



Statistics South Africa

CENSUS 2001

Achieving a better life for all

Progress between Census '96 and Census 2001



**Statistics
South Africa**

Statistics South Africa
Private Bag X44
Pretoria 0001
South Africa

170 Andries Street
Pretoria 0002

User information services: (012) 310 8600
Fax: (012) 310 8500
Main switchboard: (012) 310 8911

Website: www.statssa.gov.za
Email: info@statssa.gov.za

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Pali Lehohla
Statistician-General

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Preface

After the first democratic election in South Africa, one fundamental goal of the new government was to achieve a 'better life for all'. In this report we attempt to answer the question of what has changed in the lives of South Africans to ensure a better life, and what still needs to change.

The report, drawing on census data from 1996 and 2001, illustrates in detailed statistics the number of areas where achievements are evident and others where there remains much to be done. In the areas where much remains to be done, we ask: at what speed should those changes be occurring? This is a very important question, in view of government's commitment to meeting the millennium development goals. Subsequent reports from Statistics South Africa's ongoing survey programme will continue to monitor progress in these areas.

This volume is a must for policy-makers, researchers, scholars and many other groups of interested citizens. Many of the detailed analyses and breakdowns included here have not been published before. In this way, the report gives a glimpse of the potential of the enormous data holdings that Stats SA has accumulated in the last ten years. It will be followed by another report drawing on data from Census 2001 that focuses on the life stages of South Africans from childhood to old age.

I wish to thank all those who have contributed in any way to the production of this report, from the data collectors and data processors, to the writers and analysts, production staff and everyone in between.

PJ Lehohla, Statistician-General
April 2005

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Technical notes

Adjusting for undercount

For both censuses a post-enumeration survey (PES) was undertaken to determine the degree of undercount or overcount. The numbers and percentages presented in this report have been adjusted according to the PES findings.

Adjusting the count in this way leads to the introduction of fractions. These fractions have been rounded to whole numbers. The sum of the separate numbers may therefore differ slightly from the totals given. A similar effect can be seen with the percentages, which are rounded to one decimal place, and therefore may not always sum to 100.

Population group

Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) continues to classify people by population group, in order to monitor progress in moving away from the apartheid-based discrimination of the past. However membership of a population group is now based on self-perception and self-classification, not on a legal definition.

In 2001, five options were provided on the questionnaire, Black African, Coloured, Indian or Asian, White, and Other. Responses in the last category and non-responses were minimal and were therefore imputed.

Imputation

In 2001, imputation was used to allocate values for unavailable, unknown, incorrect or inconsistent responses in most categories. The editing system uses a combination of 'logical' imputation techniques and 'hot decks' (dynamic imputation). 'Undetermined' values were used only for a few variables in a few cases (such as industry and occupation).

Logical imputations, in which a consistent value is calculated or deduced from other information in the household, are usually preferred over hot deck imputations. Generally, the editing system attempts to resolve inconsistencies first by looking at other characteristics of the household (for example, a married person with an invalid response for sex would be assigned the opposite sex to their spouse). If this is unsuccessful, then a consistent value is imputed from a hot deck, which bases the imputation on nearby persons or households that share similar characteristics.

Definitions

A publication containing all census concepts and definitions is available electronically (Report no. 03-02-26 (2001)). Nevertheless, for the convenience of readers, some of the main terms used in this report are defined below. Others (such as *disability*) are defined or explained in the relevant chapter.

- *Household*: A household is a group of persons who live together, and provide themselves jointly with food and/or other essentials for living, or a single person who lives alone.
- *Collective living quarters*: Living quarters where certain facilities are shared by groups of individuals or households. They include hostels, hotels and institutions.
- *Institution*: (1) (*enumeration*) a communal place of residence for people with a common characteristic, such as a hospital, school hostel, home for the disabled, prison, defence force barracks or convent. (2) (*demarcation*) one of ten geographical EA types. All collective living

quarters other than hostels were classified as institutions for demarcation purposes. This use of the word institution is therefore broader than the first meaning.

- *Economically active:* All those aged 16–65 who are either employed or unemployed. The rest of the working-age population is classified as not economically active, which includes students, homemakers, those too ill to work and anyone not seeking work.
- *Unemployed:* According to the *official or strict definition*, the unemployed are those people within the economically active population who (a) did not work in the seven days prior to census night, (b) wanted to work and were available to start work within a week of census night, and (c) had taken active steps to look for work or to start some form of self-employment in the four weeks prior to census night. The third criterion does not apply to the *expanded definition*, which thereby captures discouraged workseekers.
- *Imputed household income:* Household income is calculated by adding together the individual incomes of all members of the household (see below). Because individual income was recorded in intervals rather than exact amounts, a fixed amount had to be allocated to each range in order to do the calculations. Details of this procedure can be found in the Census Metadata on the Stats SA website.
- *Income:* All money received from salary, wages or own business; plus money benefits from employer, such as contributions to medical aid and pension funds; plus all money from other sources, such as additional work activities, remittances from family members living elsewhere, state pension or grant, other pensions or grants, income from investments, etc. The amount reported is the total before tax. Note: Income is generally under-reported.
- *Enumeration area type:* The classification of enumeration areas according to set criteria profiling land use and human settlements within the area. In Census 2001 the classification was simplified into ten types: urban settlement; informal settlement; tribal settlement; commercial farms; state, park and recreational land; hostels; ‘institutions’ (i.e. all collective living quarters other than hostels); industrial areas; smallholdings; vacant or sparsely occupied land (fewer than ten households).
- *Settlement type:* Classification according to the characteristics of a residential population in terms of urban and rural, degree of planned and unplanned (in the case of urban) and jurisdiction (in the case of rural). The four broad settlement types found in South Africa are: formal urban areas; informal urban areas; commercial farms; and tribal areas.

Executive summary

Introduction

This report contains descriptions of the life circumstances and living conditions of the people counted in South Africa on census night in 2001. It also focuses on the changes that took place between 1996 and 2001.

On the night of 9–10 October 2001, there were an estimated 44,8 million people in South Africa. This number had increased by 4,2 million people from the estimated 40,6 million on the same night five years before, at the time of Census 1996.¹

The number of households in South Africa also increased from an estimated 9,1 million households² in 1996 to an estimated 11,2 million households in 2001. This report also focuses on findings related to households and their living conditions.

In addition, the report examines two special groups of people, namely those who were not born in South Africa and the disabled.

Findings related to individuals

Population characteristics

The distribution of people by province changed between 1996 and 2001. Even though the number of people increased in each province, except for Northern Cape where there was a slight decrease, the proportion of the total population in each province changed. For example, the percentage of people in Gauteng increased from 18,1% in 1996 to 19,7% in 2001, while the percentage of people in Eastern Cape decreased from 15,5% to 14,4%.

The proportion of black African people in the country increased (from 76,7% in 1996 to 79,0% in 2001), while the proportion of white people decreased (from 10,9% in 1996 to 9,6% in 2001).

The age distribution of the population of South Africa continues to resemble that of a developing, rather than a highly industrialised country. There was a relatively large proportion of people in the younger age categories (less than 20 years of age), and a relatively small proportion of people in the older age categories (65 years of age or more). Nevertheless, the distribution differs significantly for each population group. The pyramid of the black African population resembles that of a developing country, while the age distribution of the white population resembles that of a highly industrialised one. The age distributions of the 'coloured' and the Indian/Asian people fall between these two extremes.

There was also a great deal of variation in age distribution by province, revealing two distinct patterns, which suggest that there is migration among young adults from the less to the more industrialised provinces, while some parents are sending their children back home to the less industrialised provinces to live in the extended family for the purposes of childcare and schooling.

¹ All figures given in this report for Census 1996 and Census 2001 have been adjusted for undercount of both individuals and households by a post-enumeration survey.

² Excluding collective living quarters in both Census 1996 and 2001

Internal migration

Altogether, approximately 5,6 million people changed residence at least once between the two census periods, almost a third of whom had moved between provinces. The results show that inter-provincial migration favours the more urbanised provinces of Gauteng and Western Cape.

Education

There was an improvement in access to education between the two censuses. Among people aged 20 years or more, larger numbers and larger proportions of people had obtained at least some secondary education, had completed their secondary education, and had attained tertiary qualifications. In general, the overwhelming majority of children aged 7–15 years were attending school in 2001. There was, however, a trend for children to both enter and leave educational institutions at a younger age in 2001 than in 1996.

Children were moving through the education system at differing rates, with black African children moving through it more slowly than those in other population groups, probably due to the ongoing poorer quality of teaching in historically disadvantaged schools.

Labour market data

Census 2001 showed that patterns of labour market status³ varied by age, and unemployment is partly a problem of youth. The proportion of people who were unemployed tended to decrease with increasing age.

Education and labour market status were also correlated. There was a low labour absorption rate among those with less than 12 years of schooling. Among those with a higher educational level, the percentage of people who were employed increased with each additional qualification.

Regarding industries in which employed people work, there were some changes between 1996 and 2001. For example, the proportion of people working in mining and quarrying decreased, while the proportion working in financial, insurance, real estate and business services increased. There were also variations by province, population group, sex, age and highest level of education. For example, the lower the level of education, the more likely employed people were to work in the agriculture sector or in private households. The higher the level of education, the more likely employed people were to work in the community, social and personal services, or the financial, insurance, real estate and business services sectors.

Regarding occupation, in general there was a change towards higher skill-levels over the inter-censal period, i.e. there were proportionately fewer blue-collar and proportionally more white-collar jobs in 2001 than in 1996.

The racial and gender divide by occupation was still clearly evident in South Africa at the time of Census 2001. Employed black African and coloured males and females were far more likely to be working in elementary occupations than Indian/Asian and white males and females. Employed white and Indian/Asian females were more likely to work in clerical occupations than coloured and black African females. Larger proportions of employed white males were working in managerial and professional occupations than of employed males in the other population groups.

³ Census labour market data have certain limitations. Labour market figures in this report should therefore be regarded as indicative. They do not necessarily reflect the full extent of employment in the country, particularly in the informal sector. At the same time the census may overestimate the extent of unemployment in the country.

As would be expected, the type of occupation was closely associated with the highest level of education. Professionals were largely those with post-school qualifications, whereas the vast majority of those in elementary occupations had an incomplete, if any, school education.

Travel to an educational institution or to work

Among those attending an educational institution, the mode of travel varied by type of institution. Each day, the vast majority of those attending school (82,3%) actually walked to school. Black African children were most likely to walk to school.

Among those attending higher educational institutions in 2001, a variety of means was used to reach them. There was also wide variation in mode of travel to work, particularly by income. The lower the income, the more likely the respondent was to walk to work. Travelling to work by minibus/taxi or by bus or train was more common among lower income workers.

As would be expected, a relatively large percentage of those in managerial and professional occupations (over 60% in each case) traveled to work by car as a driver, compared to some 40% of technical or associate professionals and less than a third of clerical workers.

Findings related to households

Distribution by province

The distribution of households⁴ by province also changed between 1996 and 2001. The number of households increased in each province, but not uniformly, and the proportions changed. For example, the proportion of households found in Gauteng increased, while in Eastern Cape the proportion of households decreased.

Dwellings

The overall proportion of households living in formal dwellings (houses, flats and townhouses) increased between 1996 and 2001, with a corresponding decrease in the proportion of households living in traditional dwellings. There was also a decrease in the proportion of households living in backyard accommodation. On the other hand, the proportion of households living in informal dwellings remained approximately the same.

Household size

In general, the number of people per household, and the average household size, decreased between 1996 and 2001 across all provinces. In the country as a whole, 16,4% of households were single person households in 1996, increasing to 18,5% in 2001. At the other extreme, 16,2% of households in 1996 had seven or more people living in them, decreasing to 13,8% of households in 2001. In both 1996 and 2001, Gauteng had the smallest proportion of households containing seven or more people.

Number of rooms per household

Two million households were living in one room (excluding the bathroom), or else sharing a single room with another household or other households, and, at the other extreme, 1,4 million households were living in seven rooms or more.

In both 1996 and 2001, households living in informal dwellings and backyard accommodation lived in fewer rooms than households in formal or traditional dwellings.

⁴ Excluding collective living quarters for both 1996 and 2001

Characteristics of heads of households

When census or survey data are collected, one person in the household is identified as the household head. This is considered necessary for practical reasons associated with the relationship and family questions. However for certain variables the description of the household head can act as a proxy for the household as a whole, and in some cases the description of the household head may have a clear association with the living conditions of the household as a whole.

Even though male-headed households remained in the majority in both censuses, the proportion of male-headed households in South Africa has decreased over time. In Census 1996, 62,1% of all households were headed by a male, decreasing to 57,4% of all households in Census 2001.

With regard to the labour market status of household heads, 60,9% of male and 35,7% of female heads of working age were employed in 2001. African female heads of households were least likely to be employed, and white male heads of households were most likely to be employed.

Among employed household heads of working age, there were clear differences in occupation by both population group and sex. For example, 15,3% of black African household heads were in managerial, professional or technical occupations, compared with 57,7% of white household heads. More than half of the employed black African female household heads (55,6%) were in elementary occupations, compared with a much smaller proportion of employed white male and female household heads (2,6% in both examples).

Population group and sex of the household head were related to the unevenly distributed annual household income in October 2001. Households headed by black African females tended to have the lowest incomes in 2001, followed by those headed by black African males. Households headed by white males tended to have the highest incomes.

Infrastructure and services

Infrastructure and services for households include fuel used for cooking, heating and lighting, piped clean water, toilet facilities, telephone access and refuse removal.

The use of electricity as the main energy source for cooking increased from 47,4% in 1996 to 51,4% in 2001. Electricity for heating also increased from 46,5% in 1996 to 49,0% in 2001. But the biggest increase was in the use of electricity for lighting, from 58,2% of households in 1996 to 69,7% in 2001.

Access to piped clean water for domestic use increased between the census years. The proportion of households using piped water on site or in the dwelling increased slightly from 60,7% in 1996 to 61,3% in 2001. The proportion of households using public taps also increased, from 20,8% in 1996 to 23,9% in 2001. The proportion of households using dams, rivers, streams and springs decreased from 12,4% in 1996 to 9,4% in 2001.

Concerning toilet facilities, the results of the two censuses show that access to flush or chemical toilets increased, from 50,6% in 1996 to 53,8% in 2001, while the use of pit latrines declined from 32,4% to 28,5%. But the proportion of households without any access to a toilet facility increased from 12,4% in 1996 to 13,6% in 2001.

Regular refuse removal by a local authority at least once a week increased, from 52,2% of households in 1996 to 55,4% in 2001.

Access to a telephone in the dwelling and/or a cellular telephone increased steeply between 1996 and 2001. In 1996, 28,8% of all households had access to a landline in the dwelling or a cellular telephone, increasing to 42,4% of households in 2001.

Findings related to two specific groups of people

People born outside South Africa

As many as 43,8 million of the 44,8 million people counted on census night in 2001 indicated that they were born in South Africa, while 1,0 million indicated that they were born elsewhere. The majority of those born elsewhere were male. Most were born in another SADC country, slightly more in 2001 than in 1996. In addition, a relatively large group said they were born in Europe, but proportionately fewer than in 1996. Relatively few were born in other countries.

Relatively small percentages of foreign-born children were in the age categories 0 to 14 years in 2001. A relatively high proportion of foreign-born persons were young adult males and a slightly smaller proportion were young adult females.

Concerning country of citizenship of the foreign-born, more than half said they had become South African citizens. A relatively large number said they were citizens of a SADC country, while relatively few said they were citizens of a European country.

People who were not born in South Africa had a higher level of education than those who were. For example, 20,4% of those aged 20 years or more who were foreign-born had post-matric qualifications, compared with 8,0% of those born in this country.

When comparing the labour market status of South African-born and foreign-born people, a larger proportion of foreign-born (61,3%) than South African-born (32,8%) in the age category 15–65 years was employed, while a smaller proportion was unemployed, and a smaller proportion was not economically active. Moreover, among the employed that were not born in South Africa, larger percentages were found in higher-level occupations than of the employed who were born here. Conversely, a larger proportion of people born in this country were in elementary occupations than of those who were not born here.

The disabled

To measure the extent of disability in the country, the Census 2001 questionnaire asked whether or not the referent person had any serious disabilities that prevented his or her full participation in life activities (such as education, work, and social life), including those affecting sight, hearing, communication, physical, intellectual, and emotional functioning. Multiple disabilities were also identified.

Altogether, of the 44,8 million people counted in Census 2001, 2,3 million people were reported as being disabled. Of these 577 000 (1,3% of the total population) had a visual disability. There was an overall increase in the proportion of people with a disability with each increase in age category. At first this increase was gradual, but after the age of 44 years, the increase became steeper, and it became even steeper after the age of 69 years. Moreover, the actual age when change from a more gradual to a steeper slope occurs varied by population group. Among black African people, the change from a gradual to a steeper slope is evident from the about age of 39 years onwards, whereas for white people this change occurs after the age of 69 years.

Disabled children are less likely to attend an educational institution than the overall population, and among the disabled aged 20 years or more a lower level of education has been attained than that of the general population.

Both the labour participation and labour absorption rates among the disabled of working age tended to be rather low. Among the population with at least one disability, 65,7% was not economically active. Only 18,6% of the disabled population aged 15–65 years was employed at the time of Census 2001, compared to 33,7% of the population as a whole in this age group.

Employed disabled people were more likely than the employed in general to be found working in agriculture (16,0% of disabled as against 11,1% of all employed), and in private households (15,7% of disabled as against 10,8% of all employed). The type of occupation in which disabled people worked varied by type of disability. Overall, 37,7% of the employed aged 15–65 years with at least one disability were found in elementary occupations, as against 28,4% of the total employed.

When looking at the living conditions of the disabled, we see that a smaller percentage of these people (56,4%) than the general population (62,4%) were living in a formal dwelling such as a house or flat. A larger percentage of disabled people than the population in general were living in a traditional dwelling. Moreover, a larger proportion of those with multiple disabilities were living in an institution than those with one disability.

Section 1

Orientation

Chapter 1 – Introduction

Background

As the country celebrates 10 years of democracy, it becomes essential to measure the change that has taken place in South Africa between 1994 and 2004. Such measurement allows the country to monitor the actual impact of the democratically elected government's policies and their implementation on the well-being of the population. It also gives the government information to plan for the future.

Data provided by the population census of 2001 provide a sound foundation for such monitoring and measurement. In this document, the focus is on information obtained from Census 2001, both the actual count and a description of the life circumstances and living conditions of the people present in the country on census night (9–10 October 2001).

It is indeed important to know that on this night, there were 44,8 million people in South Africa, and that this number increased from a baseline count of 40,6 million on the same night five years before, when Census 1996 took place. But it is equally important to know more about these people. The far-ranging questions that were asked in Census 2001 tell us about how the people of South Africa live.

In addition, comparisons between the two censuses (1996 and 2001) that have been completed since the attainment of democracy in South Africa can give an even better idea of change.⁵

The running of Census 2001 went hand-in-hand with the development of a geographical information system (GIS). During the last census, prior to the count, the country was divided into small pockets of land called enumeration areas. These census enumeration areas (EAs) have now been captured onto the GIS, and the information collected during the census has been linked to each EA. This link gives users access to a range of demographic and socio-economic variables, which are in turn linked to a geographical picture of the country.

Thus Census 2001 allows for a wide variety of analyses at different geographical levels.⁶ For example, it allows us to compare data between provinces and municipalities. It also enables planners to measure the extent of development in the country, in each province and in each municipality. The various electronic products allow users to disaggregate data at different levels according to their specific needs. In this report we focus mainly on descriptions at national level. Provincial breakdowns are also sometimes given for comparative purposes.

⁵ There are, however, certain cautions that the reader should bear in mind when looking at these comparisons. The questions that were asked during both censuses were not always the same, and in some cases the order in which they were asked, or the format in which they were placed on the questionnaire, differed. The methods of training differed between the censuses, and the interview techniques may have also differed. This means that the questions are not necessarily directly comparable. Nevertheless, such comparisons do give at least some indication of the trends between the two time periods.

⁶ For reasons related to the extent of the undercount in Census 2001 and difficulty in maintaining confidentiality, even when using algorithms to prevent specific identification of individuals, we are not releasing individual data at EA level for Census 2001, since we find that both data at lower levels of disaggregation and these algorithms may not always be adequate. But data will be made available at municipal, main place, sub-place and ward level.

This report is one of a series of Census 2001 outputs. A wide range of census products is currently available. Print products have been distributed to libraries, schools, community organisations, business organisations, trade unions and government departments, countrywide. Electronically, a variety of interactive and other products are available on the internet. Other electronic products such as the Supercross-based community profiles are also available to the general public from Stats SA head and provincial offices. Electronic products of a more technical nature are available directly from Stats SA head office. A full list of Census 2001 products can be found on the Stats SA website.

Methodology for Census 2001

A Stats SA report *How the count was done* (Stats SA, 2003) gives more detailed information on the methodology used in conducting Census 2001. Here we will briefly describe the main steps.

A census can be divided into at least three main stages, namely pre-enumeration, enumeration, and post-enumeration, consisting of both data capture and analysis, leading to a series of products and services.

Pre-enumeration

In the pre-enumeration stage, the country was divided into small geographic areas or EAs. The GIS was used to demarcate these EAs and to produce maps (both orientation maps and EA maps). Aerial photographs were widely used to make EA identification easier. Using these photographs, the EA boundaries had to be identified on the ground and described, and the living quarters within each of them listed. All this information (orientation and EA maps, boundary descriptions, and listings) was incorporated into a *census summary book* for each EA. This book also contained additional columns to be completed by the enumerator during the actual count, as described below.

During the pre-enumeration stage, the census questionnaire was developed and tested, and the logistics were planned. In addition the computer-based census administration system (CAS) was developed. A pilot study was conducted in April 2003, which indicated various improvements that were required in relation to the original planning. These improvements were introduced in the months after the pilot, but before enumeration. Implementation was monitored through a daily management or *nerve centre* meeting.

Logistics played an important part in pre-enumeration, including the opening and staffing of regional offices, the installation of information technology equipment within them, the despatch of questionnaires and other materials to these offices, the arranging of training and training venues, the recruitment of field staff, and the distribution of contracts for the field staff.

Enumeration

During enumeration, approximately 100 000 enumerators and their supervisors, armed with Stats SA bibs, identification cards and satchels containing questionnaires, census summary books, training manuals, writing and other materials, visited each EA in the country, using the maps, boundary descriptions and listings from the census summary book that were produced during the pre-enumeration stage. New dwellings which might have sprung up after listing were added to the census summary book. Questionnaires were completed for each household found and in all collective living quarters. Enumerators recorded in the summary books whether or not each dwelling was actually visited, and if so, the number of households at the particular dwelling and the

number of people in each household. If no contact could be established in a particular dwelling the reason for this non-contact had to be specified.

Supervisors were required to check the work of enumerators. In turn, fieldwork co-ordinators checked the work of supervisors, and regional office managers checked the work within their region.

Batches of bar-coded boxes containing completed questionnaires were then sent from the regional offices directly to the data processing centre for storage and data capture.

Post-enumeration

The primary purpose of the data capture system was to transform data from the completed census questionnaires into usable computer data files. Scanning and optical character reading were the main tools used for this purpose. Open-ended questions had to be coded, and dictionaries were developed for the automation of this process.

Following data capture, the output was edited and prepared for use for census products. Logical edits, consistency and range checks, and imputation techniques such as hot-deck methods were used for item non-responses.

The data were then analysed and prepared for distribution by means of the series of products described above.

The post-enumeration survey

An independent team from Stats SA conducted a post-enumeration survey (PES) to ascertain the extent of the undercount in Census 2001, and to adjust the census data for this undercount. All numbers and percentages in this report make use of data as adjusted by the post-enumeration survey. A Stats SA report *Census 2001: Post-enumeration survey: Results and methodology* describes this process in detail.

Outline of the rest of this report

This report contains four sections and fifteen chapters.

- Section 1, or the orientation section, contains one (namely this) chapter. It gives the background and methodology of Census 2001.
- Section 2 focuses on the individuals counted in the two censuses, 1996 and 2001. It contains eight chapters. Chapter 2 focuses on the results of the actual count and the distribution of the population by province, sex, and population group. Chapter 3 describes the distribution of the population by age, while Chapter 4 outlines the language distribution in the country. In Chapter 5, internal migration between the two censuses is delineated, while issues related to the education of the population are discussed in Chapter 6. In Chapter 7, attention is given to the labour market status among those of working age (15–65 years). Chapter 8, in turn, examines the industries and occupations in which employed people worked, while Chapter 9 looks at the issue of travelling to reach an educational institution or place of work.
- Section 3 concerns households. Chapter 10 outlines the characteristics of household heads, while Chapter 11 describes the dwellings in which households lived and household size. Chapter 12 focuses on facilities and services available to households, and Chapter 13 examines ownership of household goods.

- Section 4 deals with two specific groups of people, namely those who were not born in South Africa, described in Chapter 14, and the disabled, described in Chapter 15.
- Section 5 draws some inferences from both the findings of Census 2001 and the comparisons made across the two censuses. It consists of one chapter, i.e. Chapter 16, which has two parts, namely, implications of the findings for planning, and some overall conclusions.

This report includes a statement from the Statistics Council, in Appendix 1. The council found in preliminary independent estimates that the final figures probably reflect an underestimate of children under the age of five years, an overestimate of children aged between 10 and 19 years, an underestimate of men relative to women, and an underestimate of the white population.

Section 2

Findings concerning individuals

Chapter 2 – The population of South Africa

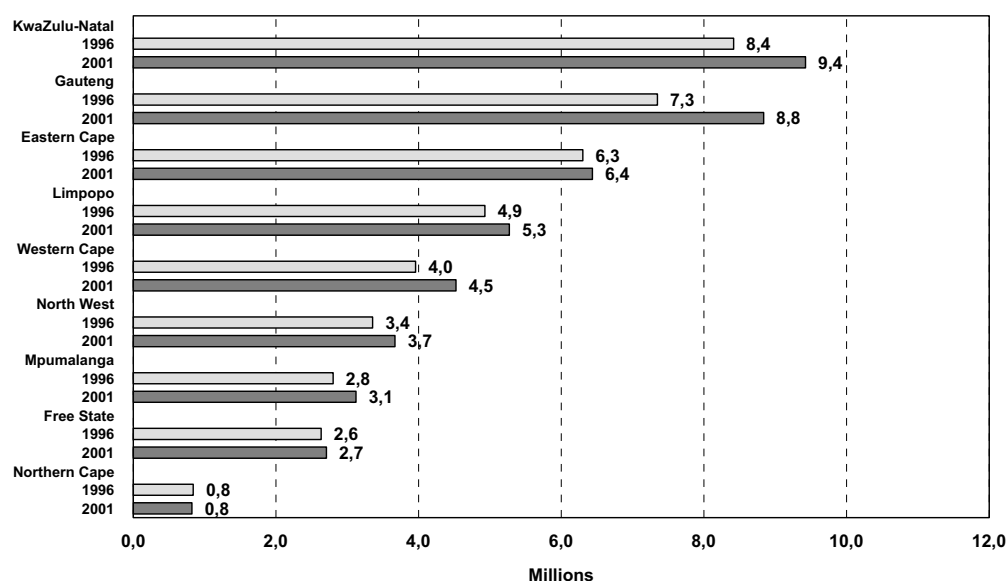
On the night of 9–10 October 2001, i.e. census night, there were 44,8 million people in South Africa. (The actual count has been adjusted upwards on the basis of the post-enumeration survey findings.) The number increased to this total from the count of 40,6 million in 1996 (also adjusted by a post-enumeration survey). This represents an increase of 4,2 million people over the five years from 1996 to 2001. The distribution of this increase varies by province, population group and sex, as described below.

The count by province: 1996 and 2001

The distribution of the number of people by province changed between 1996 and 2001. For example, the number of people enumerated in KwaZulu-Natal increased steeply from 8,4 to 9,4 million over this period. In Gauteng it increased even more steeply from 7,3 to 8,8 million, as shown in Figure 2.1. In other provinces, except Northern Cape, the population increased, but less markedly. For example, in Eastern Cape it increased from 6,3 to 6,4 million, and in Limpopo it increased from 4,9 to 5,3 million. In Northern Cape, however, the count decreased slightly from 840 000 in 1996 to 823 000 in 2001.

Highest population increase in Gauteng

Figure 2.1: Number of people in each province, 1996 and 2001

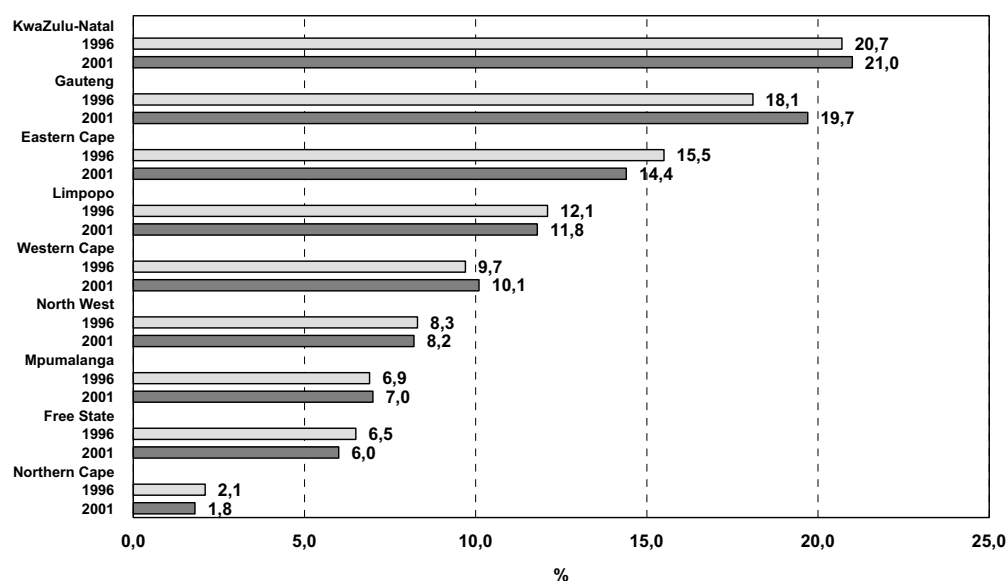


Source: Census 1996 and 2001

Figure 2.2 gives the same information in percentages. Even though the number of people increased in each province except Northern Cape, the proportion of people in each province compared to the country as a whole changed. For example, the percentage of people in Gauteng increased from 18,1% in 1996 to 19,7% in 2001, while the percentage of people in Eastern Cape decreased from 15,5% to 14,4%.

Overall, the proportion of people increased in four provinces, namely Gauteng, Western Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and (marginally) Mpumalanga. In all other provinces, the proportion of people decreased to varying extents.

Figure 2.2: Percentage of people in each province, 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 1996 and 2001

The count by province, population group and sex: 2001

In this section, we focus on Census 2001 results in more detail. Table 2.1 shows the number and the percentage of people per province in each population group, and in the country as a whole, in October 2001.

Proportion of Africans increasing, and of white people decreasing

- Black Africans constituted the vast majority of people in the country (79,0%).
- In Limpopo (97,3%), Mpumalanga (92,4%), and North West (91,5%) more than nine in every ten people were black Africans.
- In Free State (88,0%), Eastern Cape (87,5%) and KwaZulu-Natal (84,9%) more than eight in every ten people, and in Gauteng (73,8%) more than seven in ten people were black Africans.
- In two provinces – Western Cape and Northern Cape – the coloured population were in the majority (53,9% in Western Cape and 51,6% in Northern Cape).

Table 2.1: Number and percentage of people in each province by population group and sex, October 2001

		Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Eastern Cape	Male	2 589 208	87,0	229 889	7,7	9 328	0,3	147 121	4,9	2 975 545	100,0
	Female	3 045 856	88,0	248 906	7,2	9 034	0,3	157 423	4,5	3 461 220	100,0
	Total	5 635 064	87,5	478 795	7,4	18 362	0,3	304 544	4,7	6 436 765	100,0
Free State	Male	1 140 260	87,9	40 873	3,1	2 083	0,2	114 421	8,8	1 297 636	100,0
	Female	1 240 671	88,0	42 348	3,0	1 656	0,1	124 463	8,8	1 409 137	100,0
	Total	2 380 930	88,0	83 220	3,1	3 738	0,1	238 884	8,8	2 706 773	100,0
Gauteng	Male	3 319 681	74,7	162 584	3,7	108 512	2,4	853 876	19,2	4 444 653	100,0
	Female	3 203 160	72,9	175 396	4,0	109 401	2,5	904 566	20,6	4 392 524	100,0
	Total	6 522 841	73,8	337 980	3,8	217 914	2,5	1 758 442	19,9	8 837 177	100,0
KwaZulu-Natal	Male	3 720 789	84,4	67 176	1,5	385 824	8,8	235 361	5,3	4 409 150	100,0
	Female	4 281 578	85,3	74 776	1,5	412 384	8,2	248 130	4,9	5 016 868	100,0
	Total	8 002 368	84,9	141 952	1,5	798 208	8,5	483 491	5,1	9 426 018	100,0
Limpopo	Male	2 322 993	97,0	4 821	0,2	4 720	0,2	62 242	2,6	2 394 776	100,0
	Female	2 805 691	97,5	5 394	0,2	3 856	0,1	63 927	2,2	2 878 869	100,0
	Total	5 128 685	97,3	10 215	0,2	8 576	0,2	126 169	2,4	5 273 645	100,0
Mpumalanga	Male	1 380 151	92,2	10 837	0,7	5 797	0,4	100 533	6,7	1 497 319	100,0
	Female	1 506 182	92,6	11 346	0,7	5 477	0,3	102 665	6,3	1 625 671	100,0
	Total	2 886 333	92,4	22 184	0,7	11 274	0,4	203 199	6,5	3 122 990	100,0
Northern Cape	Male	145 002	36,2	205 096	51,1	1 225	0,3	49 774	12,4	401 098	100,0
	Female	148 985	35,3	219 252	52,0	1 172	0,3	52 220	12,4	421 629	100,0
	Total	293 987	35,7	424 348	51,6	2 397	0,3	101 995	12,4	822 727	100,0
North West	Male	1 669 174	91,6	28 306	1,6	5 273	0,3	118 753	6,5	1 821 506	100,0
	Female	1 689 293	91,4	28 644	1,6	4 649	0,3	125 256	6,8	1 847 842	100,0
	Total	3 358 467	91,5	56 950	1,6	9 922	0,3	244 009	6,6	3 669 348	100,0
Western Cape	Male	600 405	27,4	1 170 917	53,4	22 383	1,0	398 654	18,2	2 192 359	100,0
	Female	607 084	26,0	1 267 949	54,4	22 693	1,0	434 250	18,6	2 331 977	100,0
	Total	1 207 489	26,7	2 438 867	53,9	45 076	1,0	832 905	18,4	4 524 336	100,0
Total	Male	16 887 662	78,8	1 920 500	9,0	545 144	2,5	2 080 737	9,7	21 434 043	100,0
	Female	18 528 501	79,2	2 074 011	8,9	570 323	2,4	2 212 901	9,5	23 385 736	100,0
	Total	35 416 163	79,0	3 994 511	8,9	1 115 467	2,5	4 293 638	9,6	44 819 779	100,0

Summary

On the night of 9–10 October 2001 there were 44,8 million people in South Africa. The number increased to this total by 4,2 million people from the count of 40,6 million in 1996.

The distribution of this increase varied by province. For example, the number of people enumerated in KwaZulu-Natal increased steeply from 8,4 to 9,4 million. In Gauteng it increased even more steeply from 7,3 to 8,8 million. In all other provinces except Northern Cape, the population increased, but less markedly. For example, in Eastern Cape it increased from 6,3 to 6,4 million, and in Limpopo it increased from 4,9 to 5,3 million. In Northern Cape, however, the count decreased slightly from 840 000 people in 1996 to 823 000 in 2001.

Even though the number of people increased in each province except Northern Cape, the proportion of people in each province compared to the country as a whole changed. For example, the

percentage of people in Gauteng increased from 18,1% in 1996 to 19,7% in 2001, while the percentage of people in Eastern Cape decreased from 15,5% to 14,4%.

The proportion of black African people in the country increased over time (from 76,7% in 1996 to 79,0% in 2001), while the proportion of white people decreased (from 10,9% in 1996 to 9,6% in 2001). The decrease in the proportion of white people may, in part, be due to migration.

There was also a possible increase in the male to female ratios over time, but this may be in part due to enumeration problems, such as the difficulty experienced worldwide in counting young single male adults.

Chapter 3 – The age distribution of the population of South Africa

Comparing the age distribution of the data from Census 1996 and Census 2001, there was a pyramidal age structure, which persisted over the time period. Age distribution continued to resemble that of a developing, rather than a highly industrialised, country. But the proportion of those in the youngest age groups (0–4 years) seems to be showing a steady decrease.

Age distribution by sex: 1996 and 2001

**Slight decrease in birth rate
between 1996 and 2001**

Figure 3.1 shows that 5,5% of the total population in October 1996 were males aged 0–4 years, and 5,6% were females in the same age category. In addition, 5,8% were males aged 5–9 years, and 5,8% were females in the same age category.

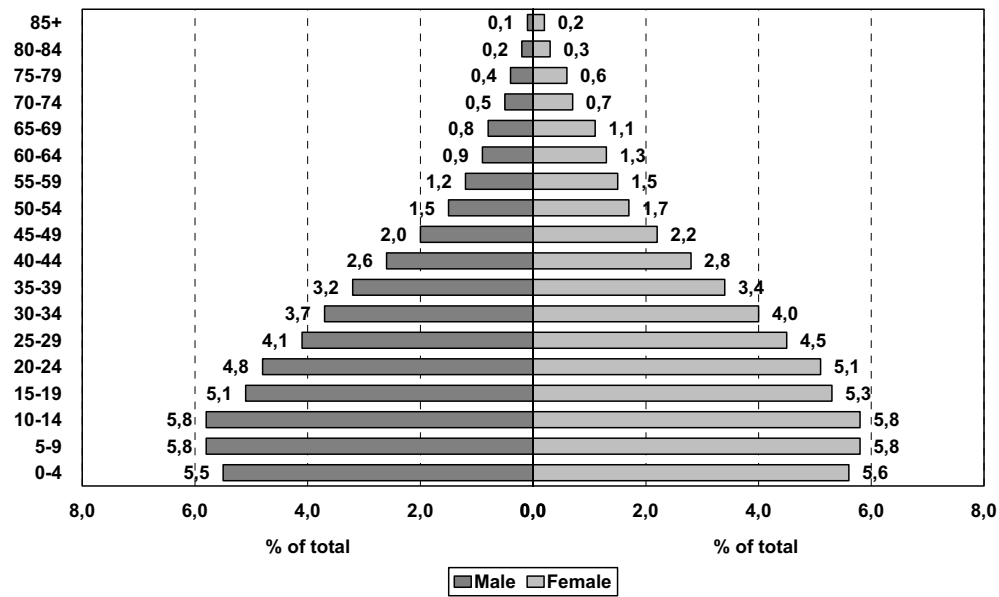
Figure 3.2 shows a decline in the percentage of both males and females aged 0–4 years in 2001 with both groups standing at 5,0% of the total population.

Meanwhile males and females aged 5–9 years both constituted 5,4% of the total population in 2001. This percentage closely reflects the 1996 proportions for the corresponding cohort in 1996, namely the age group 0–4 years.

It therefore seems possible that there may be a steady decline in the number of children being born in South Africa over time, linked to a possible steady decline in fertility. But there may be other explanations, for example under-reporting of infants and young children. This is therefore an important area for further demographic research.

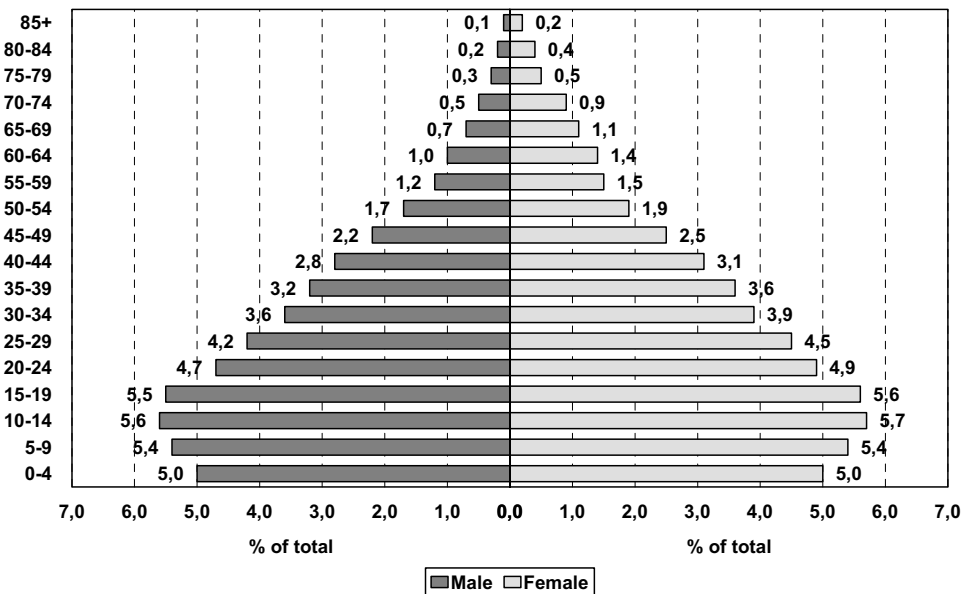
Regarding people in the oldest age categories, the proportions were similar in 1996 and 2001, with 4,9% of the population being found in the age category of 65 years or more in both census years. As would be expected in terms of worldwide trends, there were proportionally more females in this age category than males (1,8% of the total population in 2001 were males aged 65 years or more, while 3,1% were females).

Figure 3.1: Distribution of the total population by age group and sex, 1996



Source: Census 1996

Figure 3.2: Distribution of the total population by age group and sex, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Age distribution by population group and sex: 2001

The remaining sections in this chapter focus on 2001. Figures 3.3 to 3.6 indicate the age distribution of the population of South Africa in 2001, by population group and sex. There are indeed significant differences in the age distributions, since the distribution of the black African population (Figure 3.3) tends to resemble that of a developing country, while the age distribution of the white population (Figure 3.6) resembles that of a highly industrialised one. The age distributions of the coloured (Figure 3.4) and the Indian/Asian (Figure 3.5) population groups fall somewhere between these extremes, with the age distribution of the coloured group being closer to the African distribution, and the Indian/Asian one being closer to the white population age distribution.

African population relatively young, white population relatively old

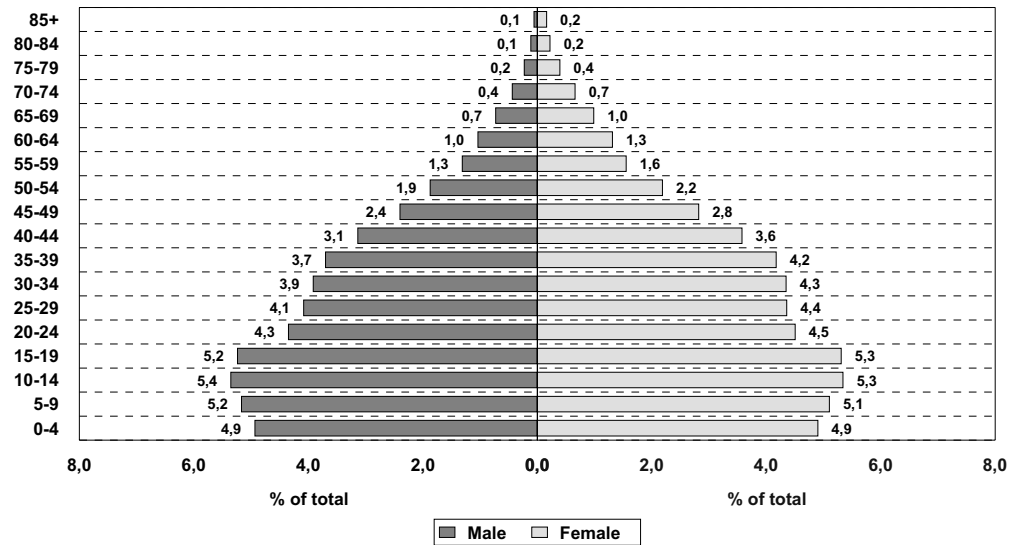
- Among the black African population, 34,1% of people were aged 0–14 years in October 2001, while 61,7% were aged 15–64 years, and 4,2% were aged 65 years or more.
- Among the coloured population, compared with black Africans, a smaller percentage (30,8%) was children aged 0–14 years, a larger proportion (65,1%) was adults aged 15 to 64 years, and a slightly smaller percentage (4,0%) was senior citizens aged 65 years or more.
- Among the Indian/Asian group, an even smaller percentage was aged 0–14 years (23,5%), while an even larger percentage was aged 15 to 64 years (71,7%), and a slightly larger percentage was aged 65 years or more (4,6%).
- Among the white group, we see an even further drop in the percentage of children aged 0–14 years (19,0%), a relatively large proportion aged 15–64 years (69,9%), and a significantly higher proportion aged 65 years or more (11,2%).

Figure 3.3: Distribution of the black African population by age group and sex, 2001



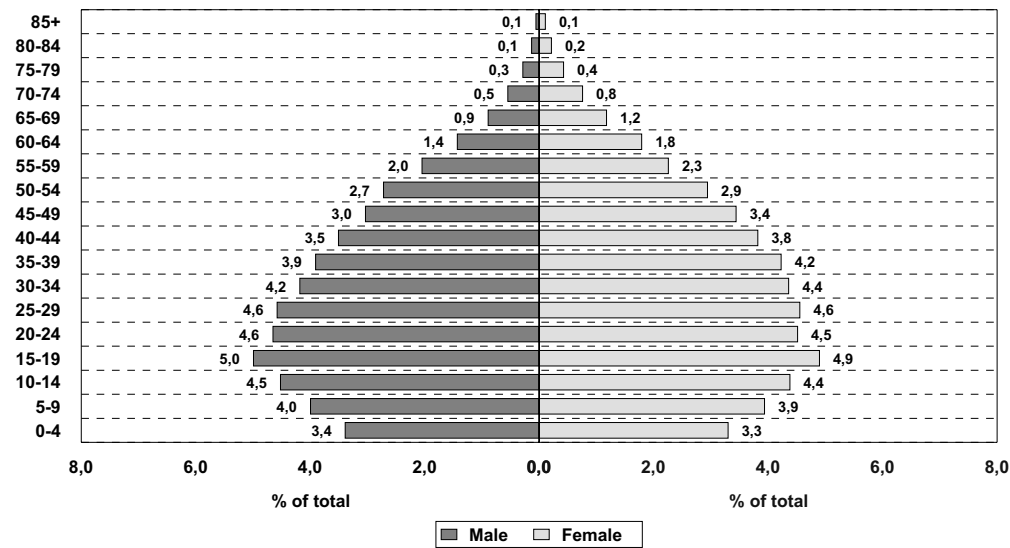
Source: Census 2001

Figure 3.4: Distribution of the coloured population by age group and sex, 2001



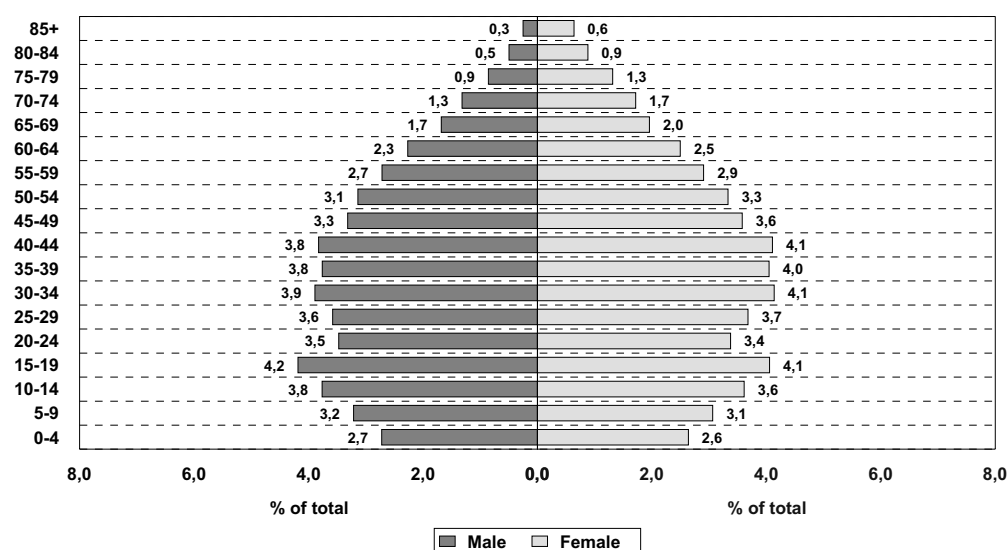
Source: Census 2001

Figure 3.5: Distribution of the Indian/Asian population by age group and sex, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Figure 3.6: Distribution of the white population by age group and sex, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Population distribution within broad age bands: 2001

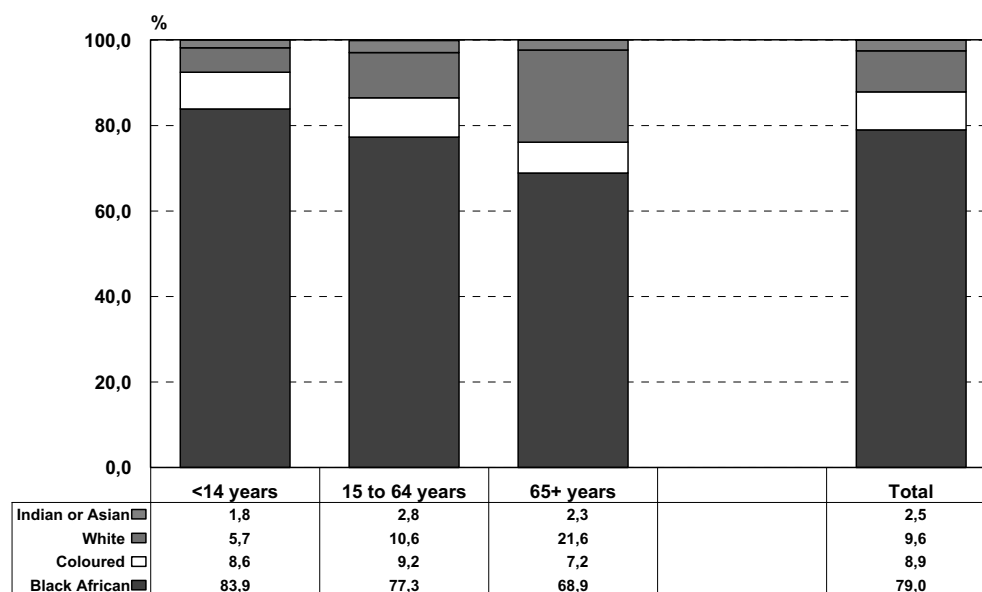
In a reversal of the previous method where we described age distribution (the numerator) *within* population group (the denominator), if we use age category as the *denominator*, and population group as the *enumerator*, we see the following trends, as indicated in Figure 3.7. While the black African group of people are the predominant group across all ages, the proportion of people in this group tends to decrease with increasing age.

Percentage of people who are African decreasing with increasing age

- Among all children aged 0–14 years, as many as 83,9% were black Africans in 2001, while 8,6% were coloured, 5,7% were white and 1,8% were Indian/Asian.
- Among all adults aged 15–64 years, 77,3% were black Africans, while 9,2% were coloured, 10,6% were white and 2,8% were Indian/Asian.
- Among all senior citizens aged 65 years or more, 68,9% were black Africans, while 7,2% were coloured, 21,6% were white and 2,3% were Indian/Asian.

These graphs show clearly that the composition of the country by population group is changing over time. The black African population is relatively young and expanding, while the white population is aging and shrinking.

Figure 3.7: Distribution of the population by population group within each broad age band, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Age distribution by province and sex: 2001

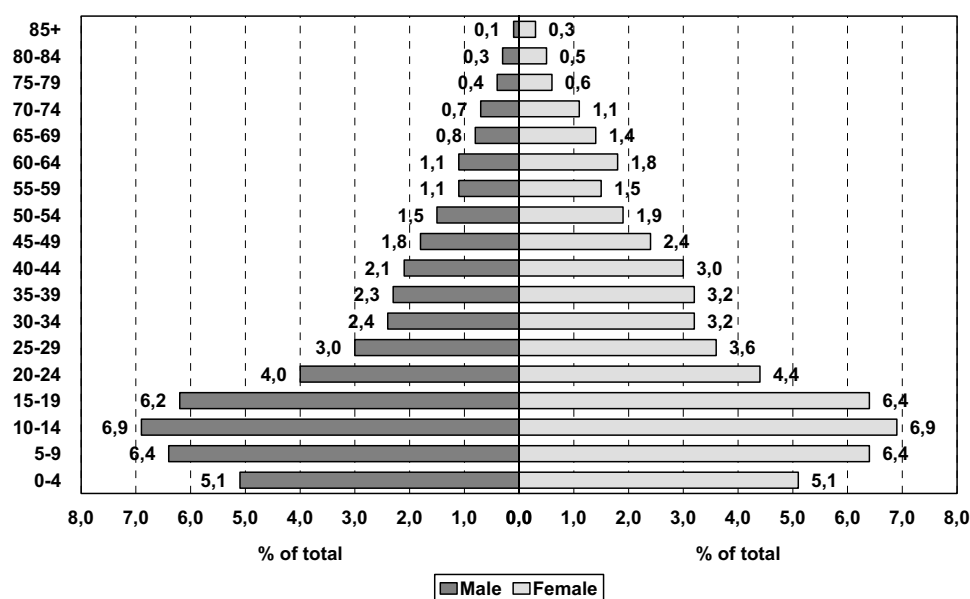
As we have already seen, the overall distribution of the population of South Africa by age and sex is more like that of a developing, rather than a highly industrialised country. There is a relatively large proportion of people in the younger age categories (less than 20 years of age), and a relatively small proportion of people in the older age categories (65 years of age or more).

Young adults moving to more industrialised provinces; children and the aged moving to less industrialised provinces

While this is the overall pattern, there is a great deal of variation by province. This variation has many implications concerning allocations of budgets by province for different services, and for the provision of schools, healthcare centres and other facilities which vary according to the population profile.

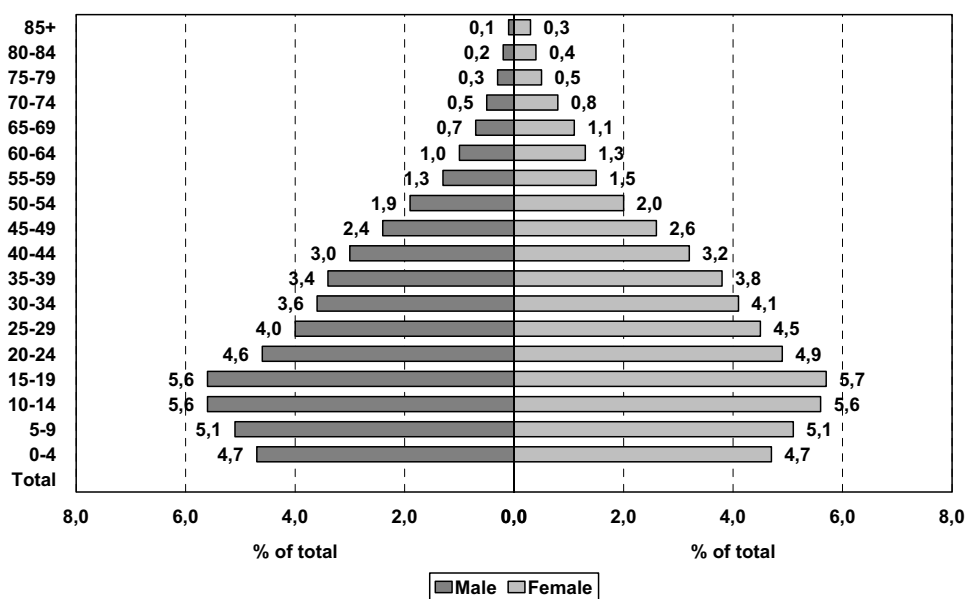
Figures 3.8 to 3.16 indicate the age distribution of the population of South Africa by sex in each province.

Figure 3.8: Distribution of the Eastern Cape population by age group and sex, 2001



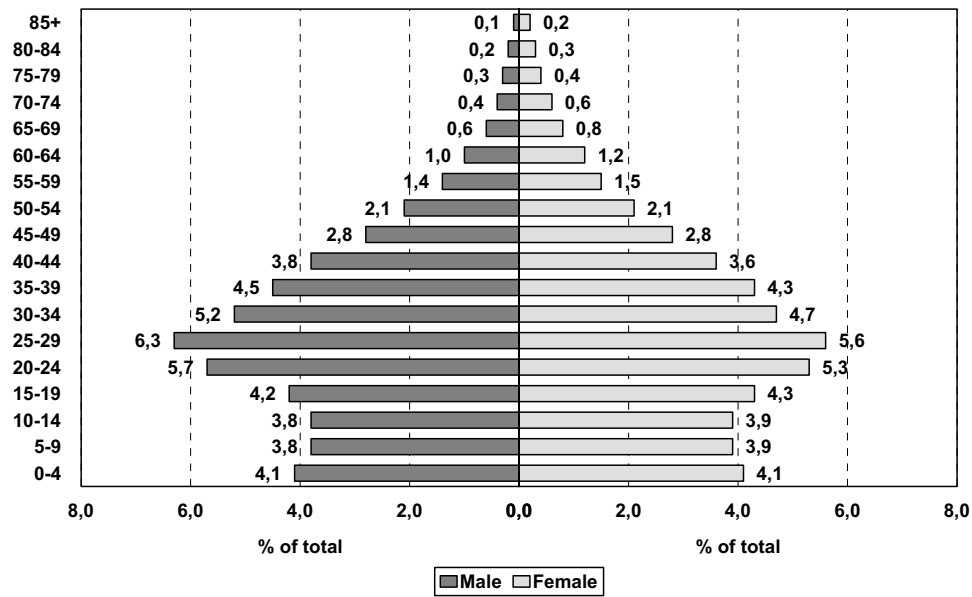
Source: Census 2001

Figure 3.9: Distribution of the Free State population by age group and sex, 2001



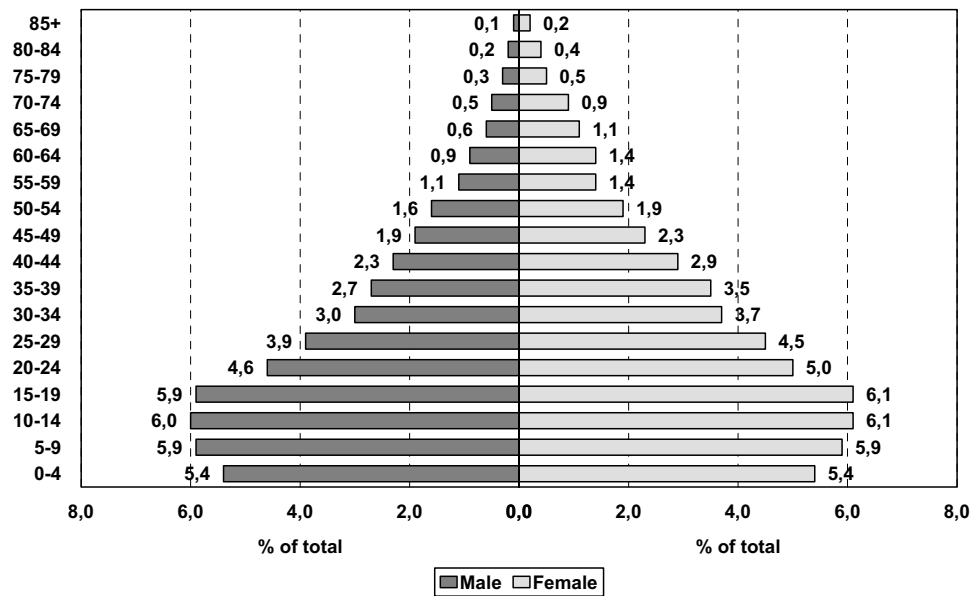
Source: Census 2001

Figure 3.10: Distribution of the Gauteng population by age group and sex, 2001



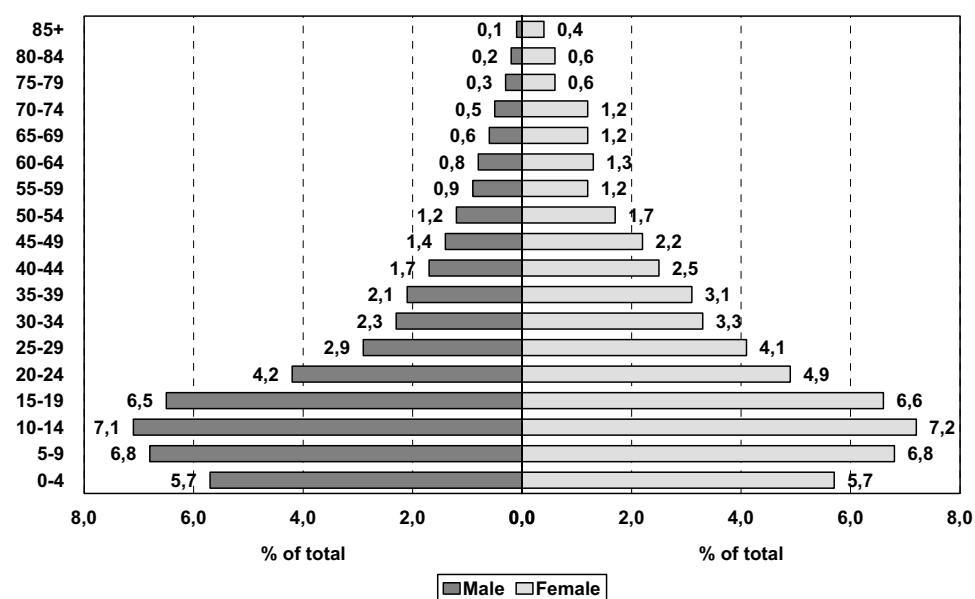
Source: Census 2001

Figure 3.11: Distribution of the KwaZulu-Natal population by age group and sex, 2001



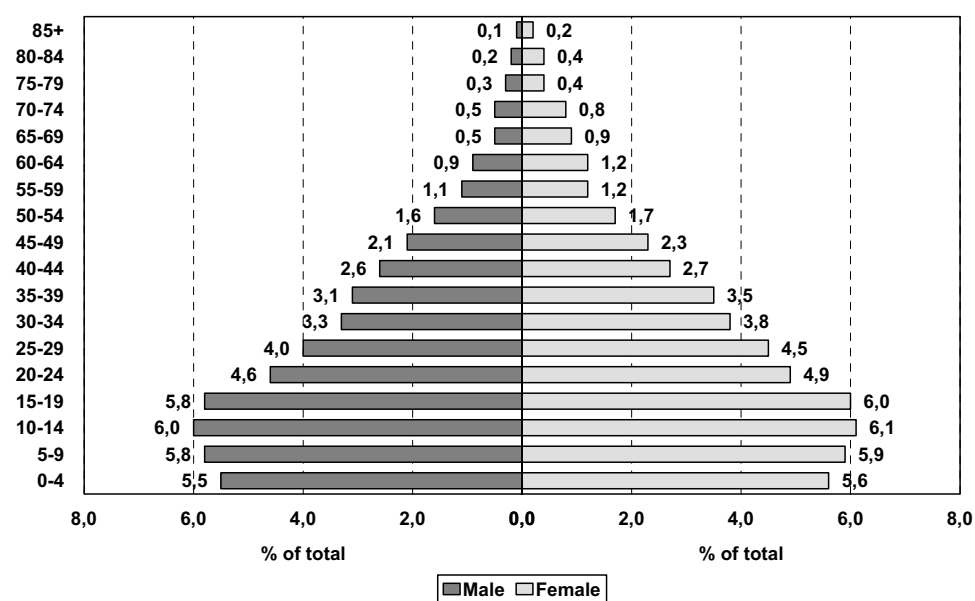
Source: Census 2001

Figure 3.12: Distribution of the Limpopo population by age group and sex, 2001



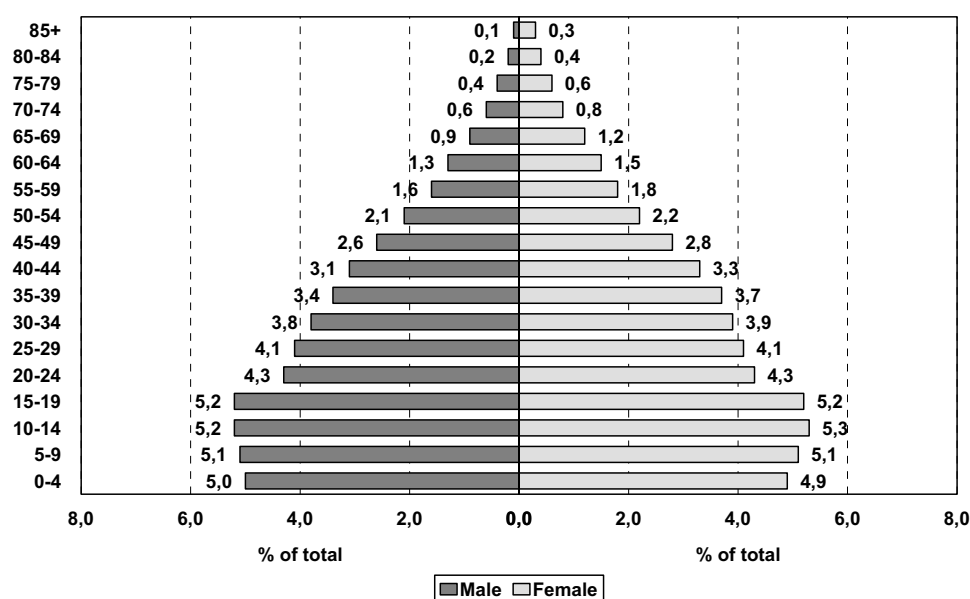
Source: Census 2001

Figure 3.13: Distribution of the Mpumalanga population by age group and sex, 2001



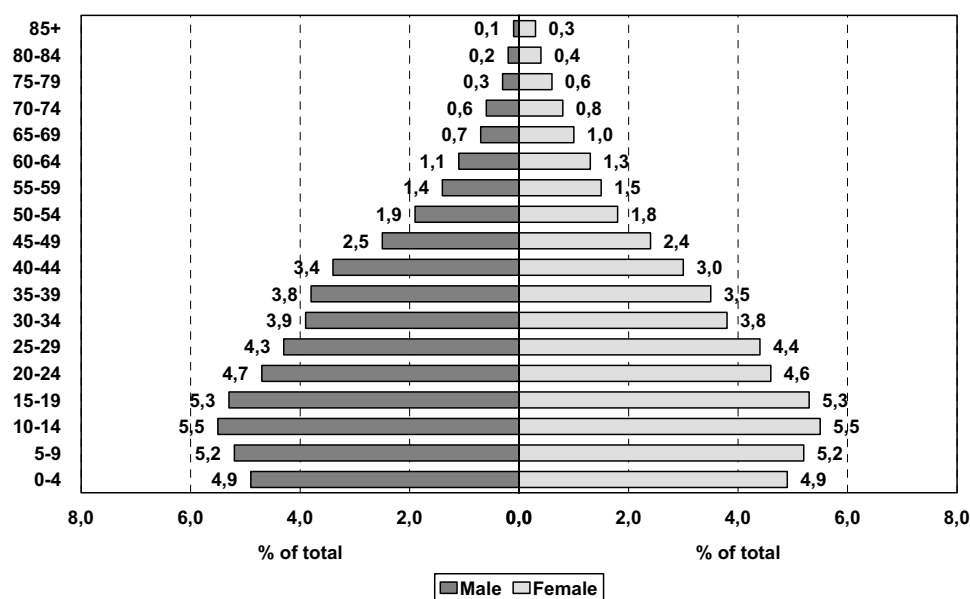
Source: Census 2001

Figure 3.14: Distribution of the Northern Cape population by age group and sex, 2001



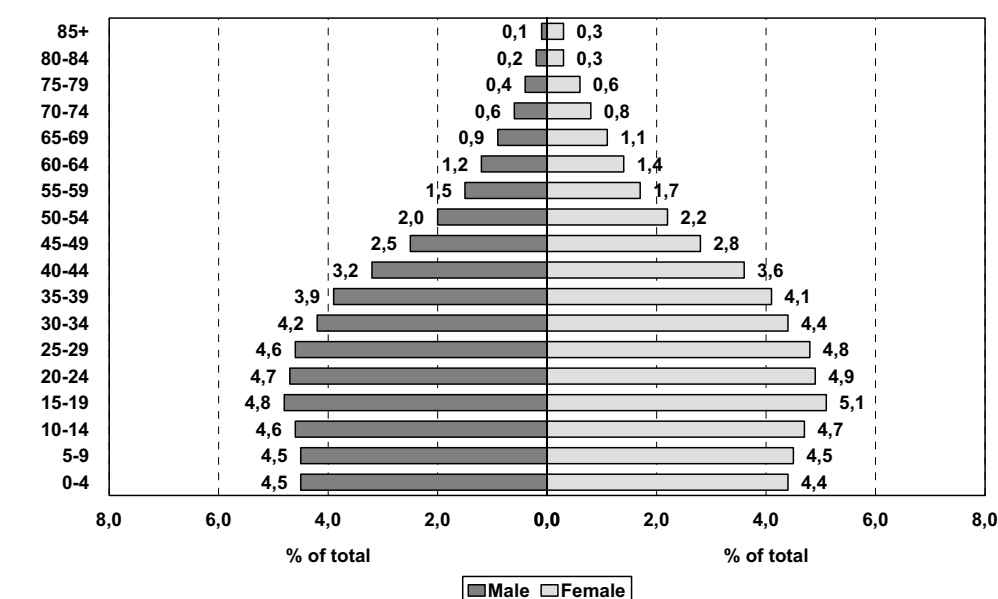
Source: Census 2001

Figure 3.15: Distribution of the North West population by age group and sex, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Figure 3.16: Distribution of the Western Cape population by age group and sex, 2001



Source: Census 2001

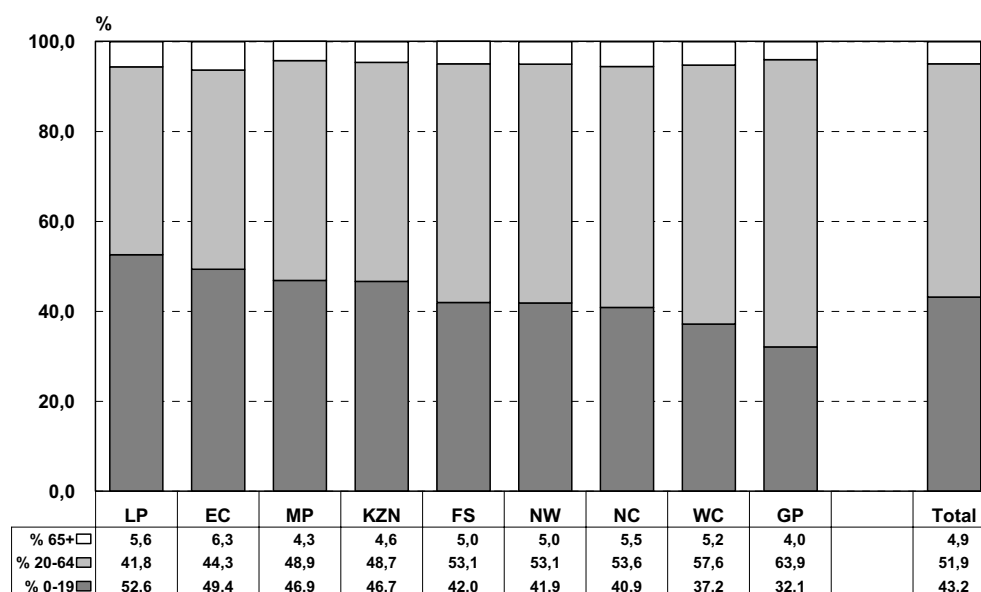
There are significant differences in the 2001 age/sex distributions of the population in each province.

- In the Eastern Cape (Figure 3.8), the graph shows relatively large proportions of people in the age categories 5–9, 10–14 and 15–19 years, but a sharp drop in the proportions of people in the age category 20–24 years, and a further drop in the age category 25–29 years, particularly among males, compared to South Africa overall.
- In Free State (Figure 3.9), we see a similar pattern of a relatively large proportion of young children and teenagers, and a decrease in the proportion of young adults, compared to the national pattern, but it is far less marked than the pattern in Eastern Cape.
- In Gauteng (Figure 3.10), however, we see a very different pattern. The graph shows a relatively small proportion of people under the age of 20 years compared to the country as a whole, but from the ages of 20–29 years, we see a far larger than average proportion of people, particularly males.
- The age distribution in KwaZulu-Natal (Figure 3.11) is similar to, but less extreme than the one in Eastern Cape; compared to South Africa as a whole, a relatively large proportion of the population in KwaZulu-Natal is in the age category of less than 20 years of age, while a relatively small proportion is in the age category 20–29 years.
- The age distribution in Limpopo province (Figure 3.12) is very similar to the one in the Eastern Cape, but perhaps even more extreme.
- In Mpumalanga (Figure 3.13), Northern Cape (Figure 3.14) and North West Province (Figure 3.15), we see a pattern comparable with that of Free State, but less extreme than the one in Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal or Limpopo.
- The Western Cape (Figure 3.16), on the other hand, shows a pattern with some similarities to the one in Gauteng. But the differences are less extreme.

These differences in age distribution by province can be divided into two distinct patterns. The first pattern shows a relatively large proportion of young children and teenagers, and a relatively small proportion of young adults. The second pattern shows a relatively small proportion of children and teenagers, and a relatively large proportion of young adults.

Figure 3.17 summarises the above findings. It shows the distribution of people in each province by broad age bands.

Figure 3.17: Distribution of the population of each province by broad age band, 2001



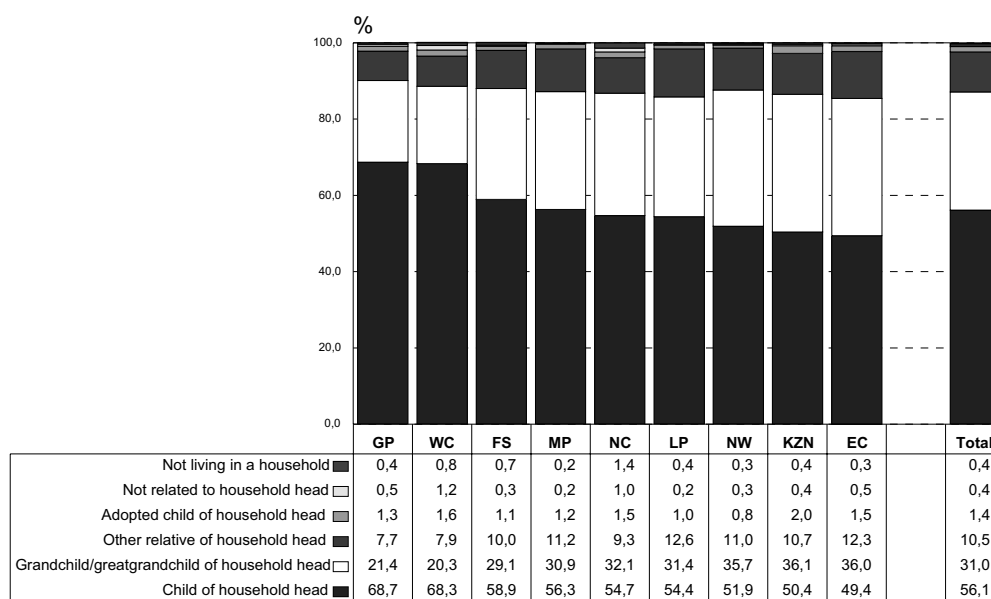
Source: Census 2001

These two patterns suggest that there is migration among young adults from the less to the more industrialised provinces, probably in search of work or for education and training purposes, while children, particularly those of school-going age, are living in the less industrialised provinces.

It therefore seems likely that some young parents are sending their children back home to the less industrialised provinces to live in the extended family for the purposes of schooling, while they seek employment or educational opportunities in the more industrialised ones. It also seems likely that some people in the oldest age category are moving back to the less industrialised provinces as they retire.

Figure 3.18 examines relationship to the head, in those households where children aged 0–14 years lived. It indicates that, on average, in 56,1% of cases, children lived in households in which they were the biological children of the household head, and in 31,0% of cases, they lived in households where a grandparent or a great-grandparent was the head. In Gauteng and the Western Cape, children were more likely than in the other provinces to live in households where they were the biological children of the household head (i.e. they were more likely to be living with their parents), whereas in the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, North West and Limpopo, children were more likely to live in households where they were the grandchildren or great-grandchildren of the household head.

Figure 3.18: Distribution of children aged 0–4 years in each province by relationship to the household head, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Summary

The distribution of the population of South Africa as a whole, by age and sex, resembles that of a developing, rather than a highly industrialised country. In 2001 there was a relatively large proportion of people in the younger age categories (less than 20 years of age), and a relatively small proportion of people in the older age categories (65 years of age or more).

Comparing the results of Census 1996 and 2001, it seems possible that there is a steady decline in the number of children being born in South Africa over time, linked to a possible steady decline in fertility. A decline in the percentage of both males and females aged 0–4 years is evident in 2001. Moreover, the percentages of males and females in the age category 5–9 years are relatively close to the proportions in the corresponding 1996 age category of 0–4 years.

Regarding people in the oldest age categories, the proportions were similar in 1996 and 2001, with 4,9% of the population being found in the age category of 65 years or more in both census years. As would be expected, there were proportionally more females in this age category than males (1,8% of the total population in 2001 were males aged 65 years or more, while 3,1% were females).

The age distribution of the population of South Africa differs significantly according to population group and sex. The 2001 age pyramid of the black African population resembles that of a developing country, while the age distribution of the white population resembles that of a highly industrialised one. The age distributions of the coloured and the Indian/Asian people fall between these two extremes.

There is a great deal of variation in age distribution by province. In the Eastern Cape, for example, there were relatively large proportions of people in the age categories 5–9, 10–14 and 15–19 years, but a sharp drop in the proportions of people in the age category 20–24 years, and a further drop in the age category 25–29 years, particularly among males, compared to South Africa overall. In

Gauteng, however, we see a very different pattern. There was a relatively small proportion of people under the age of 20 years compared to the country as a whole, but from the ages of 20–29 years, we see a far larger than average proportion of people, particularly males.

These differences in age distribution by province can be divided into two distinct patterns. The first pattern shows a relatively large proportion of young children and teenagers, and a relatively small proportion of young adults. The second pattern shows a relatively small proportion of children and teenagers, and a relatively large proportion of young adults. These two patterns suggest that there is migration among young adults from the less to the more industrialised provinces, probably in search of work or for education and training purposes, while children, particularly those of school-going age, are living in the less industrialised provinces.

It therefore seems likely that some young parents are sending their children back home to the less industrialised provinces to live in the extended family for the purposes of schooling, while they seek employment or educational opportunities in the more industrialised ones.

When examining the relationship of the child to the household head in those households where children aged 0–14 years lived, on average, in 56,1% of cases, children lived in households in which they were the biological children of the household head, and in 31,0% of cases, in households where a grandparent or a great-grandparent was the head. In Gauteng and the Western Cape, children were more likely to live in households where they were the actual children of the household head (i.e. they are more likely to be living with their parents), compared to the other provinces, whereas in the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, North West and Limpopo, the more rural provinces, children are more likely than the average to live in households where they are the grandchildren or great-grandchildren of the household head.

Chapter 4 – The language distribution of the population of South Africa

Introduction

Since the attainment of democracy in South Africa, the language policy of the country has changed significantly. Indigenous languages, which previously had no official status, have now been given the same official status as the two languages of European origin, namely English and Afrikaans. It is therefore important to understand the language distribution in the country, so that due recognition can be given to each official language in the area where it is spoken.

People in South Africa often speak more than one language, and a different language may be spoken in different situations, for example in the household, at an educational institution and at the workplace. Some people may speak or communicate in more than one language in any of these situations.

In Census 2001, emphasis was placed on the language most often spoken in the household in which the person lived. We regarded this language as the person's first home language.⁷

Language most often spoken at home: 1996 and 2001

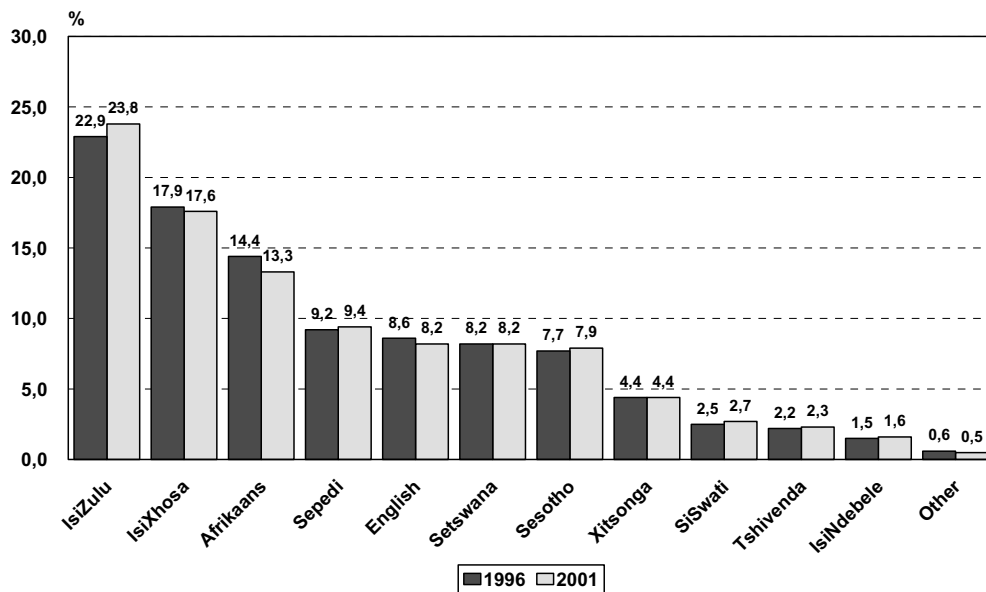
isiZulu, isiXhosa and Afrikaans remain the top three languages in the country

Figure 4.1 looks at the percentage of people speaking each of the official languages as their first home language in 1996 and in 2001.

- In both years, isiZulu was the most frequently spoken first home language (22,9% of the population spoke it in 1996, increasing to 23,8% in 2001), followed by isiXhosa (17,9% in 1996 and 17,6% in 2001) and then Afrikaans (14,4% in 1996 and 13,3% in 2001).
- The least frequently spoken official first home language was isiNdebele (1,5% in 1996 and 1,6% in 2001), followed by Tshivenda (2,2% in 1996 and 2,3 % in 2001) and siSwati (2,5% in 1996 and 2,7 % in 2001).
- The proportion of people speaking each indigenous language increased between 1996 and 2001, with the exception of isiXhosa, which decreased slightly from 17,9% in 1996 to 17,6% in 2001.
- The proportion of people speaking Afrikaans and English as a first home language decreased between the two censuses. The percentage of Afrikaans-speakers decreased from 14,4% in 1996 to 13,3% in 2001, while that of English-speakers decreased from 8,6% in 1996 to 8,2% in 2001.
- The proportion of people speaking other non-official languages as their first home language was 0,6% in 1996 and 0,5% in 2001.

⁷ Infants not yet speaking a language were assigned the language that was most often spoken in the household by other members. If this was not possible, the language that their mothers spoke most often in the household was used, if they were living with their mothers. If not, they were assigned the language of the household head.

Figure 4.1: Distribution of the population by language most often spoken at home, 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 1996 and 2001

First home language by province: 2001

Gauteng the most multilingual province

Figures 4.2 to 4.4 indicate the distributions of the language most frequently spoken at home in each province in 2001. The provincial language distribution is shown as lines, for three provinces in each graph, compared to the distribution for the country as a whole, shown as bars.⁸

Figure 4.2 focuses on Eastern Cape, Northern Cape and Western Cape.

- It indicates that Afrikaans is the predominant first home language in two provinces, Western Cape (55,3%) and Northern Cape (67,9%). But in the Eastern Cape, the vast majority of people speak isiXhosa (83,4%) as their first home language.
- In these provinces, the second most frequently spoken first home language is Setswana in Northern Cape (20,8%), isiXhosa in Western Cape (23,7%) and Afrikaans in Eastern Cape (9,3%).
- The third most frequently spoken first home language is English in Western Cape (19,3%) and Eastern Cape (3,6%), but isiXhosa in Northern Cape (6,2%).

Figure 4.3 focuses on Free State, North West and Limpopo.

- It indicates that Sesotho is the most frequently spoken first home language in Free State (64,4%), followed by Afrikaans (11,9%) and isiXhosa (9,1%).
- In North West, however, there is a different pattern. The most frequently spoken home language is Setswana (65,4%), followed by Afrikaans (7,5%) and isiXhosa (5,8%).

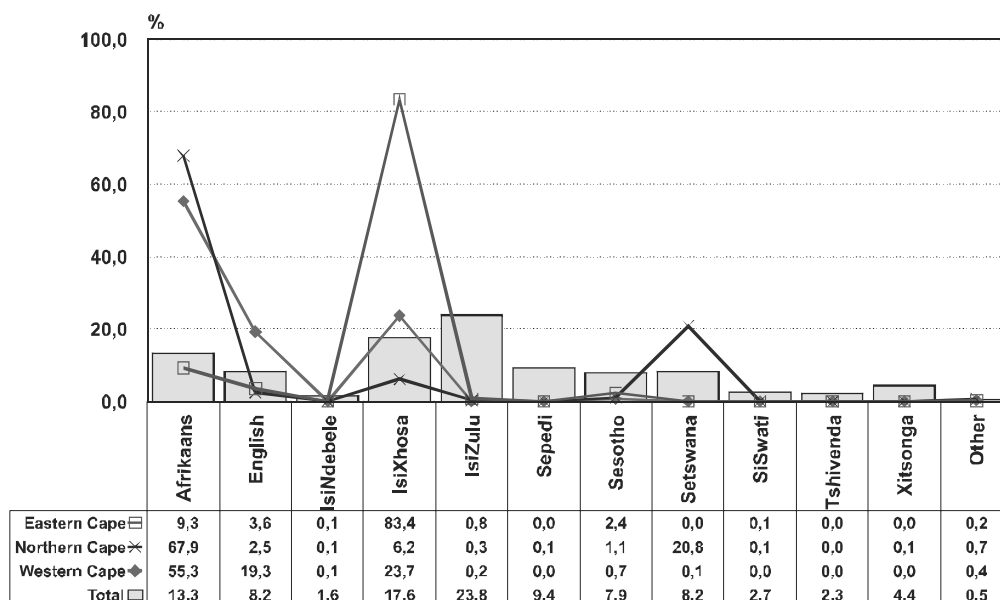
⁸ Although the number of people speaking a particular language is a discreet variable, when converted to a percentage, this proportion may be viewed as a continuous variable. To make the distinctions in language use in the graph clear, language distribution in each province is depicted as a line, rather than as a bar, while the national picture is shown as a bar diagram each time.

- In Limpopo, while more than half the people speak Sepedi as their first home language (52,1%), a relatively large proportion speak Xitsonga (22,4%) and Tshivenda (15,9%).

Figure 4.4 looks at Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and Mpumalanga.

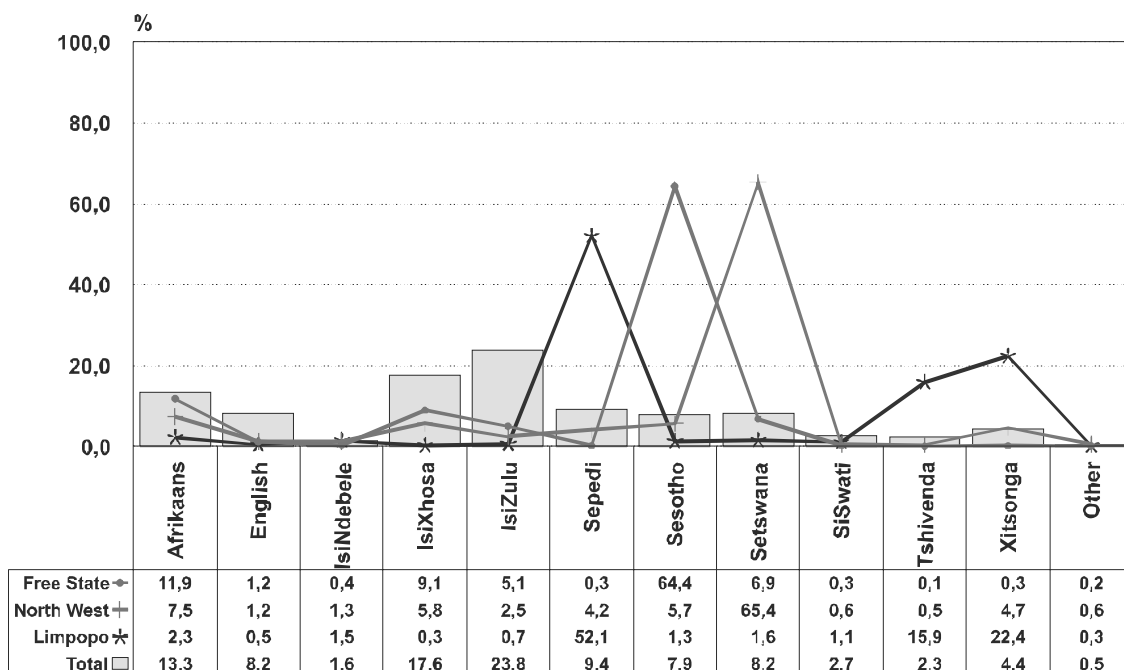
- In KwaZulu-Natal, isiZulu was spoken as a first home language by the vast majority (80,9%), followed by English (13,6%) and isiXhosa (2,3%).
- In Gauteng and Mpumalanga, no single language was spoken by the majority of people as a first home language.
- In Gauteng, people spoke a variety of languages as a first home language, including isiZulu (21,5%), Afrikaans (14,4%), Sesotho (13,1%), English (12,5%) and Sepedi (10,7%).
- In Mpumalanga, siSwati was the most frequently spoken as a first home language (30,8%), followed by isiZulu (26,3%), isiNdebele (12,1%) and Sepedi (10,8%).

Figure 4.2: Language most often spoken at home in Eastern Cape, Northern Cape and Western Cape, compared with the distribution country-wide, 2001



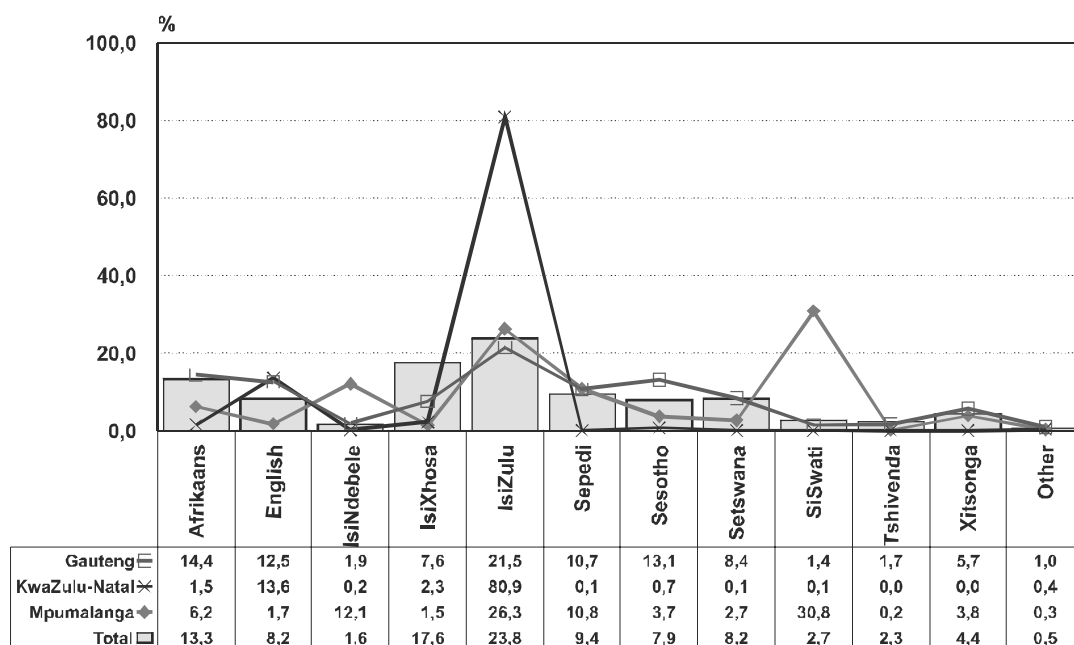
Source: Census 2001

Figure 4.3: Language most often spoken at home in Free State, North West and Limpopo, compared with the distribution country-wide, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Figure 4.4: Language most often spoken at home in Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and Mpumalanga, compared with the distribution country-wide, 2001



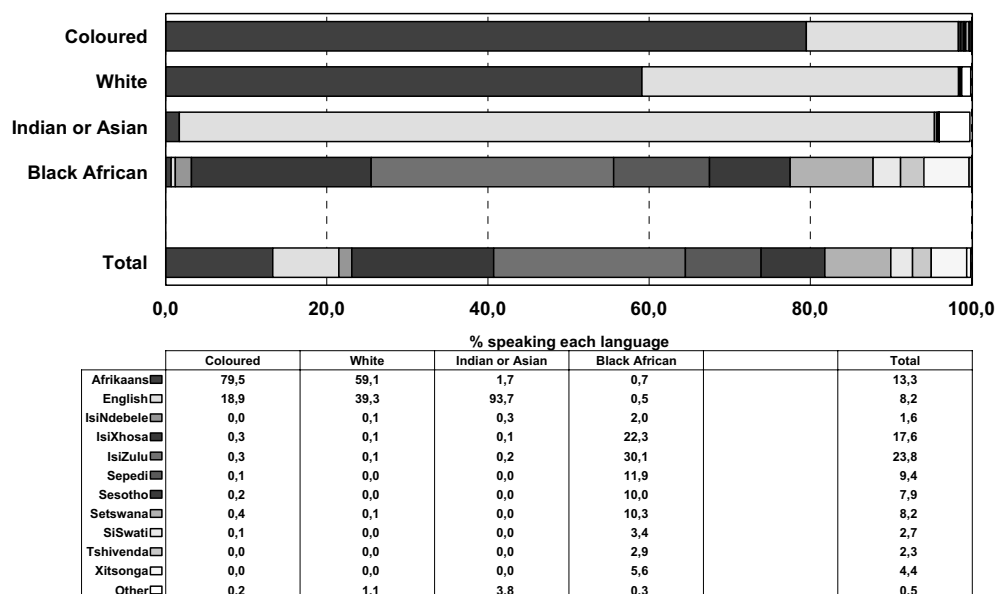
Source: Census 2001

First home language by population group: 2001

Figure 4.5 indicates that, in Census 2001, there were large differences in the language most often spoken at home according to population group.

- Afrikaans was the predominant language among coloured people (79,5%), followed by English (18,9%).
- Among white people, 59,1% spoke Afrikaans, while 39,3% spoke English.
- Amongst the Indian and Asian population, however, almost all (93,7%) spoke English.
- Amongst the black African population, a relatively small proportion used Afrikaans (0,7%) or English (0,5%) as the language most frequently spoken in the household. Almost all (98,5%) spoke an indigenous language.
- With regard to the classification by indigenous language, approximately one in three of all black Africans (30,1%) spoke isiZulu, followed by isiXhosa (22,3%), then Sepedi (11,9%), Setswana (10,3%), Sesotho (10,0%), Xitsonga (5,6%), siSwati (3,4%), Tshivenda (2,9%) and isiNdebele (2,0%).

Figure 4.5: Distribution of each population group by language most often spoken at home, 2001



Source: Census 2001

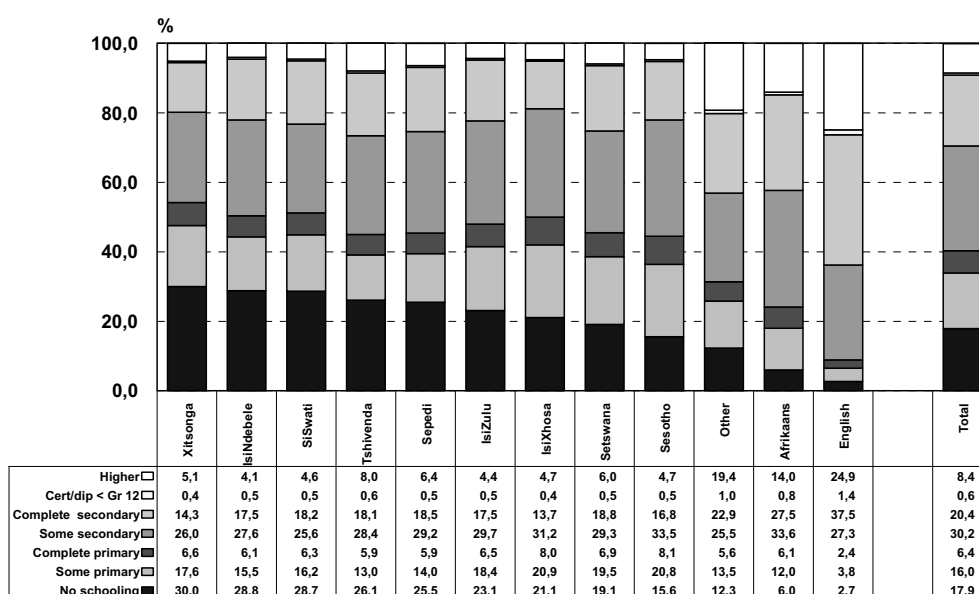
First home language by education: 2001

Language correlates with educational achievement

Figure 4.6 indicates that there is an association between language spoken most frequently in the household and highest level of education.

- Among people aged 20 years or more for whom Xitsonga was the language most frequently spoken in the household, 30,0% had received no education, compared with only 2,7% of English and 6,0% of Afrikaans first home language speakers.
- Among the same group of Xitsonga speakers, 5,0% had attained a level of education higher than Grade 12, as against 14,0% of Afrikaans speakers 19,4% of those who spoke another non-official language, and 24,9% of English speakers.

Figure 4.6: Among those aged 20 years or more, distribution by highest level of education within each first home language category, 2001

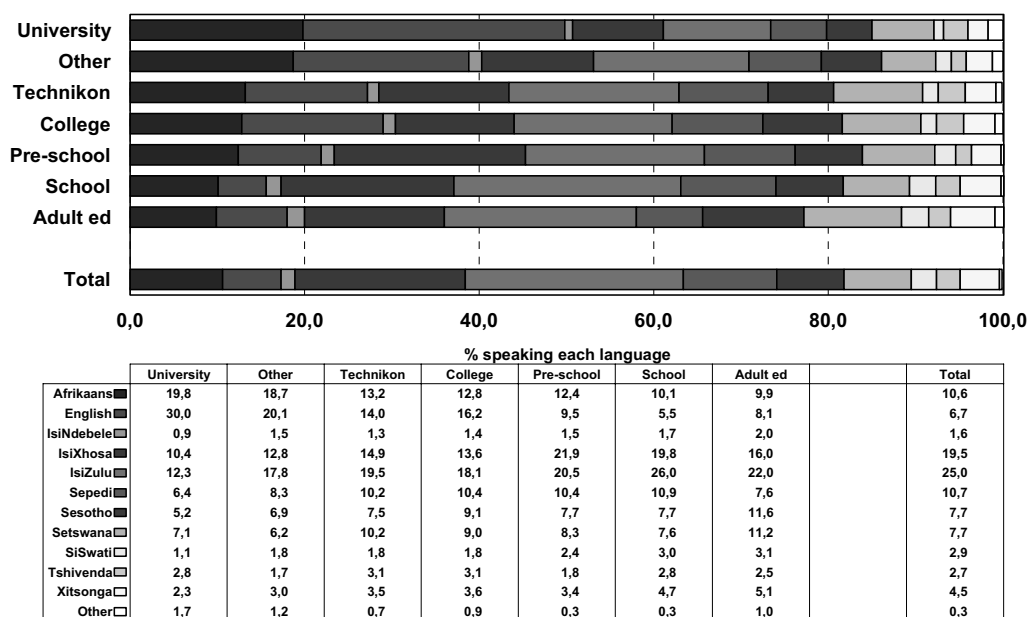


Source: Census 2001

In Figure 4.7, we examine first home language in relation to attendance at the various types of educational institutions, such as universities, technikons, and schools.

- Amongst those attending a university, 30,0% spoke English as a first home language, and 19,8% spoke Afrikaans. Just less than a half (48,5%) spoke an indigenous language as a first home language, while 1,7% spoke another non-official language as a first home language.
- Amongst those attending school, there is a rather different picture. Only 5,5% of scholars spoke English as a first home language, and 10,1% spoke Afrikaans. The vast majority (84,2%) spoke an indigenous home language, and a small proportion (0,3%) spoke a non-official language as a first home language.

Figure 4.7: Among those attending an educational institution, the percentage speaking each first home language within each type of institution, 2001



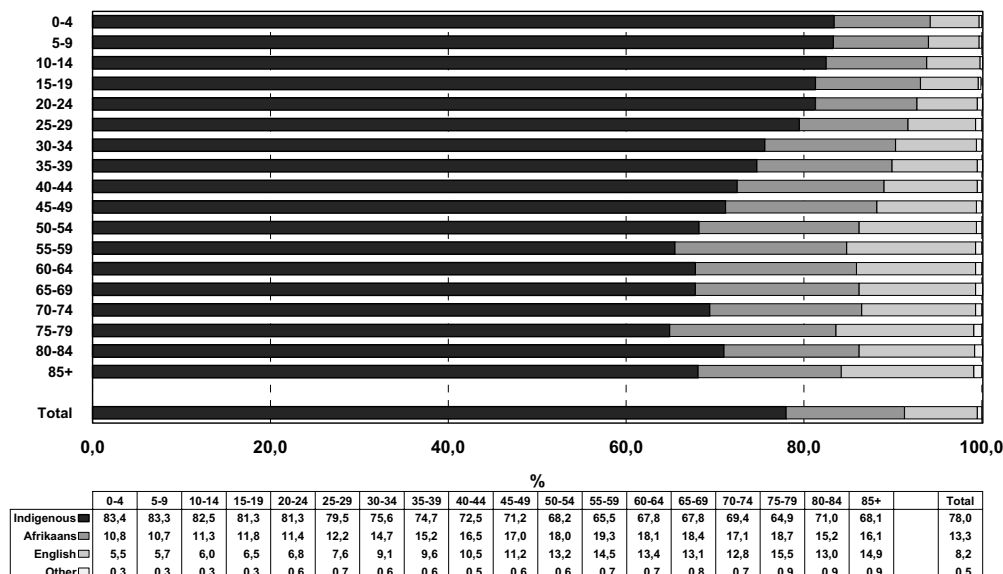
Source: Census 2001

First home language by age: 2001

Figure 4.8 shows the distribution of the official indigenous languages versus English, Afrikaans and other non-official languages, as a first home language, by age.

- It indicates that indigenous languages were the most common first home languages spoken across all age groups.
- It also shows that, taking the age category 55–59 years as a starting point, there was a gradual increase in indigenous first home language speakers with each decreasing age category. For example, 65,5% of people in the age category 55–59 years spoke an indigenous language as a first home language. But as many as 75,6% of those in the age 30–34 years were indigenous first home language speakers, increasing to 83,3% among those aged 5–9 years.
- Conversely, the proportion of those speaking Afrikaans and English as a first home language shows a tendency to gradually decrease with decreasing age.
 - For example 19,3% of those in the age category 55–59 years were Afrikaans first home language speakers, decreasing to 14,7% among those aged 30–34 years, and then even further to 10,7% among those aged 5–9 years.
 - English as a first home language shows a similar trend, with 14,5% of those in the age category 55–59 years having English as a first home language, decreasing to 9,1% among those aged 30–34 years, and even further to 5,7% among those aged 5–9 years.
- Among the small proportion speaking a non-official language as a first home language, the percentage increased gradually with each increase in age, from 0,3% of those aged 5–9 years to 0,9% of those aged 85 years or more.

Figure 4.8: Percentage of the population in each age group speaking English, Afrikaans or an indigenous official language as a first home language, 2001



Source: Census 1996 and 2001

Summary

In Census 2001, emphasis was placed on the language most often spoken in the household in which the person lived. We regarded this language as the person's first home language.

The rankings were similar in 1996 and 2001. In both years, isiZulu was the most frequently spoken official first home language, followed by isiXhosa and then Afrikaans. The least frequently spoken official first home language was isiNdebele, followed by Tshivenda and SiSwati. The proportion of people speaking an indigenous language increased over time, whilst the proportion speaking Afrikaans and English as a first home language decreased between the two censuses.

Chapter 5 – Movement of the population within South Africa

De facto versus *de jure* distribution of the population in each province: 2001

In Chapter 2, we have already noted the distribution of people in South Africa according to Census 2001, by province. For ease of reference, these numbers and percentages of people in each province are repeated in Table 5.1. They are based on a *de facto* count, i.e. the number of people who were in each province at the time of Census 2001, as adjusted by the PES.

In this chapter, the main focus is on the *de jure* distribution, i.e. the place of usual residence or the place in which people usually stay for at least four days a week, also shown in Table 5.1.

The numbers and percentages vary between the *de jure* distribution and the *de facto* distribution, but the differences are small. This means that the two methods of counting are highly correlated and that we can use either set of figures to describe the population of South Africa in 2001.

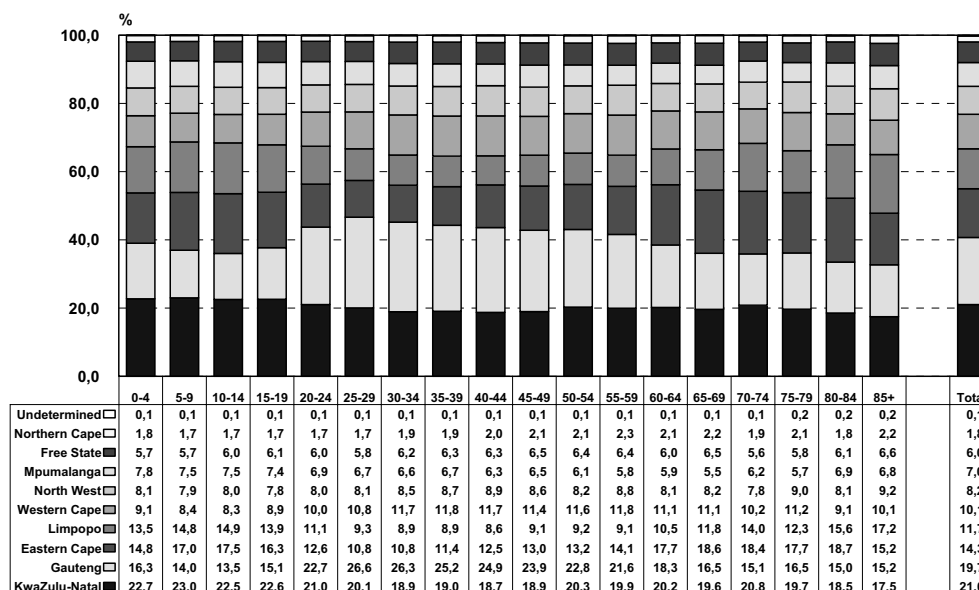
Table 5.1: Number and percentage of people in each province, *de facto* and *de jure* count, October 2001

Province	<i>De facto</i> count		<i>De jure</i> count	
	N	%	N	%
Eastern Cape	6 436 764	14,4	6 427 292	14,3
Free State	2 706 774	6,0	2 703 665	6,0
Gauteng	8 837 174	19,7	8 842 406	19,7
KwaZulu-Natal	9 426 015	21,0	9 408 840	21,0
Limpopo	5 273 639	11,8	5 263 168	11,7
Mpumalanga	3 122 991	7,0	3 117 365	7,0
Northern Cape	822 729	1,8	822 749	1,8
North West	3 669 353	8,2	3 665 054	8,2
Western Cape	4 524 341	10,1	4 515 536	10,1
Unspecified	-	-	53 705	0,2
Total	44 819 780	100,0	44 819 780	100,0

Distribution of the population by province within age groups: 2001

In Figure 5.1 the *de jure* distribution is presented. This figure indicates the population distribution by province *within* each age category. In other words, we use age as the denominator, and we examine the proportion of people within each age group that usually lived in each province. For example, within the age category 0–4 years, 22,7% lived in KwaZulu-Natal, and 5,7% in the Free State.⁹

Figure 5.1: Distribution of the population of each age group by province of usual residence, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Each percentage is a percentage of all people in a specific age category. For example, 22,7% of all children aged 0–4 years lived in KwaZulu-Natal.

Figure 5.1 shows that, in Gauteng for example, the proportion of people across all age categories living in the province was 19,7%. But the proportion was larger than this in the age categories 20–24 (22,7%), 25–29 (26,6%), 30–34 (26,3%) and 35–39 years (25,2%) and smaller in the age categories 5–9 (14,0%), 10–14 (13,5%) and 15–19 (15,1%) years.

In some other provinces, we get a different picture. For example 14,3% of the total population lived in Eastern Cape, but only 10,8% of those in the age categories 25–29 and 30–34 years lived in this province, as against 17,0% of those aged 5–9 years and 17,5% of those aged 10–15 years.

This variation within age categories has important implications regarding internal migration. In different age categories, people move into and out of the nine provinces, for reasons which are at least partially dependant on age.

⁹ In Chapter 3 we handled the issue differently, since we used *province* as the denominator. We examined the age distribution of the population within each province. For example, within KwaZulu-Natal, we looked at the proportion of all males and females in each age category.

People who moved from one residence to another between October 1996 and 2001

Young adults the most mobile population

In Table 5.2 we continue to make use of the *de jure* distribution. This table indicates the number of those who moved¹⁰ at least once between the two censuses by the year in which they moved (or the last year in which they moved if more than once). In Table 5.3, we give this information in percentages.

Altogether, approximately 5,6 million people changed residence at least once between the two censuses. This number increased steadily over time from 733 000 in 1997 to 1,5 million in 2001. The time period in 1996 was relatively short (October 10 – December 31).

The highest percentage of people moving residence during this time period occurred among those living in Gauteng at the time of the 2001 population census (32,8%), followed by those living in Western Cape (14,8%) and then KwaZulu-Natal (14,1%).

Table 5.2: Among those who moved between 1996 and 2001, the year in which they moved, by province in which they were living in October 2001 (numbers)

Year	Province of usual residence in 2001									Total
	EC	FS	GP	KZN	LP	MP	NC	NW	WC	
1996	18 846	11 788	61 495	27 379	14 035	13 311	4 406	13 563	29 055	193 878
1997	70 212	49 571	242 622	99 420	49 172	46 848	14 782	57 246	102 795	732 668
1998	84 662	57 435	292 907	122 436	58 969	56 027	17 141	64 283	135 101	888 961
1999	96 016	71 099	349 070	144 400	65 557	58 314	22 585	77 850	170 313	1 055 205
2000	108 927	78 454	398 671	173 555	79 565	65 820	25 748	84 156	180 217	1 195 114
2001	145 561	97 527	482 591	220 538	107 532	80 788	41 288	119 642	209 168	1 504 635
Total	524 224	365 874	1 827 356	787 728	374 830	321 108	125 950	416 740	826 649	5 570 461

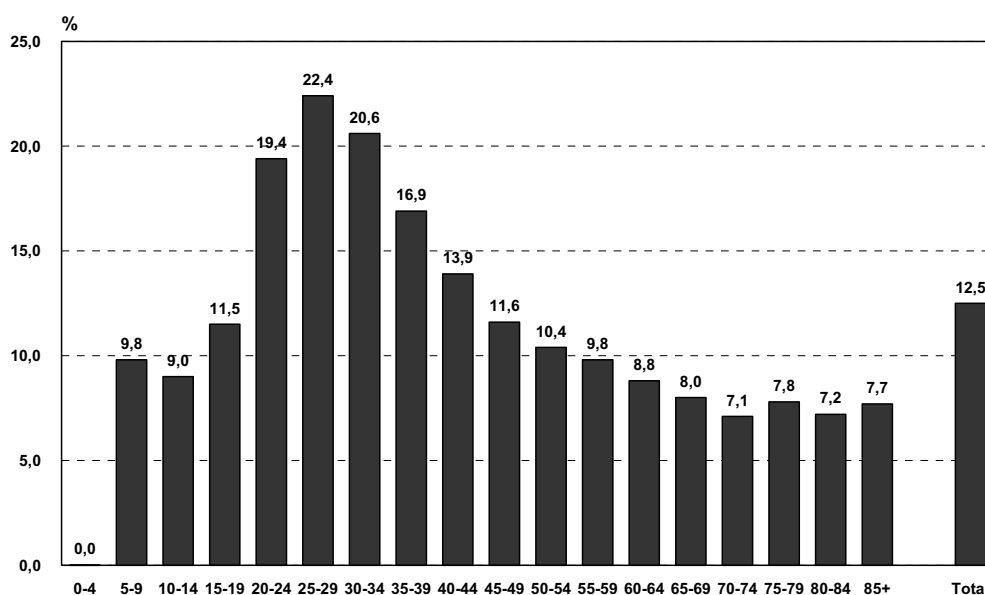
¹⁰ For this breakdown, a move from one sub-place to another is counted as a move. Only moves within the same sub-place are excluded. A sub-place is a suburb, ward, village, farm or informal settlement.

Table 5.3: Among those who moved between 1996 and 2001, the year in which they moved, by province in which they were living in October 2001 (percentages)

Year	Province of usual residence in 2001									
	EC	FS	GP	KZN	LP	MP	NC	NW	WC	Total
1996	9,7	6,1	31,7	14,1	7,2	6,9	2,3	7,0	15,0	100,0
1997	9,6	6,8	33,1	13,6	6,7	6,4	2,0	7,8	14,0	100,0
1998	9,5	6,5	32,9	13,8	6,6	6,3	1,9	7,2	15,2	100,0
1999	9,1	6,7	33,1	13,7	6,2	5,5	2,1	7,4	16,1	100,0
2000	9,1	6,6	33,4	14,5	6,7	5,5	2,2	7,0	15,1	100,0
2001	9,7	6,5	32,1	14,7	7,1	5,4	2,7	8,0	13,9	100,0
Total	9,4	6,6	32,8	14,1	6,7	5,8	2,3	7,5	14,8	100,0

Figure 5.2 indicates the proportion of people who changed residence at least once between October 1996 and 2001. It excludes those who were aged 0–4 years in 2001, since they were not yet born at the time of Census 1996. The graph shows that young adults (19,4% of those aged 20–24, 22,4% of those aged 25–29 years, 20,6% of those aged 30–34 years and 16,9% of those aged 35–39 years) were more likely to have changed residence at least once between censuses than those in younger or older age categories.

Figure 5.2: Percentage of people in each age group that changed residence at least once between 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 2001

Each percentage stands on its own as a percentage of all people in a specific age category. For example, 9,8% of all children aged 5-9 years in 2001 had moved between the two census periods.

People who moved from one province to another between 1996 and 2001

Some people who moved did so within province, while others moved from one province to another. In this section we look at inter-provincial migration between Census 1996 and Census 2001, again using the *de jure* count.

**Gauteng and Western Cape
show net gains**

Of the 5,6 million people described above who changed residence at least once between October 1996 and October 2001, almost a third, i.e. 1,7 million or 31,4%, moved between provinces. Table 5.4 gives the numbers of people who moved between provinces between 1996 and 2001. In the case of people who moved more than once, the most recent move is reflected. Table 5.5 gives the same information in percentages.

Table 5.4 is read as follows: in Eastern Cape, 354 267 people (right hand column of first row of data) moved out of the province into another. Of these, 17 049 moved to Free State, 91 055 moved to Gauteng, etc.

Table 5.5 shows that the 17 049 people who moved to Free State is 4,8% of the total who moved out of the Eastern Cape, while the 91 055 that moved to Gauteng is 25,7% of the total.

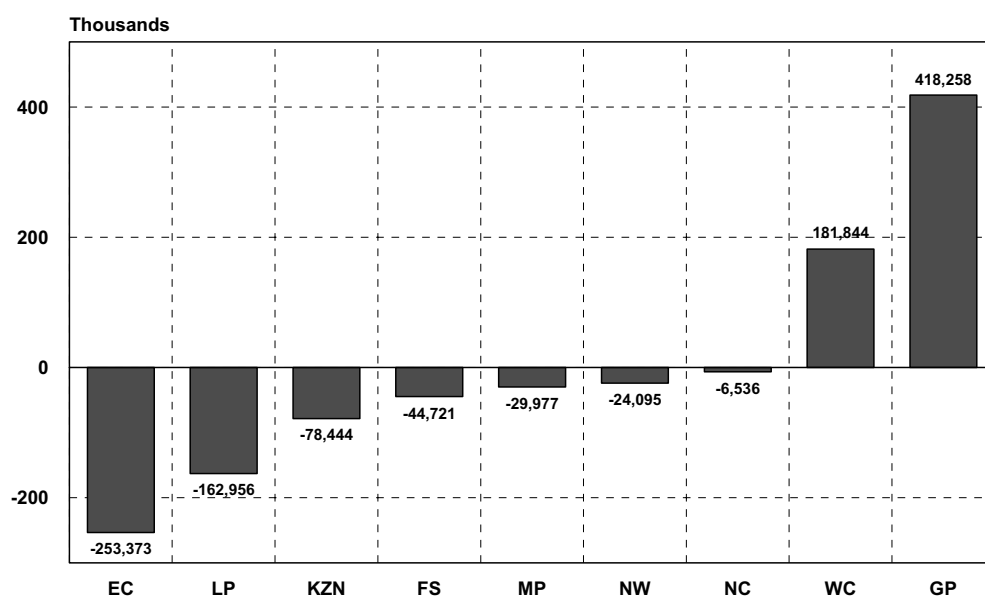
Table 5.4: Number of people who moved from one province to another between censuses, by province of previous residence and province of usual residence in October 2001

Province of previous residence	Province of usual residence in 2001									
	EC	FS	GP	KZN	LP	MP	NC	NW	WC	Total
EC	0	17 049	91 055	60 682	6 544	10 138	4 285	21 447	143 067	354 267
FS	9 001	0	61 055	8 797	4 610	7 076	6 516	20 437	13 134	130 626
GP	29 691	25 572	0	45 526	40 222	35 329	6 950	54 302	58 437	296 029
KZN	19 748	9 200	136 222	0	7 400	19 299	1 979	8 180	25 013	227 041
LP	3 089	4 309	175 864	5 560	0	39 753	1 527	21 682	5 283	257 067
MP	3 532	5 934	93 549	11 683	18 724	0	1 527	11 761	6 145	152 855
NC	3 122	7 836	11 516	1 966	1 792	1 474	0	7 747	21 666	57 119
NW	4 532	10 545	111 203	4 650	11 971	6 515	16 913	0	7 260	173 589
WC	28 179	5 460	33 823	9 733	2 848	3 294	10 886	3 938	0	98 161
Total	100 894	85 905	714 287	148 597	94 111	122 878	50 583	149 494	280 005	1 746 754

Table 5.5: Percentage distribution of people who moved from one province to another between censuses, within province of previous residence by province of usual residence in October 2001

Province of previous residence	Province of usual residence in 2001									
	EC	FS	GP	KZN	LP	MP	NC	NW	WC	Total
EC	0,0	4,8	25,7	17,1	1,8	2,9	1,2	6,1	40,4	100,0
FS	6,9	0,0	46,7	6,7	3,5	5,4	5,0	15,6	10,1	100,0
GP	10,0	8,6	0,0	15,4	13,6	11,9	2,3	18,3	19,7	100,0
KZN	8,7	4,1	60,0	0,0	3,3	8,5	0,9	3,6	11,0	100,0
LP	1,2	1,7	68,4	2,2	0,0	15,5	0,6	8,4	2,1	100,0
MP	2,3	3,9	61,2	7,6	12,2	0,0	1,0	7,7	4,0	100,0
NC	5,5	13,7	20,2	3,4	3,1	2,6	0,0	13,6	37,9	100,0
NW	2,6	6,1	64,1	2,7	6,9	3,8	9,7	0,0	4,2	100,0
WC	28,7	5,6	34,5	9,9	2,9	3,4	11,1	4,0	0,0	100,0
Total	5,8	4,9	40,9	8,5	5,4	7,0	2,9	8,6	16,0	100,0

Figure 5.3: Net loss or gain of people in each province through interprovincial migration between 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 2001

Figure 5.3 is based on Table 5.4. It shows the net number of people gained or lost per province through inter-provincial migration. For example, 354 267 people left the Eastern Cape between 1996 and 2001, while 100 894 moved into the province. The province therefore had a net loss of 253 373 people.

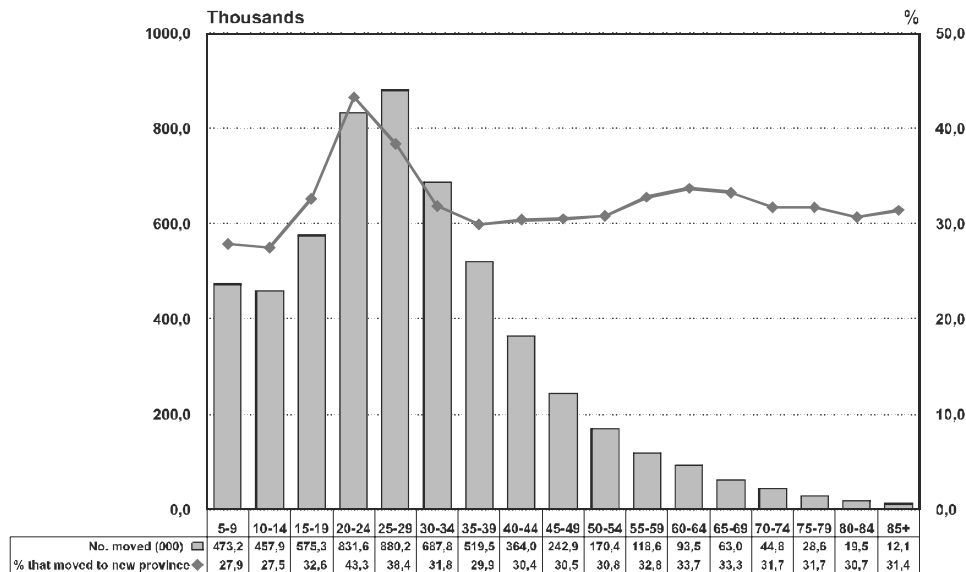
This figure shows that only two provinces, namely Gauteng (418 258) and Western Cape (182 844), had a net gain of people through inter-provincial migration.

The other provinces all showed a net loss of people through inter-provincial migration. The biggest loss was shown by Eastern Cape (- 253 373), followed by Limpopo (- 162 956).

Figure 5.4 shows the number of people who had changed residence between October 1996 and 2001 in each five-year age category (excluding 0–4) on the Y1 axis, while it shows the percentage who had actually changed province on the Y2 axis.

Among those aged 20–24 years who had changed residence between October 1996 and 2001, 43,3% had moved into a different province. This is the largest proportion of any age group.

Figure 5.4: Number of people in each age group who changed residence at least once between censuses (Y1 axis) and the proportion of these that had moved to a different province (Y2 axis), 2001



Source: Census 2001

Summary

In this chapter, the main reference is on the *de jure* count, i.e. the place of usual residence or the place in which people usually stay for at least four days a week.

Altogether, approximately 5,6 million people changed residence at least once between the two censuses. Taking whole years into account, this number increased steadily over time from about 733 000 in 1997 to 1,5 million in 2001.

Of the 5,6 million people who changed residence at least once between October 1996 and 2001, almost a third, i.e. 1,7 million or 31,4%, moved between provinces. The results show that inter-provincial migration favours the more urbanised provinces of Gauteng and Western Cape.

Inter-provincial migration also varied by age group. Movers in the 20–29 years age group, and to a lesser extent in the 13–19 years and 55–69 years age groups, were more likely than those in the other age groups to have moved to another province.

Chapter 6 – Education

Background

One of the main tasks that faced the democratically elected government in April 1994 was to address the issue of educational disparities that existed in the country at the time, among population group and by gender.

The education policy of the country has changed significantly. For example, schooling has been made compulsory for all children aged between 7 and 15 years; children must start school at the latest in the year in which they turn seven, which in effect means that all six-year olds, except those born in the first half of January, must start school. All schools have been opened to all children across population groups; new classrooms have been built; the qualifications of teachers have fallen under the spotlight; and in-service training has been introduced to improve the quality of teaching. New ways of teaching such as outcomes-based education have been adopted; free feeding schemes have been introduced in certain schools; some teachers have been allocated to teach in schools in the more remote or rural areas of the country; the sizes of classes have been made more equal across the country; and a greater focus has been placed on the rights of the child.

In this chapter the focus is on the impact of these changes on actual educational attainment and on school attendance.

Highest level of education amongst those aged 20 years or more: 1996 and 2001

In October 1996, in South Africa as a whole, there were 22,1 million people aged 20 years or more. This figure had increased (by 3,3 million) to 25,5 million by October 2001.

**Access to
education
increasing**

Table 6.1 give the breakdown of people in this age group by their highest level of education for both census years. It also indicates the percentage of people with each level of education for both years.

This table shows that in 1996 there were approximately 4,1 million people aged 20 years or more with no schooling. This number had increased by about 500 000 to 4,6 million in 2001. Even though there were larger numbers without any schooling in 2001 than in 1996, this is a smaller proportion of the total in this age group of 20 years or more (19,3% in 1996 and 17,9% in 2001).

Figure 6.1 indicates the percentage of people aged 20 years or more by highest level of education attained by October 1996 and 2001. The figure clearly shows a decrease in the proportion of people with lower levels of education, and an increase in the proportion of people with higher educational levels between 1996 and 2001.

Looking at both Table 6.1 and Figure 6.1, it is clear that larger numbers and larger proportions of people are obtaining at least some secondary education; larger numbers and proportions of people are completing their secondary education; and larger numbers and proportions are attaining tertiary qualifications.

One may conclude that there was an improvement in access to education over the time period between the two censuses. In actual numbers, 20,9 million people aged 20 years or more had received at least some education (Grade 1 or higher) in 2001, compared with 18,1 million people in 1996.

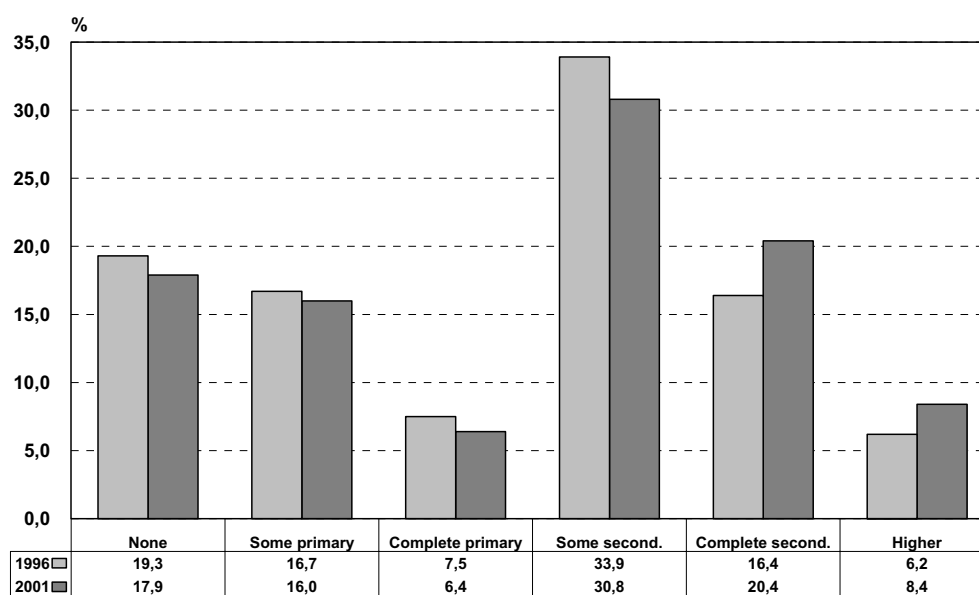
Table 6.1: Highest level of education amongst those aged 20 years or more, 1996 and 2001

Level of education	1996		2001	
	N	%*	N	%
No schooling	4 066 187	19,3	4 567 497	17,9
Some primary	3 512 415	16,7	4 083 742	16,0
Complete primary	1 571 774	7,5	1 623 467	6,4
Some secondary	7 130 121	33,9	7 846 125	30,8
Complete secondary	3 458 434	16,4	5 200 602	20,4
Higher**	1 294 720	6,2	2 151 336	8,4
Unspecified/other	1 112 568			
Total	22 146 220	100,0	25 474 769	100,0

*Excluding unspecified/other

** Including those with a certificate or diploma but without having completed Grade 12

Figure 6.1: Distribution of those aged 20 years or more by highest level of education completed, 1996 and 2001

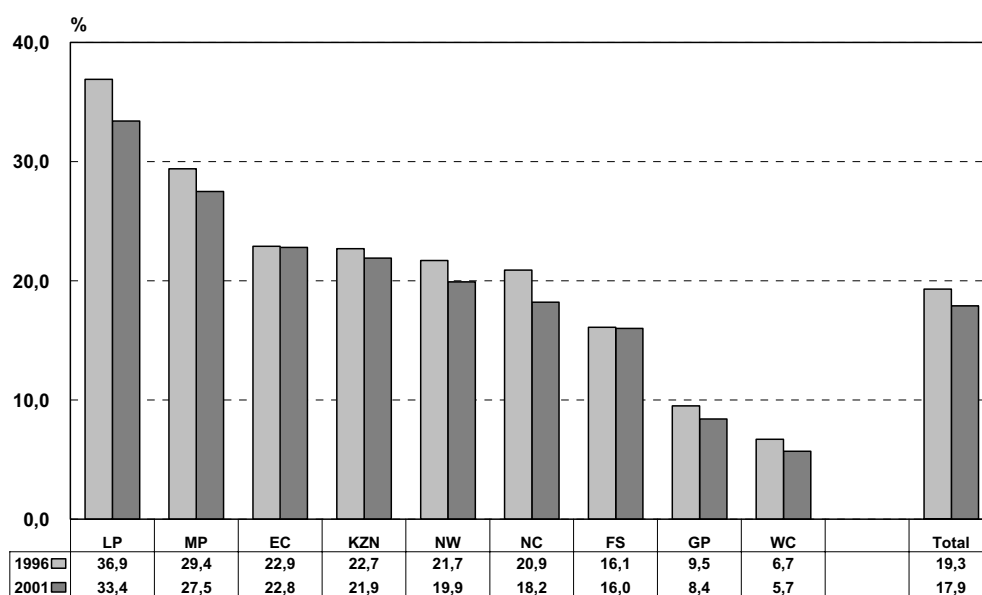


Source: Census 1996 and 2001

Education by province

Figure 6.2 compares the proportion of people aged 20 years or more with no education by province in both 1996 and 2001. It shows that in all provinces there was at least some decrease in the proportion of people with no education. In Eastern Cape (22,9% in 1996 and 22,8% in 2001) and Free State (16,1% in 1996 and 16,0% in 2001), the decrease was minimal, and the proportion remained approximately the same. In other provinces, the decrease was more substantial. For example, in Limpopo, the percentage of those aged 20 years or more with no education decreased from 36,9% in 1996 to 33,4% in 2001. The percentage in North West decreased from 21,7% in 1996 to 19,9% in 2001.

Figure 6.2: Percentage of those aged 20 years or more in each province with no education, 1996 and 2001



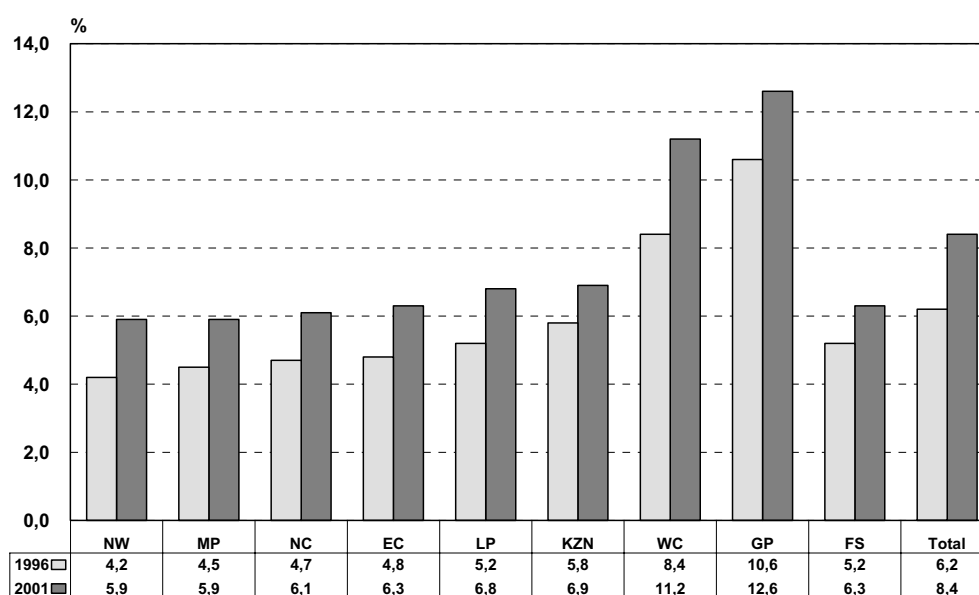
Source: Census 1996 and 2001

Figure 6.3 compares the proportion of people aged 20 years or more with a tertiary qualification (a post-matric certificate, diploma, degree, a post-graduate certificate and/or diploma, and/or a higher degree) by province in 1996 and 2001. It shows that in all provinces there was at least some increase in the proportion of people with tertiary qualifications.

For example, in Gauteng, the proportion of those aged 20 years or more with tertiary qualifications increased from 10,6% in 1996 to 12,6% in 2001. The proportion in North West increased from 4,2% in 1996 to 5,9% in 2001.

Levels of education and post-school qualifications have therefore shown a definite improvement in the years between the two censuses.

Figure 6.3: Percentage of those aged 20 years or more in each province with post-school qualifications, 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 1996 and 2001

Highest level of education amongst those aged 20 years or more by population group and sex: 1996 and 2001

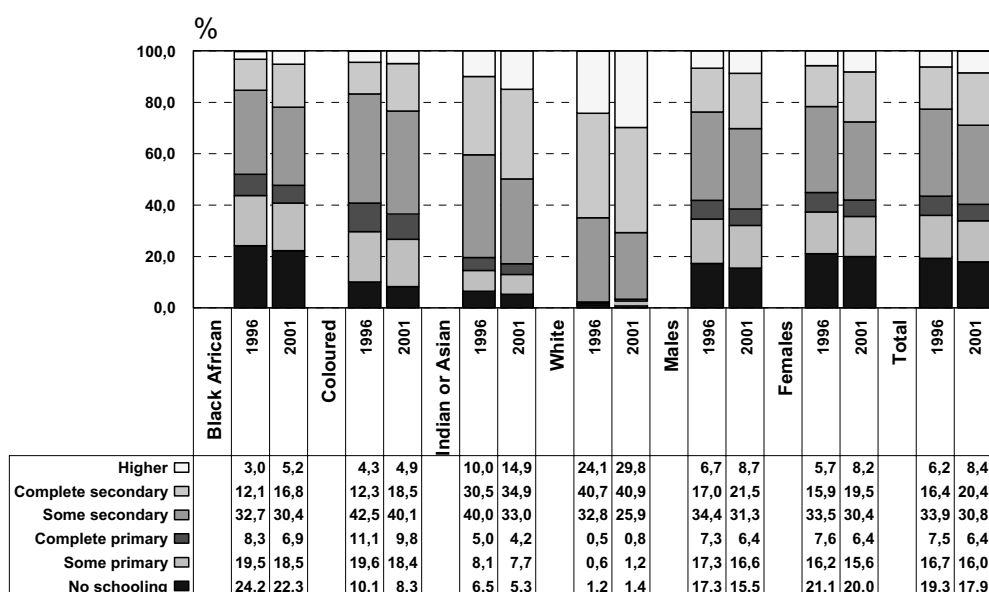
Access to education
improving

Figure 6.4 compares the educational attainments of those aged 20 years or more by population group and sex. It shows that, for each population group, and among males and females, the proportion of people attaining higher qualifications increased, and the proportion with lower levels of education decreased.

For example, in 1996, 3,0% of black Africans in this age group had attained a post-school education, but this percentage had increased to 5,2% by 2001. Among whites in this age category, the percentage with post-school education increased from 24,1% in 1996 to 29,8% in 2001.

The proportion of black Africans aged 20 years or more with some primary schooling, i.e. between 1 and 6 years of primary schooling but not the final year of primary school, as the highest level of education decreased from 19,5% in 1996 to 18,5% in 2001. Among Indians and Asians in this age category, the proportion with only some primary education decreased from 8,1% in 1996 to 7,7% in 2001.

Figure 6.4: Distribution of those aged 20 years or more by highest level of education completed within population group and within sex, 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 1996 and 2001

Census 1996 excludes unspecified level of education, while imputed values were used for Census 2001. Higher education includes those with certificates and diplomas but who have not necessarily completed Grade 12.

More detailed analysis of highest level of education amongst those aged 20 years or more by population group and sex: 2001

Although, as we have seen, there were overall improvements between 1996 and 2001 in levels of education among the population aged 20 years or more, there are still inequities. In this section, we focus on Census 2001, and the differences that are still found in educational attainment by population group, and to a lesser degree by sex.

We firstly examine the concept of shares in relation to education. Highest level of education is the denominator, whereas population group and sex are enumerators. If educational attainment were equally distributed by population group, we would expect the proportion of people within each category of highest level of education to be about the same as their proportion in the population as a whole. Of the 25,5 million people aged 20 years or more in 2001, 19,3 million (75,6%) were black Africans. If the share of education was equally distributed by population group, we would expect approximately this percentage of black Africans at each educational level. In addition, since 9,2% of the population aged 20 years or more was coloured, 2,9% Indian/Asian, and a further 12,3% white, we would expect to see approximately the same proportions of these groups in each educational category.

But Table 6.2 indicates that inequalities still exist in educational attainment by population group. For example, of the 4,6 million people aged 20 years or more who had not received any schooling in 2001, 4,3 million (94,0%) were black African. Among the 4,1 million people in this age group who had achieved some, but not complete, primary education, 3,6 million (87,1%) were black Africans.

Table 6.2: Highest level of education amongst those aged 20 years or more by population group and sex, October 2001

	No schooling N	Some primary N	Complete primary N	Some secondary N	Complete secondary N	Cert/dip < Gr. 12 N	Higher N	Total N
Black African								
Male	1 711 611	1 727 644	633 221	2 735 376	1 589 660	42 252	437 818	8 877 582
Female	2 580 604	1 829 952	705 404	3 025 383	1 638 855	48 602	557 580	10 386 381
Total	4 292 215	3 557 597	1 338 626	5 760 759	3 228 514	90 854	995 399	19 263 963
Coloured								
Male	89 726	196 398	98 474	436 271	212 884	4 916	55 018	1 093 687
Female	103 663	234 018	131 834	492 984	220 878	6 236	59 336	1 248 948
Total	193 388	430 416	230 308	929 255	433 762	11 151	114 354	2 342 634
Indian/Asian								
Male	10 481	18 420	11 320	117 216	136 797	2 995	59 389	356 618
Female	28 852	38 687	19 713	122 500	122 602	2 449	51 292	386 096
Total	39 333	57 107	31 033	239 717	259 399	5 444	110 681	742 714
White								
Male	18 476	16 399	9 983	332 975	600 191	25 312	481 234	1 484 572
Female	24 093	22 238	13 525	426 142	678 740	24 514	449 633	1 638 884
Total	42 569	38 637	23 509	759 118	1 278 931	49 826	930 867	3 123 456
Total								
Male	1 830 293	1 958 861	752 999	3 621 838	2 539 532	75 475	1 033 460	11 812 458
Female	2 737 211	2 124 895	870 477	4 067 010	2 661 074	81 801	1 117 841	13 660 309
Total	4 567 504	4 083 756	1 623 475	7 688 848	5 200 606	157 276	2 151 301	25 472 767

On the other hand, among the 5,2 million people aged 20 years or more with a complete secondary education as their highest qualification, only 3,2 million (62,1%) were black Africans. And of the 2,2 million people in this age group with post-Grade 12 tertiary qualifications as their highest level of education, only 1,0 million (46,3%) were black Africans.

Among white people in this age category, however, we see the reverse picture. They constituted 12,3% of the total population aged 20 years or more in 2001. But only about 43 000 (0,9%) of the total of 4,6 million in this age category without any schooling were white. Of the 5,2 million with complete secondary schooling (Grade 12) as their highest level of education, 1,3 million (24,6%) were white, and of the 2,2 million with tertiary qualifications, 930 867 (43,3%) were white.

The shares of highest level of education among those aged 20 years or more also need to be examined according to gender. Males constituted 46,4% of the population of those aged 20 years or more in 2001, and females constituted 53,6%. We would therefore expect the proportion of males and females to be approximately the same as these proportions in each educational category.

Table 6.2 indicates that of the 4,6 million people aged 20 years or more who had no education in 2001, 1,8 million (40,1%) were males. Amongst the 5,2 million people in this age group with Grade 12 as their highest level of education, 2,5 million (48,8%) were males. Amongst the 2,2 million with tertiary qualifications, 1,0 million (48,0%) were males.

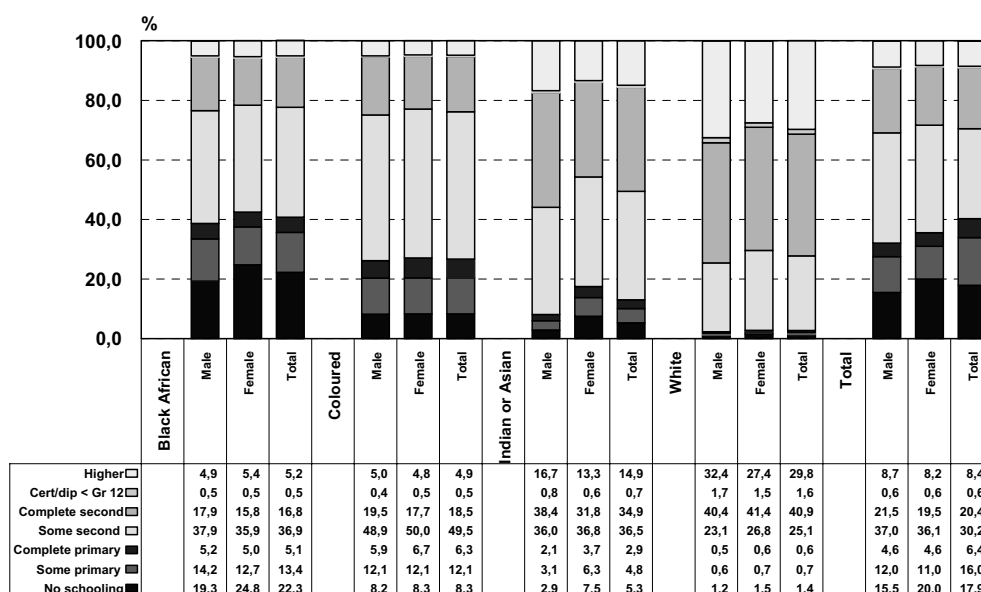
It therefore seems as if, at lower levels, women are more likely to be disadvantaged, but at higher levels of education, both males and females are obtaining access to similar opportunities.

Figure 6.5 looks at rates of highest level of education, rather than shares. Population group and sex are used as the denominators, while highest level of education is the enumerator. Thus, within the category of black African males, 19,3% had no schooling, while 4,9% had post-Grade 12 tertiary qualifications.

The graph shows that 19,3% of black African males and 24,8% of black African females aged 20 years or more had not received any schooling, compared with only 1,2% of white males and 1,5% of white females in this age category.

On the other hand, 32,4% of white males aged 20 years or more and 27,4% of white females in this age group had post-Grade 12 tertiary qualifications, compared with 4,9% of black African males and 5,4% of black African females in this age group.

Figure 6.5: Distribution of those aged 20 years or more by highest level of education completed within population group and sex, 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 2001

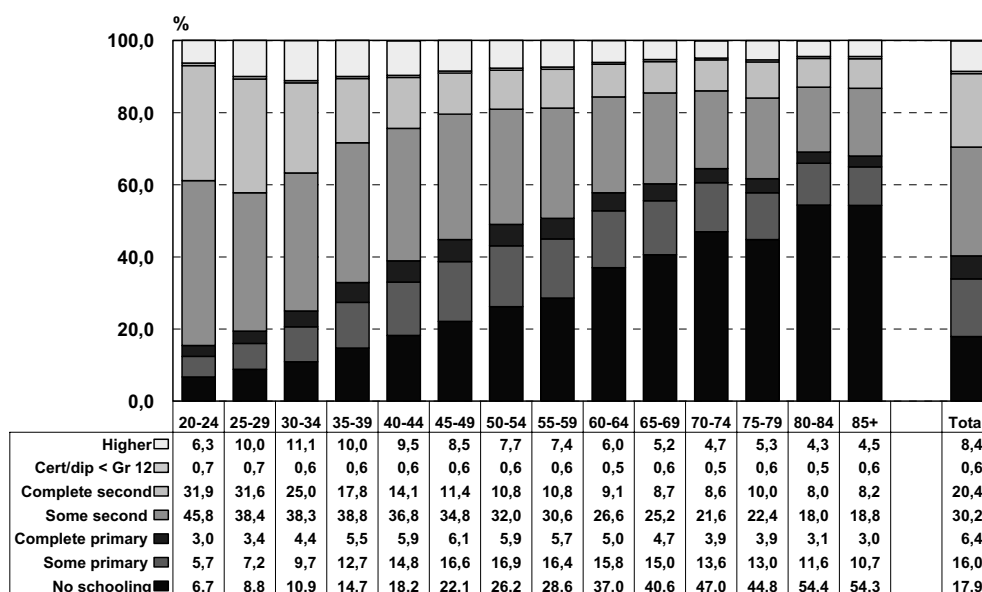
Highest level of education amongst those aged 20 years or more, in five-year age intervals: 2001

Figure 6.6 indicates the highest level of education of those aged 20 years or more in five-year age intervals. It shows that age is indeed a significant variable, inversely related to highest level of education attained. In general, older persons are likely to have lower levels of education than younger ones. For example, 6,7% of those aged 20–24 years had received no education, compared to 54,3% of those aged 85 years or more; 31,9% of those aged 20–24 years had completed secondary school compared with 8,2% of those aged 85 years or more.

Younger adults significantly more educated than older ones

Regarding tertiary education, the reason for the lower proportions of those aged 20–24 years (6,3%) than those aged 25–29 years (10,0%) and 30–34 years (11,1%) may be because some in the younger age categories had not yet successfully completed their higher education at the time of the census.

Figure 6.6: Distribution of those aged 20 years or more by highest level of education within age group, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Attendance at an educational institution: 1996 and 2001

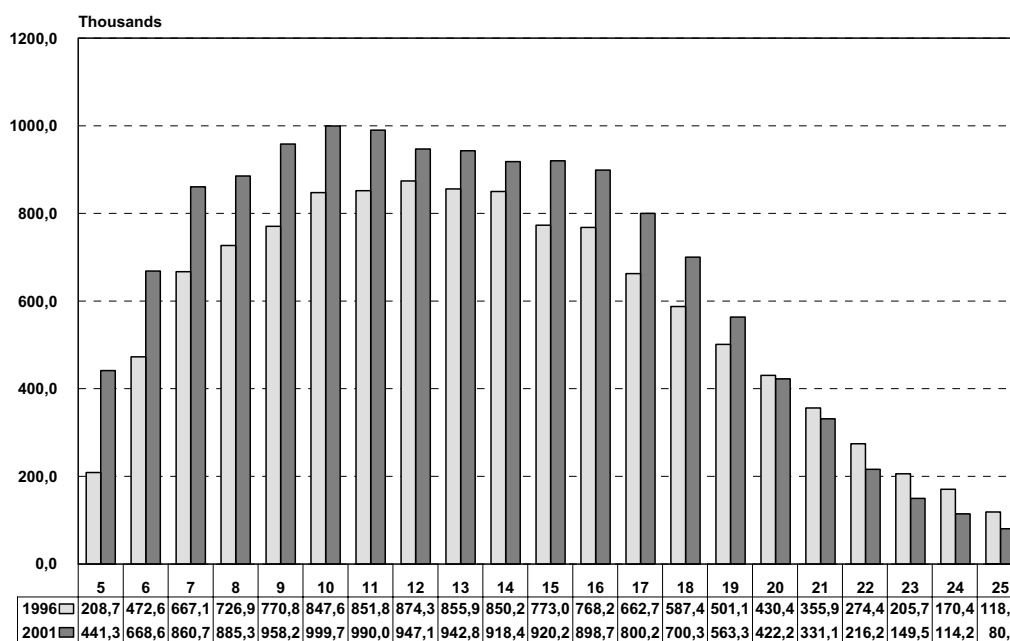
Figure 6.7 indicates the number of people in each single-year age category between the ages of 5 and 25 years who were attending an educational institution in both 1996 and 2001. It shows, for example, that in October 1996 there were 848 000 children aged 10 years attending an educational institution. By 2001 the number of children aged 10 years attending an educational institution had increased to 1 000 000.

Vast majority of children at school

The graph shows that the age distribution among those attending an educational institute is changing. In 1996, the largest number of attendees at an educational institution was at the age of 12 years (874 000). In 2001, however, the largest number of attendees at an educational institution was at the age of 10 years (1 000 000). In 1996 there were larger numbers of people in the older age categories attending an educational institution than in 2001. For example, there were 170 000 people aged 24 years attending an educational institution in 1996, but this number had decreased to 114 000 in 2001. On the other hand, there were fewer people in the younger age categories attending an educational institution in 1996 than in 2001. For example, there were 473 000 children aged 6 years attending an educational institution in 1996. This number had increased to 669 000 by 2001.

In general, this pattern may reflect a trend for more people to enter education at a younger age, and to leave at an earlier age, in other words at an age appropriate for the level achieved.

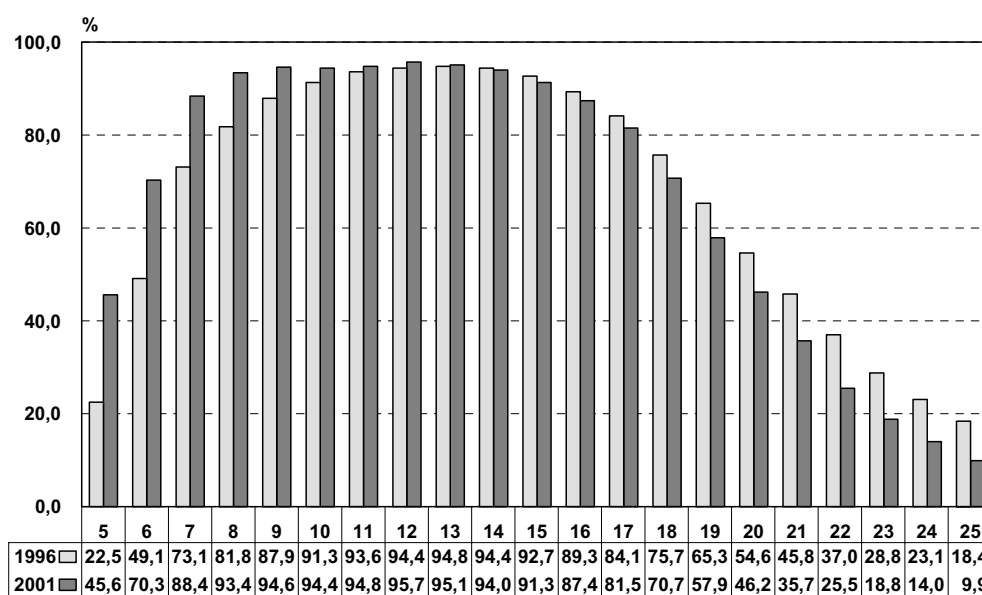
Figure 6.7: Number of people aged 5–25 years attending an educational institution in each single-year age category, 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 1996 and 2001

Figure 6.8 shows the percentage of the total number of people in each single-year age category between 5 and 25 years, who were attending an educational institution. It shows that a larger proportion of younger people and a smaller proportion of older people in the age category 5–25 years were attending an educational institution in 2001 than in 1996. Therefore, not only in numbers, but also in actual proportions, the age-pattern of attendance at an educational institution is shifting towards the younger people.

Figure 6.8: Percentage of those aged 5–25 years attending an educational institution in each single-year age category, 1996 and 2001



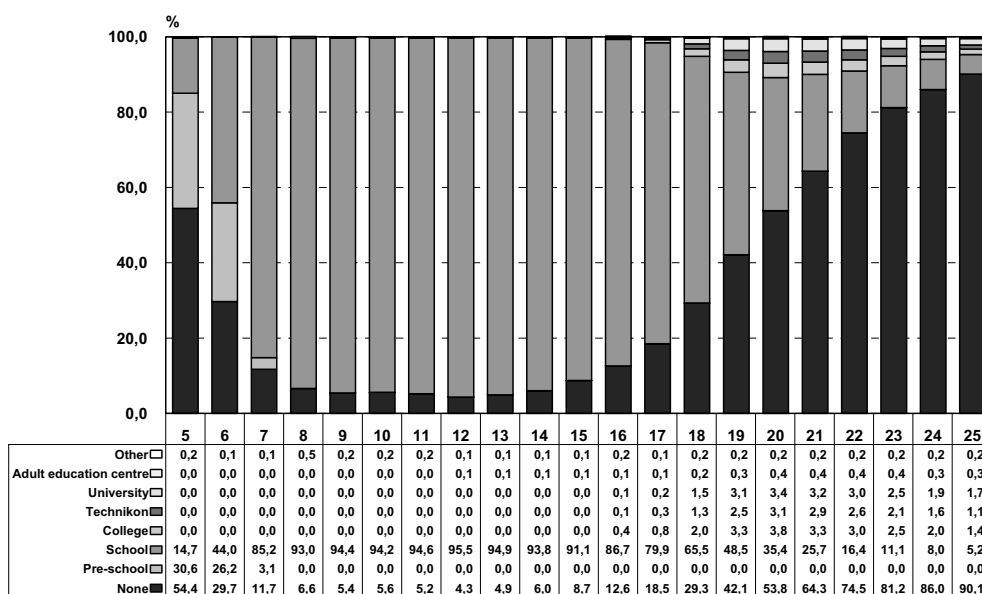
Source: Census 1996 and 2001

Type of educational institution attended: 2001

We now move away from comparisons between 1996 and 2001 to focus on 2001 in more detail and the type of institution that people attended at different ages. Figure 6.9 shows the pattern of the type of educational institution attended according to age.

The left hand side of the figures shows the take-up of pre-school and school. From the age of 7 to 17 almost everyone attending an educational institution was at school. The right hand side of the figure shows the increasing numbers not attending with increasing age, as well as the proportions in types of educational institutions other than schools, although considerable proportions of people aged 18 and above were still at school.

Figure 6.9: Distribution of those aged 5–25 years by type of educational institution attended if any, in each single-year age category, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Highest level of education in the age group 5–25 years: 2001

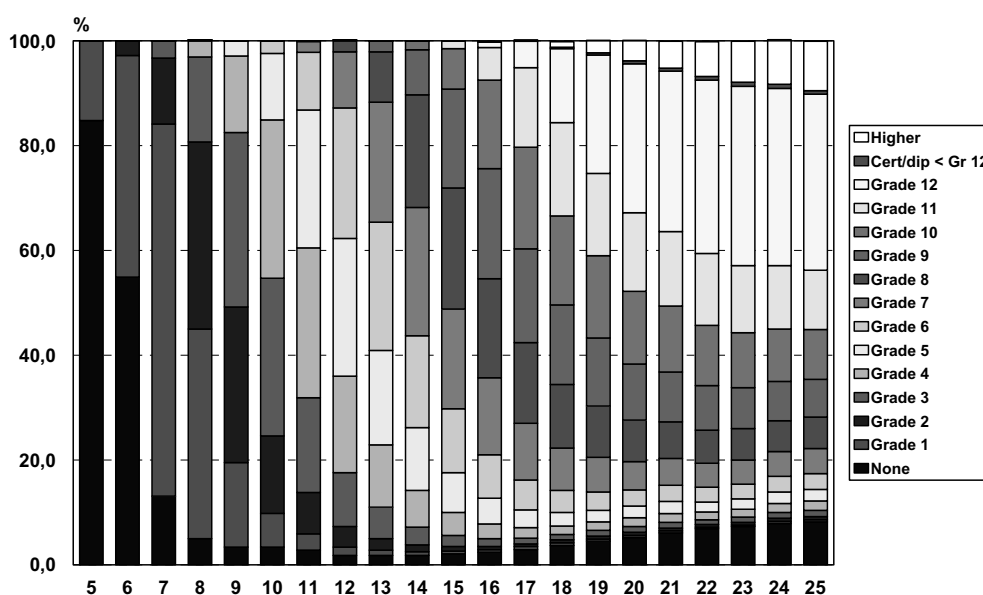
Figures 6.10 to 6.14 indicate the percentage of people that fell into each single-year age category by their highest educational attainment level, from age 5 to 25 years.

Movement through the school system varies by population group

Figure 6.10 presents the national distribution, while Figures 6.11 to 6.14 give the distributions for black African, coloured, Indian/Asian and white people in this age bracket.

Figure 6.10 shows that, between the ages of 5 and 25 years, as age increases, highest level of education attained becomes more diverse. For example, at age 6 years, the highest levels of education are either no education (54,9%) or Grade 1 (42,3%) or Grade 2 (2,8%). But at age 15 years, a more diverse picture is found. Only 2,1% had no education, while 0,5% had Grade 1; 0,9% had Grade 2; 2,1% Grade 3; 4,4% Grade 4; 7,6% Grade 5; 12,2% Grade 6; 19,0% Grade 7; 23,1% Grade 8; 18,9% Grade 9; 7,7% Grade 10; and 1,5% had Grade 11 as their highest level of education. Children are moving through the education system at differing rates, some faster and some slower.

Figure 6.10: Distribution of those aged 5–25 years by highest level of education completed, in each single-year age category, 2001



Source: Census 2001

This diversity in rate of moving through the educational system varies by population group, as shown in Figures 6.11–14.

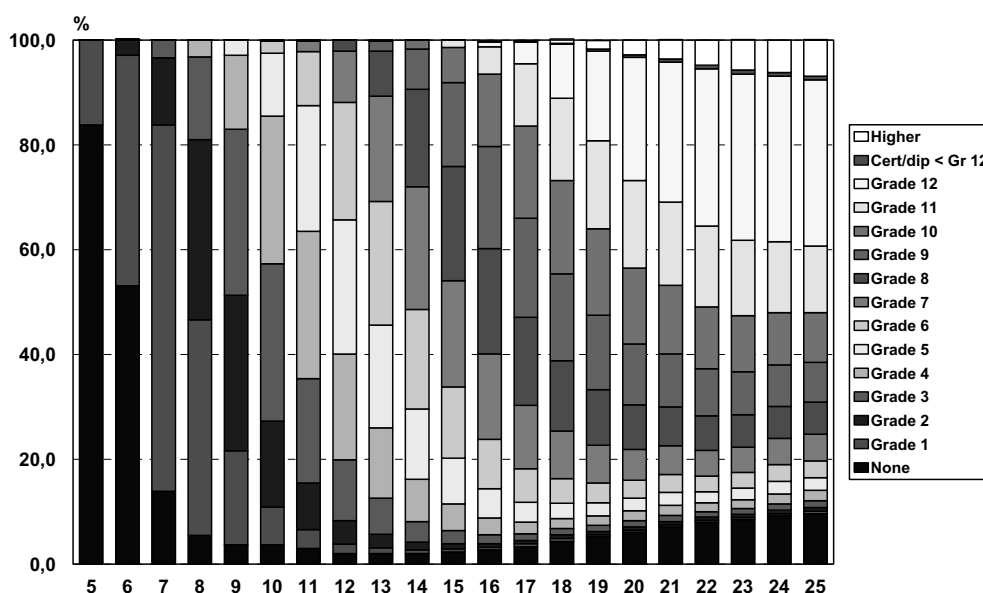
Figure 6.11 shows that this diversity in highest level of education tends to increase most noticeably, together with increasing age, among black African children. For example, at age 6 years, the highest levels of education are again either no education (53,1%), Grade 1 (44,0%) or Grade 2 (3,0%). But at age 15 years, a more diverse picture is found. At this age, only 2,3% had no education, while 0,6% had Grade 1; 1,0% had Grade 2; 2,5% Grade 3; 5,1% Grade 4; 8,7% Grade 5; 13,6% Grade 6; 20,3% Grade 7; 21,8% Grade 8; 16,0% Grade 9; 6,7% Grade 10; and 1,4% had Grade 11 as their highest level of education. Black African children are moving through the educational system at rather varying rates, some rather slowly and some more quickly.

This diversity is also there among coloured children (Figure 6.12), but to a lesser degree. In this population group, among those aged 6 years, 65,8% had no education, 32,1% had completed Grade 1 and 2,1% Grade 2. At age 15 years, however, the following percentages apply (from a level of no education, through the various grades, up to Grade 11): 1,1%; 0,3%; 0,4%; 0,9%; 1,9%; 4,0%; 8,1%; 17,5%; 28,5%; 26,3%; 10,0%, and 1,1%. As can be seen from these percentages, there is a larger proportion of 15-year olds in the higher grades (with the exception of Grade 11), and a smaller proportion in the lower ones.

Among Indian/Asian children (Figure 6.13), an even less diverse pattern is found with increasing age. Of those aged 6 years, 52,8% had no education, 44,9% had completed Grade 1 and 2,3% Grade 2. At age 15 years, however, while 0,7% had no education, only 1,5% had completed Grades 1 to 5; 8,2% had completed Grades 6 and 7, and 14,2% Grade 8 as their highest level of education. Almost half or 47,5% had completed Grade 9, 25,2% Grade 10 and 2,5% Grade 11. In general, the children in this population group are moving through the educational system faster than black African or coloured children.

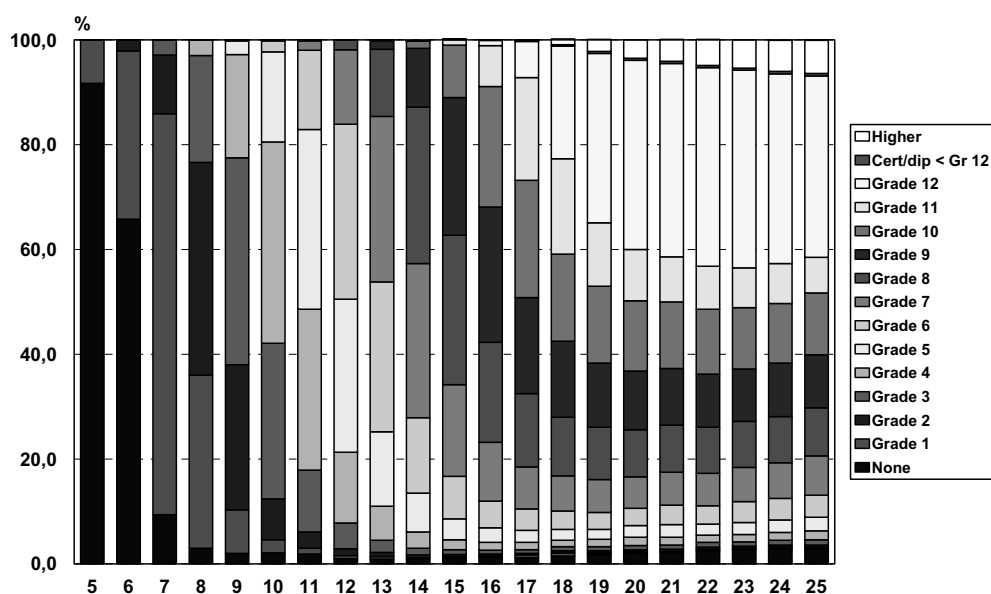
Among white children (Figure 6.14), a pattern of a higher level of education is found with increasing age, and a more rapid movement through the system. Of those aged 6 years, 66,5% had no education, while 31,6% had completed Grade 1 and 1,8% Grade 2. At age 15 years, however, while 0,5% had no education, only 2,1% had completed Grades 1 to 5; 11,4% had completed Grades 6 and 7; and 34,3% had completed Grade 8 as their highest level of education. More than one third or 37,2% had completed Grade 9, 12,2% had completed Grade 10, 2,4% Grade 11. In addition, 3,5% of 15-year-olds already had a post-school qualification. In general, the children in this population group are moving through the educational system faster in the grades lower than Grade 10 than those in other population groups.

Figure 6.11: Distribution of black Africans aged 5–25 years by highest level of education completed, in each single-year age category, 2001



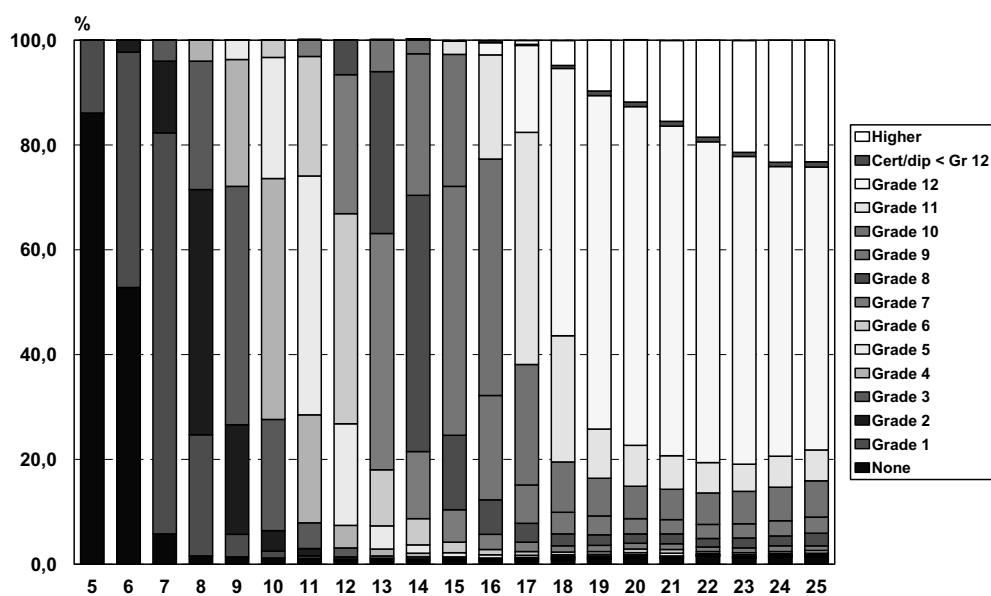
Source: Census 2001

Figure 6.12: Distribution of the coloured population group aged 5–25 years by highest level of education completed, in each single-year age category, 2001



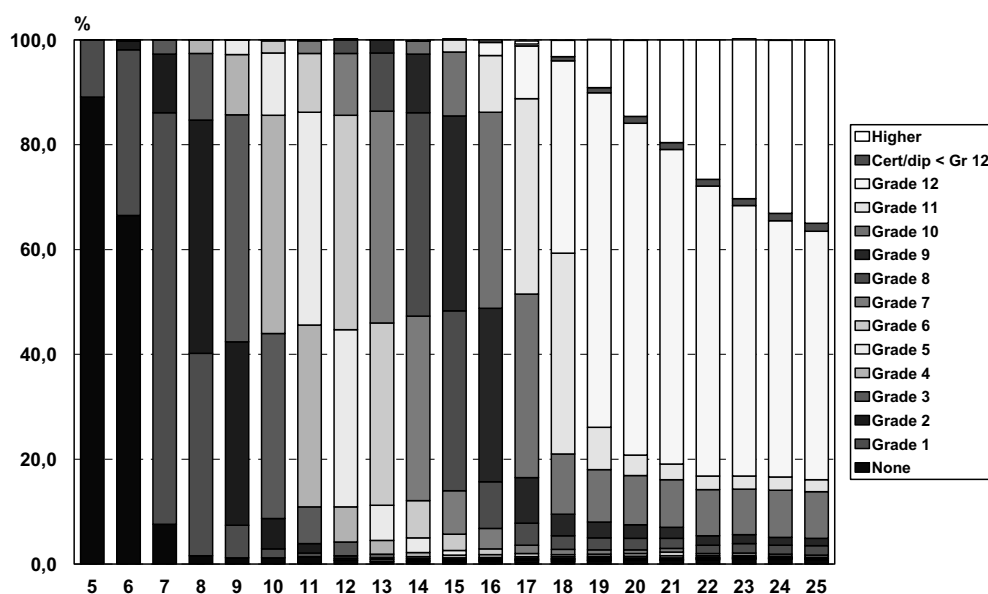
Source: Census 2001

Figure 6.13: Distribution of Indians/Asians aged 5–25 years by highest level of education completed, in each single-year age category, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Figure 6.14: Distribution of the white population group aged 5–25 years by highest level of education completed, in each single-year age category, 2001



Source: Census 2001

This analysis points to the need for further research into the quality of teaching in schools throughout the country, particularly in those schools previously administered by separate departments in each of the former homelands, and by additional separate departments for schools designated for black African, coloured or Indian children in the rest of South Africa.

Summary

There has been an improvement in access to education over the time period between the two censuses. Among people aged 20 years or more, there is clear evidence of a decrease in the proportion of people with lower levels of education, and an increase in the proportion of people with higher educational levels between 1996 and 2001. Larger numbers and proportions of people are obtaining at least some secondary education; larger numbers of people are completing their secondary education; and larger numbers and proportions are attaining tertiary qualifications.

In general, the overwhelming majority of children aged 7–15 years were attending school in 2001. Moreover there was also a tendency for people to enter educational institutions at an earlier age and to leave earlier, i.e. at ages more appropriate for the level. In 1996, the largest number of attendees at an educational institution was at the age of 12 years. In 2001, however, the largest number of attendees at an educational institution was at the age of 10 years. In 2001 fewer people in the older age categories were attending an educational institution than in 1996. There were also more people in the younger age categories attending an educational institution in 2001 than in 1996.

In general, the quality of teaching in schools in different areas of the country requires further examination. As would be expected, children are moving through the education system at differing rates, which vary noticeably by population group. In particular, some black African children in the more rural provinces are moving through the system rather slowly. Some coloured children are also moving rather slowly through the system. The quality of education in schools, especially those in the former homelands, requires further research.

Chapter 7 – The labour market

Limitations of Census 2001 labour market data

Census 2001 has certain limitations in relation to the labour market data that it collected, since a population census, worldwide, is not the most sensitive tool for collecting these types of figures.

- A census questionnaire is not as detailed as one designed specifically for the purpose of collecting labour market data, such as that used in a household-based labour force survey.
- A census allows for collecting data for small areas of the country, and is extensive in its coverage. But it does not easily allow for collecting more in-depth information.
- The probing that can be done in a household survey interview is not possible in a population census.

These factors have a direct bearing on the type of findings one obtains from a census and those obtained from a survey.

There are clear differences between the findings regarding the labour market in Census 2001 and those of the labour force survey (LFS) of September 2001, as indicated in Appendix 2. There were however common patterns between these two datasets. For example, the associations between age, education and employment were similar in both datasets. These patterns, rather than the actual figures from Census 2001, will form the basis of this chapter.

Moreover, analysis will at times be presented here at a level of disaggregation that is not possible with the smaller samples used for the LFS. This ability to disaggregate is the main reason why census rather than LFS data were used for analysis in this chapter.

Labour market status: 1996 and 2001

Table 7.1 compares the number and percentage of people aged 15–65 years who were employed, unemployed and looking for work, or not economically active at the time of the counts for Census 1996 and Census 2001. Comparisons between the censuses should, again, be regarded with caution, since the questions were phrased differently in the two census questionnaires. Employment in the informal sector may have been underestimated in both years, but it may be more markedly underestimated in 2001 than in 1996. Nevertheless, certain patterns emerge which indicate possible trends in the labour market between the two censuses. The table shows the following:

Employment not keeping pace with growth in population of working age

- The number of people in the age category 15–65 years increased by approximately 3,8 million between October 1996 and October 2001.
- The number of employed people in this age category increased by approximately 470 000.
- The number of unemployed people in this age category increased by approximately 2,2 million.
- The number who were not economically active increased by approximately 1,8 million.

Table 7.1: Labour market data from the census amongst those aged 15–65 years, 1996 and 2001

	Employed		Unemployed*		Not economically active		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1996	9 113 849	38,0	4 671 650	19,5	10 201 083	42,5	23 986 578	100,0
2001	9 583 763	33,7	6 824 075	24,0	12 019 291	42,3	28 427 129	100,0
Difference	469 914		2 152 425		1 818 208		4 440 551	

* Official definition

Integration

Among the 3,8 million additional people who were found in the age category 15 to 65 years, approximately 2,6 million people described themselves as being economically active, i.e. as either employed, or unemployed and looking for work, while an additional 1,8 million were not economically active. On an annual basis, this means that:

- On average, between October 1996 and October 2001, approximately 888 000 people were added to the working-age population each year.
- Of these 880 000 additional people on average, approximately 524 000 became economically active each year (employed, or unemployed and looking for work) while on average, approximately 364 000 were added to the ranks of those who were not economically active.
- Of the average of approximately 524 000 each year that become economically active, the number who said they were employed was approximately 94 000 per year, on average. This number probably underestimates employment in the informal sector.

It therefore seems highly likely that employment creation, at least in the respondents' understanding of what constitutes work (mainly formal sector employment), is not keeping pace with the number of people in the age category 15–65 years wanting to work.

Labour market status by population group and sex: 1996 and 2001

Figure 7.1 indicates the percentage of working-age people in each labour market category, 1996 (Y1 axis) and 2001 (Y2 axis).

In general, the proportion employed in 2001 (33,7%) was lower than in 1996 (38,0%), while the proportion that was unemployed was higher in 2001 (24,0%) than in 1996 (19,5%); the proportion of the not economically active was similar in both years (42,3% in 2001 and 42,5% in 1996).

The employed

When we look at differences in employment by population group, the figure shows that the percentage of those in the age category 15–65 years who were employed decreased across all population groups (from 31,6% in 1996 to 27,8% in 2001 among black Africans, from 51,3% to 46,1% among coloureds, from 51,3% to 49,2% among Indians/Asians, and from 63,6% to 61,4% among whites).

Within population group, the figure shows that among black Africans of working age, a lower percentage of males were employed in 2001 (35,0%) than in 1996 (41,6%). Among black African females, however, the percentages employed decreased only slightly between the two censuses (from 22,8% in 1996 to 21,4% in 2001).

A similar pattern is found for the coloured population of working age. Among males, 60,9% was employed in 1996, decreasing to 52,6% in 2001. Among females, the percentage decreased from 42,7% in 1996 to 40,1% in 2001.

Among the Indian/Asian working-age population, there was also a decrease in the percentage of employed males in 2001 (62,8%) compared to 1996 (68,3%). Among females, however, there was an increase (from 35,3% in 1996 to 36,2% in 2001).

Among the white working-age population, there was a decrease in the percentage of employed males (from 74,2% in 1996 to 70,4% in 2001), and to a slight extent, of employed females (from 53,4% in 1996 to 52,8% in 2001).

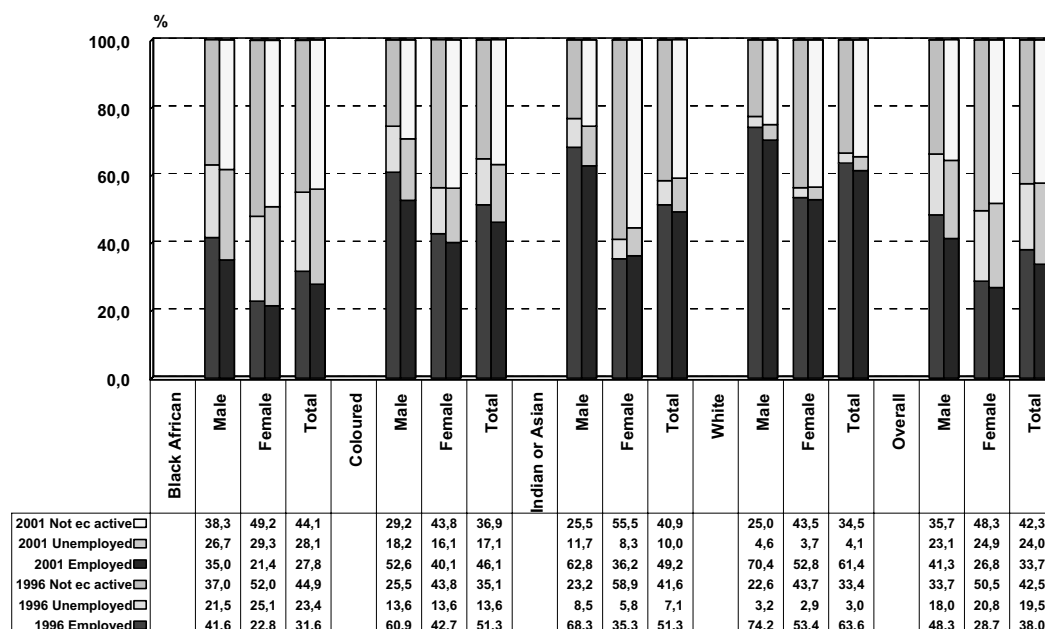
The unemployed

Figure 7.1 indicates that the overall proportion of people in the age category 15–65 years who were unemployed increased from 19,5% in 1996 to 24,0% in 2001. Among black Africans, the percentage rose from 23,4% in 1996 to 28,1% in 2001, among coloureds it increased from 13,6% to 17,1%, among Indians/Asians from 7,1% to 10,0%, and among whites from 3,0% to 4,1%. Among males the percentage of the unemployed increased from 18,0% to 23,1%, and among females it rose from 20,8% to 24,9%.

The not economically active

Figure 7.1 indicates that the proportion of females aged 15–65 years who were not economically active (students, homemakers, the disabled and unable to work, retired, etc.) decreased slightly from 50,5% in 1996 to 48,3% in 2001, while the proportion of males in this age group who were not economically active increased slightly, from 33,7% in 1996 to 35,7% in 2001.

Figure 7.1: Distribution of the working-age population (aged 15–65 years) by labour market status within each population group and sex, 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 1996 and 2001

Labour market status by province: 1996 and 2001

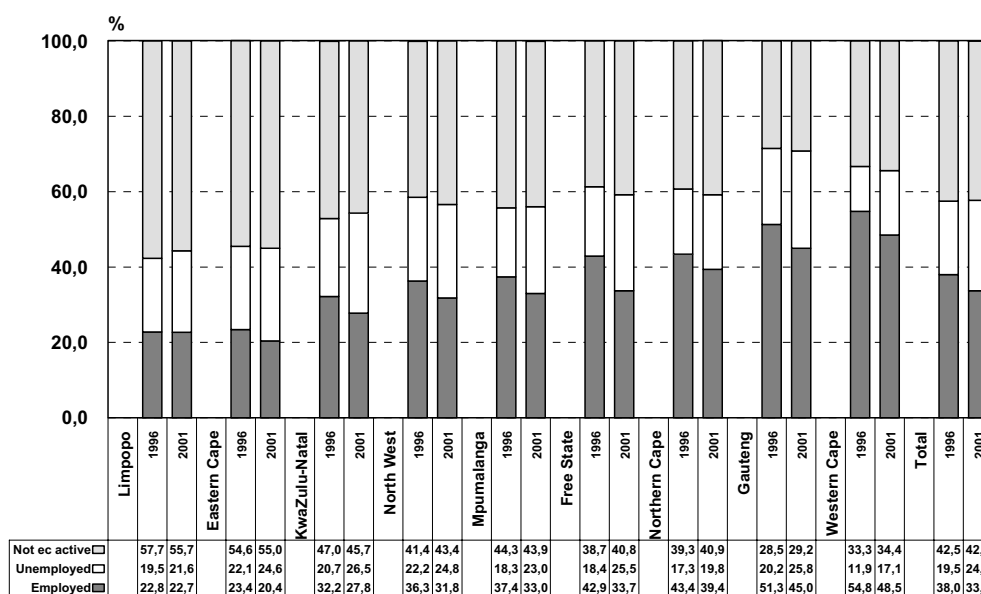
Figure 7.2 indicates changes in labour market status in each province between Census 1996 and Census 2001 among the population aged 15–65 years. In all provinces, there was a decrease in the proportion of people who were employed, and an increase in the proportion of those who were unemployed. But the extent of this decrease in the percentage of employed and increase in the percentage of unemployed varied from province to province. The proportion who were not economically active fluctuated from province to province.

Free State shows largest increase in the percentage of unemployed between 1996 and 2001

For example, in Limpopo, the percentage point change is rather small. In 1996, in this province, 22,8% of the working-age population were employed, 19,5% unemployed, and 57,7% not economically active. In 2001, 22,7% were employed, 21,6% unemployed and 55,7% not economically active.

In Gauteng, there are larger differences between the results from the two censuses. In 1996, in this province, amongst those aged 15–65 years, 51,3% was employed, 20,2% was unemployed, and 28,5% was not economically active. In 2001, 45,0% was employed, 25,8% was unemployed, and 29,2% was not economically active. Free State, however, shows the largest increase in the percentage who were unemployed, from 18,4% to 25,5%.

Figure 7.2: Distribution of the working-age population (aged 15–65 years) by labour market status in each province, 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 1996 and 2001

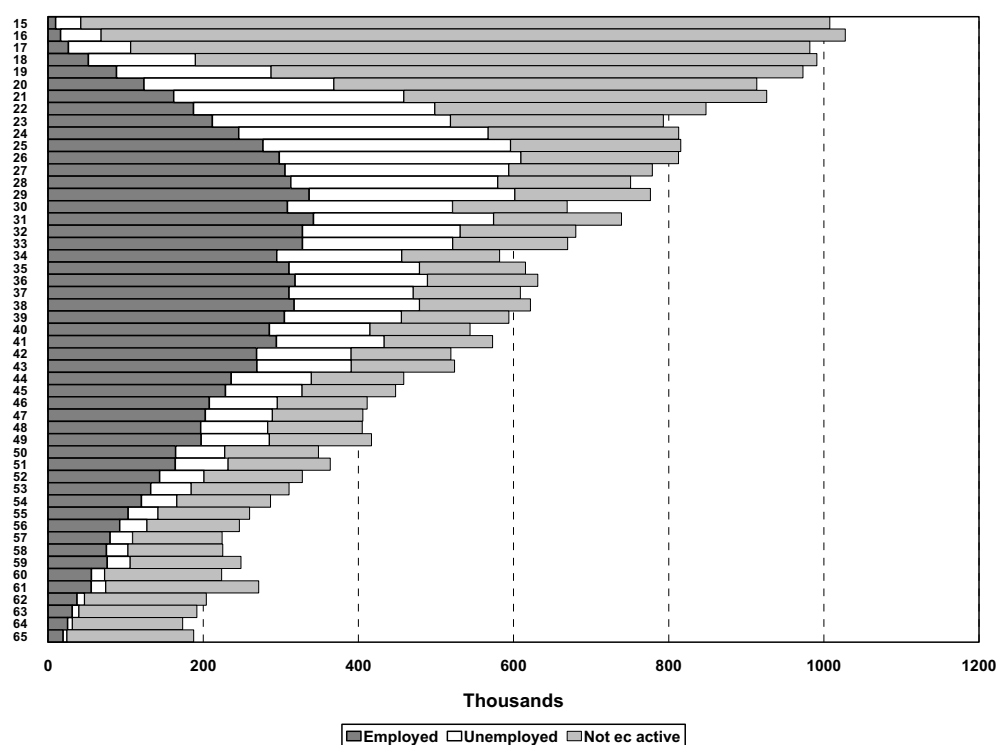
Labour market status by age: 1996 and 2001

In this section, we first focus on the age-related findings of the labour market in 2001, and then do some comparisons between Censuses 2001 and 1996. Consequently, Figures 7.3 and 7.4 below focus on Census 2001, while Figures 7.5 and 7.6 give the results from Census 1996.

Unemployment more widespread among the youth

Figure 7.3 gives the actual number of people in each single-year age category, from 15 to 65 years, by their labour market status in 2001, while Figure 7.4 shows the percentage of people in each single-year age category by their labour market status. This type of analysis cannot realistically be done using the LFS, because the sample size in each single-year age category is too small for this level of disaggregation.

Figure 7.3: Number of people aged 15–65 years in each labour market category, in single-year age categories, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Figures 7.3 and 7.4 show labour market status patterns that clearly change with age. For example:

- Among the 1,0 million people aged 15 years in October 2001, only 10 000 (1,0%) were employed, while 32 000 (3,2%) were unemployed and the vast majority, or 965 000 people (96,5%), were not economically active.

The number of people who were not economically active in 2001 steadily decreased with increasing age until the age of 34 years.

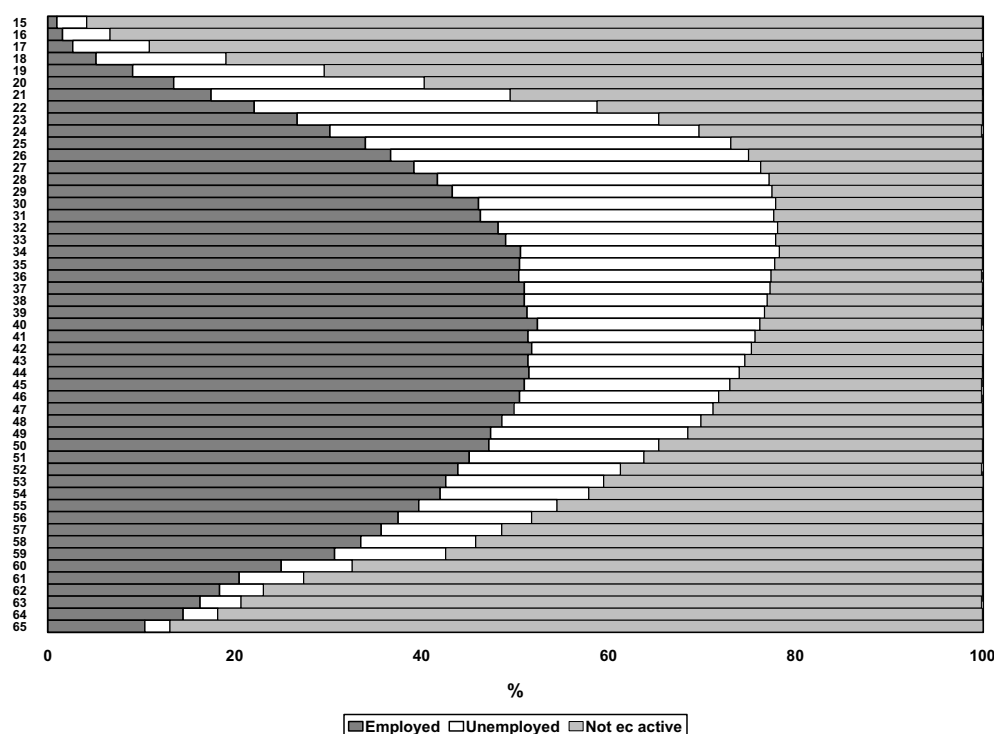
- For example, among the 914 000 people aged 20 years, 124 000 (13,5%) were employed, 245 000 (26,8%) were unemployed, and 545 000 (59,7%) were not economically active.

- By the age of 34 years, 295 000 (50,6%) people were employed, 161 000 (27,7%) were unemployed and only 126 000 (21,7%) were not economically active.
- This means that between the ages of 15 to 34 years, with each increase in single-year age category, an increasing number and proportion of people became economically active, i.e. either employed or unemployed.
- The proportion of people who were unemployed decreased with increasing age.

After the age of 34 years there was a gradual increase in the number and the proportion of people who were not economically active, followed by an accelerated increase and then a steep increase in both numbers and proportions.

- For example, among the 615 000 people aged 35 years, 311 000 (50,6%) were employed, 168 000 (27,3%) were unemployed, and 137 000 (22,3%) were not economically active.
- By the age of 45 years, of the 448 000 people in this age category, 229 000 (51,1%) were employed, 99 000 (22,1%) were unemployed, and 121 000 (27,0%) were not economically active.
- Beyond the age of 45 years the decreases in the proportion of the employed and unemployed started to accelerate. By the age of 55 years, of the 260 000 people in this age category, 103 000 (39,6%) were employed, 38 000 (14,6%) were unemployed and 118 000 (45,4%) were not economically active.
- After this age, there was an even more rapid increase in both the number and proportion of people who were not economically active. Thus, by the age 64 years, of the 174 000 people in this age category, only 25 000 (14,4%) were employed, while 6 000 (3,4%) were unemployed and the vast majority (142 000 or 81,6%) were not economically active.

Figure 7.4: Distribution of those aged 15–65 years by labour market status within single-year age categories, 2001

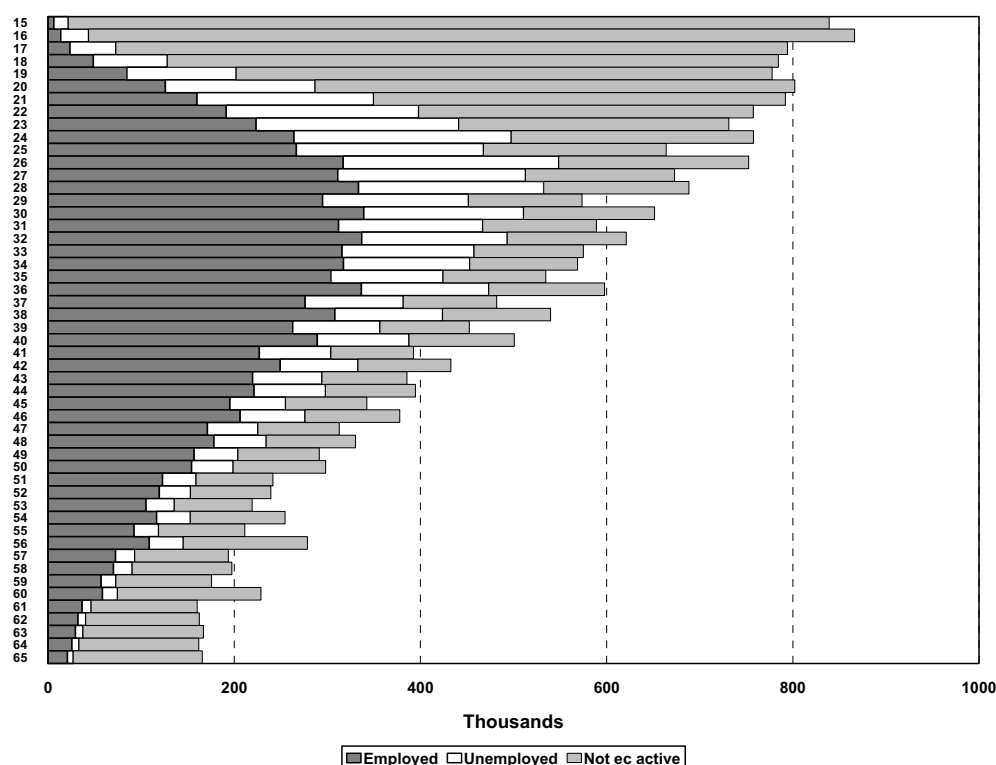


Source: Census 2001

Figure 7.5 shows the number of people, and Figure 7.6 shows the percentage distribution, of the employed, the unemployed and the not economically active for each single-year age category between the ages of 15 and 65 years, for Census '96.

Comparing 1996 to 2001, we find that the patterns in 1996 and 2001 are similar, but the proportions are different.

Figure 7.5: Number of people aged 15–65 years in each labour market category, in single-year age categories, 1996



Source: Census 1996

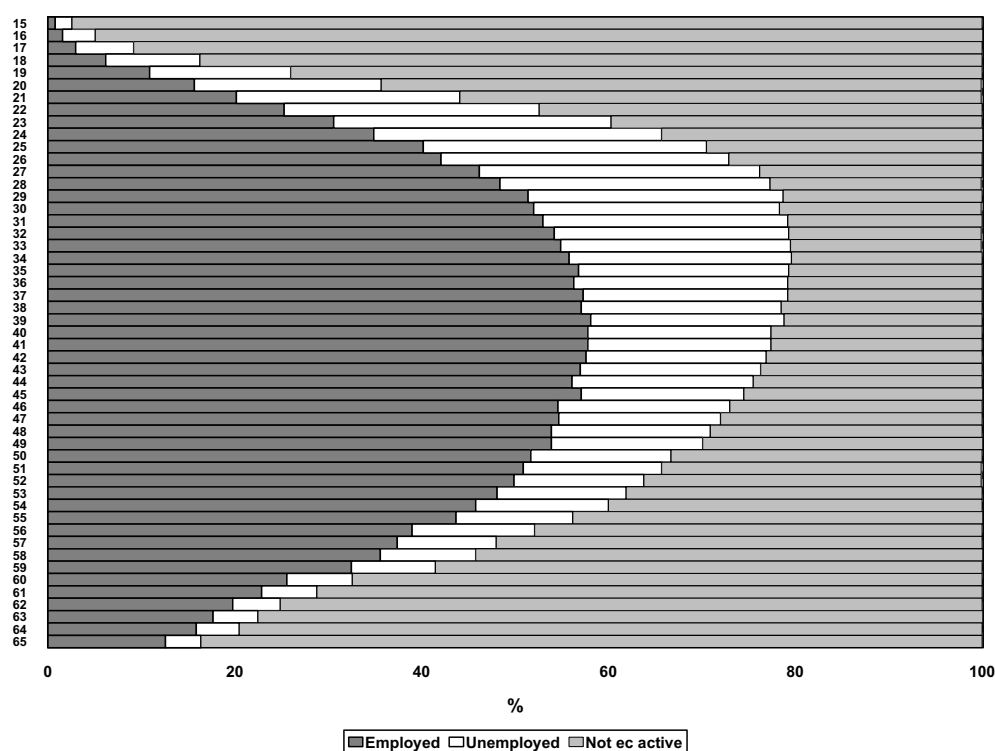
Between the ages of 15 to 34 years, in both census years, with each additional year, an increasing proportion of people became economically active, and were either employed or unemployed.

- In 1996, among those aged 15 years only 0,8% was employed, while 1,8% was unemployed and almost all (97,4%) were not economically active. In 2001, similar proportions were found, since 1,0% was employed, while 3,2% was unemployed and the vast majority (96,5%) was not economically active.
- At the age of 20 years, in 1996, 15,7% was employed, 20,0% was unemployed and 64,2% was not economically active. The proportions for 2001 were: 13,5% employed, 26,8% unemployed, and 59,7% not economically active. The percentage of the unemployed shows an increase, while the percentage that was not economically active shows a decrease.
- By the age of 34 years, in 1996, 55,8% was employed, 23,8% unemployed, and 20,4% not economically active, as against 2001, where 50,6% was employed, 27,7% was unemployed, and 21,7% was not economically active. We see a smaller proportion employed in 2001, a larger proportion unemployed, and a slightly larger proportion not economically active.

After the age of 34 years, in both 1996 and 2001 there is a gradual increase in the number and the proportion of people who are not economically active, followed by an accelerated and then a steep increase. But the proportions again differed between the two censuses.

- For example, among the people aged 35 years in 1996, 56,8% was employed, 22,5% was unemployed and 20,7% was not economically active. In 2001 the respective percentages were 50,6%, 27,3% and 22,3%.
- By the age of 45 years, in 1996, 57,1% was employed, 17,4% was unemployed and 25,6% was not economically active. In 2001 the percentages were 51,1% employed, 22,1% unemployed and 27,0% not economically active.
- Then the decrease in the proportion of people who are not economically active starts to accelerate. By the age of 55 years, in 1996, 43,7% was employed, 12,5% was unemployed and 43,9% was not economically active. In 2001 the respective percentages were 39,6% employed, 14,6% unemployed and 45,4% not economically active.
- After this age, there is an even more rapid increase in the proportion of people who were not economically active in both census years.

Figure 7.6: Distribution of those aged 15–65 years by labour market status within single-year age categories, 1996



Source: Census 1996

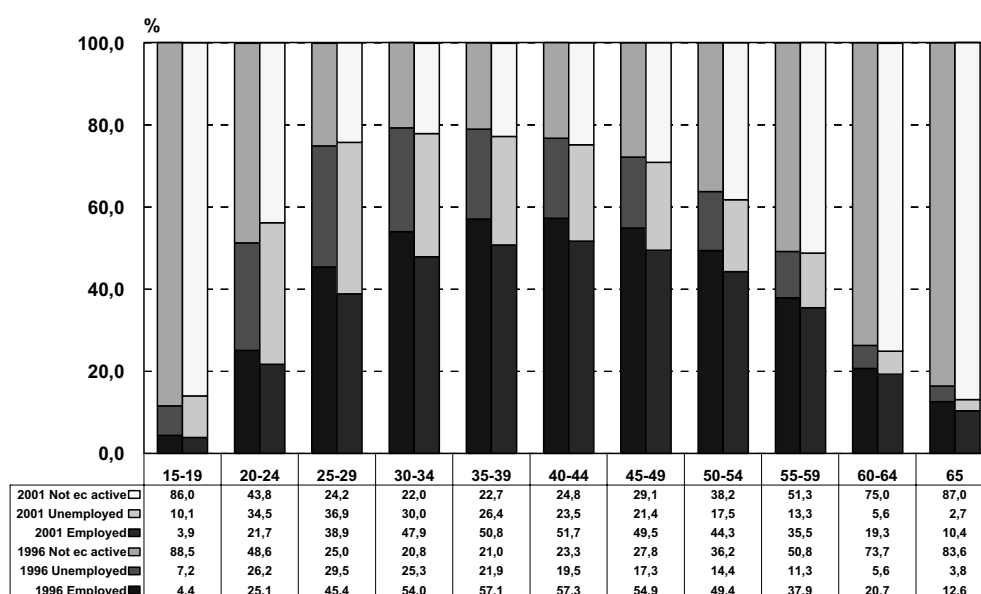
In general, over the two censuses, within similar patterns for single-year age groups among those of working age, the percentage employed was lower in 2001 than in 1996, while the percentage unemployed showed an increase. The percentage of not economically active people varied with age in both censuses.

A summary of the similarities in patterns, and differences in proportions, is given in Figure 7.7, where five-year age intervals are used for those between the ages of 15 and 64 years, whilst those aged 65 years are kept as a single-year age category.

For example, among those aged 25–29 years in 1996, 45,4% was employed, 29,5% was unemployed and 25,0% was not economically active; in this five-year age category in 2001, the proportion of employed decreased to 38,9%, the proportion of unemployed increased to 36,9%, and the proportion of not economically active decreased to 24,2%.

Among these aged 50–54 years in 1996, 49,4% was employed, 38,2% was unemployed and 12,4% was not economically active; in this age category in 2001, the proportion of employed decreased to 44,3%, the proportion of unemployed increased to 35,5%, and the proportion of those who were not economically active increased to 19,3%.

Figure 7.7: Distribution of those aged 15–65 years by labour market status within age group, 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 1996 and 2001

Labour market status by highest level of education: 2001

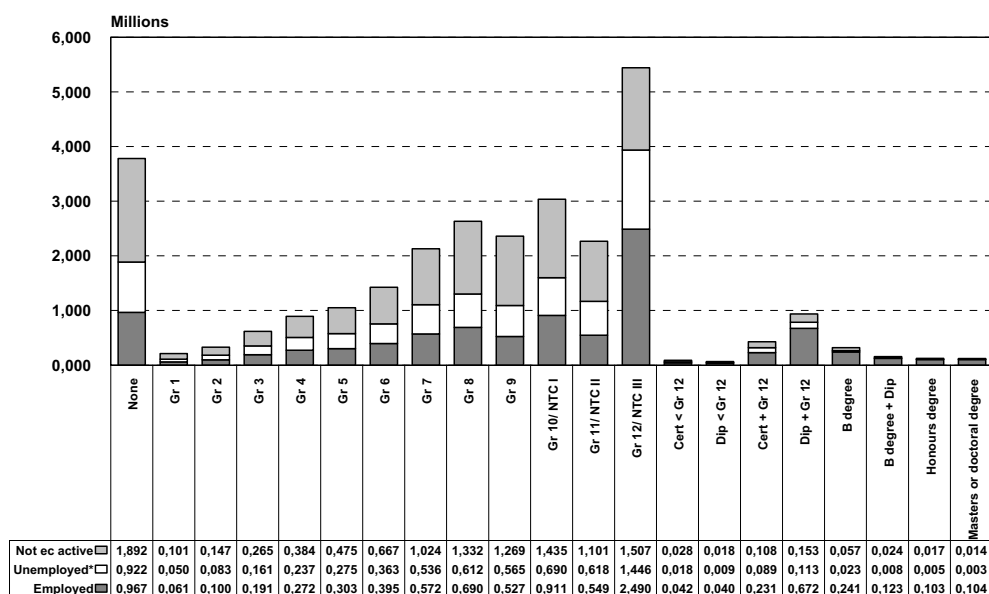
In this section, among those aged 15–65 years, we focus on the relationship between highest level of education and labour market status, as indicated in Census 2001.

**Unemployment
correlated with lower
levels of education**

Figure 7.8 shows the number of people in each educational category by their labour market status, while Figure 7.9 shows the percentages of people in these categories.

Regarding the number of people in each educational category, it is clear in Figure 7.8 that there are two modal points, people with no education and people who had completed 12 years of education as their highest level. Amongst the 3,8 million people in this age category with no education, 1,9 million people were not economically active, 0,9 million were employed, and 1,0 million were unemployed. Among those with 12 years of education, 1,5 million were not economically active, 1,4 million were unemployed, and 2,5 million were employed. There were fewer people in all the other educational categories.

Figure 7.8: Among those aged 15–65 years, the number who were employed, unemployed and not economically active in each educational level category, 2001

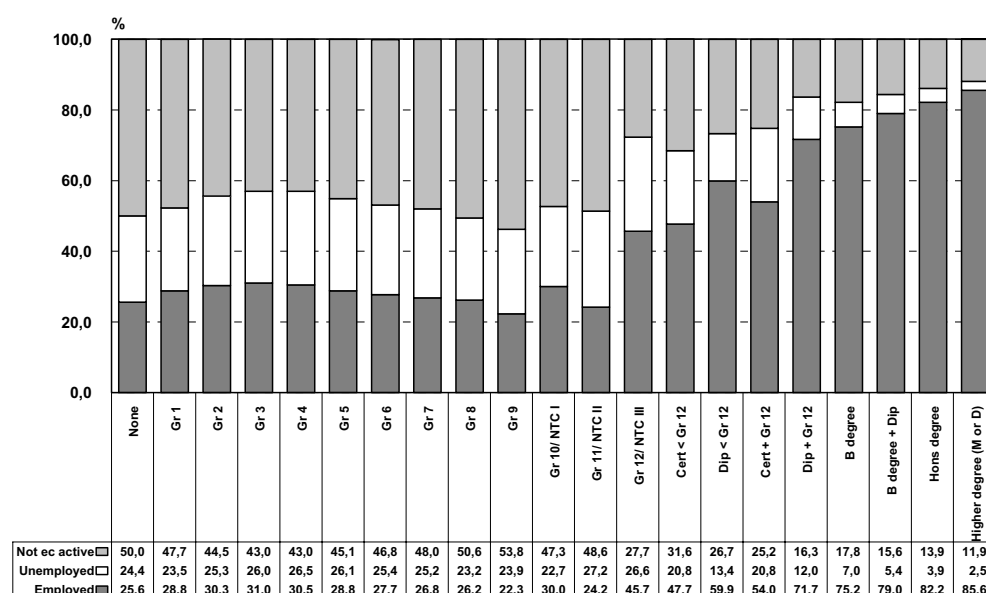


Source: Census 2001
* official definition

Figure 7.9 shows the following trends:

- Among those who had a highest education level that was below Grade 12, the proportion of employed people in each education category was relatively low, i.e. 30,0% or lower, but it was lowest for those with Grade 11, at 24,2%, while the proportion of those who were not economically active was relatively high (at least 40%), and the proportion who were unemployed but looking for work was approximately 25%. We therefore have a low labour absorption rate among those with qualifications that are less than 12 years of schooling.
- Among those with a highest educational qualification of Grade 12 or higher, and those with certificates and diplomas, but without having completed Grade 12, in general we find that, with each additional qualification, the percentage of people who were employed increased. For example, amongst those with Grade 12, 45,7% was employed, increasing to 85,6% among those with masters' degrees or doctorates as their highest qualification. The graph also shows that the higher the qualification, the lower the proportion who were not economically active, and the lower the proportion of those who were unemployed and looking for work.

Figure 7.9: Percentage of people aged 15–65 years in each level of educational achievement that were employed, unemployed and not economically active, 2001



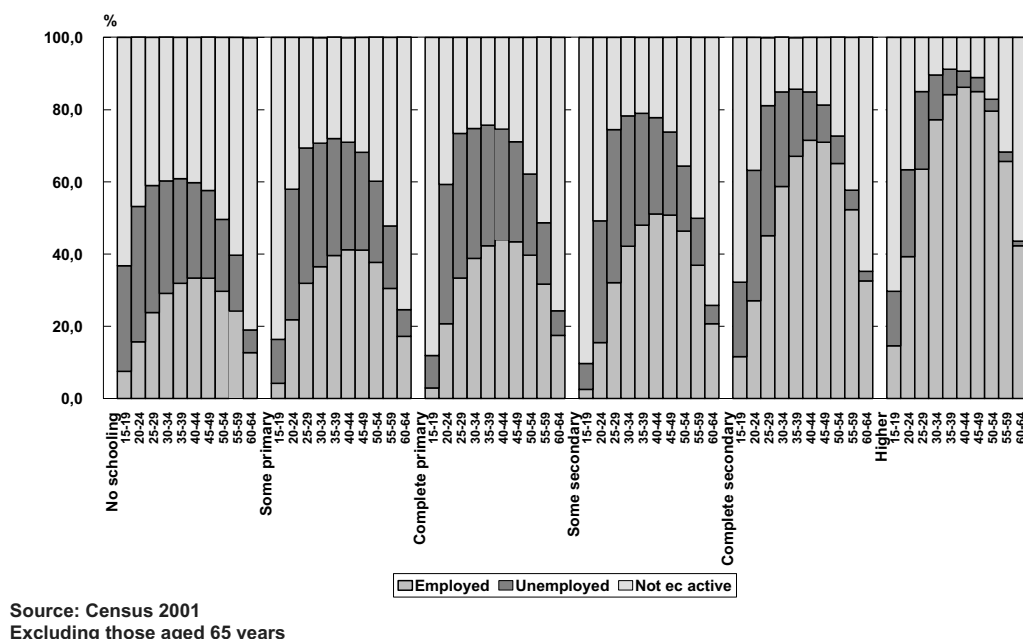
Source: Census 2001

Labour market status by age and highest level of education: 2001

When the two variables age and highest level of education are examined simultaneously (Figure 7.10), in all education categories, the proportion who were unemployed and looking for work was highest among the younger groups of 20–34 years, while the proportion who were employed was highest among those aged 35–45 years.

The graph also shows that with each increase in level of education, particularly for Grade 12 or higher, a larger proportion of people were employed.

Figure 7.10: Distribution of the working-age population by labour market status in each level of education and age group, 2001



Source: Census 2001
Excluding those aged 65 years

Table 7.2 gives the numbers of people aged between 15 and 64 years in each labour market category, by broad category of highest level of education and five-year age intervals. This table forms the basis for deriving the percentages shown in Figure 7.10.

Table 7.2: Labour market status amongst those aged 15–64 years by highest level of education and five-year age interval (numbers), 2001

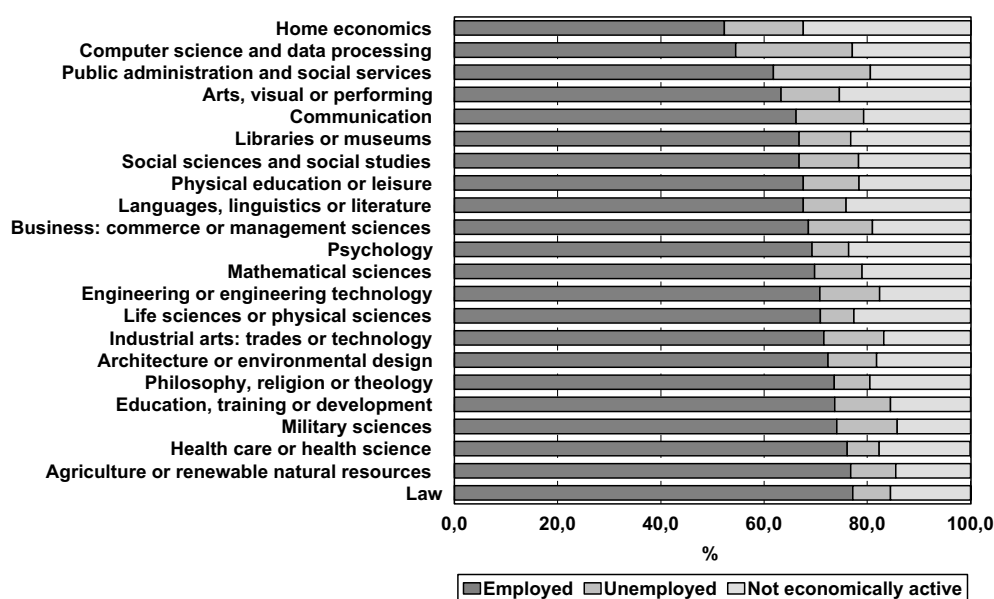
Highest level of education and labour market status	Age in five-year intervals										
	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	Total
No schooling											
Employed	11 444	44 881	81 971	105 983	144 337	159 261	153 310	127 284	83 305	50 158	961 933
Unemployed	44 911	107 220	121 433	113 639	131 058	125 936	111 905	85 473	53 240	24 997	919 812
Not ec. active	96 728	134 169	141 295	145 031	176 973	191 733	195 779	215 986	207 758	318 855	1 824 308
Total	153 083	286 269	344 698	364 652	452 369	476 930	460 994	428 744	344 303	394 010	3 706 053
Some primary											
Employed	33 285	80 948	133 472	171 943	221 224	223 381	194 728	140 529	81 081	37 962	1 318 554
Unemployed	97 274	134 618	156 670	161 074	181 017	161 588	128 294	83 812	45 951	16 266	1 166 564
Not ec. active	665 939	156 070	128 122	137 592	156 936	156 817	150 922	148 631	138 649	166 707	2 006 386
Total	796 497	371 636	418 264	470 609	559 178	541 787	473 944	372 972	265 681	220 936	4 491 504
Complete primary											
Employed	17 218	43 764	69 882	85 685	103 157	93 100	72 933	48 170	26 224	10 661	570 794
Unemployed	53 061	81 630	83 805	79 542	81 335	64 732	46 504	27 258	14 036	4 146	536 050
Not ec. active	522 003	85 914	55 682	55 528	59 143	53 657	48 546	45 892	42 505	46 078	1 014 947
Total	592 281	211 308	209 369	220 754	243 635	211 489	167 983	121 320	82 766	60 885	2 121 791
Some secondary											
Employed	75 412	272 146	417 703	446 548	454 555	384 994	283 327	186 813	105 449	46 113	2 754 510
Unemployed	213 274	591 986	551 560	381 694	293 693	201 493	128 506	72 456	37 160	11 312	2 510 268
Not ec. active	2 685 001	893 050	331 130	230 438	199 349	167 130	145 837	143 774	143 077	165 563	5 148 987
Total	2 973 687	1 757 183	1 300 394	1 058 680	947 597	753 616	557 670	403 044	285 687	222 988	10 413 765
Complete secondary											
Employed	48 846	371 831	560 748	490 217	366 468	264 828	168 362	115 195	68 340	31 670	2 486 506
Unemployed	86 810	493 938	447 393	218 729	101 588	49 826	24 441	13 370	7 018	2 497	1 445 610
Not ec. active	285 334	503 821	234 146	126 657	77 704	55 824	44 391	48 485	55 299	63 060	1 494 720
Total	420 990	1 369 590	1 242 287	835 603	545 760	370 478	237 194	177 050	130 657	97 227	5 426 836
Higher											
Employed	6 619	117 243	266 533	301 455	272 016	228 544	161 104	107 414	63 205	29 311	1 471 999
Unemployed	6 819	72 010	90 450	48 586	22 774	11 989	7 368	4 452	2 529	909	240 774
Not ec. active	31 749	109 289	62 944	40 559	28 444	24 629	21 122	23 022	30 440	39 021	366 608
Total	45 187	298 542	419 927	390 601	323 233	265 162	189 594	134 888	96 174	69 240	2 079 382
Total											
Employed	192 823	930 813	1 530 309	1 601 830	1 561 756	1 354 107	1 033 765	725 406	427 605	205 875	9 564 290
Unemployed	502 149	1 481 401	1 451 311	1 003 265	811 466	615 564	447 018	286 821	159 934	60 128	6 819 056
Not ec. active	4 286 753	1 882 314	953 320	735 805	698 549	649 790	606 597	625 791	617 729	799 284	11 855 931
Total	4 981 725	4 294 528	3 934 939	3 340 900	3 071 772	2 619 461	2 087 379	1 638 018	1 205 268	1 065 287	28 239 277

Unemployed according to the official definition
Excluding missing values

Labour market status and post-school qualifications: 2001

People with post-school qualifications, as we have seen, were more likely to be employed than those without. Figure 7.11 indicates the labour market status of people with post-school training by broad subject classification categories. It shows that labour market status varies by the type of qualification. For example, at the lower end, amongst those with home economics qualifications, 52,3% were employed, 15,3% were unemployed and looking for work, while 32,5% were not economically active. Amongst those with computer science and data processing qualifications, 54,5% were employed, 22,6% were unemployed and looking for work, while 22,9% were not economically active. At the higher end, amongst those with healthcare or health science qualifications, 76,1% were employed, 6,2% were unemployed and looking for work, while 17,6% were not economically active; amongst those with qualifications in agriculture or renewable natural resources, 76,8% were employed, 8,7% were unemployed and looking for work, while 14,5% were not economically active. Among those with qualifications in law, 77,2% were employed, 7,3% were unemployed and 15,5% were not economically active.

Figure 7.11: Distribution of the working-age population with post-school qualifications within each broad field of study, by labour market status, 2001



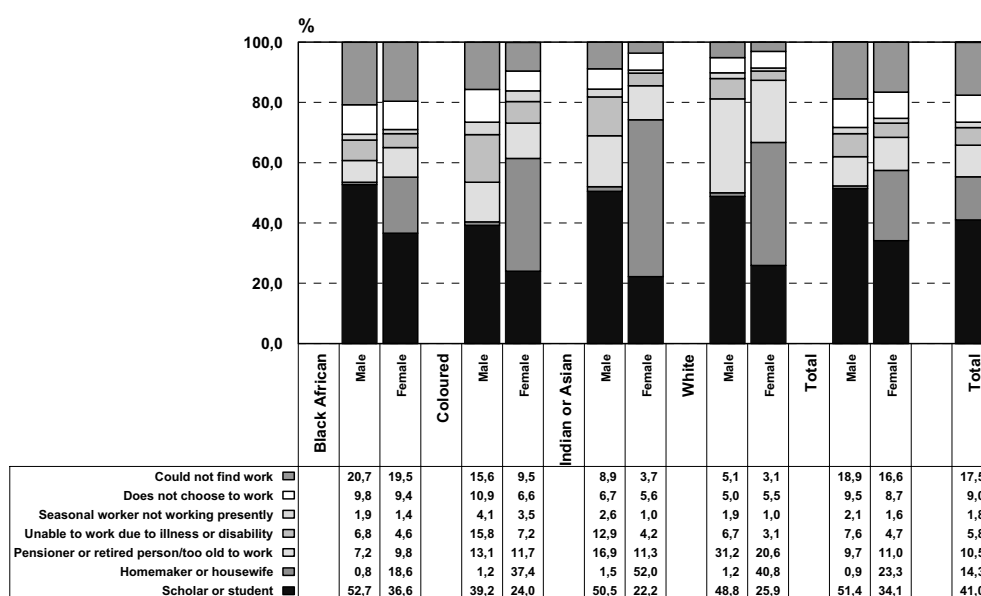
Source: Census 2001

Reasons for not working among the not economically active: 2001

Figure 7.12 examines, among those aged 15–65 years who were not economically active, disaggregated by population group and sex, the reasons why they were not working. The criterion of job-seeking behaviour is an important one used to distinguish the unemployed from the not economically active. The category ‘not economically active’ includes people who may have regarded themselves as unemployed, but who had not looked for work in the four weeks prior to census night. The category ‘could not find work’ can therefore apply meaningfully to people classified as not economically active, in that it appears over a longer reference period.

The most frequently stated reason that respondents gave for being not economically active was being a student or scholar (41,0%), followed by the inability to find work (17,5%). Among females, being a homemaker or housewife was given as a response by 23,3%. But this varied by population group. For example, among Indian/Asian females, 52,0% of the not economically active said they were homemakers, compared with 18,6% of black African females. A small percentage of males who were not economically active (0,9%) classified themselves as homemakers.

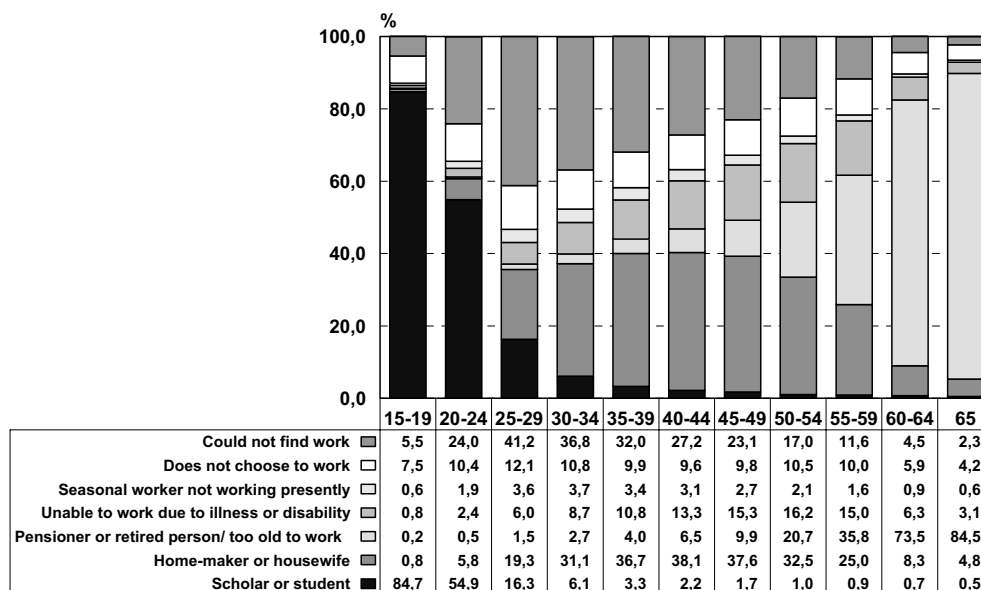
Figure 7.12: Among the working-age population that are not economically active, distribution by main reason for not working within population group and sex, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Figure 7.13 shows the same analysis for each five-year age category. As would be expected, different reasons predominate for different age categories. Among those aged 15–19 years, for example, 84,7% of the not economically active were scholars or students, but by age 20–24 years this percentage decreased to 54,9%, while 24,0% said they were not economically active because they could not find work. At age 25–29 years, 41,2% said they were not economically active because they could not find work. By the age of 60–64 years, 73,5% of those who were not economically active said that they were pensioners, retired or too old to work, increasing to 84,5% among 65 year-olds.

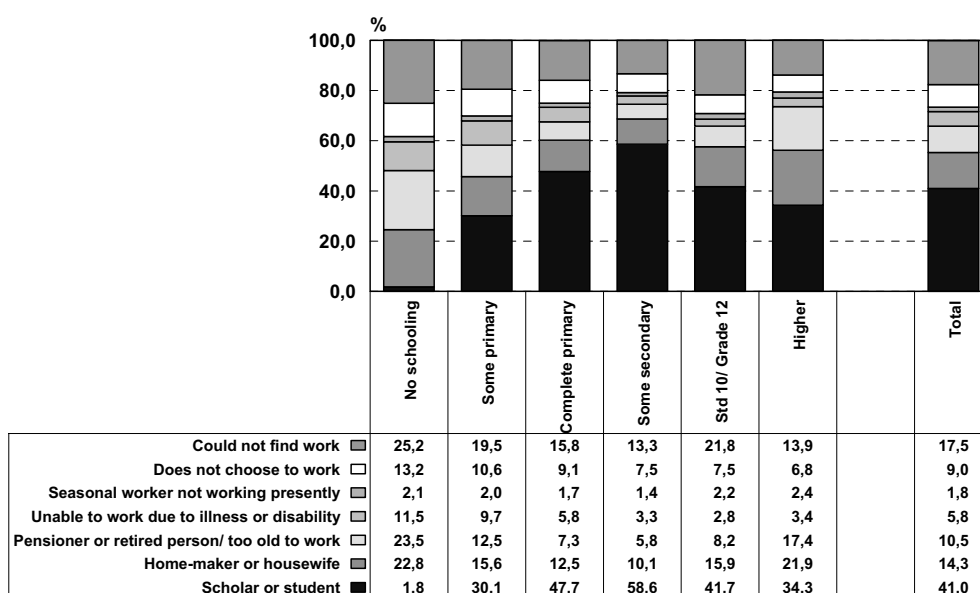
Figure 7.13: Among the working-age population that are not economically active, distribution by main reason for not working within age group, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Figure 7.14 shows the same analysis by highest level of education. The graph shows that, among those who were not economically active, reasons for not working also varied by highest level of education. Among those who were not economically active and who had not attended school, for example, being unable to find work (25,2%), being a pensioner or a retired person or being too old to work (23,5%), and being a home-maker (22,8%) were the most frequent reasons mentioned for this status. Among those with post-school qualifications who were not economically active, however, 34,3% were engaged in further studies, 21,9% were home-makers and 17,4% were retired or pensioners or too old to work.

Figure 7.14: Among the working-age population that are not economically active, distribution by main reason for not working within highest educational level, 2001



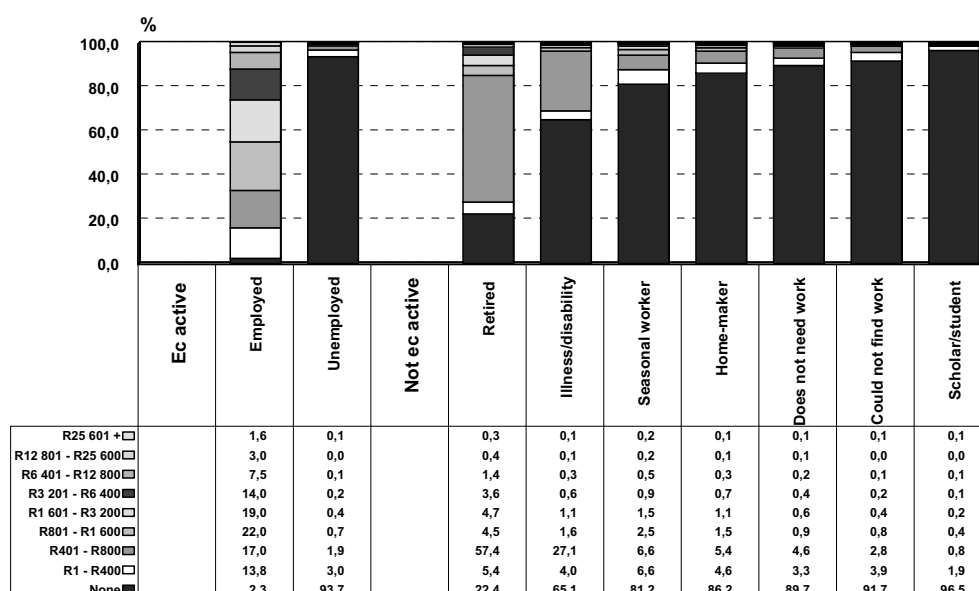
Source: Census 2001

Labour market status by income: 2001

Figure 7.15 examines the income of people aged 15–65 years by their labour market status, including reasons for not working among those who were not economically active.

The figure shows a wide distribution by income category among the employed, while the overwhelming majority of the unemployed said that they did not have any income. Among those who are not economically active, the majority of those who were retired (57,4%) were receiving between R401 and R800 per month, probably through pensions or other grants. More than a quarter of the ill or disabled who were unable to work (27,1%) were also receiving an income of between R401 and R800, probably as a pension or other grant. Almost all scholars and students who were not working (96,5%) did not receive any income.

Figure 7.15: Distribution of those aged 15–65 years by monthly income for the employed, the unemployed and each subgroup of the not economically active, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Summary

Census 2001 has certain limitations in relation to the labour market data that it collected, since a population census, particularly in developing countries, is not the most sensitive tool for collecting these types of figures.

The census employment figures should therefore be regarded as indicative, rather than as reflecting the full extent of employment in the country, particularly with regard to the informal sector. The census may at the same time overestimate the extent of unemployment in the country.

The official unemployment rates, in terms of Stats SA's past and present practices, are based on Stats SA's *labour force survey*, and not the population census.

Hence, in this report we do not give unemployment rates according to the official definition, but instead, we focus on the percentages found in the three internationally used labour-market status categories (the employed, unemployed and not economically active) to describe the work situation in the country.

In general, taking definitional differences between the two censuses into account, the proportion that was employed in 2001 (33,7%) was lower than in 1996 (38,0%), while the proportion that was unemployed was higher in 2001 (24,0%) than in 1996 (19,5%), whilst the proportion that was not economically active was similar in 2001 (42,3%) and in 1996 (42,5%).

Census 2001 showed that labour market status patterns change with age. The proportion of people who were not economically active in 2001 was curvilinear, steadily decreasing with age between the ages of 15 and 34 years. But after the age of 34 years there was a gradual increase in the proportion of people who were not economically active, followed by an accelerated and then a steep increase in this proportion when people neared retirement age.

There was likewise a curvilinear relationship between age and the variable of actually being employed. Between the ages of 15 and 34 years there is a steep increase in the proportion of people who were employed in 2001. Between the ages of 35 and 45 years, the proportion of people who were employed reaches a plateau. After this age, there is a decrease in the proportion that was employed.

On the other hand, the proportion of people who were unemployed tended to decrease with increasing age, and unemployment is seen as largely, though not entirely, a problem of youth.

Education and labour market status were also correlated. Among those aged 15–64 years who had an education level below Grade 12 in 2001, the proportion of employed people in each education category was relatively low (30,0% or lower). The proportion of those who were not economically active was relatively high (at least 40%), and the proportion of those who were unemployed but looking for work was also relatively high (approximately 25%). We therefore have a low labour absorption rate among those with qualifications lower than 12 years of schooling.

Among those with an educational level of Grade 12 or higher and those with certificates and diplomas, but without having completed Grade 12, in general the percentage of people who were employed increased with each additional qualification. For example, amongst those with Grade 12, 45,7% was employed, increasing to 85,6% among those with masters' degrees or doctorates.

When the variables of age and highest level of education are examined simultaneously, in all education categories the proportion who were unemployed and looking for work is highest among the age groups 20–34 years, while the proportion who were employed is highest among those aged 35–45 years. With each increase in level of education, particularly for Grade 12 or higher, a larger proportion of people were employed, irrespective of age.

Among people with post-school qualifications, although the proportion that was employed was generally higher than those without, labour market status varied by the type of qualification. For example, amongst those with home economics qualifications, 52,3% was employed, 15,3% was unemployed and looking for work, while 32,5% was not economically active. Amongst those with qualifications in law, on the other hand, 77,2% was employed, 7,3% was unemployed and 15,5% was not economically active.

Chapter 8 – The work situation of the employed

Introduction

In Chapter 7, we noted the distribution of people aged 15–65 years in South Africa by their labour market status according to responses given in Census 2001. In this chapter, we examine the work situation of the 9,6 million people who said they were employed at the time of the census by looking at the industries in which they worked, their occupations and their monthly income. Comparisons are also made, where applicable, between the work situation of the 9,1 million people who said they were employed at the time of Census 1996 and those who said they were employed at the time of Census 2001.¹¹

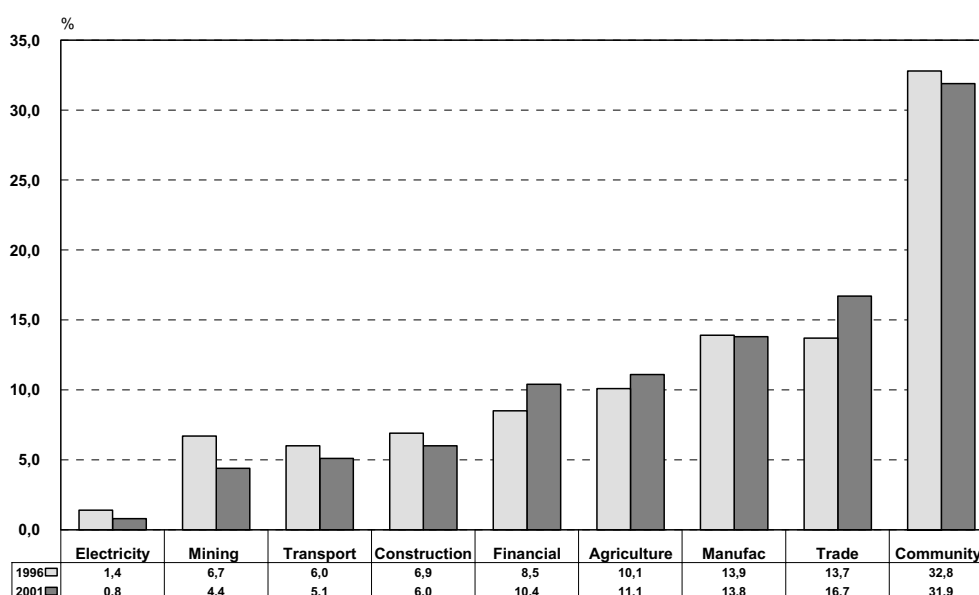
Industries in which employed people worked: 1996 and 2001

Figure 8.1 compares the percentage of people working in each industry in 1996 and 2001. It shows that in certain industries, this percentage decreased between the censuses, while in others the percentage increased.

**Increase in proportions working
in financial and business
services, and in trade**

- For example, the proportion of people working in mining and quarrying decreased from 6,7% in 1996 to 4,4% in 2001; and the percentage of people working in transport, storage and communication also dropped, from 6,0% to 5,1%.
- On the other hand the percentage of people working in financial, insurance, real estate and business services increased from 8,5% in 1996 to 10,4% in 2001; the proportion of people working in wholesale and retail trade increased from 13,7% in 1996 to 16,7% in 2001.
- The category ‘community, personal and social services’ in this graph includes those working in private households to enable comparisons between 1996 and 2001. The percentage of this combined category dropped from 32,8% in 1996 to 31,9% in 2001. (In the graphs that follow describing only 2001 findings, the two categories are kept separate.)
- The percentage of people working in manufacturing remained approximately the same between the two censuses (13,9% in 1996 and 13,8% in 2001).

¹¹ The cautions given in Chapter 7 and Appendix 2 regarding under-reporting of employment generally, and informal sector activity in particular, also apply here. The number of people who were actually employed at the time of both censuses, but particularly in 2001, may have been underestimated, since it is highly likely that a large number of those working in the informal sector identified themselves as either unemployed or else as not economically active. These census-based employment figures should therefore be regarded as indicative, rather than as reflecting the full extent of employment in the country at the time of the censuses.

Figure 8.1: Percentage of the employed in each industry, 1996 and 2001

Source: Census 1996 and 2001

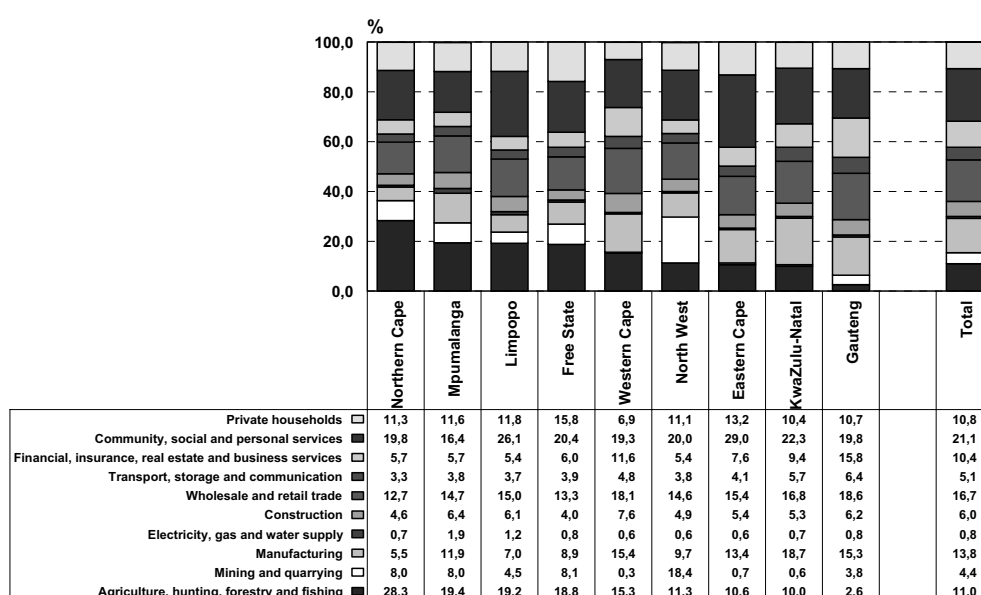
* The category community, social and personal services includes private households.

Industries in which employed people worked by province: 2001

Figure 8.2 clearly indicates that the industries in which people worked in October 2001 varied significantly by province.

- In Northern Cape, for example, almost three in every ten employed people (28,3%) worked in agriculture, hunting, forestry or fishing in 2001, while relatively few or just over one in twenty (5,5%) worked in manufacturing.
- In Gauteng, on the other hand, only three in every hundred people (2,6%) worked in agriculture, hunting, forestry or fishing, while approximately one in every seven people (15,3%) worked in manufacturing.
- In provinces containing the former so-called TBVC states (Transkei, Bophutatswana, Venda and Ciskei), a larger percentage of people than the national percentage (21,1%) worked in community, social and personal services. For example, almost one in every three employed people in Eastern Cape (29,0%), and more than one in every four in Limpopo (26,1%) worked in community, social, and personal services (particularly government services).
- In Gauteng (15,8%) and Western Cape (11,6%) a larger percentage of people worked in financial, insurance, real estate and business services than in the other provinces and in the country as a whole (10,4%).
- In North West, a larger proportion of people (18,4%) worked in mining and quarrying than in the other provinces or the country as a whole (4,4%).

Figure 8.2: Distribution of the employed in each province by industry, 2001



Source: Census 2001
Excluding undetermined industry

Industries in which employed people worked by population group and sex: 2001

Figure 8.3 shows the differences in the proportions of people working in different industries within population group and sex in 2001.

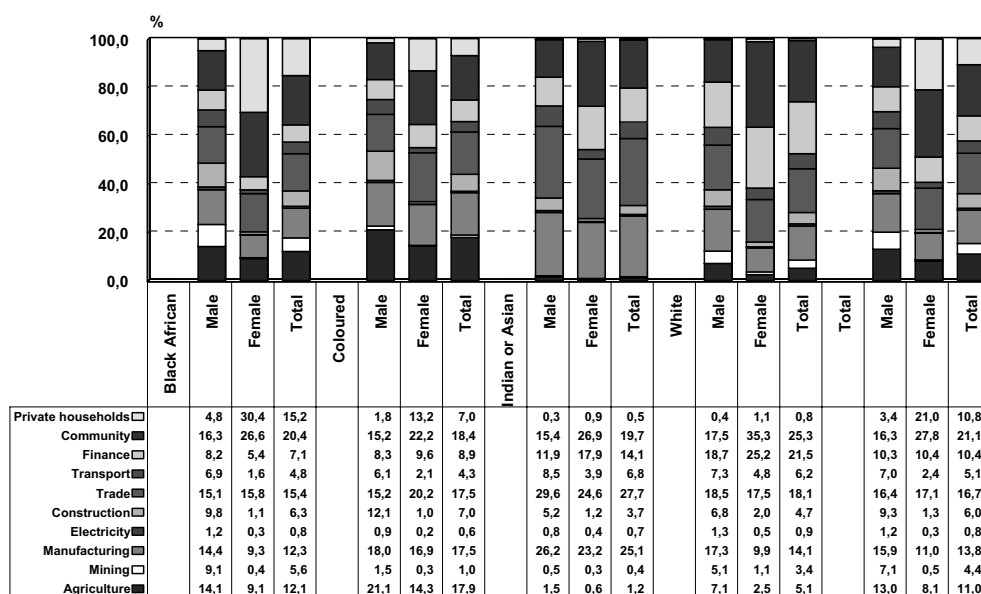
Men work in more diverse industries than women

- Black African employed males were found working in various industries across the spectrum, notably community, personal and social services (16,3%), wholesale and retail trade (15,1%), manufacturing (14,4%) and agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing (14,1%).
- More than three in every ten black African employed females, on the other hand, were working in private households (30,4%). A relatively large proportion of black African females were also working in community, social and personal services (26,6%), and wholesale and retail trade (15,8%).
- Coloured males who were employed were found largely in agriculture (21,1%), manufacturing (18,0%), wholesale and retail trade (15,2%), community, social and personal services (15,2%) and construction (12,1%).
- Coloured females, on the other hand, were largely found working in community, social and personal services (22,2%), trade (20,2%), manufacturing (16,9%), agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing (14,3%) and private households (13,2%).
- More than half of all employed Indian/Asian males (55,8%) were found in two industries, namely trade (29,6%) and manufacturing (26,2%).
- However, almost three-quarters of all employed Indian/Asian females (74,7%) were found in three industries, namely community, social and personal services (26,9%), trade (24,6%) and manufacturing (23,2%).
- Employed white males were working in a wide variety of industries including financial, insurance, real estate and business services (18,7%), trade (18,5%), community, social and personal services (17,5%) and manufacturing (17,3%).

- More than one in every three employed white females, on the other hand, was found in community, social and personal services (35,3%). More than a quarter was found in financial, insurance, real estate and business services (25,2%).

In general, working males tended to be found in a greater variety of industries than working females.

Figure 8.3: Distribution of the employed by industry within population group and sex, 2001



Source: Census 2001
Excluding undetermined industry

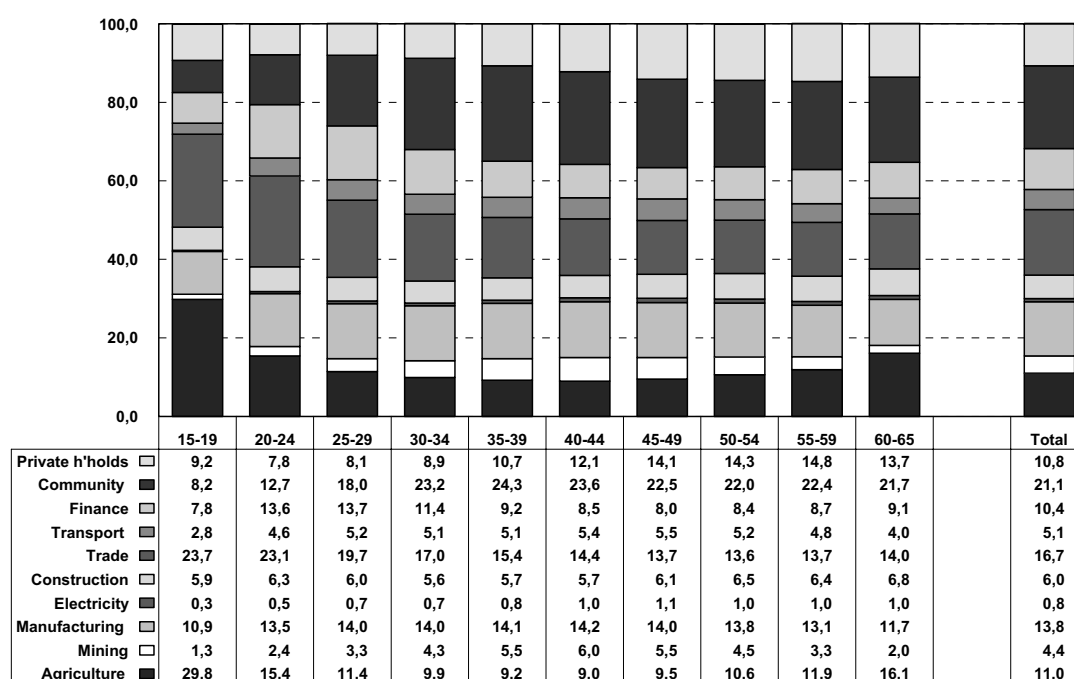
Industries in which employed people worked by age group: 2001

Regarding differences in the industries in which people worked in October 2001 by five-year age category, Figure 8.4 shows that:

Industry correlates with age

- A larger percentage of employed people in both the youngest (15–19 years, 29,8%; 20–24 years, 15,4%) and oldest age groups (55–59 years, 11,9%; 60–65 years, 16,1%) worked in agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing than in the other age groups (overall percentage 11,0%).
- The percentage of employed people working in private households was higher than the overall average percentage (10,8%) from 40 years upwards. These people were working mainly as domestic workers.
- The percentage of employed people working in the community, social and personal services sector was above the national overall percentage (21,1%) from the age of 30 years onwards.
- The percentage of people working in wholesale and retail trade tended to decrease with increasing age.

Figure 8.4: Distribution of the employed in each age group by industry, 2001



Source: Census 2001
Excluding undetermined industry

Industries in which employed people worked by highest level of education: 2001

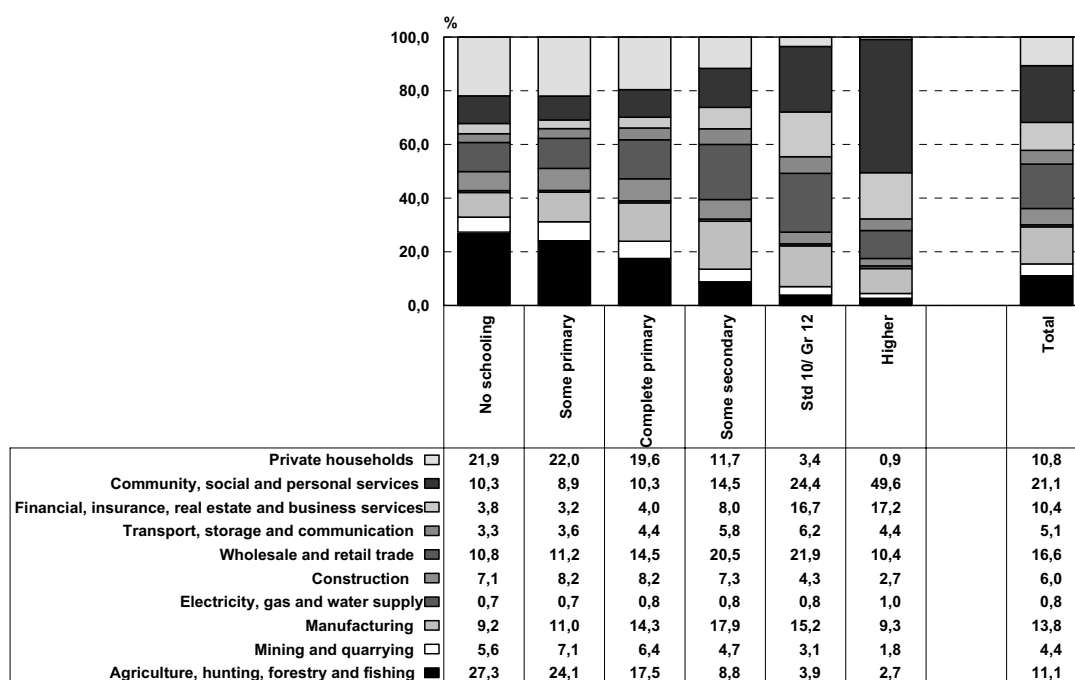
The industry in which people worked in October 2001 varied significantly by their highest level of education.

Figure 8.5 indicates that the lower the level of education, the more likely employed people were to work either in the agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing sector or in private households. For example, of those with no education 27,3% were working in agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing, and 21,9% were working in the private household sector. Among those with post-school qualifications, however, only 2,7% were working in agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing, and 0,9% were working in the private household sector.

The employed with no education largely found in agriculture and private households

On the other hand, the higher the level of education, the more likely employed people were to be working in the community, social and personal services, or the financial, insurance, real estate and business services sectors. For example, among those with no schooling, 10,3% were working in the community, social and personal services sector, compared with 49,6% of those with post-school qualifications. Only 3,8% of those with no schooling were working in the financial, insurance, real estate and business services sector, compared with 17,2% of those with post-school qualifications.

Figure 8.5: Distribution of the employed in each educational level by industry, 2001



Source: Census 2001
Excluding unknown industry

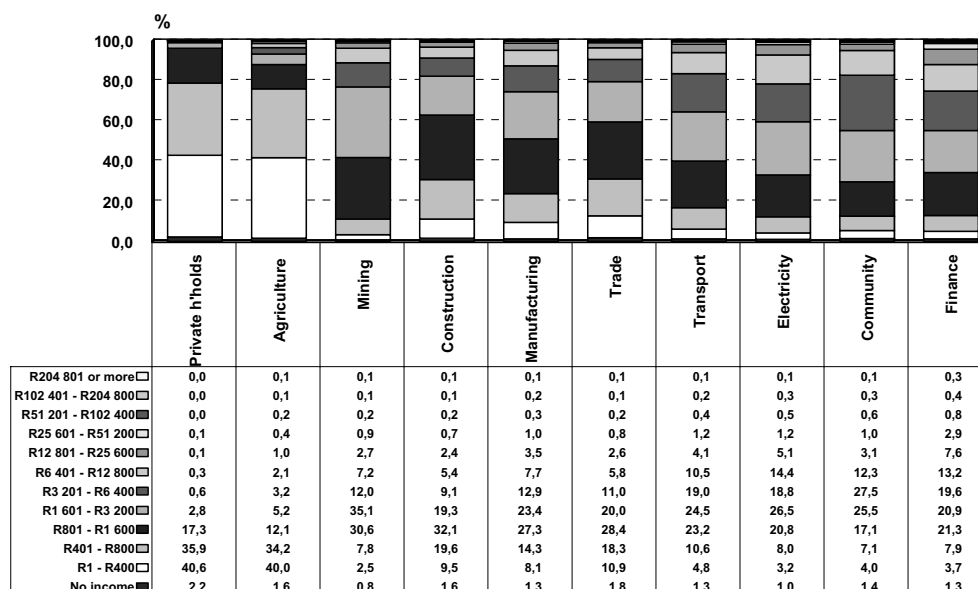
Monthly income of employed people by industry: 2001

The income of employed individuals varied considerably depending on the industry in which they worked in October 2001.

Earnings related to industry in which one works

- For example, Figure 8.6 shows that approximately three-quarters of those working in private households (76,5%) and in agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing (74,2%) were earning between R1 and R800 per month.
- Among those working in wholesale and retail trade, more than half (57,6%) were earning slightly more, i.e. between R1 and R1 600 per month.
- In mining and quarrying (77,7%), manufacturing (63,6%) and construction (60,5%), however, people in general were earning more than those in trade, since more than three-quarters were in the income brackets from R801 to R6 400 per month.
- In community, social and personal services, eight in ten people (82,4%) and in the financial, insurance, real estate and business services industry three-quarters (75,0%) were earning between R801 and R12 800 a month.
- At the top end of the scale, 12,0% of those in the financial, insurance, real estate and business services industry were earning R12 801 or more per month, compared with 7,2% of those in the electricity, gas and water supply industry, 6,0% in transport, storage and communication, 5,1% in the community, social and personal services industry, 5,1% in manufacturing, 4,0% in mining and quarrying, 3,8% in wholesale and retail trade, 1,8% in agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing, and only 0,2% in private households.

Figure 8.6: Distribution of the employed in each industry by income category, 2001



Source: Census 2001
Excluding undetermined industry

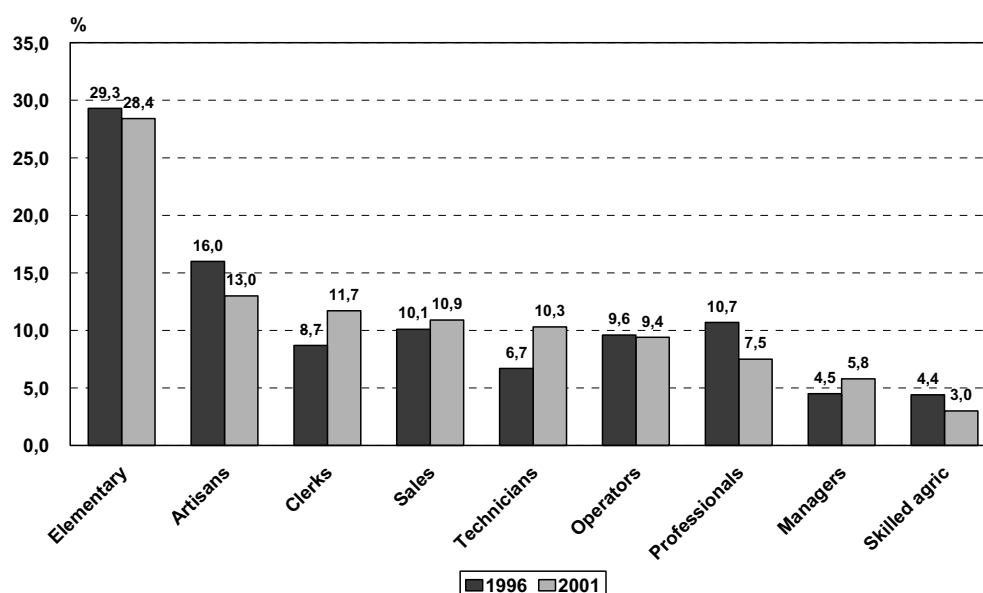
Occupations of the employed: 1996 and 2001

Figure 8.7 compares the percentage of people working in each occupation in 1996 and 2001. It shows that in certain occupations this percentage decreased, while in others the percentage increased.

**Largest increase in technicians,
largest decrease in professionals**

- For example, the proportion of people working as managers increased from 4,5% in 1996 to 5,8% in 2001.
- On the other hand the percentage of people working as professionals decreased from 10,7% in 1996 to 7,5% in 2001, but the proportion working as associate professionals and technicians increased from 6,7% to 10,3%.
- In general, there was a change towards higher skill-levels over the inter-censal period, i.e. proportionately fewer blue-collar and proportionately more white-collar jobs.

Figure 8.7: Percentage of the employed in each occupation, 1996 and 2001



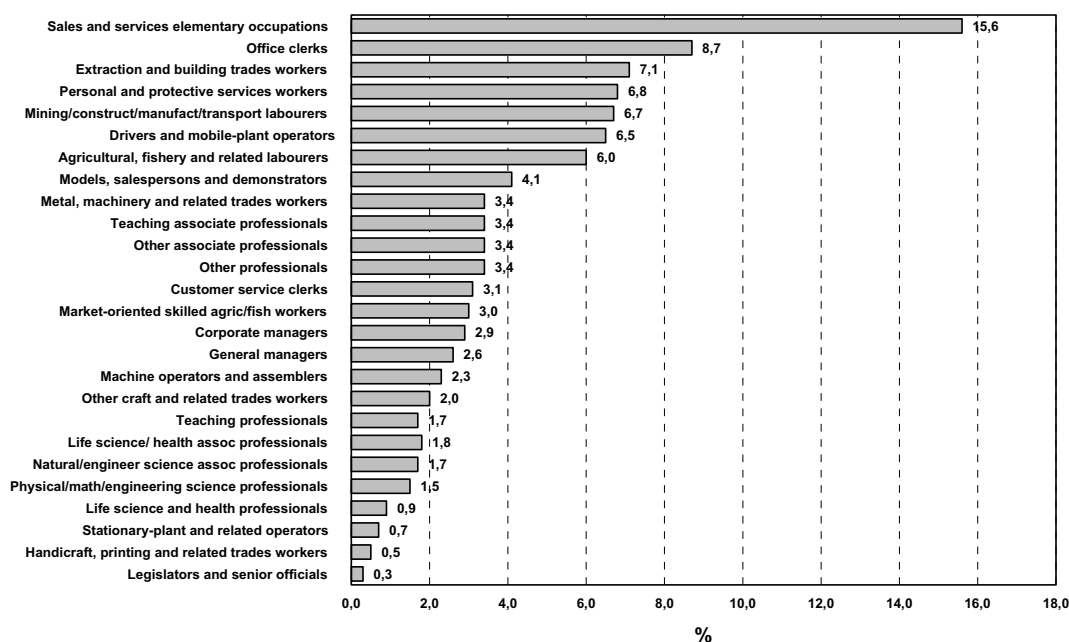
Source: Census 1996 and 2001
Excluding undetermined occupation

Occupations of the employed in more detail: 2001

Figure 8.8 gives a more detailed breakdown of the occupations in which employed people worked, according to the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) two-digit level. Sales and services elementary occupations form the largest group of these smaller occupational classification breakdowns (15,6%), while legislators and senior officials form the smallest (0,3%).

**Sales and service
elementary occupations the
most frequent**

Figure 8.8: Distribution of the employed by detailed occupation category, 2001



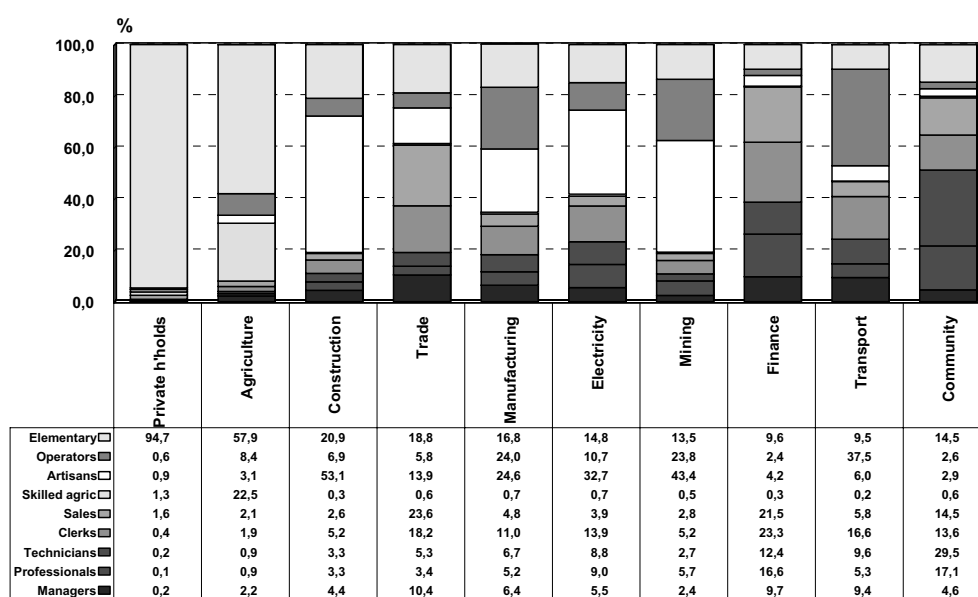
Source: Census 2001
Excluding undetermined occupations

Occupation by industry among the employed: 2001

Figure 8.9 indicates the relationship between occupation and industry in Census 2001. In general, people with elementary jobs were more likely to be found in sectors such as private households and agriculture, while people in professional and associate professional or technical occupations were more likely to be found in, for example, financial, insurance, real estate and business services; and community, social and personal services.

- For example, almost all those working in private households were in elementary occupations (94,7%).
- In the agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing industry, the vast majority of people were in either elementary (57,9%) or skilled agricultural (22,5%) occupations.
- Just over half (53,1%) of the employed people working in the construction industry were employed as craft and related trade workers or artisans.
- The mining sector employed mainly artisans (43,4%), operators (23,8%) or those in elementary occupations (13,5%).
- In financial, insurance, real estate and business services the majority were working in three occupations, namely, sales (21,5%), clerical (23,3%) and professional (16,6%) occupations; and in the community, social and personal services industry, one in every three people (29,5%) was working in a professional occupation.

Figure 8.9: Distribution of the employed in each industry by occupation, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Excluding undetermined industry and/or occupation

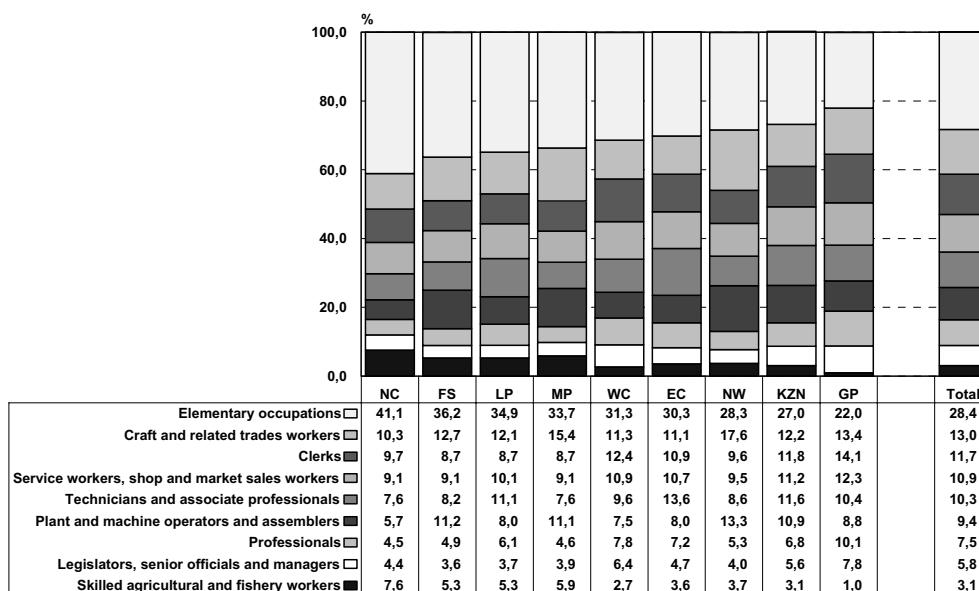
Occupation by province among the employed: 2001

Figure 8.10 shows the distribution of occupations by province in October 2001.

- Northern Cape (41,1%) and Free State (36,2%) had the largest percentage of employed people working in elementary occupations, while KwaZulu-Natal (27,0%) and Gauteng (22,0%) had the lowest.
- Limpopo (3,7%) and Free State (3,6%) had the lowest percentage of employed people working as legislators, senior officials and managers, whereas Gauteng (7,8%) and Western Cape (6,4%) had the highest.
- Gauteng (10,1%) and Western Cape (7,8%) had the highest percentage of employed people working as professionals, whereas Northern Cape (4,5%) and Mpumalanga (4,6%) had the lowest.

Largest proportions of elementary jobs in Northern Cape and Free State

Figure 8.10: Distribution of the employed in each province by occupation, 2001



Source: Census 2001
Excluding undetermined occupation

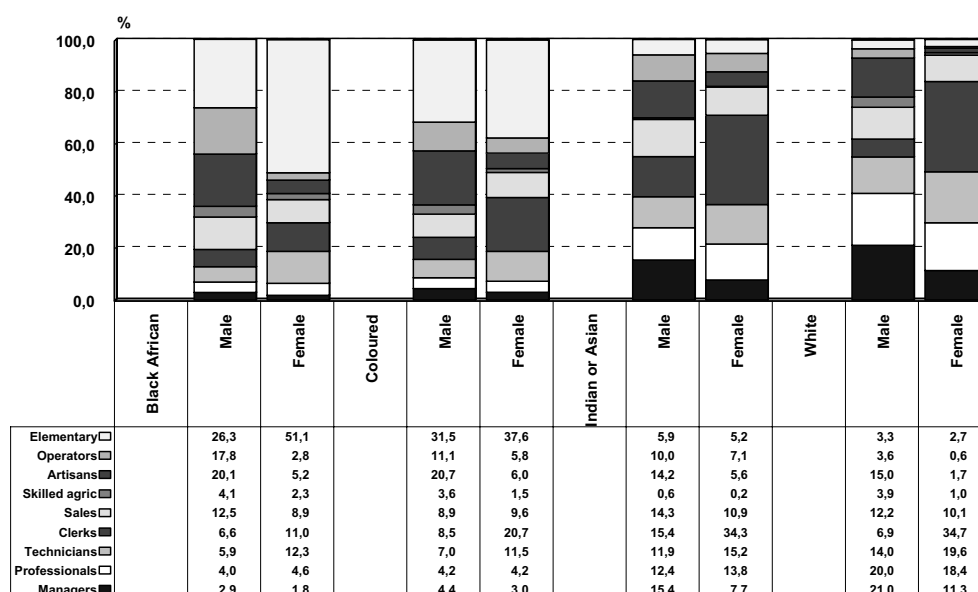
Occupation by population group and sex among the employed: 2001

The racial and gender divide by occupation was still clearly evident in Census 2001.

- Figure 8.11 shows that 51,1% of black African and 37,6% of coloured employed females were working in elementary occupations, as against 5,2% of Indian/Asian and 2,7% of white females.
- Just over a quarter (26,3%) of black African and 31,5% of coloured employed males were also working in elementary occupations, as against 5,9% of Indian/Asian and 3,3% of white males.
- More than one in every three employed white (34,7%) and Indian/Asian (34,3%) females were working in clerical occupations, compared with one in five (20,7%) employed coloured and one in ten (11,0%) employed black African females.
- Four in ten employed white males (41,0%) were working in managerial and professional occupations, compared with smaller proportions of Indian/Asian (27,8%), coloured (8,6%) and black African (6,9%) employed males.

Majority of African women employed in elementary occupations

Figure 8.11: Distribution of the employed by occupation within population group and sex, 2001



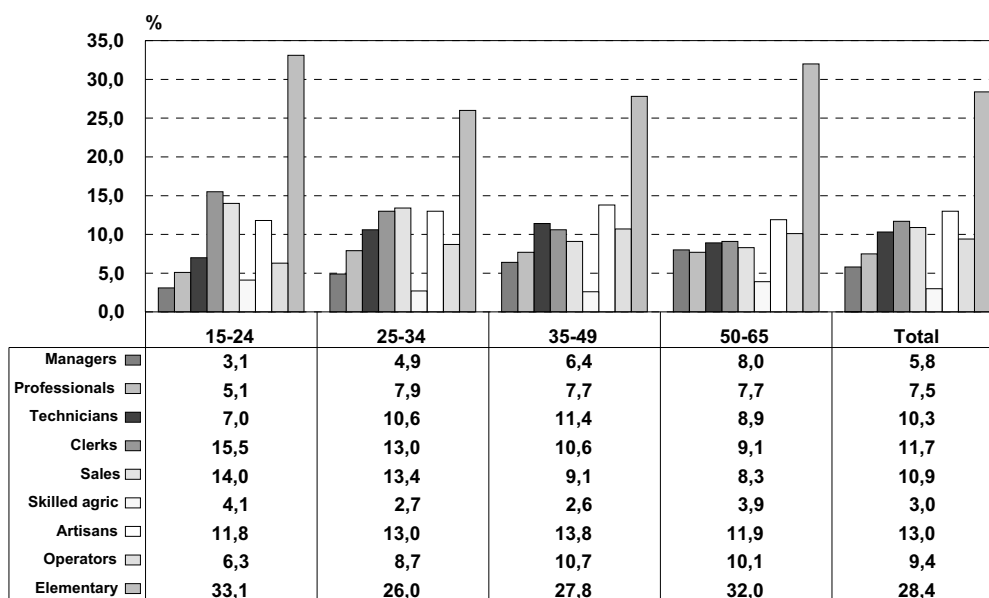
Source: Census 2001
Excluding undetermined occupation

Occupation by age category among the employed: 2001

There are some interesting findings regarding variation in the occupations in which employed people worked by age category.

- For example, Figure 8.12 indicates that a larger proportion than the overall average (28,4%) of both younger (15–24 years, 33,1%) and older (50–65 years, 32,0%) employed people worked in elementary occupations in 2001.
- In the category ‘legislators, senior officials and managers’ there was a larger proportion of employed people than average (5,8%) in the two older age categories (35–49 years, 6,4% and 50–65 years, 8,0%).
- On the other hand, a larger proportion than average of clerical staff and service and sales workers were in the younger age categories. For example, 15,5% of the employed aged 15–24 years were in clerical occupations, and 14,0% were in service and sales occupations, compared with 11,7% who were clerks, and 10,9% overall who were in services and sales occupations.

Figure 8.12: Distribution of the employed by occupation within broad age group, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Occupation by education among the employed: 2001

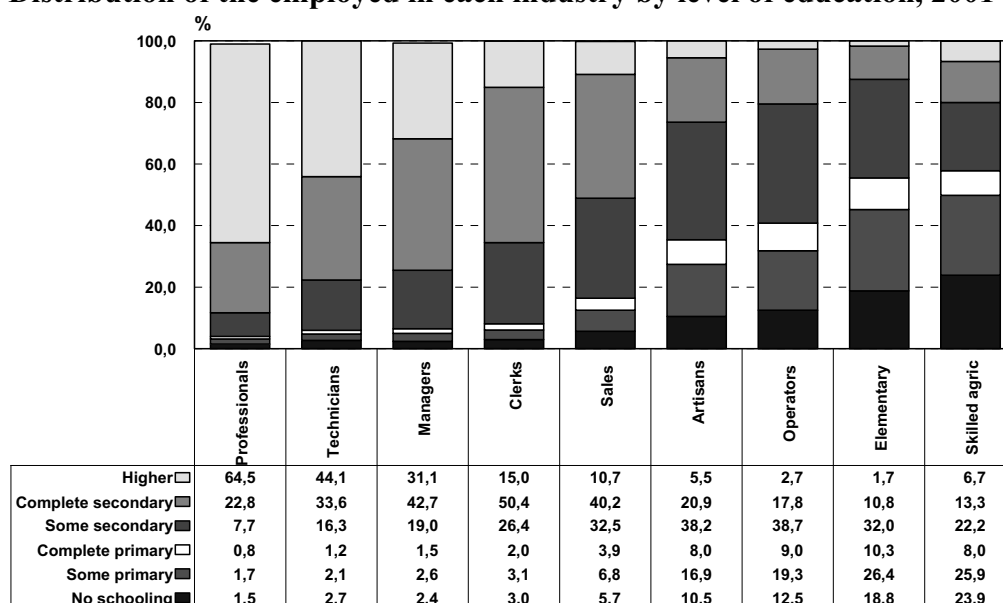
As would be expected, Figure 8.13 shows that among employed people, the type of occupation is associated with highest level of education. Professionals were largely those with complete secondary school education (22,8%) or post-school qualifications (64,5%), whereas the vast majority of those in elementary occupations (87,5%) had an incomplete, if any, school education (Grade 11 or lower).

Higher level jobs and higher level education go hand in hand

The focus of Figure 8.14 is on those with post-school qualifications. It shows that, in general, people with lower level post-school qualifications such as a certificate or diploma were less likely to be in professional or managerial occupations than those with university qualifications. The higher the level of qualification, the more likely the person was to be in a professional or managerial occupation.

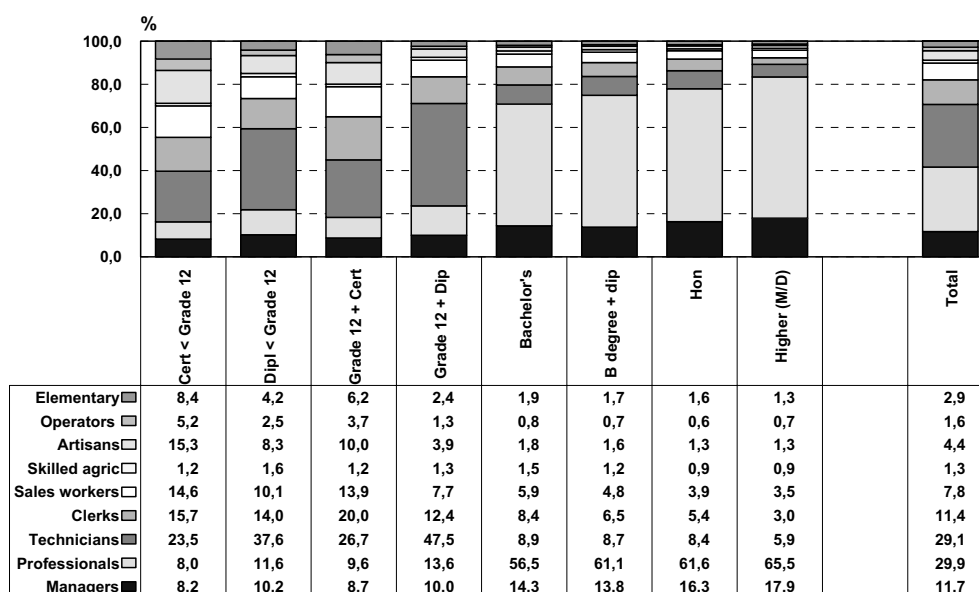
- For example, among the employed who had a certificate or diploma without Grade 12, the majority (53,8%) were sales workers, clerks or technicians or associated professionals.
- More than half of those with Bachelor (first) degrees (56,5%) were professionals.
- The higher the level of qualification, the larger the proportion of employed people in managerial positions. For example, 10,0% of those with Grade 12 and a certificate or diploma were managers, rising to 17,9% of those with masters' degrees or doctorates.

Figure 8.13: Distribution of the employed in each industry by level of education, 2001



Source: Census 2001
Excluding undetermined occupation and education

Figure 8.14: Distribution of the employed with post-school qualifications in each educational level category by occupation, 2001

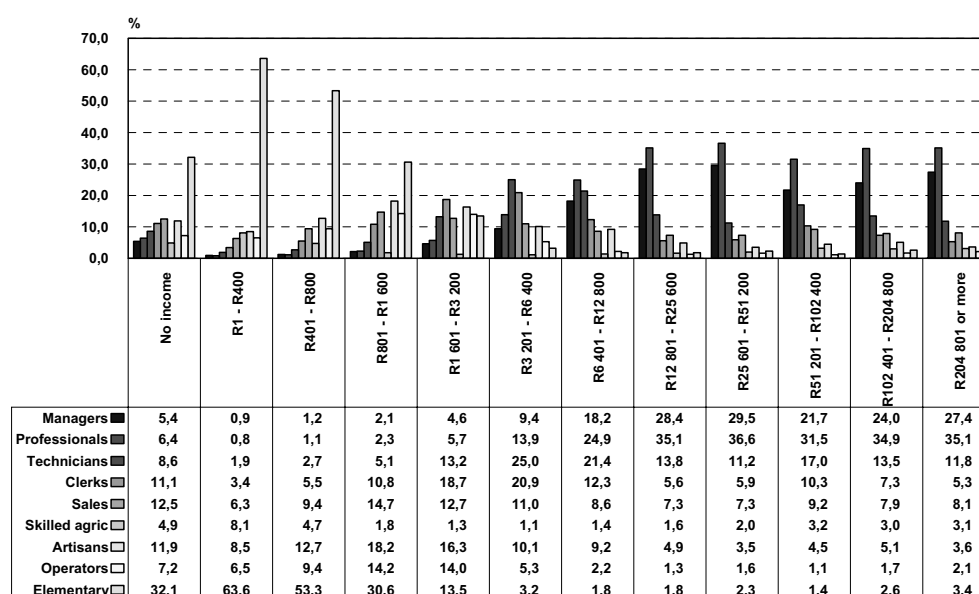


Source: Census 2001
Excluding undetermined occupation and education

Occupation by income among the employed: 2001

Figure 8.15 shows an expected pattern. Employed people with lower monthly incomes were likely to be in elementary and blue-collar occupations, while those with higher incomes were likely to be in managerial and professional occupations.

Figure 8.15: Distribution of the employed in each monthly income category by occupation, 2001

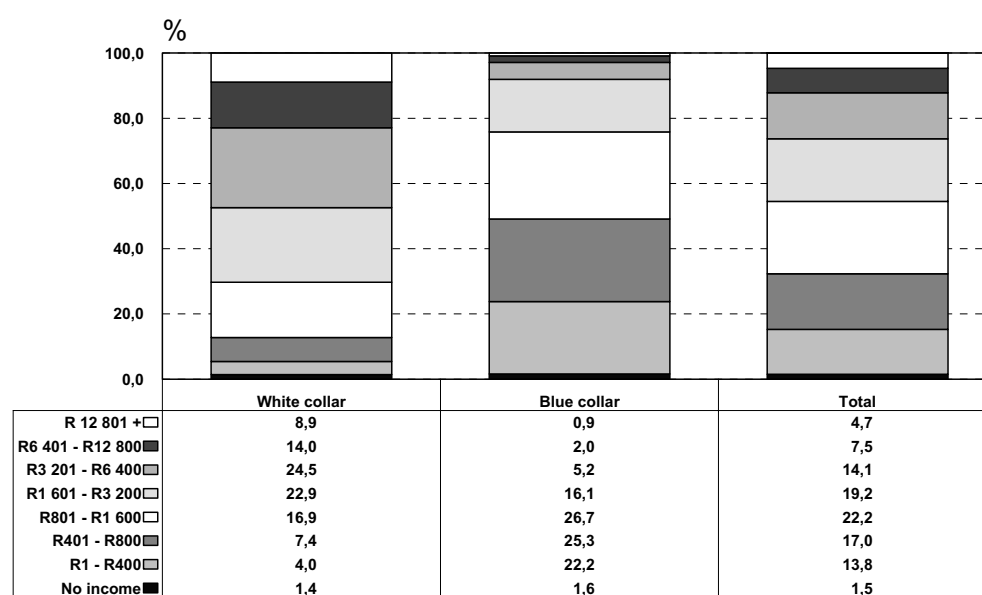


Source: Census 2001
Excluding undetermined occupations

Figure 8.16 identifies people in managerial, professional, associated professional, clerical and sales occupations as white-collar workers, and those in skilled agriculture, artisan, operator and elementary occupations as blue-collar workers. It shows the clear differences in monthly income categories of white-collar and blue-collar workers.

- For example, 4,0% of white-collar workers earned R1 – R400 per month in October 2001 compared to 22,2% of blue-collar workers.
- Nearly a quarter (24,5%) of white-collar workers earned R3 201 – R6 400, compared to 5,2% of blue-collar workers.

Figure 8.16: Distribution of white collar, blue collar and total workers by monthly income category, 2001



Source: Census 2001
Excluding undetermined occupation or income

Summary

In this chapter, we examined the work situation of the 9,6 million people who said they were employed at the time of the census by looking at the industries in which they worked, their occupations and their monthly income. There are also comparisons made, where applicable, between these people and the 9,1 million people who said they were employed at the time of Census 1996. The cautions already given regarding under-reporting of employment generally, and informal sector activity in particular, also apply here.

Some changes have taken place in the distribution of employment across industries. For example, the proportion of people working in mining and quarrying decreased from 6,7% in 1996 to 4,4% in 2001. On the other hand the percentage of people working in financial, insurance, real estate and business services increased from 8,5% in 1996 to 10,4% in 2001.

The industries in which people worked in October 2001 varied significantly by province. In the Northern Cape, for example, almost three in every ten employed people (28,3%) worked in agriculture, hunting, forestry or fishing in 2001, while relatively few or just over one in twenty (5,5%) worked in manufacturing. In Gauteng, on the other hand, only three in every hundred people (2,6%) worked in agriculture, hunting, forestry or fishing, while approximately one in every seven people (15,3%) worked in manufacturing.

There were also differences in the proportions of people working in different industries by both population group and sex. In general, a larger proportion of employed black Africans and coloureds were found in agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing than the Indian/Asian or white employed. Working males tended to be found in a greater variety of industries than working females.

Age was also related to the industries in which people worked in October 2001. For example, a larger percentage of employed people in both the youngest and the oldest age groups worked in agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing than in the other age groups. Another example is that older people tended to work in private households. The percentage of employed people working in private households was higher than the overall average percentage amongst those found in the age categories of 40 years and older. These people were working mainly as domestic workers.

The industry in which people worked in October 2001 also varied significantly by their highest level of education. The lower the level of education, the more likely employed people were to work either in the agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing sector or in private households. The higher the level of education, the more likely employed people were to be working in the community, social and personal services, or the financial, insurance, real estate and business services sectors.

There was also a clear relationship between the income of employed individuals and the industry in which they worked in October 2001. For example, approximately three-quarters of those working in private households (76,5%) and in agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing (74,2%) were earning between R1 and R800 per month. At the top end of the scale, 12,0% of those in the financial, insurance, real estate and business services industry were earning R12 801 or more per month, compared with lower percentages among those in other industries.

Regarding occupation, in general, there has been a change towards higher skill-levels over the intercensal period, i.e. these were proportionately fewer blue-collar and proportionally more white-collar jobs in 2001 than in 1996.

There was a distinct relationship between occupation and industry in Census 2001. In general, people with elementary jobs were more likely to be found in certain sectors such as private households and agriculture, while people in professional and associated professional or technical occupations were more likely to be found in different sectors, for example financial, insurance, real estate and business services; and community, social and personal services.

Occupations also varied by province. For example, Northern Cape and Free State had the largest percentage of employed people working in elementary occupations, while KwaZulu-Natal and Gauteng had the smallest. Limpopo and Free State had the lowest percentage of employed people working as legislators, senior officials and managers, whereas Gauteng and Western Cape had the highest.

The racial and gender divide by occupation was still clearly evident in South Africa in 2001. Black African and coloured employed males and females were far more likely to be working in elementary occupations than Indian/Asian and white males and females. Employed white and Indian/Asian females were more likely to work in clerical occupations than coloured and black African females. Larger proportions of white males were working in managerial and professional occupations, compared with smaller proportions of Indian/Asian, coloured and black African males.

There was also some variation in the occupations in which employed people worked by their age. For example, a larger proportion of both younger and older employed people than the overall average worked in elementary occupations in 2001. There were larger proportions of employed people working as legislators, senior officials and managers in the older than in the younger age categories. On the other hand, a larger proportion of clerical staff and service and sales workers were mainly found in the younger age categories.

As would be expected, among employed people, the type of occupation was closely associated with the highest level of education. Professionals were largely those with post-school qualifications, whereas the vast majority of those in elementary occupations had incomplete, if any, school education.

Regarding post-school qualifications, in general, those with lower level post-school qualifications such as a certificate or diploma were less likely to be in professional or managerial occupations than those with university qualifications. The higher the level of qualification, the more likely the person was to be in a professional or managerial occupation.

Another expected pattern was also confirmed. Those with lower monthly incomes were likely to be in elementary and blue-collar occupations. Those with higher incomes were likely to be in white collar, managerial and professional occupations.

Chapter 9 – Travel to an educational institution or work

Introduction

In this chapter, we focus on a new question that was posed to respondents in Census 2001, regarding travelling to school (or other educational institutions), or work. Our users of census data specifically requested us to include these questions in the questionnaire to enable them to use this information for their respective policy developments. Transport information is important, not only for planners of transport means and routes, but also for educators and employers.¹²

Travel to an educational institution: 2001

Table 9.1 shows the number of people attending an educational institution by the way in which they reached it. For example, of the 12,0 million schoolgoers, 9,9 million walked to and from school each day in 2001, while 815 000 travelled by car as passengers, 605 000 went by minibus/taxi, 81 000 travelled by bus, 73 000 by bicycle, and 23 778 used other means.

Vast majority of schoolgoers walk to school

Table 9.1: Means of transport used by people attending an educational institution by type of institution (numbers), 2001

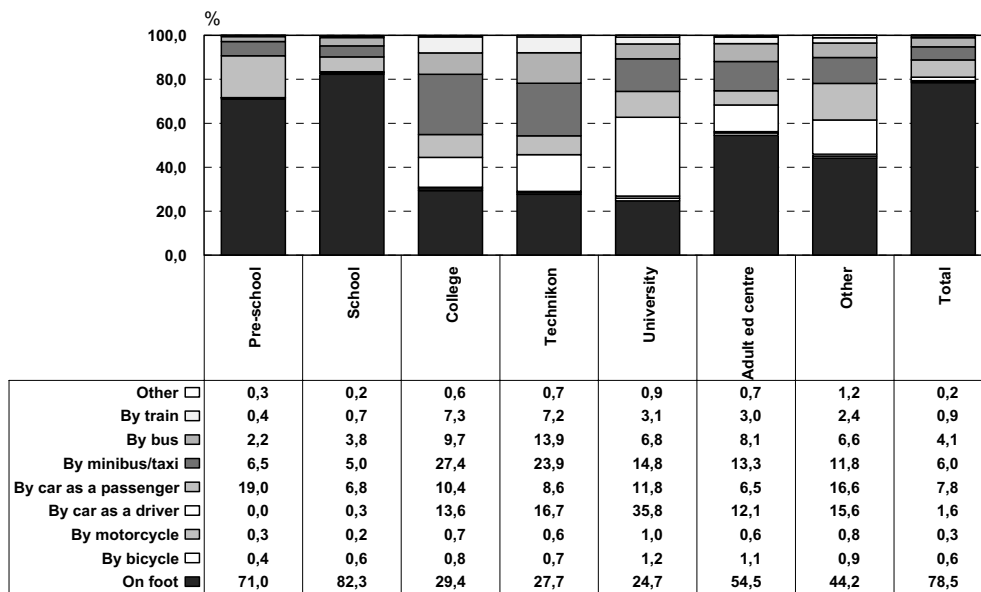
	On foot	By bicycle	By motorcycle	By car as a driver	By car as a passenger	By minibus/taxi	By bus	By train	Other	Total
Pre-school	619 005	3 727	3 020	0	165 439	56 587	18 844	3 169	2 560	872 351
School	9 897 862	73 092	28 937	36 830	815 338	605 161	462 151	81 202	23 778	12 024 351
College	70 007	2 023	1 663	32 333	24 808	65 344	23 040	17 350	1 540	238 108
Technikon	51 425	1 218	1 152	31 036	15 897	44 401	25 739	13 387	1 292	185 548
University	70 794	3 402	2 732	102 916	33 858	42 510	19 517	8 804	2 590	287 123
Adult education centre	29 857	584	342	6 608	3 572	7 291	4 454	1 652	395	54 753
Other	20 638	434	352	7 303	7 744	5 505	3 074	1 114	550	46 713
Total	10 759 589	84 479	38 199	217 026	1 066 656	826 798	556 818	126 678	32 704	13 708 948

Figure 9.1, based on Table 9.1, indicates that among those attending an educational institution, the mode of travel varied by type of institution attended.

- The vast majority of those attending school (82,3%) or pre-school (71,0%) walked to and from these institutions in 2001.
- Just over half (54,5%) of those attending an adult education centre walked to reach it.
- Among those attending higher education institutions in 2001, a variety of means were used to reach them. For example, to reach university, 24,7% of students walked, while 35,8% travelled by car as drivers, 14,8% used a minibus/taxi, 11,8% travelled by car as passengers, 6,8% used a bus and 3,1% a train.

¹² Comparisons of 2001 findings with 1996 are not possible since these questions were not asked in 1996.

Figure 9.1: Distribution of those attending each type of educational institution by means of travel used, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Travel to three selected types of educational institution by population group and sex: 2001

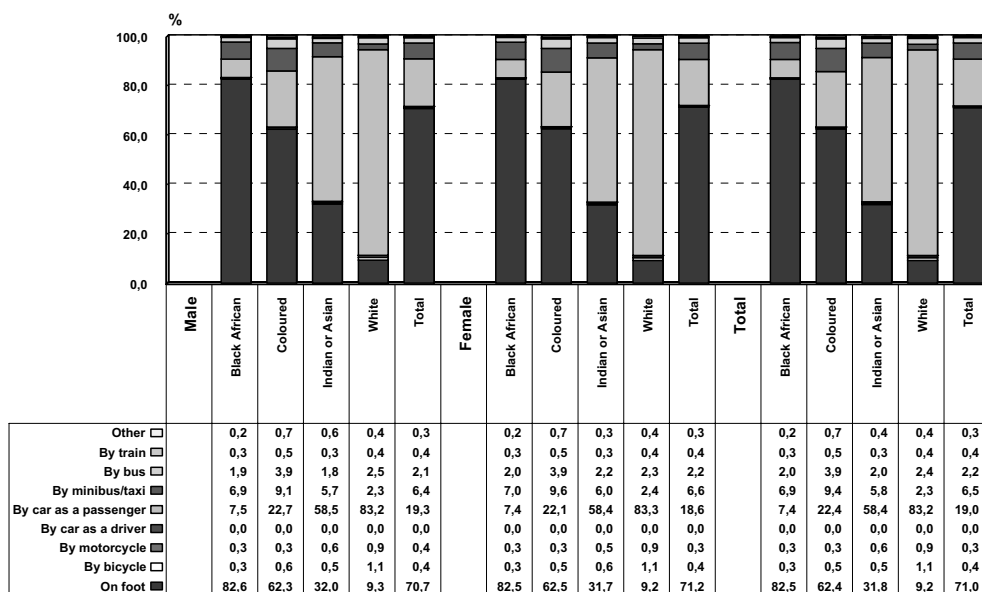
In this section, three representative institutions have been selected – pre-school, school and university – to examine the different means of travel according to population group and sex.

Africans most likely to walk to an educational institution

Among those attending either pre-school or school, the sex of the child was not clearly directly associated with the means of travel to reach these institutions, but the population group of the child had a strong association.

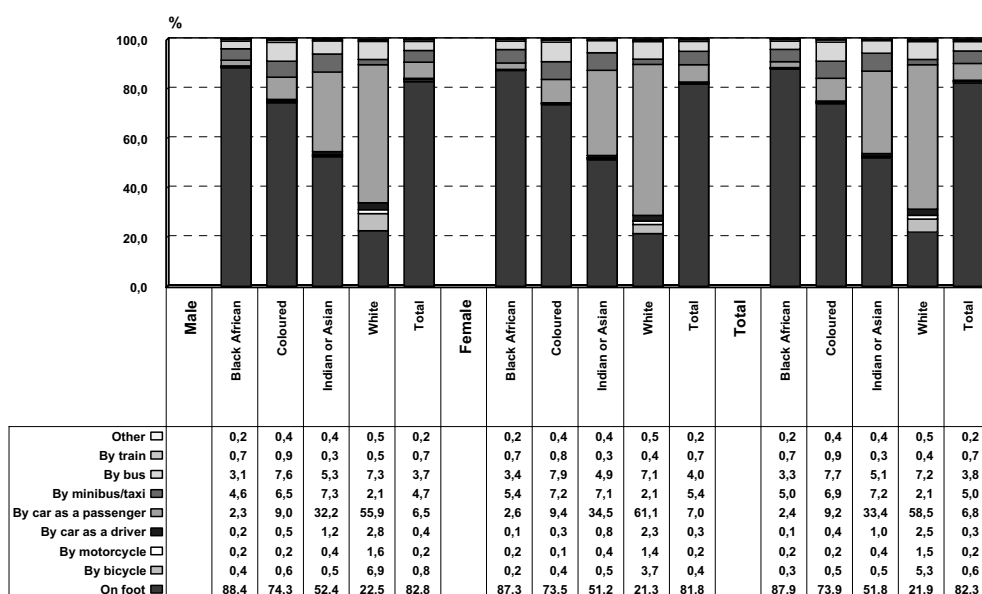
- For example, Figures 9.2 and 9.3 indicate that black African children were most likely to walk to pre-school (82,5%) or school (87,9%), followed by coloured children (62,4% to pre-school, and 73,9% to school), then Indian/Asian children (31,8% and 51,8%) and then white children (9,2% and 21,9%).
- As many as 83,2% of white children attending a pre-school travelled by car as passengers, compared with 7,4% of black African children.
- Almost six in ten (58,5%) white children attending school travelled by car as passengers, as against 2,4% of black African children.

Figure 9.2: Distribution of those attending preschool by means of travel to reach it within sex and population group, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Figure 9.3: Distribution of those attending school by means of travel to reach it within sex and population group, 2001

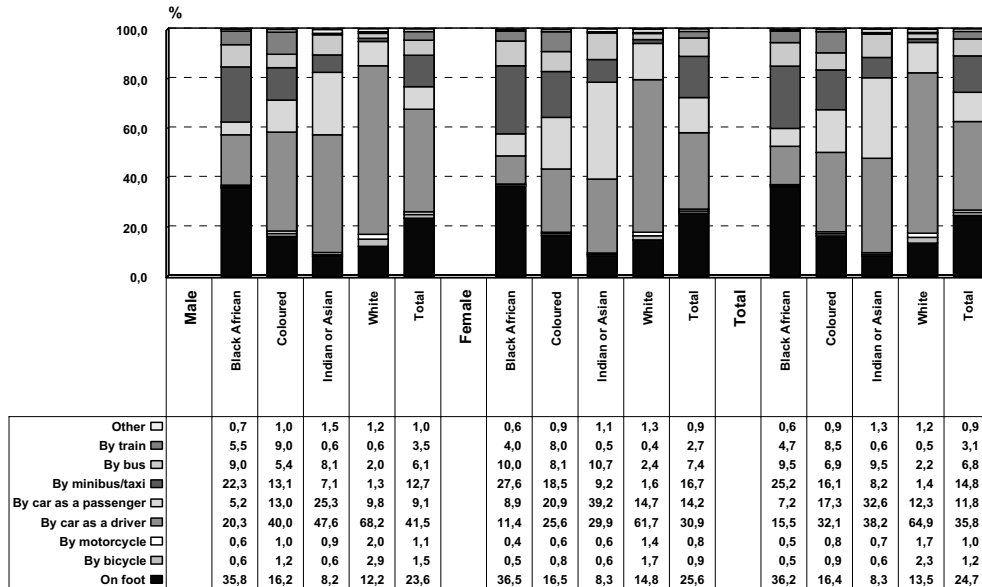


Source: Census 2001

Among those attending a university in 2001, means of travel again varied by population group, and to a lesser extent by the sex of the student.

- For example, Figure 9.4 shows that 20,3% of black African male students, and 11,4% of black African female students travelled to university by car as a driver, compared with 68,2% of white male and 61,7% of white female students.

Figure 9.4: Distribution of those attending university by means of travel to reach it within sex and population group, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Travel to school: 2001

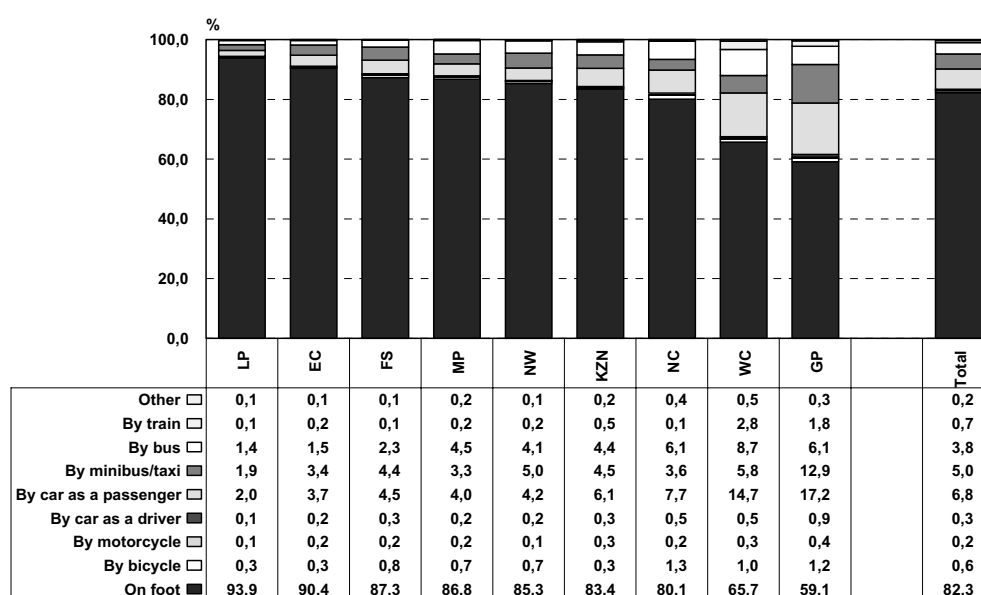
Table 9.1 indicates that 12,0 million (87,7%) of the 13,7 million people attending an educational institution were attending school. In this section we focus on the means of travel to school in greater detail, since this is the main educational institution that people attend.

Travelling to school by province

Figure 9.5 indicates that while the vast majority of schoolgoers (82,3%) walked to school, this varied by province. For example, in Limpopo, 93,9% of schoolgoers walked to school, compared with 59,1% in Gauteng.

Walking to school most prevalent in Limpopo

Figure 9.5: Distribution of those attending school in each province by means of transport, 2001



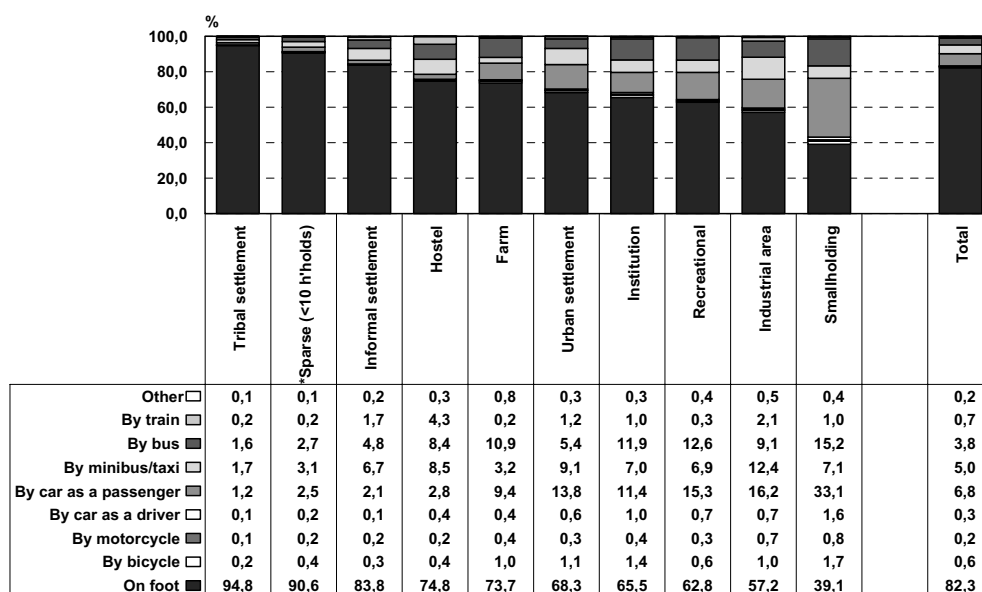
Source: Census 2001

Travel to school by enumeration area type

Figure 9.6 indicates that there were also differences in how schoolgoers reached school according to the type of area in which they lived. As many as 94,8% of children living in tribal settlements walked to school, compared with 68,3% of those living in urban settlements, and 39,1% of children living on smallholdings. On the other hand, a large group (33,1%) of children living on smallholdings travelled to school by car as a passenger, compared to a much smaller group of tribal settlement dwellers (1,2%).

A pattern of the majority of black African and coloured children walking to school as against a minority of Indian/Asian and white children, was found across all provinces.

Figure 9.6: Distribution of those attending school in each type of area by means of transport, 2001



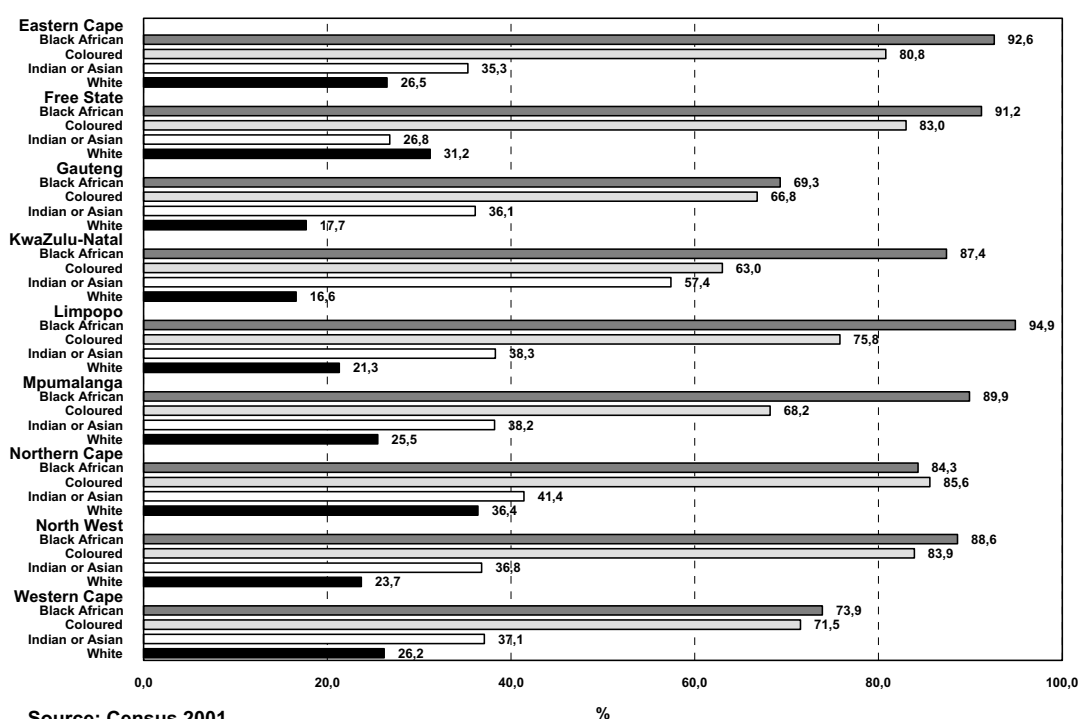
Source: Census 2001

* Some areas classified as vacant or sparse were found to have more occupants by the time of the census.

Walking to school by province and population group

Figure 9.7 indicates how, within each province, travel to school varied by population group. For example, in Eastern Cape, 92,6% of black African schoolgoers, as against 80,8% of coloured, 35,3% of Indian/Asian and 26,5% of white schoolgoers, walked to school in 2001.

Figure 9.7: Among those attending school, percentage of each population group in each province that walked to school, 2001



Source: Census 2001

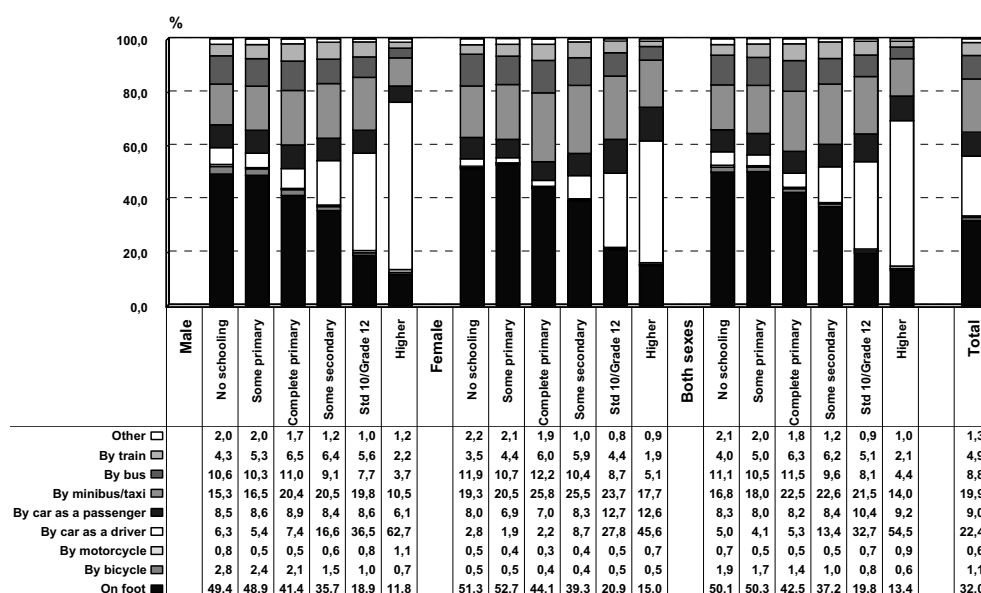
Travel to work or to an educational institution, 2001

Travel to work or educational institution by level of education and sex

Figure 9.8 focuses on those aged 20 years or more who travelled either to an educational institution or to work, according to sex and level of education.

- In 2001, among males and females aged 20 years or more, the lower the highest level of education of the individual, the more likely the person was to walk either to the educational institution they were attending or to work. For example, among those with no schooling, 50,1% walked to the educational institution or to work, compared with 13,4% of those with post-school qualifications.
- Amongst those with higher levels of education, males were more likely than females to travel by car as a driver. For example, among those with post-school qualifications, 62,7% of males used a car as a driver, compared to 45,6% of females.

Figure 9.8: Distribution of those aged 20 years or more who worked or attended an educational institution, by means of travel within sex and highest level of education, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Travel to work: 2001

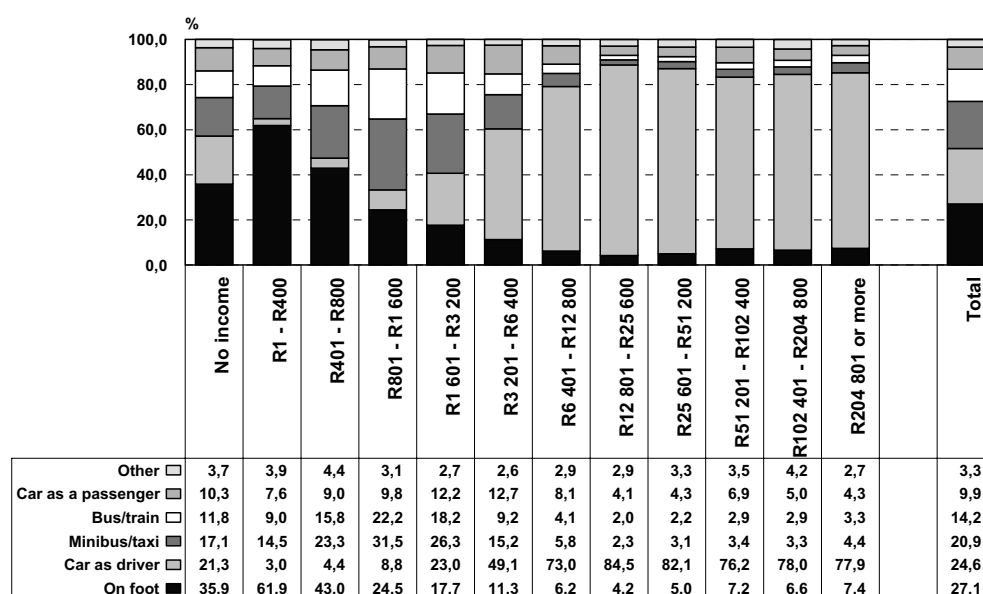
Focusing on travelling to work among the employed, Figure 9.9 shows that 27,1% of people walked to work in 2001, 24,6% travelled to work by car as a driver, while 20,9% used a minibus/taxi, 14,2% a bus or train, 9,9% travelled as a passenger in a car, and 3,3% used other means of transport, for example a bicycle, motor cycle or animal transport.

Travel to work by income

Figure 9.9 also shows that the mode of travel to work varied with income. The lower the income, the more likely the respondent was to walk to work. Thus 61,9% of those with an income of less than R400 per month walked to work, decreasing to 43,0% of those with an income of R401 – R800 per month, and then steadily decreasing as income increased, until an income category is reached where more than seven in every ten people travelled to work as a driver of a car. (Working people with no income are a varied group, including family members who work unpaid in a family business, and those who get paid in kind or who gain access to land as a form of payment.)

Travelling to work by a minibus/taxi, or by a bus or train was more common among lower income workers. Relatively few in the higher income categories used these forms of transport.

Figure 9.9: Distribution of the employed in each income category by means of travel to work, 2001



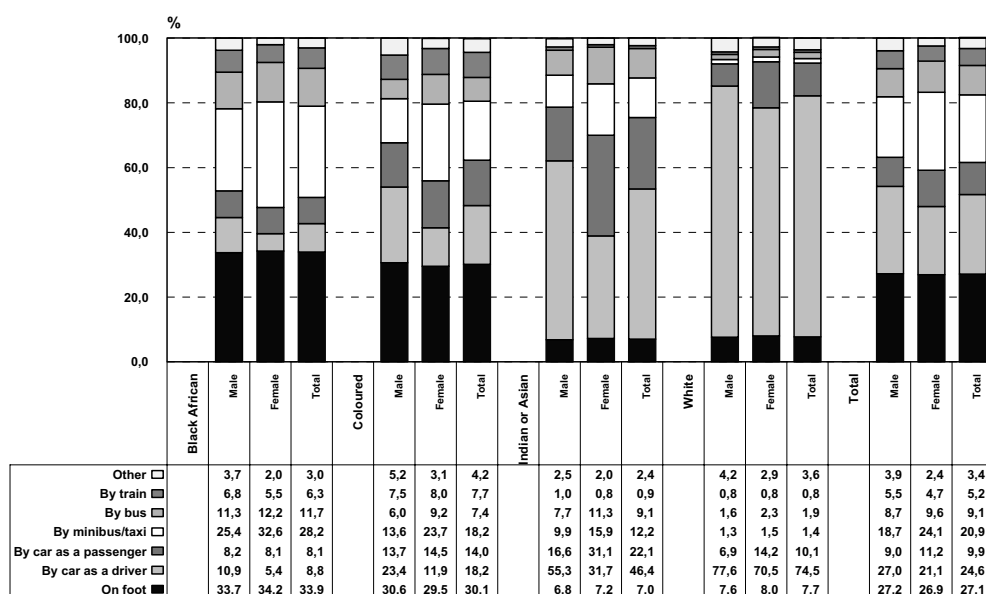
Source: Census 2001
Excluding those who do not travel to work

Travel to work by population group and sex

Figure 9.10 indicates that the way in which employed people reached their place of work also differed by population group. Among employed black Africans, just over a third (33,9%) walked to work, while just under three in every ten (28,2%) reached their place of work by minibus/taxi, and approximately one in six (18,0%) used a bus or a train. Among employed white people, however, three-quarters (74,5%) drove a car to work.

Figure 9.10 also shows the differences in mode of travel according to population group and sex. For example, 23,4% of coloured employed males travelled to work by car as a driver, as against 11,9% of employed coloured females.

Figure 9.10: Distribution of the employed within population group and sex by means of travel to work, 2001

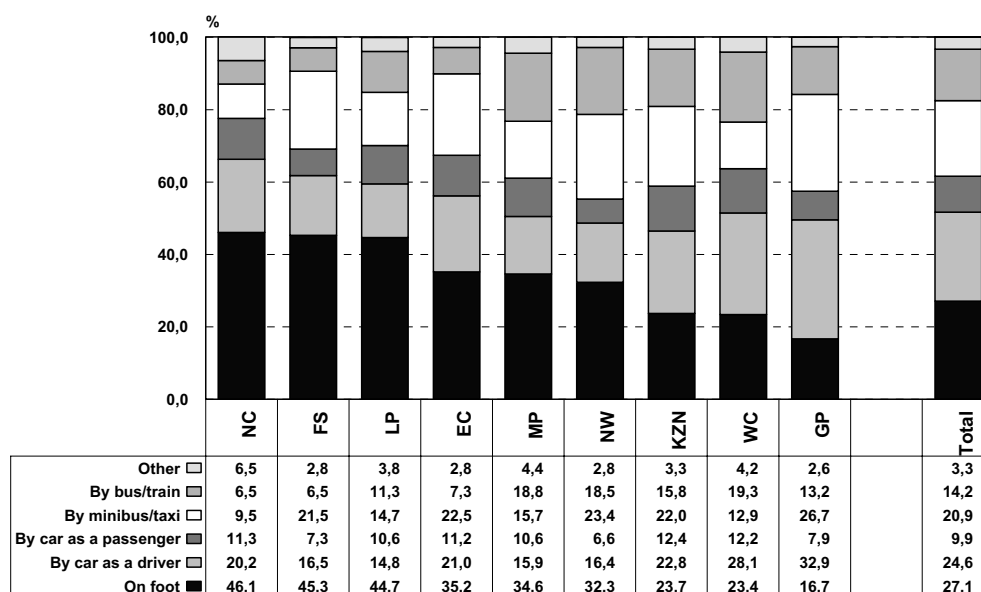


Source: Census 2001
Excluding those who do not travel to work

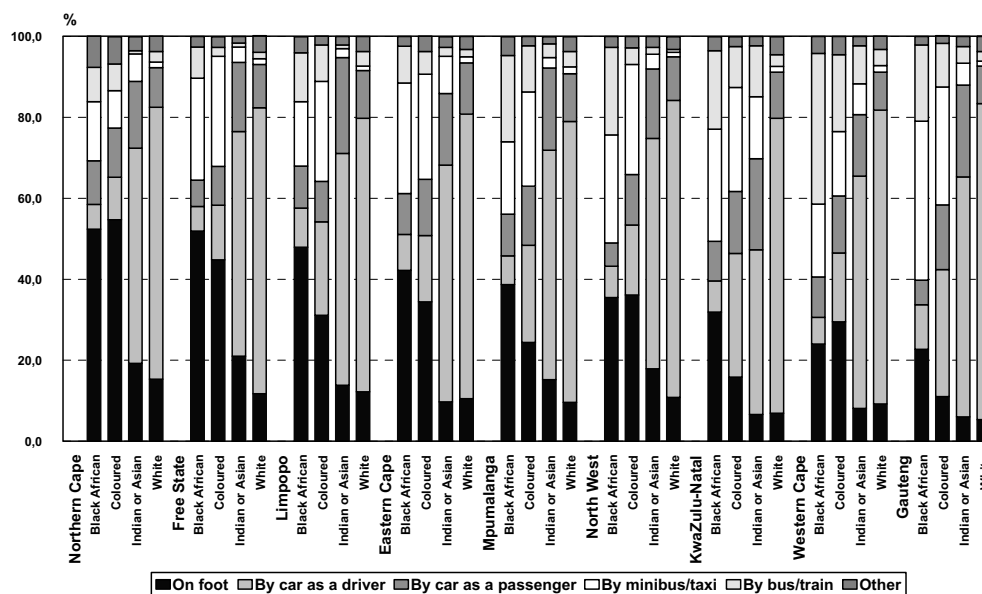
Travel to work by province

Figure 9.11 indicates the means of transport used to get to work by employed people within each province in 2001. In Northern Cape, Free State and Limpopo, more than four in every ten people walked to work, while in KwaZulu-Natal, Western Cape and Gauteng, fewer than a quarter of the working population walked to work. A relatively large proportion of people used a minibus/taxi in Gauteng (26,7%), North West (23,4%), Eastern Cape (22,5%), KwaZulu-Natal (22,0%) and Free State (21,5%). A relatively large group of people working in Gauteng (32,9%), Western Cape (28,1%), KwaZulu-Natal (22,8%), and Eastern Cape (21,0%) travelled to work by driving a car.

Figure 9.12 shows the variations within provinces by population group. In all provinces black African and coloured employed people were more likely to walk to work than Indian/Asian or white employed people, whereas Indian/Asian and white employed people were more likely to travel to work by car as a driver than black African or coloured employed people. (The provinces are ordered in the figure according to the proportion of black Africans walking to work.)

Figure 9.11: Distribution of the employed in each province by means of travel to work, 2001

Source: Census 2001
Excluding those who do not travel to work

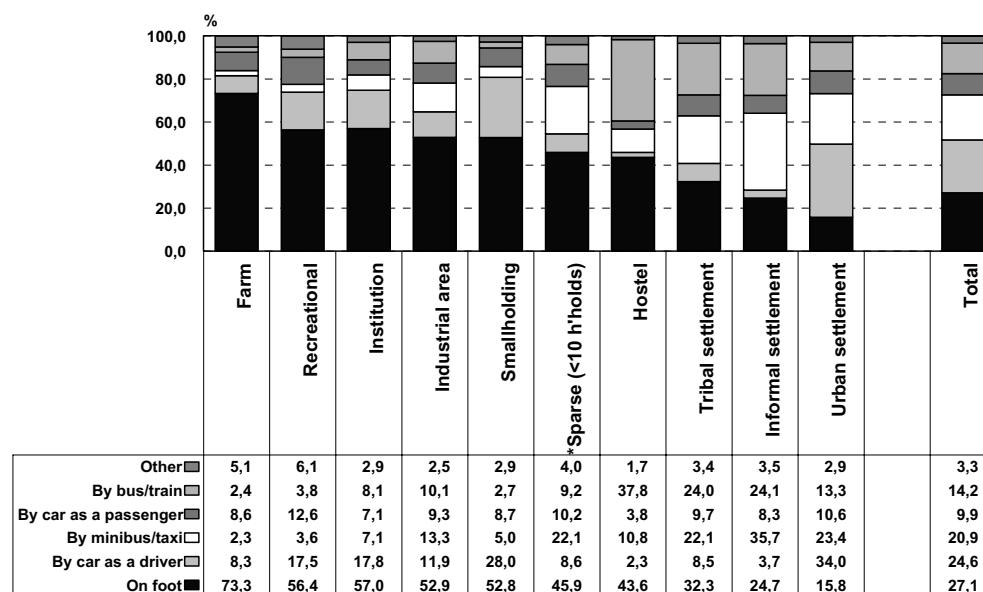
Figure 9.12: Distribution of the employed by means of travel to work within province and population group, 2001

Source: Census 2001
Excluding those who do not travel to work

Travel to work by enumeration area type

Figure 9.13 indicates the most frequent means used to reach work by type of area in which the employed person lived. More than seven in every ten working people living on a farm walked to work (73,3%). But relatively few of those living in an informal settlement (24,7%), or in an urban settlement area (15,8%), walked to work. A large proportion of people living in informal settlements travelled to work by minibus/taxi (35,7%), and by bus or train (24,1%). In urban settlements, 34,0% of people travelled to work by driving a car.

Figure 9.13: Distribution of the employed in each type of area by means of travel to work, 2001

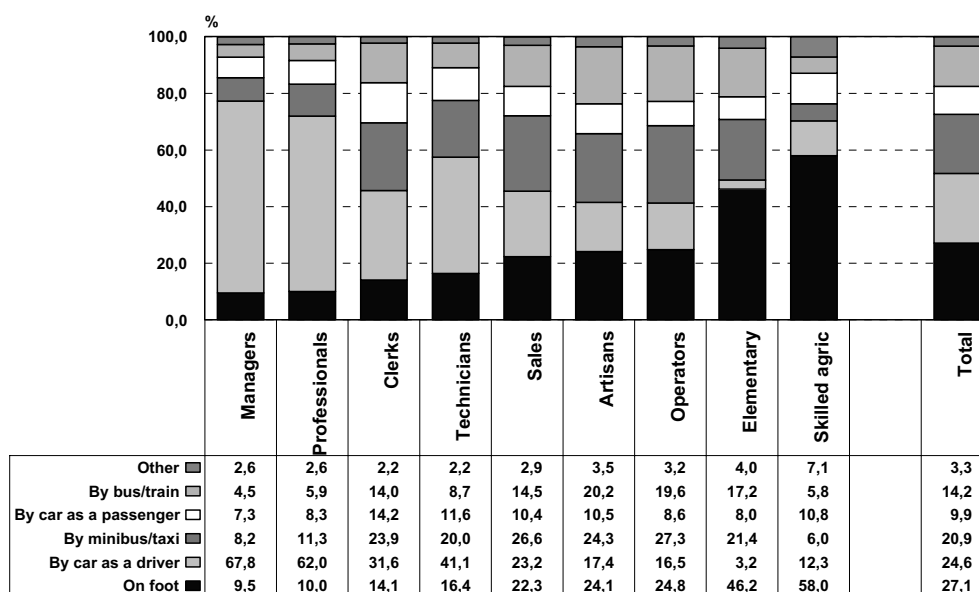


Source: Census 2001

* Some areas classified as vacant or sparse were found to have more occupants by the time of the census. Excluding those who do not travel to work

Travel to work by occupation

As would be expected, Figure 9.14 shows that a relatively large percentage of those in managerial (67,8%), professional (62,0%), technical or associate professional (41,1%) and clerical (31,6%) occupations drove a car to work. A relatively large percentage of sales and services workers (26,6%), artisans (24,3%) and operators (27,3%) travelled to work by minibus/taxi, while a relatively large percentage of those in skilled agricultural (58,0%) or elementary (46,2%) occupations walked to work.

Figure 9.14: Distribution of the employed in each occupational category by means of travel to work, 2001

Source: Census 2001

Excluding those who do not travel to work and those who did not specify their occupation

Summary

In this chapter, we discussed the findings based on a new question posed to respondents in Census 2001 regarding travel to school or other educational institution, and to work.

Among those attending a preschool institution or school, walking was very common. For example of the 12,0 million schoolgoers in 2001, 9,9 million walked to and from school each day. Among those attending either a pre-school or a school, the sex of the child was not clearly directly associated with the means of travel, but the population group of the child had a strong association. For example, as many as 83,2% of white children attending a pre-school travelled to it by car as passengers, compared with 7,5% of black African children.

Mode of travel to school also varied by province. For example, in Limpopo, 93,9% of schoolgoers walked to school in 2001, compared with 59,1% in Gauteng. Within each province, travel to school varied by population group. For example, in Eastern Cape, 92,6% of black African schoolgoers, as against 80,8% of coloured, 35,3% of Indian/Asian and 26,5% of white schoolgoers walked to school in 2001.

It also varied by the type of area in which the child lived. As many as 94,8% of children living in tribal settlements walked to school in 2001, compared with 68,3% of children living in urban settlements, and 39,1% of children living on smallholdings.

Among those attending university in 2001, 24,7% of students walked, while 35,8% travelled by car as a driver, 14,8% used a minibus/taxi, 11,8% travelled by car as a passenger, 6,8% used a bus and 3,1% a train.

When focusing on reaching the place of work among the employed, there was also wide variation. Thus, 27,1% of people walked to work in 2001, 24,6% travelled to work by car as a driver, while 20,9% used a minibus/taxi, 14,2% a bus or train, 9,9% travelled by car as a passenger, and 3,3% used other means of transport, for example a bicycle, motor cycle or animal transport.

Mode of travel to work varied by income. The lower the income, the more likely the respondent was to walk to work. Thus 61,9% of those with an income of less than R400 per month walked to work. This proportion steadily decreased as income increased, until an income category of at least R6 400 per month was reached, when more than seven in every ten people travelled to work as the driver of a car. Travelling to work by minibus/taxi, bus or train was more common among lower income workers.

Mode of travel to work also differed by population group. Among employed black Africans, just over a third (33,9%) walked to work, while just under three in every ten (28,2%) reached their place of work by minibus/taxi, and approximately one in six (18,0%) used a bus or a train. Among employed white people, however, three-quarters (74,5%) travelled to work as the driver of a car. Within population group, differences in mode of travel to work by sex were also apparent. For example, 23,4% of employed coloured men travelled to work by car as a driver, as against 11,9% of employed coloured women.

The means of transport used to get to work also varied by province. In Northern Cape, Free State and Limpopo, more than four in every ten people walked to work, while in KwaZulu-Natal, Western Cape and Gauteng, fewer than a quarter of the working population walked. Within province, there were also variations in the means of travel to work by population group. For example, in Northern Cape, black African and coloured people were more likely to walk to work than Indian/Asian or white people.

The most frequent means of travel to work also varied by type of area in which the employed person lived. More than seven in every ten working people living on a farm, walked to work. But relatively few of those living in an informal settlement (24,7%), or in a formal settlement (15,8%), walked. A large proportion of people living in informal settlements travelled to work by minibus/taxi (35,7%).

As would be expected, a relatively large percentage of those in managerial (67,8%), professional (62,0%), technical or associate professional (41,1%) and clerical (31,6%) occupations travelled to work by car as a driver in 2001.

Section 3

Findings related to households

(This section excludes all collective living quarters)

Chapter 10 – Households and their heads

Introduction

This chapter focuses on the households in South Africa, and their heads.¹³ To do this we first need to distinguish between a dwelling and a household. A dwelling refers to a physical structure, whereas a household is an abstract social construct. The occurrence may overlap, but they are not the same. People living in a household share resources with each other, whereas people living in the same dwelling may not necessarily share resources. Households may indeed live in one dwelling, or they may share a dwelling with one or more other households, or they may occupy more than one dwelling.

Secondly, the term “household head” needs clarification. For Census 2001, the head or acting head of the household was described as “the person who is the main decision-maker in the household”. If at least two people were seen as being equal decision-makers, the oldest person was then taken as the household head.

It is considered useful to identify the household head, since a number of variables describing him or her may have a clear association with the life circumstances and living conditions of the household as a whole. For example, the employment and education status, population group and gender of the household head may influence where the household lives, and its life circumstances and living conditions. In other cases the population group of the household head is used as a proxy for the household as a whole, which in some cases is not strictly accurate, as members of different population groups can live together in the same household.¹⁴

Households and their heads by province, sex and population group: 1996 and 2001

Table 10.1 indicates the distribution of households in each province and for the country as a whole, by sex and population group of the household head, for both 1996 and 2001, excluding collective living quarters. It shows that in 1996, there were 9,0 million households, as compared to 11,2 million in 2001 (excluding households with unspecified sex or population group of household head in 1996 but not in 2001, since these variables were imputed in that year).

Proportion of female-headed households increases

¹³ It is assumed, for the purposes of this section, that each household had an identifiable household head, against which to compare census information.

¹⁴ Household weights, adjusting for undercount of households in both Census 1996 and 2001, rather than person weights, have been used in this section.

Table 10.1: Number of households in South Africa by province, and by sex and population group of household head, 1996 and 2001

Province	Sex	1996*					2001				
		Black African	Coloured	Indian / Asian	White	Total	Black African	Coloured	Indian/ Asian	White	Total
Eastern Cape	Male	512 431	64 328	3 794	86 110	666 663	591 526	66 993	3 593	75 410	737 522
	Female	618 436	26 960	849	23 762	670 006	711 119	36 303	1 023	26 586	775 031
	Total	1 130 867	91 287	4 643	109 872	1 336 669	1 302 645	103 295	4 616	101 997	1 512 553
Free State	Male	315 816	16 792	710	83 337	416 654	365 680	12 994	837	56 482	435 993
	Female	185 111	7 422	113	20 135	212 781	270 079	7 368	161	19 634	297 242
	Total	500 926	24 214	823	103 472	629 435	635 760	20 362	997	76 116	733 235
Gauteng	Male	866 472	41 209	33 297	442 494	1 383 472	1 197 735	48 532	40 686	415 536	1 702 489
	Female	414 289	20 605	6 525	125 219	566 638	747 782	32 627	13 605	154 719	948 734
	Total	1 280 762	61 814	39 822	567 712	1 950 109	1 945 518	81 159	54 291	570 255	2 651 223
KwaZulu-Natal	Male	684 112	17 104	146 968	152 148	1 000 332	837 619	18 211	150 822	116 218	1 122 870
	Female	554 060	9 206	35 107	44 563	642 935	850 360	11 985	53 337	47 471	963 152
	Total	1 238 172	26 310	182 075	196 711	1 643 267	1 687 979	30 196	204 159	163 689	2 086 022
Limpopo	Male	438 744	1 641	1 226	36 368	477 979	509 090	1 488	1 575	27 219	539 372
	Female	496 774	952	170	6 286	504 182	632 526	1 078	251	7 065	640 919
	Total	935 519	2 593	1 396	42 654	982 161	1 141 616	2 565	1 825	34 284	1 180 290
Mpumalanga	Male	313 898	2 885	2 499	64 161	383 443	371 848	3 130	2 535	48 544	426 056
	Female	202 864	1 262	282	9 419	213 826	293 671	1 908	497	10 995	307 070
	Total	516 762	4 147	2 781	73 579	597 269	665 519	5 038	3 032	59 539	733 126
Northern Cape	Male	35 645	55 521	405	26 473	118 043	48 721	60 725	461	25 443	135 350
	Female	21 117	24 269	105	6 315	51 805	29 943	34 107	157	7 482	71 688
	Total	56 762	79 790	510	32 787	169 848	78 664	94 832	618	32 925	207 038
North West	Male	387 704	6 636	1 975	55 258	451 572	486 647	8 488	2 147	49 762	547 043
	Female	260 874	3 159	278	11 999	276 309	361 888	5 313	421	14 439	382 060
	Total	648 578	9 794	2 253	67 257	727 881	848 534	13 802	2 568	64 201	929 103
Western Cape	Male	150 471	322 410	7 644	212 793	693 319	197 815	359 831	7 993	217 664	783 304
	Female	75 179	118 846	1 694	75 655	271 375	121 526	176 981	2 770	88 533	389 809
	Total	225 651	441 257	9 339	288 447	964 693	319 342	536 811	10 763	306 197	1 173 113
Total	Male	3 705 294	528 526	198 517	1 159 140	5 591 477	4 606 682	580 391	210 649	1 032 279	6 430 000
	Female	2 828 704	212 680	45 123	323 351	3 409 857	4 018 895	307 669	72 221	376 923	4 775 705
	Total	6 533 998	741 206	243 639	1 482 492	9 001 335	8 625 576	888 060	282 871	1 409 203	11 205 705

* Excluding cases of unspecified sex or population group in 1996. Totals may differ slightly due to rounding after adjusting for undercount.

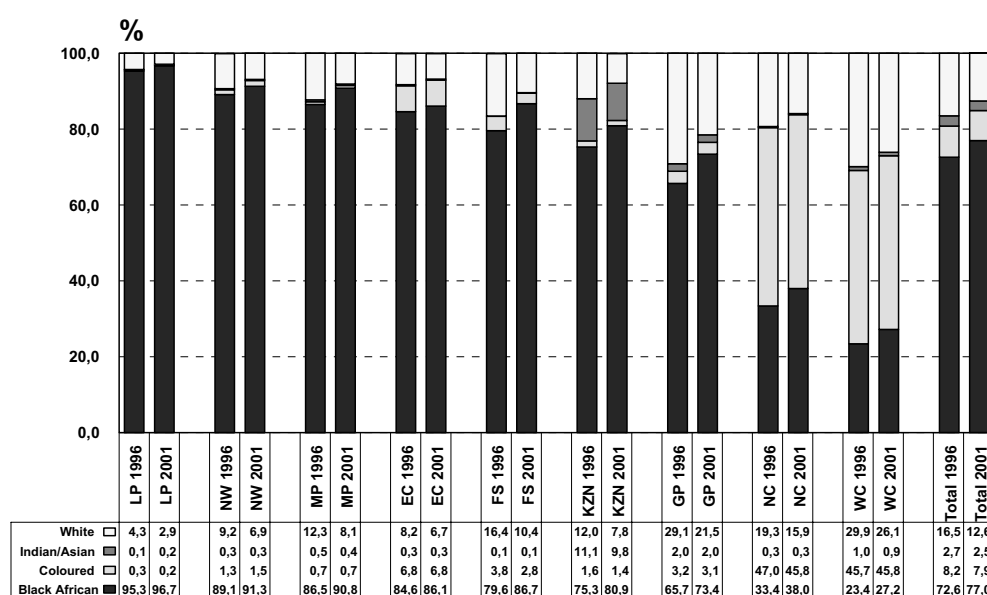
The table further shows that:

- There were 5,6 million (62,1%) male-headed households in 1996, increasing to 6,4 million in 2001 (but proportionately decreasing to 57,4% in 2001). There were 3,4 million female-headed households in 1996 (37,9%), increasing to 4,8 million in 2001 (proportionately increasing to 42,6% in 2001).
- The largest number of households was found in Gauteng in both 1996 (2,0 million) and 2001 (2,7 million), followed by KwaZulu-Natal (1,6 million in 1996 increasing to 2,1 million in 2001).
- In 1996, there were 6,5 million households headed by a black African person (72,6% of all households) increasing to 8,6 million households (77,0% of all households) in 2001.

Figure 10.1 shows the proportion of household heads by their population group within each province for 1996 and 2001.

- In general, the proportion of black African household heads increased from 72,6% in 1996 to 77,0% in 2001.
- Across all provinces, there was an increasing proportion of black African household heads. For example, in Limpopo, the proportion of households headed by a black African person increased from 95,3% in 1996 to 96,7% in 2001, while in Western Cape, the proportion increased from 23,4% in 1996 to 27,2% in 2001.

Figure 10.1: Distribution of households in each province by population group of the household head, 1996 and 2001



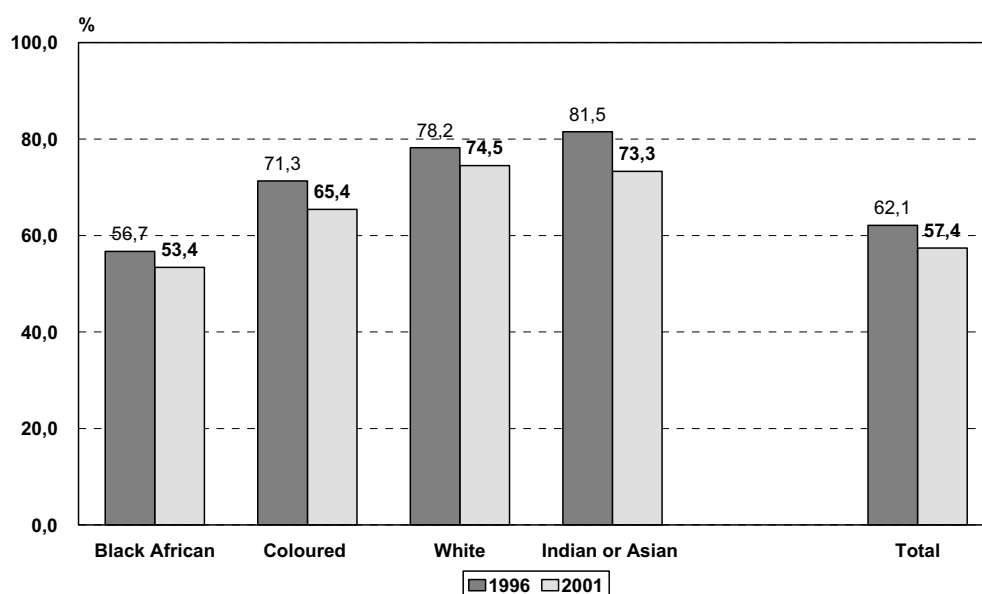
Source: Census1996 and 2001

Figure 10.2 indicates that, while male heads of households continue to be in the majority, there was a decreasing percentage of male-headed households between 1996 and 2001.

Overall, the percentage of male-headed households decreased from 62,1% in 1996 to 57,4% in 2001.

Within each population group, there was a decrease in the percentage of male-headed households between 1996 and 2001. Among black Africans, while starting from a lower base, this decrease was smallest, from 56,7% in 1996 to 53,4% in 2001. For coloured-, Indian/Asian-, and white-headed households, the proportional decrease was larger.

Figure 10.2: Percentage of household heads in each population group that were male, 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 1996 and 2001

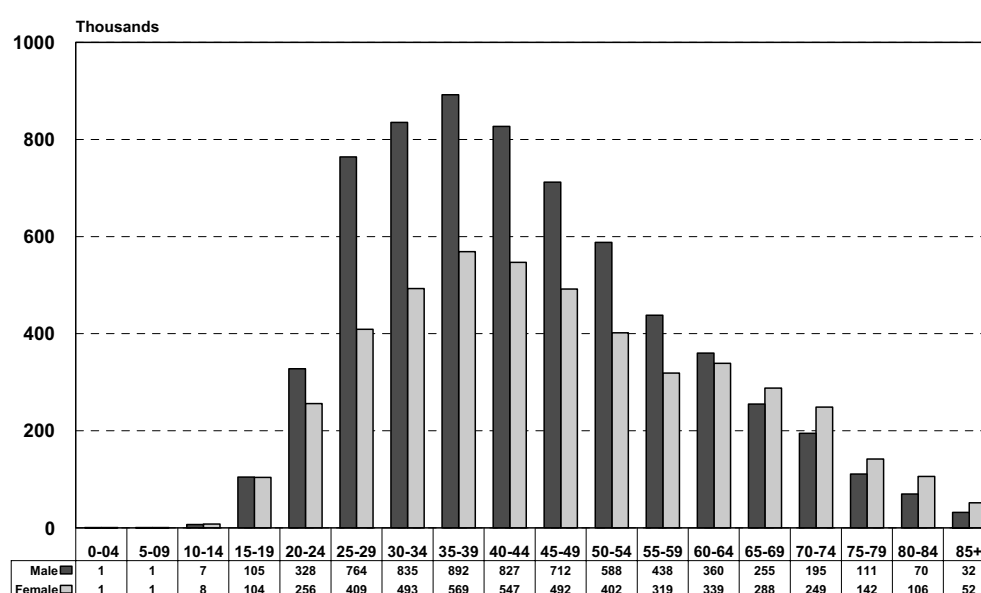
Household heads: 2001

Over 200 000 teenage household heads in 2001

Household heads by age

Figure 10.3 indicates the numbers (rounded to thousands) of household heads in each five-year age category in October 2001, by sex. It shows for example that 105 000 household heads were males aged 15–19 years and a further 104 000 were females in this age category. These numbers form the basis for some of the percentages in the graphs that follow.

Figure 10.3: Number of male and female household heads in each age group, 2001

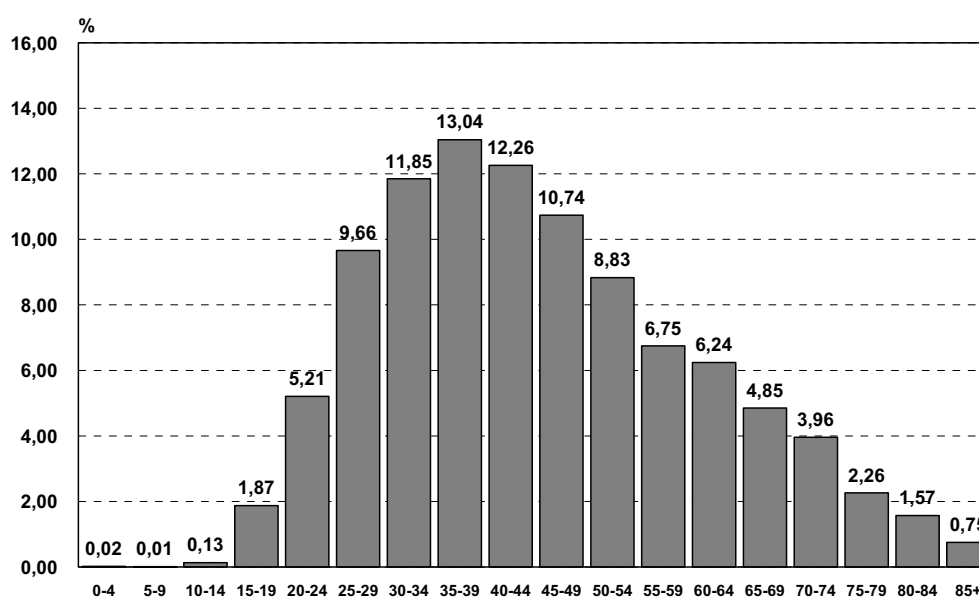


Source: Census 2001

Figure 10.4 indicates the percentage distribution of household heads by five-year age category in October 2001. It shows for example, that 1,9% of all household heads was aged 15–19 years, and 4,0% was aged 70–74 years at that time.

- There was a small percentage of households with heads below the age of 20 years (2,0%). After this age there was a steep increase in the percentage of heads with each increase in age category, reaching a peak at age 35–39 years (13,0%), after which the percentage in each age category decreased, but more slowly than the original increase.
- Only 1,6% of all household heads was aged 80–84 years, and 0,8% was aged 85 years or more.

Figure 10.4: Distribution of household heads by age group, 2001

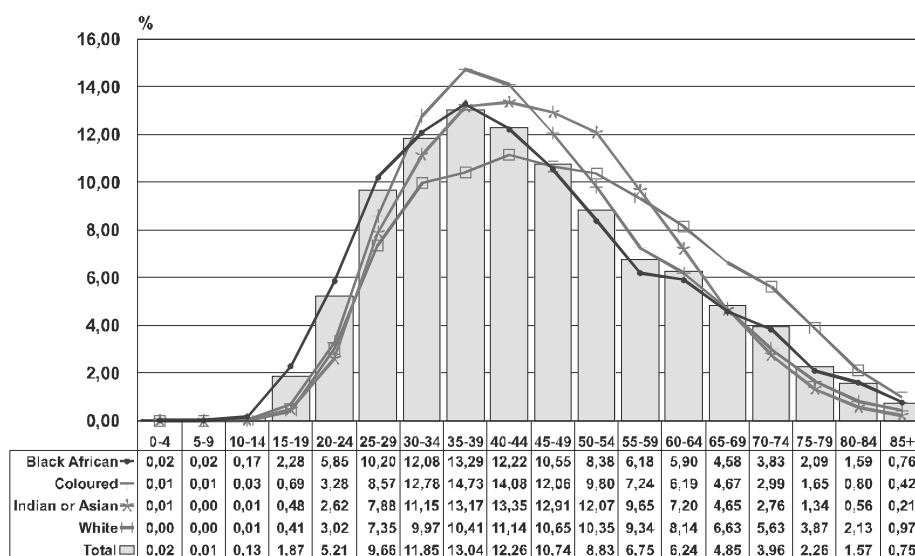


Source: Census 2001

Household heads by age and population group

Figure 10.5 shows the five-year interval age distribution of household heads in 2001 within population group. The underlying bars are the same as in Figure 10.4. It shows that, in general, proportionately more black African household heads than the overall picture were found in the younger age categories, followed by coloured, and then Indian/Asian household heads. The distribution of white household heads showed a flatter curve than the curves for the other population groups, with a larger proportion being found in the older age categories.

Figure 10.5: Distribution of household heads by age group in each population group compared with the age distribution for the total population, 2001

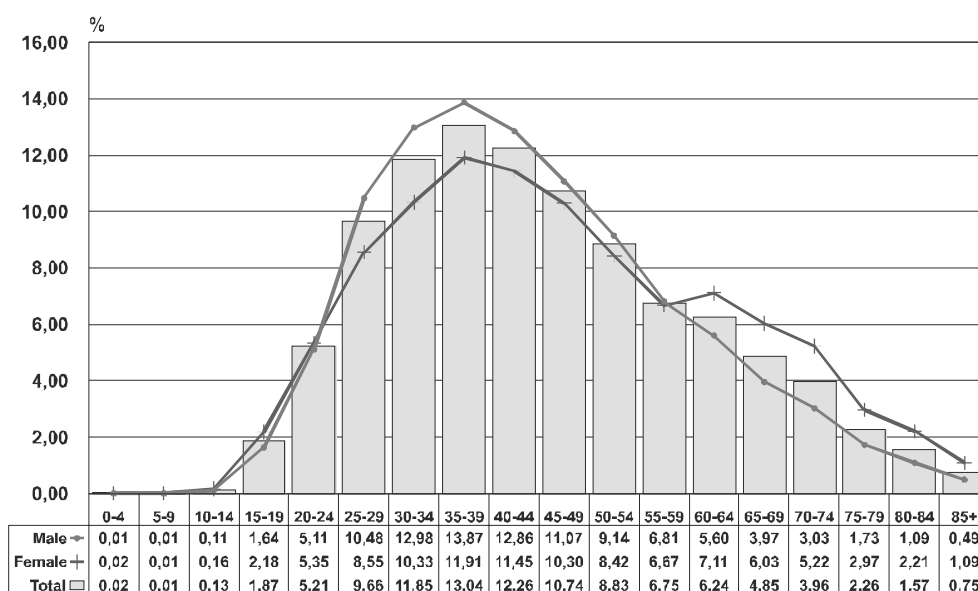


Source: Census 2001

Household heads by age and sex

Figure 10.6 also shows the five-year interval age distribution of household heads in 2001, except this time within sex. It indicates that a larger proportion of female-headed households were found in the older age categories than male-headed ones.

Figure 10.6: Distribution of male and female household heads by age group compared with the age distribution for the total population, 2001

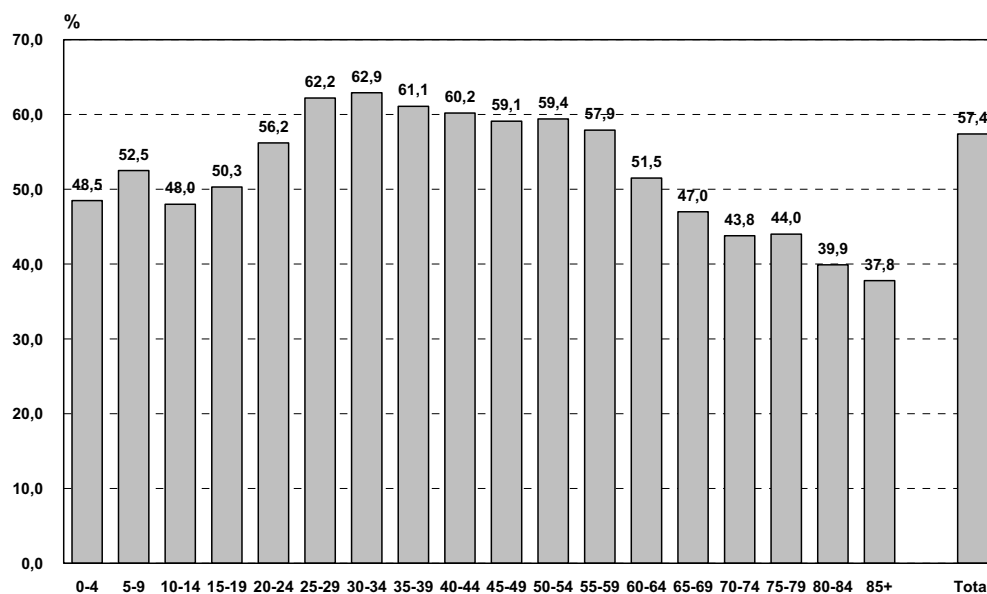


Source: Census 2001

Figure 10.7 takes age category as the denominator and sex of the household head as the enumerator. It shows the sex of the household heads within each five-year age category in October 2001. It shows for example, that within the age category 15–19 years, 50,3% of household heads was male, and within the age category 70–74 years, 43,8% of household heads was male.

- In general, the percentage of male household heads within each age category increased until the age of 30–34 years, when it reached a peak (62,9%). After this age, there was a decrease in the percentage of household heads that were male.
- From the age of 65 years onwards, less than half of the household heads were males.

Figure 10.7: Percentage of household heads in each age group that were male, 2001



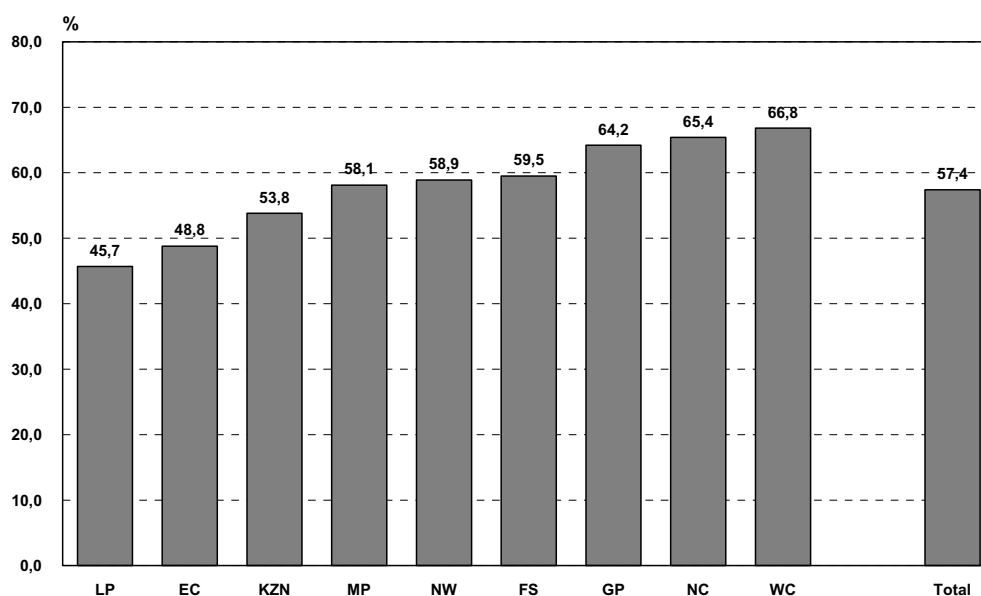
Source: Census 2001

Provincial breakdown of household heads

Figure 10.8 shows the percentage of male household heads in each province in 2001. In general, with the exception of Northern Cape, the more industrialised provinces were more likely to have male-headed households than the less industrialised ones.

Fewer than half the households in Limpopo headed by males

- For example, in the more rural provinces of Limpopo and Eastern Cape, fewer than half the household heads were male in October 2001 (45,7% in Limpopo, 48,8% in Eastern Cape).
- In the more industrialised provinces of Gauteng and Western Cape, however, more than six in every ten household heads was a male (64,2% in Gauteng, and 66,8% in Western Cape).

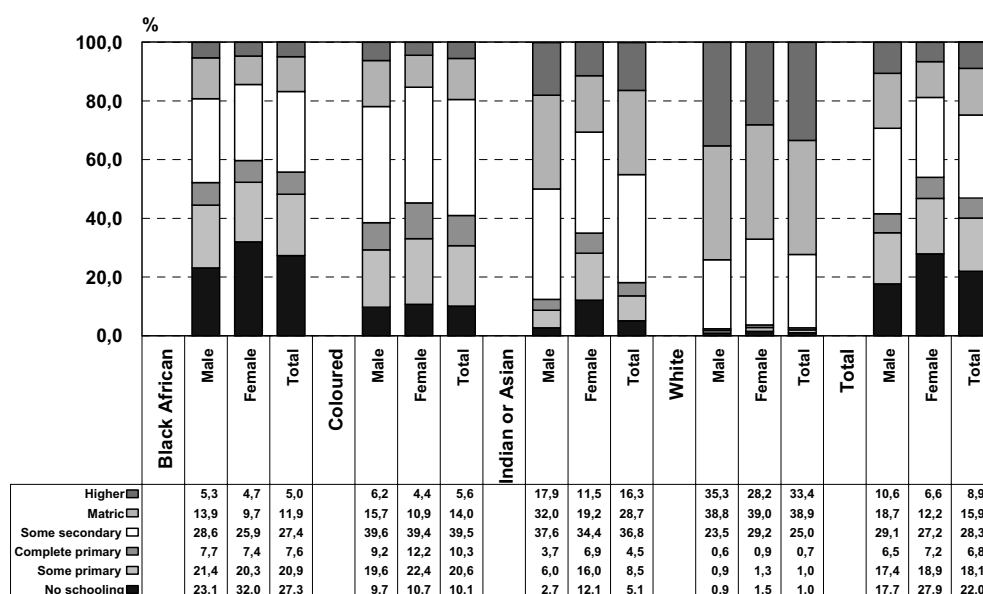
Figure 10.8: Percentage of household heads in each province that were male, 2001

Source: Census 2001

Household heads and level of education

Figure 10.9 shows that, in general, black African household heads had received fewer educational opportunities than household heads of other population groups. Within the category of black African household heads, the educational opportunities of women were lower than those of men.

- The figure indicates that 23,1% of black African male, and 32,0% of black African female household heads had received no formal education, compared with 0,9% of white male and 1,5% of white female household heads.
- At the upper end of the scale, as large a proportion as 35,3% of white male and 28,2% of white female household heads had attained post-school qualifications, compared with 5,3% of black African male and 4,7% of black African female household heads.

Figure 10.9: Distribution of household heads by level of education within population group and sex, 2001

Source: Census 2001

Labour market status of household heads aged 15–65 years by population group and sex: 2001

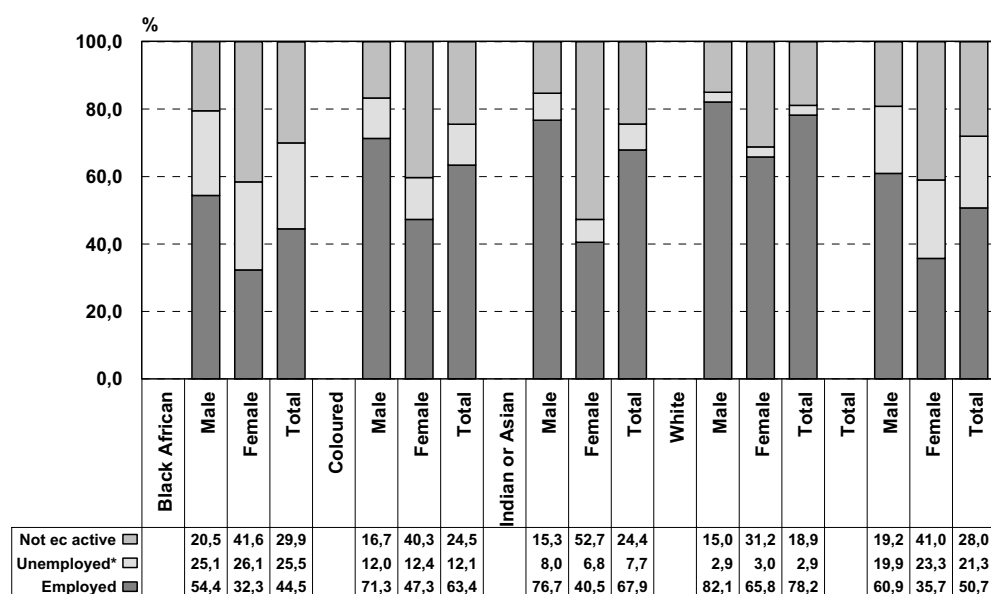
The reader is reminded, as stated in Chapter 7, that Census 2001 has certain limitations in relation to the labour market data that it collected, since a population census is less accurate than a household survey in collecting these types of figures.

**Male household heads
more likely to be employed**

In this section, we focus on the labour market status in October 2001 of household heads aged 15–65 years, which is a subset of the working-age population (all those aged 15–65 years).¹⁵

Figure 10.10 indicates that, in total, 60,9% of male household heads and 35,7% of female household heads aged 15–65 years were employed. African female heads of households were least likely to be employed (32,3%), and white male heads of households were most likely to be employed (82,1%).

Figure 10.10: Distribution of household heads aged 15–65 years by labour market status within population group and sex, 2001



Source: Census 2001
*Official definition

¹⁵ Those in this age category living in collective living quarters, and those not identified as household heads, were excluded from the calculations.

Occupation of employed household heads aged 15–65 years by sex and population group: 2001

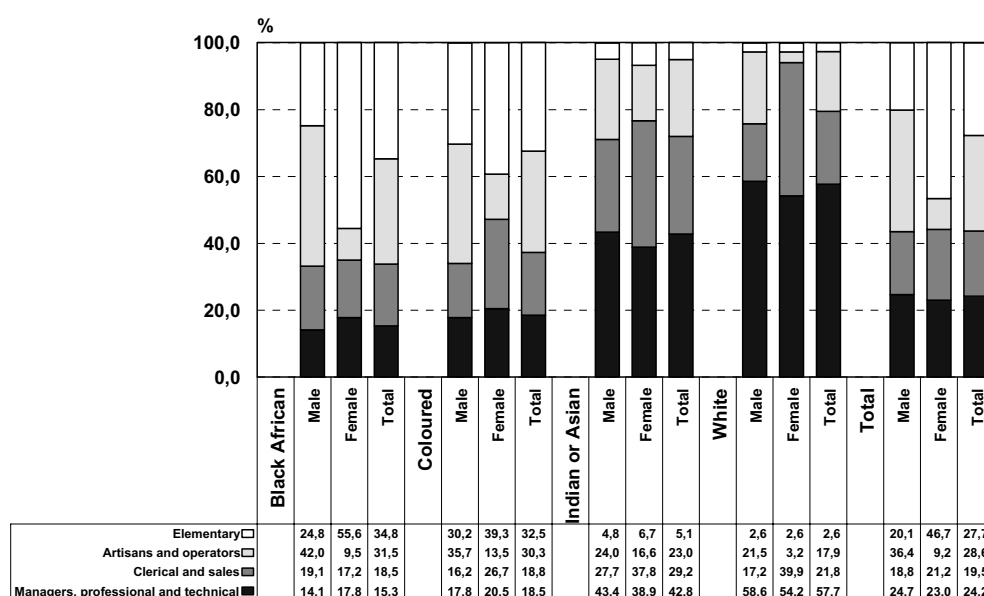
Figure 10.11 indicates the occupation of employed household heads aged 15–65 years according to four broad occupational categories, by sex and population group.

The first occupational category comprises managers, professionals, associated professionals and technicians, the second clerical, sales and services personnel, the third those in skilled and semi-skilled occupations, and the fourth those in elementary occupations.

More than half of all employed African female household heads in elementary occupations

- There were clear differences in the occupation of household heads by both population group and sex.
- For example, 15,3% of employed black African household heads was in managerial, professional or technical occupations, compared with 57,7% of white household heads.
- More than half of the employed black African female household heads (55,6%) were in elementary occupations, compared with a much smaller proportion of employed white male and female household heads (2,6% for both sexes) in these occupations.

Figure 10.11: Distribution of household heads by broad occupational category within population group and sex, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Annual household income by selected characteristics of household heads: 2001

By population group and sex of the household head

Figure 10.12 indicates the unevenly distributed annual household income in October 2001 by population group and sex of the household head.

- Black African female-headed households tended to have the lowest incomes in 2001, followed by black African male-headed households.
- White-male-headed households tended to have the highest incomes, while white-female-headed households showed a similar distribution to those headed by Indian/Asian males.

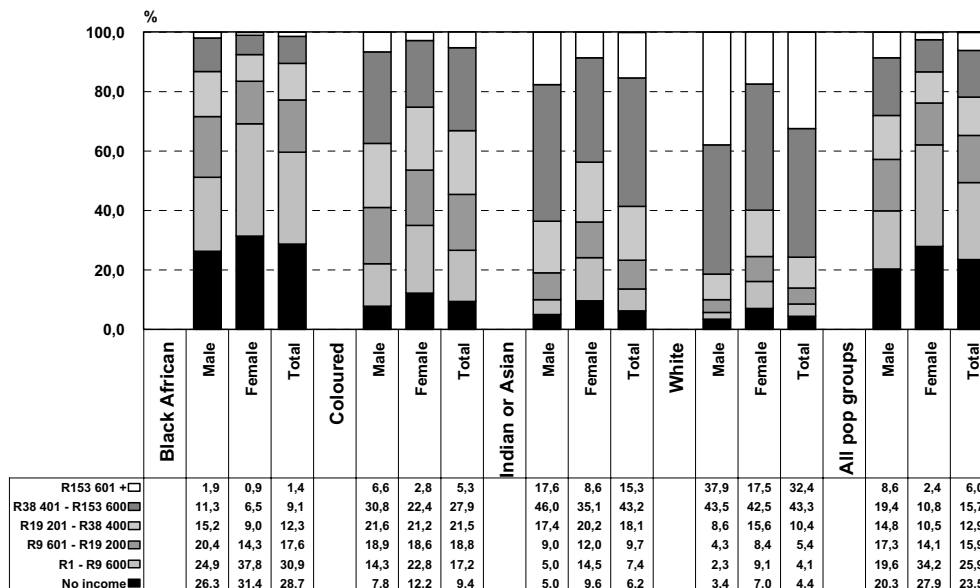
Households with highest incomes headed by white males

By age group of the household head

Figure 10.13 indicates that the annual household income in October 2001 was also unevenly distributed by the age category of the household head.

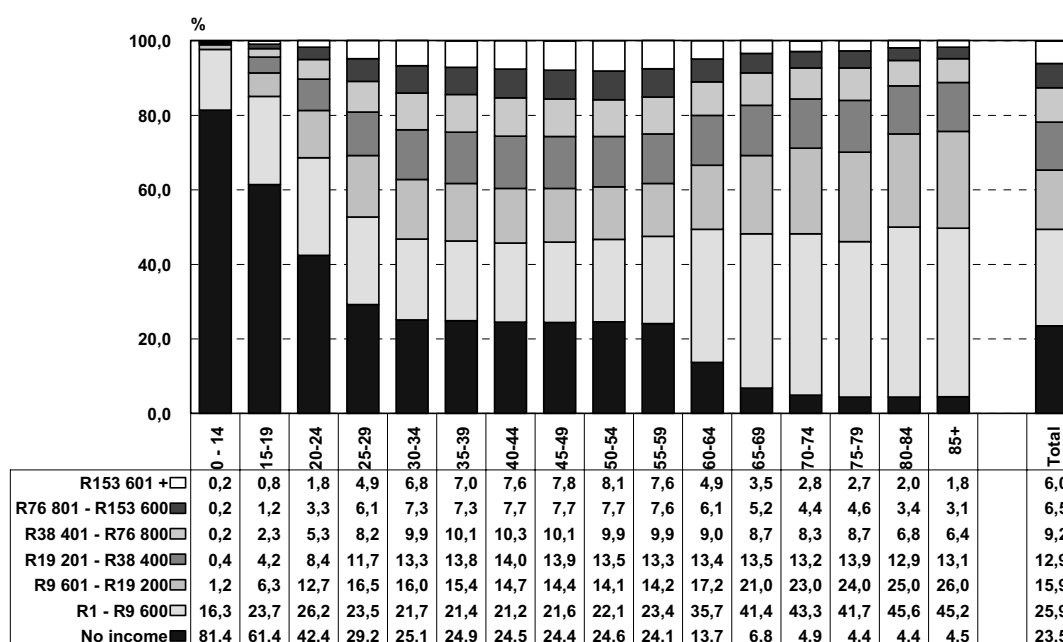
- With each increasing age category of the household head, there was a decrease in the proportion of households with no income.
- In households with heads aged 65 years or more, more than four in every ten fell into the annual income category of R1 – R9 600; these heads may be receiving government pensions.

Figure 10.12: Distribution of household heads by annual household income category within population group and sex, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Figure 10.13: Distribution of household heads by annual household income category within age group, 2001



Source: Census 2001

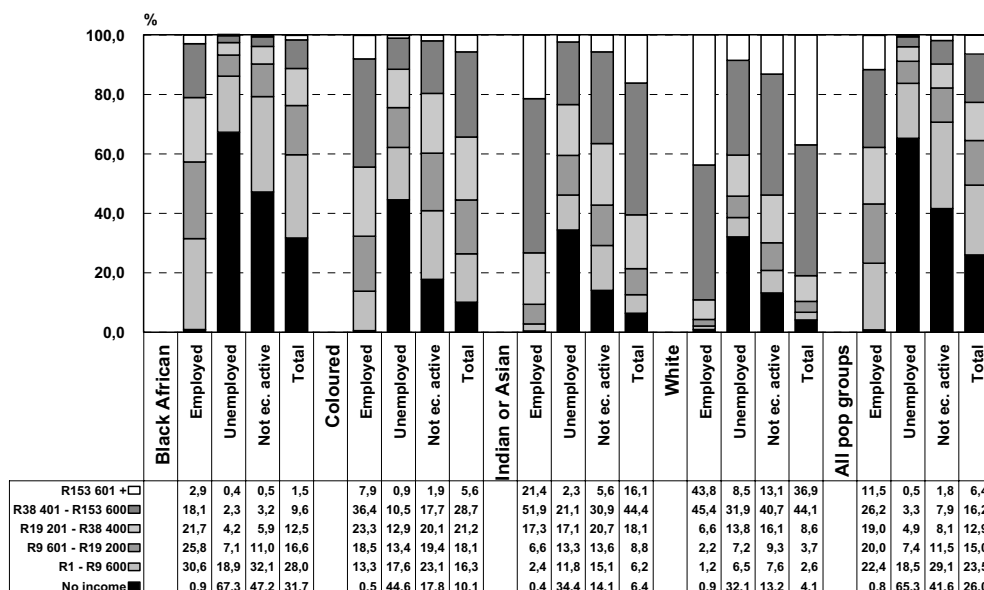
By employment status of the household head

Figure 10.14 indicates that the annual household income in October 2001 was also unevenly distributed by the employment status of the household head.

- Fewer than 1,0% of households with an employed head, across all population groups, indicated they had no income in October 2001.
- Of households where the head indicated that he or she was unemployed in October 2001, 65,3% had no income.
- A range of households with a head who was either unemployed or not economically active reported at least some income. Such income could be obtained from a variety of sources, including grants and pensions, other working members in the household, or remittances.¹⁶

¹⁶ The census questionnaire length did not allow for probing into the sources of income. It should also be noted that household income is a derived variable (see metadata).

Figure 10.14: Distribution of household heads aged 15–65 years by annual household income category within population group and labour market status, 2001



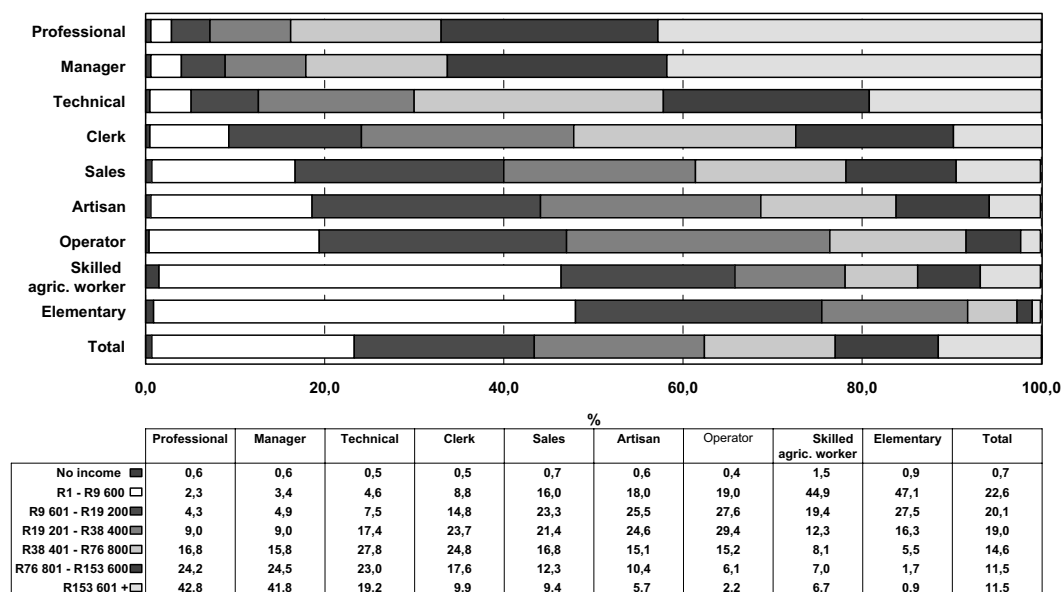
Source: Census 2001

By occupation of employed household heads aged 15–65 years

Figure 10.15 indicates that, among households with employed heads aged 15–65 years, the household income in 2001 was unevenly distributed by the occupation of the household head.

- More than four in every ten households with a head working in either an elementary (47,1%) or a skilled agricultural (44,9%) occupation recorded an annual household income of R1 – R9 600.
- More than four in every ten households with a head working in a managerial (41,8%) or a professional (42,8%) occupation recorded an annual household income of at least R153 601.

Figure 10.15: Distribution of employed household heads in each occupational category by annual household income, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Summary

In this chapter, we used data from Census 1996 and 2001 to describe the households of South Africa by the characteristics of their heads. Those who may have been heads of households in collective living quarters in either Census 1996 or 2001 were excluded from this description.

In 1996, there were 9,0 million households, compared with 11,2 million in 2001. There were 5,6 million male-headed households in 1996 (62,1% of all households in Census 1996), increasing to 6,4 million in 2001 (but proportionately decreasing to 57,4% of all households in Census 2001).

There were 3,4 million female-headed households in 1996 (37,9%), increasing to 4,8 million in 2001 (proportionately increasing to 42,6% in 2001). In 1996, there were 6,5 million households headed by a black African person, or 72,6% of all households counted in 1996 increasing to 8,6 million or 77,0% of all households in 2001.

Regarding age, in 2001 there was a small percentage of households (2,0%) with heads below the age of 20 years. After this age there was a steep increase in the percentage of heads with each increase in age category, reaching a peak at age 35–39 years (13,0%), after which the percentage in each age category decreased, but more slowly than the original increase. Proportionately more black African household heads than in the overall picture were found in the younger age categories, followed by coloured, and then Indian/Asian household heads. The distribution of white household heads showed a flatter curve than for the other population groups, with a larger proportion being found in the older age categories. Regarding sex of the household head, a larger proportion of female-headed households were found in the older age categories than male-headed ones.

Concerning highest level of education of the household head, in general, black African household heads had received fewer educational opportunities than household heads of other population groups. Within the category of black African household heads, women had achieved lower levels of education than men.

For example, 23,1% of black African male, and 32,0% of black African female household heads had received no formal education, compared with 0,9% of white male and 1,5% of white female household heads. At the upper end of the scale, as large a proportion as 35,3% of white male and 28,2% of white female household heads had attained post-school qualifications, compared with 5,3% of black African male and 4,7% of black African female household heads.

When looking at labour market status of the household head, in total, 60,9% of male household heads and 35,7% of female household heads aged 15–65 years were employed. African female heads of households were least likely to be employed (32,3%), and white male heads of households were most likely to be employed (82,1%).

Among employed household heads aged 15–65 years, there were clear differences in occupation by both population group and sex. For example, 15,3% of employed black African household heads was in managerial, professional or technical occupations, compared with 57,7% of white household heads. More than half of the employed black African female household heads (55,6%) were in elementary occupations, compared with a much smaller proportion of employed white male and female household heads (2,6% for both sexes) in these occupations.

Population group and sex of the household head were related to the unevenly distributed annual household income in October 2001. Black African female-headed households tended to have the lowest incomes in 2001, followed by black African male-headed ones. White male-headed households tended to have the highest incomes.

Annual household income in October 2001 was also unevenly distributed by the age category of the household head. With each increasing age category of the household head, there was a decrease in the proportion of households with no income. In households with heads aged 65 years or more, more than four in every ten fell into the annual income category of R1 to R9 600; these heads may have been receiving government pensions.

Employed household heads tended, in general, to live in households with members who have at least some additional income. A smaller proportion than 1,0% of households with an employed head, across all population groups, indicated the household had no annual income in October 2001. In households where the head indicated that he or she was unemployed in October 2001, 65,3% said that the household had no income.

A range of households with a head who was either unemployed or not economically active reported at least some income. Such income could be obtained from a variety of sources, including grants and pensions, other working members in the household, or remittances.

Among households with employed heads, the household income in 2001 was unevenly distributed by the occupation of the household head. More than four in every ten households with a head working in either an elementary (47,1%) or a skilled agricultural (44,9%) occupation received an annual income of R1 to R9 600. More than four in every ten households with a head working in a managerial (41,8%) or a professional (42,8%) occupation received an annual household income of at least R153 601.

Chapter 11 – Dwellings and household size

Introduction

In this chapter, the focus is on the 11,2 million households in the country at the time of Census 2001,¹⁷ excluding collective living quarters.¹⁸ The chapter examines the type of dwelling in which households lived, and the household size. In selected cases, comparisons are drawn between Census 1996 and 2001, to indicate changes that have taken place in living conditions in households between the two censuses.

Dwellings in which households lived: 1996 and 2001

Dwellings were classified into five basic categories for the purposes of this discussion.

Proportion of households in formal dwellings increased

- Formal dwellings are permanent built structures, including houses or brick structures on a separate stand or yard, flats or apartments in blocks of flats, and other structures that are recognisably formal, for example townhouses, cluster houses, simplexes, duplexes, duets and semi-detached houses.
- Traditional dwellings are structures built of traditional materials such as thatch, tree branches, mud and dung.
- Informal dwellings or shacks are shelters made of a variety of materials, including plastic, cardboard, corrugated iron, wood and a combination of these materials. These may be in backyards or in informal settlements.
- Backyard formal dwellings are permanent rooms or flatlets, situated either in the backyards of or on the shared property of a formal dwelling, for example, domestic workers' quarters, garages, and granny flats.
- Other dwellings include a variety of structures such as caravans, tents, ships, yachts and boats.

Type of dwelling by province

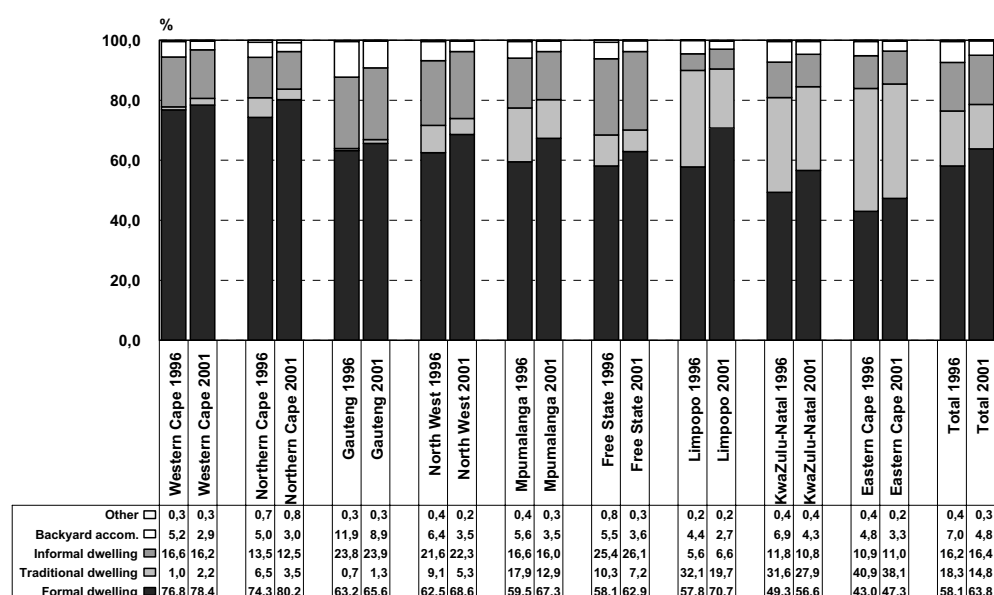
Figure 11.1 indicates the type of dwelling in which households lived in both 1996 and 2001 by province.

- It shows that the overall proportion of households living in formal dwellings increased between 1996 and 2001, from 58,1% in 1996 to 63,8% in 2001. This increase in the proportion of households living in formal dwellings applies to all provinces.
- There was a corresponding decrease in the proportion of households living in traditional dwellings over this time period, from 18,3% in 1996 to 14,8% in 2001.
- There was also a decrease in the proportion of households living in backyard rooms or shared property, from 7,0% in 1996 to 4,8% in 2001.
- On the other hand, the proportion of households living in informal dwellings has remained approximately the same (16,2% in 1996 and 16,4% in 2001).

¹⁷ Household weights, adjusting for undercount of households in both Census 1996 and 2001, rather than person weights, have been used in this chapter.

¹⁸ In this chapter, collective living quarters are excluded from all analyses for both 1996 and 2001.

Figure 11.1: Distribution of households in each province by type of dwelling, 1996 and 2001



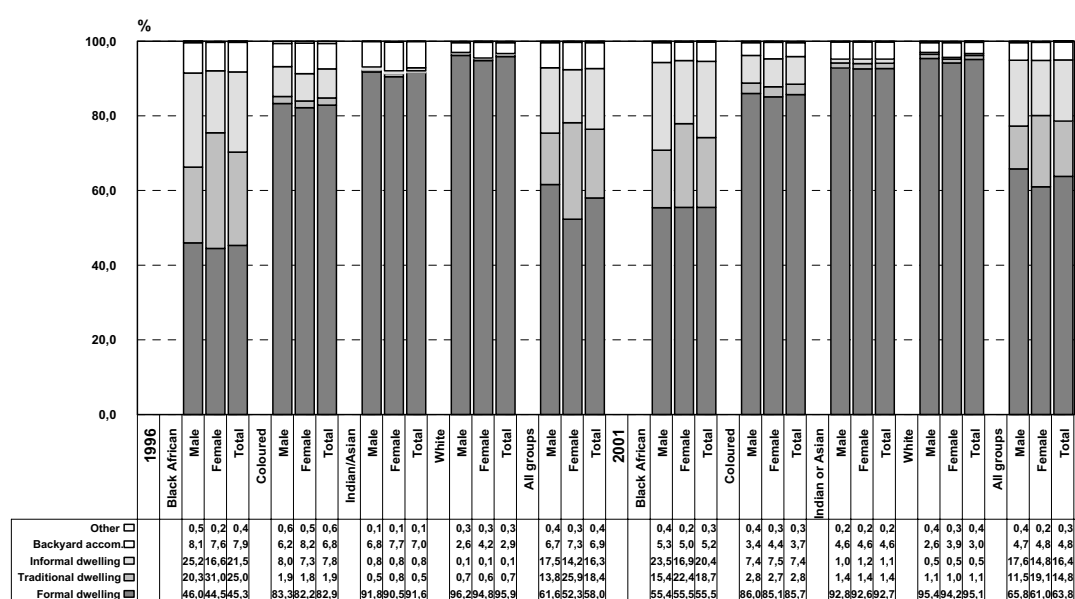
Source: Census 1996 and 2001

Type of dwelling by population group and sex of household head

Figure 11.2 shows that:

- Between 1996 and 2001, there was an increase in the proportion of households headed by black Africans that were living in formal dwellings, from 45,3% in 1996 to 55,5% in 2001.
- There was also an increase in the proportion of coloured-headed households living in formal dwellings, from 82,9% in 1996 to 85,7% in 2001.
- Over this time period, among those households headed by an Indian/Asian or a white person, almost all households continued to live in either a formal dwelling (more than nine in every 10 households), or else a backyard room or flatlet on a shared stand.

Figure 11.2: Distribution of households by type of dwelling within population group and sex, 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 1996 and 2001

Number of people living in a household: 1996 and 2001

In this section we examine the number of people living in a household according to selected variables, including province, population group and sex of the household head.

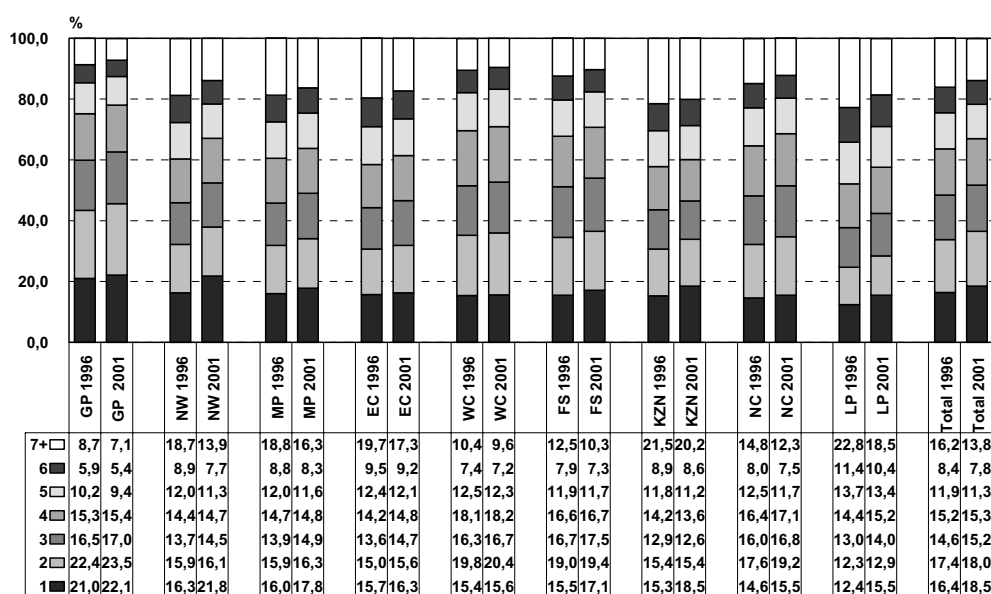
Smaller proportion of households with seven or more people

By province

Figure 11.3 indicates that, in general, the number of people per household decreased between 1996 and 2001 across all provinces.

- For example, in the country as a whole in 1996, 16,4% of households were single-person households, increasing to 18,5% in 2001. At the other extreme, 16,2% of households in 1996 contained seven or more people, decreasing to 13,8% of households in 2001.
- The percentage of single-person households increased across all provinces. The largest percentage increase was in KwaZulu-Natal (from 15,3% of all households in the province in 1996 to 18,5% of all households in the province in 2001), while the smallest was in Western Cape (from 15,4% 1996 to 15,6% in 2001).
- In both 1996 and 2001, Gauteng had the smallest proportion of households containing seven or more people (8,7% in 1996 and 7,1% in 2001). On the other hand, in 1996, Limpopo had the largest proportion of households containing seven or more people (22,8%), whereas in 2001 KwaZulu-Natal had the largest proportion (20,2%).

Figure 11.3: Distribution of households in each province by the number of people in the household, 1996 and 2001



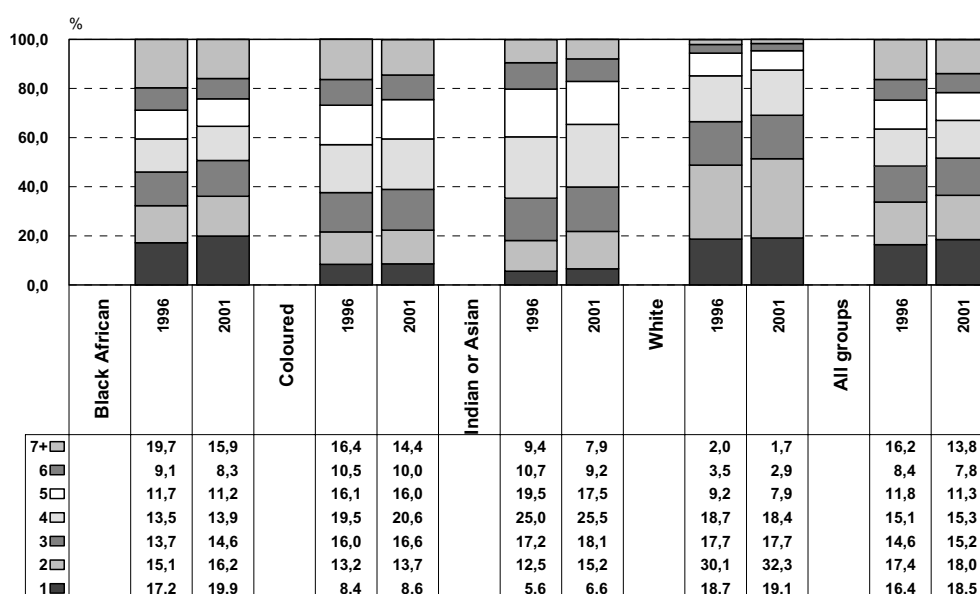
Source: Census 1996 and 2001

By population group of the household head

Figure 11.4 indicates that, in general, there were on average fewer people per household in 2001 than in 1996 across population groups. For example, among households headed by a black African in 1996, 17,2% of households were single-person households, increasing to 19,9% in 2001. At the other extreme, 19,7% of households headed by a black African in 1996 had seven or more people living in them, decreasing to 15,9% in 2001.

The figure also shows that, in both 1996 and 2001, the largest proportion of households with seven or more people continued to be headed by black Africans even though this proportion had decreased over the time period (19,7% in 1996; 15,9% in 2001), followed by those headed by a coloured person (16,4% in 1996; 14,4% in 2001), then by an Indian/Asian (9,4% in 1996; 7,9% in 2001), and then by a white person (2,0% in 1996; 1,7% in 2001).

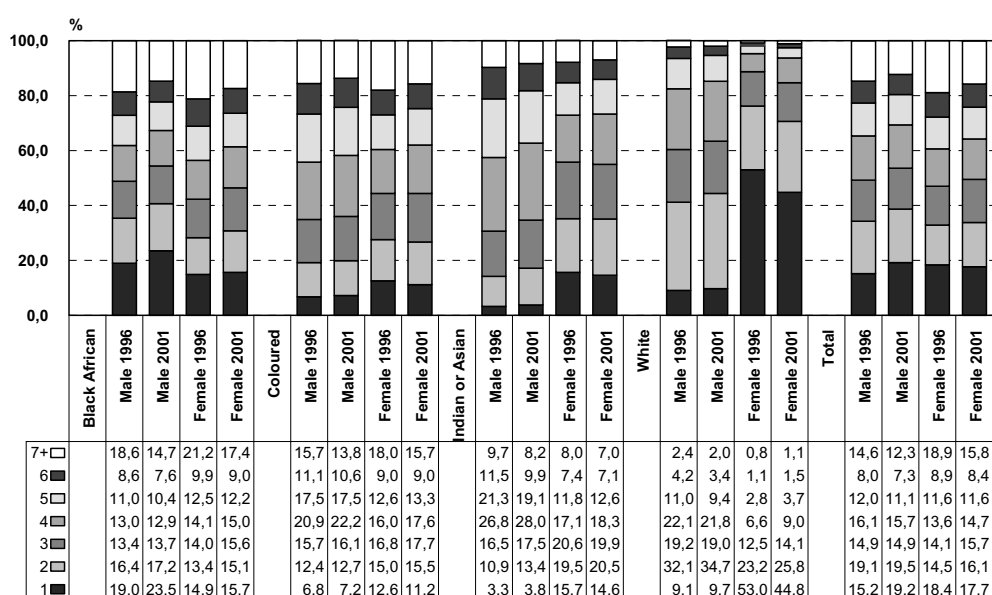
Figure 11.4: Household size within population group, 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 1996 and 2001

By sex of the household head

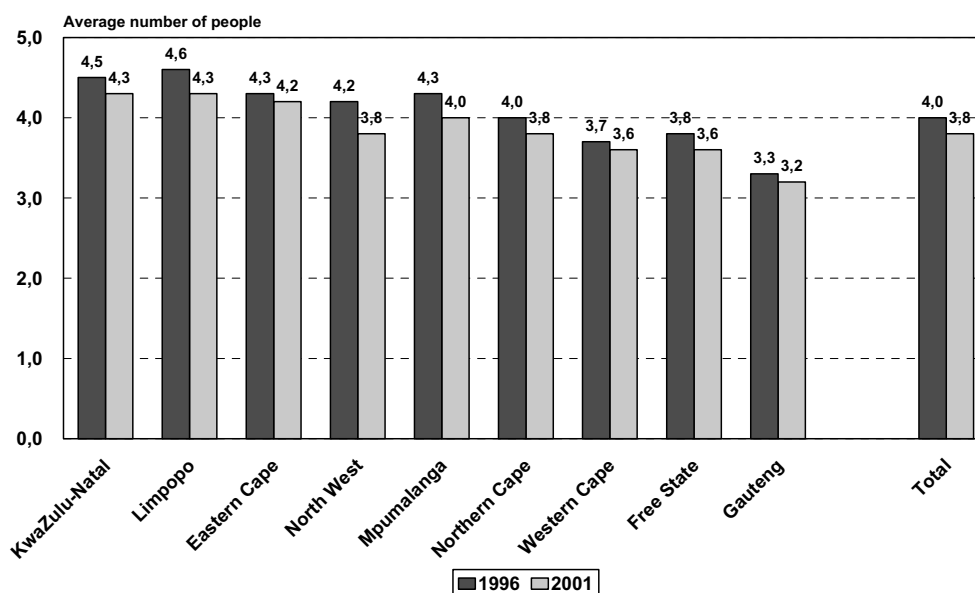
Figure 11.5 indicates that, except among households headed by white females, there has been an overall decrease in the number of people per household, on average, over time, for both male and female heads. Despite this, within the African and coloured population groups female-headed households were likely to be larger in both years. For households headed by white females, the proportion of single-person households has decreased (from 53,0% in 1996 to 44,8% in 2001), with a corresponding increase in two- and three-person households for this group.

Figure 11.5: Household size within population group and sex, 1996 and 2001

Source: Census 1996 and 2001

Average household size

Figure 11.6 compares the average household size in 1996 with the average household size in 2001 by province. In general, the average household size decreased, across all provinces.

Figure 11.6: Average household size in each province, 1996 and 2001

Source: Census 1996 and 2001

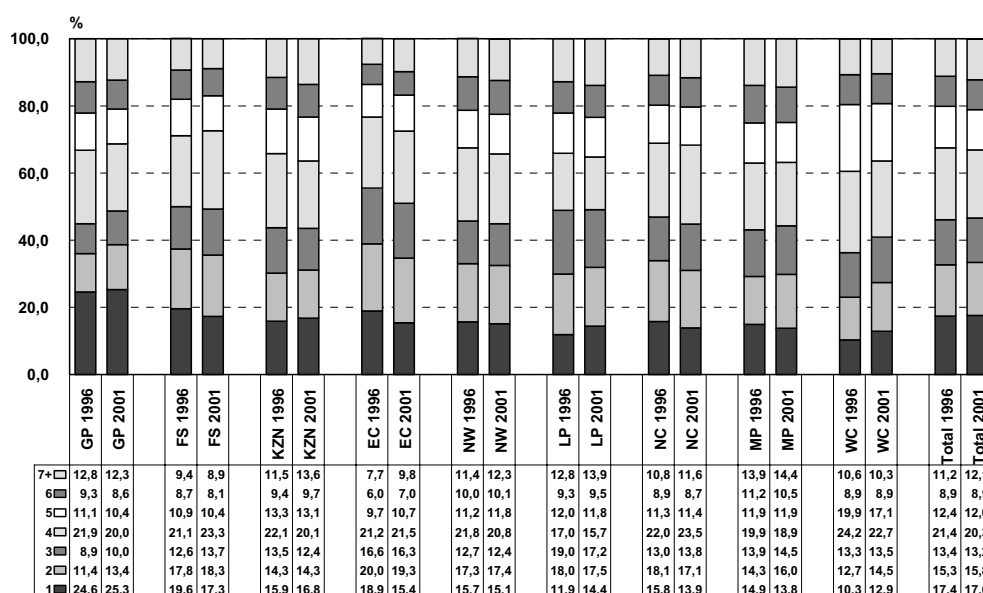
Number of rooms per household: 1996 and 2001

By province

Figure 11.7 indicates the number of rooms occupied by households living in each province for 1996 and 2001. It shows that:

- In general, across the country, the proportion of households living in one, two, three, four, five, six, and seven or more rooms did not change much over time, but there was some provincial variation.
- For example, between 1996 and 2001 in Gauteng, there was an increase in the proportion of households living in three or fewer rooms (44,9% in 1996; 48,7% in 2001), and a decrease in the proportion of households living in four or more rooms (55,1% in 1996; 51,3% in 2001).
- In Eastern Cape, on the other hand, there was a decrease in the proportion of households living in three or fewer rooms (55,5% in 1996; 51,0% in 2001).

Figure 11.7: Distribution of households in each province by number of rooms, 1996 and 2001

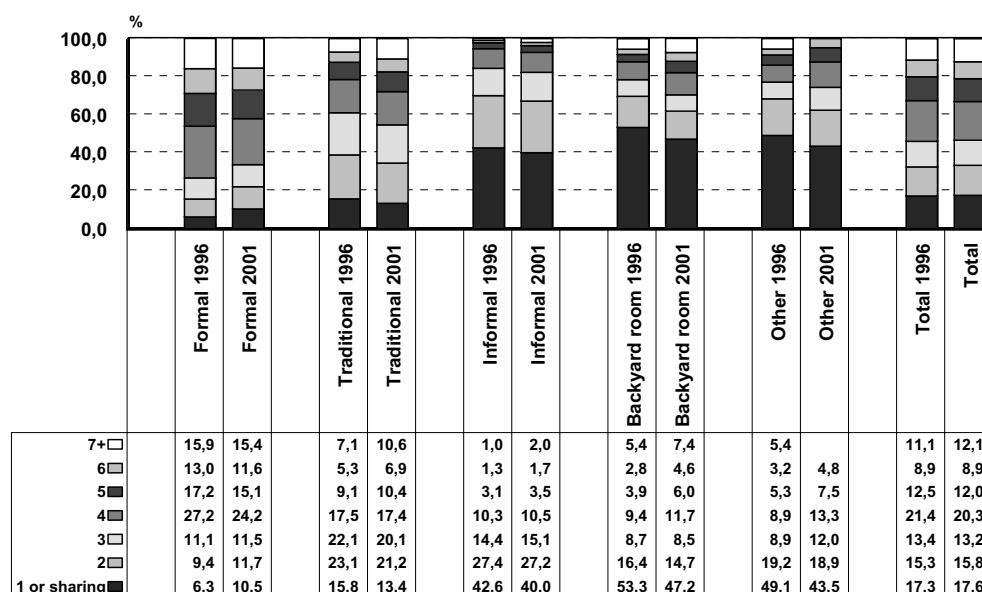


Source: Census 1996 and 2001

By type of dwelling

Figure 11.8 indicates the number of rooms occupied by households by the type of dwelling in which they lived for both 1996 and 2001. It shows that, in both years, the accommodation for households living in informal dwellings and backyard rooms or flatlets tended to be smaller than the accommodation for those living in formal or traditional dwellings. For example, of the households living in informal dwellings, 84,4% in 1996 and 82,3% in 2001 were living in three or fewer rooms.

Figure 11.8: Distribution of households in each type of dwelling by number of rooms, 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 1996 and 2001

Number of rooms and number of persons in the household: 2001

Number of rooms by type of area

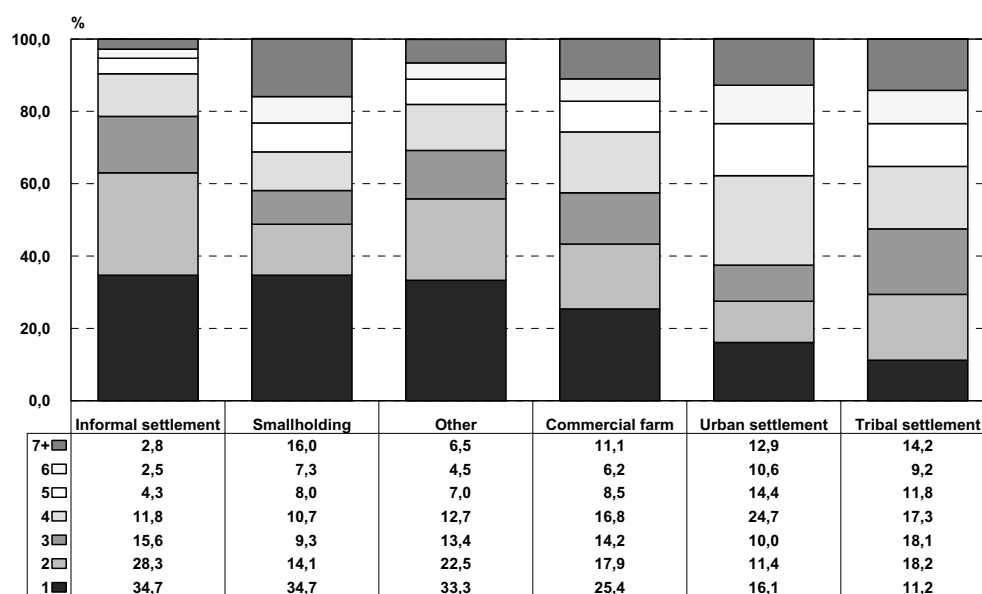
Figure 11.9 indicates that the type of enumeration area¹⁹ correlated with the number of rooms in which the household lived.

Most households in informal settlements in three or fewer rooms

- Among those in informal settlements at the time of Census 2001, more than a third of households (34,7%) were living in one room, more than a quarter (28,3%) were living in two rooms, and more than one in seven (15,6%) were living in three rooms. Altogether, more than three-quarters of households (78,6%) in informal settlements were living in three or fewer rooms.
- On the other hand, among those counted in formal urban settlements in 2001, a far smaller proportion of households (37,5%) than those counted in informal settlements was living in three or fewer rooms. A quarter of these households (24,7%) were living in four rooms, and more than a third (37,9%) was living in five or more rooms.

¹⁹ In this breakdown emphasis is placed on the five enumeration area types where households in housing units are mostly found. Hostels, institutions, industrial areas, national parks and reserves, and vacant or sparsely occupied land are grouped as 'Other'.

Figure 11.9: Distribution of households in selected types of enumeration area by number of rooms, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Relationship between number of rooms and number of people

Table 11.1 examines the relationship between the number of people in a household in 2001 and the number of rooms in which households were living.²⁰ Looking first at the number of rooms available to households, it can be seen in the bottom row of the table that there were:

- 2,0 million households living in one room, or else sharing a single room with another household or other households (334 000 households of the 2,0 million were living in a shared room with at least one other household; this is **not** shown in the table);
- 1,8 million households living in two rooms;
- 1,5 million households living in three rooms;
- 2,3 million households living in four rooms;
- 1,3 million households living in five rooms;
- 1,0 million households living in six rooms; and
- 1,4 million households living in seven rooms or more.

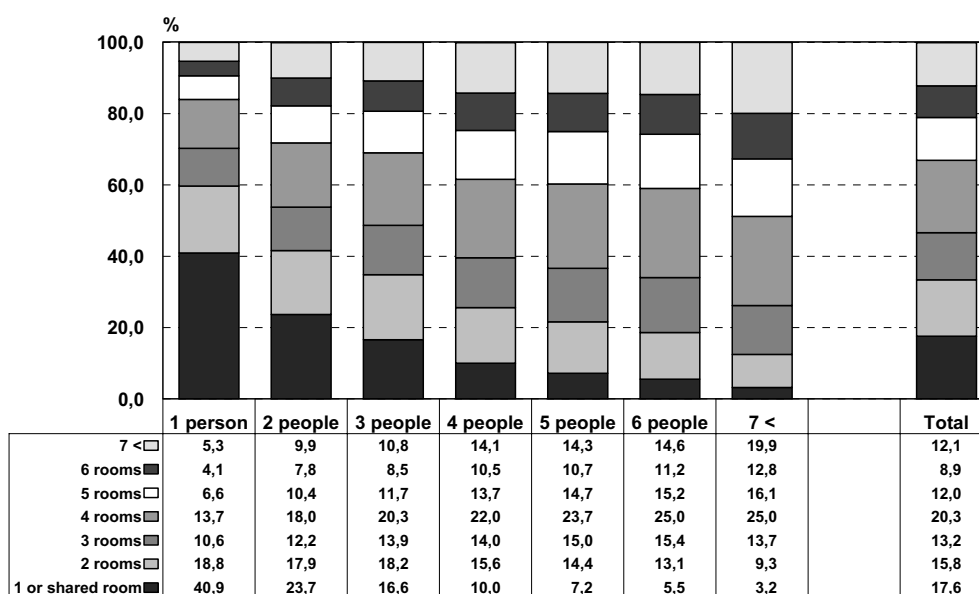
²⁰ The number of rooms available for the household to live in are those rooms, including kitchens, found within the dwelling, or in all dwellings, if the household occupies more than one dwelling. The definition *excludes* bathrooms, sheds, garages, stables etc., *unless* there are persons actually living in them. The reader is reminded that collective living quarters are excluded from this discussion.

Table 11.1: Distribution of households by number of rooms and number of people in the household, 2001

Number of people	Number of rooms															Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15 <	
1	850 203	389 686	220 632	285 694	136 169	86 096	48 051	26 391	14 225	7 446	4 749	2 618	1 308	1 034	3 711	2 078 013
2	479 638	362 553	247 249	364 438	211 087	157 127	89 586	52 363	26 657	13 886	6 258	4 177	1 736	1 365	3 425	2 021 544
3	282 854	309 950	237 685	345 330	198 951	145 529	80 870	48 456	25 220	13 263	6 044	3 712	1 678	1 268	3 047	1 703 856
4	171 928	267 501	239 446	376 807	234 550	180 618	103 037	64 066	34 599	18 144	8 230	5 353	2 355	1 803	3 613	1 712 050
5	91 339	183 017	190 283	301 089	186 195	135 236	77 063	47 634	25 861	13 976	6 550	4 295	2 052	1 471	3 020	1 269 082
6	47 540	114 026	134 496	217 472	132 111	97 948	54 388	32 719	17 980	9 726	4 706	2 920	1 610	1 088	2 267	870 998
7	23 743	65 100	86 608	145 304	89 640	66 671	38 698	23 286	12 570	6 807	3 376	2 107	1 142	856	1 702	567 610
8	12 140	36 204	53 574	93 341	59 128	45 489	27 064	16 859	9 298	5 213	2 622	1 585	833	638	1 256	365 244
9	6 340	19 704	31 861	59 196	38 648	31 041	18 802	11 951	6 842	3 973	1 849	1 262	689	508	951	233 618
10	4 394	13 467	22 717	46 062	31 166	26 485	17 052	11 285	6 745	4 199	2 292	1 500	851	648	1 309	190 171
11	1 187	3 835	6 816	15 407	10 592	9 473	6 161	4 108	2 550	1 543	812	584	279	186	394	63 926
12	742	2 452	4 556	10 775	7 614	6 639	4 710	3 167	1 954	1 257	666	475	310	174	395	45 884
13	466	1 429	2 824	6 834	4 766	4 462	3 227	2 277	1 442	997	519	381	219	164	329	30 338
14	304	793	1 604	3 953	2 894	2 758	2 061	1 496	1 031	674	409	265	178	121	247	18 789
15 <	443	1 218	2 463	6 616	4 793	4 804	3 717	3 044	2 091	1 601	1 018	810	524	416	1 025	34 584
Total	1 973 262	1 770 935	1 482 813	2 278 318	1 348 303	1 000 377	574 487	349 101	189 064	102 703	50 099	32 045	15 764	11 742	26 691	11 205 705

Figure 11.10 shows, as one would expect, that larger households tend to live in accommodation with more rooms than smaller households.

- As many as 40,9% of single-person households were living in one room or a shared room in 2001, compared with 3,2% of households containing seven or more people.
- On the other hand, 19,9% of households containing seven or more people were found in accommodation consisting of seven or more rooms, while 5,3% of single-person households were living in seven or more rooms.

Figure 11.10: Distribution of households of each size by number of rooms they occupy, 2001

Source: Census 2001

Overcrowding

Some households may be living in overcrowded conditions relative to the number of rooms that they occupy. Further analysis has therefore been done in relation to the issue of overcrowding.

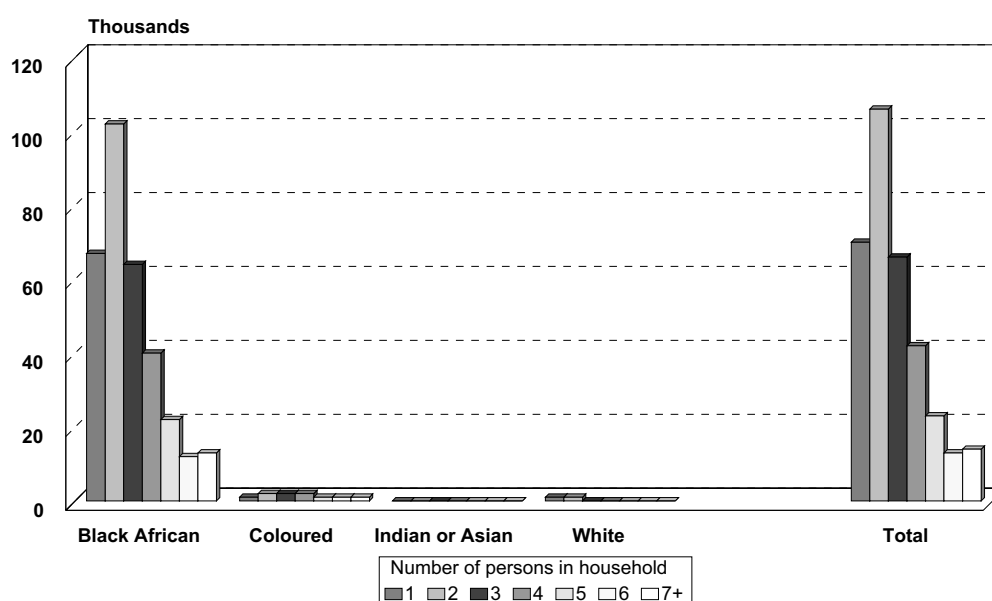
For the purposes of this report, there are two ways of looking at overcrowding. First, as a rough measure, overcrowding refers to a situation where the dwelling, including the kitchen, has at least one room with more than three people living in it, while the other rooms have at least three people. For example, in any household, four people living in one room is regarded as living in overcrowded conditions; seven people sharing two rooms (e.g. four in one room, three in the other); and ten people sharing three rooms (e.g. four in one room and three in the other two), are regarded as living in overcrowded conditions.

In addition, when two or more households share one room, all households sharing this room are regarded as living in overcrowded conditions.

The estimation of overcrowded households is noticed firstly in the darker grey squares of Table 11.1, which shows that 563 000 households (5,0%) were living in overcrowded conditions in Census 2001, using the definition of at least one room with more than three people, and the other rooms with at least three people. Secondly, a further analysis of the 19 000 households containing 15 or more people living in six or more rooms – those households shown in the lighter grey squares of Table 11.1 – indicates that approximately 1 000 of these households were living in overcrowded conditions, giving a total of 564 000 overcrowded households (5,0%). We then add the 334 000 households who were living in a room shared with at least one other household (3,0%). Altogether, using these two criteria, 897 000 (8,0%) of all households were living in overcrowded conditions.

Figure 11.11 indicates that of the 334 000 households living in a shared room with at least one other household in 2001, the vast majority was headed by a black African person. Overall, 70 000 single-person households, 106 000 two-person, 66 000 three-person, 42 000 four-person, 23 000 five-person, 13 000 six-person and 14 000 seven-or-more-person households were living in one shared room with at least one other household.

Figure 11.11: Number of households of each size living in a shared room within population group of the household head, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Summary

In this chapter, the focus was on the 11,2 million households in the country at the time of Census 2001 (excluding collective living quarters), the type of dwellings in which they lived, and household size. In selected cases, comparisons were drawn between Census 1996 and 2001. Dwellings were classified into five basic categories for the purposes of this discussion: formal, traditional, informal, backyard rooms and flatlets, and other types of dwellings.

The overall proportion of households living in formal dwellings increased between 1996 and 2001, from 58,1% to 63,8%. There was a corresponding decrease in the proportion of households living in traditional dwellings, from 18,3% in 1996 to 14,8% in 2001. There was also a decrease in the proportion of households living in backyard rooms and other accommodation on a shared property, from 7,0% in 1996 to 4,8% in 2001. On the other hand, the proportion of households living in informal dwellings remained approximately the same (16,2% in 1996 and 16,4% in 2001).

Regarding population group, there was an increase in the proportion of households headed by black Africans that were living in formal dwellings, from 45,3% in 1996 to 55,5% in 2001. There was also an increase in the proportion of households headed by a coloured person living in formal dwellings, from 82,9% in 1996 to 85,7% in 2001. Among those households headed by an Indian/Asian or a white person, almost all households (more than nine in every 10) continued to live in either a formal dwelling, or else a backyard room or flatlet.

In general, the number of people per household and the average household size decreased between 1996 and 2001 across all provinces. In the country as a whole, 16,4% of households were single-person households in 1996, increasing to 18,5% in 2001. At the other extreme, 16,2% of households in 1996 contained seven or more people, decreasing to 13,8% of households in 2001. Gauteng had the smallest proportion of households containing seven or more people (8,7% in 1996 and 7,1% in 2001).

In both 1996 and 2001, the largest proportion of households with seven or more people continued to be headed by a black African (19,7% in 1996; 15,9% in 2001), followed by those headed by a coloured person (16,4% in 1996; 14,4% in 2001), then by an Indian/Asian (9,4% in 1996; 7,9% in 2001), and then by a white person (2,0% in 1996; 1,7% in 2001).

In 2001, 2,0 million households were living in one room or else sharing a single room with another household or other households, and at the other extreme, 1,4 million households were living in seven rooms or more.

In both 1996 and 2001, the number of rooms available for households living in informal dwellings and backyard rooms or flatlets tended to be fewer than the number of rooms available for those living in formal or traditional dwellings. For example, of households living in informal dwellings 84,4% in 1996 and 82,3% in 2001 were living in three or fewer rooms.

Overcrowding, as a rough measure, refers here to the situation where the dwelling in which a household lives, including the kitchen, has at least one room with more than three people living in it, while the other rooms have at least three people, on average. In addition, when two or more households share one room, all households sharing this room are regarded as living in overcrowded conditions, irrespective of household size. Altogether, using these two criteria, 897 000 (8,0%) of all households were living in overcrowded conditions in October 2001.

Chapter 12 – Facilities and services available to households

Female-headed households lag behind in access to all services

Introduction

In this chapter the focus is again on the 11,2 million households in the country at the time of Census 2001,²¹ excluding collective living quarters. We now examine household access to facilities and services such as electricity, water, sanitation, telephones and refuse removal.

Energy sources used for domestic purposes: 1996 and 2001

In this section, we look at households' use of energy for three different uses – cooking, heating and lighting – by three main variables – province, population group and sex. Comparisons are made between Census 1996 and Census 2001 for all three uses.

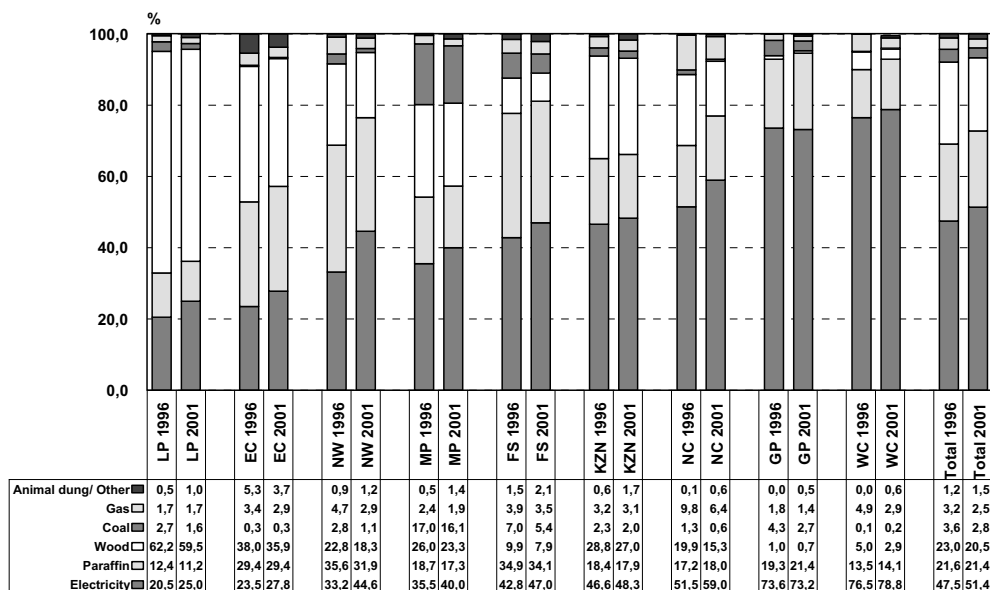
Main energy source used for cooking by province

Figure 12.1 indicates the following:

- The use of electricity by households as the main energy source for cooking increased from 47,5% in 1996 to 54,1% in 2001. This increase applied to all provinces, with the exception of Gauteng, where the proportion of households using electricity as the main source for cooking remained approximately constant (73,6% in 1996 and 73,2% in 2001).
- On the other hand, the use of wood as the main energy source for cooking decreased country-wide from 23,0% in 1996 to 20,5% in 2001. This applied in all provinces. In Limpopo province, however, although there was a decrease in the proportion of households using wood as the main source of energy for cooking, from 62,2% in 1996 to 59,5% in 2001, six in every ten households continued to use wood.
- The proportion of households using paraffin for cooking remained more or less constant between the two censuses (21,6% in 1996 and 21,4% in 2001), but there was some provincial variation.

²¹ The reader is reminded that household weights, adjusted for the undercount of households in both Census 1996 and 2001, rather than person weights, have been used in this chapter.

Figure 12.1: Distribution of households in each province by main source of energy for cooking, 1996 and 2001

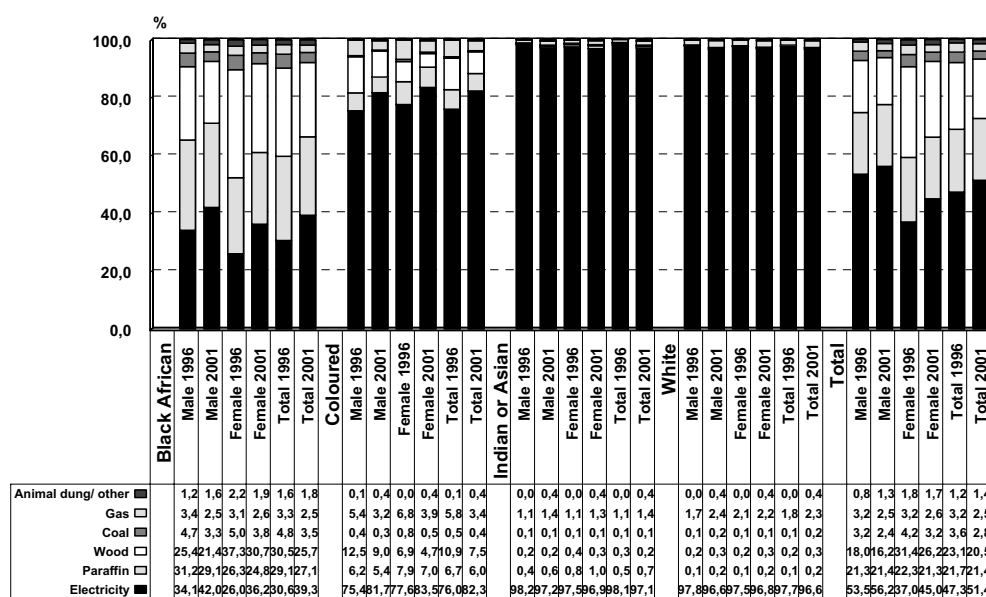


Source: Census 1996 and 2001
Excluding unspecified energy sources in 1996

Main energy source used for cooking by population group and sex

Figure 12.2 indicates that, between 1996 and 2001, households' use of electricity as the main energy source for cooking increased among households headed by black African and coloured males and females. Nevertheless, in 2001, one in five households headed by a black African male (21,4%), and one in three households headed by a black African female, were using wood as the main source of energy for cooking. The use of electricity as the main source of energy for cooking remained extremely high over the time period (more than 95%) for both Indian/Asian and white male and female household heads.

Figure 12.2: Distribution of households within population group and sex of the household head by main source of energy for cooking, 1996 and 2001



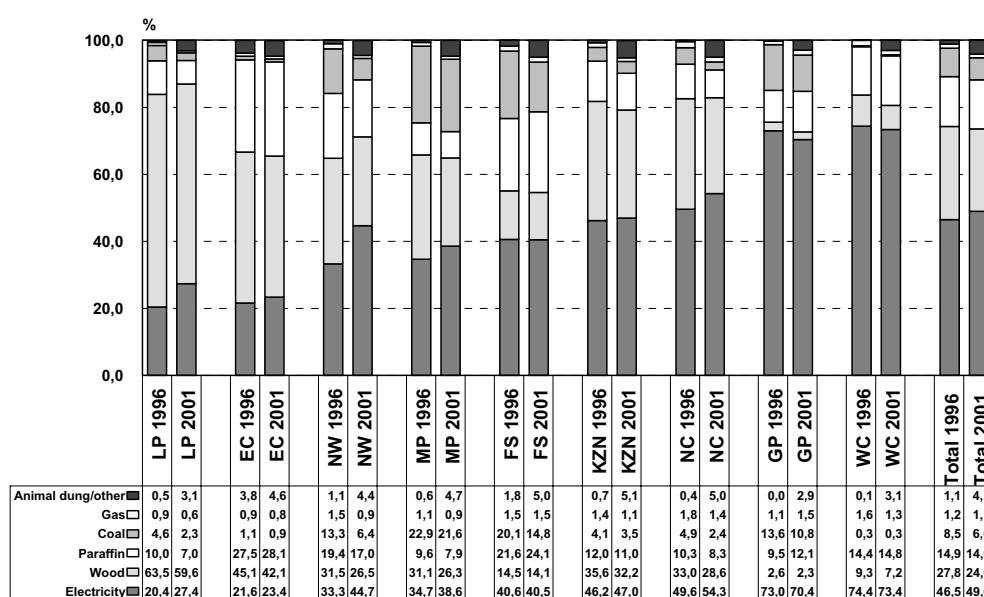
Source: Census 1996 and 2001
Excluding unspecified energy sources in 1996

Main energy source used for heating by province

Figure 12.3 shows a similar pattern to Figure 12.1. The use of electricity by households as the main energy source for heating increased from 46,5% in 1996 to 49,0% in 2001.

- Wood as the main fuel for heating decreased (from 27,8% in 1996 to 24,6% in 2001), but continued to be widely used in Limpopo (59,6% in 2001) and Eastern Cape (42,1% in 2001).
- The proportion of households using paraffin for heating remained more or less constant between the two censuses (14,9% in 1996 and 14,6% in 2001, but there was some provincial variation).

Figure 12.3: Distribution of households in each province by main source of energy for heating, 1996 and 2001

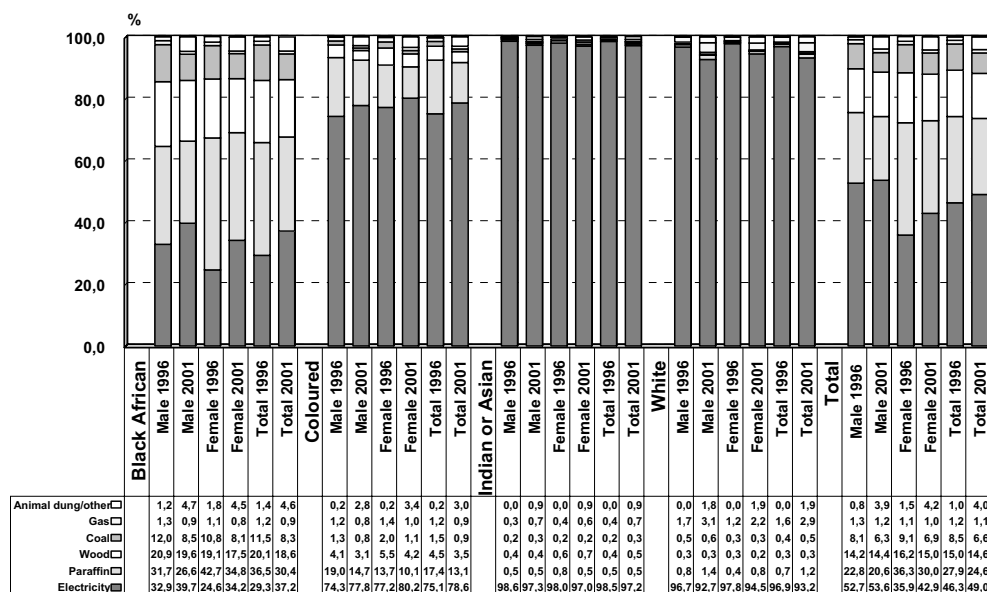


Source: Census 1996 and 2001
Excluding unspecified energy sources in 1996

Main energy source used for heating by population group and sex

Figure 12.4 indicates that between 1996 and 2001, in similar vein to the picture for cooking, households' use of electricity as the main energy source for heating increased among households headed by black African and coloured males and females.

Figure 12.4: Distribution of households within population group and sex of the household head by main source of energy for heating, 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 1996 and 2001
Excluding unspecified energy sources in 1996

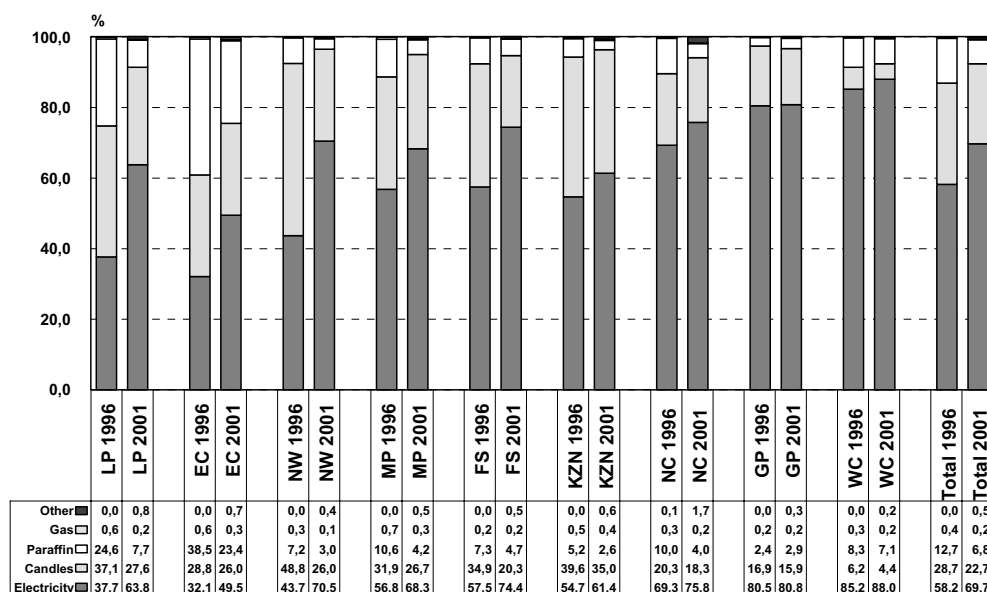
Main energy source used for lighting by province

The census results clearly show that in both 1996 and 2001, the main use of electricity was for lighting, rather than for cooking and heating. The use of electricity by households as the main source for lighting rose significantly in 2001. In 1996, 58,2% of households were using electricity for lighting, while a smaller proportion of 47,5% were using electricity for cooking, and 46,5% were using it for heating. In 2001, 69,7% were using electricity for lighting, while a significantly smaller proportion of 51,4% were using it for cooking, and 49,0% for heating.

Figure 12.5 therefore shows the steep increase in the proportion of households who used electricity as the main energy source for lighting (from 58,2% in 1996 to 69,7% in 2001). The proportion of households using candles and paraffin for lighting consequently decreased between the two censuses (candles: 28,7% in 1996 and 22,7% in 2001; paraffin: 12,7% in 1996 and 6,8% in 2001).

It should be noted that the census captures use of electricity, not access. In the case of heating and cooking, use may be limited for reasons of expense, both of the electricity itself and of appliances, so no conclusions can be drawn about access to electricity. The use of electricity for lighting, however, can be taken as a proxy for access to at least some level of electricity.

Figure 12.5: Distribution of households in each province by main source of energy for lighting, 1996 and 2001

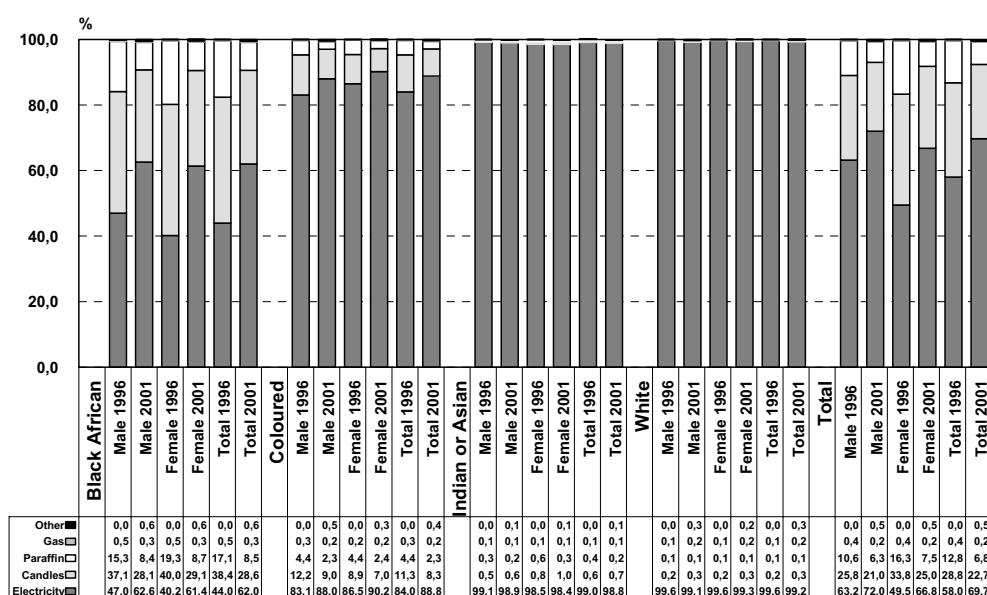


Source: Census 1996 and 2001
Excluding unspecified energy sources in 1996

Main energy source used for lighting by population group and sex

Figure 12.6 indicates that the steep increase between 1996 and 2001 in households' use of electricity as the main energy source for lighting applied particularly among households headed by black African and coloured males and females.

Figure 12.6: Distribution of households within population group and sex of the household head by mean source of energy for lighting, 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 1996 and 2001
Excluding unspecified energy sources in 1996

The main water source for households: 1996 and 2001

The questions on access to water were different in 1996 and in 2001.²² While every effort has been made to make the information comparable, the changes in the main water source for households described below should be regarded as indicative, rather than as definitive.

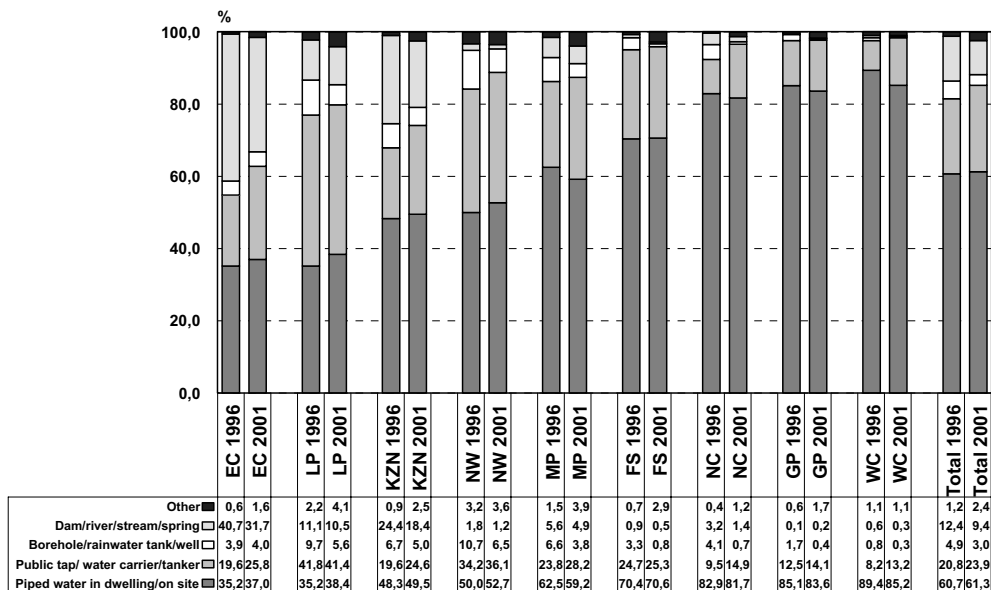
Female-headed households less likely than male-headed households to have piped water on site.

Main water source for domestic use by province

The results of the two censuses show that access to piped water for households' domestic use increased between the census years.

- Figure 12.7 shows an increase in the proportion of households using public taps as the main water source between 1996 (20,8%) and 2001 (23,9%), and a decrease in the proportion of households using dams, rivers, streams and springs (12,4% in 1996; 9,4% in 2001).
- The proportion of households using piped water on site or in the dwelling did show an overall slight increase, from 60,7% in 1996 to 61,3% in 2001, but this was not uniform across provinces.
- For example in Gauteng and Western Cape, the proportion of households with piped water on site or in the dwelling decreased (Gauteng – 85,1% in 1996, 83,6% in 2001; and Western Cape – 89,4% in 1996, 85,2% in 2001).
- In certain provinces such as the Eastern Cape, the access to piped water from a community source increased substantially, from 19,6% in 1996 to 25,8% in 2001, with a significant consequent decline in the proportion of households obtaining water from a dam, river, stream or spring, from 40,7% in 1996 to 31,7% in 2001. In KwaZulu-Natal, a similar increase was found, where the proportion of households obtaining piped water from a communal source increased from 19,6% in 1996 to 24,6% in 2001, and the proportion obtaining water from a dam, river, stream or spring declined, from 24,4% to 18,4%.

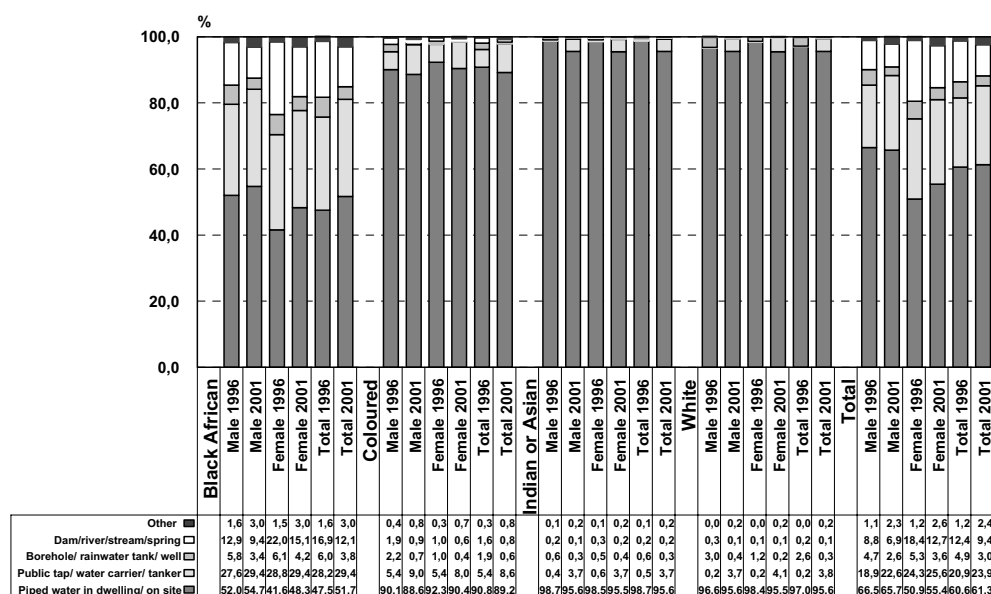
²² In 1996, respondents were asked to indicate their households' main water supply by choosing one of the following: piped (tap) water in the dwelling; piped (tap) water on site or in the yard; public tap; water carrier or tanker; borehole, rainwater tank or well; dam, river stream or spring; or other sources. In 2001, at the request of the relevant users, the question was changed. Respondents were asked to answer two questions. The first question concerned having access piped water, including: having no access; getting piped water from a community pipe (either 200 metres or less, or more than 200 metres from the dwelling); having piped water in the yard; and having it in the dwelling. The second question concerned actual water source, namely: a regional or local water scheme; or other options such as a water vendor; a borehole, rainwater tank or well; a dam, river, stream or spring; or any other source. A derived variable was obtained in 2001, combining these two questions, for comparisons with 1996.

Figure 12.7: Distribution of households in each province by main source of water, 1996 and 2001

Source: Census 1996 and 2001
Excluding unspecified water sources in 1996

Main water source for domestic use by population group and sex

Figure 12.8 indicates that in 2001, compared with 1996, there had been an improvement in access to piped water, within the dwelling, on site or from a communal source, among households headed by a black African male or female, and a consequent decline in the use of water from a dam, river, stream or spring. For example, the proportion of households headed by a black African female obtaining water from a dam, river, stream or spring declined from 22,0% in 1996 to 15,1% in 2001, while the proportion obtaining water from a piped source increased from 70,4% in 1996 to 77,7% in 2001.

Figure 12.8: Distribution of households within population group and sex of the household head by main source of water, 1996 and 2001

Source: Census 1996 and 2001
Excluding unspecified water sources in 1996

Toilet facilities for households: 1996 and 2001

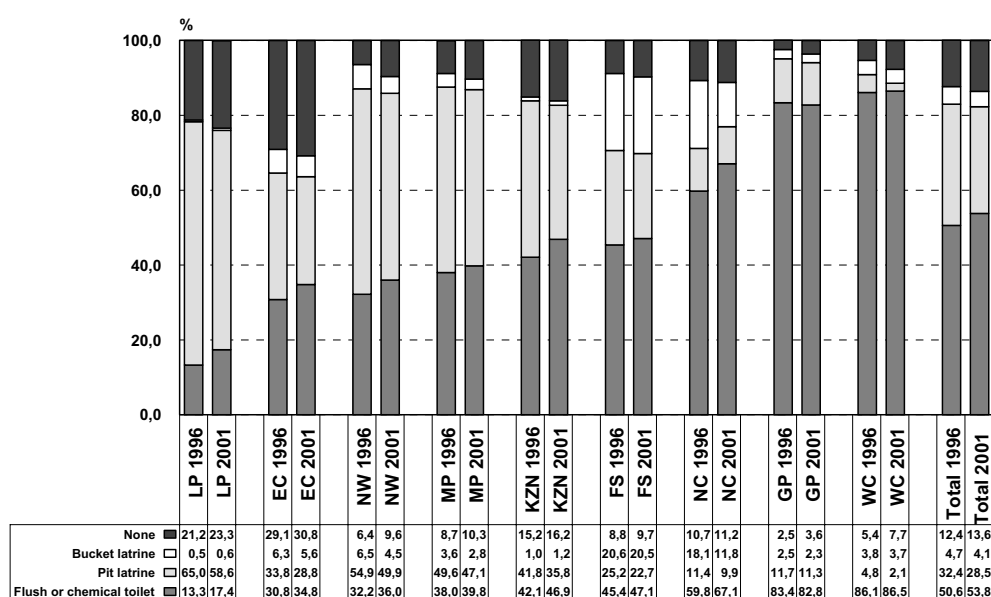
The questions asked in Census 2001 on access to toilet facilities again differed from the ones asked in 1996,²³ but the data from the responses have been made comparable.

Increase in proportion of households without access to toilets

Toilet facility by province

The results of the two censuses show that access to flush or chemical toilets increased, from 50,6% in 1996 to 53,8% in 2001, while the use of pit latrines declined from 32,4% to 28,5%. However, the proportion of households without access to any toilet facility also increased, from 12,4% in 1996 to 13,6% in 2001, as indicated in Figure 12.9. The graph indicates that there is some provincial variation.

Figure 12.9: Distribution of households in each province by main toilet facility, 1996 and 2001



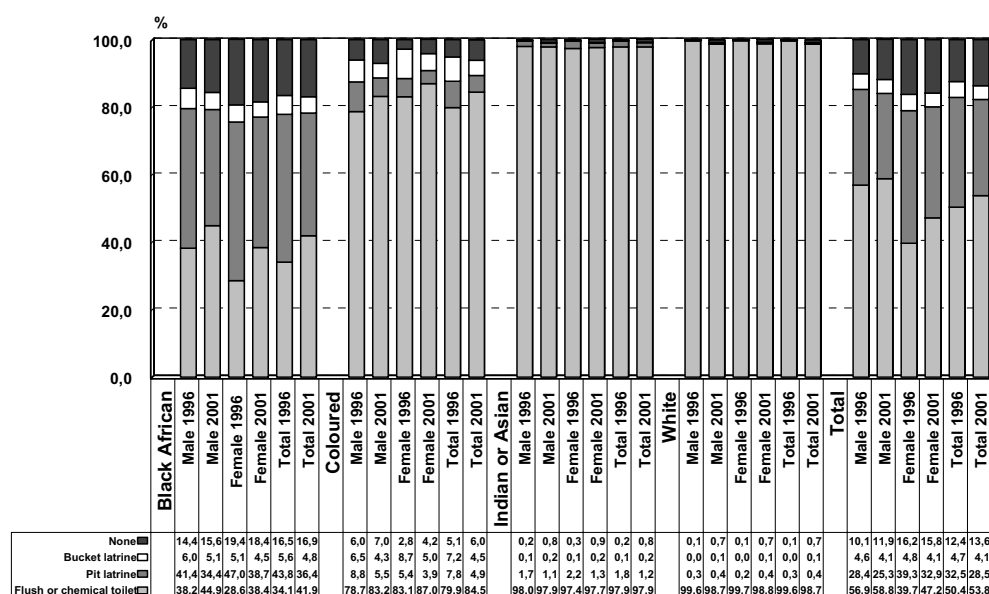
Source: Census 1996 and 2001
Excluding unspecified toilet facilities in 1996

Toilet facility by population group and sex

Figure 12.10 indicates that between 2001 and 1996 there was an improvement in access to a flush or chemical toilet among households headed by black African and coloured males and females.

²³ In 1996, respondents were asked to indicate the type of toilet facility available to their household by choosing one of the following: flush or chemical toilet; pit latrine; bucket latrine; and none of the previously mentioned facilities. In 2001, at the request of the relevant users, the question was changed. Respondents were asked to choose one of the following: flush toilet (connected to the sewerage system); flush toilet (with septic tank); chemical toilet; pit latrine with ventilation (VIP); pit latrine without ventilation; bucket latrine; and none. The first, second and third choices in 2001 were combined, as were the fourth and fifth choices, for comparisons with 1996.

Figure 12.10: Distribution of households within population group and sex of the household head by main toilet facility, 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 1996 and 2001
Excluding unspecified toilet facilities in 1996

Means of refuse removal for households: 1996 and 2001

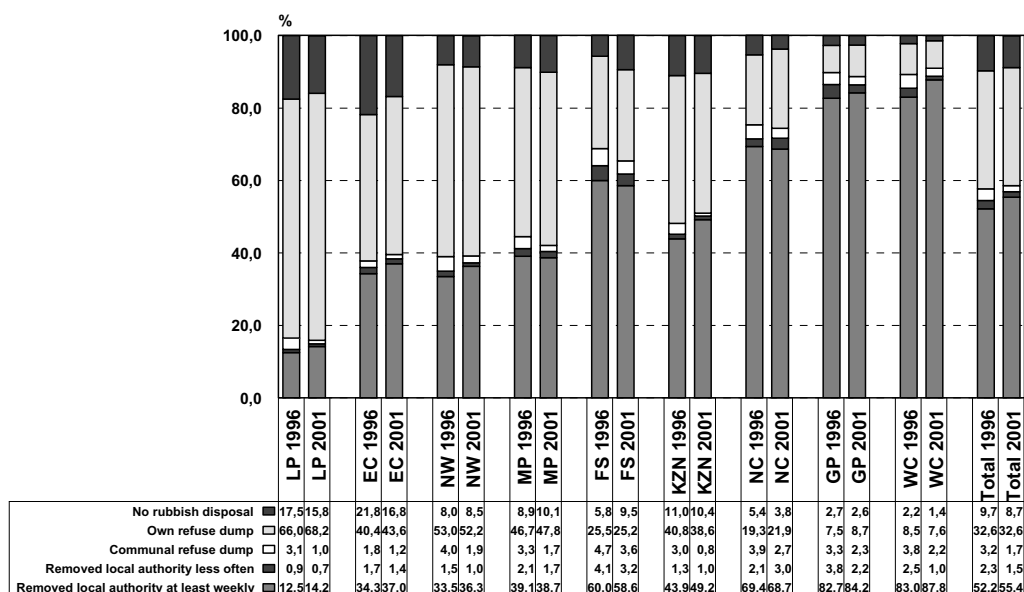
The questions on refuse removal were identical in Census 1996 and 2001, therefore the data are directly comparable.

**Increase in regular
refuse removal**

Refuse removal by province

The results of the two censuses show that regular refuse removal by a local authority at least once a week increased, from 52,2% in 1996 to 55,4% in 2001, as indicated in Figure 12.11. The graph also shows provincial variation. Six of the nine provinces showed improvement, the exceptions being Mpumalanga, Free State and Northern Cape.

Figure 12.11: Distribution of households in each province by means of refuse disposal, 1996 and 2001

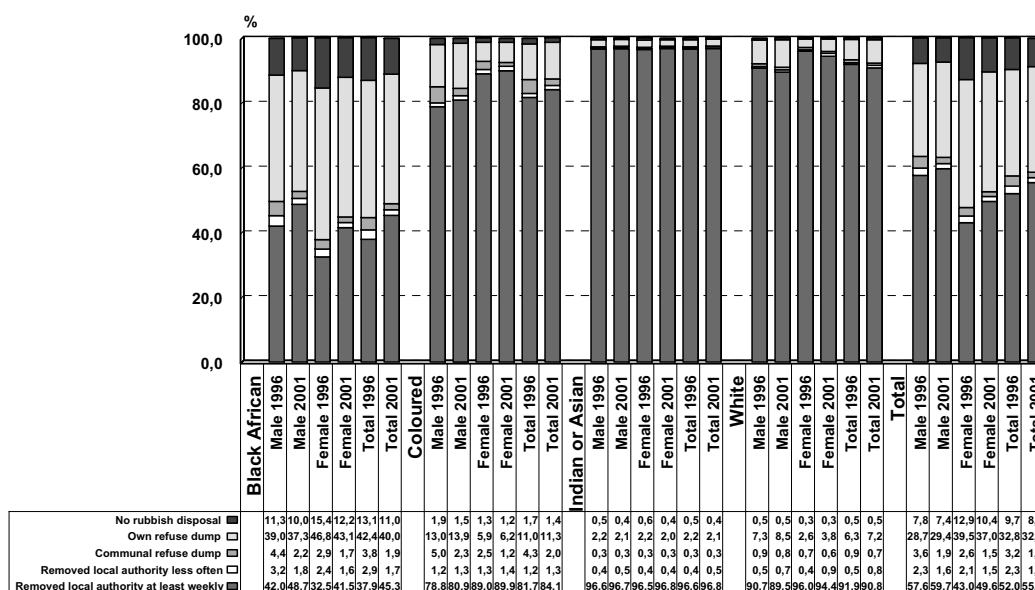


Source: Census 1996 and 2001
Excluding unspecified means of disposal in 1996

Refuse removal by population group and sex

Figure 12.12 indicates that in 2001 compared with 1996, there had been an improvement in the proportion of households with regular refuse removal by a local authority at least once a week, particularly among households headed by black African males or females.

Figure 12.12: Distribution of households within population group and sex of the household head by means of refuse disposal, 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 1996 and 2001
Excluding unspecified means of disposal in 1996

Refuse removal by broad settlement type: 2001

There was a great deal of variation in access to refuse removal, depending on where the household was counted. Table 12.1 indicates that in 2001 more than nine in every ten households enumerated in an urban formal area (91,9%) had access to regular refuse removal at least once a week, compared with just over half (52,8%) of the households enumerated in urban informal areas; one in eight (12,1%) of the households enumerated on commercial farms; but only one in 40 (2,5%) of the households living in deep rural or former tribal areas.

Table 12.1: Means of refuse disposal by settlement type, 2001

Refuse removal	Urban formal		Urban informal		Deep rural (tribal)		Farm (rural formal)		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Removed by local authority at least once a week	5 446 694	91,1	583 766	52,8	83 305	2,5	96 451	12,1	6 210 215	55,4
Removed by local authority less often	109 134	1,8	34 748	3,1	16 584	0,5	11 560	1,5	172 027	1,5
Communal refuse dump	57 779	1,0	61 575	5,6	36 167	1,1	40 158	5,1	195 679	1,7
Own refuse dump	274 071	4,6	312 735	28,3	2 517 691	75,7	550 545	69,4	3 655 043	32,6
No refuse disposal	93 960	1,6	112 734	10,2	670 926	20,2	95 122	12,0	972 741	8,7
Total	5 981 638	100,0	1 105 557	100,0	3 324 674	100,0	793 836	100,0	11 205 705	100,0

Access to a telephone (landline or cellular): 1996 and 2001
**Large increase in
access to a telephone**

The questions on access to a landline telephone or a cellular telephone were not identical in Census 1996 and 2001; therefore the comparisons that follow are indicative, rather than definitive.²⁴

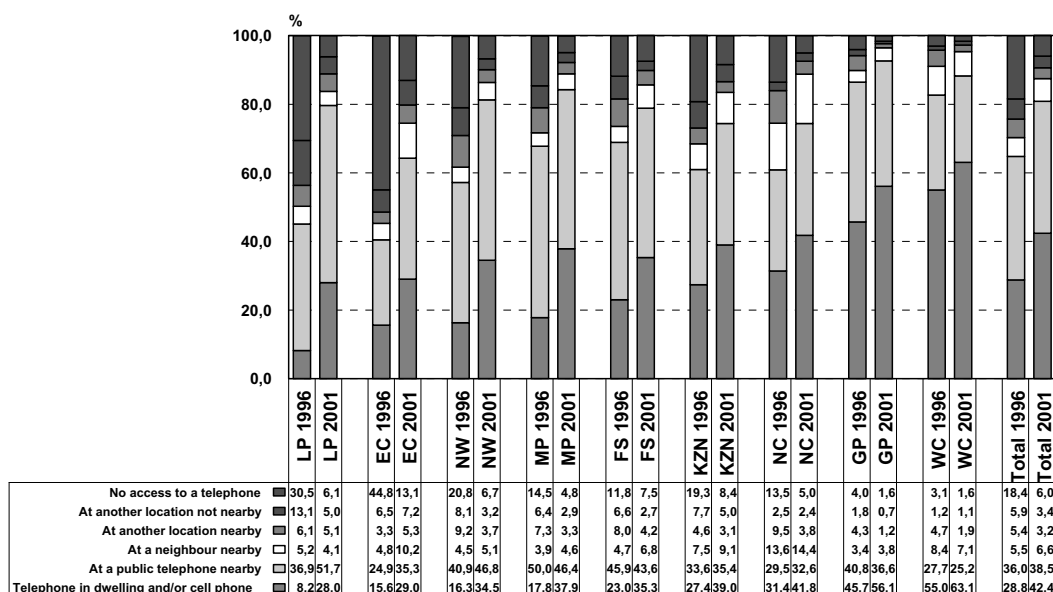
Telephone access by province

The results of the two censuses show that households' access to a telephone in the dwelling or to a cellular telephone increased steeply between 1996 and 2001.

- Figure 12.13 shows that 28,8% of all households in 1996 had access to a landline in the dwelling or a cellular telephone, increasing to 42,4% on households in 2001.
- This increase in access to a telephone was found in all provinces. For example, in Limpopo, the increase was from 8,2% in 1996 to 28,0% in 2001, while in Western Cape, the increase was from 55,0% in 1996 to 63,1% in 2001.

²⁴ In 1996 the question focused on household patterns of telephone use, including the *use* of a telephone in the dwelling or a cellular telephone. In 2001, the focus was whether the household *owned* a telephone in the dwelling or a cellular telephone. If they did not have either of these options, then the same use choices (neighbour, public telephone nearby, another location nearby, another location not nearby, and no access) were given in 2001 as in 1996.

Figure 12.13: Distribution of households in each province by access to a telephone, 1996 and 2001

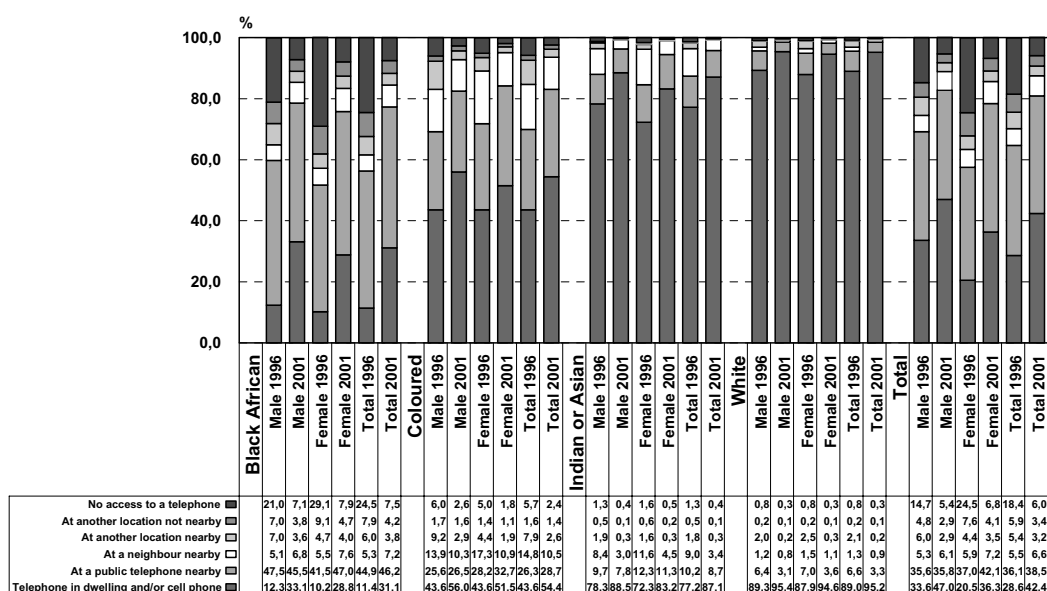


Source: Census 1996 and 2001
Excluding unspecified telephone access in 1996

Telephone access by population group and sex

Figure 12.14 indicates that in 2001 compared with 1996, there was an increase in the proportion of households with access to a telephone across all population groups, but particularly among households headed by black African males or females.

Figure 12.14: Distribution of households within population group and sex of the household head by access to a telephone, 1996 and 2001



Source: Census 1996 and 2001
Excluding unspecified telephone access in 1996

More details on telephones will be given in the following chapter, which focuses on ownership of selected household goods.

Summary

In this chapter, the focus is on household access to electricity, water, sanitation, telephones and refuse removal.

Regarding fuel used by households for domestic purposes, three functions were identified, i.e. cooking, heating and lighting. The use of electricity by households as the main energy source for cooking increased from 47,5% in 1996 to 51,4% in 2001. The use of electricity as the main energy source for heating also increased from 46,5% in 1996 to 49,0% in 2001. But over this time period, the biggest increase was in the use of electricity for lighting. In 1996, 58,2% of households was using electricity for lighting, while in 2001, as many as 69,7% was using electricity for lighting. The increase in households' use of electricity was particularly noticeable among households headed by black African and to a lesser extent coloured males and females.

The results of the two censuses show that households' access to piped clean water for domestic use increased between the census years. The proportion of households using piped water on site or in the dwelling showed an overall slight increase, from 60,7% in 1996 to 61,3% in 2001, but this was not uniform across provinces. But the main increase was in the proportion of households using public taps as the main water source (20,8% in 1996 and 23,9% in 2001), and a decrease in the proportion of households using dams, rivers, streams and springs (12,4% in 1996; 9,4% in 2001). In certain provinces such as the Eastern Cape, access to piped water from a public tap increased substantially, from 19,6% in 1996 to 25,8% in 2001, with a significant consequent decline in the proportion of households obtaining water from a dam, river, stream or spring, from 40,7% in 1996 to 31,7% in 2001. These improvements in access to piped water, within the dwelling, on site or from a communal source, and the consequent decline in the use of water from a dam, river, stream or spring was mainly found among households headed by a black African male or female. For example, the proportion of households headed by black African females obtaining water from a dam, river, stream or spring declined from 22,0% in 1996 to 15,1% in 2001, while the proportion of the same household category obtaining water from a piped source increased from 70,4% in 1996 to 77,7% in 2001.

Concerning toilet facilities, the results of the two censuses show that access to flush or chemical toilets increased, from 50,6% in 1996 to 53,8% in 2001, while the use of pit latrines declined from 32,4% to 28,5%. But the proportion of households without any access to a toilet facility increased from 12,4% in 1996 to 13,6% in 2001.

Looking at refuse removal, the results of the two censuses show that regular refuse removal by a local authority at least once a week increased from 52,2% in 1996 to 55,4% in 2001. There was a great deal of variation in access to refuse removal, depending on where the household was counted. In 2001 more than nine in every ten households enumerated in an urban formal area (91,9%) had access to regular refuse removal at least once a week, compared with just over half (52,8%) in urban informal areas, one in eight (12,1%) on commercial farms, but only one in 40 (2,5%) in deep rural or former tribal areas.

Access to a telephone in the dwelling and/or a cellular telephone increased steeply between 1996 and 2001: 28,8% of all households had such access in 1996, increasing to 42,4% in 2001. This increase in access to a telephone was found in all provinces and across all population groups and also by sex of the household head.

Chapter 13 – Household goods

Introduction

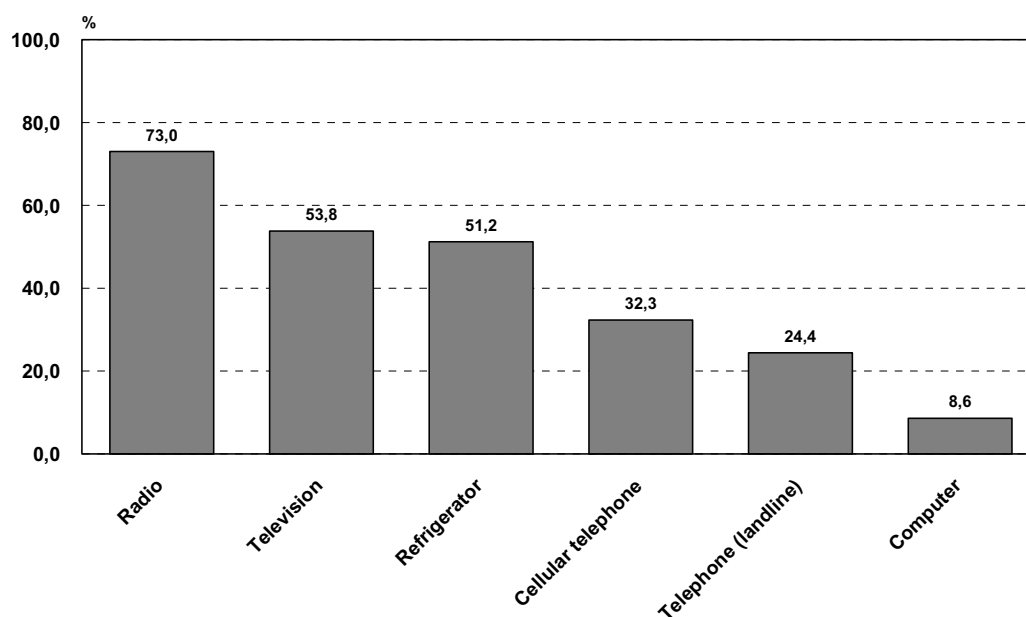
In 1996 no questions were posed on ownership of household goods, but in 2001 respondents were asked to indicate whether or not the household was in possession of a radio, television, computer, refrigerator, telephone in the dwelling and/or a cellular telephone, in working order. This chapter focuses on answers given to this question in 2001, and a selection of variables associated with possession of these household goods. Information from collective living quarters is excluded in all tables and graphs that follow.

Possession of household goods: 2001

Figure 13.1 indicates that, overall, 73,0% of households possessed at least one radio, while 53,8% possessed at least one television, 51,2% at least one refrigerator, 32,3% at least one cellular telephone, 24,4% at least one landline telephone, and 8,6% at least one computer, in working order.

Radio the most prevalent household item

Figure 13.1: Percentage of households that possessed selected household goods in working order, 2001



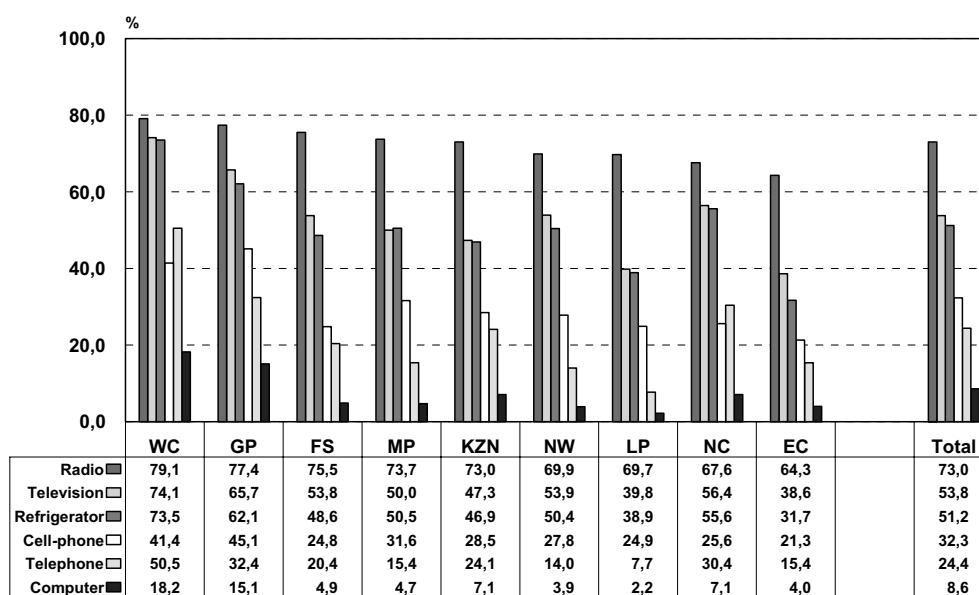
Source: Census 2001

Possession of household goods by province

Figure 13.2 indicates the following:

- Possession by households of at least one radio in working order varied by province; starting at a high of 79,1% of households in Western Cape decreasing to 64,3% of households in Eastern Cape.
- Possession of a television also varied by province, with 74,1% of households in Western Cape having at least one television in working order, declining to 39,8% of households in Limpopo and 38,6% of households in Eastern Cape.
- Possession of a refrigerator, cellular telephone and landline telephone also showed variations by province. Western Cape had the highest proportion of households that had a landline telephone (50,5%), but the proportion of households with at least one cellular telephone was higher in Gauteng (45,1%) than in Western Cape (41,4%). Only 7,7% of households in Limpopo had a landline telephone, compared to 24,9% that had a cellular telephone.
- Household ownership of a computer varied significantly by province, from 18,2% in Western Cape and 15,1% in Gauteng to 3,9% in North West and 2,2% in Limpopo.

Figure 13.2: Percentage of households in each province that possessed selected household goods in working order, 2001

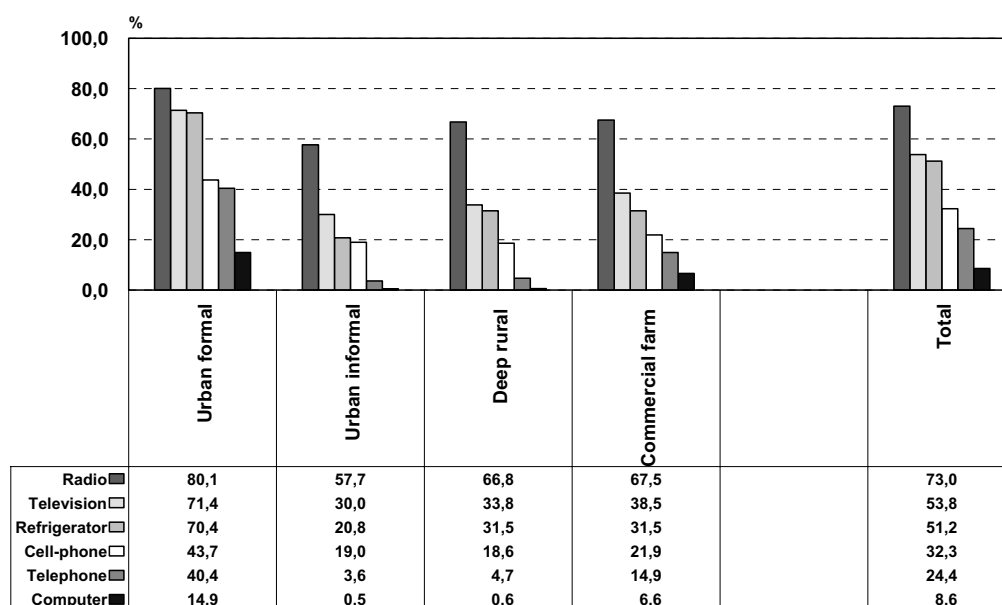


Source: Census 2001

Possession of household goods by broad settlement type

Figure 13.3 indicates that households counted in urban formal areas were more likely to have the six types of household goods listed in the graph than those counted in urban informal areas, deep rural (tribal) areas or commercial farms.

Figure 13.3: Percentage of households in each settlement type that possessed selected household goods in working order, 2001



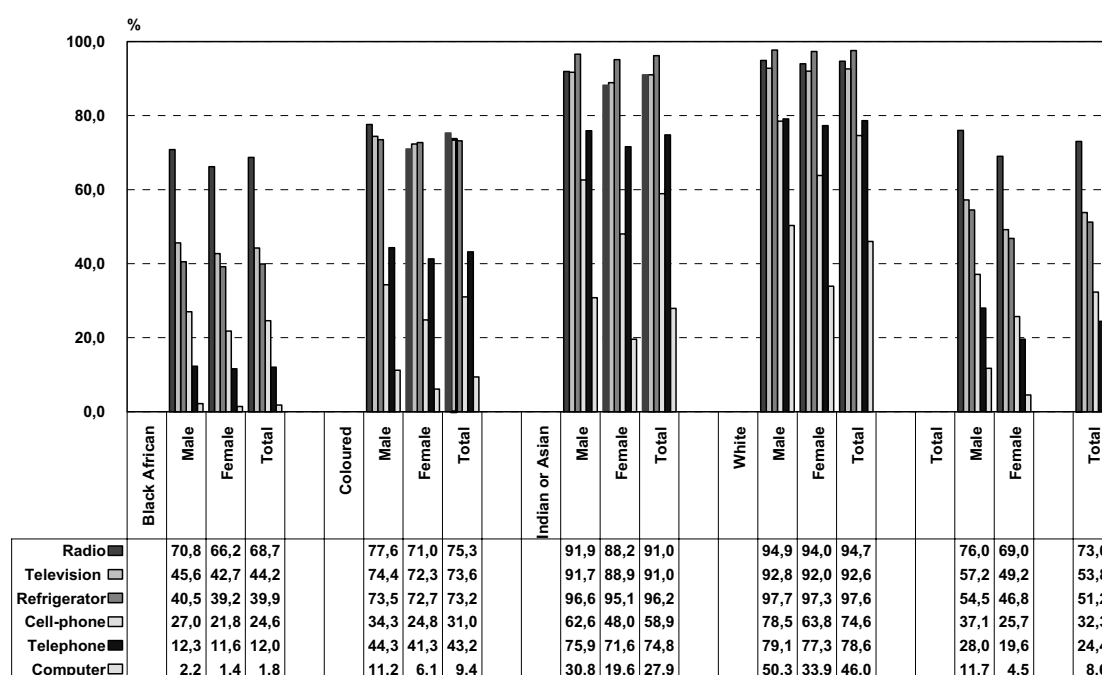
Source: Census 2001

Possession of household goods by population group and sex of household head

Figure 13.4 indicates that the household's ownership of goods was unequally distributed by the population group and sex of the household head:

- More than nine in every ten households headed by white males or females, or by Indian/Asian males, possessed at least one radio, television and refrigerator. Only 40,5% of households headed by a black African male, and 39,2% of households headed by a black African female, possessed a refrigerator.
- Half of the households headed by a white male possessed a computer, compared with 33,9% of households headed by a white female, 30,8% headed by an Indian/Asian male, 19,6% headed by an Indian/Asian female, 11,2% headed by a coloured male, 6,1% headed by a coloured female, 2,2% headed by a black African male, and 1,4% of households headed by a black African female.

Figure 13.4: Percentage of households that possessed selected household goods in working order within population group and sex of the household head, 2001

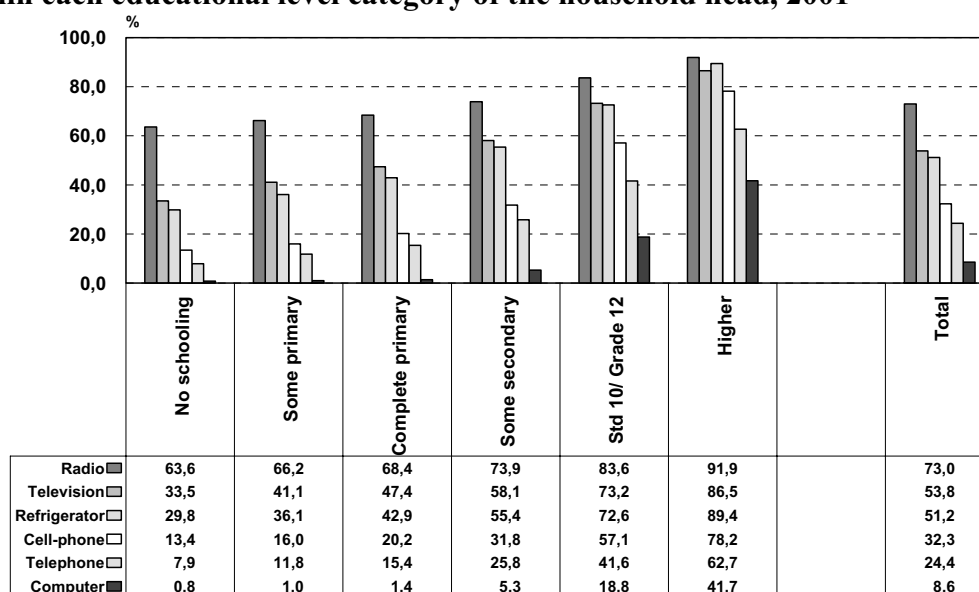


Source: Census 2001

Possession of household goods by the highest level of education of the household head

Figure 13.5 indicates that the higher the level of education of the household head, the more likely the household was to own the selected items. For example, 41,7% of households headed by a person with post-school qualifications owned a computer, compared with 18,8% of households headed by someone with complete secondary school, 5,3% of households headed by someone with incomplete secondary school, 1,4% of households headed by someone with complete primary school, 1,0% of households headed by a person with incomplete primary school, and 0,8% of households headed by a person with no schooling.

Figure 13.5: Percentage of households that possessed selected household goods in working order within each educational level category of the household head, 2001

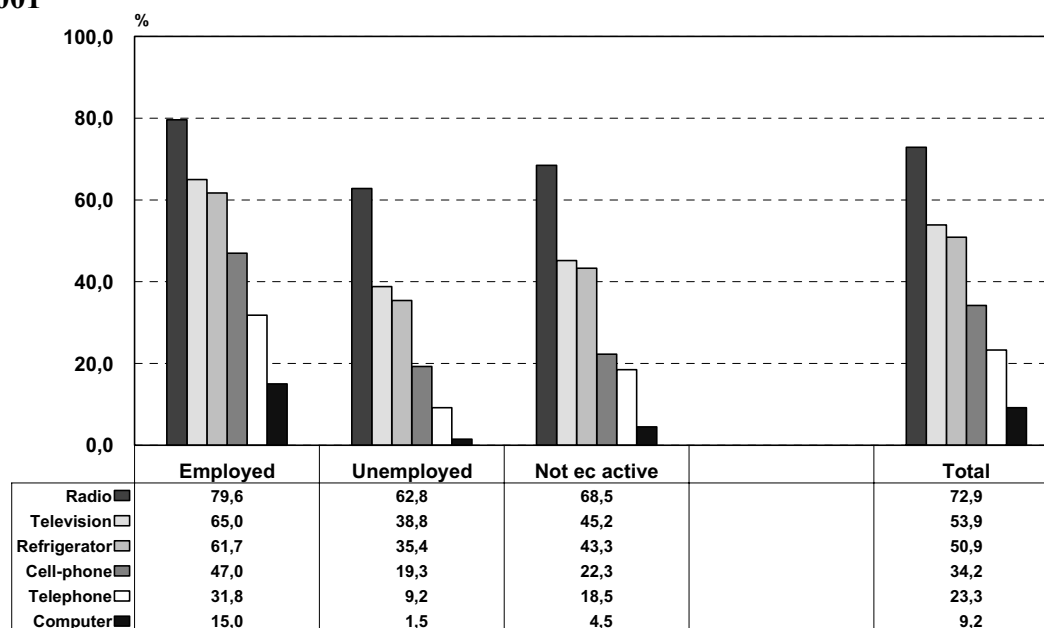


Source: Census 2001

Possession of household goods by labour market status of the household head

Figure 13.6 indicates that households headed by employed people were more likely to possess the selected goods than those headed by a person who was not economically active or unemployed at the time of Census 2001.

Figure 13.6: Percentage of households headed by persons age 15–65 years that possessed selected household goods in working order within each labour market status of the household head, 2001



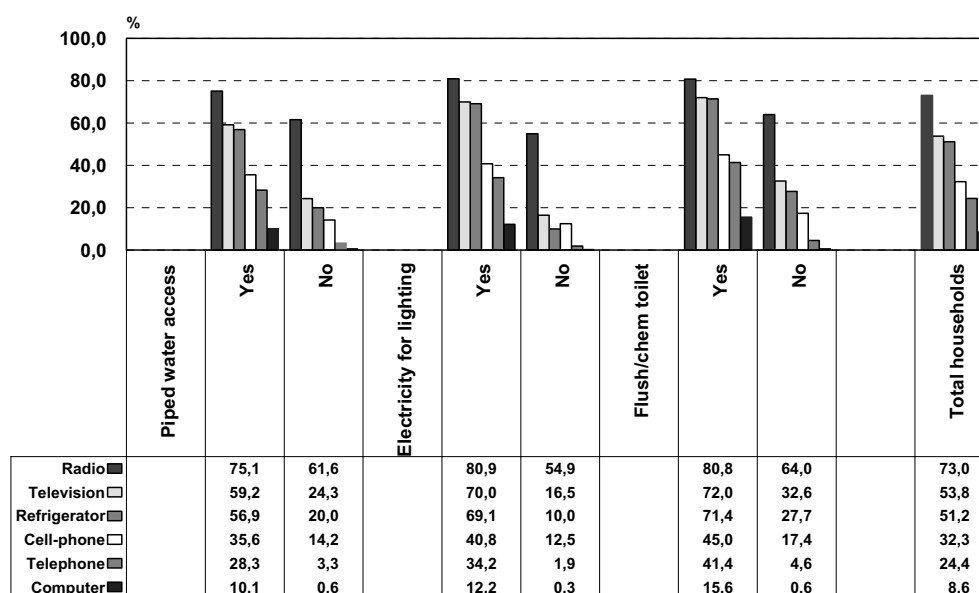
Source: Census 2001

Possession of household goods vis-à-vis infrastructure

Figure 13.7 indicates that households with access to piped water, flush or chemical toilets and electricity for lighting were more likely to own the six household goods than households without such access.

- For example, 56,9% of households with access to piped water possessed a refrigerator, while only 20,0% of households without access to piped water possessed a refrigerator.
- Four in ten or 40,8% of households with electricity for lighting possessed a cellular telephone, while one in eight or 12,5% of households without electricity for lighting possessed a cellular telephone.

Figure 13.7: Percentage of households with and without specified services that possessed selected household goods in working order, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Summary

This chapter focuses on ownership of a radio, television, computer, refrigerator, telephone in the dwelling and/or a cellular telephone in working order in 2001, and variables associated with possession of these household goods. Information from collective living quarters is excluded.

Overall, 73,0% of households possessed at least one radio, while 53,8% possessed at least one television, 51,2% at least one refrigerator, 32,3% at least one cellular telephone, 24,4% at least one landline telephone, and 8,6% at least one computer, in working order.

The possession of household goods varied by province. It also varied by certain characteristics of the household head such as population group, sex, highest level of education and labour market status.

In addition, there was a correlation between access to infrastructure such as piped water, electricity for lighting and flush or chemical toilets, and possession of household goods in good working order.

Section 4

Two specific groups of people

Chapter 14 – Description of those not born in South Africa

Introduction

In this chapter, we focus on a description of those respondents in Census 2001 who indicated that they were not born in South Africa.²⁵ We examine their life circumstances and living conditions. Comparisons with the findings of Census 1996 will be drawn where possible.²⁶

Count of those who were not born in South Africa: 2001

**Those not born in SA
mostly male**

Table 14.1 shows that 43,8 million of the 44,8 million people counted on census night in 2001 indicated that they were born in South Africa, while 1,0 million indicated that they were born elsewhere.

- Of these 1,0 million people who were not born in South Africa, 577 000 classified themselves as black African, 398 000 as white, 34 000 as Indian/Asian and 16 000 as coloured. It should be remembered here that ‘unspecified’ or other responses were imputed in 2001.
- The majority of those born elsewhere, or 610 000, were male, while 415 000 were female.
- The majority, or 688 000, said they were born in one of the neighbouring SADC countries.
- A relatively large group, or 228 000, said they were born in Europe.
- 42 000 people said they were born in the rest of Africa (excluding SADC).
- 41 000 people said they were born in Asia.
- Relatively few said they were born in Central and South America (13 000), North America (9 000) or Australia and New Zealand (4 000).

²⁵ The numbers given here should be treated with some caution, since the respondents themselves indicated their country of birth. The topic is highly sensitive for legal and other reasons, and there is no database at present against which to check the accuracy of these responses. Nevertheless, some clear trends and patterns in the life circumstances and living conditions of people who say they were not born in this country can be discerned and described.

²⁶ The reader should bear in mind that in 1996 the country of birth of 144 000 people of the 958 000 people (15,1%) who said they were not born in South Africa could not be identified. These people have been excluded from the analysis. Thus the focus is on percentages rather than actual numbers for comparisons between 1996 and 2001.

Table 14.1: Number of people counted in the census, by region of birth, sex and population group, 2001

Region of birth	Sex	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
South Africa	Male	16 502 228	1 911 822	525 710	1 883 906	20 823 666
	Female	18 336 487	2 066 663	556 132	2 011 753	22 971 035
	Total	34 838 715	3 978 485	1 081 843	3 895 659	43 794 702
SADC countries	Male	359 547	5 762	1 604	63 522	430 435
	Female	179 928	5 643	1 502	70 172	257 244
	Total	539 474	11 405	3 106	133 693	687 679
Rest of Africa	Male	21 321	891	814	4 626	27 651
	Female	8 559	428	454	4 727	14 168
	Total	29 880	1 319	1 268	9 353	41 819
Europe	Male	2 410	1 057	592	111 543	115 602
	Female	1 907	680	477	109 646	112 712
	Total	4 317	1 737	1 070	221 189	228 314
Asia	Male	1 398	581	16 091	5 492	23 562
	Female	719	404	11 636	4 565	17 323
	Total	2 117	985	27 727	10 057	40 886
North America	Male	522	131	126	3 698	4 476
	Female	434	123	119	4 000	4 676
	Total	956	254	244	7 698	9 152
Central and South America	Male	349	148	70	5 890	6 457
	Female	260	101	42	5 938	6 341
	Total	609	249	112	11 828	12 798
Australia and New Zealand	Male	55	34	42	2 059	2 191
	Female	43	37	56	2 104	2 239
	Total	98	71	98	4 162	4 429
Total all countries other than South Africa	Male	385 602	8 604	19 339	196 828	610 374
	Female	191 849	7 416	14 285	201 152	414 702
	Total	577 451	16 021	33 624	397 980	1 025 076
Grand total	Male	16 887 830	1 920 426	545 050	2 080 734	21 434 040
	Female	18 528 336	2 074 079	570 417	2 212 905	23 385 737
	Total	35 416 166	3 994 505	1 115 467	4 293 640	44 819 778

Characteristics of those not born in South Africa: 1996 and 2001

When comparing the countries of birth among the foreign born in Census 1996 and 2001, Figure 14.1 shows that a slightly smaller percentage of people in 1996 (64,7%) than in 2001 (67,1%) was born in one of the neighbouring SADC countries. On the other hand, a larger percentage in 1996 (26,7%) than in 2001 (22,3%) was born in Europe.

Figure 14.1: Distribution of those not born in South Africa by region of birth, 1996 and 2001

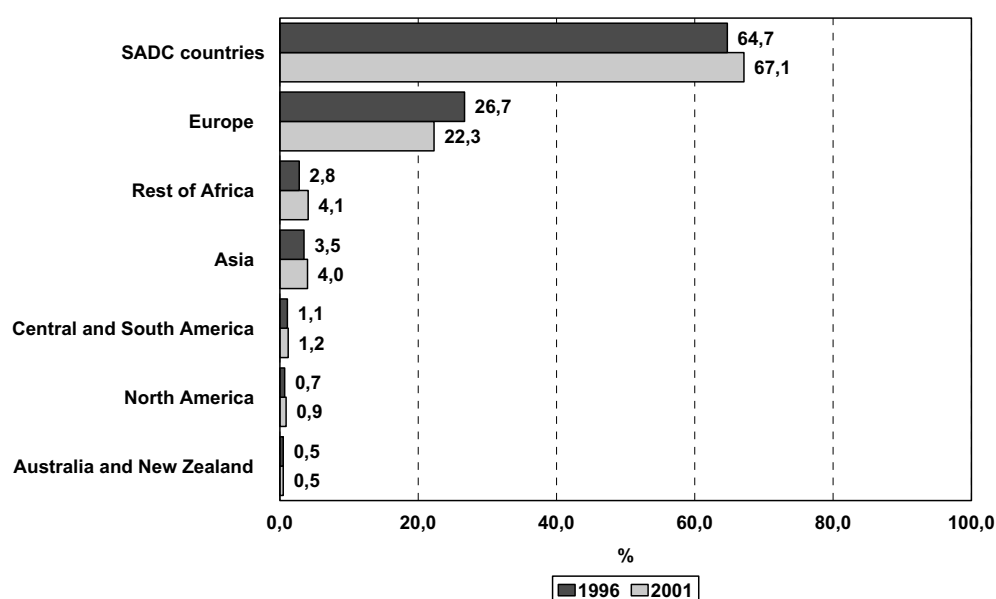
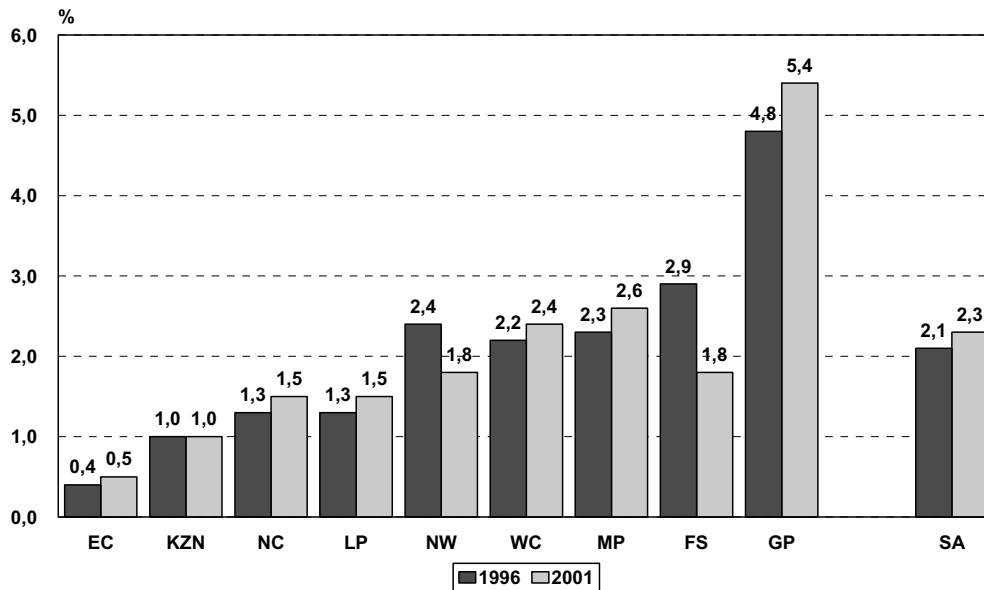


Figure 14.2 shows the percentage of people in each province who were not born in South Africa, in both 1996 and 2001.

- In South Africa as a whole, between 1996 and 2001, there was a slight overall increase in the percentage of people who were born elsewhere, from 2,1% of the total population in 1996 to 2,3% of the population in 2001.
- Also between 1996 and 2001, in six of the nine provinces – Eastern Cape, Northern Cape, Limpopo, Western Cape, Mpumalanga and Gauteng – there was a slight increase in the proportion of people born elsewhere.
- The largest increase, from 4,8% in 1996 to 5,4% in 2001, was found in Gauteng.
- In KwaZulu-Natal, the percentage of people not born in South Africa remained the same at 1,0% in both 1996 and 2001.
- In North West, the percentage of people not born in South Africa decreased slightly from 2,4% in 1996 to 1,8% in 2001.
- In Free State, the percentage of people not born in South Africa also decreased considerably from 2,9% in 1996 to 1,8% in 2001.

Changes in employment opportunities, for example decreasing employment opportunities in the gold mining industry in the Free State, and increasing employment opportunities in the financial industry in Gauteng, may explain some of these changes in the percentages of foreign-born people counted in each province.

Figure 14.2: Percentage of the population in each province not born in South Africa, 1996 and 2001

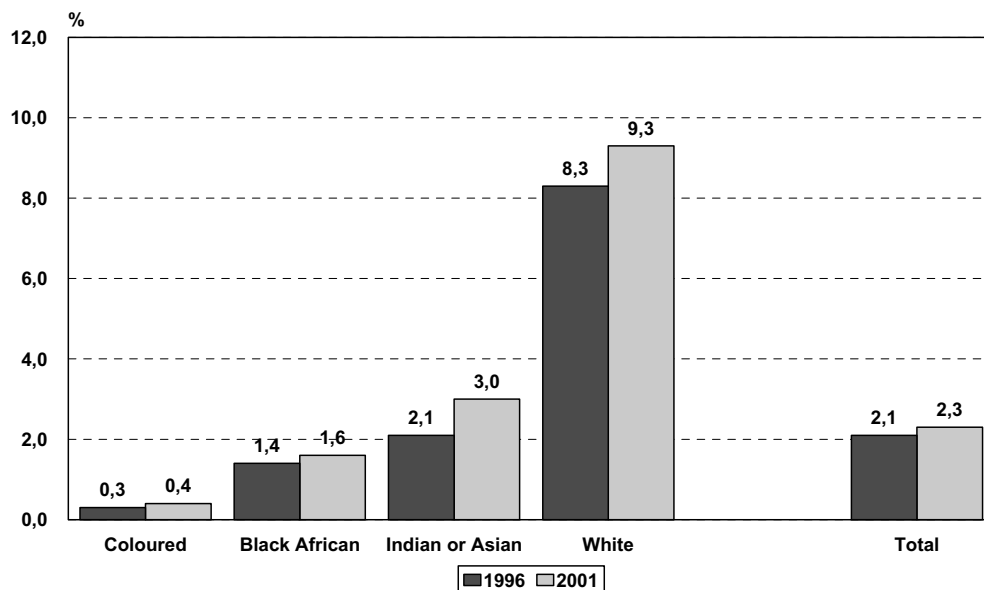


Source: Census 1996 and 2001

Figure 14.3 shows the percentage of all people counted within each population group who were not born in South Africa, in both the censuses of 1996 and 2001.

- Within each population group there was a slight increase in the percentage of people who were foreign-born.
- This increase was highest within the white population group, where the proportion rose from 8,3% in 1996 to 9,3% in 2001.

Figure 14.3: Percentage in each population group not born in South Africa, 1996 and 2001



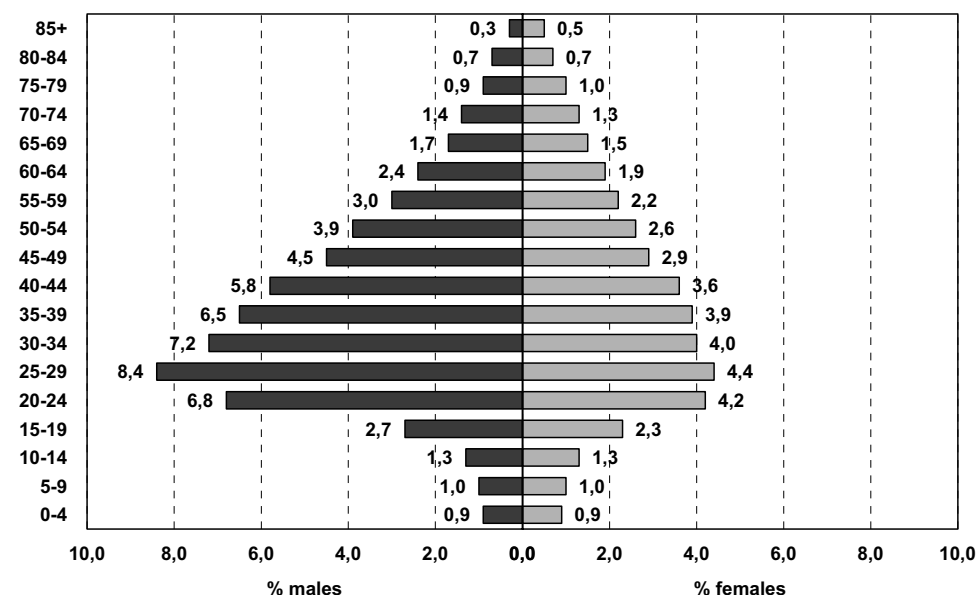
Source: Census 1996 and 2001

Age and sex distribution of those not born in South Africa: 2001

It can be seen in Figure 14.4 that the age and sex distribution of the foreign-born population in 2001 was very different from the overall distribution by these variables seen in Chapter 3 (Figure 3.1).

- There were relatively small percentages of foreign-born children in the age categories 0 to 14 years. For example, of all those not born in South Africa, 0,9% were males and 0,9% were females aged 0–4 years.
- There was a relatively high proportion of young adult males and a smaller proportion of young adult females who were foreign-born. For example, of all those not born in South Africa, 8,4% were males and 4,4% were females aged 25–29 years. This pattern may indicate that young men, and to a lesser extent young women, tend to immigrate to South Africa in search of work or further educational opportunities.

Figure 14.4: Distribution of those not born in South Africa by age group and sex, 2001



Source: Census 2001

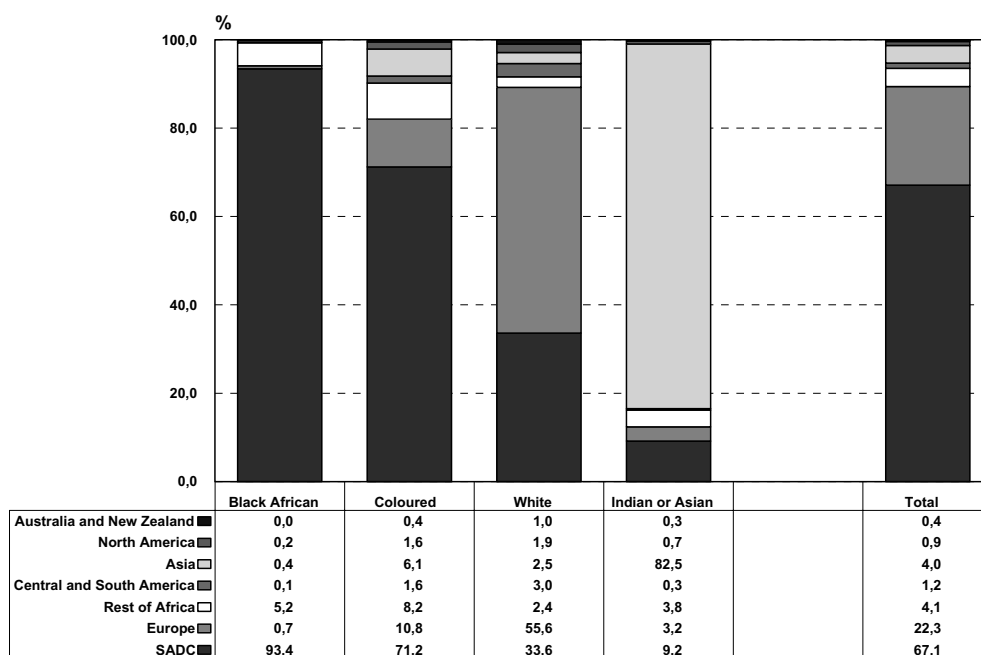
Region of birth of foreign-born people by population group and sex: 2001

Most African immigrants from SADC countries

Figure 14.5 indicates the country of origin of foreign-born people found in South Africa in 2001 by population group.

- More than nine in every ten foreign-born black Africans (93,4%) were born in the neighbouring SADC countries, compared with seven in every ten foreign-born coloureds (71,2%), one in three foreign-born whites (33,6%) and fewer than one in ten Indians or Asians (9,2%). Altogether, two-thirds of foreign-born people (67,1%) were born in the SADC countries.
- Among the white foreign-born population, as would be expected, more than half (55,6%) were born in Europe.
- Likewise, among the Indian/Asian foreign-born population, it is unsurprising that more than eight in every ten (82,5%) were born in Asia.

Figure 14.5: Distribution of people in each population group not born in South Africa by region of birth, 2001

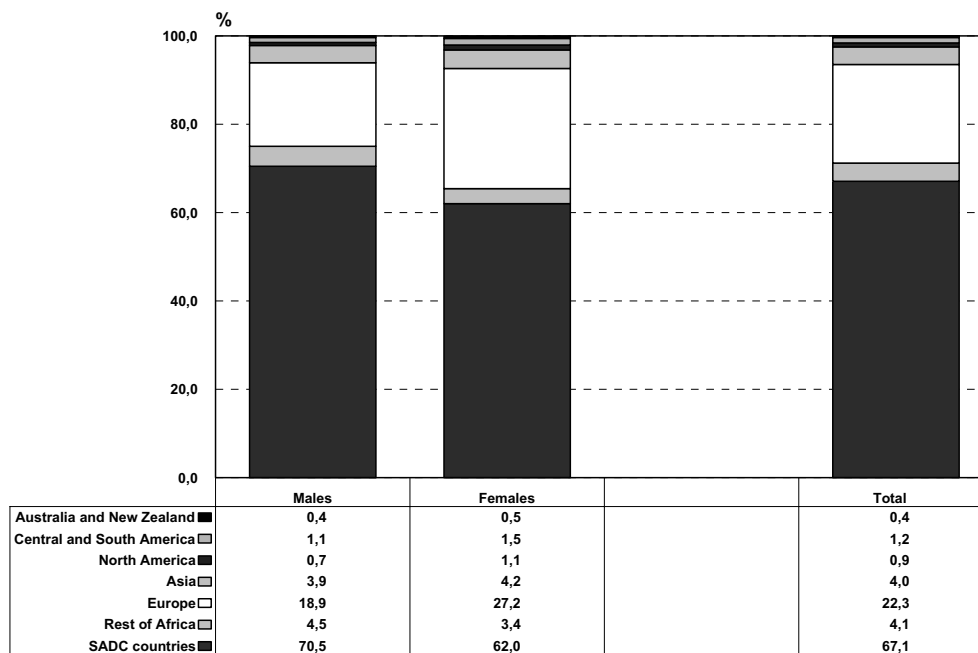


Source: Census 2001

Figure 14.6 shows the region of birth of foreign-born people found in South Africa in 2001 according to sex.

- It shows that seven in every ten males (70,5%) and six in every ten females (62,0%) were born in one of the SADC countries.
- 18,9% of males and 27,2% of females were born in Europe.

Figure 14.6: Distribution of males and females not born in South Africa by region of birth, 2001



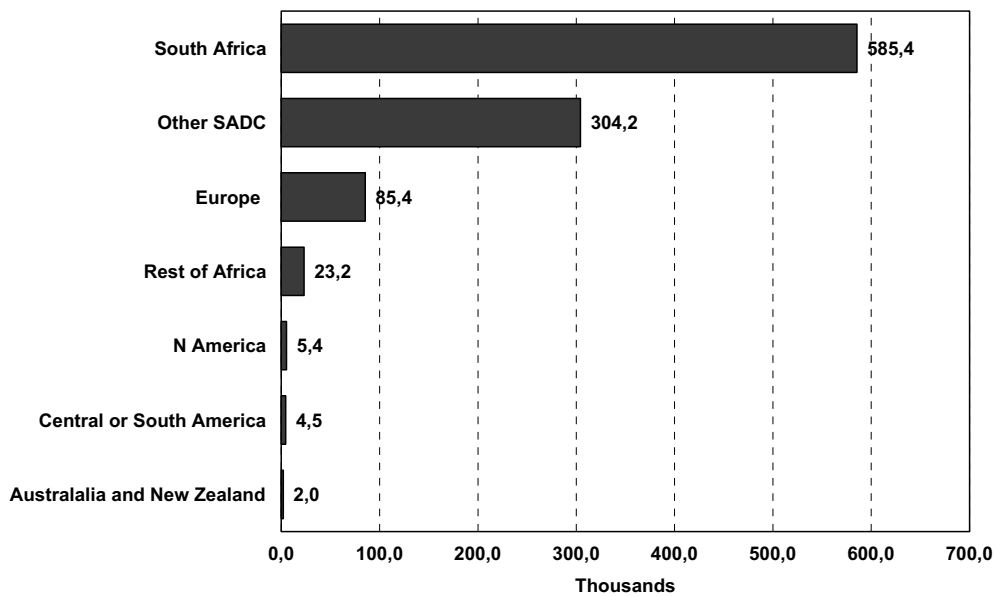
Source: Census 2001

Citizenship of those not born in South Africa: 2001

Figure 14.7 indicates that:

- More than half (585 000) of the million people counted in Census 2001 who said they were foreign-born had become South African citizens.
- A large number (304 000) said they were citizens of a SADC country.
- Relatively few (85 000) said they were citizens of a European country.
- Less than 12 000 people said they were citizens of a North, Central or South American country, or of Australia or New Zealand.

Figure 14.7: Region of citizenship among those not born in South Africa (numbers), 2001

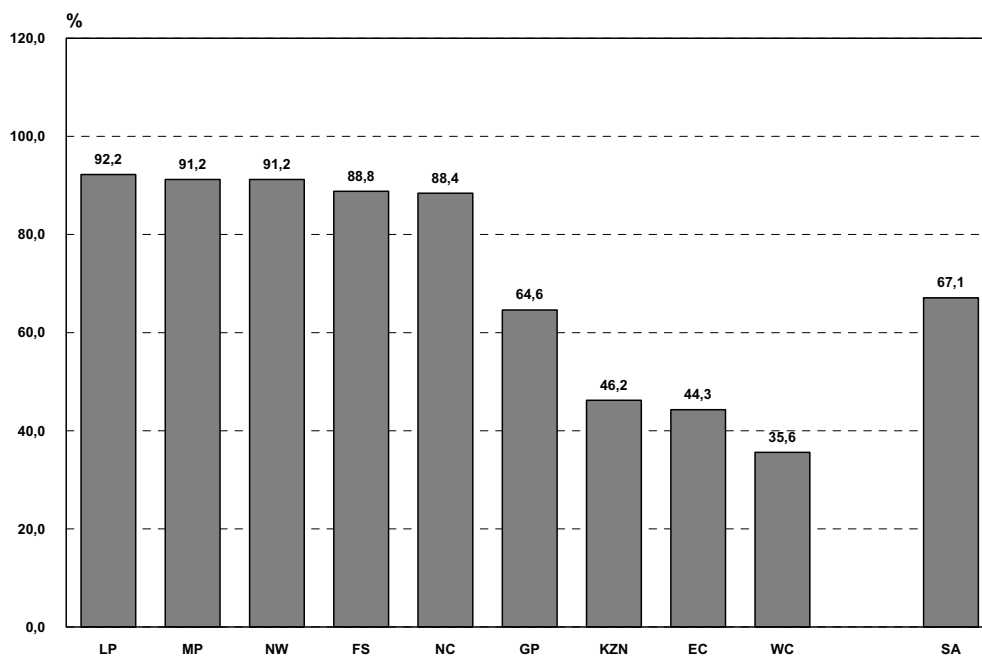


Source: Census 2001

Figure 14.8 shows what percentage of the foreign-born residents of each province was born in a SADC country.

- An overwhelming majority of foreign-born residents in Mpumalanga (91,2%) came from a SADC country, followed by North West (91,2%), Free State (88,8%) and Northern Cape (88,4%).
- A smaller proportion of foreign-born people living in Gauteng (64,6%), KwaZulu-Natal (46,2%), Eastern Cape (44,3%) and Western Cape (35,6%) was born in a SADC country.

Figure 14.8: Among those not born in South Africa, the percentage in each province born in another SADC country, 2001



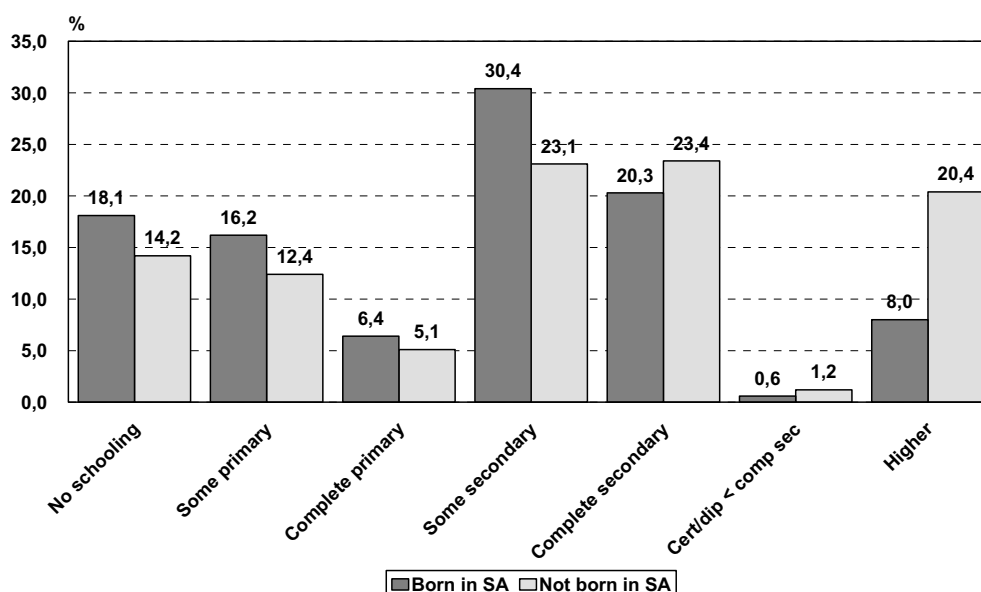
Source: Census 2001

Highest level of education among those not born in South Africa: 2001

Foreign-born people had higher levels of education

Figure 14.9 compares the highest level of education of those aged 20 years or more who were and who were not born in South Africa. The figure indicates that in general, people who were not born here had a higher level of education than those who were. For example, 20,4% of those aged 20 years or more who were foreign-born had post-matric qualifications, compared with 8,0% of those born in this country.

Figure 14.9: Distribution of people aged 20 years or more born and not born in South Africa by highest level of education, 2001



Source: Census 2001

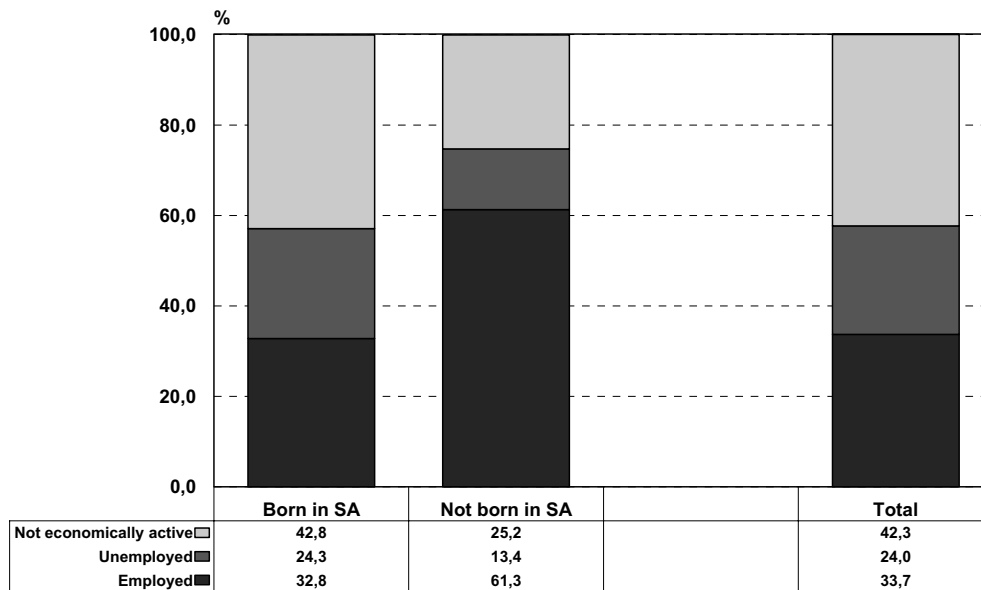
Labour market status among those not born in South Africa: 2001

Figure 14.10 compares the labour market status of South African-born and foreign-born people aged 15–65 years.

Foreign-born people more likely to be employed

- A larger proportion of foreign-born (61,3%) than South African-born (32,8%) working-age people were employed.
- A smaller proportion of foreign-born (13,4%) than South African-born (24,3%) working-age people were unemployed.
- A smaller proportion of foreign-born (25,2%) than South African-born (42,8%) working-age people were not economically active.

Figure 14.10: Distribution of people aged 20 years or more born and not born in South Africa by labour market status, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Occupation of the employed not born in South Africa: 2001

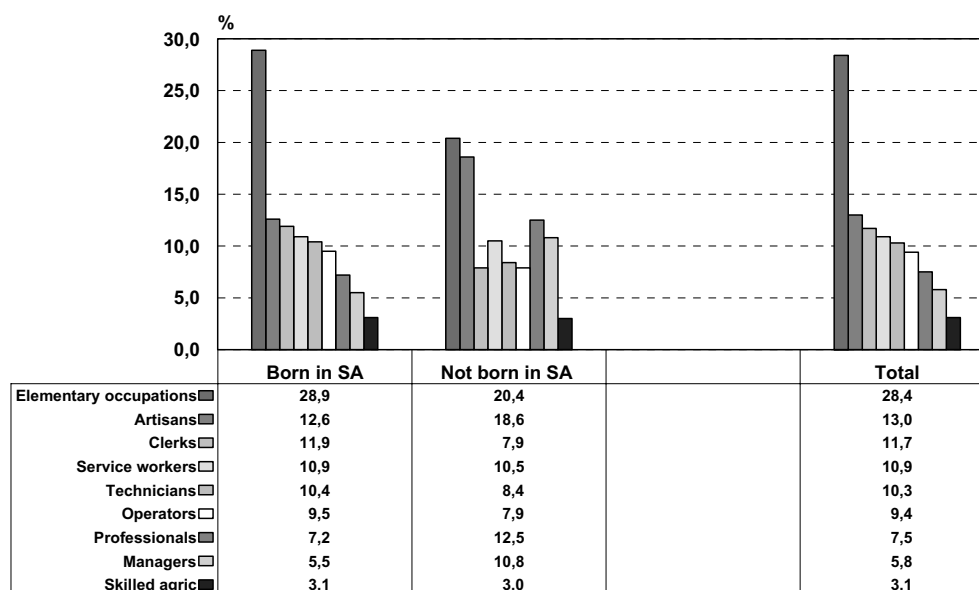
Among the employed, Figure 14.11 compares the occupations of those who were and those who were not born in South Africa at the time of Census 2001. (This figure excludes those whose occupation was unspecified or undetermined.)

Foreign-born people more likely to be in higher level occupations

- A larger proportion of South African-born people were in elementary occupations (28,9%) than of those who were foreign-born (20,4%).
- A smaller proportion of people born in this country were in craft and related trade occupations (12,6%) than of those not born here (18,6%).
- A smaller proportion of people who were born in this country were in legislative, senior official or management occupations (5,5%) than of people born elsewhere (10,8%).
- A smaller proportion of people who were born in this country were in professional occupations (7,2%) than of people born elsewhere (12,5%).

In general, one can conclude that employed people who were not born in South Africa were found in higher-level occupations than those who were born here.

Figure 14.11: Distribution of the employed aged 20 years or more born and not born in South Africa by occupational category, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Summary

As many as 43,8 million of the 44,8 million people counted on census night in 2001 indicated that they were born in South Africa, while 1,0 million indicated that they were born elsewhere. Of these 1,0 million people, 577 000 classified themselves as black African, 398 000 as white, 34 000 as Indian/Asian and 16 000 as coloured (remembering that unclassified values were imputed). The majority of those born elsewhere, or 610 000, were male, while 415 000 were female. The majority or 688 000, said they were born in a neighbouring SADC country. A relatively large group or 228 000, said they were born in Europe. Relatively few were born in other countries in Africa or other parts of the world.

When comparing the countries of birth among the foreign-born in South Africa in Census 1996 and 2001, a smaller percentage of people in 1996 (64,7%) than in 2001 (67,1%) was born in one of the neighbouring SADC countries. On the other hand, a larger percentage in 1996 (26,7%) than in 2001 (22,3%) was born in Europe.

Regarding age distribution of the foreign-born counted here in Census 2001, there were relatively small percentages of foreign-born children in the age categories 0–14 years. On the other hand, there was a relatively high proportion of young adult males and a smaller proportion of young adult females who were foreign-born. For example, of all those who were not born in South Africa, 8,4% were males and 4,4% were females aged 25–29 years. This pattern may indicate that young men, and to a lesser extent young women, tend to immigrate to South Africa in search of work or higher-level educational opportunities.

Among the people who were born outside South Africa, and counted here during Census 2001, seven in every 10 males (70,5%) and six in every ten females (62,0%) said they were born in one of the neighbouring SADC countries, while 18,9% of males and 27,2% of females said they were born in Europe.

Regarding the country of citizenship of the foreign-born who were counted here in Census 2001, more than half (585 000) said they had become South African citizens. A relatively large number (304 000) said they were citizens of a SADC country, while relatively few (85 000) said they were citizens of a European country.

When comparing the highest level of education of those aged 20 years or more who were and who were not born in South Africa, in general, people who were not born here had a higher level of education than South African-born citizens. For example, 20,4% of those aged 20 years or more who were foreign-born had post-matric qualifications, compared with 8,0% of those born in this country.

Comparing the labour market status of South African-born and foreign-born people aged 15–65 years, a larger proportion of foreign-born (61,3%) than South African-born (32,8%) was employed. A smaller proportion of foreign-born (13,4%) than South African-born (24,3%) people in the age category 15–65 years was unemployed, and a smaller proportion of foreign-born (25,2%) than South African-born people (42,8%) was not economically active.

Among the employed born and not born in South Africa, larger percentages of the foreign-born were found in higher-level occupations than the South African-born. For example, a larger proportion of people born in this country were in elementary occupations (28,9%) than of those who were not born here (20,4%). A smaller proportion of people born in this country were in craft and related trade occupations (12,6%) compared to those who were foreign-born (18,6%). A smaller proportion of people who were born in this country were in legislative, senior official or management occupations (5,5%) while a larger proportion (10,8%) of the foreign-born were in these occupations. A larger proportion of foreign-born people were in the professional occupations (12,5%) compared to South African-born people (7,2%).

Chapter 15 – Description of the disabled

Introduction

The disabled population in South Africa is an important target group for government policy, particularly in terms of ensuring equity for all people living in the country. Stats SA, by means of analysis of relevant data from Census 2001, attempts to indicate the extent of disability in the country, as a starting point for understanding the life circumstances and living conditions of these disabled people.

The definition of disability remains contentious. In order to arrive at a common way of defining and describing disability, Stats SA consulted with various interested parties and user groups, including the disabled themselves, associations caring for the disabled, government departments dealing with issues affecting disabled people, and universities training various types of health professionals and therapists who work with the disabled.

As a result of these consultations, in the questionnaire used for Census 2001, Stats SA asked a more comprehensive question than in 1996. We asked whether or not the referent person had any serious disabilities that prevented his or her full participation in life activities (such as education, work, and social life).

The types of disabilities listed were disabilities affecting sight, hearing and communication, and physical, intellectual, and emotional functioning. People with multiple disabilities were identified by means of a derived variable when more than one disability was indicated on the questionnaire. The question on disability was posed to all respondents: those living in households, individuals in collective living quarters and even the homeless.

The responses given in Census 2001 concerning disability are not directly comparable with those given in Census 1996, since the phrasing of the question, the classification of disability and the coverage of respondents differed. In 1996, the question focused on whether or not a person in the household had a serious sight, hearing, physical or mental disability. No mention was made of participation in life activities. Moreover, only people living in households were asked about disability in 1996, since detailed questions were excluded from the much more limited questionnaires used for collective living quarters or the homeless. No comparisons between disability as measured in 1996 and in 2001 are therefore made in this report.

The extent of disability in South Africa: 2001

**One in twenty South
Africans disabled**

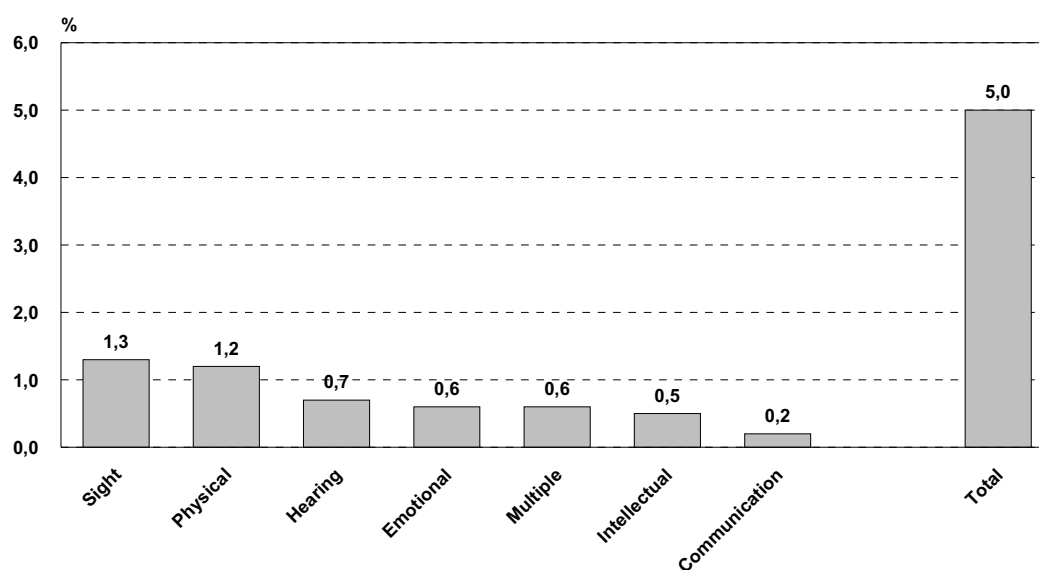
Table 15.1 indicates the number of people in each province, and in total, who were reported to be disabled in Census 2001. Figure 15.1 indicates the overall percentage of the population that was disabled, and the percentage with each type of disability.

- Altogether, of the 44,8 million people counted in Census 2001, 2,3 million people (5% of the total population) were reported as being disabled.
- Looking at different types of disability, 577 000 (1,3% of the total population) had a visual disability, while 558 000 (1,2%) had a physical, 314 000 (0,7%) had a hearing, 269 000 (0,6%) had an emotional, 206 000 (0,5%) had an intellectual, and 75 000 (0,2%) had a communication disability. In addition, 257 000 people (0,6%) had multiple disabilities.

- KwaZulu-Natal had the largest number of disabled people (471 000), followed by Eastern Cape (372 000), Gauteng (332 000), Limpopo (269 000), North West (211 000) Free State (185 000), Western Cape (187 000), Mpumalanga (182 000) and then Northern Cape (47 000).

Table 15.1: Distribution of the disabled by province and type of disability, 2001

Type of disability	Eastern Cape	Free State	Gauteng	KwaZulu-Natal	Limpopo	Mpuma-Langa	Northern Cape	North West	Western Cape	Total
Sight	86 645	59 940	91 462	111 126	69 688	49 328	11 989	62 486	34 436	577 101
Hearing	51 422	26 275	39 222	66 995	44 593	27 845	5 351	25 239	26 641	313 583
Communication	12 517	5 054	10 291	17 898	9 870	5 810	1 406	6 129	6 479	75 453
Physical	98 170	36 368	84 851	123 797	53 776	41 893	13 559	51 423	53 678	557 514
Intellectual	35 682	13 163	32 949	45 394	26 254	13 351	3 304	16 110	20 241	206 448
Emotional	47 164	19 871	38 114	55 835	34 940	21 119	4 477	25 287	21 904	268 712
Multiple	40 195	24 741	35 235	49 500	29 888	22 509	6 867	24 569	23 663	257 168
At least one disability	371 795	185 412	332 124	470 545	269 009	181 855	46 953	211 243	187 042	2 255 979
No disability	6 064 967	2 521 366	8 505 057	8 955 470	5 004 629	2 941 134	775 780	3 458 103	4 337 293	42 563 798
Total	6 436 762	2 706 778	8 837 180	9 426 016	5 273 637	3 122 991	822 732	3 669 347	4 524 335	44 819 777

Figure 15.1: Percentage of the population with each type of disability and with at least one disability, 2001

Source: Census 2001

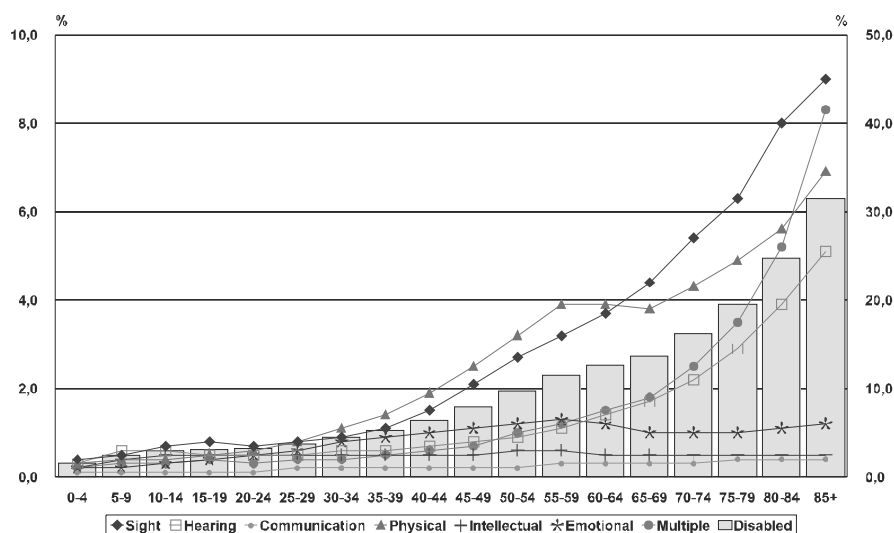
Disability by type and age: 2001

Figure 15.2 indicates two trends. Firstly it shows the percentage of disabled people within each five-year age category by type of disability on the Y1 axis (shown by bars). Secondly, on the Y2 axis, it indicates the percentage of people in each disability category, also within each five-year age group (shown by lines).

Proportion of disabled increases with age

- In general, the bars (Y1) indicate that there was an overall increase in the proportion of people with a disability with each increase in age category. At first this increase was gradual, but after the age of 44 years, the increase became steeper, and it became even steeper after the age of 69 years. For example, among children aged 0–4 years, 1,6% had at least one disability, but 31,5% of people aged 85 years or more had at least one disability.
- Visual, physical, hearing and multiple disabilities, with slight variations, followed the overall pattern described above, namely a gradual increase, followed by degrees of steeper increases at different ages.
- In a different pattern, the Y2 scale is catering for the individual disability categories. Increase in the proportion of people with a communication disability rose slowly with increasing age throughout the lifespan, from 0,1% of those aged 0–4 years to 0,4% of those aged 85 years or more.
- The percentage of those with emotional disabilities showed yet a different pattern. There was a steady increase with each increasing age category, from 0,2% among those aged 0–4 years to 1,3% among those aged 55–59 years. This was followed by a slight decrease to 1,0% among those aged 65–79 years, after which the percentage increased again to reach 1,2% among those aged 85 years or more.
- The proportion of those with intellectual disabilities remained approximately steady from the age of 10 years or more throughout the rest of the life-span, at about 0,5% or 0,6%.

Figure 15.2: Distribution by age group of those with each type of disability and with at least one disability, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Note the difference in scale of the two Y-axes; the Y1 axis has a scale extending from 0% to 10%, while the Y2 axis has a scale extending from 0% to 50%.

Disability by type, population group and age: 2001

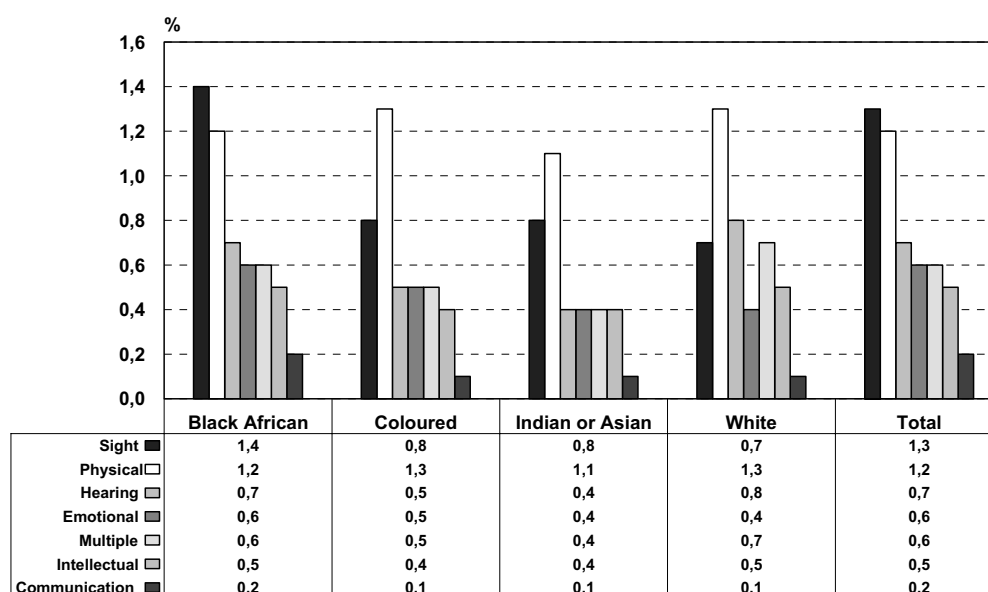
Figure 15.3 shows the differences in the patterns of the percentages of disabled people by type of disability and population group, while Figure 15.4 shows the percentage in each population group who were disabled by five-year age intervals.

Sight disability more common among Africans

Figure 15.3 shows the following:

- Among black Africans, the most common disability was visual, affecting 1,4% of people in this category.
- Among coloured respondents, the most common impairment was a physical disability (1,3%), followed by a visual impairment.
- Among the Indian/Asian population, a physical disability was again the most common type of disability (1,1%), followed by sight impairments (0,8%).
- Amongst the white population, the most common disability was physical (1,3%), followed by hearing (0,8%), multiple (0,7%) and visual (0,7%) disabilities.

Figure 15.3: Percentage of each population group with each type of disability, 2001

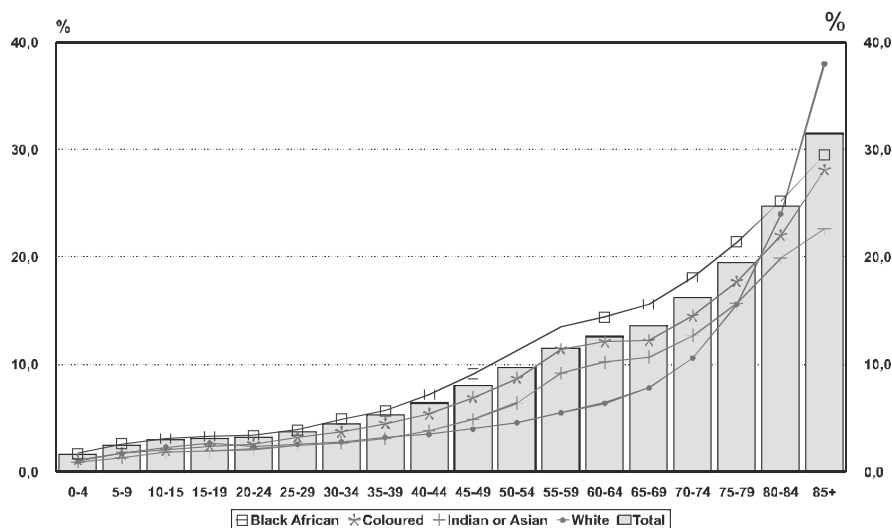


Source: Census 2001

Figure 15.4 describes the distribution of the disabled within each age category by population group. It shows that the age of change occurs from a gradual to a steeper slope in the line, representing an increase in the proportion of disabled people, varied by population group.

- Among black African people, the change from a gradual to a steeper slope is evident from about the age of 39 years onwards.
- Among coloured people, there are two increases in change patterns. The first also occurs from the age of 39 years onwards, but it is less steep than among the black African population and then levels out. The second, steeper increase occurs from the age of 65–69 years onwards.
- Among the Indian/Asian population, there are also two patterns of increases. The first occurs from the age of 45–49 years onwards, followed by a levelling out, while the second increase occurs from the age of 65–69 years onwards.
- Among the white population, there is a gradual increase in the rate of disability up to the age of 65–69 years, followed by a steep increase.

Figure 15.4: Distribution by age group of the disabled in each population group and in the population as a whole, 2001



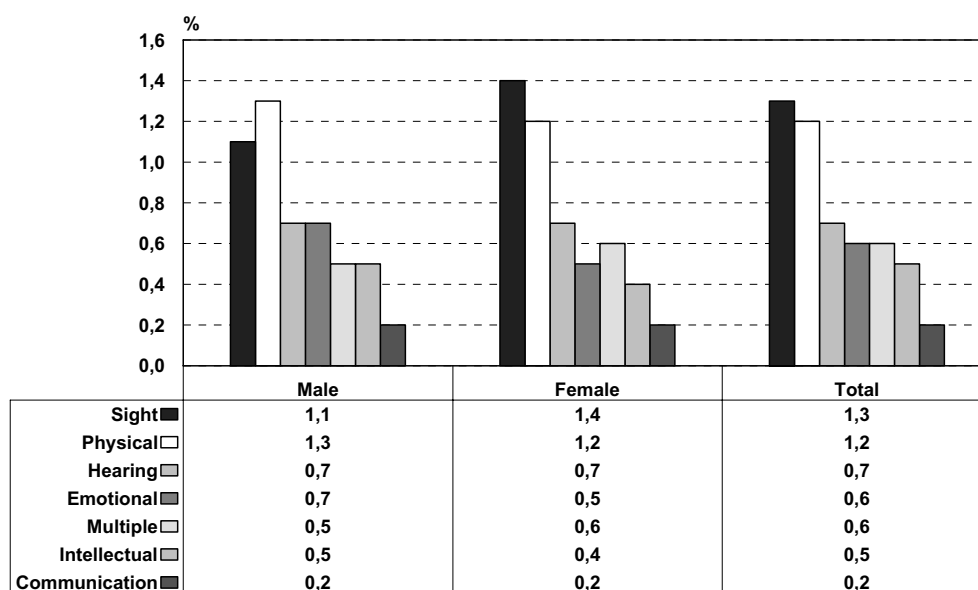
Source: Census 2001

These findings support observations in other countries that the age at which the steepness of a curve depicting chronic disease or disability starts to increase is related to the life circumstances and living conditions of the individual. In general, according to these findings, the harsher the conditions in which a person finds him- or herself, the earlier the onset of chronic illnesses and disability. We have seen that, even in the face of improvements in access to social services and infrastructure, there are still differences in access to these types of opportunities by population group. This may be reflected in the earlier onset of increasing disability among black Africans, followed by coloureds, Indians/Asians, and then whites.

Disability by type, sex and age: 2001

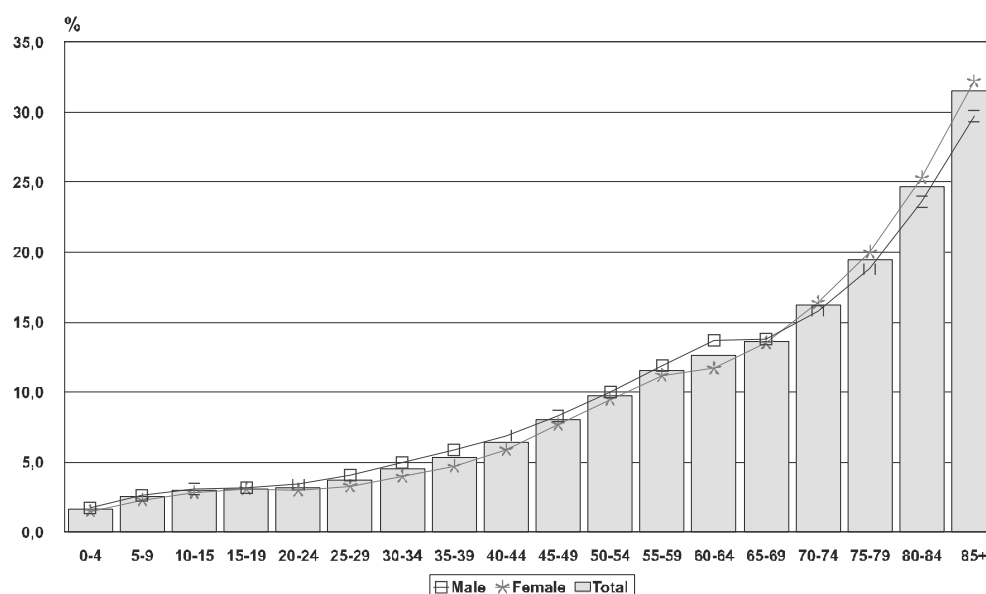
Figure 15.5 shows the differences in the percentages of people who were disabled by type of disability and sex, while Figure 15.6 shows the percentage who were disabled within each five-year age interval by sex. Figure 15.5 shows that, among other differences, physical disabilities were more common amongst males, while visual disabilities were more common amongst females. Figure 15.6 shows that, overall, the pattern of disability by age category is similar for both males and females. But a slightly larger proportion of men than women were disabled at a younger age, while a slightly larger proportion of women than men were disabled at an older age.

Figure 15.5: Percentage of males and females with each type of disability, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Figure 15.6: Distribution by age group of disabled males and females and of the total disabled population, 2001



Source: Census 2001

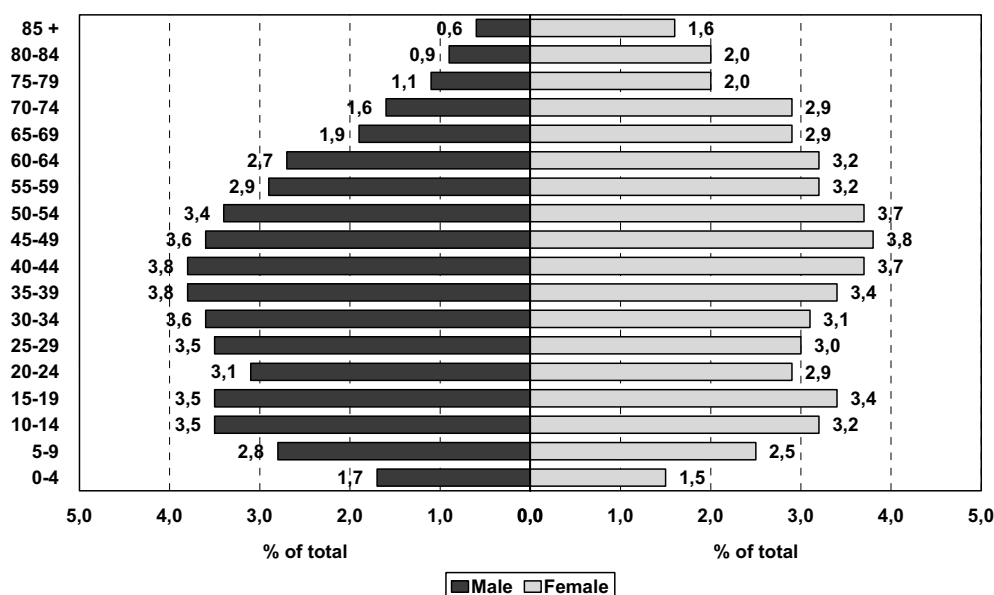
Age and sex distribution of the disabled: 2001

Figure 15.7 shows the age structure of the disabled in 2001. It takes the disabled population as the universe, and shows the percentage of all disabled people in each age category by sex. For example, it indicates that 1,7% of all disabled people are males aged 0–4 years.

The figure also shows that, in general, women tend to become disabled at a later age than men.

- In each of the age categories 35–39 years and 40–44 years, a similar proportion (3,8% in each case) of all disabled people were males.
- These two age categories represent the peak in the proportion of the disabled who were male. After this age there is a decrease in the proportion of disabled people who were male, reaching 0,6% at 85 years or more.
- The peak of the disabled who were female was found in a later age category than for males i.e. at age 45–49 years, but after this age the decline is less steep, reaching 1,6% of all the disabled at 85 years or more.

Figure 15.7: Age distribution of the disabled population by sex, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Disability by age category and province: 2001

Table 15.2 gives the number of people who had at least one disability, and those without a disability, by age category, in each province, and in total. This table forms the basis for Figures 15.8 and 15.9.

Table 15.2: Extent of disability by province and age group (numbers), 2001

Age and disability	Eastern Cape	Free State	Gauteng	KwaZulu-Natal	Limpopo	Mpumalanga	Northern Cape	North West	Western Cape	Total
0-4										
No disability	650 304	247 724	717 245	993 655	591 123	340 894	80 648	356 841	400 059	4 378 492
At least one disability	7 832	5 580	8 546	18 960	11 382	7 804	871	4 863	5 488	71 325
Total	658 136	253 304	725 791	1 012 615	602 505	348 697	81 519	361 704	405 547	4 449 817
5-9										
No disability	806 894	265 695	664 476	1 086 905	700 429	353 185	81 970	373 285	401 265	4 734 104
At least one disability	16 631	8 732	13 879	30 081	19 533	11 430	1 746	9 451	7 966	119 449
Total	823 525	274 427	678 354	1 116 987	719 962	364 615	83 716	382 735	409 230	4 853 553
10-14										
No disability	866 829	290 682	665 043	1 105 622	730 141	366 145	84 014	391 790	412 247	4 912 513
At least one disability	22 251	11 802	17 838	35 713	24 082	13 769	2 229	11 966	9 757	149 405
Total	889 080	302 484	682 881	1 141 334	754 222	379 914	86 244	403 756	422 004	5 061 919
15-19										
No disability	787 152	293 017	732 824	1 090 414	671 524	356 196	82 263	376 837	434 974	4 825 201
At least one disability	23 650	12 950	19 430	36 082	24 089	13 924	2 641	12 475	11 280	156 522
Total	810 802	305 967	752 255	1 126 496	695 613	370 119	84 904	389 312	446 254	4 981 723
20-24										
No disability	523 359	244 432	953 743	874 231	459 046	283 560	68 368	331 012	419 551	4 157 301
At least one disability	18 645	11 250	21 643	31 127	17 926	11 850	2 298	11 216	11 264	137 220
Total	542 004	255 682	975 386	905 357	476 972	295 410	70 666	342 228	430 815	4 294 520
25-29										
No disability	403 577	217 980	1 021 347	758 596	351 016	252 987	64 755	305 152	412 523	3 787 935
At least one disability	19 875	11 958	25 474	32 174	16 391	12 788	2 665	12 430	13 252	147 007
Total	423 453	229 939	1 046 821	790 770	367 408	265 776	67 420	317 582	425 775	3 934 942
30-34										
No disability	341 845	195 775	852 344	601 606	280 753	209 831	60 383	269 958	378 584	3 191 081
At least one disability	20 702	12 848	25 074	31 519	16 057	12 746	3 125	13 620	14 127	149 820
Total	362 548	208 624	877 418	633 125	296 811	222 578	63 509	283 579	392 712	3 340 901
35-39										
No disability	326 250	180 823	746 880	552 511	258 242	192 720	55 117	251 727	346 131	2 910 400
At least one disability	23 815	13 794	26 384	33 141	16 854	13 296	3 491	15 412	15 184	161 371
Total	350 066	194 617	773 264	585 652	275 096	206 016	58 608	267 139	361 315	3 071 771
40-44										
No disability	300 109	151 506	623 104	458 329	208 642	153 864	48 405	215 755	292 188	2 451 902
At least one disability	27 995	13 961	27 509	33 027	16 841	12 751	3 640	16 732	15 102	167 558
Total	328 104	165 467	650 613	491 356	225 483	166 615	52 045	232 487	307 290	2 619 461
45-49										
No disability	242 568	121 400	470 672	363 114	173 266	122 750	40 477	163 122	223 214	1 920 584
At least one disability	28 348	14 317	26 840	32 820	16 574	13 153	3 711	16 562	14 471	166 796
Total	270 916	135 717	497 512	395 933	189 840	135 903	44 189	179 685	237 685	2 087 381
50-54										
No disability	189 286	91 585	347 018	300 349	135 290	89 141	31 149	118 171	176 358	1 478 347
At least one disability	27 742	13 821	24 930	32 615	15 533	11 787	3 747	15 598	13 899	159 673
Total	217 028	105 406	371 948	332 964	150 823	100 928	34 897	133 769	190 257	1 638 020

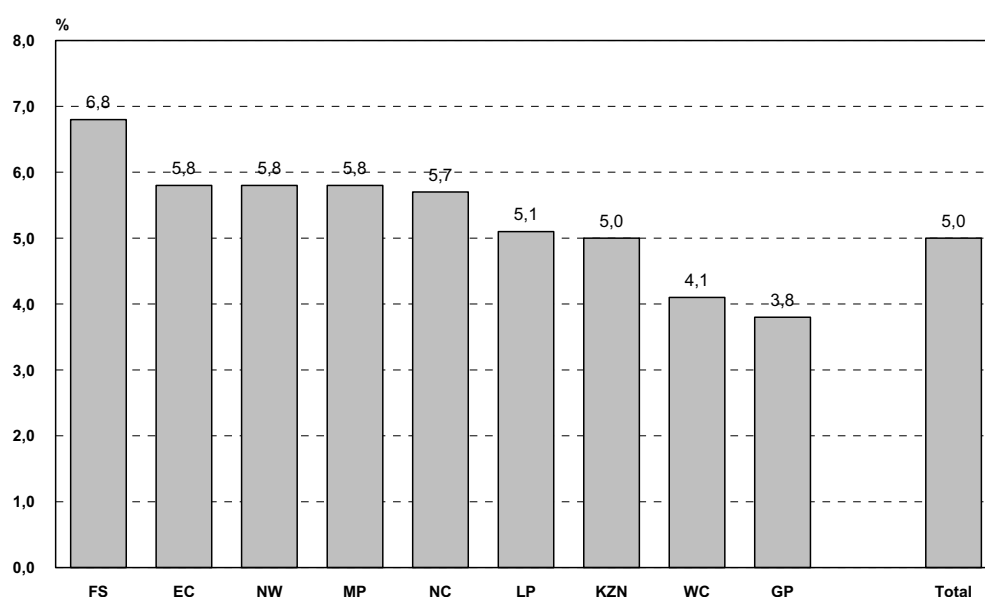
Table 15.2: Extent of disability by province and age group (numbers), 2001 (concluded)

Age and disability	Eastern Cape	Free State	Gauteng	KwaZulu-Natal	Limpopo	Mpumalanga	Northern Cape	North West	Western Cape	Total
55-59										
No disability	145 253	65 639	238 607	213 796	97 793	60 620	23 780	90 768	129 811	1 066 067
At least one disability	24 871	11 669	21 673	27 105	12 811	9 898	3 574	15 003	12 596	139 201
Total	170 124	77 309	260 280	240 901	110 604	70 518	27 355	105 771	142 407	1 205 268
60-64										
No disability	160 472	52 850	176 228	189 219	99 099	53 830	19 284	72 801	107 925	931 708
At least one disability	28 108	10 521	18 574	26 430	13 174	9 325	3 170	13 262	11 020	133 585
Total	188 580	63 371	194 803	215 650	112 273	63 156	22 454	86 063	118 945	1 065 293
65-69										
No disability	123 228	41 518	115 323	134 979	81 436	36 374	14 447	53 850	79 590	680 746
At least one disability	23 160	9 527	14 303	19 755	11 539	6 960	2 810	10 914	8 211	107 178
Total	146 388	51 044	129 626	154 734	92 975	43 334	17 257	64 764	87 802	787 924
70-74										
No disability	94 563	27 594	82 223	111 983	75 858	31 676	9 473	39 000	57 068	529 438
At least one disability	21 654	7 773	12 772	19 836	12 703	7 387	2 343	10 289	7 273	102 030
Total	116 218	35 367	94 995	131 819	88 561	39 063	11 816	49 289	64 341	631 469
75-79										
No disability	50 724	15 673	50 321	59 892	37 291	16 349	5 880	24 324	35 366	295 820
At least one disability	14 447	5 479	10 325	12 592	7 716	4 662	1 858	8 673	5 964	71 717
Total	65 171	21 152	60 646	72 484	45 007	21 011	7 738	32 997	41 331	367 537
80-84										
No disability	36 765	11 274	31 195	39 747	33 530	13 635	3 369	15 013	19 583	204 110
At least one disability	13 979	5 302	9 427	10 567	8 883	4 987	1 566	6 980	5 148	66 838
Total	50 743	16 576	40 622	50 313	42 413	18 623	4 935	21 992	24 731	270 948
85+										
No disability	15 790	6 200	16 463	20 521	20 152	7 375	1 996	8 696	10 855	108 047
At least one disability	8 088	4 126	7 504	7 006	6 918	3 339	1 465	5 799	5 039	49 284
Total	23 877	10 326	23 967	27 527	27 070	10 714	3 461	14 494	15 894	157 331
Total										
No disability	6 064 967	2 521 366	8 505 057	8 955 470	5004629	2941134	7 75 780	3 458 103	4 337 293	42 563 798
At least one disability	371 795	185 412	332 124	470 546	269008	181857	46 952	211 244	187 042	2 255 979
Total	6 436 762	2 706 778	8 837 180	9 426 016	5273637	3122991	822 732	3 669 347	4 524 335	44 819 777

The table shows, for example, that there were 71 000 disabled children in the age category 0–4 years. The largest number was found in KwaZulu-Natal (19 000), followed by Limpopo (11 000), Gauteng (9 000), Eastern Cape and Mpumalanga (8 000 each), Free State (6 000), Western Cape and North West (5 000 each) and Northern Cape (1 000).

The ranking of provinces, in terms of the number of people in the province who were disabled in 2001, changes as age group changes. For example, in the age category 60–64 years, of the 134 000 people who were disabled, the largest number was found in Eastern Cape (28 000), followed by KwaZulu-Natal (26 000), Gauteng (19 000), North West and Limpopo (13 000 each), Western Cape and Free State (11 000 each), Mpumalanga (9 000) and Northern Cape (3 000).

Figure 15.8 shows the percentage of all people living in each province in 2001 who were disabled. Of all provinces, Free State had the largest proportion of people with at least one disability (6,8%), while Gauteng had the lowest (3,8%).

Figure 15.8: Percentage of people in each province with at least one disability, 2001

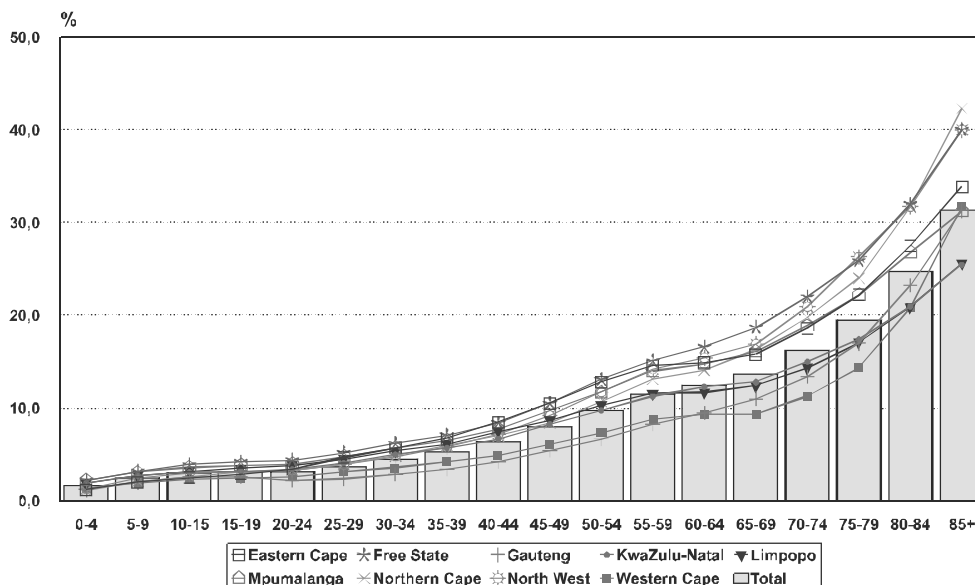
Source: Census 2001

Figure 15.9 shows the percentage of people who were disabled in each age group for each province, and in the country overall.

- The age at which the gradual increase in gradient changes into a steeper one, as discussed for Figure 15.2, is similar for most provinces, starting at about the age of 39 years, except for Gauteng and Western Cape, the most urbanised provinces in the country.
- For these two provinces, the upward increase occurs after the age of 50 years.
- The curve most closely following the national one is that of Limpopo.

Urbanisation, and better access to health services in urban areas may explain, at least in part, the overall slower increase in the extent of disability with increasing age in Gauteng and Western Cape than in the other provinces.

Figure 15.9: Distribution by age group of the disabled in each province and in the population as a whole, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Disability and education: 2001

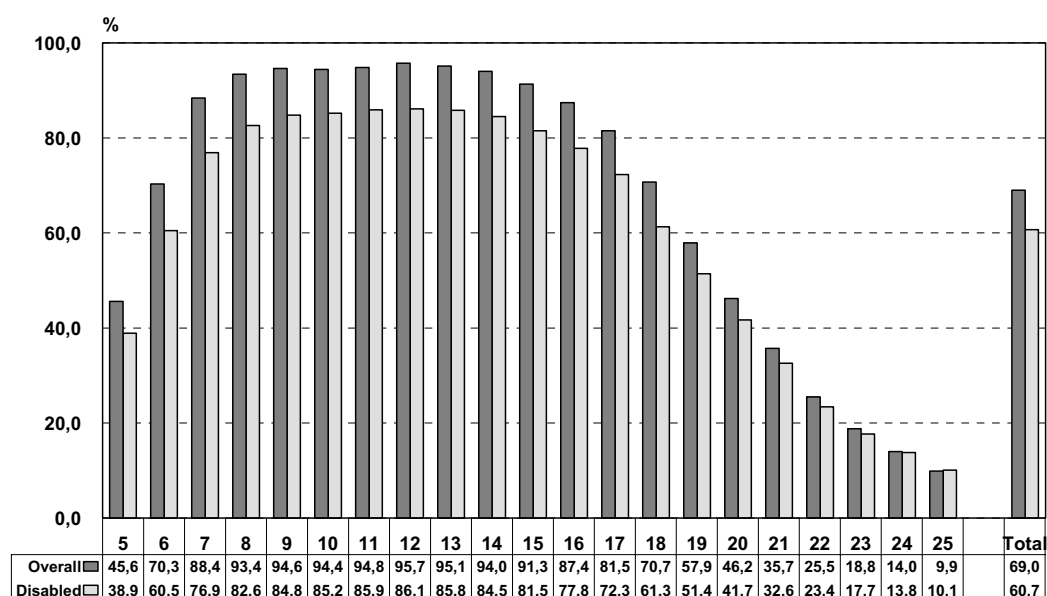
In this section, two aspects of education and disability are examined. Firstly, the percentage of the disabled population aged 5–25 years attending an educational institution in 2001 is described. Secondly the highest level of education attained by disabled people aged 20 years or more is discussed.

Disabled less likely to receive an education

Figure 15.10 compares the percentage of disabled people in each single-year age category from 5–25 years who were attending an educational institution in 2001 with the percentage in the country in general. Disabled children are less likely to attend an educational institution than the overall population.

- In general, a smaller percentage of disabled people than people in the general population aged 5–25 years were attending an educational institution.
- As age increased, from the age of 20 years onwards, the attendance gap tended to decrease.
- For example, at the age of eight years, 93,4% of all children was attending an educational institution, compared to 82,6% of disabled children.
- At the age of 23 years, however, the figures of attendance at an educational institution were more similar, at 18,8% of the general population and 17,7% of disabled people.

Figure 15.10: Percentage of the disabled aged 5–25 years attending an educational institution in each single-year age category, compared with the overall population, 2001

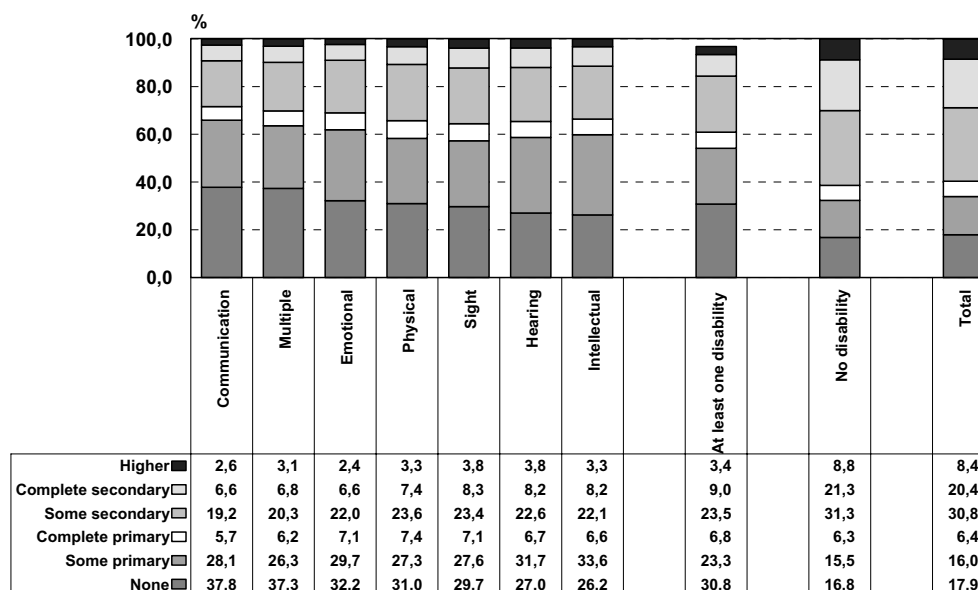


Source: Census 2001

Figure 15.11 compares the highest level of education attained by people aged 20 years or more in the general population with those in the same age category with at least one disability. It shows a lower level of education among the disabled population.

- Among people aged 20 years or more with at least one disability, 30,8% had received no education, compared with 17,9% of the total population in this age group, and 16,8% of those with no disability (this third group is not shown in the graph).
- When looking at people aged 20 years or more with specific disabilities, the highest percentage with no education was found within the two categories of those with communication (37,8%) and multiple (37,3%) disabilities. The lowest proportion without education was found within the categories of those with hearing (27,0%) and intellectual (26,2%) disabilities (including those with learning difficulties).
- Whilst 8,4% of the total population aged 20 years or more, and 8,8% of those without a disability had post-school qualifications, only 3,4% of those with at least one disability had similar qualifications.
- A larger percentage of disabled people with visual (3,8%) or hearing (3,8%) impairments had post-school qualifications.

Figure 15.11: Distribution by highest level of education of those with each type of disability and with at least one disability compared with those with no disability and with the total population, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Disability and the labour market: 2001

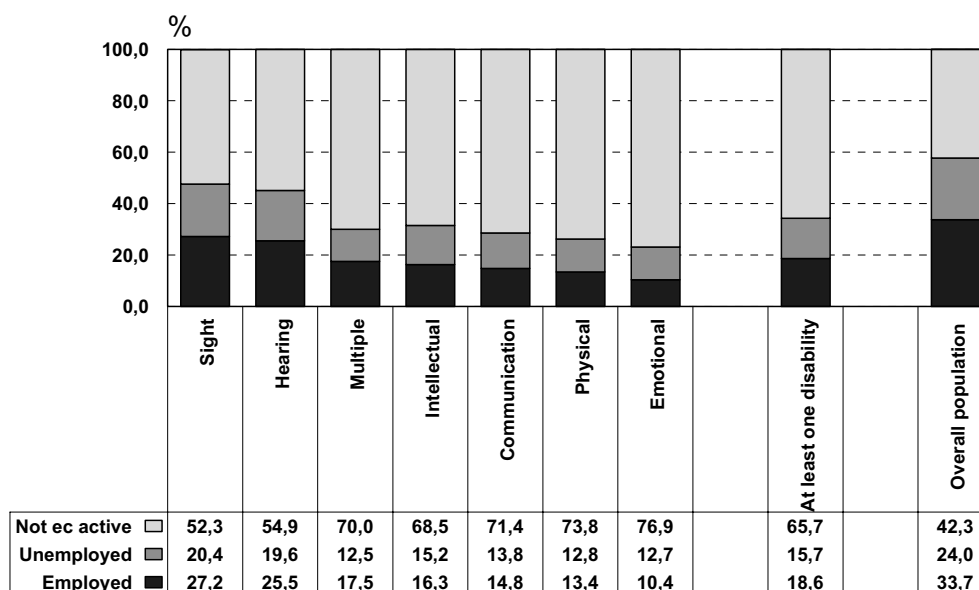
Among the disabled aged 15–65 years in 2001, both the labour participation and labour absorption rates tended to be rather low.

Figure 15.12 shows that:

Disabled less likely to be employed

- In the general population aged 15–65 years, 42,3% was not economically active. Among the population with at least one disability, however, 65,7% was not economically active.
- Only 18,6% of the disabled population aged 15–65 years was employed at the time of Census 2001, compared with 33,7% of the population as a whole in this age group.
- Among the disabled with sight (27,2%) and hearing (25,5%) impairments, a larger percentage was employed than the percentage of those with other disabilities that were employed.

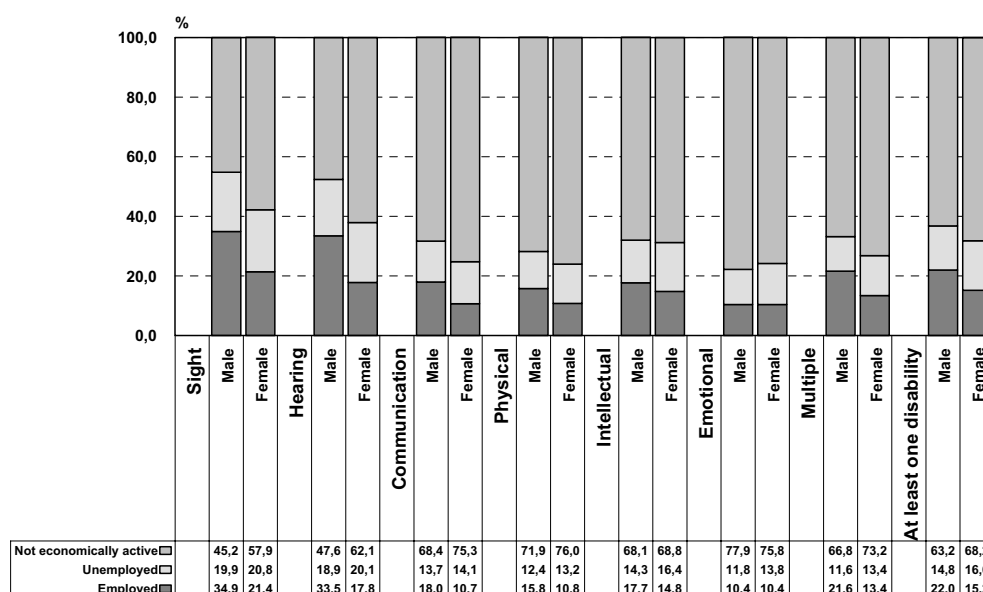
Figure 15.12: Distribution by labour market status of those aged 15–65 years with each type of disability and with at least one disability compared with those with no disability and with the total population, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Figure 15.13 indicates that the labour market status of the disabled is associated with the sex of the disabled person. For example, in 2001, amongst those with at least one disability, disabled females in the age category 15–65 were more likely to be not economically active (68,2%) than disabled males in the same age category (63,2%).

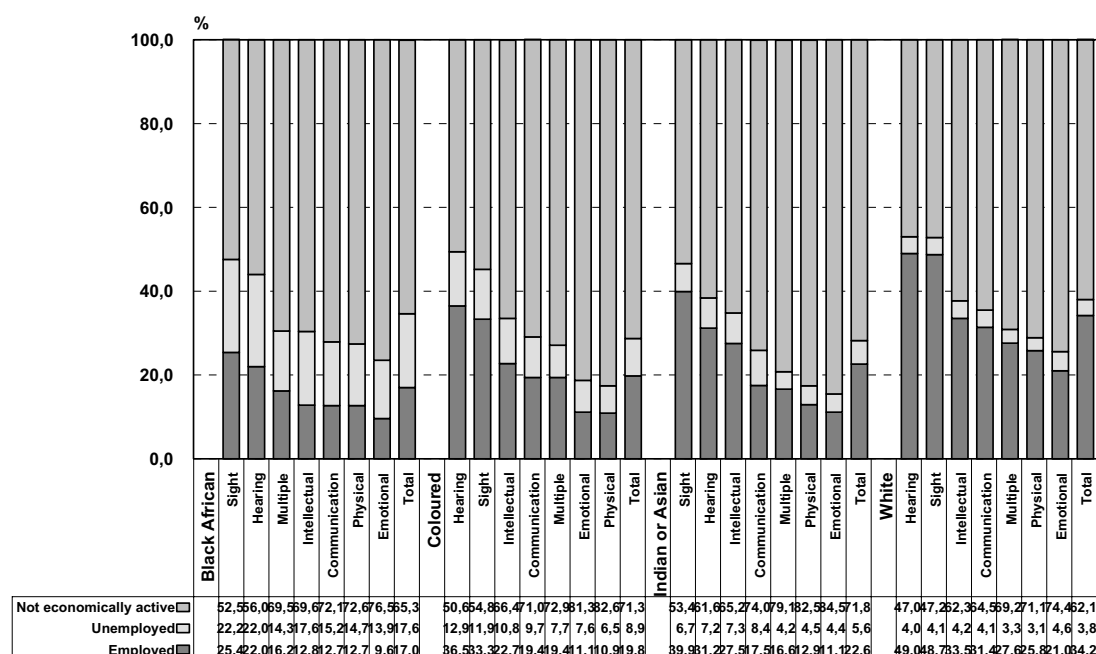
Figure 15.13: Distribution by labour market status of males and females aged 15–65 years with each type of disability, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Figure 15.14 shows that, in Census 2001, even among the disabled people aged 15–65 years, there were differences in the labour market status by population group. For example, 17,0% of black African disabled people was employed, compared with 19,8% of coloured, 22,6% of Indian/Asian and 34,2% of white disabled people.

Figure 15.14: Distribution by labour market status of those aged 15–65 years in each population group with each type of disability, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Industry and occupation of the employed disabled: 2001

Figure 15.15 indicates the industry in which the employed disabled worked.

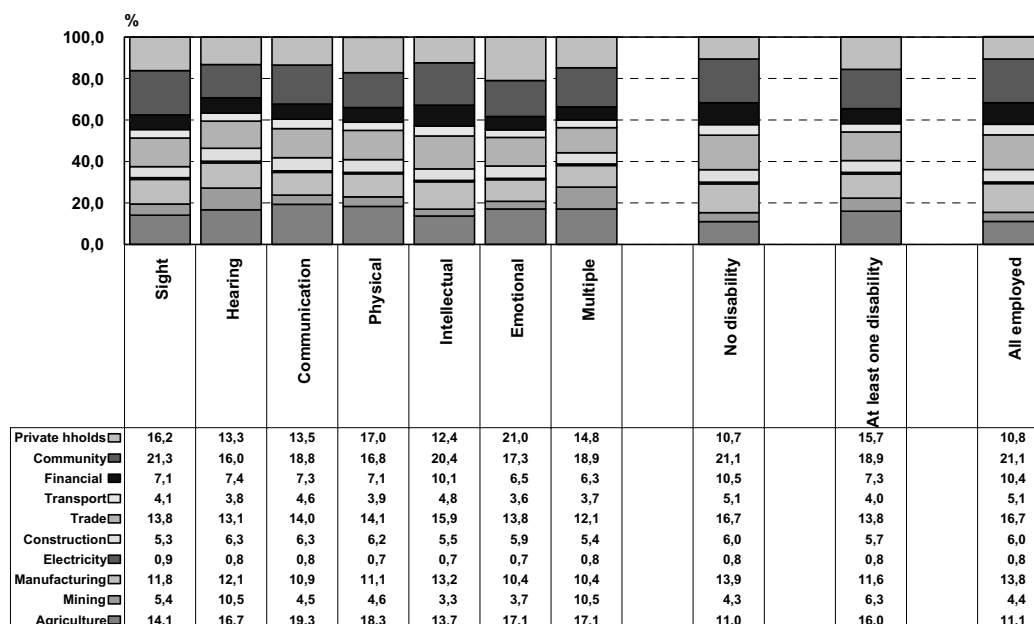
- Disabled people were more likely than the employed population in general to be found working in agriculture, hunting, fishing and forestry (16,0% of the disabled as against 11,1% of all the employed), and in private households (15,7% of the disabled as against 10,8% of all the employed).
- There was also some variation by type of disability in the industry in which disabled people worked. For example, 16,2% of those with a visual disability were working in private households, compared with 21,0% of those with an emotional disability.

Disabled more likely to be employed in elementary occupations

Figure 15.16 shows that the type of occupation in which disabled people worked also differed from the pattern for the employed population as a whole, and again there was variation by type of disabilities.

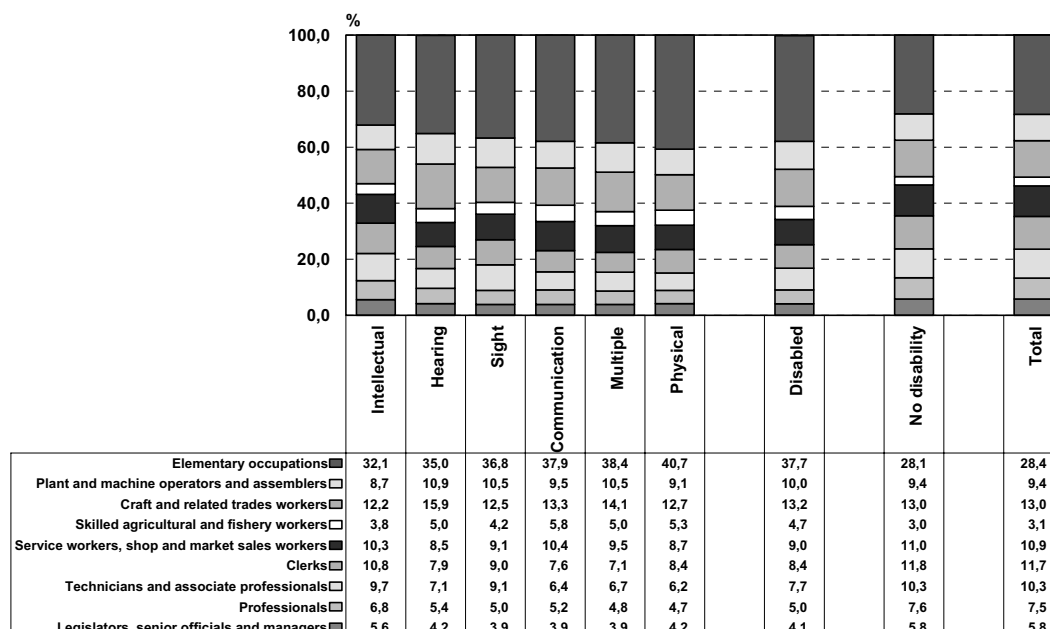
- For example, 37,7% of the employed with at least one disability were found in elementary occupations, as against 28,4% of the total employed.
- Among the disabled, 40,7% of those with a physical disability, and 38,4% of those with multiple disabilities, were in an elementary occupation, compared with 32,1% of those with an intellectual and 35,0% of those with a hearing disability.

Figure 15.15: Distribution by industry of the employed aged 15–65 years with each type of disability and with at least one disability compared with those with no disability and with the total population, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Figure 15.16: Distribution by occupation of the employed aged 15–65 years with each type of disability and with at least one disability compared with those with no disability and with the total population, 2001



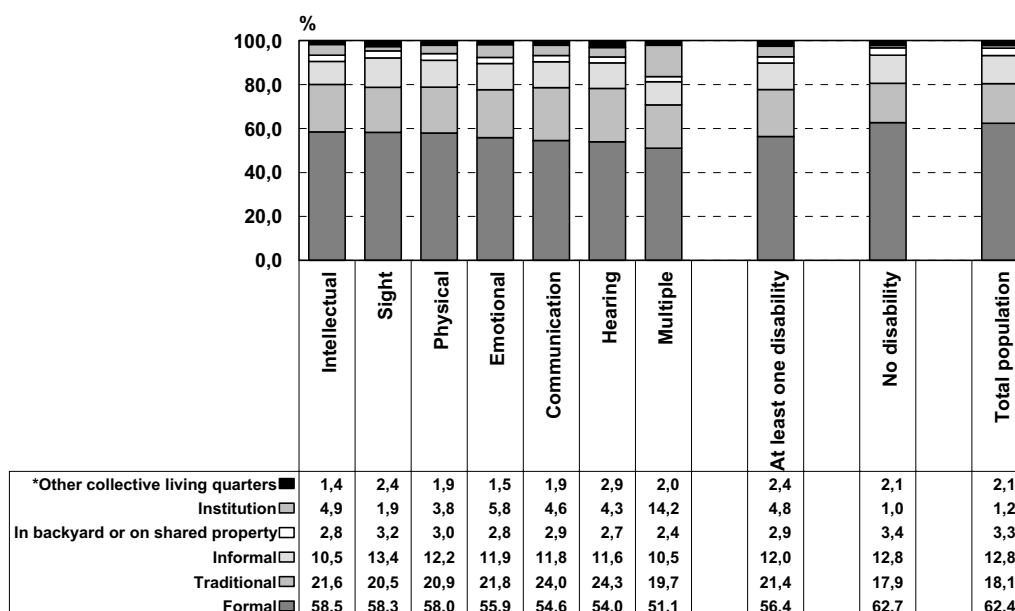
Source: Census 2001

Living conditions of the disabled: 2001

When examining the type of dwelling or living quarters in which the disabled lived at the time of Census 2001, compared to the population generally, Figure 15.17 shows that:

- A smaller percentage of disabled people (56,4%) compared to the total population (62,4%) was living in a formal dwelling such as a house or a flat.
- A larger percentage of disabled people (21,4%) than of the population in general (18,1%) was living in a traditional dwelling.
- Among the disabled, a larger proportion of those with multiple disabilities (14,2%) were living in an institution than of those with only one disability (4,9% of those with intellectual, 1,9% of those with sight, 3,8% of those with physical, 5,8% of those with emotional, 4,6% of those with communication, and 4,3% of those with hearing disabilities). The proportion of all the disabled living in an institution was 4,8%.

Figure 15.17: Distribution by type of living quarters of the employed aged 15–65 years with each type of disability and with at least one disability compared with those with no disability and with the total population, 2001

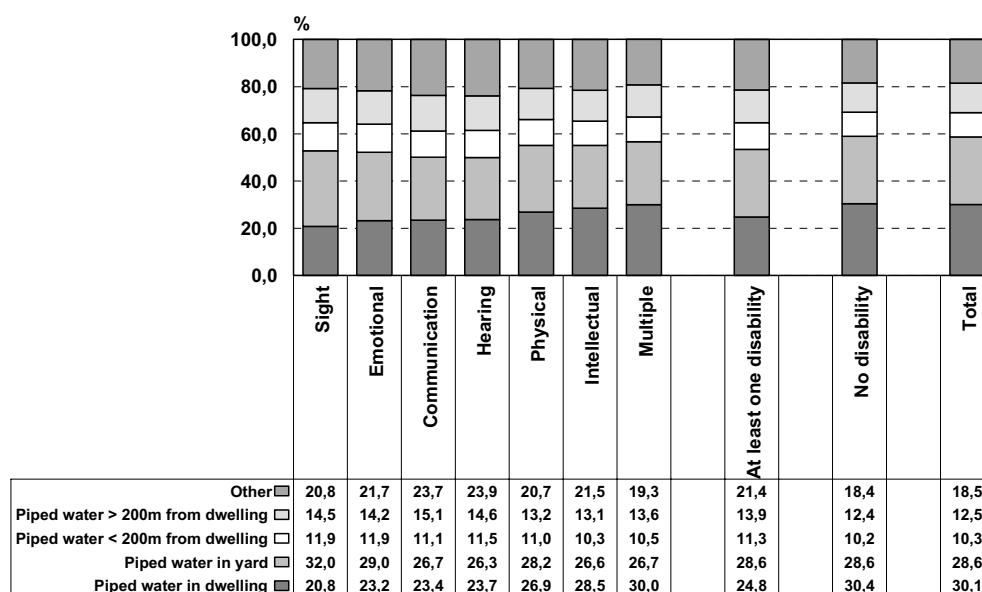


Source: Census 2001

* This group comprises student residences, workers' hostels, residential hotels and homes for the independent aged.

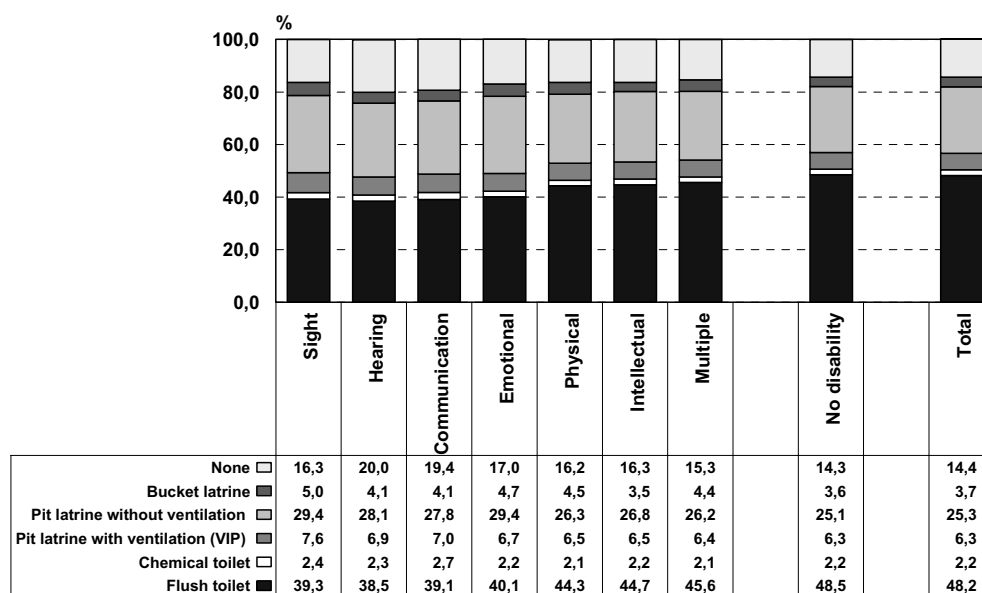
The next two figures examine access to water and sanitation among the disabled. Figure 15.18 shows that the disabled population was more likely to use water from sources such as rivers, streams, dams and rainwater tanks (21,4%) in 2001 than the general public (18,5%). Just under a quarter of disabled people (24,8%) had piped water inside the dwelling, as against three in ten (30,1%) of the overall population. Figure 15.19 shows that the disabled had less access to toilet facilities than the total population.

Figure 15.18: Distribution by access to water of those with each type of disability and with at least one disability compared with those with no disability and with the total population, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Figure 15.19: Distribution by toilet facility of those with each type of disability and with at least one disability compared with those with no disability and with the total population, 2001



Source: Census 2001

Summary

To measure the extent of disability in the country, Stats SA asked in the Census 2001 questionnaire whether or not the referent person had any serious disabilities that prevented his or her full participation in life activities (such as education, work, and social life). Disabilities were divided into those affecting sight, hearing, and communication, and physical, intellectual, and emotional functioning. Multiple disabilities were also identified. The responses given in Census 2001 concerning disability are not directly comparable with those given in Census 1996, since the phrasing of the question, the classification of disability and the coverage of respondents differed.

Altogether, of the 44,8 million people counted in Census 2001, 2,3 million people were reported as being disabled. Of these, 577 000 (1,3%) had a visual disability, 558 000 (1,2%) had a physical, 314 000 (0,7%) had a hearing, 269 000 (0,6%) had an emotional, 206 000 (0,5%) had an intellectual, and 75 000 (0,2%) had a communication disability. In addition, 257 000 people (0,6%) had multiple disabilities.

Regarding the relationship between disability and age, there was an overall increase in the proportion of people with a disability with each increase in age category. At first this increase was gradual, but after the age of 44 years, the increase became steeper, and it became even steeper after the age of 69 years. Visual, physical, hearing and multiple disabilities, with slight variations, followed the overall pattern described above. This pattern was however, not found for all disabilities. For example, the increase in the proportion of people with a communication disability rose slowly with increasing age throughout the lifespan, from 0,1% of those aged 0–4 years to 0,4% of those aged 85 years or more.

The actual age when change from a more gradual to a steeper slope occurs, representing an increase in the proportion of disabled people, varied by population group. For example, among black African people, the change from a gradual to a steeper slope is evident from about the age of 39 years onwards. Among the white population, there was a gradual increase in the rate of disability up to the age of 65–69 years, followed by a steep increase. These findings support observations in other countries that the age at which the steepness of a curve depicting chronic disease or disability starts to increase is related to the life circumstances and living conditions of the individual.

With regard to sex, in general, women tend to become disabled at a later age than men.

In terms of education, disabled children were less likely to attend an educational institution than the overall population. Disabled people aged 20 years or more had attained a lower level of education than the overall population in that age category.

Among the disabled aged 15–65 years in 2001, both the labour participation and labour absorption rates tended to be rather low. In the general population aged 15–65 years, 42,3% was not economically active. Among the population with at least one disability, however, 65,7% was not economically active. Only 18,6% of the disabled population aged 15–65 years was employed at the time of Census 2001, compared with 33,7% of the population as a whole in this age group. Among the disabled with sight (27,2%) and hearing (25,5%) impairments, a larger percentage was employed than the percentage of those with other disabilities that were employed. The labour market status of the disabled was also associated with the sex of the disabled person. For example, in 2001, amongst those with at least one disability, disabled females in the age category 15–65 years were more likely to be not economically active (68,2%) than disabled males in the same age category (63,2%).

Employed disabled people were more likely to be found working in agriculture, hunting, fishing and forestry (16,0% of disabled as against 11,1% of all employed), and in private households (15,7% of disabled as against 10,8% of all employed). The type of occupation in which disabled people worked also differed from the pattern for the employed population overall. For example, 37,7% of the employed aged 15–65 years with at least one disability were found in elementary occupations, as against 28,4% of the total employed in this age category.

When looking at the living conditions of the disabled, we see that a smaller percentage of disabled people (56,4%) than of the general population (62,4%) was living in a formal dwelling such as a house or a flat. A larger percentage of disabled people (21,4%) than of the population in general (18,1%) was living in a traditional dwelling. Lastly among the disabled, a larger proportion of those with multiple disabilities (14,2%) was living in an institution than of those with only one disability.

Section 5

Conclusions

Chapter 16 – Implications and conclusions

Implications

The findings of Census 2001, and the comparisons between Census 1996 and 2001, have certain implications for future planning, policy formulation and implementation. These implications are outlined below.

Population growth: The increase in population size between October 1996 and 2001 of 4,2 million people (from 40,6 million to 44,8 million people) suggests that planning for the future will need to take into account an expanding population, with a growth rate of approximately two per cent per annum. This type of expansion is more evident in developing countries, rather than the shrinking, aging populations more evident in the highly industrialised countries.

Distribution by population group: Planning should also take into account that, over the five years between Census 1996 and 2001, the proportion of black African people in the country has steadily increased, while the proportion of white people has steadily decreased. In 2001, almost eight in every ten people in the country classified themselves as black Africans. Among children, the proportion is even higher; 83,9% of all children aged 14 years or younger is black African, while 5,7% are white. This means that ongoing and increasing attention will need to be given to the developmental requirements of those who were discriminated against in the apartheid era. The implementation of policies promoting advancement of black Africans, including black economic empowerment, is therefore imperative.

Gender differences: While comparisons between Census 1996 and 2001 show that differences in the life circumstances of South Africans are larger by population group than by sex, within each population group the life circumstances among women are less favourable than they are among men. Planning and implementation should therefore continue to be gender-sensitive, promoting the interests of women.

Age distribution: The relatively young age of the population indicates that planning will need to continue to prioritise housing, health and other services, and the schooling and other educational requirements of children and young adults.

Internal migration: Even though the number of people has increased in each province except Northern Cape, where there was a slight decrease, the proportions of people in each province compared to the country as a whole have changed. This change indicates that there is a trend among young adults (aged 20–35 years), particularly males, to migrate into the more industrialised provinces, from the more rural ones. Future planning will therefore need to take this population shift into account.

Age and internal migration: The variation in age distribution by province, revealing two distinct types of internal migration patterns, need to be taken into account in planning. As we have noticed, young adults are moving into the more industrialised provinces, while older people and children are more likely to be found in the more rural ones. The implication is that at least some parents are sending their children back home to the less industrialised provinces to live in the extended family for the purposes of childcare and schooling. The priorities set by planning may therefore be dissimilar in different areas of the country.

Language most often spoken in the household: The finding that the proportion of people speaking an indigenous language as a first home language increased over time, while the proportion speaking Afrikaans and English as a first home language decreased between the two censuses needs to be related to promoting the language policy of the country and its implementation, including promoting the use of indigenous languages in the education system.

Education levels among those aged 20 years or more: Even though there has been an improvement in access to education over the time period between the two censuses, the need for adult basic education and training remains pressing. Development, training and educational opportunities for adults, which are linked to employment opportunities, should continue to be created.

School attendance: Although the overwhelming majority of children aged 7–15 years were attending school in 2001, the rate at which they were moving through the school system requires attention. This suggests focusing on ongoing improvements to the actual teaching being offered at school, including teacher training.

Labour market status of the working-age population (15–65 years): Census 2001 showed that patterns of labour market status varied by age. Unemployment is partly, but not entirely, a problem of youth. It is also linked with lack of access to appropriate education and training. Extended public works programmes focusing on youth are indeed very important, but the findings suggest that they need to be coupled with opportunities for internships within a work situation, and further formal training in fields where work opportunities exist, for example, the services sector.

Employment by industry: Regarding industries in which employed people work, there were clear shifts between the two censuses, away from working in primary and secondary industries, towards working in tertiary industries. These findings suggest that movement of jobs into the service sector should be taken into account in planning post-school education and training, so that work-related training is available.

Employment by occupation: The change towards proportionately fewer blue-collar and proportionally more white-collar jobs in 2001 compared with 1996 indicates that higher-level qualifications are becoming increasingly important for the workforce.

Travelling to reach an educational institution: The finding that, each day, the vast majority of those attending school (82,3%) actually walk to reach it suggests that there is a need for examining the provision of public transport services for scholars.

Housing requirements: The findings related to dwellings, coupled with the findings related to inter-provincial migration, suggest that plans for the future housing requirements of the population should be prioritised for those living in informal dwellings in urban areas. In addition, overcrowding should be taken into account. Overcrowded living conditions were found to apply to approximately 8,0% of all households. It is suggested that the housing requirements in situations where more than one household shares one room and in those situations where people live in accommodation with three or more persons per room, including the kitchen, should be addressed as a priority.

The requirements of household heads: The highest level of education and the labour market status of the household head had a direct impact on the living conditions of the entire household. People identified as household heads, particularly women, may require special attention in terms of receiving training, participating in extended public works programmes and in employment creation schemes.

Access to electricity: The use of electricity for lighting has increased significantly, from 58,2% of households in 1996 to 69,7% in 2001. These findings suggest that ongoing electrification projects are needed so that all households have this access, but consideration also needs to be given to costs of electricity, and making it more affordable.

Access to piped clean water: Access among households to piped clean water for domestic use increased between the census years. The proportion of households using dams, rivers, streams and springs for water decreased from 12,4% in 1996 to 9,4% in 2001. Ongoing programmes are needed to ensure that all households have access to clean water.

Access to toilet facilities: Concerning toilet facilities, the proportion of households without any access to a toilet facility increased from 12,4% in 1996 to 13,6% in 2001. The provision of adequate toilet facilities, including ventilated pit latrines is an ongoing challenge facing planners.

Access to a telephone in the dwelling or a cellular telephone: Access to a telephone in the dwelling and/or a cellular telephone had increased steeply between 1996 and 2001: 28,8% of all households in 1996 had access to a landline in the dwelling or a cellular telephone, increasing to 42,4% on households in 2001. But there is still a long way to go.

Foreign-born people in South Africa: The census results indicate that foreign-born people are an asset to the country, contributing significantly to its economic growth. This contribution should be taken into account when developing immigration policies and implementing them.

The disabled: The findings related to disability indicate that, by addressing backlogs and improving the life circumstances and living conditions of people generally, the pattern of an increasing rate of disability at an earlier age, as found among the less advantaged, can possibly be prevented.

Conclusions

There have been many improvements regarding the life circumstances and living conditions among both the people and the households of South Africa between 1996 and 2001. In particular, access to electricity, piped clean water, and toilet facilities, and to a telephone in the dwelling or a cellular telephone has improved significantly. But there is an ongoing need to continue to focus on addressing the persisting inequalities that were created in the past by the apartheid system.

With a population growth of approximately two per cent per annum, and with the distribution of the population of South Africa by population group changing towards significant growth of the black African population in relation to other groups, particularly whites, it becomes all the more urgent to continue to address the inequalities of the past by promoting black development and empowerment.

Education for all has indeed improved in terms of actual school attendance and higher levels of qualifications, but the capacity among teachers to teach effectively may be contributing to the relatively slow movement of children through the education system. The quality of education requires further research and attention.

Labour market issues remain a predominant concern in the country, particularly in relation to employment in the formal sector. Even though there have been some new jobs created in the formal sector in the inter-censal period, the extent of employment creation has been unable to keep pace with the actual number of young people entering the labour market on an annual basis. The present education and training achievements of the population in relation to employment opportunities are also of concern. The relatively small numbers of people with 12 years of completed education, and with post-school qualifications, place the country at risk of being unable to supply the skills that are required to ensure sustainability in a modern economy.

Appendix 1

Extract from the *Report of the Census Sub-Committee to the South African Statistics Council on Census 2001*

Preliminary investigations indicate that the 2001 census probably resulted in:

- an underestimate of the number of children below age five*
- an over-estimate of the number of teenagers aged between 10 and 20
- an underestimate of the number of men relative to the number of women*
- an underestimate of the number in the white population
- higher than expected numbers aged 80 and older, in the African population
- an underestimate of the number of foreign-born, since some identified themselves incorrectly as being South African-born
- age misstatement in the range 60-74
- an overestimate of the extent of unemployment
- an underestimate of those who were employed for only a few hours per week
- an underestimate of household income
- an overestimate the number of paternal orphans and the number of fathers missing from the household.

In addition:

- Scanning problems caused some births to be recorded in the wrong province. The number of cases is relatively small and should not lead to too much distortion for most purposes for which these data are used; however, it does produce obviously erroneous results in when one tries to estimate the extent of inter-provincial migration of those born since the previous census.
- The fertility data (numbers of children ever born, children surviving) are problematic.

For further details of these investigations see the full report of the *Census Sub-Committee*.

* This is a common feature of censuses, particularly in developing countries.

Appendix 2

Comparison of the labour market data from Census 2001 and the labour force survey of September 2001

There are a variety of differences between Census 2001 labour market data and the labour force survey (LFS) of September 2001. These differences are indicated in Table A.1.²⁷

Table A.1

Labour market data from the LFS of September 2001 and the census of October 2001 amongst those aged 15–65 years

	LFS September 2001 (‘000)	Census 2001 (October) (‘000)
Total employed	11 100	9 584
Total unemployed and looking for work	4 700	6 824
Total economically active	15 800	16 408
Total not economically active	12 532	12 019
Total working-age population (15–65 years)	28 332	28 427
Official unemployment rate	29,9%	41,6%
Labour market participation rate	55,8%	57,7%
Labour absorption rate	39,2%	33,7%

These main differences between the figures from the LFS and the census are summarised as follows:

- The LFS reported 1,5 million more employed people than the census. These people were found largely in the informal sector, as discussed below.
 - In the LFS, of the total of the 11,1 million employed, more than two million people worked in the informal sector (excluding domestic workers).
 - The vast majority of these people were identified in the LFS through detailed questions about activities undertaken in the past seven days.
 - This in-depth questioning, as we have noted, is not really possible in a population census.
 - The number of people who said they were working in the formal sector is similar to the total number of people who said they were working in the census, excluding domestic workers.
 - A large number of informal sector workers picked up in the LFS may, therefore, have been missed in Census 2001.
- The LFS reported 500 000 more not economically active people than the census.
 - This difference could be explained by the probing nature of the detailed questions regarding reasons for not working, and the in-depth questioning regarding actual job-seeking activities over the four weeks prior to the interview in the LFS that were absent in a census.

²⁷ The original figures published on 26 March 2002, from the LFS of September 2001, were based on raising factors that were obtained from population estimates using the count of Census 1996. The figures from the LFS in this report are based on raising factors derived from Census 2001. Therefore the figures published in this report differ slightly from those published in March 2002.

- Hence, a large group of people who were defined as not economically active in the LFS may have been defined as unemployed in Census 2001.
- Conversely, the census reported 2,1 million more unemployed people than the LFS. These additional people could come from the two above sources.
 - Firstly, they could be people who were in actual fact working in the informal sector, but who did not regard this activity as ‘real work’ and who could not be identified as employed in the census in the absence of further probing questions.
 - The second source could be those who were classified as not economically active in the LFS, but who classified themselves as unemployed and looking for work in the census.

The official unemployment rate, in terms of Stats SA’s past and present practices, is based on the LFS, not the population census. The census figures should therefore be regarded as indicative, rather than as reflecting the full extent of economic activity, including employment in the formal and informal sectors, and unemployment, in the country. Hence, in this report we do not give unemployment rates according to census data.

