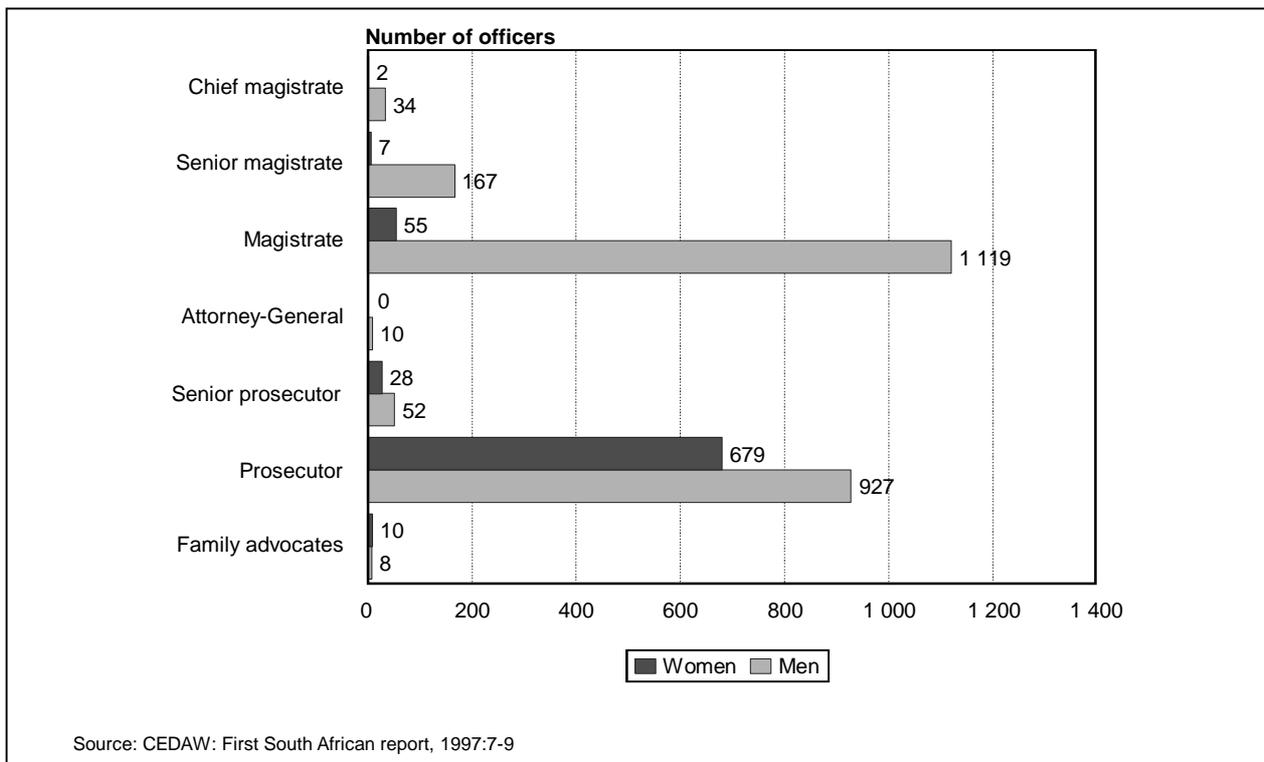
# Decision-making: Judicial officers 1



**Figure 40: Judges by population group and gender**

- There are relatively few women judges in South Africa.
- In June 1997, there were 186 judges, of whom 156 (84%) were white men and ten (6%) were women.
- Figure 40 shows the distribution of white and black (African, coloured or Indian) women and men who were judges in the Appellate Division, the nine regional divisions of the High Court, and other courts.
- The last category (other courts) is the one in which white men are least dominant. The category is made up of the three most recently established courts, namely the Constitutional Court, the Labour Court and the Land Claims Court.
- The Constitutional Court is the highest court in the land. Its 11 judges comprise six white men, one white woman, three black men and one black woman.

## Decision-making: Judicial officers 2



**Figure 41: Other judicial officers by gender**

- Women are in the minority in most judicial officer positions.
- Figure 41 shows that, in June 1997, only nine (4%) of the 210 chief and senior magistrates and 5% of ordinary magistrates were women.
- Women's participation increased at lower levels. Women accounted for 35% of senior prosecutors and a slightly higher (42%) of ordinary prosecutors.
- The one area in which women outnumbered men is among family advocates. Three of the four senior family advocates and seven of the 14 ordinary family advocates were women.

**PLEASE TURN THE PAGE**

# Conclusion

This booklet presents a range of gender statistics. Topics covered include population, families, households, living conditions, work, education, health, crime and decision making.

Each graph and discussion shows gender differences. In most cases, these gender differences are further complicated by differences between women and men in different population groups, or in different geographical areas.

The booklet shows that women are more likely than men to be found in non-urban areas. Households in non-urban areas, and particularly those headed by women, are generally poorer than those in urban areas and those headed by men.

South African women tend to marry at a younger age than men. Nuclear families are not the typical family form in the country. A large proportion of women who have never been married have given birth. Over four in ten children under seven years of age live only with their mother, while one in eight lives with neither parent.

Many households, and particularly African households in non-urban areas, collect water and wood for domestic use because of lack of access to on-site water and fuel sources. It is usually women and girls whose time is spent on this task.

Women are less likely than men to be economically active. Among the economically active, the unemployment rate is higher for women than men, and highest for African women. Women are concentrated in a smaller range of occupations and economic sectors than men. Over a third of all employed African women and close on a quarter of all employed coloured women work as domestic workers. Women tend to work slightly shorter hours than men in paid work, and their average hourly earnings are lower than those of men.

Among adult South Africans, there are more women than men who had no access to formal education, and more men than women with tertiary education. The picture is more balanced among younger people. However, one-fifth of young women who have not completed matric but would have liked to study further cite pregnancy as the reason for dropping out. At the tertiary level, women outnumber men as university students, but there are fewer women than men among technical students, and fewer women than men staff at both universities and technikons.

South African women of all population groups can expect to live longer than their male counterparts. They are, however, less likely than men to have access to private medical aid. African women are less likely than those of other population groups to give birth in a facility belonging to the formal health-care system, although the situation has improved over recent decades. In October 1995, over a third of all South African households were more than five kilometres from the nearest hospital, clinic or doctor where they usually sought help when ill or injured.

Over a quarter of all representatives in the National Assembly are women, as are close on a quarter of members of provincial legislatures. Within the public service as a whole, only 14% of managers are women. Of the 186 judges, only ten (6%) are women.

The South African government is committed to eradicating all forms of discrimination. Statistics such as those presented in this booklet can assist in identifying problems, in planning solutions, and in monitoring progress.

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