

Gender statistics

in South Africa, 2011



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Foreword

South Africa ranks fourth among the 87 countries covered by the 2012 Social Institutions and Gender Index of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. It is the highest ranked country in Africa in this index. South Africa's high ranking reflects the country's strong legal framework in respect of gender equality and women's rights.

South Africa also performs well against the indicators specified for Goal 3 of the Millennium Development Goals, the goal that focuses on gender equality and women's empowerment. At 45% South African parliament is second in Africa after Rwanda in terms women representatives in Parliament.

Nevertheless, on the ground discriminatory practices, social norms and persistent stereotypes often shape inequitable access to opportunities, resources and power for women and girls. Further, serious gender-related challenges persist, including unacceptable levels of gender-based violence.

For example men are more likely to be in paid employment than women regardless of race, while women are more likely than men to be doing unpaid economic work. Unemployment rate remains higher among women.

While education is an enabler, disappointingly women are not as enabled by their education status as their men counterpart. For example the proportion of women with tertiary education who are employed is almost 10 percentage points lower than that of men with the same level of education. Furthermore, women with tertiary education earn around 82% of what their male counterparts earn.

Statistics South Africa is gender-sensitive in the way it collects data and reports on the data collected. For example, information about gender-relevant issues is collected in all household based surveys including censuses. The information is spread across a large number of reports. This report is therefore compiled as a way of presenting key statistics on gender in a single publication that will make it easier for users to see the bigger picture.

The publication does not by any means exhaust all the gender-related data that is available within the South African government system. Furthermore, there are some issues – such as gender-based violence – on which collecting reliable data remains a challenge. Notwithstanding the above mentioned challenges, Stats SA aims to expand gender statistical information base including valuing of work done by women using the time use survey.

This publication contains a wealth of data that we hope will be useful in taking forward the commitment of the government and the wider society to a non-sexist and non-racist South Africa.



Pali Lehohla

Statistician General

INTRODUCTION

The first gender report published by Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) was in 1998. The 1998 publication titled, *Women and Men in South Africa* compared the life circumstances and living conditions of women and men in the country at the time. The 1998 gender report was succeeded by another publication in 2002, titled '*Women and Men in South Africa: Five Years On*'. Now, just over ten years later, Stats SA has produced a third booklet in the series of gender reports namely, *Gender statistics in South Africa, 2011*. This new publication updates some of the statistics presented in the earlier publications and presents statistics on some new topics. Furthermore, the 2013 report is presented in a simple practical way, hence the name '*Gender statistics in South Africa, 2011*'.

Stats SA produces a large number of surveys, and the number has increased over time. Already for the second publication, the analysis was therefore restricted to data produced by Stats SA. The third publication continues with the approach of using only internal data. However, this must not be interpreted as suggesting that Stats SA is the only source of gender-relevant data. Even within government, there are many other sources. In particular, many government agencies have administrative data that can and should be analysed to reveal what it tells us about the access of women and men, girls and boys to the various services delivered by national, provincial and municipal governments.

As noted in the previous 1998 and 2002 reports, gender statistics extend beyond 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 childcare.

Gender analysis also extends beyond mere disaggregation in another way, namely that disaggregation into male and female needs to be combined with disaggregation by other characteristics. In the South African context, disaggregation by population group remains important and many of the figures in this publication illustrate how population group and gender interact to place particular groups – often black African women – at a particular disadvantage. Similarly, geographical location is often a strong determinant of the situation and opportunities available to different women and men, girls and boys. In some cases, and where relevant, the publication presents the statistics in terms of different age groups of women and men, girls and boys.

Some of the statistics presented in this publication show substantial differences between women and men and/or girls and boys. Other statistics show very small differences between them. We have included both types of statistics in the publication as it is important to know where there is discrimination or disadvantage and where there is not. For example, the statistics suggest that women and girls are doing well when compared to men and boys in South Africa. This is still not the case in some other countries.

As before, we have grouped the findings into broad topics – population, families and households, living conditions, education, health, work and income. We have had to drop the migration section as the questions used in 2002 were not included in later surveys. Census 2011 included questions on migration, and the Quarterly Labour Force Survey of the third quarter of 2011 also included some migration questions. Unfortunately, the data have not been sufficiently coded as yet to allow presentation of analysis in migration in this publication, but such analysis should be possible in the not-too-distant future.

Unfortunately, we were also not able to include statistics in respect of gender-based violence, as Stats SA does not have reliable data on this issue. In particular, in the annual Victims of Crime Survey only a very small proportion of respondents are willing to report that they have been the victims of gender-based violence. It is widely acknowledged – and understandable given the nature of the crime – that collecting reliable data on this topic are extremely difficult. It is nevertheless unfortunate that this important gender issue is not covered.

Each of the sections of the report 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. Wherever possible, graphs have been produced that are similar to those included in the 2002 publication. This was done so as to allow comparison across the two publications. In addition, this publication includes several additional graphs that were not part of the 2002 publication. The main body of the report includes some graphs that show trends over time. Most commonly, the graphs present a comparison of the situation at the time the last report was produced and the situation ten years later, in about 2011. This appendix includes several tables that provide further comparisons over this period. In some cases the tables, like the comparative graphs in the report, present the situation at the two end points of the ten-year period. In other cases the tables also present estimates for intervening years.

The booklet draws on several Stats SA surveys. The main sources of statistics on household, demographic and labour statistics are the 2001 Census, the General Household Survey of 2011 and the 2011 Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS) annual data. The Census attempted to cover all households. The two household surveys each cover approximately 30 000 households that are representative of all nine provinces. The Census was weighted to correct for under-count and both household surveys were weighted so as to make the results representative of the overall population of the country. In some of the graphs, results are compared with the 2001 Census and with the Labour Force Survey (LFS) of September 2001. In terms of data on the Labour force, it is important to note that the 2008 re-engineering of the LFS to the QLFS necessitated the adjustment of the earlier LFS series to preserve historical continuity with the QLFS. In order to achieve this, Link factors were computed on the basis of an overlap of the QLFS and the LFS in March and September 2008. The historical adjustment methodology involved re-weighting the LFS unit record (micro data) files. In doing this re-weighting, a substantial number of variables were set as control totals. This was done using the QLFS/LFS ratios from the estimates for variables (employed, unemployed, not economically active, industry, occupation, etc.) for Q1:2008/March 2008 and Q3:2008/September 2008. A detailed report on the methodology used to derive the link factors is available at www.statssa.gov.za/qLFS/index.asp.

A third source of survey data is the Time Use Survey (TUS) conducted in the fourth quarter of 2010. This survey, the second national TUS to be conducted in the country, collected information on the daily activities of nearly 40 000 individuals from over 22 000 households around the country. Again, the data were weighted so as to make them representative of the total population aged 10 years and over.

There are some small changes in both numbers and proportions between the statistics quoted in the 2002 publication and the 2001 statistics quoted in this report. One reason for these differences is that at the time the second publication was published, data from Census 2001 were not yet available. Further, for the employment statistics this publication uses the age range 15–64 years, whereas the earlier publication used 15–65 years.

This publication contains over 40 figures, one per page and an annexure which contains a further set of tables that provides comparisons between what was reported in the 2002 publication and what can be reported ten years later. 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.

The publication 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. Readers can in many cases generate their own further statistics. Thus Stats SA makes the raw data from all the standard surveys available, for free download, on its website (www.statssa.gov.za). The Stats SA website also has interactive tools which allow users who do not have the skills to analyse raw data to generate tables, including tables disaggregated by sex.

This publication was produced by the Labour Statistics division of Stats SA.

RESULTS

POPULATION

Urban and non-urban

Figure 1: Female and male population in urban and non-urban areas by age, 2011

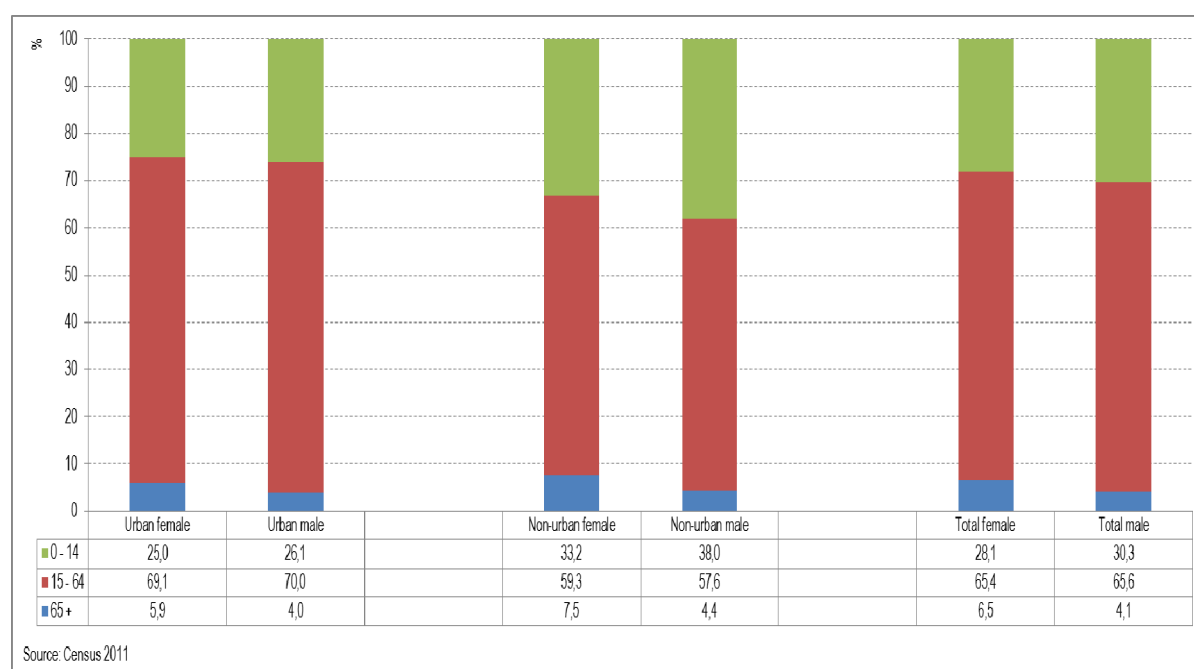


Figure 1 illustrates the age distribution of the male and female population in urban and non-urban areas in October 2011. Census 2001 definitions for urban and rural have been applied. According to Stats SA, an urban area is defined as a continuously built-up area with characteristics such as type of economic activity and land use. Cities, towns, townships, suburbs, etc. are typical urban areas. An urban area is one which was proclaimed as such (i.e. in an urban municipality under the old demarcation) or classified as such during census demarcation by the Geography department of Stats SA, based on their observation of the aerial photographs or on other information. On the other hand, a rural area is defined as any area that is not classified urban. Rural areas may comprise one or more of the following: tribal areas, commercial farms and informal settlements.

Seven-tenths (69,1% female and 70,0% male) of the urban population is in the age group 15–64 years. This is the age group which is used as the basis for calculations of labour force activity. In non-urban areas, a smaller percentage of the population (59,3% of females and 57,6% of males) is in this age group.

In non-urban areas, children under 15 years make up 33,2% of the female population and 38,0% of the male population. This is significantly higher than the 25,0% and 26,1% respectively of the urban population made up of female and male children of this age.

There are very small differences (1,6 percentage points and 0,4 of a percentage point respectively) among both females and males in the proportions of those living in non-urban and those living in urban areas who are aged 65 years and above.

FAMILIES AND HOUSEHOLDS

Marital status

Figure 2: Percentage of population aged 10 years and above who are married or living as husband and wife, by sex and age group, 2011

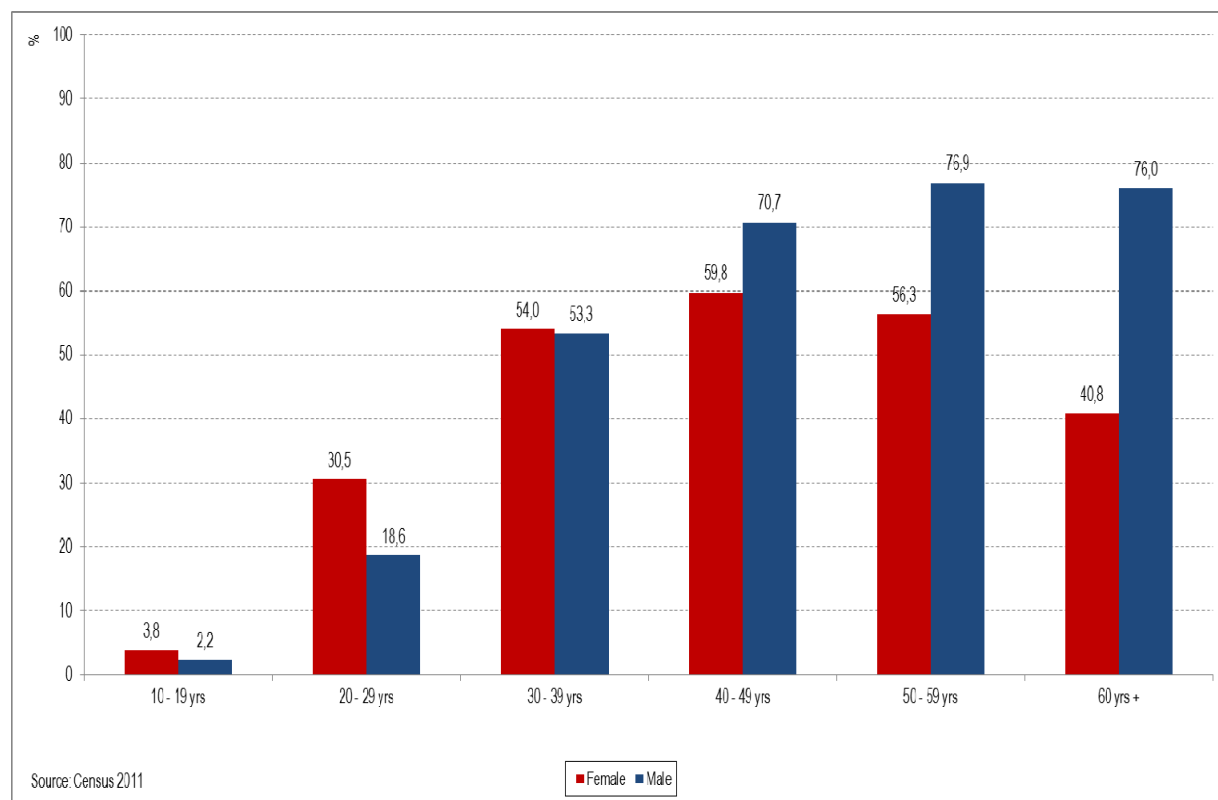


Figure 2 shows that the percentage of women who are married or living together as husband and wife increases with age up until the age group 40–49 years, after which it decreases. Only 3,8% of female teenagers are married or living together as husband and wife, compared to 54,0% and 59,8% of women in the age groups 30–39 years and 40–49 years respectively. Among older women of 60 years and above, the percentage married or living together drops to 40,8%.

The figure also shows that only 2,2% of teenage boys are married or living with a partner. In the age group 30–39 years there is a smaller difference in the proportion of women and men who are married or cohabiting when compared to the other age groups. At older ages, a higher proportion of men than women are married or cohabiting – as many as 76,9% of men aged between 50 and 59 years.

The differences in the patterns for women and men can largely be explained by different ages at marriage and differences in longevity. In particular, the higher percentage of married women than that of married men at the younger ages reflects lower mean age at marriage for women. 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.

Figure 3: Percentage of population aged 10 years and above who are married or living as husband and wife, by sex and age group, 2001 and 2011

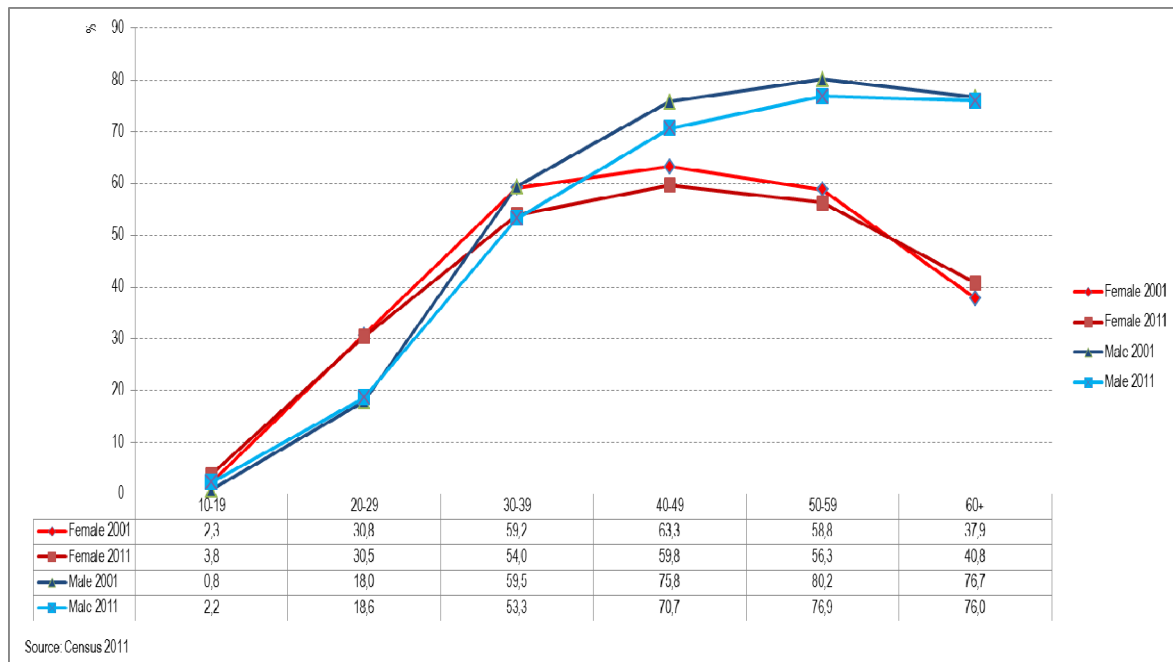


Figure 3 compares the situation in 2001 and 2011 in respect of marriage and cohabitation. For both women and men, smaller proportions are reported to be married or cohabiting in 2011 than in 2001 for ages 30–59 years.

Among 20–29-year-olds the difference between the percentages married and cohabiting in 2001 and 2011 amounts to only a few percentage points. The largest difference between the two years in the percentages married or living together for both men (6,2 percentage points) and women (5,2 percentage points) occurs among those aged 30–39 years.

The change in the percentage married or living together between 2001 and 2011 is generally smaller for women than for men. However, the overall percentage of women who are married or cohabiting remains smaller than the percentage of men.

FAMILIES AND HOUSEHOLDS

Partners

Figure 4: Percentage of people married or living as husband and wife whose partner is a member of the same household, by sex and population group, 2011

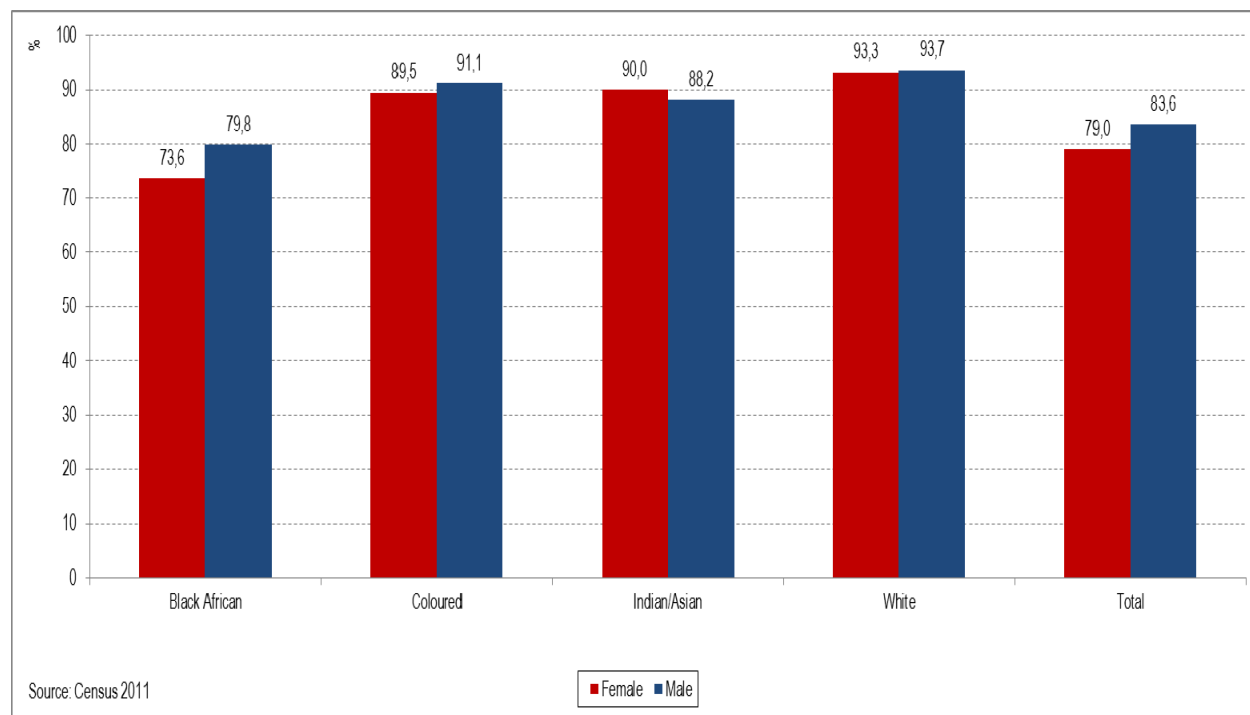


Figure 4 focuses on women and men who are married or living together as husband and wife. It shows, for each population group, what percentage of these women and men have their partners living in the same household. Some of the cases of separated partners can be explained by continuing migrant labour, whereby many men, in particular, move away from their homes to find work.

Black African married women and men are least likely to have their partners in the same household. Over 25% of married black African women and just over 20% of married black African men live apart from their partners.

In the other population groups, more than 88% of all married women and men live in the same household as their partners. The differences between women and men in the other population groups are also minimal.

Figure 5: Percentage of people married or living as husband and wife whose partner is a member of the same household, by sex and location, 2011

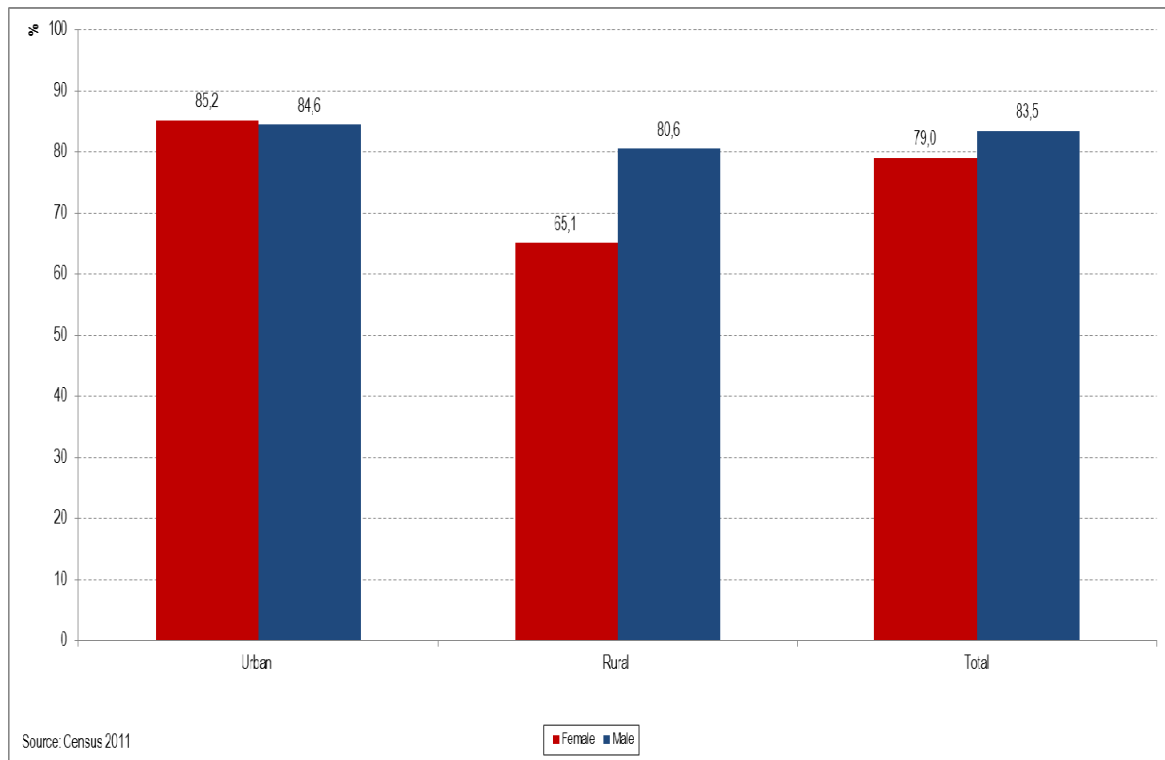


Figure 5 compares the percentages of married women and men in urban and rural areas (as defined previously on page 4) who are living with their partners in the same household. It shows that both married women and men in urban areas are more likely than those in rural areas to be living with their partners in the same household.

In urban areas, there is virtually no difference between women and men in the percentage of those who are married and who are living with their partners. In rural areas, a much higher percentage of married men (80,6%) than married women (65,1%) are living with their partners in the same household.

Historically, the most common form of migrant labour is for men in rural areas to go to urban areas in search of work. Figure 5 thus 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 who are left in the rural areas, and the men who have moved to urban areas who tend to be living apart from their partners.

LIVING ARRANGEMENTS OF CHILDREN AND PARENTS

Figure 6: Children aged 0–17 years living with parents in the household, 2011

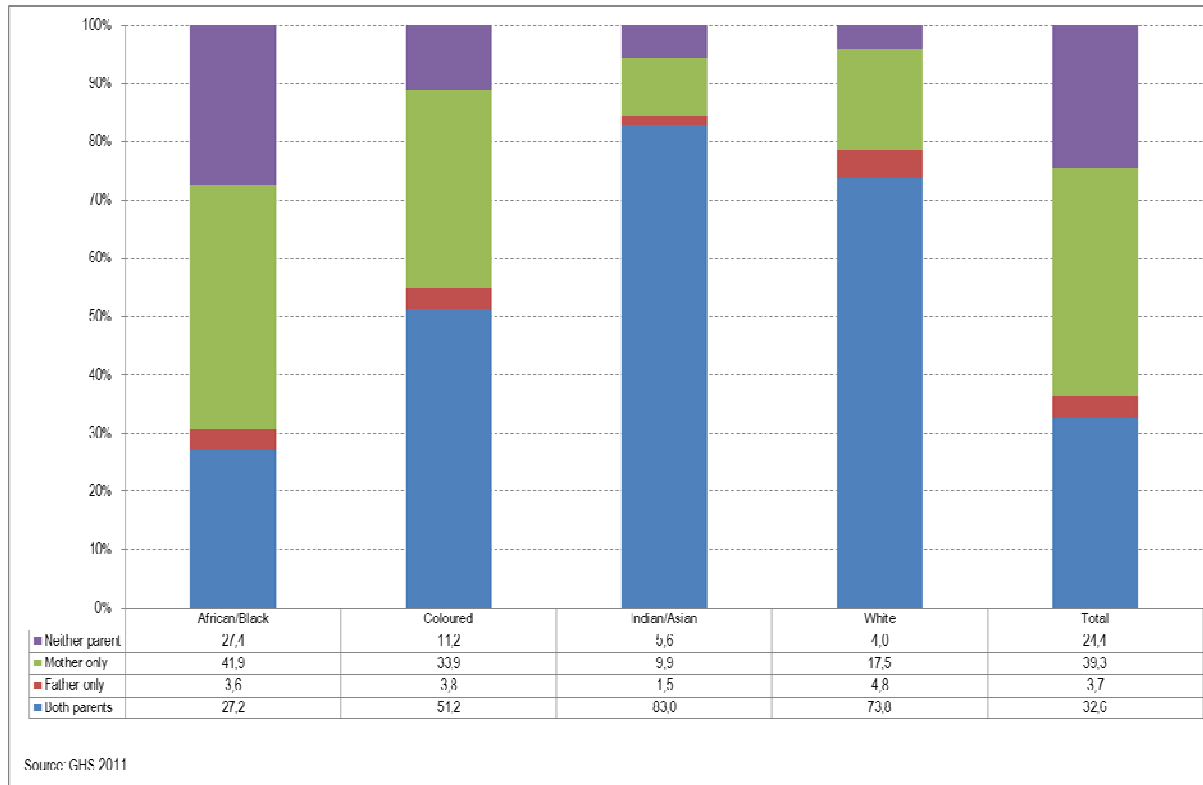


Figure 6 reveals that in 2011, a large proportion of South African children lived in households in which only their mother was present. Over four in every ten (41,9%) of black African children were in this situation, compared to only 9,9% of Indian/Asian children.

The share of children living in households in which neither parent was present was also highest among black African children at 27,2%. This situation was least common for white children.

The percentage of children living with both parents was highest among Indian/Asian children (83,0%), and lowest among black African children (27,2%).

Figure 7: Adults living with own children aged 0–17 years by sex of parent, 2011

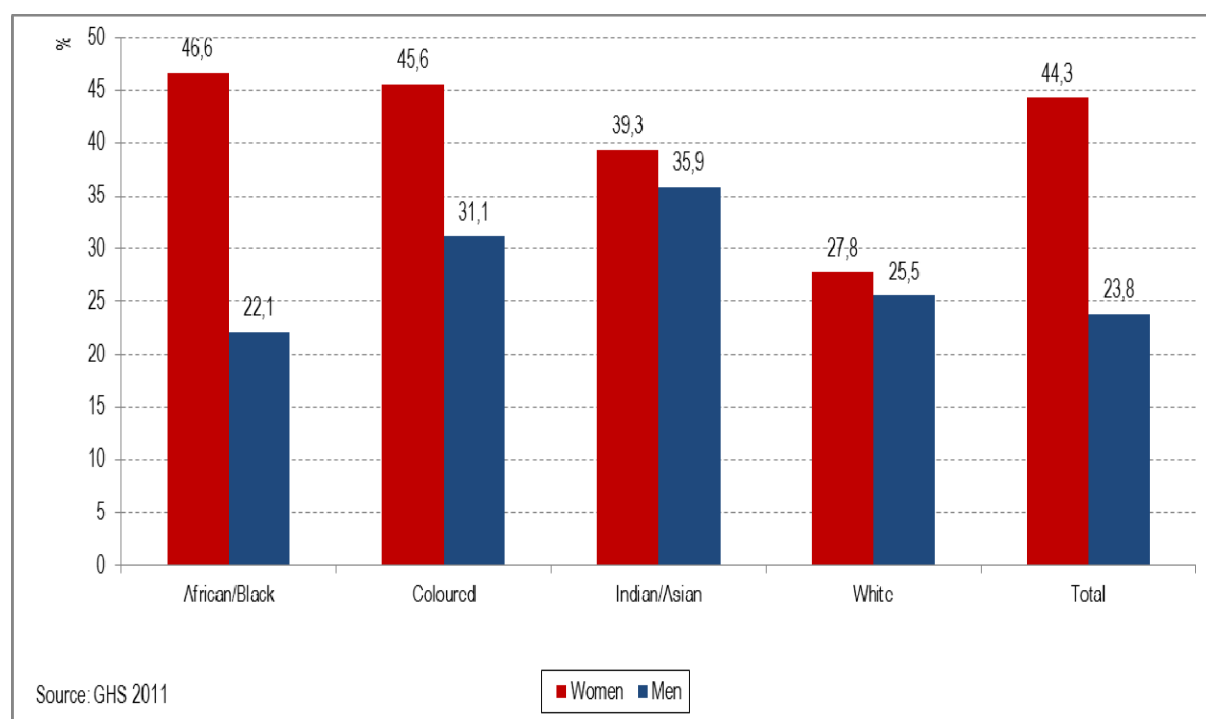


Figure 7 shows the percentage of women and men who live in the same household as at least one of their own children aged 0–17 years.

The figure shows that across all population groups, women are more likely than men to live in the same household as their children.

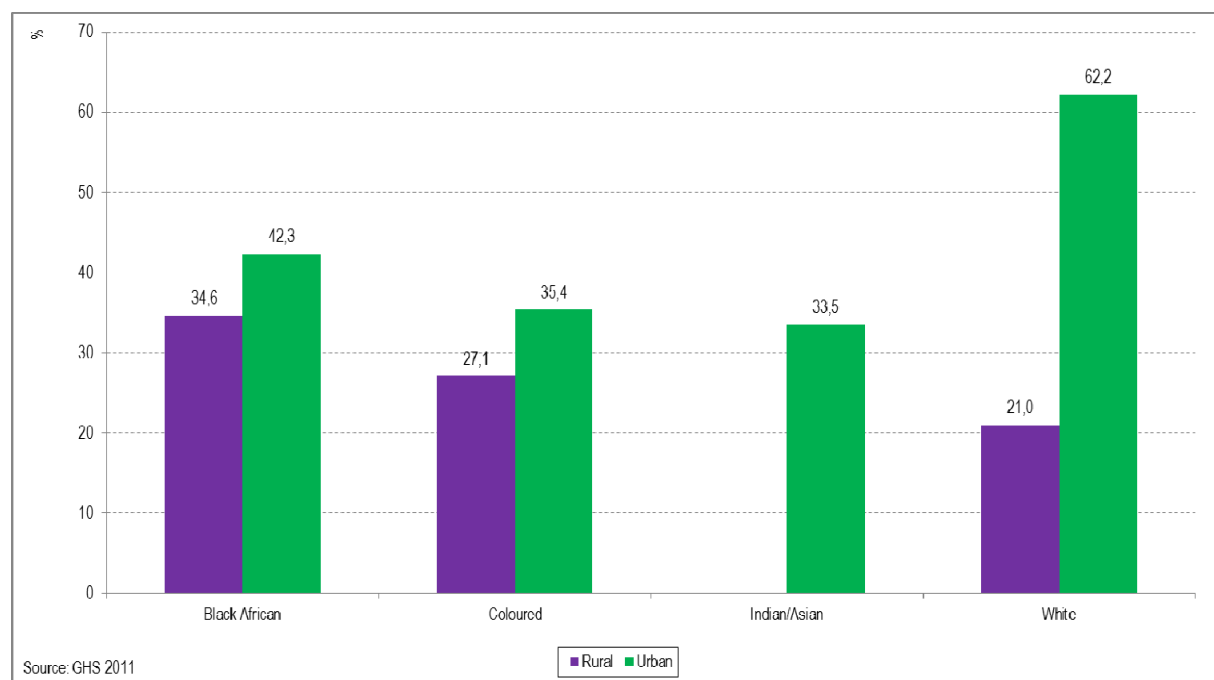
The gender gap is largest among the black Africans, at 24,5 percentage points. It is smallest in the white group, at 2,3 percentage points.

Black African and coloured women are most likely to be living with their children and white women least so. This reflects, among other things, lower rates of childbearing among white women as well as greater longevity. The greater longevity is a factor because older people are less likely to have children aged 0–17 years.

Among men, Indian/Asian men are most likely to live with their children, while black African men are least likely to do so.

CHILDCARE FACILITIES

Figure 8: Percentage of children under 7 years of age at a childcare facility, by population group and location, 2011



Access to childcare is relevant in a gender study because where childcare is not available outside the family, it is usually the female members of the household who are responsible for this task.

Levels of attendance at childcare facilities differ between the population groups. Figure 8 shows that, in urban areas, 62,2% of white children under seven years of age attend early childhood development, school or another form of childcare facility. At the other end of the scale, in rural areas the percentage is substantially lower, at 21,0%. Only 33,5% of Indian/Asian children in urban areas attend these facilities.

Among black African and coloured children, those in urban areas are significantly more likely than those in rural areas to be attending childcare facilities.

Figure 9: Percentage distribution of children under 7 years of age in each population group by type of childcare facility, 2011

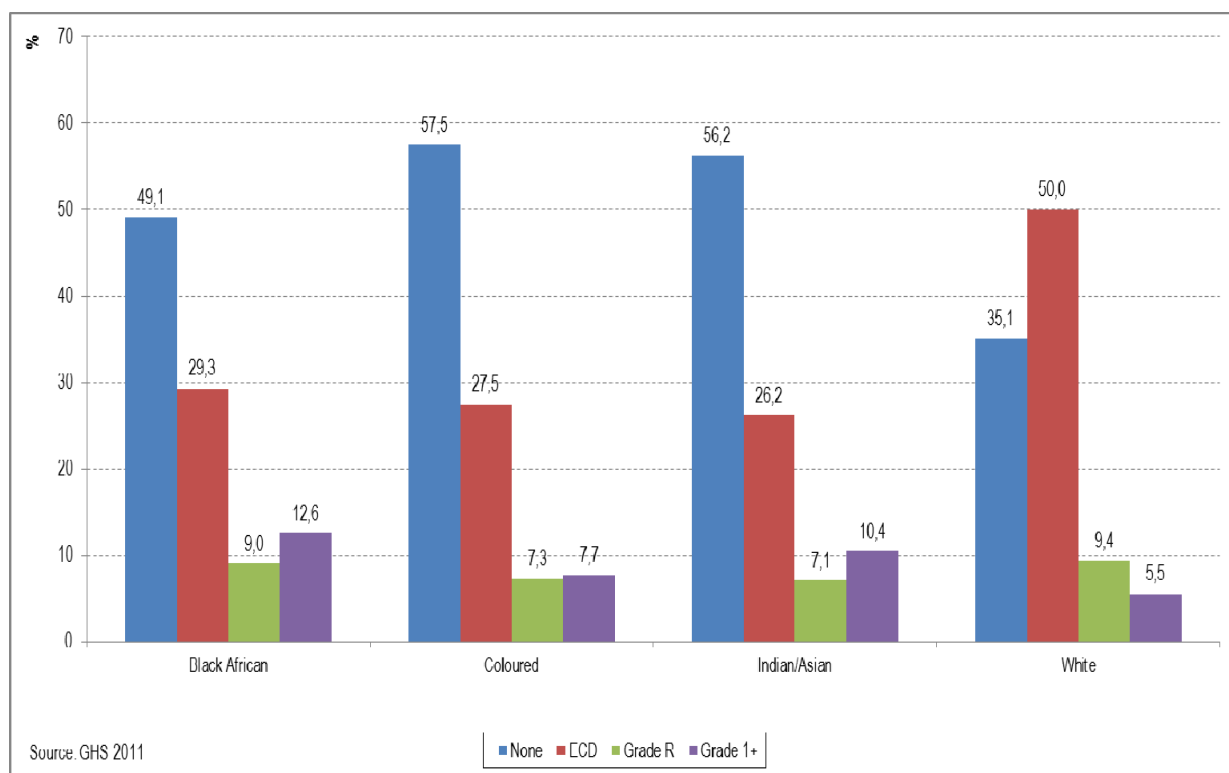


Figure 9 provides further detail about the type of facility utilised by the children. Early Childhood Development (ECD) services generally provide stimulation and some educational input as well as basic care; grade R is the formal pre-school year, while grade 1 is the first year of formal schooling.

For all population groups, ECD is the most common form of care for children under seven years of age. This form of care accounts for more than twice as many children as any other form of care among black African, coloured and Indian/Asian children, whereas for white children this form of care accounts for more than five times as many children as any other form of care.

There is a smaller proportion of white children under seven years of age in grade 1 than for any other population group. The highest proportion is among black African (12,6%) and Indian/Asian (10,4%) children.

Figure 10: Percentage of children attending childcare facilities by age and location, 2011

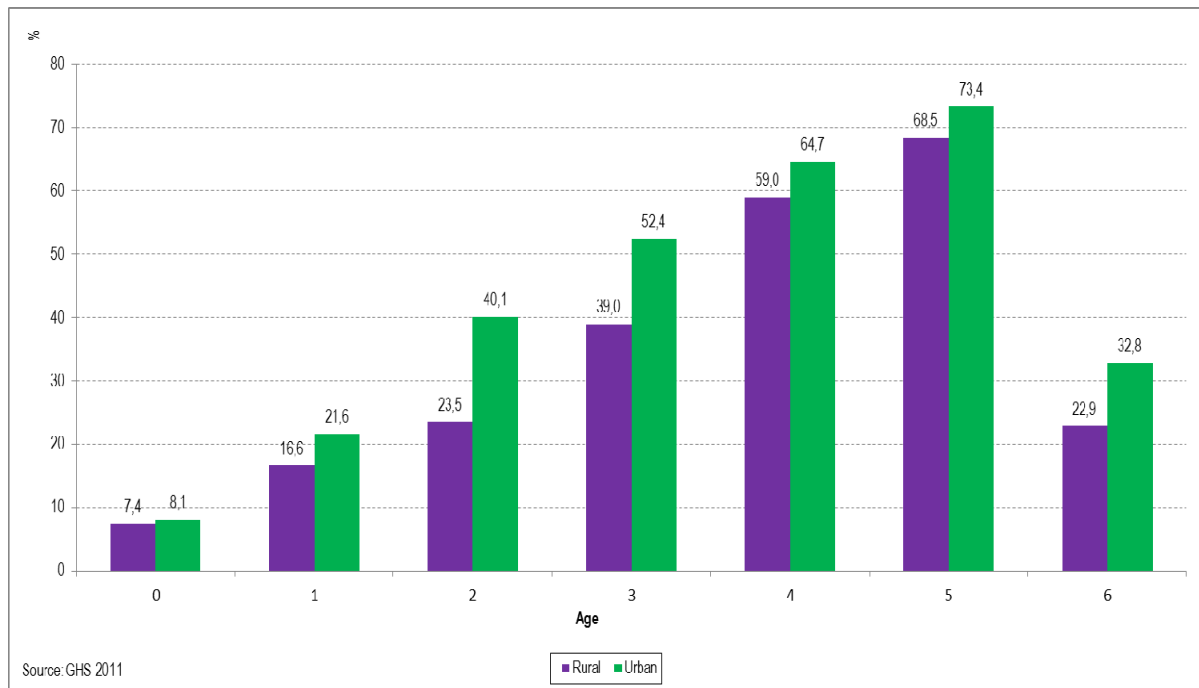


Figure 10 looks at the children attending early childhood development, school or another form of childcare facility, but excludes those in grade 1 and above. Figure 10 illustrates how the likelihood that a child attends childcare facilities increases steadily with the age of the child until the age of five years. This pattern is found for all types of geographical areas. The drop in the number of children aged six years may be due to the reason that most children who are at this age and going to turn 7 years are in grade 1 and are not included in the analysis.

Amongst those under 12 months of age, there is not much difference in the percentage of children attending childcare facilities, with the lowest proportion being 7,4% in the rural areas and the highest being 8,1% in the urban areas. Amongst those aged six years, 32,8% and 22,9% respectively in the urban and rural areas attend childcare facilities as compared to 73,4% and 68,5% of those aged five years in urban and rural areas respectively.

For ages one to six years, a significantly higher proportion of urban children also attend childcare facilities. The relative difference between rural and urban is smallest for five-year-olds (4,9 percentage points) and largest for two-year-olds (16,6 percentage points).

LIVING CONDITIONS

Access to water

Figure 11: Percentage of households without piped water on site by population group, 2001 and 2011

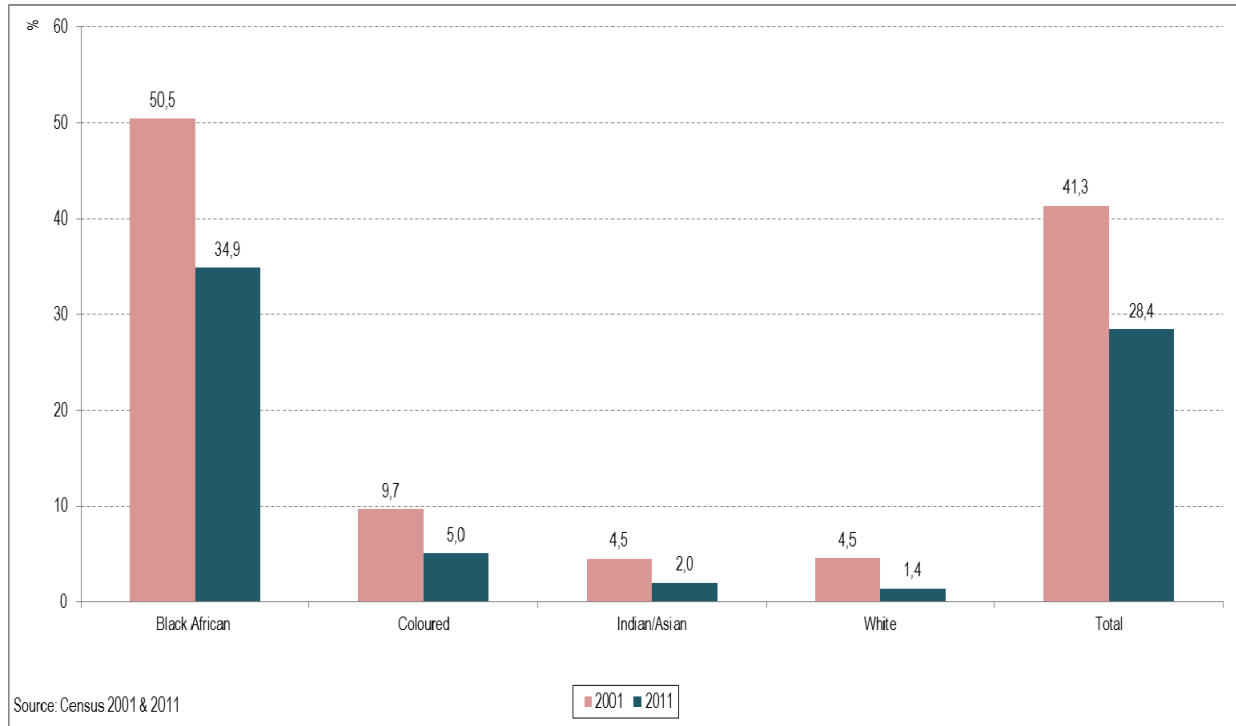
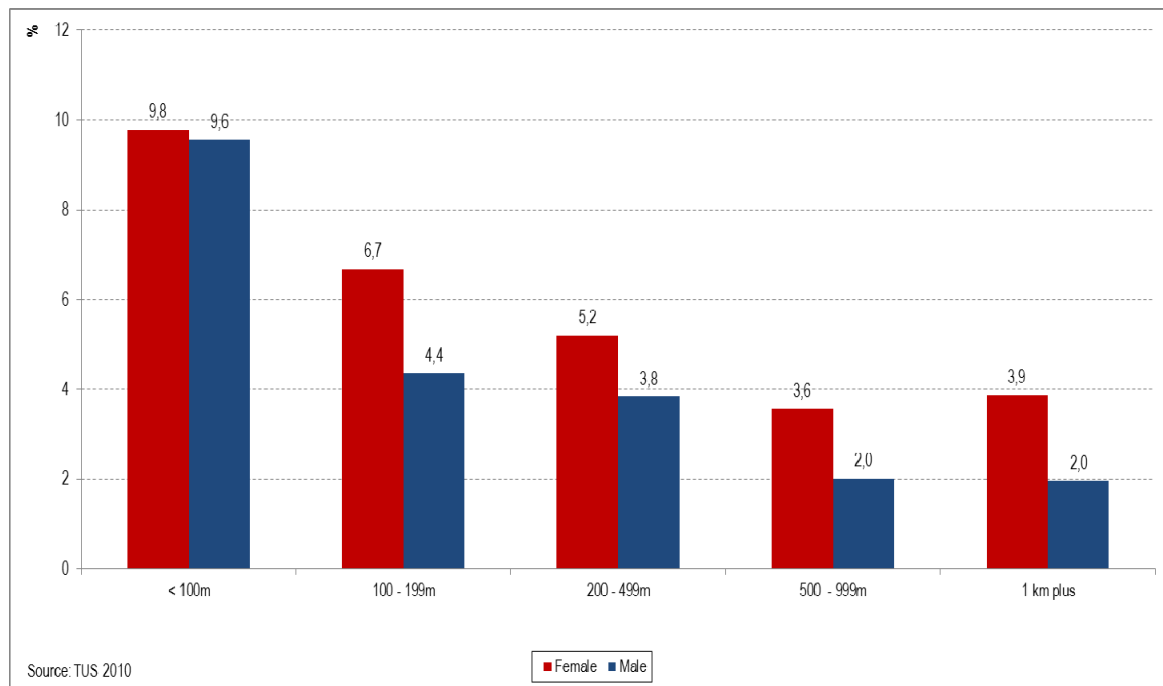


Figure 11 shows that a minority of South Africans do not have access to piped water inside their dwelling or on site. It shows further that the proportion without such access fell sharply between 2001 and 2011, from 41,3% to 28,4%.

Significant differences in access remain between black African households and other population groups. In 2001, 50,5% of black African households were reliant on off-site sources for water. By 2011, the percentage had dropped to 34,9%. This is still high when compared to other population groups for whom the percentage is less than 10% for both 2001 and 2011.

Among coloured, Indian/Asian and white households the percentage without access also decreased between 2001 and 2011. However, coloured households continue to have poorer access to piped water on site than Indian/Asian and white households.

Figure 12: Percentage of women and men (without water on site) spending time on water collection, for each distance from the dwelling, 2010



Where water must be collected, female members of the household are more likely than male members to be responsible for the task. Figure 12 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 collecting water is smallest when the water is collected from less than 100 metres from the dwelling. When the water source is very distant (a kilometre or more), female members of the household are almost twice as likely as male members to collect water.

Figure 13: Percentage of households in urban and rural areas fetching water from a source one kilometre or more from the dwelling, 1999 and 2011

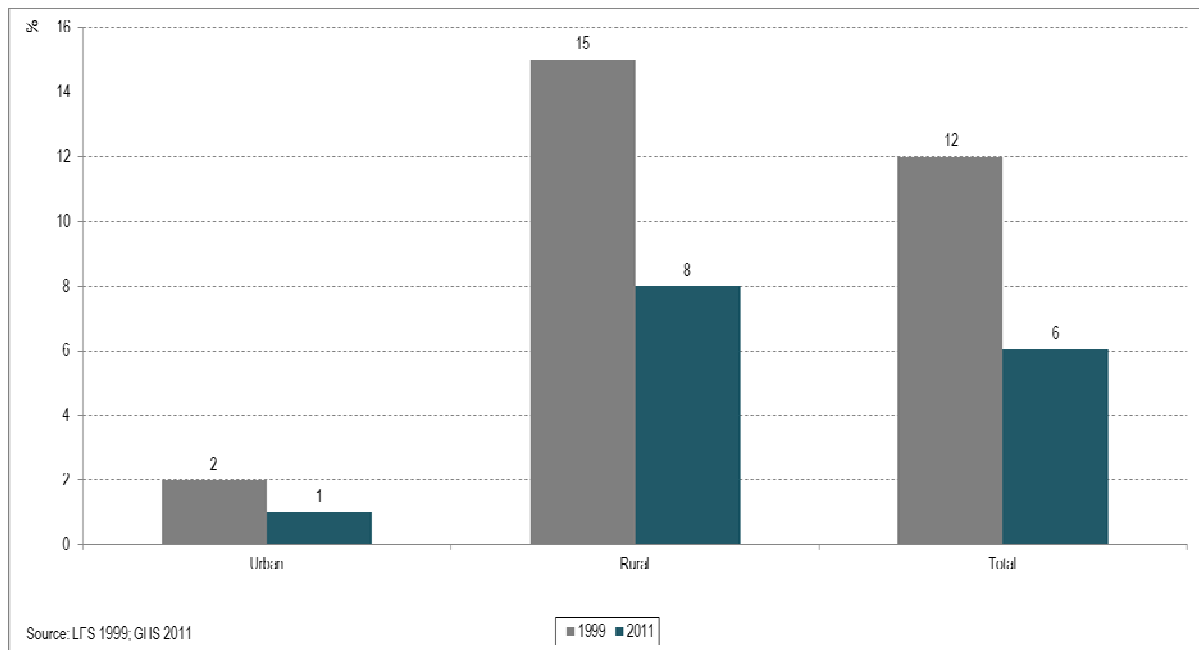


Figure 13 shows the percentage of households reliant on an off-site source and who were collecting water from a distance of more than one kilometre. The figure shows that the percentages of urban and rural households in this position declined between 1999 and 2011. Nationally, the percentage of households reliant on distant off-site water sources declined from 12% in 1999 to 6% in 2011.

Households in rural areas are more likely than those in urban areas to be far away from their water source. In 1999 15% of households fetched water more than one kilometre from their water source compared to 8% in 2011.

Access to fuel

Figure 14: Percentage of men and women living in households using wood or dung for cooking in each population group, 2001 and 2011

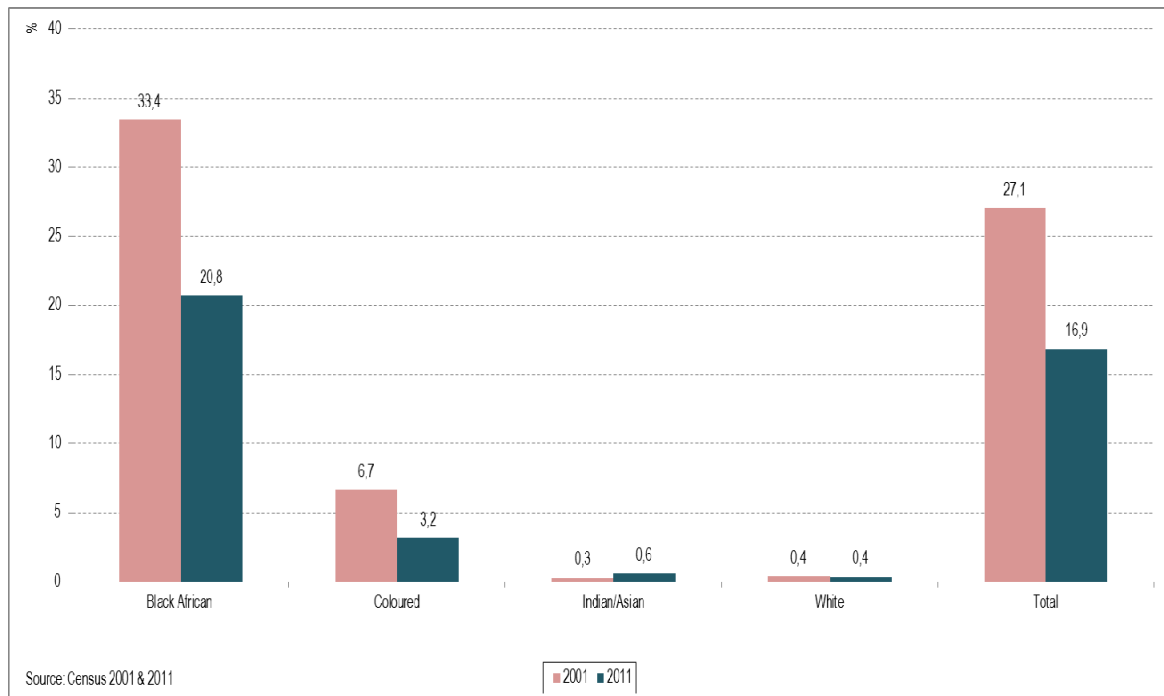
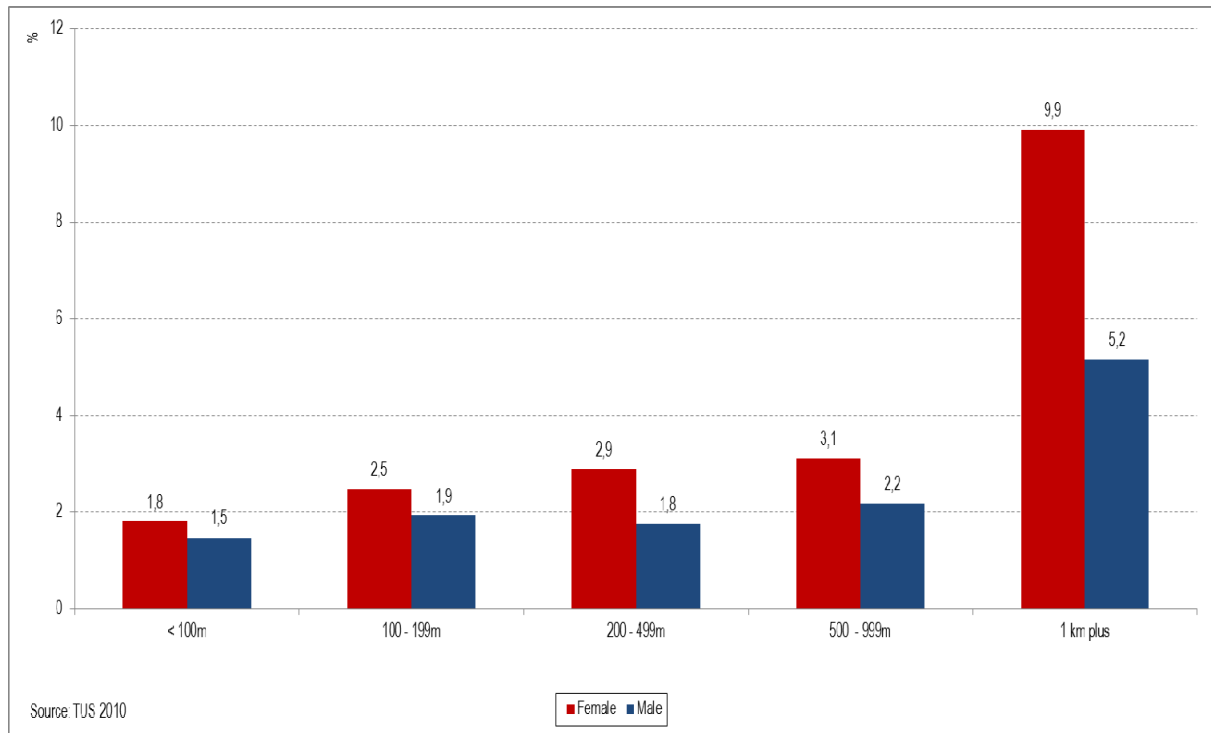


Figure 14 shows that in 2001, 27,1% of all households in South Africa used wood or dung as their main fuel for cooking. By 2011, this proportion had dropped to 16,9%.

Among Indian/Asian and white households, less than one per cent of households use wood or dung for cooking. In 2001, 6,7% of coloured households were using these fuels. The percentage had more than halved by 2011, at 3,2%.

The percentage of black African households using wood and dung for cooking remains substantially higher than for all other population groups. In 2001, the percentage was 33,4% and this dropped to 20,8% in 2011.

Figure 15: Percentage of women and men collecting wood or dung, for each distance from the dwelling, 2010



As with water collection, responsibility for collecting fuel is not shared equally between all members of a household. Figure 15 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 household members collecting fuel is smallest for households which are less than 100 metres distant from the fuel. Where the fuel is a kilometre or more away, female household members are nearly twice as likely as male members to collect fuel on any given day.

EDUCATION

Educational achievement

Figure 16: Percentage distribution of women and men aged 25 years and above for each population group by highest level of education, 2011

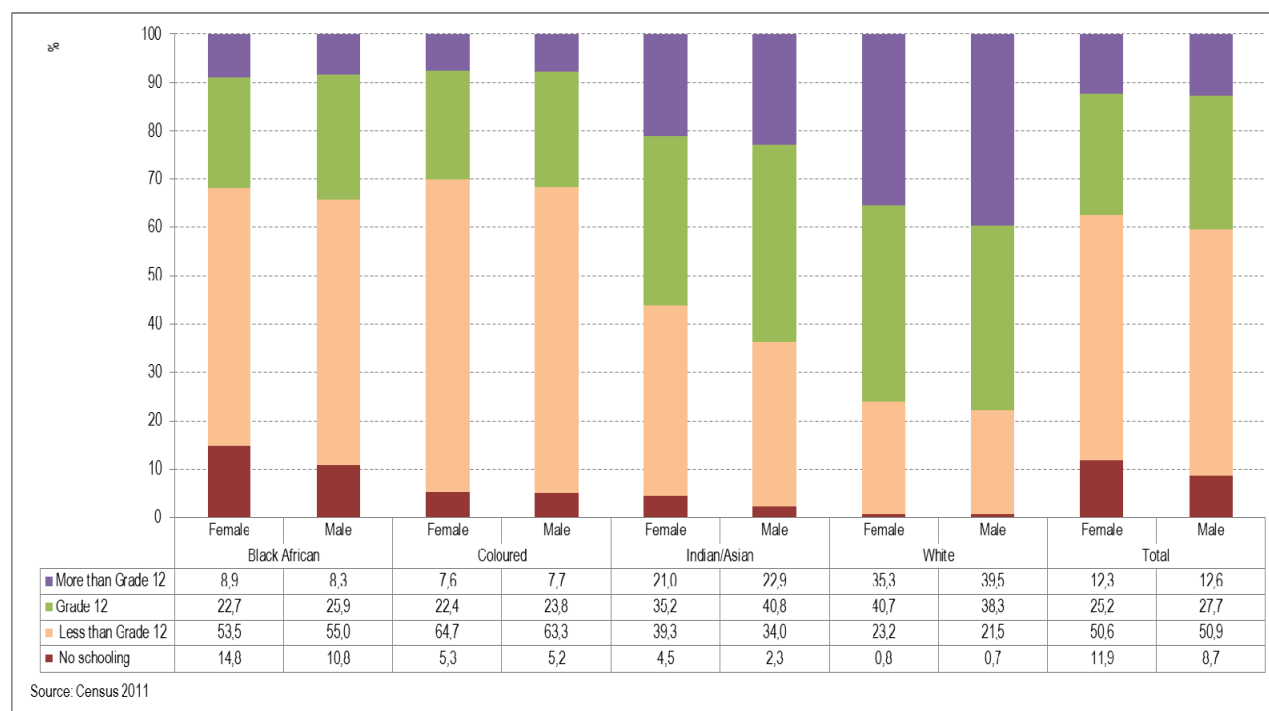


Figure 16 shows that the percentages of adults aged 25 years and above with no formal schooling are highest among black African women and men, at 14,8% and 10,8% respectively. Less than one per cent of white women and men have no schooling.

Among coloured women and men, three-fifths or more have not completed grade 12. For this group, the percentage is higher for women than for men.

Conversely, less than 10% of black African and Coloured women and men have a qualification higher than Grade 12. However, at this level black African women are slightly better off than black African men, with 8,9% of black African women recording higher qualifications compared with 8,3% of black African men.

Except for the Indian/Asian group, the differences between population groups tend to be much larger than the differences between women and men within a single population group.

LITERACY

Figure 17: Percentage of women and men aged 25 years and older in urban and non-urban areas who can read in at least one language, 2011

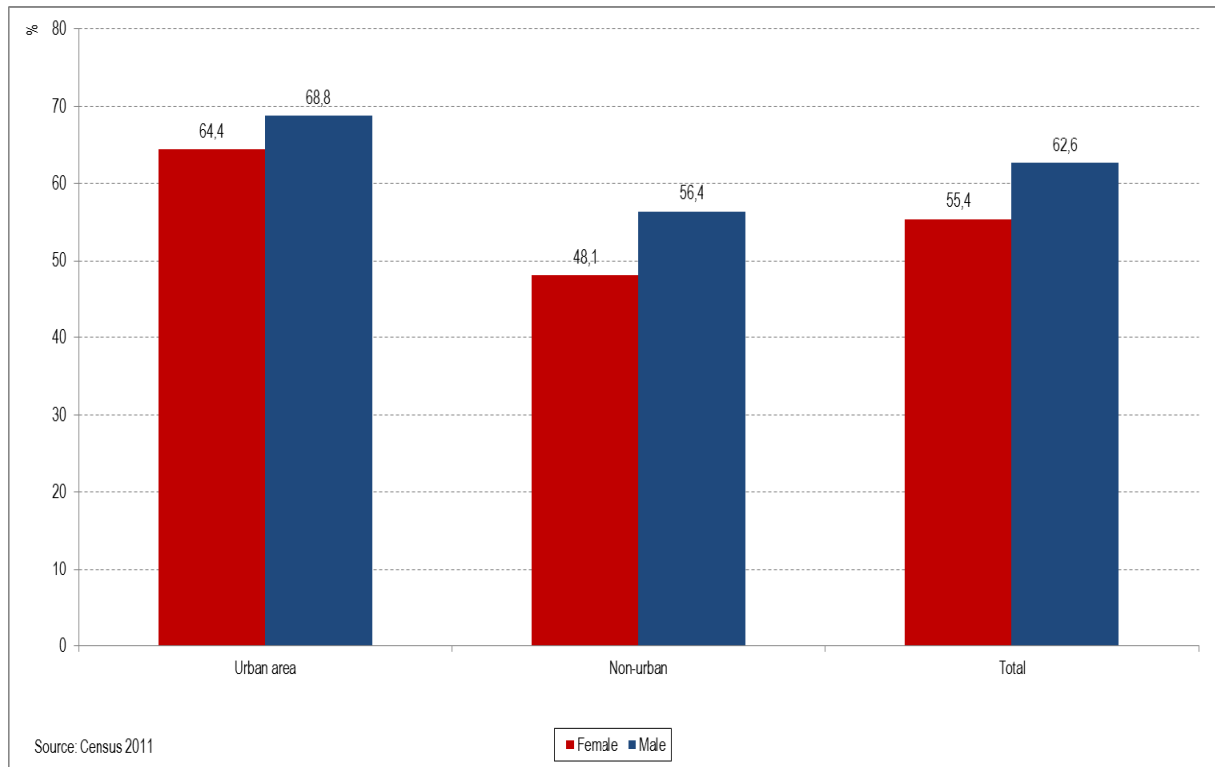


Figure 17 above shows that the percentage of people aged 25 years and above who can read in at least one language is higher in urban than non-urban areas.

In both urban and non-urban areas, men are more likely than women to be able to read in at least one language. However, the gender disparity is noticeably larger in non-urban areas (8,3 percentage points) than in urban (4,4 percentage points).

HEALTH

Health self-assessment

Figure 18: Health self-assessment, 2008 and 2009

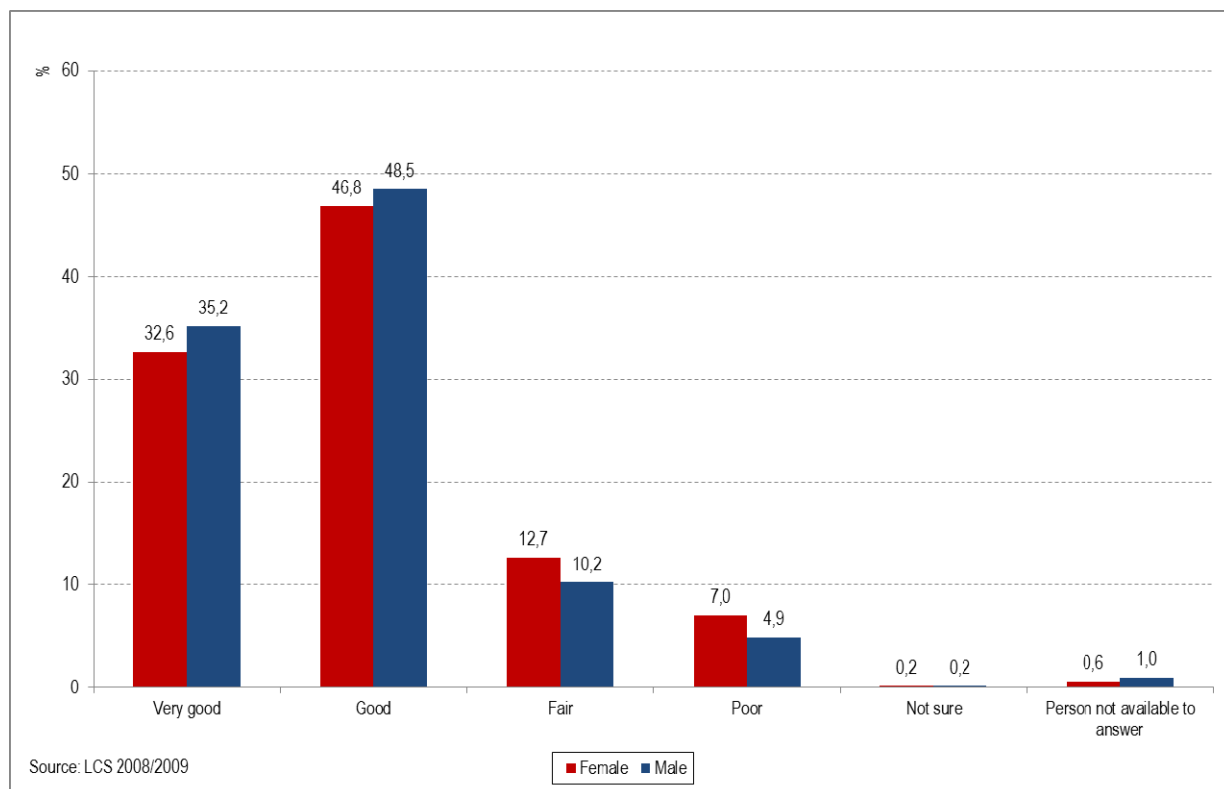


Figure 18 depicts the percentage of women and men who rate their health as ‘very good’, ‘good’, ‘fair’ or ‘poor’. Figure 18 shows that close on half of both women and men self-rate their health status as ‘good’, followed by about a third who self-rate their health as ‘very good’.

However, a larger proportion of men than women rate their health as either ‘good’ or ‘very good’, while women are more likely than men to rate their health as ‘fair’ or ‘poor’.

Visits to health workers

Figure 19: Percentage of women and men in each population group who visited a health worker during the month prior to the interview, 2011

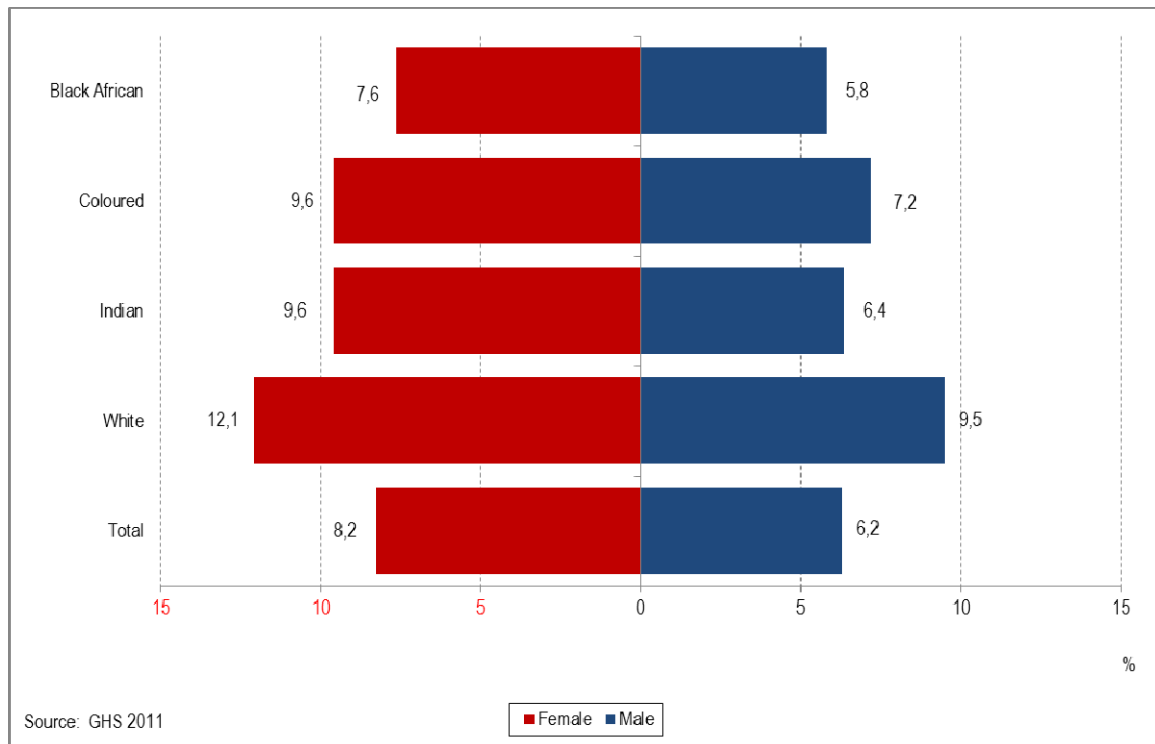


Figure 19 reveals that among both women and men, white people are more likely than those in other population groups to have visited a health worker in the past month.

At the other end of the continuum, among both women and men, black African people are least likely to visit a health worker.

Across all four population groups, women (8,2% for all groups combined) are more likely than men (6,2%) to have visited a health worker. This pattern is expected, as in addition to other health care-related needs, women tend to have more needs than men for reproductive health care, including health care related to pregnancy and childbearing.

Facilities

Figure 20: Percentage of women and men in each population group using private health facilities in the month prior to the interview, 2008

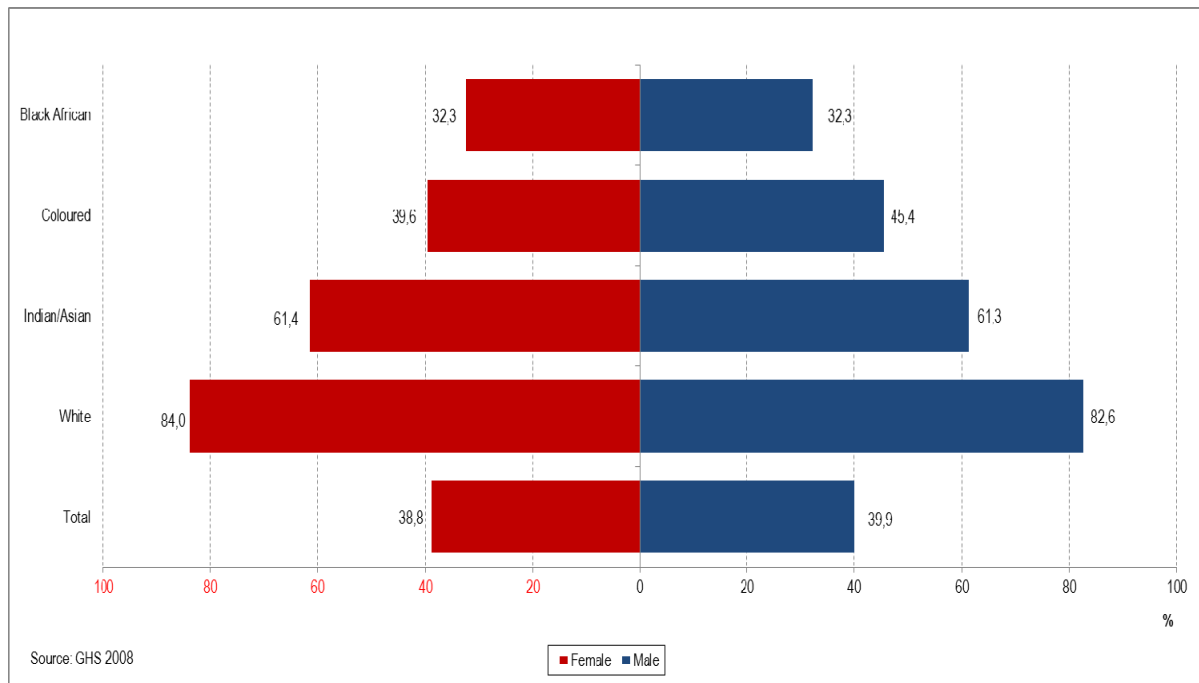


Figure 20 reveals that, among those using health facilities in the past month, white women (84,0%) and men (82,6%) are most likely to use private health facilities, followed by Indian/Asian women (61,4%) and men (61,3%).

In contrast, among black African women and men who used health facilities in the past month, only 32,3% used private health facilities.

Within each population group, there is only a small difference between the percentage of women and the percentage of men who use private health facilities. Overall, South African men (39,9%) are slightly more likely than women (38,8%) to visit private health facilities when they need health care.

Medical aid

Figure 21: Percentage of women and men aged 18 years and older in each population group with access to medical aid benefits, 2002 and 2011

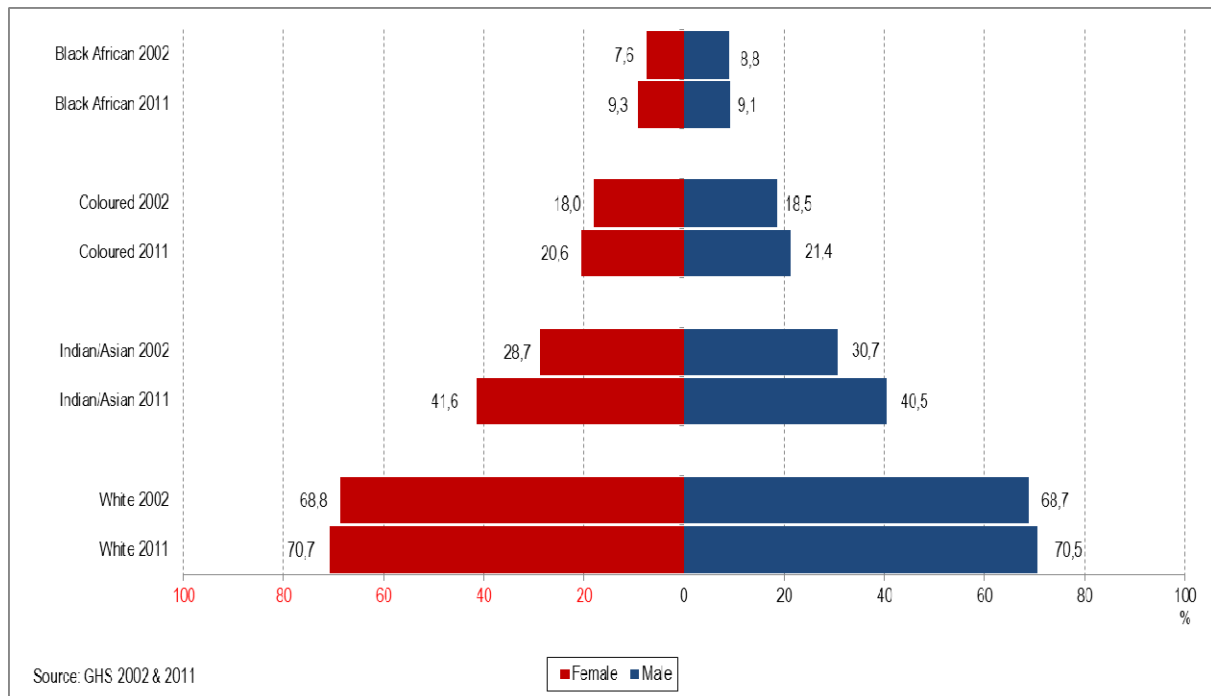


Figure 21 shows that in both 2002 and 2011, white women and men were far more likely than those in other population groups to have access to medical aid benefits. For men in 2011, access ranged from 9,1% for black African men to 70,5% for white men. For women in 2011, access ranged from 9,3% for black African women to 70,7% for white women.

For both 2002 and 2011, gender differences in access to medical benefits are small within each population group.

Access to medical aid benefits appears to have increased between 2002 and 2011 in all four population groups, and for both women and men.

Childbirth

Figure 22: Women who have given birth by age and marital status, 2011

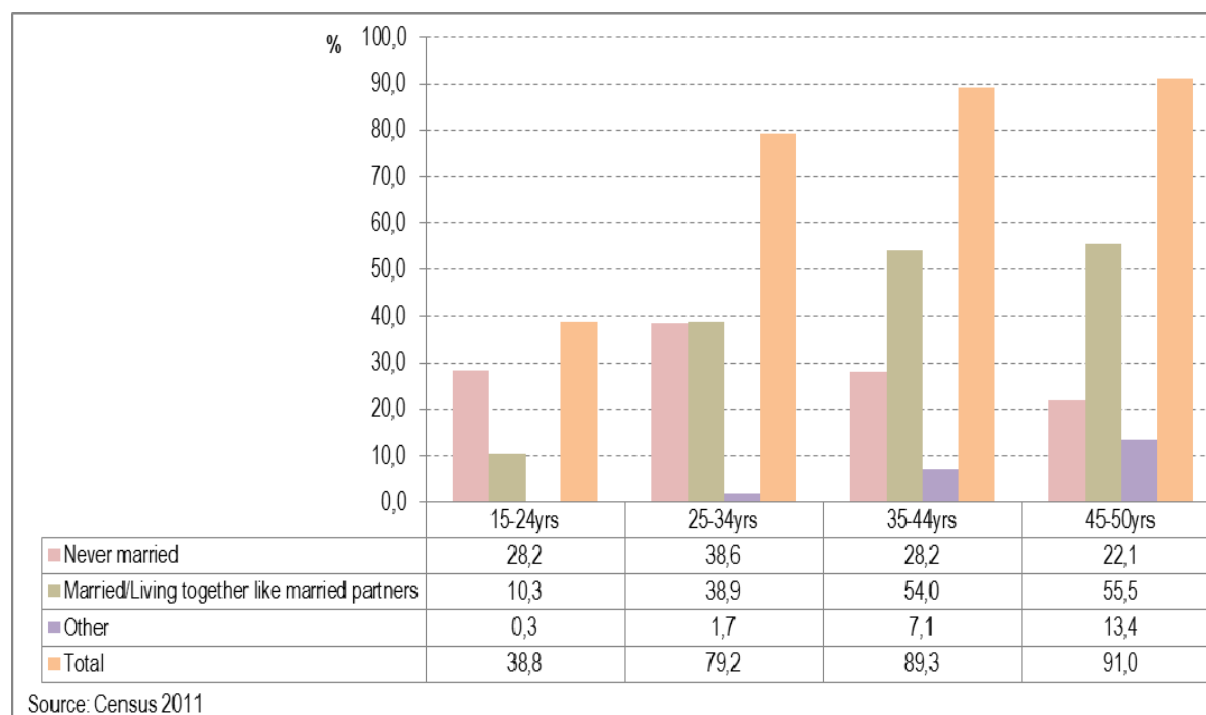


Figure 22 shows the distribution by marital status of women of different ages who have ever given birth.

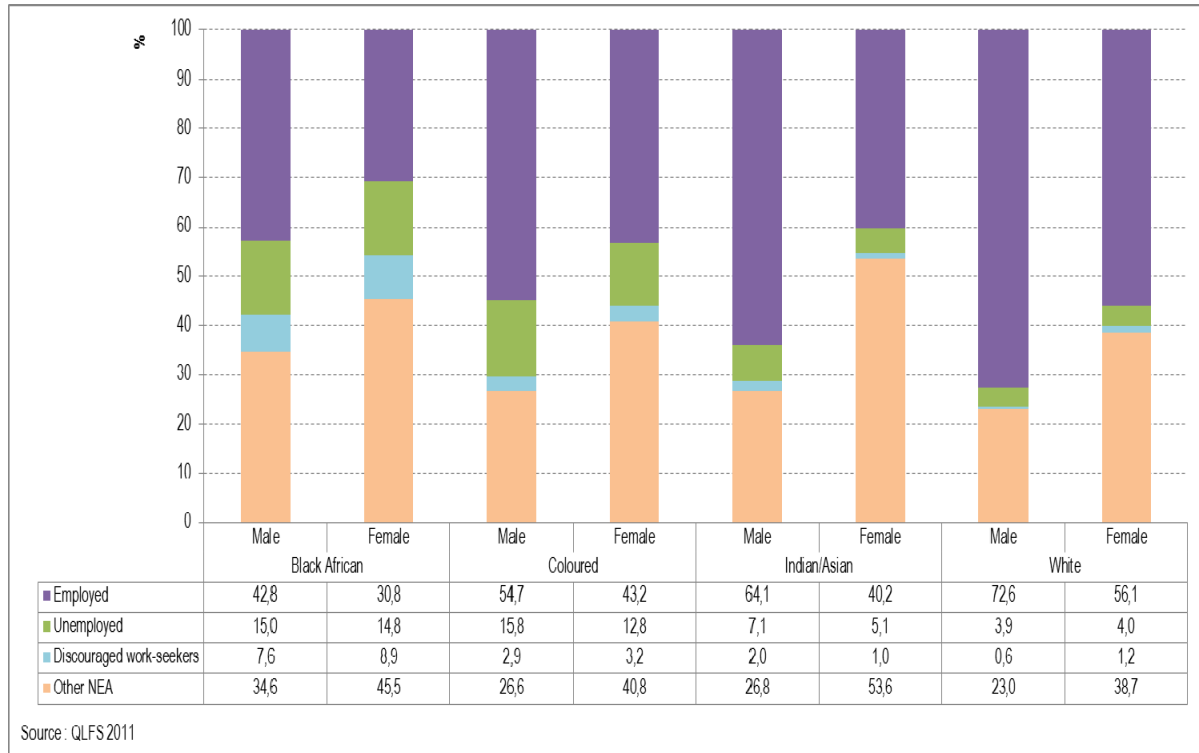
The likelihood that a woman would have ever borne a child increases with age. Differences in child birth according to marital status are most marked in the age groups 15–24 years and 35–50 years. For example, a higher proportion among women aged 15–24 years who have ever given birth has never been married (28,2% as opposed to 10,3% for those that are married). In contrast, among older women aged 35–44 years and 45–50 years who have given birth, a higher proportion are married (54,0% and 55,5% respectively).

While there is a relationship between marriage and bearing children, large numbers of women bear children outside of marriage. For example, among women who have never been married but have borne children, nearly a quarter (22,1%) is aged 45–50 years. In addition, some of those who were married or widowed at the time of the survey will have borne children before they were married, or had the child with a man other than their current husband.

WORK

Employment status

Figure 23: Percentage distribution of women and men aged 15–64 years in each population group by work status, 2011

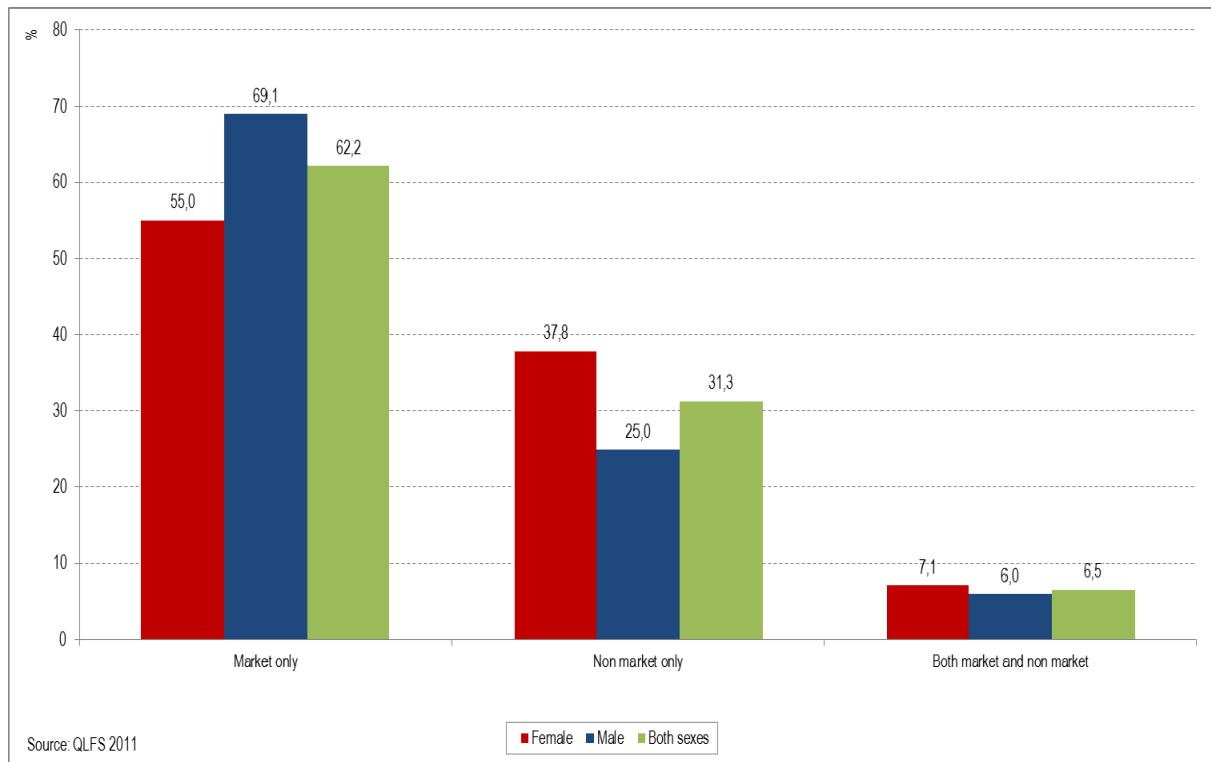


Employed people are those aged 15–64 years who did at least one hour of economic work a week prior to the survey interview, plus those who were absent from work but had a job to return to. Unemployed people are those aged 15–64 years who did not do economic work during the seven days before the survey interview, but who actively looked for work or tried to start a business in the four weeks preceding the survey interview and were available for work. Those who are neither employed nor unemployed are classified as not economically active (NEA). This category includes both discouraged work-seekers and other NEA. Discouraged work-seekers are those who were not employed during the seven days before the survey interview, wanted work, were available to work/start a business, but did not take active steps to find work during the last four weeks, provided the main reason given for not seeking work was any of the following: no jobs available in the area; unable to find work requiring his/her skills; or lost hope of finding any kind of work.

Figure 23 shows that within each population group, a smaller proportion of women than men are employed and a larger proportion of women than men are not economically active.

Among both men and women, the percentage employed is highest for whites and lowest for black Africans.

Figure 24: Involvement in economic activities by type of economic activity and sex, 2011



Market economic activities are those where goods or services are produced for people from outside the household, either in the private or public sector and where workers generally receive earnings for the work they do. Non-market economic activities are those where goods are produced for consumption within the household and where people do not earn money from the work done. Subsistence agriculture is the most common form of non-market economic activity. Non-market economic activities do not include unpaid services in the household such as housework and care for older people and children, as these are not considered to be “economic” activities.

Men are more likely than women to be engaged only in market activities, while women are more likely than men to be engaged only in non-market activities. Women are thus more likely than men to be doing unpaid economic work.

There is very little difference in the proportion of women and men who are involved in both market and non-market economic activities (i.e. 7,1% for women and 6,0% for men).

Figure 25: Percentage of employed women and men aged 15–64 years in each population group, 2001 and 2011

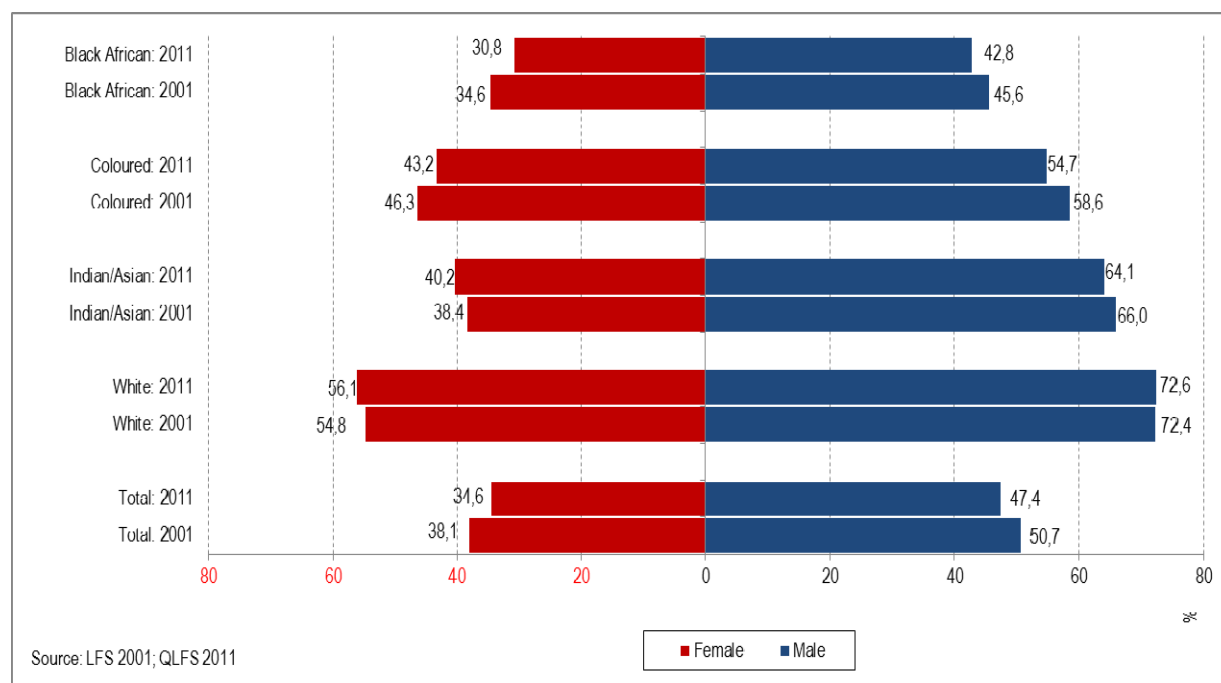


Figure 25 shows the percentage of women and men aged 15–64 within each population group who were employed in 2001 and 2011.

Among coloured and black African women, and coloured, black African and Indian/Asian men, the percentage employed in 2011 was lower than the percentage employed in 2001. The decline in employment was most marked among coloured men (3,9 percentage points), followed by black African women and coloured women (3,8 and 3,1 percentage points respectively). The graph further shows that black African women are less likely to be employed than not only black African men, but also than women and men of other population groups.

In 2011, more than a third (30,8%) of black African women were employed compared to over 56,1% of white women, 43,2% of coloured women and 40,2% of Indian/Asian women.

Similar to their female counterparts, black African men are less likely to be employed than men in other population groups. In 2011, 72,6% of white men were employed, 64,1% of Indian/Asian men and 54,7% of coloured men compared to 42,8% of black African men.

Figure 26: Percentage of employed women and men aged 15–64 years and above for each level of education, 2001 and 2011

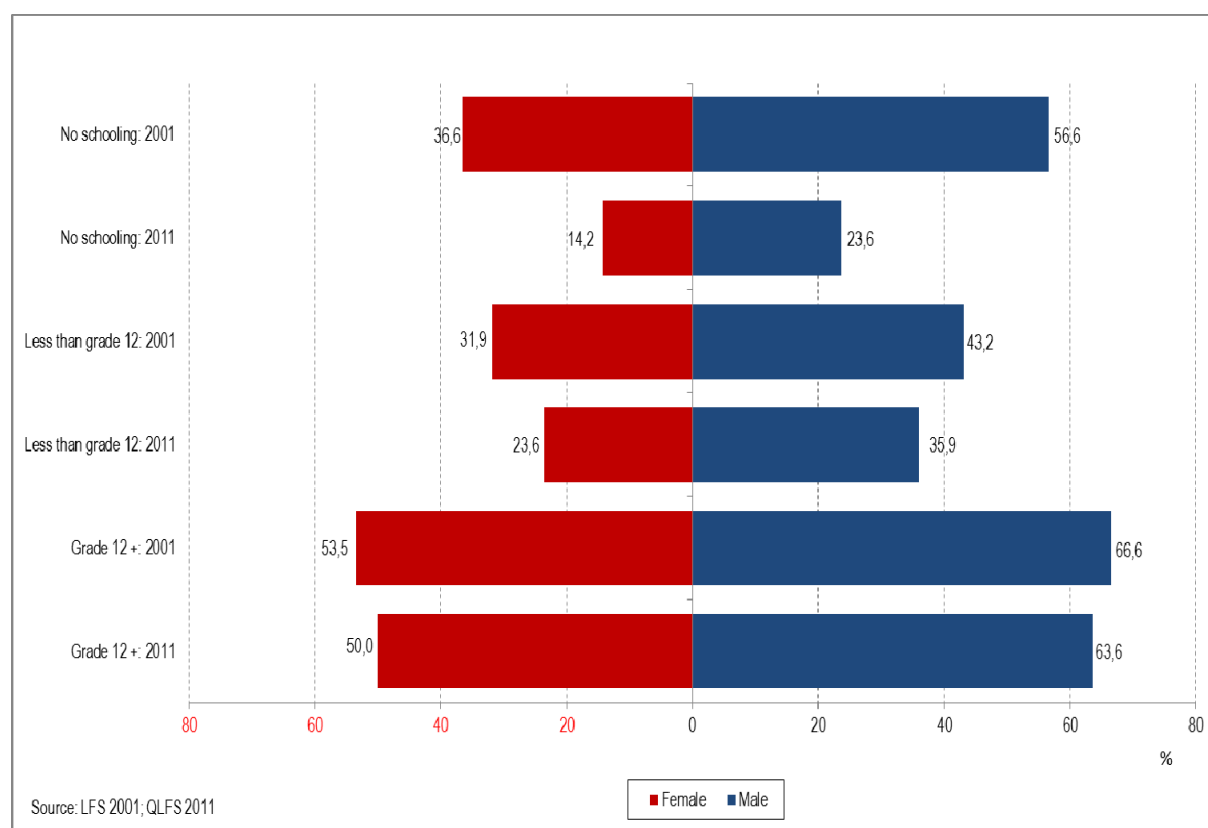


Figure 26 looks at the change in employment levels between 2001 and 2011 by educational level for women and men aged 15–64 years.

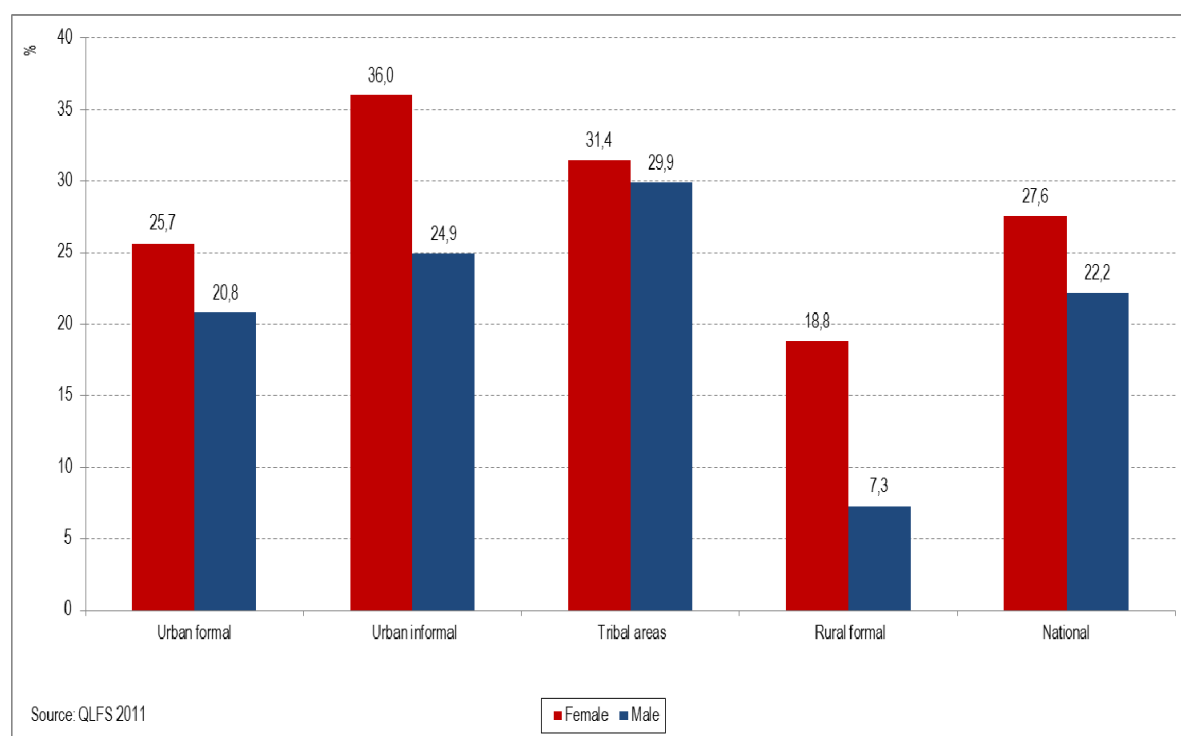
The percentage of women and men who were employed decreased across all the categories between 2001 and 2011. The decrease is most marked for those with no schooling where the percentage of women employed decreased from 36,6% to 14,2% and the proportion of men employed decreased from 56,6% to 23,6%.

In 2001, the percentage of women and men with no schooling who were employed was higher than the percentage among women and men with less than grade 12. By 2011, the pattern had reversed and those with no schooling were less likely than those with formal education to be employed.

For both years and all three levels of education, women are less likely than men to be employed.

In both years, women and men with grade 12 or more were most likely to be employed.

Figure 27: Official unemployment rate of population aged 15–64 years by sex and location, 2011



The unemployment rate is calculated by dividing the number of unemployed 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 week before the survey interview, plus those who are absent from work but have a job to return to. Unemployed people are those aged 15–64 years, who did not perform economic work during the week before the survey interview, actively looked for work or tried to start a business in the four weeks preceding the survey interview and were available for work.

Women are more likely than men to be unemployed. This pattern is found across all types of geographical areas. In 2011, the national unemployment rate for women was 5,4 percentage points higher than the national unemployment rate for men.

For both women and men, unemployment rates in urban informal and tribal areas are higher than the national unemployment rate, while in urban formal and rural formal areas the unemployment rates are lower than the national unemployment rate.

The difference between the unemployment rates of women and men is most pronounced among those in rural formal and urban informal areas.

Figure 28: Official unemployment rate of population aged 15–64 years by sex and population group, 2001 and 2011

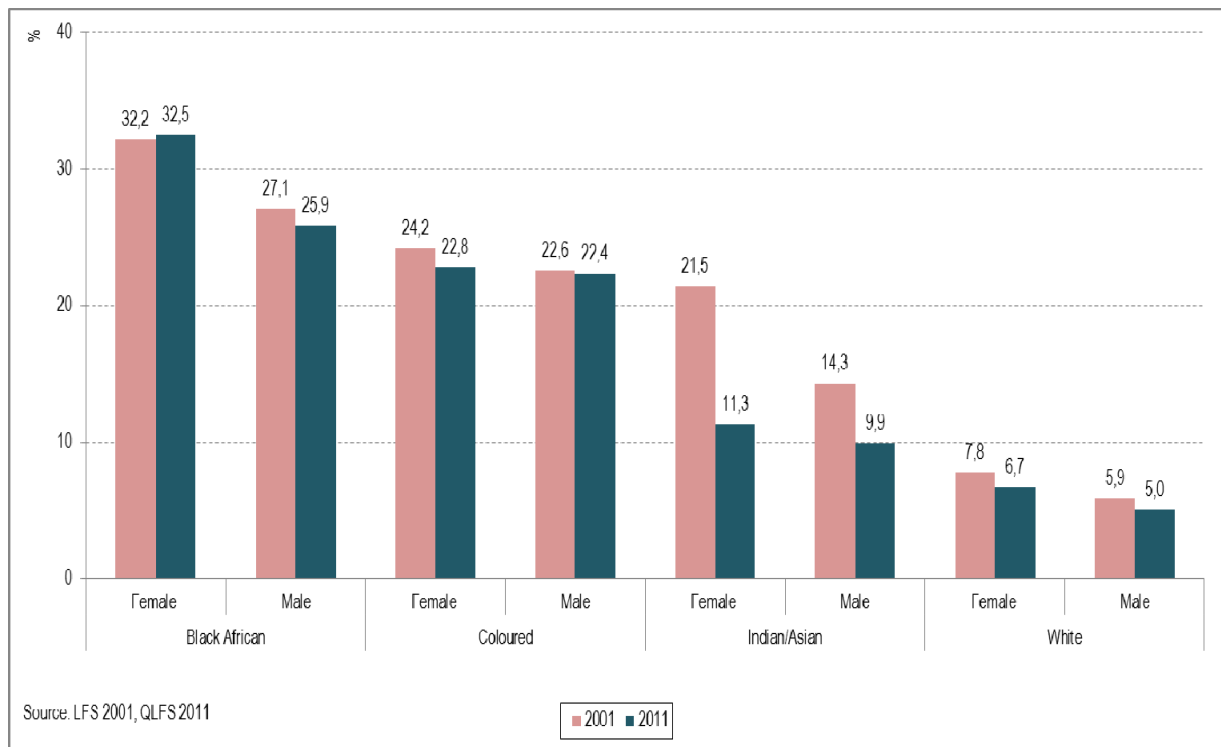


Figure 28 reveals that the unemployment rates for women are higher than those for men, and that this pattern is found for both 2001 and 2011. Further, for both years, the unemployment rates are higher for black Africans than for the other population groups. Black African women are thus most likely to be unemployed in both 2001 and 2011.

In 2001, the largest differences in unemployment rates between women and men were observed among the Indian/Asian and black African population groups (7,2 and 5,1 percentage points respectively).

The figure suggests a substantial decrease in the unemployment rate among Indian/Asian women in 2011, which reduces the difference between Indian/Asian women and men to 1,4 percentage points. This pattern must be treated with caution as the sample size for the Indian/Asian group is relatively small.

Figure 29: Percentage of employed women and men aged 15–64 years by status in employment, 2011

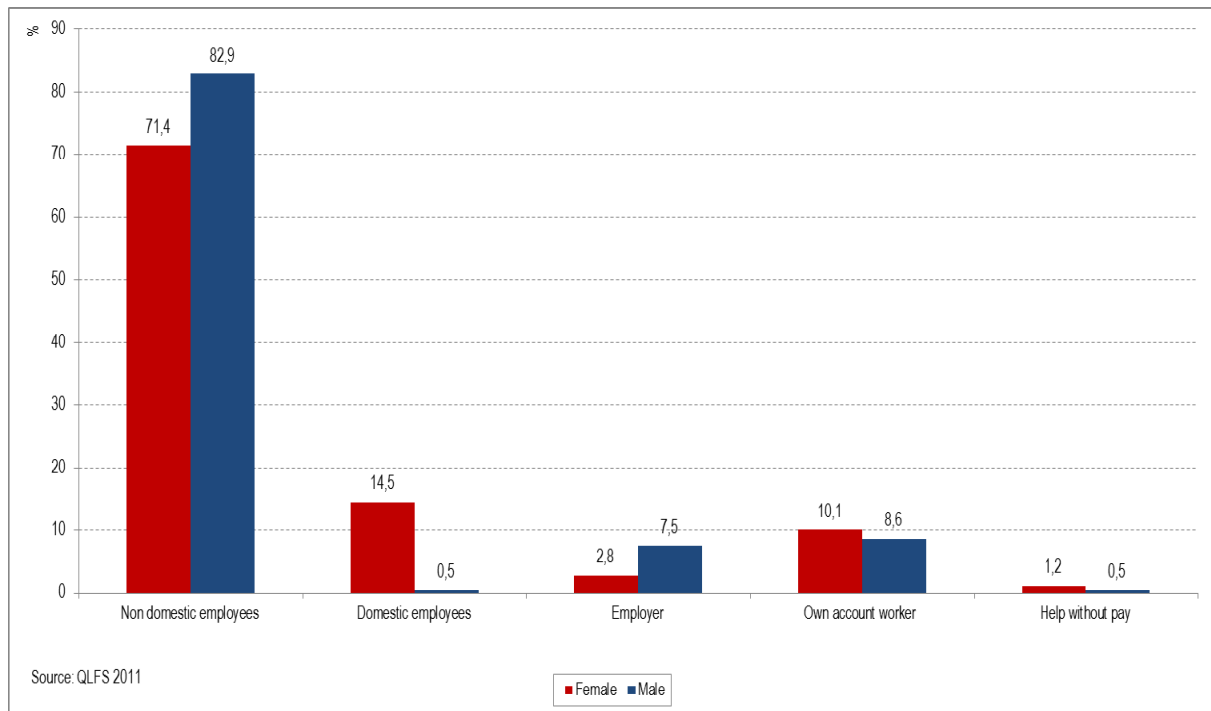


Figure 29 above shows that the vast majority of both women and men are employed as non-domestic employees (71,4% and 82,9% respectively). While a larger proportion of men than women are non-domestic employees, a much higher percentage of women than men are employed as domestic employees (14,5% compared to 0,5%)

Women are slightly more likely than men to be own-account workers as well as to help without pay in a household business. This suggests that women are more likely than men to be working in the informal sector.

In contrast, a much larger proportion of men than women are employers (7,5% as opposed to 2,8%).

Industry

Figure 30: Percentage distribution of employed women and men aged 15–64 years by industry, 2011

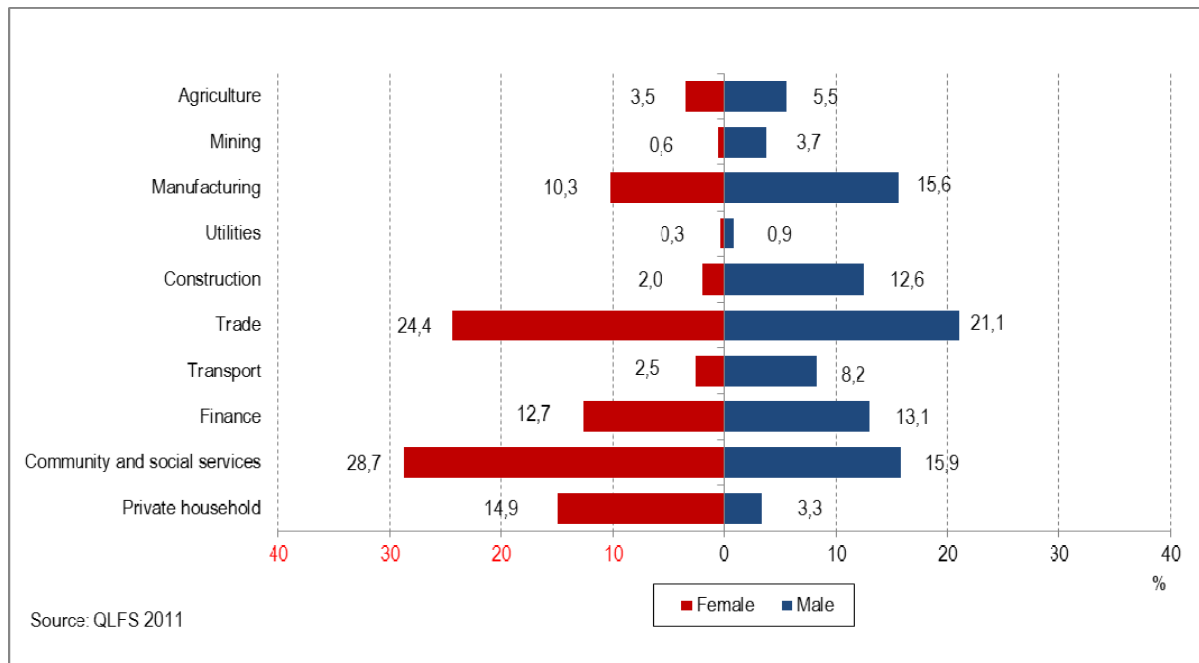


Figure 30 reveals that the community and social services sector is the most common sector of employment among women (28,7%) while the most common sector among men is trade (21,1%). A large part of community and social services is accounted for by government employment.

Among women, trade provides a further 24,4% of the main jobs, followed by private households (14,9%), finance (12,7%) and manufacturing (10,3%). The private household sector consists primarily of domestic work.

Among men, community and social services is the second largest job provider (15,9%), followed by manufacturing (15,6%) and financial services (13,1%).

Employed women tend to cluster into a smaller number of industries than men. The top three industries for women together account for more than two-thirds (68,0%) of women employment, while the top three industries for men account for 52,6% of the male total.

Figure 31: Percentage distribution of employed women and men aged 15–64 years by industrial sector, 2001 and 2011

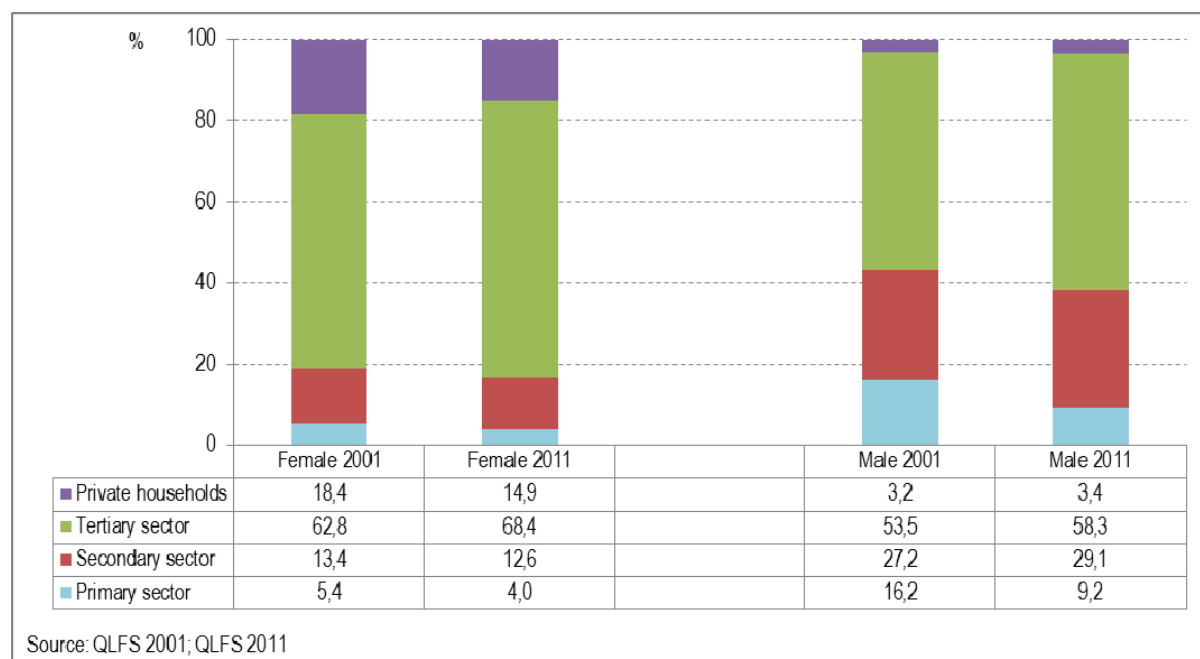


Figure 31 shows the distribution of employed women and men in 2001 and 2011 by broad industry classification. The primary sector includes agriculture and mining. The secondary sector includes manufacturing, utilities and construction. The tertiary sector includes trade, transport, finance, community and social services.

The proportion of women employed in the tertiary sector increased by 5,6 percentage points over the ten-year period from 2001 to 2011, while the proportion of men employed in the same sector increased by 4,8 percentage points.

The proportion of women employed in the secondary sector and in private households decreased, while the proportion of men employed in the secondary and primary sectors increased over the period.

Between 2001 and 2011, the proportion of men employed in the primary sector decreased by 7,0 percentage points while the proportion for women fell by only 1,4 percentage points. However, by the end of the period, the primary sector still accounted for 9,2% of all male employment, as against only 4,0% of female employment.

Figure 32: Percentage distribution of women and men 15–64 years employed in the informal sector by industry, 2011

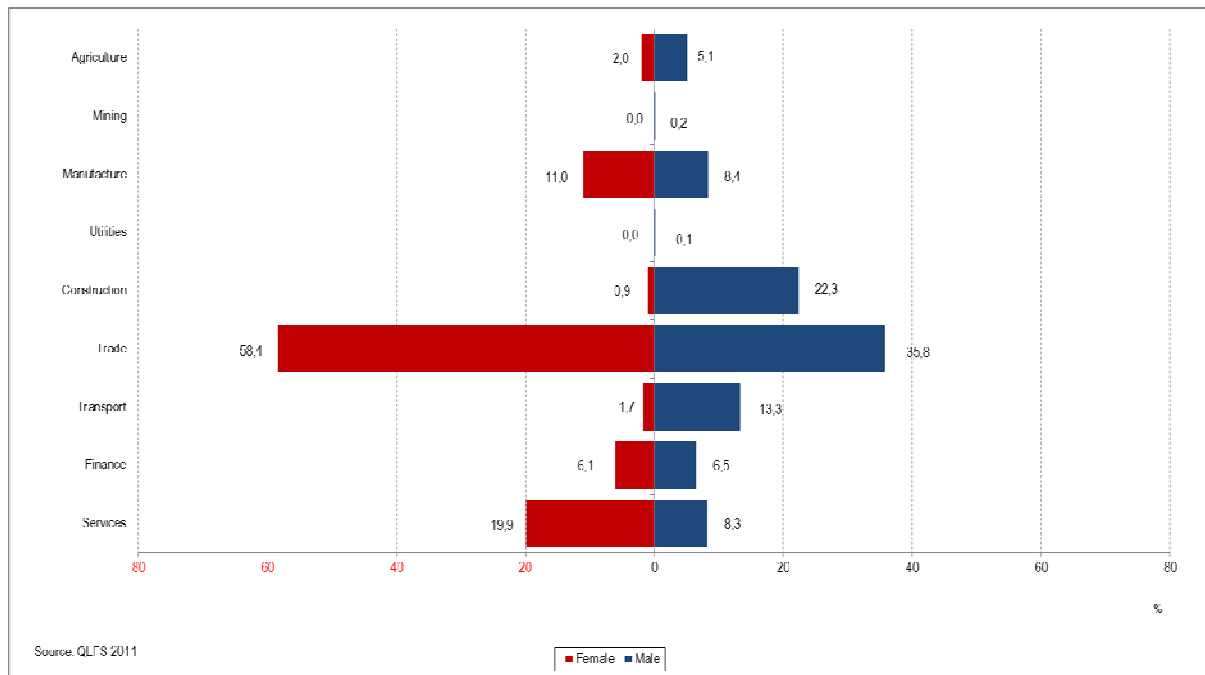


Figure 32 illustrates the percentage distribution of employed women and men across industries in the informal sector (excluding private households).

The figure reveals that industry distribution in the informal sector is skewed towards a limited range of sectors.

The skewness is particularly marked for women, in that well over half (58,4%) are employed in trade, 19,9% in services and 11,0% in manufacturing. For men, the largest job provider is again trade, but it accounts for only 35,9% of informal sector jobs, compared to 58,4% for women.

Figure 33: Percentage distribution of women and men aged 15–64 years employed in the formal sector by industry, 2011

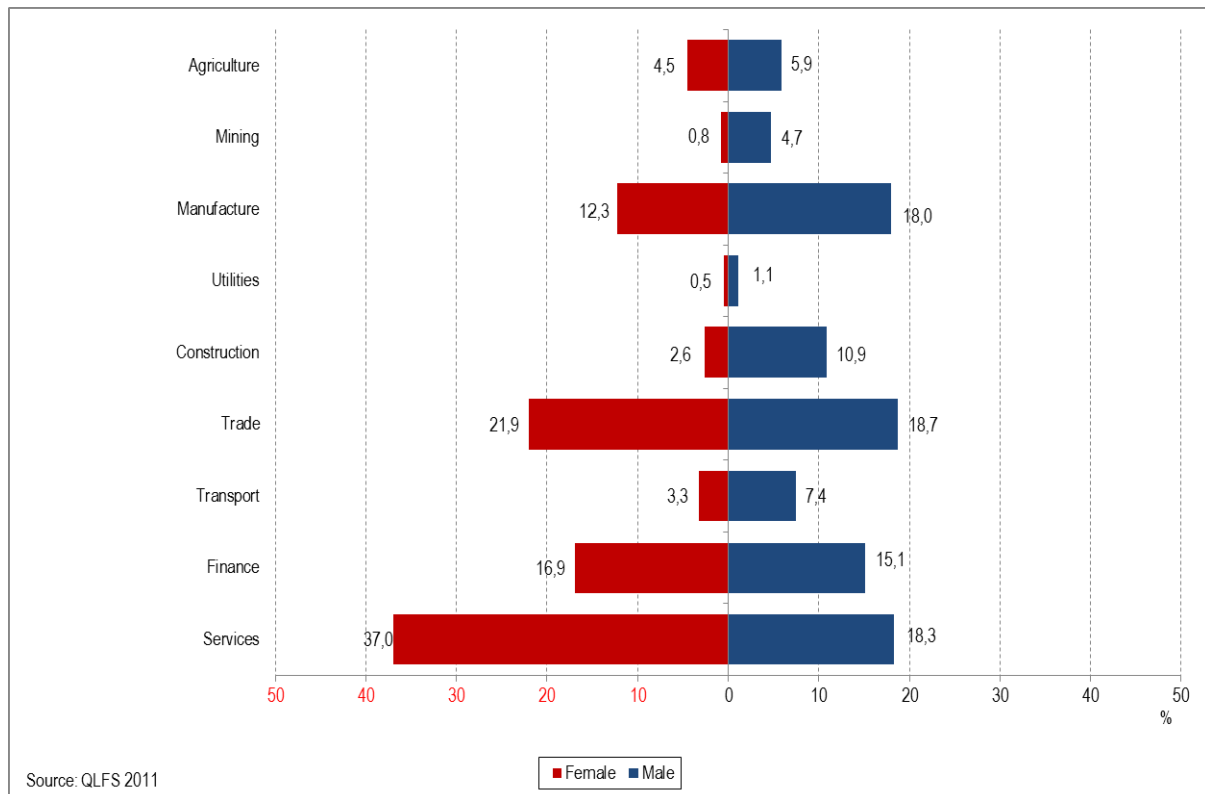


Figure 33 shows that in the formal sector, over a third (37,0%) of women are employed in services, with another 21,9% in trade and 16,9% in finance. There is thus relatively less clustering in the formal sector than in the informal sector. Nevertheless nearly three-quarters (75,8%) of women are found in the top three industries – services, trade and finance.

Trade (18,7%), services (18,3%) and manufacturing (18,0%) each account for more or less equal proportion of the men employed in the formal sector. As with women, there is relatively less clustering in the formal sector than in the informal sector.

Occupation

Figure 34: Percentage distribution of women and men aged 15–64 years by occupational category, 2011

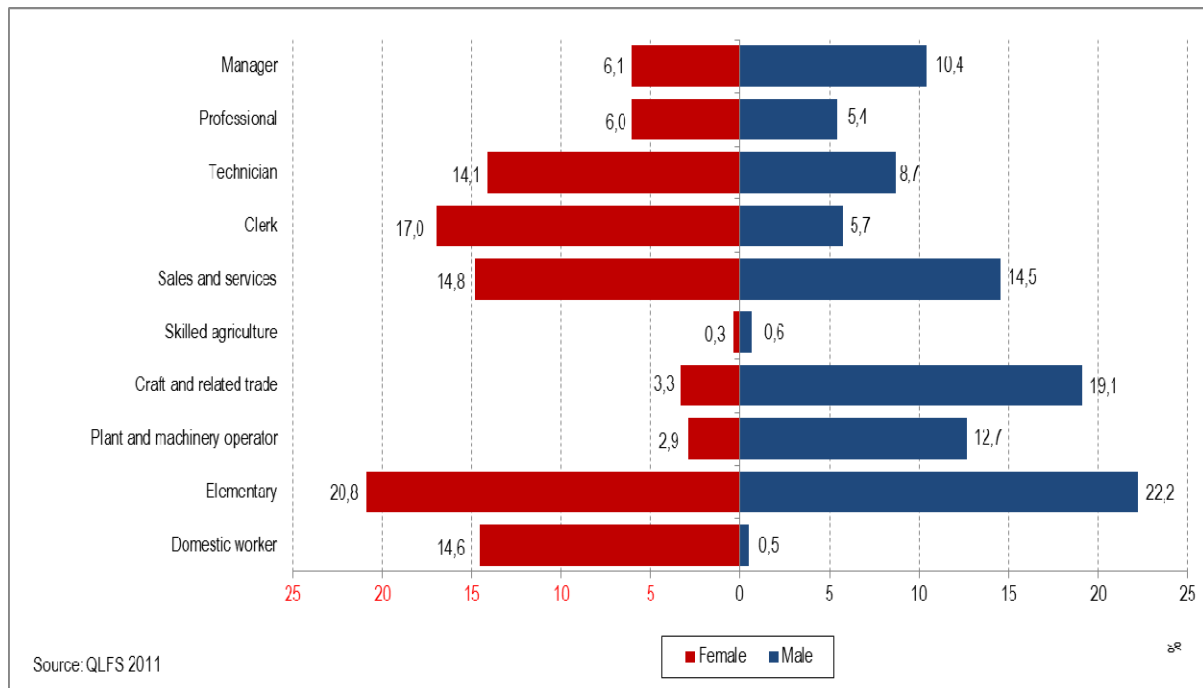


Figure 34 shows that 35,4% of employed women are in unskilled occupations, with 20,8% working in elementary jobs and 14,6% working as domestic workers. Among employed men, 22,7% work in unskilled occupations, with the overwhelming majority work in elementary jobs.

The next largest occupational categories for women are clerical (17,0%), sales and services (14,8%) and technician (14,1%). For men the next largest occupation groupings are craft and related trade (19,1%) and sales and services (14,5%).

A higher proportion among women (14,1%) are more likely to be technicians compared to men (8,7%). The technician category includes both 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. On the other hand, managerial occupations are largely more prone among men (10,4%) as opposed to among women (6,1%). Suggesting that men are more likely to be decision makers in their jobs compared to women.

Figure 35: Percentage distribution of employed women and men aged 15–64 years by broad occupational category, 2001 and 2011

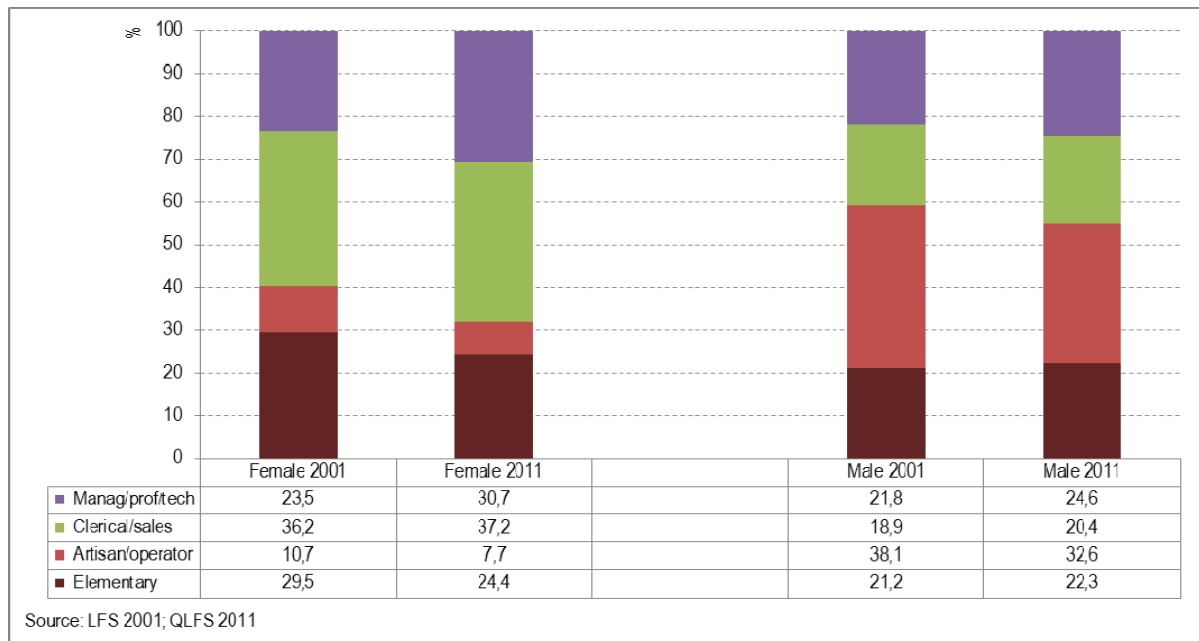


Figure 35 provides a comparison of the occupational distribution of employed women and men in 2001 and 2011. The management, professional and technical grouping includes managers, professionals, associate professionals and technicians. The clerical and sales group includes clerical, service and sales workers. The artisan and operator group includes skilled agricultural workers, craft workers and operators.

There is a decrease of women who are working in the elementary occupation in 2011 (24,4%) compared to 2001 (29,5%). However, the percentage of women in this category remains higher than that for men in both 2001 and 2011.

In both years, women were far less likely than men to be working as artisans/operators. The percentages in this category decreased more for men than for women over the period. However, by 2011 men were still more than four times as likely as women to be in this category.

The percentages of both women and men in the top category (manager, professional, and technician) increased over the period, and the increase was larger for women than for men. By the end of the period, 30,7% of women were in this category, compared to 24,6% of men.

Figure 36: Percentage distribution by education of employed women and men aged 15–64 years in the top three occupational categories, 2011

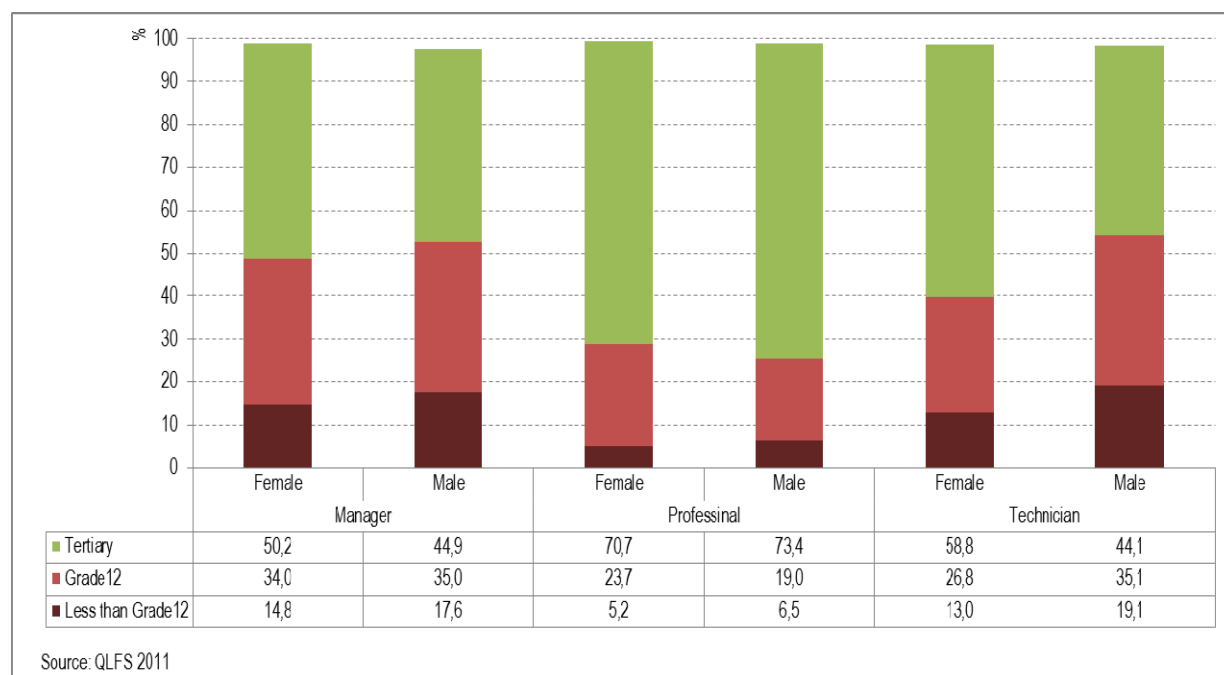


Figure 36 shows, for women and men, the educational distribution for those who are in managerial, professional and technician and associate profession jobs.

The figure shows that for managers and technicians, women are more likely than men to have tertiary qualifications. The difference between women and men is largest for the technical category, where 58,8% of women but only 44,1% of men have tertiary qualifications.

For all three categories, the percentage of women who have less than grade 12 is smaller than the percentage of men with limited education. For this education level, the difference is 6,1 percentage points in the technician category, and 2,8 percentage points in the managerial category and 1,3 percentage points in the professional category.

Figure 37: Percentage distribution of employed women and men aged 15–64 years by earnings, 2011

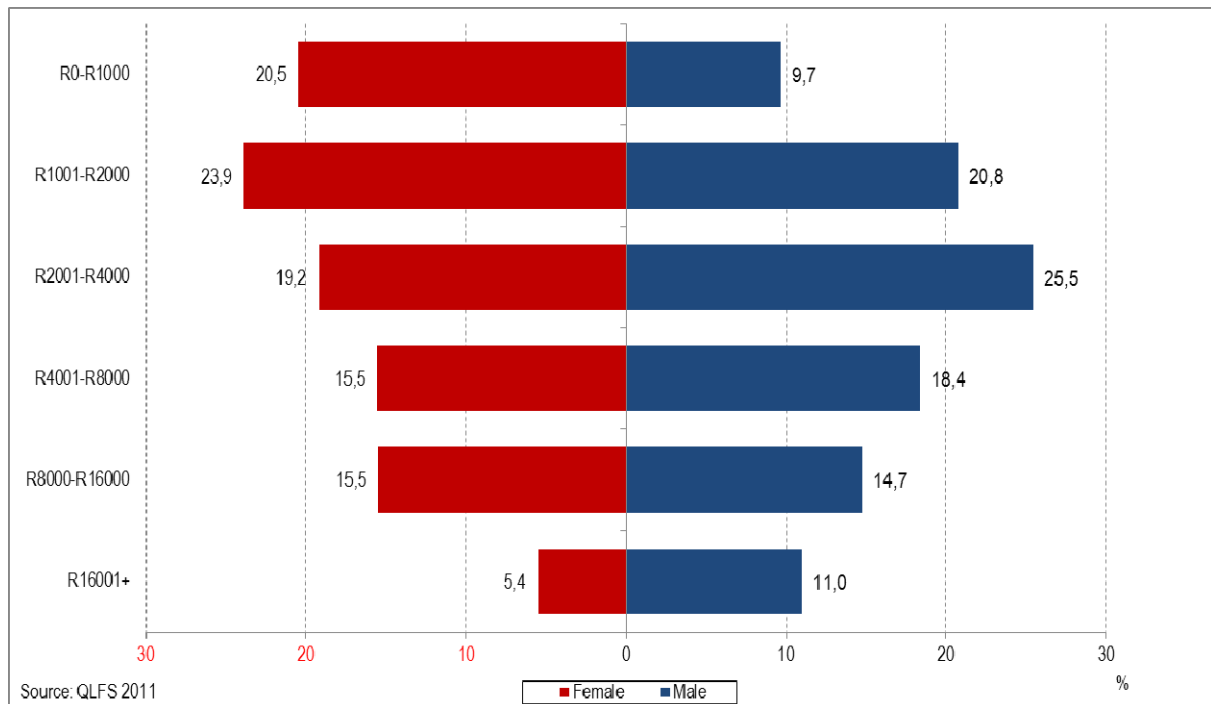


Figure 37 reveals marked gender disparities in the earnings of employed women and men in 2011.

Women are more likely than men to be found in the lower earning categories. The proportion of women who earned R1 000 or less per month was double the proportion of men who earned at this level. A further 23,9% of women and 20,8% of men earn between R1 000 and R2 000 per month.

In contrast, men are more likely than women to be found in the top earning categories. The proportion of men is about twice that of women among those who earn R16 000 or more per month.

Figure 38: Mean hourly earnings of women and men employees aged 15–64 years in each population group, 2011

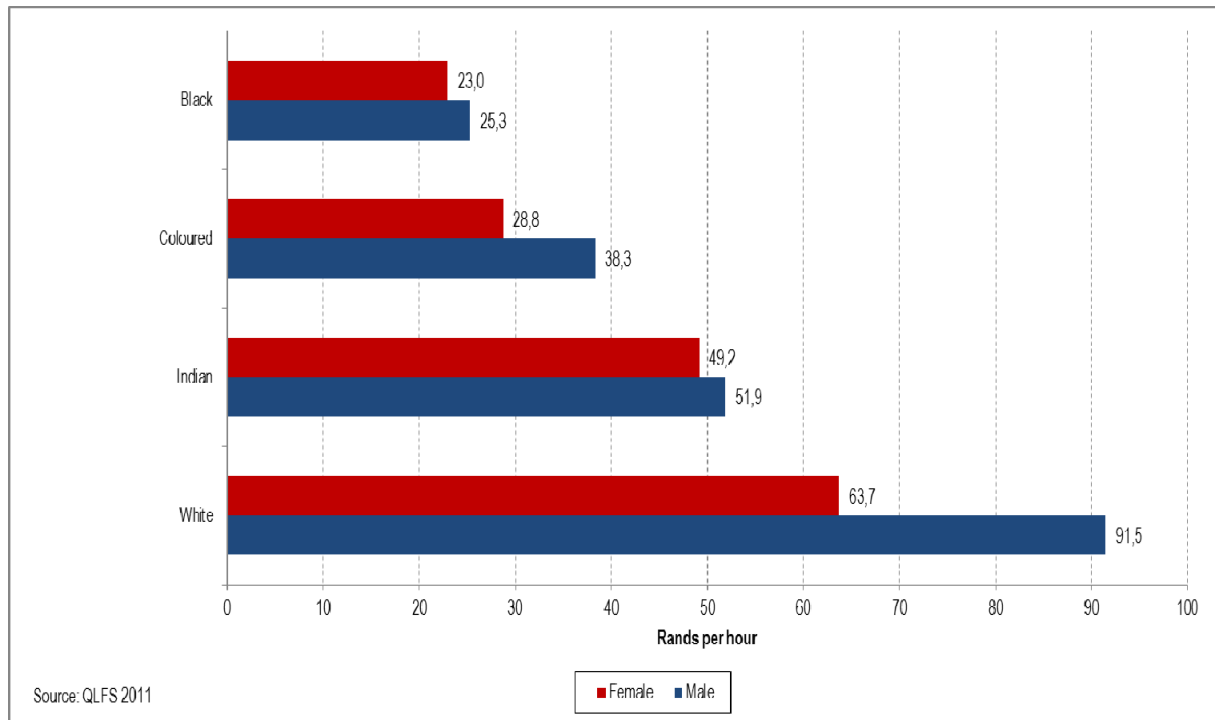
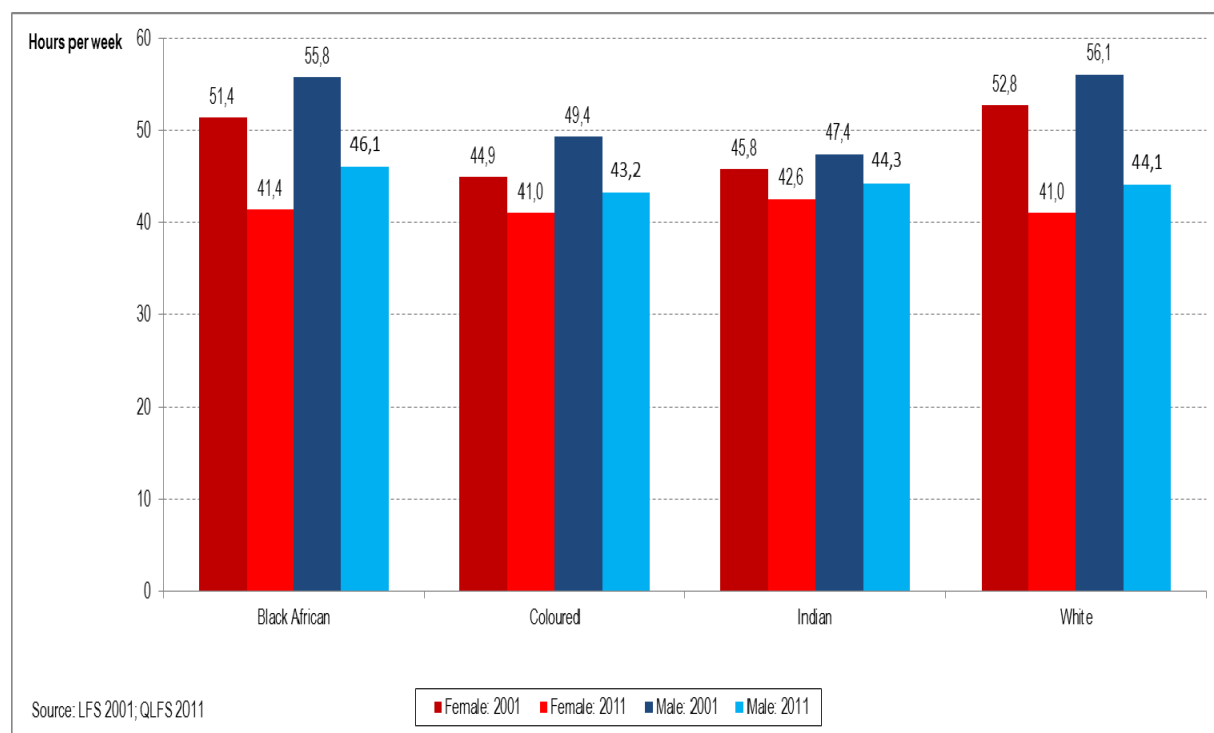


Figure 38 shows the mean hourly earnings of employees by population group and sex. We show hourly earnings to remove the effect of possible differences in hours worked by women and men.

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 coloured employees. The male-female gap is relatively small for the black African and Indian/Asian population groups.

White male employees earn nearly four times as much per hour, on average, than black African male employees, while white women earn almost three times as much per hour, on average, as their black African counterparts.

Figure 39: Mean hours worked among women and men employees aged 15 years and above in each population group, 2001 and 2011



Some of the differences between monthly earnings of women and men may be explained by differences in hours worked. Figure 39 shows the mean hours worked by women and men employees aged 15–64 years during the week before the survey interview in 2001 and 2011.

The figure shows that the mean hours decreased between 2001 and 2011 for women and men employees in all population groups. The decrease was most marked for white men (a decrease of twelve hours), white women ((a decrease of 11,8 hours) and black African men and women (decreases of 10,0 and 9,7 hours respectively).

In all population groups, men employees tended to work more hours than women employees in both 2001 and 2011. In 2001, the difference between women and men is about four percentage points among black African, coloured and white employees, but smaller among Indian/Asian employees. In 2011, the gender difference remains at more than 4 hours for black African employees, but has narrowed in the other population groups.

Figure 40: Mean minutes per day spent on unpaid housework, care of others and collecting fuel and water among employed women and men in each population group, 2010

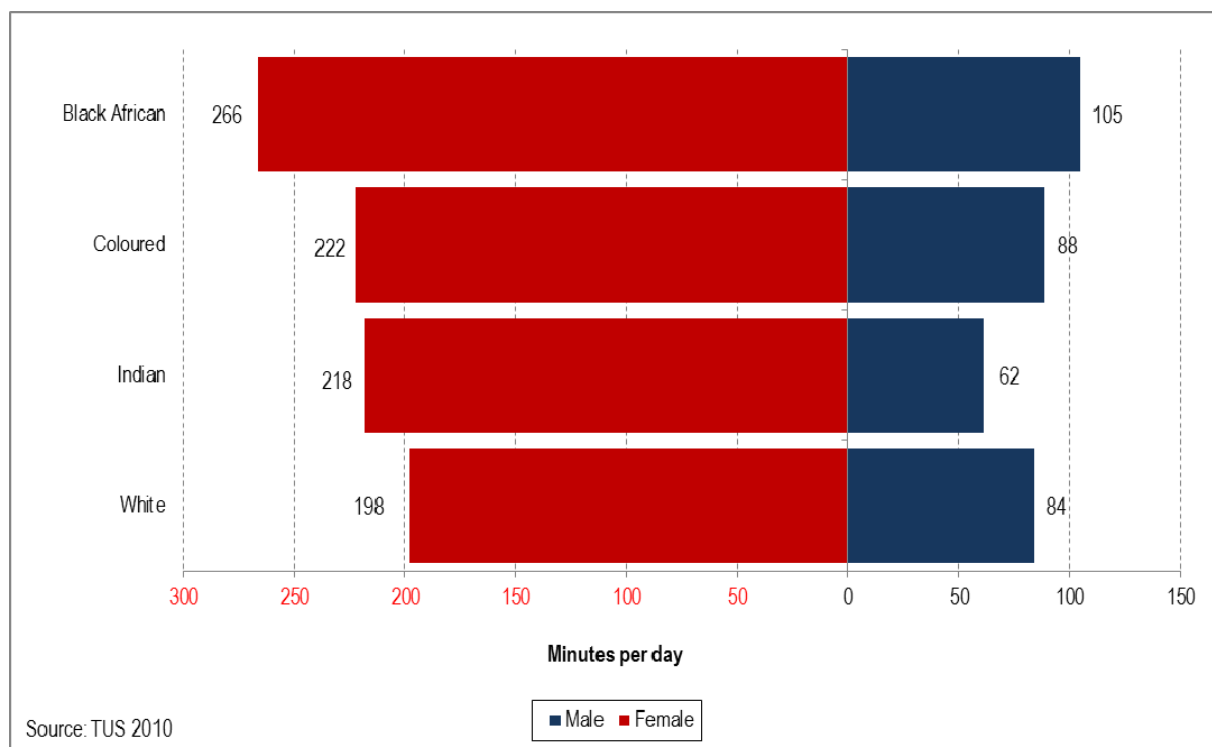
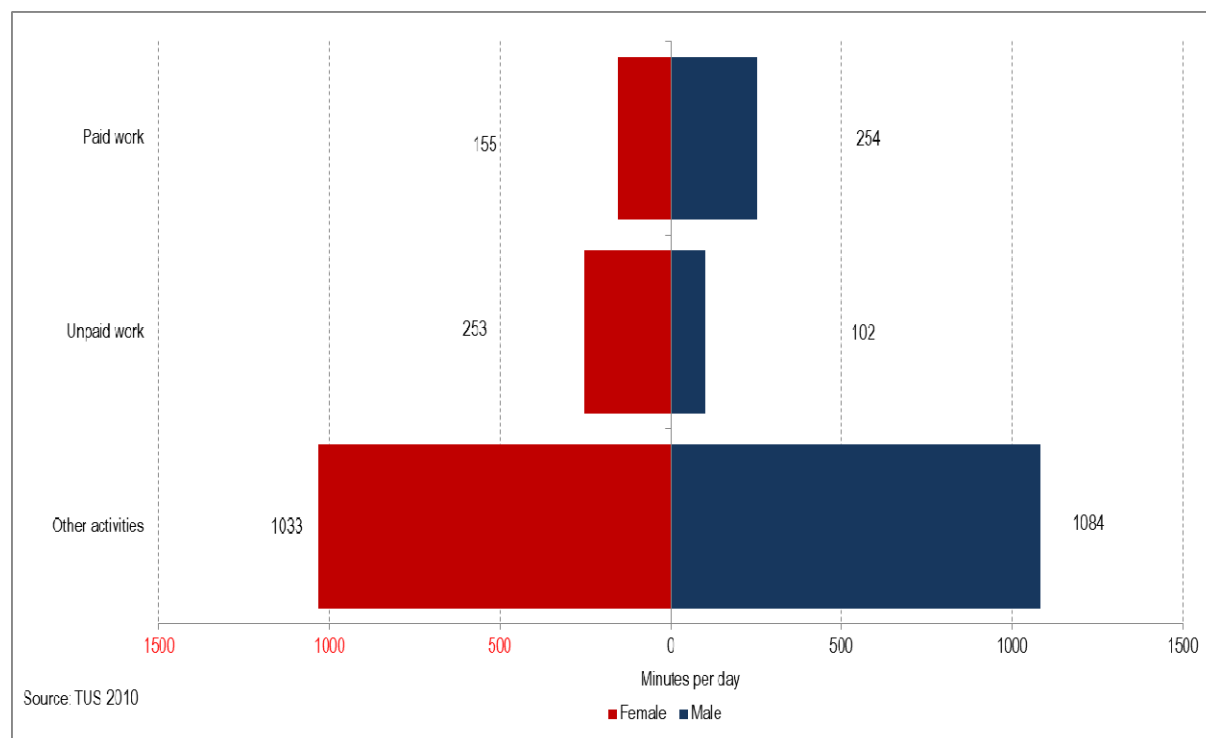


Figure 40 shows that employed women from all population groups are more likely to spend more time doing unpaid housework, caring for others and collecting fuel and water than their employed male counterparts.

The figure also shows that, among women, employed black African women spend the most time (266 minutes) doing unpaid housework, while employed white women spend the least amount of time (198 minutes).

Although employed men in all population groups spend substantially less time doing unpaid household work than employed women, employed black African men spend more time on this work than employed coloured, Indian/Asian and white men. In 2010, employed black African men spent on average 20 more minutes doing unpaid housework than coloured and white men and 44 minutes more than Indian/Asian men.

Figure 41: Mean minutes per day spent by women and men aged 15–64 years on productive and unproductive activities, 2010



Paid work in the formal and informal sectors 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 41, 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 41, 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 in this publication as 'other activities'.

Figure 41 shows that men between the ages of 15 and 64 years spend an average of 254 minutes per day on GDP work, and 102 minutes per day on unpaid work. In contrast, women in this age group spend an average of 155 minutes on GDP work, and 253 minutes on unpaid work.

Overall, women spend an average of 408 minutes per day on paid and unpaid productive activities combined, compared to 356 minutes for men.

Medical benefits

Figure 42: Percentage of women and men employees aged 15–64 years in each population group who have medical cover through the workplace, 2011

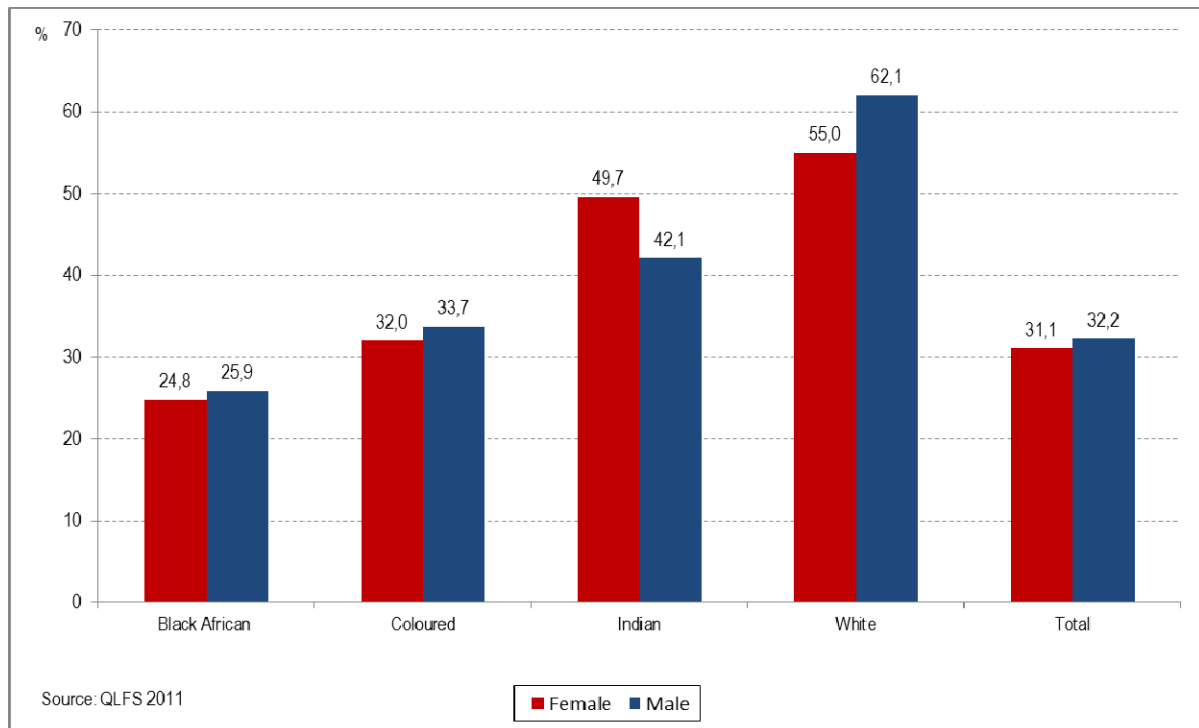


Figure 42 shows that, overall, there is very little difference in the percentage of women and men employees who have medical cover through the workplace. The total percentage for women is 32,2%, while that for men is 31,1%.

The percentage of employees who have medical cover are lower among black African employees than for other population groups among both women (25,9%) and men (24,8%).

There is a relatively substantial difference between the percentage of men and women employees who have access to this cover amongst the Indian/Asian and white population groups. The Indian/Asian group is the only one in which more men than women have medical cover, with 49,7% of men covered as compared to 42,1% of women.

The white population group has the highest percentage of both men and women who have medical cover. The gender gap is larger among the Indian/Asian (42,1% of men compared to 49,7% of women) and the white population groups (62,1% of men compared to 55,0% of women) with men more likely to have cover than women. Some of the women who are not covered by their own workplace might have medical cover through their partner's employment.

Trade union membership

Figure 43: Percentage of non-domestic employees aged 15 years and above who are trade union members in each population group by sex, 2001 and 2011

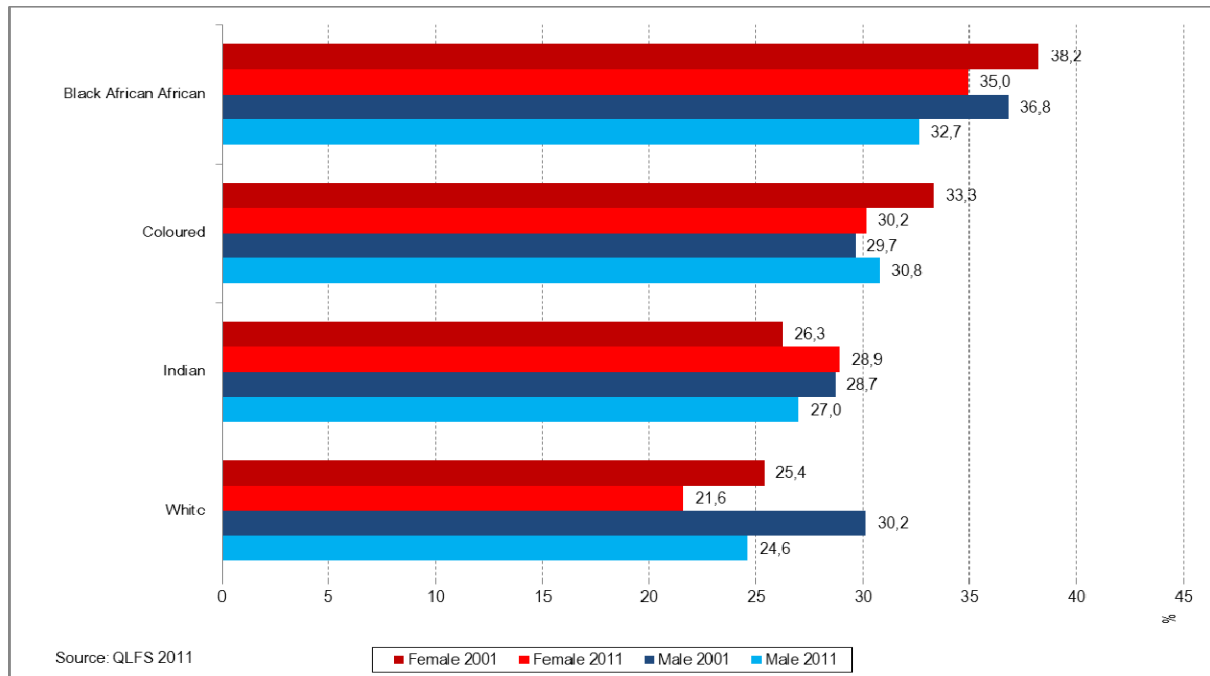


Figure 43 shows that in 2011, a higher proportion of women employees than men employees were members of a trade union among the black African and Indian/Asian population groups. Among white employees, more men than women were members of a union, while among coloured employees there was little difference between women and men.

Figure 43 also shows that there was a decrease between 2001 and 2011 in trade union membership among women for all population groups except for the Indian/Asian population group. Among the Indian/Asian population group, membership increased to 28,9% in 2011 from 26,3% in 2001.

For men there was also a decrease in membership in three population groups, but the exception in this case is coloured men. Among coloured men, there was a small increase to 30,8% in 2011 compared to 29,7% in 2001. The decrease in membership was largest for white men, where the membership rate for 2011 fell to 24,6% from 30,2% in 2001.

In 2011, for both women and men, the trade union membership rate is highest among black African employees and lowest among white employees.

Figure 44: Employment tenure of employees aged 15–64 years by sex, 2011

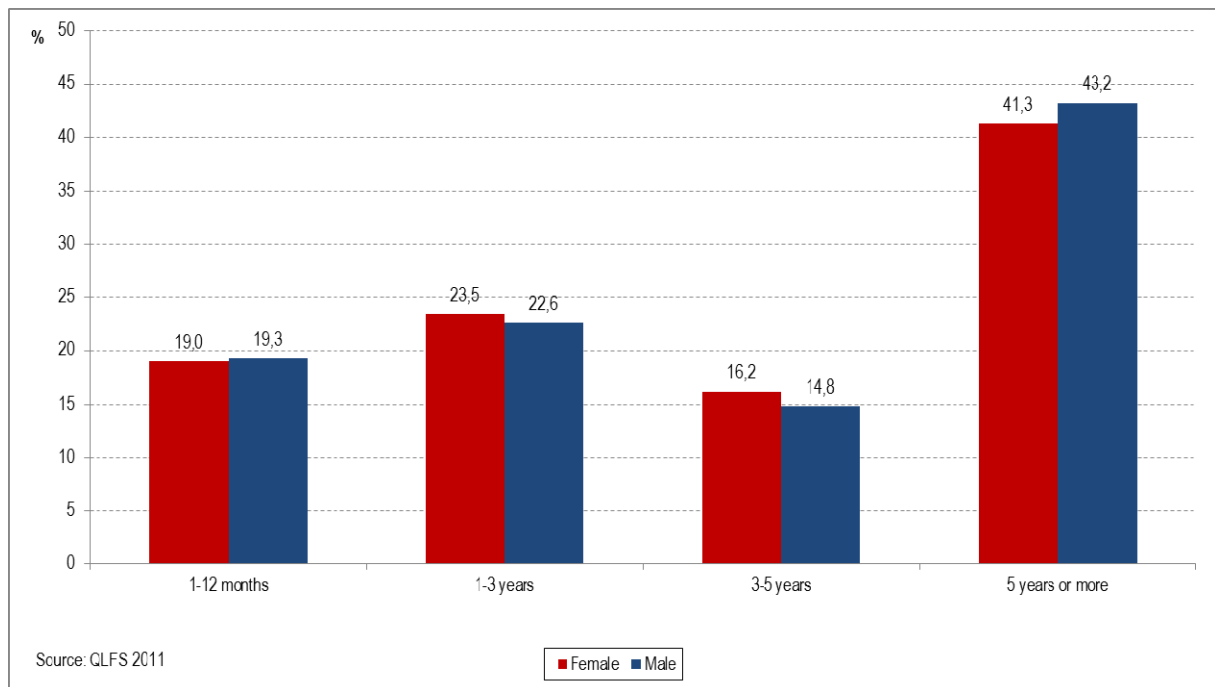


Figure 44 indicates that for both women and men employees, the length of time women and men employees have been with their current employer. The figure shows that more than four in ten employees among both women and men have been with the same employer for a period of five years or more (41,3% and 43,2% respectively).

The gender differences are small. Overall, however, men employees are slightly more likely than women employees to have been with their current employer for five years or more.

HOUSEHOLD INCOME

Household income

Figure 45: Household income quintiles by sex, 2011

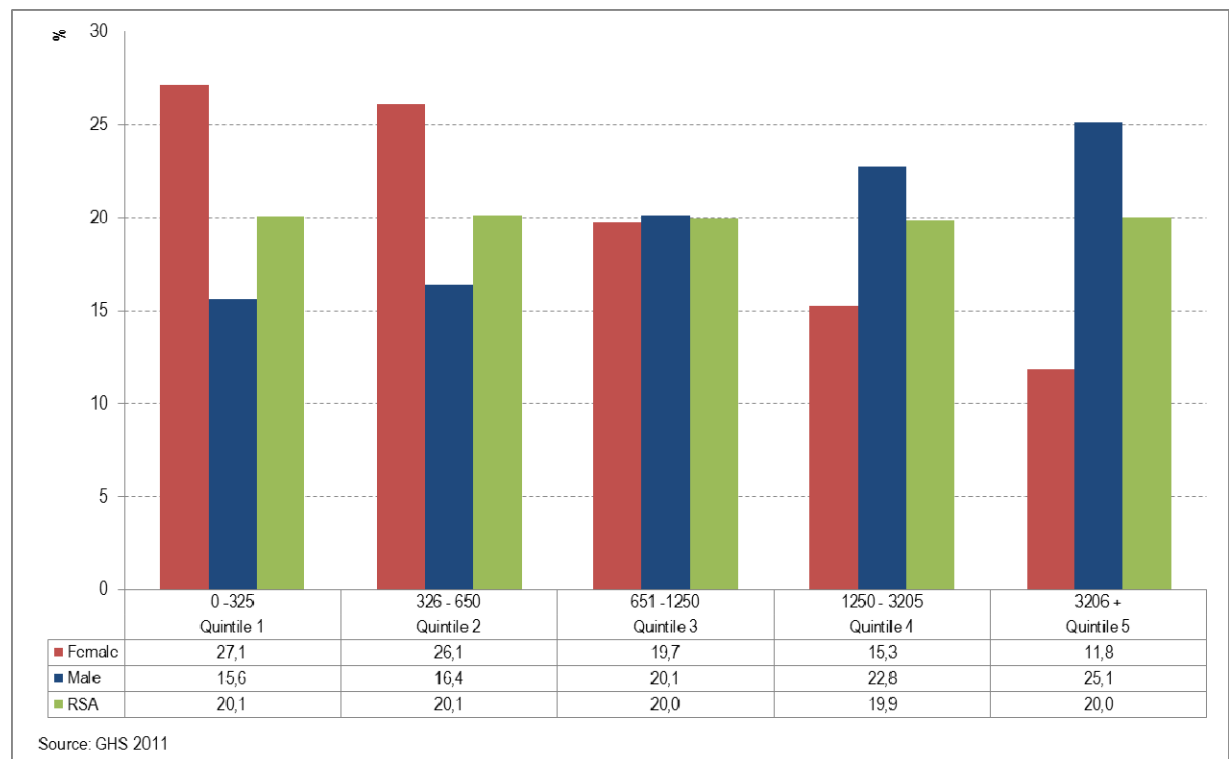


Figure 45 shows the percentage of all women (including girls) and men (including boys) living in households within each of the five household income quintiles.

Women are more likely than men to be found in the first two quintiles (household with the lowest income). Thus, 27,1% of women as opposed to 15,6% of men are found in the first quintile and 26,1% of women and 16,4% of men are in the second quintile.

The opposite pattern is found in the highest income quintiles. Men are twice as likely as women to be living in households where the household income is R3 206 or more.

Income

Figure 46: Adult social grants by population group and sex, 2011

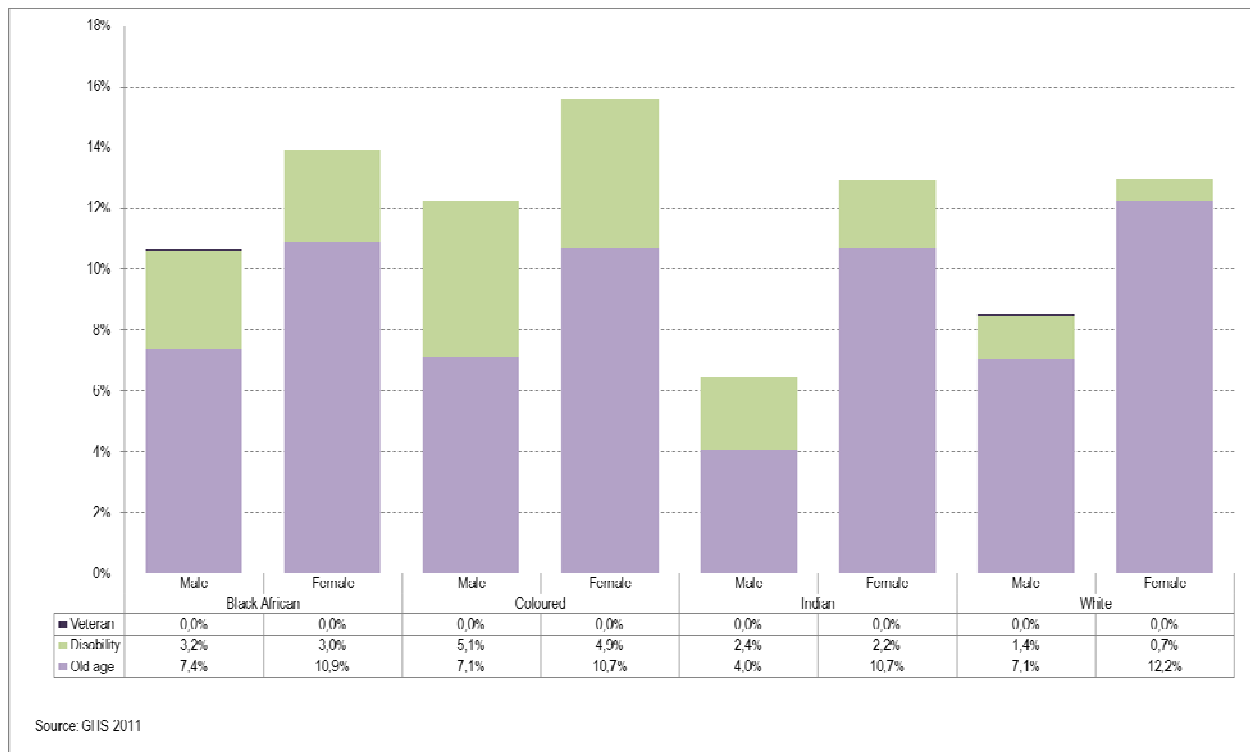


Figure 46 depicts the proportion of adult women and men accessing government social grants in the form of old-age pension, disability and war veteran grants by population group. Within each population group, adult women are more likely than men to access social grants.

The most commonly accessed social grant within all population groups is the old-age pension grant, followed by the disability grant.

Indian/Asian males are less likely to access the old-age pension grant than women and men in other population groups. In contrast, white (12,2%) and black African (10,9%) women are most likely to access the old-age pension grant. In terms of the disability grant, Figure 46 shows that in 2011, a higher proportion of coloured women and men accessed the disability grant than adult women and men from other population groups.

The war veteran grant is received by a negligible proportion of both women and men.

CONCLUSION

This is the third publication that Stats SA has produced that focuses exclusively on gender statistics. The publication highlighted South Africa's achievements on some aspects of gender equality, as well as a range of areas in which there are still worrying disparities in the situation and circumstances of women and men. We hope that the publication will help all stakeholders understand the current situation and place them in a better position to find ways of addressing the disparities that persist.

Stats SA recognises that analysis and publication of statistics at regular intervals can contribute to the country's monitoring of progress on achieving the Constitutional imperative of a country that is free from gender inequality as well as other forms of inequality. We also acknowledge that many people are intimidated by statistics, and that it is therefore important to present statistics in a way that is user-friendly. Stats SA therefore commits to produce further gender publications in this series every five years.

The publication does not cover all aspects of gender inequality. It focuses on key issues which can be explored using data from Stats SA's many regular household surveys. These surveys are not the only source of gender-related data. In particular, important administrative data are produced by government agencies at national, provincial and local level. The administrative statistics record information primarily about service delivery. The Stats SA household surveys record information about the situation and status of the women, men, girls and boys living in the country. Together these different sources provide a fuller picture of where the country stands on gender equality.

APPENDIX

Table 1: Percentage distribution of employed women and men aged 15 - 64 years by broad occupational category, 2001 - 2011

	Gender	Manager/professional /technician	Artisan/operator	Clerical/sales	Elementary
2001	Female	23,5	10,7	36,2	29,5
	Male	21,8	38,1	18,9	21,2
2002	Female	26,5	11,0	35,0	27,5
	Male	22,9	38,6	17,4	21,1
2003	Female	26,4	11,1	34,5	28,0
	Male	22,3	35,3	18,2	24,3
2004	Female	26,8	10,5	35,7	26,9
	Male	22,2	34,6	18,7	24,6
2005	Female	26,1	11,0	35,4	27,5
	Male	21,0	36,1	18,6	24,3
2006	Female	25,9	11,7	35,1	27,3
	Male	20,6	36,2	18,6	24,6
2007	Female	27,7	11,5	34,9	25,9
	Male	21,4	36,3	18,7	23,7
2008	Female	29,1	9,5	36,4	25,0
	Male	23,3	35,6	18,0	23,2
2009	Female	29,4	8,3	38,2	24,1
	Male	24,3	34,4	18,5	22,8
2010	Female	30,0	7,6	38,1	24,4
	Male	24,4	33,1	20,1	22,4
2011	Female	30,7	7,7	37,2	24,4
	Male	24,6	32,6	20,4	22,3

Table 2: Percentage distribution of women and men aged 15 - 64 years by occupational category, 2001 - 2011

	Gender	Manager	Professional	Technician	Clerk	Sales and services	Skilled agriculture	Craft and related trade	Plant and machinery operator	Elementary	Domestic worker
2001	Female	2,8	3,2	13,4	14,6	15,4	0,4	5,5	3,1	24,5	17,2
	Male	8,3	3,0	10,3	5,8	12,9	2,5	20,8	14,6	21,0	0,6
2002	Female	3,8	3,3	14,6	15,8	12,9	0,7	5,1	3,3	22,5	18,1
	Male	8,8	3,4	10,6	6,0	11,3	3,2	20,1	15,0	21,0	0,6
2003	Female	4,0	3,6	14,2	15,8	12,6	0,8	4,9	3,4	23,0	17,7
	Male	9,1	3,5	9,5	6,3	11,7	0,8	19,7	14,5	24,1	0,7
2004	Female	4,8	3,5	13,9	16,6	12,9	0,8	4,7	3,2	22,3	17,3
	Male	10,1	2,9	9,1	6,0	12,5	0,6	19,9	13,8	24,4	0,6
2005	Female	4,6	3,6	13,6	15,9	13,6	0,9	5,5	2,8	22,9	16,6
	Male	8,7	3,3	9,0	5,7	12,8	0,6	21,6	13,6	24,2	0,5
2006	Female	4,7	3,9	12,9	15,3	13,9	1,4	5,5	2,8	22,7	16,9
	Male	8,4	3,3	8,8	5,8	12,8	0,8	22,6	12,7	24,5	0,2
2007	Female	5,2	4,8	13,3	16,0	13,3	0,9	5,7	3,1	21,8	15,9
	Male	8,9	3,7	8,6	5,7	12,8	0,7	22,0	13,2	23,4	1,0
2008	Female	5,2	5,9	13,5	16,8	14,0	0,5	4,7	2,9	21,2	15,3
	Male	9,4	5,2	8,6	5,9	12,0	1,0	21,2	13,1	23,1	0,5
2009	Female	5,3	5,6	14,0	17,4	15,0	0,3	3,8	2,9	20,4	15,3
	Male	9,6	5,1	9,5	5,8	12,6	0,9	20,0	13,4	22,7	0,4
2010	Female	5,5	5,8	14,1	17,6	14,8	0,4	3,3	2,8	20,7	14,9
	Male	10,0	5,4	8,9	6,1	13,9	0,9	19,1	13,0	22,3	0,5
2011	Female	6,1	6,0	14,1	17,0	14,8	0,3	3,3	2,9	20,8	14,6
	Male	10,4	5,4	8,7	5,7	14,5	0,6	19,1	12,7	22,2	0,5

Table 3: Percentage distribution of employed women and men aged 15-64 years by industrial sector, 2009 - 2011

	Gender	Primary sector	Secondary sector	Tertiary sector	Private households
2001	Female	5,4	13,4	62,8	18,4
	Male	16,2	27,2	53,5	3,2
	Total	11,2	20,9	57,7	10,2
2002	Female	7,1	14,1	59,5	19,3
	Male	17,9	26,9	51,7	3,5
	Total	13,1	21,2	55,1	10,5
2003	Female	5,6	13,9	62,4	18,1
	Male	15,0	27,1	53,6	4,3
	Total	10,8	21,3	57,5	10,4
2004	Female	5,5	14,1	62,9	17,5
	Male	13,2	28,9	53,7	4,2
	Total	9,8	22,5	57,7	10,0
2005	Female	4,8	13,8	64,3	17,0
	Male	11,4	29,5	55,0	4,1
	Total	8,5	22,6	59,1	9,8
2006	Female	5,5	13,7	63,6	17,1
	Male	11,6	29,7	54,7	4,0
	Total	8,9	22,6	58,7	9,8
2007	Female	4,9	13,5	65,5	16,1
	Male	10,8	30,5	54,7	4,0
	Total	8,2	23,0	59,5	9,3
2008	Female	4,9	12,7	66,7	15,7
	Male	10,5	31,6	54,5	3,4
	Total	8,1	23,4	59,8	8,7
2009	Female	4,4	12,7	67,2	15,7
	Male	9,9	30,9	55,8	3,5
	Total	7,5	22,9	60,8	8,8
2010	Female	4,5	12,6	67,3	15,5
	Male	9,4	29,4	57,7	3,5
	Total	7,2	22,1	61,9	8,7
2011	Female	4,0	12,6	68,4	14,9
	Male	9,2	29,1	58,3	3,4
	Total	7,0	21,9	62,7	8,4

Table 4: Percentage distribution of employed women and men aged 15 - 64 years by industry, 2001 - 2011

	Gender	Agriculture	Mining	Manufacture	Utilities	Construction	Trade	Transport	Finance	Community and social services	Private household
2001	Female	5,1	0,3	12,1	0,2	1,1	30,1	2,1	9,1	21,4	18,4
	Male	9,7	6,5	17,2	1,0	8,9	21,5	8,4	9,6	14,1	3,2
2002	Female	6,8	0,4	12,5	0,3	1,3	24,6	2,4	9,2	23,2	19,3
	Male	11,4	6,5	17,6	0,8	8,5	18,8	8,2	10,5	14,1	3,5
2003	Female	5,2	0,4	12,2	0,4	1,3	25,8	2,5	9,4	24,6	18,1
	Male	8,8	6,2	17,3	0,8	8,9	20,1	8,0	10,3	15,2	4,3
2004	Female	5,2	0,3	12,2	0,4	1,5	25,9	2,7	9,5	24,8	17,5
	Male	7,8	5,4	17,5	1,0	10,4	20,5	7,9	10,7	14,6	4,2
2005	Female	4,5	0,3	12,0	0,3	1,5	28,4	2,7	10,3	23,0	17,0
	Male	6,8	4,5	16,6	1,1	11,9	22,2	7,7	10,7	14,4	4,1
2006	Female	5,2	0,3	11,4	0,4	1,9	29,1	2,0	9,7	22,8	17,1
	Male	7,3	4,3	16,6	1,0	12,1	23,0	7,5	10,5	13,7	4,0
2007	Female	4,5	0,4	11,1	0,4	1,9	28,4	2,5	10,3	24,3	16,1
	Male	6,2	4,6	17,2	0,8	12,5	22,0	7,6	11,3	13,9	4,0
2008	Female	4,3	0,6	10,4	0,4	1,9	26,3	2,5	12,5	25,4	15,7
	Male	6,7	3,7	17,3	0,9	13,3	20,4	8,0	12,0	14,1	3,4
2009	Female	3,7	0,7	10,2	0,4	2,2	24,6	2,8	13,2	26,6	15,7
	Male	6,2	3,7	16,6	1,0	13,3	20,2	8,0	13,1	14,6	3,5
2010	Female	3,8	0,6	10,2	0,4	2,0	24,8	2,8	11,9	27,9	15,5
	Male	5,7	3,6	15,7	0,9	12,8	20,6	8,4	13,3	15,5	3,5
2011	Female	3,5	0,6	10,3	0,3	2,0	24,4	2,5	12,7	28,7	14,9
	Male	5,5	3,7	15,6	0,9	12,6	21,1	8,2	13,1	15,9	3,3

Table 5: Percentage of women and men aged 18 years and above in each population group with access to medical aid benefits, 2002 - 2011

	Gender	Black African	Coloured	Indian	White	Total
2002	Female	7,6	18,0	28,7	68,8	16,8
	Male	8,8	18,5	30,7	68,7	18,6
	Total	8,2	18,2	29,7	68,8	17,7
2003	Female	7,5	17,6	29,6	65,4	16,2
	Male	8,7	18,7	33,5	65,4	18,0
	Total	8,1	18,1	31,5	65,4	17,0
2004	Female	7,3	17,7	32,0	69,5	16,5
	Male	8,1	18,6	35,1	69,2	18,0
	Total	7,7	18,1	33,5	69,4	17,2
2005	Female	7,0	18,6	29,6	63,0	15,4
	Male	7,6	19,3	31,8	62,8	16,5
	Total	7,3	18,9	30,7	62,9	15,9
2006	Female	7,1	16,2	29,9	64,2	15,3
	Male	8,1	16,2	27,8	63,2	16,4
	Total	7,6	16,2	28,9	63,7	15,8
2007	Female	7,3	19,1	27,6	68,6	16,0
	Male	8,0	19,3	29,0	64,9	16,8
	Total	7,6	19,2	28,3	66,8	16,4
2008	Female	8,5	21,4	40,0	69,1	17,5
	Male	9,6	23,4	37,9	66,7	18,6
	Total	9,0	22,3	38,9	67,9	18,0
2009	Female	9,3	21,5	39,6	75,4	18,5
	Male	9,8	22,3	42,1	72,4	19,3
	Total	9,5	21,9	40,9	73,9	18,9
2010	Female	10,2	22,5	45,2	72,3	19,1
	Male	10,9	22,3	46,3	70,4	19,9
	Total	10,5	22,4	45,8	71,4	19,4
2011	Female	9,3	20,6	41,6	70,7	17,9
	Male	9,1	21,4	40,5	70,5	18,1
	Total	9,2	21,0	41,0	70,6	18,0

Table 6: Percentage distribution of women and men aged 25 years and more for each population group by highest level of education, 1996 - 2011

	Level of education	Black African		Coloured		Indian		White		Total	
		Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
1996	No schooling	30,6	25,1	11,4	11,4	10,7	3,5	1,2	1,1	24,0	19,5
	Less than Grade 12	57,0	60,4	76,0	72,9	59,3	54,4	36,7	32,8	56,0	57,3
	Grade 12	8,5	10,5	8,1	10,1	21,5	27,9	39,1	33,6	13,2	14,5
	More than Grade 12	3,8	4,0	4,5	5,6	8,4	14,1	23,0	32,5	6,8	8,7
2001	No schooling	28,4	22,1	9,3	9,3	8,4	3,2	1,5	1,3	22,6	17,5
	Less than Grade 12	53,3	57,1	72,0	68,9	51,9	45,4	31,0	26,5	52,1	53,7
	Grade 12	12,8	15,6	14,1	16,6	27,4	34,6	40,0	38,6	16,9	19,5
	More than Grade 12	5,4	5,1	4,6	5,2	12,3	16,8	27,5	33,6	8,4	9,4
2011	No schooling	14,8	10,8	5,3	5,2	4,5	2,3	0,8	0,7	11,9	8,7
	Less than Grade 12	53,5	55,0	64,7	63,3	39,3	34,0	23,2	21,5	50,6	50,9
	Grade 12	22,7	25,9	22,4	23,8	35,2	40,8	40,7	38,3	25,2	27,7
	More than Grade 12	8,9	8,3	7,6	7,7	21,0	22,9	35,3	39,5	12,3	12,6

Table 7: Percentage of children attending child care facilities by age and location, 2010 - 2011

	Location	Age in completed years						
		0 year	1 year	2 years	3 years	4 years	5 years	6 years
2010	Urban	8,1	25,9	37,0	51,7	64,4	66,4	28,6
	Rural	2,5	9,2	17,7	33,4	57,3	72,8	21,4
2011	Urban	8,1	21,6	40,1	52,4	64,7	73,4	32,8
	Rural	7,4	16,6	23,5	39,0	59,0	68,5	22,9

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

	Location	Black African	Coloured	Indian	White
2010	Rural	32,8	33,1	26,2	60,0
	Urban	39,9	32,7	45,5	57,4
2011	Rural	34,6	27,1		21,0
	Urban	42,3	35,4	33,5	62,2

Table 9: Percentage of people married or living as husband and wife whose partner is a member of the same household, by sex and location, 2001-2011

	Gender	Urban	Rural	Total
2001	Female	87,7	63,1	78,3
	Male	86,4	82,8	85,3
2011	Female	85,2	65,1	79,0
	Male	84,6	80,6	83,5

Table 10: Percentage of people married or living as husband and wife whose partner is a member of the same household, by sex and population group, 2001-2011

	Gender	Black African	Coloured	Indian	White	Total
2001	Female	71,7	91,2	93,5	95,5	78,3
	Male	80,7	93,8	94,2	96,2	85,3
2011	Female	73,6	89,5	90,0	93,3	79,0
	Male	79,8	91,1	88,2	93,7	83,6

Table 11: Female and male population in urban and non-urban areas by age; 1996 - 2011

		Age groups			
		0 - 14	15 - 64	65 +	
1996	Urban	Urban female	28,0	66,7	5,4
		Urban male	28,8	67,4	3,7
	Non -urban	Non-urban female	39,0	54,9	6,1
		Non-urban male	43,7	52,2	4,1
	Total	Total female	33,2	61,1	5,7
		Total male	35,6	60,5	3,9
2001	Urban	Urban female	26,2	68,4	5,4
		Urban male	27,3	69,1	3,6
	Non -urban	Non-urban female	36,6	56,6	6,8
		Non-urban male	42,0	54,0	4,1
	Total	Total female	30,8	63,2	6,0
		Total male	33,4	62,8	3,8
2011	Urban	Urban female	25,0	69,1	5,9
		Urban male	26,1	70,0	4,0
	Non -urban	Non-urban female	33,2	59,3	7,5
		Non-urban male	38,0	57,6	4,4
	Total	Total female	28,1	65,4	6,5
		Total male	30,3	65,6	4,1