Monitoring rural development

Using census data to measure change in the rural nodes

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Using census data to measure change in the rural nodes

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1. Introduction

In 2001, government identified 13 specific rural areas which were earmarked for accelerated development under the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (ISRDP). These were rural areas of the country with extreme levels of poverty and with a serious lack of facilities and services. Over the years, the number of rural nodes has increased from the original thirteen to the current eighteen. As the geo-political demarcation of administrative boundaries took shape over the years, there have also been considerable changes in shape, size and administrative alignment of the original nodes. Some of the original nodes have since lost or gained at least one local municipality, whereas those which used to be located on cross-borders during 2001 now each fall under a single provincial administration, and each node is a district municipality.

The purpose of this report is to provide a detailed analysis of the plight of the citizens of the rural nodes in general terms, and specifically look at the changes that have manifested in the poverty status of households in these areas over the period between the two censuses.

This report uses Census data from the 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses of South Africa. The authors of the report have endeavoured to attain comparability between the two censuses even where the original variables may not be necessarily the same. The census data used in this report however have all been harmonised to Census 2011 geography, making it possible to compare the same geographical areas between the two censuses.

Availability of census data for two data points in time is always crucial for this kind of analysis. Census information is often preferred because of its ability to address data needs at the level of the smallest administrative area or geographic level of the country. Therefore, as anticipated the release of the 2011 Population Census results set in motion a wave of requests from various stakeholders for specific census products that directly address specific user needs. One of these requests was that of the plight of the citizens of the rural nodes, their living conditions and poverty profiles and how these have evolved over the ten-year inter-censual period.

During 2001 the rural nodes were characterised by poor or no access to services like electricity, clean water and proper sanitation.

The level of poverty in the various nodal areas has been of keen interest to both government in general, and the nodal population in particular. The number of government programmes that have targeted the nodal areas since 2001 and subsequent funding that has flowed into the nodes makes both government and citizens equally interested in knowing exactly what changes have been realised in these nodes over the years in general terms, and in particular, whether the life circumstances of the citizens in the nodes have changed for the better.

Unfortunately, census data also has limitations. Just like any survey data, census data can only answer questions related to the ones that were included in the census questionnaire. Comparison of results between two censuses is also limited by comparability of the questions from one census to the next.

However, data produced in the census is second to none in terms of being able to provide a descriptive narrative of the status quo in any geographical area at the time of the census.

2. Background

The nodal areas are found in the poorest parts of the country characterised by little or inadequate infrastructure, poor means of communication, poor access to services, poor living conditions, high levels of unemployment, lack of facilities and are predominantly occupied by black Africans. The rural nodes are found in only seven of the nine provinces – excluding Gauteng and North West as indicated in the table below.

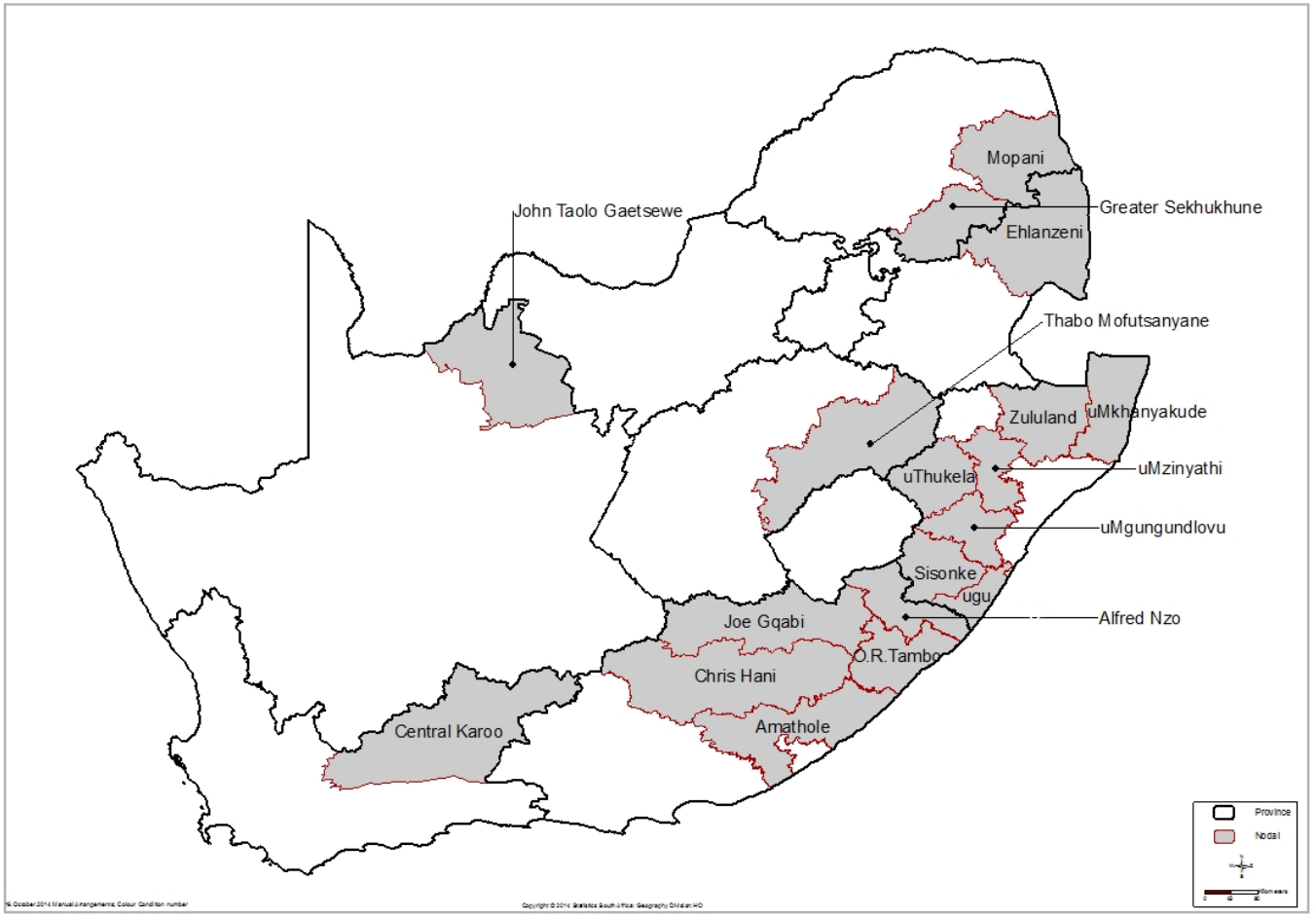
Table 1: Nodal areas per province

Province	Nodal area	Old names
Western Cape	Central Karoo	
Northern Cape	John Taolo Gaetsewe	Kgalagadi
Eastern Cape	O R Tambo Alfred Nzo Joe Gqabi Chris Hani Amathole	Ukhahlamba
Free State	Thabo Mofutsanyane	
KwaZulu-Natal	uMkhanyakude Zululand uThukela uMzinyathi uMgungundlovu Sisonke Ugu	
Mpumalanga	Ehlanzeni	
Limpopo	Mopani Greater Sekhukhune	

As can be seen from Table 1 above, KwaZulu-Natal has 7 rural nodes – more than any other province, followed by Eastern Cape with 5 nodes. Limpopo province has 2 nodes and each of the remainder of the seven provinces (Western Cape, Northern Cape, Free State and Mpumalanga) has one node each. The North West and Gauteng are the only two provinces without a rural nodal area.

Figure 1 below shows the geographical location of each of the 18 rural nodes in the country. The map shows the actual name and location of each node, with nodal and provincial boundaries according to 2011 geography. The colour coding is just symbolic and meant to enhance contrast for identification purposes. Name tags or labels are also added for the same reason.

Figure 1: Rural nodes of South Africa in 2011



3. Key findings

There are three major findings in this report and the first is that poverty levels in the majority of the rural nodes have significantly reduced (by more than half). Living conditions in the nodes were generally better in 2011 than they were in 2001 – an indication of the positive impact made by poverty alleviation programmes.

Whereas in 2001 the nodal areas accounted for 29,6% of the total population of South Africa and were characterised by households with an average household size of 4,4; many of whom lived in traditional dwellings with poor or no access to piped water; high levels of no-schooling achievement, poor or no sanitation, mostly relying on wood and coal for cooking and heating; without a cellphone in the house; and an average annual household income of R23 000.

In 2011 the nodal area population accounted for 26,9% of the national total with an average household size of 3,7; an overwhelming majority (70,1%) of the households living in formal dwellings; the majority of the houses either fully paid for or rented and with access to piped water; and increasing proportion of households with proper sanitation; using electricity as the main source of energy for cooking, heating and lighting; with over 80,0% of the households with access to a cellphone; a drastically reduced proportion of persons without any form of schooling achievement and with more than doubled average household incomes for black households – which make up 94,0% of the nodal areas population.

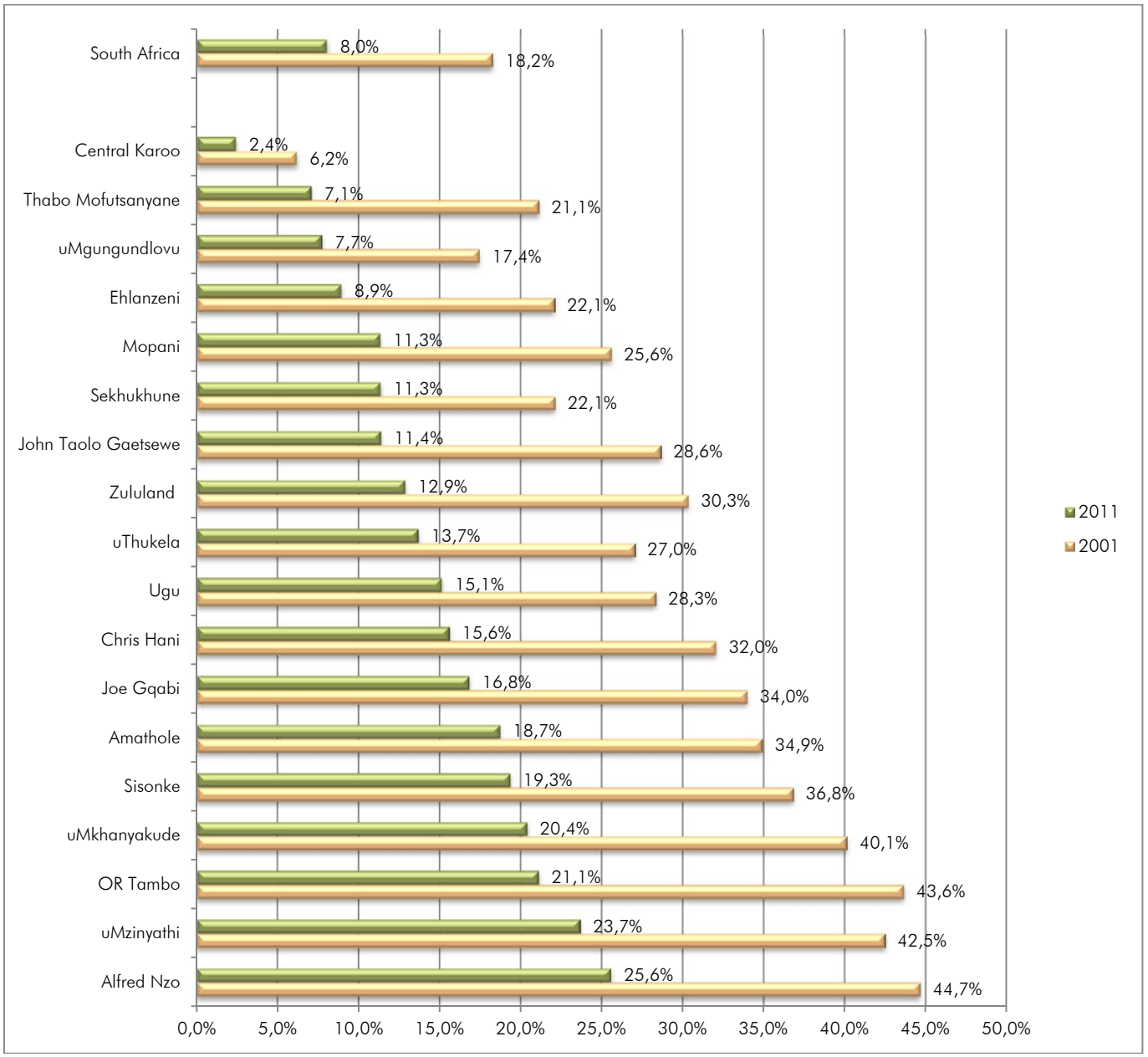
Second is that, even within the current limitations of the South African Multidimensional Poverty Index (SAMPI), which has limitations from limited data around health, hunger, nutrition and food security, there is enough evidence to suggest that there are a few rural district municipalities which are not included among the eighteen nodal areas, but have consistently presented a more bleak poverty situation than some of the identified eighteen. Poverty headcount maps at ward level show that there are pockets of rural areas that were much more orange to yellow in colour compared to some of the current nodes that were much greener.

And third but not least, is that between 2001 and 2011 there was a drastic reduction in the population of children in the nodal area, far more serious than what has been observed for the whole of South Africa in general. This has resulted in a permanent distortion in the age structure of the nodal area population.

3.1 Reduction in poverty headcount

Figure 2 below shows a comparison between the multidimensional poverty headcounts for 2001 and 2011 for each nodal district municipality in relation to the national headcount. The figure shows that during 2011 Central Karoo, Thabo Mofutsanyane and uMgungundlovu were the only nodal districts with poverty headcount less than the estimated national figure of 8,0%; pitching in at 2,4%, 7,1% and 7,7% respectively.

Figure 2: Multidimensional poverty headcount in the nodal areas during 2001 and 2011 by nodal area



The most significant reduction in poverty headcount among the nodal areas was in Thabo Mofutsanyane district in the Free State, where poverty headcount was reduced by 66,4% from 21,1% in 2001 to 7,1% in 2011; followed by Central Karoo, John Taolo Gaetsewe, Ehlanzeni and Zululand with poverty reductions of 61,3%, 60,3%, 59,6% and 57,6% respectively.

Nodal areas which reduced the poverty headcount the least over the same period were Alfred Nzo in the Eastern Cape, which reduced poverty headcount by 42,7%; uMzinyathi in KwaZulu-Natal, which had a reduction of 44,2%; followed by Amathole in the Eastern Cape, and Ugu in KwaZulu-Natal with headcount reductions of 46,4% and 46,6% respectively. In comparison, poverty headcount reduction for the whole of South Africa for the same period was 56,0%

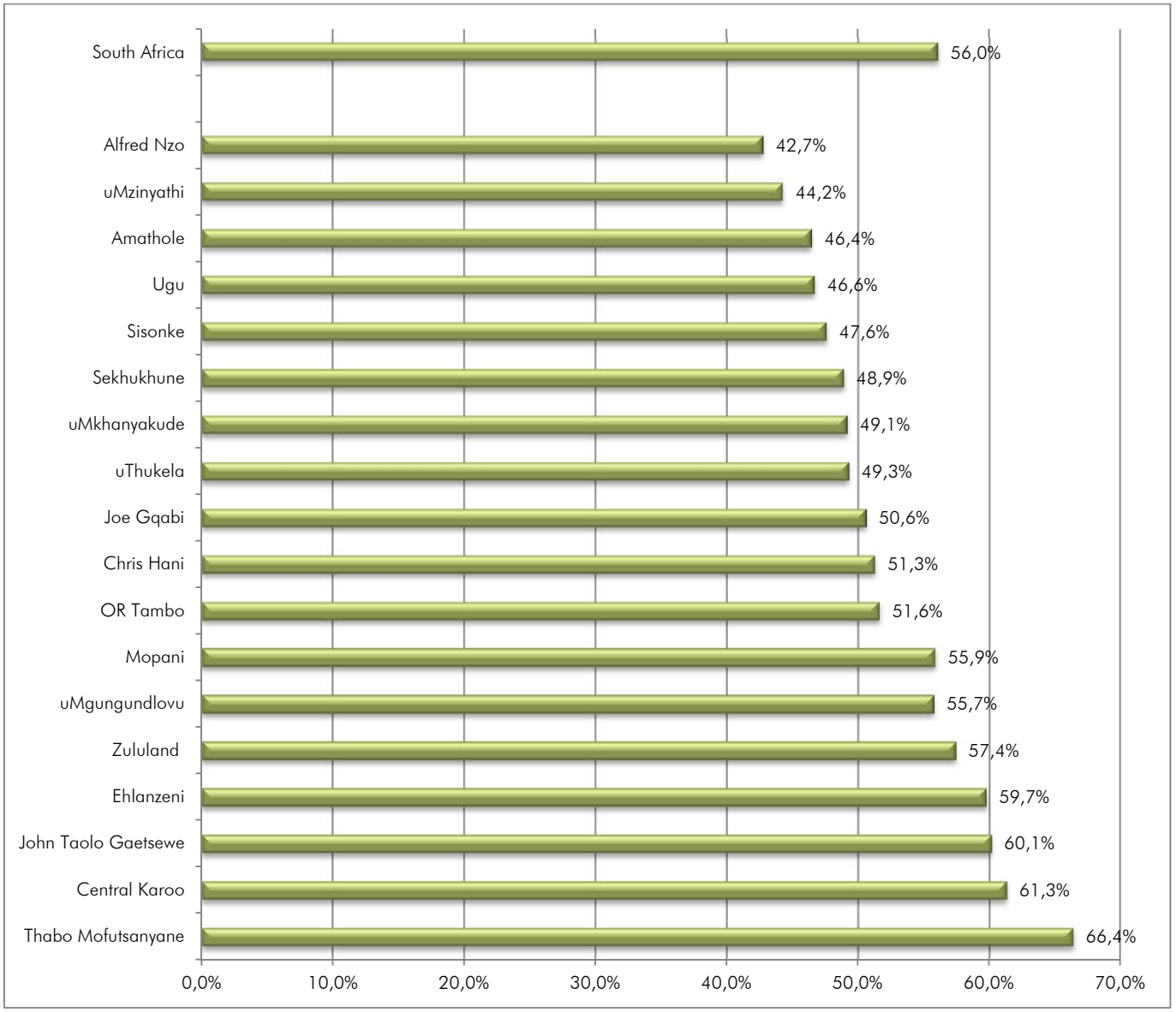
Figure 2 above shows that there has been significant and varied reduction in poverty headcount among all the nodal districts. However, very little has changed in terms of poverty headcount ranking of the nodes over the ten-year period. Just as it was during 2001, Alfred Nzo, uMzinyathi, O.R. Tambo, uMkhanyakude and Sisonke were still the most deprived districts in the country ten years later (in 2011).

It is also noteworthy that the Central Karoo nodal area in the Western Cape and uMgungundlovu nodal area in KwaZulu-Natal have consistently scored below the national average poverty headcount both for 2001 and 2011. These two nodal areas, together with Thabo Mofutsanyane nodal area in the Free State, are the only three nodes to have scored below the national poverty headcount in 2011.

In 2011 Central Karoo, Thabo Mofutsanyane and uMgungundlovu had poverty headcounts of 2,4%; 7,1% and 7,7% respectively.

Figure 3 below shows the percentage reduction in poverty headcount achieved by each of the nodal district municipalities in comparison with the national poverty headcount reduction over the same period (between 2001 and 2011).

Figure 3: Percentage reduction in multidimensional poverty headcount between 2001 and 2011 by nodal area



As shown in Figure 3 above, there has been a significant reduction in poverty headcount between 2001 and 2011 across all nodal areas. Figure 3 above shows that in at least ten out of the eighteen (55,6%) of the nodal areas, poverty headcount was reduced by more than 50%. Thabo Mofutsanyane district municipality in the Free State reduced its poverty headcount by 66,4% over the ten-year period, followed by Central Karoo district municipality in the Western Cape with a 61,3% reduction; John Taolo Gaetsewe district municipality in the Northern Cape, with a poverty headcount reduction of 60,1%; followed by Ehlanzeni district municipality in Mpumalanga at 59,7%; and Zululand district municipality in KwaZulu-Natal with a poverty headcount reduction of 57,4% over the same period.

3.2 Current rural nodes do not include all the rural poor areas

One of the key findings of this report is that, using the data from the SAMPI we have been able to identify other rural areas in the country that have consistently fared poorly in terms of poverty headcount but have not been included among the nodes.

Table 2: The poorest twenty districts in South Africa sorted by 2011 poverty headcount

District	2001 Headcount	2011 Headcount
Alfred Nzo	44,7%	25,6%
uMzinyathi	42,5%	23,7%
O.R.Tambo	43,6%	21,1%
uMkhanyakude	40,1%	20,4%
Sisonke	36,8%	19,3%
Amathole	34,9%	18,7%
Joe Gqabi	34,0%	16,8%
Chris Hani	32,0%	15,6%
Ugu	28,3%	15,1%
Dr Ruth Segomotsi Mompati	28,6%	13,7%
uThukela	27,0%	13,7%
iLembe	27,4%	13,2%
Vhembe	25,0%	13,0%
Zululand	30,3%	12,8%
		12,3%
Ngaka Modiri Molema	21,0%	
John Taolo Gaetsewe	28,6%	11,4%
Greater Sekhukhune	22,1%	11,3%
Mopani	25,6%	11,3%
uThungulu	25,7%	11,0%
Buffalo City	20,9%	9,3%

Without the benefit of knowledge of the criteria for inclusion/exclusion, one can only speculate that it was an oversight. Table 2 above shows poverty headcount for the poorest twenty districts in 2011 compared to what the headcount was in 2001 – the table is sorted according to 2011 headcount. Clearly, there are rural districts that have not been identified as nodal areas but have definitely been poor according to data from both censuses

The Dr Ruth Segomotsi Mompati district municipality in the North West and Vhembe district municipality in Limpopo are examples of rural districts that are definitely among the poorest eighteen but have not been included in the rural nodes.

3.3 The population of children in the nodal areas

Readers are probably aware from earlier census reports that there was an unusual drop in the population of South Africa's children of age group 5-14 during 2011 Census, which resulted in a distortion in the age structure. This drop in the population of children was even more serious in the nodal areas. As we will see later on in the report, while the population of children in South Africa – age group 0–17 increased by a mere 3,8% between 2001 and 2011, the population of the same age group in the nodal areas actually decreased by 5,7% over the same period.

4. Findings

The findings of this report are organised in five main sections namely demographics, education, living conditions, economic activity and multidimensional poverty. The discussion in the main findings focuses on the sources of those indicators used in the South African Multidimensional Poverty Index (SAMPI).

4.1 Demographics

This section of the report deals with the demographic characteristics of the populations in the different nodal areas in South Africa. It provides information on the size, composition and the structure of the populations in these areas for 2001 and 2011.

4.1.1 Population size

In 2011, the total nodal area population was 13 904 934 which represented 26,9% of the total South African population (51 770 561) then. Compared to 2001 the nodal area population (13 269 167) represented 29,6% of the South African population (44 819 778). This means that while over the ten years there was a 15,5% increase in the total South African population – from 44 819 778 in 2001 to 51 770 561 in 2011, the nodal area population grew by only 4,8% over the same inter-censual period – from 13 269 167 in 2001 to 13 904 936 in 2011.

The disproportionately lower growth in the nodal area population compared to the population growth for the whole county can be best understood by looking at various other factors such as migration and changes in the population structure, which generally would indicates what is happening to the various age groups in the population. Table 3 below shows the population distribution of South Africa and that of nodal areas in broad age categories during 2001 and 2011 and the percentage increase in population for each broad age category.

Table 3: Distribution of RSA and nodal area population in 2001 and 2011 by broad age groups

	RSA			Nodal areas		
Age group	Total population 2001	Total population 2011	% increase	Total population 2001	Total population 2011	% increase
0-17	17 382 879	18 067 972	3,9	6 306 767	5 948 312	-5,7
18-34	13 534 492	16 498 464	21,9	3 425 873	3 913 284	14,2
35-64	11 687 195	14 438 134	23,5	2 804 701	3 231 141	15,2
65+	2 215 211	2 765 991	24,9	731 826	812 197	11,0
Total	**44 819 778**	**51 770 560**	**15,5**	**13 269 167**	**13 904 935**	**4,8**

As can be seen from Table 3 above, the population of South Africa increased by 15,5% from 2001 to 2011 while the population in the nodal areas increased by a mere 4,8% over the same period. Nationally, the population of children (age group 0–17) increased only marginally over the ten-year period, but in the nodal areas there was negative growth of -5,7% in the population of children.

The population of the youth (age group 18–34) went up by 21,9% nationally and by 14,2% in the nodal areas, while the population of the adults, and the population of the elderly went up by 23,5% and 24,9% respectively at national level, and by 15,2% and 11,0% respectively in the nodal areas. The negative growth in nodal population of children could possibly be attributed to a combination of increased mortality among children and decreased fertility among adults of child bearing age. However, the actual determinants of such causes would have to be confirmed by an independent study specifically designed for the purpose.

The negative increase of -5,7% among children cannot be explained by migration as it is not reflected among the adult population – the parents of the children. So, whereas migration would go a long way to explain the declining share of the rural nodes in the South African population, it cannot be sufficient reason for the dramatic decrease in the nodal child population.

Figure 4: Proportion of the South African population living in the nodal areas during 2001 and 2011, by population group

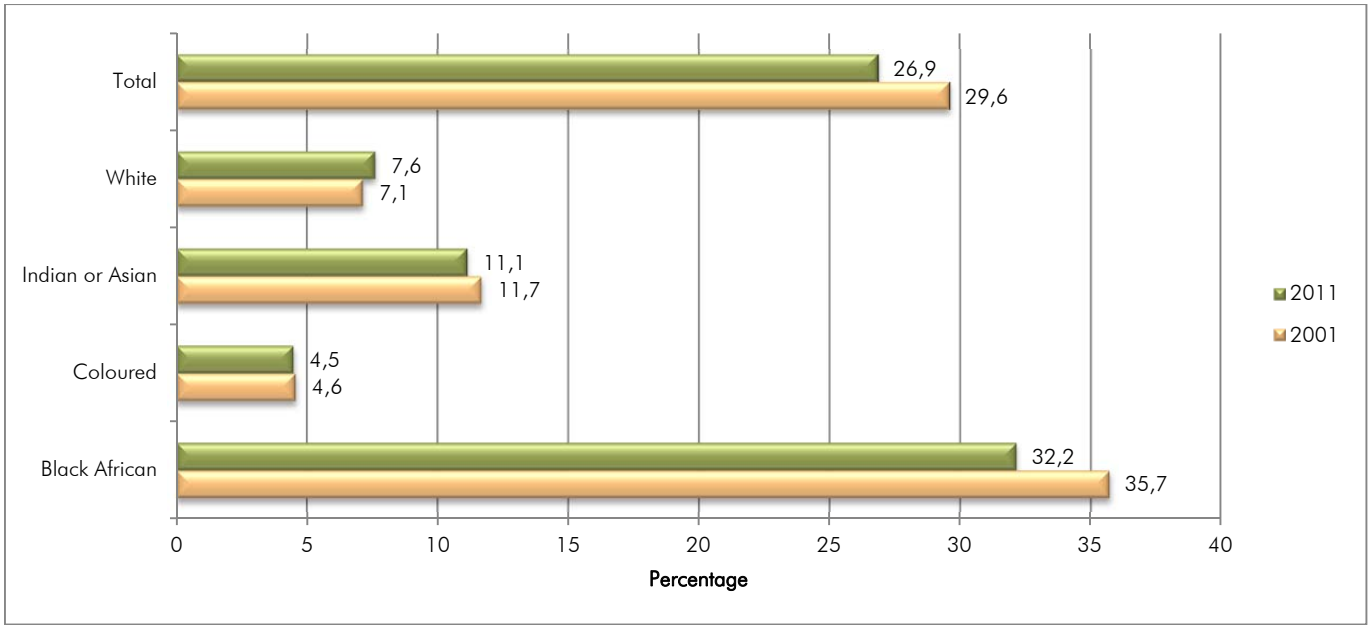
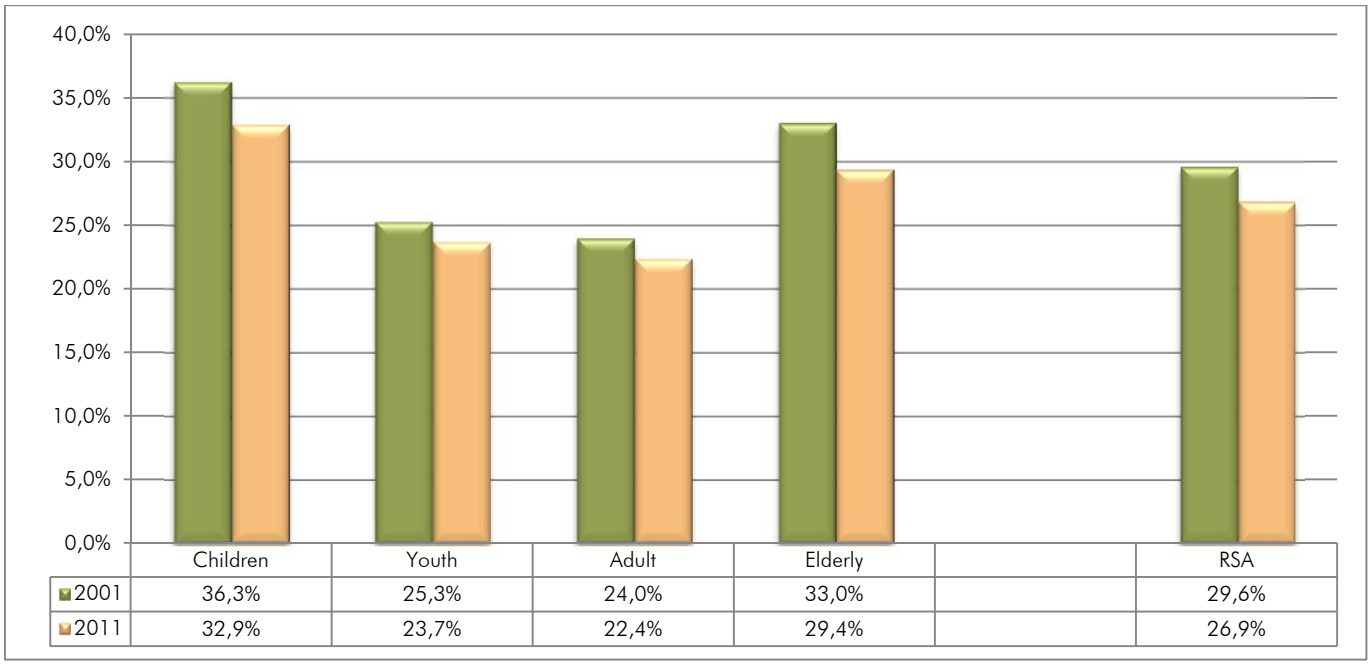


Figure 4 above indicates that generally, the proportion of people living in the nodal areas has somewhat decreased between 2001 and 2011. Up to 29,6% of the South African population was found in the nodal areas during 2001. This proportion had reduced to 26,9% ten years later (2011). There was a decrease in the proportions of all the population groups except the whites. The proportion of the white population living in the nodal areas increased slightly from 7,1% in 2001 to 7,6% in 2011. The population group to register the least change in proportion was the coloured population group whose proportion of the population living in the nodal areas came down from 4,6% to 4,5% in 2001 and 2011 respectively. The proportion of the Indian or Asian population group also reduced to 11,7% from 11,1% over the same period. The proportion of black African population living in the nodal areas was reduced from 35,7% in 2001 to 32,2% in 2011. This is a big reduction considering that 95% of the nodal area population is black African.

Figure 5 below indicates the proportion of the South African population living in the nodal areas during 2001 and 2011 by broad age categories – children (0–17), Youth (18–34), Adult (35–64) and Elderly (65+).

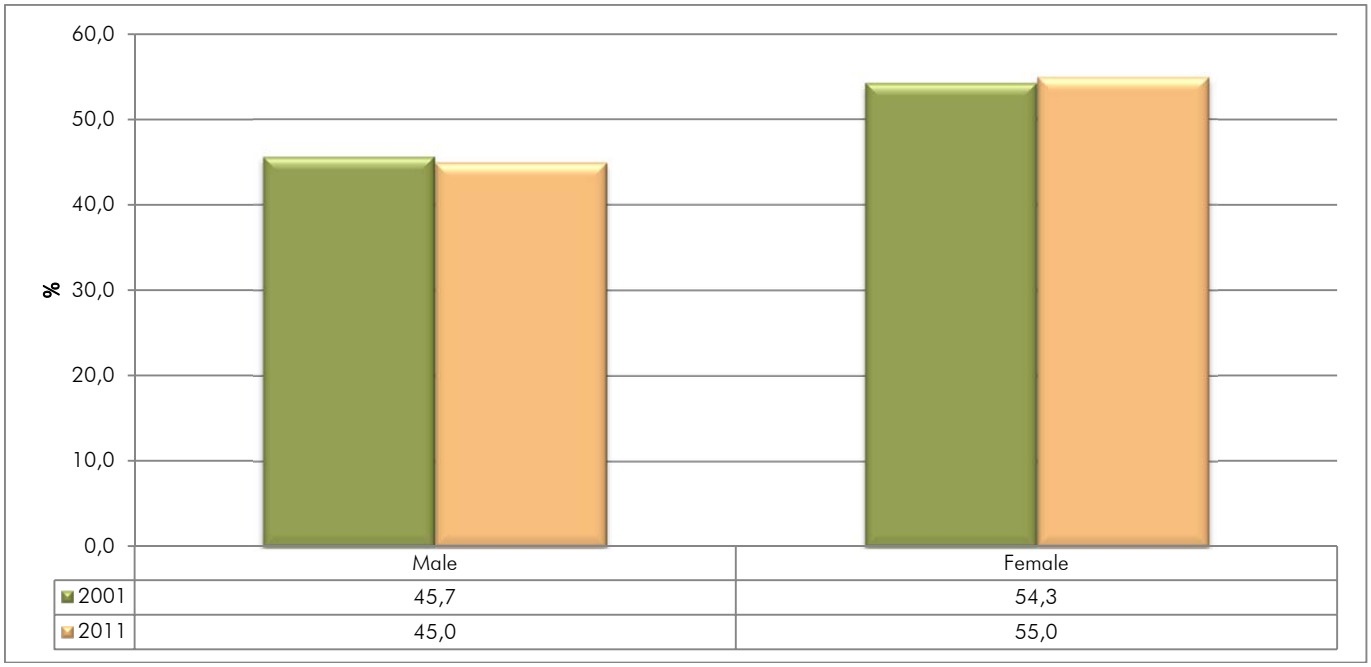
Figure 5: Proportion of the South African population living in the nodal areas during 2001 and 2011 by broad age categories



	Children	Youth	Adult	Elderly		RSA
2001	36,3%	25,3%	24,0%	33,0%		29,6%
2011	32,9%	23,7%	22,4%	29,4%		26,9%

In general, slightly more than one in every four (26,9%) persons in South Africa lived in the nodal areas in 2011 and so did one in every three (32,9%) of South African children. As indicated in Figure 5 above, the proportion of South African children living in the nodal areas dropped from 36,3% in 2001 to 32,9% in 2011 - a decrease of 9,4%. This is a significant drop in population considering that South Africa is a young population with a bottom-heavy population age structure. During 2001, at least one in every four (25,3%) South African youths lived in the nodal areas. In 2011 the nodal areas accounted for no more than 23,7% of the youths. About one in every three elderly (aged 65+) South Africans lived in the nodal areas during 2001. In 2011, this proportion of the South African elderly population living in the nodal areas dropped to 29,4%.

Figure 6: Distribution of the nodal area population by sex during 2001 and 2011



	Male	Female
2001	45,7	54,3
2011	45,0	55,0

Figure 6 shows that there has been just a slight movement of the sex distribution in the nodal areas over the inter-censual years. In 2001, the male represented 45,7% of the nodal area population and this proportion has been reduced to 45,0% in 2011. This means that the sex ratio in the nodal areas is still tilted in favour of the female population. Females formed 54,3% of the nodal population in 2001 and their share increased to 55,0% during 2011.

Figure 7: Distribution of the nodal area population by age-group during 2001 and 2011

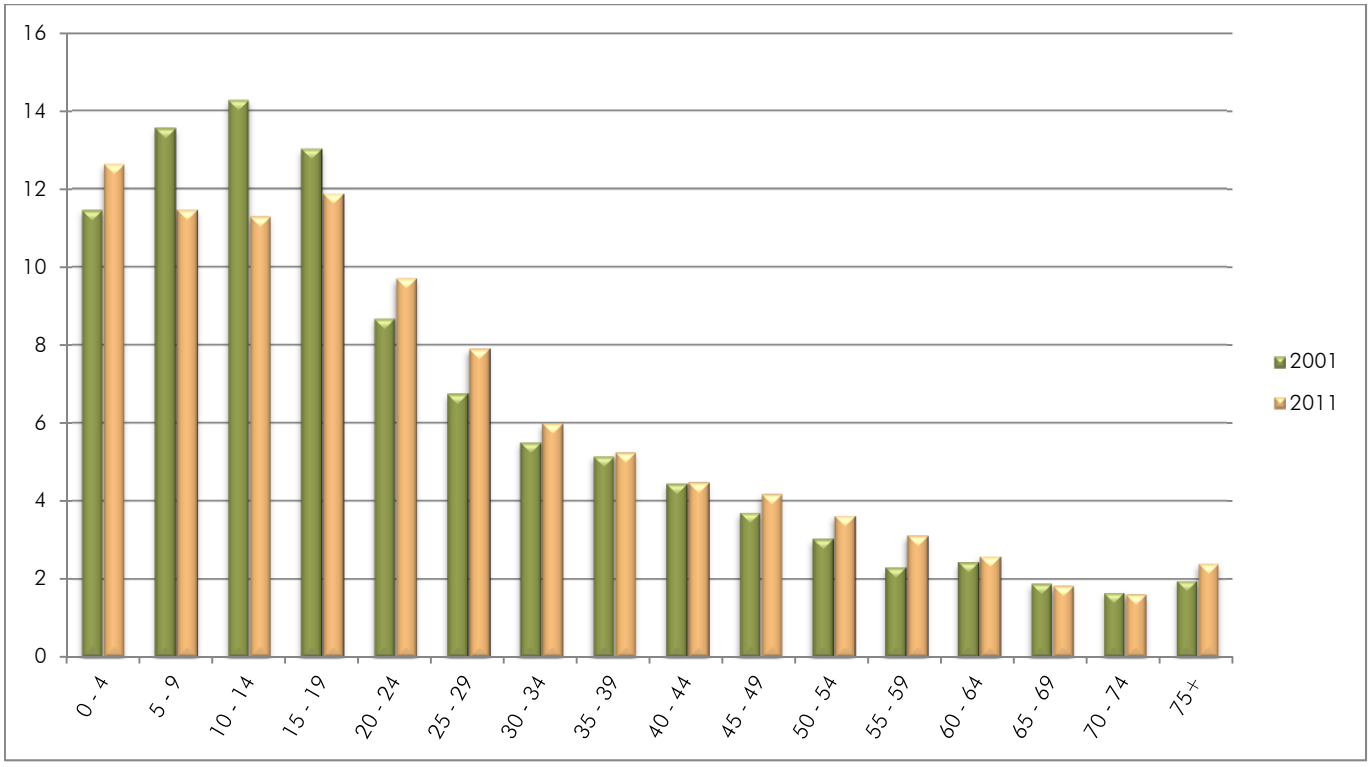


Figure 7 indicates that from 2001 to 2011, the proportion of the nodal population aged 0–4 increased from 11,5% to 12,6%; then there was a dramatic decrease in proportion of the age groups 5–9, 10–14 and 15–19. The three age groups suffered a slump in their proportional contribution to the population. The 5–9 age group dropped from 13,6% to 11,5%; the 10–14 age group dropped from 14,3% to 11,3% while the 15–19 age group dropped from 13,0% to 11,9% over the same period.

This drop in the proportional contribution of the population for the three age groups in the nodal areas is consistent with what has been observed for the whole of South Africa population at large. However, the drop is more intense in the nodal areas. In fact, the result is that whereas nationally there was a slight increase in the total population of children (aged 0–17) between 2001 and 2011, which can be explained in part by the increase in the population aged group 0–4 years, the population of children in the nodal areas decreased by 5,7% over the same period.

4.1.2 Population structure

Figure 8: Nodal areas population structure in 2001

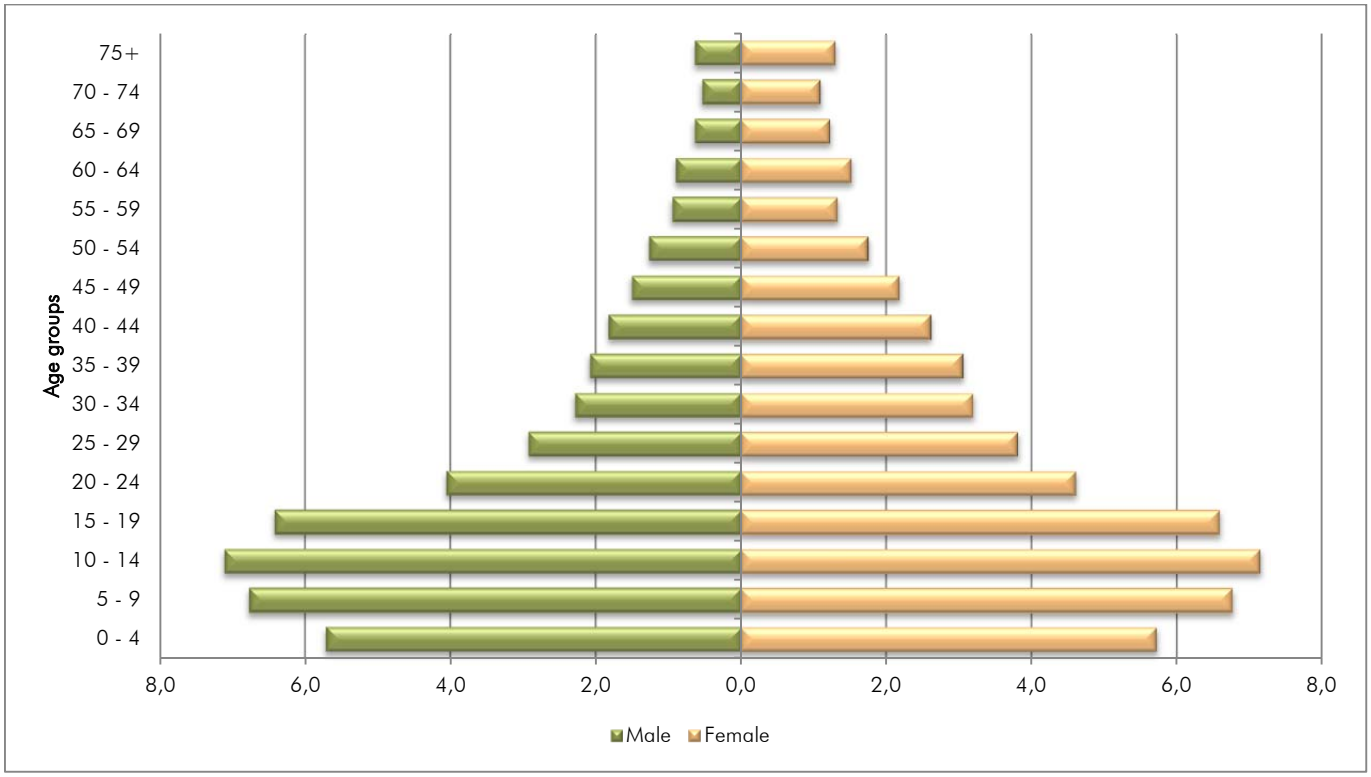


Figure 8 above shows the age structure of the 2001 population of the nodal areas. It indicates that in 2001 there were larger proportions of females than males in all the age groups except for the younger age groups (0–24) where the proportion of males and females are almost equal.

Figure 9: Nodal areas population structure in 2011

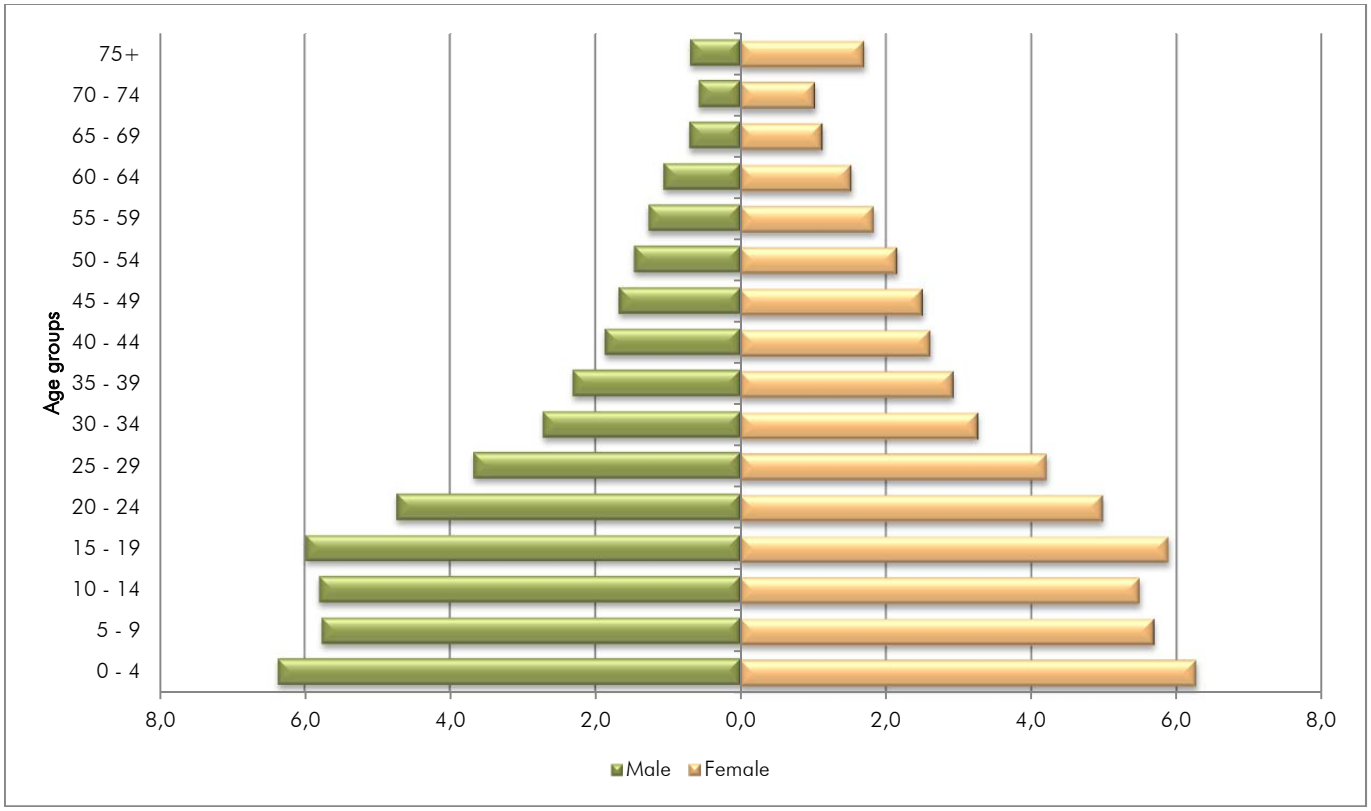


Figure 9 indicates that the nodal area population in 2011 also showed that the males were a smaller proportion than females in all age groups except for the younger age groups. The two figures indicate that there has been an increase of males and females in the (0–4) and (20–24) age groups while the males and females for the age groups (5–19) have declined between 2001 and 2011.

The two figures above also show that the female population in the 75+ age group increased by 31,7% from 1,3% in 2001 to 1,7% in 2011 which might be an indication that the females in the nodal areas outlive their male counterparts.

4.1.3 Households

The number of households in South Africa increased from 11 205 706 in 2001 to 14 450 161 in 2011, representing a percentage increase of 29,0% between the two periods. The figures for 2011 also reflect the inclusion of converted hostels and housing units.

The number of households in the nodal areas rose from 2 889 674 in 2001 to 3 428 477 in 2011, representing a percentage increase of 18,6% over the ten-year inter-censal period. This means that while in 2001 more than one in every four (25,8%) South African households was found in the nodal areas, a smaller proportion (23,7%) of South African households lived in the nodal areas in 2011.

4.1.4 Average household size

The average household size in the nodal areas varies from node to node, but it is noticeably higher than the national average household size. Figure 10 below shows the average household size of all nodal areas for the years 2001 and 2011.

Figure 10: Average household size by nodal area

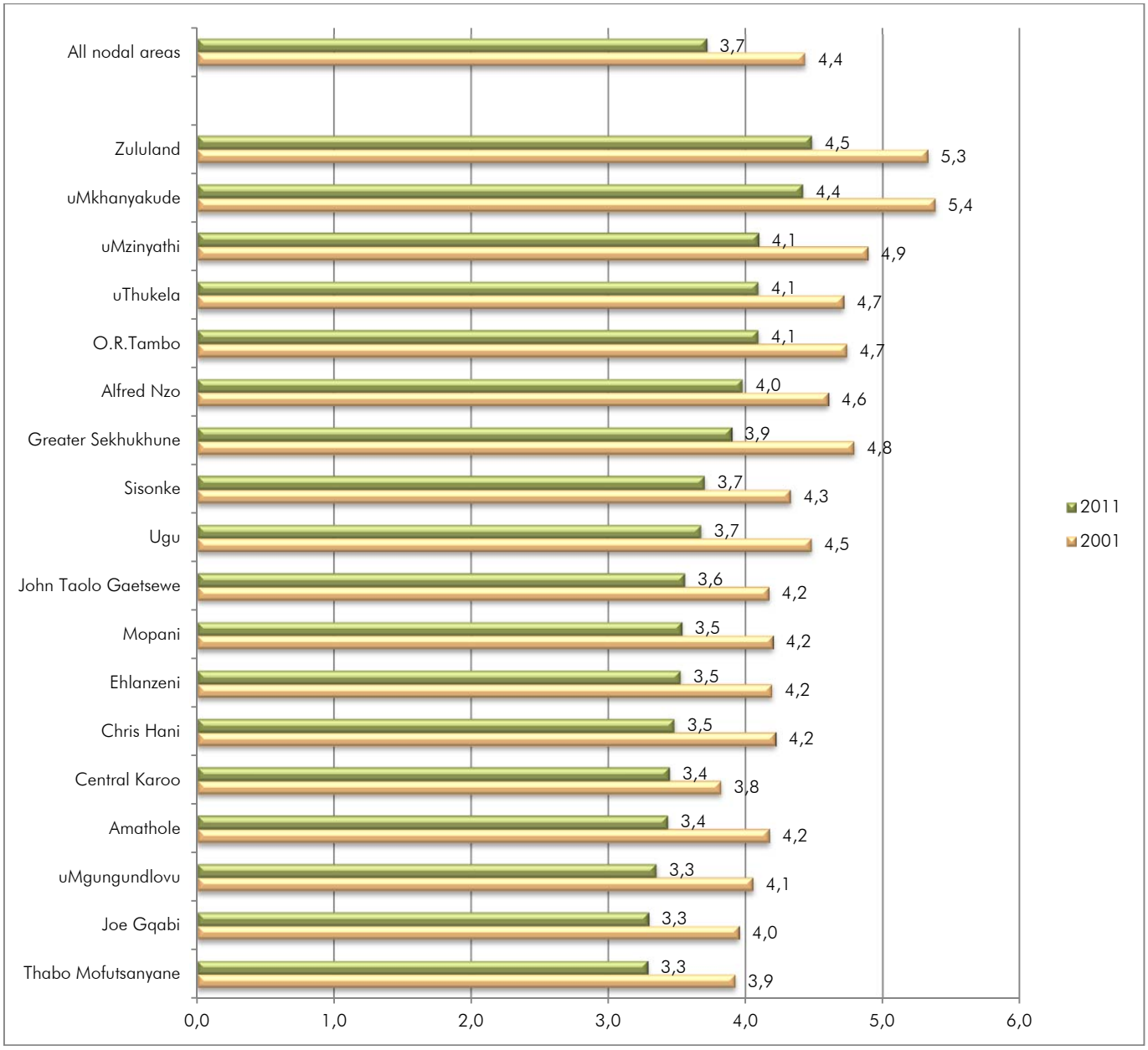
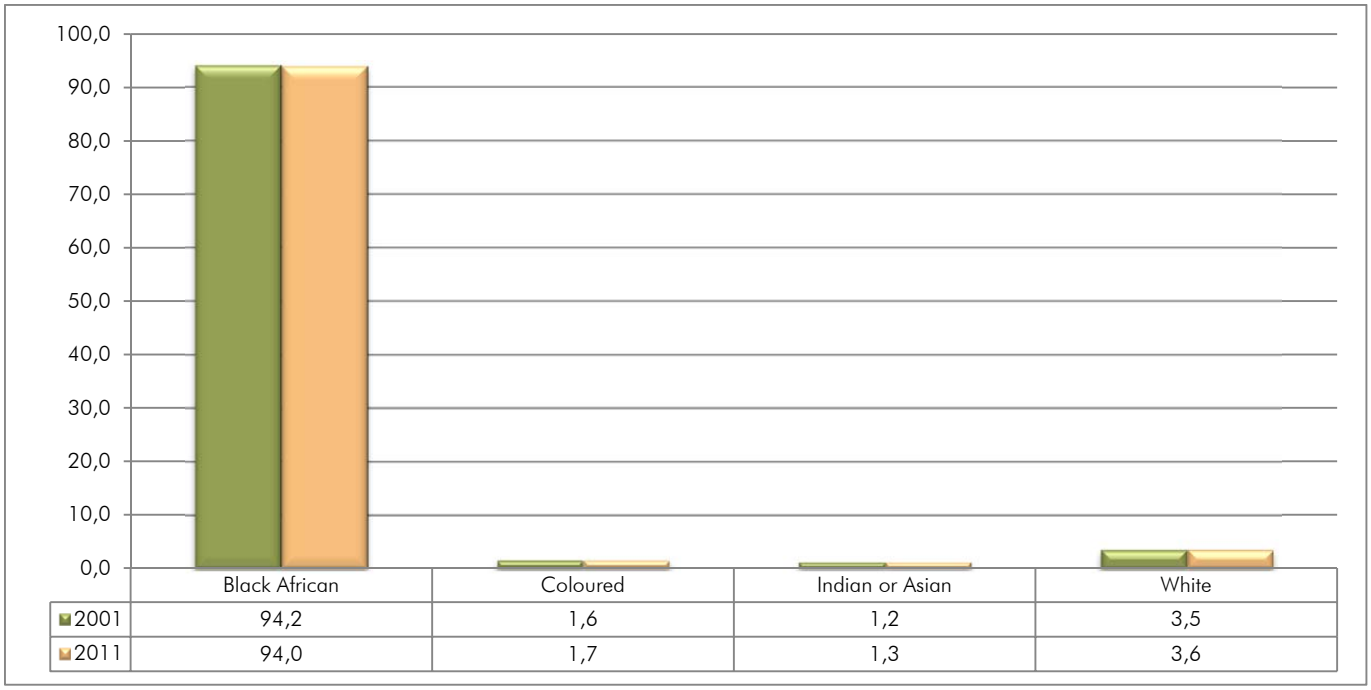


Figure 10 above shows that the average household size for the nodal areas decreased from 4,4 in 2001 to 3,7 in 2011 – a reduction of 16,0% between the two periods. uMkhanyakude had the largest average household size (5,4) in 2001 followed by Zululand at 5,3 whereas the lowest average household size of 3,8 was recorded in the Central Karoo.

During 2011, the average household size in the nodal areas ranged from 3,3 for Thabo Mofutsanyane district municipality – one of the lowest (same as the household sizes for uMgungundlovu and Joe Gqabi), to 4,5 for the Zululand district municipality – the highest. The greatest reduction (18,8%) in average household size occurred in Greater Sekhukhune district municipality which realised a reduction from 4,8 in 2001 to 3,9 in 2011 followed by uMkhanyakude, Ugu and Amathole with an average household size reduction of 18,5%, 17,8% and 19.0% in that order.

Figure 11: Distribution of nodal area households by population group during 2001 and 2011

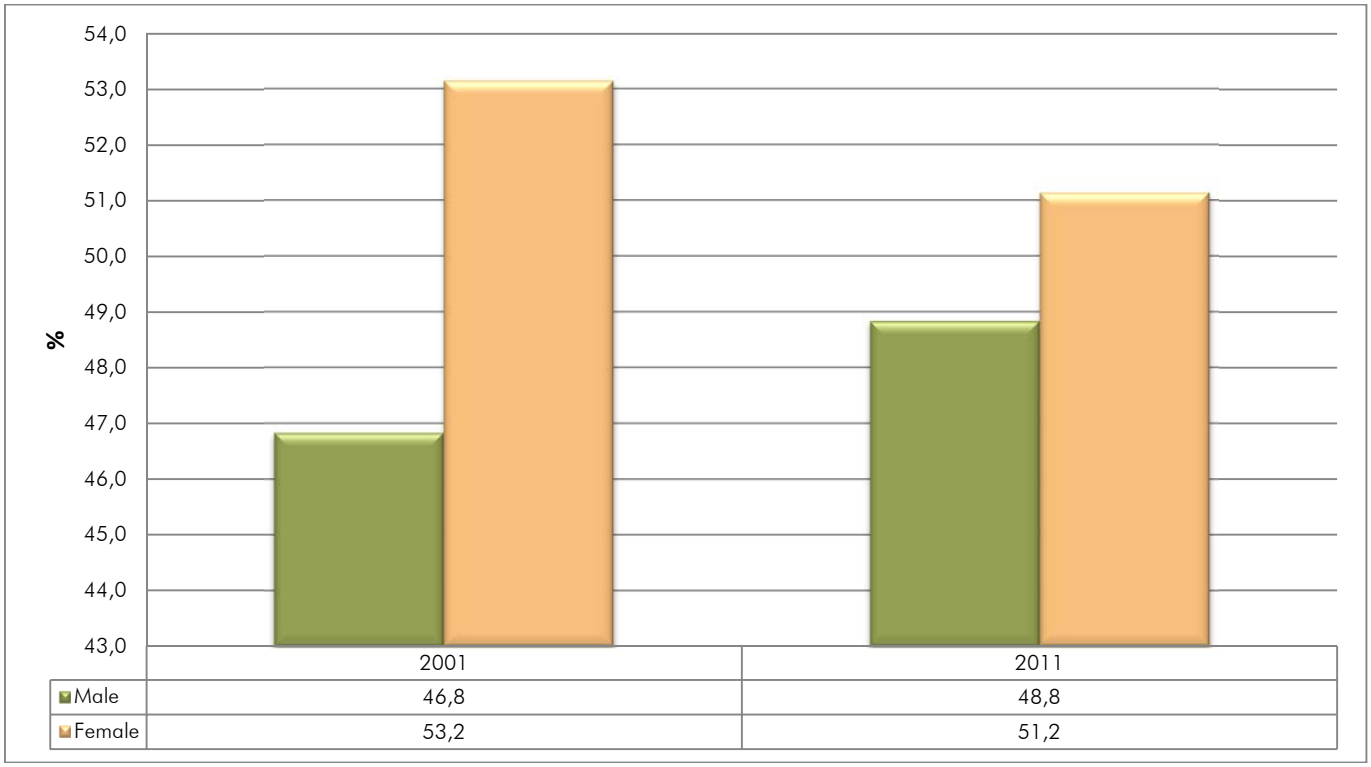


	Black African	Coloured	Indian or Asian	White
2001	94,2	1,6	1,2	3,5
2011	94,0	1,7	1,3	3,6

In the nodal areas almost every single household (94,0%) was headed by a person belonging to the black African population group. The other population groups (coloured, Indian/Asian and white) made up the remaining 6,0% of such households. The proportion of black African households slightly declined from 94,2% in 2001 to 94,0% in 2011 – a decrease of 0,2%. The coloured households increased by 6,3% from 1,6% in 2001 to 1,7% in 2011 while the white households increased by almost three in a hundred (2,9%) from 3,5 in 2001 to 3,6 in 2011. The largest increase was recorded for the Indian/Asian households. The number of Indian/Asian households increased by 8,3% from 1,2% to 1,3% over the same period.

The number of male-headed households in South Africa increased from 6 429 929 in 2001 to 8 498 495 in 2011, representing a percentage increase of 32,2% while the number of female-headed households increased from 4 775 776 in 2001 to 5 951 639 in 2011. Nationally, the proportion of male-headed households grew from 57,4% in 2001 to 58,8% in 2011, representing an increase of 2,4% over the ten-year period. However, the number of male-headed households in the nodal areas grew from 1 353 579 in 2001 to 1 674 721 in 2011 while female-headed households increased from 1 536 099 to 1 753 737 over the same period. The proportion of male-headed households in the nodal areas increased from 46,8% in 2001 to 48,8% in 2011, which is an increase of 4,3% over the ten-year period. The proportion of households headed by females decreased by 3,8% over the same period. This shows that the proportion of male-headed households in the nodal areas is on the rise while the proportion of female-headed households is on the decline. However, female-headed households continue to be in the majority (albeit at a reduced rate) in the nodal areas.

Figure 12: Distribution of nodal area households by sex of the head of household during 2001 and 2011



	2001	2011
Male	46,8	48,8
Female	53,2	51,2

During 2011 there were 1 674 721 male-headed households and 1 753 737 female-headed households in the nodal areas. According to Figure 12 above, the proportion of male-headed households in the nodal areas increased during the inter-censual period while the proportion of female-headed households moved in the opposite direction. More specifically, the proportion of male-headed households increased by 4,27% from 46,8% in 2001 to 48,8% in 2011. On the other hand, the proportion of female-headed households declined by 1,88% from 53,2% to 51,2% over the same period.

The number of child-headed households in South Africa declined from 96 393 in 2001 to 92 717 in 2011, a percentage decrease of 3,8% while the number in the nodal areas declined by 6,9% from 46 131 to 42 948 over the same period. This means that 47,9% of child-headed households lived in the nodal areas in 2001 compared to 46,3% in 2011.

Figure 13: Distribution of child-headed households in the nodal areas by sex of household head during 2001 and 2011

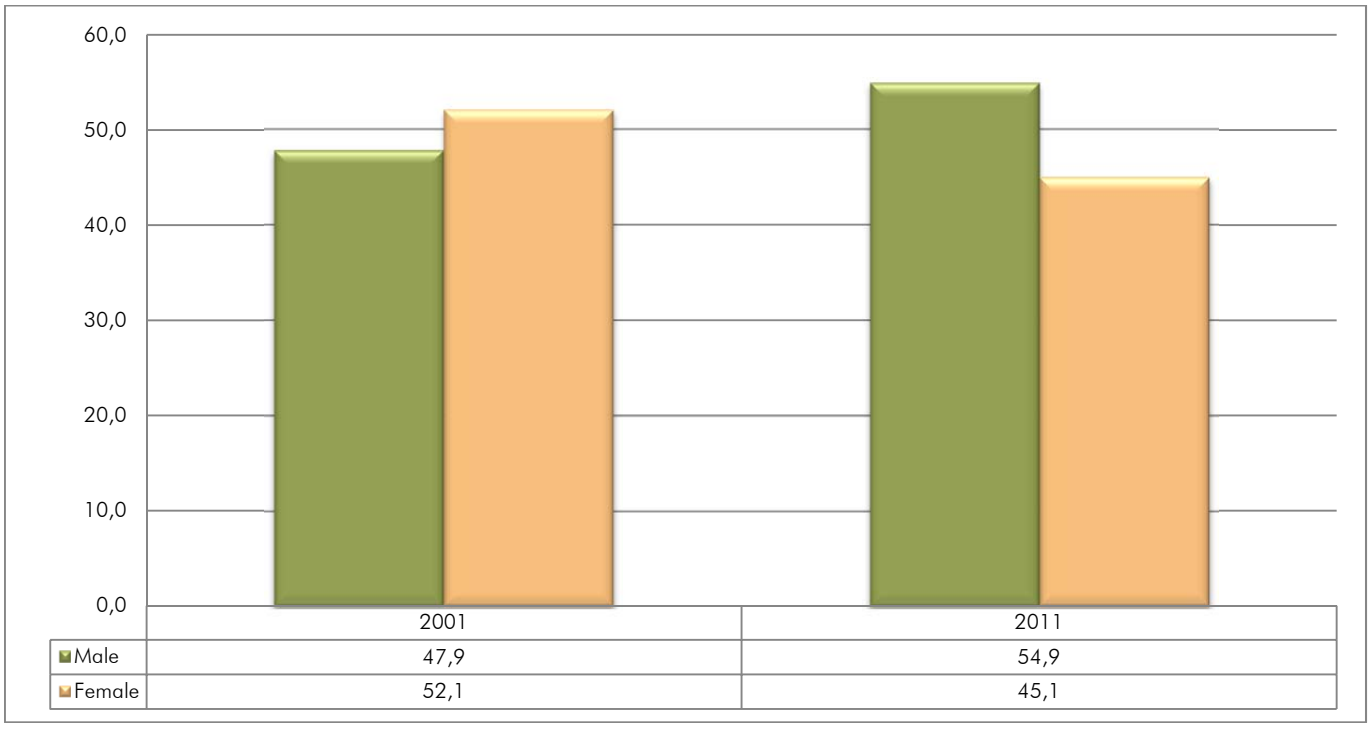


Figure 13 above shows that whereas in 2001 there were more child-headed households headed by girls, in 2011 more child-headed households were reported for boys than girls. In 2001, the majority of child-headed households (52,1%) in 2001 were headed by girls while in 2011, the majority of child-headed households (54,9%) were male child-headed households.

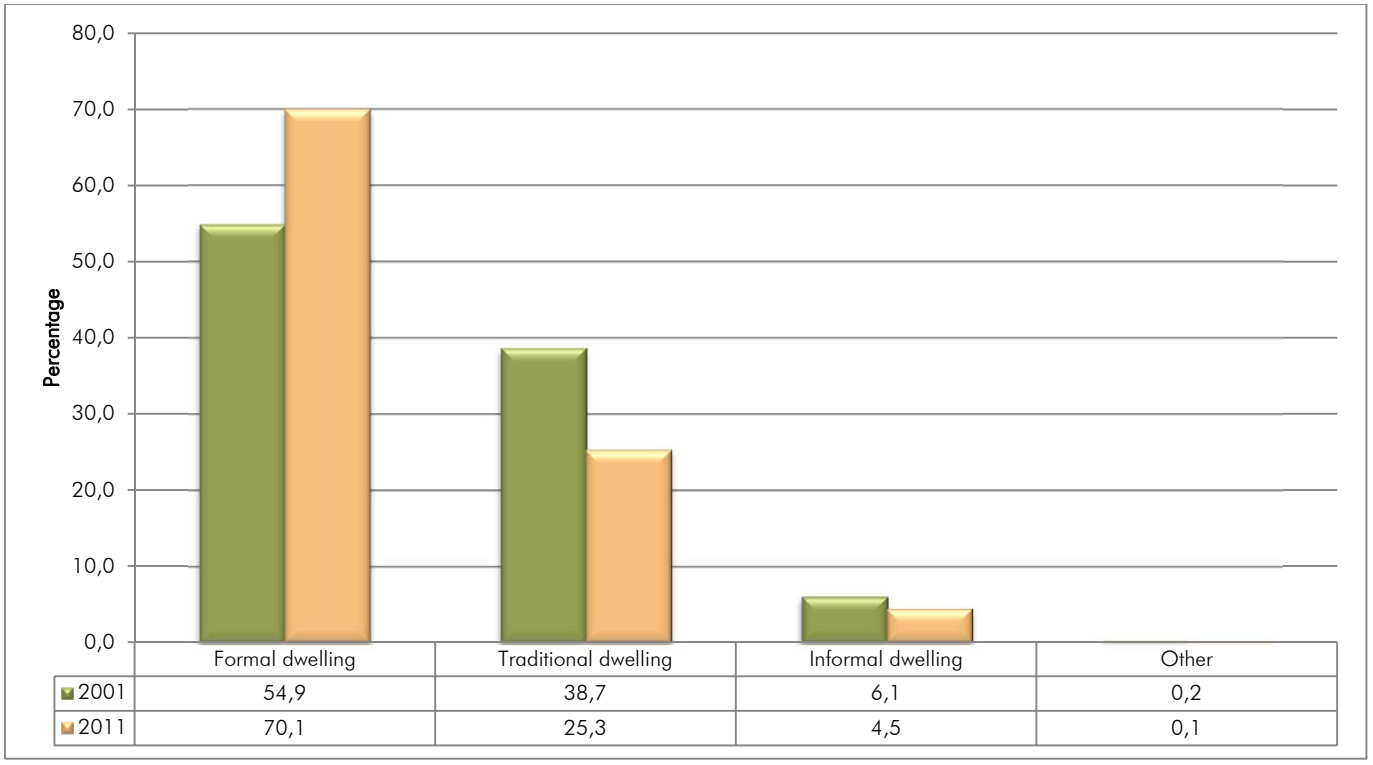
On the other hand, the proportion of child-headed household living in the nodal areas decreased from 47,9% in 2001 to 46,3% in 2011. However, while nationally there was a 33,3% decrease in the proportion of households which are child-headed – from 0,9% in 2001 to 0,6% in 2011, there was only an 18,8% drop in the proportion of households in the nodal areas that are child-headed – from 1,6% in 2001 to 1,3% in 2011.

4.2 Living conditions

This section of the report deals with the living circumstances of the nodal area households with regard to their access to a range of basic services and facilities. This aims to assist policy and decision makers in evaluating and monitoring progress of programmes initiated to improve the living conditions in these areas. The results of Census 2001 and Census 2011 indicate that the proportion of households living in formal dwellings, those with access to piped water in the dwelling or inside the yard as well as those with flush toilets have increased over the period 2001 to 2011. Census data also shows that in the nodal areas there was a bigger proportion of households that used electricity as their main source of energy for lighting, cooking and heating in 2011 compared to the situation ten years earlier.

Access to these different services and facilities as well as the type of dwelling occupied by the household is an important indicator of the well-being of the members of the household.

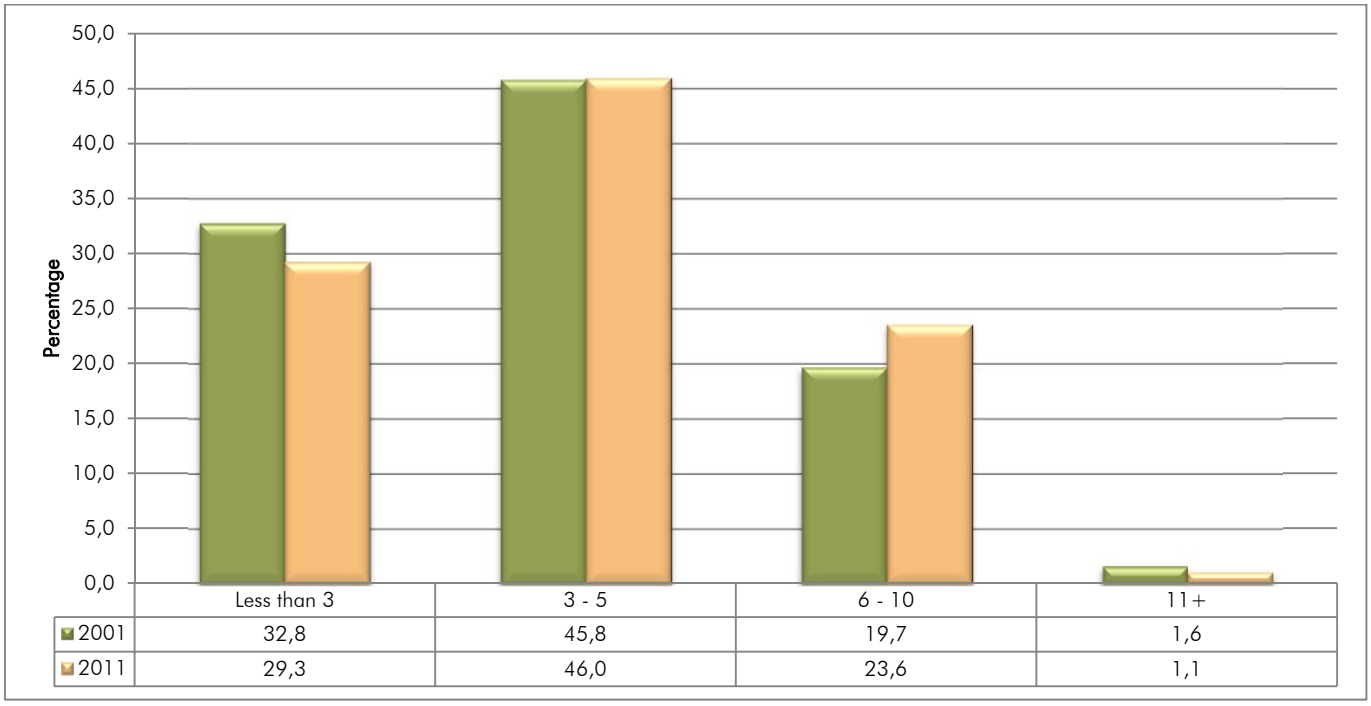
Figure 14: Distribution of nodal area households by type of main dwelling during 2001 and 2011



	Formal dwelling	Traditional dwelling	Informal dwelling	Other
2001	54,9	38,7	6,1	0,2
2011	70,1	25,3	4,5	0,1

Figure 14 shows that the proportion of nodal households living in formal dwellings in the nodal areas increased significantly between 2001 and 2011. This has coincided with a significant decline in the percentage of nodal households living in traditional and informal dwellings over the same period. During 2011 an overwhelming majority of households in the nodal areas lived in formal dwelling compared to 2001 when only a half of them did; and hardly one in every twenty households still lived in informal dwellings. The proportion of households living in formal dwellings increased by 27,7% from 54,9% in 2001 to 70,1% in 2011 or 15,2 percentage points. The largest percentage decrease (34,6%) was recorded for households residing in traditional dwellings, from 38,7% in 2001 to 25,3% in 2011. The proportion of households living in informal dwellings also declined significantly (26,2%) from 6,1% to 4,5% over the same period.

Figure 15: Distribution of nodal area households by number of rooms in the main dwelling during 2001 and 2011

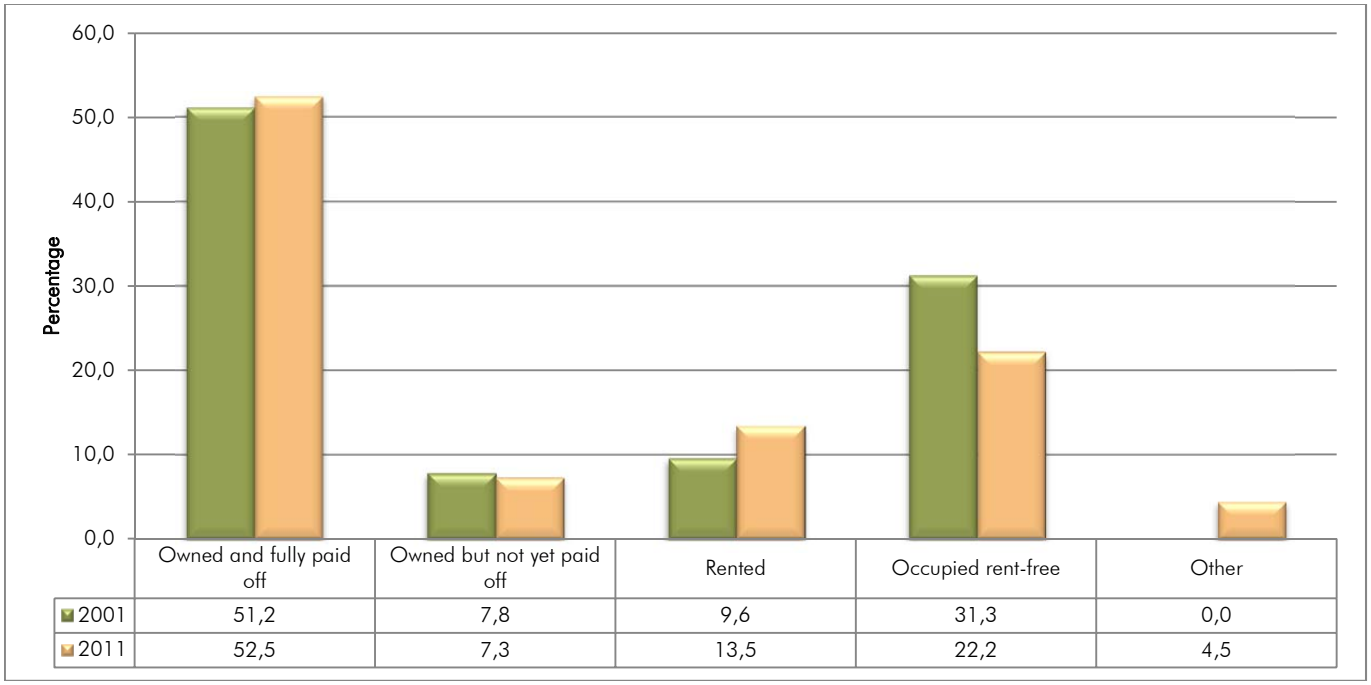


	Less than 3	3 - 5	6 - 10	11+
2001	32,8	45,8	19,7	1,6
2011	29,3	46,0	23,6	1,1

Figure 15 above depicts that the proportion of households living in dwellings with 5 rooms or less has decreased. This could serve to confirm that the average household sizes in the nodal areas have decreased. This seems to tie up with the decrease in household size. The proportions of households with less than 3 rooms in their main dwellings declined by 10,7% from 32,8% in 2001 to 29,3% in

2011 while those with 11 and more rooms experienced the largest percentage decrease (31,3%) from 1,6% in 2001 to 1,1% in 2011. Meanwhile, the proportion of households with the number of rooms ranging from 6 to 10 has increased from 19,7% in 2001 to 23,6% in 2011 or 19,8%.

Figure 16: Distribution of nodal area households by tenure status during 2001 and 2011

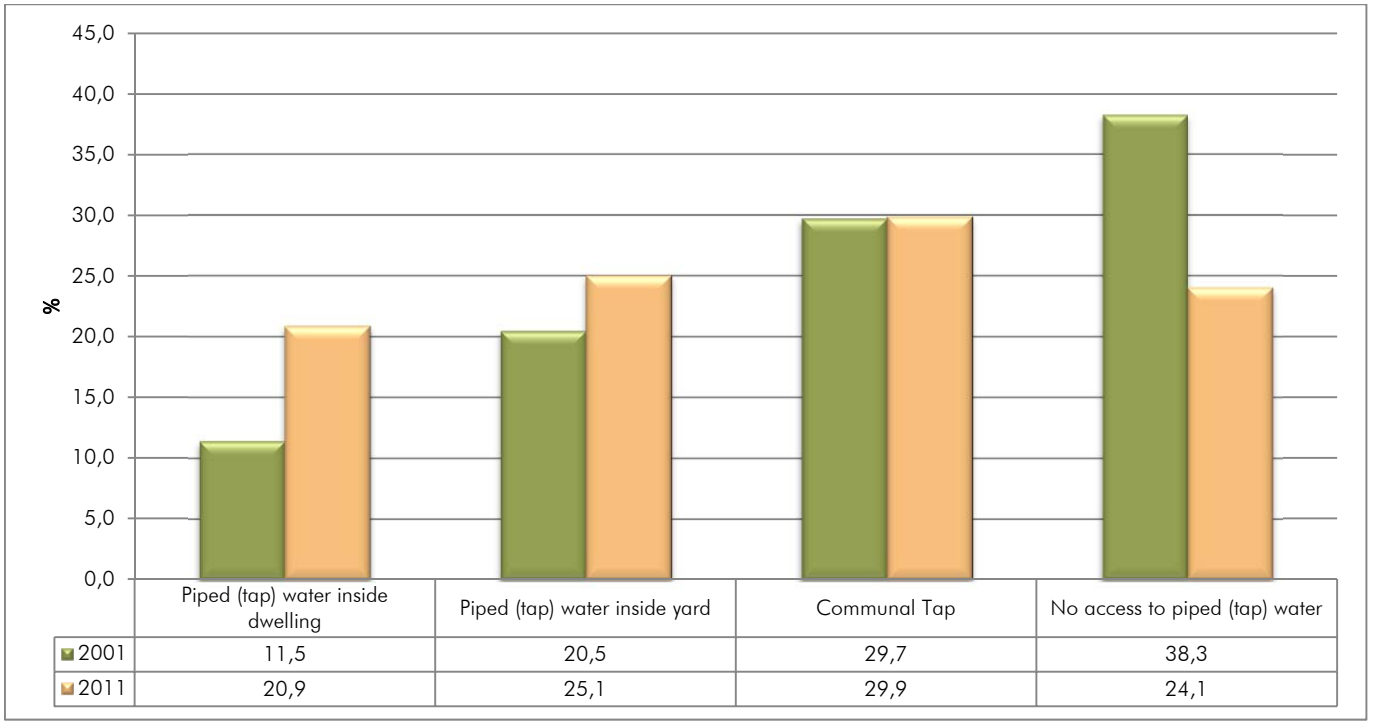


	Owned and fully paid off	Owned but not yet paid off	Rented	Occupied rent-free	Other
2001	51,2	7,8	9,6	31,3	0,0
2011	52,5	7,3	13,5	22,2	4,5

Note: The category "Other" was only introduced during Census 2011.

According to census data, the majority of the households living in the rural nodes live in fully paid off dwellings but the number of those that live in rented dwellings is also on the increase. Figure 16 above shows that the proportion of households that own and have fully paid off their properties has increased marginally from 51,2% in 2001 to 52,5% in 2011. The percentage of households who rented their dwelling units experienced the largest percentage increase (40,6%) from 9,6% to 13,5% over the ten year period. Those households who owned their dwellings but had not yet paid it off and those who occupy dwellings rent-free have shown decreases between 2001 and 2011. The largest of these decreases were experienced by households who occupied dwellings rent-free which declined by 29,1% from 31,3% in 2001 to 22,2% in 2011.

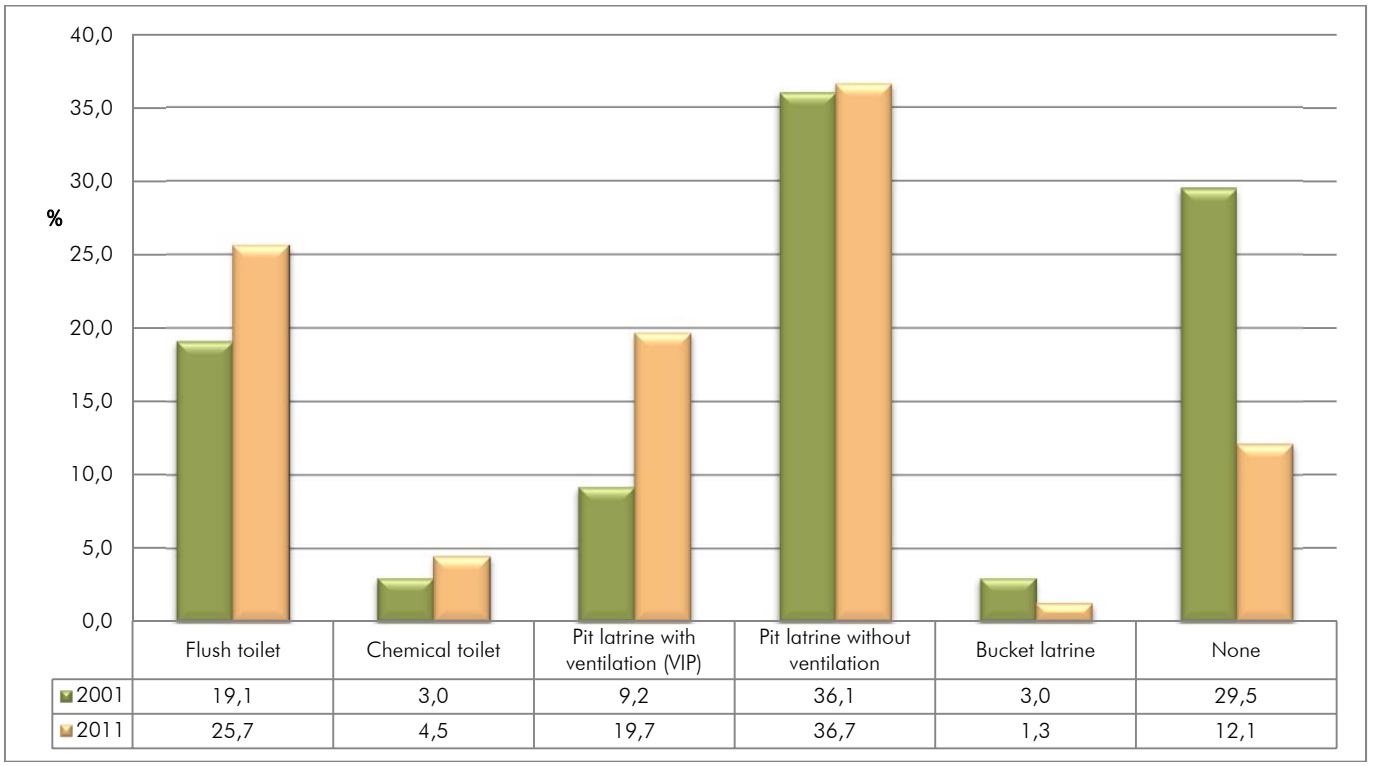
Figure 17: Percentage of nodal area households with access to piped water during 2001 and 2011



	Piped (tap) water inside dwelling	Piped (tap) water inside yard	Communal Tap	No access to piped (tap) water
2001	11,5	20,5	29,7	38,3
2011	20,9	25,1	29,9	24,1

Census results show that in 2001 most households in the nodal areas had no access to piped (tap) water, but in 2011 most households had at least access to piped water from a community tap. According to Figure 17 above, the proportion of households in the nodal areas that have access to piped water inside the dwelling increased from 11,5% in 2001 to 20,9% in 2011, an increase of 81,7%. This coincided with an increase in the proportion of households that have access to piped water inside the yard from 20,5% in 2001 to 25,1% in 2011, an increase of 22,4% over the same period. The largest percentage change was recorded for those households that do not have access to piped water. They declined by more than a third from 38,3% in 2001 to 24,1% in 2011. This indicates that the living conditions of many nodal area households have improved with regards to access to water.

Figure 18: Distribution of nodal area households by type of toilet facility during 2001 and 2011

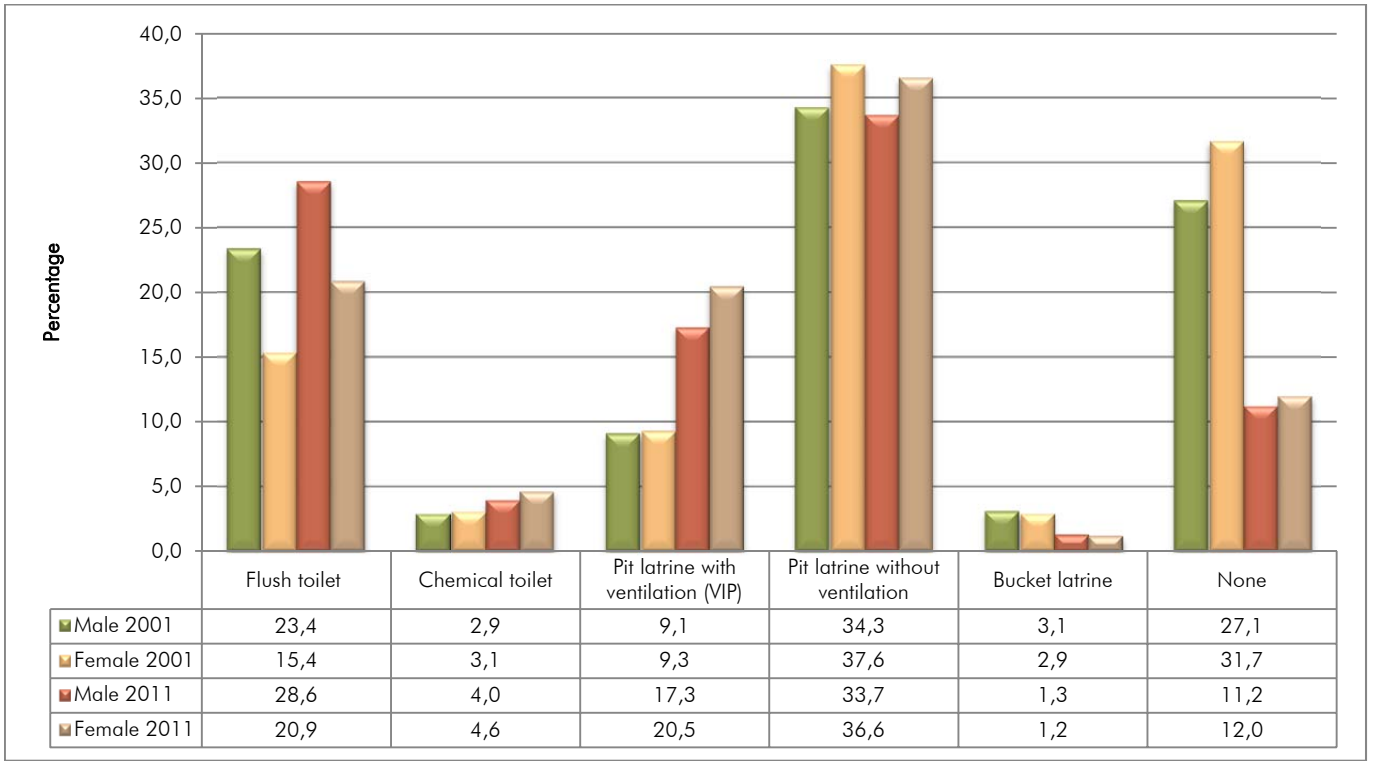


	Flush toilet	Chemical toilet	Pit latrine with ventilation (VIP)	Pit latrine without ventilation	Bucket latrine	None
2001	19,1	3,0	9,2	36,1	3,0	29,5
2011	25,7	4,5	19,7	36,7	1,3	12,1

Note: The figures above do not include the "Other" option that is in Census 2011

Census data shows that although a pit latrine without ventilation is still the most common means of sanitation in the nodal areas, the number of households without any means of sanitation have drastically decreased while those with a flush toilet are on the increase. The proportion of nodal area households that have flush toilets whether connected to a sewerage system or a septic tank increased by 30,4% from 19,1% in 2001 to 25,7% in 2011. The proportion of households that had access to a pit toilet with a ventilation pipe increased from 9,2% in 2001 to 19,7% in 2011, an increase of over 100%. The results also show that the proportion of households using a bucket toilet as a means of sanitation declined by the largest margin (56,7%) – from 3,0% in 2001 to 1,3% in 2011. This is a significant victory for the war on poverty which, among other things, looks to eradicate the bucket toilet system.

Figure 19: Distribution of nodal area households by type of toilet facility and sex of the household head during 2001 and 2011

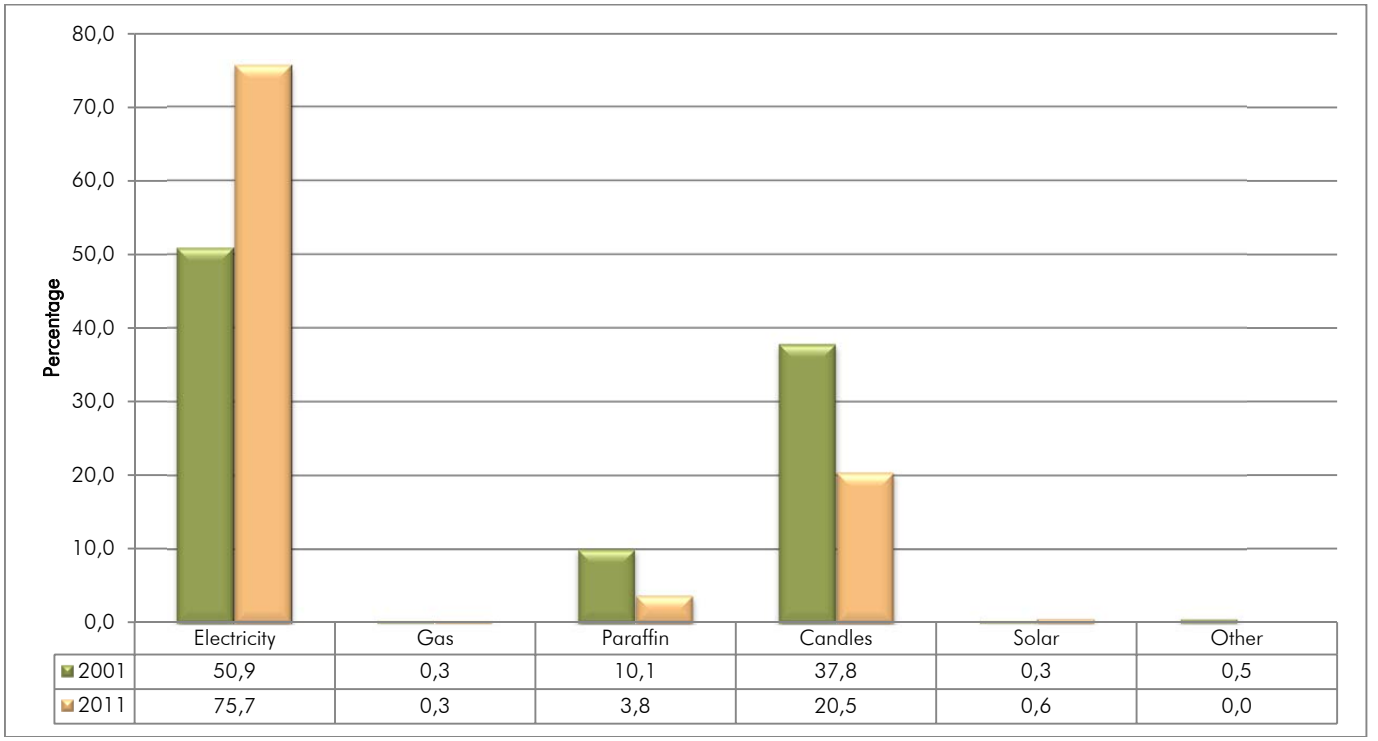


	Flush toilet	Chemical toilet	Pit latrine with ventilation (VIP)	Pit latrine without ventilation	Bucket latrine	None
Male 2001	23,4	2,9	9,1	34,3	3,1	27,1
Female 2001	15,4	3,1	9,3	37,6	2,9	31,7
Male 2011	28,6	4,0	17,3	33,7	1,3	11,2
Female 2011	20,9	4,6	20,5	36,6	1,2	12,0

Note: The figures above do not include the "Other" option that is in Census 2011

According to the above graph, the proportions of male and female-headed households that have flush toilets connected to the sewerage system have increased substantially between 2001 and 2011. The percentage increase for male-headed households was 22,2% from 23,4% in 2001 to 28,6% in 2011 while the percentage increase for female-headed households was 35,7% from 15,4% in 2001 to 20,9% in 2011. This results in a total percentage increase of 30,9% for households with access to this particular toilet facility over the same period. The proportion of households having pit toilets with ventilation doubled between 2001 and 2011. The percentage increase for female and male-headed households was 120,4% and 90,1% respectively over the same period. For both male and female-headed households, the proportion of households using the bucket toilet system declined by more than half (approximately 58%) between 2001 and 2011. Another important point to note is that those households with access to no toilets also showed a significant drop. The proportion of male-headed households with no toilets declined by 58,7% from 27,1% in 2001 to 11,2% in 2011 while female-headed households decreased by 62,1% from 31,7% to 12,0% over the same period.

Figure 20: Distribution of nodal area households by type of energy used for lighting during 2001 and 2011

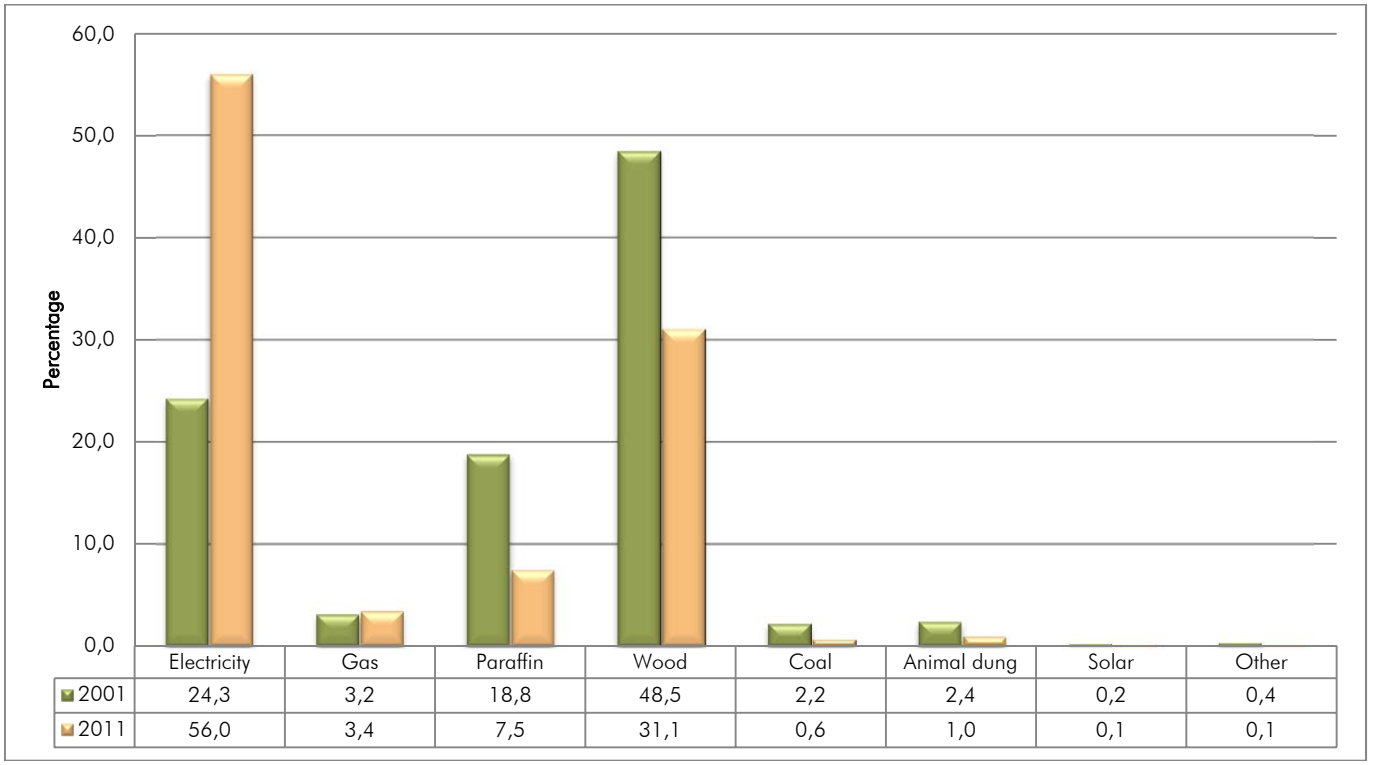


	Electricity	Gas	Paraffin	Candles	Solar	Other
2001	50,9	0,3	10,1	37,8	0,3	0,5
2011	75,7	0,3	3,8	20,5	0,6	0,0

Whereas in 2001 just half (50,9%) of the households in the nodal areas used electricity for lighting, and nearly two in every five (37,8%) of them used candles, while one in every ten (10,1%) households used paraffin for the same purpose, the situation in 2011 showed great improvement. By 2011 at least three in every four (75,7%) households in the nodal areas used electricity for lighting; the proportion of households using candles for lighting had decreased to just one in every five (20,5%) and hardly one in every twenty five (3,8%) households still used paraffin for lighting.

Figure 20 shows that households using electricity for lighting increased by 48,7% from 50,9% in 2001 to 75,7% in 2011 while the use of paraffin and candles for lighting purposes decreased over the same period. The use of paraffin declined by 62,4% from 10,1% in 2001 to 3,8% in 2011 and the utilisation of candles declined by 17,3 percentage points from 37,8% in 2001 to 20,5% in 2011. It is still worrying that one in five households in the nodal areas is still using candles for lighting purposes in 2011. Solar energy as a type of energy used for lighting showed the biggest increase, increasing by 100% from 2001 to 2011 while the use of gas remained constant over the same period. Not shown in the table is the fact that the proportion of households that are using electricity for lighting has increased in all the nodal areas.

Figure 21: Distribution of nodal area households by type of energy used for cooking during 2001 and 2011

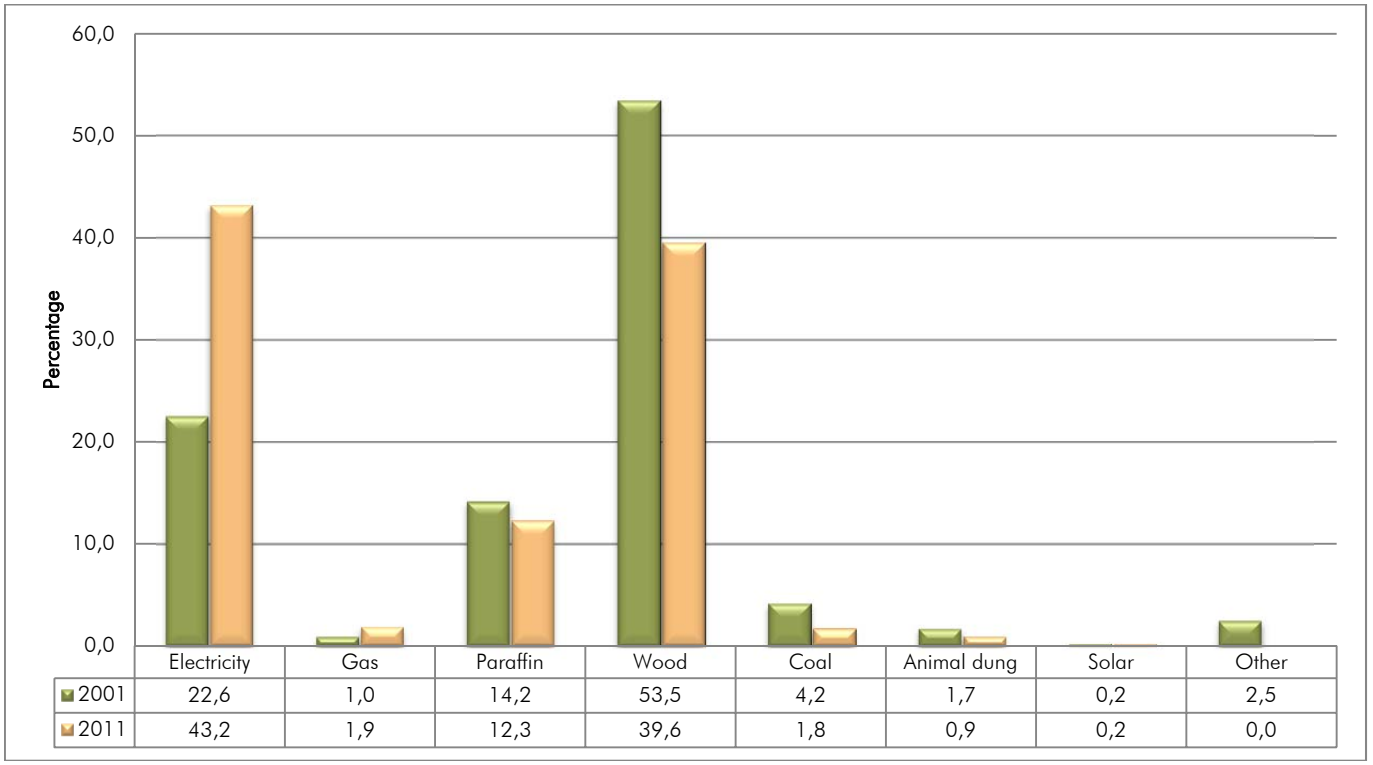


	Electricity	Gas	Paraffin	Wood	Coal	Animal dung	Solar	Other
2001	24,3	3,2	18,8	48,5	2,2	2,4	0,2	0,4
2011	56,0	3,4	7,5	31,1	0,6	1,0	0,1	0,1

In 2001 hardly a quarter (24,3%) of the households in the nodal areas used electricity as a source of energy for cooking while almost a half (48,4%) of the households used wood and nearly one in every five (18,8%) of the households used paraffin. However, data shows that by 2011 the majority (56,0%) of the households in the rural nodes used electricity for cooking. Only 38,6% of the households used firewood and paraffin put together compared to 67,3% of the households which used firewood and paraffin put together during 2001.

Figure 21 above shows that the percentage of households that used electricity for cooking purposes increased from 24,3% in 2001 to 56,0% in 2011, an increase of 130,5%. Over the same period, the use of paraffin decreased by 60,1% from 18,8% in 2001 to 7,5% in 2011; while the use of coal for cooking decreased by almost seventy three percent (72,7%) over the same period. Even though the use of wood as a source of energy for cooking also decreased over this period, a higher than expected percentage of households still used wood (31,1%) in 2011.

Figure 22: Distribution of nodal area households by type of energy used for heating during 2001 and 2011

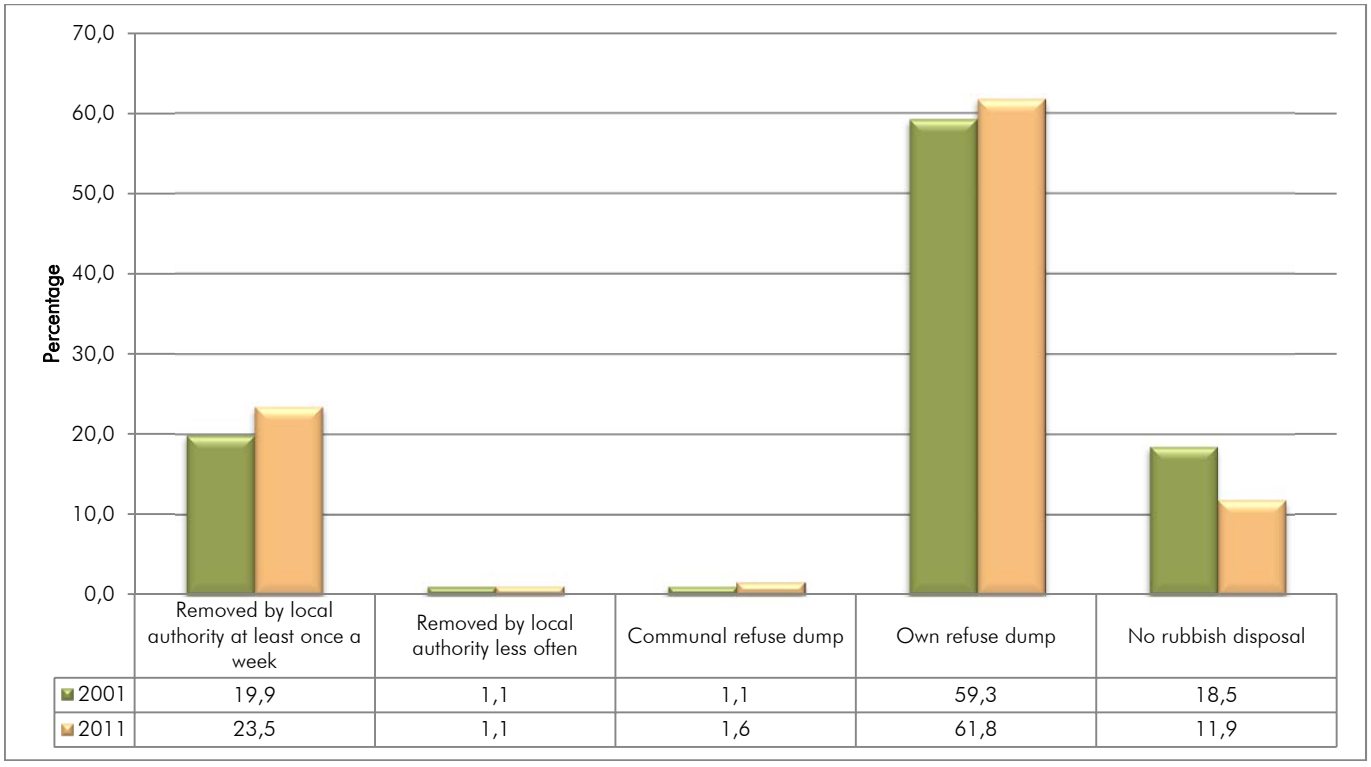


	Electricity	Gas	Paraffin	Wood	Coal	Animal dung	Solar	Other
2001	22,6	1,0	14,2	53,5	4,2	1,7	0,2	2,5
2011	43,2	1,9	12,3	39,6	1,8	0,9	0,2	0,0

Heating is very much a part of life for South African households especially in winter. Households cannot do without fuel for heating. In 2001 most – more than half (53,5%) of the households in the nodal areas depended on firewood for heating, and hardly a quarter of the households used electricity for heating. But, by 2011 most of the households were using electricity for heating while dependency on fossil energy was on the decrease.

From Figure 22 above we can see that the proportion of households using electricity for heating purposes increased from 22,6% in 2001 to 43,2% in 2011, an increase of 20,6 percentage points. The proportion of households using paraffin and wood fell from 14,2% and 53,5% in 2001 to 12,3% and 39,6% in 2011, respectively, while the use of coal and animal dung declined by about a half to 1,8% and 0,9% respectively. Although about a quarter (25,9%) of households that used wood as a source of energy for heating during 2001 switched to other sources of energy – presumably electricity, firewood was still used by about two-fifths (39,6%) of the households as a source of energy for heating in 2011. This is only second to electricity (43,2%) which has become the most common source of energy for heating in the nodal areas.

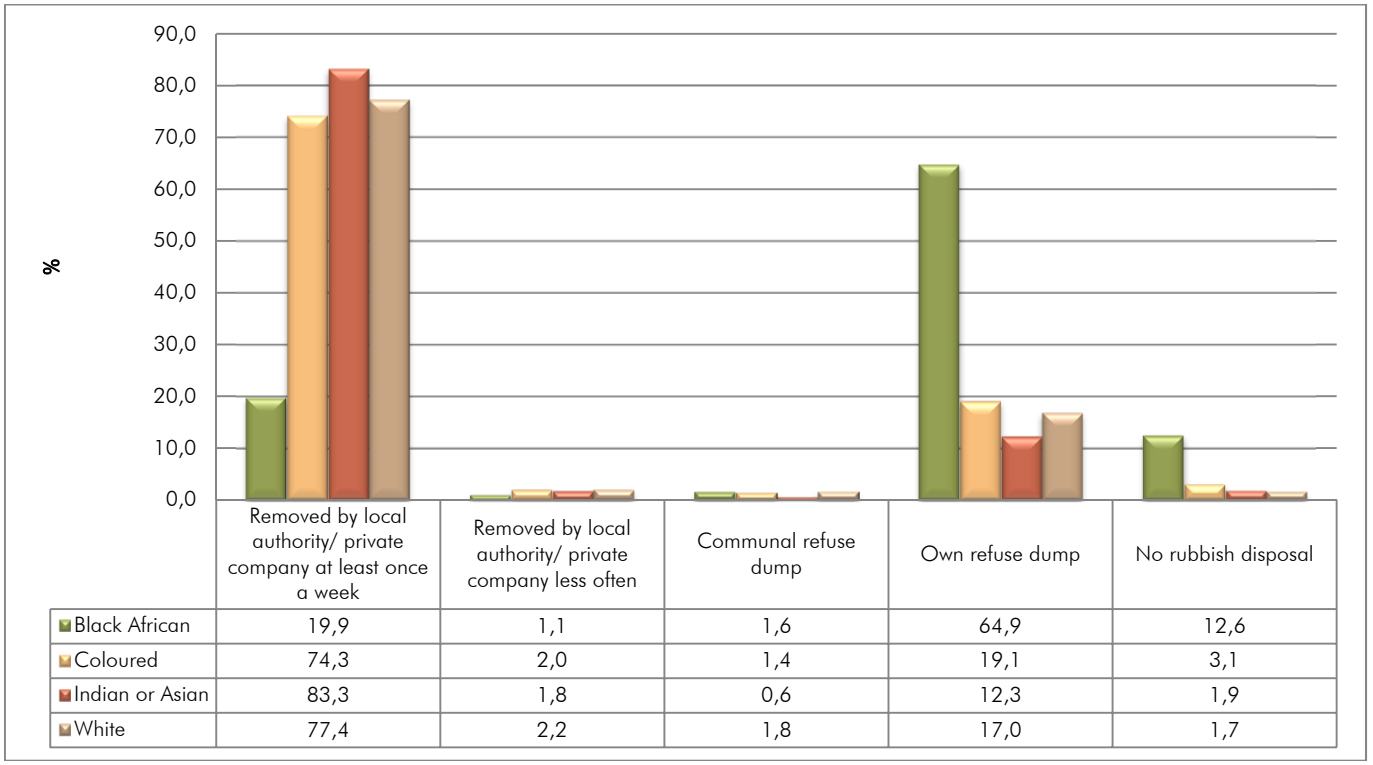
Figure 23: Distribution of nodal area households by type of refuse removal during 2001 and 2011



	Removed by local authority at least once a week	Removed by local authority less often	Communal refuse dump	Own refuse dump	No rubbish disposal
2001	19,9	1,1	1,1	59,3	18,5
2011	23,5	1,1	1,6	61,8	11,9

The proportion of households that had a refuse disposal service where the refuse is removed by a local authority at least once a week has increased from 19,9% in 2001 to 23,5% in 2011 while the proportion of those whose refuse is removed less often have remained constant at 1,1% over the same period. The percentage of households using a communal refuse dump rose by 0,5 percentage points representing a 45,5% increase between 2001 and 2011. Figure 23 above shows that there has been a minor increase (4,2%) in those households that have their own refuse dump while those with no rubbish disposal dropped by 35,7% from 18,5% in 2001 to 11,9% in 2011. Even though there has been improvement in refuse removal, it is still concerning that a high percentage (61,8%) of the nodal area households have to have their own refuse dump and 11,9% of that same population have no rubbish disposal at all in 2011.

Figure 24: Distribution of nodal area households by type of refuse removal and population group of the household head in 2011

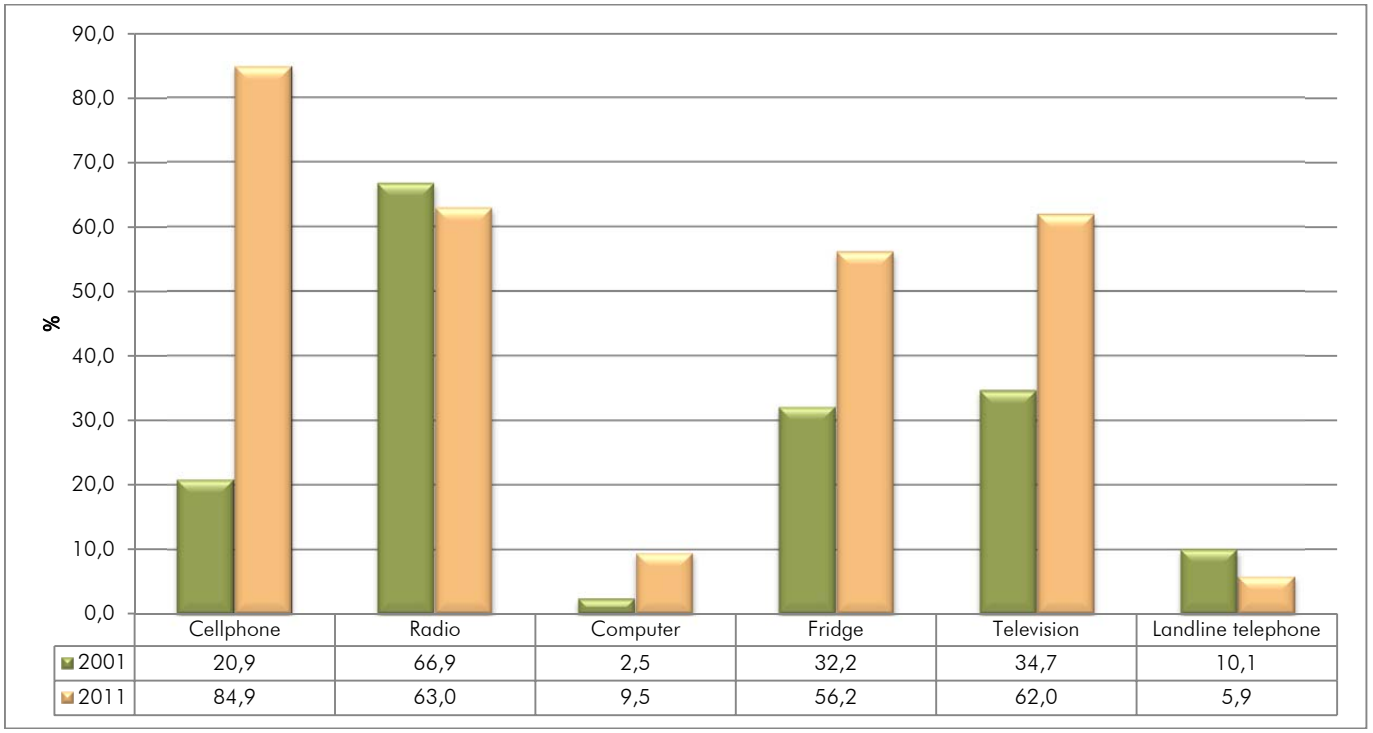


	Removed by local authority/ private company at least once a week	Removed by local authority/ private company less often	Communal refuse dump	Own refuse dump	No rubbish disposal
Black African	19,9	1,1	1,6	64,9	12,6
Coloured	74,3	2,0	1,4	19,1	3,1
Indian or Asian	83,3	1,8	0,6	12,3	1,9
White	77,4	2,2	1,8	17,0	1,7

Figure 24 shows that for the black African households in the nodal areas hardly one in every five (19,9%) get their refuse removed by a local authority or a private company at least once a week. Most of the refuse from black households is disposed of through the use of an own refuse dump, whereas more than one in every ten (12,6%) did no have any form of rubbish disposal.

Most of the refuse from Coloured, Asian and White households living in the nodal areas is disposed of by a local authority or a private company at least once a week. It points to the fact that the majority of non-black nodal populations live in small town centres where services can be organised by local authorities unlike the majority of the black African households who live in rural villages, often with no access to infrastructure.

Figure 25: Distribution of nodal area households owning various assets, by type of asset during 2001 and 2011



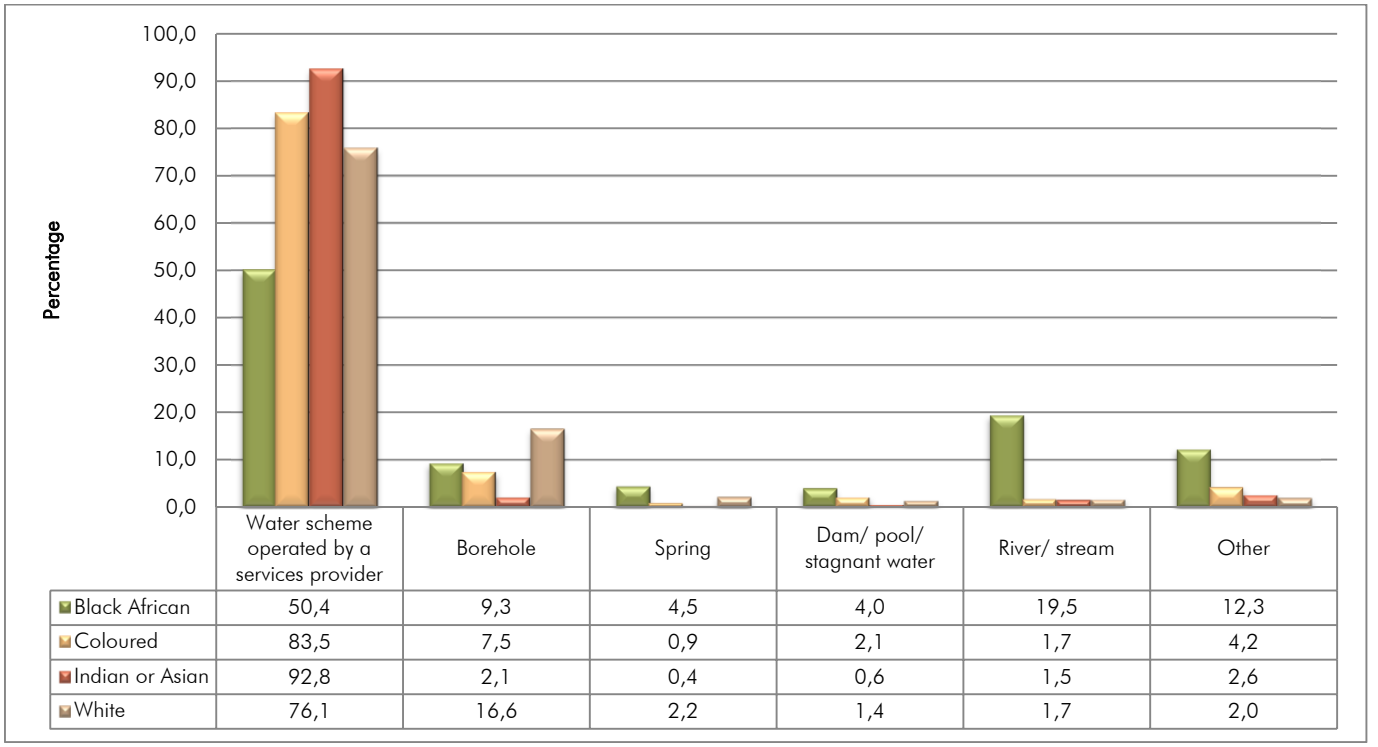
	Cellphone	Radio	Computer	Fridge	Television	Landline telephone
2001	20,9	66,9	2,5	32,2	34,7	10,1
2011	84,9	63,0	9,5	56,2	62,0	5,9

Ownership of assets by households in the nodal areas experienced a significant amount of transformation during the ten year period between the two censuses. An overwhelming majority of the households in these areas had attained modern means of communication by 2011. At least four out of every five households owned to a cellular phone, and ownership of various assets across the board had increased except for a radio and a landline telephone.

The above graph – Figure 25 shows that the proportion of households owning cellular phones increased by 306,2% from 20,9% in 2001 to 84,9% in 2011 while the ownership of landline telephones and radios declined by 41,6% and 5,8% between 2001 and 2011 respectively. Ownership of landline telephones declined from 10,1% in 2001 to 5,9% in 2011 while the ownership of radios decreased from 66,9% to 63,0% over the same period.

The second largest percentage increase was recorded for those households who owned a computer, which increased by 280% from 2,5% in 2001 to 9,5% in 2011. The proportion of households in the nodal areas with television sets increased by 78,7% from 34,7% in 2001 to 62,0% in 2011, followed by ownership of refrigerators with 32,2% in 2001 – increasing to 56,2% in 2011.

Figure 26: Distribution of nodal area households by main water supply and population group of the household head in 2011



	Water scheme operated by a services provider	Borehole	Spring	Dam/ pool/ stagnant water	River/ stream	Other
Black African	50,4	9,3	4,5	4,0	19,5	12,3
Coloured	83,5	7,5	0,9	2,1	1,7	4,2
Indian or Asian	92,8	2,1	0,4	0,6	1,5	2,6
White	76,1	16,6	2,2	1,4	1,7	2,0

Figure 26 above shows that the majority of households living in the nodal areas in 2011 had access to water from a regional or local authority water scheme operated by the municipality or other service provider. But only every other black household (50,4%) had access to such water; the remaining half used water from other sources. Almost one in every five (19,5%) of black households in the nodal areas used a river or a stream as their main source of water; and hardly one in every ten (9,3%) used water from a borehole. Up to 4,5% of the black households got their water from a spring and about one in every twenty five black households used stagnant water from a dam or a pool. The remaining 12,3% used water from other sources which include rain water tank, water vendor and water tanker.

On the other hand, up to 83,5% of the Coloured households, 92,8% of the Indian/Asian households and 76,1% of the White households used water from a regional or local water scheme operated by a local municipality or a water service provider.


TROMPIE die hoërskooldrif TOPSY
TROMPIE die ogrot

4.3 Education

Education is a central socio-economic right that provides the foundation for life-long learning, economic opportunities and general improvements in welfare. This is why Goal 2 of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) aims to achieve universal primary education and ensure that by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to enrol and complete a full course of primary schooling.

Regular school attendance and educational attainment are inextricably linked. Regular attendance ensures that people get the best possible outcomes from their period in education. This also contributes to minimising the likelihood of young persons aged 16 years and older not being in education, training or employment, reducing social exclusion and improving their chances of employment in the longer term, thereby improving their socio-economic status and reducing intergenerational poverty.

This section mainly provides an overview of the educational profile of the nodal area population focusing at the two successive census years: 2001 and 2011. The report will reflect on the patterns and trends with respect to attendance at an educational institution for children aged 7–15 years, individuals aged 5–24 years currently attending schools and higher education institutions, persons aged 15 years and older who have not achieved Grade 7 and educational achievements of individuals aged 20 years and older.

Attendance at an educational institution includes those who attend pre-school, schools, special schools, college, university/technikon, other post-school educational institutions and Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET).

Table 4: Proportion of children aged 7–15 years who were attending an educational institution in the nodal areas in 2001 and 2011

	2001			2011		
	Population aged 7-15	Number attending an educational institution	Percentage attending (%)	Population aged 7-15	Number attending an educational institution	Percentage attending (%)
National	**8 936 959**	**8 345 876**	**93,39**	**8 246 239**	**7 744 527**	**93,9**
All nodal areas	**3 349 024**	**3 104 410**	**92,7**	**2 798 571**	**2 637 543**	**94,2**
Amathole	251 645	236 399	93,9	170 982	163 143	95,4
Chris Hani	213 055	198 354	93,1	155 531	148 174	95,3
Joe Gqabi	89 486	82 319	92,0	68 913	65 240	94,7
O.R.Tambo	366 508	330 817	90,3	315 480	296 671	94,0
Alfred Nzo	222 471	203 109	91,3	192 614	181 210	94,1
Thabo Mofutsanyane	168 960	160 593	95,0	130 925	126 507	96,6
Ugu	167 520	152 987	91,3	134 815	124 204	92,1
uMgungundlovu	182 157	169 377	93,0	162 971	147 240	90,3
uThukela	158 065	147 540	93,3	138 478	129 383	93,4
uMkhanyakude	154 328	135 522	87,8	143 776	131 269	91,3
Sisonke	120 054	110 407	92,0	98 129	90 215	91,9
uMzinyathi	126 733	112 380	88,7	116 478	108 685	93,3
Zululand	205 569	191 295	93,1	180 915	165 800	91,6
Mopani	266 530	252 171	94,6	204 836	198 898	97,1
Greater Sekhukhune	255 853	245 717	96,0	212 481	205 700	96,8
Ehlanzeni	344 022	324 167	94,2	316 888	304 188	96,0
John Taolo Gaetsewe	44 912	41 203	91,7	42 262	40 006	94,7
Central Karoo	11 156	10 053	90,1	12 096	11 011	91,0

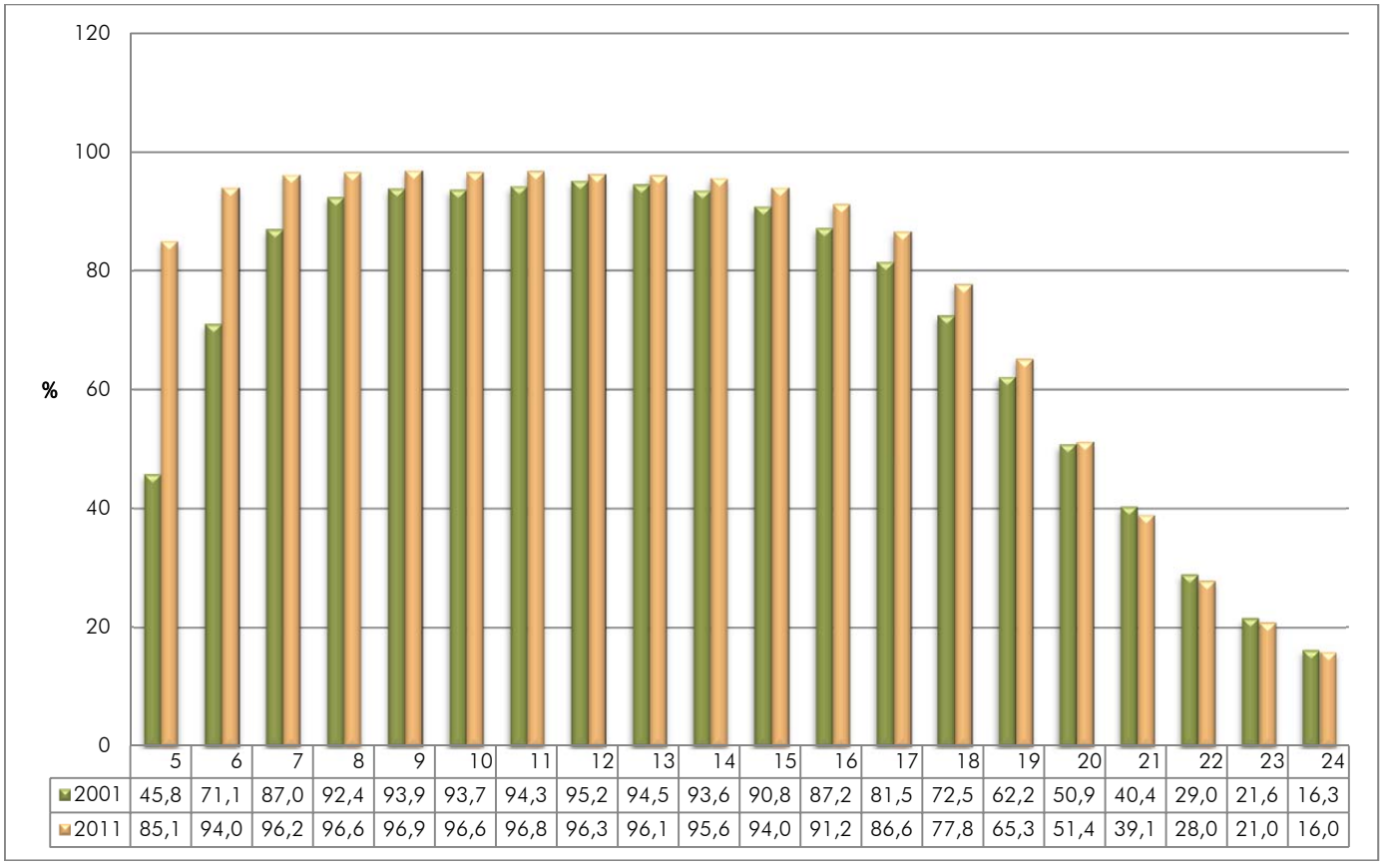
Evidence from the census indicates that, for both male and female, overall attendance at an educational institution in the nodal areas in 2011 was higher than the overall attendance for the country as a whole – which indicates a turnaround of the situation that prevailed ten years earlier.

Table 4 provides a comparison of attendance at an educational institution of children aged 7–15 years in the nodal areas during the years 2001 and 2011 by nodal area with the national attendance figures for children of the same age group at the time of the two censuses. Overall, in 2001 attendance at an educational institution was higher nationally than in the nodal areas. However, in a complete turnaround during census 2011, the rate of attendance at an education institution for children in the nodal areas was higher than the national average.

While nationally, the overall improvement in the rate of attendance at an educational institution increased by 0,6%, the equivalent increase in the nodal areas was 1,7%. But there are some nodal areas that did not register any improvement in the attendance rate. Attendance rates at an educational institution in uMgungundlovu and Zululand nodal areas went down by 2,9% and 1,6% respectively while there was no change in attendance for Sisonke district.

The most improved nodal areas in terms of attendance rates were uMzinyathi, O R Tambo and uMkhanyakude districts, where the attendance rates went up by 5,2%, 4,2% and 4,0% respectively. The highest attendance rates were found in Mopani (97,1%) and Thabo Mofutshanyane (96,6%).

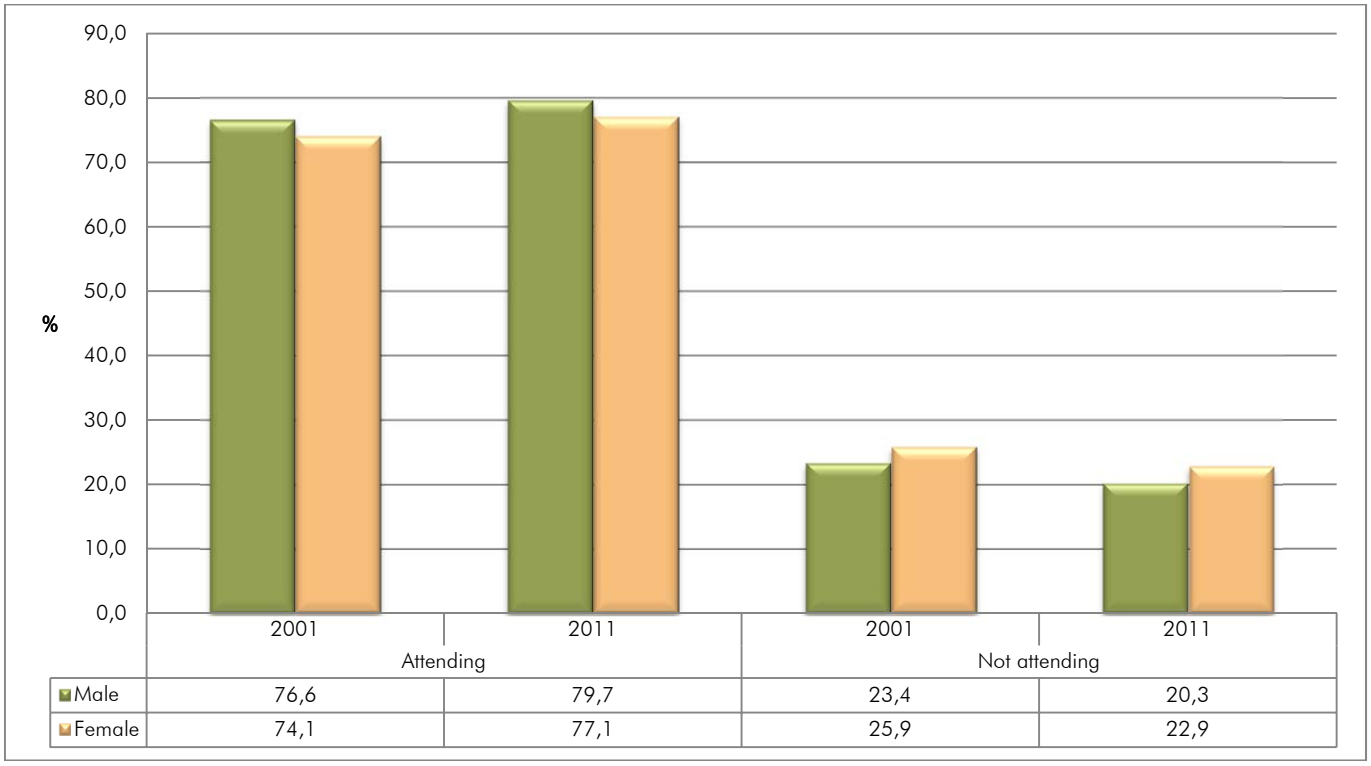
Figure 27: Percentage distribution of persons aged 5–24 years attending an educational institution in 2001 and 2011



	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
2001	45,8	71,1	87,0	92,4	93,9	93,7	94,3	95,2	94,5	93,6	90,8	87,2	81,5	72,5	62,2	50,9	40,4	29,0	21,6	16,3
2011	85,1	94,0	96,2	96,6	96,9	96,6	96,8	96,3	96,1	95,6	94,0	91,2	86,6	77,8	65,3	51,4	39,1	28,0	21,0	16,0

Figure 27 shows comparisons of persons aged 5–24 years who were attending an educational institution in 2001 and 2011. From 5 to 20 years of age there was a general increase in the percentage of the population who were attending an educational institution. Although the data points to a slight decrease for persons aged 21–24 years, the general trend has been more upwards. The enrolment rate for the 5–7 year age group has shown the most significant progress between the two periods in question.

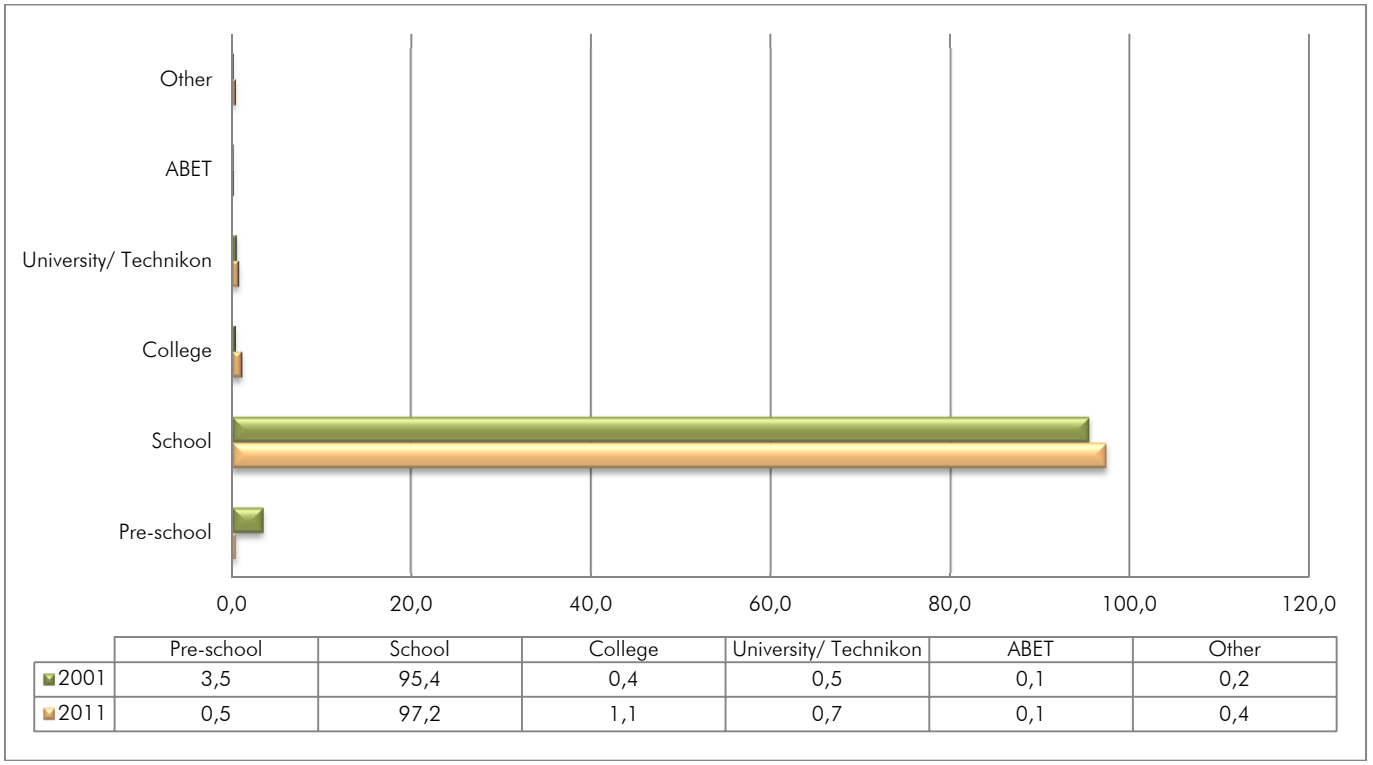
Figure 28: Attendance at an educational institution of persons aged 5–24 years by sex, 2001 and 2011



	Attending		Not attending	
	2001	2011	2001	2011
Male	76,6	79,7	23,4	20,3
Female	74,1	77,1	25,9	22,9

According to Figure 28 above, attendance at an educational institution for the 5–24 year age group has increased steadily for both male and female individuals from 76,6% in 2001 to 79,7% in 2011 and 74,1% in 2001 to 77,1% in 2011 respectively. Similarly, persons not attending school decreased from 23,4% in 2001 to 20,3% in 2011 in the case of males and 25,9% in 2001 to 22,9% in 2011 for females.

Figure 29: Percentage distribution of persons aged 5–24 years attending an educational institution by type of institution in 2001 and 2011



	Pre-school	School	College	University/ Technikon	ABET	Other
2001	3,5	95,4	0,4	0,5	0,1	0,2
2011	0,5	97,2	1,1	0,7	0,1	0,4

According to Figure 29, the vast majority (95,4% in 2001) and (97,2% in 2011) of persons aged 5–24 years attended school or some institution of higher learning. The figure shows that during 2011 there was a serious drop in the proportion of persons at pre-school from 3,5% in 2001 to 0,5% in 2011, which is against the general trend. The primary reason why there has been a decrease in the proportion of children attending pre-school in 2011 is that Grade 0 was incorporated into the primary school system, which is also partly reflected in the increased proportion of individuals who attended school in 2011 as compared to 2001.

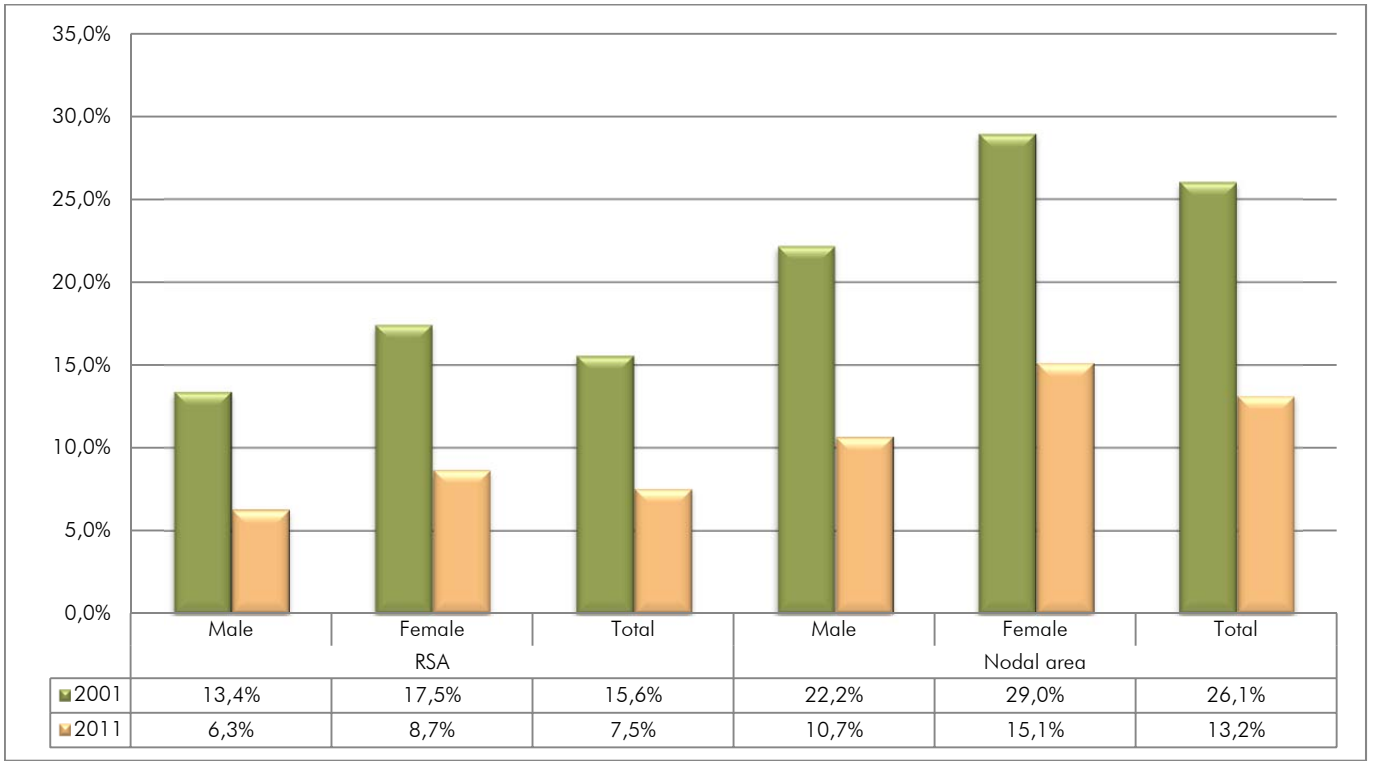
Table 5: Proportion of the population 15 years and older who had no schooling, by sex.

		2001			2011		
		Population 15 year and older (000)	Population 15 year and older with no schooling (000)	Proportion %	Population 15 year and older (000)	Population 15 year and older with no schooling (000)	Proportion %
RSA	**Male**	**13 941**	**1 870**	**13,4**	**17 107**	**1 076**	**6,3**
	Female	**16 050**	**2 803**	**17,5**	**18 818**	**1 636**	**8,7**
	Total	**29 991**	**4 673**	**15,6**	**35 925**	**2 711**	**7,5**
Nodal area	Male	3 426	761	22,2	3 915	417	10,7
	Female	4 541	1 316	29,0	4 924	745	15,1
	Total	**7 966**	**2 077**	**26,1**	**8 839**	**1 163**	**13,2**

According to the 2011 census more than one in every eight (13,2%) South Africans living in the nodal areas, who were aged 15 years and older had not had any form of schooling by 2011. These levels of no-schooling were almost double the national level of 7,5% for the same year. However, this was an improvement compared to the 2001 levels in the nodal areas where more than one in every four persons (26,1%) had not had any form of schooling.

At least two in every five persons aged 15 years and older who had not had any form of schooling in the whole country lived in the nodal areas in 2011.

Figure 30: Proportion of the population of South Africa and nodal area population aged 15 years and older with no schooling by sex, during 2001 and 2011

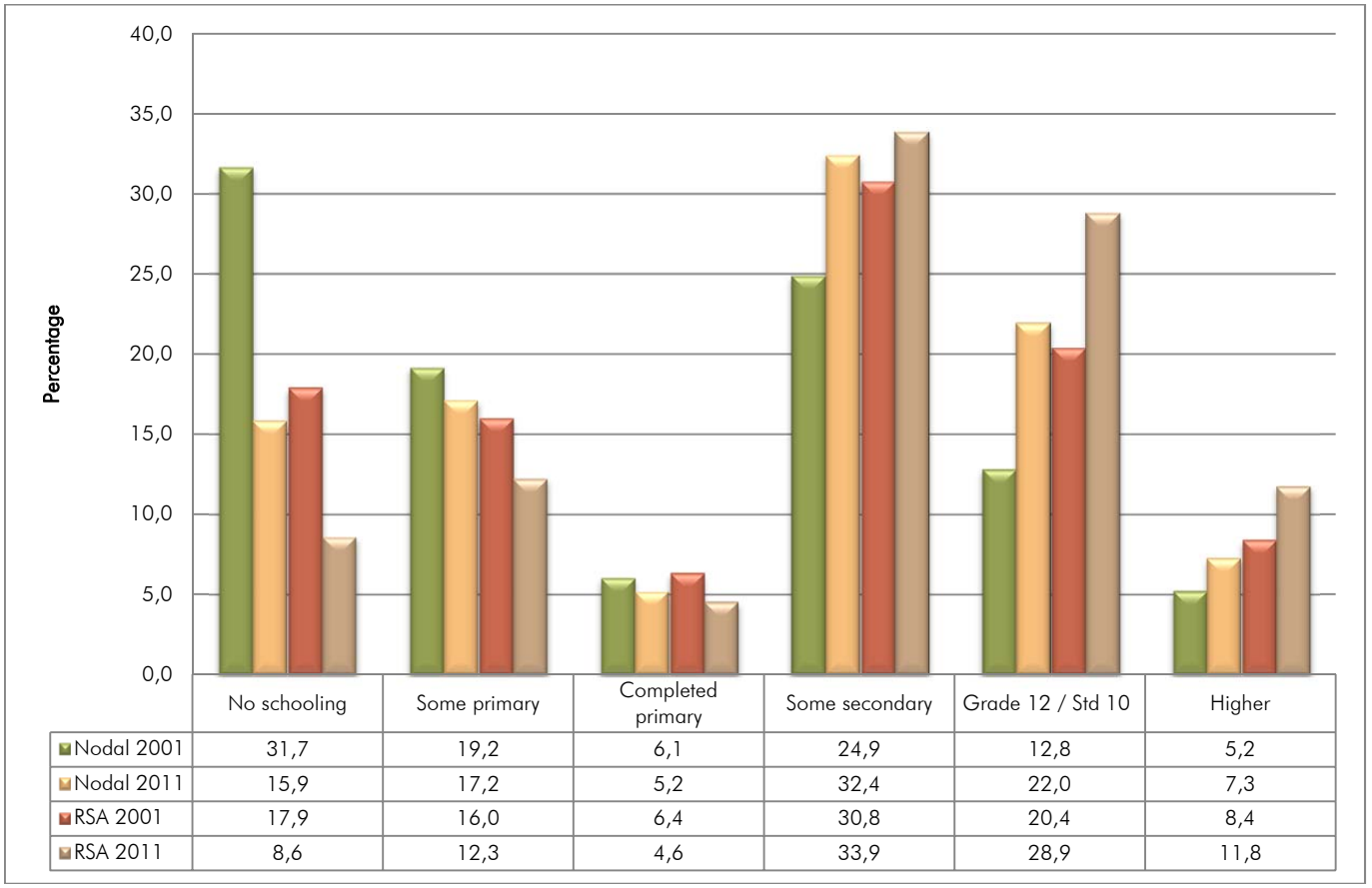


	RSA			Nodal area		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
2001	13,4%	17,5%	15,6%	22,2%	29,0%	26,1%
2011	6,3%	8,7%	7,5%	10,7%	15,1%	13,2%

Figure 30 above shows that during 2001, up to 26,1% of the nodal area population aged 15 years and older had no schooling – which was much higher than the 15,6% which was the national level. However, in 2011 the proportion of the nodal area population aged 15 years and older with no schooling was 13,2%, which represented a 50,5% decrease.

Nationally, over the ten years between the two censuses, there was a decrease of 53,0% among males and a 50,3% decrease among females aged 15 years and older who had not had any form of schooling; while in the nodal areas, the corresponding rates of reduction over the same period were 51,8% for males and 47,9% for females. This means that lack of schooling among people aged 15 years and older in the nodal areas remains more pronounced among females than in males.

Figure 31: Comparison of the highest level of education attained amongst persons aged 20 years and older in South Africa and in the nodal areas during 2001 and 2011.



	No schooling	Some primary	Completed primary	Some secondary	Grade 12 / Std 10	Higher
Nodal 2001	31,7	19,2	6,1	24,9	12,8	5,2
Nodal 2011	15,9	17,2	5,2	32,4	22,0	7,3
RSA 2001	17,9	16,0	6,4	30,8	20,4	8,4
RSA 2011	8,6	12,3	4,6	33,9	28,9	11,8

In Figure 31, we look at the highest level of education attained amongst persons in the nodal areas aged 20 years and older in 2001 compared to the national figures. The education profile of people in the nodal areas aged 20 years and older changed significantly over the ten year period between 2001 and 2011 censuses.

While in 2001 almost one third (31,7%) of the nodal population aged 20 years and older had not had any form of schooling, that proportion had been cut down to 15,9% in 2011, which is a decrease of about half (49,9%) of the 2001 levels. Even the proportion of those with just some primary education and those that had completed primary education went down from 19,2% in 2001 to 17,2% in 2011 and 6,1 in 2001 to 5,2 in 2011 respectively.

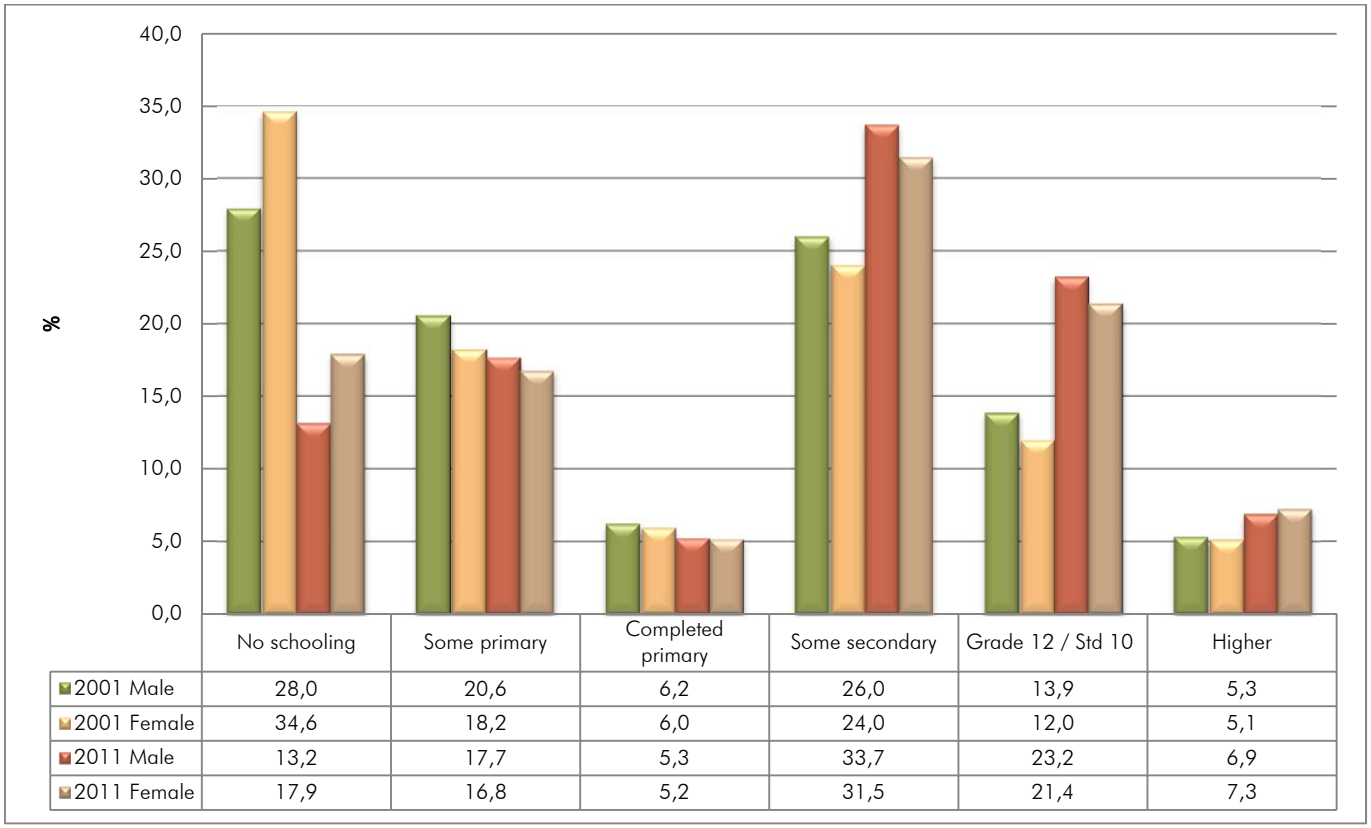
Whereas in 2001 just a quarter of the nodal population aged 20 years and older had some secondary education, in 2011 almost a third (32,4%) of the population in this age group had completed some secondary education.

So, whereas in 2001 most people in the nodal areas aged 20 years and older had not had any form of schooling or had either attended some primary school or completed primary school, by 2011 the majority of the people in that age group had either achieved Grade 12/Std 10 or higher, or had attained some secondary education.

The improvement in the levels of educational attainment was relatively lower in the nodal areas compared to the country as a whole, except for Grade 12/Std 10 and some secondary achievements.

Between 2001 and 2011, the proportion of persons in the nodal areas in this age category who had achieved Grade 12 went up by 71,9% (from 12,8% to 22,0%) compared to the whole of South Africa where the same proportion increased by 41,7% (from 20,4% to 28,9%) over the same period.

Figure 32: Highest level of education attained amongst persons aged 20 years and older during 2001 and 2011, by sex



	No schooling	Some primary	Completed primary	Some secondary	Grade 12 / Std 10	Higher
2001 Male	28,0	20,6	6,2	26,0	13,9	5,3
2001 Female	34,6	18,2	6,0	24,0	12,0	5,1
2011 Male	13,2	17,7	5,3	33,7	23,2	6,9
2011 Female	17,9	16,8	5,2	31,5	21,4	7,3

Figure 32 above looks at the highest level of education attained amongst persons aged 20 years and older during 2001 and 2011 by sex.

During 2001 an overwhelming majority of the males in the nodal areas aged 20 years and older (80,8%) had not completed Grade 12 and 48,6% of the same age group had not completed primary school and 28,0% had not had any form of schooling.

Similarly, in 2001 up to 82,9% of the females aged 20 years and older and living ing the nodal areas had not completed Grade 12 and 52,8% of the these females had not achieved a primary school education and 34,6% did not have any schooling.

In contrast, by 2011 only 13,2% of the males and 17,9% of the females in this population category did not have any schooling. The majority of the population in this age category – both male and female had had some secondary education.

Furthermore, 17,7% of males and 16,8% of females had achieved some primary education; and 5,3% of males and 5,2% of females had completed primary school.

Figure 33: Field of study for persons aged 20 years and older during 2001 and 2011

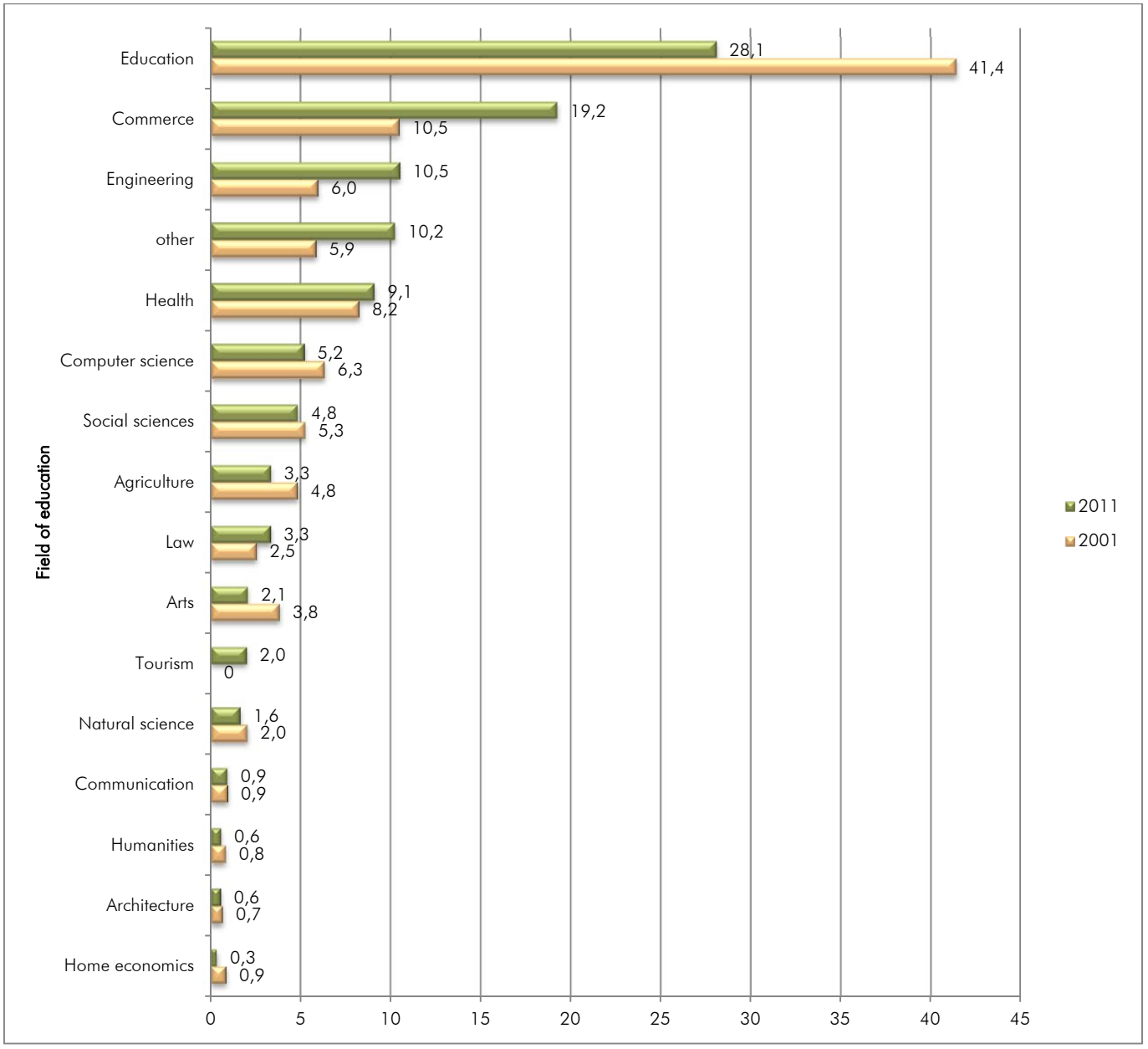


Figure 33 above indicates the proportions of persons aged 20 years and older that have attained post-school qualifications for both 2001 and 2011. In 2001, most of these qualifications were in education and training and related fields (41,4%) and commerce and related fields (10,5%) whilst the field of study with the lowest number of persons qualified was architecture and related fields (0,7%) and humanities and related fields (0,8%).

However, in 2011 the picture remained almost the same except for few categories. A significant shift took place in 2011 towards the fields of: commerce and related fields (which raised its share from 10,5% in 2001 to 19,2% in 2011); followed by engineering and related fields – from 6,0% to 10,5%; other fields not specified and related fields – from 5,9% to 10,2%: health and related fields – from 8,2% to 9,1%; and law and related fields – from 2,5% to 3,3% over the ten year inter-censual period. However, the contribution of communications and related fields remained the same (at 0,9%) over the same period.

4.4 Economic activity

This section covers economic activities of persons aged 15 to 64 years living in the nodal areas, their employment status and incomes of the households in which they live. The official definition of unemployment – which is: persons who are within the economically active population who did not work during the seven day prior to the interview; want to work and are available to start work within a week; and have taken active steps to look for work or start some form of self-employment within the four weeks prior to the interview – is used throughout the report.

While we continue to look at comparisons between 2001 and 2011 as has been the case throughout this report, it is important to point out that the comparison of employment data from census 2001 and census 2011 is being made with caution as the 2001 questions did not deal with issues of the informal sector. The merits of the comparison will therefore depend on whether the informal sector was a significant factor in the employment dynamics of the rural nodes

Table 6: Employment status of the nodal area population aged 15-64 years in 2001

Nodal area	Employed	Unemployed	Not economically active	Working age
Amathole	66 917	123 710	329 462	520 090
Chris Hani	67 476	96 975	261 340	425 791
Joe Gqabi	34 070	39 289	109 303	182 661
O.R.Tambo	78 772	138 954	423 821	641 547
Alfred Nzo	39 069	84 222	255 468	378 758
Thabo Mofutsanyane	139 020	125 884	207 694	472 597
Ugu	85 044	93 802	216 584	395 430
UMgungundlovu	195 396	169 424	219 319	584 139
Uthukela	74 308	107 689	187 817	369 815
Umkhanyakude	37 472	64 078	194 221	295 771
Sisonke	43 166	57 688	137 099	237 954
Umzinyathi	35 066	59 593	151 877	246 537
Zululand	64 980	102 509	242 330	409 820
Mopani	157 361	130 342	312 212	599 914
Greater Sekhukhune	69 569	109 924	328 839	508 331
Ehlanzeni	245 999	184 711	395 637	826 347
John Taolo Gaetsewe	23 969	17 917	66 298	108 184
Central Karoo	13 193	7 615	15 267	36 075
Total	**1 470 847**	**1 714 326**	**4 054 588**	**7 239 761**

Between 2001 and 2011, the number of people employed in all the 18 nodal areas went up by 36,1% from 1,47 million in 2001 to about 2 million in 2011 and the number of the unemployed went down by 7,8%. The number of people in the nodal areas aged 15–64 years who were not economically active increased from 4 054 588 in 2001 to 4 097 740 in 2011. However, the number

of unemployed came down in the majority of the nodes with the highest decrease registered in uMzinyathi (-51,0%), uThukela (-45,4%) and Amathole (-44,7%).

Between 2001 and 2011, the number of people unemployed dropped in all nodal areas except in Greater Sekhukhune, John Taolo Gaeletswe and Ehlanzeni. In Greater Sekhukhune the number of unemployed persons went up by 21,2%, whereas in John Taolo Gaetsewe and Ehlanzeni, the increase was marginal (at 3,4% and 0,8%) respectively.

Altogether, the number of unemployed people in all nodal areas decreased by 476 209 persons.

Table 7: Employment status of the nodal area population aged 15–64 years in 2011

Nodal area	Employed	Unemployed	Not economically active	Working age
Amathole	91 114	68 459	283 727	443 301
Chris Hani	99 464	63 515	244 768	407 746
Joe Gqabi	51 344	28 096	106 224	185 664
O.R.Tambo	120 889	95 244	459 036	675 168
Alfred Nzo	68 709	52 815	257 408	378 932
Thabo Mofutsanyane	144 129	77 938	193 983	416 049
Ugu	116 420	63 169	210 489	390 079
UMgungundlovu	245 378	107 346	262 717	615 441
Uthukela	89 734	58 800	196 272	344 805
Umkhanyakude	58 924	44 104	200 020	303 048
Sisonke	61 896	34 760	141 305	237 961
Umzinyathi	50 548	29 192	157 695	237 434
Zululand	83 361	58 248	249 462	391 071
Mopani	174 240	113 165	326 306	613 712
Greater Sekhukhune	128 794	133 274	305 886	567 954
Ehlanzeni	355 164	186 218	423 158	964 541
John Taolo Gaetsewe	43 825	18 519	61 705	124 047
Central Karoo	17 461	5 255	17 579	40 293
Total	**2 001 394**	**1 238 117**	**4 097 740**	**7 337 246**

Tables 6 and Table 7 above show the employment status of the working age population (15–64 years) in the nodal areas during 2001 and 2011.

The results shown in Table 6 indicate that in 2001, out of the working age nodal area population of 7,24 million, only 1,47 million (20,3%) were employed while 1,71 million (23,7%) were unemployed and the rest – 4,05million (56,0%) were not economically active.

However, by 2011, as indicated in Table 7, out of a working age nodal area population of 7,34 million, up to 2,00 million (27,3%) were employed while 1,24 million (16,9%) were unemployed and 4,10 million (55,8%) were not economically active.

Greater Sekhukhune reported the highest increase in the number of people employed (85,1%) between 2001 and 2011 followed by John Taolo Gaeletswe at 82,8%, while Alfred Nzo reported an increase of 75,9%. Overall, there was a significant increase in the number of employed people in all the nodal areas between the two census years.

Table 8: Employment status of the economically active nodal area population by sex

	Employed			Unemployed		
	2001	2011	% Change	2001	2011	% Change
Male	806 143	1 059 407	31,4	760 979	542 763	-28,7
Female	664 704	941 987	41,7	953 347	695 354	-27,1
Total	**1 470 847**	**2 001 394**	**36,1**	**1 714 326**	**1 238 117**	**-27,8**

Table 8 shows the summary of the employment status for the economically active population in the nodal areas during 2001 and 2011 by sex. Comparing 2001 to 2011, the number of unemployed people went down by 476 209 (27,8%). The number of unemployed females went down by 258 489 (27,1%), while the number of unemployed males went down by 219 531 (28,7%). The number of employed people in 2011 increased by 530 547 compared to 2001. However, an increase in the number of people employed and a decrease in number of unemployed persons does not always mean reduced unemployment. In case of the nodal areas as seen earlier in this report, there was significant migration out of the nodal areas over the period.

Table 9: Employment absorption rates in the nodal area during 2001 and 2011

	Absorption Rate (%)	
Nodal area	**2001**	**2011**
Amathole	12,9	20,6
Chris Hani	15,8	24,4
Joe Gqabi	18,7	27,7
O.R.Tambo	12,3	17,9
Alfred Nzo	10,3	18,1
Thabo Mofutsanyane	29,4	34,6
Ugu	21,5	29,8
UMgungundlovu	33,5	39,9
Uthukela	20,1	26,0
Umkhanyakude	12,7	19,4
Sisonke	18,1	26,0
Umzinyathi	14,2	21,3
Zululand	15,9	21,3
Mopani	26,2	28,4
Greater Sekhukhune	13,7	22,7
Ehlanzeni	29,8	36,8
John Taolo Gaetsewe	22,2	35,3
Central Karoo	36,6	43,3
Total	**20,3**	**27,3**

Table 9 shows the labour absorption rates for the nodal areas for 2001 and 2011. The table indicates that overall the labour absorption rate in the nodal areas went up from 20,3% in 2001 to 27,3% in 2011. The absorption rate is the proportion of the working age population that was employed. So, the higher the absorption rate the better for the population as this eventually reduces the dependency ratio.

The node with the highest increase in labour absorption rate was Alfred Nzo with an increase of 75,8%, followed by Greater Sekhukhune with an increase of 65,7% and Amathole (59,7%), John Taolo Gaetsewe (59,5%), Chris Hani (53,9%) and uMkhanyakude (53,5%).

The least increase in labour absorption rate (8,2%) was registered in Mopani, followed by Thabo Mofutsanyane, Central Karoo and uMgungundlovu at 17,8%, 18,5% and 19,2% respectively.

Figure 34: Average annual household income in the nodal areas by sex of the household head.

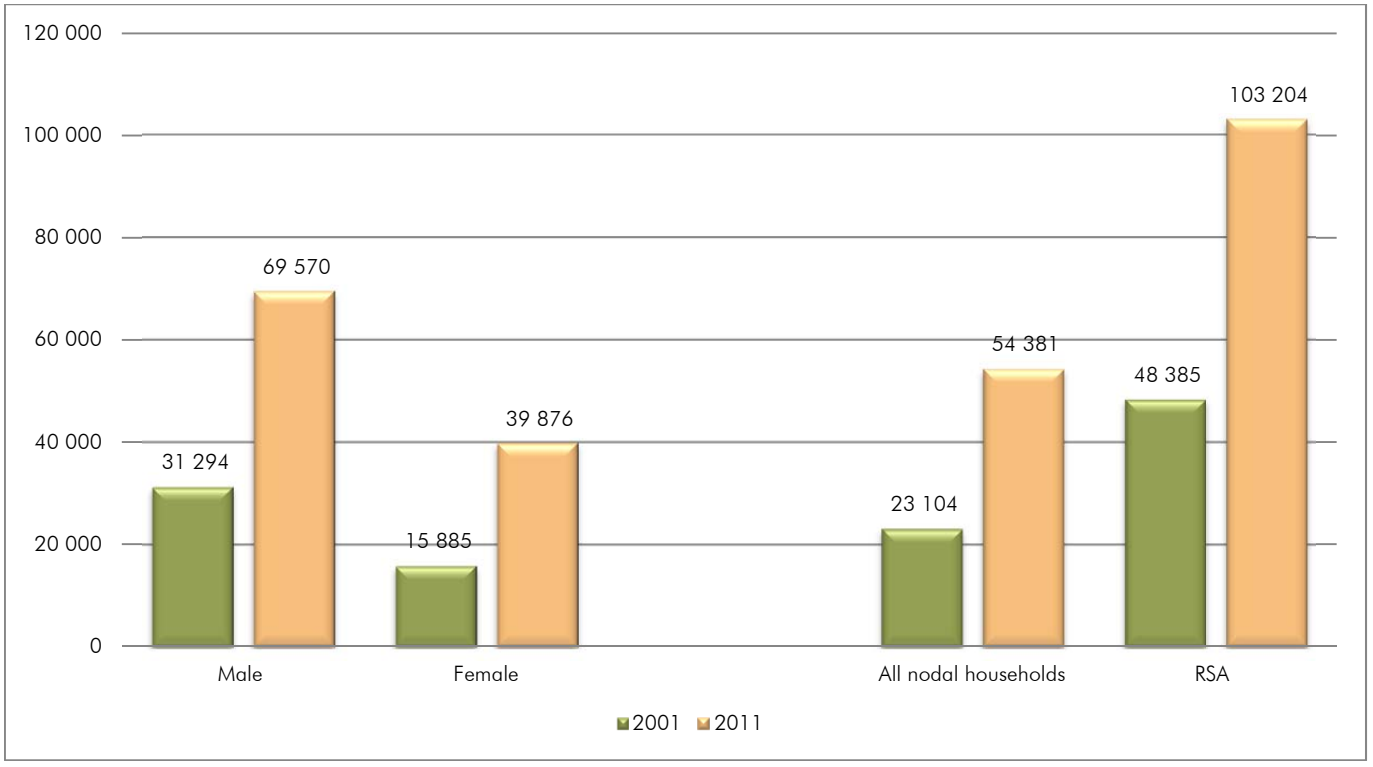


Figure 34 above indicates the average annual household income by sex of the household head in the nodal areas. From 2001 to 2011, the average income of male-headed households increased by 122,3% while that of female-headed households increased by 151% although the male-headed households consistently continued to earn higher than the female-headed households, average annual household incomes for female headed households are rising much faster than for their male counterparts.

Male-headed households though earned 97% and 74,5% more than the female-headed households in 2001 and 2011 respectively. Overall, the average household income in the nodal areas more than doubled over the period between 2001 and 2011, rising from R23 104 to R54 381 – an increase of 135,4%.

From Figure 34 above, we can see that on the average, households in the nodal areas earn relatively far much less than all the households in the country.

Figure 35: Average annual household income in the nodal areas by population group of the household head

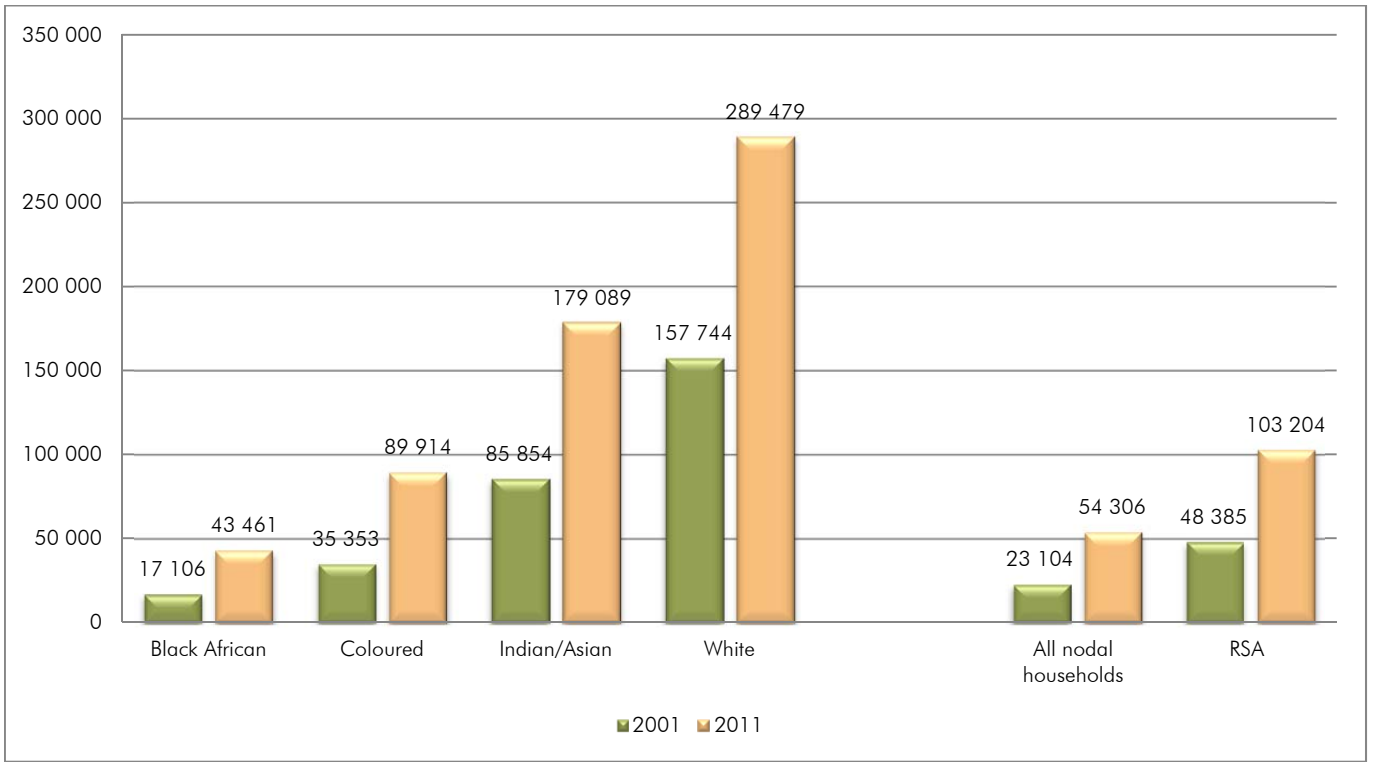


Figure 35 reflects the difference in the average annual household incomes of the population groups in the nodal areas. Black African households reported an average income of R17 106 in 2001 and R43 461 in 2011, the lowest among the population groups and below the average annual income reported for all nodal areas and for the country as a whole. White headed households earned the highest, reporting and average of R289 479 per annum; with coloured-headed households earning R89 914 and Indian/Asian headed households earning R179 089 in 2011. In comparison between the two periods – 2001 and 2011, there has been a significant increase in the average annual household incomes across all population groups. The percentage increases among the population groups are as follows: black African (54,1%), coloured (54,3%), Indian/Asian (108,6%) and white (83,5%).

Figure 36: Average annual household income in 2001 and 2011 by nodal area

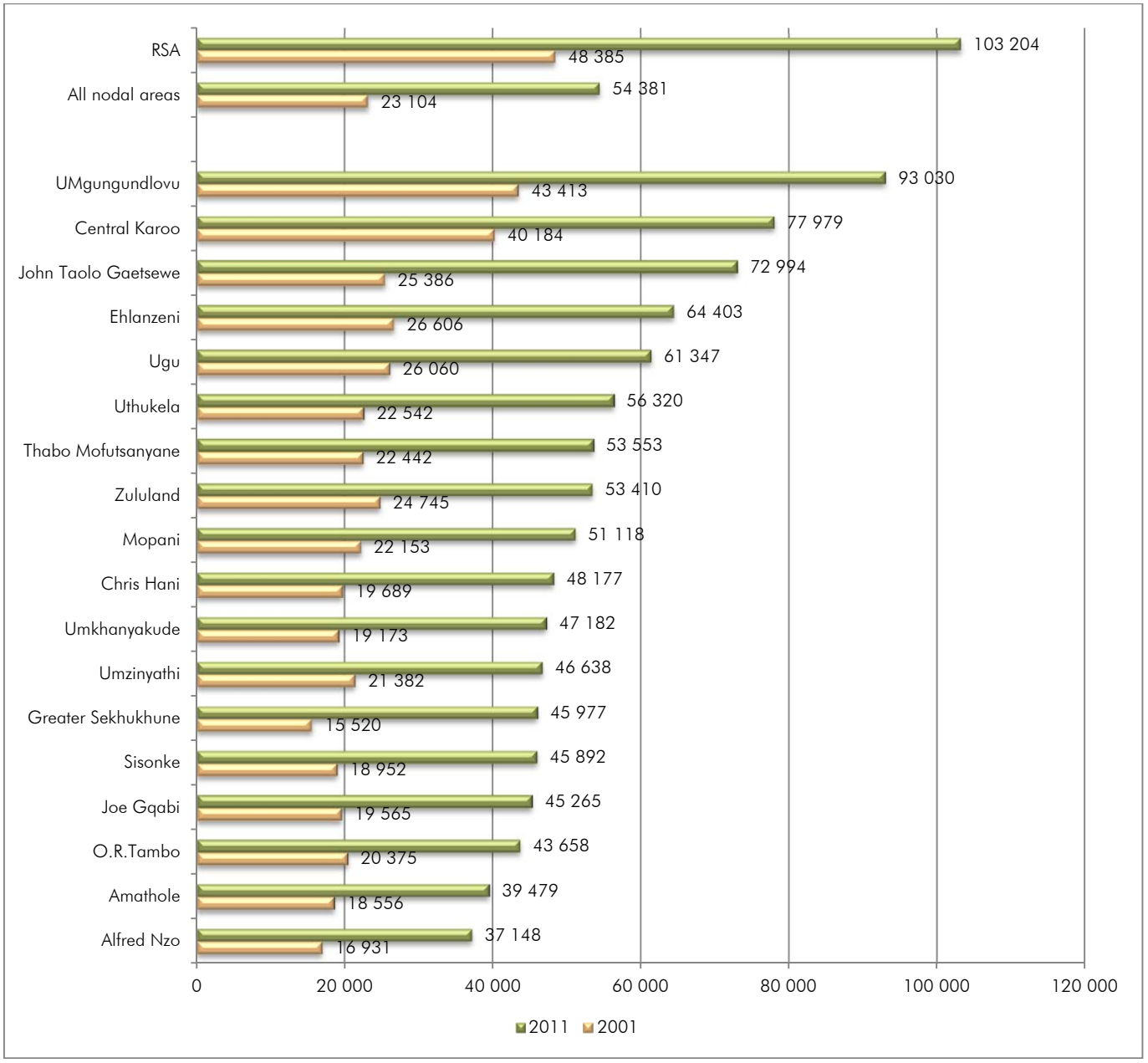


Figure 36 indicates the average annual household income for all the nodal areas in 2001 and 2011. The uMgungundlovu, Central Karoo and John Taolo Gaetsewe nodes recorded the highest average annual household incomes in 2011, which were all higher than the nodal average. As shown in the figure above, between 2001 and 2011 there has been significant increase in the average household incomes in the nodal areas.

The highest average income was reported in uMgungundlovu with an average of R43 413 in 2001 and R93 030 in 2011. The average income increased by more than 100% in all the nodal areas except in Central Karoo which reported an increase of 94,1% while the highest increase was recorded in Greater Sekhukhune, with an increase of 196,2%.

Greater Sekhukhune recorded the lowest average income of R15 520 in 2001, followed by Alfred Nzo with R16 931. In 2011, Alfred Nzo district municipality reported the lowest average annual household income – of R37 148, followed by Amathole with R39 479 and O R Tambo with R43 658.

4.5 Multidimensional poverty

The rural nodal areas were selected for accelerated delivery of services through poverty alleviation programmes. One of such programmes was the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (ISRDP). These nodes were earmarked for accelerated service delivery basically because of the high levels of poverty in those areas at the time. Although Stats SA conducted a survey in the original 13 nodal areas, Census 2001 offered the first comprehensive benchmark data about all the 18 nodes irrespective of when they were selected. This section of the report examines how the poverty situation of the nodes has changed between the two censuses (2001 and 2011).

Stats SA has developed and published money-metric poverty measures such as the national poverty lines (the food poverty line, the lower-bound poverty line, and the upper-bound poverty line) which have been used to determine the poverty profile of the population. To complement what has been achieved through the money-metric approaches, Stats SA has also developed multidimensional measures of poverty which enable us to tell which communities are multidimensionally poor.

The South African Multidimensional Index (SAMPI) is a 'copy-cat' of the global Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) which has been customised to the South African context taking into account issues that affect poverty in the country. Due consideration has been given to availability of data, suitability and robustness after data exploration, confrontation and consultation.

Basically, the current SAMPI is made up of 4 equally weighted dimensions namely: Health, Education, Standard of living, and Economic activity. The four dimensions are built from 11 indicators – Child mortality – for health; Years of schooling and School attendance – for Education; Fuel for lighting, Fuel for heating and Fuel for cooking, Water access, Sanitation type, Dwelling type and Asset ownership – for Standard of living; and Unemployment – for Economic activity.

Lack of data on nutrition, food security or hunger from the censuses has meant that the health dimension has only one indicator – Child mortality. This is a limitation in the SAMPI which confines it to a narrow view of the health circumstances of South African households/population. Such limitations will be addressed as soon as data from other sources becomes available in the near future. The following table shows the four dimension of the SAMPI, their respective indicators and deprivation cut-offs.

Table 10: The dimensions, indicators and deprivation cut-offs of the SAMPI

Dimension	Indicator	Deprivation cut-off
Health	Child mortality	If any child under the age of 5 has died in the past 12 months
Education	Years of schooling	If no household member aged 15 or older has completed 5 years of schooling
	School attendance	If any school-aged child (aged 7 to 15) is out of school
Standard of living	Fuel for lighting	If household is using paraffin/candles/nothing/other
	Fuel for heating	If household is using paraffin/wood/coal/animal dung/other/none
	Fuel for cooking	If household is using paraffin/wood/coal/animal dung/other/none
	Water access	If no piped water in dwelling or on stand
	Sanitation type	If not a flush toilet(or chemical toilet with ventilation)
	Dwelling type	If an informal shack/traditional dwelling/caravan/tent/other
	Asset ownership	If household does not own more than one radio, television, telephone or refrigerator and does not own a car
Economic activity	Unemployment	If all adults (15 to 64) in the household are unemployed

Each of the four dimensions is expected to contribute 25% to the index as the dimensions have equal weight by design. Similarly, all the indicators within each dimension have got equal weight. Because of the way the SAMPI is designed it is possible to work out the contribution of each indicator or dimension to the overall index and track how this contribution changes over time.

By using pre-determined poverty cut-offs for each indicator, we are able to identify those who are multidimensionally poor. There are three main measures of poverty that are generated by this process namely: the Headcount (H), the Intensity (A) and the SAMPI score, which is the product of the headcount and the intensity.

Headcount poverty maps have been constructed on a traffic light scale – Dark red to deep green, with the dark red representing 100 per cent multidimensional deprivation while deep green represents zero deprivation. By simply looking at a map of a nodal area one is able to identify which areas of that node are more multidimensionally deprived /poorer than others. Again, looking at two maps of the same nodal area – one for each census period, it is easy to see at a glance what improvements have been made in the poverty situation of the node. For the purpose of this report, poverty headcount data at ward level has been used for the construction of the poverty maps for the nodal areas.

Table 11: Poverty measures for Census 2001 and Census 2011

	Census 2001			Census 2011		
District	Headcount	Intensity	SAMPI	Headcount	Intensity	SAMPI
South Africa	**18,2%**	**44,0%**	**0,08**	**8,0%**	**42,3%**	**0,03**
Central Karoo	6,2%	40,6%	0,03	2,4%	40,6%	0,01
Amathole	34,9%	43,3%	0,15	18,7%	41,4%	0,08
Chris Hani	32,0%	42,6%	0,14	15,6%	41,4%	0,06
Joe Gqabi	34,0%	43,2%	0,15	16,8%	41,3%	0,07
OR Tambo	43,6%	43,8%	0,19	21,1%	41,7%	0,09
Alfred Nzo	44,7%	43,8%	0,20	25,6%	41,9%	0,11
John Taolo Gaetsewe	28,6%	43,0%	0,12	11,4%	41,7%	0,05
Thabo Mofutsanyane	21,1%	43,8%	0,09	7,1%	41,7%	0,03
Ugu	28,3%	42,9%	0,12	15,1%	41,7%	0,06
uThukela	27,0%	44,1%	0,12	13,7%	42,3%	0,06
Zululand	30,3%	43,5%	0,13	12,9%	41,6%	0,05
uMgungundlovu	17,4%	43,5%	0,08	7,7%	41,7%	0,03
uMzinyathi	42,5%	43,7%	0,19	23,7%	42,4%	0,10
uMkhanyakude	40,1%	44,0%	0,18	20,4%	42,4%	0,09
Sisonke	36,8%	43,2%	0,16	19,3%	41,9%	0,08
Ehlanzeni	22,1%	43,3%	0,10	8,9%	41,5%	0,04
Mopani	25,6%	43,9%	0,11	11,3%	41,5%	0,05
Sekhukhune	22,1%	43,1%	0,10	11,3%	41,6%	0,05

Table 11 above shows the 3 multidimensional poverty measures for all the 18 nodal areas, derived from the two censuses (2001 and 2011). Equivalent measures at national level have been included in the table for comparison purposes.

Based on Table 11, it is clear that the poverty headcount in the nodes is highest in Alfred Nzo (headcount was 44,7% in 2001 and 25,6% in 2011), uMzinyathi (headcount was 42,5% in 2001 and 23,7% in 2011), O.R. Tambo (headcount was 43,6% in 2001 and 21,1% in 2011), uMkhanyakude (headcount was 40,1% in 2001 and 20,4% in 2011) and Sisonke (headcount was 36,8% in 2001 and 19,3% in 2011). These areas are all located in either KwaZulu-Natal or the Eastern Cape, the two provinces which have been identified by earlier reports – the SAMPI and Poverty Trends reports, as the poorest provinces in the country.

Table 11 above also shows the poverty measures of South Africa as a country. The national multidimensional poverty headcount was 18,2% in 2001 and 8,0% in 2011. All nodal areas are in a far worse situation than the national average except Central Karoo. Central Karoo, which had a multidimensional poverty headcount of 6,2% in 2001 achieved a headcount of 2,4% in 2011, which is enviable even at national level.

As noted above, poverty headcount was highest among the nodes in the Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal provinces of South Africa. The following two maps show changes in poverty headcount for all the rural nodes of South Africa between 2001 and 2011.

Figure 37: A map showing poverty headcount in the nodal area district municipalities during 2001

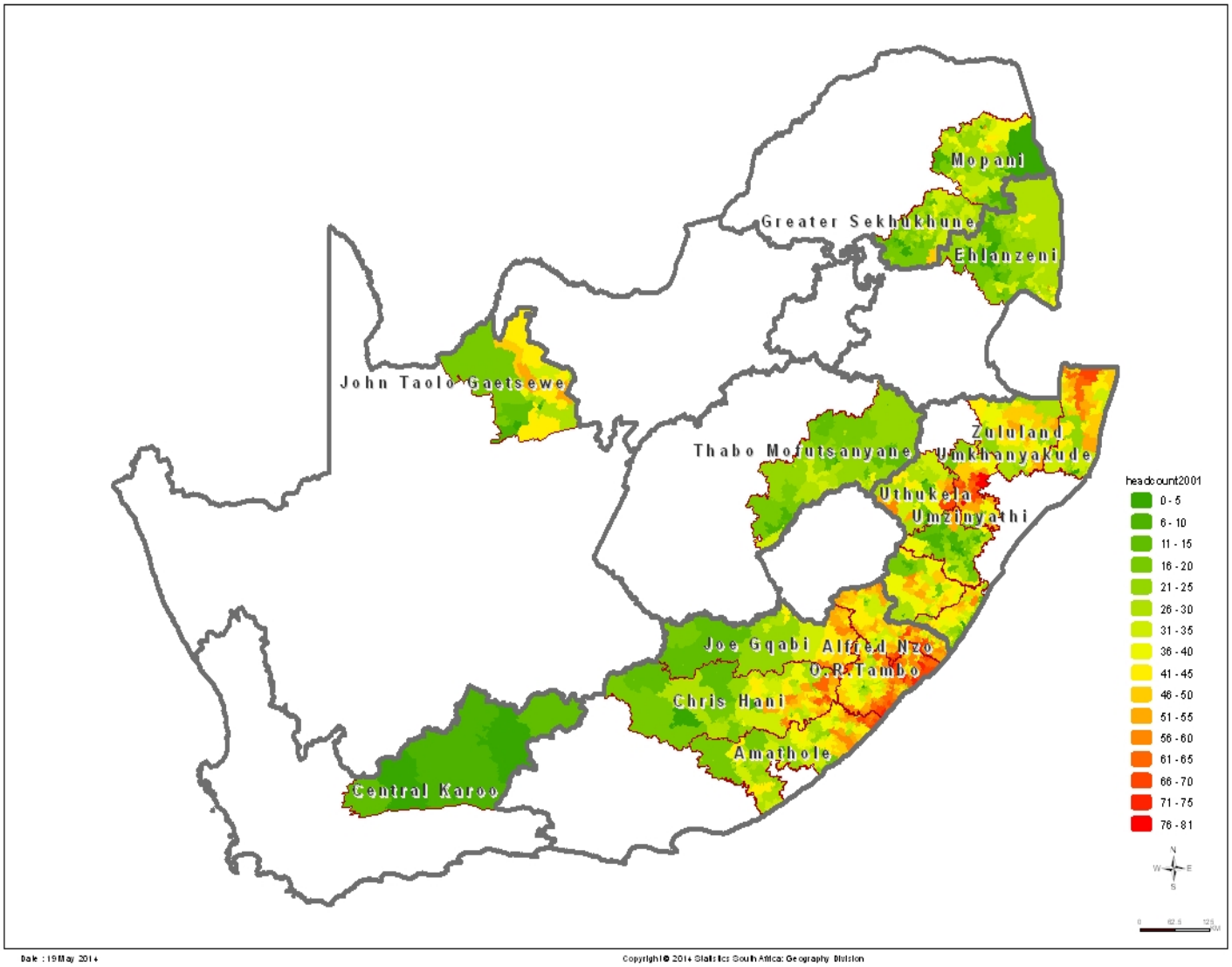
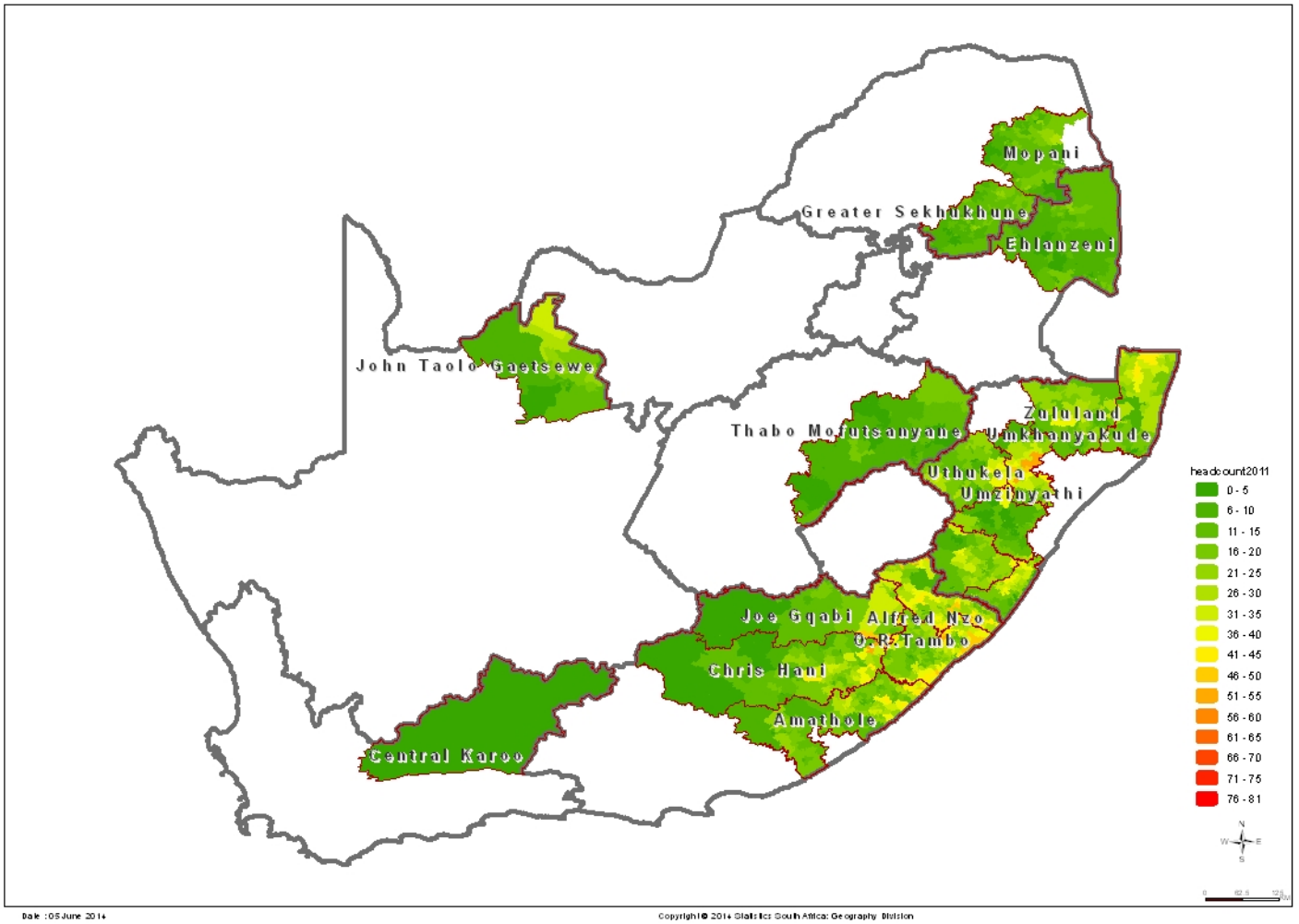


Figure 38: A map showing poverty headcount in the nodal area district municipalities during 2011



Looking at the two maps above (Figure37 and Figure 38) in comparison, it is clear that there is a striking difference between the two poverty situations, ten years apart. Generally, of all the eighteen nodes, it is still the ones in KwaZulu-Natal and the Eastern Cape that are most deprived.

4.6 Improvement in the poverty situation in the 18 nodes

Generally, the poverty situation in all the eighteen nodes has improved between 2001 and 2011, but the level of improvement differs from node to node. The following table shows how poverty headcount in the nodal districts has changed over the inter-censual period.

Table 12: Reduction in poverty headcount and intensity

	2001		2011		Percentage reduction in headcount	Percentage reduction in intensity
	Headcount	Intensity	Headcount	Intensity		
RSA	**18,2%**	**44,0%**	**8,0%**	**42,3%**	**56,0**	**3,9**
Thabo Mofutsanyana	21,1%	43,8%	7,1%	41,7%	66,4	4,8
Central Karoo	6,2%	40,6%	2,4%	40,6%	61,3	0,0
John Taolo Gaetsewe	28,6%	43,0%	11,4%	41,7%	60,3	3,1
Ehlanzeni	22,1%	43,3%	8,9%	41,5%	59,6	4,2
Zululand	30,3%	43,5%	12,9%	41,6%	57,6	4,4
uMgungundlovu	17,4%	43,5%	7,7%	41,9%	55,8	4,1
Mopani	25,6%	43,9%	11,3%	41,5%	55,8	5,4
OR Tambo	43,6%	43,8%	21,1%	41,7%	51,6	4,8
Chris Hani	32,0%	42,7%	15,6%	41,4%	51,4	2,9
Joe Gqabi	34,0%	43,2%	16,8%	41,3%	50,5	4,3
uThukela	27,0%	44,1%	13,7%	42,3%	49,4	4,0
uMkhanyakude	40,1%	44,0%	20,4%	42,4%	49,2	3,6
Sekhukhune	22,1%	43,1%	11,3%	41,6%	48,7	3,4
Sisonke	36,8%	43,2%	19,3%	41,9%	47,4	3,0
Ugu	28,3%	42,9%	15,1%	41,7%	46,6	2,8
Amathole	34,9%	43,3%	18,7%	41,4%	46,4	4,6
uMzinyathi	42,5%	43,7%	23,7%	42,4%	44,3	2,9
Alfred Nzo	44,7%	43,8%	25,6%	41,9%	42,7	4,4

Table 12 above shows that all the district municipalities in the rural nodal areas reduced poverty levels to some degree between 2001 and 2011. The nodal area that reduced poverty the most in all the nodes was Thabo Mofutsanyane in the Free State, which reduced their poverty headcount by 66,4% from 21,1% in 2001 to 7,1% in 2011. Second and third were Central Karoo in Western Cape and John Taolo Gaetsewe in Northern Cape which reduced their poverty headcount by 60,9% and 60,3% respectively.

Up to five rural nodes reduced their poverty headcount at a better rate than the national average of 56,0%, as indicated in table 12 above.

They are Thabo Mofutsanyane (66,6%), Central Karoo (60,9%), John Taolo Gaetsewe (60,3%), Ehlanzeni (59,6%) and Zululand (57,6%). The rest of the nodal areas managed to reduce their poverty headcount by at least 42,7%.

Table 12 above also shows the percentage reduction in the intensity of poverty for all nodal areas between 2001 and 2011. While nationally, there may not have been a plausible reduction in the intensity of poverty the majority of the nodes performed better than national average of -3,9%. Ten out of the eighteen rural nodes performed better than the national average; and the top three were: Mopani, which reduced poverty intensity by -5,4%, followed by Thabo Mofutsanyane and O R Tambo which managed a 4,8% reduction in poverty intensity.

The less than modest rate of reduction in poverty headcount for most of the nodes could be attributed to the heavy backlog of service delivery that existed in most of the nodes before 2001. That, combined with the apparent lack of capacity in the nodes to implement specific programmes would more than likely be the cause of the slow pace in poverty reduction.

Maps showing reduction in poverty headcount for each nodal area have been provided in Appendix A (called Annexure A) at the end of this report. According to the traffic light scale, greener areas of the map are in a better poverty situation than the ones colour coded in yellow, amber and red – in that order.

4.7 Changes in contribution of different dimensions of the SAMPI

The South African Multidimensional Poverty Index (SAMPI) is constructed from four dimensions namely: Health, Education, Standard of Living and Economic activity. Each dimension is made up of pre-determined indicators and their respective cut-offs, subject to availability of usable data. Due to issues of data unavailability, some of the dimensions have just one or two indicators.

The following table – Table 13 shows the percentage contribution of each of the four dimensions to the SAMPI during 2001 and 2011.

Table 13: Contribution of each SAMPI dimension for 2001 and 2011 by nodal area

	Standard of living		Unemployment		Education		Health	
Nodal area	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011
Central Karoo	35,9	26,2	33,2	42,3	29,4	28,0	1,5	3,5
Amathole	51,3	47,8	25,6	32,1	22,4	19,0	0,7	1,2
Chris Hani	50,9	46,0	23,4	32,6	24,8	20,0	0,9	1,4
Joe Gqabi	50,7	47,4	24,0	30,5	24,2	20,9	1,0	1,3
O.R.Tambo	53,1	48,7	19,4	29,3	26,0	20,3	1,5	1,7
Alfred Nzo	53,3	50,2	20,1	28,0	25,1	19,9	1,5	1,9
John Taolo Gaetsewe	48,5	41,0	24,3	38,7	25,7	17,9	1,5	2,4
Thabo Mofutsanyane	44,7	38,9	36,7	43,4	17,0	15,3	1,5	2,5
Ugu	51,7	47,6	20,7	31,1	25,7	19,6	1,9	1,7
uMgungundlovu	45,0	42,9	33,0	36,7	20,0	18,6	2,1	1,8
uThukela	47,8	44,2	28,4	36,4	21,3	16,7	2,6	2,8
uMkhanyakude	51,6	47,4	18,9	30,3	27,7	20,4	1,7	1,9
Sisonke	52,0	48,8	22,4	30,3	23,7	18,6	2,0	2,2
uMzinyathi	53,0	49,7	17,2	26,4	28,2	21,8	1,6	2,0
Zululand	50,1	44,4	23,1	31,8	23,8	19,9	2,9	3,9
Ehlanzeni	45,1	37,3	32,0	46,6	21,4	14,5	1,5	1,6
Mopani	45,5	38,2	33,6	49,5	20,0	10,8	0,9	1,6
Greater Sekhukhune	45,2	38,5	35,0	50,0	18,4	9,9	1,4	1,6
ALL nodal areas	**49,7**	**45,2**	**25,4**	**35,1**	**23,3**	**17,9**	**1,5**	**1,8**

Table 13 above shows that generally, for all the nodal areas, the contribution of the standard of living dimension to the SAMPI came down from 49,7% in 2001 to 45,2% in 2011, which can be attributed to the improvement in service delivery – like delivery of RDP housing, improved sanitation, delivery of electricity and water. On the other hand, the contribution of the Economic activity dimension which has one indicator – unemployment, did increase over the same period. The contribution of unemployment went up by 38,2%, from 25,4% in 2001 to 35,1% in 2011. This significant increase in the contribution of the Economic activity dimension can be attributed to the ever growing problem of unemployment as a major factor shaping the deprivation profile of South African households. A lot more needs to be done to solve this ballooning problem of unemployment in the nodal areas.

The contribution of the Education dimension also changed over the ten-year period. It decreased from 23,3% in 2001 to 17,9% in 2011. This is probably attributable to improvement in the provision of basic education facilities, improved school attendance, and reduction in school drop-out rate. The nodes which reduced the contribution of education to the SAMPI the most were Greater Sekhukhune and Mopani – both from Limpopo. Each of the two nodes reduced the SAMPI contribution by the education dimension by half (46%). Figures 39 and Figure 40 below show the relative contribution of each dimension of the SAMPI during the years 2001 and 2011.

Figure 39: Contribution of each dimension to SAMPI for all nodal areas in 2001

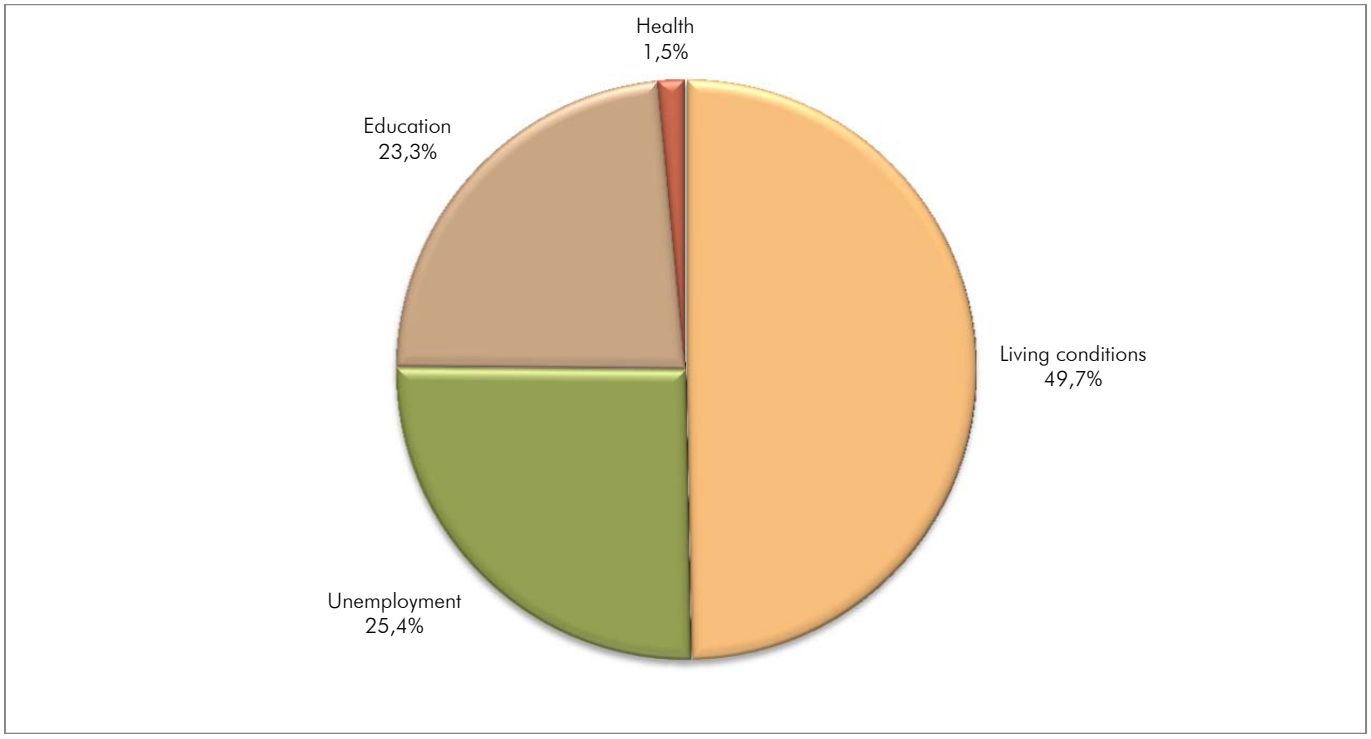
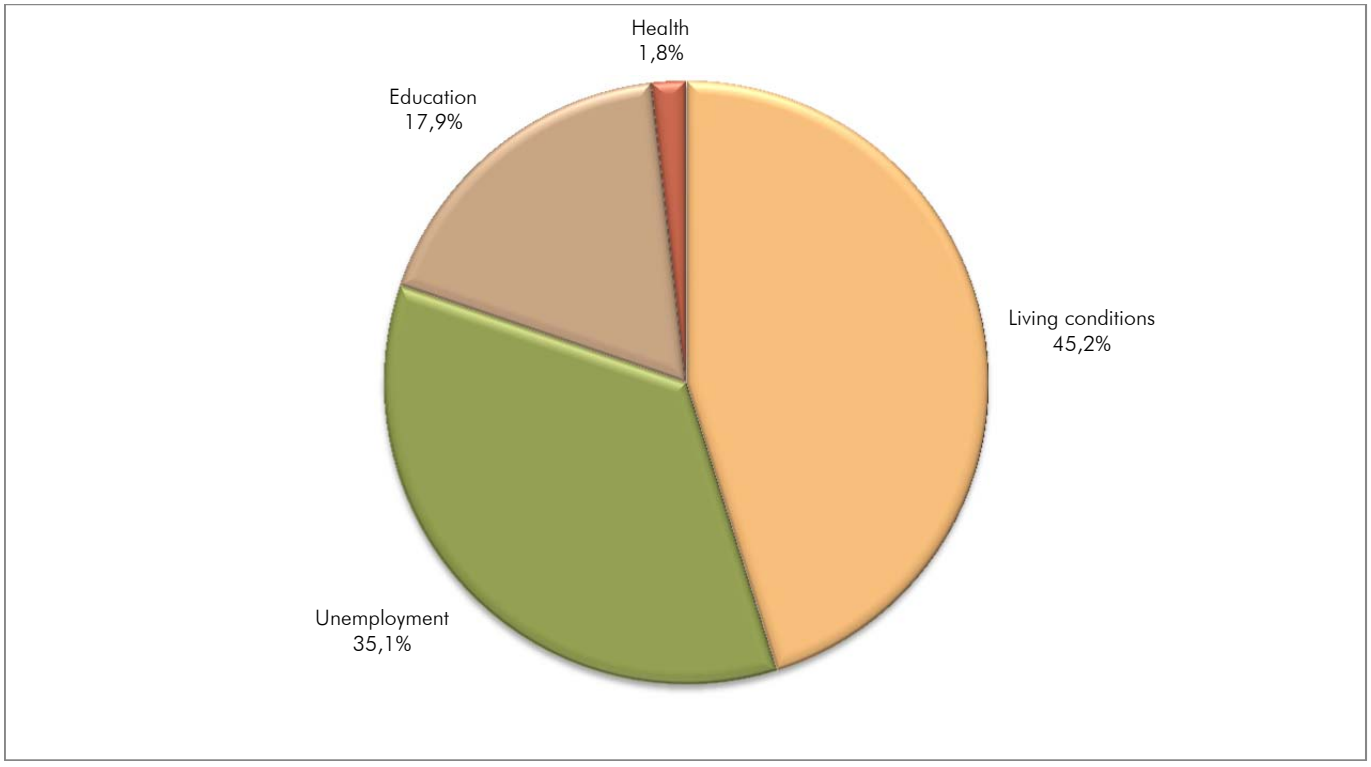
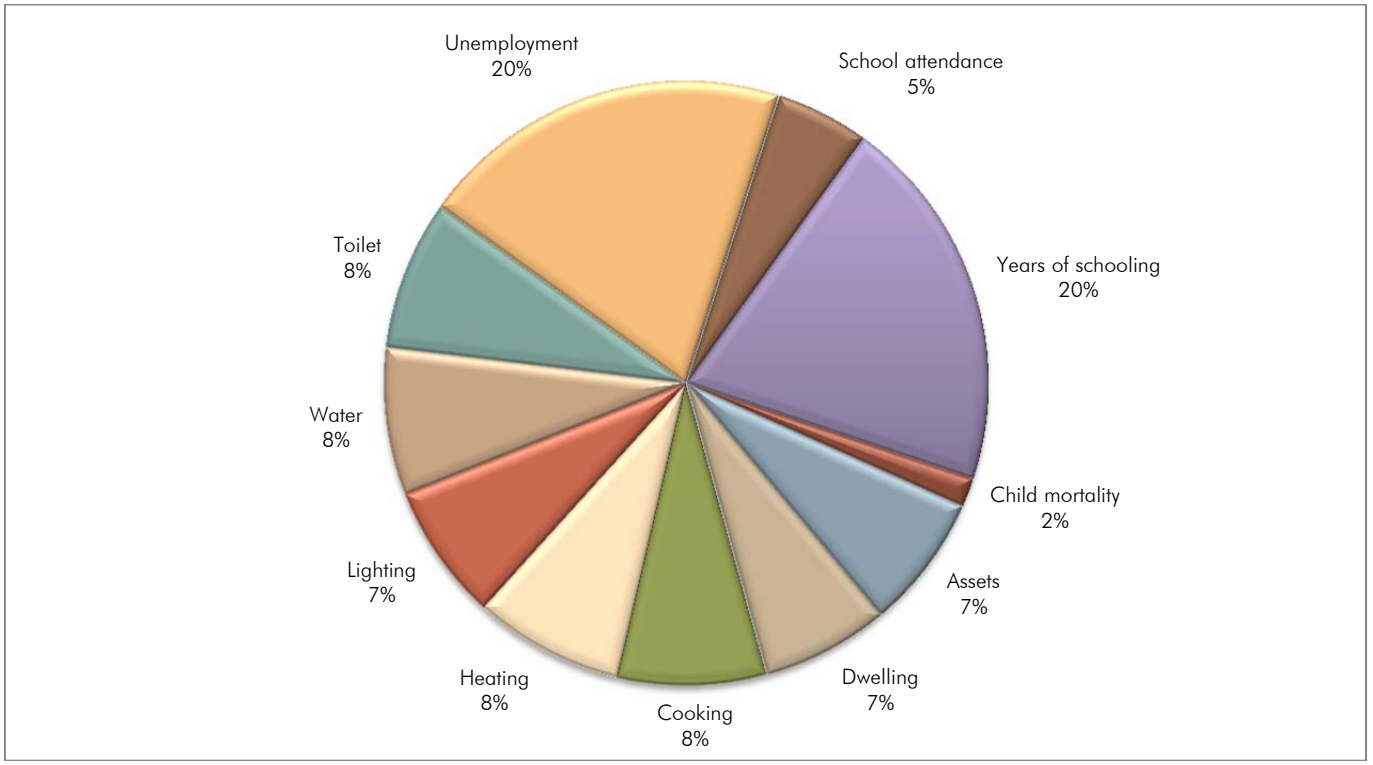


Figure 40: Contribution of each dimension to SAMPI for all nodal areas in 2011



By looking at the relative contribution of each indicator to the SAMPI, we are able to determine the main drivers of deprivation in any of the nodes. Figure 41 below, shows the relative contribution of each of the SAMPI indicators to the deprivation in Alfred Nzo district municipality during 2001.

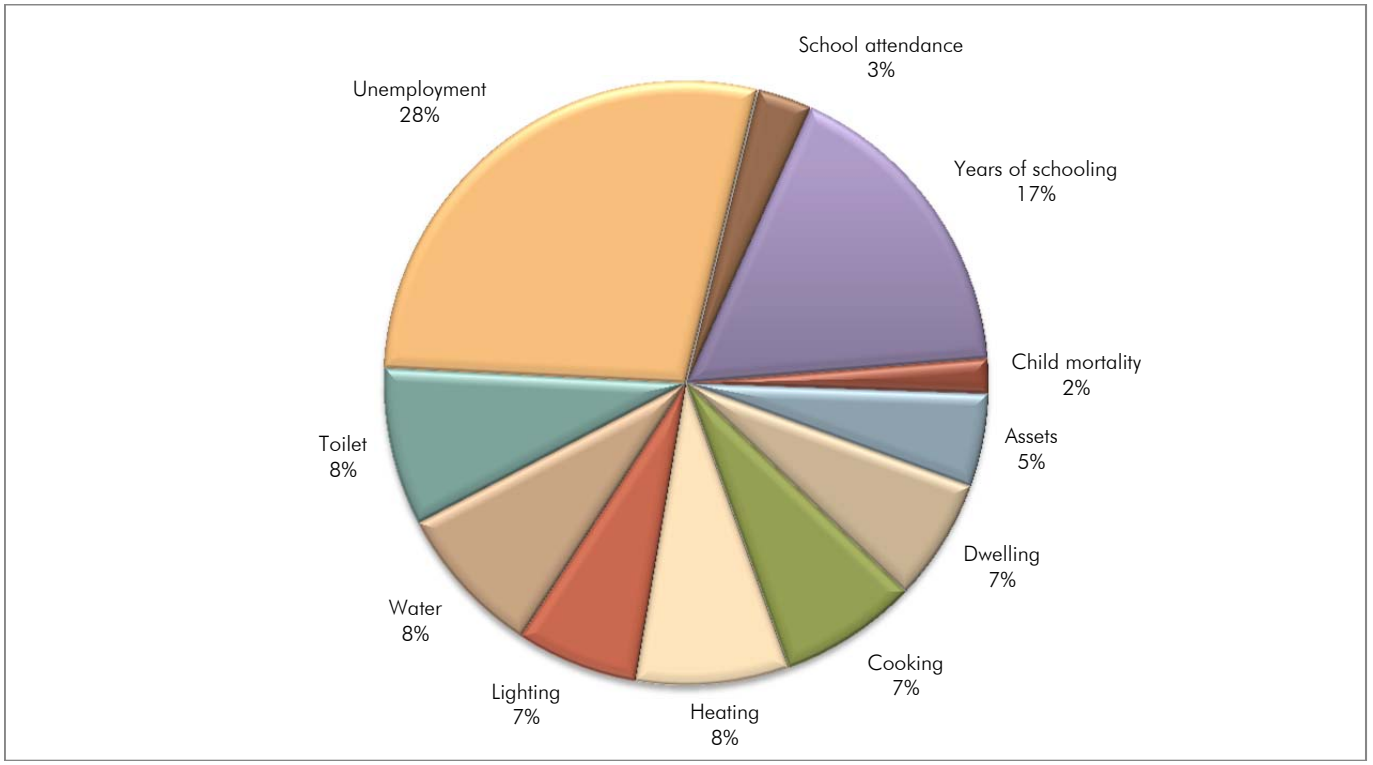
Figure 41: Drivers of deprivation among the SAMPI poor in Alfred Nzo district during 2001



As can be seen in Figure 41 above, the main determinants of deprivation in Alfred Nzo during 2001 were unemployment, and years of schooling which contributed 20% each to this deprivation. The health dimension, represented by child mortality contributed 2% of the deprivation, followed by school attendance which was responsible for 5% of the deprivation. The remainder of the indicators contributed between 7 to 8 percent each. Since unemployment is the only indicator in the economic activity dimension, the increase in its contribution to the SAMPI to 28% in 2011 represents a growing challenge around unemployment in the node. The indicators of the Education dimension together contributed 25%, which is expected, given that each of the four dimensions has an equal weight of 25%. However, the Living conditions indicators (toilet, water, lighting, heating, cooking, dwelling and assets put together) contributed 53% to the deprivation, which points to issues of poor housing and general service delivery in the node during 2001.

Figure 42 below gives the same kind of information for Alfred Nzo municipality, but for the year 2011 and highlights how the percentage contribution of different indicators has changed over the ten year period.

Figure 42: Drivers of deprivation among the SAMPI poor in Alfred Nzo district during 2011



During 2011, all indicators of living conditions put together represented 50% of the deprivation in Alfred Nzo compared to 53% during 2001. The drop represents some progress in the delivery of housing and essential services over the ten-year period. Of all the indicators, unemployment (28%) was the single most important determinant of deprivation in Alfred Nzo during 2011. However, the jump of eight percentage points from 20% in 2001 to 28% in 2011 points to an increasingly worsening situation around employment. Definite steps need to be taken to stem the threat posed by unemployment as a driver of deprivation in Alfred Nzo.

More poverty headcount maps and charts showing the drivers of deprivation in the nodes during 2001 and 2011 are available in the Annexure of this report.

5. Conclusion

There has been tremendous improvement in the poverty situation in the rural nodal areas over the ten-year period between 2001 and 2011. Even though the rate of poverty reduction in some of the nodes is much lower than the national average over the same period, it is probably understandable, considering the heavy backlog that most of the nodes had to deal with.

Whereas unemployment is the main driver of the SAMPI at national level; in the majority of the nodal areas, issues of service delivery still play a major role in the multidimensional poverty status of the households.

List of References:

The South African MPI: Creating a multidimensional poverty index using census data: Stats SA, 2014 – Report No. 03-10-08

Measuring rural development: Baseline statistics for the integrated sustainable rural development strategy: Stats SA, 2002 ISBN 0-621-32304-7

Annexure A

Figure A1a: Poverty headcount for Alfred Nzo district municipality, at ward level in 2001

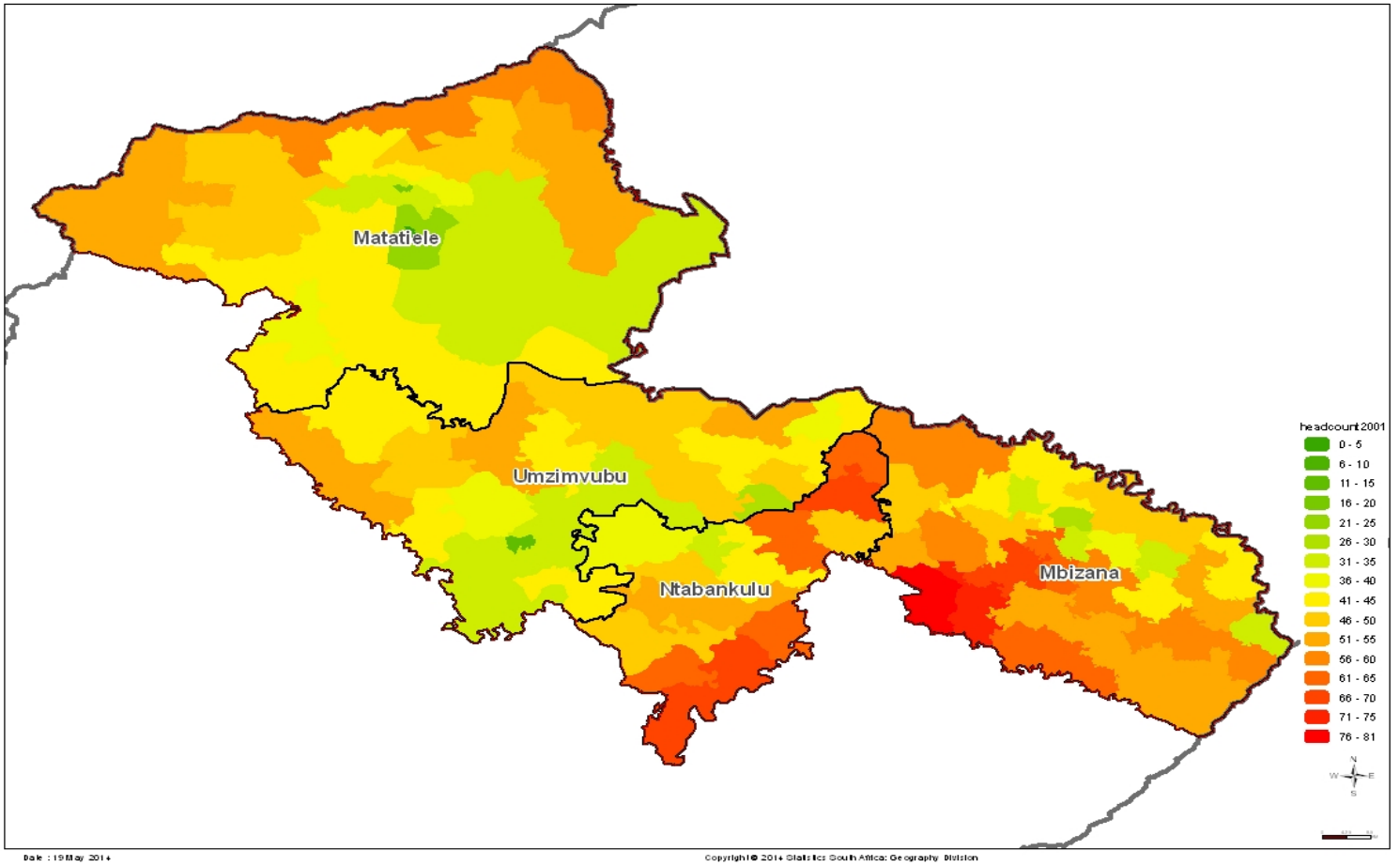


Figure A1b: Poverty headcount for Alfred Nzo district municipality, at ward level in 2011

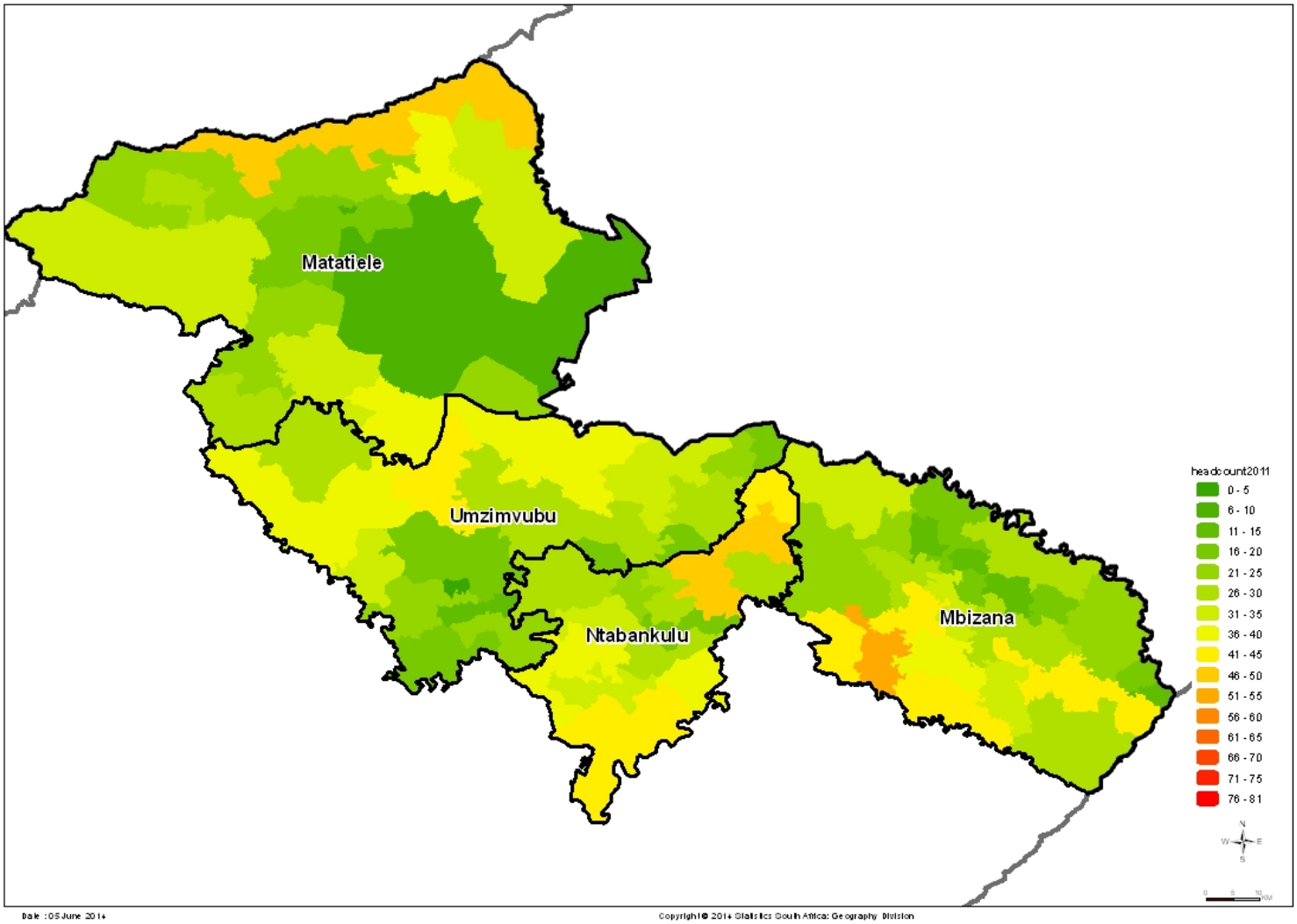


Figure A2a: Poverty headcount for OR Tambo district municipality, at ward level in 2001

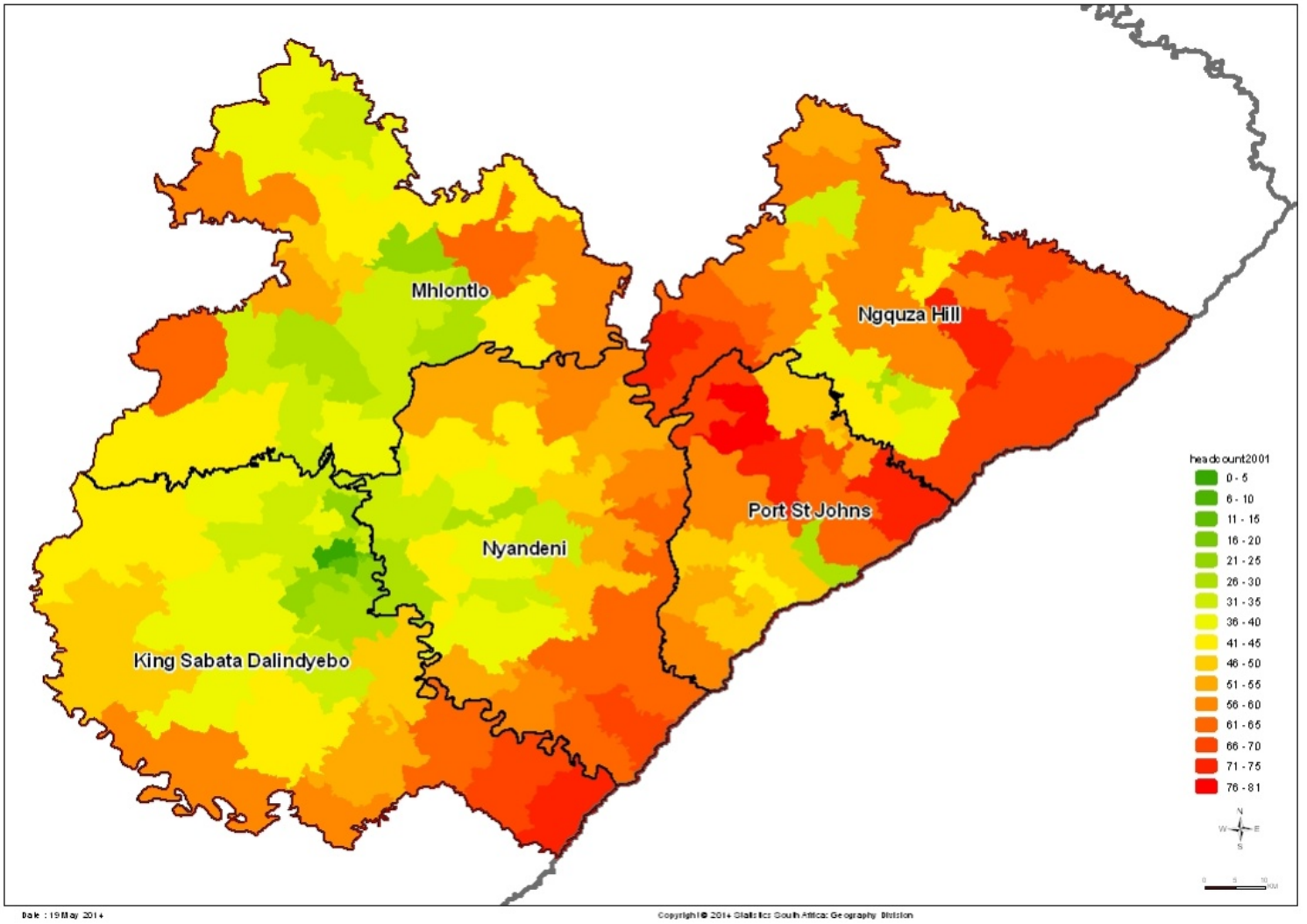


Figure A2b: Poverty headcount for OR Tambo district municipality, at ward level in 2011

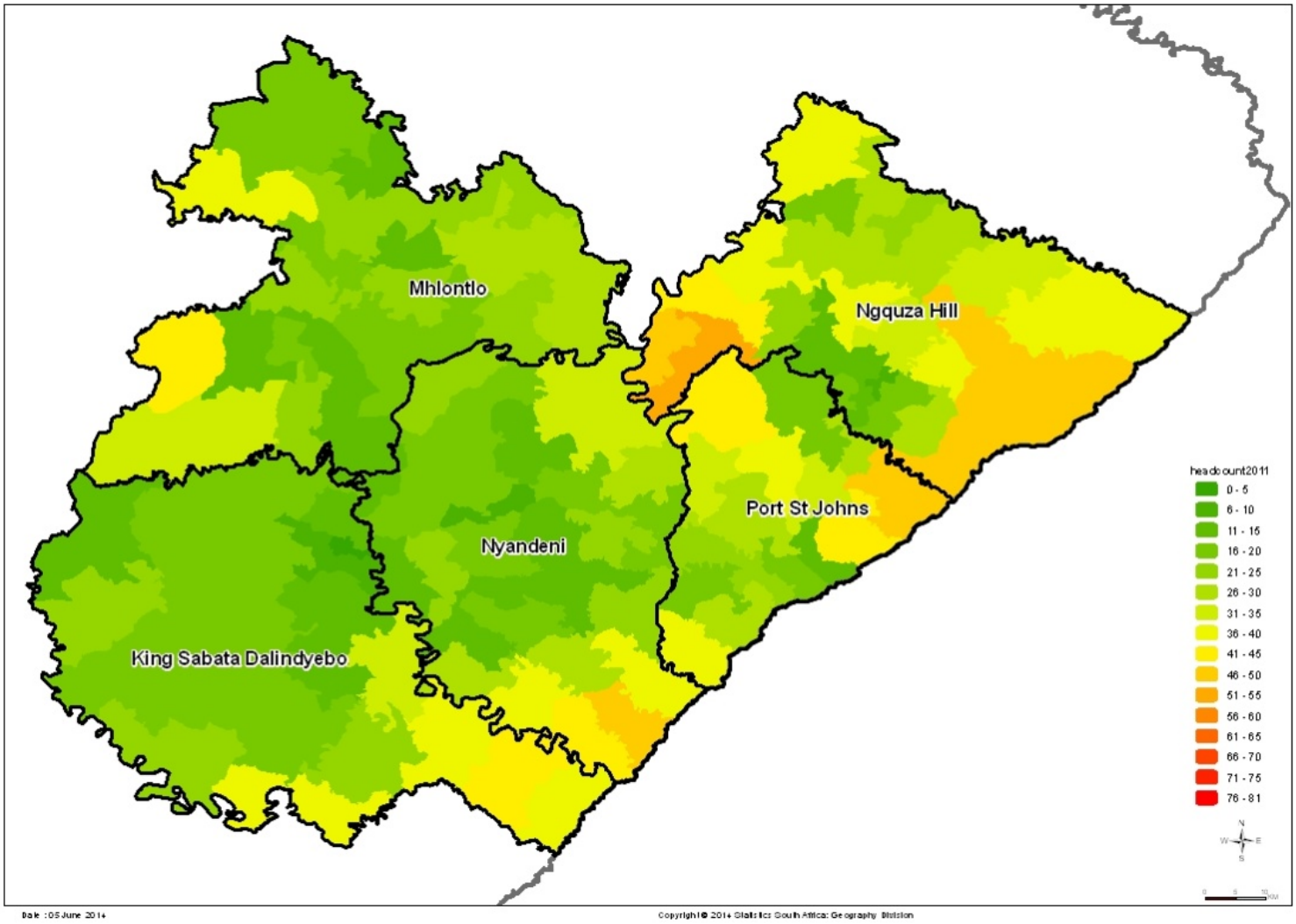


Figure A3a: Poverty headcount for Chris Hani district municipality, at ward level in 2001

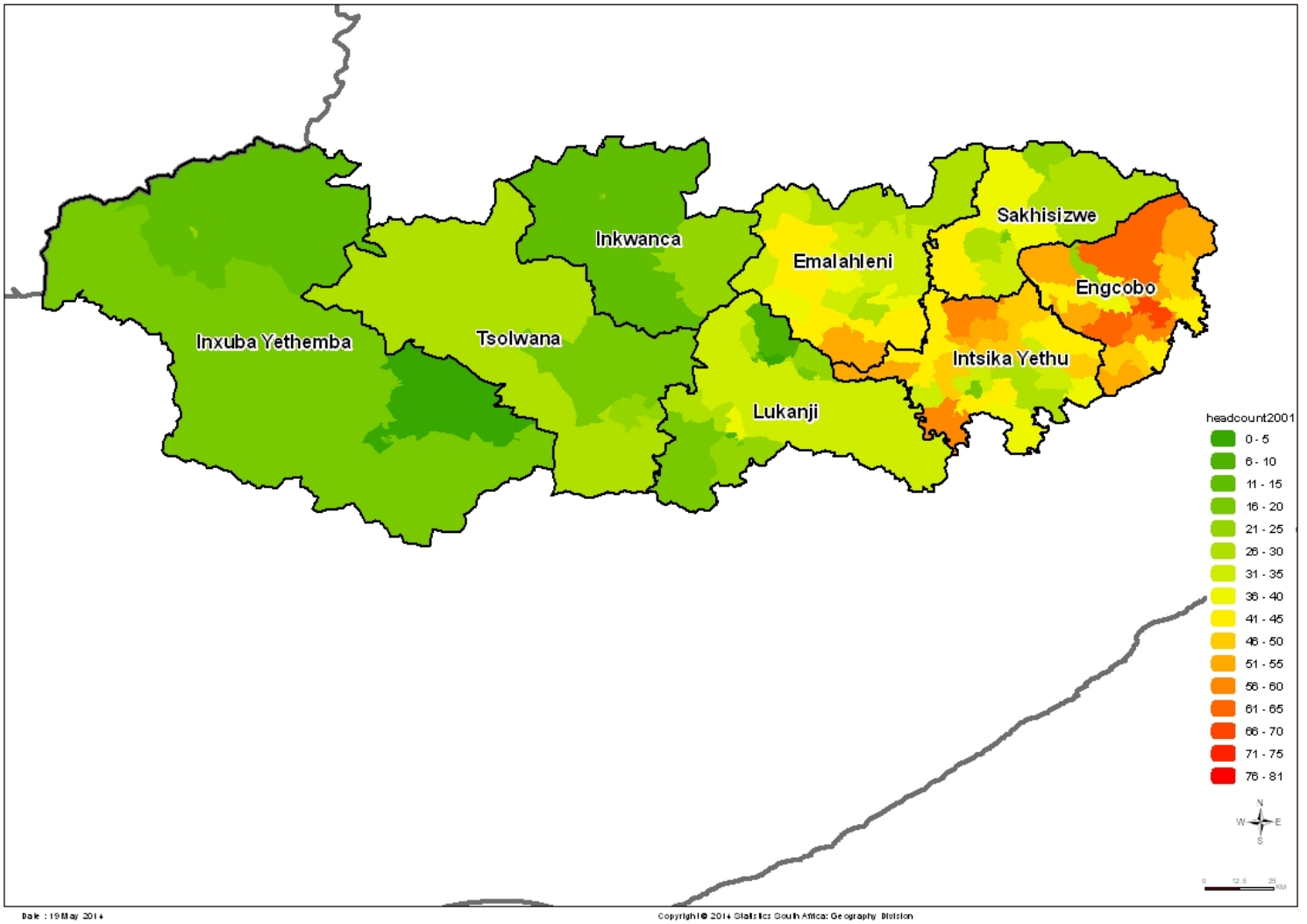


Figure A3b: Poverty headcount for Chris Hani district municipality, at ward level in 2011

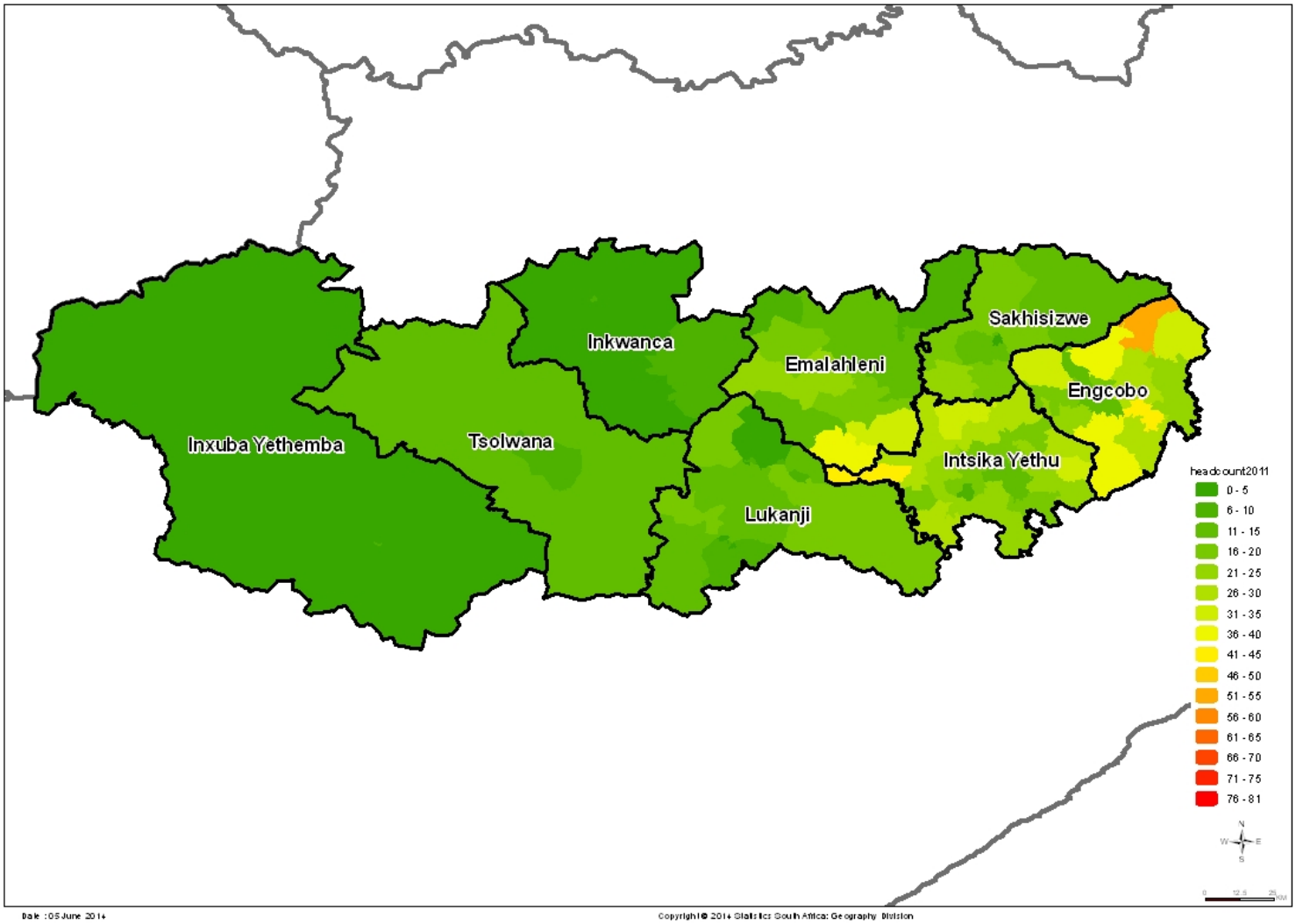


Figure A4a: Poverty headcount for Joe Gqabi district municipality, at ward level in 2001

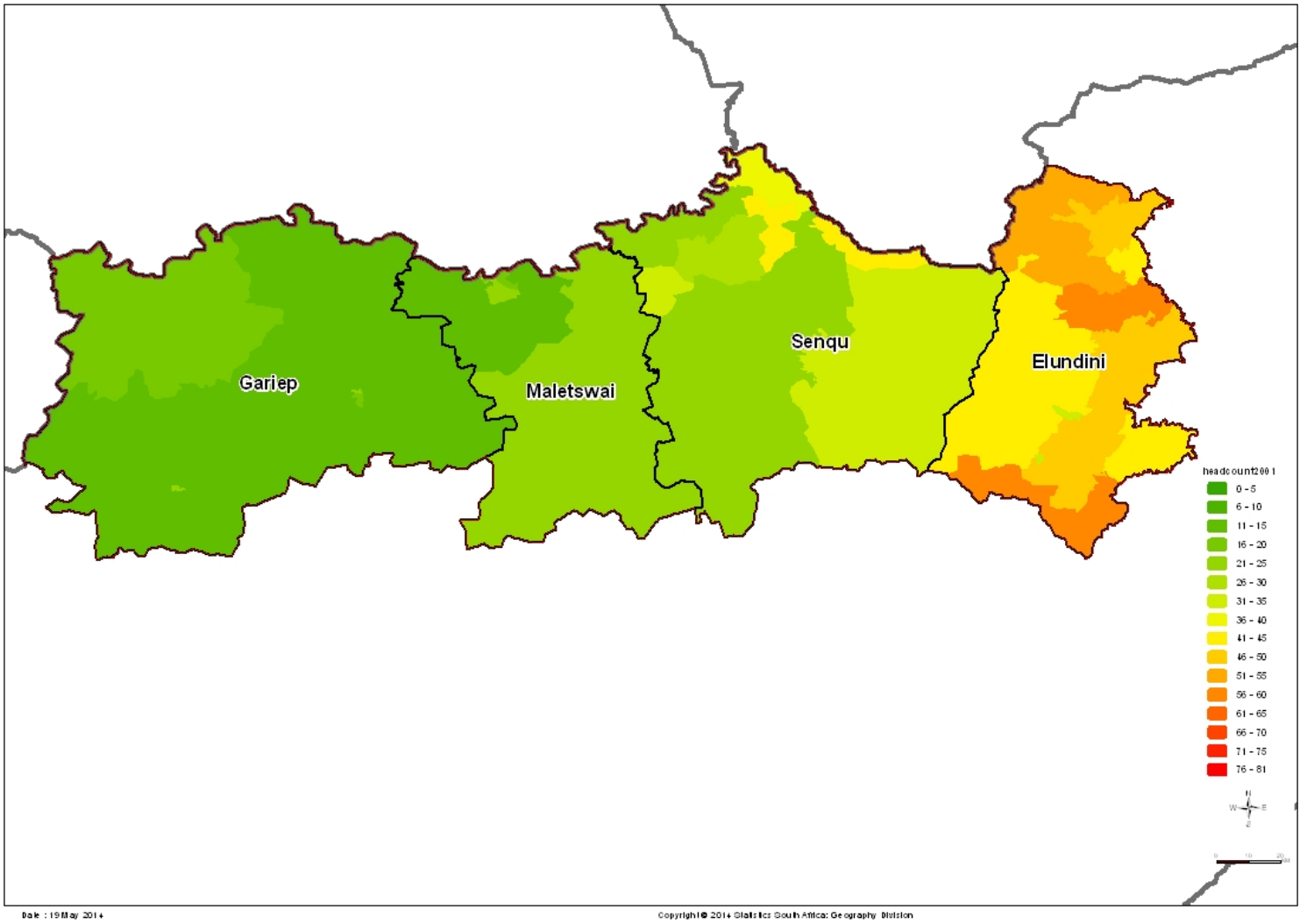


Figure A4b: Poverty headcount for Joe Gqabi district municipality, at ward level in 2011

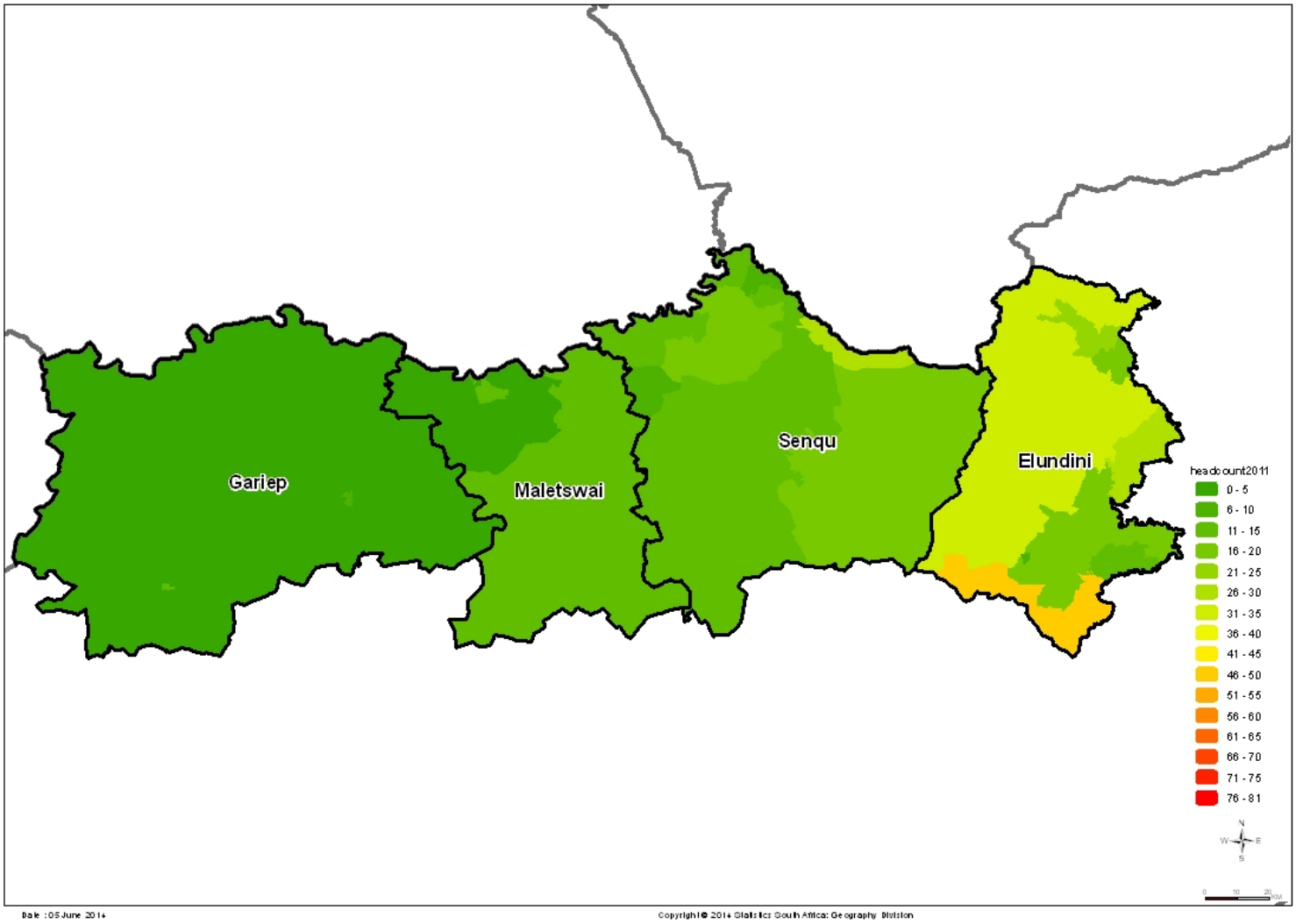


Figure A5a: Poverty headcount for Amathole district municipality, at ward level in 2001

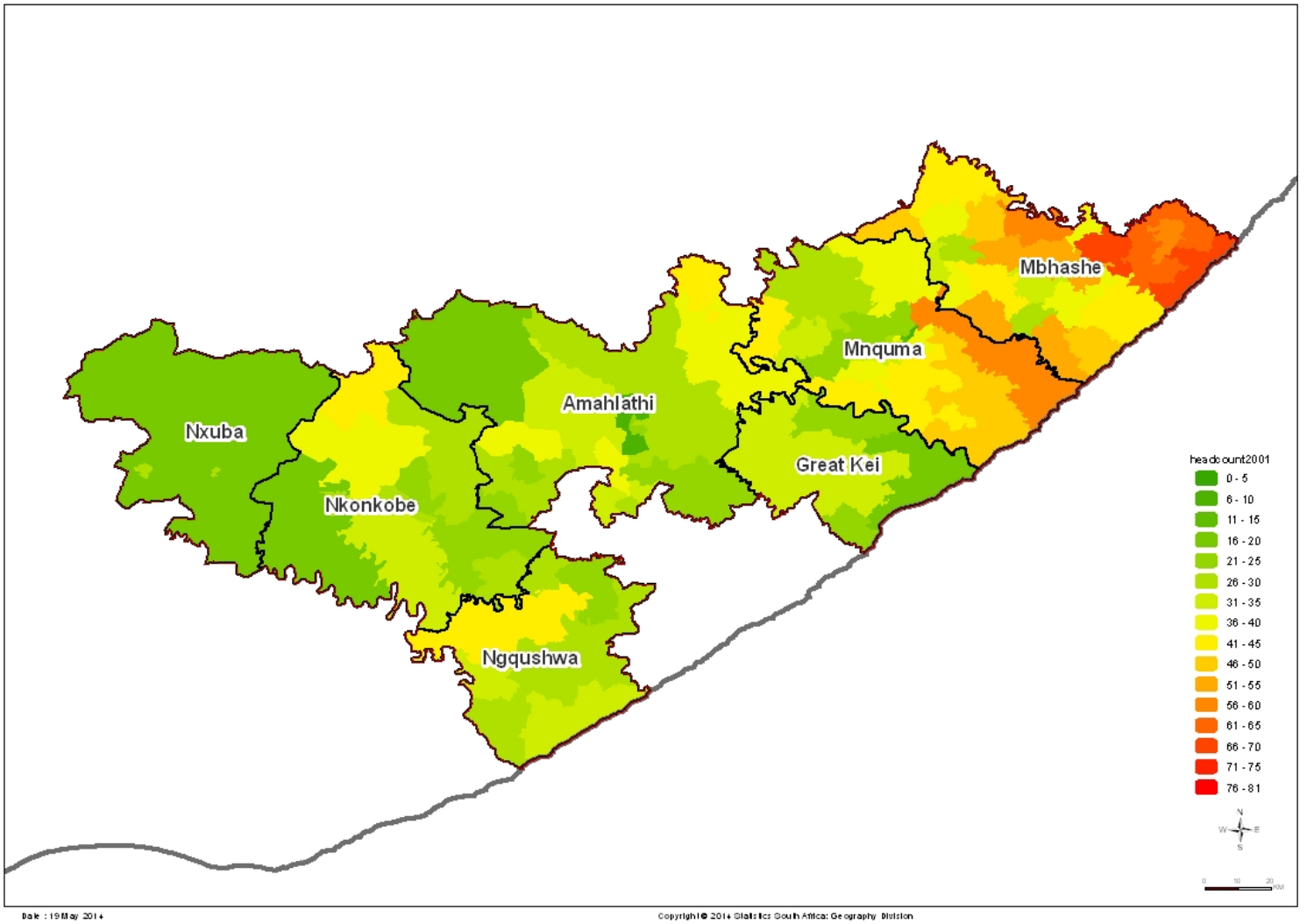


Figure A5b: Poverty headcount for Amathole district municipality, at ward level in 2011

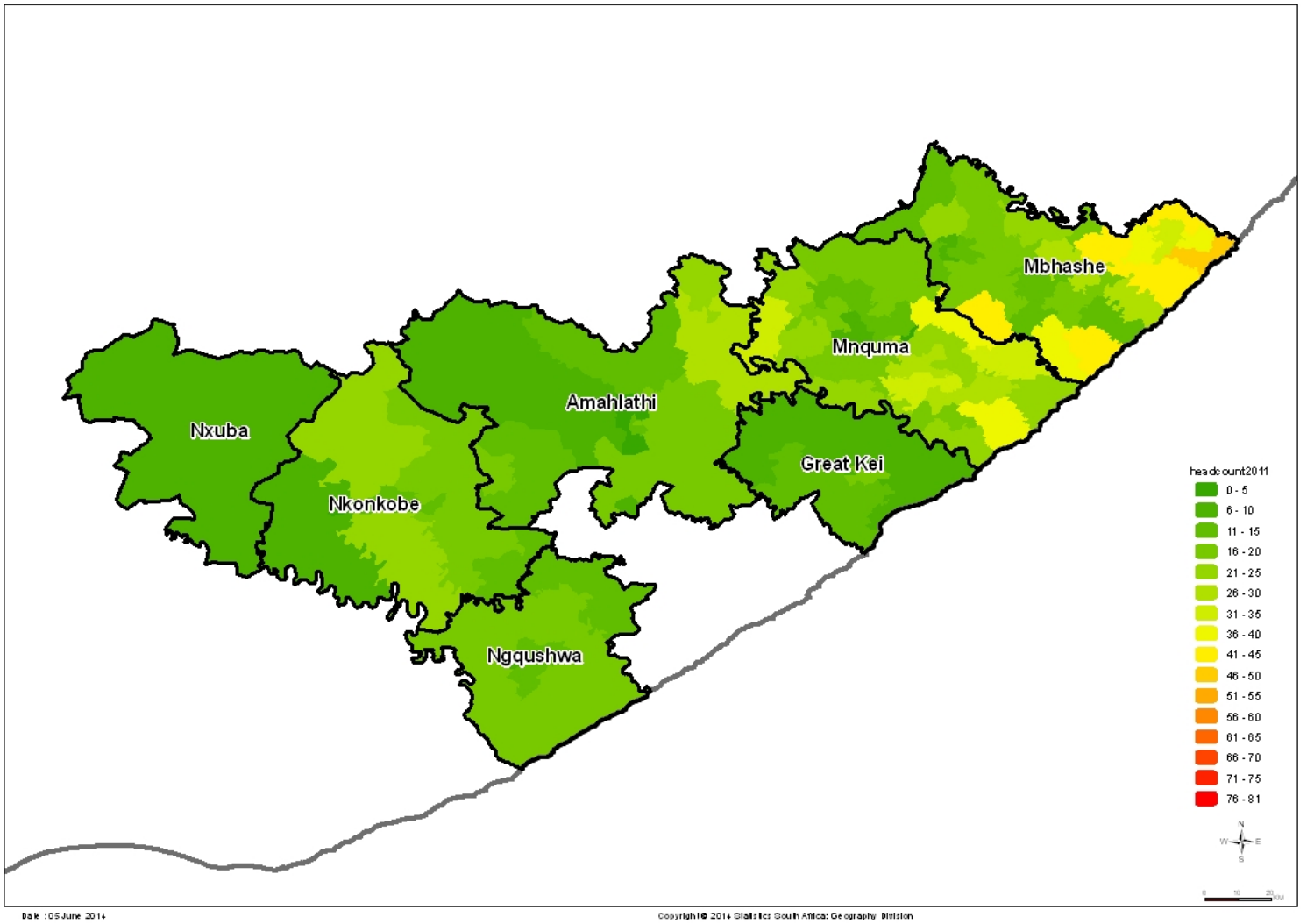


Figure A6a: Poverty headcount for uMkhanyakude district municipality, at ward level in 2001

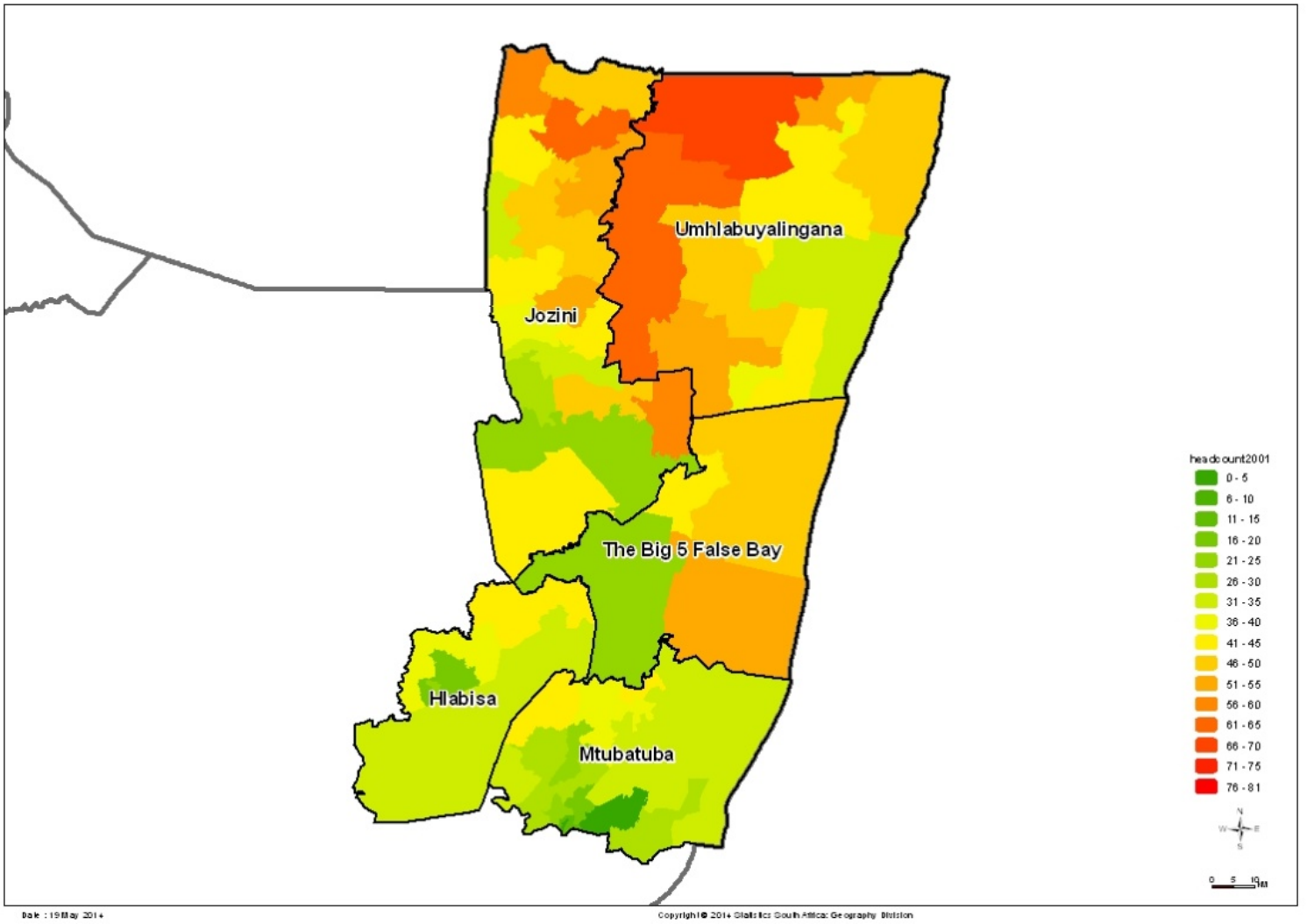


Figure A6b: Poverty headcount for uMkhanyakude district municipality, at ward level in 2011

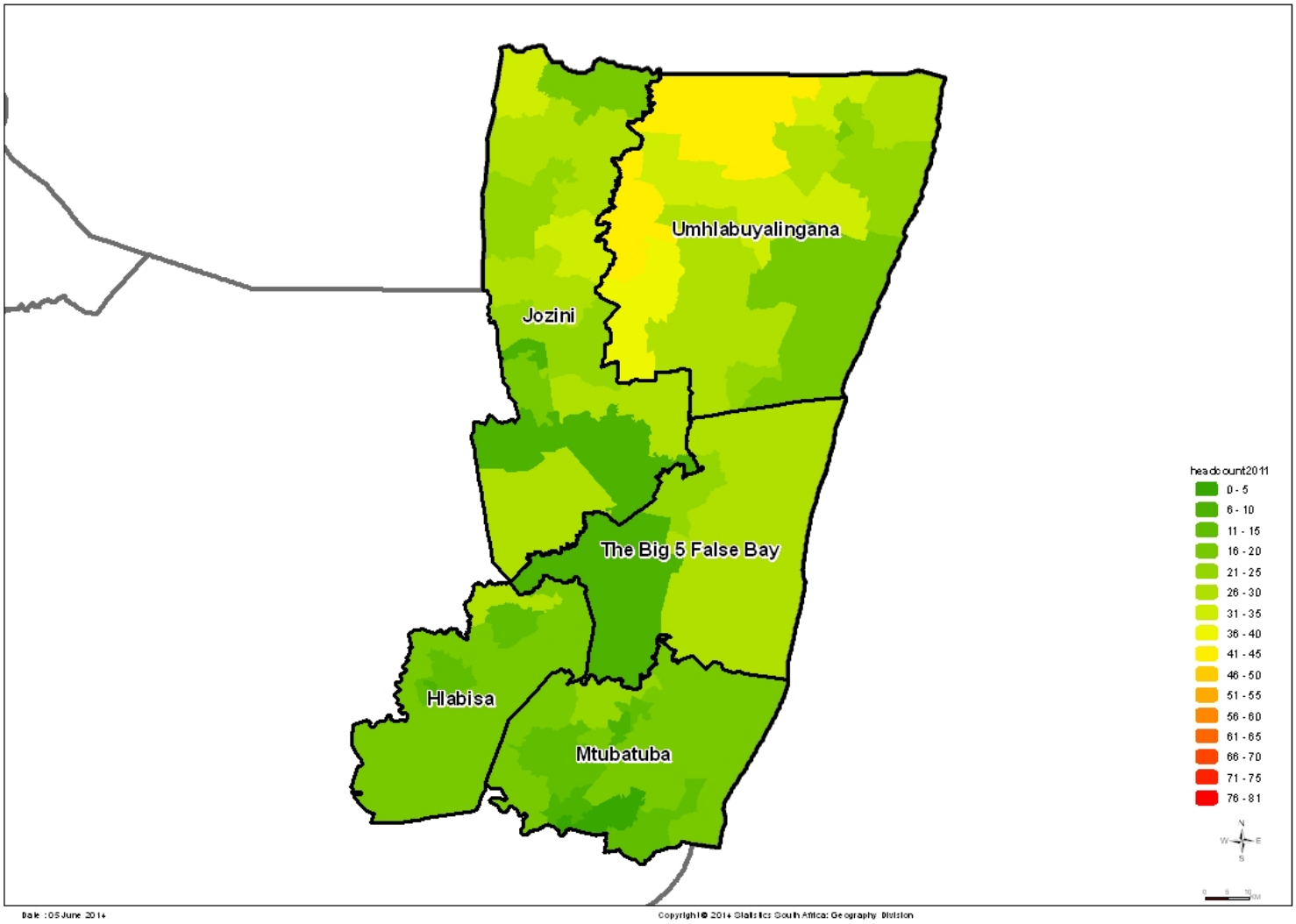


Figure A7a: Poverty headcount for Zululand district municipality, at ward level in 2001

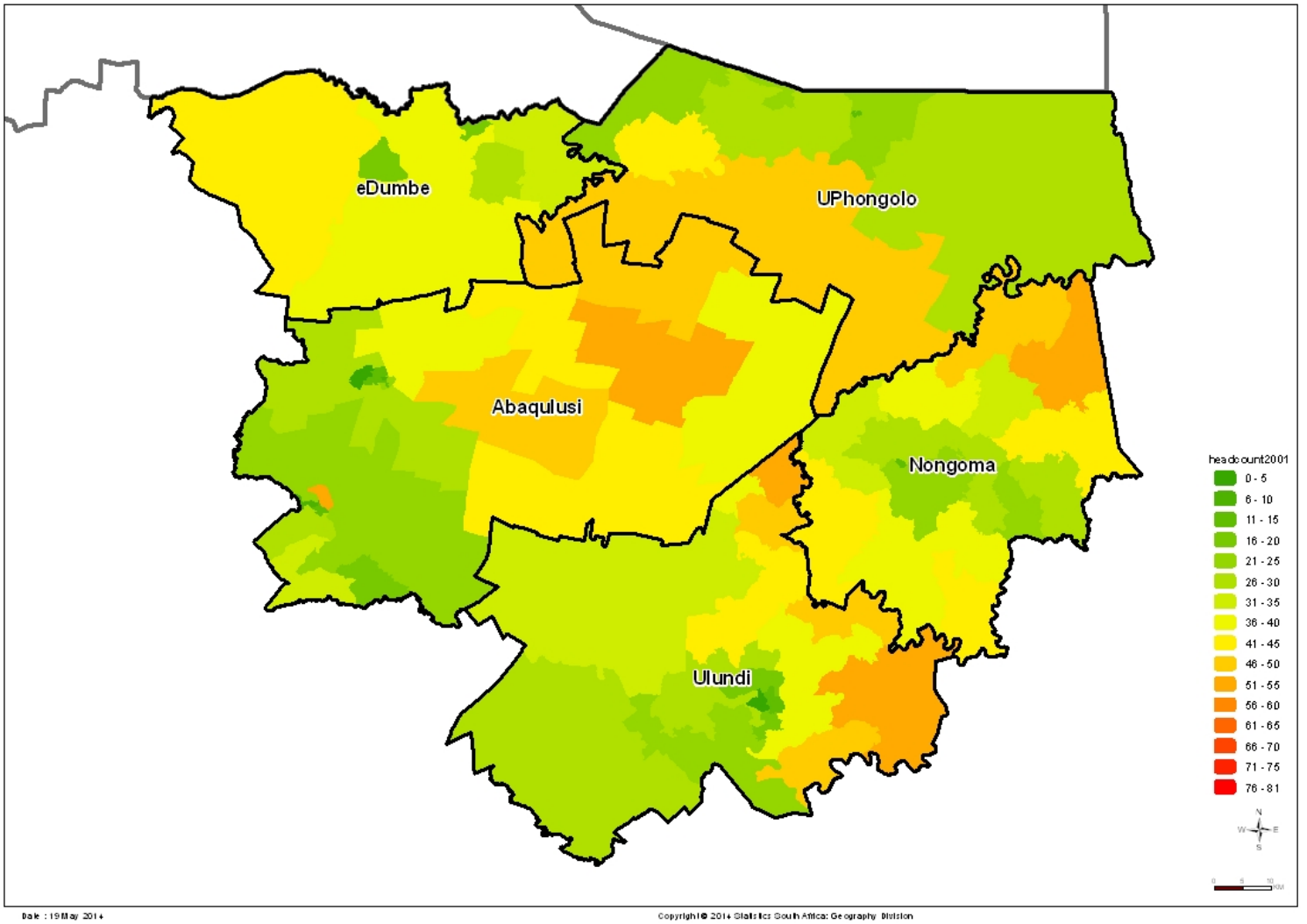


Figure A7b: Poverty headcount for Zululand district municipality, at ward level in 2011

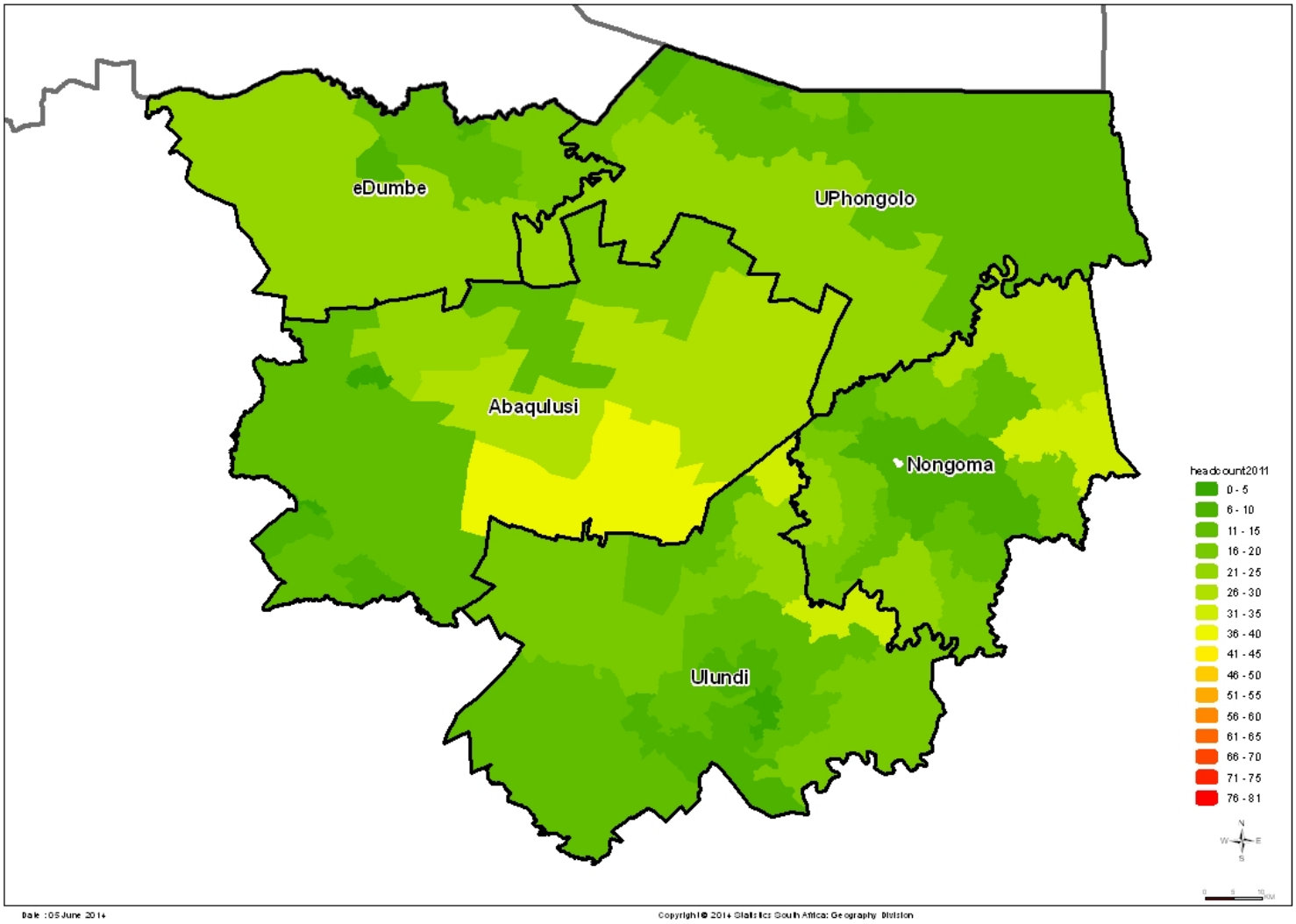


Figure A8a: Poverty headcount for uMzinyathi district municipality, at ward level in 2001

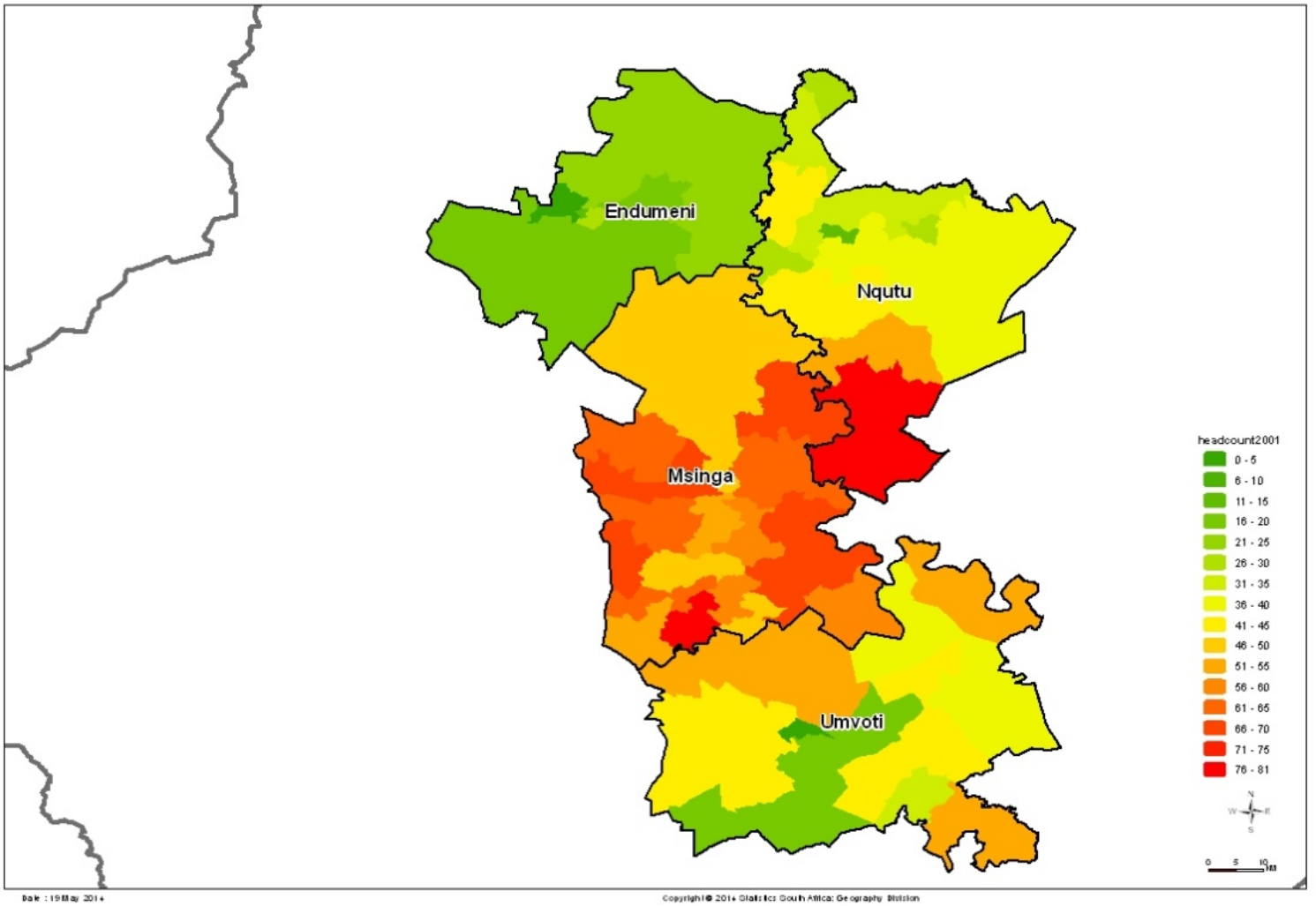


Figure A8b: Poverty headcount for uMzinyathi district municipality, at ward level in 2011

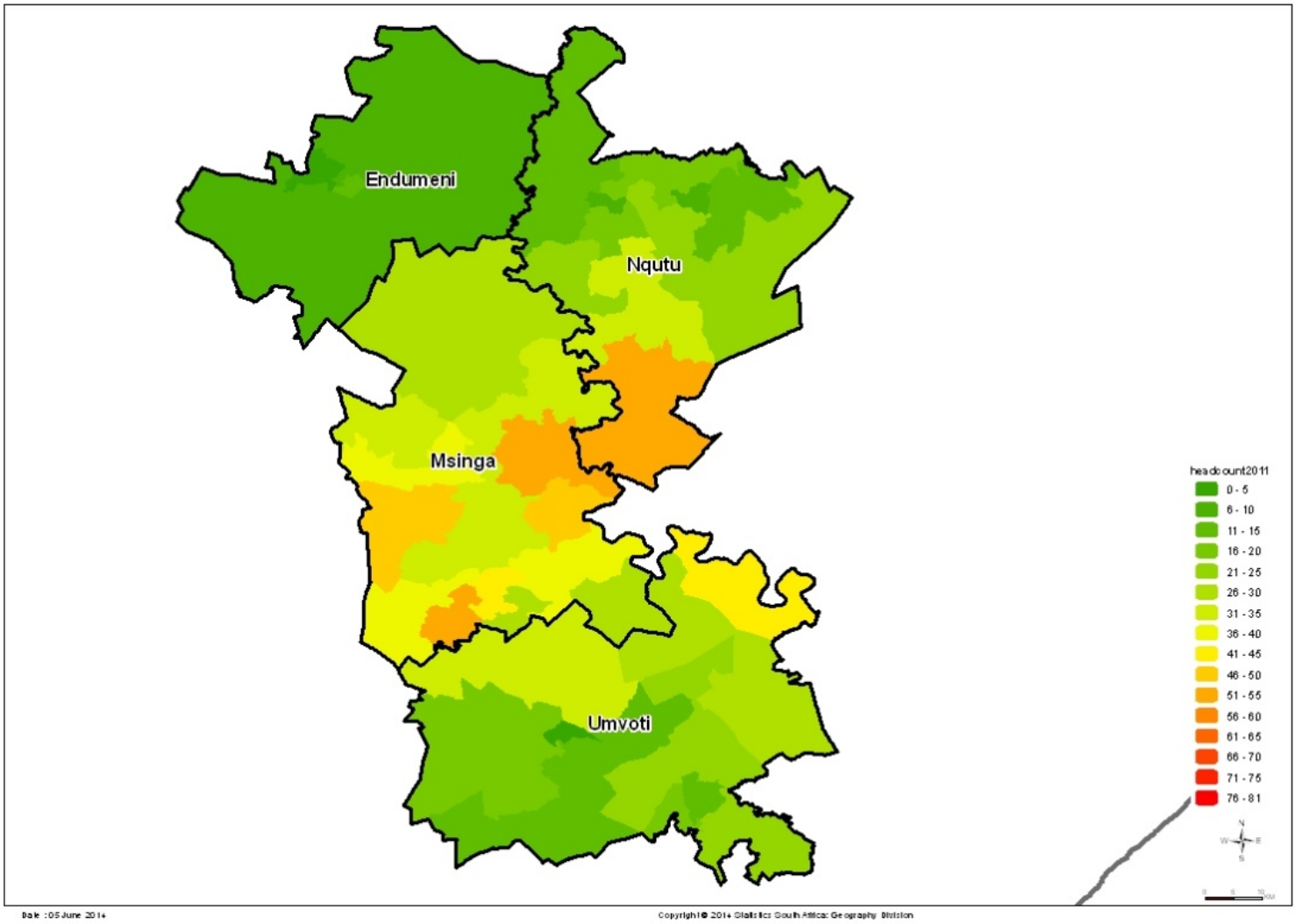


Figure A9a: Poverty headcount for uThukela district municipality, at ward level in 2001

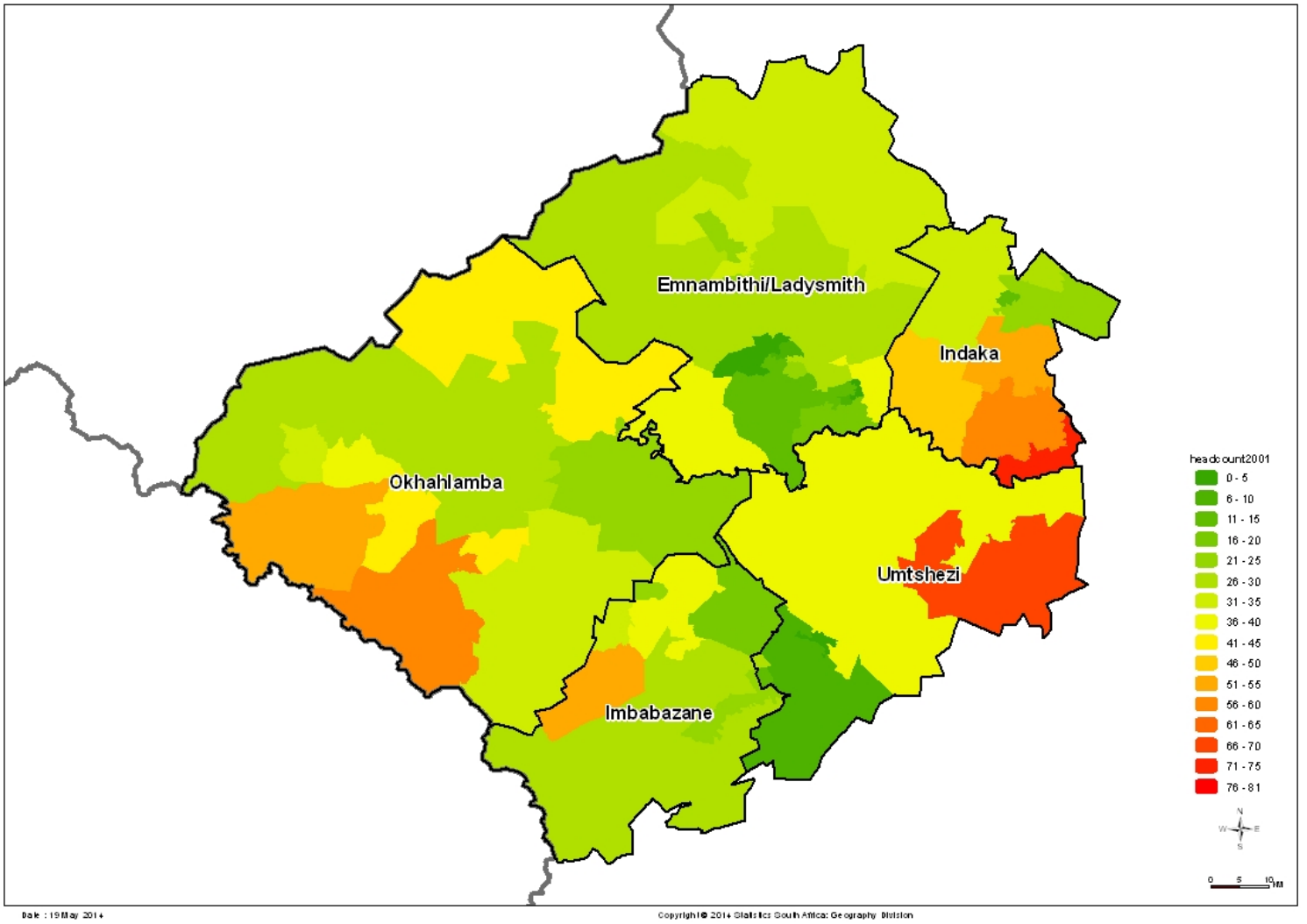


Figure A9b: Poverty headcount for uThukela district municipality, at ward level in 2011

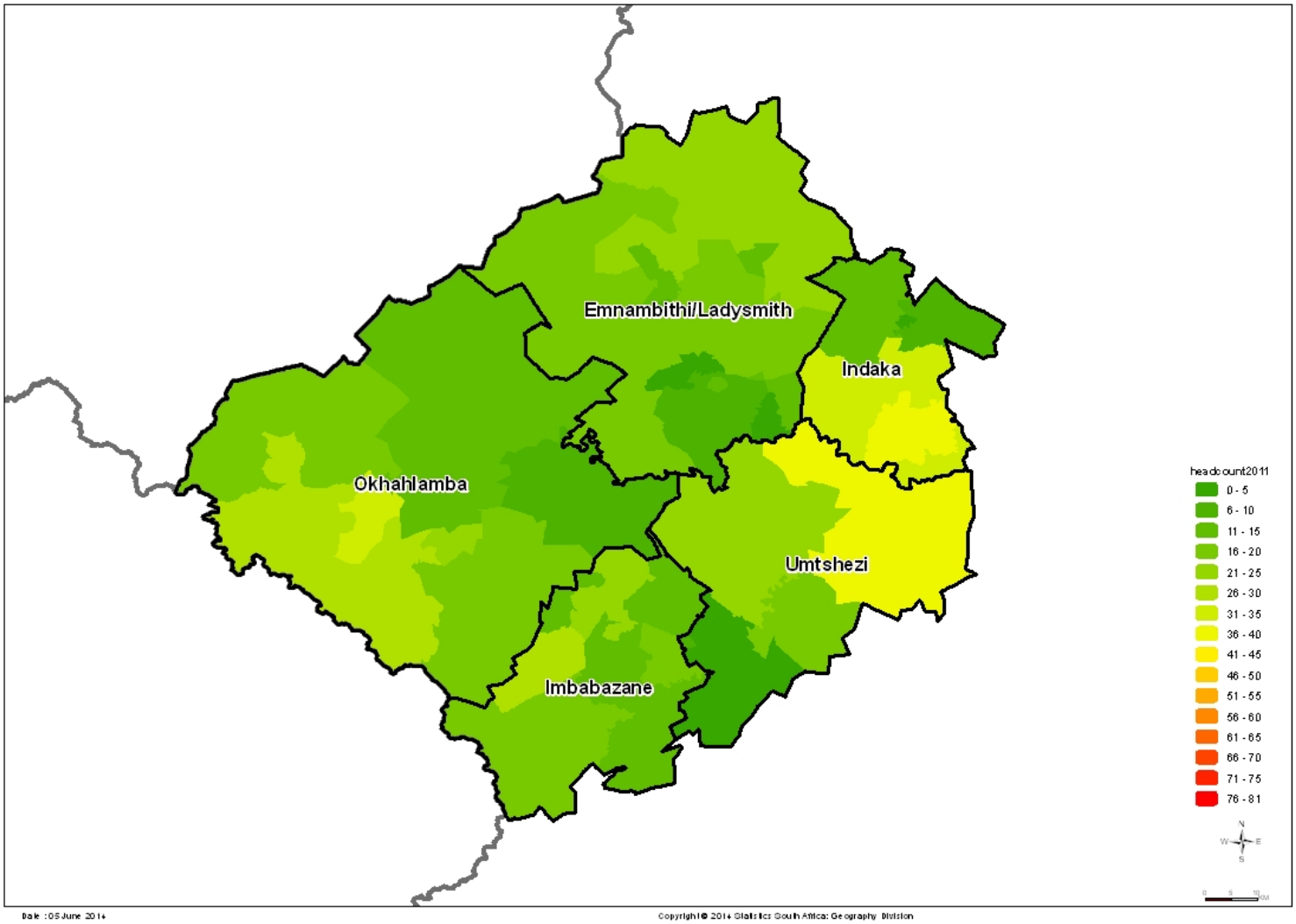


Figure A10a: Poverty headcount for uMgungundlovu district municipality, at ward level in 2001

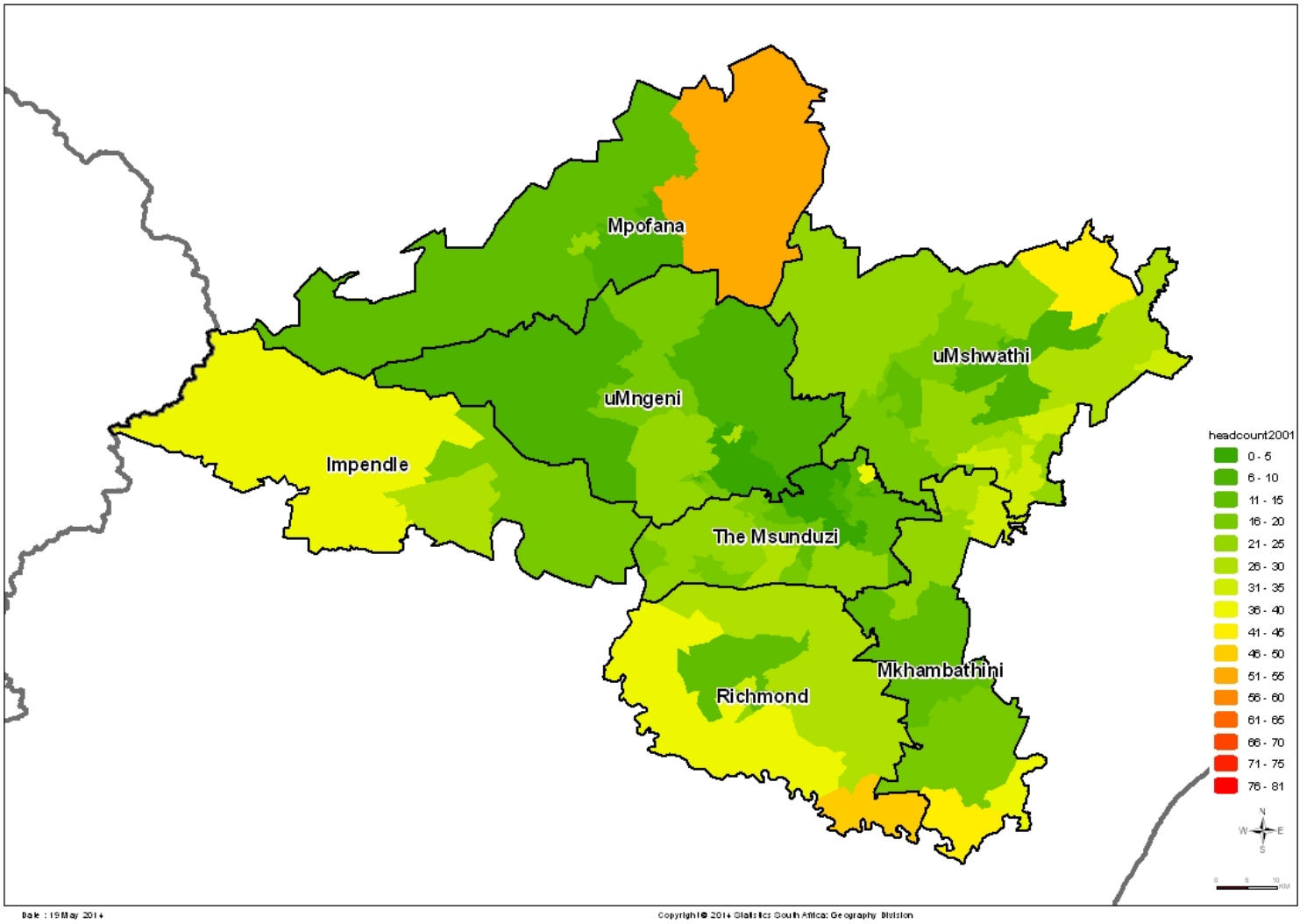


Figure A10b: Poverty headcount for uMgungundlovu district municipality, at ward level in 2011

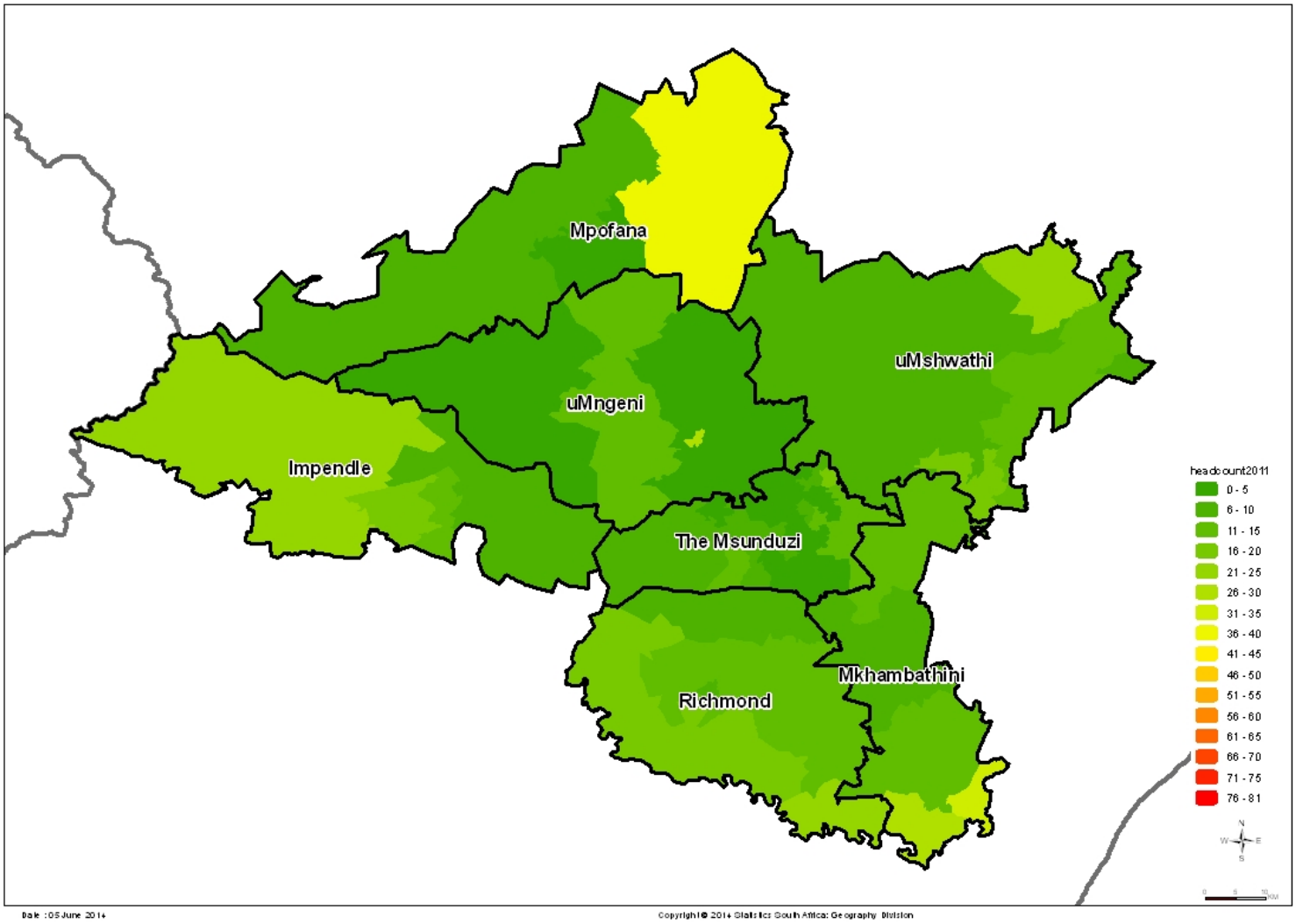


Figure A11a: Poverty headcount for Ugu district municipality, at ward level in 2001

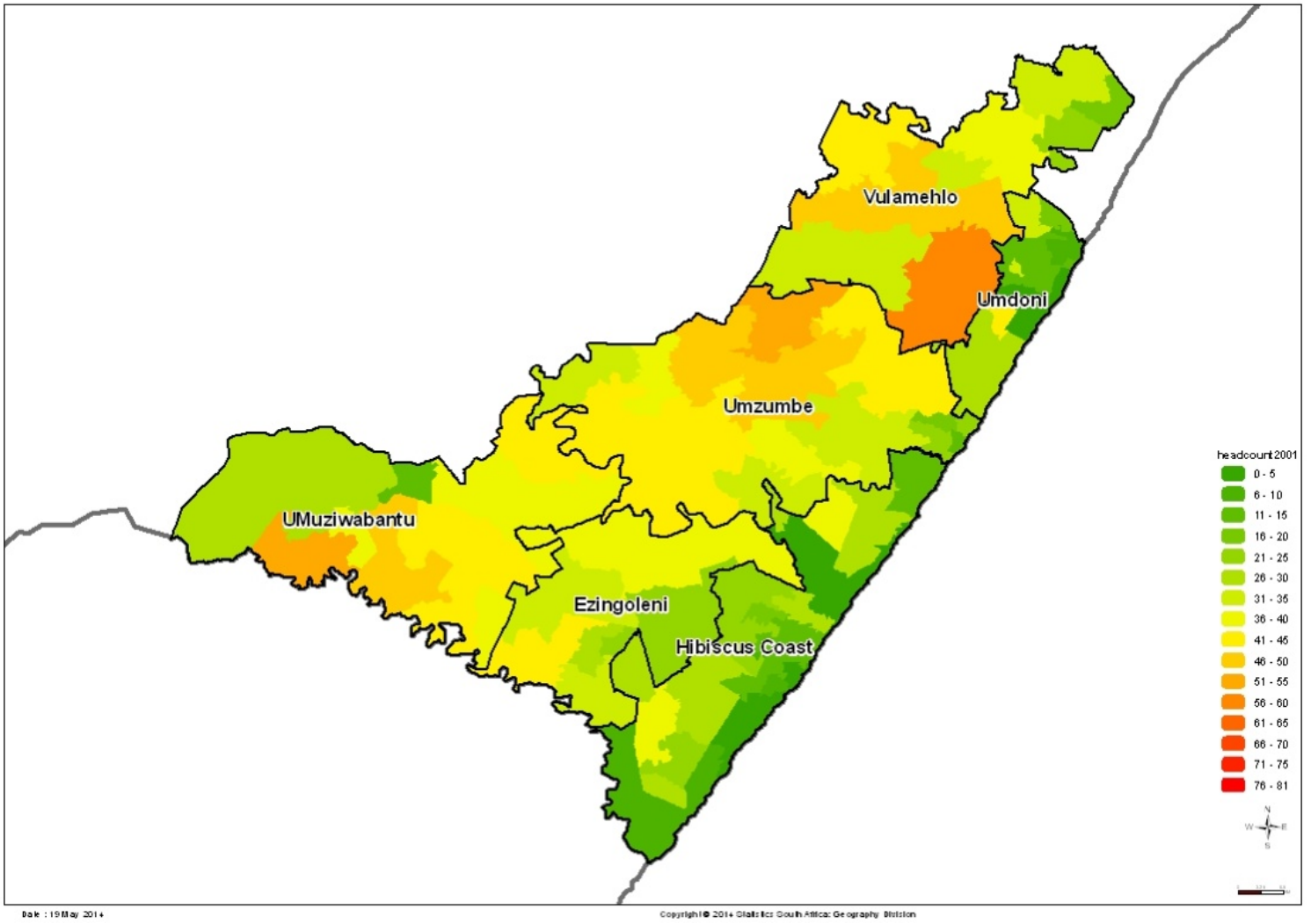


Figure A11b: Poverty headcount for Ugu district municipality, at ward level in 2011

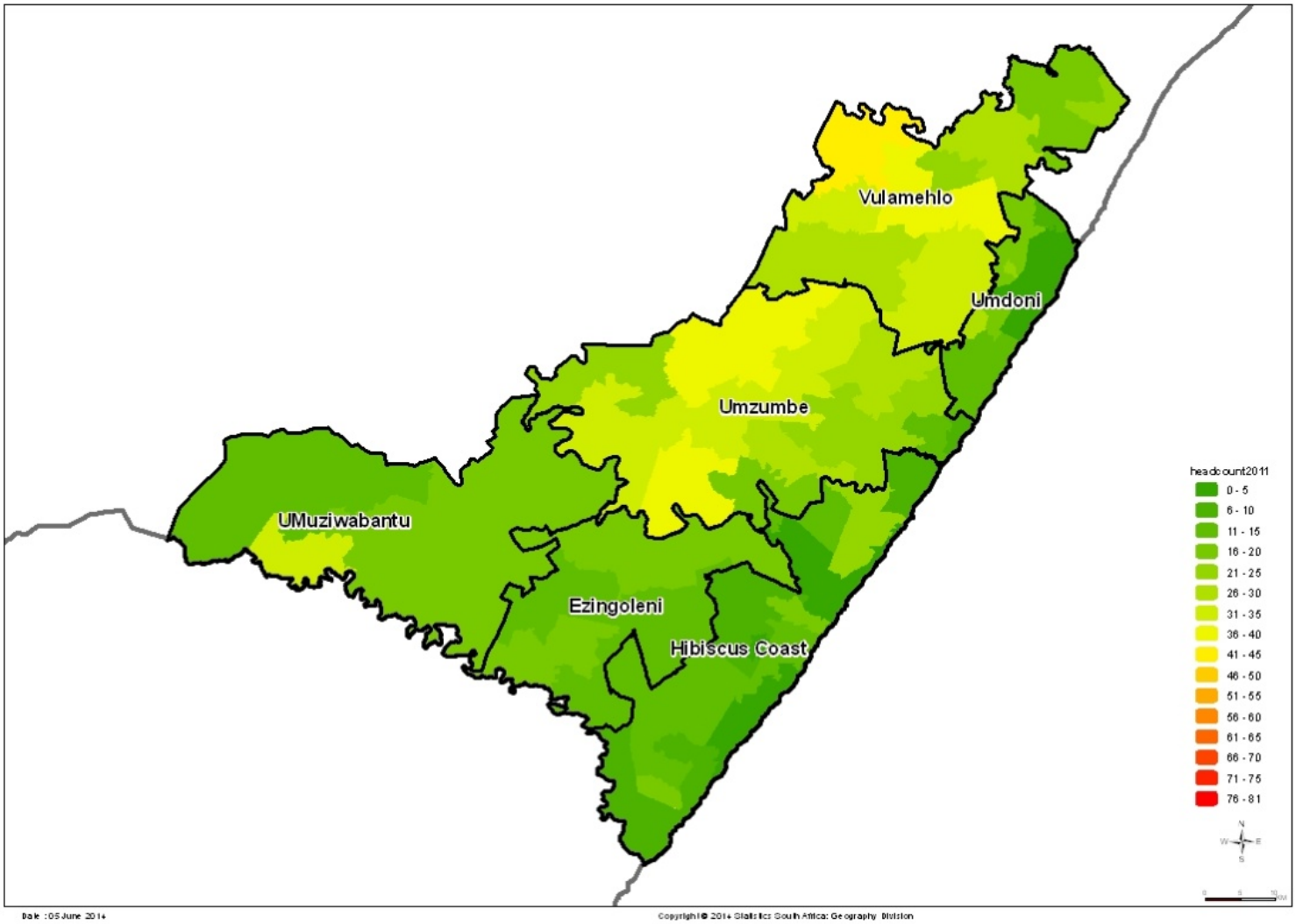


Figure A12a: Poverty headcount for Sisonke district municipality, at ward level in 2001

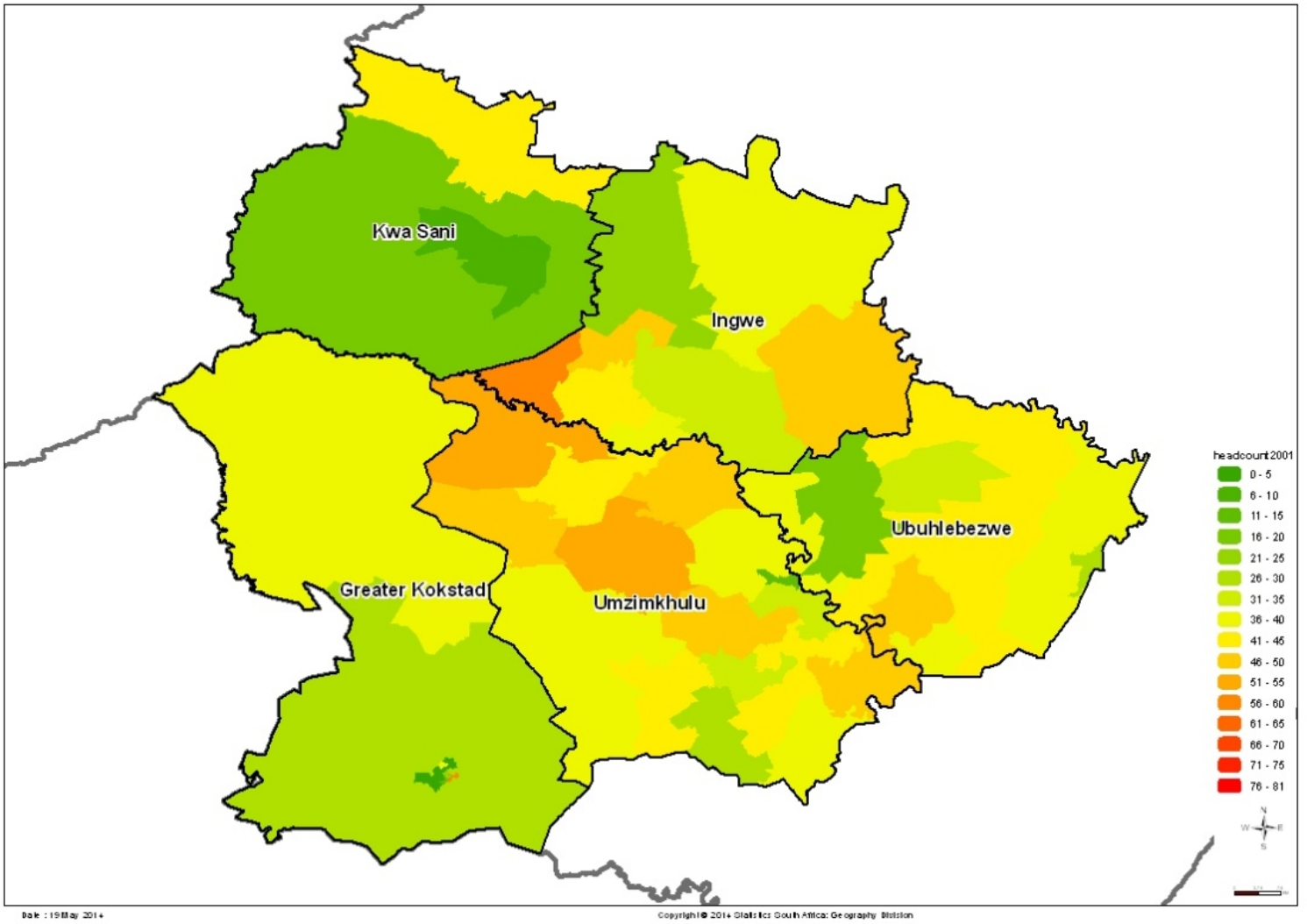


Figure A12b: Poverty headcount for Sisonke district municipality, at ward level in 2011

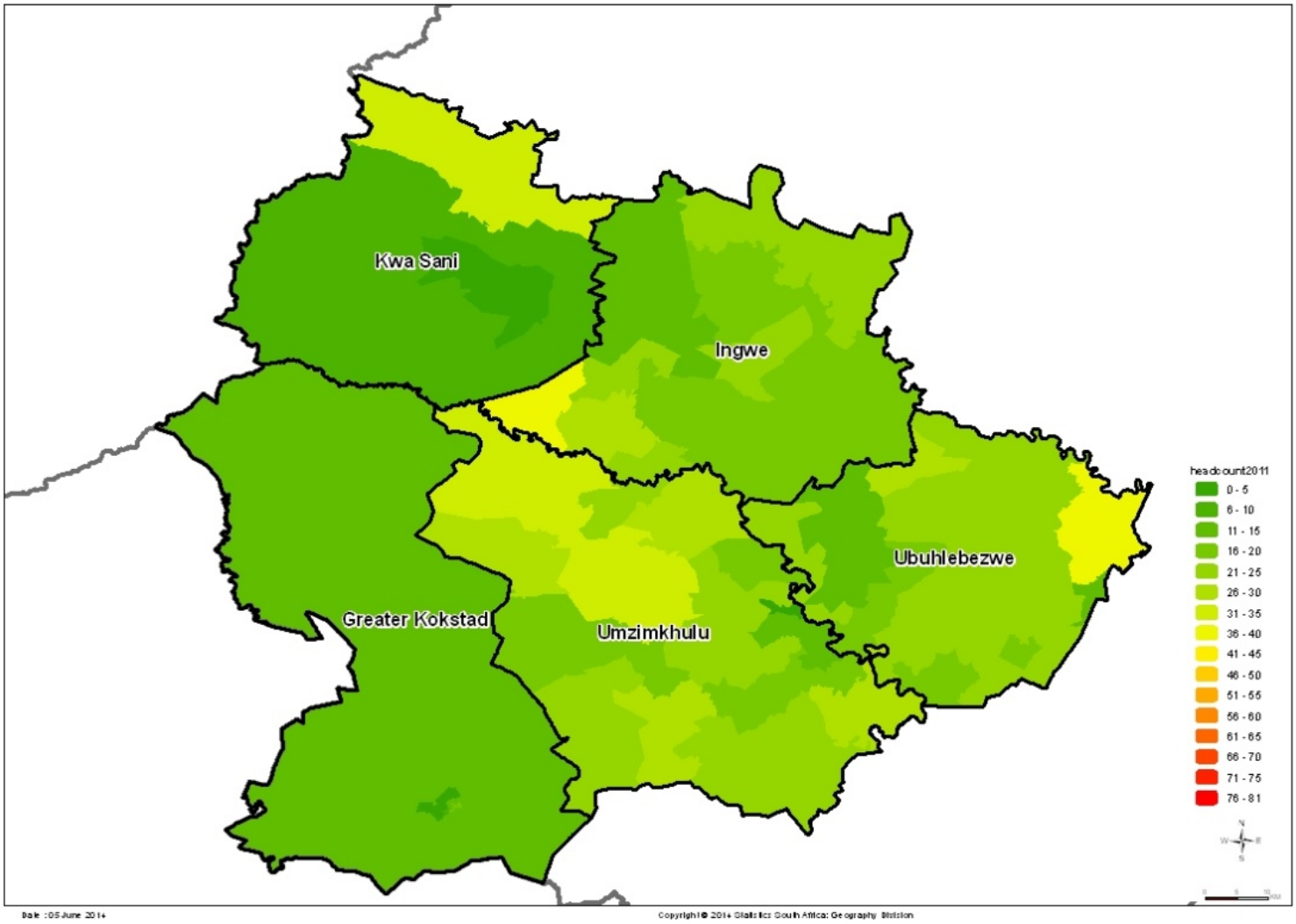


Figure A13a: Poverty headcount for Ehlanzeni district municipality, at ward level in 2001

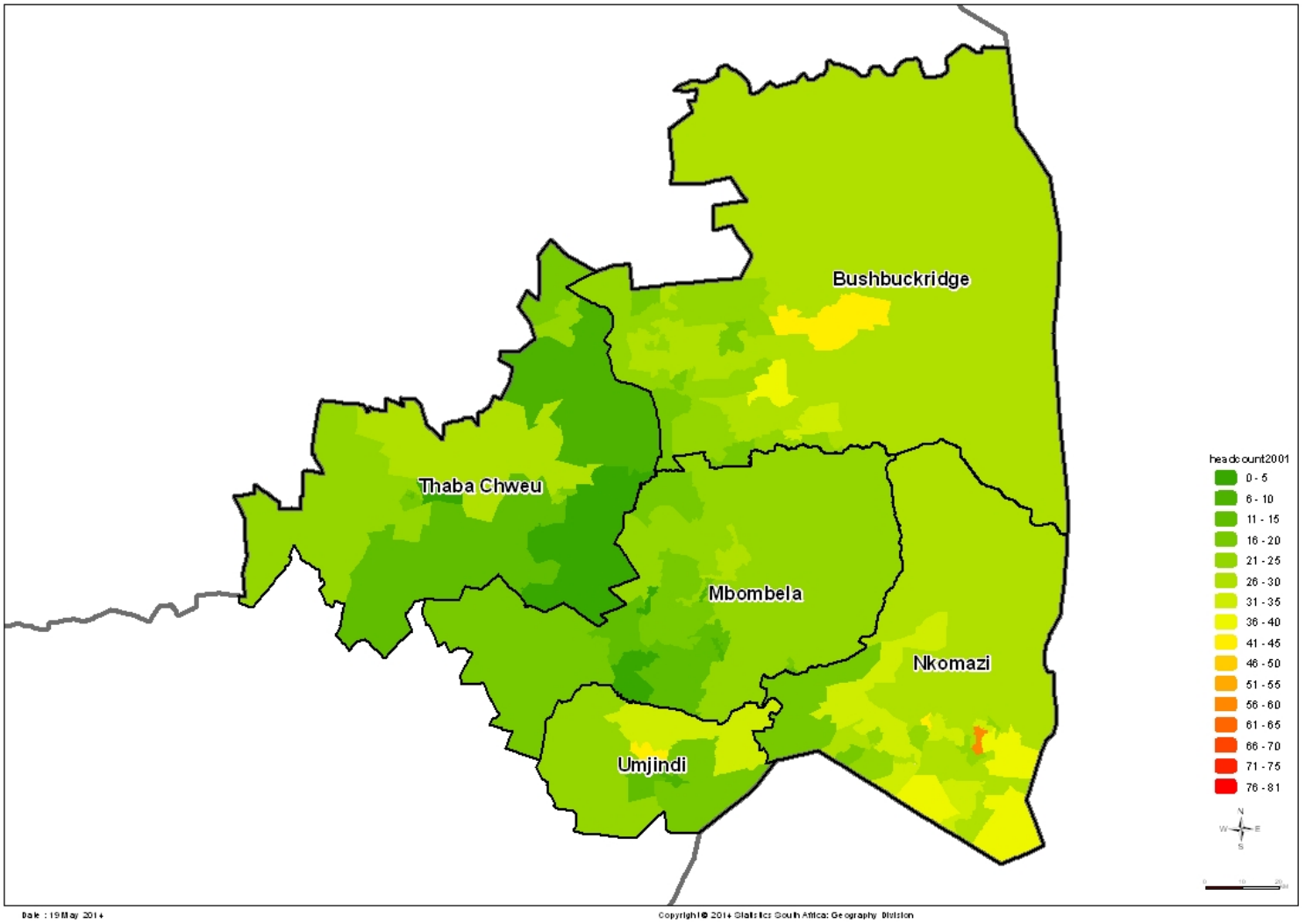


Figure A13b: Poverty headcount for Ehlanzeni district municipality, at ward level in 2011

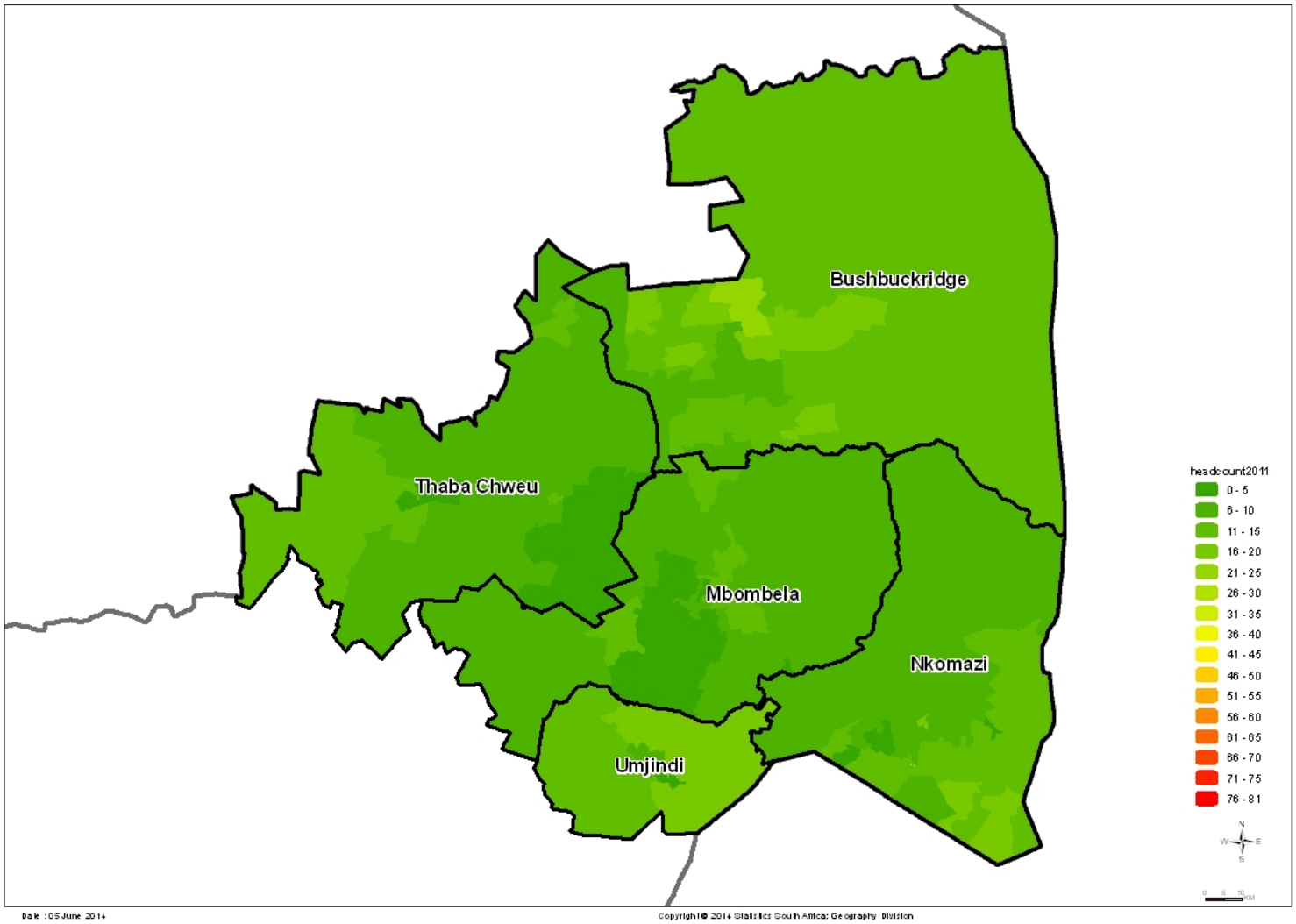


Figure A14a: Poverty headcount for Greater Sekhukhune district municipality, at ward level in 2001

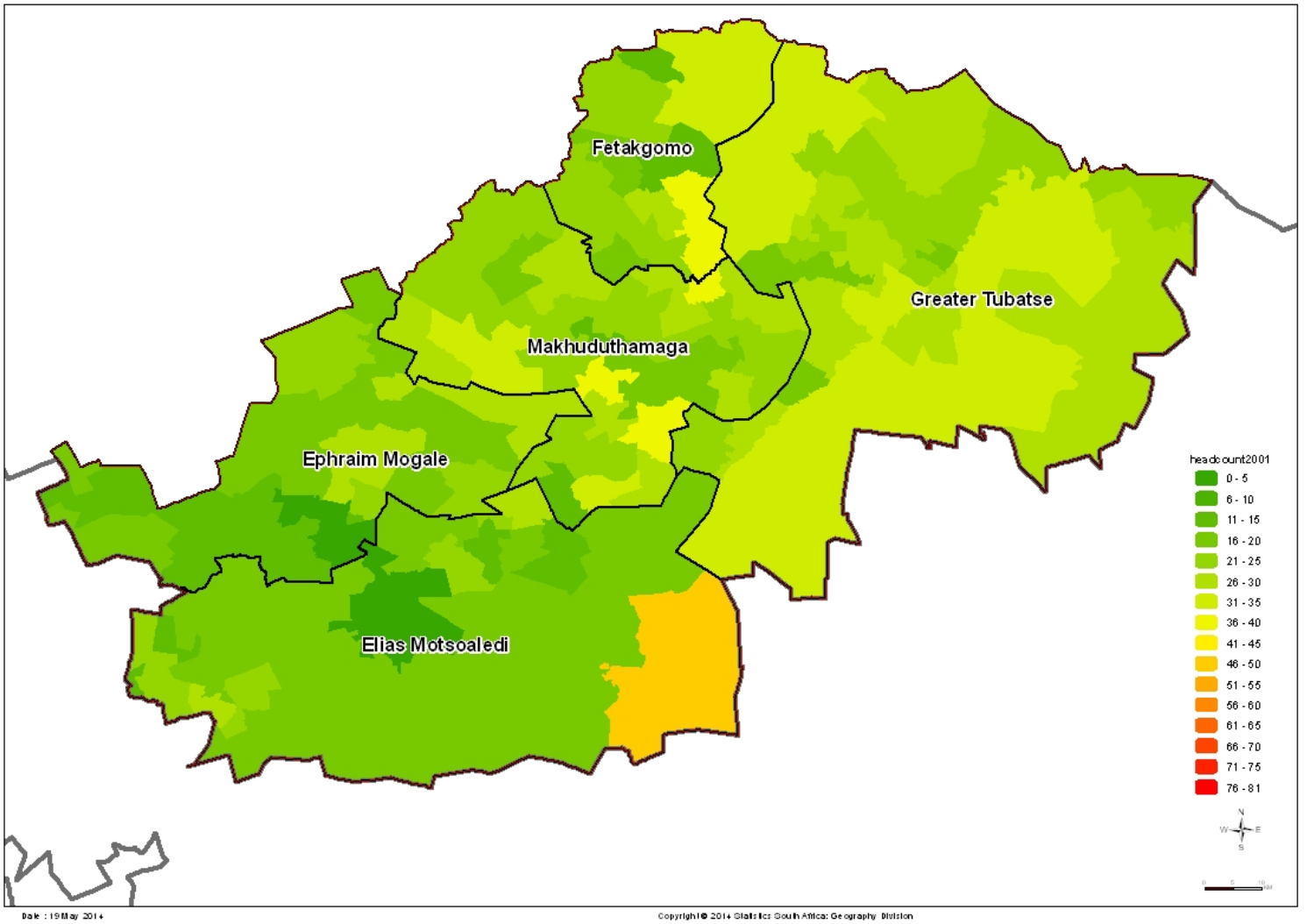


Figure A14b: Poverty headcount for Greater Sekhukhune district municipality, at ward level in 2011

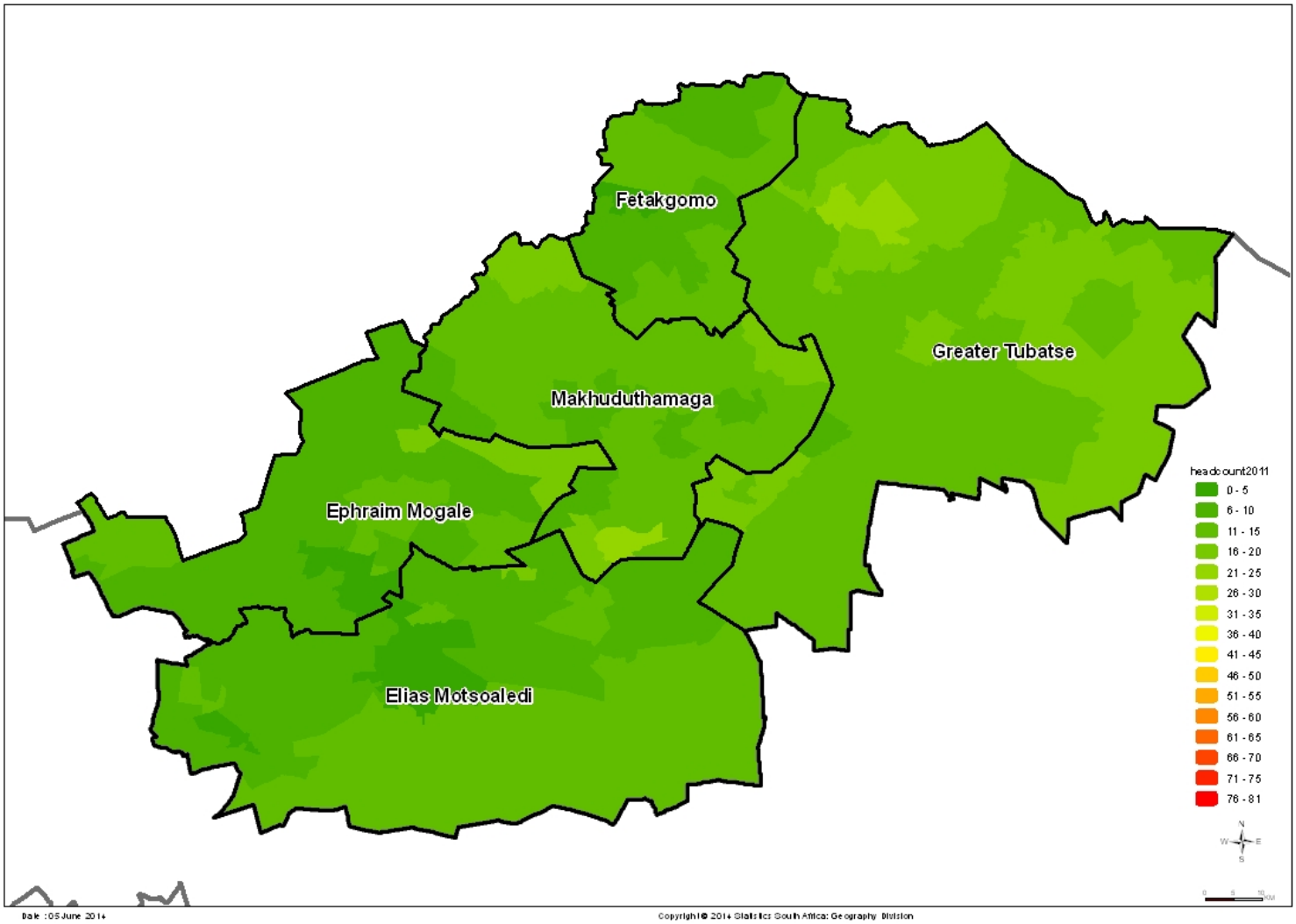


Figure A15a: Poverty headcount for Mopani district municipality, at ward level in 2001

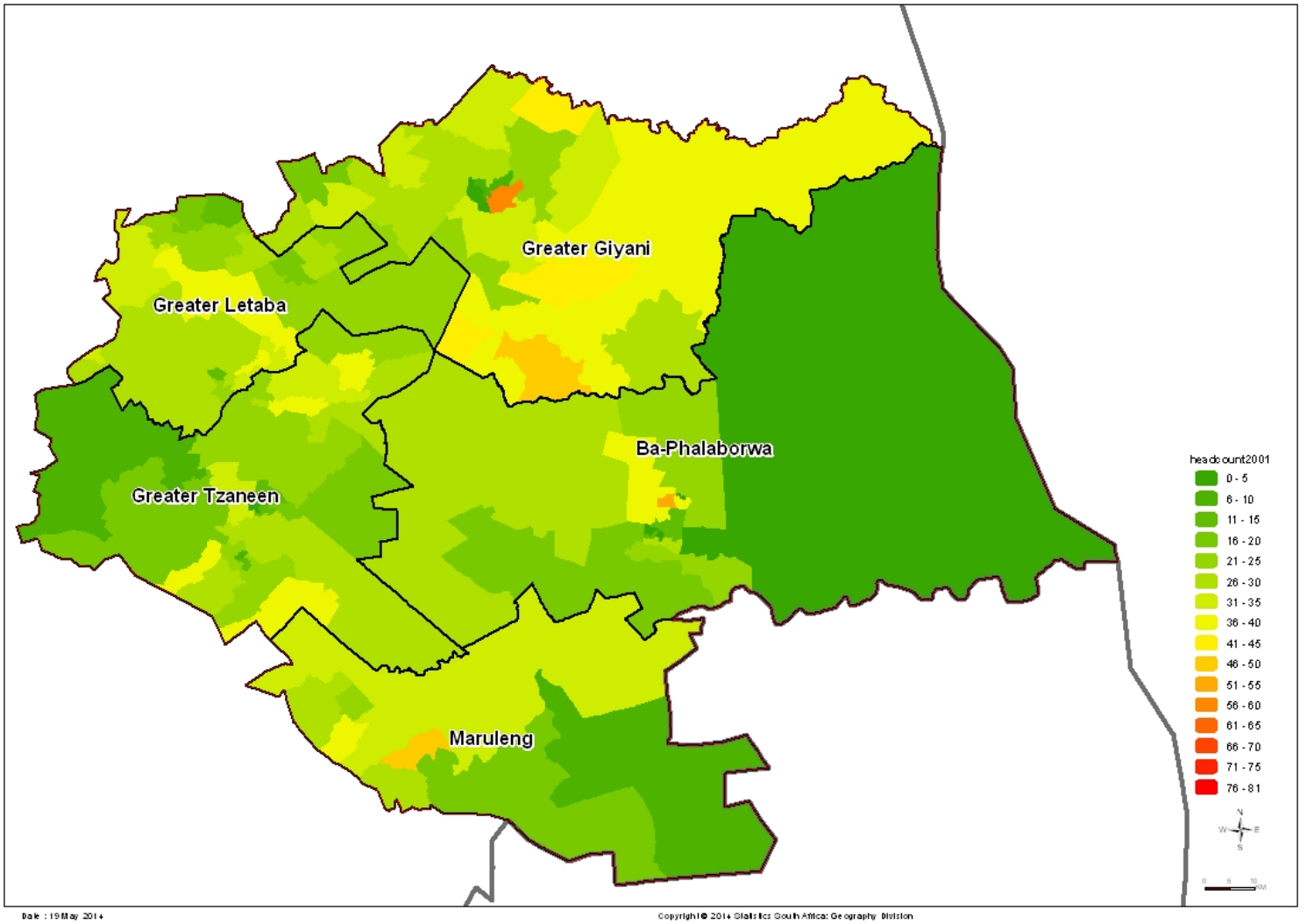


Figure A15b: Poverty headcount for Mopani district municipality, at ward level in 2011

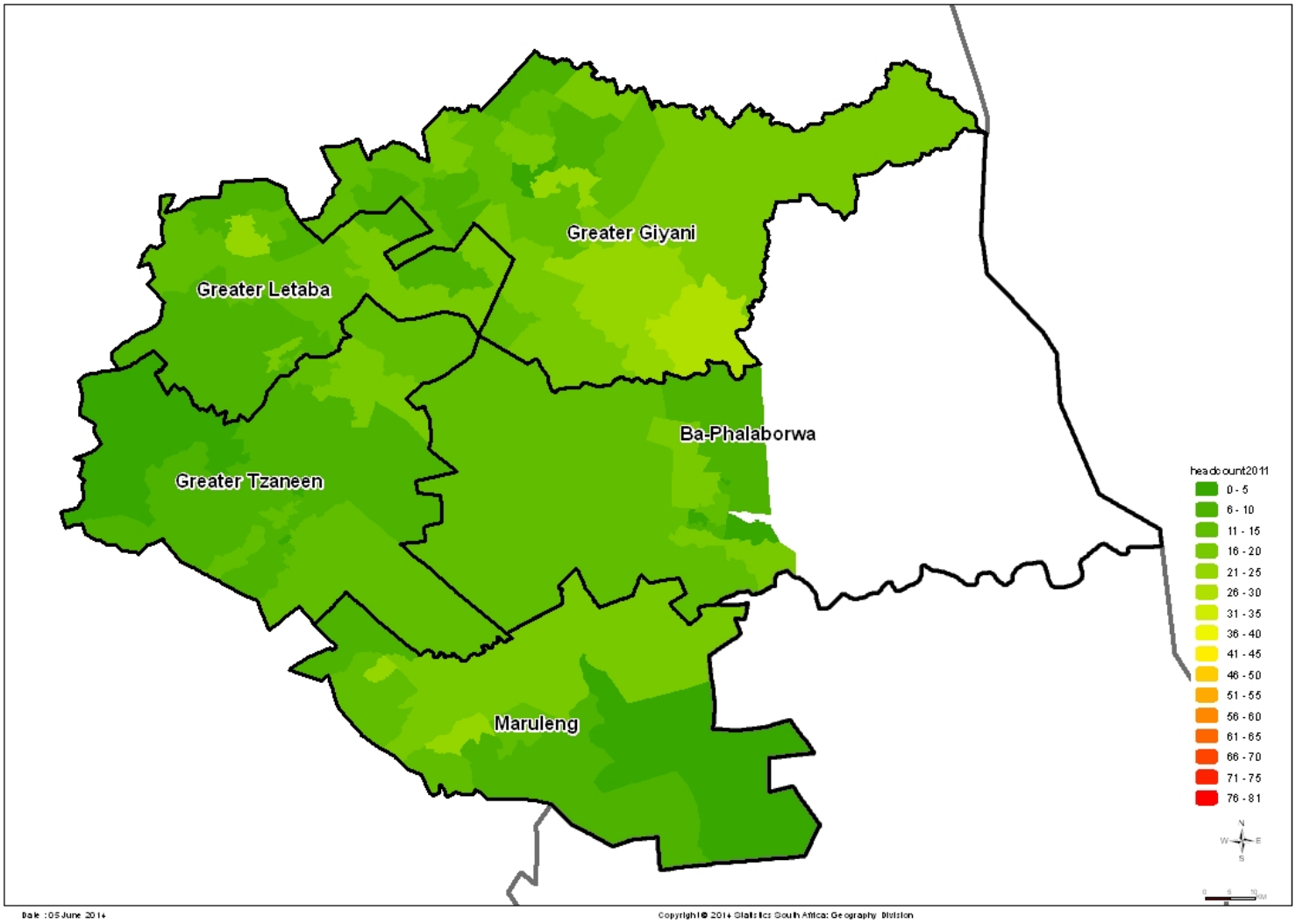


Figure A16a: Poverty headcount for Thabo Mofutsanyane district municipality, at ward level in 2001

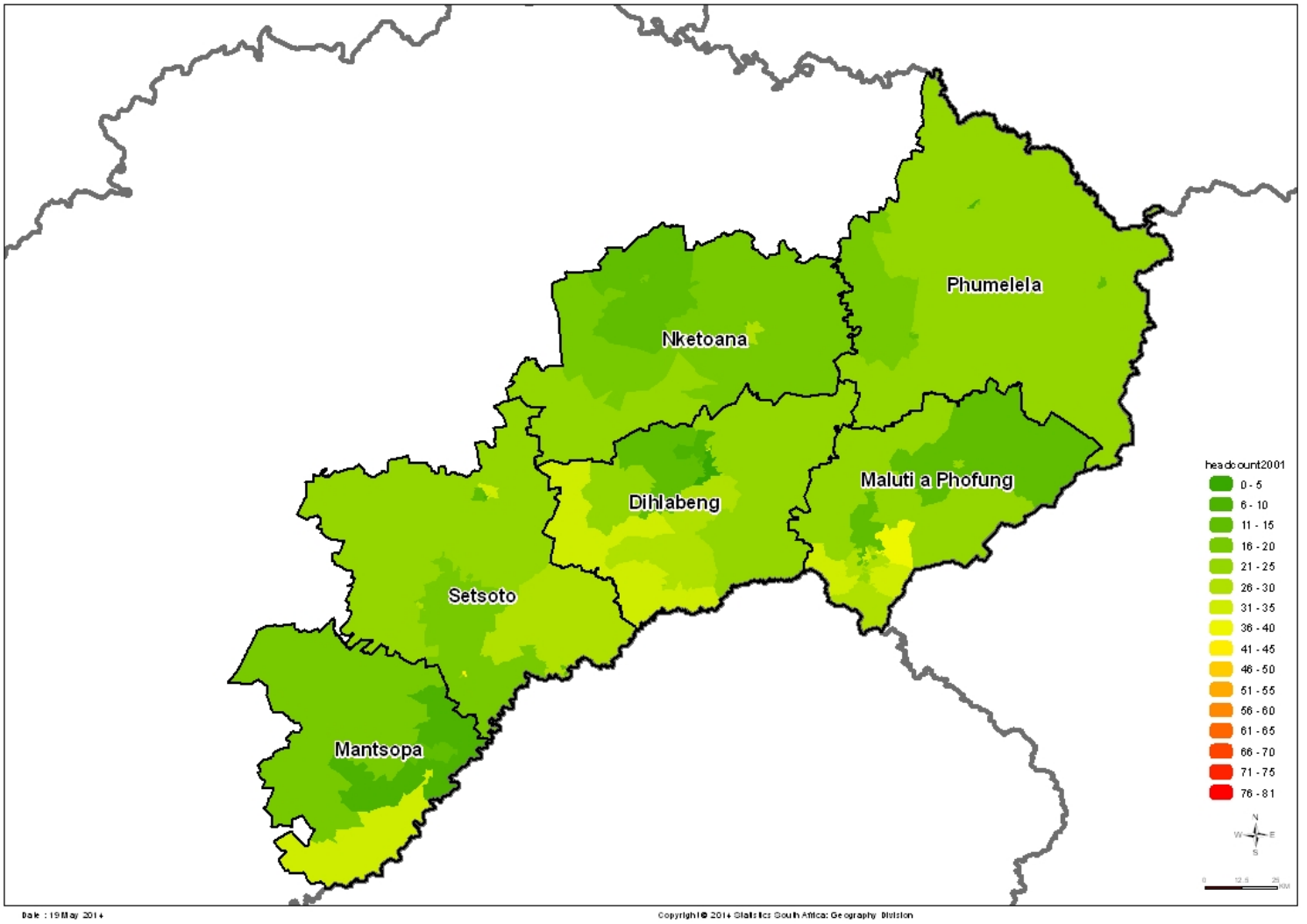


Figure A16b: Poverty headcount for Thabo Mofutsanyane district municipality, at ward level in 2011

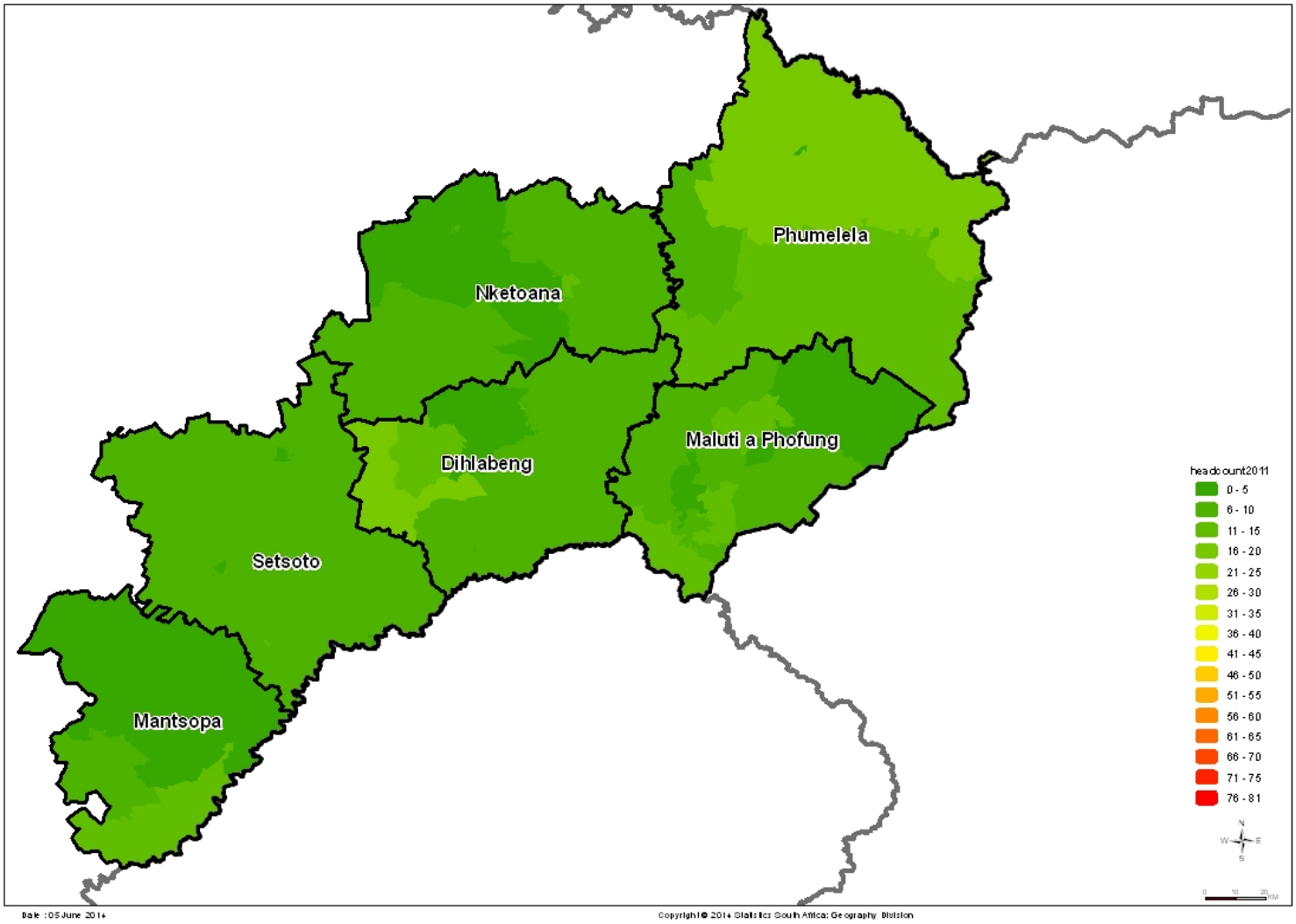


Figure A17a: Poverty headcount for John Taolo Gaetsewe district municipality, at ward level in 2001

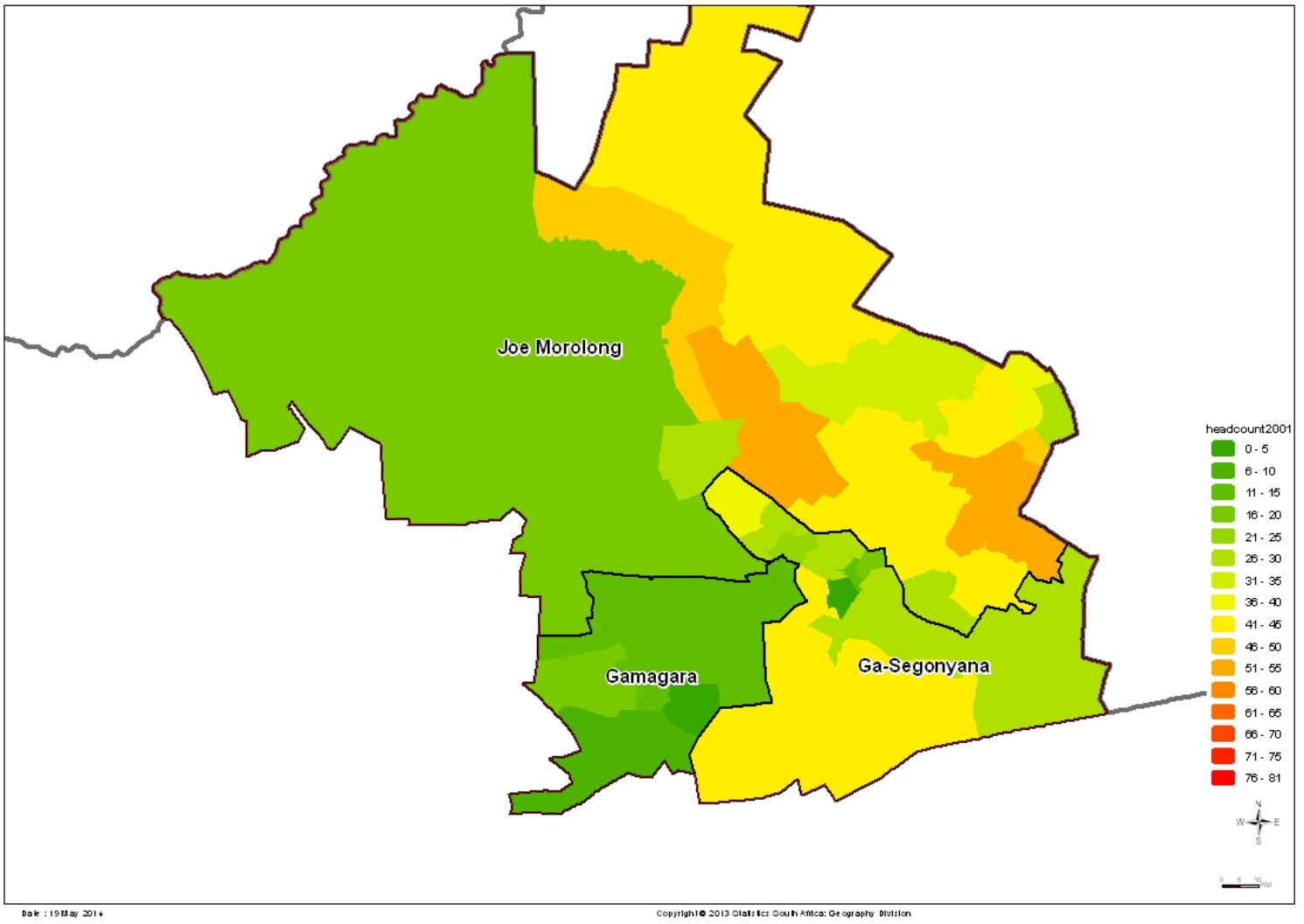


Figure A17b: Poverty headcount for John Taolo Gaetsewe district municipality at ward level in 2011

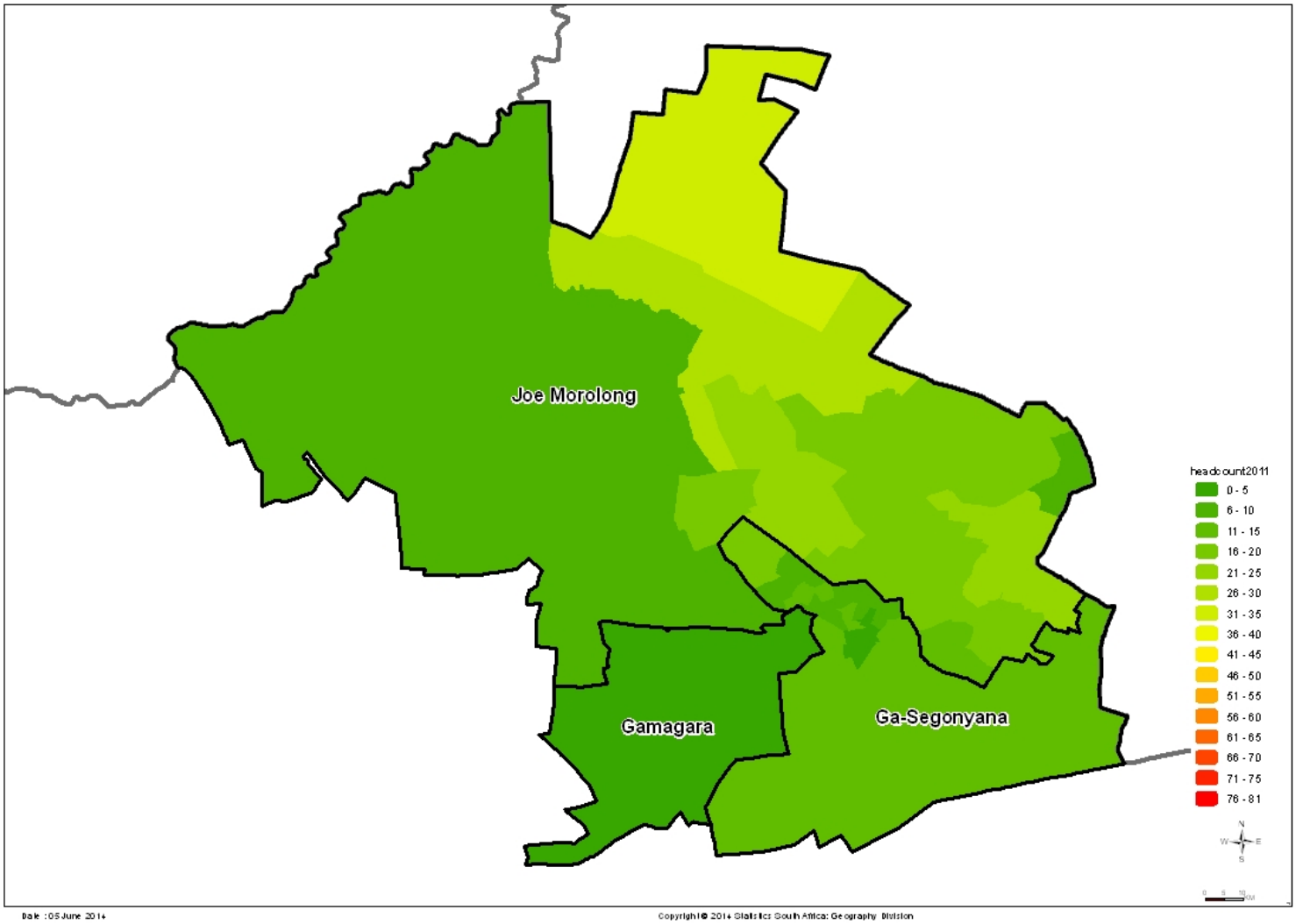


Figure A18a: Poverty headcount for Central Karoo districtmunicipality, at ward level in 2001

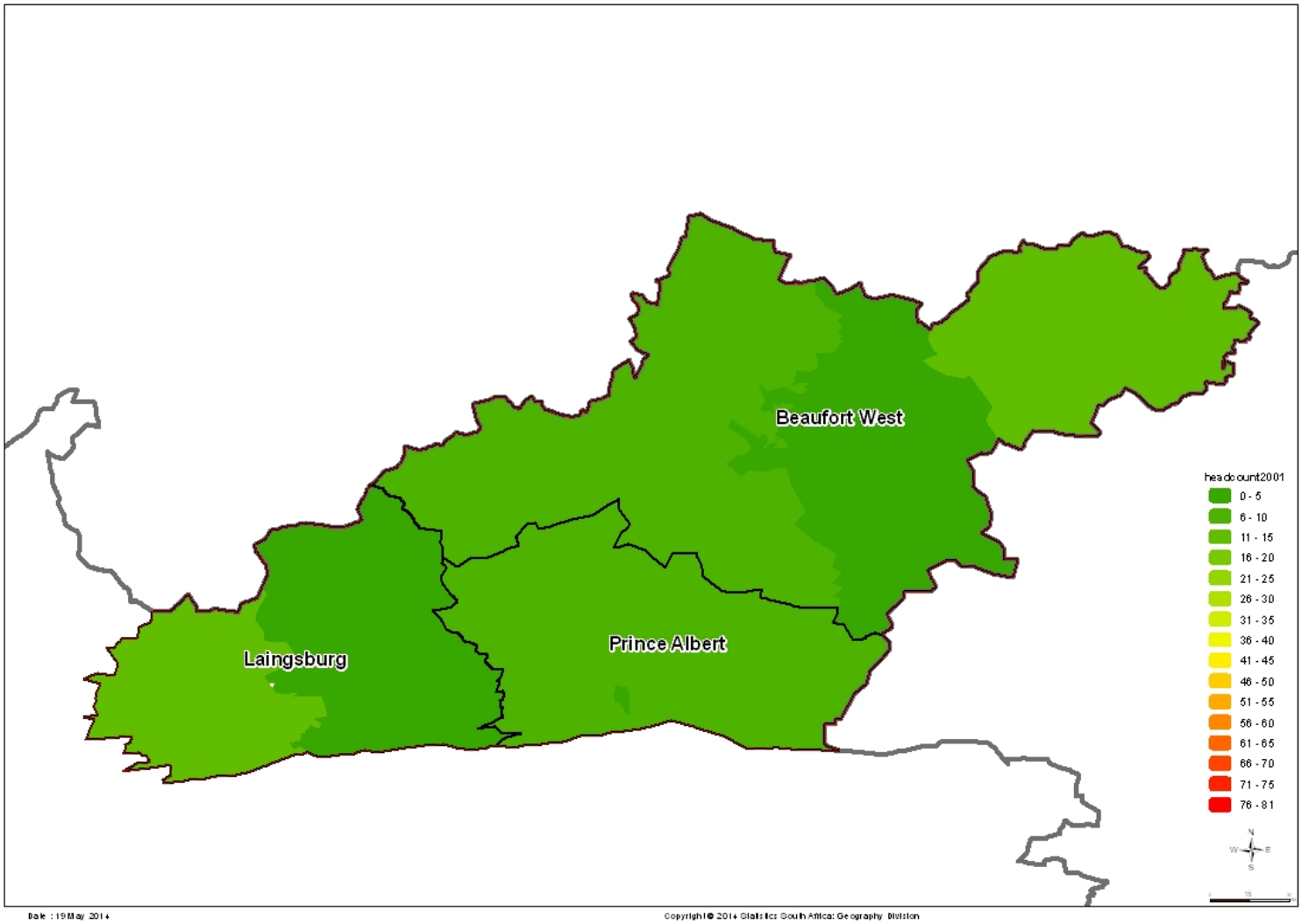
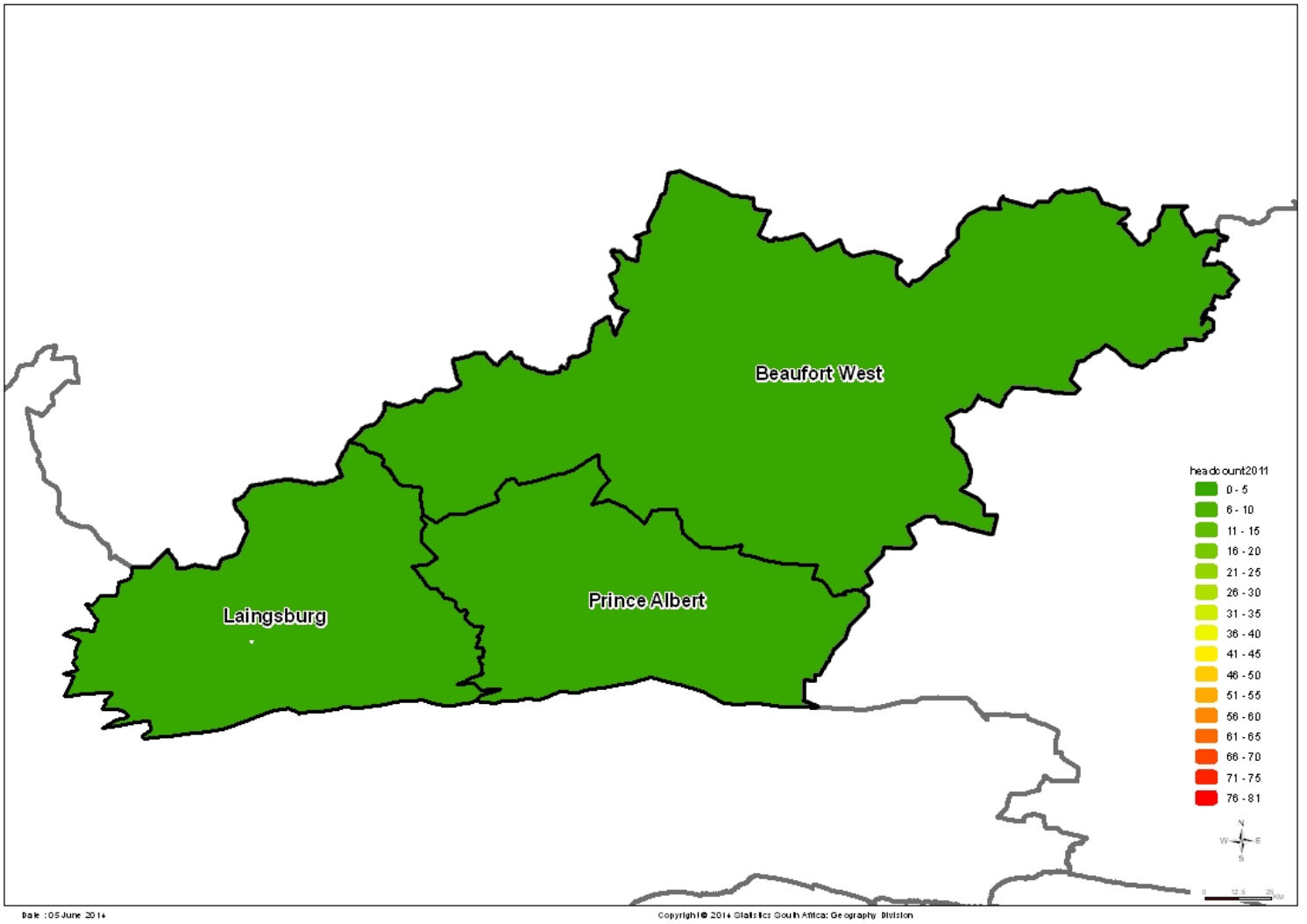


Figure A18b: Poverty headcount for Central Karoo district municipality, at ward level in 2011



Annexure B

Figure B1a: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Alfred Nzo district municipality SAMPI in 2001

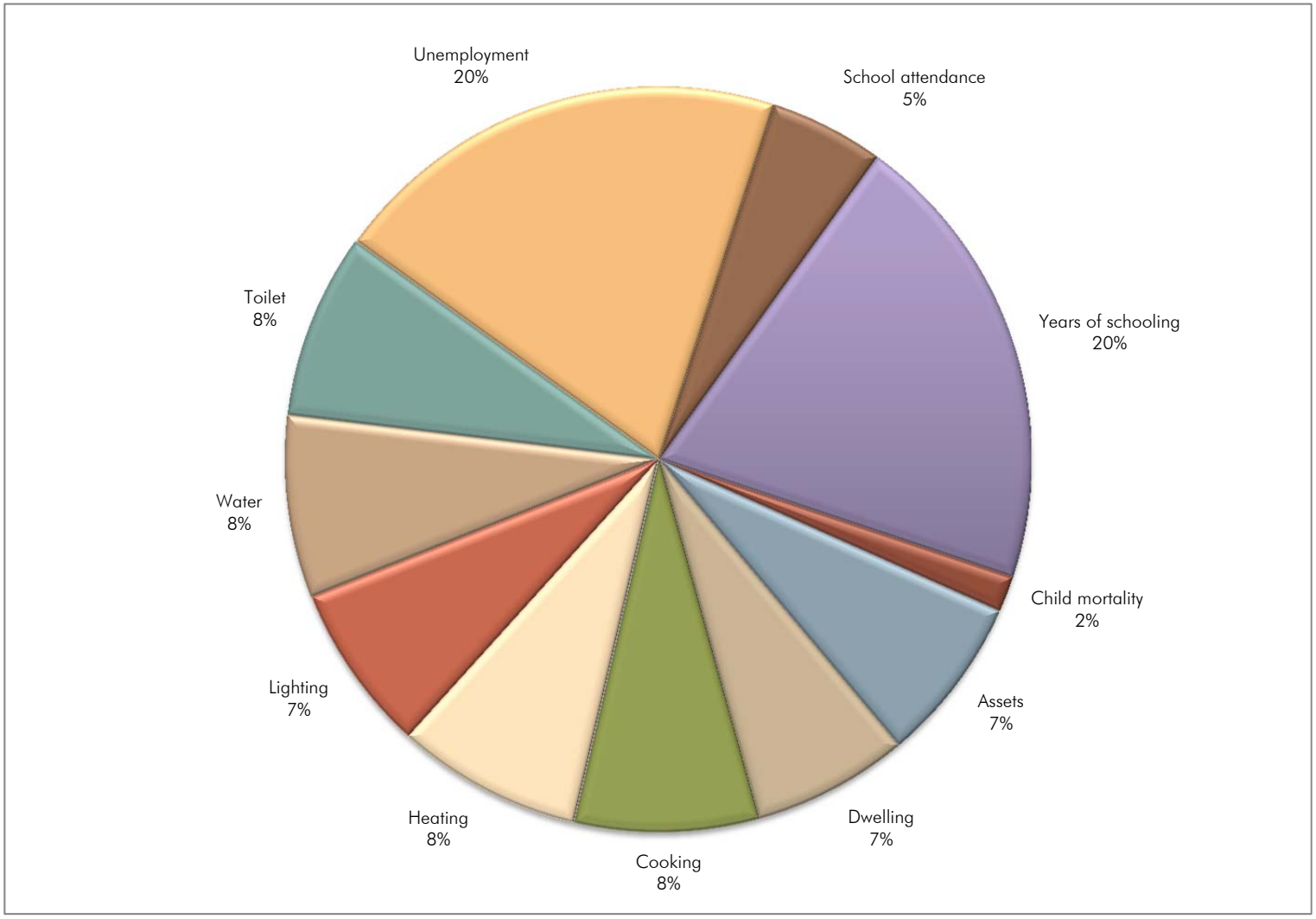


Figure B1b: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Alfred Nzo district municipality SAMPI in 2011

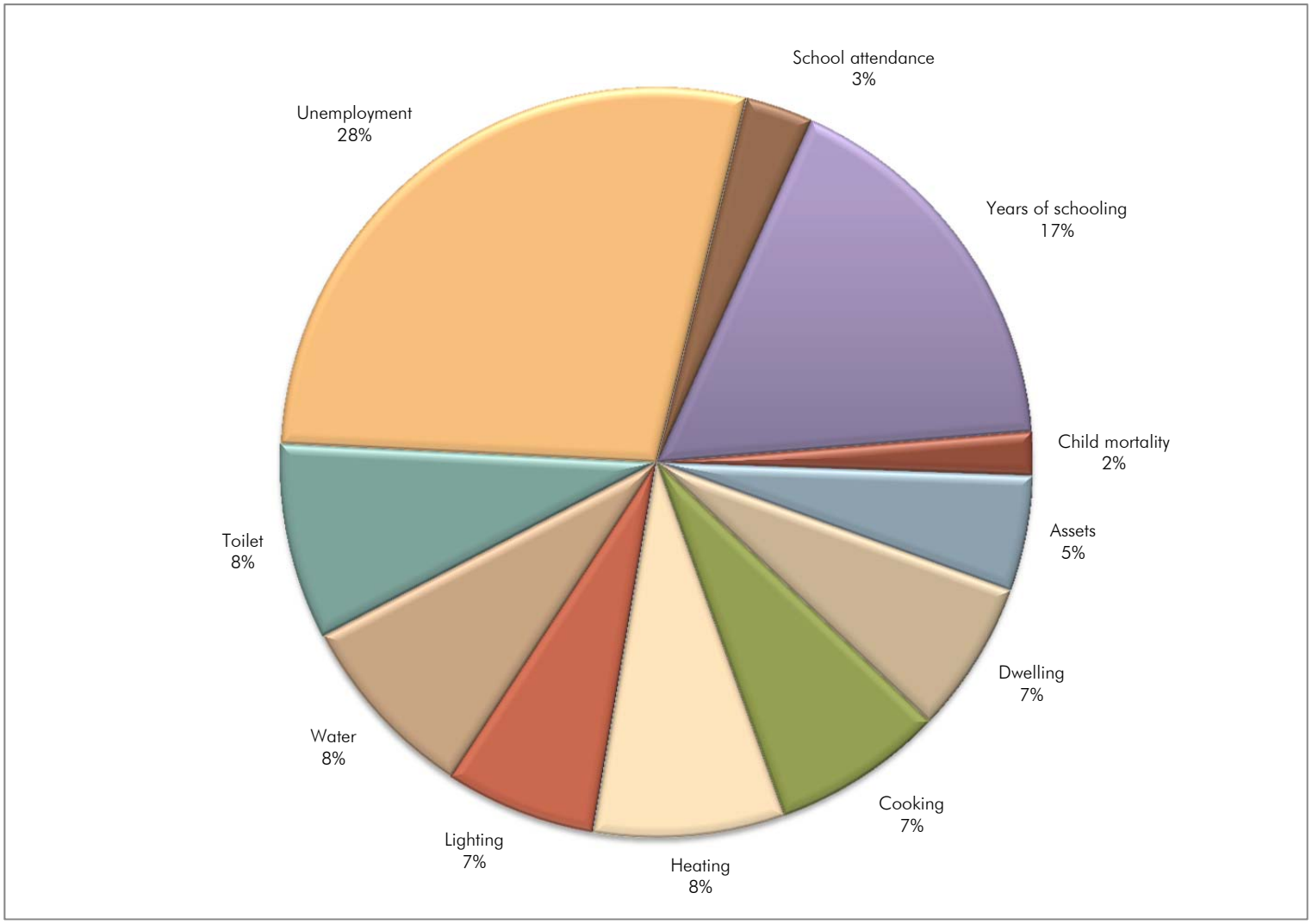


Figure B2a: Contribution of weighted indicators to the OR Tambo district municipality SAMPI in 2001

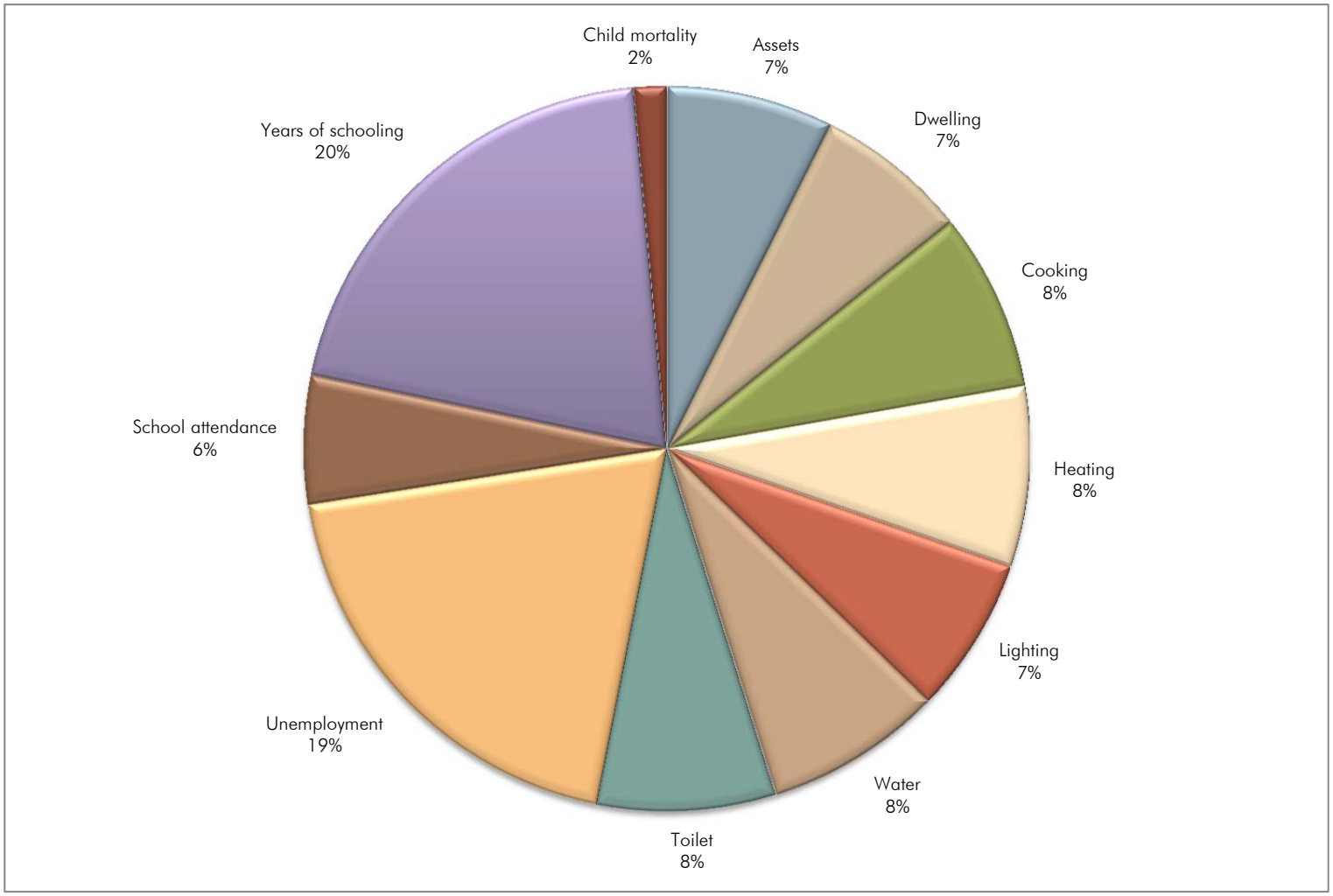


Figure B2b: Contribution of weighted indicators to the OR Tambo district municipality SAMPI in 2011

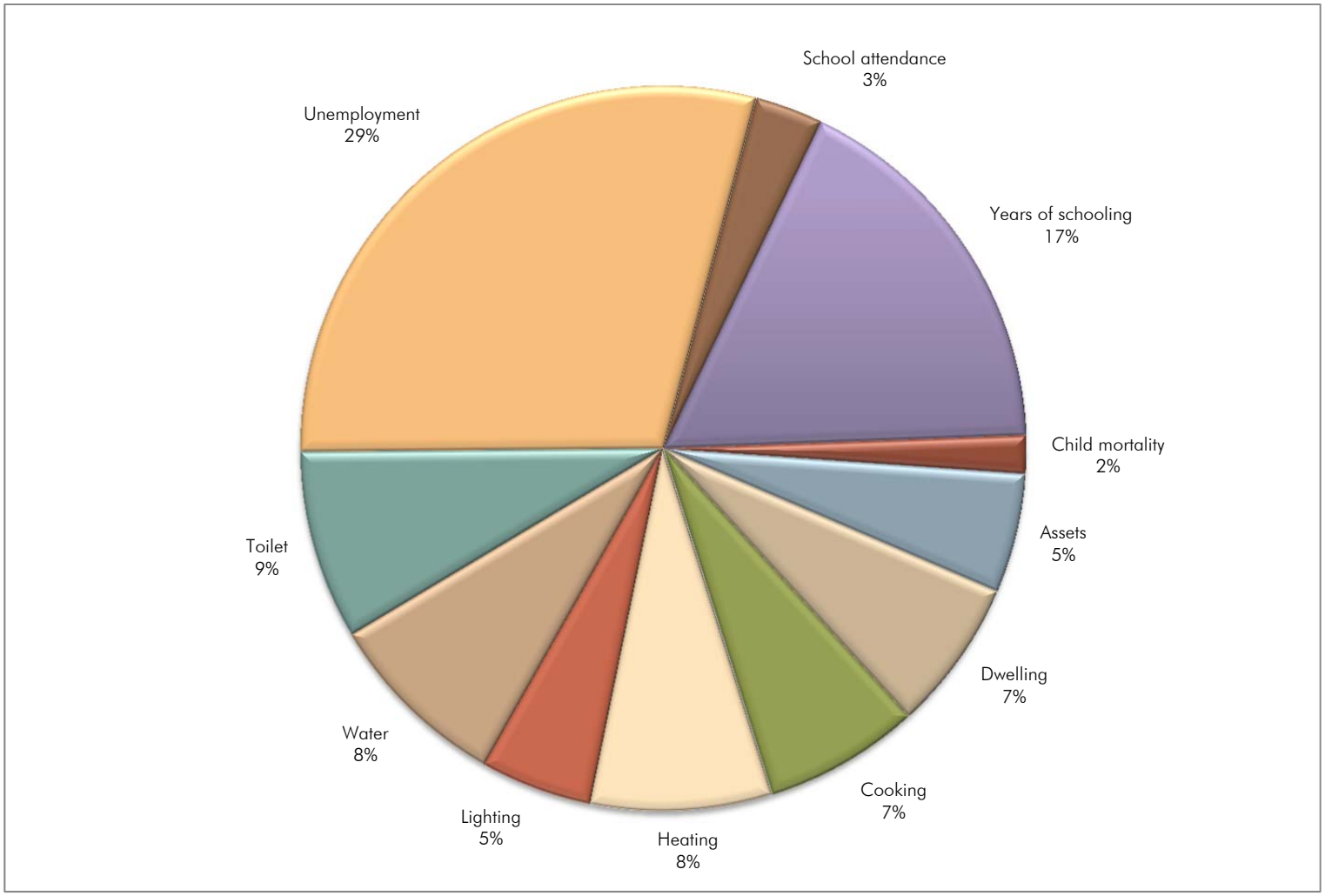


Figure B3a: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Chris Hani district municipality SAMPI in 2001

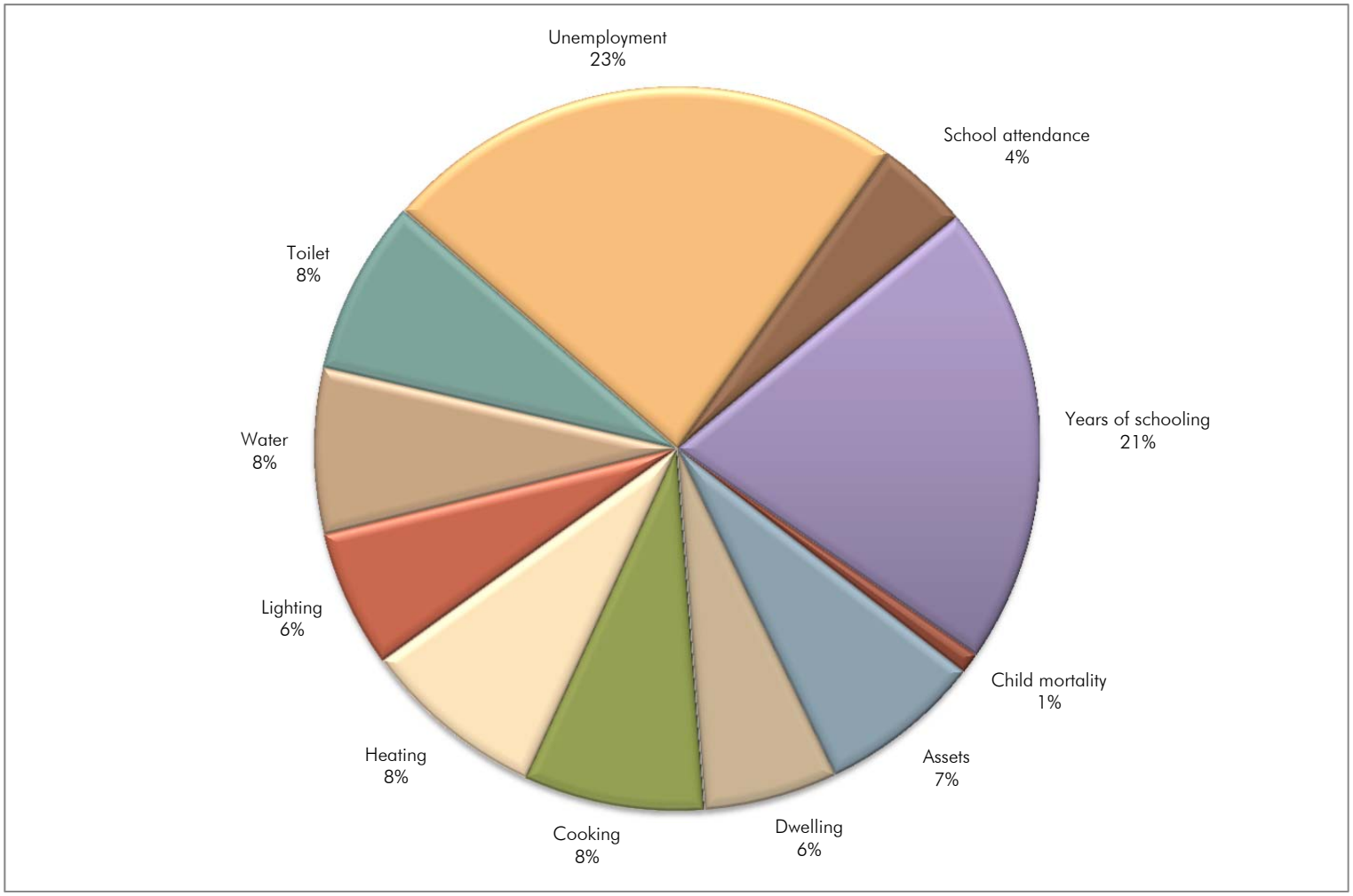


Figure B3b: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Chris Hani district municipality SAMPI in 2011

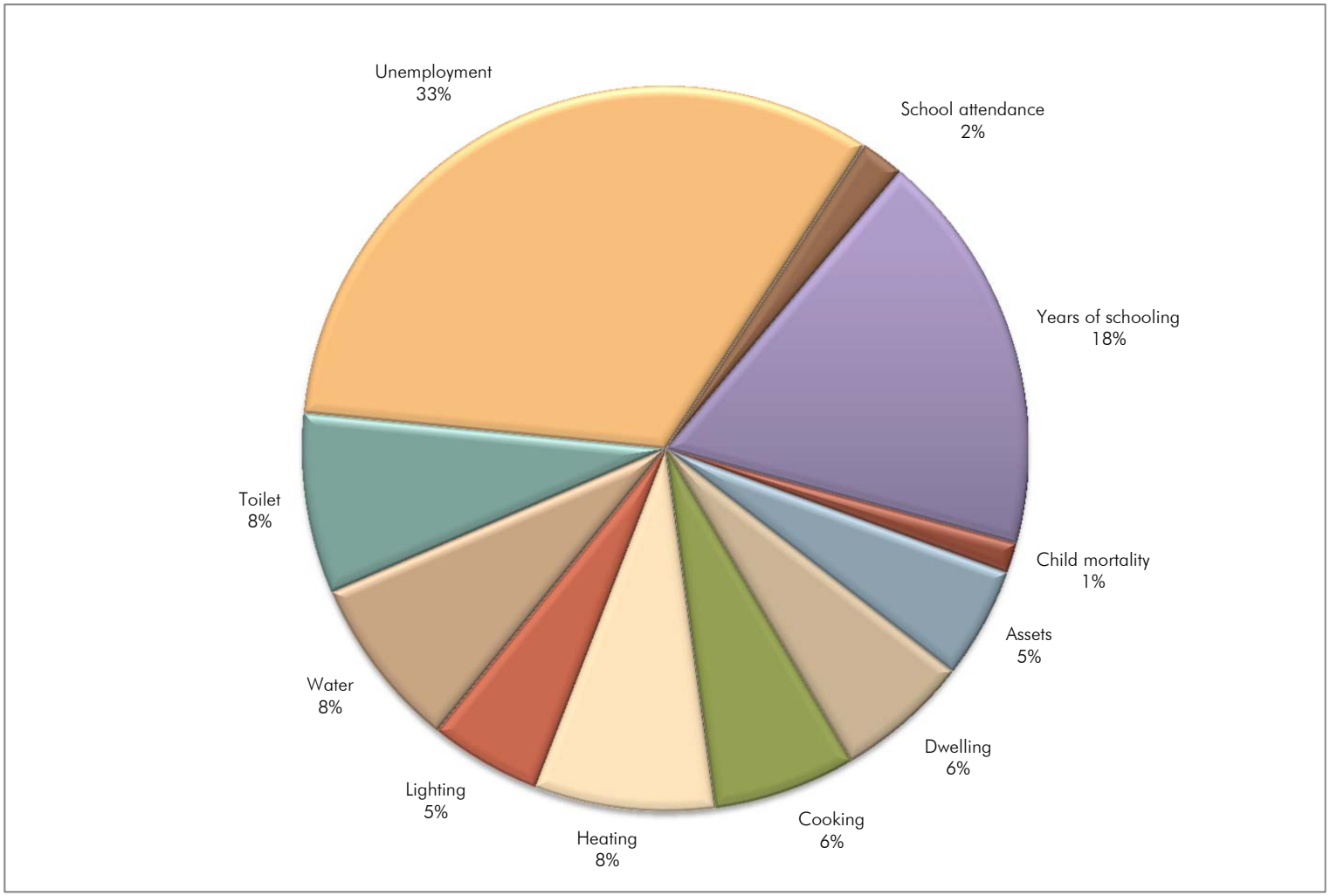


Figure B4a: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Joe Gqabi district municipality SAMPI in 2001

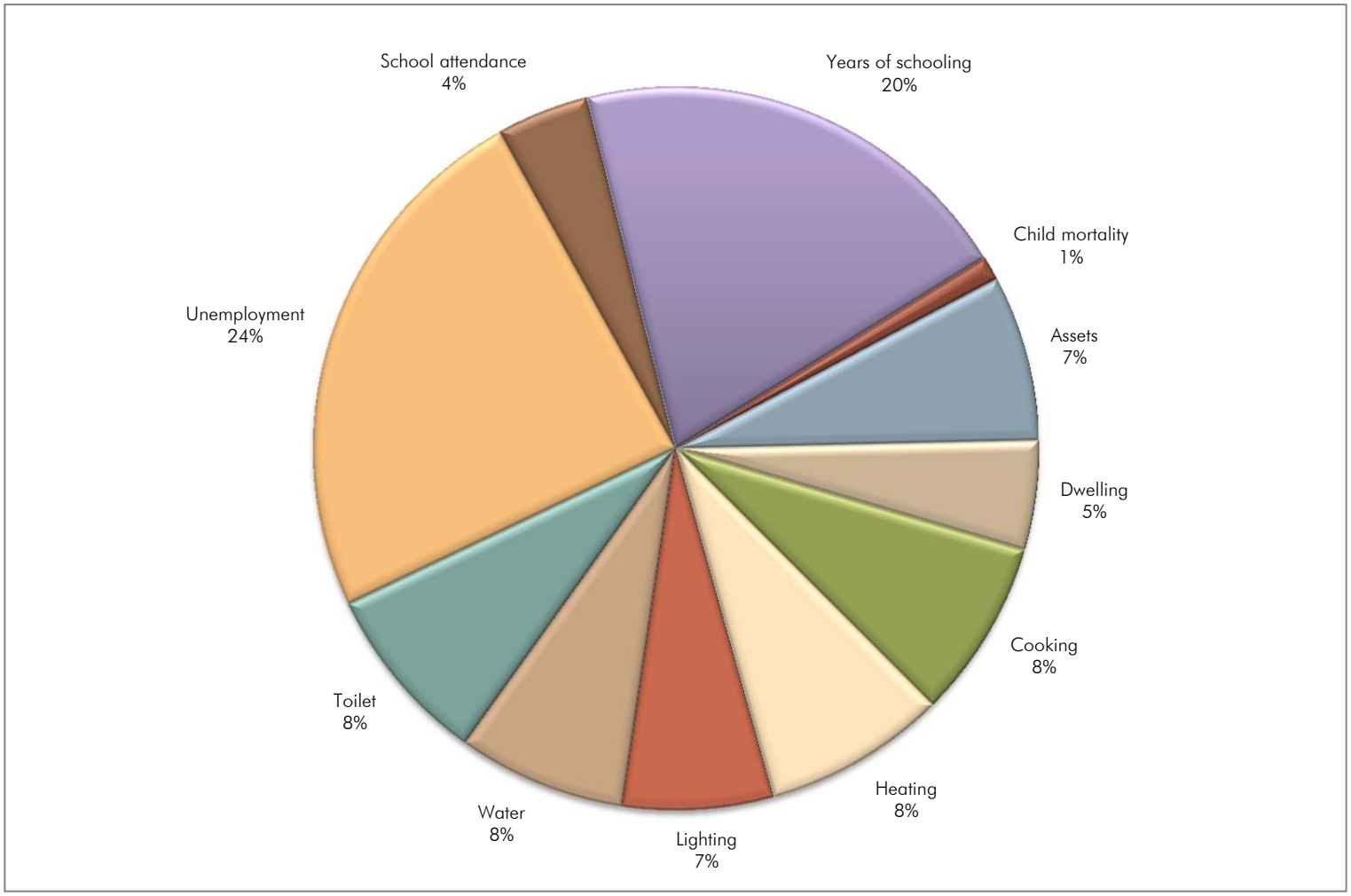


Figure B4b: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Joe Gqabi district municipality SAMPI in 2011

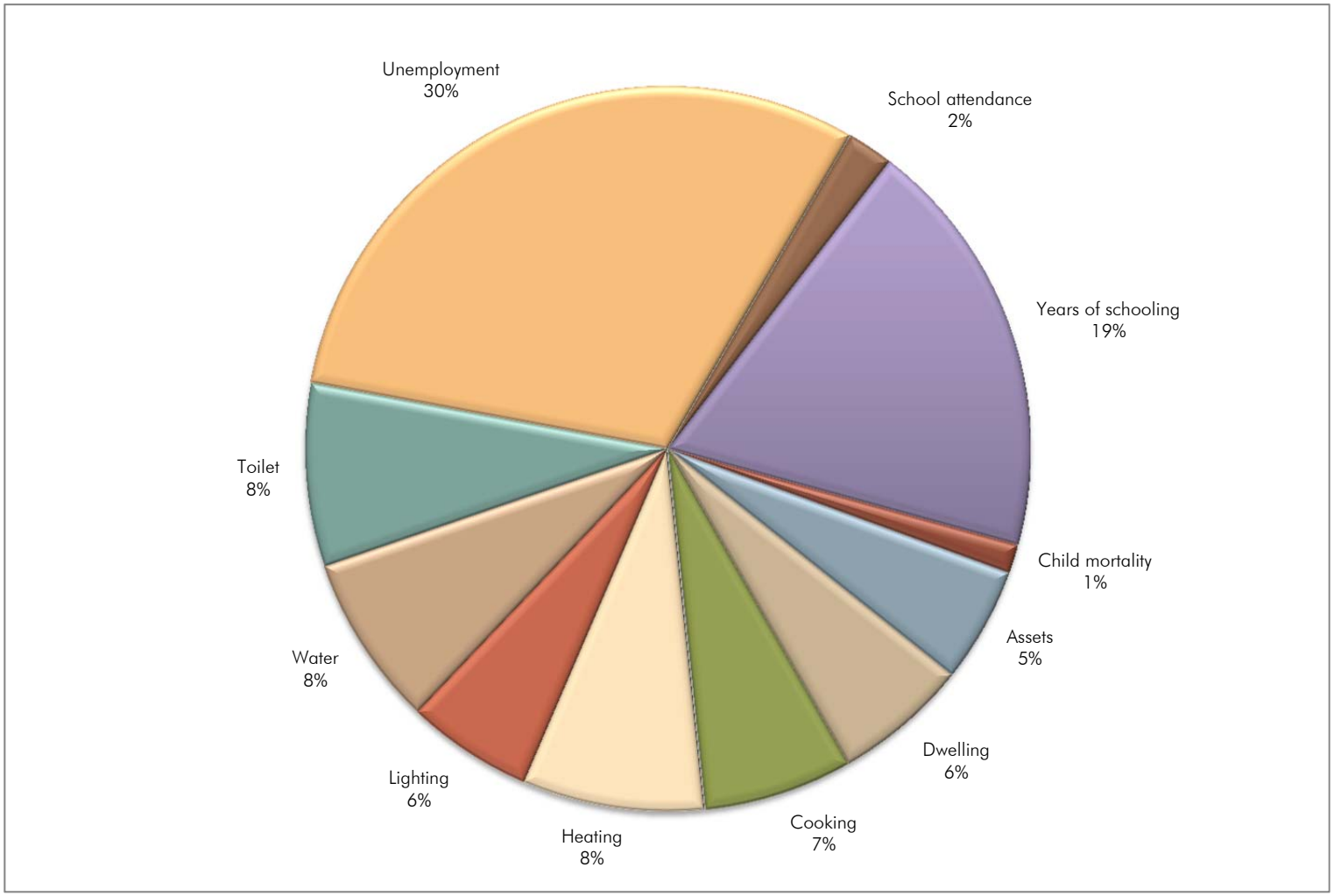


Figure B5a: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Amathole district municipality SAMPI in 2001

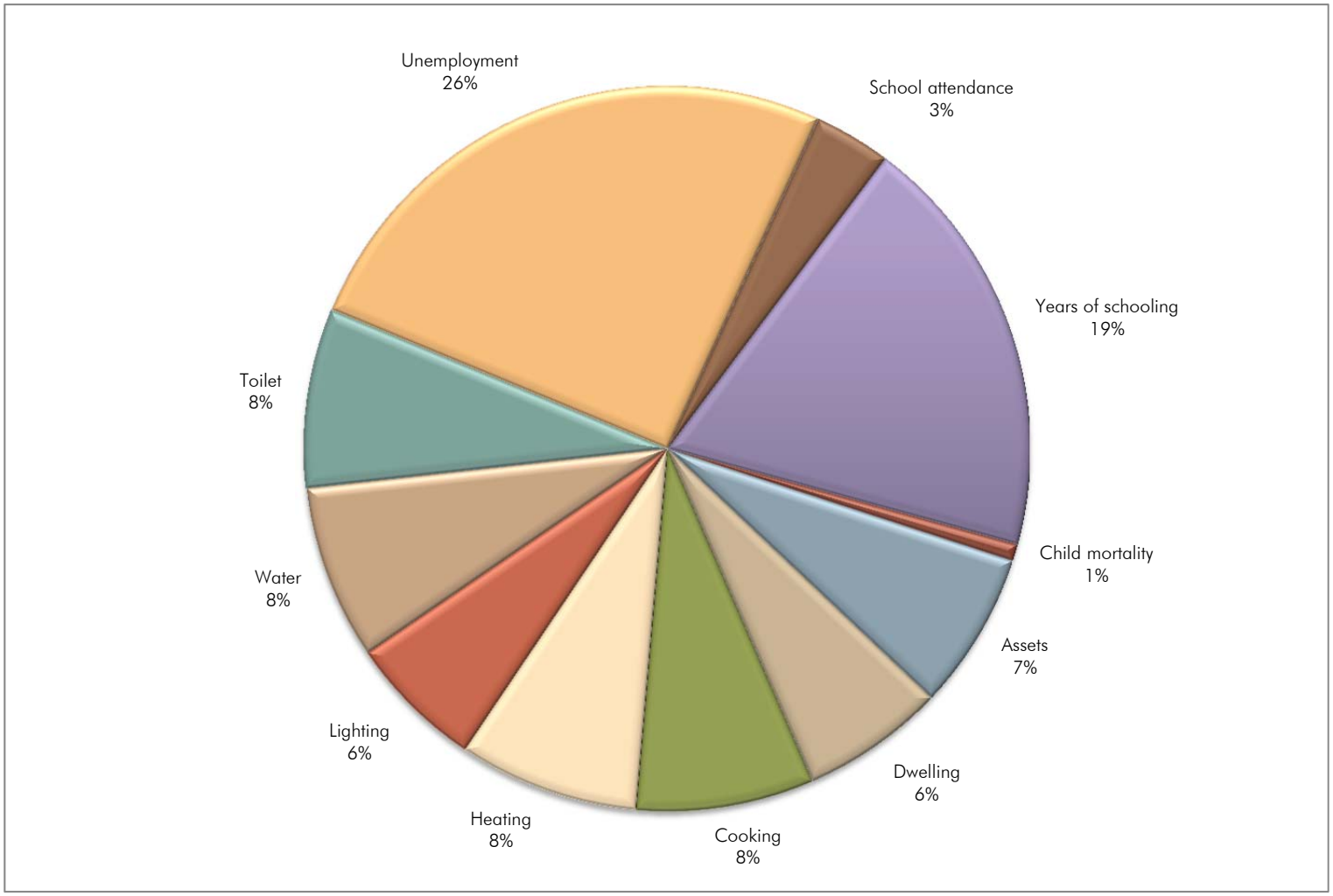


Figure B5b: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Amathole district municipality SAMPI in 2011

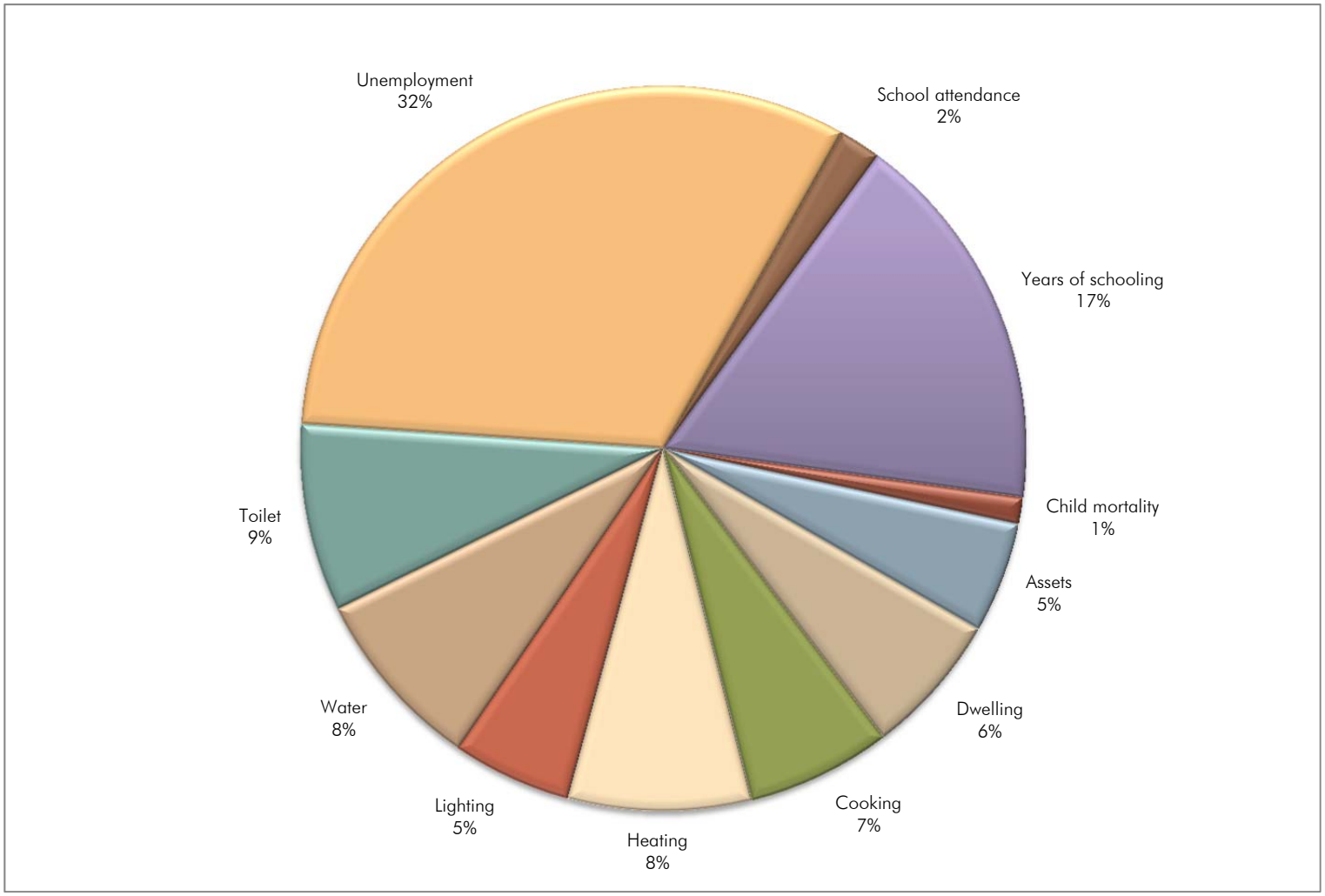


Figure B6a: Contribution of weighted indicators to the uMkhanyakude district municipality SAMPI in 2001

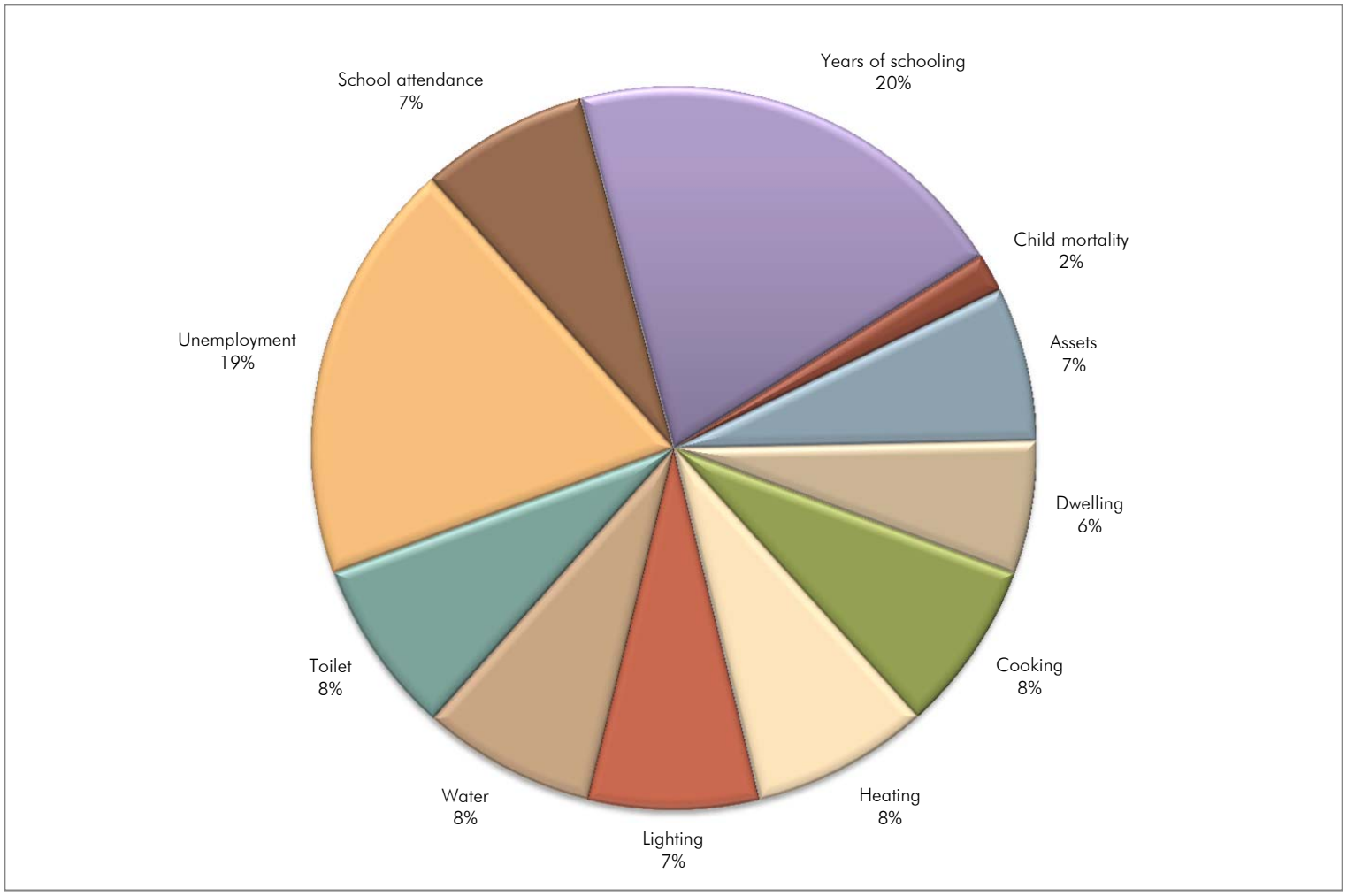


Figure B6b: Contribution of weighted indicators to the uMkhanyakude district municipality SAMPI in 2011

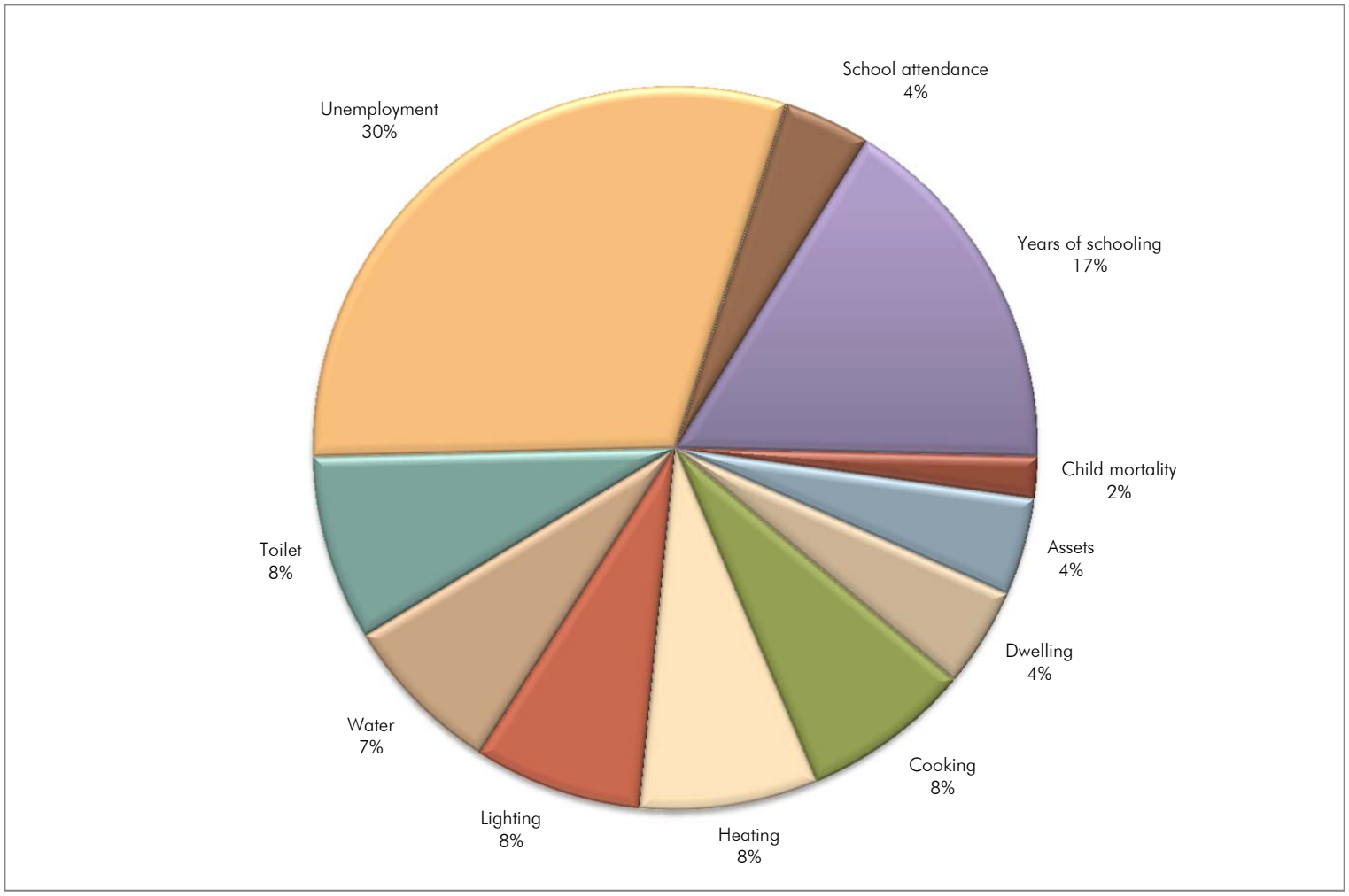


Figure B7a: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Zululand district municipality SAMPI in 2001

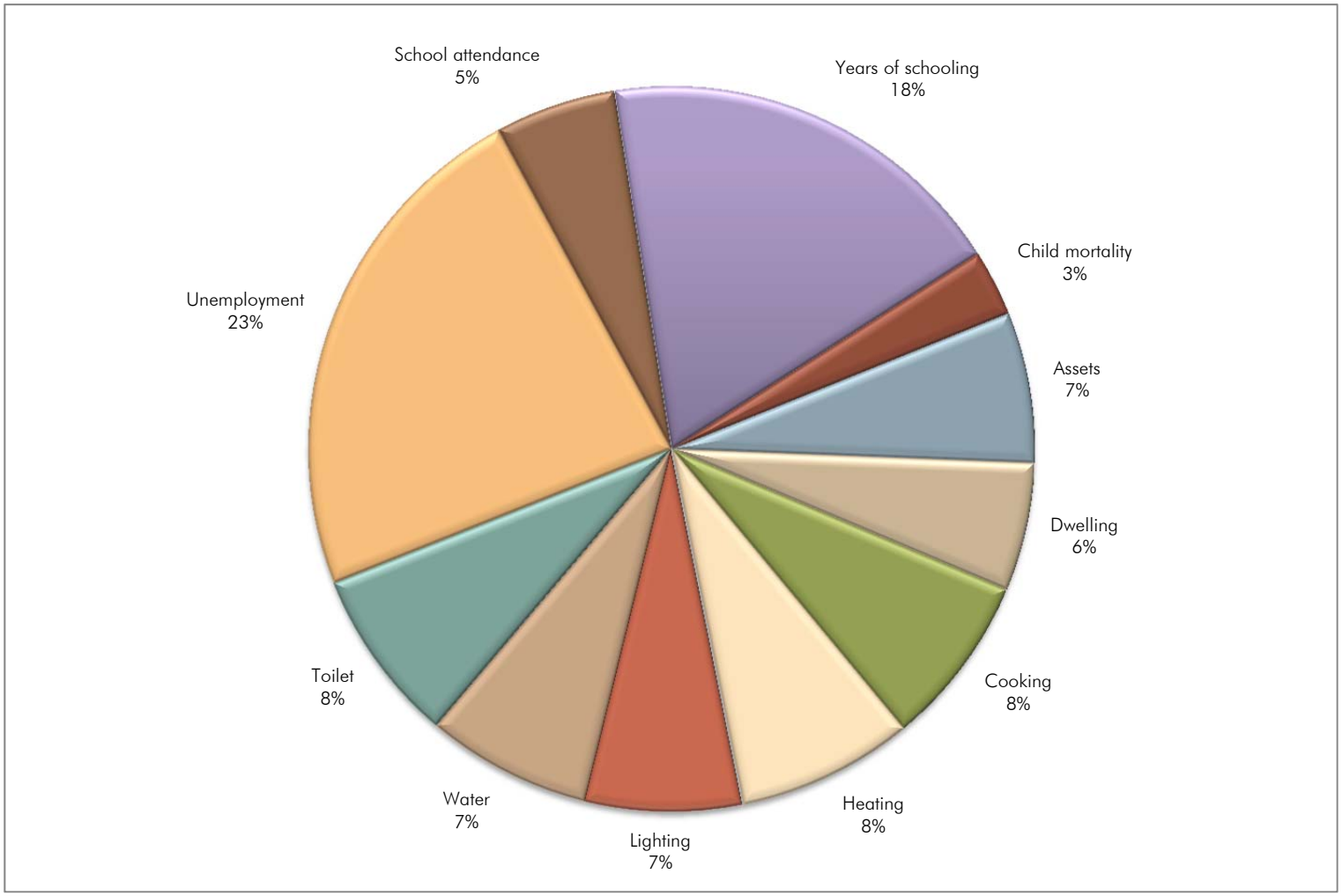


Figure B7b: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Zululand district municipality SAMPI in 2011

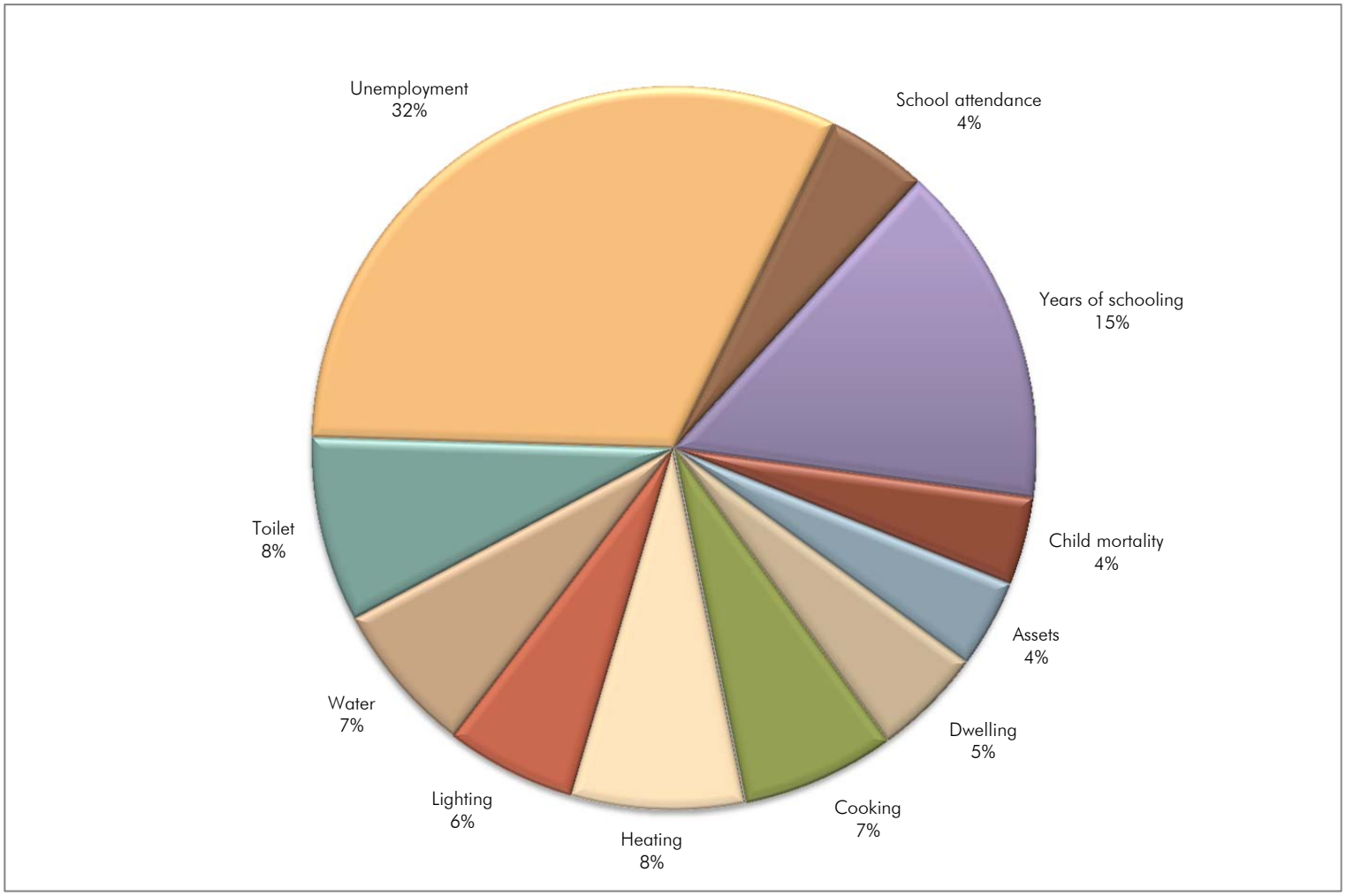


Figure B8a: Contribution of weighted indicators to the uMzinyathi district municipality SAMPI in 2001

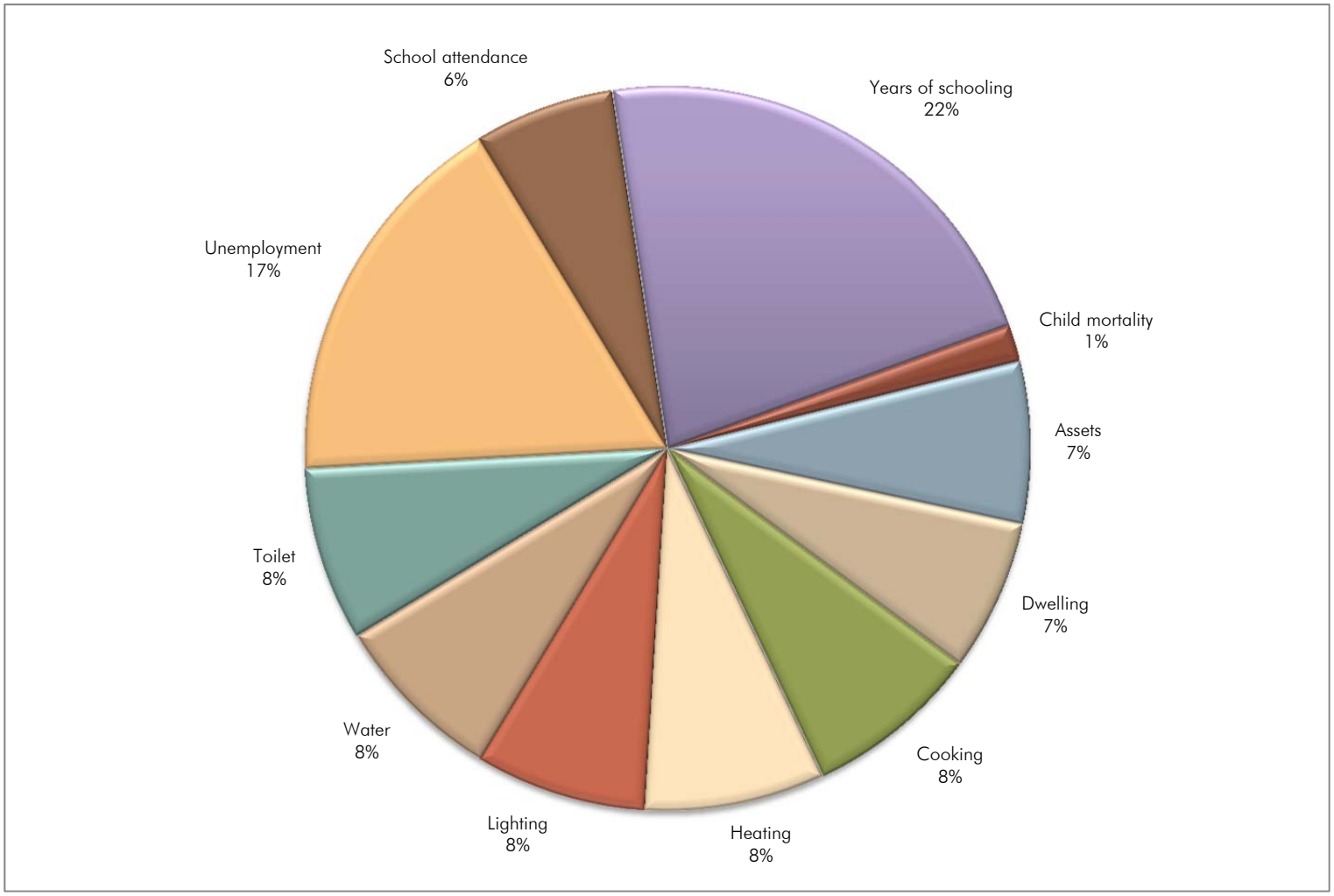


Figure B8b: Contribution of weighted indicators to the uMzinyathi district municipality SAMPI in 2011

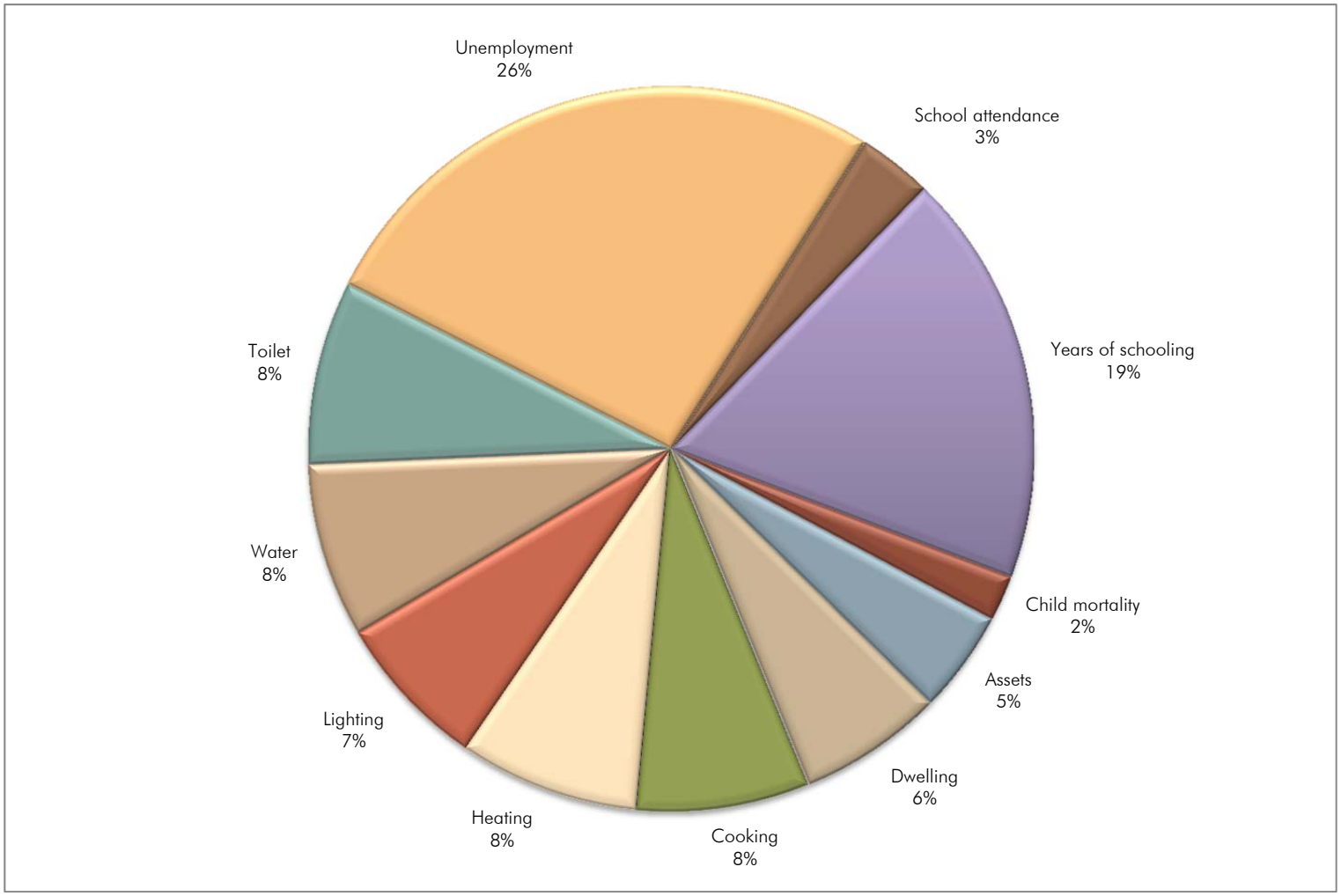


Figure B9a: Contribution of weighted indicators to the uThukela district municipality SAMPI in 2001

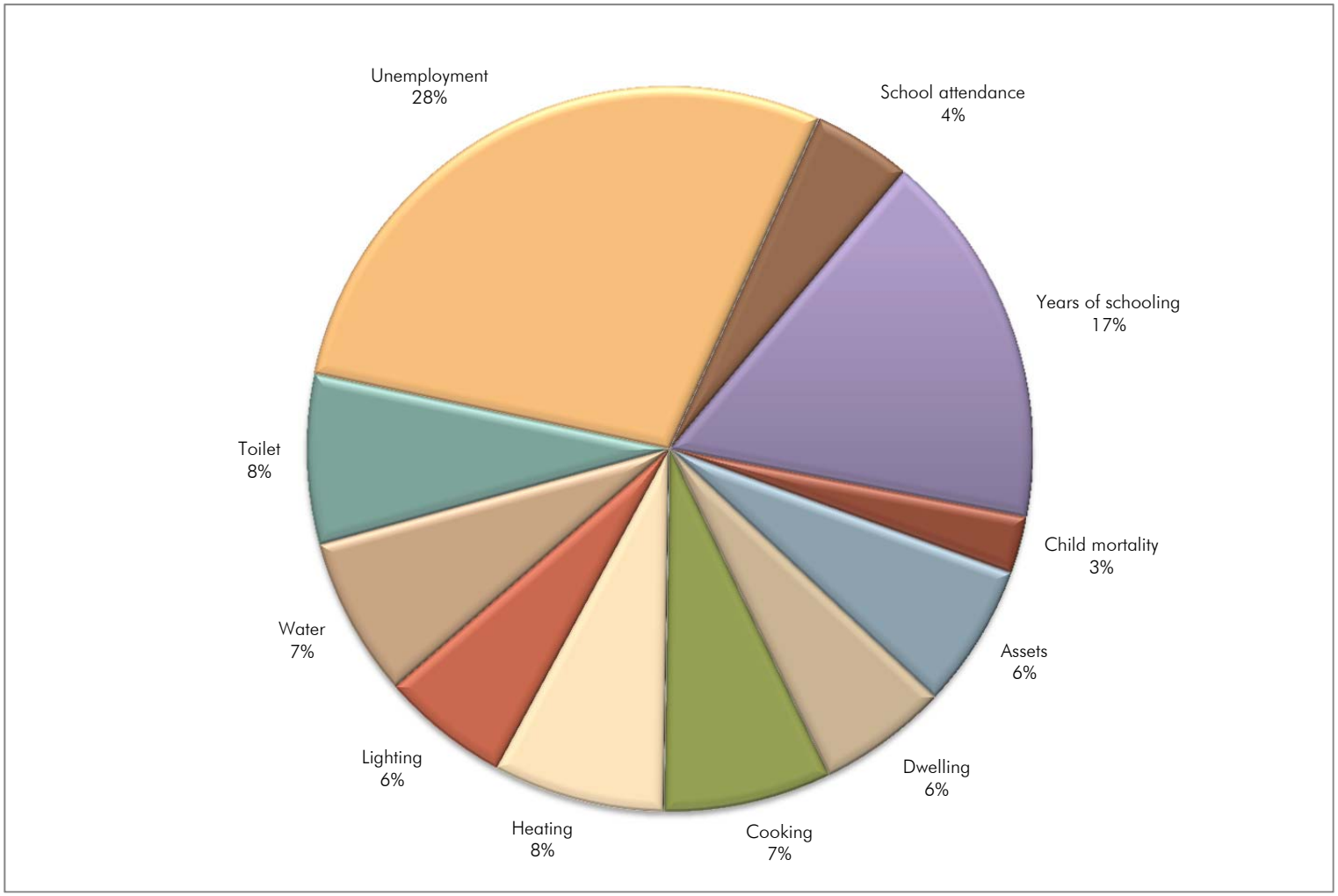


Figure B9b: Contribution of weighted indicators to the uThukela district municipality SAMPI in 2011

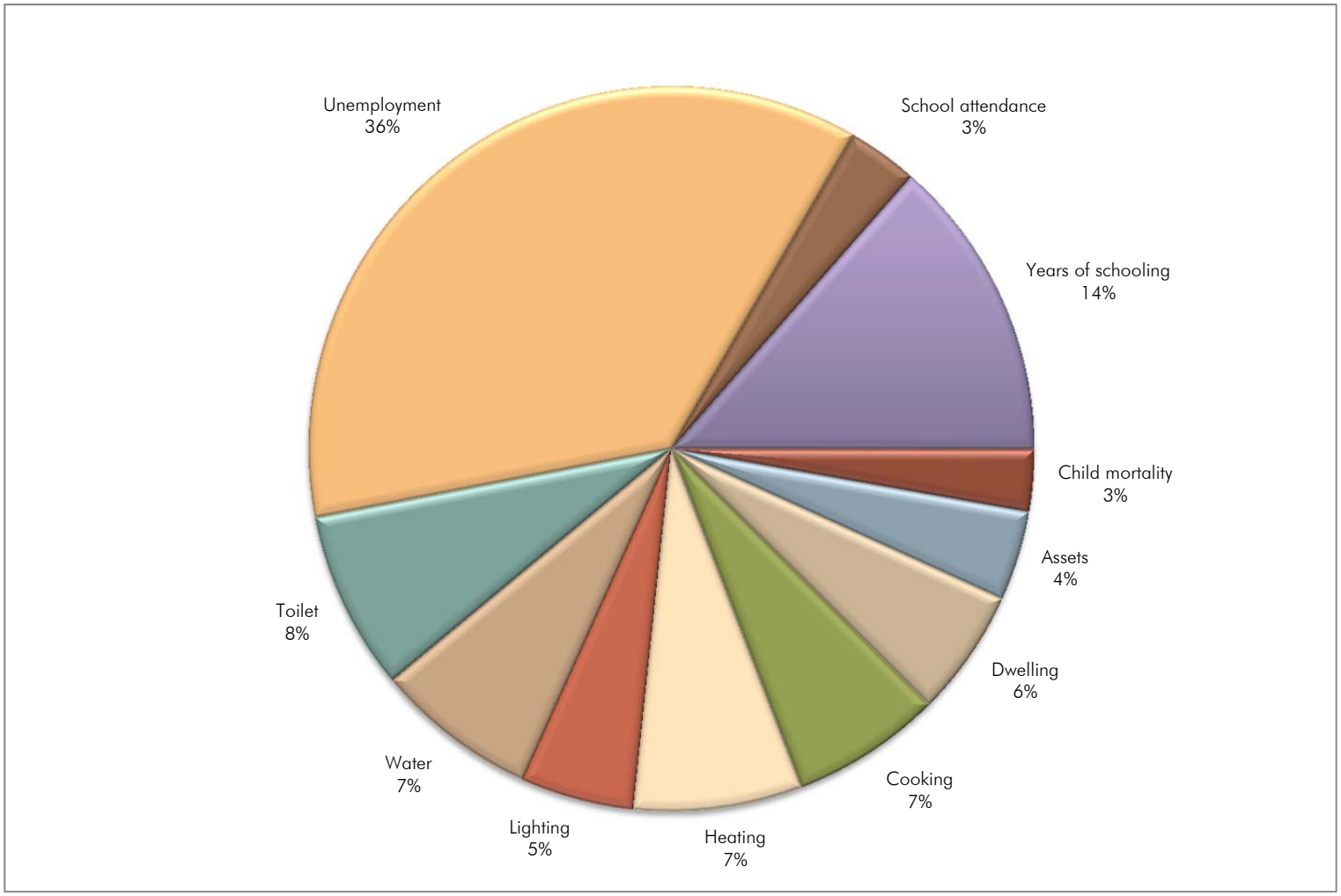


Figure B10a: Contribution of weighted indicators to the uMgungundlovu district municipality SAMPI in 2001

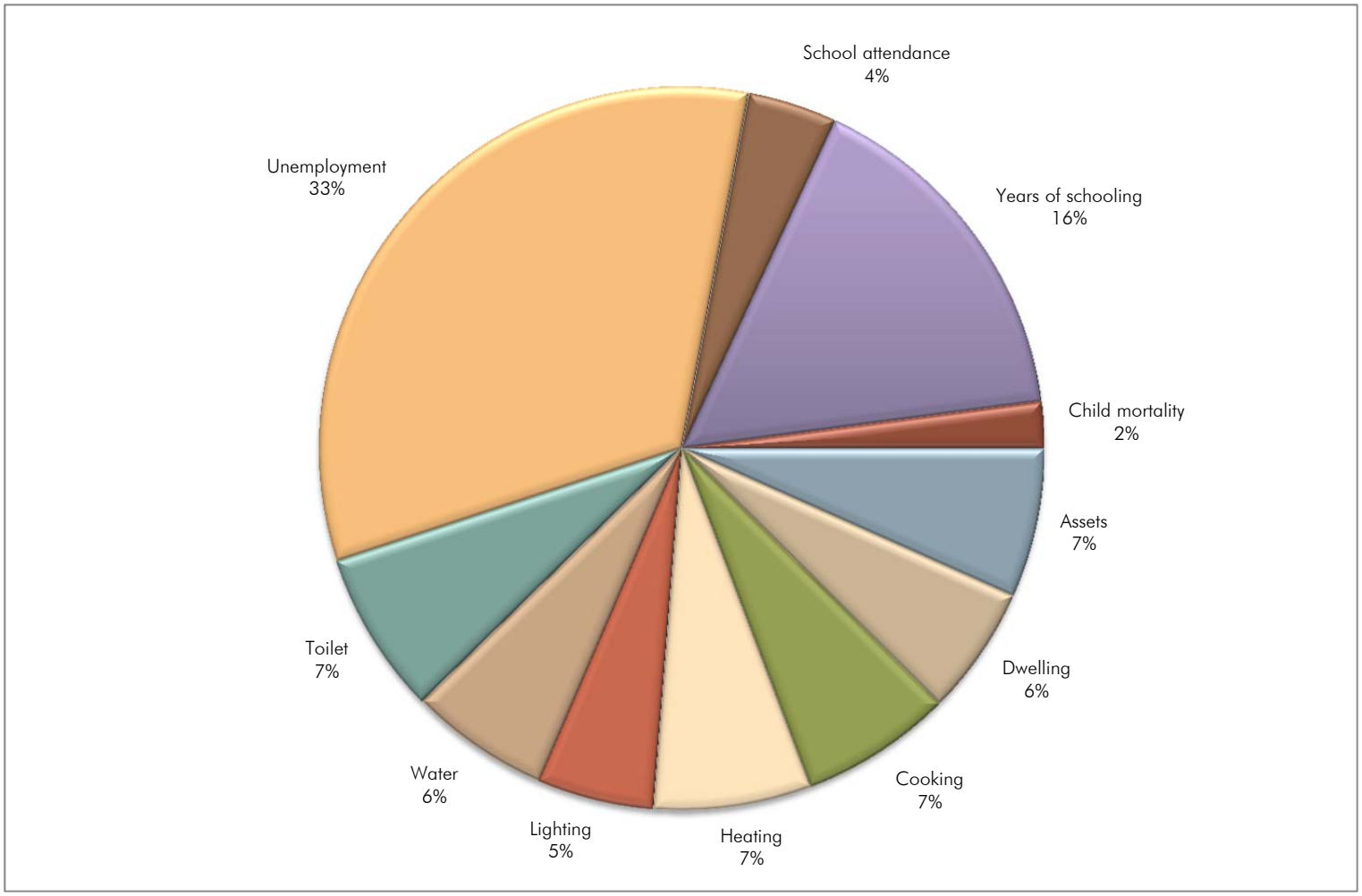


Figure B10b: Contribution of weighted indicators to the uMgungundlovu district municipality SAMPI in 2011

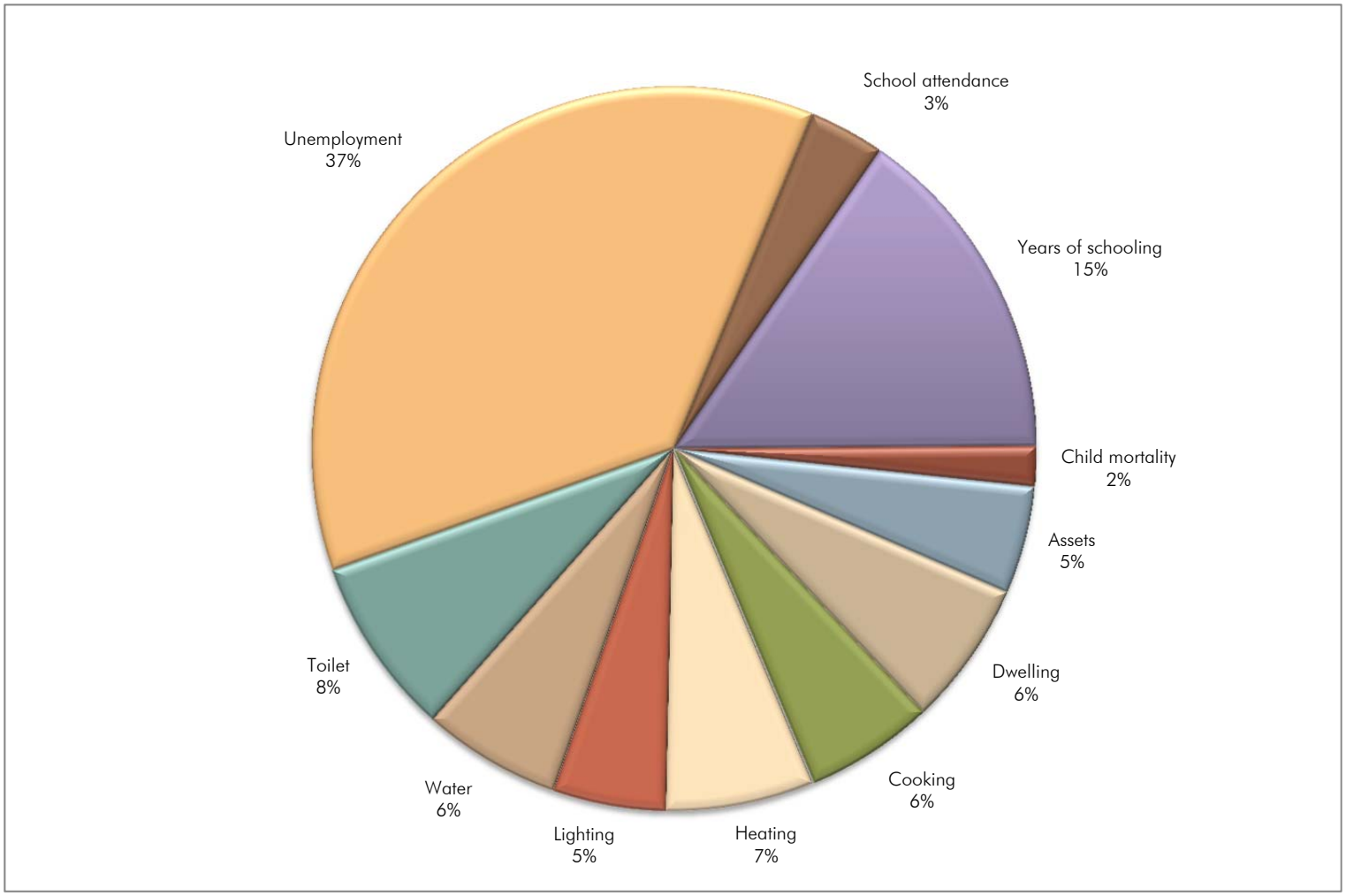


Figure B11a: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Ugu district municipality SAMPI in 2001

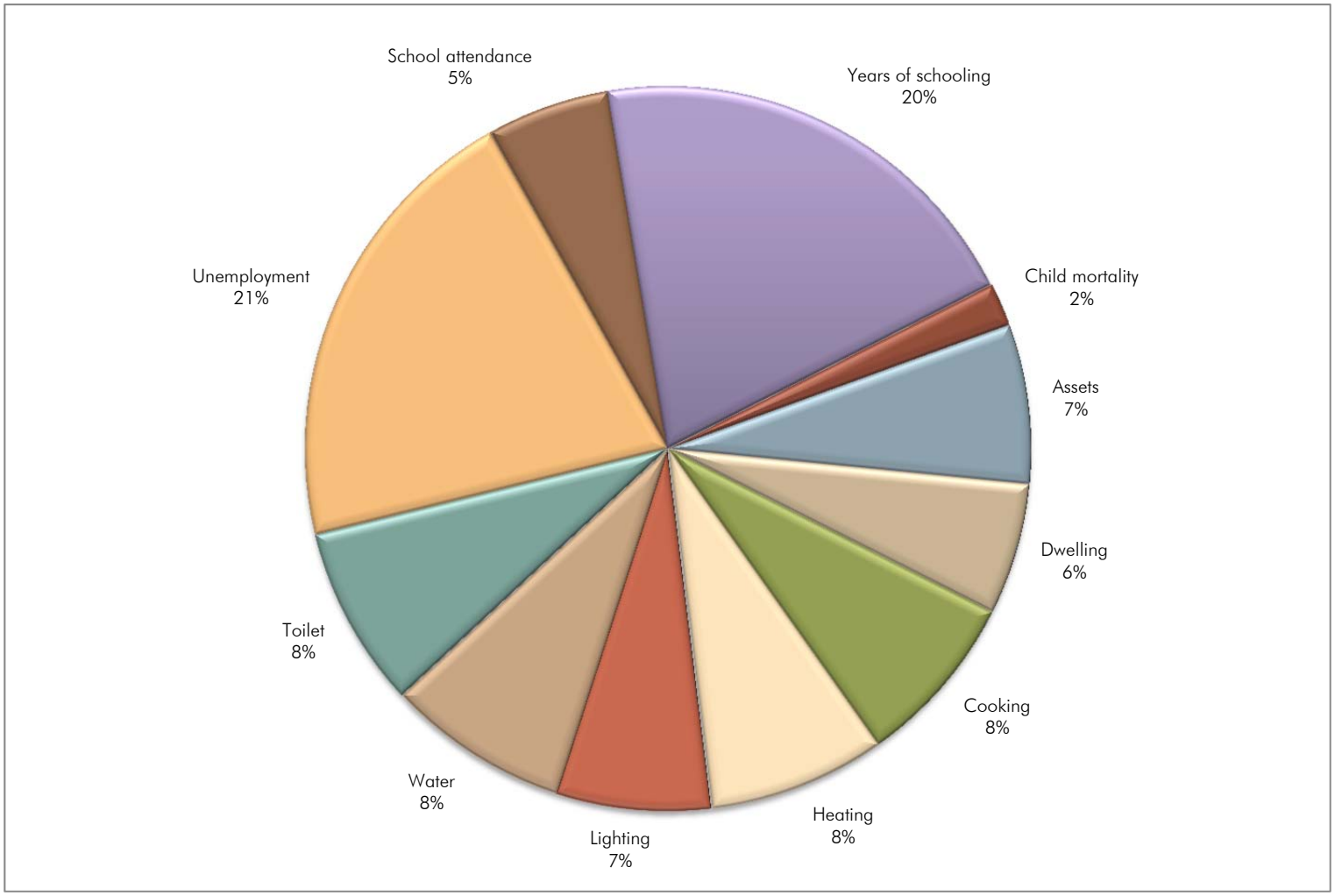


Figure B11b: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Ugu district municipality SAMPI in 2011

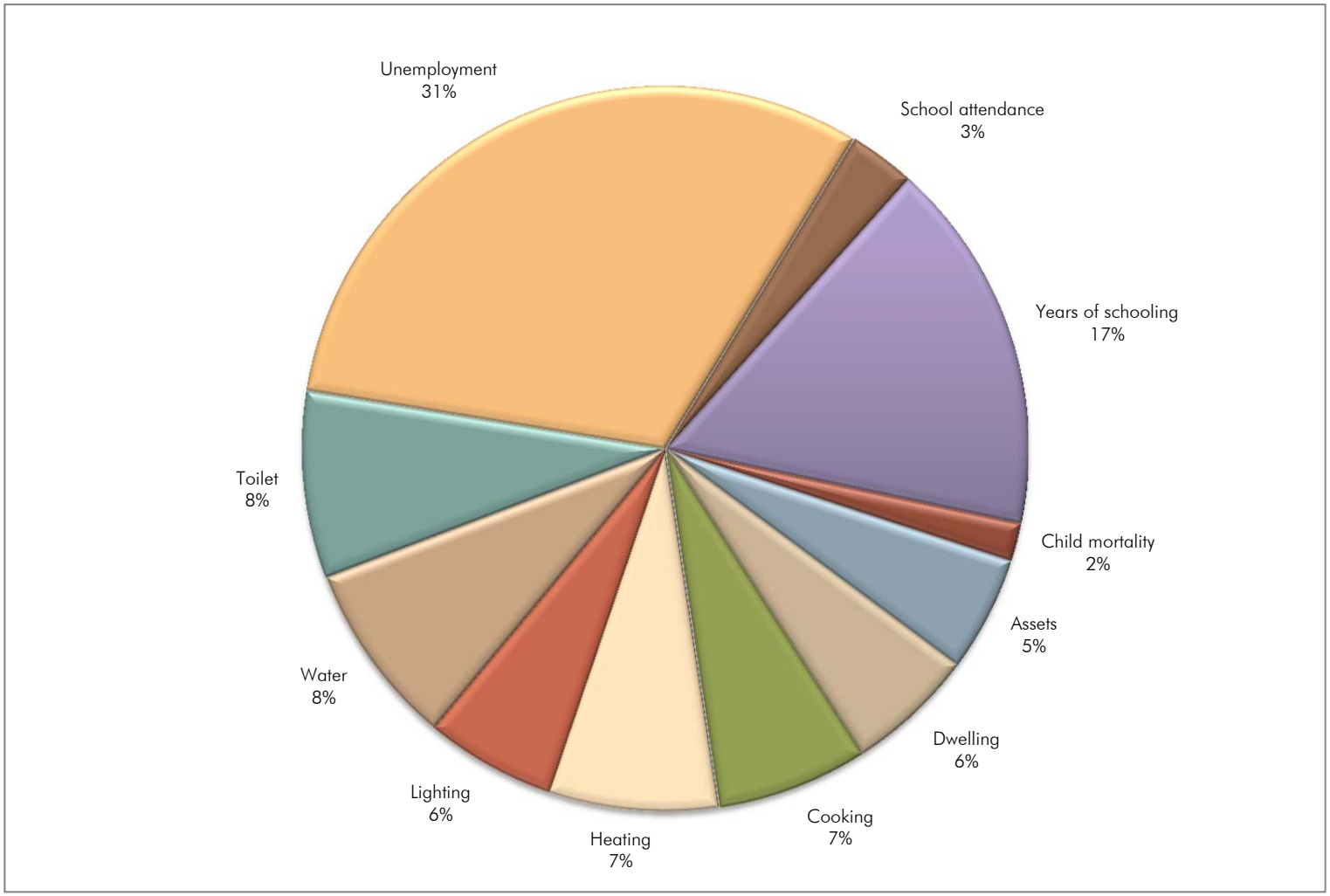


Figure B12a: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Sisonke district municipality SAMPI in 2001

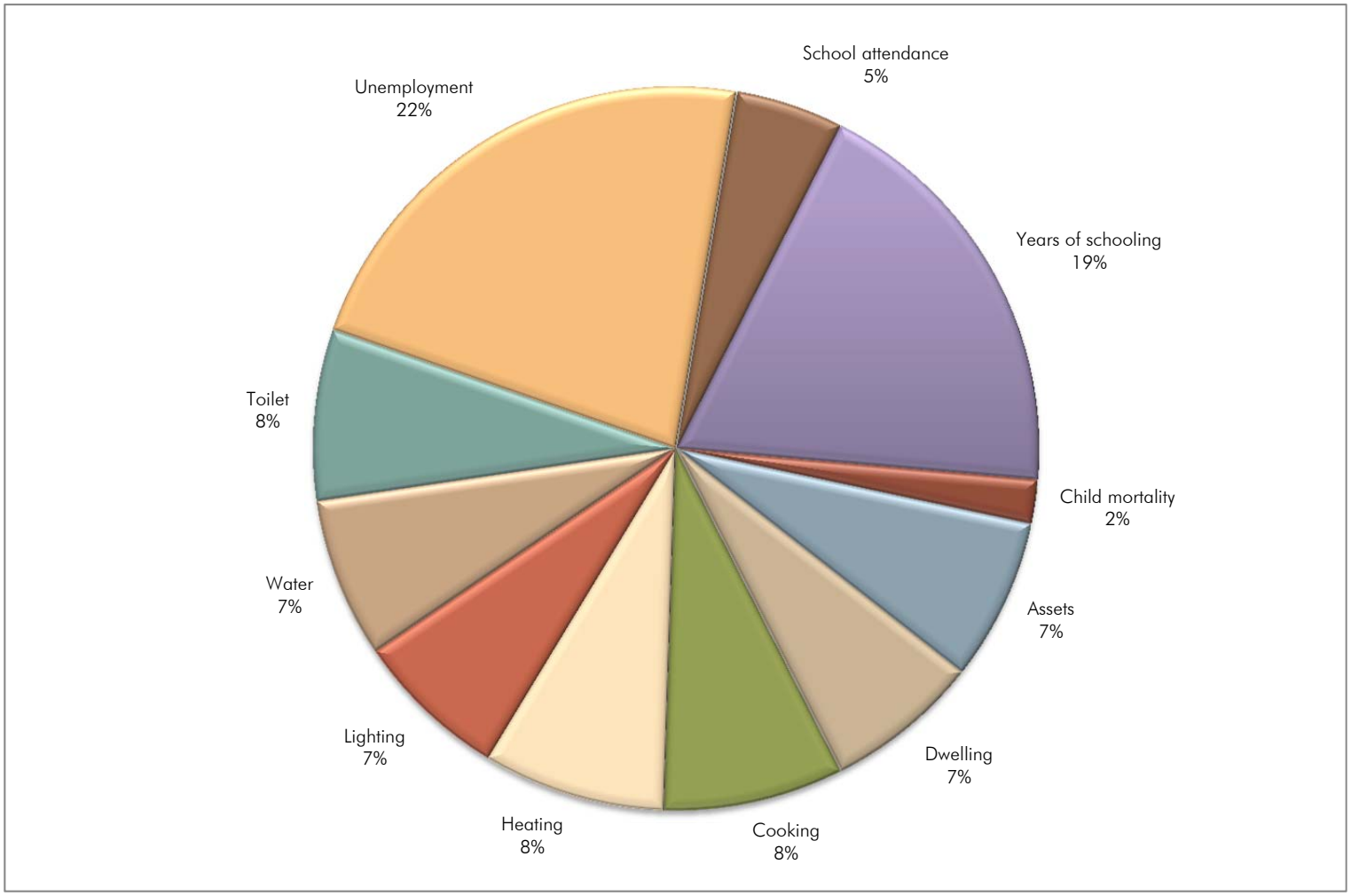


Figure B12b: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Sisonke district municipality SAMPI in 2011

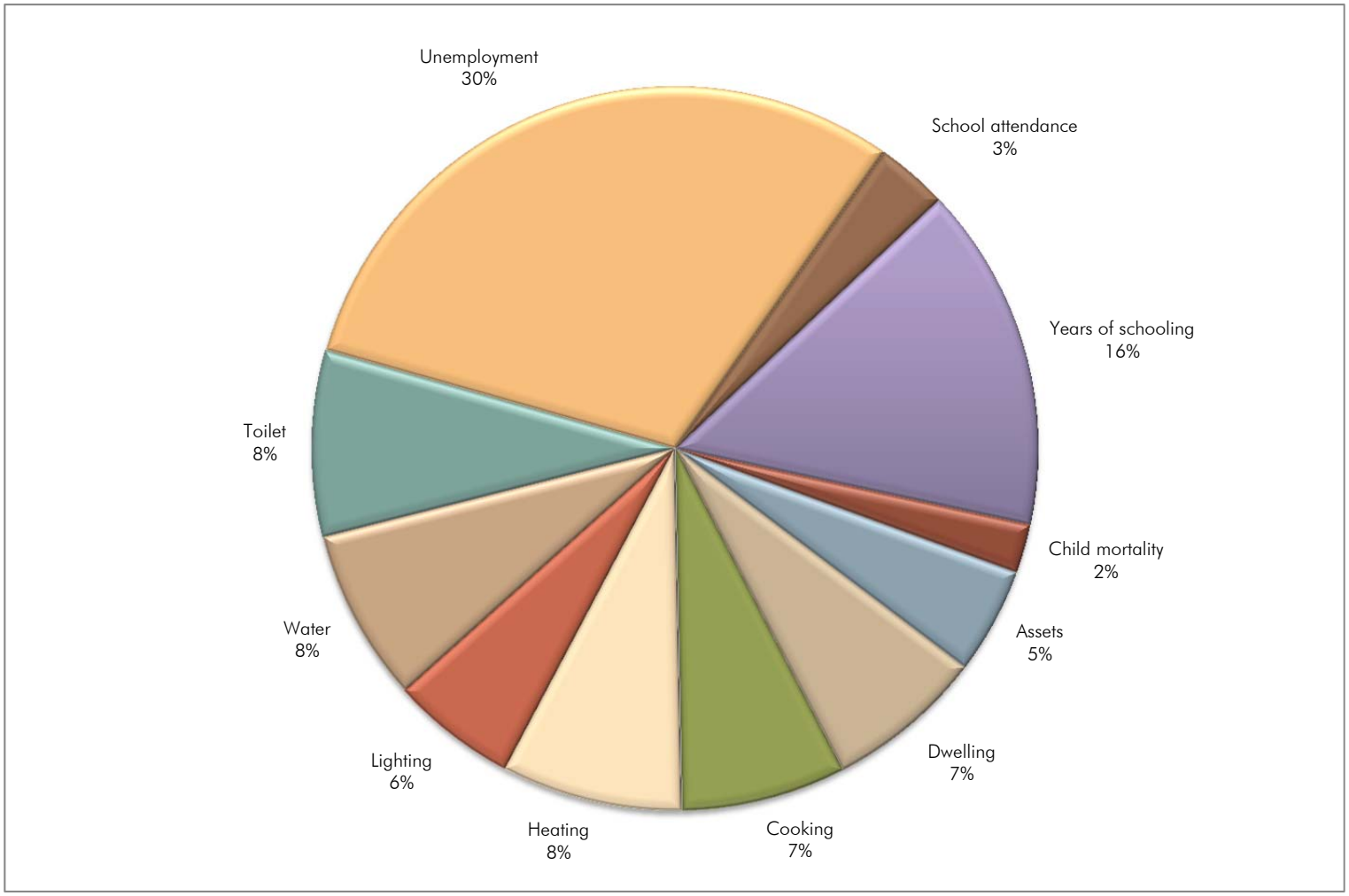


Figure B13a: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Ehlanzeni district municipality SAMPI in 2001

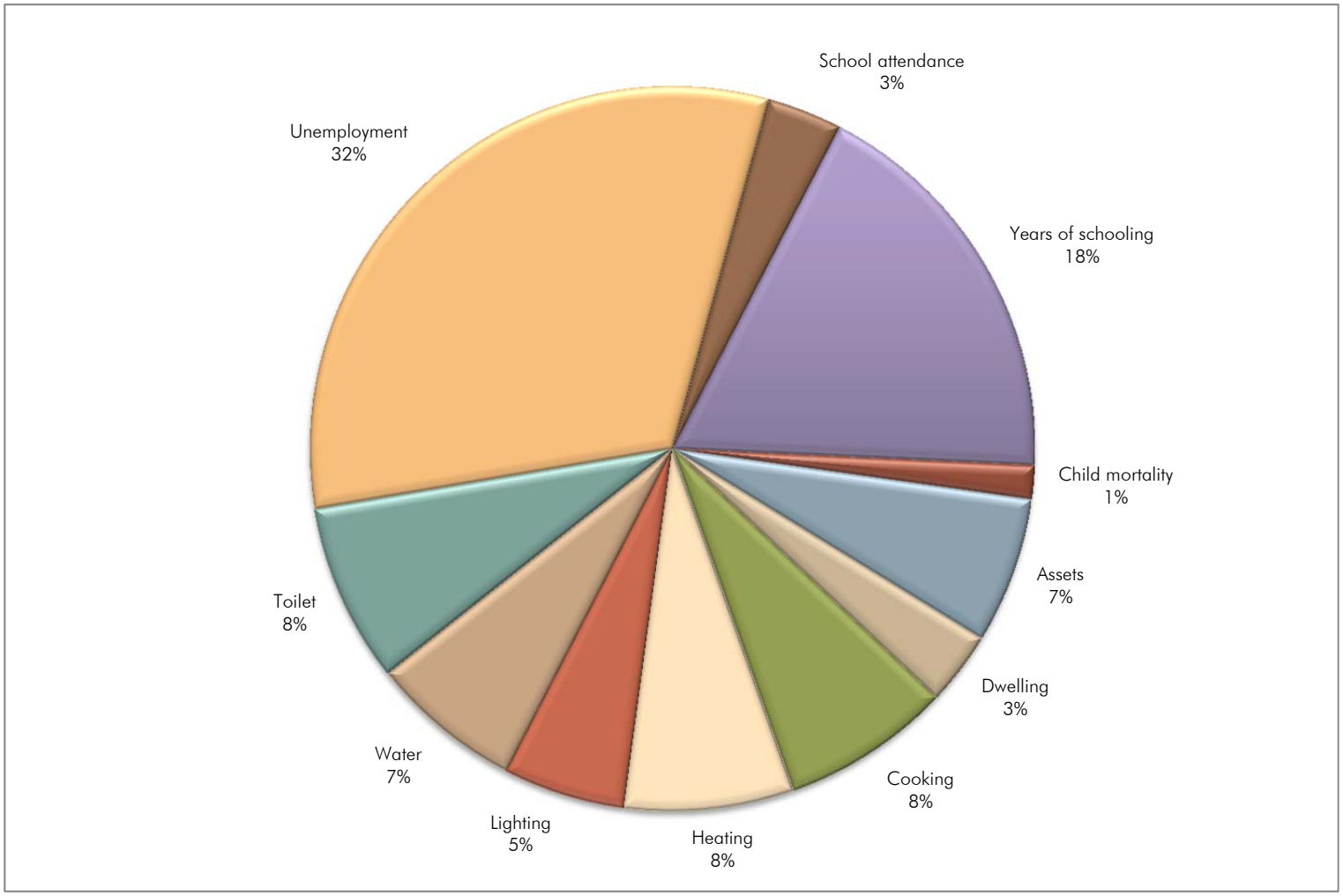


Figure B13b: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Ehlanzeni district municipality SAMPI in 2011

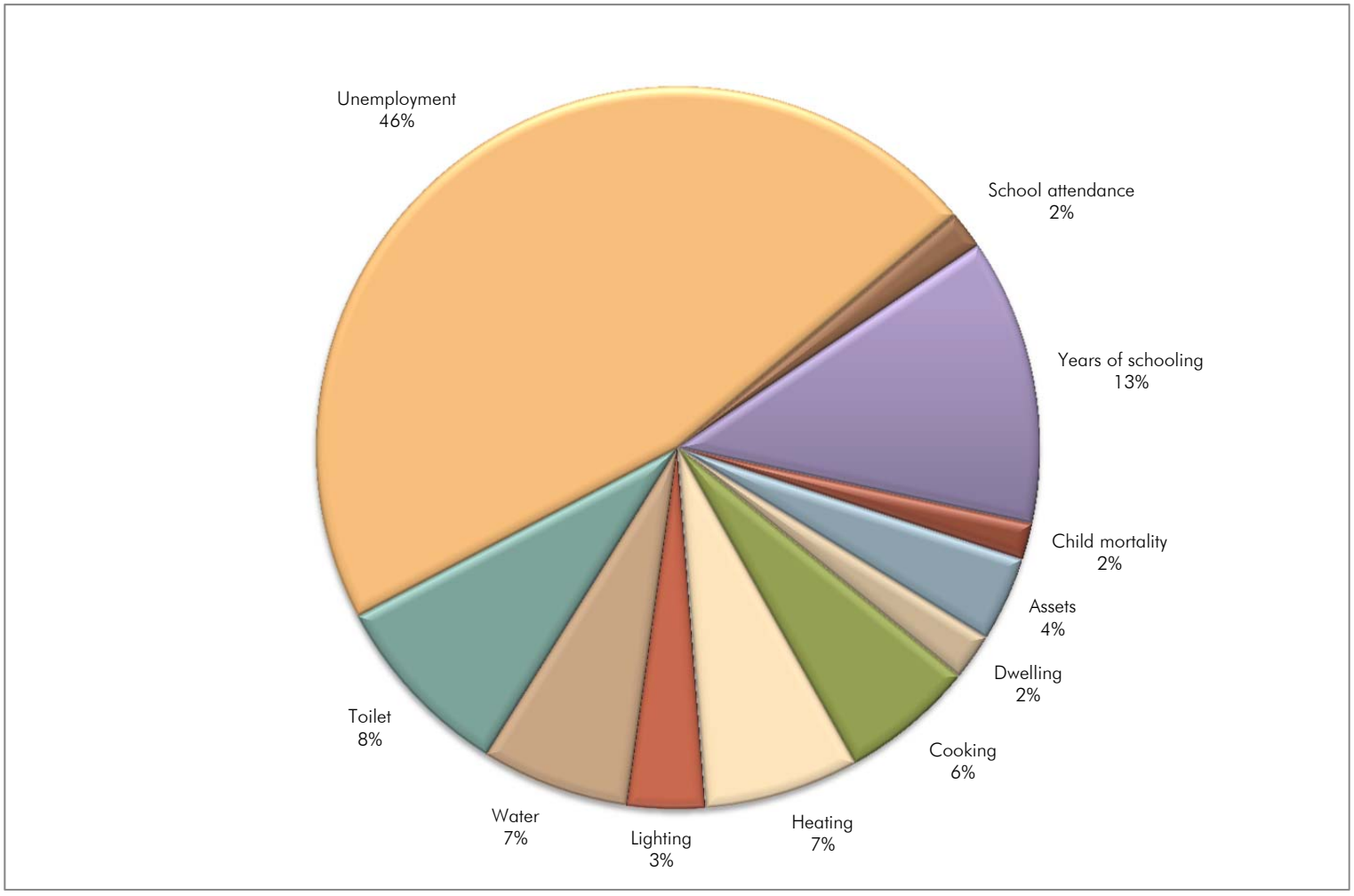


Figure B14a: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Sekhukhune district municipality SAMPI in 2001

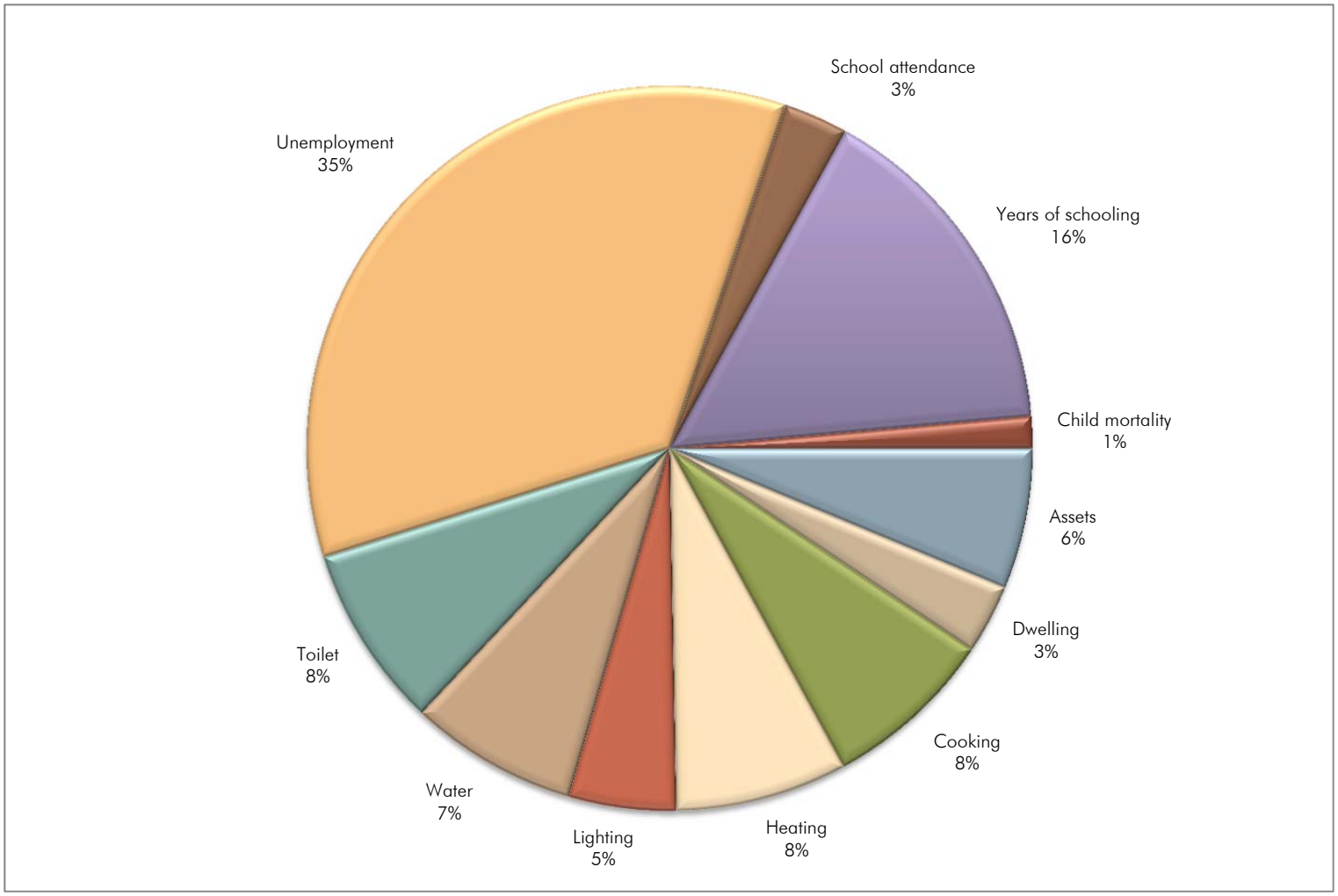


Figure B14b: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Sekhukhune district municipality SAMPI in 2011

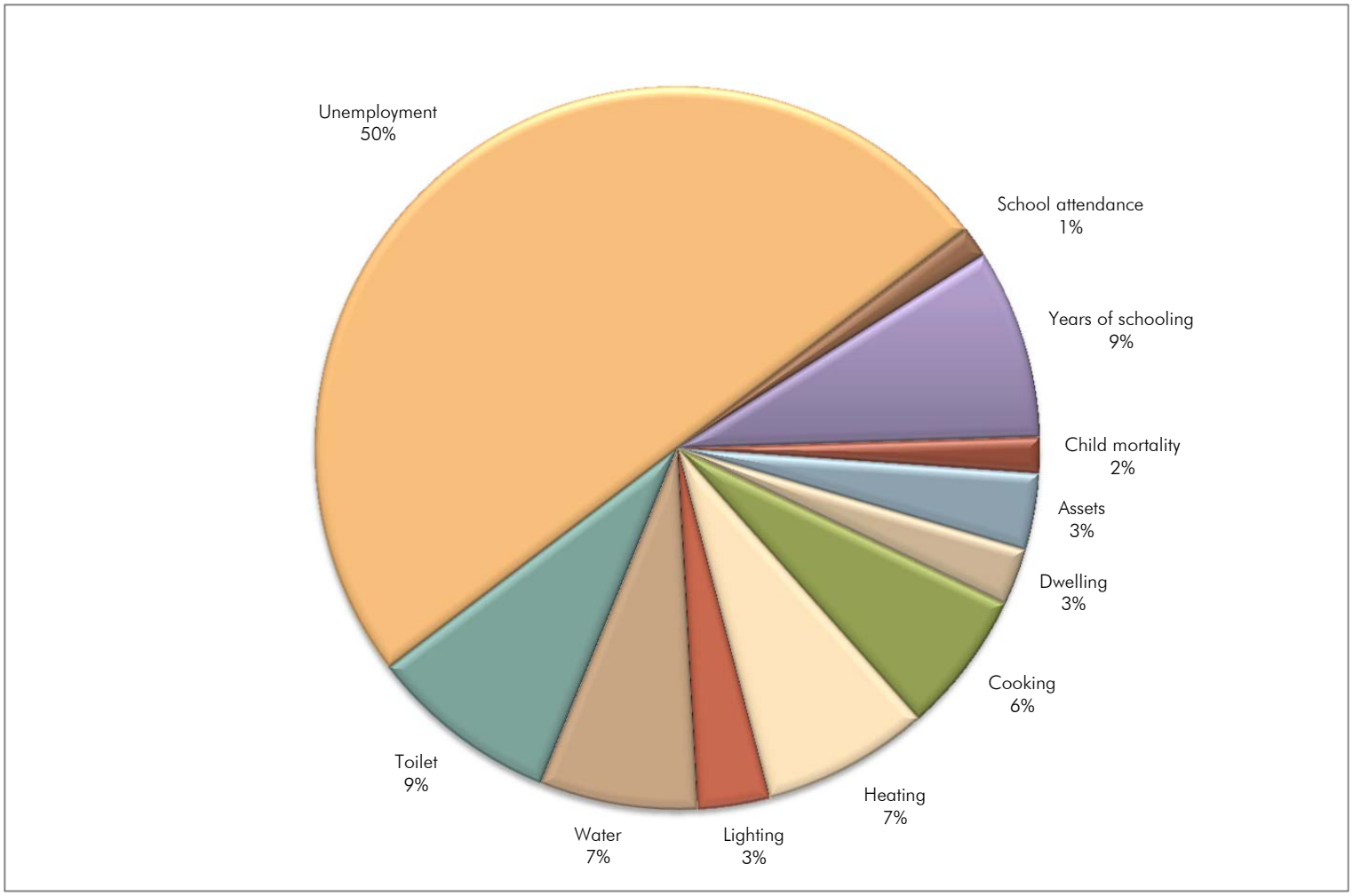


Figure B15a: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Mopani district municipality SAMPI in 2001

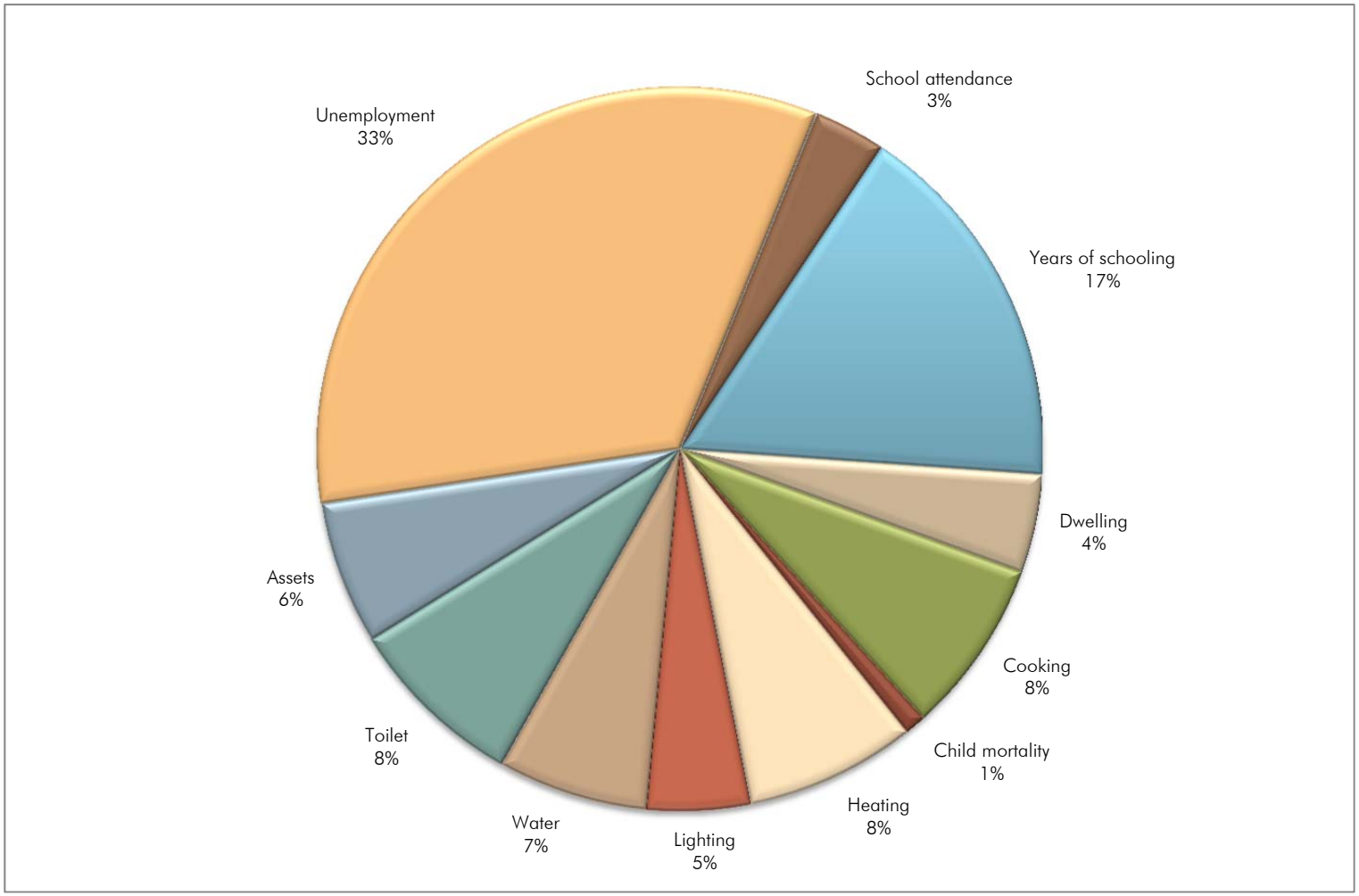


Figure B15b: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Mopani district municipality SAMPI in 2011

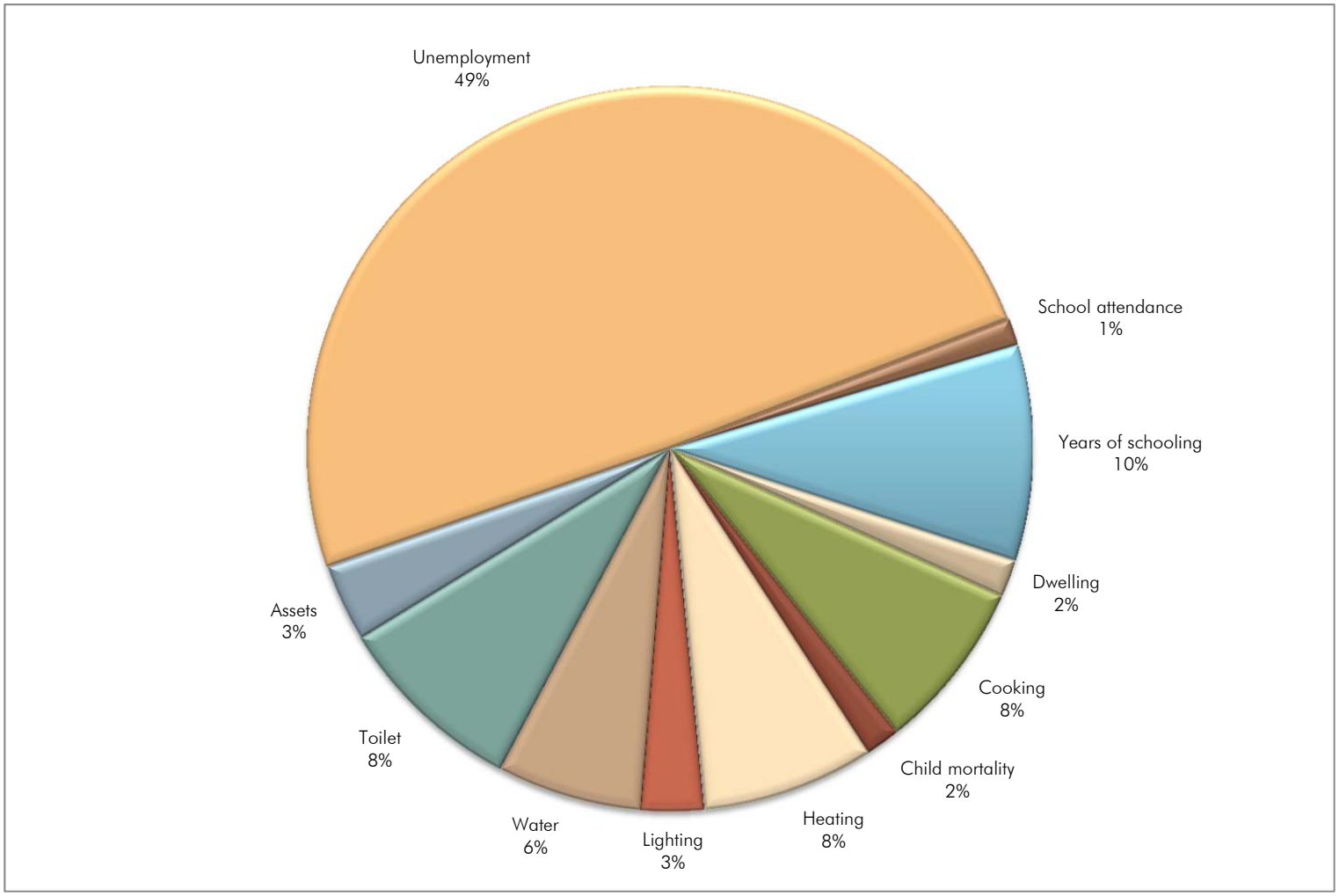


Figure B16a: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Thabo Mofutsanyane district municipality SAMPI in 2001

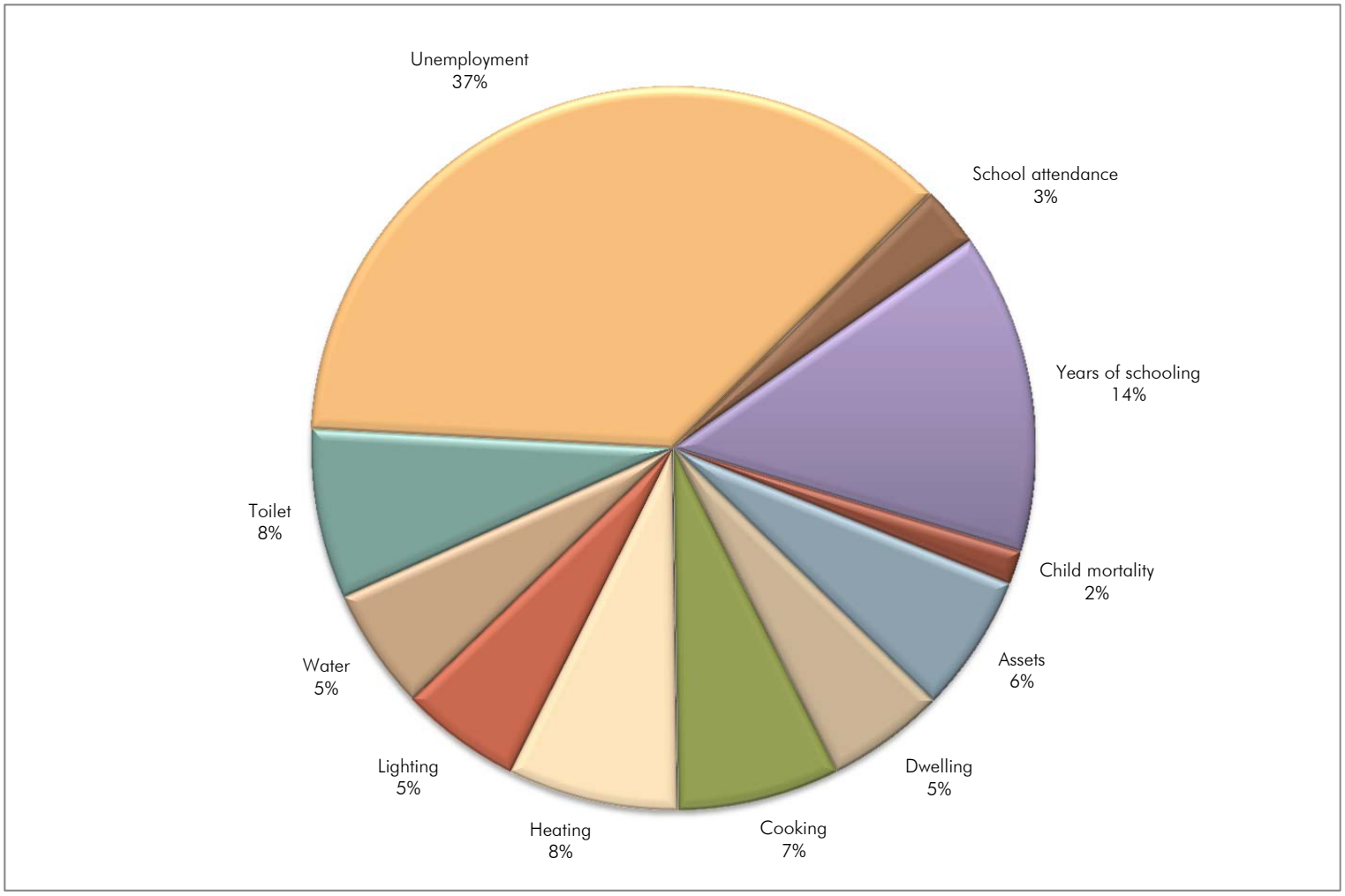


Figure B16b: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Thabo Mofutsanyane district municipality SAMPI in 2011

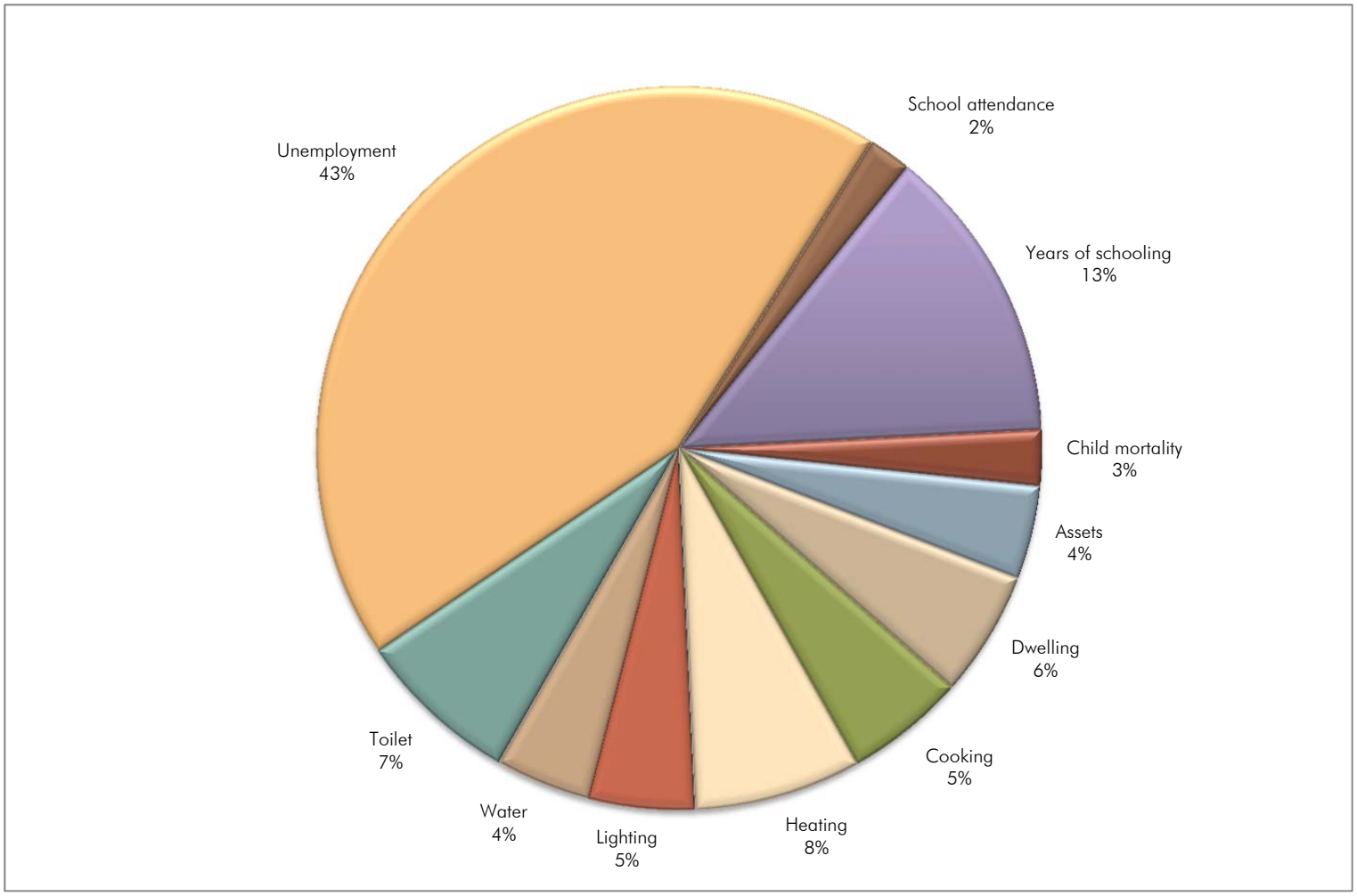


Figure B17a: Contribution of weighted indicators to the John Taolo Gaetsewe district municipality SAMPI in 2001

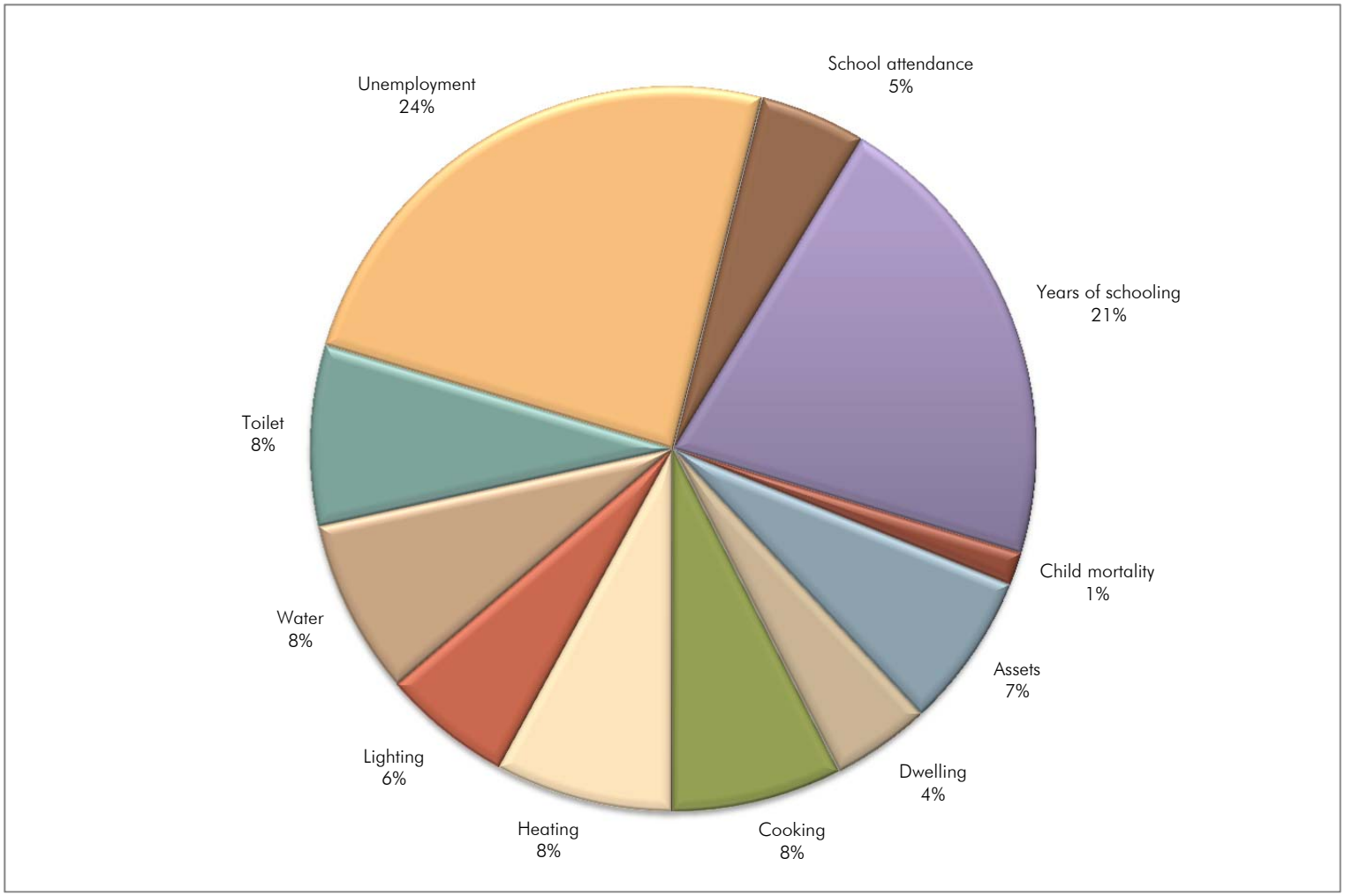


Figure B17b: Contribution of weighted indicators to the John Taolo Gaetsewe district municipality SAMPI in 2011

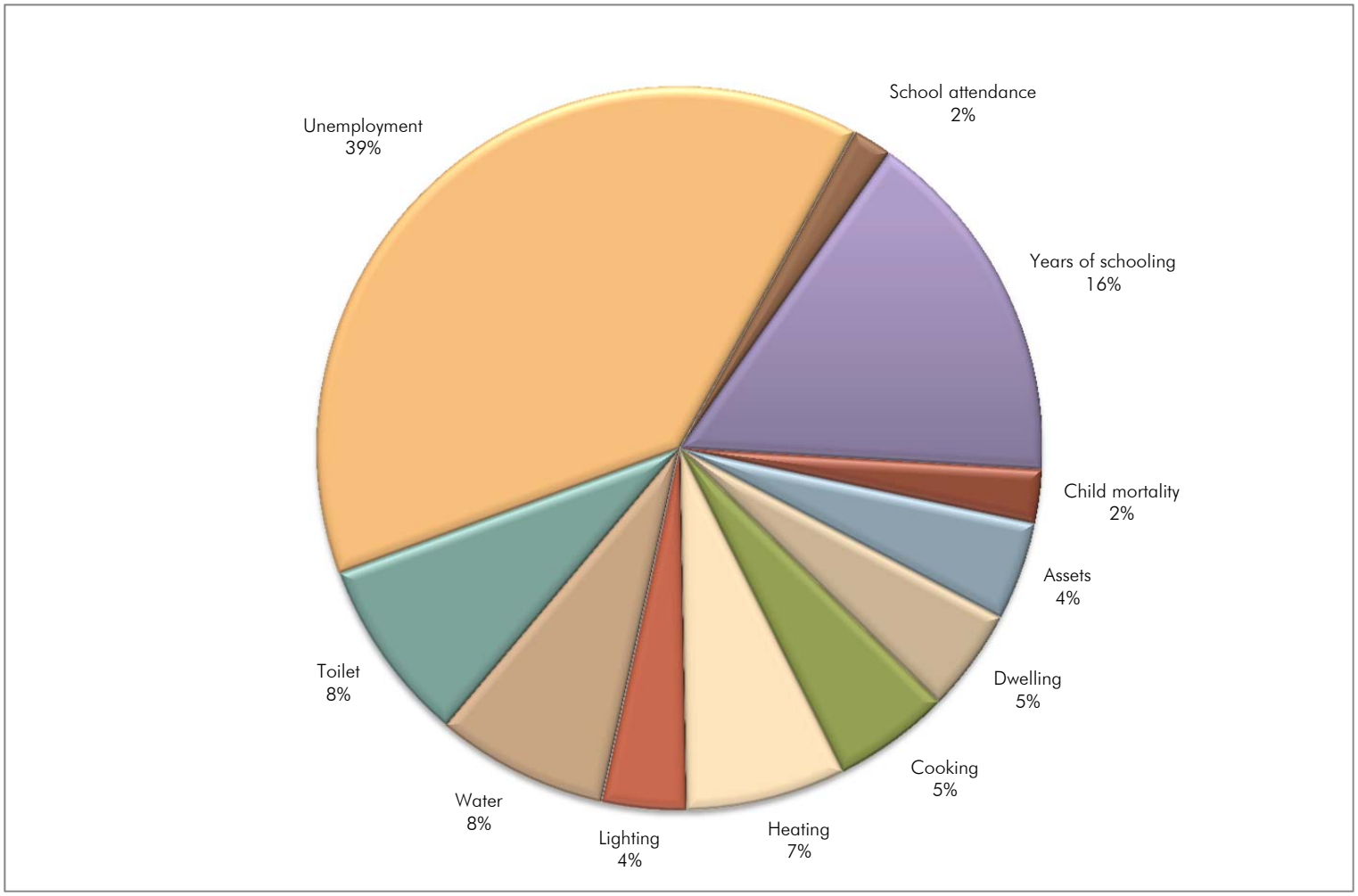


Figure B18a: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Central Karoo district municipality SAMPI in 2001

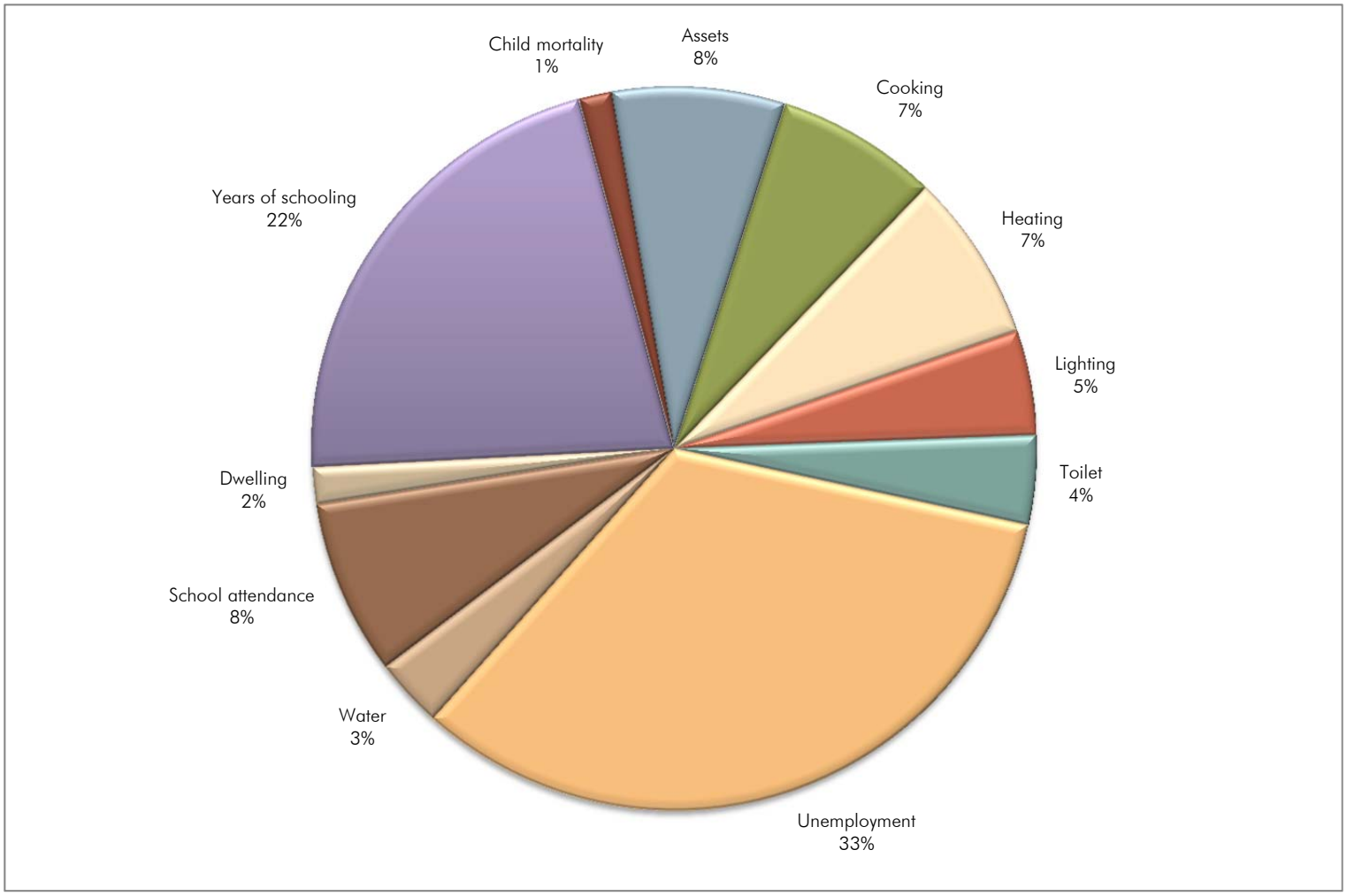
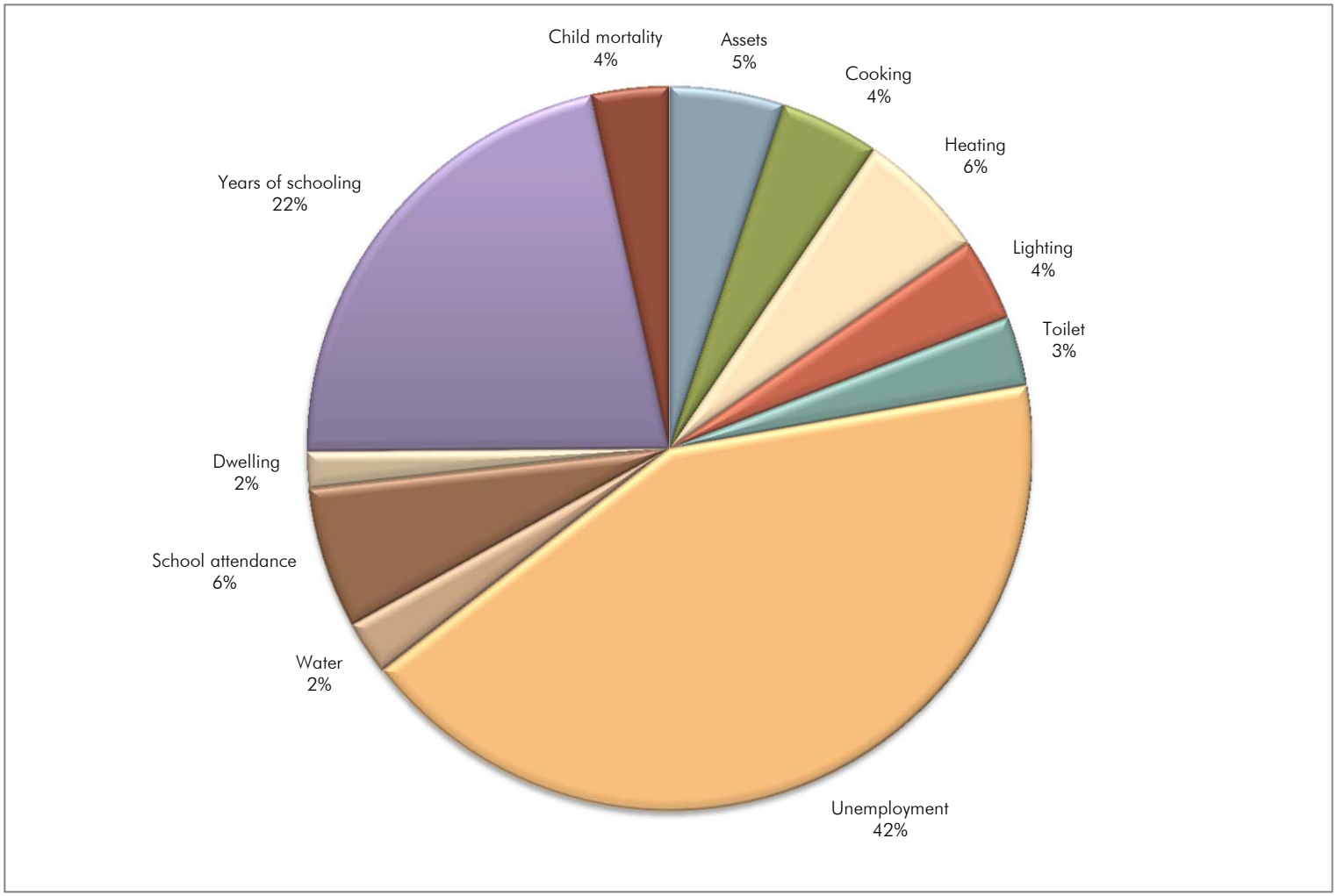


Figure B18b: Contribution of weighted indicators to the Central Karoo district municipality SAMPI in 2011



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