

WOMEN & MEN

IN SOUTH AFRICA
FIVE YEARS ON



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WOMEN AND MEN IN SOUTH AFRICA:
FIVE YEARS ON

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Statistics South Africa
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CONTENTS

Introduction	1
Executive summary	3
Population	
Age and sex pyramid	7
Urban and non-urban	8
Settlement type	9
Families and households	
Marital status	10
Partners	12
Child care facilities	14
Living conditions	
Access to water	17
Access to fuel	20
Education	
Educational achievement	23
Lack of schooling	24
Literacy	25
Health	
Birth facilities	26
Road to Health cards	28
Visits to health workers	29
Facilities	30
Medical aid	32
Work	
Employment status	33
Unemployment	36
Economic activities	38
Sector	39
Industry	40
Occupation	44
Earnings	46
Hours	48
Unpaid work	49
Medical benefits	51
Trade union membership	52
Decision-making	
Head of household	53
Migration	
Location	54
Demographics	55
Industry	56
Occupation	57

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Population by age group and sex, 1996	7
Figure 2: Female and male population in urban and non-urban areas by age, 1996	8
Figure 3: Numbers of women and men in each settlement type, 1996	9
Figure 4: Percentage of population aged 10 years and above who are married or living as husband and wife, by sex and age group, 2001	10
Figure 5: Percentage of population aged 10 years and above who are married or living as husband and wife, by sex and age group, 1995 and 2001	11
Figure 6: Percentage of people married or living as husband and wife whose partner is a member of the same household, by sex and population group, 2001	12
Figure 7: Percentage of people married or living as husband and wife whose partner is a member of the same household, by sex and location, 2001	13
Figure 8: Percentage of children under 7 years of age at a child care facility, by population group and location, 1999	14
Figure 9: Percentage distribution of children under 7 years of age in each population group by type of child care facility	15
Figure 10: Percentage of children attending child care facilities by age and location, 1999	16
Figure 11: Percentage of households without piped water on site in each population group, 1995 and 1999	17
Figure 12: Of households without water on site, the percentage in urban and rural areas fetching water from a source one kilometre or more from the dwelling, 1995 and 1999	18
Figure 13: Of people without water on site, percentage of females and males spending time on water collection, for each distance from the dwelling	19
Figure 14: Percentage of households using wood or dung for cooking in each population group, 1995 and 1999	20
Figure 15: Of households collecting wood or dung, the percentage in urban and rural areas collecting it from a distance of one kilometre or more from the dwelling, 1995 and 1999	21
Figure 16: Of people living where wood or dung needs collecting, percentage of females and males who collect it, for each distance from dwelling	22
Figure 17: Percentage distribution of women and men aged 25 years and more for each population group by highest level of education, 2001	23
Figure 18: Percentage of women and men aged 25 years or more with no formal schooling in each population group, 1995 and 2001	24
Figure 19: Percentage of women and men aged 25 years and above in urban and rural areas who can read in at least one language, 2001	25
Figure 20: Percentage distribution of births in the previous 12 months occurring in hospital, clinics or elsewhere, for each population group, 1999	26
Figure 21: Percentage of births in previous 12 months occurring outside a clinic or hospital, for each population group, 1995 and 1999	27
Figure 22: Percentage of girl and boy babies under 24 months in each population group with Road to Health cards, 1999	28
Figure 23: Percentage of women and men in each population group who visited a health worker during the month prior to the interview, 1999	29
Figure 24: Percentage distribution of health services utilised by men and women during the month prior to the interview, 1999	30
Figure 25: Percentage of men and women in each population group using private health services in the month prior to the interview, 1999	31
Figure 26: Percentage of women and men aged 18 years and above in each population group with access to medical aid benefits, 1995 and 1999	32

Figure 27: Percentage distribution of women and men 15-65 years in each population group by employment status, 2001	33
Figure 28: Percentage of employed women and men aged 15 years and above in each population group, 1995 and 2001	34
Figure 29: Percentage of employed women and men aged 15 years and above for each level of education, 1995 and 2001	35
Figure 30: Official unemployment rate of population aged 15-65 years by population group, sex and location, 2001	36
Figure 31: Official and expanded unemployment rates of population aged 15-65 years by sex and highest level of education, 2001	37
Figure 32: Percentage of women and men aged 15-65 years engaged in different economic activities, 2001	38
Figure 33: Distribution of employed women and men aged 15-65 years in each population group, by employment sector, 2001	39
Figure 34: Percentage distribution of employed women and men aged 15-65 years by industry, 2001	40
Figure 35: Percentage distribution of employed women and men aged 15-65 years by industrial sector, 1995 and 2001	41
Figure 36: Percentage distribution of women and men 15-65 years employed in the non-domestic informal sector, by industry, 2001	42
Figure 37: Percentage distribution of women and men aged 15-65 years employed in the formal sector by industry, 2001	43
Figure 38: Percentage distribution of women and men aged 15-65 years by occupational category, 2001	44
Figure 39: Percentage distribution of employed women and men aged 15-65 years by broad occupational category, 1995 and 2001	45
Figure 40: Percentage distribution of employed women and men aged 15-65 years by earnings, 2001	46
Figure 41: Mean hourly earnings of employed women and men aged 15-65 years in each population group, 2001	47
Figure 42: Mean hours worked during previous seven days among employed women and men aged 15 years and above in each population group, 1995 and 2001	48
Figure 43: Mean minutes per day spent on unpaid housework, care of others and collecting of fuel and water among employed women and men in each population group, 2000	49
Figure 44: Mean minutes per day spent by women and men aged 15-65 years on productive and unproductive activities, 2000	50
Figure 45: Percentage of employed women and men aged 15-65 years in each population group who have medical cover through the workplace for self or self and others, 2001	51
Figure 46: Percentage of non-domestic employees aged 15 years and above who are trade union members in each population group, 1995 and 2001	52
Figure 47: Percentage distribution of persons who bring the largest income into households in each population group, by sex and whether the person is head of household, 2001	53
Figure 48: Migrants by sex and location of household, 1999	54
Figure 49: Age distribution of male and female migrants, 1999	55
Figure 50: Percentage distribution of employed migrants by sex and industry, 1999	56
Figure 51: Percentage distribution of employed migrants by sex and occupation, 1999	57

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INTRODUCTION

In 1998, Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) published the first *Women and Men in South Africa* report, comparing the life circumstances and living conditions of women and men in the country at the time. The statistics presented in that particular report were largely drawn from the October household survey (OHS) of 1995, but it also drew on statistics from data sources outside Stats SA. This booklet is the second *Women and Men in South Africa* publication. It both updates some of the statistics presented in the earlier publication and presents statistics on some new topics. Because of the greater wealth of Stats SA data now available, the report draws only on internal data.

As noted in the previous report, gender statistics extend beyond the mere disaggregation of indicators into the categories of female and male. Gender statistics focus on issues of particular relevance to women and men, girls and boys, and their different roles and positions in society. For example, this report includes information about collection of fuel and water, housework and child care.

Some of the statistics show significant differences between women and men, girls and boys. Other statistics show very small differences between them. We have included both types of statistics in this publication as it is important to know both where there is discrimination or disadvantage and where there is not.

As before, we have grouped the findings into the following broad topics – population, families and households, living conditions, education, health, work, and migration. Each section contains a number of figures and commentary on topics that are considered to have gender relevance internationally and/or in the specific conditions of South Africa. In particular, several figures provide disaggregation by population group and between urban and non-urban areas. Others provide age disaggregation.

The booklet draws on several Stats SA surveys. The main sources of statistics on household, demographic and labour statistics are the 1999 OHS and the labour force survey (LFS) of February 2001. Both of these surveys covered a total of 30 000 households drawn from all provinces, and from urban and non-urban areas. Both surveys were weighted so as to make the results representative of the overall population. Results from these two surveys are compared, where possible, with those from the 1995 OHS.

A third source of survey data is the time use survey (TUS) conducted in February, June and October of 2000. This survey collected information on the daily activities of over 15 000 individuals from around 8 500 households around the country. Again, the data were weighted so as to make them representative of the total population aged 10 years and over. The final source of data was the 1996 population census, conducted in October of that year. Data from the more recent census, conducted in October 2001, were not yet available at time of publication, in early 2002.

There are some small changes in both numbers and proportions between the 1995 statistics quoted in the first *Women and Men* publication and the 1995 statistics quoted in this one. The original analysis drew on data which was weighted according to the results of the 1991 population census, as the 1996 census results were not yet available at that stage. For this publication, we have updated all analysis on the basis of 1995 data weighted to the 1996 population census distribution. Further small changes in presentation of some statistics have been made to allow comparability where questionnaires for later surveys had been changed in some way between 1995 and later surveys. These changes are noted in the text.

In all surveys, there are questions that some respondents refuse to answer, or for which they give incomplete responses. Fortunately, this occurs relatively rarely in Stats SA surveys, and in respect of the variables which we examine in this publication. Where there are unknown values for a particular variable, we have excluded them when calculating percentages.

This publication contains over 50 figures, one per page. The text describes the figures and also refers to additional statistics where applicable. This format of one figure and several bullet points per page was chosen to facilitate production of presentations, as the presenter can simply make overheads of selected pages.

This publication therefore reveals only a tiny fraction of the information available from Stats SA to those interested in gender issues. We hope that the publication will stimulate interest among readers in exploring further what is available.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

POPULATION

The population census of October 1996 established that there were a total of 40,6 million people living in the country at the time, of whom 52% were women.

Over two-thirds (67-68%) of the urban population is in the age group 15-65 years. This age group is used as the basis for calculations of labour force activity and unemployment. In non-urban areas, however, a smaller percentage of the population – 55% female and 52% male – are in this age group.

FAMILIES AND HOUSEHOLDS

The percentage of women who are married or living together as husband and wife increases with age up until the age group 40-49 years, after which it decreases. Only 1% of female teenagers are married or living together, compared to around three-fifths of women between the ages of 30 and 59 years. Among older women, the percentage of those who are married or living together drops to under a third (32%), compared to 81% of men aged between 50 and 59 years. The difference in the patterns for women and men can largely be explained by different ages at marriage and differences in longevity.

For both women and men, a smaller proportion were reported to be married or cohabiting in 2001 than in 1995 for all age groups except the youngest. The change in the percentage of married and cohabiting people between 1995 and 2001 is generally smaller for men than for women.

Close on a quarter (23%) of African women and 20% of African men live apart from their partners. In the other population groups, 95% or more of all women and men who are married or 'living together' live in the same households as their partners. Married people in urban areas are more likely than those in non-urban areas to be living with their partners. Migrant labour is one of the main reasons for the patterns in respect of people in non-urban areas who are married or in permanent relationships but who are not living together.

In urban areas, 61% of children under seven years of age attend a crèche, preschool or similar child care facility. In rural areas, the percentage is lower, at 49%. For African, coloured and Indian children, day-mothers are the most common form of care. For white children, a crèche or educare is the most common form. At each age, a significantly higher proportion of urban than non-urban children attend child care facilities.

LIVING CONDITIONS

The majority of South African households utilise a piped water source either inside their dwellings or on site. However, in 1995, 30% of households were reliant on other sources. In 1999, 34% of households were reliant on these other sources. More than one in every seven (15-16%) of non-urban households was at a distance of one kilometre or more from their water source in both 1995 and 1999.

When the water source is one kilometre or more distant from the dwelling, female members of the household are almost three times as likely as male members to collect water. The average time per day spent collecting water increases from 44 minutes for collectors living in households within 100

metres of the water source, to 71 minutes for collectors in households at a distance of a kilometre or more from the source.

In 1995, a quarter (25%) of all South African households used wood or dung as their main fuel for cooking purposes. By 1999, this had dropped to one-fifth (20%) of households. Over half (52%) of households relied on electricity, while just over a fifth (21%) used paraffin. Just under half of all households which collected fuel were collecting it from a source at a distance of one kilometre or more from the dwelling in both 1995 and 1999.

Whatever the distance from the fuel source, female members of the household are more likely than male members to collect the fuel. The mean time per day spent collecting fuel rises from 78 minutes for members of households which are within 100 metres of the source, to over two hours (128 minutes) for those which are at a distance of a kilometre or more.

EDUCATION

Close on one-fifth (18%) of African women aged 25 years and older, and 13% of African men, have no formal schooling, compared to fewer than 1% of white women and men. Among African women and men and coloured women, 6% or fewer have a qualification higher than matric. There was a decrease in the percentage of women and men without formal schooling in each population group between 1995 and 2001. The decrease is most marked for African women and men, at five and three percentage points respectively.

HEALTH

Among African women, close on three-quarters (74%) of births occur in hospital, while among coloured and white women the percentage is 88% or higher. Only 3% of urban births occur outside a hospital or clinic, while this is the case for 16% of non-urban births. There was little change in these patterns between 1995 and 1999.

The overwhelming majority of babies under 24 months in South Africa are reported to have Road to Health cards. There are very small differences between the population groups and between girl and boy babies.

Overall, 15% of female household members and 11% of male ones were reported to have visited to a health worker in the month prior to the October household survey of 1999. The higher female proportion probably reflects the fact that women visit health services for reproductive services more often than men.

Among those who visited a health worker during the previous month, over one-third (35%) visited a private doctor, 28% used a public clinic and 19% used a public hospital. Female utilisation of public hospitals is higher than male utilisation, at 30% and 25% respectively.

White people are most likely to utilise private services – 85% of white male visits and 81% of white female visits were to private facilities, compared to only 40% of African and coloured female visits, 41% of African male visits and 44% of coloured male visits.

White women and men are more than twice as likely as Indian women and men to have access to medical aid benefits, and three or more times as likely as coloured or African women and men. There are very small differences in access between women and men within the different population groups.

WORK

Within each population group, a smaller proportion of women than men in the age group 15 to 65 years are employed and a larger proportion are not economically active. Among both women and men, the proportion of employed is highest among whites.

Among women, the percentage employed in 2001 was larger than the percentage employed in 1995 across all population groups. The difference between the two years was most marked for African women, and for women with no formal educational qualifications. Part of this difference may be explained by a change in the questionnaire, which used more probing question on informal sector and small-scale agricultural activities. Among men, the percentage employed stayed the same or decreased slightly for all population groups, but also increased among those with no formal educational qualifications.

The official unemployment rate is highest among urban African women (35,7%) and lowest among non-urban white men (4,9%). Within each population group, and in both urban and non-urban areas, the unemployment rate is higher for women than for men. With one exception – those with no formal education – the unemployment rate using the expanded definition is lower for men than for women for all population and educational groupings. The difference between the official and expanded rates of unemployment is largest for women with no formal education. It seems that unemployed women may be less able to seek work actively, due to time, finance, transport and other constraints. They are thus more likely to become discouraged workseekers.

Close on half (49%) of all men aged between 15 and 65 years, and 37% of the women engage in at least one economic activity. The most common form of activity is work as an employee other than a domestic worker. The percentage of women and men engaging in an activity is very similar for most activities. The exceptions are work as a non-domestic employee, which is markedly more common for men than women, and work as a domestic employee, which is more common for women than men.

Just over half (52%) of employed women work in the formal sector, compared to close on three-quarters (74%) of employed men. Formal sector work is least common for African women (38%) and most common for white men (93%) and women (92%).

The trade industry accounts for the main job of 30% of employed women and 20% of employed men between 15 and 65 years. There was a ten percentage point increase in the percentage of women employed in wholesale and retail trade between 1995 and 2001.

The industrial distribution in the informal sector is very skewed towards a limited range of industries. The skewness is particularly marked for women, in that well over half (57%) are employed in trade, 20% in agriculture and under 10% in each of the remaining industries.

In 2001, 40% of employed women between the ages of 15 and 65 years were in unskilled occupations, compared to 20% of employed men. Between 1995 and 2001, there was a significant

increase in the percentage of employed women who were in artisan and operator occupations – from 8% of the total in 1995 to 15% in 2001.

In 2001, close on one fifth (19%) of employed women, compared to 9% of men, earned R200 or less per month. Nearly a quarter (23%) of men, but only 14% of women, earned more than R4 500 per month.

Among all population groups, men tended to work more hours than women in both 1995 and 1999. Mean hours worked increased between 1995 and 2001 for women and men in all population groups. The increase was most marked for African men, and African and white women.

Mean hourly earnings of employees are higher for men than women across all population groups. The male–female differential is largest for white employees. The differences in earnings between employees of different population groups are generally greater than the differences between women and men employees within a particular population group. White male employees, in particular, earn nearly five times as much per hour, on average, than African female employees.

Across all population groups, employed women spend far more time, on average, than employed men on unpaid tasks such as housework, caring for household members, and community work. Among both women and men, African people tend to spend longer than those of other population groups on these tasks. Overall, female individuals spend an average of 344 minutes per day on paid and unpaid productive activities combined, compared to 313 minutes for males.

More or less the same proportion of employed women and men have medical aid cover in the coloured, Indian and white groups. Among African workers, however, 7% of men but only 4% of women are covered. Within each population group men are more likely than women to be covered for self and dependants, while women are more likely to have cover only for themselves.

There was an increase in trade union membership for all groups except Indian women between 1995 and 2001. The biggest increase was among white and coloured women, where the increases were ten and eight percentage points respectively.

In 38% of African households the female head is named as the source of the largest income, and in another 7% a female who is not the head is named as the source. Only 7% of all men named as bringing in the most money are not household heads, while this is the case for 21% of female main money-earners.

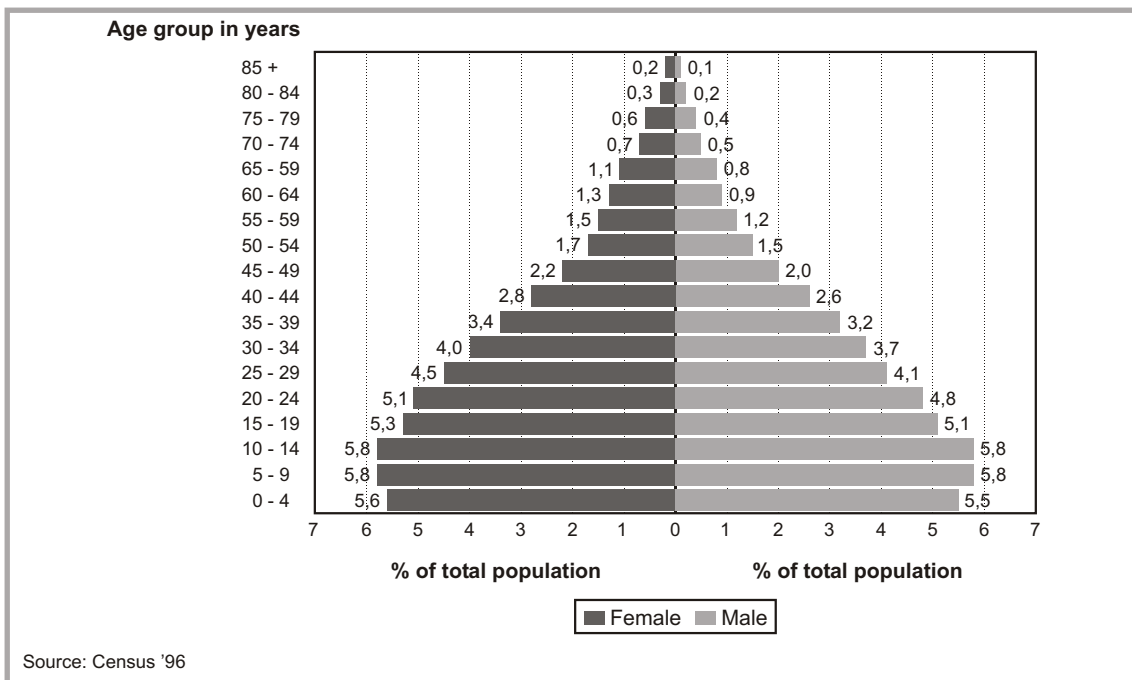
MIGRATION

In 1999, households reported about twice as many male migrants as female. The overwhelming majority of migrants – 2,0 million of the total of 2,5 million, or 83% – come from non-urban areas. Two-fifth (40%) of migrants from urban households compared to 32% of those from non-urban households are female. Female migrants tend to be younger than male. Among both male and female migrants, the 30-39 age group accounts for around a third of all migrants.

Over a third (34%) of female migrants who are employed work in the services sector and a further third (34%) in trade. Among male migrants, no industry accounts for more than 15% of all those for whom an industry is reported. Three-fifths (60%) of all employed female migrants and one-fifth (20%) of employed male migrants have elementary occupations.

POPULATION: AGE AND SEX PYRAMID

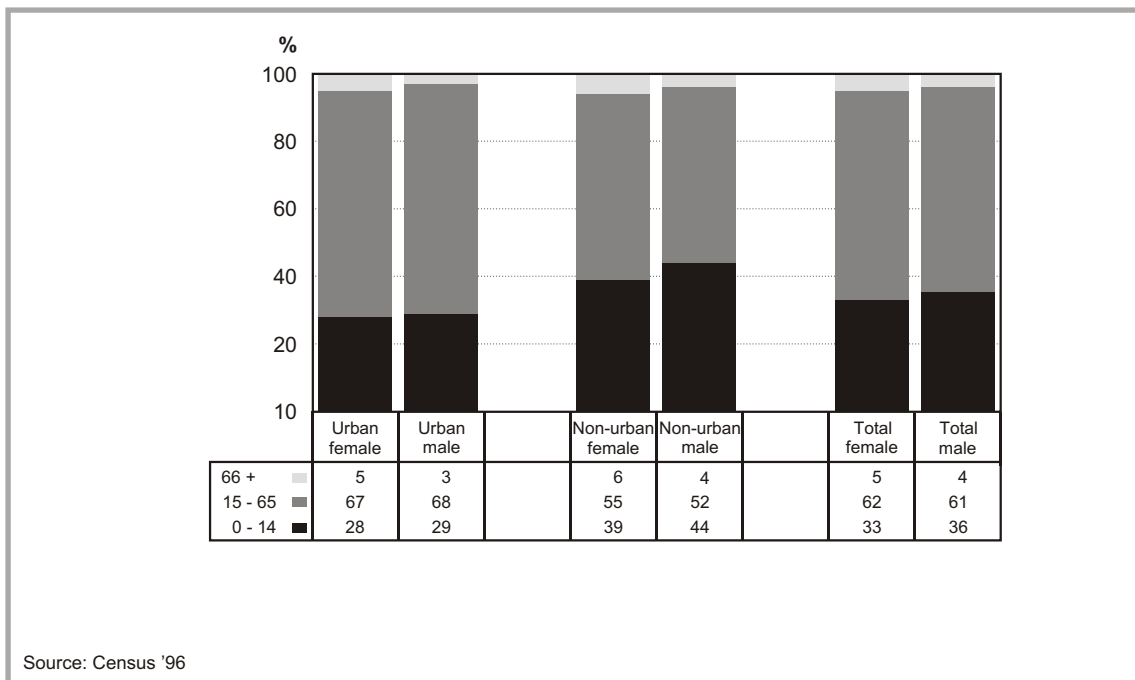
Figure 1: Population by age group and sex, 1996



- The population census of October 1996 established that there was a total of 40,6 million people living in the country at the time, of whom 52% were women.
- Figure 1 reveals that the population is skewed towards the younger ages. Over a third (34%) of the population is under 15 years of age. Over half (55%) is under 25 years of age.
- There are more or less equal percentages of male and female individuals in each age group. Among the older age groups, however, there is a tendency for females to predominate. For example, women aged 40 years and above account for 12% of the total population, while men in this age group account for 10% of the total population.

POPULATION: URBAN AND NON-URBAN

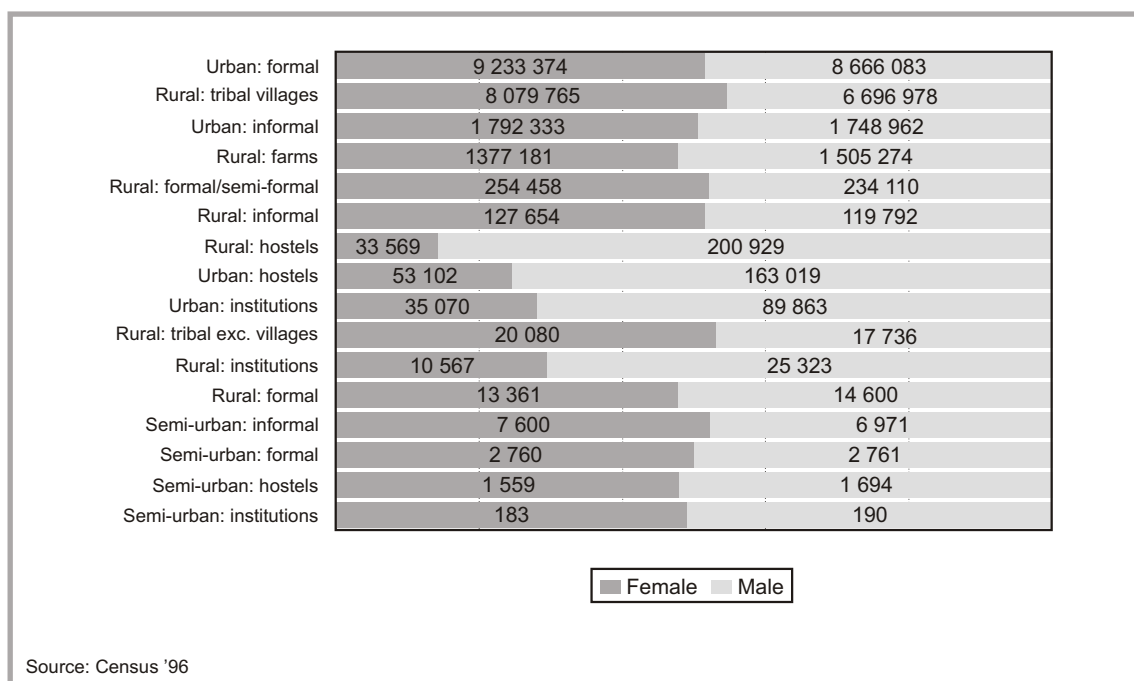
Figure 2: Female and male population in urban and non-urban areas by age, 1996



- Figure 2 illustrates the age distribution of the male and female population in urban and non-urban areas in October 1996.
- Over two-thirds (67-68%) of the urban population is in the age group 15-65 years. This is the age group which is used as the basis for calculations of labour force activity and unemployment. In non-urban areas, a smaller percentage of the population – 55% of females and 52% of males – are in this age group.
- In non-urban areas, children under 15 years make up 39% of the female population and 44% of the male population. This is significantly higher than the 28-29% of the urban population made up of children of this age.
- There is only a one percentage point difference in the proportions of older people in urban and non-urban areas.

POPULATION: SETTLEMENT TYPE

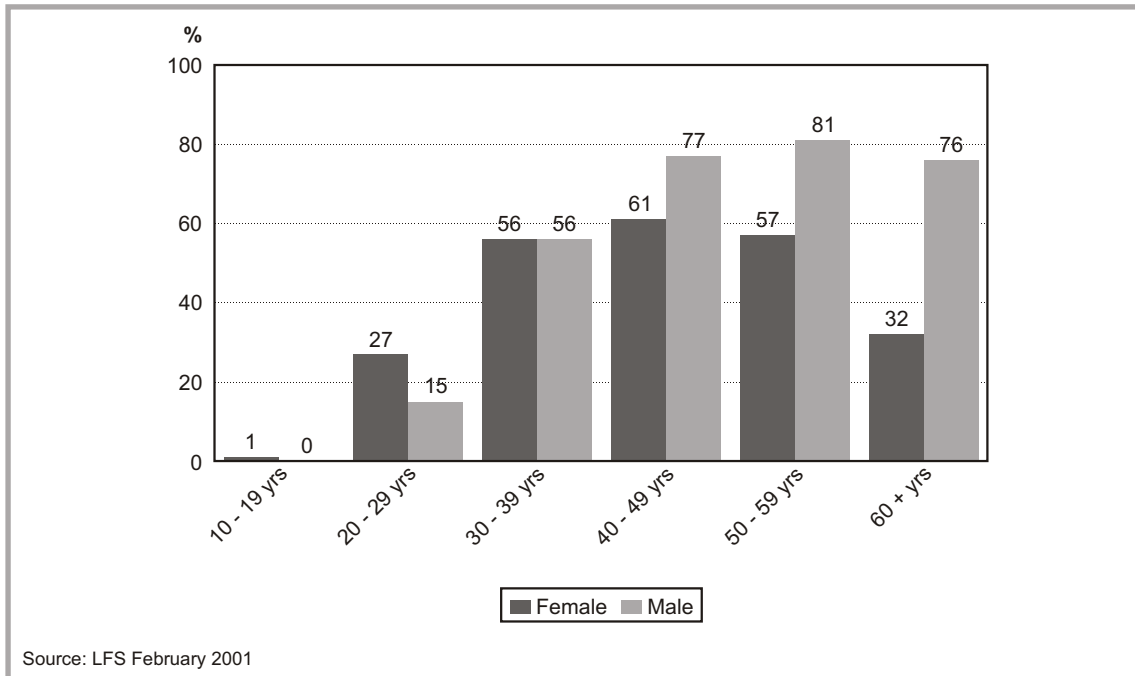
Figure 3: Numbers of women and men in each settlement type, 1996



- Figure 3 disaggregates area of residence further to reveal the sex composition within each urban and rural settlement type. These types of area are ordered from most populous to least populous. Each line in the figure represents 100% of the population in that settlement type.
- The four most populous types of area together account for around 96% of the population. Urban formal areas house 44% of the population, rural tribal villages 36%, urban informal areas 9%, and rural commercial farms 7%.
- Rural and urban hostels and institutions are heavily dominated by male residents. This pattern can be explained by the predominance of hostels provided by workplaces such as mines and institutions such as prisons.
- The female proportion of the population is highest in rural tribal villages, followed by other types of rural settlements.

FAMILIES AND HOUSEHOLDS: MARITAL STATUS 1

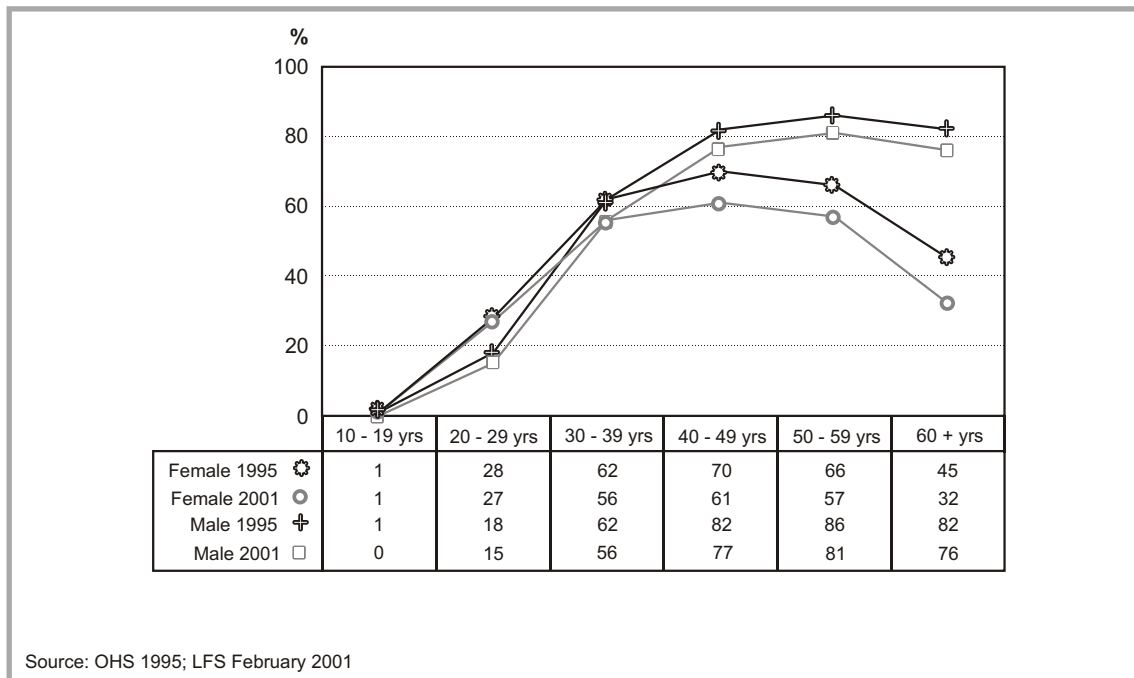
Figure 4: Percentage of population aged 10 years and above who are married or living as husband and wife, by sex and age group, 2001



- Figure 4 shows that the percentage of women who are married or living as husband and wife increases with age up until the age group 40-49 years, after which it decreases. Only 1% of female teenagers are married or 'living together', compared to around three-fifths of women between the ages of 30 and 59 years. Among older women, the percentage married or 'living together' drops to under a third (32%).
- Figure 4 shows that less than 1% of teenage boys are married or living with a partner. Between 30 and 39 years, a similar proportion of women and men are married or cohabiting. At older ages, a higher proportion of men than women are married or cohabiting – as many as 81% of men aged between 50 and 59 years.
- The difference in the patterns for women and men can largely be explained by different ages at marriage and differences in longevity. In the younger age groups most of those who are not married have never married. In the older age groups many of those who are not married are widowed. The lower percentage of married or cohabiting women than married or cohabiting men at older ages occurs because women tend to have partners who are older than them, and because women tend to live longer than men. They are thus more likely than men to be widowed.

FAMILIES AND HOUSEHOLDS: MARITAL STATUS 2

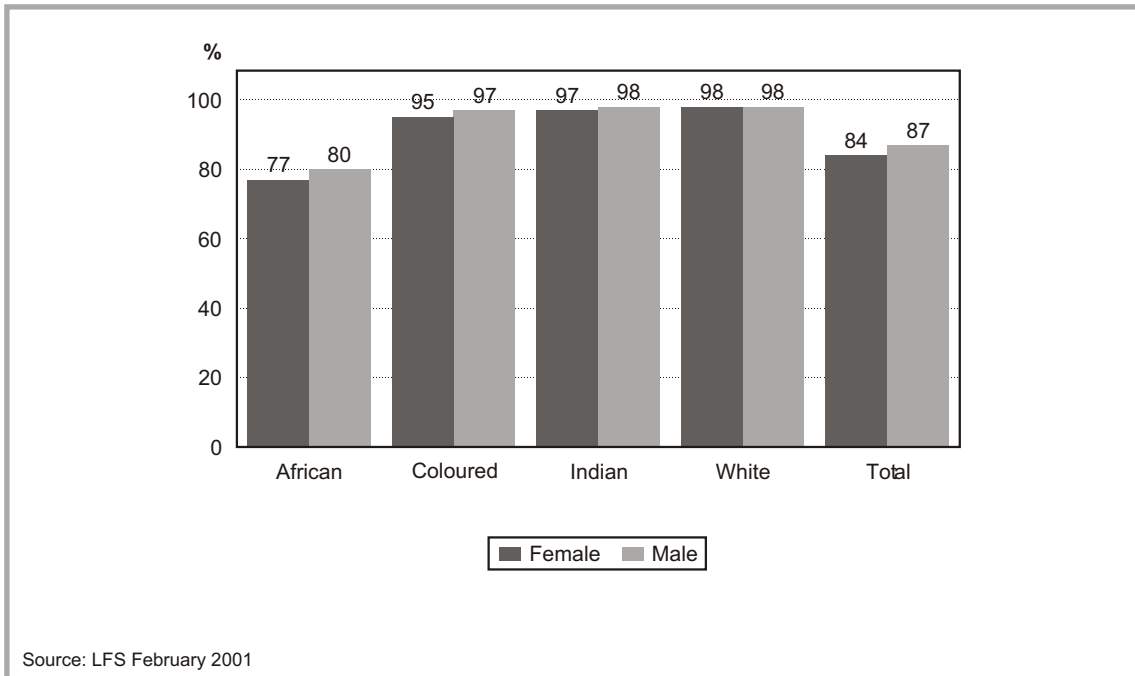
Figure 5: Percentage of population aged 10 years and above who are married or living as husband and wife, by sex and age group, 1995 and 2001



- Figure 5 compares the situation in 1995 and 2001 in respect of marriage and cohabitation.
- For both women and men, a smaller proportion are reported to be married or cohabiting in 2001 than in 1995 for all age groups except the youngest.
- Among 20-29 year olds the difference between the percentages married and cohabiting in 1995 and 2001 amounts to only a few percentage points. Among women aged 40-49 years and aged 60 years or more the differences in the 1995 and 2001 percentages are more than ten percentage points.
- The change in the percentage married and cohabiting between 1995 and 2001 is generally smaller for men than for women.

FAMILIES AND HOUSEHOLDS: PARTNERS 1

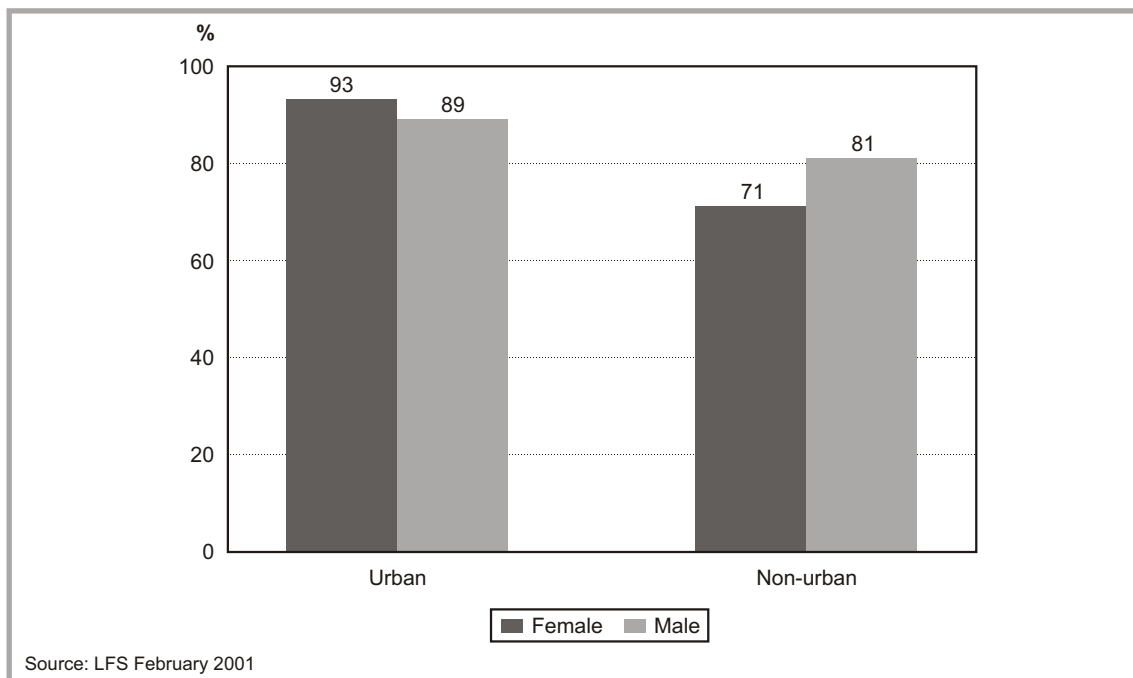
Figure 6: Percentage of people married or living as husband and wife whose partner is a member of the same household, by sex and population group, 2001



- Figure 6 focuses on women and men who are married or living as husband and wife. It shows, for each population group, what percentage of these women and men have their partners living in the same household. Some of the cases of separated partners can be explained by continuing migrant labour, whereby many men, in particular, move away from their homes to find work.
- African married women and men are least likely to have their partners in the same household. Close on a quarter (23%) of African women and 20% of African men live apart from their partners.
- In the other population groups, 95% or more of all married women and men live in the same households as their partners. In the Indian and coloured groups, as with Africans, women are less likely than men to report living in the same household as their partners.

FAMILIES AND HOUSEHOLDS: PARTNERS 2

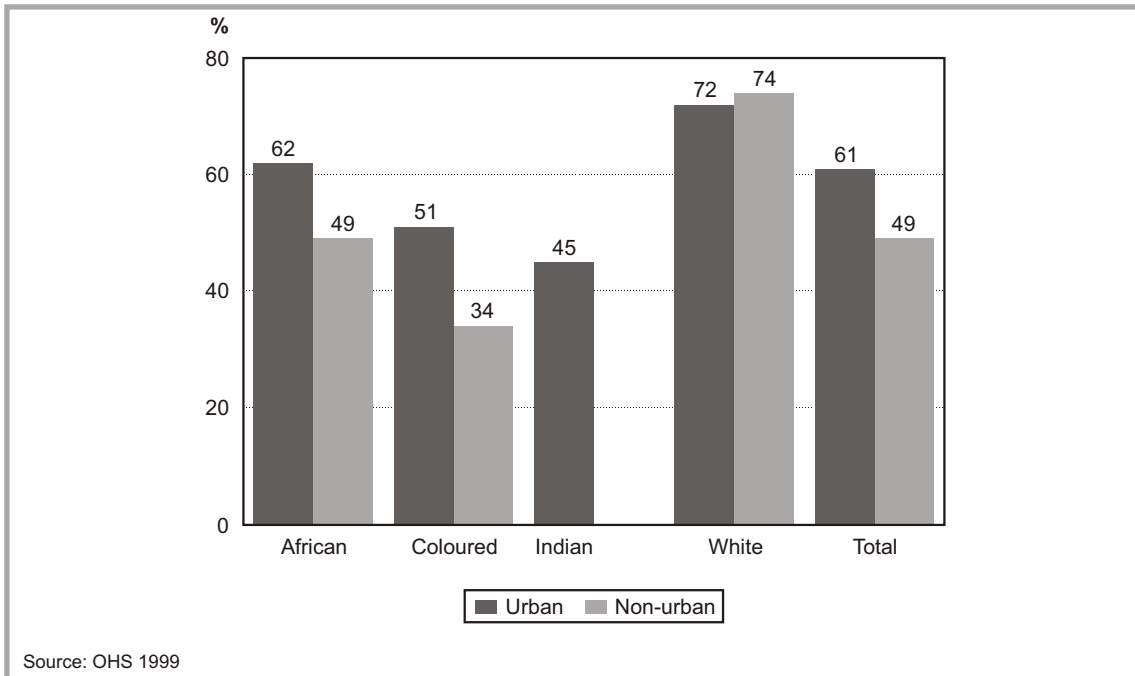
Figure 7: Percentage of people married or living as husband and wife whose partner is a member of the same household, by sex and location, 2001



- Figure 7 compares the percentages of married women and men in urban and non-urban areas who are living with their partners. It shows that married people in urban areas are more likely than those in non-urban areas to be living with their partners.
- In urban areas, a slightly higher percentage of married women (93%) than married men (89%) are living with their partners. In non-urban areas, on the other hand, a markedly higher percentage of married men (81%) than married women (71%) are living with their partners.
- Historically, the most common form of migrant labour is for men in rural areas to go to urban areas in search of work. Figure 7 provides further evidence that it is migrant labour that is largely responsible for the patterns in respect of married people living together. It suggests that it is the women left in the rural areas, and the men who have moved to urban areas who tend to be living apart from their partners.

FAMILIES AND HOUSEHOLDS: CHILD CARE FACILITIES 1

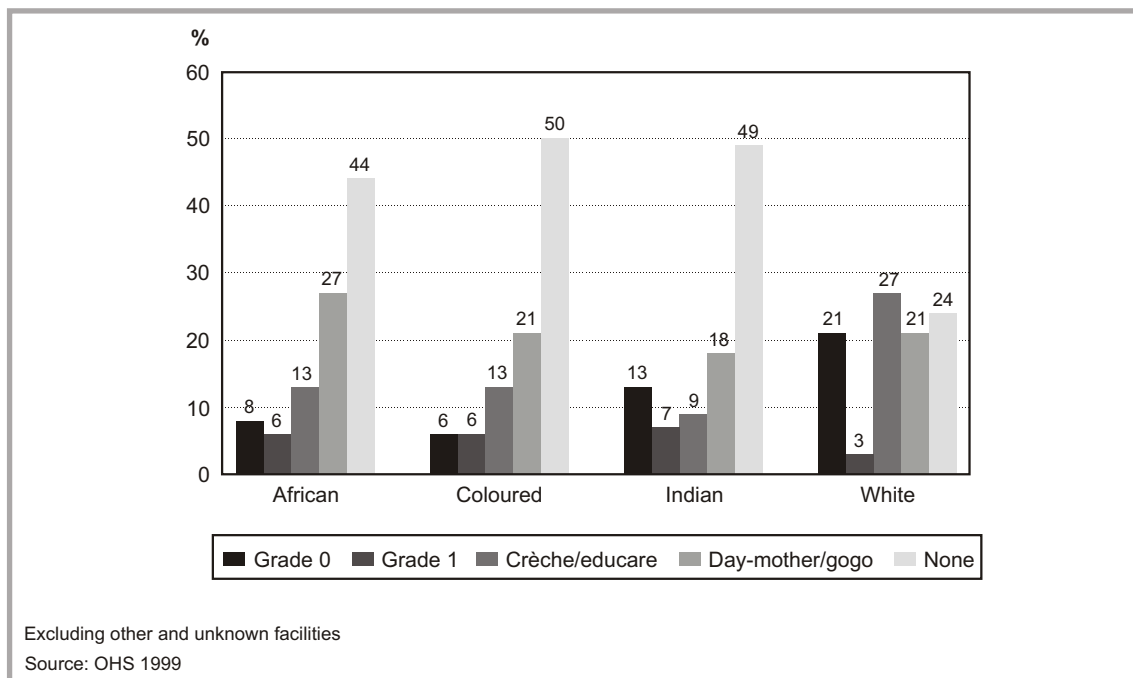
Figure 8: Percentage of children under 7 years of age at a child care facility, by population group and location, 1999



- Access to child care is relevant in a gender study because, where child care is not available outside the family, it is usually the female members of the household who are responsible for this task. The time use survey found that women aged ten years and above spent an average of 32 minutes per day caring for children and other household members, compared to 4 minutes per day for men in this age group.
- Figure 8 shows that, in urban areas, 61% of children under seven years of age attend a crèche or similar child care facility. In rural areas, the percentage is lower, at 49%.
- Levels of attendance at child care facilities differ between the population groups. Close on two-thirds of white children in both urban (72%) and non-urban (74%) areas attend child care facilities. Only 45% of Indian urban children attend these facilities. (The numbers in respect of Indian rural children are too small to be reliable.)
- Among African and coloured children, those in urban areas are significantly more likely than those in non-urban to be attending child care facilities.

FAMILIES AND HOUSEHOLDS: CHILD CARE FACILITIES 2

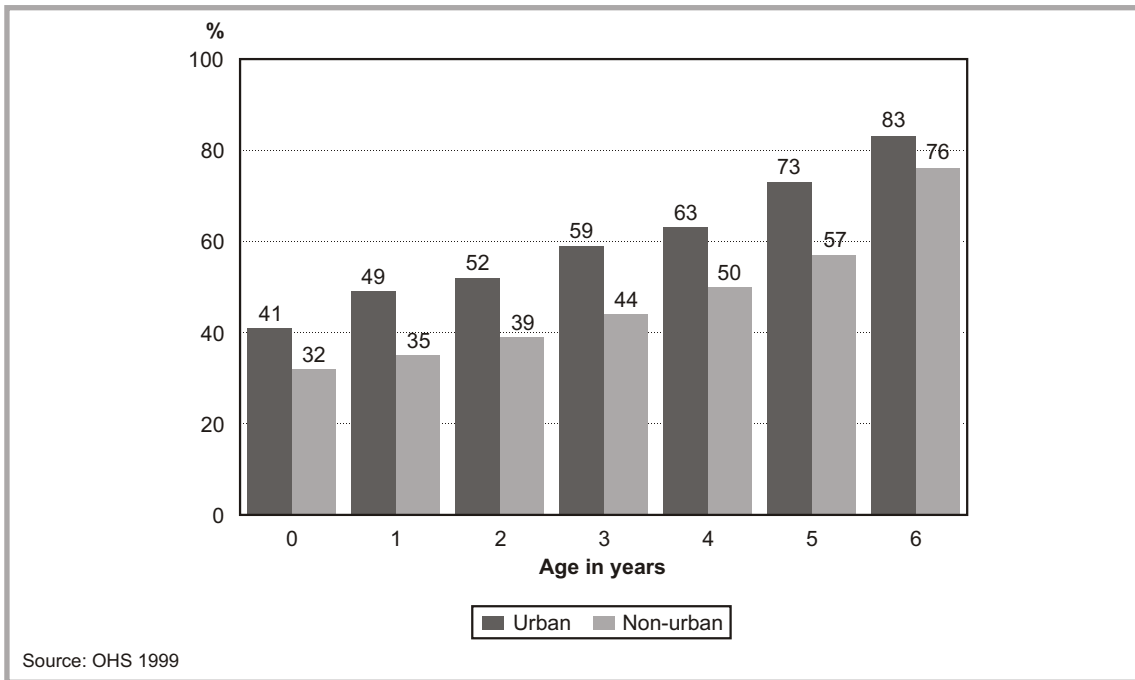
Figure 9: Percentage distribution of children under 7 years of age in each population group by type of child care facility



- Figure 9 provides further detail about the type of facility utilised. Services offered differ according to the type. Day-mothers or *gogos* generally provide only basic care, crèches and educare often provide some educational input as well as basic care, grade 0 is the formal pre-school year, while grade 1 is the first year of formal schooling.
- For African, coloured and Indian children, day-mothers are the most common form of care. Among African children, this form of care accounts for more than twice as many children as any other form of care.
- For white children, a crèche or educare is the most common form of child care facility. There are also large numbers of white children utilising grade 0 and day-mother services.
- There is a smaller proportion of white children under seven years of age in grade 1 than for any other population group.

FAMILIES AND HOUSEHOLDS: CHILD CARE FACILITIES 3

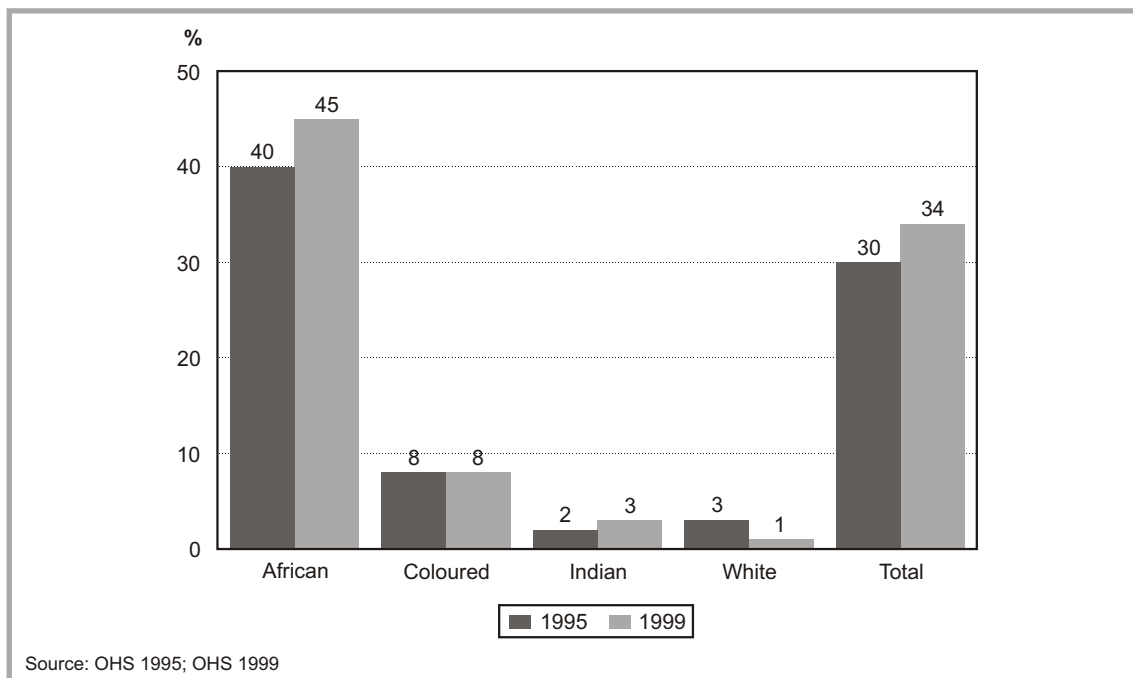
Figure 10: Percentage of children attending child care facilities by age and location, 1999



- Figure 10 illustrates how the likelihood that a child attends child care facilities increases with the age of the child.
- Among those under 12 months of age, 41% of urban children and 32% of non-urban children attend child care facilities. Among those aged six years, 83% in urban areas and 76% in non-urban areas attend.
- For each age, a significantly higher proportion of urban than non-urban children attend child care facilities. The relative difference between urban and rural is smallest for six-year-olds and largest for one-year-olds.

LIVING CONDITIONS: ACCESS TO WATER 1

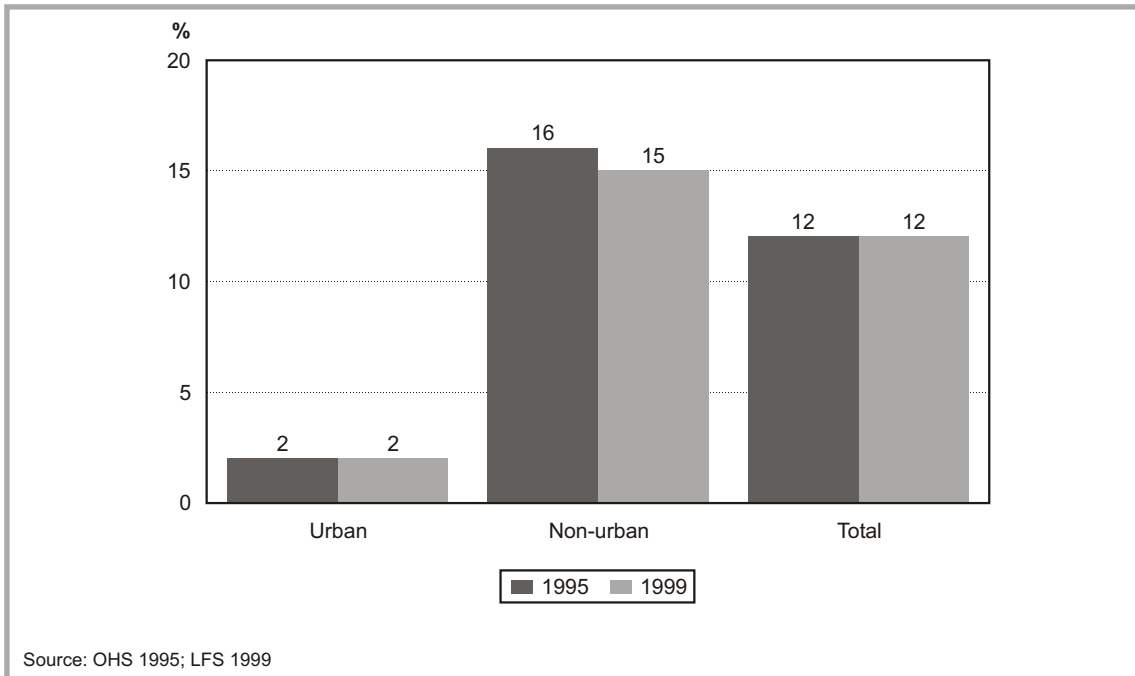
Figure 11: Percentage of households without piped water on site in each population group, 1995 and 1999



- The majority of South African households utilise a piped water source either inside their dwellings or on site. However, in 1995, 30% of households were reliant on other sources of water such as public taps, tankers, boreholes, tanks, streams, dams, wells and springs. In 1999, 34% of households were reliant on these other sources. The most common alternative source was a public tap. This source was used by 17% of households in 1999.
- There are significant differences in access between African households and those of other population groups. In 1995, 40% of African households were reliant on off-site or non-piped water sources. The percentage in this position rose to 45% in 1999.
- Among coloured, Indian and white households there was little change in access between 1995 and 1999. Coloured households continued to have poorer access to piped water on site than Indian and white households.
- The 1995 questionnaire focused on water for drinking purposes, while the 1996 questionnaire enquired about water more generally. The change in question is unlikely to have affected the patterns.
- As we shall see in Figure 13, a larger proportion of women than men spend time fetching water from an off-site source.

LIVING CONDITIONS: ACCESS TO WATER 2

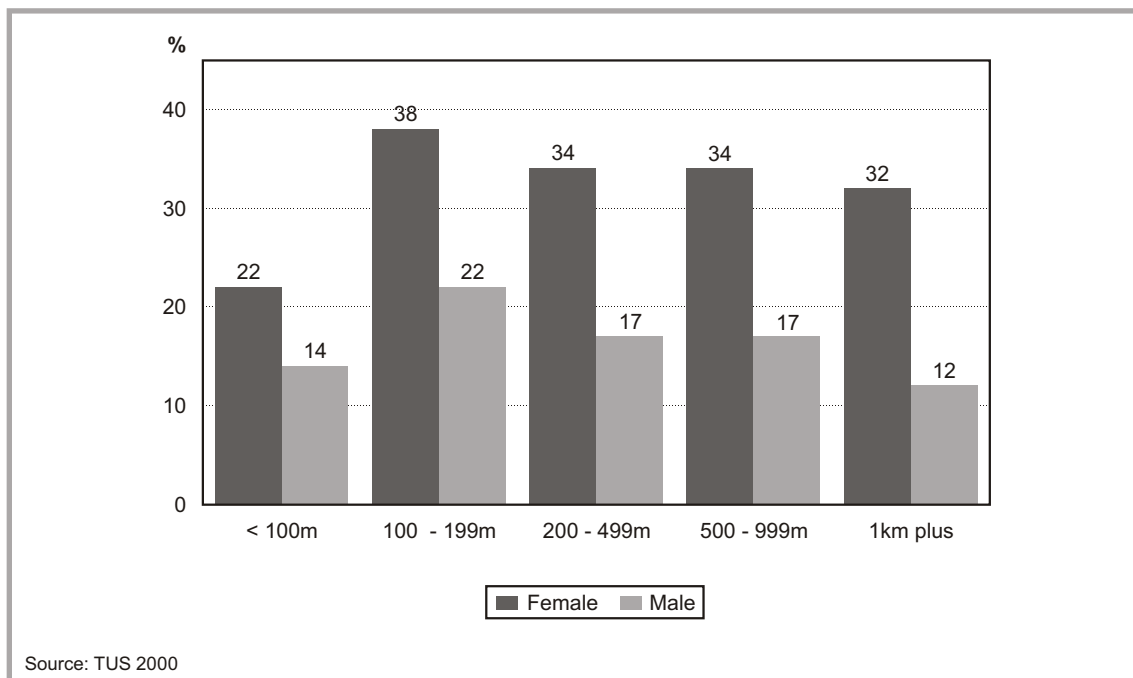
Figure 12: Of households without water on site, the percentage in urban and rural areas fetching water from a source one kilometre or more from the dwelling, 1995 and 1999



- Households which do not have access to a water source on site must collect water from elsewhere. For some households, the distance from the source is significant.
- Figure 12 describes the percentage of households reliant on an off-site source which were collecting water from a distance of one kilometre or more. The figure shows that the percentages of urban and non-urban households in this position were almost identical in 1995 and 1999.
- Households in non-urban areas are more likely than those in urban areas to be far away from their water source. More than one in every seven (15-16%) non-urban households was at a distance of one kilometre or more from their water source in both 1995 and 1999.
- Because more non-urban than urban households are reliant on off-site water sources, the overall position for urban and rural areas combined is closer to that of the non-urban than the urban households. Thus 12% of all South African households reliant on off-site water sources were at a distance of one kilometre or more from the source in both 1995 and 1999.
- As Figure 13 shows (overleaf), proportionately more women than men fetch water from a source that is more than 1 kilometre away from their dwelling.

LIVING CONDITIONS: ACCESS TO WATER 3

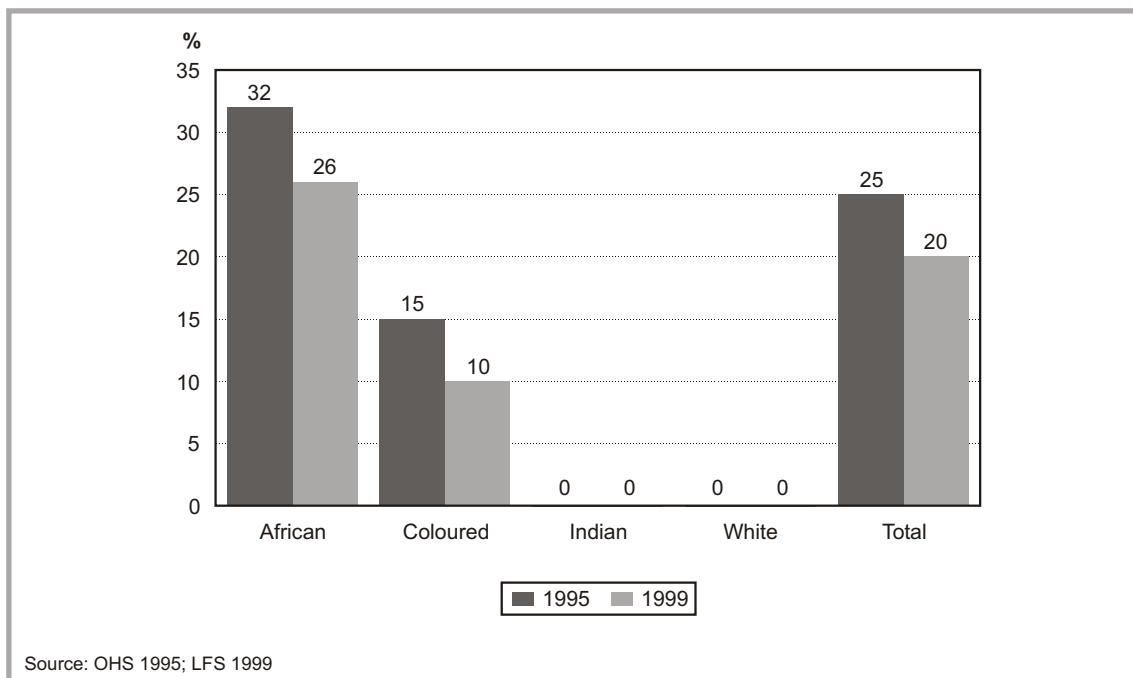
Figure 13: Of people without water on site, percentage of females and males spending time on water collection, for each distance from the dwelling



- Where water must be collected, female members of the household are more likely than male members to be responsible for the task. Figure 13 shows the percentage of female and male members who are likely to collect water on any one day, for households at different distances from the water source. The figure provides information about household members aged 10 years and older.
- The figure confirms that, whatever the distance, a larger proportion of female than male members of the household are likely to be involved in water collection.
- The difference in the likelihood of male and female members being involved is smallest when the water is less than 100 metres from the dwelling, and largest when the water is at a distance of a kilometre or more. When the water source is very distant, female members of the household are almost three times as likely as male members to collect water.
- More detailed analysis of the time use survey reveals that the average time per day spent collecting water increases from 44 minutes for collectors living in households within 100 metres of the water source, to 71 minutes per day for collectors in households at a distance of a kilometre or more from the source.

LIVING CONDITIONS: ACCESS TO FUEL 1

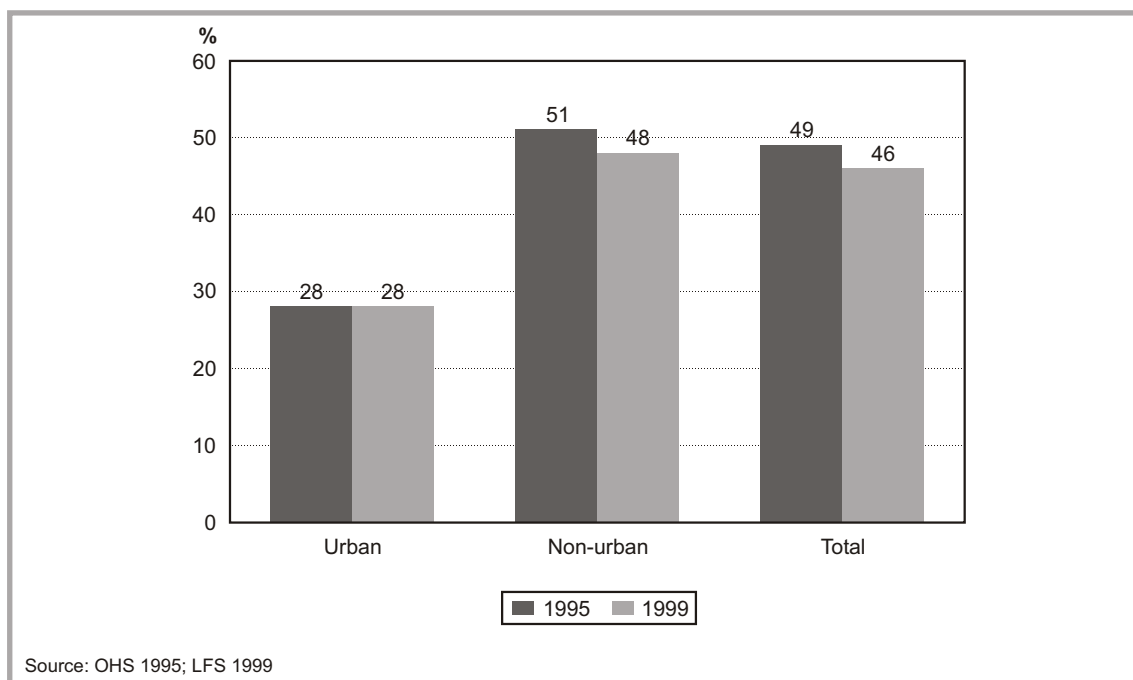
Figure 14: Percentage of households using wood or dung for cooking in each population group, 1995 and 1999



- Figure 14 shows that, in 1995, a quarter (25%) of all South African households used wood or dung as their main fuel for cooking purposes. By 1999, this proportion had dropped to one-fifth (20%). Over half (52%) of households relied on electricity, while just over a fifth (21%) used paraffin.
- In both 1995 and 1999, fewer than 1% of Indian and white households used wood or dung for cooking purposes. A significant percentage of coloured households – 15% in 1995 and 10% in 1999 – used these fuels in both years. The percentage of African households using wood or dung for cooking was more than twice as high as the percentage of coloured households.
- The decrease between 1995 and 1999 in the percentage of African households using wood or dung for cooking is largely accounted for by an increase in the percentage using paraffin, from 19% in 1995 to 28% in 1999.
- Figure 16 shows that a larger proportion of women than men spend time fetching fuel.

LIVING CONDITIONS: ACCESS TO FUEL 2

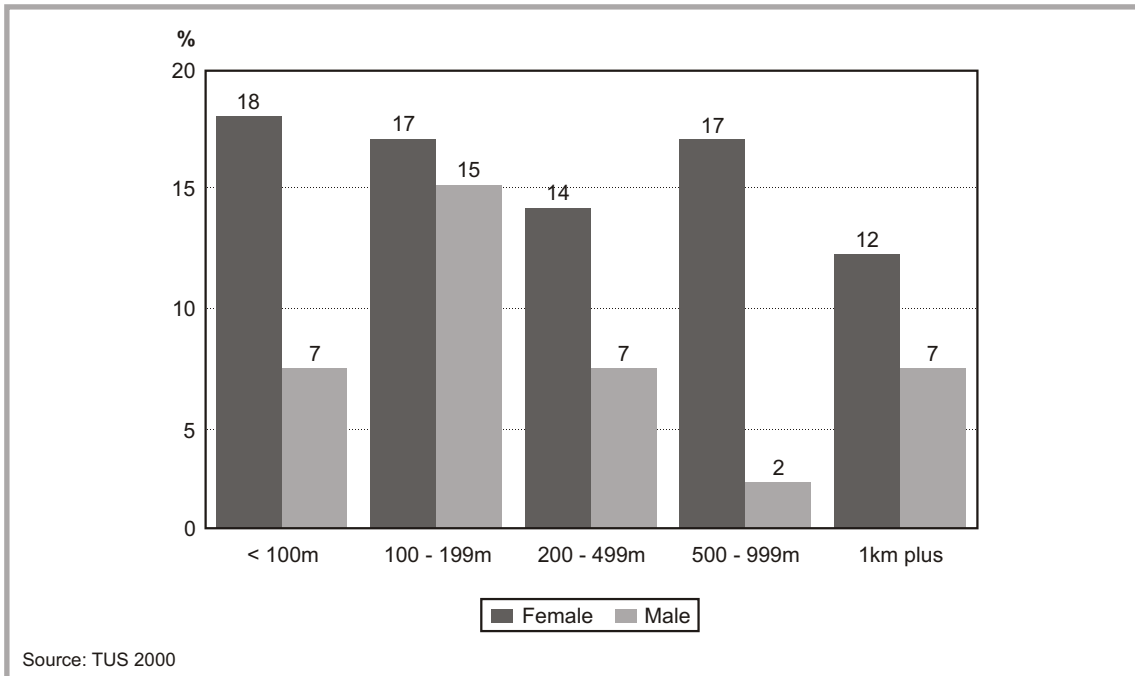
Figure 15: Of households collecting wood or dung, the percentage in urban and rural areas collecting it from a distance of one kilometre or more from the dwelling, 1995 and 1999



- Where households use wood or dung for cooking or other purposes, they must often collect the fuel from an off-site source. In some cases, the source is at a considerable distance from the dwelling.
- Figure 15 shows that in both 1995 and 1999 just under half of all households which collected fuel were collecting from a source at a distance of one kilometre or more from the dwelling in which they lived. The figure suggests a slight improvement between 1995 and 1999, in that 49% of households collecting fuel were at this distance in 1995 compared to 46% in 1999.
- The 1995 questionnaire asked only about fetching wood, while the 1999 questionnaire asked about collection of both wood and dung. As far more households are reliant on wood than dung, the difference is unlikely to affect the patterns shown in the figure.
- Urban households are less likely than non-urban ones to rely on wood or dung for cooking purposes. Further, urban households which collect fuel generally do so over a shorter distance than households in non-urban areas. Thus 28% of urban households reliant on wood or dung were collecting the fuel from a source one kilometre or more distant in both 1995 and 1999, compared to around half of non-urban households (51% in 1995 and 48% in 1999).
- Figure 16 shows that a higher percentage of females than males spend time on this activity.

LIVING CONDITIONS: ACCESS TO FUEL 3

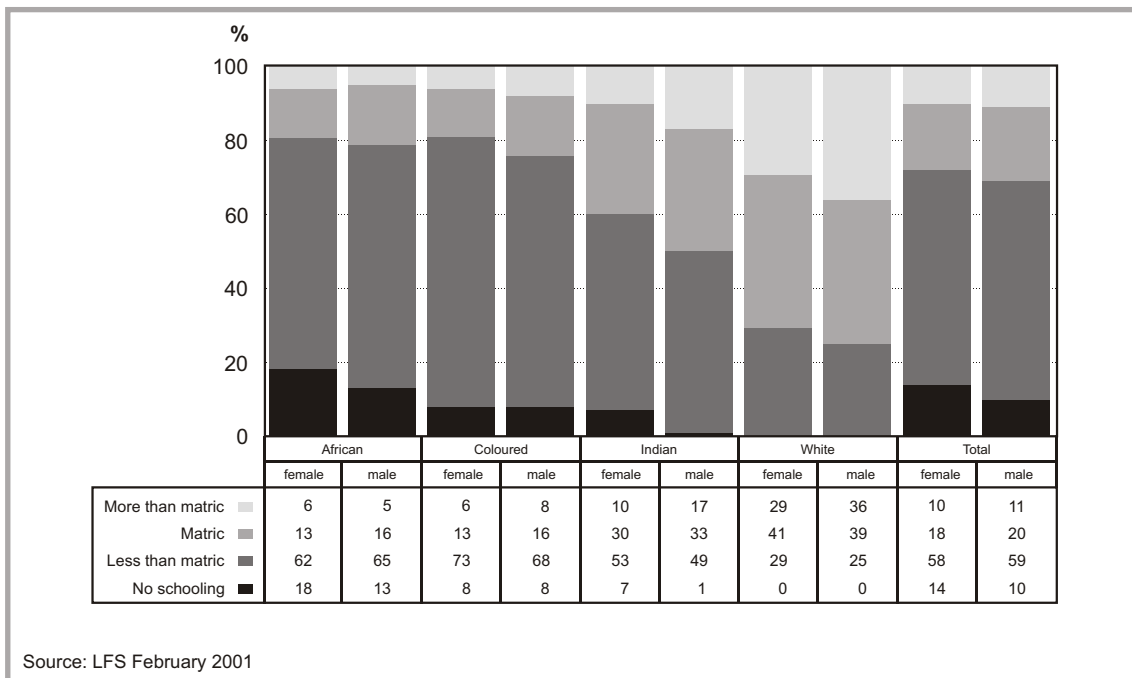
Figure 16: Of people living where wood or dung needs collecting, percentage of females and males who collect it, for each distance from dwelling



- As with water collection, responsibility for collecting fuel is not shared equally between all members of a household. Figure 16 shows the percentage of female and male members who are likely to collect fuel on any one day, for households at different distances from the fuel source. The figure reflects the activities of individuals aged 10 years and older.
- Whatever the distance from the fuel source, female members of the household are more likely than male members to collect the fuel. The difference in the likelihood of male and female members collecting fuel is smallest for households which are between 100 and 199 metres distant from the fuel.
- More detailed analysis from the time use survey reveals that the mean time per day spent collecting fuel rises from 78 minutes for members of households which are within 100 metres of the source, to over two hours (128 minutes) for those which are at a distance of a kilometre or more.

EDUCATION: EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT

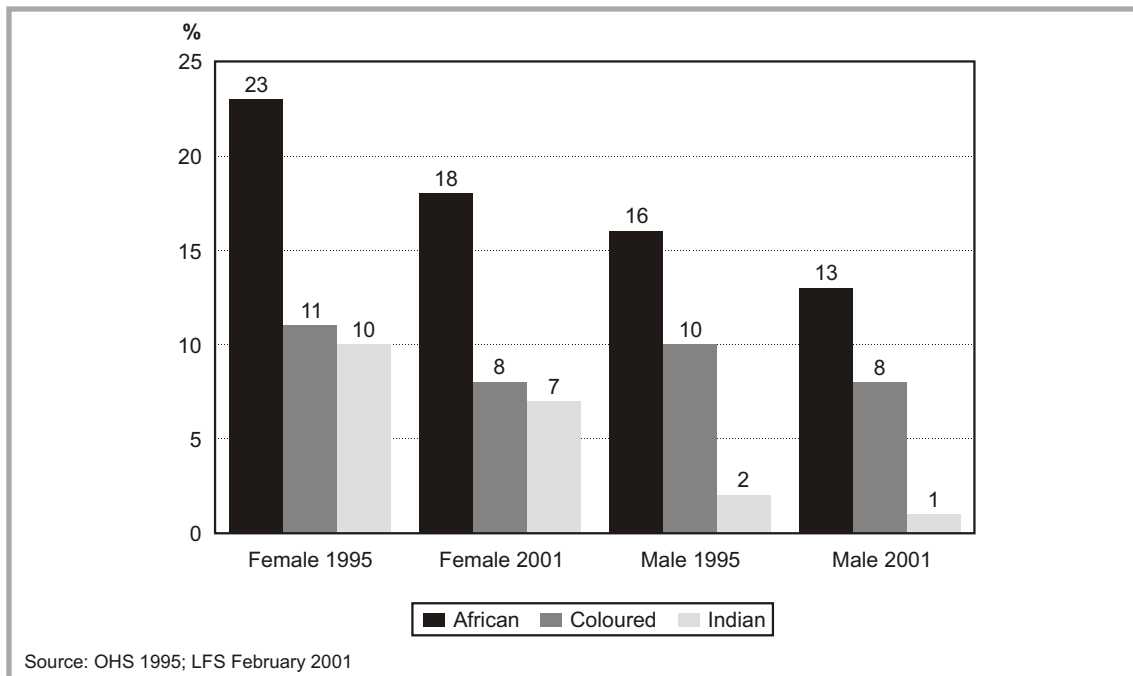
Figure 17: Percentage distribution of women and men aged 25 years and more for each population group by highest level of education, 2001



- Figure 17 shows differences in the educational attainment of South Africans aged 25 years and older in terms of both population group and sex.
- The group with the highest proportion of people without any formal schooling is African women, at 18%. The group with the second highest proportion is African men, at 13%. Less than 1% of white women and men have no formal schooling.
- Among African women and men and coloured women, 6% or fewer have a qualification higher than matric. White men and women again perform best, with 36% and 29% respectively having post-matric qualifications.
- Overall, Africans have the lowest achievements, followed by coloured, Indian and white people. Within each population group, women fare worse than men.

EDUCATION: LACK OF SCHOOLING

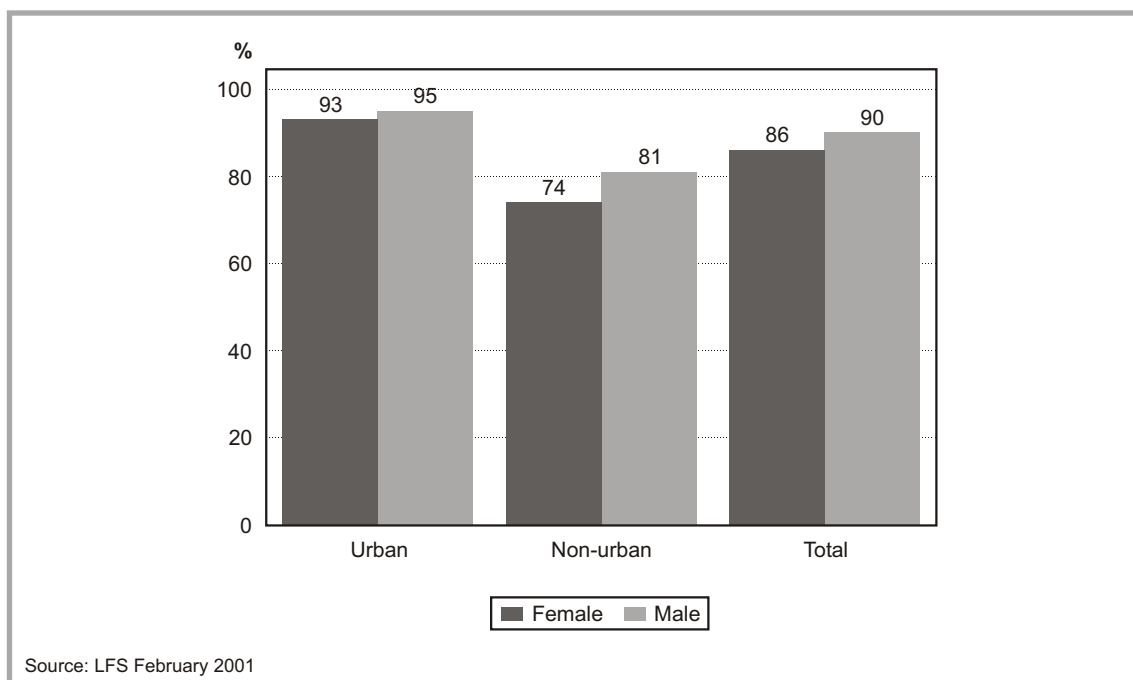
Figure 18: Percentage of women and men aged 25 years or more with no formal schooling in each population group, 1995 and 2001



- Figure 18 provides a comparison of the percentage of women and men aged 25 years or more within different population groups who have no formal schooling in 1995 and 2001. The white population group is excluded from the figure as the percentage of this group with no formal schooling is negligible.
- For both male and female, and for both 1995 and 2001, the percentage of African people without any formal schooling is significantly larger than for the other two groupings.
- The percentage without formal schooling is very similar for coloured and Indian women. Among the men, however, far fewer Indian than coloured people were without formal schooling in both 1995 and 2001.
- The figure shows a decrease in the percentage of women and men without formal schooling in each population group between 1995 and 2001. The decrease is most marked for African women and men, at five and three percentage points respectively.

EDUCATION: LITERACY

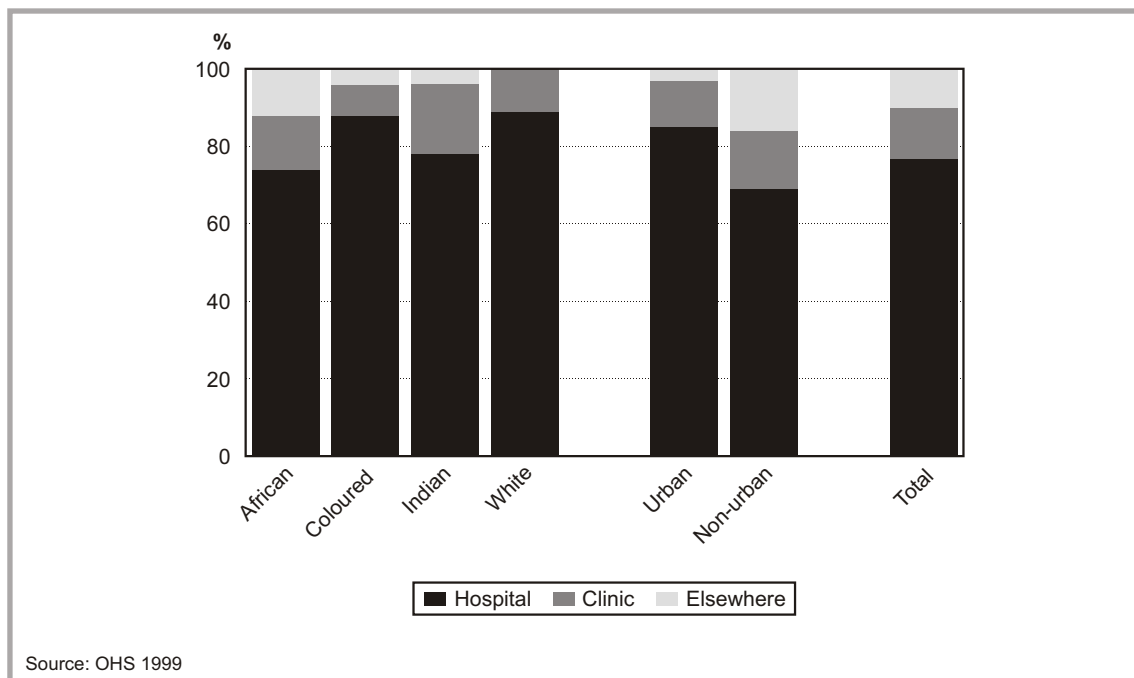
Figure 19: Percentage of women and men aged 25 years and above in urban and rural areas who can read in at least one language, 2001



- Figure 19 shows further differences in educational attainment between people living in urban and non-urban areas. It shows that those aged 25 years or more who live in urban areas are more likely than those living in non-urban areas to be able to read in at least one language.
- Again, proportionately fewer women than men can read in at least one language. Further, the gap between women and men is larger in non-urban than in urban areas. In urban areas there is a two percentage point difference in the ability of women and men to read. In non-urban areas there is a seven percentage point difference.
- The patterns in respect of women and men in urban and non-urban areas who can write in at least one language are almost identical to those for reading.

HEALTH: BIRTH FACILITIES 1

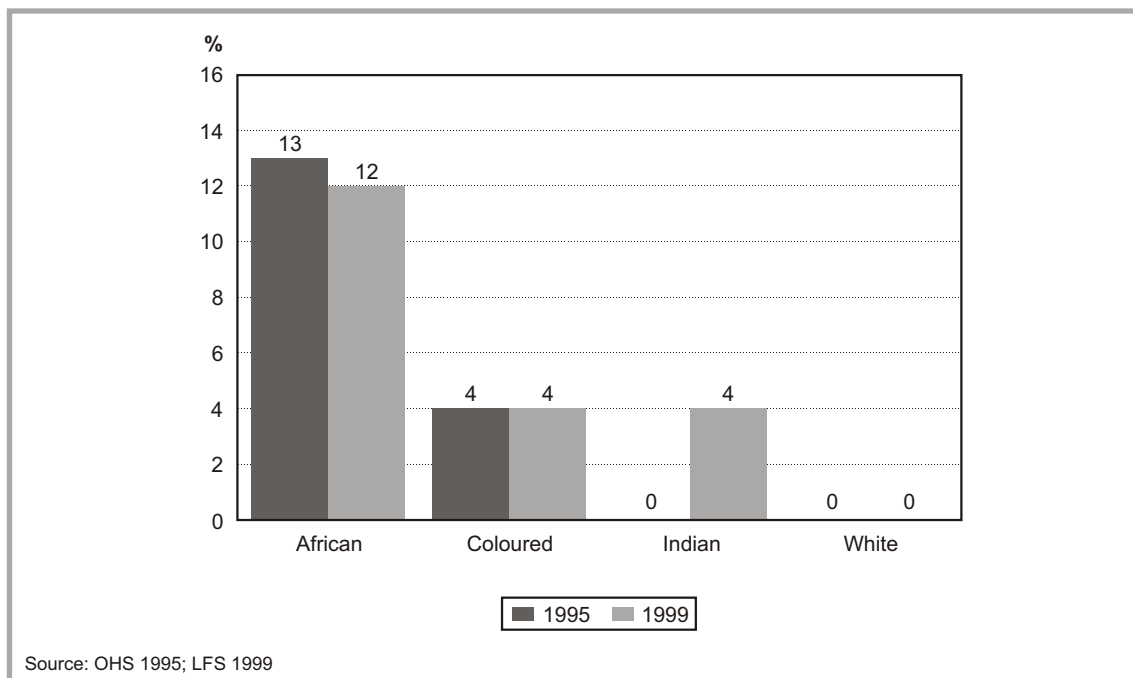
Figure 20: Percentage distribution of births in the previous 12 months occurring in hospital, clinics or elsewhere, for each population group, 1999



- The October household survey of 1999 enquired, for each female household member, whether she had given birth in the previous twelve months. Where a birth had occurred, the respondent was asked for details of the birth and baby. Figure 20 shows the type of facility where the birth occurred for different population groups and urban and non-urban areas.
- Among all population groups, the majority of births occur in hospital. Among African women, close on three-quarters (74%) of births occur in hospital, while among coloured and white women the percentage is 88% or higher.
- Clinics account for 13% of all births overall, with Indian women being most likely to utilise these facilities and coloured women least likely. African women are most likely to say that the birth occurred elsewhere, outside a formal health setting.
- About 85% of births to urban mothers, compared to 69% of births to non-urban mothers occur in a hospital. Only 3% of urban births occur outside a hospital or clinic, while this is the case for 16% of non-urban births.
- In general, giving birth in a clinic or hospital is safer for both the mother and baby, as there is access to more advanced medical knowledge and care where this is needed.

HEALTH: BIRTH FACILITIES 2

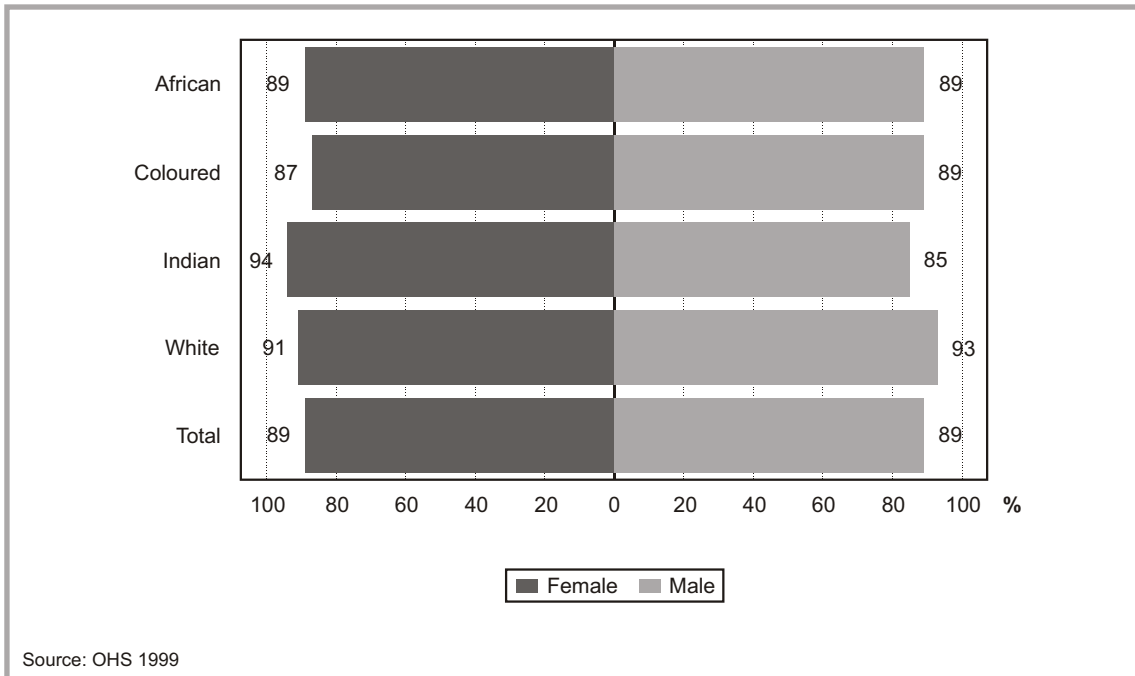
Figure 21: Percentage of births in previous 12 months occurring outside a clinic or hospital, for each population group, 1995 and 1999



- Figure 21 compares the situation in 1995 and 1999 in respect of births occurring elsewhere than a clinic or hospital. As with the previous figure, the focus is on births occurring in the 12 months prior to the survey.
- The figure shows little change in the situation between 1995 and 1999. The only noticeable change is in respect of Indian births, where there is an increase in the percentage born outside a clinic or hospital from less than 1% in 1995 to 4% in 2001. The sample size for Indians may, however, make these figures unreliable.
- Among whites, fewer than 1% of births were reported to occur outside a hospital or clinic in both 1995 and 1999.

HEALTH: ROAD TO HEALTH CARDS

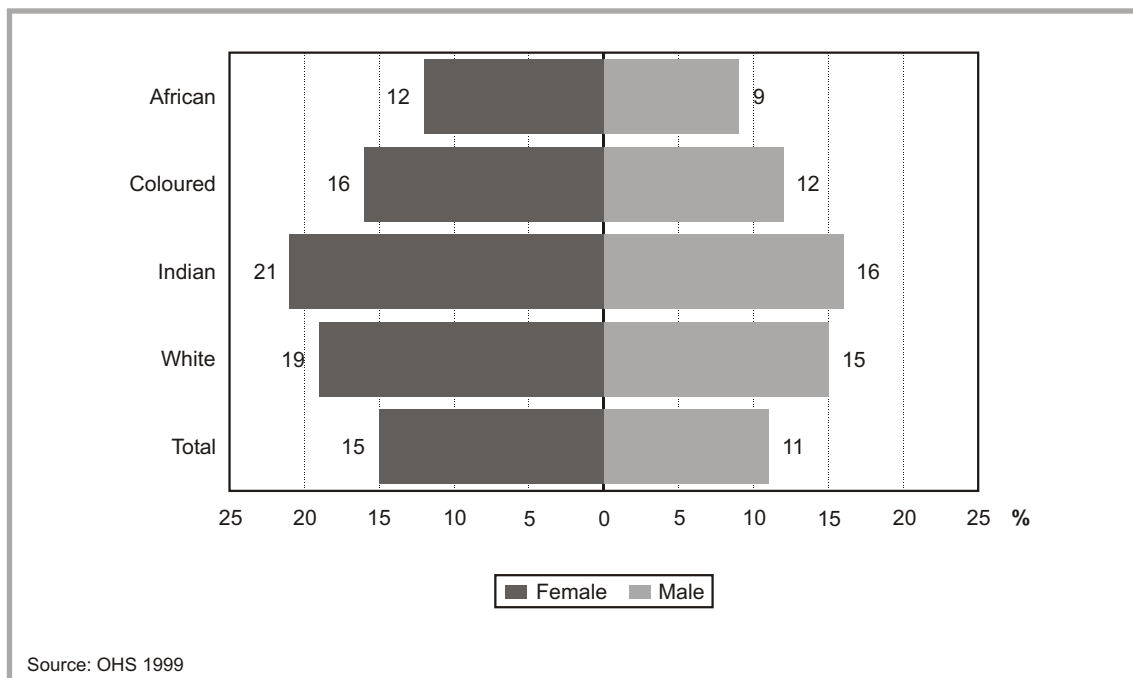
Figure 22: Percentage of girl and boy babies under 24 months in each population group with Road to Health cards, 1999



- The overwhelming majority of babies under 24 months in South Africa are reported to have Road to Health cards. These cards are used by the health system to record inoculations and other health details.
- Figure 22 suggests that there are only minor differences between the population groups in the likelihood that a baby will have a Road to Health Card. Among girls, Indian babies are most likely to have a card, and coloured babies least likely. Among boys, white babies are most likely to have a card and Indian babies least likely. As with other graphs, the statistics for the Indian group must be treated with caution as the sample is small.
- Among all the population groups except the Indian one, the pattern is very similar for boy and girl babies. For coloured and white babies, there is a slightly greater tendency for boys to have cards than for girls.
- The unusual pattern for Indian babies could be the result of a relatively small, and thus less reliable, sample.

HEALTH: VISITS TO HEALTH WORKERS

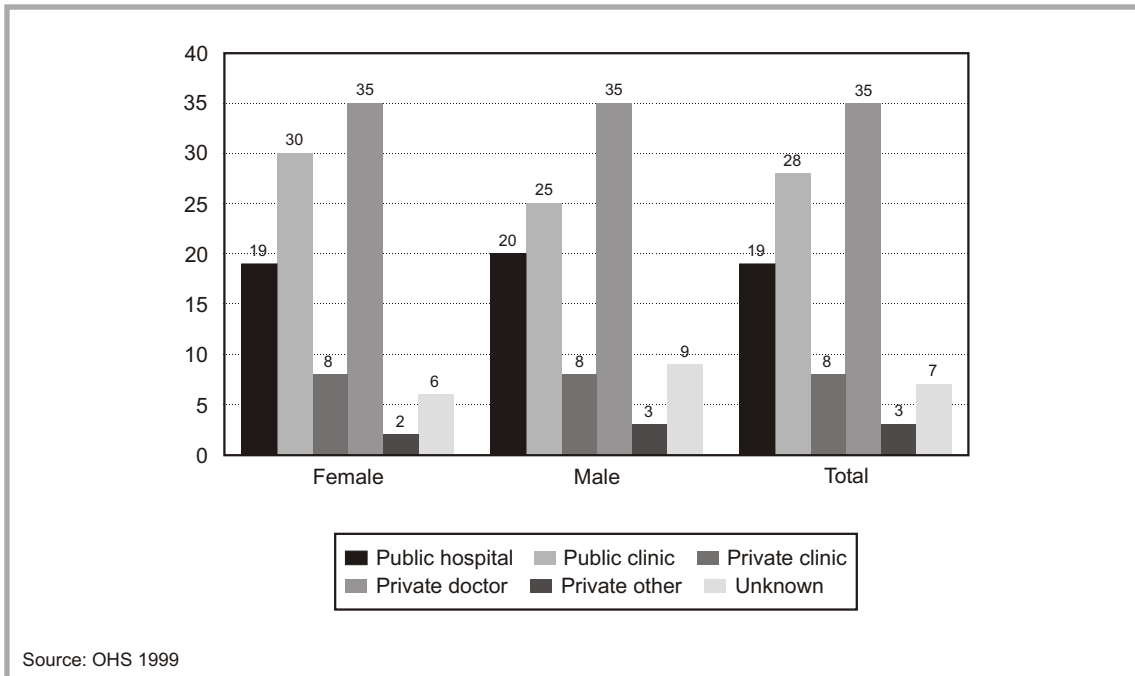
Figure 23: Percentage of women and men in each population group who visited a health worker during the month prior to the interview, 1999



- The October household survey of 1999 enquired which of the members of each household had visited a health worker during the month prior to the interview. Overall, 15% of female household members and 11% of male were reported to have made such a visit.
- The higher female proportion probably reflects the fact that women visit health services for reproductive services more often than men. The pattern persists across all four population groups.
- Figure 23 suggests that Indian people are most likely to utilise health services and African people are least likely. This pattern applies in respect of both male and female household members.

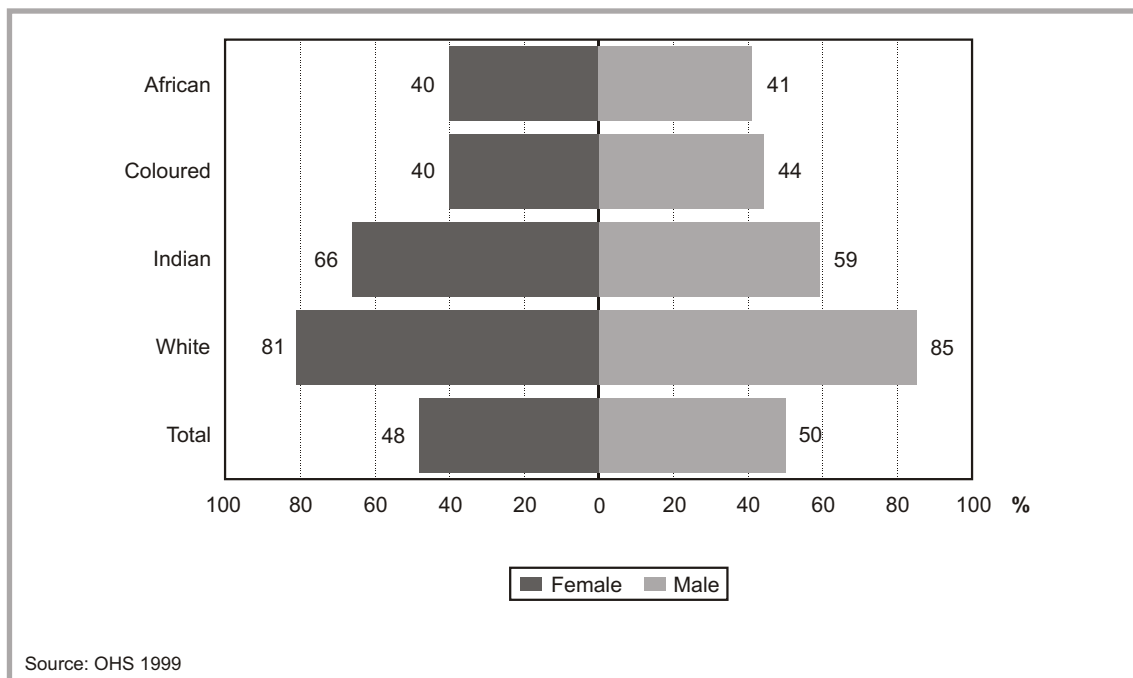
HEALTH: FACILITIES 1

Figure 24: Percentage distribution of health services utilised by men and women during the month prior to the interview, 1999



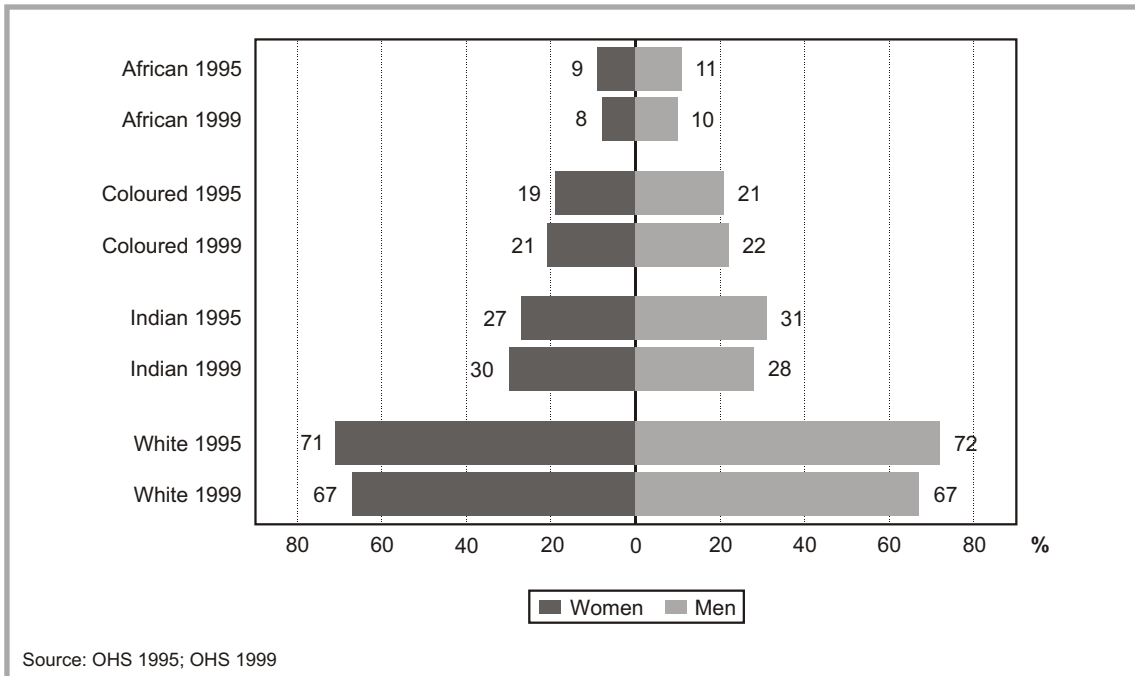
- Among those who visited a health worker during the previous month, over one-third (35%) visited a private doctor, 28% used a public clinic and 19% used a public hospital. Where an individual made more than one visit during the previous month, information about the most recent visit was recorded.
- Apart from private doctors, private services are less popular than the main forms of public services.
- Figure 24 reveals that male and female health service users in the month prior to the interview in October 1999 have similar patterns of usage of the different types of facilities. However, female utilisation of public hospitals is higher than male utilisation, at 30% and 25% respectively.

Figure 25: Percentage of men and women in each population group using private health services in the month prior to the interview, 1999



- Figure 25 reveals that, when the different types of public and private health services are aggregated, 48% of female visits during the previous month and 50% of male visits were to private facilities.
- While the differences between females and males are small, there are more significant differences between population groups in the extent to which they utilise public and private health services.
- White people are most likely to utilise private services – 85% of white male visits and 81% of white female visits were to private facilities. African and coloured people are least likely to utilise private services. Only 40% of African and coloured female visits, 41% of African male visits and 44% of coloured male visits were to private services.

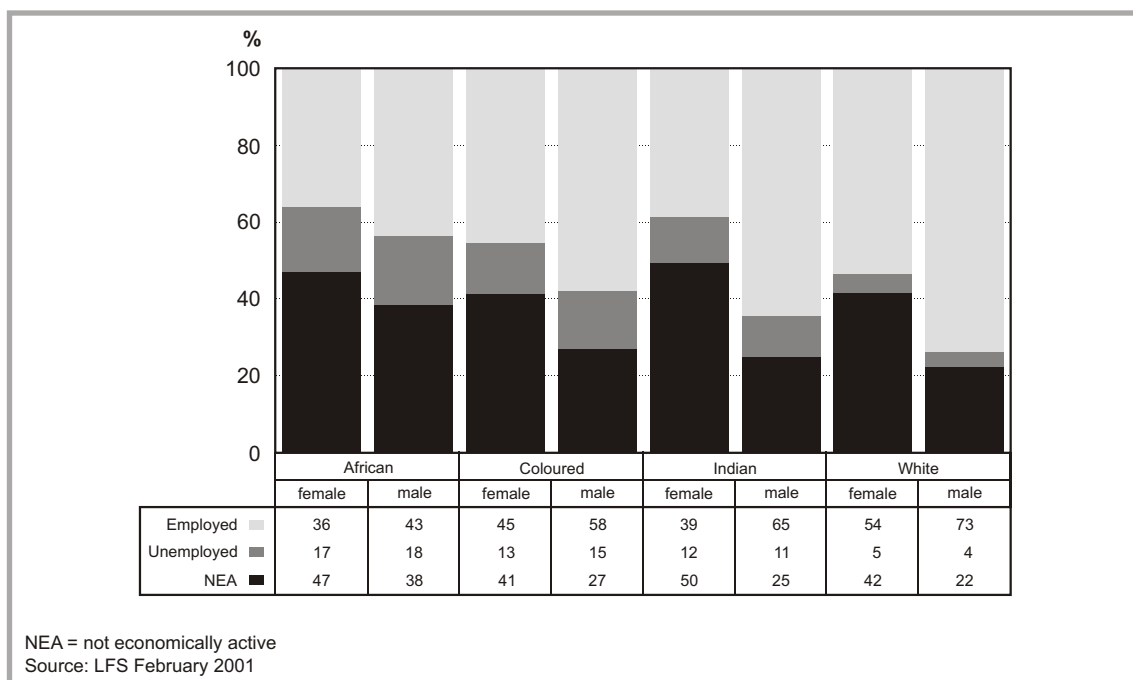
Figure 26: Percentage of women and men aged 18 years and above in each population group with access to medical aid benefits, 1995 and 1999



- Medical aid may be available to individuals either through their work or privately. In many cases, the family of the member of the medical aid association will also have access to benefits through the scheme. Figure 26 shows the percentage of the population aged 18 years and above which had access to medical aid benefits in 1995 and 1999.
- The figure shows that access to medical aid benefits is much more common for white people than for those of the other population groups. White women and men are more than twice as likely as Indian women and men to have access to medical aid benefits, and three or more times as likely as coloured or African women and men to have access.
- There are very small differences in access between women and men in the different population groups in the two years. The largest difference is in the Indian group, in 1995, where 31% of men and 27% of women had access. This pattern reverses, however, in 1999 where a slightly higher percentage of Indian women than men have access.
- There are also no clear temporal patterns. Among white adults, access to medical aid appears to have decreased slightly between 1995 and 1999. Among other groups, the changes are inconsistent and even smaller than for the white group.

WORK: EMPLOYMENT STATUS 1

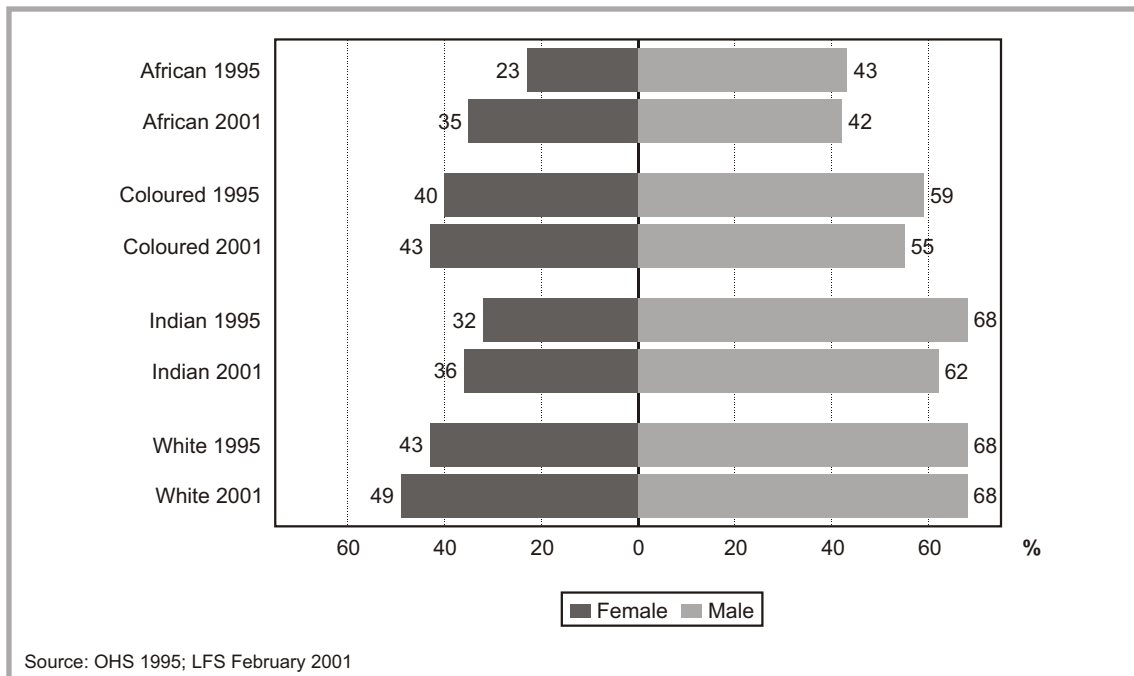
Figure 27: Percentage distribution of women and men 15-65 years in each population group by employment status, 2001



- Employed people are those who performed at least one hour of economic work during the seven days before the survey, plus those who are absent from work but have a job to return to. Unemployed people are those who did not perform economic work, but are available for work and, for the official definition of unemployment, took active steps to find work in the previous four weeks. Those who are neither employed nor unemployed are classified as not economically active (NEA).
- Figure 27 reveals that, within each population group, a smaller proportion of women than men in the age group 15 to 65 years are employed and a larger proportion are not economically active.
- Among men, the proportion of employed is highest among whites (73%), followed by Indian (65%), coloured (58%), and African men (43%). The pattern is different for women. The proportion of employed women is again highest among white women, at 54%, and lowest among African women, at 36%. However, the rate for coloured women, at 45%, is higher than that for Indian, at 39%. Half of all Indian women between 15 and 65 years are not economically active.

WORK: EMPLOYMENT STATUS 2

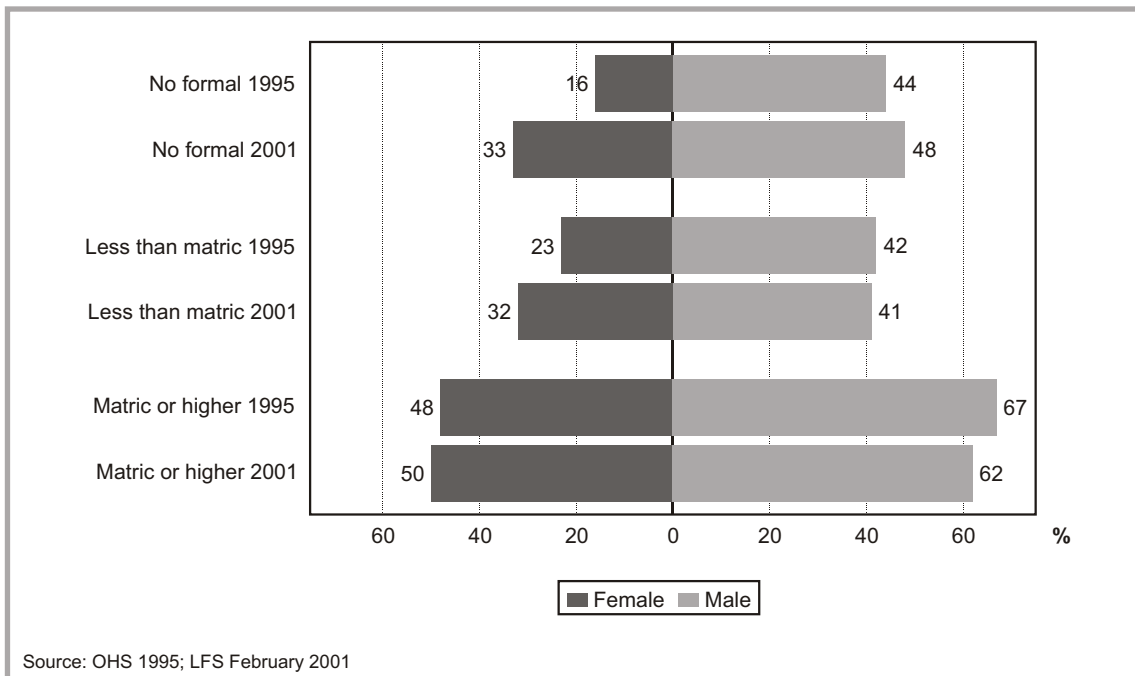
Figure 28: Percentage of employed women and men aged 15 years and above in each population group, 1995 and 2001



- Figure 28 shows the percentage of women and men aged 15 years and above within each population group who were employed in 1995 and 2001.
- Among women, the percentage employed in 2001 was larger than the percentage employed in 1995 for all population groups. The difference between the two years was most marked for African women. Less than a quarter (23%) of African women were employed in 1995, compared to more than a third (35%) in 2001. Part of this difference may be explained by a change in the questionnaire, as the 2001 questionnaire included better prompting for subsistence agricultural work and other informal activities that are likely to be undertaken by women.
- Among men, the percentage employed stayed the same or decreased for all population groups between 1995 and 1999.
- Despite the increase between 1995 and 2001 in the percentage of women employed and the decrease in the percentage of men employed, a greater percentage of men than women within each age group continued to be employed in 2001.

WORK: EMPLOYMENT STATUS 3

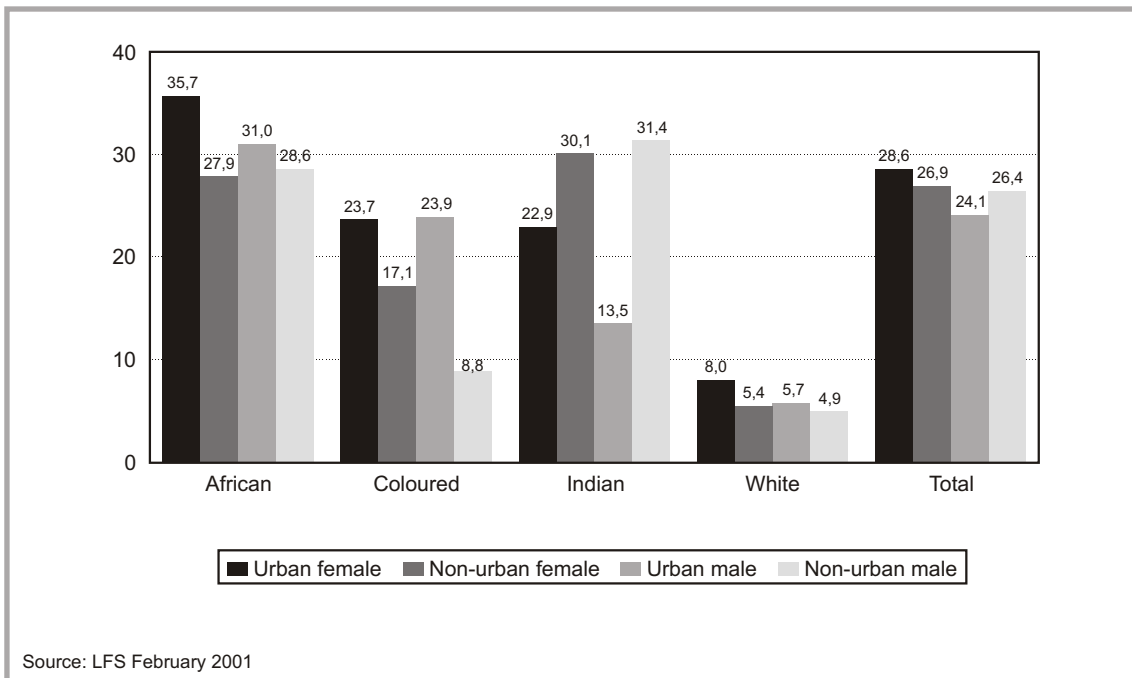
Figure 29: Percentage of employed women and men aged 15 years and above for each level of education, 1995 and 2001



- Figure 29 looks at the change in employment levels by educational qualification for women and men aged 15 years and above between 1995 and 2001. The figure distinguishes between those with no formal education, those who have attained a qualification less than a matriculation certificate, and those who have a matriculation certificate or higher qualification.
- Again, the percentage of women employed increased across all groupings between 1995 and 2001. The increase is very marked for those with no formal educational qualifications, where the percentage employed more than doubled – from 16% in 1995, to 33% in 2001. As with the previous figure, the increases may be partly explained by the fact that the 2001 questionnaire was better able to capture subsistence agricultural and informal work.
- Among men, the percentage employed increased among those with no formal educational qualifications, from 44% in 1995 to 48% in 2001. Among those with less than a matriculation certificate, the percentage employed remained more or less static. Among those with matric or higher qualifications, the percentage decreased from 67% to 62%.

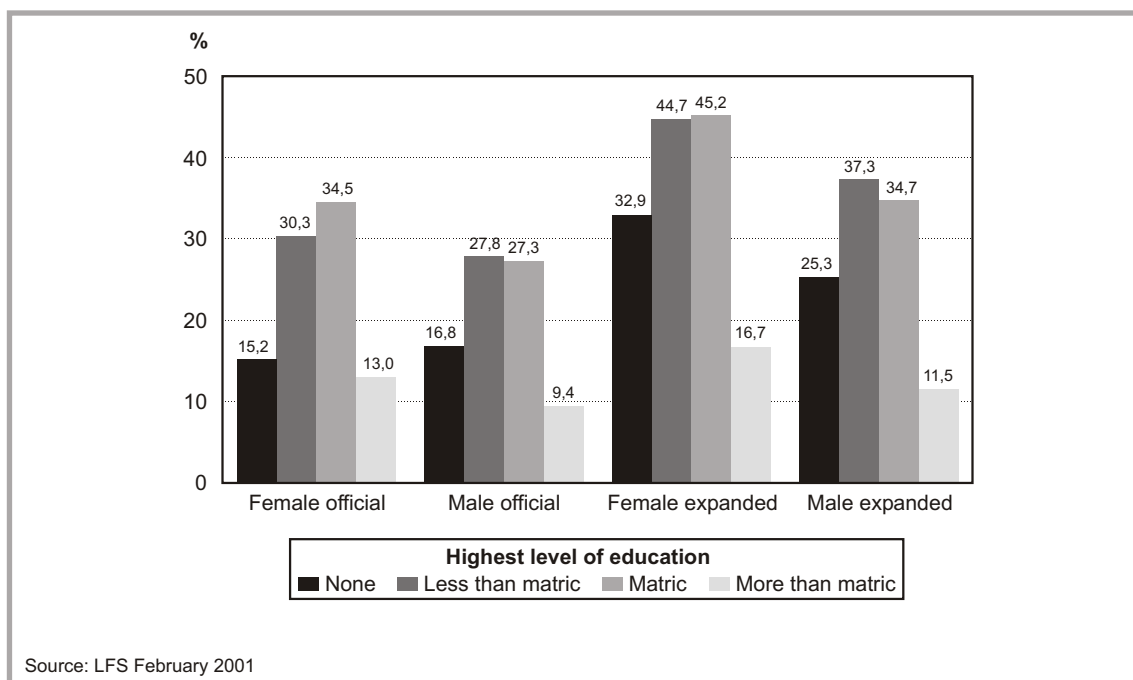
WORK: UNEMPLOYMENT 1

Figure 30: Official unemployment rate of population aged 15-65 years by population group, sex and location, 2001



- The unemployment rate is calculated by dividing the number of employed people by the sum of the number employed and the number unemployed. As noted previously, employed people are those who performed at least one hour of economic work during the seven days before the survey, plus those who are absent from work but have a job to return to. Unemployed people are those who did not perform economic work, but are available for work and, for the official definition of unemployment, took active steps to find work in the previous four weeks.
- Figure 30 reveals that the official unemployment rate is highest among urban African women (35,7%) and lowest among non-urban white men (4,9%). The unemployment rates for white women and men in both urban and non-urban areas are lower than those for all other race–sex–location groupings.
- Within each population group, and in both urban and non-urban areas, the unemployment rate is higher for women than for men.
- For all population groups except Indian, unemployment among both women and men in urban areas is more severe than in non-urban areas. The urban–rural difference in unemployment rates is starkest for coloured men, at 15,1 percentage points.

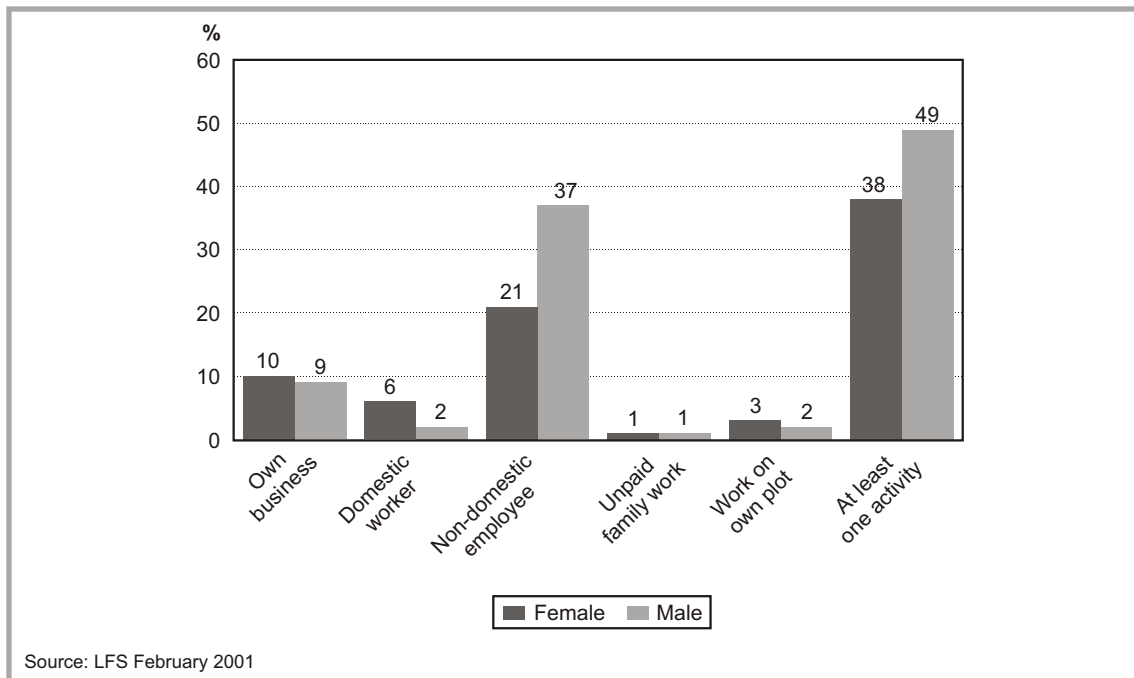
Figure 31: Official and expanded unemployment rates of population aged 15-65 years by sex and highest level of education, 2001



- The official unemployment rate regards as unemployed those people who were without work over the previous seven days, are available for work and took active steps to find work over the previous month. The expanded unemployment rate does not require that the person took active steps to find work. It thus includes discouraged workseekers – those who have given up looking for work.
- Figure 31 compares the official and expanded rates of unemployment for women and men with different levels of education. With one exception, the rate for men is lower than that for women. The exception occurs in respect of the official rate for those with no formal education, where the male rate is higher than the female one.
- For women and men, both rates of unemployment are lowest for those with more than a matriculation qualification, and second lowest for those with no formal education. Among women, unemployment rates are slightly lower among those who have not completed matric than among those who have matric. Among men, this pattern is reversed.
- The difference between the official and expanded rates of unemployment is largest for women with no formal education. The expanded rate (32,9%) for this group of women is more than twice as high as the official rate (15,2%).
- Overall, it seems that unemployed women may be less able than unemployed men to seek work actively, due to time, finance, transport and other constraints. They are thus more likely to become discouraged workseekers.

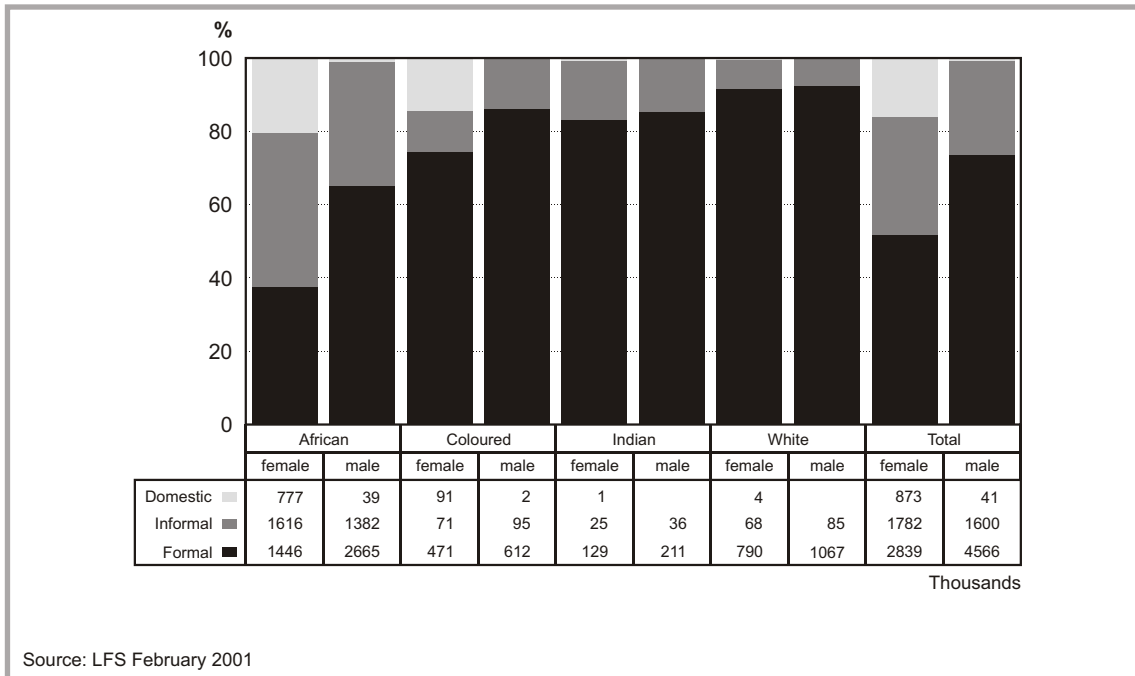
WORK: ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES

Figure 32: Percentage of women and men aged 15-65 years engaged in different economic activities, 2001



- In Stats SA's labour force survey, respondents are asked whether they engaged in any of a range of economic work activities over the previous seven days. The activities include work in one's own business, paid domestic work, other work for a wage, salary or commission, unpaid work in a family business, and work on a family plot or farm.
- Figure 32 reveals that close on half (49%) of the men aged between 15 and 65 years, and 37% of the women engage in at least one economic activity. Not shown in the figure is that about 2% of women and men engaged in two or more economic activities in the previous seven days.
- The most common form of economic activity is work as an employee other than a domestic worker. This applies to over a third (37%) of the men and over a fifth (21%) of the women. The next most common activity is running their own business (10% of women and 9% of men) and paid domestic work (6% of women and 2% of men).
- The percentage of women and men engaging in an activity is very similar for most activities. The exceptions are work as a non-domestic employee, which is markedly more common for men than women, and work as a domestic employee, which is more common for women than men.

Figure 33: Distribution of employed women and men aged 15-65 years in each population group, by employment sector, 2001



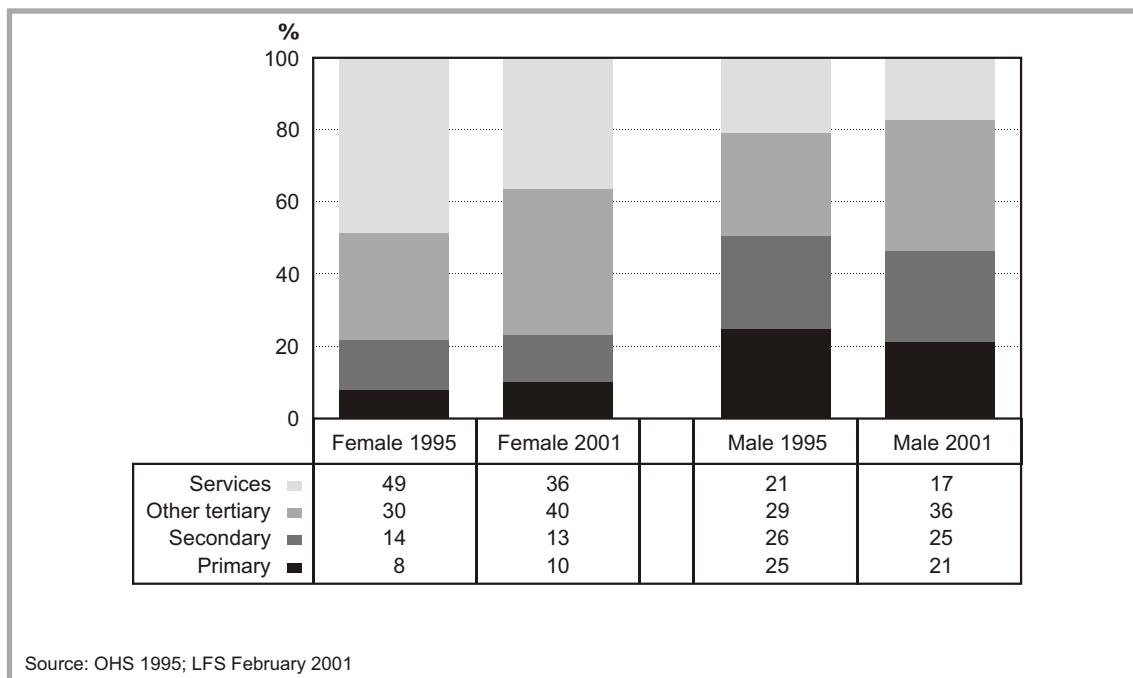
- The labour force survey asks a range of questions about the main job of employed people. Overall, among the employed, work in the formal sector is more common than work in the non-domestic informal sector or work as a domestic worker. Figure 33 shows, however, that formal sector work is far more common for men than for women. Just over half (52%) of employed women work in the formal sector, compared to close on three-quarters (74%) of employed men.
- Formal sector work is least common for African women (38%) and most common for white men (93%) and white women (92%).
- Non-domestic informal sector work is most common among African women (42%), followed by African men (34%).
- The percentage of employed people doing domestic work as their main job is 1% or less for all groups except African and coloured women.

Figure 34: Percentage distribution of employed women and men aged 15-65 years by industry, 2001



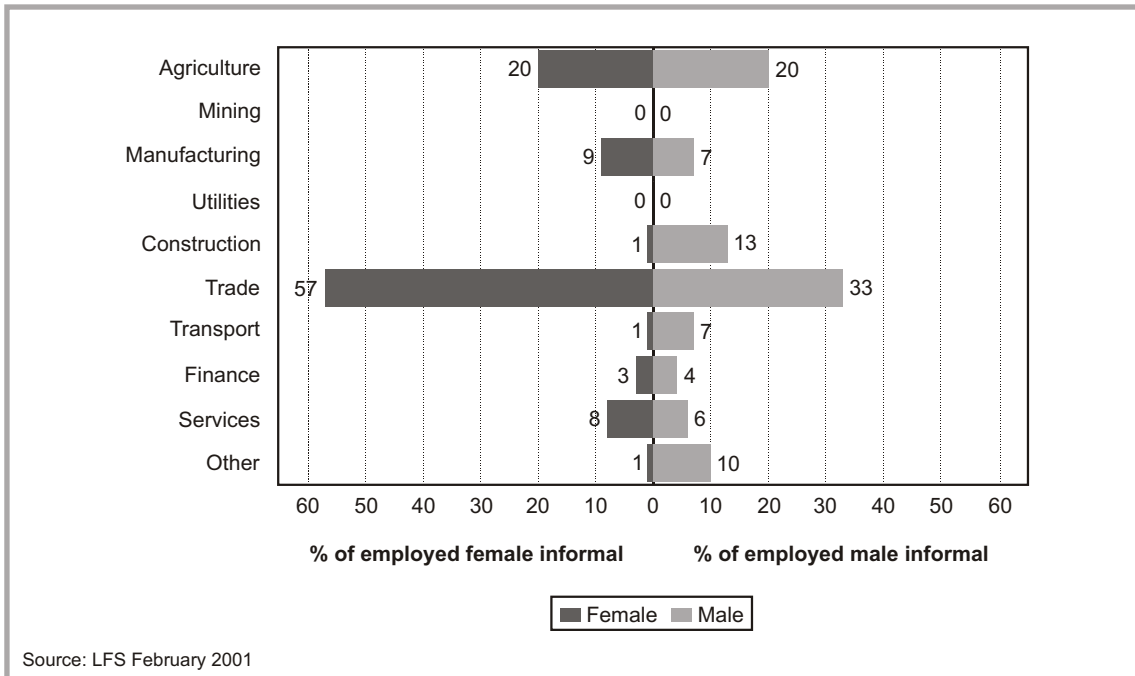
- Figure 34 reveals that the trade industry provides the largest proportion of jobs for both women and men. It accounts for the main job of 30% of employed women and 20% of employed men between 15 and 65 years.
- Among women, services provides a further 20% of the main jobs, followed by private households (16%), manufacturing (11%) and agriculture (10%).
- Among men, manufacturing is the second largest job provider (16%), followed by services (14%) and agriculture (13%).
- Employed women tend to cluster into a small number of industries. The top three industries for women together account for two-thirds (66%) of women's employment, while the top three industries for men account for 50% of male jobs.

Figure 35: Percentage distribution of employed women and men aged 15-65 years by industrial sector, 1995 and 2001



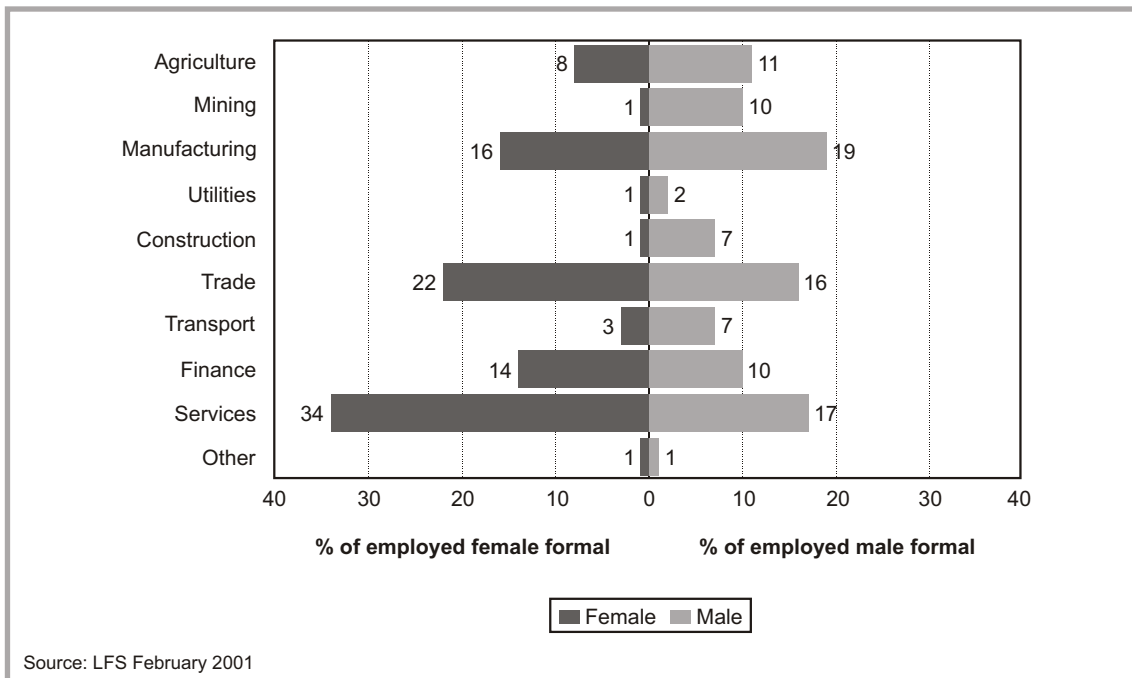
- Figure 35 provides the comparison between the distribution of female and male employed across industry groups in 1995 and 2001. The primary cluster includes agriculture and mining. The secondary cluster includes manufacturing, utilities and construction. Services includes domestic work in private households and other personal and community services. Other tertiary covers trade, transport and financial services.
- The figure shows an increase in the percentage of women employed in primary industries between 1995 and 2001. This, as before, can be partly explained by better capturing of informal subsistence agriculture. There is a marked decrease in the percentage of women employed in services, from 49% in 1995 to 36% in 2001. This is counterbalanced by a large increase – from 30% to 40% – in the percentage employed in other services. More detailed analysis reveals that this latter increase is explained by a ten percentage point increase in the percentage of women employed in wholesale and retail trade.
- Among men, the changes between 1995 and 2001 are much smaller than for women. For men, there is a decrease in the percentage employed in primary industries, which is explained by a decrease in the percentage in agriculture rather than in mining. As with women, there is a decrease in the percentage employed in services, and an increase in the percentage employed in other tertiary industries. The latter increase is again accounted for by an increase in the percentage of men employed in trade.

Figure 36: Percentage distribution of women and men 15-65 years employed in the non-domestic informal sector, by industry, 2001



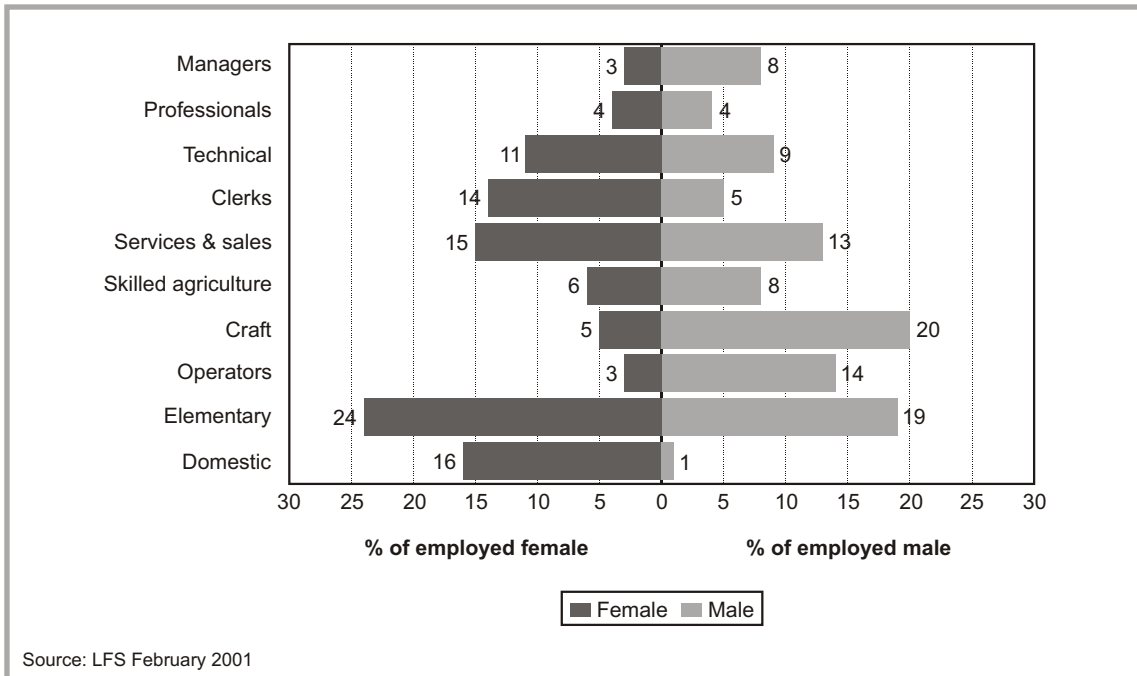
- Figure 34 illustrated the percentage distribution of employed women and men across industries in the economy as a whole, including both the formal and informal sectors. Figure 36 focuses on the informal sector, while Figure 37 focuses on the formal sector.
- The figure reveals that the industrial distribution in the informal sector is skewed towards a limited range of industries.
- The skewness is particularly marked for women, in that well over half (57%) are employed in trade, 20% in agriculture and under 10% in each of the remaining industries.
- For men, the largest job provider is again trade, but it accounts for only a third (33%) of informal sector jobs, compared to 57% for women. The proportion of informal sector workers employed in agriculture is the same for women and men, at 20%.

Figure 37: Percentage distribution of women and men aged 15-65 years employed in the formal sector by industry, 2001



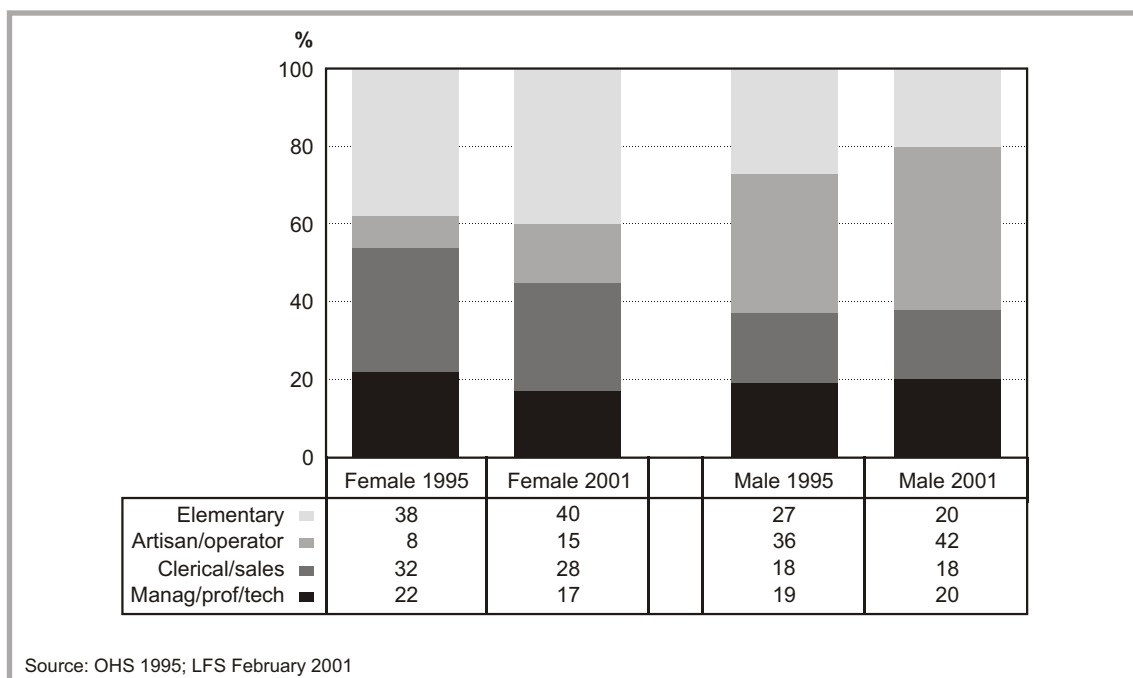
- Figure 37 shows that, in the formal sector, over a third (34%) of the women are employed in services, with another 22% in trade and 16% in manufacturing. There is thus relatively less clustering in the formal than in the informal sector. Nevertheless, nearly three-quarters (72%) of women are found in the top three sectors – services, trade and manufacturing.
- Manufacturing (19%), services (17%) and trade (16%) each account for more or less equal proportions of the men employed in the formal sector. As with women, there is relatively less clustering in the formal than in the informal sector.

Figure 38: Percentage distribution of women and men aged 15-65 years by occupational category, 2001



- Figure 38 shows that 40% of employed women between the ages of 15 and 65 years are in unskilled occupations – 16% working as domestic workers and 24% in other unskilled jobs. Among employed men of this age, 20% are in unskilled occupations – 1% in domestic work and the rest in other unskilled jobs.
- Women are significantly more likely than men to be employed in clerical jobs. 14% of employed women are in these occupations, but only 5% of employed men.
- On the other hand, men are far more likely than women to be employed as operators (14% of men and 3% of women), craft workers (20% of men and 5% of women), and managers (8% of men and 3% of women).
- The relatively large percentage of women in technical occupations may, at first glance, be surprising. However, the full description of this occupational grouping is technicians and associate professionals. The occupations covered include computer-related occupations, nursing aides and midwives, and less qualified primary, pre-primary and special education teachers.

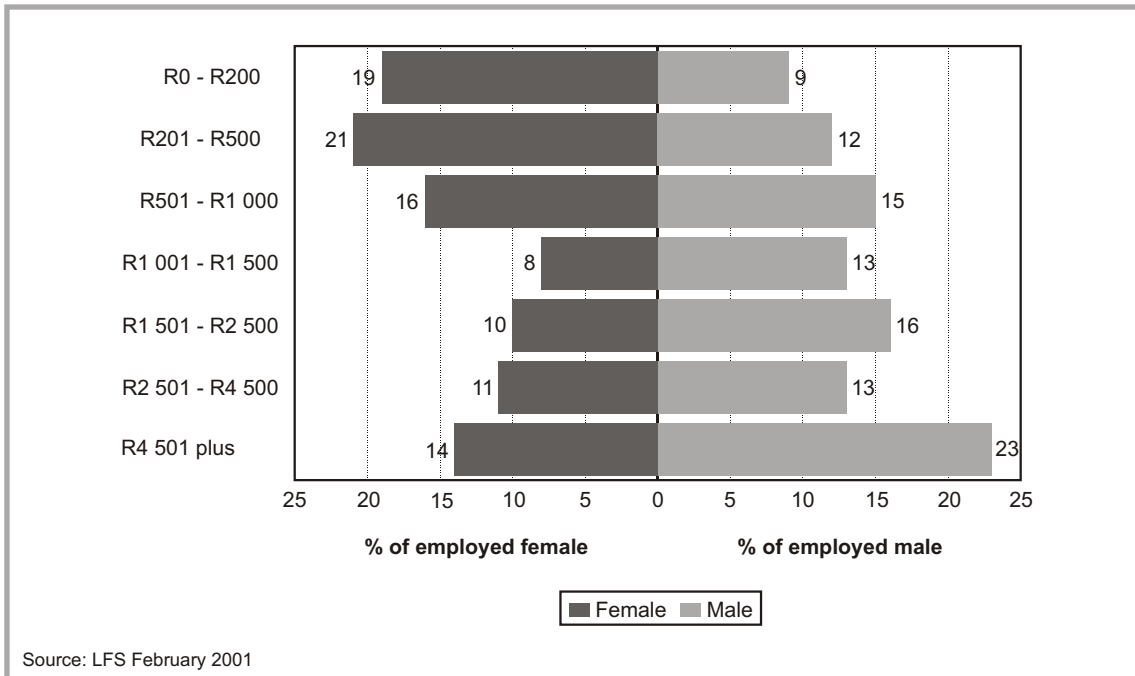
Figure 39: Percentage distribution of employed women and men aged 15-65 years by broad occupational category, 1995 and 2001



- Figure 39 provides a comparison of the occupational distribution of employed women and men in 1995 and 2001. The management, professional and technical grouping includes managers, professionals, associate professionals and technicians. The clerical and sales group includes clerical, service and sales workers. The artisan and operator group includes skilled agricultural workers, craft workers and operators.
- The figure reveals a significant increase in the percentage of employed women who are in artisan and operator occupations – from 8% of the total in 1995 to 15% in 2001. The increase is largely explained by an increase in the percentage of skilled agricultural workers, the category in which many subsistence agricultural workers will be placed.
- The groupings with relative losses of female workers are the clerical and sales and managerial, professional and technical groupings.
- Among male workers, there is also an increase in the percentage employed in artisan and operator occupations, together with a marked decrease in the percentage employed in elementary occupations. The increase in the percentage employed in skilled agriculture is particularly marked – from 1% in 1995 to 8% in 2001. Again, this can be partly explained by improved prompting in the questionnaire.

WORK: EARNINGS 1

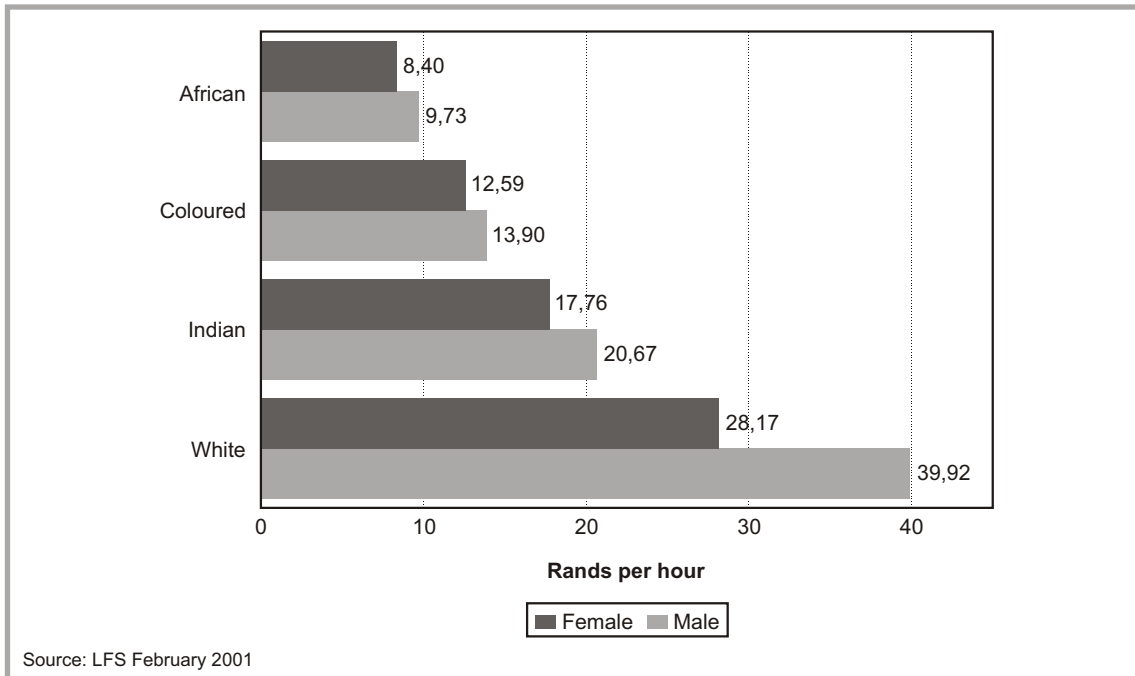
Figure 40: Percentage distribution of employed women and men aged 15-65 years by earnings, 2001



- Figure 40 reveals disparities in earnings of employed women and men between the ages of 15 and 65 years.
- Women are more likely than men to be found in the lower earning categories. Close on one fifth (19%) of women, compared to 9% of men, earn R200 or less per month. A further 21% of women and 12% of men earn between R201 and R500 per month.
- Conversely, men are more likely than women to be found in the top earning categories. Nearly a quarter (23%) of men, but only 14% of women, earn more than R4 500 per month.

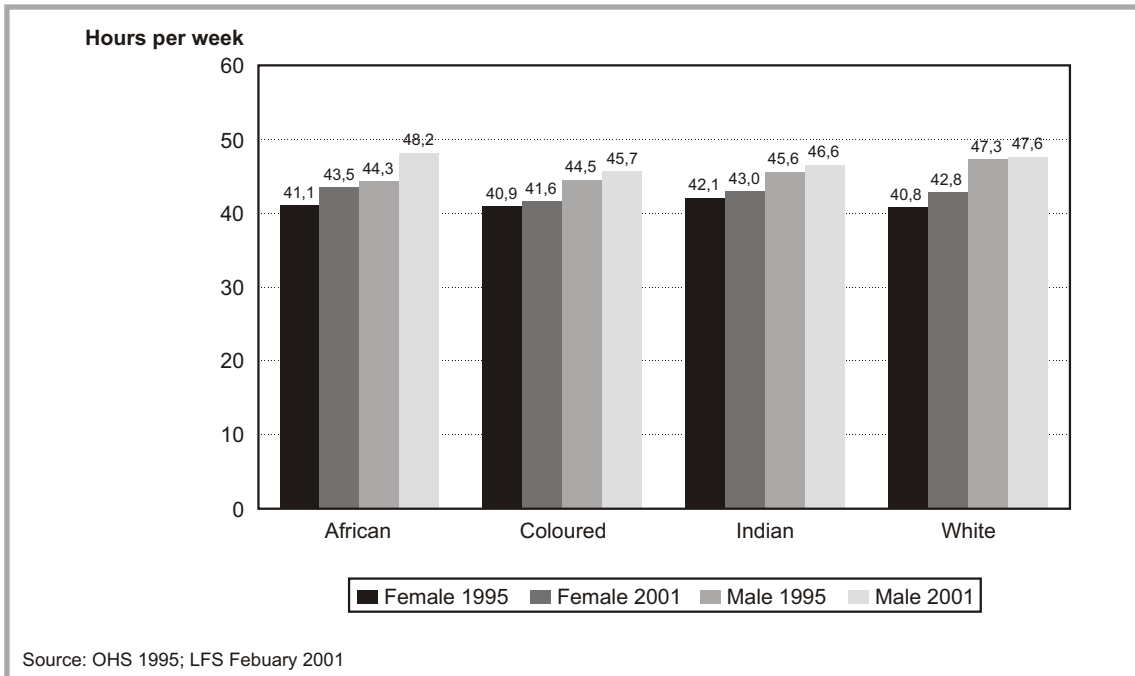
WORK: EARNINGS 2

Figure 41: Mean hourly earnings of employed women and men aged 15-65 years in each population group, 2001



- Figure 41 shows the mean hourly earnings of employees between the ages of 15 and 65 years in February 2001 by population group and sex. By showing hourly earnings, we remove the effect of possible differences in hours worked by women and men.
- The figure shows that mean hourly earnings are higher for men than women across all population groups. The male–female differential is largest for white employees, followed by Indian employees.
- The differences between employees of different population groups are generally greater than the differences between women and men employees within a particular population group. White male employees, in particular, earn nearly five times as much per hour, on average, than African female employees, and more than four times as much per hour, on average, than African male employees.

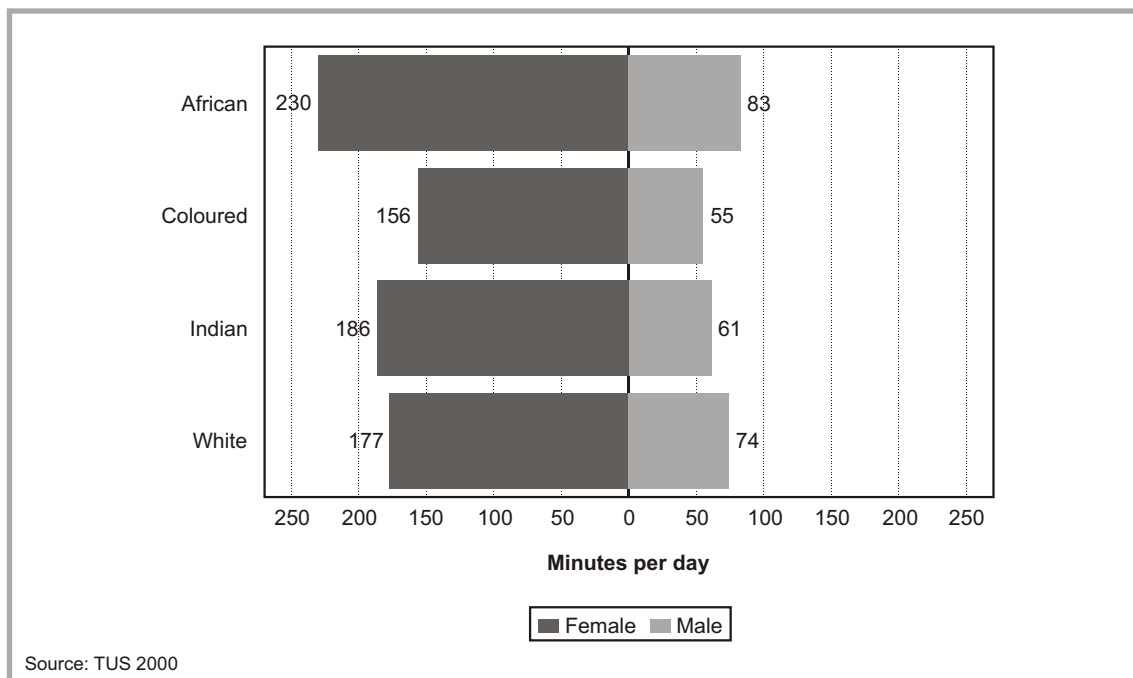
Figure 42: Mean hours worked during previous seven days among employed women and men aged 15 years and above in each population group, 1995 and 2001



- Some of the differences between female and male earnings may be explained by differences in hours worked. Figure 42 shows the mean hours worked by women and men aged 15 years and above in 1995 and 2001. We use this age group rather than 15-65 years to allow easier comparison with the first *Women and Men* publication.
- The figure shows that the mean hours increased between 1995 and 2001 for women and men in all population groups. The increase was most marked for African men (an increase of over four hours), and African and white women (increases of over two hours).
- Among all population groups, men tended to work more hours than women in both 1995 and 1999. The difference between women and men was most marked among the white employed. In 2001, the difference between African women and men was also large relative to that for coloured and Indian workers.

WORK: UNPAID WORK 1

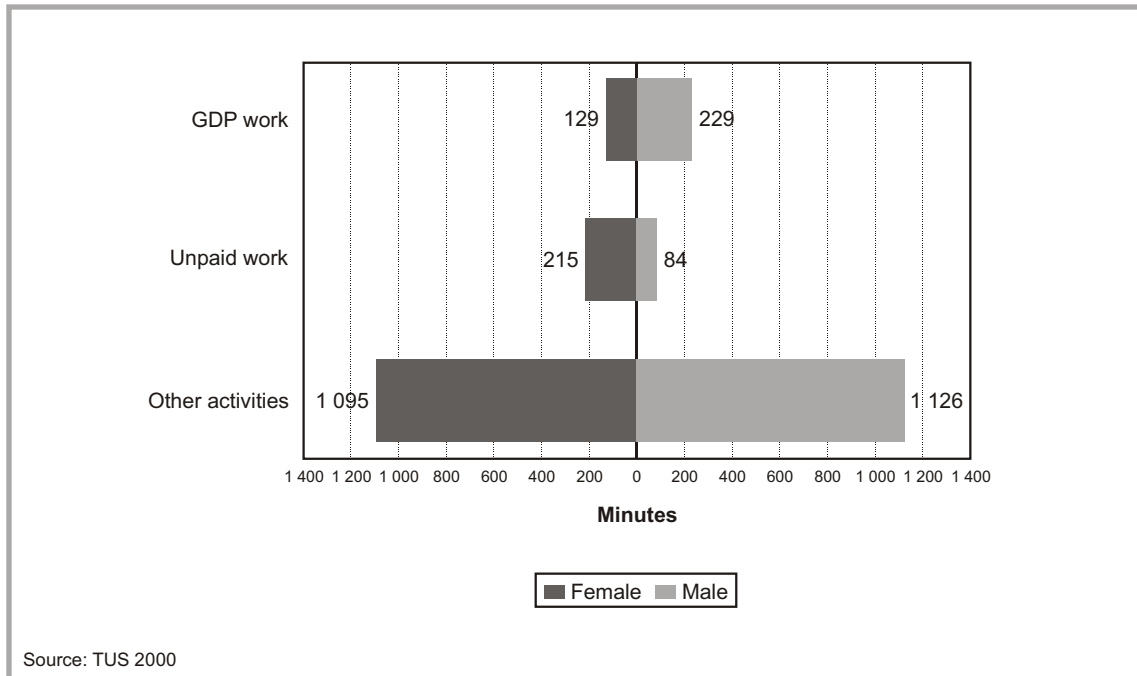
Figure 43: Mean minutes per day spent on unpaid housework, care of others and collecting of fuel and water among employed women and men in each population group, 2000



- In addition to income-earning work, most people spend some part of their day doing unpaid housework, caring for other members of the household, or collecting fuel or water. Figure 43 shows the differences in the average number of minutes per day spent on these activities by employed women and men in different population groups.
- The figure shows that, across all population groups, employed women spent far more time, on average, on these unpaid tasks than employed men. The difference between women and men in this respect is least among the white group. But even here, employed women spend more than twice as long, on average, per day than employed men on such tasks.
- Among both women and men, African people tend to spend longer than those of other population groups on unpaid housework, care of household members and collection of fuel and water. The difference between the African and other groups is larger for women than for men.

WORK: UNPAID WORK 2

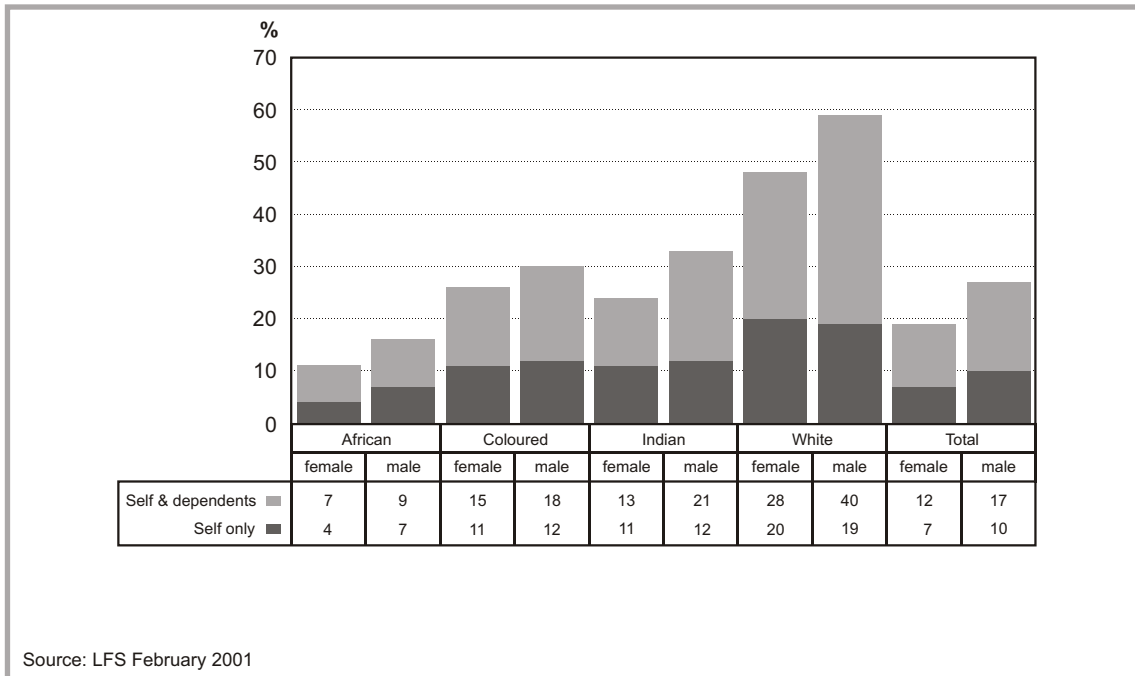
Figure 44: Mean minutes per day spent by women and men aged 15-65 years on productive and unproductive activities, 2000



- Paid work in the formal and informal sector is included in the calculation of the gross domestic product (GDP), which is the standard measure of the size of the economy. The value of goods produced in subsistence agriculture is also included in the calculation of GDP. In Figure 44 these activities are referred to as 'GDP work'.
- Activities such as unpaid housework, caring for other members of the household, caring for other members of the community, other community work, and collection of fuel and water are also productive activities, but they are not included in the calculation of GDP. In Figure 44, they are referred to as 'unpaid work'.
- All other activities – such as sleeping, eating, socialising, learning and engaging in cultural activities – are not regarded as production. They are referred to as 'other activities'.
- Figure 44 shows that male individuals between the ages of 15 and 65 years spend an average of 229 minutes per day on GDP work, and 84 minutes per day on unpaid work. Female individuals in this age group spend an average of 129 minutes on GDP work, and 215 minutes on unpaid work.
- Overall, female individuals spend an average of 344 minutes per day on paid and unpaid productive activities, compared to 313 minutes for males.

WORK: MEDICAL BENEFITS

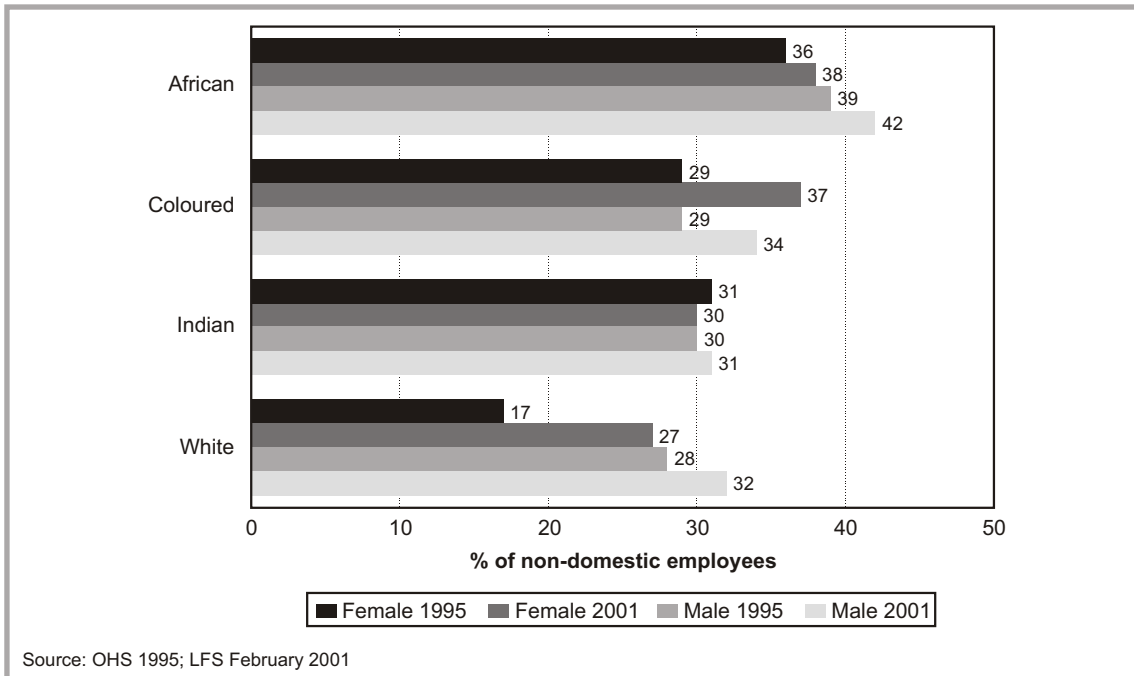
Figure 45: Percentage of employed women and men aged 15-65 years in each population group who have medical cover through the workplace for self or self and others, 2001



- In addition to earnings, there are disparities in benefits between employed women and men. Figure 45 reveals these differences as well as differences between women and men of different population groups. The figure distinguishes between workers who have medical cover only for themselves, and those who have cover both for themselves and their dependents.
- In terms of cover for self, the figure reveals that more or less the same proportion of women and men have cover in the coloured, Indian and white groups. Among African workers, however, 7% of men and 4% of women are covered.
- In terms of cover for self and dependents, within each population group men are more likely than women to have such cover. Overall, 17% of men and 12% of women are covered for self and dependents, and 10% of men and 7% of women have cover for self only.
- White women and men are markedly more likely than those in other population groups to have medical cover. African women and men are markedly less likely than others to have cover.

WORK: TRADE UNION MEMBERSHIP

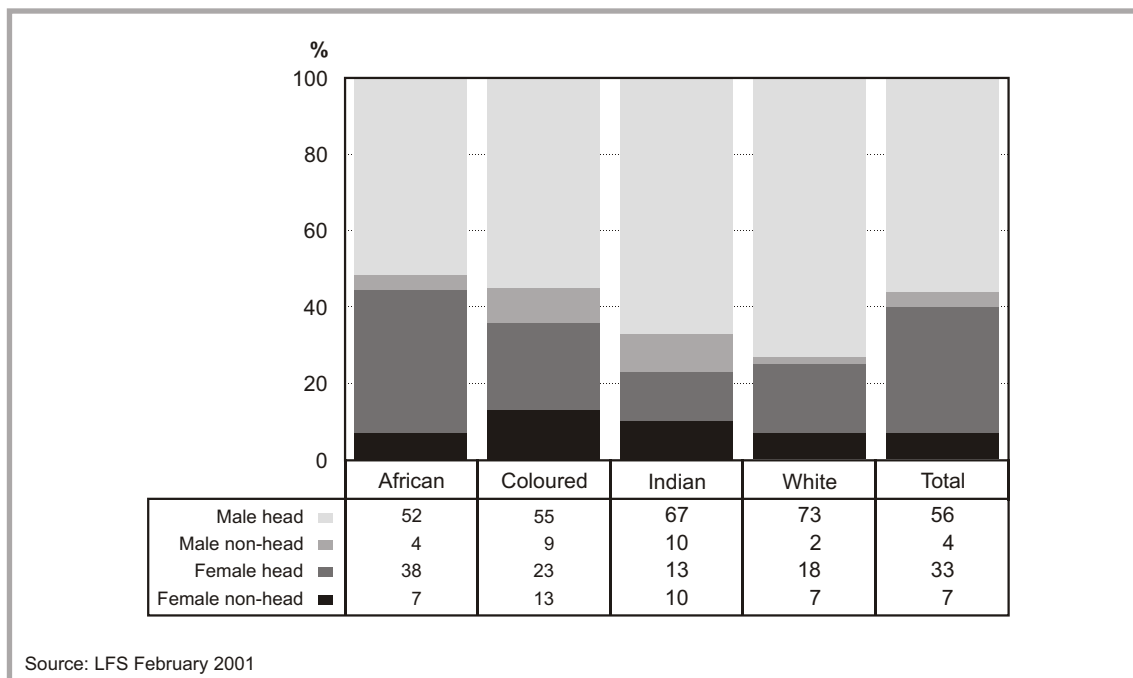
Figure 46: Percentage of non-domestic employees aged 15 years and above who are trade union members in each population group, 1995 and 2001



- Figure 46 shows the percentage of non-domestic employees aged 15 years and above who were members of trade unions in 1995 and 2001. As with Figure 42, we use the 15 years and above age group to allow for easier comparison with the first *Women and Men* publication.
- The figure shows an increase in trade union membership for all groups except Indian women, where there is a very small decrease. The latter could well be accounted for by sampling error. The biggest increase was among white and coloured women, where the increases are ten and eight percentage points respectively.
- The increase in coloured female trade union membership brings membership levels for coloured women to more or less the same level as for African women. For white women, despite the large increase, membership levels remain lower than for any other grouping.
- Among men, African trade union membership is higher than for any other population group in both 1995 and 2001. As for women, the biggest increases in membership between the two years occurred among coloured and white workers. The increases are, however, smaller than for women in these population groups.

DECISION-MAKING: HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD

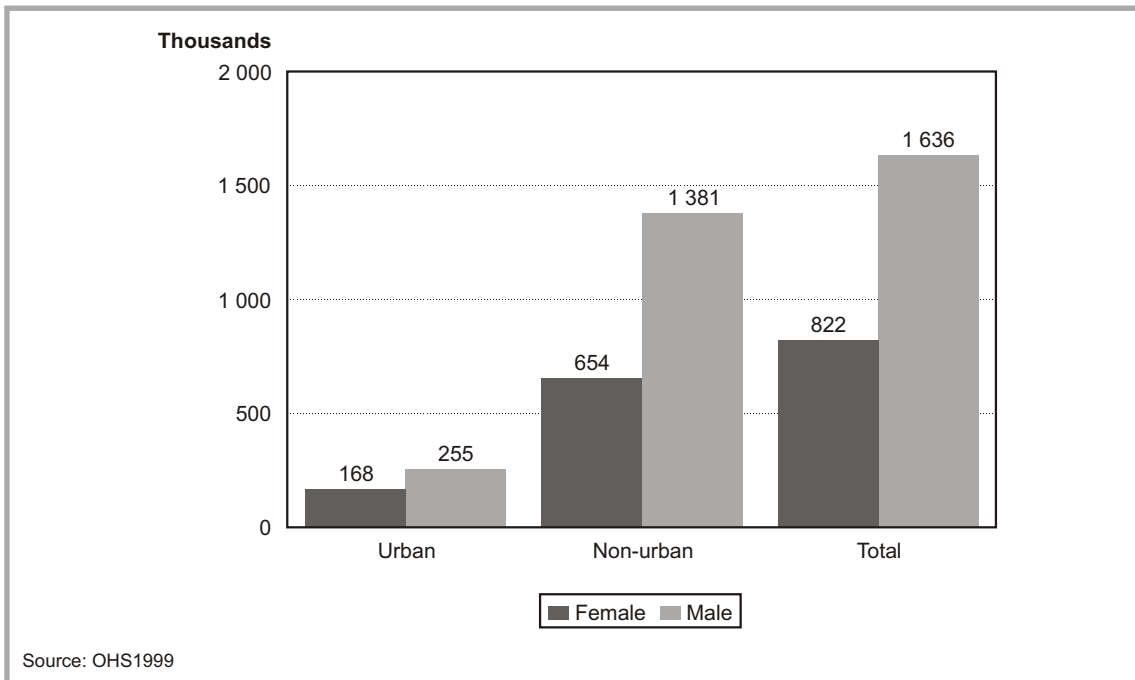
Figure 47: Percentage distribution of persons who bring the largest income into households in each population group, by sex and whether the person is head of household, 2001



- Stats SA's labour force survey asks which person in the household usually brings in the most money. Figure 47 reveals how often this person is male or female, and how often the person is also named as the head of the household. The concept of household head is usually taken to mean the main decision-maker.
- Women are most likely to be named as the source of the largest income in African households. In 38% of African households the female head is named as the source, and in another 7% a female who is not the head is named as the source.
- Women are least likely to be named as the source of the largest income in Indian (23%) and white (25%) households.
- Men who bring in the most money are more likely than women in this position to be named as head of household. Only 7% of the male main money-earners are not household heads, while this is the case for 21% of female main money-earners.

MIGRATION: LOCATION

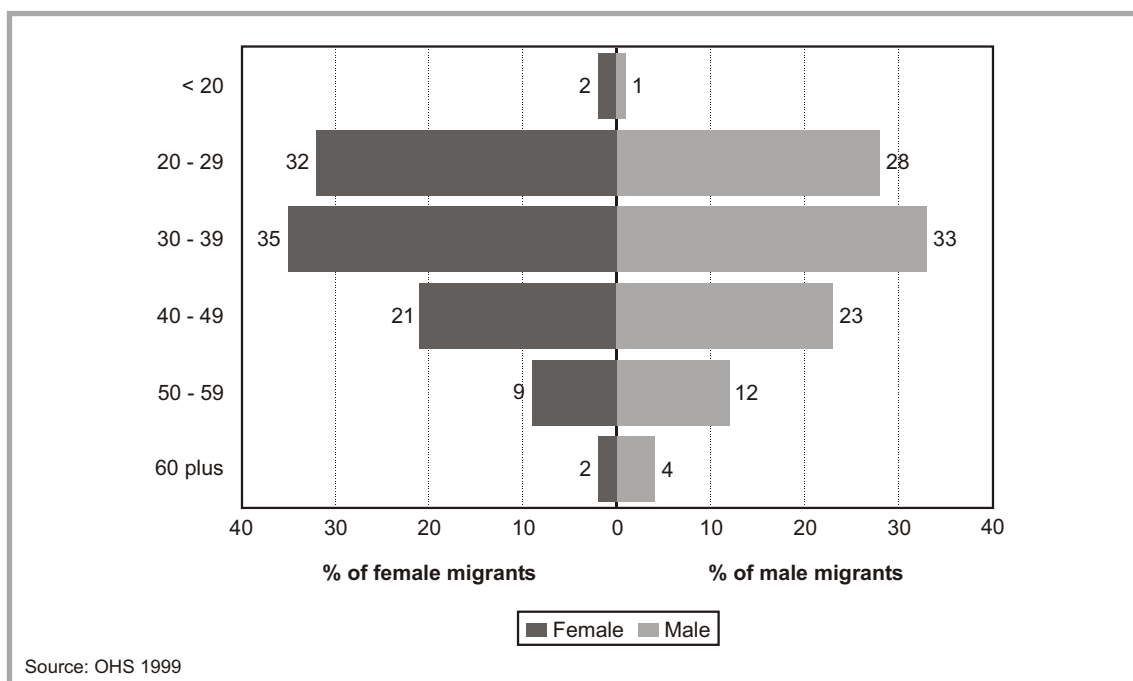
Figure 48: Migrants by sex and location of household, 1999



- In the October household survey, household members are defined as those who usually sleep in the dwelling at least four nights a week. In 1999, all households were, however, also asked to report on migrants. These were defined as people who are considered members of the household, but do not usually sleep in the dwelling at least four nights a week because they are absent from the dwelling for work or to seek work for a period of a month or longer.
- Figure 48 reveals that there are about twice as many male migrants as female, using this definition.
- The figure also shows that the overwhelming majority of migrants – 2,0 million of the total of 2,5 million, or 83% – come from non-urban areas.

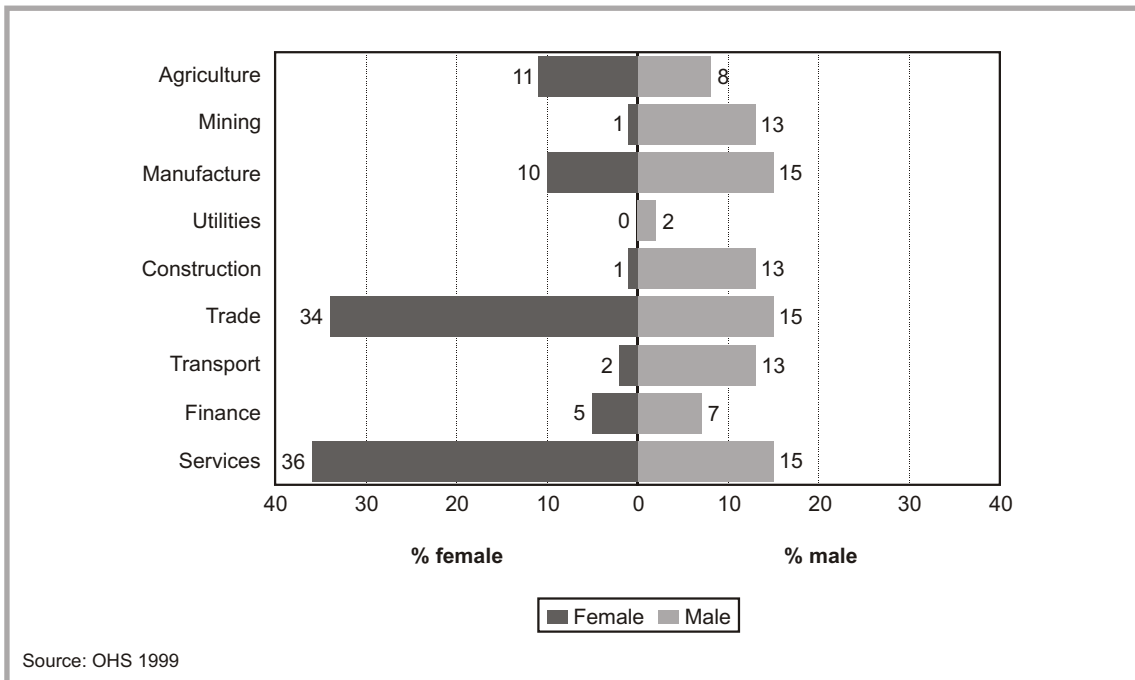
MIGRATION: DEMOGRAPHICS

Figure 49: Age distribution of male and female migrants, 1999



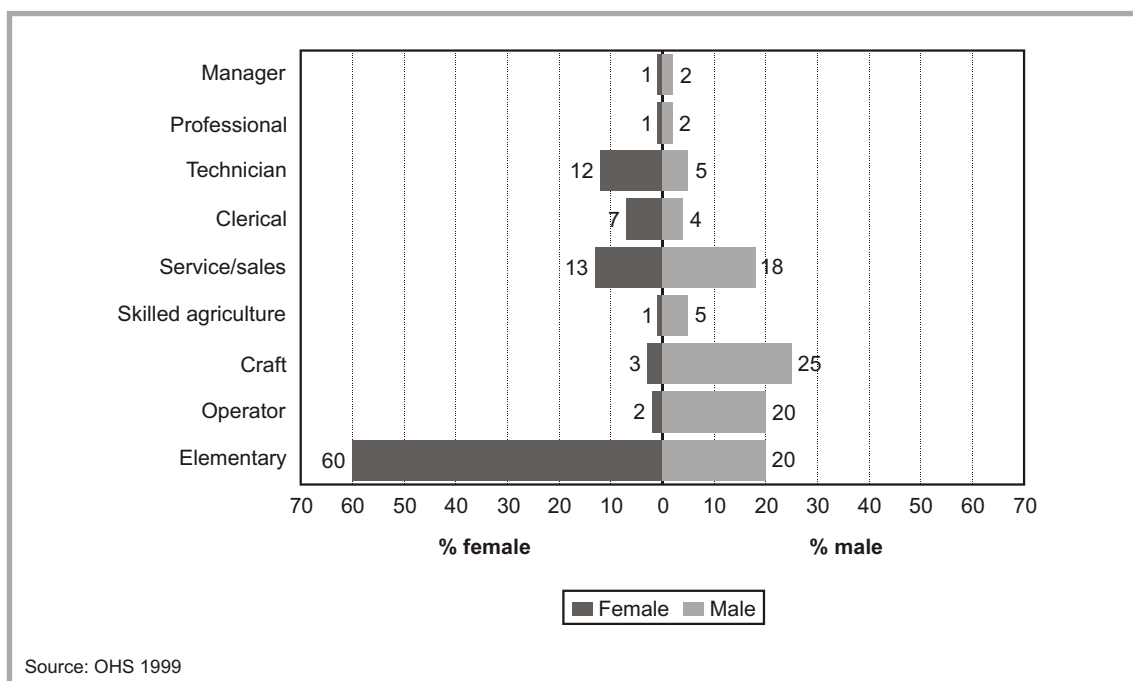
- Figure 49 suggests that there are not very large differences in the age profile of male and female migrants. Overall, however, female migrants tend to be younger than male. Thus 69% of female migrants are under the age of 40, compared to 62% of male migrants.
- Among both men and women, the 30-39 age group accounts for around a third of all migrants. The next most common age group is 20-29 years, which accounts for 32% of female and 28% of male migrants.
- Migration is far less common for older people. Only 11% of female migrants and 16% of male migrants are 50 years or older.

Figure 50: Percentage distribution of employed migrants by sex and industry, 1999



- Not all migrants manage to find work. Figure 50 shows the distribution of employed male and female migrants for whom an industry was reported.
- Over a third (34%) of female migrants who are employed work in services and a further third (34%) in trade. No other industry accounts for more than 11% of female migrants.
- Among male migrants, no industry accounts for more than 15% of all those for whom an industry is reported. Further, only utilities, agriculture and finance account for less than 13% of male migrants. There is thus much less clustering in work according to industry patterns for male than female migrants.
- When compared to Figure 34, this figure suggests that there is greater concentration in a few industries for female migrants than employed women in general, but less concentration for male migrants than employed men in general.

Figure 51: Percentage distribution of employed migrants by sex and occupation, 1999



- Three-fifths (60%) of all employed female migrants and one-fifth (20%) of employed male migrants have elementary occupations. A further 13% of female migrants have sales and service occupations, while 12% work in associate professional and technician positions.
- Among male migrants, there is a more even distribution over a larger range of occupations. Thus service and sales, craft work, operators and elementary work each account for 18% or more of occupations among employed male migrants.
- When compared with Figure 38, Figure 51 shows far more clustering for employed female migrants than for employed women in general.