The People Matter

The State of the Population in the Eastern Cape

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Research and Population Unit
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The Research and Population Unit of the Eastern Cape Department of Social Development produces population and research information for planning, monitoring and evaluation of development in the province.

In 2004 the Unit produced the *Socio-Economic and Demographic Profile* of Eastern Cape. This report was revised, updated and produced as *2009 Socio-Economic and Demographic Profile* which contains demographic, development, labour market and service indicators.

The present report is about the state of the provincial population in 2010. It focuses attention on the complex interrelation between population and development in the context of implementing the national population policy. The report updates what is currently known about major population trends, and raises demographic issues that are relevant for development planning at the province.

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FOREWORD

by the MEC

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Highlight of findings

More than a decade into our successful democracy, the Eastern Cape Province remains trapped in structural poverty that shows in all aspects of its demographic, health and socioeconomic profile. The following are among the disturbing findings from this study.

- There is a high rate of migration of young adults out of the province.
- There is a high rate of movement of people from the East to the West of the province.
- The province has one of the highest rates of unemployment in the country.
- There is a high rate of non-marriage in the province.
- A rise in the number of deaths due to motor accidents.
- A high prevalence of obesity among women.
- A high rate of chronic illnesses among men.
- A high rate of alcohol use among men.
- A high rate of hazardous drinking among women.
- Older women take a major responsibility for taking care of children.
- Households are becoming larger in the East and smaller in the West of the province.

Highlight of findings (continued)

- The quality of education in the province is among the poorest in the country.
- Many people in the province lack basic services and alternative means of sustainable use of natural resources.

Amidst this catalogue of depressing statistics of the state of human development in the province, there is hope.

- Fertility remains on a declining trend, removing the charge that perhaps the poverty experience by people in the province is because they are having too many children.
- Teenage childbearing is declining in the province.
- The trend of HIV prevalence is declining among the youth in the province.
- Government grants and social assistance in the province has reached most people who are eligible. The province has the widest coverage of social assistance in the country.
- The level of educational enrolment level is high especially in the young ages.

Intervention

Poverty in the Eastern Cape Province is a national disaster. In addition to existing policies and programmes, extraordinary measures by the government and all development partners are required in order to break the shackles of structural poverty and their consequences among the population of the province.

This report examines the major demographic characteristics of the Eastern Cape Province based on information that was available by the beginning of 2010. The themes covered in each chapter serve as entry points for understanding the complex relationships between population and development challenges in the province. The first section (chapter 1 to chapter 5) highlights the contexts of population perspectives and policies, and proceeds to analyze population size and structure, fertility, mortality and migration in the province. The second section (chapter 6 to chapter 10) addresses the interactions of population and other dimensions of human development in the province. Subjects that are included are the family and inter-generational relations, gender and development, population and poverty, education, the environment and population indicators that are relevant for planning and delivery of services in the province.

BASIC POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS

- *Population size*

  The population of the province increased from 6.1 million in 1996 to 6.3 million in 2001. It increased by 4 percent to 6.5 million in 2007 and is officially estimated to be 6.74 million in 2010. Its share of the national population dropped from 15.5% in 1996 to 13.5% in 2010 mainly as a result of complex changes in fertility, mortality and migration within and outside the province.

- *Age distribution*

  The youngest age group (0-4) contributed 12% to the provincial population in 1996 and 10.6% in 2007. The contribution of people aged 5-14 years to the provincial population declined from 27.3% in 1996 to 25.0% in 2007. People in the 15-64 age group contributed 54.1% to the total population in 1996 and 57.4% in 2007. The number of people aged 65 years or older increased from 5.8% of the population in 1996 to 7.0% in 2007. The current sex structure of the population reflects the effects of trends in migration, mortality and fertility in the province.

- *Sex distribution*

  Women out-number men in the province. They comprised 53% of the provincial population in 2007. The number of men for every hundred women in 2007 declined with age, reaching a low level of 69 for those aged 50-54, and just 49 for people aged 70 years or older. This imbalance in sex ratios is a combined effect of a sex-selective pattern of migration especially in the active working ages and gender differences in mortality rates in the older ages.

- *The youth population*

  The number of people aged 19-24 years increased from 1.25 million in 1996 to 1.39 million in 2007. Their contribution to the provincial population rose only marginally from 20.3% to 21.4% in this period. The propensity for a sizeable growth in the youth population is tempered by a significant volume of out-migration by people in this and other groups under the age of 35 years.

- *The older population*

  People aged 65 years or older numbered 257 000 in 1996 and 457 000 in 2007. Their share of the total population increased from 5.7% in 1996 to 7.0% in 2007, reflecting among other things some gains in longevity in the province.

- *Population groups*

  The majority of people in the province (87.6%) are Africans. The shares of other population groups in 2007 are 7.5% for Coloureds, 4.7% for Whites and 0.3% for Indians. As in other parts of the country, basic demographic characteristics indicate different stages and speed of the demographic transition among the various population groups in the province.

- *Marital status*

  Only 30.2% of all people aged 15 years or older were in a marriage in 2007. The prevalence of marriage among women in the reproductive ages of 15-49 has declined since 1996.

FERTILITY PATTERNS

- *Fertility trend*

  The total fertility rate is on a declining trend. The total fertility rate was 3.1 in 2007.

- *Fertility differences*

  Fertility differences in the province follow predicable differences in socioeconomic status. Sub-groups of the population with relatively high levels of fertility include those in the eastern part of the province, residents of O.R. Tambo and Alfred Nzo districts, Africans, rural women and those with no formal education.

- *Proximate determinants of fertility*

  Marriage patterns and contraceptive behaviour of women are the two most powerful proximate determinants of fertility in the province. Non-marriage is estimated to contribute more than sixty five percent of the reduction in fertility. Available estimates indicate that use of contraception contributed more than a quarter of the reduction of fertility in the province.

- *Non-marital and teenage childbearing*

  A relatively high level of fertility among women who have never been married and those under the age of twenty remains a significant feature of childbearing in the province. Teenage childbearing is most common among Africans and Coloureds than among Indians and Whites.

HEALTH AND MORTALITY

- *General health status*

  Quantitatively, majority of people in the province are in good health. Only a small proportion (13.8%) self-reported an illness in the past few days. However, the province lags behind other parts of the country in a number of critical and objective health indicators.

- *Levels and trends in infant and child mortality*

  The levels of infant and child mortality rates in the province are among the highest in the country. However, there has been a decline in the rate of infant mortality from 65 per thousand in 1996 to an estimated level of 57 per thousand in 2010. The rate of child mortality declined from 88 per thousand in 1996 to 80.5 per thousand in 1998 and 78 per thousand in 2003 but is projected to a value of 86 per thousand in 2010.

- *Adult health and longevity*

  The expectation of life at birth increased from 49.4 years in 2001-2006 to 54.8 years in 2006-2010.The longevity level is slightly more favourable for women.

- *Prevalence and trend in HIV and AIDS*

  The prevalence rate of HIV was 15.2% in 2008 in the general population of the Eastern Cape Province. Survey data indicate the rate of HIV prevalence is higher among sections of the population in a low socioeconomic status and African women in the reproductive ages. There is evidence of a lowered rate of HIV prevalence especially among young people in the 15-24 age group in the past since about 2005.

MIGRATION PATTERNS

- *Internal out-migration*

  Historically, the province experienced a pattern of age and gender-selective out-migration which impacted negatively on various aspects of social development and family and social relations. Although its current volume may not be the same as in the past, there is no evidence of a reversal of this type of migration.

- *Destination of migrants*

  Most migrants from the province move to the more economically advanced provinces and to metropolitan parts of the country such as Cape Town in the

Western Cape and Johannesburg, Pretoria and other urban locations in the Gauteng province.

- *East-West migration pattern*
  Internally, there is a significant moment of people from the poorer eastern part to the relatively more prosperous western part of the province.

- *Age profile of migrants*
  Most migrants are people in the active working ages. The peak age range for out-migration is between 25-39 years.

- *Gender of migrants*
  Most migrants are males although there is a significant increase in the number of female migrants.

POVERTY AND POPULATION

- *Poverty profile of the province*
  The province is one of the poorest parts of the country. This is evident in all poverty indices and labour market statistics that are currently available.

- *Poverty and population profile*
  The prevailing population profile in the province is to a large extent, a product of complex demographic reactions to the crisis of poverty, especially among the historically disadvantaged population groups.

- *Poverty and demographic trends*
  The low socioeconomic status of the province reflects clearly in the outward pattern of migration and high levels of mortality at different age groups. But in a surprisingly negative response to a protracted assault from poverty, fertility in the province continues to experience a declining trend.

THE FAMILY, HOUSEHOLD AND INTER-GENERATIONAL RELATIONS

- *Trends in household size and number*

  The province has experienced a general decline in household size in the past decade. The average household size declined from 4.4 in 2002 to 3.8 in 2009. At the same time the number of households in the province increased from 1.4 million in 2002 to 1.7 million in 2009.

- *Living arrangement in the family*

  Historical policies and patterns of economic activities had negative impacts on different aspects of family life in the province. In 2007, almost half of all households were headed by females, and many children and young people in the province did not live in two-parent families.

- *Older people and inter-generational relations*

  The economic burden of caring for older people is less on immediate and extended relationships with the improvements in access to non-contributory old age and other forms of grants.

- *Changing patterns of household material support*

  Many older persons are increasingly contributing to the material support of younger people in multi-generational families using their old-age grants and other types of grants.

GENDER, POPULATION AND DEVELOPMENT

- *Gender and population size*

  There is a significant gender imbalance in the population size especially in adult ages. This phenomenon is a result of sex-selective out-migration.

- *Gender and fertility*

  Traditionally childbearing and child rearing has been confined to a female role.

In the province, this was reinforced by historical policies and economic structures that encouraged absent fatherhood. Today, the burden of childbearing and childbearing falls on women, although there are signs of change towards greater male involvement in fertility-related roles especially among married couples.

- *Gender and mortality*

  Standard models of mortality suggest a higher rate of mortality among males especially in older ages. This is true for the province. However, there is insufficient data to establish the exact pattern of gender differences in mortality especially in the light of AIDS and other causes of mortality to which women in the province are particularly susceptible.

- *Gender and economic activity*

  Historically, women played a major role in the household economy when many men were absent for migrant work. There are currently more women in active employment than men. The disproportionate economic burden on women and subtle forms of gender imbalances in other areas of economic, social and cultural experiences in the province remain issues of major concern.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION

- *General educational profile*

  There have been significant improvements in the educational profile of the provincial population, especially in the areas of literacy and female school attendance. There remains major challenges in the areas such as matric pass rate, access to a high quality infrastructure for learning and other better models of human capital development in the province.

- *Population, education and development*

  Formal education has powerful indirect effects on demographic behaviour and trends. From a planning perspective, the imbalance between supply and

demand of human capital is a major development problem in the province. Limited availability of long-term work opportunities encourages an out-migration of unskilled, semi-skilled and highly skilled labour from the province. Bigger visions for education should involve all sectors working together in order to maximize the contributions of the products of education and training to development needs in the province.

POPULATION AND THE ENVIRONMENT

- *Environmental constraints on human development*

  Policies of the past especially those that shaped human settlement patterns resulted in unequal distribution and access to natural resources among the provincial population groups.

- *Access to basic environmental services*

  A significant percentage of the provincial population lacks basic amenities and services that facilitate sustainable use of natural resources and relationship with the ecosystem in the rural and urban areas of the province.

- *The population factor in managing the environment*

  A comprehensive environmental management strategy should include programmes that provide affordable alternatives to non-sustainable use of natural resources in the province.

POPULATION INDICATORS FOR PLANNING AND SERVICE DELIVERY

- *The importance of demographic indicators*

  Demographic information provides an empirical basis for development planning and evaluation at the local level. Careful analysis and use of local level population indicators are central for successful implementation of programmes and effective use of development services in the province.

- *Basic and integrated population indicators*

  Statistics South Africa and other government agencies are making good progress in the production of basic demographic statistics. These should be actively used for sectoral planning and delivery of services in the province. There is a need for additional micro and integrated population data that meet unique local development planning and evaluation needs in specific districts and local municipalities of the province.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The current development profile of the Eastern Cape raises an intriguing question that must be seriously addressed by policy makers as part of the process of designing effective interventions for the province. What is it that keeps the Eastern Cape Province in an economic state of poverty more than one and half decades into a successful democracy in South Africa?

The major development problem in the province today is poverty and socioeconomic deprivation among the majority of the population. Population characteristics of the province are to a large extent demographic responses to poverty and long-term socioeconomic deprivation and vulnerability. Therefore, policy challenges raised by the population profile are no different from those raised by poverty in the province. Three major recommendations from this report which feed into existing government development strategy and the programmes of various departments in the fight against poverty in the province are presented.

1. *Actively monitor demographic trends in the province*

   The demographic trends in the province should be actively monitored by all departments in order to integrate these effectively into planning, implementation and evaluation of development programmes. Major aspects of the provincial demography that should be closely monitored are changes in age and sex distribution of the population, fertility, marriage, childbearing patterns, levels and age patterns of mortality and the volume and age patterns of internal migration.

2. *Integrate population factors into development plans and programmes*
   Basic population indicators and complex demographic dynamics should be integrated into all levels and stages of development activities in the province. Integration of population and development should not be a euphemism for forcefully influencing demographic patterns and trends in a preferred direction. It should involve an explicit incorporation of prevailing and projected demographic patterns and trends into the planning and implementation of development programmes.

3. *Develop technical capacity for planning with population information*
   Provincial departments should train staff in the technical understanding and effective in-house uses of demographic information for efficient planning and delivery of services at the local level. Part of the technical capacity needed in every department is the skill to produce (where necessary), analyze and apply demographic information in ways that guide programmes and delivery of services at the lowest local levels in the province.

Population and Development:
Emerging issues from the Eastern Cape Province

1

For many years, the population factor was a contentious issue in policy-making circles in South Africa. In 1998, the South African government rejected a demographic targeting approach that was practiced by the apartheid regime in favour of a national population policy that aims to integrate population factors into all aspects of human development programmes. This chapter raises selected issues in international and national population policy as a background for understanding and interpreting the population patterns and trends in the Eastern Cape Province.

The dominant perspective about the place of population factors in national development is that if unchecked, rapid population growth is likely to exert catastrophic pressure on economic growth and natural resources. This Malthusian perspective serves as a major rationale for most population programmes in non-Western countries today. However, justifications of this perspective raise perennial disagreements among scholars and policy makers. A liberal, or more specifically libertarian, economic thinking that has dominated this discussion is hardly a dependable guide for practical policy making in population matters. Ordinarily, libertarianism advocates individual choice and not direct state interventions for desired social and economic ends. But on population concerns, liberal thinkers qualify their perspectives usually in ways that permit state actions. For instance, limits to market adjustment and externalities of individual reproductive choices are considered important in liberal arguments for state intervention in the rate of growth of human population.

Alternative perspectives draw attention to other dimensions of the complex interrelationships among development factors that include human population. Such viewpoints divide broadly into those that see population as a problem but worry about how policies approach the issues, and others that contend that the population factor does not present a high level of threat to economic development. The first group of ideas is associated with researchers, policy makers and development activists who call for a broadening of the population agenda to include issues such as women's empowerment and equitable distribution of resources that are not traditional concerns of a population policy. Guided by the neoclassical economic thought and revisionist population perspectives, research-

ers and policy makers on the other side outrightly reject the idea that a high rate of population is necessarily bad for economic growth (see Clarke,1968; Boserup, 1988; Simon,1981 and 1992).

Curiously, the international development community appears to have successfully bypassed the contentions among competing perspectives about the theoretical and empirical justifications for population policy in the past three decades. Despite these debates, the decades of the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s witnessed vigorous intervention programmes that aimed to reduce the rate of population growth in many less-developed countries. More recently, progress in fertility decline in many parts of the world does not appear to weaken the commitment of the population establishment to aggressive anti-natalist policies especially in sub-Saharan Africa and other poor regions of the world.

POPULATION POLICIES

Many population policies in Africa, Asia and Latin America focus directly on family planning. Indirectly, some population programmes aim to influence selected development indicators such as maternal and child health, female education and gender equity. From a population policy perspective, interventions in these and other areas are expected to contribute to reductions in fertility and the rate of population growth. Proceedings of the United Nations Conferences and professional meetings are the principal frames of reference for most population activities. More than thirty years ago, the Bucharest World Population Conference (UN, 1974) recommended practical anti-fertility actions for developing countries. This plan was subsequently updated at the 1984 Population Conference (UN, 1984) in ways that encourage an integration approach to population programmes. The most recent plan of action from the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development (UNFPA, 1996) recommends a combination of indirect and direct interventions, and places an emphasis on (i) reductions in early life and maternal mortality, (ii) improvement of education for girls, and (iii) provision of reproductive health and family planning services.

Population activities have enjoyed international visibility since the beginning of the 1960s. Amidst a growing number of issues of global concern, the population policy community actively searches for ways to preserve the relevance of the population agenda in international development issues and activities. On global health, AIDS, education, housing, international security, climate change, empowerment of women, displaced people, anti-poverty, millennium development goals and other areas of international development concerns, the population establishment is constantly negotiating a role for programmes to reduce fertility and the rate of population growth in the less-developed parts of the world.

Globalization and population policies

The population policy movement was internationalized from its early years when the global dimensions of perceived population problems and were emphasized and donors provided sizeable financial support for programmes in countries in different regions of the world. This international identity that contributed a measure of its success could well be threat to population policy in the years to come. Question about the future of a population policy is being raised directly and indirectly in demographic literature, especially in analyses of the problems of a very low level of fertility in industrialized countries. This question is relevant to all other parts of the world in so far as it touches on possible patterns of relationship between population and economic development in the emerging world system (see Ginsberg and Rapp, 1995; Demeny and McNicoll, 2006).

If the process of globalization transforms the relationship between international labour and capital, this could have important implications for the predominant model of a population policy in non-Western countries. First, it is not hard to imagine a future role of globalization in accentuating the economic benefits of a big population size. Possibly, capital could see a large number of people in a globalized economy as an exploitable economic asset and proceed to design means of taking advantage of this pool of labour in the absence of geopolitical restrictions. If globalization creates an easier access to foreign labour (in ways that do not necessarily require an importation of labour into un-welcoming countries), it would have addressed a critical contemporary demographic problem in most advanced economies of the world.

Secondly, globalization could re-organise the political and economic significance of population numbers in ways that generate new balances of power—an issue that rarely receives explicit attention in national population policies. The interconnectedness implied in the process of globalization could increase the relevance of the demographic assets (e.g. a large population size) of one part of the world for political and economic processes in others. For instance, heavy dependence on external labour, or labour in an external territory, could limit a direct control by capital of means of production and other aspects of domestic and foreign interests. This in turn could introduce a major re-shaping of current operations of the international market. In effect, in an increasingly globalized and open market, a narrow and country-specific economic case for a traditional model of population policy could be less convincing.

THE SOUTH AFRICAN EXPERIENCE

A significant part of the modern history of South Africa is about political, cultural and socioeconomic challenges raised by the interactions of race and demography. Three models of historical encounter between foreign and indigenous populations were described by Dagut (1996). The first was in the "empty world" such as North America and Australia where a small group of indigenous

population was conquered and ultimately disposed. In the colonial model, the foreign community was usually small and its members were temporary visitors rather than permanent settlers. A "complete interaction" model is represented by the experiences of central and southern America where newcomers were absorbed by the original inhabitants after an initial conflict. In the unique South African experience, legal and other coercive instruments were used to enforce political, economic and social separation of the newcomers from the majority indigenous population.

From the time of formal settlement of White immigrants in 1652, demographic factors played a central role in the definitions, models and practices of democracy and governance in South Africa. An overarching concern of successive colonial and apartheid authorities was how to circumvent or minimize the economic, political and cultural implications of the numerical superiority of the Black population. On one hand, the policy of separate development was a direct response to the perceived dangers of the numerical superiority of the Black population in the country. Measures that included pass laws and a check on Black urbanization were designed to address this perceived population problem. On the other hand, and from the standpoint of outsiders, the moral repugnance of racial subjugation of Blacks by the colonial and apartheid authorities was reinforced by an appeal to demography. Similarly, resistance movements in various periods in the history of South African drew an inspiration from sheer numerical superiority.

By the second decade of the 20th century, the fear that the White minority population would be swamped by the comparatively large black population was established among White authorities and they determined to do something about it. One of the early practical steps taken by the British colonial authorities during this period to consolidate the policy of segregation was the 1913 Native Land Act which confined Blacks to only 13% of the land. However, it took many decades before direct measures were implemented by different colonial and apartheid authorities in an attempt to change the political and economic ramifications of the racial imbalances in the South African demography. During the 1940s, attention was drawn by South African demographers and policy makers to the political implications of the racial composition of the South African population. They argued explicitly that the numerical superiority of Blacks was a threat to the political, economic and cultural security of Whites. According to Kuper (1950; p.144),

> "The demographic characteristics of Black and White in South Africa and the pattern of White supremacy are interrelated. Change in these demographic characteristics implies modifications of White supremacy."

Sadie (1950, p.3) clearly represented the predominant view of the time among influential policy makers and thinkers. He wrote:

> "In South Africa, the outstanding problem, dominating all others is the relative numbers of the different races constituting the Union's population, and their different rates of growth."

He noted how Whites in other countries used inhuman and brutal means to reduce the number of indigenous populations as a strategy for racial survival. In his views, more humane measures were needed to address this population problem in South Africa. His recommendations which various policy makers and leaders including H.F. Verwoerd repeated and implemented in the apartheid era was:

> "If the Europeans do not want themselves to be swamped ...the Natives will have to be put into a position where they are themselves responsible for their well-being .... In short our conclusions point to only one solution: complete separation in the long run."(Sadie, 1950, p3,8.)

Generally, this period was characterized by an emphasis on the use of macro-level policies to address the perceived problem of a racial imbalance in population numbers. An exceptional direct demographic policy during this era was the promotion of White immigration.

During the first half of the 1950s, the apartheid State built on previous colonial laws in order to address the perceived population problem in South Africa. Pieces of apartheid legislation that were relevant to the population question included those that prohibited mixed marriages (Act No. 55 of 1949), enacted forced population registration (Act No. 30 of 1950), created racially segregated living areas (Act No 41 of 1950 and Act No. 36 of 1966), reserved separate amenities for different racial groups (Act No. 49 of 1953) and provided a poor quality of education for Blacks (Act No. 47 of 1953).

Direct population control activities during the apartheid era were informed by an alarmist interpretations of the empirical demographic trends in South Africa. By the 1960, it did not appear that either the classic Malthusian solutions or unaided development had the power to achieve a rapid decline in the population of Blacks. The State considered more seriously the neo-Malthusian options that were offered by the report of the Tomlinson Commission (Union of South Africa, 1955). The main point here is about the rationale for population control activities. The issue at stake during the period in question was not really the relationship between population and economic growth or 'over-population' in the entire geographical territory of South Africa. It was simply the racial composition of the population and the implications for political power, socioeconomic privileges and cultural hegemony.

A second phase of population activities in South Africa was characterized by a shift from an overtly racial rationale to economic arguments. The official

government position on the relationship between population and development at the beginning of the 1980s was reflected in the report of the President's Council on Demographic Trends in South Africa which was published in 1983.

This report argued that:

> "The State has the responsibility of taking measures for the maintenance of the national economy and the State and for arranging for the continued orderly existence of society. If there is any threat in this connection, the State has the right to intervene in order to counter that threat. If the threat arises from uncontrolled population growth, the State therefore has the right to take measures aimed at controlling population growth." (The President's Council, 1983, p. 208).

Subsequently, the concept of 'overpopulation' was popularized in policy circles and its negative impacts on economic growth became a justification for aggressive population control activities in South Africa.

This official position on population control boosted the morale of the National Family Planning Programme that was already in place in government health facilities by the early 1970s. The recommendations of this report were also the basis for the establishment of the Population Development Programme (in 1984) which at the peak of its activities in 1993, was elevated to a short-lived status of a full government department.

The operational experiences of population programmes (the National Family Planning Programme and the Population Development Programme) during this period were shaped in the context of an apartheid society that was experiencing internal contradictions and international pressure. The National Family Planning Programme commenced formal operation during the 1970s when South Africa appeared to be adapting reasonably well to domestic socioeconomic challenges of an apartheid society. In contrast, the Population Development Programme which followed a decade later was implemented by an apartheid infrastructure that was beginning to develop self-doubt in anticipation of a post-apartheid South Africa. The latter point reflected in the reformist language that packaged the Population Development Programme and the ease with which it adapted to socio-political change until the demise of apartheid.

Well into the first half of the 1990s, the official perspective blamed the development problems of sections of the South African population on their demography. In this viewpoint, a lack of progress in several dimensions of human development in the country was in large part attributed to a high rate of of growth of Blacks. A general weakness of population activities in this phase is that they did not take seriously the importance of macro political and socioeconomic environments for demographic processes and behaviour. Despite their organisational strength, generous state funding and a high level of political

support, population activities in the apartheid era lacked legitimacy among Blacks. Neither the National Family Planning Programme nor the Population Development Programme was able to put forward a convincing case for race-specific fertility control in the context of political alienation and socioeconomic deprivation experienced by Blacks in the country.

Negotiating a new national population policy

During the advanced stage of political negations in early 1990s, the Population Development Programme took deliberate steps to place population issues on the national agenda. The Africa National Congress and a number of other democratic movements in the early 1990s were involved in discussions about population policy primarily with an interest in reproductive health, empowerment of women and equitable distribution of socio-economic resources in the country.

Paradoxically, the high level of commitment to population activities that characterized the last apartheid government was conspicuously absent in the first post-apartheid government which adopted the national population policy in1998. This was mainly a result of three factors. First, influential anti-apartheid policy makers rejected a population policy in the form it was designed and implemented by past apartheid governments. Secondly, by the middle of the 1990s, fertility decline in South Africa had reached a stage where it was not expected to stall or reverse in the foreseeable future. Thirdly, a concern about the population growth rate in South Africa was tempered by the presumed short-term devastating impacts of the AIDS epidemic.

The 1998 National Population Policy

A typical population policy in a developing country is designed to encourage a reduction in the rate of growth of a national population using the narrow instrument of family planning. As a product of delicate political and policy compromises of the period in which it was produced, the 1998 Population Policy of South Africa does not follow this model. Many new policy makers in the first post-apartheid government did not see a need for a national population policy partly because they did not wish to be associated with the negative image that population control programmes acquired in the apartheid era. At the same time, the new post-apartheid state did not wish to see a dent on its regained status as a member of the international community by policy inaction in an area (population policy) that appeared to command a consensus in the family of nations.

In the end, the final version of the 1998 policy eliminates demographic targets but emphasizes the inter-linkages of population factors and other aspects of development. It contains four broad sections that present (i) the rationale and approach of the government in population matters, (ii) a description of the population and human development profile of South Africa, (iii) the vision, goal, concerns, objectives and strategy for the population policy, and (iv) the institu-

tional framework for implementing, monitoring and evaluating the policy, including the roles of various government departments, private sector partners and the civil society. Its stated objective is:

"To enhance the quality of life of the people through,

(i) systematic integration of population factors into all policies and, programmes and strategies at all levels and within all sectors and institutions of governments;

(ii) developing and implementing a coordinated, multi-sectoral, interdisciplinary and integrated approach in designing and executing programmes and intervention that impact on manor national population concerns;

(iii) making available reliable and up-to-date information on the population and human development to inform policy making and programme design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation at all levels and in all sectors." (Department of Welfare, 1998)

Means to achieve its objectives include a list of strategies under broad areas that include capacity building for integrating population and development planning, population advocacy, poverty reduction, sustainable environment, health, mortality and fertility, gender, women and children, education, employment, migration, urbanization, data collection and research. A national action plan is envisaged to contain detailed specifications of activities and responsibilities. The policy apparently plays down the scale of resources needed for its implementation, presumably in the belief that its activities in various sectors will be funded as part of regular budget allocations to government departments.

Since 1998, programmes of the national Population Policy have been implemented at the national and provincial levels. The National Population Unit (NPU), a Chief Directorate in the Department of Social Development is responsible for implementation at the national level. Population activities in the provinces are implemented by provincial population units (PPUs)which, in most cases, operate as directorates in provincial departments of social development. Both the National Population Unit and the Provincial Population Units have implemented several population-related projects in advocacy, capacity development, poverty relief, AIDS and reproductive health in the provinces and wider region of Southern Africa. A number of these projects were implemented as part of the work programmes of their specific departments. Others were implemented in collaboration with external departments and a wide range of local and interna-

tional partners.

A major development in social policy that has important implications for a population policy in South Africa is the establishment of a social security system that is similar to the model in some more economically developed countries of the world. The current system of social grant targets poor households and individuals including children, older persons and people with disabilities. How key population factors of fertility, mortality and migration are reacting to this system of social protection is yet to be fully assessed. A recent study (Makiwane, 2010) found that contrary to popular perceptions, implementation of the Child Support Grant did not result in a rise in the rate of teenage fertility in the country. There is currently little empirical information about the demographic responses to other types of social assistance that are implemented within the broad framework of social policy in the past fifteen years in South Africa.

An integrated perspective

The current population policy of South Africa adopts an integrated perspective on population and development activities which is not well-understood by many planners and programme managers. In South Africa, the thrust of the concept is explicit consideration of demographic structures, patterns and trends in the formulation of policies and strategy for achieving development goals and objectives.

Demographic components that are relevant for an integrated approach to development planning and implementation include population size and structure, population growth, fertility, mortality and migration. These factors affect and are affected by other dimensions of the society in ways that must be carefully understood and incorporated into policies and plans. Some form of integration (e.g., using population statistics to plan and evaluate programmes) is easier and more widely practised especially in the central government. A more complex task involves the incorporation of demographic dynamics as concrete inputs in major development policies and interventions. This task also involves determining and planning ahead for possible demographic impacts of key national, provincial and district policies and programmes.

Assessing the performance of the national population policy

Methodological issues about a full-fledged evaluation of the national population policy do not fall within the scope of this report. An exercise of that magnitude will necessarily require innovative and contextually appropriate techniques that are able to assess the policy's achievements and challenges. A number of established techniques were developed in the heyday of family planning programmes when each dollar spent was accounted for in terms of the number of births it averted in a target country. Clearly, this is not a suitable approach for South Africa. It has been pointed out that South Africa is among the few developing

countries that have moved beyond a neo-Malthusian perspective on population policy and programmes. This change in policy perspective was a major factor in how the policy was implemented in the past ten years. Without conceptual and analytical innovations that match the new perspective of the policy, essential dimensions of its performances are most likely to be missed in evaluations and reviews.

The role of international development assistance

In comparative terms, international funds have not played a major role in population programmes in South Africa. Based on its demographic and economic profile, South Africa is not considered a high priority country for population funds. Development assistance in population has since the early 1990s adopted a non-conspicuous approach to population activities in the country. Few if any major multi-lateral and bi-lateral agencies support direct population control activities in South Africa today. International assistance for population activities in the country usually takes the form of support for other areas of development challenge such as health, education, poverty relief and empowerment of women that are indirectly related to population dynamics.

The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) supports government and private sector projects with direct and indirect links to population issues. The first UNFPA country programme covered the period from the re-admission of South Africa into the international community to 2001. During this period the UNFPA cautiously studied the country in order to determine how to relate to population debates and policy directions. The organization subsequently supported the development of technical skills in population analysis and integrating population factors into development plans. Its programme of work (2007-2010) provides support in the areas of HIV and AID, gender and integration of population issues in development policies and programmes.

THE EASTERN CAPE PROVINCE

The Eastern Cape Province is situated in the south eastern part of South Africa. In land area, it is the second largest province after Northern Cape. With an area of 169 580 km^2 the Eastern Cape Province represents 13.9% of the land mass of South Africa. District municipalities in the province are Alfred Nzo, Amathole, Cacadu, Chris Hani, Nelson Mandela Bay Metropolitan and Ukhahlamba.

Table 1.1 shows different parts of the region that are constituted into current district municipalities. Most parts of the former homeland of Transkei falls under current O. R. Tambo and UKhahlamba districts. Some parts of the former Transkei are also incorporated into the district municipalities of Alfred Nzo, Amathole and Chris Hani. The bulk of former homeland of Ciskei is incorpo-

rated into the district of Amathole. The Cacadu District Municipality incorporates parts of the former Cape Provincial Administration on the west coast. The Port Elizabeth metropolitan area constitutes the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan District.

Most people in the province speak Xhosa as their home language. Other first or home languages in the province are Afrikaans (9%) and English (4%). A small minority 4% speak other languages. In 2001, the majority of the provincial population (87.1%) identified themselves as Christians. Others identified with Judaism (0.1%), African traditional religion (0.1%), Hinduism (0.1%), Islam (0.3%) and other religions (0.5%).

Table 1.1. Districts of the Eastern Cape Province

District	*Former area/part of area (before 1994)*
Alfred Nzo	Part of the former Transkei areas, bordering KwaZulu-Natal in the east and Lesotho in the north.
Amathole	Part of the former homeland areas of Ciskei and Transkei; part of former the Cape Provincial Administration (CPA) areas.
Cacadu	Part of the former Cape Provincial Administration on the west coast.
Chris Hani	Part of former Cape Provincial Administration areas of the Karoo in the west, as well as former Transkei areas in the east.
Nelson Mandela Metropolitan	The metropolitan area of Port Elizabeth.
O.R. Tambo	Mainly the former Transkei inland and Wild Coast areas.
Ukhahlamba	Part of the former Cape Provincial Administration areas of the Karoo and parts of the former Transkei in the north-east.

Historical political economy of the provincial demography

An understanding of how successive colonial and apartheid authorities related to this region and the socio-economic outcomes provide useful insights into the forces that shaped the contemporary demography of the province. It is not our aim here to undertake direct or detailed historical, economic or political analysis of the province. Selected issues that incorporate these areas are highlighted only as illustrations of the importance of a wider social environment for the demographic patterns and trends in the present Eastern Cape Province.

One of the past experiences that had major impacts on the population profile of the Eastern Cape is the practice of labour reserve. The practice of labour reserve started in the early stages of colonial rule as part of an economic strategy but was gradually institutionalized especially in the grand apartheid era. Earlier in the late nineteenth century, South Africa was separated into a mainland

"White" area and the tribal homelands. After a long and fierce resistance that lasted for more than a century (see Turok, 2005; Pieterse, 2007), the Pondoland succumbed to British rule, and the Eastern Cape was eventually annexed by the Cape Colony in 1894. Early in its administration of the area, the colonial authorities set aside the Eastern Cape as a labour reserve that was indirectly ruled by White magistrates through tribal authorities.

The discovery of gold in late 1800s intensified the need for labour especially in the newly discovered mines. In the early years of industrialization, Black labour was drawn away from White agriculture to the mines and railways where it attracted better wages. As a rule, the British used indigenous labour, and for decades, the Transkei area of the Eastern Cape was the main supplier of mine workers.

In 1894, the Glen Grey Act forced many Africans out of the land, thereby making them dependent on the colonial cash economy. Various direct and indirect policy instruments were used to force Black residents of the reserves to work as circulatory migrants in the cities. Black households were required to pay hut and poll taxes in cash to colonial magistrates and rural Black farmers were forced to reduce the number of stock in their hold supposedly as a way of reducing overgrazing in the reserves. Eventually, the colonial authorities introduced subsidies to commercial White farmers which destroyed the market viability of peasant farming. The reserve population in active working ages were left with no option than to seek alternative forms of employment in the urban areas.

The 1913 Native Land Act formally established the reserves. In this infamous Act, only 7% of the South African land area was set aside as the reserve areas. In 1936 the Native Trust and Land Act and other pieces of legislation were introduced with an aim to curb the migration of rural population to urban areas. When the Nationalist party assumed power, it resolved to curtail a rising trend in Black urbanization by pushing more people into the reserves and by strengthening pass laws and implementing forced removal of Blacks from other areas to the homelands. Although a stated aim of "betterment" schemes was to achieve better use of rural land, it served to make the reserves better able to absorb a growing population of landless and jobless Blacks.

As a way of reducing the cost of labour, workers were required to be permanently resident in the reserves. This rule was enforced partly by not allowing labourers to take their families into the cities. Most of the male labour migrants, especially mine workers, were accommodated in ethnically segregated compounds in the cities and labour contracts were not permanent. This gave rise to a practice of labour migration with workers oscillating annually between the reserves and South African major cities. For decades, Transkei in the Eastern Cape was the main supplier of mine workers in South Africa.

Far into the apartheid regime, the authorities promulgated two separate

reserves in the Eastern Cape. Transkei was seen as an ideal African "homeland" because it had the shortest experience of direct integration in the greater South Africa, and unlike most homelands, formed an uninterrupted patch of land. It was proclaimed a "self-governing" territory in 1963 and an "independent state" in 1976. Ciskei was declared "independent" in 1981. As part of the process of consolidating the homelands, many Africans were moved from "black spots" in the Cape and relocated in either of these homeland areas.

The imposition of labour reserve status on Blacks over a protracted period of time had important implications for economic production relations, family organization, health and the environment. Aspects of these implications have been extensively researched by social and economic historians for South Africa in general and specifically for the Eastern Cape region. For a long time in the South African history, the population profile of Black areas was almost entirely a reflection of the demographic responses to the crisis of living in the reserves in a racially segregated society. Some of these features that have been highlighted by demographers include a high rate of mortality, a massive volume of out-migration of males in the active working age group, a radical imbalance in age-specific sex ratios in favour of women, a high-rate of female-headed households, a high rate of non-marital childbearing and teenage childbearing (see Chimere-Dan,1992,1994). Some of these and other demographic reactions to the crises of apartheid were complex and sometimes counter intuitive. For instance, using information that was collected from the former Transkei homeland in the early 1990s, Chimere-Dan (2007) discovered a reasonably high level of male involvement in aspects of decision-making in the reproductive health of married people.

Past population activities in the province

During the years of direct population control activities (1970s and 1980s), contraceptive services were provided mainly within the formal health services. Family planning services and population campaigns targeted Blacks in the former homelands and other parts of the country. The advocacy component of the Population Development Programme was initially centralized. When the process of political negotiations gained momentum in the early 1990s, regions and homelands were gradually permitted to contribute ideas for change in the national policy and activities in population. Former homelands and other parts of the country experienced this later stage of the apartheid population programme (PDP) somewhat differently. Van Zuydam (1994) documented in some detail the experiences of the former Eastern Cape region the process of negotiating a transformation of population programmes. Over the years, it has become clear that the development challenges in the Eastern Cape and other parts of the country are rooted in historical relations of power and production that could not be comprehensively and effectively addressed by vertical programmes of fertility reduction as was attempted by past population programmes in South Africa.

Contemporary development challenges and strategy

The Eastern Cape Province is among the poorest areas in the country. The socio-economic profile in the province reflects the negative impacts of historical policies and institutionalized patterns of privilege and deprivation. Most development indicators show a very low socioeconomic status in the province relative to other parts of South Africa. There are also big racial and spatial differences in levels of income, urbanization and industrialization in the province.

The Provincial Growth and Development Plan (2004-2014) summarizes the major development challenges in the province. These problems include widespread and deep-rooted poverty, sub-optimal economic growth, unemployment, wide economic inequalities, fragmentation of the labour force, spatial fragmentation, constraints on the provincial expenditure, HIV/AIDS and delivery failures. The provincial government is committed to a holistic and multi-dimensional fight against poverty. The current PGDP aims to achieve an economic growth rate of between 5% and 8% per annum, halve the unemployment rate and reduce the number of households living below the poverty line by 60% to 80% by 2014. Other areas with specific delivery targets in the PGDP (2004-2014) include a reduction in hunger, an increase in food sufficiency, provision of universal primary education, improvement in literacy, elimination of gender disparity in education and employment, reductions in under five and mortality rates, halting and reversing the spread of HIV, AIDS and tuberculosis, provision of clean water and elimination of sanitation problems.

AN OVERVIEW

Underneath a seemingly straightforward task of updating our knowledge about the population profile of the province lie complex issues concerning the place of the population factor in development that cannot be ignored. In an increasingly globalized world, there is increasing doubt about the economic wisdom of national population policies that narrowly target fertility reduction, especially in countries that have made encouraging progress in aspects of social development and demographic transition. As an exercise of state powers in a private and personal domain of human behaviour, a population policy that aims to reduce the rate of growth of human numbers attracts multiple controversies about human right, morality, politics, race and ethnicity. Some of these problems are captured in the historical and contemporary experiences of the country and the Eastern Cape Province, and are highlighted in this chapter.

On a closer look, apparently bland demographic statistics tell deep and complex stories about history, politics, economy, culture and development challenges. Regrettably, analyses that incorporate these critical correlates are rare in the South African demographic literature. Although chapter two did not aim

to fill this vacuum in demographic literature for the province, it updates the basic demographic profile as an empirical basis for better understanding of the historical, political and economic dimensions of population dynamics in the Eastern Cape.

The levels and trends of fertility are central in discussions about the relationship between population and development. Estimates and analysis of fertility and patterns of childbearing in the province are summarized in chapter three. Related issues that are highlighted include non-marital fertility, teenage childbearing and proximate determinants of fertility. The empirical information in this chapter serves as a background for developing correct perspectives and development interventions that incorporate population dynamics in the province.

The health profile of the provincial population is lower that the experience of most other parts of the country. In the past one and half decades, the provincial and national governments as well as a number of international and local partnerships have invested in health development in the province. Chapter four examines the health status of the provincial population with a view to highlight possible areas of improvements.

Past polices restricted the movement and settlement patterns of people in the Eastern Cape region and in other parts of the country. This resulted in gender-selective and circulatory migration patterns that impacted negatively on family and social development in the province and other parts of the country. Chapter five examines features of population movement that are emerging in the province in the past one and half decades.

Without going into conceptual or theoretical debates, chapter six approaches the debate about the relationship between population and poverty only indirectly by examining some widely-accepted labour market indicators and other measures in the province. Changes in the family, households and inter-generational relations are addressed in chapter seven. Issue of interest include household composition and size, the living arrangements, young people, older people, inter-generational relations and patterns of material support in the household. Chapter eight does not pretend to cover the vast terrain of gender issues in population and development in the province. Areas highlighted in this chapter include gender and population distribution, migration, mortality, reproductive decision-making, and demographic aspects of gender and economic activities.

Past population programmes saw female education primarily as a vehicle for achieving a decline in fertility. In the new democratic society, educational policies and programmes of national and provincial governments are not pursued merely as indirect means for reducing the rate of population growth. Chapter nine highlights aspects of the educational profile and challenges in the province within the context of debates about the place of education in population and development challenges.

The population factor is at the centre of environment concerns and debates.

Chapter ten takes a localized perspective on the relationship between the environment and population. It directs attention to categories of environmental problems experienced by households in the challenges of improving the quality of life for people in the province.

CONCLUSION

The population question in the province and other parts of South Africa is far more complex than the simplistic neo-Malthusian concerns and approaches that shaped policies and intervention in many developing countries over the past 30 years. An examination of the interactions of population dynamics and development in South Africa highlight some issues that are not seriously considered in the design and implementation of population programmes in many less-developed countries of the world today.

The experiences of the Eastern Cape Province and other parts of the country highlight several themes in the relationship between population and development that are addressed in different chapters of this report with a recurrent point of emphasis. For population analysis to serve as a useful guide in the planning, implementation and evaluation of development programmes, it must incorporate a fuller range of historical, socioeconomic and political factors than are reflected in demographic characteristics. This is particularly true for the Eastern Cape Province that remains a pocket of relative poverty in a growing modern economy currently, and struggles to break free from structural economic deprivations of the past. In this regard, a number of the issues raised by the provincial demography could, with reasonable qualifications, apply to wider national and regional contexts with potentially profound policy implications.

Population Characteristics

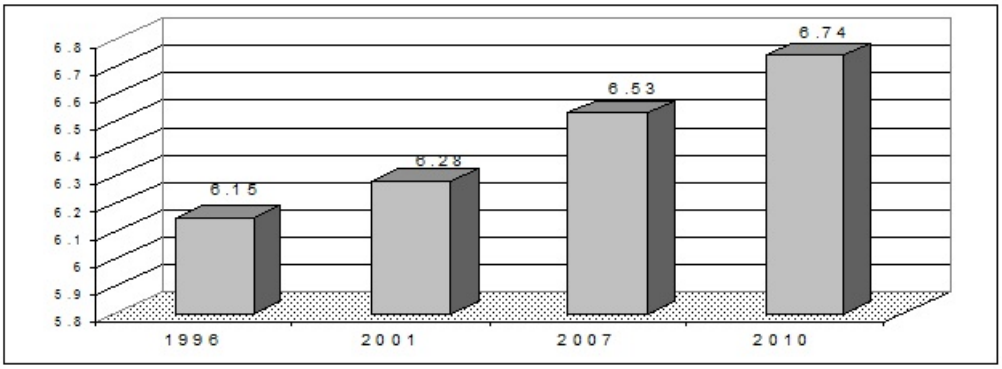
2

This chapter highlights major features of the population with specific reference to size, age, sex composition, population group, marital status, the youth and older people in the province. Strictly speaking, data on the demographic and related characteristics of the province are available only from the middle of the 1990s when the nine provinces were formally established. There is however, a longer history of censuses for various sections of the population. For instance, the former sub-region of Transkei had usable census data by the beginning of the 20th century. Similarly, parts of the province that were in the old Cape Provincial Administration and the former homeland of Ciskei had sets of demographic data that date back to various periods in the past.

POPULATION SIZE AND COMPOSITION

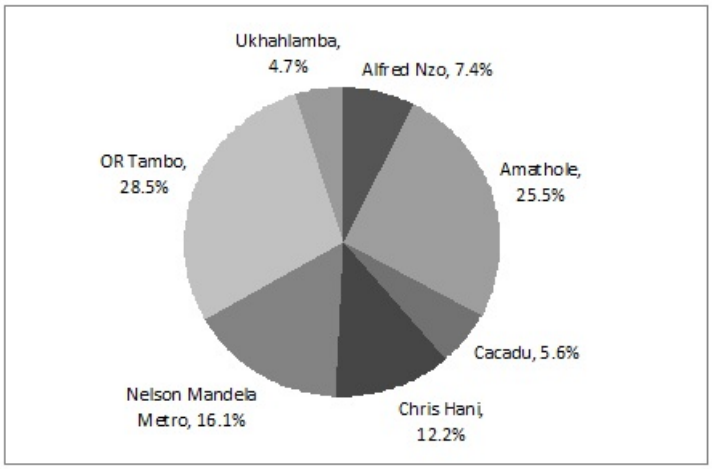
The Eastern Cape is the third most populous province in South Africa following Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal. Its share of the national population was 15.5% in 1996 but has progressively declined to an estimated 13.5% in 2010. The size of the provincial population was 6.15 million in 1996. It increased to 6.28 million in 2001. More recent official estimates (STATSSA, 2007, 2010) suggest population sizes of 6.53 million and 6.74 million for 2007 and 2010 respectively (Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1 Eastern Cape population 1996-2010



The O.R. Tambo District Municipality had the biggest share of the population in 2001 and 2007 (26.7% and 28.5% respectively). Figure 2.2 shows that Amathole District Municipality had the second biggest share of the provincial population in the two years (26.5% and 25.5% in 2001 and 2007 respectively).

Figure 2.2. Percent distribution of provincial population, 2007



Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality had the third biggest share of the provincial population with just over a million people in 2001 and 2007. Chris Hani District Municipality had a population sizes of 809.6 thousand in 2001 and 798.6 thousand in 2007. Three district municipalities had relatively small populations of under half a million each in 2007. There were 392 179 and 479 295 people in Alfred Nzo District Municipality in 2001 and 2007 respectively. Cacadu District Municipality had 388 206 and 363 493 people in 2001 and 2007 respectively. Ukhahlamba District Municipality had the smallest population; it contributed only 5.4% of the provincial population in 2001 and 4.5% in 2007.

Table 2.1 Population size of district municipalities, 2001 and 2007

	Population			
District municipality	2001	%	2007	%
Alfred Nzo	392 179	6.2	479 295	7.3
Amathole	1 664 483	26.5	1 664 260	25.5
Cacadu	388 206	6.2	363 493	5.6
Chris Hani	809 581	12.9	798 600	12.2
Nelson Mandela	1 005 779	16.0	1 050 927	16.1
O.R. Tambo	1 676 592	26.7	1 862 214	28.5
Ukhahlamba	341 832	5.4	308 364	4.7
Eastern Cape Province	6 278 651	100	6 527 747	100

Table 2.2 shows each local municipality as a percent of its district municipality. The contribution of each local municipality to the provincial population, and change in its size from 2001 to 2007 are also shown. Alfred Nzo was almost equally distributed among its two local municipalities (54.0% in Matatiele and 46.0% in Umzimvubu). Buffalo City had the biggest share of the population in Amathole District Municipality (43.5%). Other sizeable local municipalities in Amathole include Mnquma (17.9%) and Mbhashe (15.7%). All other local municipalities in the district had less than ten percent of its population in 2007—7.8% in Nkonkobe, 6.8% in Amahlathi, 5.0% in Ngqushwa, 2.0% in Great Kei and 1.3% in Nxuba.

In Cacadu District Municipality, Kouga and Makana local municipalities were relatively bigger than others in 2007(20.2%and 19.3% respectively). Ndlambe and Kou-Kamma also had sizeable population sizes (12.8% and 11.2% respectively in 2007). The local districts of Sunday's River Valley and Blue Crane Route had 9.6% and 7.0% respectively of the population of the Cacadu District Municipality. Baviaans had 3.5% and Camdeboo had only 1.5% of the district population in 2007.

Two local municipalities in Chris Hani District Municipality, Lukanji and Ntsika Yetu were bigger than others (26.1% and 23.2% respectively in 2007). The population size of Engcobo (17.1%) and Emalahleni (15.7%) were relatively sizeable in 2007. Sakhisizwe and Inxuba Yethu were fairly similar in population size in that year (6.7% and 6.1% respectively of the population size of district municipality). The share of the district population by Tsolowana (3.5%) and Ntsika Yethu (1.2%) were small.

King Sabata Dalyndyebo local municipality is the biggest local municipality in the O.R. Tambo District Municipality. It had 36.6% of the district population in 2007. Nyandeni (16.9%), Mbizana (15.0%) and Quakeni (15.0%) had significant shares of the district population in 2007. The contributions of Port St. Johns (8.9%) and Ntabankulu to the size of the district municipality were less than ten percent each (8.9% and 7.6% respectively). In Ukhahlamba District Municipality, Elundini and Senqu are fairly big. They constituted 40.1% and 38.3% respectively of the district population in 2007. Gariep local municipality contributed only 7.7% of the district population.

A noteworthy feature of the districts and local municipalities in Table 2.2 is the pattern of change in the size of their population from 2001 and 2007. The municipal districts of Alfred Nzo, O.R. Tambo and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality experienced an increase in their contributions to the size of the provincial population from 2001 to 2007. The biggest increase in population size from 2001 to 2007 (33.2%) was recorded by Great Kei Local Municipality. Other local municipalities that experienced an increase of more than ten percent in the period include Matatiele (24.8%), Kou-Kuma (15.9%), Maletswai (12.9%), Nyandeni (12.7%), Mbizana (12.2%), Lukanji (11.3%), Port St. Johns (11.0%) and Umzimvubu (10.5%).

Most local municipalities in Cacadu, Chris Hani and Ukhahlamba district municipalities and three in Amathole (Amahlathi, Ngqushwa and Nxuba) experienced a decline in their share of the provincial population from 2001 to 2007. Big declines were recorded by Inkwanca (-41.7%), Blue Crane Route (-36.9%) and Gariep (-32.1%) although these local municipalities have very small populations.

These changes are the net effects of a number of factors including the rates of natural increases in the population, the patterns of population movement and the urban/metropolitan status of each local municipality. Other contributing factors include the existing and potential economic infrastructure of a local municipality.

Table 2.2. Population of local municipalities, 2007

	% of district pop 2007	% of provincial pop 2007	% change 2001-2007
Alfred Nzo	100	7.3	+18.2
Matatiele	54.0	4.0	+24.8
Umzimvubu	46.0	3.4	+10.5
Amathole	100	25.5	0.0
Mbashe	15.7	4.0	+ 2.6
Mnquma	17.9	4.6	+ 3.8
Great Kei	2.0	0.5	+33.2
Amahlathi	6.8	1.7	- 23.0
Buffalo City	43.5	11.1	+ 3.0
Ngqushwa	5.0	1.3	- 1.4
Nkonkobe	7.8	2.0	+ 1.1
Nxuba	1.3	0.3	- 15.6
Cacadu	100	5.6	- 6.8
Baviaans	3.8	0.2	- 9.9
Blue Crane Route	7.0	0.4	- 36.9
Camdeboo	1.5	0.6	- 6.3
Ikwezi	3.2	0.2	+10.0
Kou-Kamma	11.2	0.6	+15.9
Kouga	20.2	1.1	+ 3.5
Makana	19.3	1.1	- 7.5
Ndlambe	12.8	0.7	+18.0
Sunday's River Valley	9.6	0.5	- 14.1
Chris Hani	100	12.2	- 1.4
Emalahleni	15.7	1.9	- 0.1
Engcobo	17.1	2.1	- 9.1
Inkwanca	1.8	0.2	- 41.7
Intsika Yethu	23.2	2.8	+ 5.5
Inxuba Yethemba	6.1	0.7	- 24.6
Lunkanji	26.1	3.2	+11.3
Sakhisizwe	6.7	0.8	- 17.5
Tsolwana	3.5	0.4	- 17.6
Nelson Mandela	100	16.1	+ 4.3
O.R. Tambo	100	28.5	+10.0
King Sabata Dalindyebo	36.6	6.8	+ 6.4
Mbizana	15.0	4.3	+12.2
Ntabankulu	7.6	2.2	+ 3.9
Nyandeni	16.9	4.8	+12.7
Port St. Johns	8.9	2.5	+11.0
Quakeni	15.0	4.3	+ 9.0
Ukhahlamba	100	4.7	- 10.9
Elundini	40.1	1.9	- 11.2
Gariep	7.7	0.4	- 32.1
Maletswai	13.9	0.7	+12.9
Senqu	38.3	1.8	- 14.8
All Eastern Cape	-	100	+ 4.0

AGE AND SEX DISTRIBUTION

The age and sex structure impacts on and is impacted by the major demographic processes of fertility, migration and mortality. These impacts vary in magnitude and timing. For instance, migration tends to have the most immediate impacts, followed by those of mortality. Changes in fertility generally produce the biggest change that eventually reflects in each age group over a long time.

Age distribution

Figure 2.3 shows the distribution of the provincial population in four broad age groups. People in the youngest age group contributed 12.0% percent of the total population in 1996. Their contribution fell to 10.2% in 2001 and 10.6% in 2007. Table 2.4 shows that Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality, Amathole and Cacadu district municipalities had relatively smaller shares of the population in the 0-4 age group than other district municipalities. The absolute size of the population in the 0-4 age group is determined mainly by the pattern of fertility in the past five years.

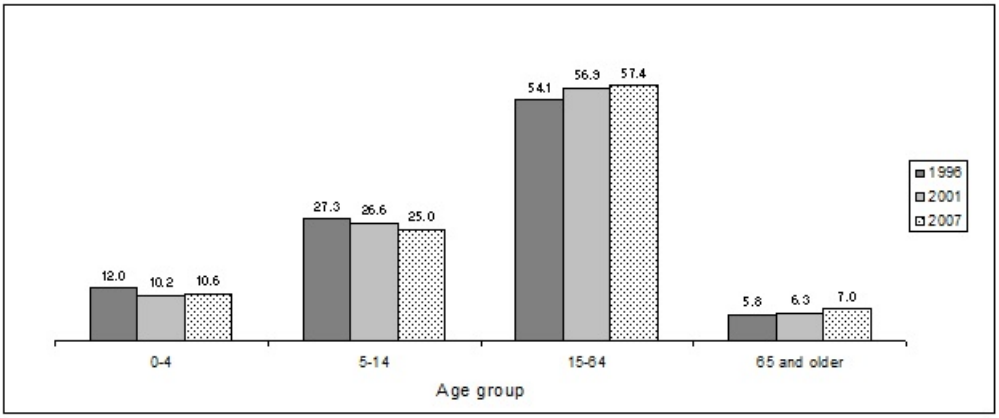
The share of the provincial population in the 5-14 age group declined from 27.3% in 1996 to 26.6% in 2001 and 25.0% in 2007. Change in the size of the 5-14 age group is affected by recent fertility patterns, fostering and parental residence among other factors. In addition, migration due to schooling, especially for those in the upper end of this age group could be a contributing factor in some local municipalities.

The percent of the population in this age group in 2007 was below twenty in Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality (16.6%) and Cacadu District Municipality (18.6%). On the other hand it is quite high in O.R. Tambo and Alfred Nzo district municipalities (30.7% and 30.6% respectively). In Chris Hani and Ukhahlamba district municipalities, 27.2% of the population was aged 5-14 years in 2007. The equivalent figure for Amathole District Municipality is 22.4%.

The size of the population aged 15-64 years increased from 54.1% in 1996 to 56.9% in 2001 and to 57.4% in 2007. More than half of the people in all district municipalities were aged 15-64 in 2007. The proportion was highest in Nelson Mandela Metro area (69.5%). This was followed by Cacadu District Municipality (64.4%) and Chris Hani District Municipality (53.1%). There is no noticeable difference in the proportions in Alfred Nzo, O.R. Tambo and Ukhahlamba (51%, 50.9% and 50.9% respectively).

The percent of the population aged 65 year or older increased from 5.8 in 1996 to 6.3 in 2001 to 7.0 in 2007. The size of this population ranged from 4.9% in Kou-Kamma local municipality to 12.6% in Ngqushwa local municipality. Local municipalities with relatively high proportions of older people include Ndlambe (11.1%), Emalahleni (10.8%), Tsolowana (10.2%) and Nkonkobe (10.0%).

Figure 2.3. Distribution of the population in broad ages, 1996-2010



Differences in age

The age distributions of the Eastern Cape population in 1996, 2001 and 2007 are summarized in Figure 2.4. A small decline in the proportion under the age of 15 years is observed from 1996 to 2007 (Figure 2.4). Beyond the age of 14 years, the proportions in 2007 are marginally bigger than the proportions in each age group in 1996 although the differences appear negligible except in the 45-49 and 50-54 age groups. The pattern of age distribution in 2001 falls roughly between the two poles– 1996 and 2007.

Figure 2.4. Age distribution of the population, 1996-2007

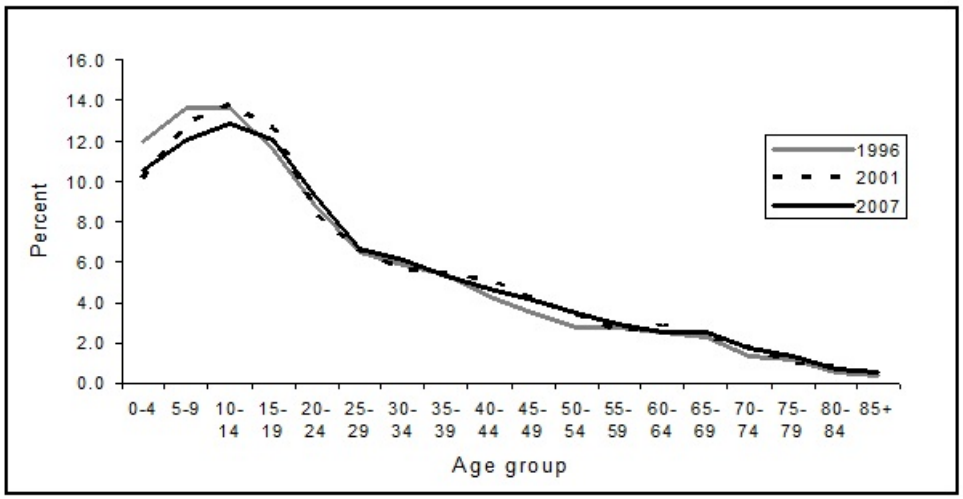


Table 2.3. Percent of the population in broad age groups, 2007

	Age group			
	0-4	5-14	15-64	65 +
Alfred Nzo	11.9	30.6	51.0	7.7
Matatiele	11.6	31.0	51.2	6.2
Umzimvubu	12.3	30.2	50.6	6.9
Amathole	9.7	22.4	60.3	7.6
Mbhashe	11.8	31.6	47.8	8.8
Mnquma	10.4	26.9	54.8	8.0
Great Kei	9.5	18.2	63.7	8.6
Amahlathi	9.0	21.9	59.3	9.8
Buffalo City	8.7	18.1	67.5	5.7
Ngqushwa	9.7	21.7	55.9	12.7
Nkonkobe	9.8	19.8	60.4	10.0
Nxuba	10.0	19.6	61.7	8.7
Cacadu	9.3	18.6	64.4	7.7
Baviaans	11.3	21.8	60.7	6.3
Blue Crane Route	8.7	19.6	62.4	9.4
Camdeboo	9.6	22.2	60.7	7.5
Ikwezi	12.6	23.6	58.8	5.0
Kou-Kamma	10.6	21.4	63.1	4.9
Kouga	9.5	15.5	66.4	8.6
Makana	8.4	17.5	67.3	6.8
Ndlambe	8.1	17.3	63.5	11.1
Sunday's River Valley	9.1	18.5	65.5	6.8
Chris Hani	10.7	27.2	53.1	9.0
Emalahleni	11.5	27.9	49.8	10.8
Engcobo	12.2	31.6	47.5	8.7
Inkwanca	8.5	20.7	62.2	8.7
Intsika Yethu	11.1	30.8	47.9	10.2
Inxuba Yethemba	8.5	22.8	60.8	8.0
Lunkanji	10.2	23.1	59.5	7.2
Sakhisizwe	9.2	25.4	56.9	8.6
Tsolwana	9.6	23.4	57.2	9.7
Nelson Mandela	8.4	16.5	69.5	5.5
O.R. Tambo	12.4	30.7	50.9	6.0
King Sabata Dalindyebo	11.0	28.7	54.6	5.7
Mbizana	12.4	32.2	49.8	5.7
Ntabankulu	13.6	29.0	50.6	6.8
Nyandeni	12.7	31.9	49.7	5.7
Port St. Johns	13.8	34.0	46.5	5.8
Quakeni	13.3	31.8	49.8	5.2
Ukhahlamba	10.5	27.2	53.6	8.7
Elundini	11.2	29.5	50.6	8.7
Gariep	9.9	22.1	61.1	6.8
Maletswai	8.3	23.5	61.5	6.6
Senqu	10.7	27.0	52.4	9.8

Figure 2.5 shows the age and sex distribution of the provincial population in 1996, 2001 and 2007. The population pyramids show among other things, a transitional population with a shrinking base that most possibly indicates of a declining fertility.

The shapes of the population pyramids for district municipalities (Figure 2.6) show local populations at different stages of demographic transition. More specifically, the variations in the shapes of the population pyramids are indicative of the differential effects of change in fertility, mortality and migration on age and sex structure in the province. For instance, the population pyramid for the urbanized Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality shows relatively few

children and a large number of people in the active working ages. In contrast, O.R. Tambo, Ukhahlamba and to some extent Chris Hani district municipalities have relatively more children and young people under the age of 25 years. There are more people aged 70 years and older in the districts of Amathole and Cacadu than in others.

These and other differences in the age and sex structures are more graphically illustrated in the population pyramids of African, Coloureds, Indians and Whites in Figure 2.9.

Figure 2.5. Age and sex distribution of the population, 1996-2007

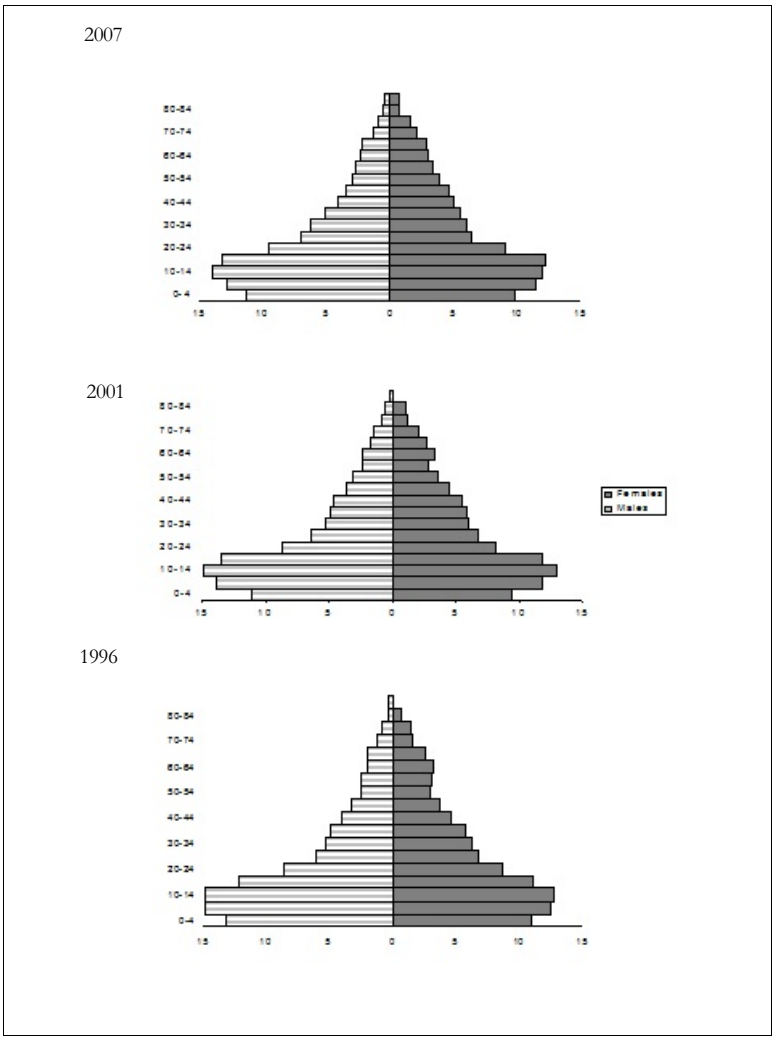
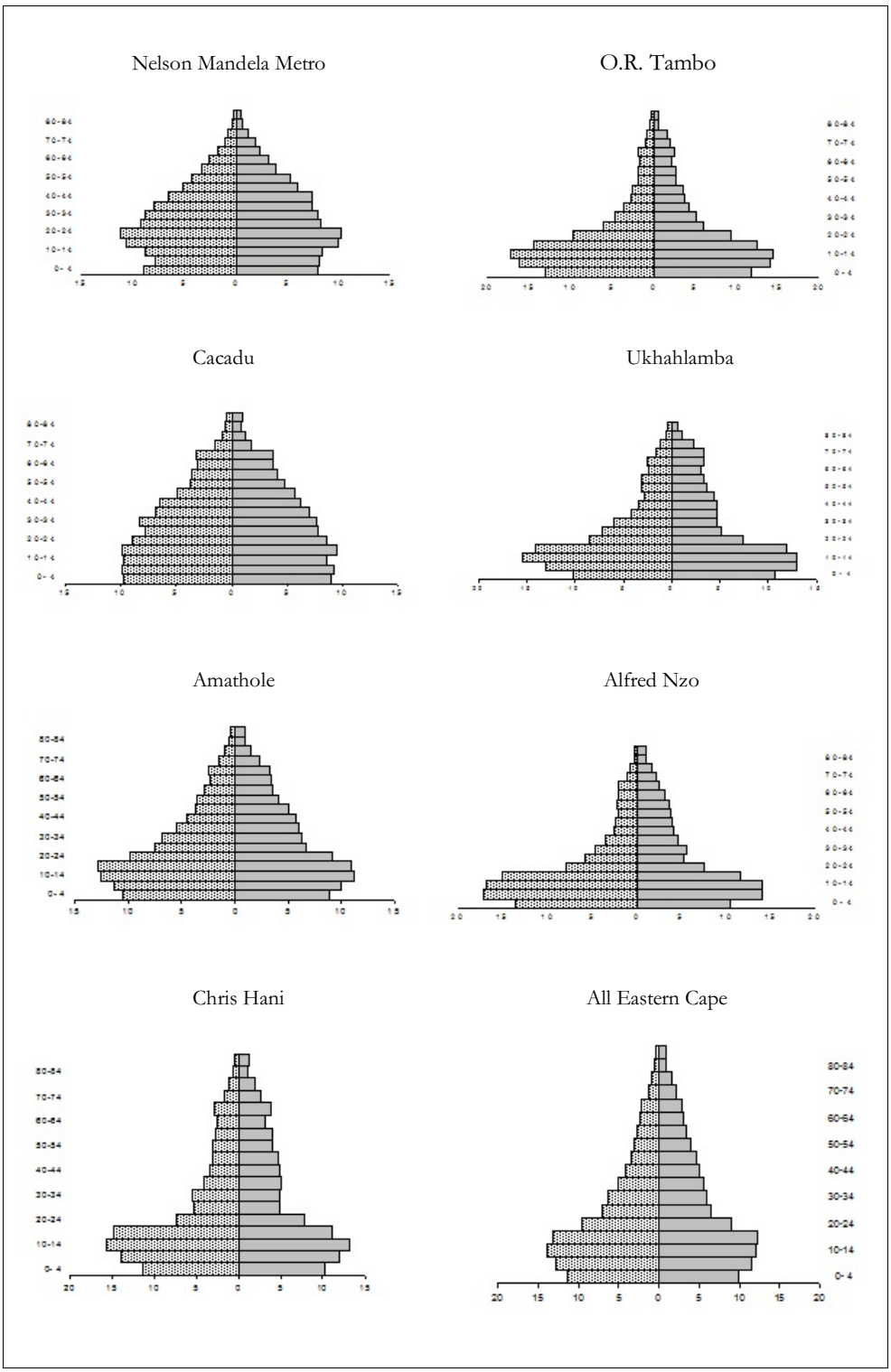


Figure 2.6. Population pyramid of district municipalities, 2007



Sex differences

Men and women are not equally distributed in the provincial population. Overall, females constituted 53% of the population in 2007. Figure 2.7 and Table 2.5 show roughly equal numbers of males and females before the age of twenty. From the age of 20, women outnumbered men with an increase in age. A gender imbalance in the population is particularly pronounced in the older ages. For instance, there was an average of 49 males for every 100 males aged 70 years or older in the province in 2007.

Figure 2.7 Sex ratios (males per 100 females), 2007

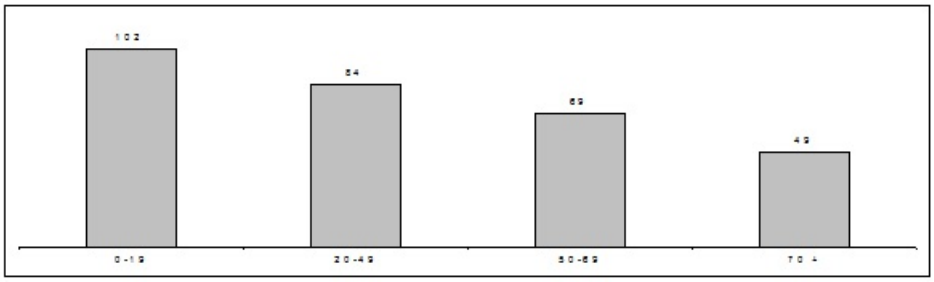


Table 2.4. Population numbers and sex ratios in five-year age groups, 2007

Age group	Males	Females	Sex ratio
0-4	346 393	343 488	1.00
5-9	394 755	395 594	0.99
10-14	427141	415 921	1.03
15-19	406 509	386 971	1.05
20-24	291 563	309 382	0.94
25-29	216 239	220 820	0.98
30-34	193 560	207 575	0.93
35-39	156 087	190 423	0.82
40-44	127 618	177 553	0.72
45-49	107 584	169 985	0.63
50-54	93 307	133 615	0.70
55-59	81 757	117 297	0.70
60-64	69 369	102 960	0.67
65-69	68 756	100 833	0.68
70-74	40 371	76 550	0.53
75-79	14 988	29 093	0.52
80-84	11 140	28 890	0.39
85 +	28 364	55 298	0.51

Table 2.5 shows the percent of the population who are females in four broad age groups in each district municipality. There are however differences in the proportions of men and women in different age groups in the municipalities. During 2007, females were slightly more than males in the youngest age group (0-4) in Alfred Nzo, Amathole and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality. The number of males and females were roughly equal in Cacadu, Chris Hani and O.R. Tambo district municipalities, but in Ukhahlamba, there were significantly more females. In the 5-14 age range, the number of males and females were about

equal in Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality but more females in Ukhahlamba. Males were more in all other districts. For the entire province, males were slightly more than women before the age of fifteen. Sex differences in the population were generally more pronounced in older age groups in all districts and local municipalities (see Table 2.5).

Table 2.5. Percent of the population females by age group, 2007

	Age group				
	0-4	5-14	15-64	65 +	All
Alfred Nzo	47.8	49.5	56.9	70.0	54.4
Matatiele	50.3	48.7	57.3	72.7	54.8
Umzimvubu	45.1	50.4	56.3	67.2	53.9
Amathole	48.3	49.7	53.3	63.2	52.7
Mbhashe	52.0	48.2	59.6	63.8	55.5
Mnquma	46.5	48.8	56.0	63.4	53.9
Great Kei	62.1	52.5	47.7	62.7	51.3
Amahlathi	50.7	50.7	52.1	63.8	52.8
Buffalo City	47.5	49.9	51.1	61.3	51.5
Ngqushwa	48.9	48.1	54.0	66.5	53.8
Nkonkobe	43.1	51.6	53.6	64.9	53.3
Nxuba	43.5	52.4	51.0	62.3	51.5
Cacadu	50.3	49.2	52.6	58.0	52.2
Baviaans	40.3	52.8	56.0	56.7	53.6
Blue Crane Route	49.1	50.9	51.6	64.7	52.5
Camdeboo	50.2	51.0	51.4	62.7	52.0
Ikwezi	55.1	48.0	57.0	63.3	55.0
Kou-Kamma	49.3	52.8	52.8	51.2	52.3
Kouga	55.7	45.1	51.9	56.7	51.6
Makana	48.0	52.2	54.7	57.1	53.9
Ndlambe	47.6	46.7	54.0	57.2	53.9
Sunday's River Valley	50.3	47.6	47.9	56.6	48.7
Chris Hani	50.7	49.2	54.2	63.7	53.3
Emalahleni	55.2	47.4	54.3	65.2	53.6
Engcobo	53.2	49.1	59.5	50.2	55.7
Inkwanca	56.8	43.8	49.5	64.0	50.2
Intsika Yethu	47.9	48.3	55.3	64.2	53.2
Inxuba Yethemba	49.7	55.5	53.4	54.4	53.7
Lunkanji	50.6	51.8	52.4	65.3	53.0
Sakhisizwe	46.9	46.1	49.9	64.6	49.9
Tsolwana	40.0	48.7	51.4	70.8	51.6
Nelson Mandela	48.3	50.7	50.8	60.9	51.1
O.R. Tambo	50.7	49.4	55.1	66.1	53.4
King Sabata Dalindyebo	49.3	49.3	55.7	65.3	53.7
Mbizana	49.8	50.1	55.7	69.5	53.9
Ntabankulu	49.3	48.1	54.5	68.3	52.9
Nyandeni	51.9	50.1	55.3	68.8	53.9
Port St. Johnson	50.2	49.9	55.7	63.1	53.9
Port St. Johns	50.2	49.9	55.7	63.1	53.4
Quakeni	52.7	49.1	53.5	66.6	52.7
Ukhahlamba	55.0	51.5	52.9	65.7	53.8
Elundini	52.4	49.8	53.7	65.0	53.4
Gariep	59.7	54.0	48.8	76.7	52.9
Maletswai	58.3	52.0	50.2	65.0	52.3
Senqu	56.1	52.8	54.1	65.0	55.0
Eastern Cape Province	49.8	49.7	53.5	64.0	52.9

POPULATION GROUPS

Africans constitute a majority of the population of the province. In 2007, 87.6% of people in the province were Africans; 7.5% were Coloureds and 4.7% were Whites. Only 0.3% of people in the province were Indians (Figure 2.8). Africans were in the majority in all but Cacadu District Municipality where they were 46.2%. Coloureds and Whites had significant shares (40.2% and 13.4% respectively (Table 2.9).

Figure 2.8. The size of population groups, 2007

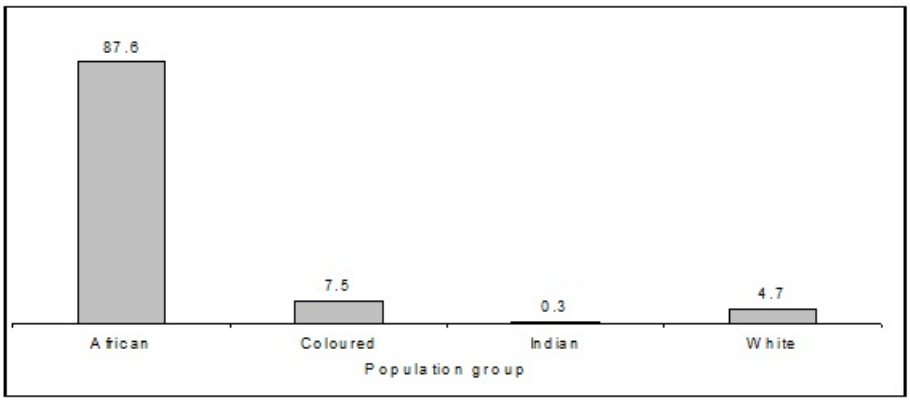


Table 2.6 Distribution of population groups in districts, 2007

District	Africa	Coloured	Indian	White
Alfred Nzo	99.2	0.5	0.1	0.3
Amathole	92.3	3.9	0.2	3.7
Cacadu	46.2	40.2	0.2	13.4
Chris Hani	95.3	2.8	0.1	1.8
Nelson Mandela	60.4	22.6	0.9	16.1
O.R. Tambo	99.5	0.3	0.1	0.1
Ukhahlamba	93.9	3.9	0.1	2.9
Eastern Cape Province	87.6	7.5	0.3	4.7

Differences in age and sex composition by population group in 2007 are summarized Figure 2.9 and in Table 2.7. Among Africans and Coloureds, males outnumbered females before the age of 15 years. From the age of 15 years, the reverse was the case; females outnumbered males. There were more Indian males than females in all but the oldest age group (65+). Among the Whites, there were more males than females only in the youngest age group.

These data show clear differences in demographic regimes among the population groups. Whites and Indians have experienced advanced levels of fertility and mortality decline for a longer time than Africans and Coloureds in the province.

Figure 2.9. Age and sex distribution of population groups, 2007

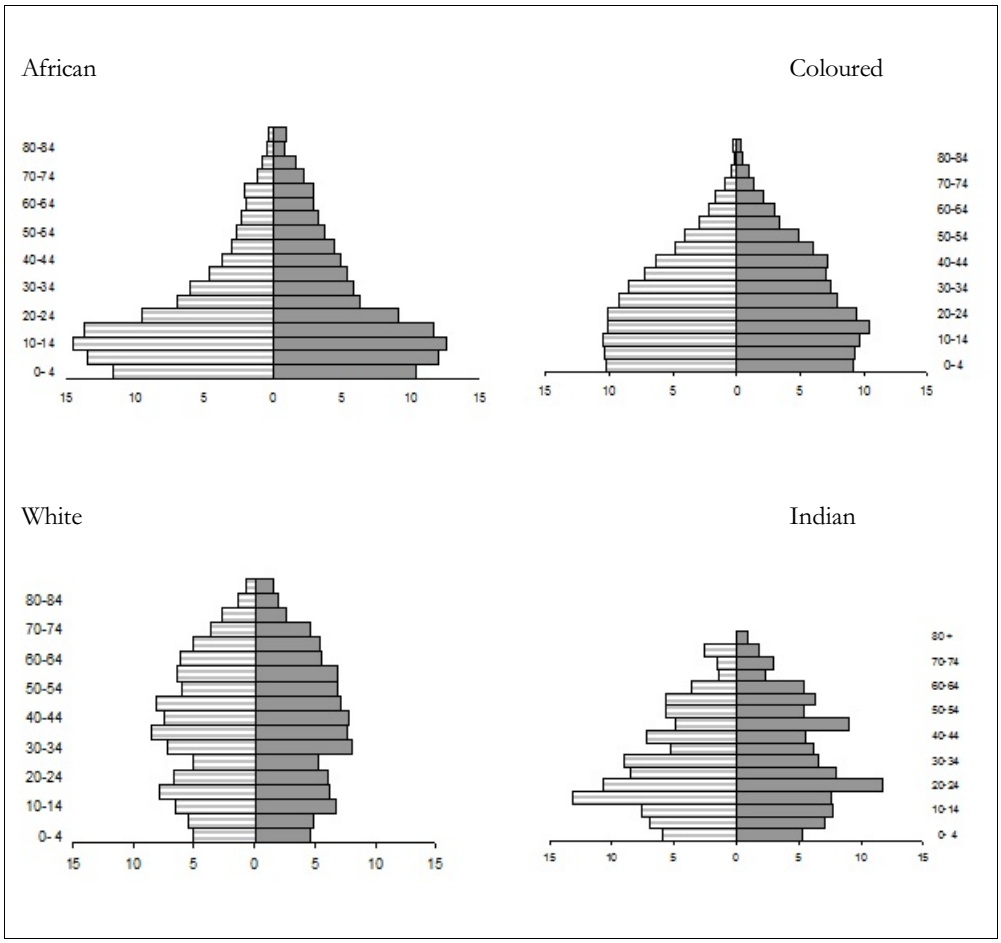


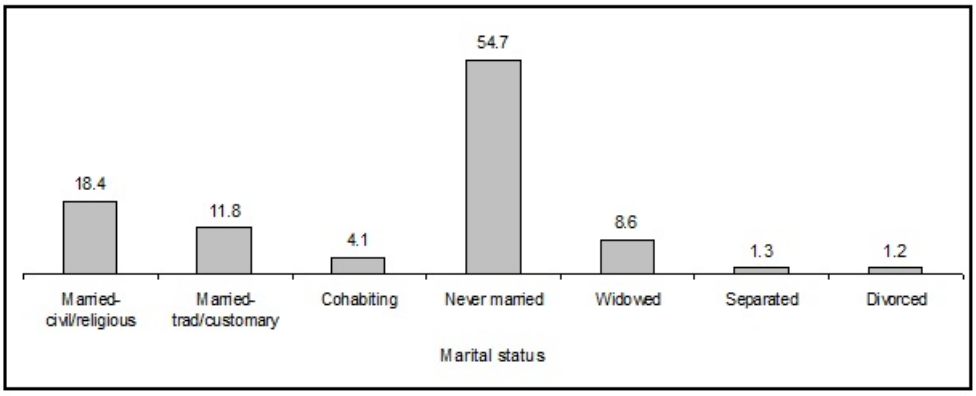
Table 2.7. Percent age and sex by population group, 2007

Age group	African		Coloured		Indian		White	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
0-4	50.2	49.8	50.4	49.6	55.6	44.4	51.2	48.8
5-14	50.3	49.7	50.1	49.9	52.3	47.7	49.9	50.1
15-64	46.2	53.8	47.3	52.7	53.3	46.7	49.6	50.4
65+	35.0	65.0	37.1	62.9	43.7	56.3	44.1	55.9
All	46.9	53.1	47.7	52.3	52.7	47.3	48.9	51.1

MARITAL STATUS

Only 30.2% of people aged 15 years or older were currently married in 2007 (Figure 2.10). As many as 54.7% of people in the province were never married. Differences in martial status by age and population group are shown in Table 2.8 and Figure 2.11.

Fig. 2.10. Marital status of the population aged 15 and older, 2007



In 2007, marriage was not widespread before the age of 25 years. As many as 98.1% of people aged 15-19 and 89.8% of those aged 20-24 were never married. The percent of people who were currently married increased from 18.5 in the 25-29 age group to 55.8 for people aged 40-49 years, and 51.8 for those aged 50 years and older.

Non-marriage was most prevalent among Africans and lowest among Whites in 2007. Marital disruption was more common among Africans than other population groups. Coloureds and Whites cohabited more than Africans and Indians in 2007.

Fig. 2.11. Marital status of people aged 15 and older, 2007

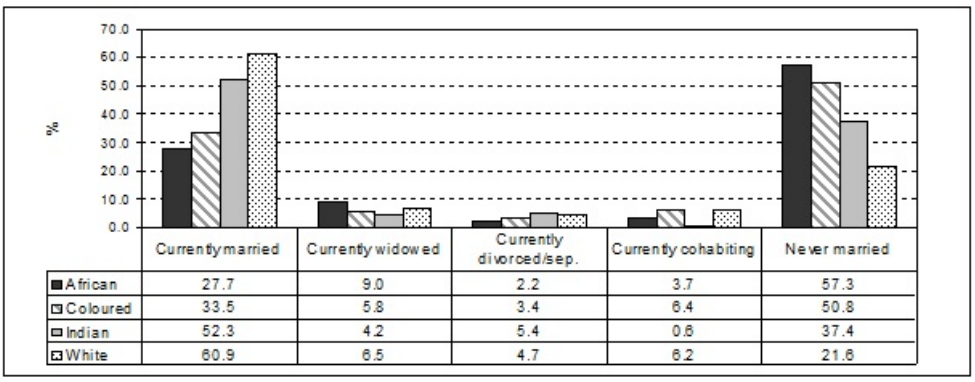


Table 2.8. Marital status for all population aged 15 and older (%), 2007

Age group	Currently married	Currently widowed	Currently div/sep	Coha-biting	Never married
African					
15-19	1.3	0.1	0.1	0.3	98.2
20-24	7.0	0.3	0.1	2.5	90.2
25-29	17.0	0.7	0.6	6.3	75.4
30-34	30.9	1.9	1.4	7.2	58.6
35-39	42.0	3.9	3.1	8.1	43.0
40-44	48.4	7.0	4.7	6.6	33.3
45-49	52.8	9.7	5.5	5.2	26.9
50 +	48.3	30.0	4.4	2.2	15.1
Coloured					
15-19	0.9	0.1	0.1	0.8	98.1
20-24	5.4	0.2	0.3	4.3	89.8
25-29	20.1	0.6	1.0	9.3	69.0
30-34	38.7	0.6	2.5	11.6	46.6
35-39	50.4	1.7	5.5	9.0	33.4
40-44	57.2	3.3	6.2	9.2	4.2
45-49	61.5	4.8	7.3	6.4	20.1
50 +	49.7	22.6	5.9	4.7	17.1
Indian					
15-19	0.0	-	-	-	100
20-24	11.7	-	-	-	88.3
25-29	45.4	-	-	-	54.6
30-34	71.9	-	-	-	28.1
35-39	90.2	-	-	-	-
40-44	70.6	-	-	-	17.6
45-49	67.6	-	-	-	8.4
50 +	69.6	-	-	-	7.7
White					
15-19	2.1	0.8	0.0	1.4	95.7
20-24	11.2	0.1	0.0	11.6	77.0
25-29	44.9	0.4	2.1	12.1	40.5
30-34	68.7	0.1	3.3	9.0	18.9
35-39	71.7	0.9	8.8	8.3	10.2
40-44	71.6	1.8	6.4	9.1	11.1
45-49	76.9	1.8	8.2	6.9	6.2
50 +	73.6	15.0	5.0	3.2	3.1
All					
15-19	1.3	0.1	0.1	0.3	98.1
20-24	7.0	0.2	0.1	2.4	89.8
25-29	18.4	0.7	0.7	6.7	73.5
30-34	33.9	1.7	1.6	7.7	55.1
35-39	45.1	3.4	3.7	8.2	39.6
40-44	51.1	6.2	5.0	7.0	30.6
45-49	55.8	8.5	6.0	5.4	30.6
50 +	51.8	28.0	3.8	2.6	14.5
Total	30.2	8.6	2.5	4.1	54.7

Differences in the prevalence of marriage by district municipality and gender are shown in Table 2.9. The prevalence rate for marriage was roughly in the same range in all districts although Cacadu and Nelson Mandela Metro had slightly higher percentages of people currently married. These two districts also had lower rates of marital instability than others. Equal number of women and men

were in a marriage in 2007 but more women than men reported widowhood, separation, divorce and cohabitation. Non-marriage was more among men than women; 60.4% of men reported that they were never married compared to 49.9% of women.

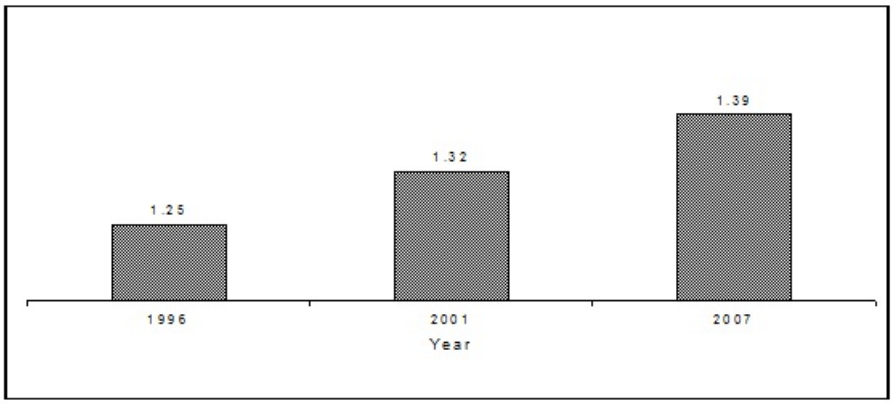
Table 2.9. Differences in marital status by district and gender, 2007

	Pop aged 15 and older				
	Currently married	Currently widowed	Currently divorced	Coha-biting	Never married
District					
Alfred Nzo	30.9	15.2	2.1	3.5	50.3
Amathole	28.7	11.1	2.7	4.2	56.0
Cacadu	34.8	8.7	2.7	8.0	48.5
Chris Hani	30.5	12.4	2.1	3.2	53.9
Nelson Mandela	32.2	8.8	3.5	6.4	52.6
O.R. Tambo	29.1	11.2	1.7	1.7	58.0
Ukhahlamba	29.5	13.5	2.4	3.9	53.2
Gender					
Men	30.2	2.7	2.0	4.6	60.4
Women	30.2	13.5	2.8	3.3	49.9
Eastern Cape	30.2	8.6	2.5	4.1	54.7

THE YOUTH POPULATION

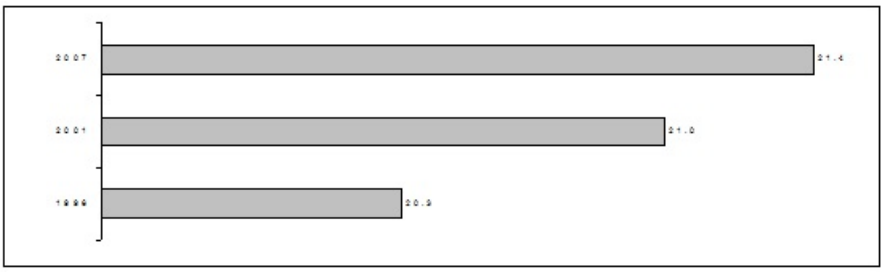
The number of people in young ages is among other things, a marker of the progress of demographic change. Depending on one's perspective, it could also be indicator of potential bonus or liability in the labour force in the near or distant future. The estimated number of people aged 15-24 years in the province was 1.25 million in 1996, 1.32 million in 2001and 1.39 in 2007 (Figure 2.12).

Figure 2.12. The youth population aged 19-24 years (millions) 1996-2007



This sub-group constituted 20.3% of the provincial population in 1996. The figures for 2001 and 2007 are 21.0% and 21.4% in 2007 (Figure 2.13).

Figure 2.13. The youth as a percent of the total population, 1996-2007



A significant feature of this subgroup is the age effect in their gender balance which is concealed when the combined 15-24 range is used in an analysis. Figure 2.14 shows that men outnumber women in the younger 15-19 age group while females outnumber males in the 20-24 age group.

Figure 2 14. Age and sex distribution of the youth population, 2007

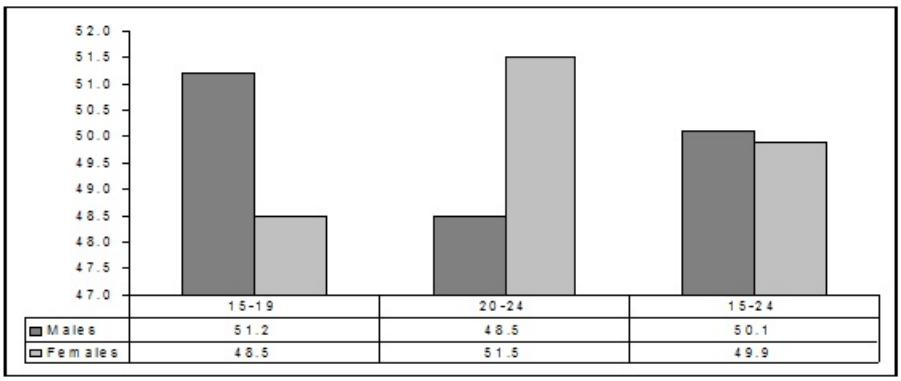


Table 2.10 shows how the youth are distributed by district and sex in 2007. O.R. Tambo and Amathole districts had the biggest shares of the young population in the period (30.6% and 25.5% respectively). Sizeable proportions are in Ukhahlamba and Cacadu (48%). There is no big or consistent pattern of differences in the number of males and females in the local municipalities (Table 2.11).

Table 2.10. The size of the youth population (15-24) in the districts, 2007

	Number	%	% Male	% Female
District				
Alfred Nzo	100 025	7.2	50.1	49.9
Amathole	354 942	5.5	50.5	49.6
Cacadu	67 297	4.8	49.0	51.0
Chris Hani	162 646	11.7	51.0	49.0
Nelson Mandela	219 224	15.7	51.0	49.0
O.R. Tambo	426 111	30.6	49.0	51.0
Ukhahlamba	64 170	4.6	49.9	51.1

Table 2.11. Sex distribution of the youth (15-24), 2007

	% male	% female
Matatiele	48.9	51.1
Umzimvubu	51.6	48.4
Mbhashe	44.9	55.1
Mnquma	48.8	51.2
Great Kei	57.0	43.0
Amahlathi	51.5	48.5
Buffalo City	51.9	48.1
Ngqushwa	54.5	45.5
Nkonkobe	51.4	48.6
Nxuba	50.9	49.1
Baviaans	47.0	53.0
Camdeboo	50.0	50.0
Blue Crane Route	53.5	46.5
Ikwezi	42.9	57.1
Kou-Kamma	46.5	53.5
Kouga	46.1	53.9
Makana	47.1	52.9
Ndlambe	48.8	51.2
Sunday's River Valley	60.8	39.2
Emalahleni	50.8	49.2
Engcobo	47.4	52.6
Inkwanca	56.1	43.9
Intsika Yethu	52.6	47.4
Inxuba Yethemba	49.8	50.2
Lunkanji	50.2	49.8
Sakhisizwe	54.2	47.8
Tsolwana	56.7	43.3
Nelson Mandela	51.0	49.0
King Sabata Dalindyebo	45.9	54.1
Mbizana	51.1	48.9
Ntabankulu	49.7	50.3
Nyandeni	49.8	50.2
Port St. Johns	49.6	48.5
Quakeni	50.5	49.5
Elundini	51.7	48.3
Gariep	52.8	47.2
Maletswai	45.1	54.9
Senqu	49.4	50.6
Eastern Cape Province	50.1	49.9

Most young people in the province (89.8%) are Africans, 7.0% are Coloured, 2.9% Whites and 0.3% are Indians (Table 2.12). As would be expected, most people in this age range have never been married. A small percent (0.3%) did not have a formal education in 2007; 61.9% had some secondary education and 20.1% had matric education.

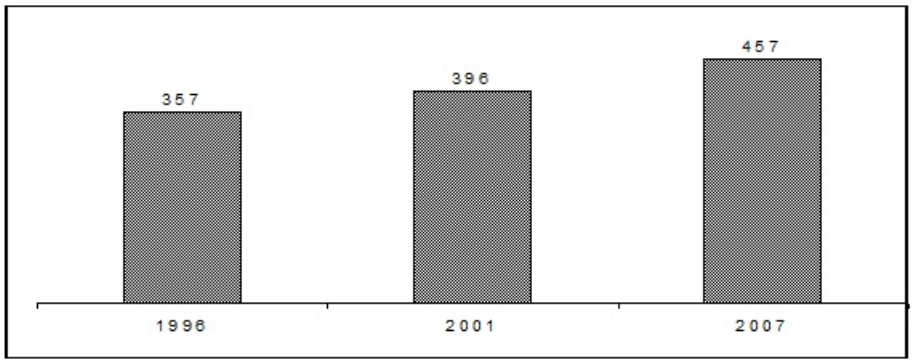
Table 2.12. Characteristics of the youth population (25-24), 2007

	Number	%	% Male	% Female
Population group				
African	1 252 218	89.8	50.1	49.9
Coloured	97 640	7.0	48.4	51.6
Indian	3 618	0.3	57.9	42.1
White	40 848	2.9	53.1	46.9
Educational status				
None	4 376	0.3	62.2	37.8
Primary	207 062	14.9	57.8	42.2
Part secondary	862 595	61.9	49.7	50.3
Matric +	279 805	20.1	44.8	55.2
Marital status				
Currently married	51 635	3.7	17.0	83.2
Widowed/Sep/Div	3 393	0.2	34.8	65.2
Cohabiting	19 745	1.4	24.6	75.4
Never married	1 290 968	94.5	51.7	48.3
Eastern Cape Province	1 365 742	100	50.0	50.0

OLDER POPULATION

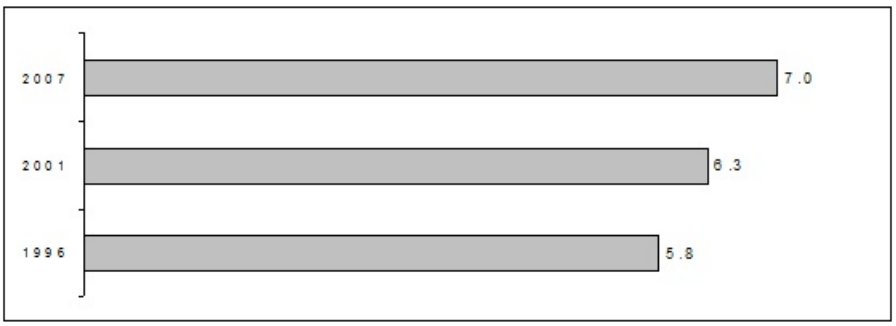
The estimated number of people aged 65 years or older in the Eastern Cape was approximately 357 000 in 1996. The number of people aged 65 year or older increased to approximately 396 000 in 2001 and 457 000 in 2007 (Figure 2.15). This change represents an increase of 33.1% in the number of older people in the province from 1996 to 2007.

Figure 2.15. The size of older population-65 +(thousands) 1996-2007



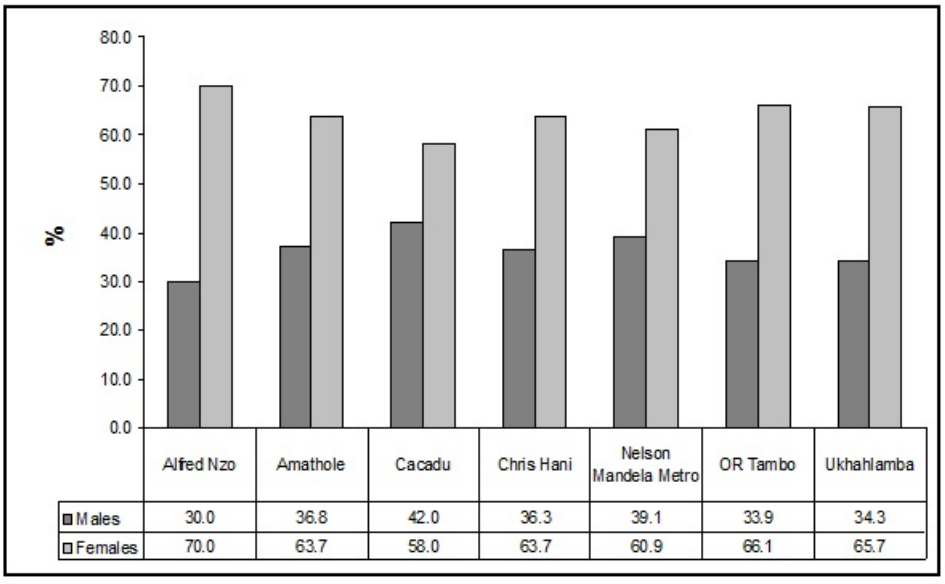
Their share of the provincial population increased from 5.8% in 1996 to 6.3% in 2001 and 7.0% in 2007 (Figure 2.16).

Figure 2.16. The older population (65+), 1996-2007



As many as 64% of the population aged 65 years or older in the province are women. Figure 2.17 shows their sizes in all district municipalities, women outnumber men in these old ages. The share of women population was as high as 70% in 2007 in Alfred Nzo District Municipality and 66.1% in O.R. Tambo District Municipality. Eighty-five percent were Africans, 9.9% were Whites, 4.8% were Coloured and 0.2% were Indians. In 2007, 44.1% had matric, 35.5% primary and 2.4% had no formal education. Forty-four percent were currently married and 9.7% were never married.

Figure 2.17. Males and females aged 65 years or older, 2007



	Alfred Nzo	Amathole	Cacadu	Chris Hani	Nelson Mandela Metro	OR Tambo	Ukhahlamba
Males	30.0	36.8	42.0	36.3	39.1	33.9	34.3
Females	70.0	63.7	58.0	63.7	60.9	66.1	65.7

Table 2.13. Selected characteristics of the population aged 65+, 2007

District	Number	%	% Male	% Female
Alfred Nzo	31 270	6.9	30.0	70.0
Amathole	127 222	28.0	36.8	63.2
Cacadu	27 889	6.1	42.0	58.0
Chris Hani	71 657	15.8	36.3	63.7
Nelson Mandela	58 125	12.8	39.1	60.9
O.R. Tambo	111 365	24.5	33.9	66.1
Ukhahlamba	26 754	5.9	34.3	65.7

Table 2.14. Sex distribution of people 65 + in the municipalities, 2007

	% male	% female
Alfred Nzo	30.6	51.0
Matatiele	31.0	51.2
Umzimvubu	30.2	50.6
Amathole	22.4	60.3
Mbhashe	31.6	47.8
Mnquma	26.9	54.8
Great Kei	18.2	63.7
Amahlathi	21.9	59.3
Buffalo City	18.1	67.5
Ngqushwa	21.7	55.9
Nkonkobe	19.8	60.4
Nxuba	19.6	61.7
Cacadu	18.6	64.4
Baviaans	21.8	60.7
Blue Crane Route	19.6	62.4
Camdeboo	22.2	60.7
Ikwezi	23.6	58.8
Kou-Kamma	21.4	63.1
Kouga	15.5	66.4
Makana	17.5	67.3
Ndlambe	17.3	63.5
Sunday's River Valley	18.5	65.5
Chris Hani	27.2	53.1
Emalahleni	27.9	49.8
Engcobo	31.6	47.5
Inkwanca	20.7	62.2
Intsika Yethu	30.8	47.9
Inxuba Yethemba	22.8	60.8
Lunkanji	23.1	59.5
Sakhisizwe	25.4	56.9
Tsolwana	23.4	57.2
Nelson Mandela	16.5	69.5
O.R. Tambo	30.7	50.9
King Sabata Dalindyebo	28.7	54.6
Mbizana	32.2	49.8
Ntabankulu	29.0	50.6
Nyandeni	31.9	49.7
Port St. Johns	34.0	46.5
Quakeni	31.8	49.8
Ukhahlamba	27.2	53.6
Elundini	29.5	50.6
Gariep	22.1	61.1
Maletswai	23.5	61.5
Senqu	27.0	52.4

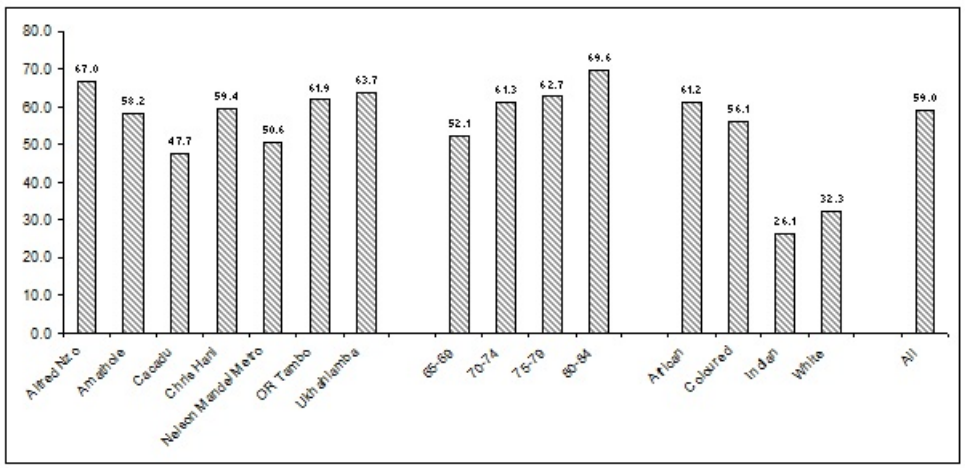
Table 2.15. Selected characteristics of the population aged 65+, 2007

	Number	%	% Male	% Female
Population group				
African	368 306	85.0	35.0	65.0
Coloured	21 740	4.8	37.1	62.9
Indian	1 131	0.2	43.7	56.3
White	45 106	9.9	44.1	55.9
Educational status				
None	10 589	2.4	34.0	66.0
Primary	156 532	35.5	37.6	62.4
Part secondary	70 699	16.0	34.5	65.5
Matric +	203 625	46.1	35.8	64.2
Marital status				
Currently married	198 421	44.3	58.9	41.1
Widowed/Sep/Div	200 304	44.1	16.0	84.0
Cohabiting	4 8045	1.1	62.8	37.2
Never married	44 126	9.7	22.3	37.2
Eastern Cape	447 654	100	36.0	77.7

Status in the household

Data from the 2007 Community Survey indicated that most people aged 65 years or older in 2007 (76.9%) were heads of the households in which they lived and 12.4% were spouses of the head. Information about the gender difference in household headship is shown in Figure 2.18. As many as 59% of households heads in this age range in 2007 were women. The percent of household heads who were women in 2007 were exceptionally high in Alfred Nzo (67.0%), Ukhahlamba (63.0%) and O.R.Tambo (61.9%). The only three exceptions are among Whites, Indians and, and in Cacadu District Municipality with female household headship rates of differences

Figure 2.18. The status of people aged 65 or older in the household, 2007



CONCLUSION

The population profile of Eastern Cape Province is typical of a transitional sub-population with significant variations in demographic patterns and changes over the past one and half decades. Two areas that call for an urgent policy attention are (i) the number of people in the active working ages of 15-64 years, and (ii) the number of older people. First, an expansion of economic opportunities is needed in order to engage the growing workforce in productive economic activities. Secondly, there is a need for plans that increase resources and social services to meet the needs of the older segment of the population.

Childbearing Patterns

3

The levels, patterns and trends of childbearing are intricately linked to the human development profile of a population. Empirical information about childbearing is less easily available than data on population numbers, age and sex distributions. Although every birth is required to be registered, the coverage and quality of birth registration in South Africa are not perfect. Without careful adjustments, estimates from birth registration data tend to produce lower levels of fertility. The most widely used fertility estimates in the past ten years for the province and other parts of the country are those derived from the 1998 Demographic and Health Survey and the 2001 census. Direct fertility results from several other more recent national data sources appear too low possibly due to the impacts of reporting errors. Hopefully, data from the 2011 census will begin to clarify recent patterns of fertility at the national and provincial levels.

Despite technical problems with available data, they provide some insights into the levels and trends of childbearing in the province and other parts of the country. This chapter uses available data from different sources including censuses, large-scale national surveys and birth registrations to examine the level, patterns and trends of fertility in the province.

FERTILITY LEVELS AND DIFFERENCES

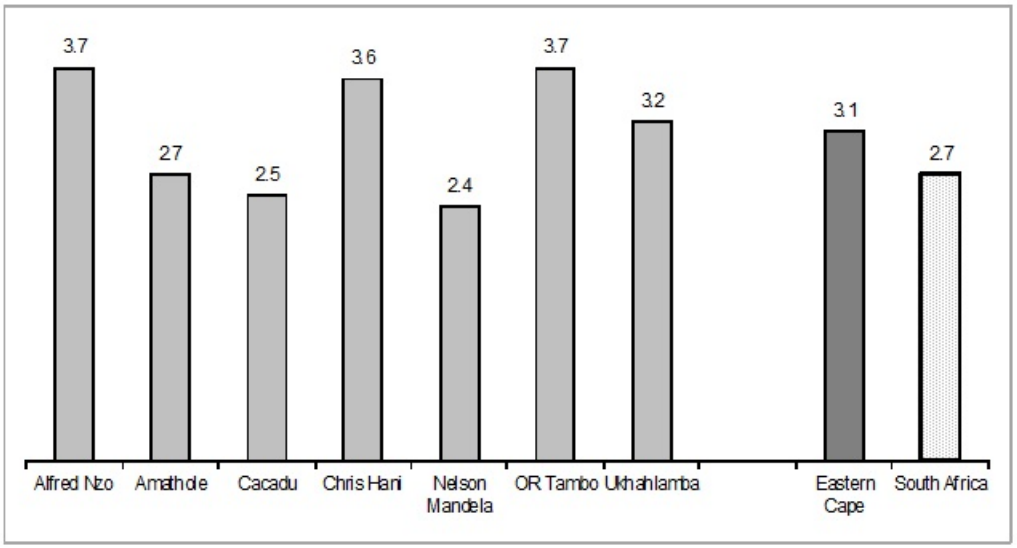
Current level of fertility

The level of fertility, measured by the total fertility rate, was estimated to be 3.1 in 2007. The total fertility rate ranged from a high level of 3.7 in O.R. Tambo District Municipality to 2.4 in Nelson Mandela Metro. The total fertility rate in the same year in Alfred Nzo District Municipality was 3.7. Chris Hani District Municipality and Ukhahlamba District Municipality had total fertility rates of 3.5 and 3.2 respectively. The level of fertility was relatively low in Cacadu (2.5) and Amathole (2.7).

These district-level statistics clarify two features childbearing in the province. First, the level of fertility shows an east-west pattern of differences that follows other important socioeconomic and demographic characteristics in the province.

Secondly, the district results show three fairly distinct regimes of fertility that correlate highly with geography. High-fertility parts of the province include the districts of O.R. Tambo and Alfred Nzo. The levels of fertility in Nelson Mandela Metro, Cacadu and Amathole are very low. The two districts of Chris Hani and Ukhahlamba had moderate levels of fertility in 2007.

Figure 3.1. Estimates of total fertility rate, 2007



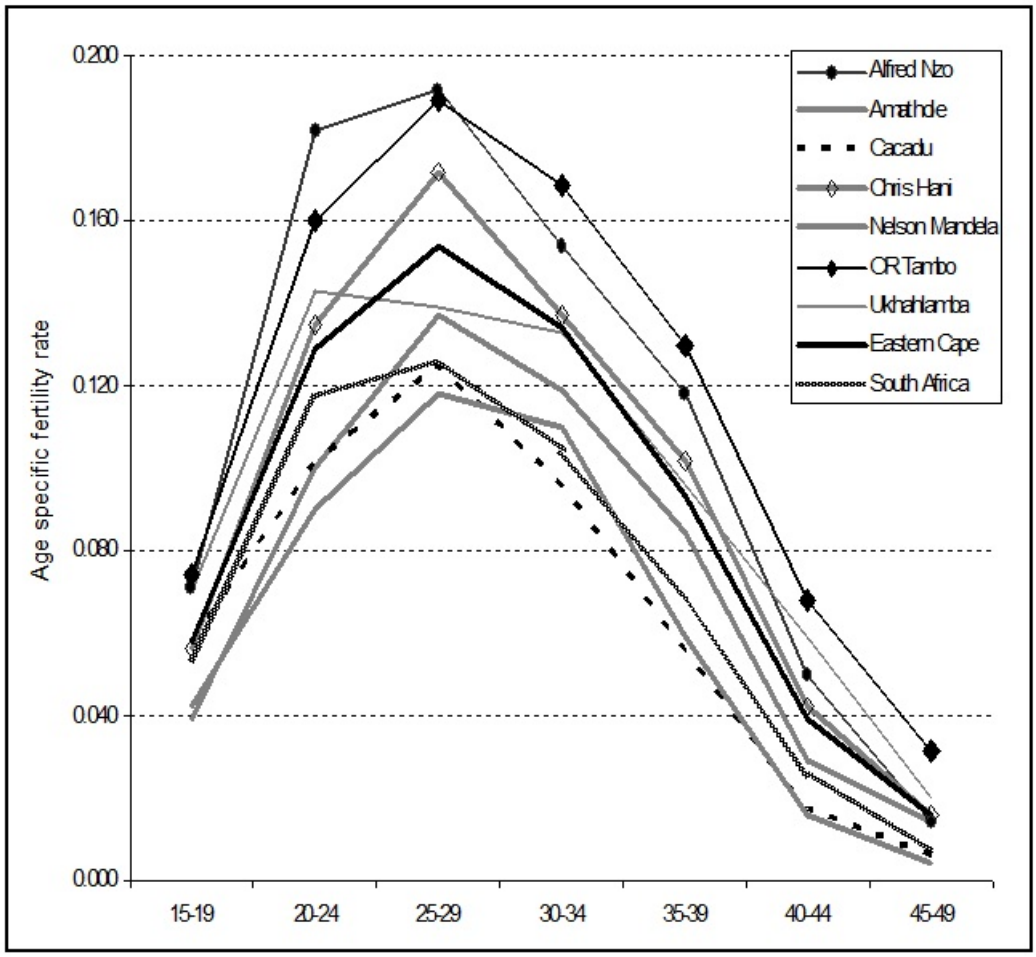
Age pattern of current fertility

The information in Figure 3.2 and Table 3.1 helps to answer at least three of several questions about the age pattern of childbearing in the province. The first is about childbearing in very young ages. Table 3.1 shows that the age-specific fertility rate in this very young age group was .058 for the province as a whole. The teenage specific fertility rate was quite high in O.R. Tambo District Municipality (.074), Alfred Nzo District Municipality (.071)and Ukhahlamba District Municipality (.070).

Another question is about the age group with the highest age-specific fertility rate in the province. The data (in Figure 3.2) show that fertility peaked in the 25-29 age group in 2007 for all women and in all district municipalities.

Last is the question about the rate of childbearing in the oldest childbearing age group. The age-specific fertility rate for women aged 45-49 years was .016 in 2007. It ranged from .004 in Nelson Mandela Metro to a relatively high level of .031 in the O.R. Tambo District municipality.

Figure 3.2. Differences in age-specific fertility rate, 2007



Fertility differences

Data from the 2001 census provide information for detailed examination of fertility differences at the local level. Fertility measures are examined for the district and local municipalities in the province. Differences in fertility are also examined for population groups, type of place of residence, marital status and level of education. Table 3.2 shows the numbers, un-weighted and weighted percent distribution of women in the reproductive ages used in the estimates and analysis.

Table 3.2. Distribution of women in childbearing age groups, 2001.

	Number of women	Unweighted %	Weighted %
District			
Alfred Nzo	10 852	7.9	7.7
Amathole	37 298	27.0	27.1
Cacadu	8 784	6.4	6.6
Chris Hani	16 041	11.6	11.6
Nelson Mandela	25 237	18.3	18.3
O.R.Tambo	33 258	24.1	23.7
Ukhahlamba	6 724	4.9	4.9
Population group			
African	120 164	87.0	86.8
Coloured	11 233	8.1	8.2
Indian	458	0.3	0.3
White	6 339	4.6	4.7
Place of residence			
Rural	76 077	55.1	44.9
Urban	62 117	44.9	55.1
Marital status			
Currently married	42 699	30.9	30.9
Widowed, separated, divorced	7 777	5.6	5.6
Cohabiting	6 201	4.5	4.7
Never Married	81 517	59.0	58.9
Education			
No formal school	18 215	13.2	13.1
Primary	34 923	25.3	25.4
Part secondary	55 607	40.2	40.3
Matric +	29 440	21.3	21.2
All	138 194	100	100

Differences in lifetime fertility

Life-time childbearing experiences measured by the total number of children ever born by women in each childbearing age group for 2001 are presented in Table 3.3 for district municipalities, types of place of residence, population groups and levels of education. For all but the last age-group, these data indicate among other things, progress in childbearing for women in the reproductive ages.

By the age of 25, most women had an average of at least one child. The mean parity for women aged 25-29 years in 2001 was 1.5. Women in the oldest childbearing age group (45-49) had an average of 3.9 children in 2001. The number of children among oldest childbearing women varies significantly in district councils. The high childbearing districts include O.R. Tambo with a completed parity for women aged 45-49 ages of 5.3, Alfred Nzo (4.6), Ukhahlamba (4.3) and Chris Hani (4.2). Comparative statistics for Amathole, Cacadu and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan district are 3.7, 3.0 and 2.8 respectively. Rural women, those with no formal education and Africans in this old childbearing age group had more children than all others.

Table 3.3. Mean number of children ever born by women, 2001

Characteristics	Age group						
	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49
District Council							
Alfred Nzo	.17	.88	1.91	3.03	3.93	4.47	4.59
Amathole	.10	.51	1.24	2.13	2.85	3.36	3.65
Cacadu	.16	.65	1.30	1.89	2.36	2.71	2.97
Chris Hani	.13	.67	1.57	2.49	3.28	3.95	4.17
Nelson Mandela	.10	.45	1.03	1.75	2.20	2.62	2.76
O.R. Tambo	.18	.93	1.99	3.32	4.32	5.02	5.33
Ukhahlamba	.16	.75	1.58	2.36	3.27	3.89	4.30
Type of Place							
Urban	.11	.50	1.14	1.85	2.39	2.81	2.99
Rural	.15	.81	1.81	2.99	3.86	4.48	4.73
Population group							
African	.14	.68	1.51	2.51	3.30	3.89	4.15
Coloured	.17	.77	1.41	2.09	2.54	2.91	3.06
White	.04	.24	.88	1.54	1.98	2.14	2.18
Level of education							
No education	.33	1.00	1.99	3.11	3.84	4.37	4.53
Primary	.13	.94	1.90	2.83	3.48	3.94	4.13
Part secondary	.13	.67	1.50	2.39	2.99	3.45	3.61
Matric or higher	.14	.45	1.04	1.76	2.34	2.72	2.78
All Eastern Cape	.14	.67	1.47	2.42	3.15	3.69	3.91

Levels of fertility in district and local municipalities

As in the more recent times, Figure 3.3 shows that the level of fertility was high in O.R. Tambo and Alfred Nzo districts (4.3 and 4.1 respectively). On the other hand, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan district, Cacadu and Amathole had very low levels of fertility in 2001. The lowest level of fertility in the province was 2.4 for the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan District. It was followed by a low total fertility rate of 2.6 for the Cacadu District municipality.

Variations in the total fertility rate are further examined for women in differed local municipalities, population groups, type of place of residence and education status based on the 2001 census data. Table 3.2 summarizes the patterns of differences in total fertility rate in local municipalities in the province. These data provide a clearer picture of low, moderate and relatively high fertility areas in the province.

Most very low fertility areas are in Amathole, Cacadu and Nelson Mandela Bay Metro. In Amathole, fertility was below 2.5 in all but Baviaans and Kou-Kamma local municipalities. Areas with fairly low fertility of between 2.5 and 2.9 are mainly in Chris Hani District Municipality (Lukanji, Nxuba, Yethemba, Sakhisizwe and Tsolwana). Fertility levels in Amahlathi and Mnquma (in Amathole) and Senqu (in Ukhahlamba) also fell within this range in 2001.

Figure 3.3. Total fertility rates in district municipalities, 2001

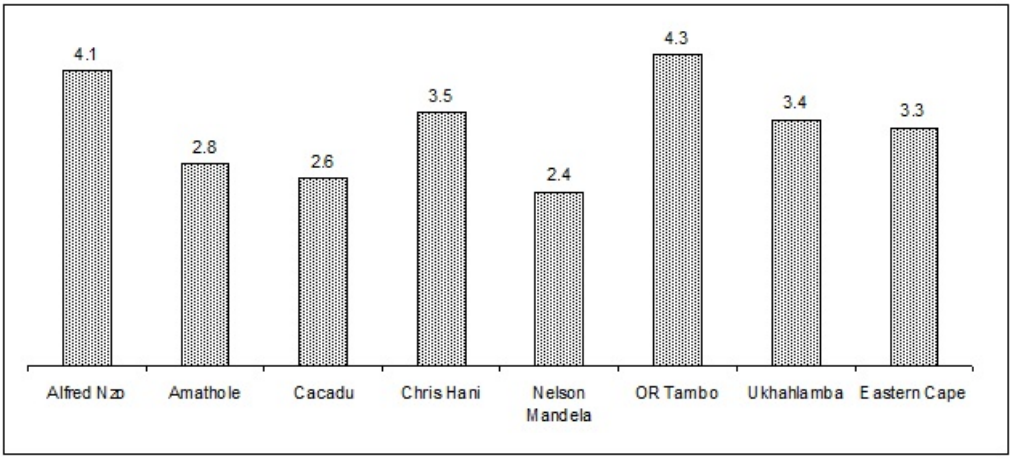


Table 3.2. A summary of total fertility rates in local municipalities, 2001

	Level of fertility (total fertility rate)			
District	**Very low** (2.4 or lower)	**Low** (2.5-2.9)	**Moderate** (3.0-3.9)	**High** (4.0 +)
Alfred Nzo			Umzimvubu Matatiele	
Amathole	Great Kei Buffalo City Ngqushwa Nkonkobe Nxuba			Mbhashe
Cacadu	Blue Crane Route Sunday's River Valley Makana Ndlambe Camdeboo Kouga			
Chris Hani		Lukanji Inxuba Yethemba Sakhisizwe Tsolowana		
Nelson Mandela	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan			
O.R. Tambo			King Sabata Dalindyebo Mhlontlo	Mbizana Ntabankulu Nyandeni Quakeni Port St. Johns
Ukhahlamba		Senqu	Gariep Elundini Maletswai	

Eleven local municipalities had a moderate level of fertility (3.0-3.9). These include Matatiele and Umzimvubu (in Alfred Nzo), Baviaans and Kou-Kamma (in Cacadu), Emalahleni and Inkwanca (in Chris Hani). Others are King Sabata Dalindyebo and Mhlontlo (in O.R. Tambo) and Gariep, Elundini and Maletswai in Ukhahlamba.

Most high-fertility local municipalities are in the O.R. Tambo District Municipality. They include Mbizana, Ntabankulu, Nyandeni, Quakeni and Port St. Johns. Other high fertility local municipalities are Engcobo (in Chris Hani District Municipality) and Mbhashe (in Amathole District Municipality).

In all, by the early years of the millennium, there was a clear indication of the local areas in the province that have experienced a below-replacement level of fertility. There was also a clear indication about the parts of the province where though fertility was declining, its level remained higher among all others. Estimates of detailed age patterns of childbearing associated with these levels of fertility are also shown in Table 3.4(a-e).

Figure 3.4. Total fertility rates in local municipalities, 2001

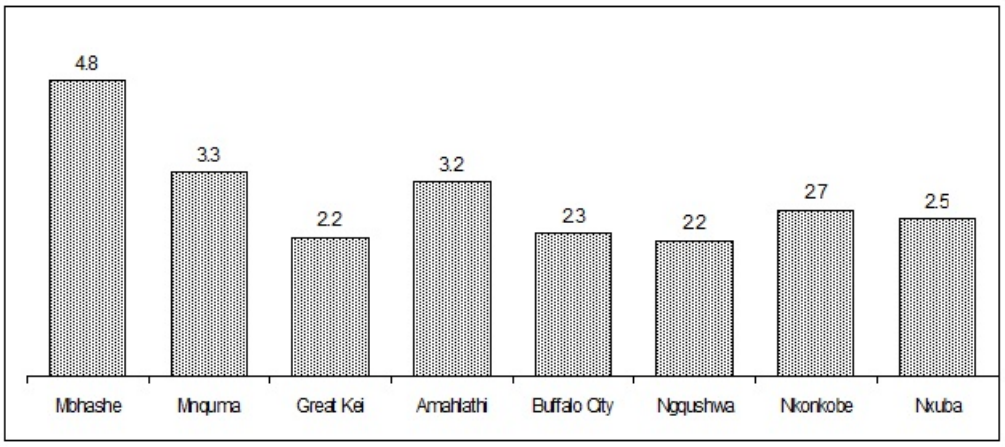


Figure 3.4. Total fertility rates in local municipalities, 2001 (contd)

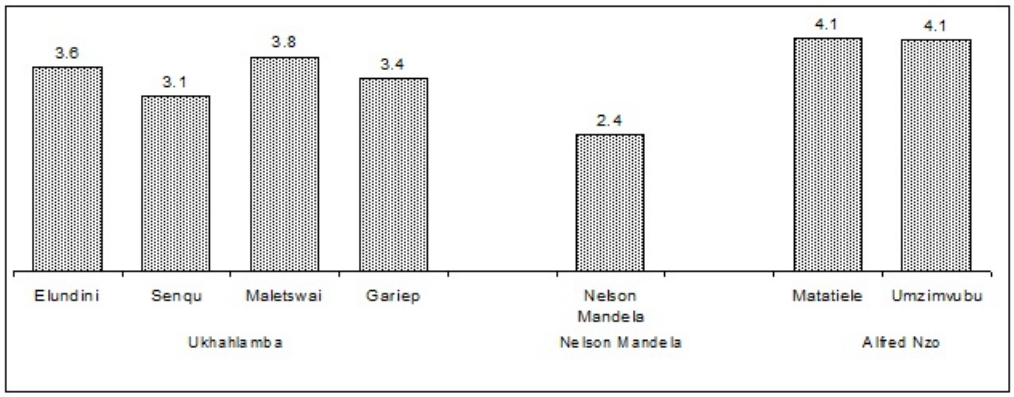


Figure 3.4. Total fertility rates in local municipalities, 2001 (contd)

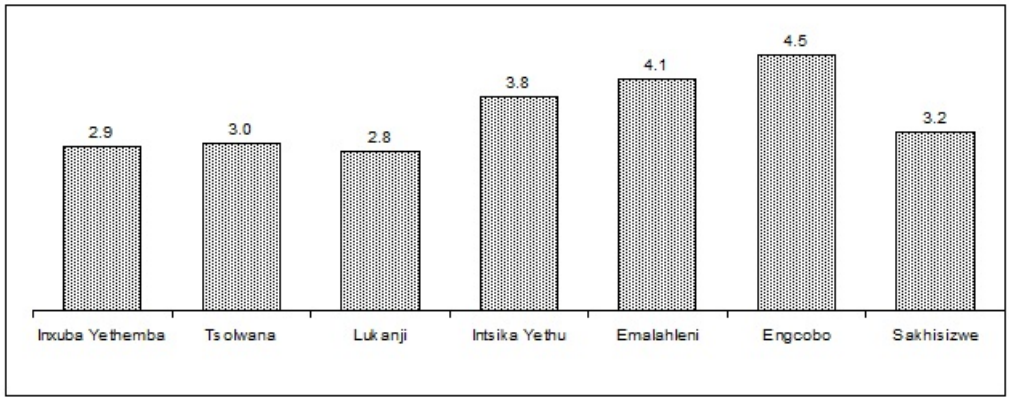


Figure 3.4. Total fertility rates in local municipalities, 2001 (contd)

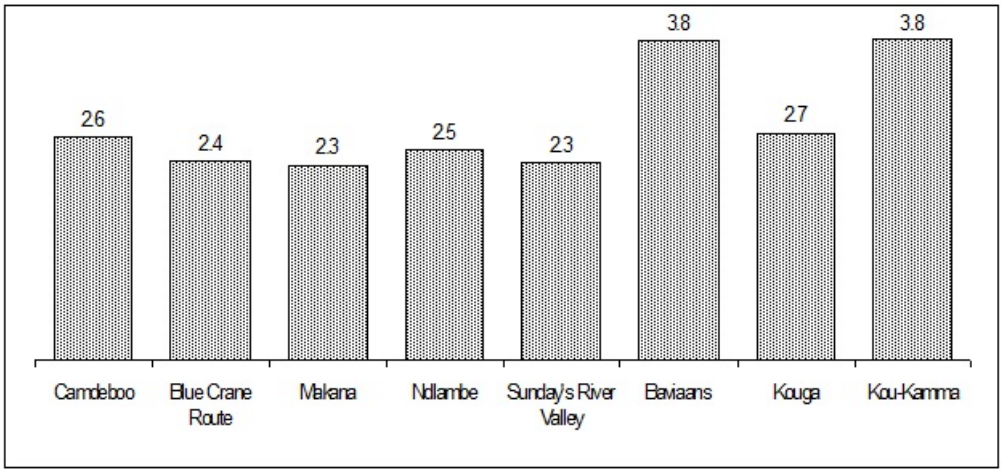


Figure 3.4. Total fertility rates in local municipalities, 2001 (contd)

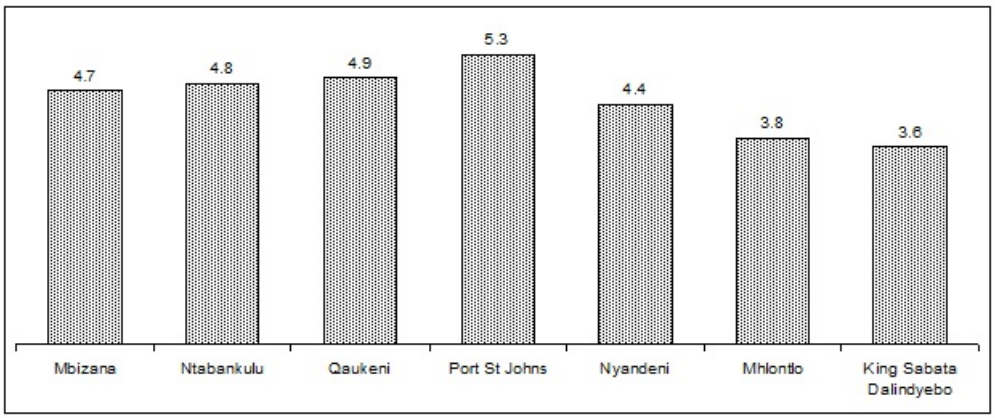


Table 3.5. Age-specific fertility rates in districts and local municipalities, 2001

District and municipality	Age group						
	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-59
Alfred Nzo	**.073**	**.192**	**.199**	**.169**	**.120**	**.055**	**.016**
Matatiele	.067	.199	.181	.175	.135	.051	.019
Umzimvubu	.076	.189	.208	.166	.113	.057	.015
Amathole	**.049**	**.106**	**.146**	**.126**	**.089**	**.032**	**.014**
Mbhashe	.072	.180	.241	.186	.182	.057	.037
Mnquma	.047	.107	.166	.165	.113	.037	.026
Great Kei	.019	.068	.124	.097	.097	.030	.013
Amahlathi	.048	.128	.183	.143	.088	.042	.000
Buffalo City	.047	.089	.122	.105	.065	.023	.010
Ngqushwa	.027	.060	.130	.117	.056	.032	.013
Nkonkobe	.049	.114	.126	.129	.094	.023	.004
Nxuba	.043	.097	.122	.089	.099	.057	.000
Cacadu	**.063**	**.116**	**.144**	**.109**	**.064**	**.020**	**.006**
Camdeboo	.056	.153	.168	.102	.038	.009	.000
Blue Crane Route	.030	.120	.138	.092	.065	.010	.015
Makana	.054	.060	.143	.096	.083	.020	.006
Ndlambe	.045	.082	.125	.119	.092	.025	.008
Sunday's River Valley	.068	.132	.090	.098	.055	.024	.000
Baviaans	.038	.173	.257	.123	.071	.057	.038
Kouga	.068	.128	.160	.093	.057	.031	.000
Kou-Kamma	.152	.188	.176	.170	.054	.000	.018
Chris Hani	**.066**	**.144**	**.183**	**.146**	**.108**	**.044**	**.017**
Inxuba Yethemba	.083	.117	.135	.155	.074	.013	.009
Tsolwana	.054	.158	.169	.151	.046	.000	.017
Inkwanca	.126	.206	.241	.174	.056	.000	.000
Lukanji	.056	.109	.162	.116	.081	.028	.014
Intsika Yethu	.054	.158	.196	.148	.120	.063	.018
Emalahleni	.082	.153	.165	.209	.139	.067	.006
Engcobo	.084	.205	.232	.145	.142	.069	.031
Sakhisizwe	.040	.077	.186	.149	.139	.016	.024
Nelson Mandela	**.049**	**.099**	**.129**	**.120**	**.065**	**.017**	**.005**
O.R. Tambo	.080	.172	.202	.182	.139	.072	.022
Mbizana	.083	.181	.221	.209	.125	.093	.020
Ntabankulu	.081	.199	.221	.179	.169	.076	.035
Qaukeni	.102	.204	.228	.206	.136	.074	.028
Port St Johns	.079	.221	.232	.219	.152	.138	.024
Nyandeni	.086	.193	.216	.171	.152	.048	.018
Mhlontlo	.078	.155	.180	.141	.142	.048	.012
King Sabata Dalindyebo	.065	.122	.165	.165	.126	.062	.020
Ukhahlamba	**.071**	**.147**	**.145**	**.141**	**.101**	**.062**	**.021**
Elundini	.067	.163	.152	.134	.106	.073	.032
Senqu	.065	.134	.112	.149	.110	.054	.000
Maletswai	.116	.170	.169	.123	.102	.055	.028
Gariep	.060	.119	.201	.156	.056	.053	.037
All Eastern Cape	**.064**	**.135**	**.163**	**.142**	**.098**	**.041**	**.014**

Other differences

Other differences in the level of fertility in conform to expectation. The level of rural fertility was substantially higher that the level of urban fertility (2.4 for urban and 4.0 for rural areas respectively). The highest level of fertility (a total fertility rate of 4.5) was among women who had no formal education. The level of fertility was higher among Africans than among other population groups—3.4 for Africans, 2.9 for Coloureds and 1.6 for Whites.

Figure 3.5. Fertility differences by selected characteristics, 2001

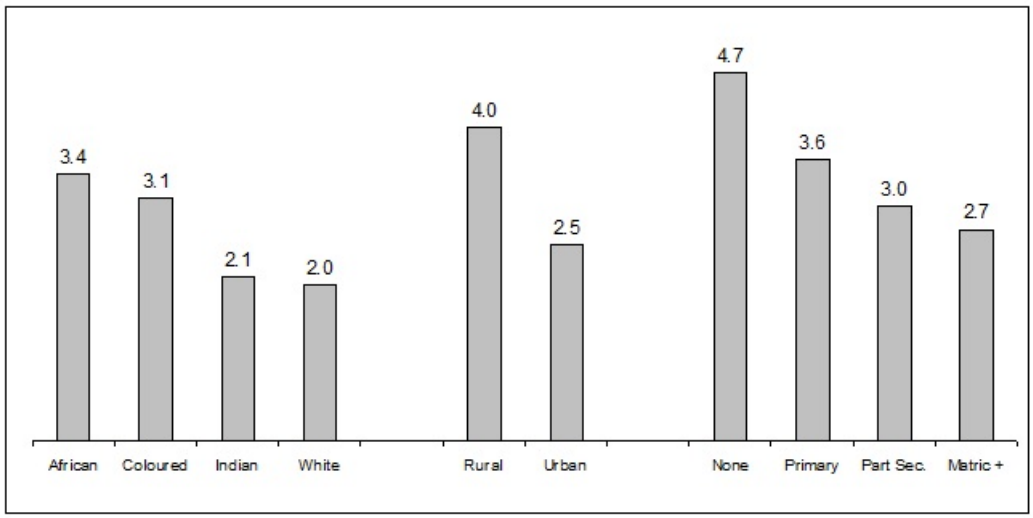


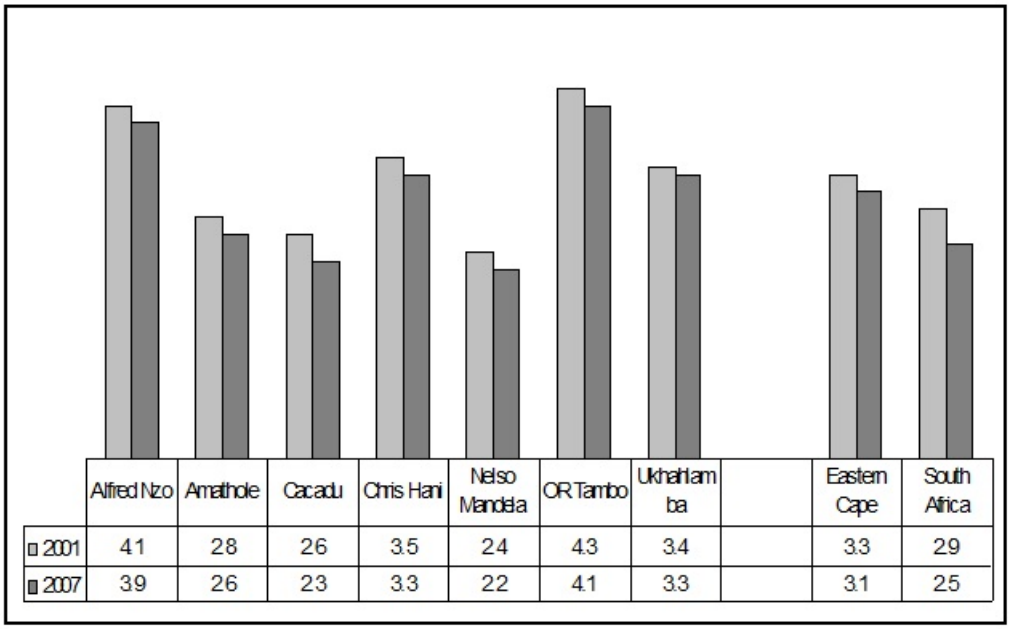
Table 3.6. Age-specific fertility rates by selected characteristics, 2001

District and local municipality	Ages group						
	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49
Population group							
African	.064	.137	.165	.147	.105	.045	.016
Coloured	.090	.146	.162	.118	.072	.028	.007
White	.028	.073	.139	.105	.046	.007	.001
Type of place of residence							
Rural	.071	.162	.195	.166	.126	.058	.019
Urban	.051	.101	.131	.119	.068	.022	.008
Education							
No formal schooling	.161	.192	.209	.167	.133	.064	.022
Primary	.061	.172	.174	.152	.107	.043	.013
Part secondary	.060	.135	.161	.129	.080	.033	.010
Matric or higher	.053	.099	.144	.137	.083	.020	.008
Eastern Cape Province	.064	.135	.163	.142	.098	.041	.014

RECENT TREND IN FERTILITY

Fertility data are not available in the quality that can provide dependable information for a reasonably long period in the past. Data for the more recent period (since 2001) show consistent in the decline of fertility in all districts. The total fertility rate declined from 3.3 in 2001 to 3.1 in 2007 (Figure 3.6). The estimated level for 2009 is 20.9, indicating a continuation of a decline in the provincial fertility. Detailed features of change in fertility in the more recent past will be determined as new data become available.

Figure 3.6. Recent trend in total fertility rate, 2001 and 2007



	Alfred Nzo	Amathole	Cacadu	Chris Hani	Nelso Mandela	OR Tambo	Ukhahlamba		Eastern Cape	South Africa
2001	4.1	2.8	2.6	3.5	2.4	4.3	3.4		3.3	2.9
2007	3.9	2.6	2.3	3.3	2.2	4.1	3.3		3.1	2.5

The trend of fertility is examined further with available data for the period since the middle of the 1980s. The results which are summarized in Figure 3.8 show that fertility in the province has been on a declining trend in the recent past. It recorded a 30% decline from the middle of the 1980s to 2001. The level of fertility was high during the second half of the 1980s (4.8), but declined to 4.5 by the first half of the 1990s. The provincial fertility experienced a sizeable drop to 3.5 during the second half of the 1990s. The speed of fertility decline in the province appears to have slowed since the beginning of the millennium (see Figure 3.7).

The patterns in P/F ratios as indicators of fertility change are shown in Table 3.7. When reasonably free from data errors, these ratios which compare the cumulative fertility of women across periods (P) and cumulative fertility within

period (F), are fairly reliable direct indicators of recent fertility trends. These P/F ratios confirm that fertility was on a downward trend among women in most childbearing age-groups during all of the 1990s. Unfortunately, available data for a longer period in the past are time-censored and may not provide a reliable picture of historical trends in fertility.

Figure 3.7. Trend in total fertility rate, 1984-2007

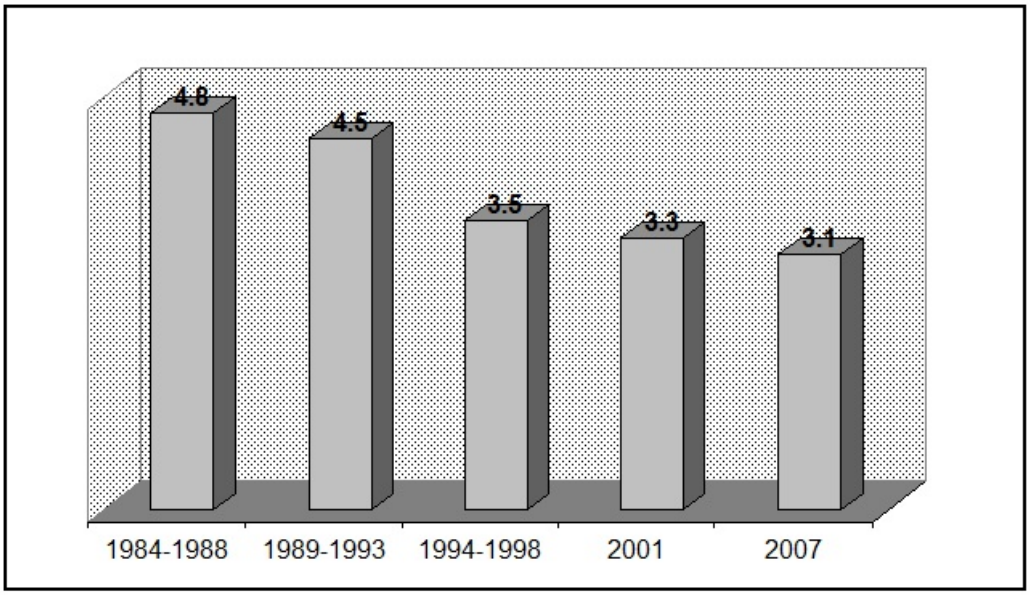


Table 3.7. Trend in P/F ratios, 1989-1998

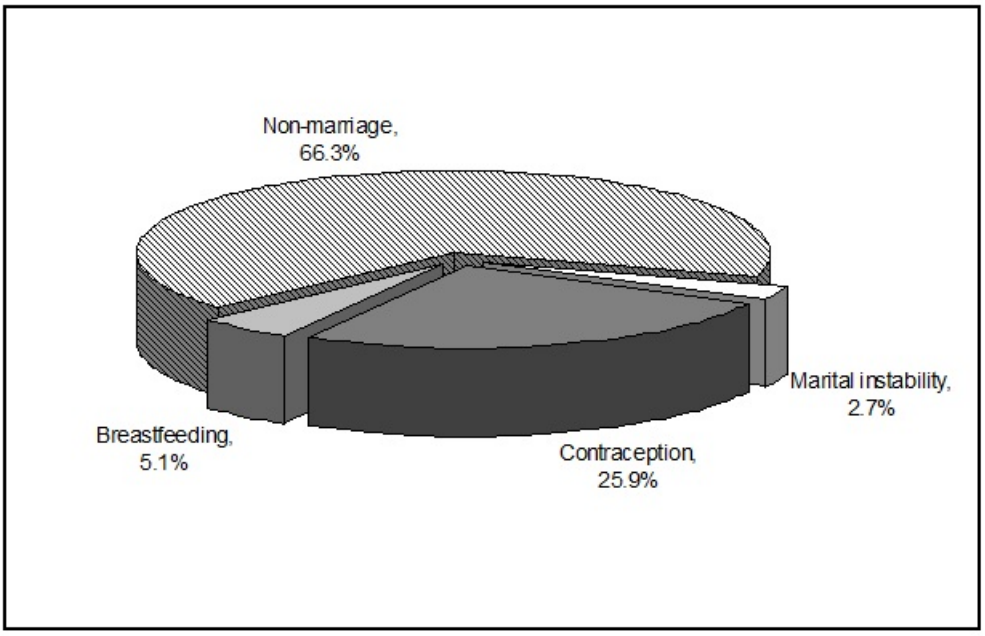
Age group	1994-998	1989-1993
15-19	1.01	1.04
20-24	1.02	1.03
25-29	1.12	1.08
30-34	1.21	1.06
35-39	1.23	1.00
40-44	1.15	1.08
45-49	1.27	

Source: Calculated from the 1998 Demographic and Health Survey data.

There are no detailed and recent data for estimating the relative contributions of major proximate factors to fertility levels for all of Eastern Cape. Data from the old Transkei sub-region, showed that the two most important proximate determinants of fertility in this population are non-marriage and contraception. Together these accounted for 92% of all reduction in fertility by the measured proximate determinants during the first half of the 1990s (Figure 3.8). Non-marriage made the biggest contribution to the reduction of fertility from its potential to an actual level (66.3%). It was followed by contraception which reduced fertility by 25.9%. Breast-feeding contributed only 5.1% of all reduction of fertility from its potential level. Marital disruption contributed 2.7% of all reduction in fertility.

This pattern of the impacts of the major proximate determinants of fertility is confirmed for all of South Africa by data from the 1998 Demographic and Health Survey. There is currently no new empirical evidence of a major change from this pattern in the Eastern Cape Province.

Figure 3.8. Contributions (%) of proximate factors to fertility reduction



The current levels of fertility takes place in a context of a declining rate of marriage in the province. As many as 67.6% of all women in childbearing ages (15-49) were never married in 2007. In 1996, only 39.7% of all women aged 15-49 were ever married. This declined to 36.4% in 2001 and 32.0% in 2007. This decline of the proportion of women in the reproductive ages who were ever married is consistent in most five-year age groups. (Table 3.8)

Table 3.8. Percent of women in reproductive ages ever married, 1996 -2007

	% of women ever married		
Age group	1996	2001	2007
15-19	2.5	2.7	2.5
20-24	17.3	11.8	11.4
25-29	41.1	32.3	26.3
30-34	57.3	51.8	44.6
35-39	67.1	62.4	55.9
40-44	72.6	68.7	64.9
45-49	77.5	74.2	70.0
All	39.7	36.4	32.0

The rate of non-marriage is higher for Africans than for other population groups in the province. Table 3.9 shows that 65.5% of Africans in the childbearing age groups were never married in 2007. Comparative data for other population groups are 57.7% for Coloureds, 40.5% for Indians and 29.6% for Whites.

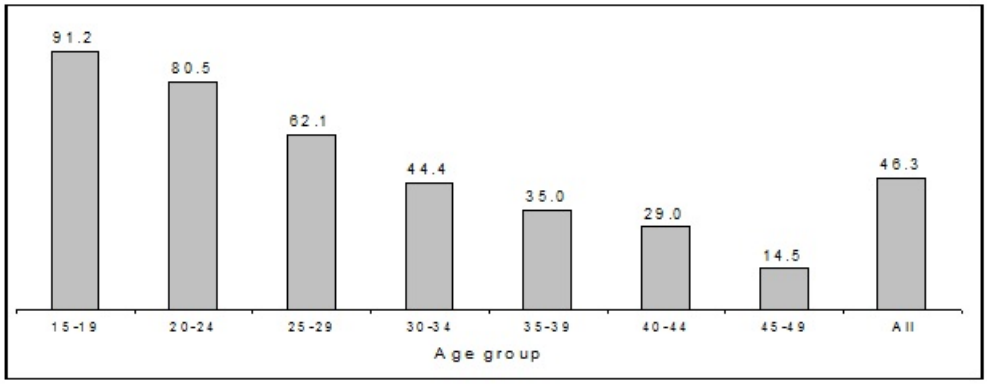
Table 3.9. Marital status of women aged 15-49 years in each population group, 2007

Age group	African	Coloured	Indian	White	All
Currently married	25.1	29.6	49.5	55.2	26.9
Widowed/Sep/divorced	5.5	5.7	9.8	6.5	5.5
Cohabiting	3.9	7.1	0.2	8.6	4.4
Never married	65.5	57.7	40.5	29.6	63.2

The percent of mothers who were never married are shown in Figure 3.9 for each childbearing age group. Forty-six percent of all mothers in the province in 2001 were never married. This trend in non-marital is clearly related to age. An overwhelming majority of teenagers who were mothers (91.2%) in 2001 were

never married. Only 15.5% of mothers in the oldest childbearing age group in the same year were never married.

Figure 3.9. Percent of mothers who were never married, 2001



The information in Figure 3.10 shows a direct association between marriage and fertility in the province. Currently married women had the highest level of total fertility rate (5.1), followed by those who cohabited (4.1). Widowhood, divorce and separation appear to interrupt the reproductive career of women in the province; women in this marital state had a relatively low level of fertility (3.1). Women who were never married had a total fertility rate of 2.3.

Differences in age-specific fertility rates and total fertility rates by marital status in 2001 are summarized in Table 3.10. The peak of childbearing was in the 20-24 age group for all ever-married women, and in the 25-29 age group for those who were never married. The level of fertility was relatively high for currently married and cohabiting teenagers.

Fig. 3.10. Total fertility rate by marital status, 2001

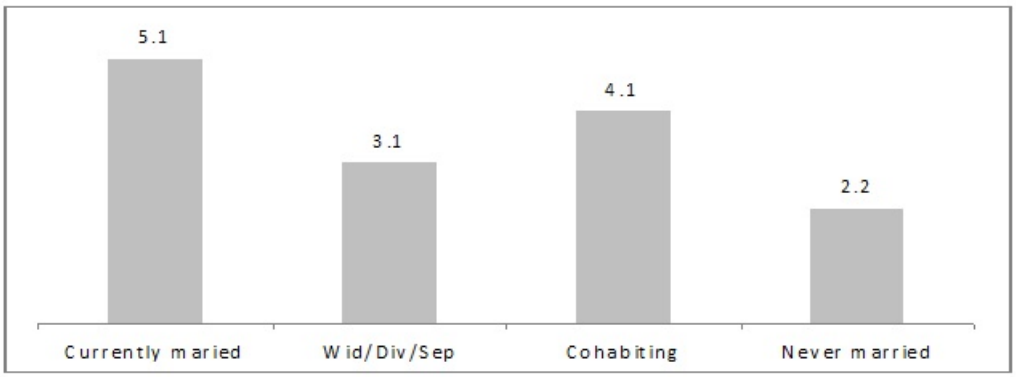


Table 3.10. Age-specific fertility rate by marital status, 2001

Characteristics	Ages-specific fertility rate							TFR
	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	
Marital status								
Currently married	.217	.245	.225	.161	.106	.044	.018	5.1
Wid/Div/Separated	.080	.173	.156	.088	.083	.033	.011	3.1
Cohabiting	.213	.182	.162	.120	.099	.028	.008	4.1
Ever married	.202	.242	.220	.150	.102	.042	.017	4.9
Never married	.051	.104	.110	.098	.065	.027	.009	2.3

TEENAGE CHILDBEARING

Experience of motherhood

A total of 38.8% of all teenage women in the province in 2001 were mothers. Table 3.11 shows that 14% of all women aged 15 years and more than half (53.8%) of those aged 19 years were mothers. The data for the ages in-between show a consistent increase in the prevalence of motherhood with age. Early teenage motherhood was more among women with no education. Six percent of 15-year-old girls with no formal education were mothers. The percent of teenagers who were already married and were mothers by the age of 15 years was relatively high (14.4). Early teenage childbearing was relatively high in O.R. Tambo District Municipality, Ukhahlamba District Municipality and among Coloureds. Late teenage childbearing was high for women who were already married, and particularly high in Alfred Nzo and Ukhahlamba districts, and among women with no formal education and also among Coloureds.

Table 3.11. Experience of motherhood by teenagers, 2001

Characteristics	% ever been a mother at exact age				
	15	16	17	18	19
Alfred Nzo	2.1	3.5	10.1	21.9	30.5
Amathole	1.7	3.5	6.4	11.8	16.8
Cacadu	2.2	9.0	8.2	16.8	23.6
Chris Hani	2.3	4.0	9.6	14.6	21.2
Nelson Mandela	0.6	2.8	7.8	10.8	19.0
O.R. Tambo	2.7	5.7	10.6	22.1	30.9
Ukhahlamba	3.2	5.0	12.9	17.9	29.4

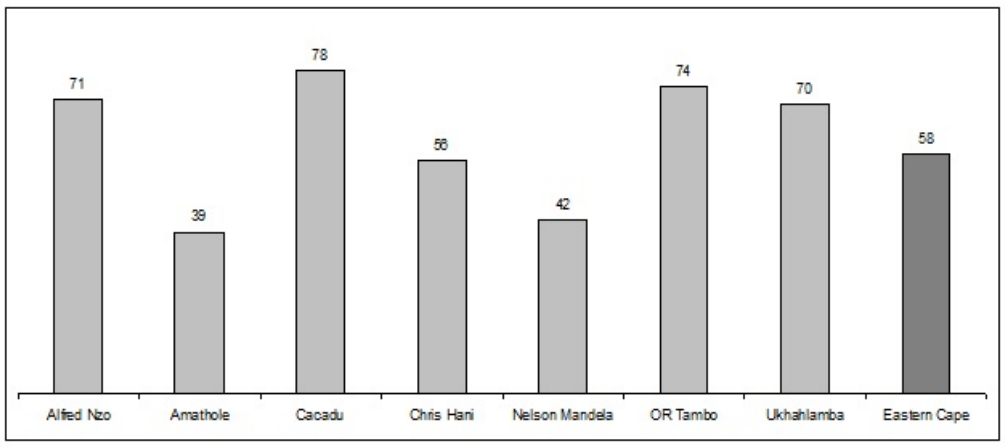
Table 3.12. Characteristics of teenagers who have ever been mothers, 2001

Characteristics	% ever been a mother at exact age				
	15	16	17	18	19
Place of residence					
Urban	1.8	4.1	7.3	11.4	19.0
Rural	2.3	4.7	9.9	19.1	26.6
Population group					
African	2.1	4.5	9.1	16.6	23.5
Coloured	3.2	5.7	10.6	19.4	30.9
White	0.0	1.7	4.7	1.5	9.0
Educational status					
No education	6.2	11.9	19.9	32.6	38.0
Primary	2.4	5.0	11.6	21.3	29.7
Some secondary	1.6	3.8	7.7	14.7	23.9
Matric or higher	0.0	10.6	6.0	9.5	13.4
Marital status					
Ever married	14.4	12.7	28.5	42.3	53.9
Never married	1.9	4.4	8.5	15.4	22.2
All teenagers	14.4	12.7	28.5	42.3	53.8

Teenage fertility

Figure 3.11 shows the estimated levels of teenage specific fertility for 2007. The age-specific teenage fertility rate for all of the province was .058. Districts in which teenage fertility were relatively high include Cacadu (.080), O.R. Tambo (.074) and Alfred Nzo (.071).

Figure 3.11. Teenage specific fertility rates, 2001



Estimates from the 2001 census data in Table 3.13 indicate that teenage fertility was comparatively higher for Coloureds than for other population groups. It was also relatively high in the rural area. This pattern of difference is also fol-

lowed by non-marital teenage childbearing in the province.

There was a big difference in the age-specific fertility rate of teenagers who did not have any formal education and those who had some level of education (Table 3.9). Never-married teenagers with no formal education had an age specific fertility rate of .131 compared to .046 for those with any primary education, .047 for those with some secondary education and .043 for those with matric or higher level of education.

Table 3.13. Age-specific fertility rate for women aged 15-19, 2001

	Ever married	Never married	All
District Council			
Alfred Nzo	.188	.059	.071
Amathole	.141	.033	.036
Cacadu	.121	.054	.080
Chris Hani	.221	.048	.053
Nelson Mandela	.219	.037	.039
O.R. Tambo	.200	.067	.074
Ukhahkamba	.230	.055	.062
Place of residence			
Urban	.190	.038	.042
Rural	.191	.055	.062
Population group			
African	.185	.049	.055
Coloured	.124	.071	.076
White	.509	.010	.023
Level of education			
No education	.194	.131	.141
Primary	.195	.046	.053
Part secondary	.182	.047	.052
Matric +	.242	.043	.049
All Eastern Cape	.202	.051	.055

CONTRACEPTION AND CHILDBEARING

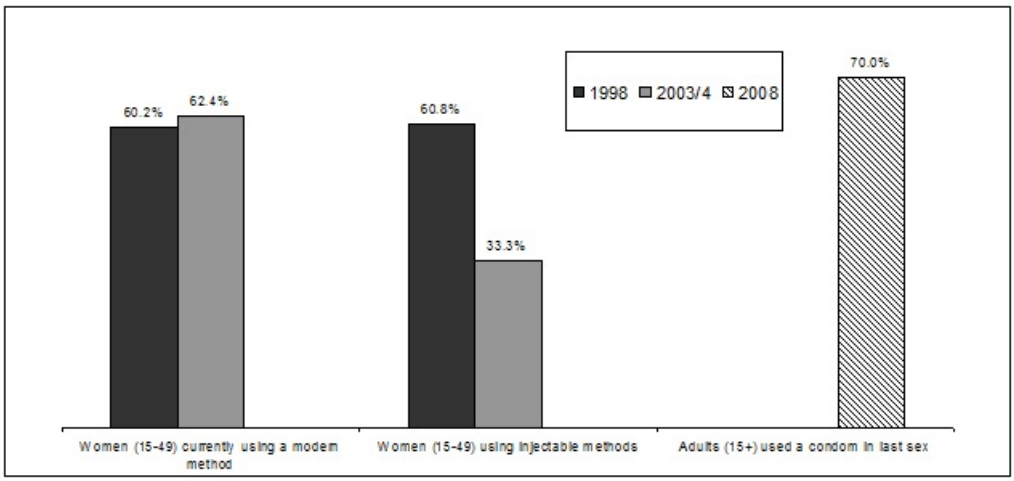
Use of contraception is the second most important proximate determinant of fertility following non-marriage in the province. The percentages of women who used a method of contraception in 1998 and 2003/4 are shown in Figure 3.12. These data show a high rate of contraceptive prevalence in the province. The contraceptive prevalence rate rose from 60.2% in 1998 to 62.4% in 2003/2004.

Recent data show that as many as 70% of adults older than 14 years used a condom during their last sexual relations in 2008. This large increase in the use of condom is mainly a result of how condom has been vigorously promoted in the fight against HIV and AIDS in the country.

Another characteristic of contraceptive use in the province and other parts of the country is the importance of injectable methods. In 1998, 60.8% of

women who used a method of contraception used injectable methods. This percent was considerably lower (33.3%) by 2003 and 2004.

Figure 3.12. Patterns of contraceptive use in the province



These two features, namely, the relatively high rate of contraceptive prevalence in the province and other predominantly rural parts of the country, and widespread use of injectable methods, raise a number of research and policy questions. Research in the 1990s suggested a high rate of contraceptive prevalence among many Blacks in South Africa was a practical survival strategy in the context of the socio-economic crises of an oppressive and apartheid society. Another issue that attracted considerable research interest during the 1990s is widespread use of methods that are generally considered to have higher health risks than others, namely, injectable methods. A simple logistic explanation is that until the middle of the 1990s, government family planning facilities did not provide a variety of methods to Blacks women. From the perspective of the user though, this method of contraception was perhaps preferred by many women in the complex configurations of conjugal relationship that developed within the apartheid society.

UNDERSTANDING FERTILITY CHANGE IN THE PROVINCE

The prevailing fertility pattern in the province is a strand of a complex national demographic story that cannot be fully understood in isolation. Presently at the national level, the fertility transition appears to be on course albeit at a slower pace especially in rural areas. Historically, the South African fertility responded

to a complex socioeconomic environment of privileges and deprivation among the various population groups. A decline of White fertility was catalyzed by relative socio-economic privileges in a model of development that is similar to the experiences of Western societies. The historical fertility experiences of all other racial groups were more complicated. Their fertility responded negatively to socio-cultural and economic crises of living as the disadvantaged population groups in a racially segregated society. Poverty interacted with various social and cultural forces to encourage a limitation of family size by Africans in both rural and urban areas. Over time, the fertility of the predominantly urban Coloured group responded negatively as part of coping strategy amidst economic hardships in an industrial society. Similarly, the Indian fertility responded negatively to the adaptive strategy of the Indian family system in a racially hostile and economically competitive urban environment. In particular, the experience of South African Indians suggests that change in reproductive behaviour that contributes to a decline in fertility is possible without a radical disorganization of the family structure.

Recent fertility change in the country has followed the patterns of socioeconomic privilege and deprivation that were formalized during the apartheid era. By the middle of the 1990s, it was fairly obvious that patterns of reproductive behaviour conditioned by apartheid policies might change in the post-apartheid society. However, considering the complex nature of social and behaviourial dimensions of childbearing, motivations for an individual-level reproductive strategy could not be accurately predicted exclusively on the basis of past experiences. Especially among Blacks, family limitation norms that were adopted in the past as part of an economic survival strategy appear to be transforming into volitional preferences—a change that is possibly championed by a rapidly growing urbanized and educated middle class.

The Eastern Cape and all other parts of the country are undergoing a transition in fertility, an experience of much of Europe and North America in the 19th century and several developing countries by the middle of the 20th century. The context and key drivers of this process are not exactly the same for regions and countries of the world. In some countries, the fertility transition started slowly and only accelerated in decades that followed. In others the decline was fast during the onset but gradually slowed down. In all past cases, the speed of fertility change has depended on major drivers of change in childbearing patterns. In countries with aggressive population programmes, the speed of fertility decline was dramatic in early years and reflected a strong influence of programme efforts; the impacts of other non-programme factors increased in significance in later phases of fertility change. In the Eastern Cape, fertility is experiencing mixed impacts of factors that affected the timing and speed of its decline. These include historical political and economic policies, family planning programme and socio-cultural responses to these factors. Other structural factors could also hold a key for better understanding of fertility trends in the province.

Another factor in the levels and trends in provincial fertility is the emergence of the HIV and AIDS. This epidemic contributed directly to a reduction in the level of fertility through various avenues. Indirectly, the fight against HIV and AIDS has raised the profile of barrier methods of contraception and behaviour changes that are more likely to favour lower than higher fertility, especially among the younger sections of the population.

Although the level of fertility in the Eastern Cape is relatively high compared to several other provinces, it remains on a declining course. A lack of appropriate historical quantitative data on childbearing makes it difficult for analysts to determine with a high degree of precision the onset of a consistently downward trend in fertility in the province. Possibly, the beginning of fertility decline in the region was gradual, and became pronounced by the middle or late 1980s. The speed of the fertility decline during the first decade of the current millennium will be better assessed when data from the 2011 national census become available.

There are no major surprises in the socioeconomic correlates of fertility in the province. Different measures of fertility show recognizable patterns of association with a number of socioeconomic factors. Three factors that are consistently associated with the level of fertility are type of place of residence, population group and female educational status. Subgroups of the provincial population with relatively high levels of fertility include women in the Eastern and predominantly rural districts of O.R. Tambo and Alfred Nzo, Africans and those with no formal education. The level of fertility is comparatively low for Whites, Indians and Coloured, and for residents in Nelson Mandela Bay Metropolitan Municipality, Amathole District Municipality and Cacadu District Municipality.

A general pattern of the proximate determinants of fertility that has been identified for other parts of the country is evident in the province. This pattern characterized by a weakening role of marriage as the socially sanctioned milieu for childbearing, and a high prevalence of non-marital childbearing among women in childbearing ages, and especially among teenagers.

In conclusion, the failure of a classical formulation of the demographic transition theory in explaining the South African fertility is demonstrated by the experience of the Eastern Cape Province. The provincial experience suggests that, depending on the prevailing social environment, fertility may respond in various ways to policy and economic factors. The continued downward trend in fertility in the context of poverty has an obvious implication for development policy and population activities in the province and other parts of the country. There is no strong empirical support for the view that the prevailing level of fertility is the major cause of poverty in the province. Anti-poverty plans should include provisions for social and economic services for the expected number of additions to the population based on the prevailing and projected patterns of fertility.

Health and Mortality

4

The province inherited a fragmented health system with services that did not meet the needs of the majority of the population. Over the past fifteen years, and following changes in the national health policy, the provincial health sector has seen major interventions that transformed the old system. Transformation of the provincial health services involved, first, a merging of health services in the former Transkei and Ciskei homelands and the Cape Provincial Administration under a single provincial authority. Secondly, the newly unified provincial health system was decentralized in order to facilitate relevance, access and equity in health services. The provincial health system delivers services in a wide range of areas of health care and the provincial Department of Health is engaged in various programmes that address different challenges in the delivery of health services to people in the province.

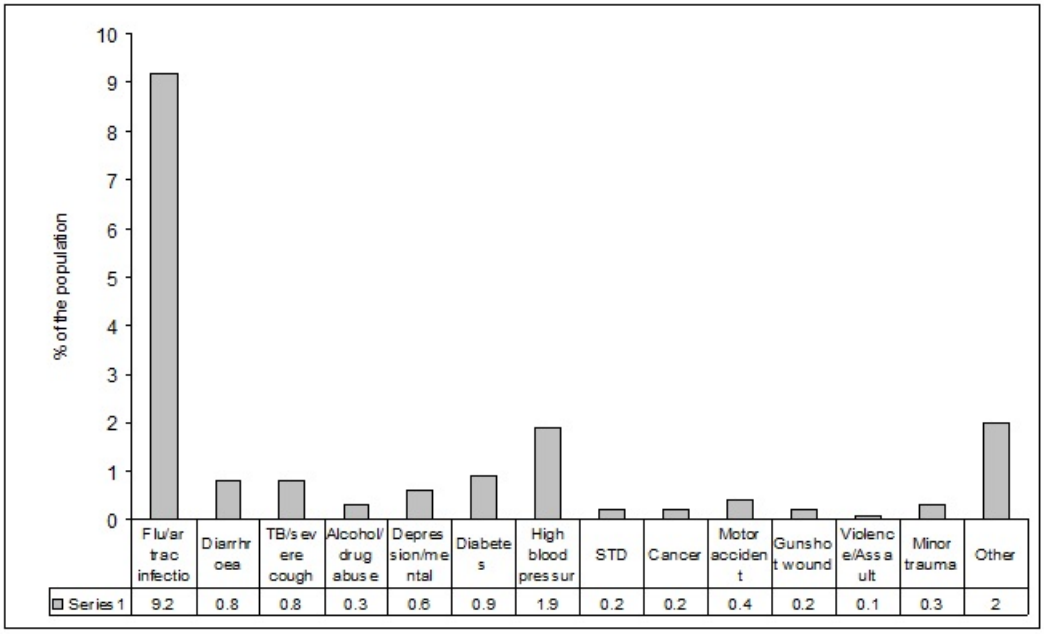
Against this background, this chapter examines changes in health status at the population level in the province with a focus on selected indicators. Interest in this report is in the extent to which health services are translating into actual improvements in the health of people in the province. Unfortunately the quality of available data does not permit a detailed account of technical aspects of various indicators of health and mortality. The scope of this chapter is limited to a general overview of selected indicators based on available secondary statistics. Subjects that are highlighted include general health status of people, disability, chronic diseases, reproductive health behaviour, levels of mortality, longevity and reported causes of death including HIV and AIDS.

GENERAL HEALTH STATUS

A majority of the provincial population are in good health. Only 15.6% of the provincial population reported an illness or injury in the 2009 General Household Survey (STATSSA, 2010). Perceptions of people about their general health status (collected in the 2009 General Household Survey) are summarized in Figure 4.1. Self-reporting of illnesses, especially for conditions that require

technical diagnosis and treatment, is subject to response errors. This should be borne in mind in the interpretation of the data in Figure 4.1. Types of illnesses commonly reported by people in the province include flu, high blood pressure, diarrhoea and tuberculosis/severe coughing (Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1. Self-reported health status, 2009



The information about self-reported illnesses/injuries in Table 4.1 shows that slightly more women reported illnesses/injuries (14.1% of men and 16.9% of women). Women reported flu, diarrhoea, depression, high blood pressure, diabetes and other illnesses/injuries more than men. On the other hand, men reported tuberculosis/sever cough with blood, sexually transmitted diseases, cancer, motor accident, violence/assault and minor trauma more than women. Both men and women reported the same percent for alcohol and drug abuse.

Table 4.2 summarizes basic anthropometric indicators available for the more recent period for the province. These data show that in 2003-2004, men were generally taller but weigh less than women. Only 63.8% of men and just 36.7% of women in the province fell into the normal range of body mass index (BMI): 10.9% of men and 3.2% of women were underweight; 16.5% of men and 28% of women were overweight; 8.8% of men and as many as 31.9% of women were reported to be obese in 2003/2004.

Table 4.1. Self-reported health status, 2009

Type of illness/injury	Male	% reported Female	Both
Any injury or illness	14.1	16.9	15.6
Type of illness/injury			
Flu/acute respiratory track infection	8.2	10.2	9.2
Diarrhoea	0.8	0.9	0.8
TB/sever cough with blood	1.1	0.9	0.8
Abuse of alcohol/drug	0.3	0.3	0.3
Depression/mental illness	0.5	0.7	0.6
Diabetes	0.8	1.0	0.9
High blood pressure	1.2	2.5	1.9
Sexually transmitted diseases (including HIV/AIDS)	0.3	0.1	0.2
Cancer	0.3	0.1	0.2
Motor accident	0.4	0.3	0.4
Gunshot wound	0.2	0.3	0.2
Violence/assault	0.2	0.1	0.1
Minor Trauma	0.4	0.2	0.3
Other	1.8	2.2	2.0

Table 4.2. Selected anthropometric indicators for adults 15 + years, 2003-2004

Indicator	Value Men	Women
Mean height	1.67m	1.58m
Mean body weight	64.6 kg	69.8kg
Percent with normal body mass index (BMI)	63.8%	36.7%
% underweight	10.9%	3.2%
% overweight	16.5%	28.2%
% obese	8.8%	31.9%

Note: Body Mass Index= (kg/m^2).

Disability

The level of disability reported for the province in the 1996 census was 7.4%. The 2001 census data showed a level of 5.8%, and the Community Survey data estimated a level of 5.1 (Figure 4.2). These data show a declining trend although the extent of the impacts of data quality and definition is uncertain.

The prevalence of disability is relatively higher in Chris Hani (7.1%) and Ukhahlamba (6.1%) districts than in other districts (Figure 4.3). Higher levels were reported for Coloureds (5.7%) and Africans (5.1%) than for Indians (3.0%) and Whites (3.7%). The observed increase in reported prevalence of disability with age is expected as the exposure to the risk of disability is highly correlated with age.

The most common type of disability in the population is physical disability. It was reported for two percent of the population. Age and population group are significantly associated with the prevalence of disability. The prevalence of disability is inversely associated with age. The level of physical disability reported in 2007 was small in young ages but increased significantly from the age of 15 years. Coloureds and Africans reported higher levels of physical disability than Indians and Whites.

Figure 4.2. Prevalence (%) of disability, 1996-2007

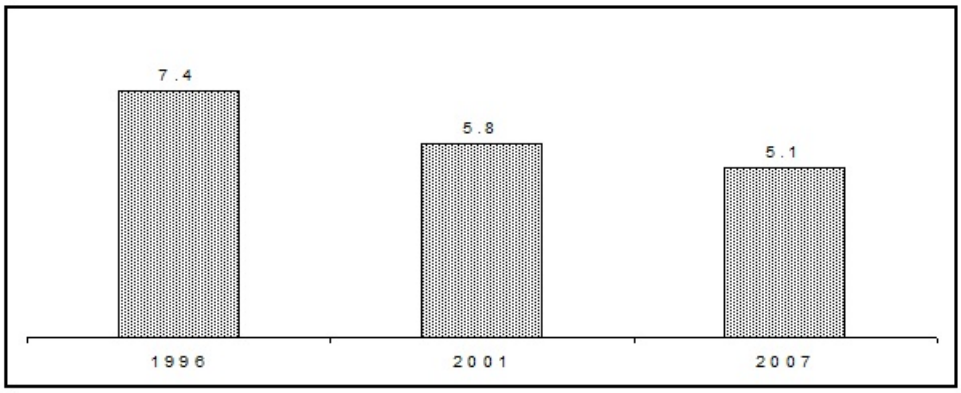


Figure 4.3. Prevalence (%) of disability by selected characteristics, 2007

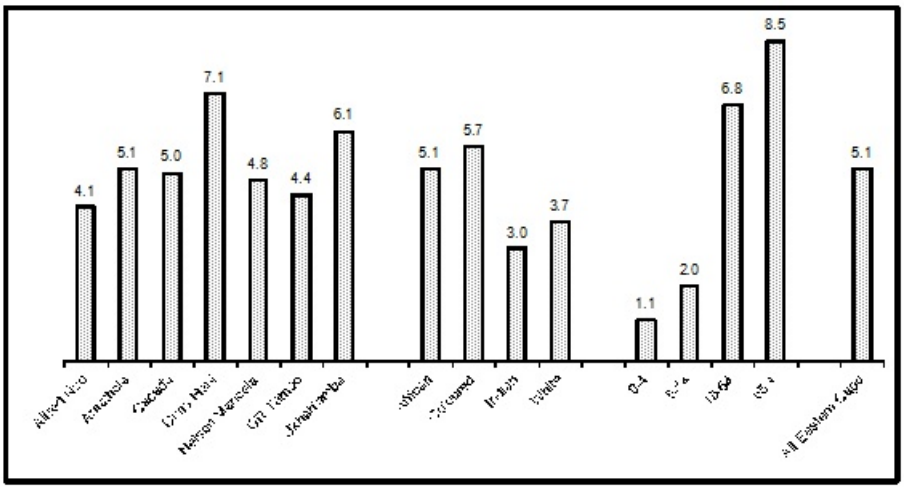


Table 4.3. Prevalence of disability, 2007

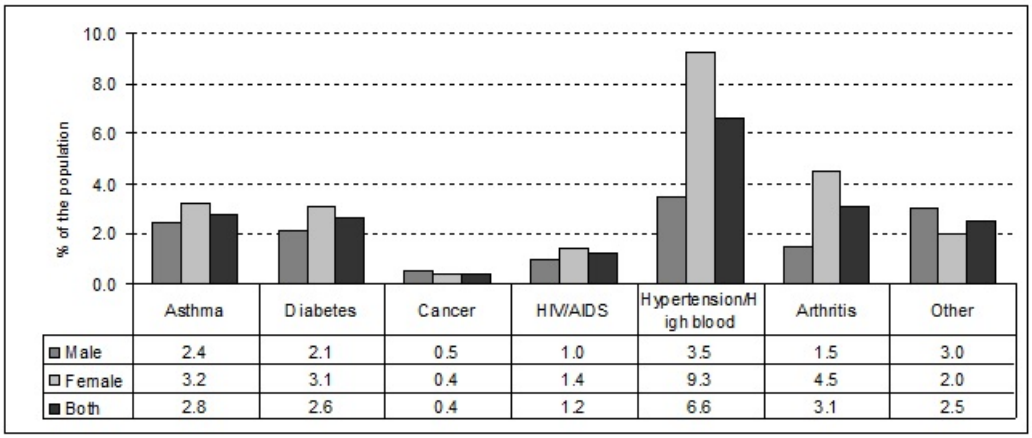
	Type of disability							
	None	Sight	Hearing	Speech	Physical	Intellectual	Emotional	Multiple
District								
Alfred Nzo	95.9	0.5	0.7	0.2	1.4	0.5	0.7	0.1
Amathole	94.9	0.5	0.5	0.3	1.9	0.4	1.2	0.3
Cacadu	95.0	0.5	0.4	0.2	2.3	0.3	1.1	0.2
Chris Hani	92.9	0.7	0.7	0.3	3.1	0.4	1.6	0.3
Nelson Mandela	95.2	0.5	0.4	0.2	2.0	0.6	0.9	0.3
O.R. Tambo	95.6	0.5	0.6	0.2	1.6	0.2	1.0	0.3
Ukhahlamba	93.9	0.9	0.6	0.3	2.4	0.5	1.2	0.3
Population group								
African	94.9	0.6	0.6	0.3	2.0	0.4	1.1	0.3
Coloured	94.3	0.4	0.4	0.2	2.1	0.4	1.8	0.4
Indian	97.0	0.8	0.4	0.0	1.8	0.0	0.0	0.0
White	96.3	0.3	0.5	0.2	1.6	0.3	0.4	0.3
Age group								
0-4	98.9	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.2
5-14	98.0	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.2
15-64	93.2	0.6	0.6	0.3	2.8	0.5	1.6	0.3
65+	91.5	1.9	1.2	0.2	3.7	0.2	0.9	0.5
All Eastern Cape	94.6	0.6	0.5	0.2	2.0	0.4	1.1	0.3

Chronic diseases

Figure 4.4 shows possibly more reliable estimates of the prevalence of selected conditions in the population in 2009. These were reported to be confirmed by qualified medical practitioners. The reported percent for hypertension/high blood pressure in the province is particularly high (6.6%). With the exception of cancer, and diseases in the 'other' category, more percentages were reported for women than men for asthma, diabetes, HIV/AIDS, hypertension/high blood pressure and arthritis.

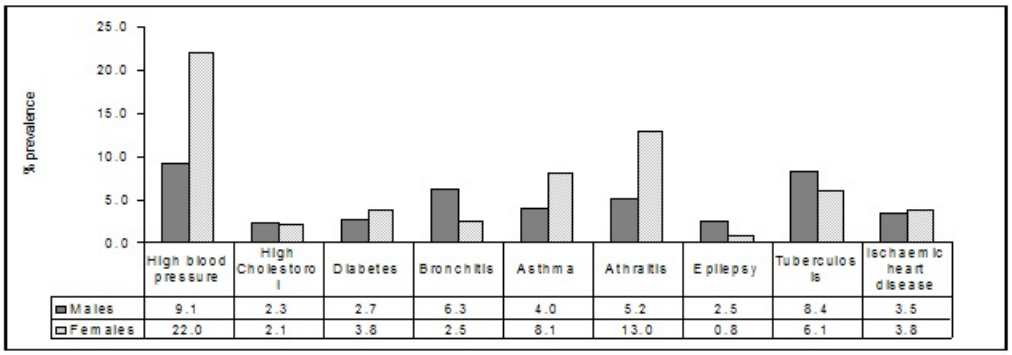
Figure 4.5 shows gender differences in the prevalence of selected chronic diseases in 2003-2004. Chronic diseases with higher prevalence rates among men include high blood pressure, stroke, high cholesterol level, bronchitis, epilepsy and tuberculosis. On the other hand, the prevalence rates high blood pressure, stroke, diabetes, asthma, arthritis and ischemic heart disease were higher among women.

Figure 4.4. Prevalence of selected diseases in the population, 2009



	Asthma	Diabetes	Cancer	HIV/AIDS	Hypertension/High blood	Arthritis	Other
Male	2.4	2.1	0.5	1.0	3.5	1.5	3.0
Female	3.2	3.1	0.4	1.4	9.3	4.5	2.0
Both	2.8	2.6	0.4	1.2	6.6	3.1	2.5

Figure 4.5. Prevalence of chronic diseases, 2003-2004



	High blood pressure	High Cholestorol	Diabetes	Bronchitis	Asthma	Athraitis	Epilepsy	Tuberculosis	Ischaemic heart disease
Males	9.1	2.3	2.7	6.3	4.0	5.2	2.5	8.4	3.5
Females	22.0	2.1	3.8	2.5	8.1	13.0	0.8	6.1	3.8

The reported cases and incidence of tuberculosis in the province rose from 16 266 in 2002 to 23 459 five years later in 2007. Similarly there was an increase in the incidence of tuberculosis from 675 in 2002 to 787 in 2007 (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4. Reported cases and incidence of tuberculosis, 2002-2007

Year	Reported cases (cm+)	Incidence (per 100 000 population)
2002	16 266	675
2003	17 149	599
2004	15 978	519
2005	17 984	639
2006	29 135	705
2007	23 459	787

Health behaviour

Smoking and uses of alcohol are types of behaviour that impact on other aspects of health. Fairly reliable information collected these items of behaviour in the 1998 and 2003-2004 Demographic and Health Surveys are presented in Figure 4.6 and Table 4.5. These data show that more men (54.4%) reported ever smoking than women (18.1%) in the most recent survey. Similarly, more men (42.5%) than women (10.2%) reported drinking alcohol in the past twelve months before the survey in 2003/2004. However, among drinkers, more women (32.8%) than men (21.7%) reported hazardous drinking. There was a slight reduction in the percent of men and women who drank from 1998 to 2003/2004 (Table 4.5).

Figure 4.6. Health behaviour, 2003-2004

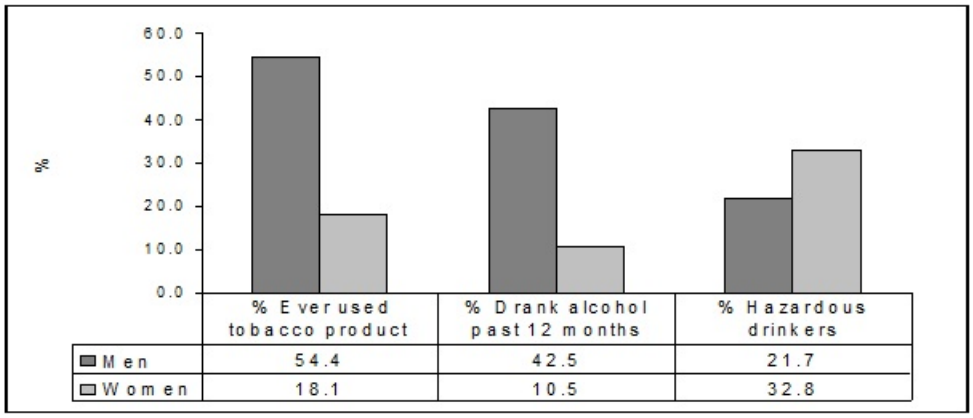


Table 4.5. Drinking behaviour of men and women, 1998 and 2003

	1998		2003	
Drinking behaviour	Men	Women	Men	Women
% Ever drank	60.1	22.3	58.8	18.1
% Currently drinking	47.4	16.2	42.5	10.5
% Risky drinking	27.2	29.4	21.7	32.8

Reproductive health

Selected reproductive health indicators for the province from various sources are presented in Table 4.4. Among those aged 15-49, higher levels of sexually transmitted infections were reported for men (11.5%) than for women (5.5%). The prevalence rate of contraception was 62.4% for all sexually active women in the reproductive ages (15-49 years) in 2003/04. More recent data show that as many as 70% of all sexually active adults aged 15 years or older used a condom in their last sexual relations.

Thirteen percent of boys and girls aged 15-19 years reported that they had multiple sexual partners in the past 12 months before the survey; 13.6% of girls aged 15-19 years reported that they were ever pregnant. Recent service statistics found that at the end of the first quarter of 2007/2008, ten percent of all deliveries in district health facilities in the province occurred to women under the age of 18 years.

Statistics on induced abortion are neither comprehensive nor of a very high quality. Using information collected mainly from the public health sector, crude abortion rates of 288 and 591 were estimated for women aged 15-49 years in 2001 and 2006 respectively (Figure 4.7). These figures indicate an increase in the rate of termination of pregnancy but considering possible data quality problem, the exact rate of change in the intervening period could be smaller or bigger.

Recently, male circumcision has been brought into mainstream discussions about preventive measures in reproductive health. Population based data from the 2003-2004 Demographic and Health Survey show that 43.5% of men aged 15-49 years reported that they were circumcised.

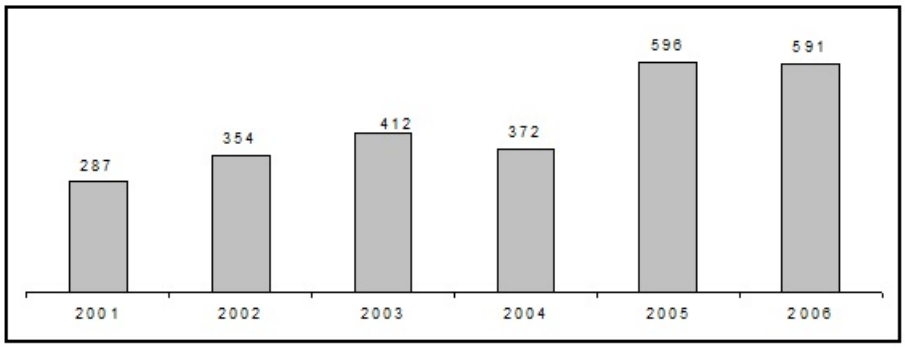
Other aspects of reproductive behaviour in the province which have implications for reproductive health, especially from the point of view of the fight against HIV and AIDS include an early age at first sexual relations and the percent of people who have multiple sexual partners. Available statistics on these indicators are summarized in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6. Selected indicators of reproductive health and behaviour

Indicator	Year/Period	Value
Percent of men 15-49 with a sexually transmitted infection/genital discharge/ genital sore/ulcer in the last 12 months	2003	11.5%
Percent of women 15-49 with a sexually transmitted infection/genital discharge/ genital sore/ulcer in the last 12 months	2003	5.5%
HIV prevalence in the population (15-49 years)	2008	15.2%
Contraceptive prevalence rate among all sexually active women (15-49 years)	2003	62.4%
Median age at first sexual relations for all women 20-49	2003	18.3 yrs
% aged 15-24 who had sexual rations before the age 15	2008	7.8%
% all adults (15 years +) who used condom in the past 12 months	2008	70.0%
% of teenagers (male and females 15-19) who had multiple sexual partners in past 12 months	2008	13.1%
% of teenagers (girls 15-19 yrs) ever pregnant	2003	13.6%
% of males 15-49 who are circumcised	2003	43.8%
Crude abortion rate*	2006	591

see Figure 4.5

Figure 4.7 Trend in crude abortion rate,* 2001-2006



* per 100 000 of women aged 15-49 years

MORTALITY

Official sources of recent mortality statistics for the province include the 1996 and 2001 census data and records of deaths collected by Statistics South Africa, the Department of Health and the Department of Home Affairs. Others sources include estimates from large-scale national surveys such as the 1998 and 2003 demographic and health surveys conducted by the National Department of Health. Mortality data from the 2007 Community Survey were not available for public use at the time when this report was prepared. In addition to these, researchers have produced different estimates and projections of indices of mortality based on various data sources and techniques.

Generally, the quality of unadjusted mortality statistics in the country is not very good. Consequently, a number of shortcomings would be expected in mortality analysis and estimates for the province and other parts of the country. No elaborate analysis of mortality is carried out here due to the poor quality of available statistics. Typically, estimates of mortality indicators vary narrowly or widely for the same province or sub-groups of population within a province depending on data quality and analytical techniques used to produce the results. The information and conclusions in this part of the report should be viewed in the light of these and other data limitations.

Reported number of deaths

A total number of 87 452 deaths were recorded in Eastern Cape in 2007. This number represented 14.5% of all deaths in South Africa in that year. The statistics are presented for males and females in different districts with the implied crude death rates in Table 4.7. These crude date rates are implausibly low, suggesting that official statistics on deaths in the province and other parts of the country should be carefully adjusted in an analysis of mortality. However, if it is assumes that reports of male and female deaths are equally affected by data error in the same way, these statistics may, to a limited extent, be used to examine gender differences in mortality in each district. For instance, the unadjusted data show that more female deaths were reported in all but two district municipalities (- the exceptions are Cacadu District Municipality and Nelson Mandela District Municipality). Data limitations prevent detailed a analysis of patterns of death in this report. However, regional, district and local variations in mortality would be expected on the basis of the empirical patterns in known socio-economic determinants of health.

Table 4.7. Sex differences in reported death rates, 2007

District Municipality	Male	Female	Both	Implied CDR*
Alfred Nzo	2 097	2 306	4 407	9.2
Amathole	13 781	14 173	27 994	16.8
Cacadu	2 667	2 568	5 238	14.4
Chris Hani	5 381	6 025	11 420	14.3
Nelson Mandela	8 132	7 452	15 592	14.8
O.R. Tambo	8 083	9 056	17 180	9.2
Ukhahlamba	2 715	2 896	5 621	8.5
All Eastern Cape	42 856	44 476	87 452	13.4

Note: Male and females do not add to total because cases with unspecified sex is removed
* crude death rate.

Early age mortality

The infant mortality rate (IMR) is one of the most sensitive indicators of the level of socioeconomic development in a population. It captures the interaction of health and a variety of factors in the social and economic environments in a demographic phase when life is most fragile. Estimates of infant and child mortality for the Eastern Cape from various sources in the period covering 1996 to 2010 are shown in Table 4.8 and Figure 4.8. Relative to other provinces, the infant mortality rate in the Eastern Cape Province was the highest in all years for which data are available. The same is true for the child mortality rate in the province. The infant mortality rate rose slightly during the first half of the past decade. The estimated IMR for 1998 was 61.2 per thousand and 67.0 per thousand in 2003. The projected trend (Table 4.8) suggests a level of 57 in 2010. There was a slight decline in the rate of child mortality from 80.5 in 1998 to 78.0 in 2003. Simulation data suggest a rise to 86 for 2010. Informed opinions expect declining trends in infant and child mortality in the province and other parts of the country following the leveling off of the HIV prevalence since about 2005. But the general trends in infant and child mortality in the province do not suggest a clear and big improvement in the health status of the population since 1998. The evidence gives a clearer picture of an increase in the child mortality rate than a decrease in infant mortality. However, the impacts of AIDS have made it more difficult for researchers to establish or predict these trends with certainty since about the middle of the 1990s.

Figure 4.8. Infant and child mortality, 1996-2010

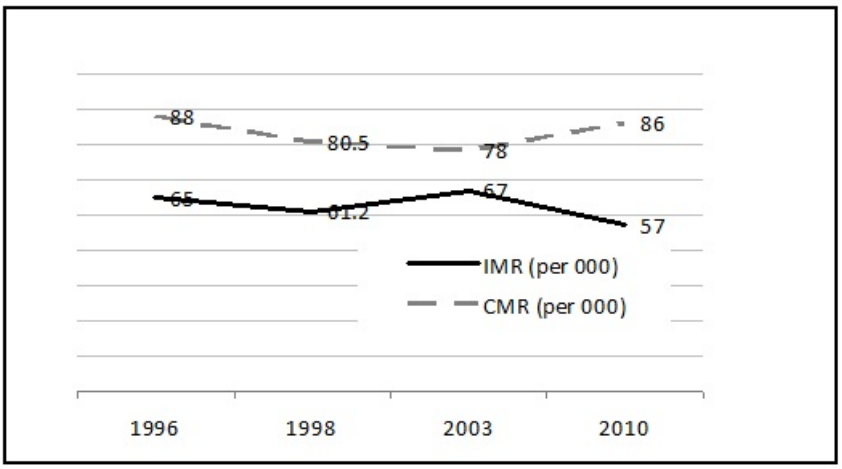


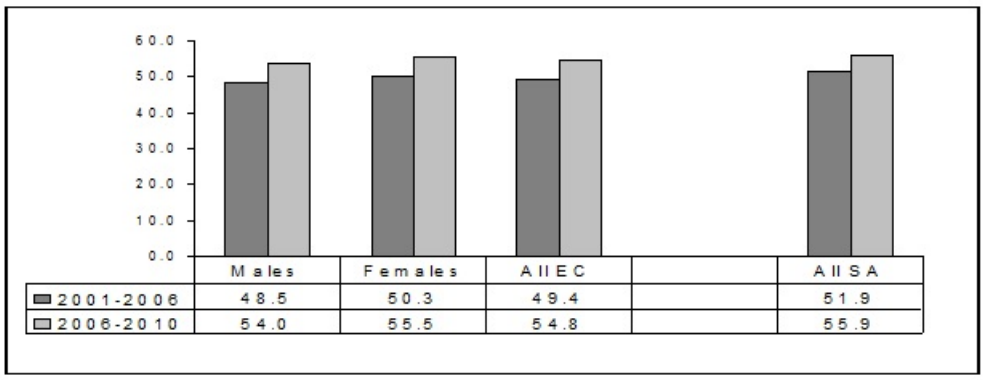
Table 4.8. Estimates of infant and child mortality, 2006-2010

Year	Infant mortality rate (IMR)	Child mortality rate (CMR)
2006	62.0	91.0
2007	60.3	89.2
2008	58.8	87.4
2009	57.7	86.3
2010	57.1	85.8

Adult mortality and longevity

The expectation of life at birth for the six-year period of 2001-2006 was estimated to be 49.4 years for the entire province. There is a small gender difference in available estimates of the expectation of life at birth in favour of females (48.5 years for males and 50.3 years for females). Other estimates based on 2001 census data indicated an average life expectation of 47.5 years for males, 58.2 years for females and 52.9 years for the entire provincial population. The estimate of life expectancy for the province in the 2006-2010 period is lower than the national average, but indicates a small increase from the value in the previous period (see Figure 4.9).

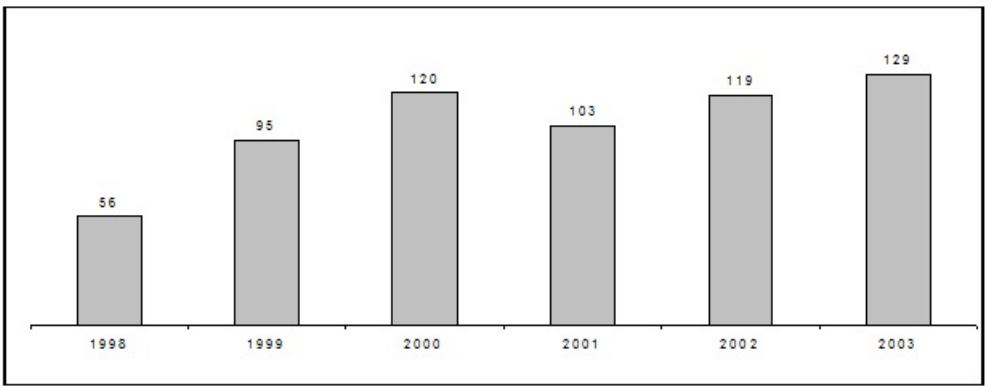
Figure 4.9. Estimates of expectation of life at birth, 2001-2010



Maternal deaths

A common measure of maternal death is the maternal mortality ratio (measured by the number of women who die as a result of childbearing, during or within 42 days of delivery or termination of pregnancy per 100000 live birth during a year). Maternal mortality ratios of 68 and 81 were reported in 2001 and 2003 respectively for the province. A similar increasing trend was observed in the reported number of maternal deaths (measured by the number of women who die as a result of childbearing, during the pregnancy or within 42 days of delivery or termination of pregnancy in a same year) from 1998 to 2003. The number rose from 56 in 1998 to 120 in 2000 and to 129 in 2003 (Figure 4.10). Researchers are yet to determine the exact proportion of the observed increase in the number of maternal death that is real and unaffected by errors in the data.

Figure 4.10. Reported number of maternal deaths 1998-2003



REPORTED CAUSES OF DEATH

Natural and non-natural causes

Most deaths reported for the province in 2007 (90.3%) were due to natural causes. Non-natural causes of death show significant age and gender effects. Table 4.9 shows non-natural deaths are more common among men in the 5-34 age range. Non-natural causes of death had sizeable effects in the young and youthful ages and among males than females in the population.

Table 4.9. Age and sex differences in reported causes of death, 2007

Characteristic	Natural	Unnatural
Age group		
0-4	94.1	5.9
5-9	67.0	33.0
10-14	58.4	41.6
15-19	46.6	53.4
20-29	77.1	22.9
30-34	89.6	10.4
30-34	90.9	9.1
35-39	93.6	6.4
40-49	95.9	4.1
50-59	93.6	6.4
60-69	95.9	4.1
70 +	97.2	2.8
Sex		
Male	85.2	14.8
Female	95.3	4.7
All Eastern Cape	90.3	9.7

Underlying natural causes of death

The ranking of underlying natural causes of death in Table 4.7, Table 4.8 and Table 4.10 shows important patterns of death. First, tuberculosis (TB) is consistently reported as the leading underlying natural cause of death in the province. It is followed in most cases by influenza and pneumonia (J10-J18) and intestinal infectious diseases (A00-09).

Table 4.10. Leading underlying natural causes of death, 2007

	ALL EC	Sex	
		Males	Females
Tuberculosis (A15-A19)	1	1	1
Influenza & pneumonia (J10-J18	2	3	2
Intestinal infectious diseases (A00-A09)	3	4	3
Chronic lower respiratory diseases (J40-J47)	4	2	7
Other forms of heart diseases (I30-I52)	5	6	4
Cerebrovascular diseases (I60-I69)	6	5	5
Certain disorders involving the immune mechanism (D80-D89)	7	9	8
Diabetes mellitus (E10-E14)	8	8	6
Ischaemic heart diseases (I2-I25)	9		
Digestive organs (C15-C26)	10	7	
Other diseases of the respiratory system (J95-J99)		10	
Other viral diseases (B25-B34)			10
Malignant neoplasm of			
Hypertensive diseases (I10-I15)			9
Human Immunodeficiency Virus diseases (B20-B24)			
Other acute lower respiratory infections (J20-J22)			
Other forms of heart diseases (I39-I52)			
Inflammatory diseases of the central nervous system (G00-G09)			

Table 4.11. Leading underlying natural causes of death, 1997-2007

	Age group		
	1997	2002	2007
Tuberculosis (A15-A19)	1	1	1
Influenza & pneumonia (J10-J18	2	3	2
Intestinal infectious diseases (A00-A09)	3	4	3
Chronic lower respiratory diseases (J40-J47)	4	2	7
Other forms of heart diseases (I30-I52)	5	6	4
Cerebrovascular diseases (I60-I69)	6	5	5
Certain disorders involving the immune mechanism (D80-D89)	7	9	8
Diabetes mellitus (E10-E14)	8	8	6
Ischaemic heart diseases (I2-I25)	9		
Digestive organs (C15-C26)	10		7
Other diseases of the respiratory system (J95-J99)		10	
Other viral diseases (B25-B34)			10
Malignant neoplasm of			
Hypertensive diseases (I10-I15)			9
Human Immunodeficiency Virus diseases (B20-B24)			
Other acute lower respiratory infections (J20-J22)			
Other forms of heart diseases (I39-I52)			
Inflammatory diseases of the central nervous system (G00-G09)			

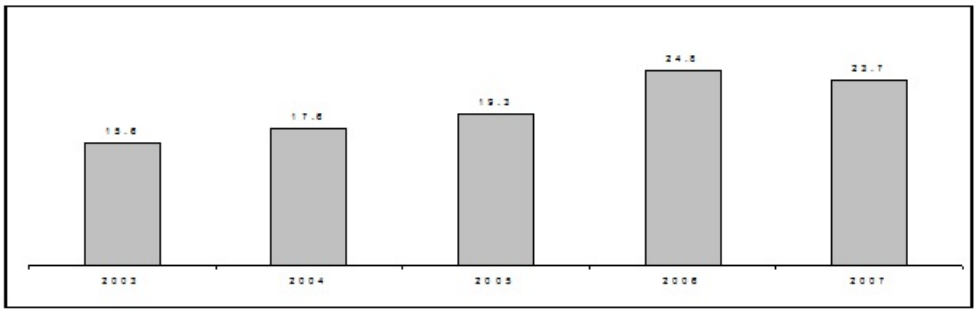
Table 4.12. Leading underlying natural causes of death in districts, 2007

	ALL EC	District						
		AN	AM	CA	CH	NM	OR	UK
Tuberculosis (A15-A19)	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
Influenza & pneumonia (J10-J18	2	6	5	2	2	2	3	2
Intestinal infectious diseases (A00-A09)	3	3	6		3	10	2	5
Chronic lower respiratory diseases (J40-J47)	4	8	2	6	4	4	5	8
Other forms of heart diseases (I30-I52)	5		3	3	5	8	8	4
Cerebrovascular diseases (I60-I69)	6	7	4	4	6	5	6	6
Certain disorders involving the immune mechanism (D80-D89)	7	4	10	7	10	9	10	7
Diabetes mellitus (E10-E14)	8		7	9	7	3	9	10
Ischaemic heart diseases (I2-I25)	9			8		6		
Other viral diseases (B25-B34)					8		4	9
Malignant neoplasm of Digestive organs (C15-C26)	10		8		9			
Hypertensive diseases (I10-I15)			9	10		7		
Other diseases of the respiratory system (J95-J99)		1						3
HIV diseases (B20-B24)				5			7	
Other acute lower respiratory infections (J20-J22)		5						
Other forms of heart diseases (I39-I52)		9						
Inflammatory diseases of the central nervous system (G00-G09)		10						

Fatalities from road accidents

Deaths from road accidents are poorly reported in the general statistics on the causes of death. Information collected by the National Department of Transport and other sources (see Figure 4.11) indicates a general increase in road accident fatality in the province. In 2003, the rate of road accident fatality was 15.8 per 100 000 people. This increased to 24.8 per 100 000 people in 2006. The rate for 2007 is 23.7 per 100 000 people, a slightly lower value than was recorded in the previous year.

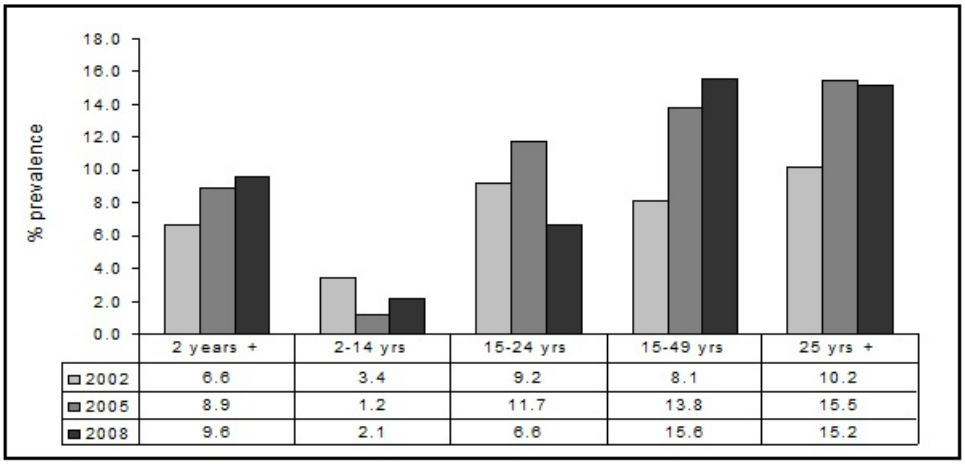
Figure 4.11. Road accident fatality (deaths per 100 000 people), 2003-2007



Prevalence of HIV

There was an overall decline in the reproductive ages of 15-49 ages from 15.5% in 2005 to 15.2% three years later in 2008 (Figure 4.12). However, this decline appears to result from behaviour change among young people in the 15-24 age group. No major decline is apparent among people aged 2 year or older, 2-14 years or 25 years and older.

Figure 4.12. HIV prevalence in the provincial population, 2002-2008

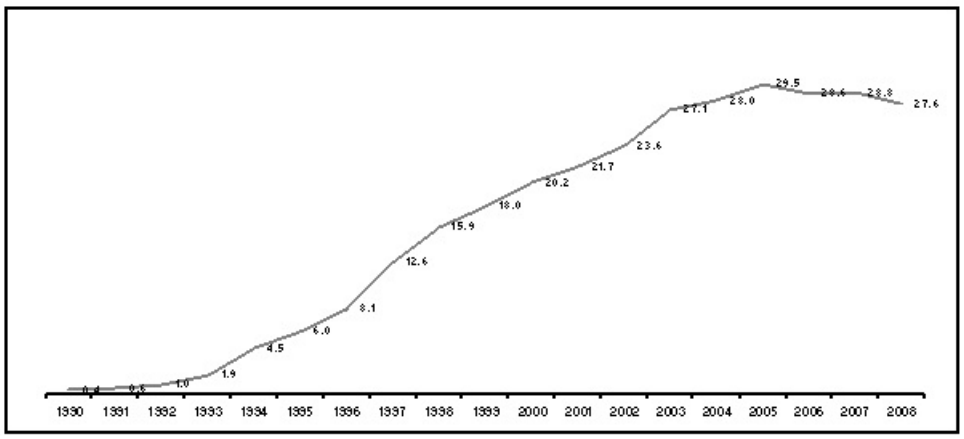


	2 years +	2-14 yrs	15-24 yrs	15-49 yrs	25 yrs +
2002	6.6	3.4	9.2	8.1	10.2
2005	8.9	1.2	11.7	13.8	15.5
2008	9.6	2.1	6.6	15.6	15.2

Women in the childbearing ages

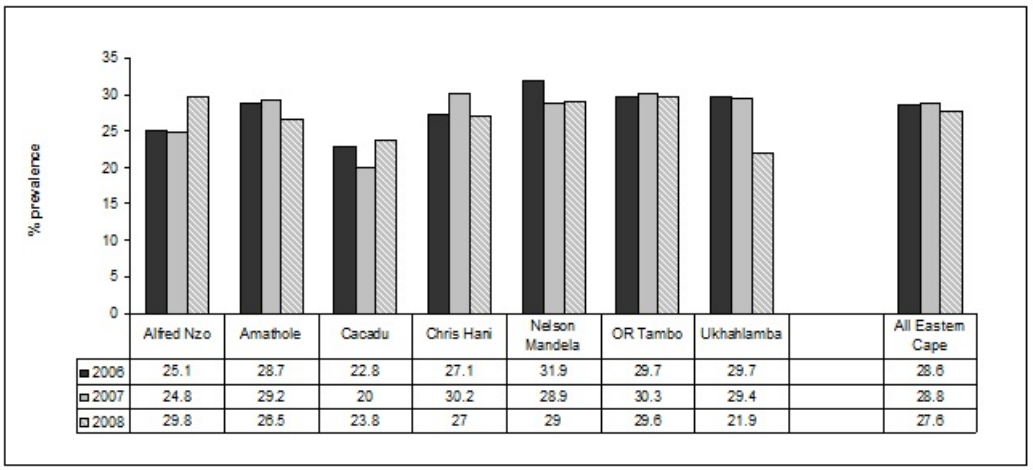
Women in the reproductive ages are particularly vulnerable to HIV infection. For many years, the National Department of Health has collected annual statistics on the prevalence rate of HIV among women who make use of ante-natal services in all parts of the country. Figure 4.13 shows that the prevalence rate of HIV among women attending ante-natal clinic rose from 0.4% in 1990 to a peak of 23.5% in 2005. Data for 2006, 2007 and 2008 indicate a decline in HIV prevalence among this sub-population in the province.

Figure 4.13. Trend in HIV prevalence among ante-natal women aged 15-49



Differences in the prevalence rate of HIV among women attending antenatal clinic in 2006-2007 are shown in Figure 4.14 for the district municipalities. A small downward trend is observed in the data. For the province as a whole, the prevalence of HIV among these women declined from 28.8% in 2007 to 27.6% in 2008. The observed trends in the district municipalities are not consistent. Alfred Nzo District Municipality and Amathole district municipalities experienced some increase in 2008 relative to the previous two years. In contrast, Amathole, Chris Hani, and Ukhahlamba experienced a decline in 2008 relative to 2007 and 2006. In Nelson Mandela Metro, the prevalence rate for 2007 and 2008 were the same although both are lower than the 2006 level. Only a very small change in the prevalence rate of HIV among antennal women is observed from 2006-2008.

Figure 4.14. HIV prevalence among antenatal women in the districts, 2006-2008



	Alfred Nzo	Amathole	Cacadu	Chris Hani	Nelson Mandela	OR Tambo	Ukhahlamba		All Eastern Cape
2006	25.1	28.7	22.8	27.1	31.9	29.7	29.7		28.6
2007	24.8	29.2	20	30.2	28.9	30.3	29.4		28.8
2008	29.8	26.5	23.8	27	29	29.6	21.9		27.6

Data for 2008 show a substantially higher rate of prevalence among women in both 15-19 and 20-24 age groups. Population-level data for the same years 2008 Human Sciences Research Council study show that this pattern of difference is observed for men and women well into the end of their thirties (HSRC, 2009). The HSRC estimated that women aged 24-34 are the most at-risk sub-group of the population in South Africa, with an HIV prevalence of 32% in 2008. This wide gender difference in HIV prevalence among the youth remains one of the most important concerns about HIV and AIDS in the province and other parts of the country.

Estimates of deaths due to HIV and AIDS

Although the prevalence level of HIV is fairly known, the contribution of AIDS as a cause of death is grossly under-reported. In 2007 and the years before, only a small proportion of all deaths in the province were reported to be due to AIDS. Human Immunodeficiency Virus diseases (B20-B24) did not count as one of the ten leading causes of death in most recently available official data for the province. Alternative estimates of deaths due to AIDS are shown in Table 4.13. As many as 38% of all death in the province during 2006 was estimated to be due to AIDS. Estimates for 2007, 2008 and 2009 were 39.5%, 40.7% and 41.9% respectively.

Table 4.13. Estimates of percent of deaths due to AIDS, 2006-2009

	% of deaths due to AIDS	No of AIDS orphans
2006	38.0	124 055
2007	39.5	148 125
2008	40.7	171 679
2009	41.9	190 060

CONCLUSION

The health profile of the province follows a pattern of poverty that is rooted in historical socioeconomic deprivation. Generally, the province lags behind most other parts of the country in a number of objective health indicators. Investments in the provincial health services are recording improvements in aspects of the health status of the population such as infant mortality, maternal mortality, youth health, longevity and reproductive health. However, a predominance of diseases of poverty, and major inequalities amongst sub-sections of the population, remain major challenges in the health profile of the province.

Migration and Development

5

Population movement is an important factor in demographic change. It can take the form of big or small waves of voluntary or forced migration at the local or international levels. Especially at the local and domestic levels, understanding the direction and volume of migration is critical for effective short and medium term planning and delivery of services. A recent volume (Kok et. al. 2006) presented a wide range of analysis migration in South Africa and Southern Africa that touched on issues in international and domestic migration, historical factors, patterns, socioeconomic and health impacts, limits and possibilities. The scope of interest in population movement in the present analysis is more restricted. Following the goal of the report, this chapter only reviews selected localized issues in migration in relation to the development challenges of the province.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Three historical waves of immigration are identifiable in South Africa. First, African immigration took place in a longer period in the past. Although there are little reliable materials, there is no conclusive evidence to suggest that this early African immigration was as confrontational as the European immigration that began from the middle of the 17th century. European migration was quite significant not necessarily because of its volume. Its consequences have impacted on every aspect of the geo-political, economic and social history of South Africa ever since.

For the people of Eastern Cape, questions and experiences about internal migration are inseparable from the history of early contacts with colonial powers, and the fight against political and economic injustice in various forms and at various periods until the new democratic era. Since the end of apartheid, there has been an increase in international immigration that is distinctively different from other historical waves of immigration. There is an increase in the number of immigrants from other African countries and from South East Asia. It is hard to accurately estimate the volume of immigration today because official migration statistics contain only information about legal immigrants.

The negative impacts of the migration policies of the past

Historical policies especially of apartheid had the most direct demographic impacts on patterns of population settlements and movements. These in turn had profound implications for families, households, social organization with serious social and economic consequences especially for the African population group in the country. Policies of the past about migration and related laws resulted in fundamental and effective disorganization of the policy, economy and society of the Eastern Cape. The province has the most intensive out-migration history in South Africa. What are the impacts of this pattern of out-migration on the overall development in the Eastern Cape? Its overall development impacts have been negative on families, households and communities in the Eastern Cape. It resulted in a greater degree of health and social risks and other forms of vulnerability among sections of the population including the poor, women and children that wiped out any real development benefits. On balance, the pattern of migration is on balance inimical to long-term socioeconomic development in the province. It does not guarantee a stock of competitive human capital for long-term development of the province. The province is unlikely to benefit from the skills and experiences of its well-educated population who migrate to other parts of the country.

Past migration policies distorted the demographic balance that is required for the formation conjugal unions and strong families. It is at a high cost of family stability and community development. Past migration patterns distorted basic relationships among demographic factors in the province. This resulted in imbalances in sex ratio. It had profound negative impacts on the family structure and responsibility, and the patterns of childbearing and child rearing in the province. In particular, the migrant labor system had profound impacts on sexual unions and fertility in the rural and urban areas. Many men migrated from the homelands leaving the management of the households in the hands of women and the elderly who are vulnerable to poverty. In the cities, many migrants with families and spouses in the rural areas entered into ad hoc sexual relationships and relationship that wrecked their families and conjugal lives.

Economically it failed to deliver the promised trickle down impact of remittance on a scale needed for significant economic growth in the province. Instead, it suggest false policy recommendations that are not consistent with broad-based and long term development strategy. For instance it suggests that policy should follow this anomalous migration pattern in the decision about where in the province essential services should or should not be located.

Migration in the current national population policy

Although migration is one of the major components of population change, it is not traditionally accommodated in a serious way in a typical national population policy. In many developing countries, a population policy that exclusively deals with fertility reduction is separate from one that focuses on migration issues.

Where a migration policy exists, it is almost always about international migration. Although many government departments have clear and preferred positions on internal migration, a national policy that is specific to internal migration is rare in developing countries. Following the prevailing convention of separating a population policy from a migration policy, the South African population policy recognized but did not give detailed attention to migration issues. In fact, while the population policy was being negotiated, a parallel process was in place for the development of a separate migration policy that was published four years later as the White Paper on International Migration (2002).

The *Population Policy of South Africa (1998)* mentions the historical experience of colonization and apartheid which shaped and controlled the patterns of human settlement and movement in South Africa. The Policy mentions "the inadequate analysis of the nature and impact of immigration for policy development purposes." Concerning internal migration, the policy puts forward three suggestions, namely, (i) "increasing alternative choices to migration from rural to urban areas...," (ii) "reducing backlogs in urban infrastructure and social services...," and, (iii) "reviewing the nature and impact of all forms of international migration on sustainable development..." However, there the Population Policy does not provide a detailed plan of action on internal migration. It makes no explicit mention of specific government departments with powers and responsibilities for implementing internal migration activities with the broad framework of national population activities.

INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Immigration

Presently, international migration does not appear to raise as many development and policy questions in the province as internal migration. This is mainly because the province is not a major preferred destination for immigrants in South Africa. The proportions of the provincial population who were citizens and non-citizens in 2001 and 2007 are shown in Figure 5.1. There is no noticeable change in the two periods. The percentages of foreigners in the province were no more than half a percent (0.2%) in the two years. In 2007 there were 40 182 foreign-born residents in the province. This represented 0.6% of the total provincial population. The total estimated size of the foreign-born population in the province in 2007 is slightly higher than the number counted in 2001 (35 433). The number of foreign-born people in the province in 2001 constituted 6% of the total population of the province in that year. Out of this number, 21 839 or 61.6% were full South African citizens. Only 13 596 of people living in the province or 0.2% of the population of the province were not South African citizens. When

examined in a national context (Figure 5.2), these statistics confirm that the Eastern Cape and the Northern Cape are the least attractive destinations for foreigners in South Africa.

Emigration

At the peak of negotiations for transformation into a new democracy in the early 1990s, White emigration and brain drain were raised as some of the potential undesirable outcomes of democratization of the country. There are currently no reliable empirical statistics in the public domain about the scale of White emigration and brain drain from the province. International migration data published for public use by Statistics South Africa do not contain information about a person's province of birth and residence before emigration. Qualitatively, there appears to be little incidence of emigration specifically from the province, and certainly not on a scale speculated by observers during the uncertain period of the mid-1990s.

Figure 5.1. Citizenship of the Eastern Cape population, 2001 and 2007

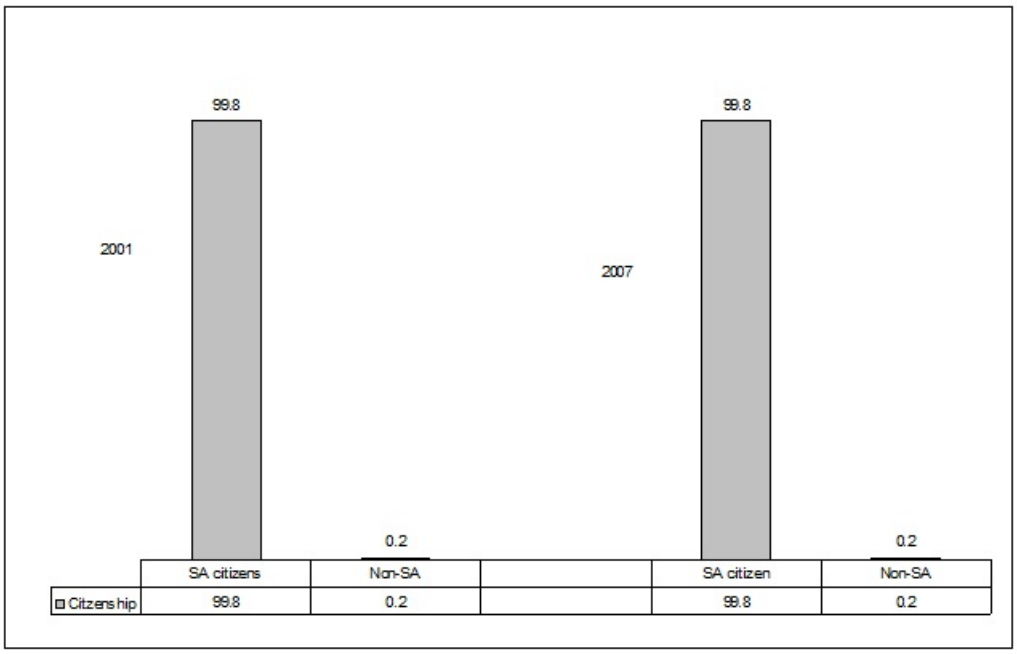
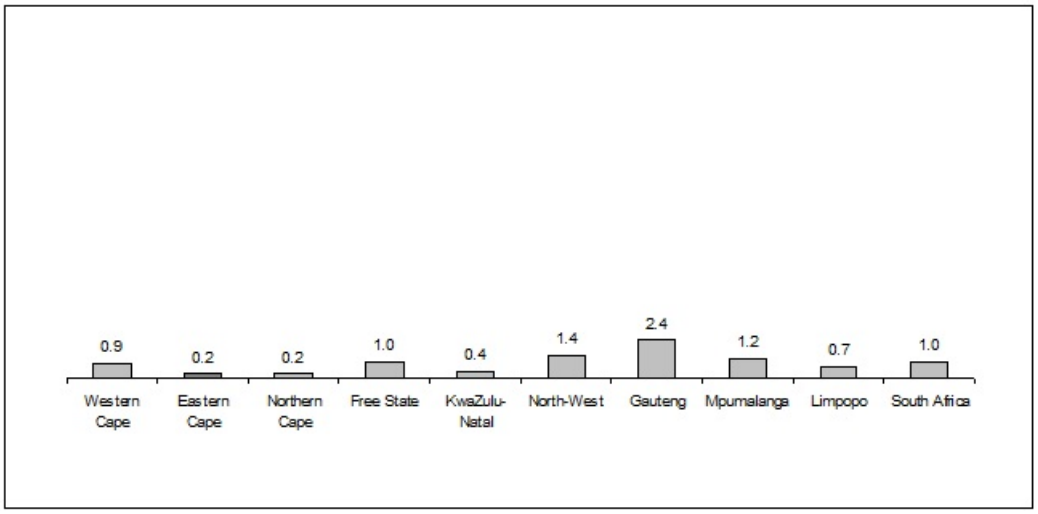


Figure 5.2. Foreigners as a percent of the South African population, 2007



INTERNAL MIGRATION

There are more questions about contemporary patterns of internal migration in the province than can be fully be answered by available empirical statistics. Little is known about change and continuity in migration patterns in the past fifteen years. The volume of migration, destinations, networks, the profile of migrants and challenges and benefits of migration are among the issues that call for clarifications for the Eastern Cape today.

Various patterns of internal migration were observed in the province by researchers during the last quarter of the 1980s and early 1990s when the economic implications for potential migrants of the process of socio-political transition in the country were largely uncertain (see for instance Cross, et. al., 1999 and Mabin, 1990). Whereas patterns of migration observed for the province during the 1980s and early 1990s were more or less real for these periods, they could not constitute secure bases for predicting future trends in migration in the province. Over the past decade, the socio-political environment has stabilized, making it easier for analysts to describe, explain and predict the migration strategy and patterns of people in the province.

In the absence of original and up-to-date empirical data, this chapter does no more than highlight some changes in two broad aspects of migration in the province with available information, namely movement of people from one part of the province to others, and movement of people from the Eastern Cape to other provinces in the country.

The information in Table 5.1 was calculated from the data reported by the Fort Hare Institute for Economic and Social Research (2006). These statistics indicate that population movement is related to personal and household economic reasons for most people. Most people moved either for employment or because they were looking for jobs (74.0%). Education was another important reason for migration (17.8%). Less than ten percent moved for a number of other reasons.

Employment and search for a job as reasons for migration were reported more for men than women, more for Africans and Coloured than for Whites. Employment and job related movement was particularly high in Ukhahlamba, O.R.Tambo, Alfred Nzo and Amathole, and relatively low in the Cacadu and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan areas. Education-related migration featured more prominently among Whites, women and people from Cacadu District Municipality. Other reasons were important in the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality, Cacadu District Municipality and among women. (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1. Percent distribution of migrants according to reason for absence, 2006

	Employment/ search for a job	Education	Other reasons
Sex			
Male	78.8	15.4	5.8
Female	67.7	21.2	11.1
Population group			
African	76.5	17.2	8.3
Coloured	74.1	18.5	7.4
White	43.8	56.2	0.0
District			
Alfred Nzo			
Amathole	75.9	14.9	9.2
Cacadu	57.3	24.9	17.8
Chris Hani	72.9	23.2	3.9
Nelson Mandela	49.8	22.2	28.0
O.R.Tambo	75.3	17.7	7.0
Ukhahlamba	82.9	13.5	3.6
All Eastern Cape	74.0	17.8	8.2

Where in the province do migrant move to? Figure 5.3 shows that 33% of all migrants move to other places in the province. Migrants from households in Nelson Mandela Metropolitan area, Cacadu District Municipality are more likely than others to move around in the province. This is also true of Coloured and women migrants.

Fig. 5.3. Percent of all migrants who remain in the province, 2006

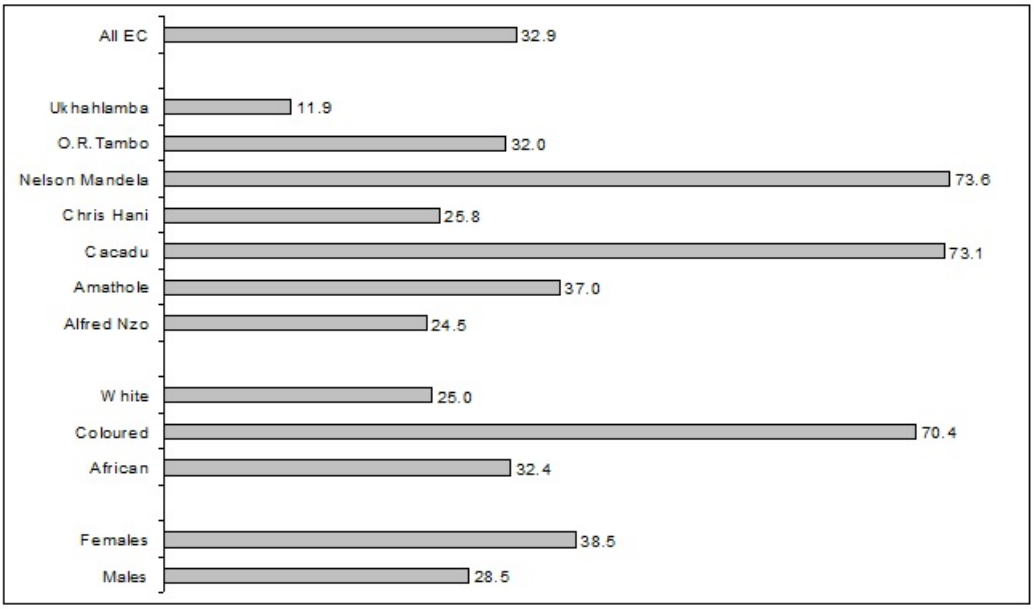


Table 5.2 shows the reported destinations of the 32.9% of all migrants who move to different parts of the province. Overall, 33.1% moved to East London and Port Elizabeth, and almost half moved to other urban areas and towns. Only 17% moved to other rural res areas or farms.

Most White migrants and those from Nelson Mandela Metropolitan area moved to East London. In contrast, those from O.R. Tambo, Alfred Nzo, Ukhahlamba districts move to other urban areas and towns in the province. This is true of more than half of males, Coloured and African migrants. In relative terms, movement to other rural areas and farms is an experiences that is almost exclusive to Africans, especially those from Ukhahlamba, Alfred Nzo and O.R. Tambo district municipalities.

An important pattern is the observed geography of population movement within the province. District municipalities in the East including O.R. Tambo, Ukhahlamba and Alfred Nzo remain the sources of migrants both to western

part and to other places outside the province.

There are some movements from to rural areas and farms. A total of 17% of migrants move to rural areas and farms in the province. However, the bulk of migration is from rural areas to metropolitan centres and other urban areas and towns in the province.

Table 5.2. Percent moving to different parts of the province, 2006

	East London/ Port Elizabeth	Other urban areas/towns	Rural areas and farms
Sex			
Male	32.6	52.5	15.1
Female	33.5	47.8	19.0
Population group			
African	32.1	50.3	17.6
Coloured	42.2	57.8	0.0
White	100	0.0	0.0
District			
Alfred Nzo	13.5	64.5	29.8
Amathole	47.0	37.6	15.4
Cacadu	46.7	47.9	5.5
Chris Hani	41.4	48.4	10.1
Nelson Mandela	71.6	20.5	7.9
O.R.Tambo	8.7	67.5	22.8
Ukhahlamba	11.8	58.0	30.3
All Eastern Cape	33.1	49.8	17.0

MIGRATION TO OTHER PROVINCES

The pattern of internal migration is one of the most pressing development challenges in the province. Large volumes of people move to other parts of the country and other parts of the province in ways that on balance do not encourage broad-based development of the province. A large number of people move from the province to other parts of the country. The 2001 census, shows that between 2001 and 1996, the province lost 354 267 individuals, while gaining only 100 894. During the period, Eastern Cape lost more people than any other province in South Africa.

An estimated number of eight million people in South Africa in 2007 were born in the Eastern Cape. In the same year, it was estimated that 25% of all people born in the Eastern Cape province lived in other provinces Table 5.3. A total of 86.4% of all Eastern Cape-born population outside of the province are in three provinces, namely Western Cape, Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal. Forty-

four percent of Eastern Cape-born people living in other provinces are in the Western Cape, 23.9% reside in Gauteng and 18.3% live in KwaZulu-Natal (Figure 5.5).

Figure 5.4. Eastern Cape-born population, 2007

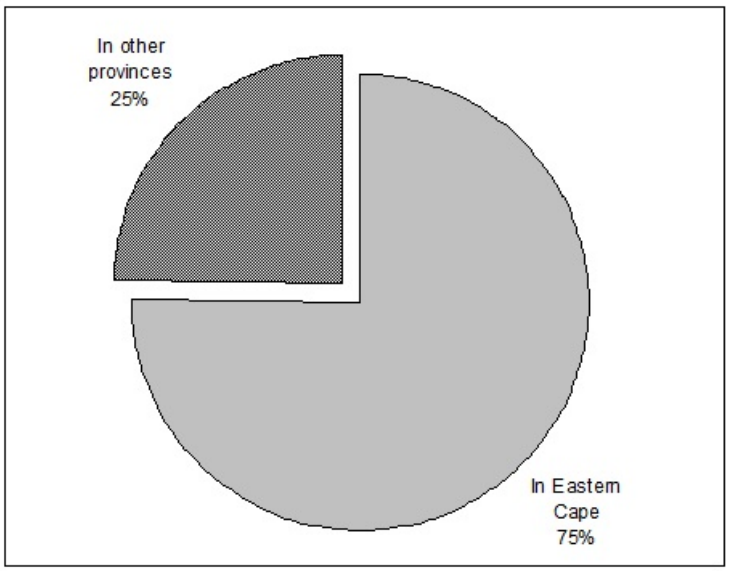


Figure 5.6 summarizes the trends from various estimates of the destinations of Eastern Cape-born population in the three most popular provinces. During the first half of the 1990s, 29.1% of Eastern Cape population outside the province were in the Western Cape. The number dropped to 27.8% during the second half the 1990 but rose to an estimated 44.2% in 2007.

The estimated percent in Gauteng has declined consistent in the three periods under consideration, suggesting that perhaps fewer people are making a long haul moves from the province. It could also be an indication of an increase in the number of migrants who move to a destination that is relatively closer to home, possibly including women.

There is no consistent decline or rise in trend of the proportion of migrants from the province in KwaZulu-Natal; the percent rose from 16.7 in the first half to 19 in the second half of the 1990s, but dropped slightly to 18.3 in 2007.

Figure 5.5. Eastern Cape born population in other provinces, 2007

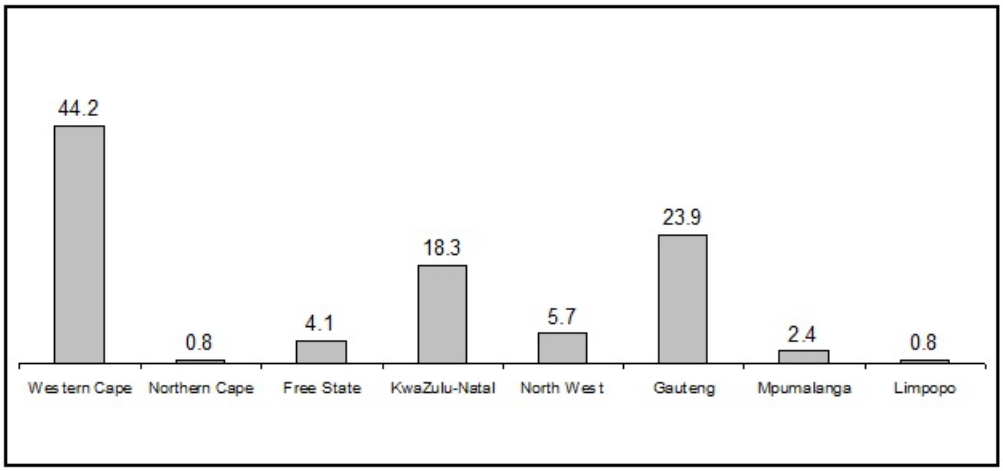


Figure 5.6. Most popular province of residence, 1991-2007

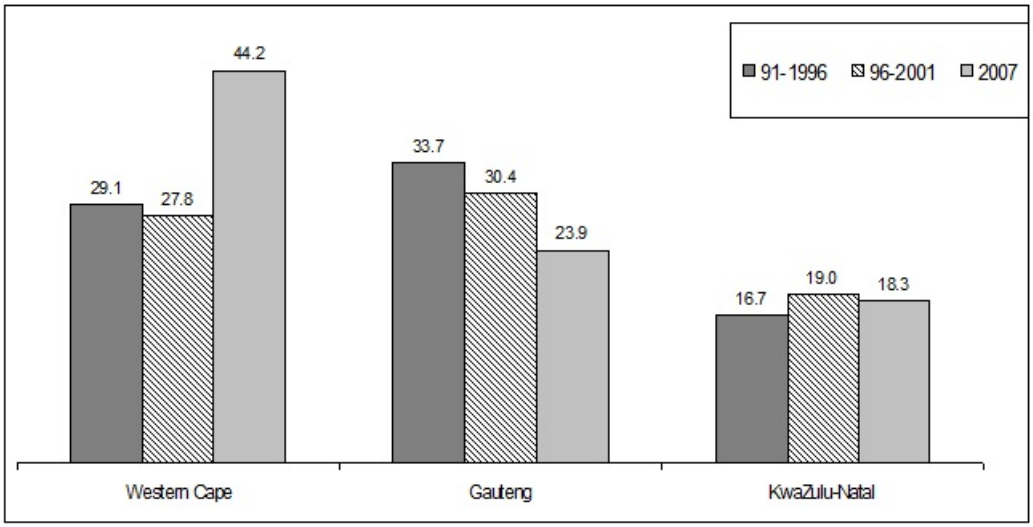


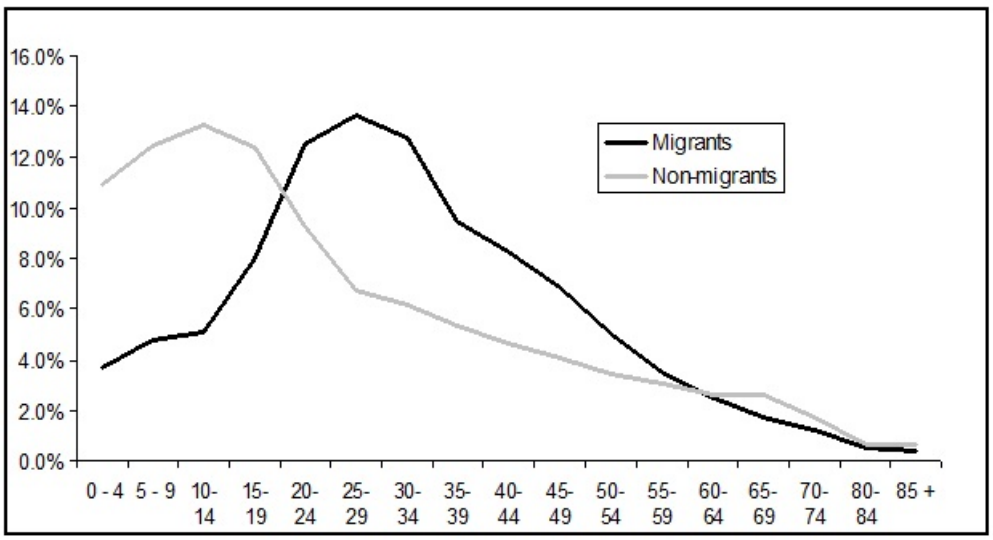
Table 5.3. Place of residence of all Eastern Cape-born population in SA, 2007

Province of current residence	Number	%
Eastern Cape	6 105 168	75.4
Western Cape	882 329	10.9
Northern Cape	17 138	0.2
Free State	79 094	1.0
KwaZulu-Natal	360 520	4.5
North West	114 370	1.4
Gauteng	474 022	5.9
Mpumalanga	50 864	0.6
Limpopo	14 619	0.2
Total	8 098 130	100

PROFILE OF MIGRANTS

The age profile in Figure 5.7 confirms that out-migration of people from the province is age-selective. The peak migration age is within 20-39, although there are comparative more people in the migrant population in the wide active working age range of 20 to 64 years (Figure 5.7).

Figure 5.7. Age distribution of migrants and non-migrants, 2007



Other characteristics

The data in Table 5.4 confirm that more men than women migrate out of the province. There is a relatively higher proportion of Whites among those who migrate out of the province than among those who do not. Migrants are better educated (considering the percent with matric or higher levels in Table 5.5) than non-migrants.

Table 5.4. Characteristic of migrants and non-migrants aged 15 +, 2007

	Born in EC & lives in EC	Born in EC but lives in another province
Sex		
Men	46.9	58.3
Women	53.1	51.7
Race		
African	89.4	87.1
Coloured	7.4	4.4
Indian	0.2	0.3
White	3.0	8.2
Education		
None	9.5	4.1
Primary	27.8	24.9
Part secondary	41.3	39.9
Matric +	21.4	31.1

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In the past two decades, following the dismantling of apartheid legal and related instruments that controlled the movement of people, migration patterns have incorporated other volitional factors such as economic ability, cultural and security considerations. Current patterns of migration in the province appear more complex than the analyses and predictions of the early 1990s even though the dominant pattern remains movement of people from economically poor to richer areas in the province and in the country. It is possible that reverse migration is in progress to some degree as many urban residents might decide to retire to rural areas or small towns in old age. Conclusive statistical information about reverse migration in the province is yet to be available.

The most widely used explanatory model for understanding migration makes use of the concepts of push and pull factors. Push factors are economic conditions that act as disincentives for a person to remain in a specific geographic area, while push factors are economic attractions of other locations. In the Eastern Cape province, both the stated reasons and destinations are definitive indications that most migrants have predominantly economic motives. However, it does not appear that all people who move to other parts of the province or country are simply chasing short-term and narrow conveniences in the services provided in

the destinations. If it is indeed the case that most internal migrants have a long-term vision of improving their socioeconomic state and that of the relatives they leave behind, this fact should transform policy perspectives about internal migration in the country.

Although good data on the volume of migration are not currently available, there are suggestions that some factors introduce a check on a large-scale exodus from the province. For various reasons, most ultra-poor, and poorly educated people in the province could not and need not make a long-haul move to other distant provinces. Among other reasons, they usually lack a threshold of skills necessary to compete successfully for economic activities in potential metropolitan destinations outside the province. Secondly, to some extent, the material pressure to migrate may not be as strong as it was in the past for the average potential migrant in the province. Unlike the situation in the past, there is a material cushion against the crises of poverty for poor households in the form of various types of social grants. This affords potential migrants more time to make and refine strategic decisions about migration.

Despite the limited nature of available information on population movement in the province, some general observations are possible about types of migration, motives for migrating and the profile of migrants.

- *Types of migration*
  The dominant pattern of migration in the province is movement of people from rural to urban areas within and outside the province, and from the relatively poorer areas to richer western parts of the province.

- *Trend in migration*
  Is the volume of migration declining in the province? A definitive answer awaits new data and analyses. It is possible that the trend in overall volume of population movement in the province might be stabilizing, and that rural-to-rural migration and migration to smaller towns are declining. Further studies are needed to confirm these trends and examine their correlates with more complex statistical analyses.

- *The profile of migrants*
  Available information indicates that migrants are predominantly from rural households, overwhelmingly Africans, and from the poorer districts in the East of the province. They are mostly single men and women in their twenties and thirties with basic and in some cases reasonable levels of formal education. Household left behind by migrants are more likely than others to be headed by females and bigger in size. Detailed information is yet to be available for better understanding of other characteristics of individuals and

households that migrate within and outside the province.

Policy interventions

Internal migration attracts an interest from several stakeholders including all tiers of government and the private sector. As in other parts of the world, the interests of industry and capital could be driven by factors different from the vision and goals of the provincial or national government in this area. A goal of past policies that shaped important aspects of the present migration patterns in the province was among other things, to have reserves of labour in the interest of industry and business. This need remains today and if it is addressed by the prevailing pattern of migration, industry and business are unlikely to support state interventions that aim to correct the negative impacts of some patterns of migration on human development in the province.

There are a number of ideas about policy perspectives about internal migration. A question that arises is whether governments should plan for and provide services to areas of the province from which people are migrating. There are varieties of viewpoints about what basic services migrants do or do not qualify for in the destination areas. In the sending areas and in the destinations, local authorities must be sensitive to the basic rights of internal migrants in the new democracy. Provision of basic services should never be used as direct or indirect instruments of discrimination against the less privileged people in the province or in other parts of the country.

What types of interventions are necessary in internal migration? At the provincial level, policy should be driven by, among other things, a consideration of the long-term economic and development costs of the loss of human capital to the province. The role of internal migration for national cohesion and its contributions to strengthening of the ties between impoverished areas and richer metropolitan areas should also be given some attention.

Given the present challenges of poverty in the province, there is a need for long-term structural interventions with development prospects that begin to compare with, challenge and compete with economic perceptions about popular destinations within and outside the Eastern Cape. The provincial government should take actions and consolidate on-going development activities in the following two areas. First, basic infrastructure for development should be strategically located in the Eastern districts with an aim to stimulate productive economic activities in this impoverished part of the province. This should include investment in economic facilities that attract and keep the working population. Secondly, the provincial government should adopt a practical commitment to rural development against pressure from competing models. Activities in this regard should involve an implementation of a comprehensive rural development package alongside other existing anti-poverty programmes.

Population and Poverty

6

Traditionally the relationship between economic development and demographic trends has been a domain of macro-economic studies that sees low fertility as a precondition for economic growth. The empirical evidence on the relationship between population and socioeconomic development, however, does not appear neat and tidy. In most societies, historical waves of demographic trends are not adequately accounted for by the views that presuppose a rigid inverse relationship between population changes and socioeconomic development.

Since the 1950s when Coale and Hoover popularized an economic rationale for population policies, population issues have been conceived by many policy makers and scholars in almost exclusively economic terms. This perspective remains popular among policy makers despite the fact that there is no consensus about the impact of the rate of population growth on economic growth. Debates about the relationship between population growth and poverty are often confused when they neither have clarity about key concepts in question nor pay sufficient attention to local empirical evidence. In many instances, a pre-packaged theoretical model is often imposed on a region, country or locality. This is one of the weaknesses of Malthusianism that motivated population research and policies in the past four to five decades.

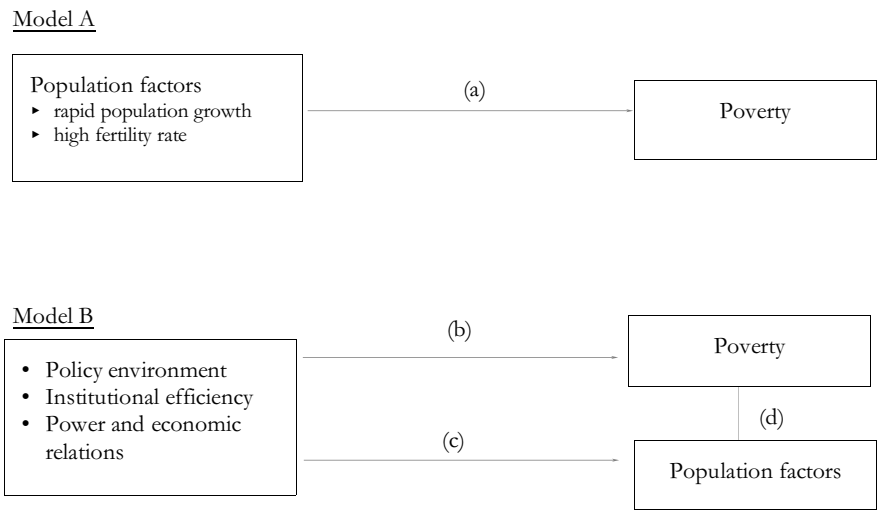
A simplistic and deterministic viewpoint blames poverty on demographic patterns and trend. This line of argument derives from the conventional thinking that rapid population growth worsens poverty every case. Some contrarian scholars reverse the hypothesized direction of the relationship in a way that hardly encourages rigorous data-driven engagement with the evidence. In the case of South Africa, the dynamics of political and economic power and production relations that revolved around racial identity over many decades are major factors in this debate.

Studies that have been conducted in the past two to three decades indicate that alternative theoretical propositions can be just as valid (Logan, 1991; Blanchet, 1990, 1991; Meillassoux, 1993; Coussy, 1992; NAS, 1986,1993a,b; Crook, 1996). The National Academy of Sciences Working group on Population Growth and Economic Development (1986) reviewed carefully existing evidence

and could not find universal applicability of a consistent inverse relationship between population growth and economic development. Simon (1981, 1990, 1992) argued that an increase in population could, in fact, stimulate and support economic and technological development.

Poverty concepts and methods are susceptible to imprecision and disagreements. The challenges are more complicated when demographic relationships are introduced. How do we conceptualize the relationship between poverty and demographic dynamics? Do we take a generational perspective and place blame on cohorts of parents and grandparents for not preparing the present population to avoid poverty? Or do we give more explanatory weight to past or present institutional failures? Questions of these sorts are captured in the two models that are summarized in Figure 6.1. The first model is consistent with the popular position that rapid population growth worsens poverty. It suggests that the association between poverty and population growth is rarely causal since it is often mediated by factors in the social environment that usually act on both variables with degrees of force that are hard to determine beforehand.

Figure 6.1. Models of the relationship between population and poverty



The poor state of human development *vis-a-vis* key demographic features in the Eastern Cape calls for fresh perspectives on the relationship between population and development. The empirical situation directs attention to non-demographic factors such as entrenched economic imbalances and inequalities in understanding and addressing the roots of socioeconomic challenges in the province.

This chapter does not aim to engage in an elaborate analysis of methodological

and empirical issues in poverty in the province. A narrow objective that guided the analysis here is to establish the poverty-dominated context of change in fertility and other dimensions of demographic change in the province.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE

Most social indicators show that the Eastern Cape is one of the poorest provinces in the country. Table 6.1 presents a summary of the basic characteristics of the provincial labour force from 2004 to 2010. An increase is observed in the absolute numbers of people in working ages (15-64), those in employments and the number of people that are not economically active.

Table 6.1 Labour force characteristics of the province, 2010

	2004	2007	2010
Population aged 15-64 years (000)	3 751	3 898	**4 040**
Labor force	1 584	1 762	1 720
Employed	1 079	1 290	1 243
Unemployed	504	472	447
Not economically active	2 167	2 136	2 320
Discouraged work-seekers	381	402	376
Others	1 785	1 735	1 944

Source: Statistics South Africa, 2009.

The dependency burden

Figure 6.1 shows percentages of the provincial population in working and dependent age groups. There are an estimated 3.8 million people in the active working ages and 2.8 million in the combined young and old dependency ages in the Province. A total of 43% of the population is in the dependent age groups (36% in the 0-14 age group and 7% in the 65 or older age range) and 57% in the active working ages. The age-dependency ratio in Eastern Cape in 2007 was 74. This means that there were 74 persons in the dependent ages for every 100 persons in the working age in the province.

There is considerable variation in the dependency structure of the district population as shown in Table 6.1. The districts of O.R. Tambo and Alfred Nzo districts have very high portions of their population in the child dependency ages of 0-14 (43.1% and 42.5% respectively). Cacadu has the smallest percent of its population in the child dependency ages (27.8). Nelson Mandela and Cacadu have the highest percent of their population in the active working ages of 15-64. The comparative figures for O.R. Tambo and Alfred Nzo are 50.9% and 51.0% (Table 6.2). The portion of the population in the old dependency ages (65 years or older) is smallest in Nelson Mandela a(5.5%) and biggest in Chris Hani.

Figure 6.2. Age-dependency ratio, 2007

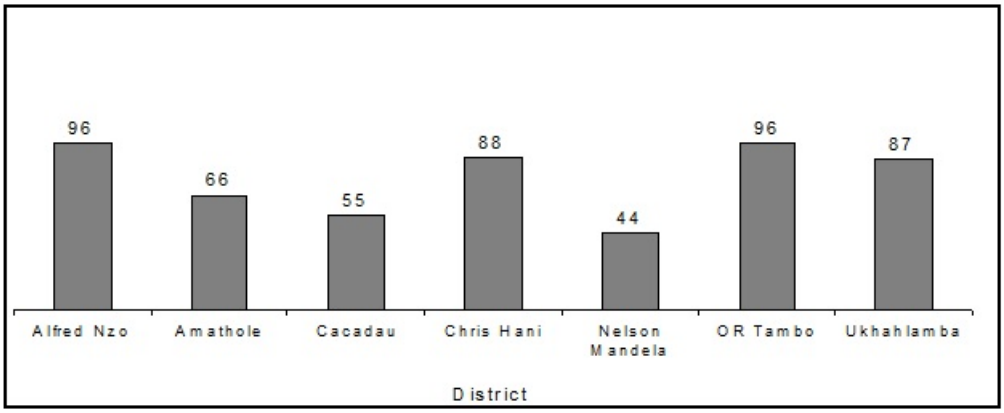


Table 6.2. Age dependency structure of the population by district, 2007

	0-14		15-64		65 +		
	N	%	N	%	N	%	Dep.
Alfred Nzo	203 868	42.5	244 251	51.0	312 270	6.5	96
Amathole	533 859	32.1	1003 673	60.3	127 222	7.6	66
Cacadu	101 508	27.9	234 099	64.4	27 889	7.7	55
Chris Hani	302 721	37.9	424 219	53.1	71 653	9.0	88
Nelson Mandela	262 004	24.9	730 801	69.5	58 125	5.5	44
O.R. Tambo	803 101	43.1	947 752	50.9	111 360	6.0	96
Ukhahlamba	116 231	37.7	165 379	53.6	25 754	8.7	87
All Eastern Cape	2 323 292	35.6	3 750 174	57.4	454 282	7.0	74

The working population in the province

Table 6.3 shows the proportion of the population in the active working ages who were economically active in the past seven days. This statistic is a better reflection of the percent of people who carry much of the economic burden of burden in the province. It is shown as a percent the population aged fifteen years or older and as a percent of the total population. The data show that in 2007 only 18.7% of the population of Eastern Cape actually worked in the week preceding he community survey. The percent is quite high for Whites (49.4%) and Indians (43.6%) but low for Africans (15.3%) and Coloureds (27.6%). More men worked (20.8%) compared to women (17%). It was comparatively higher in Cacadu (27.5%) and Nelson Mandela (27.5%) but low in Alfred Nzo (12.8%) and Ukhahlamba (15.4%). Restricting this measure to the population older than fourteen years yields a higher level but with a fairly similar pattern of differences by district, gender and population group.

Figure 6.3. Unemployment rates, 2010

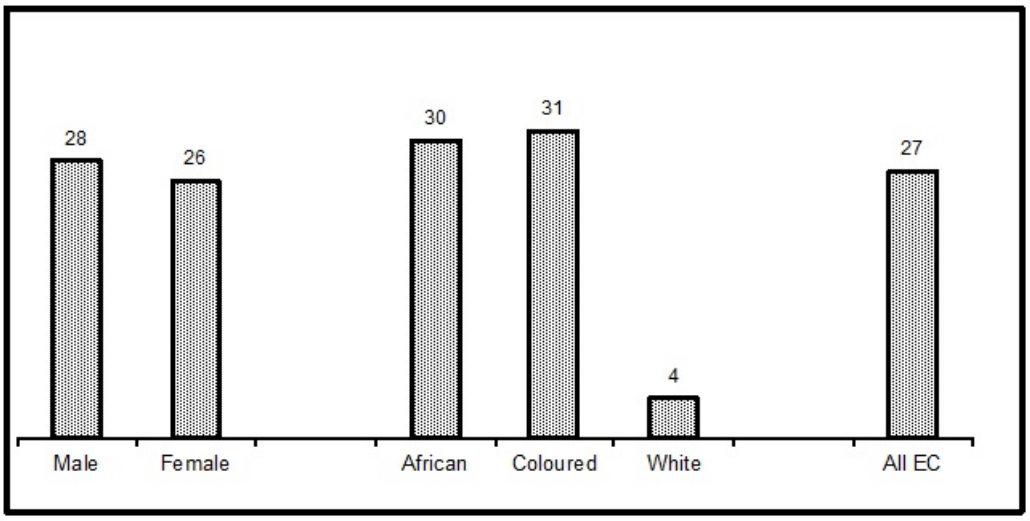


Table 6.3. People who actually worked in the past 7 days,* 2007

	%of population aged 15 or older	% all population
District		
Alfred Nzo	22.3	12.8
Amathole	27.1	18.4
Cacadu	38.8	27.9
Chris Hani	17.7	11.0
Nelson Mandela	36.7	27.5
O.R. Tambo	31.0	17.6
Ukhahlamba	24.8	15.4
Gender		
Male	33.3	20.8
Female	25.5	17.0
Pop. group		
African	25.9	15.3
Coloured	39.2	27.6
Indian	54.7	43.6
White	59.3	49.4
All Eastern Cape	29.1	18.7

* as a percent of the population

Unemployment in the population

The rate of unemployment in the province by the middle of 2010 was 27.7%. Figure 6.3 shows differences in the unemployment rate by selected characteristics. Overall the biggest differences in unemployment in the province are between Whites and other population groups. The unemployment rate among Whites was 4% compared to 30% and 31% for Africans and Coloureds respectively. There was a small difference in rate of unemployment rates for men and women in the province. The statistics are presented for different age groups in

Table 6.4. In the 15-19 age group unemployment is high for men and Africans. In the 20-29, the biggest difference in the unemployment rate is between Whites with a very low rate of 9% (compared to 47% for Africans and 48% for Coloureds). This pattern of racial differences is consistent in all working ages. There is a reversal of the gender differences in unemployment for people in their 40s. The unemployment rate is 10% for men and 15% for women.

Figure 6.4. Trend in unemployment, 2001-2010

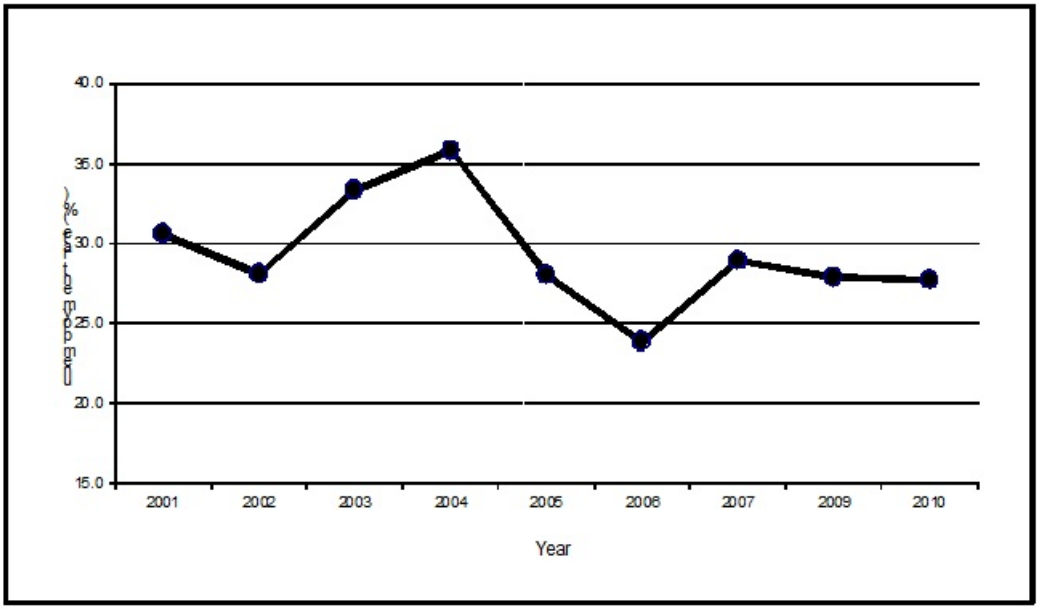


Table 6.4. Unemployment rates (%), 2010

	Age group					
	15-19	20-29	30-39	40-49	50-64	All
Gender						
Male	70	43	27	10	8	28
Female	54	46	20	15	6	26
Population						
African	73	47	26	13	9	30
Coloured	47	48	21	17	10	31
White	0	9	4	1	0	4
All Eastern Cape	63	44	24	12	7	**27**

POVERTY PROFILE

The weaknesses of using reports of household income as indicators of poverty are well-document. However in the absence of a standard index of poverty, income and expenditure statistics sometimes contribute insights into the level and patterns of poverty.

Provincial statistics from Statistics South Africa (from the 2007 Community Survey) show that close to a quarter of households in the Eastern Cape had a monthly income of R400 or less in 2007. As many as 12.1% of all households reported that they had no income at all (Figure 6.5).

Figure 6.5. Reported annual household income in the province, 2007

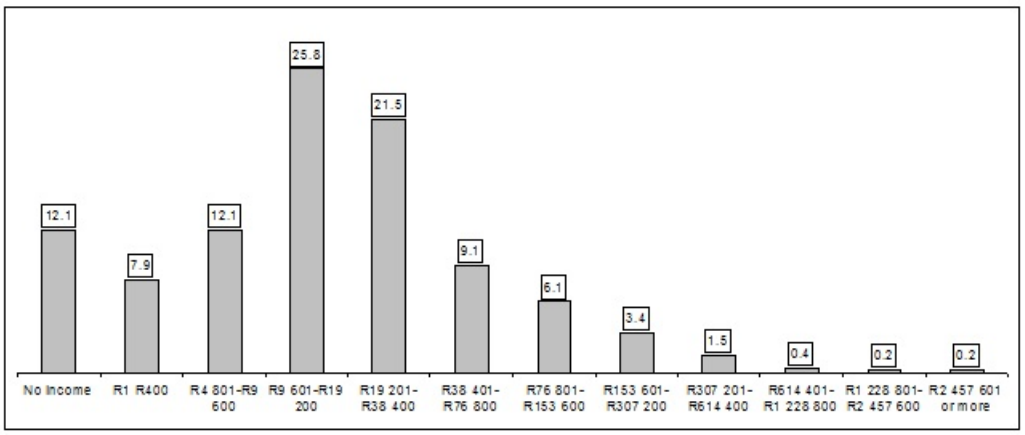


Table 6.5. Household income groups, 2007

	District municipality						
Income group	Alfred Nzo	Ama-thole	Ca-cadu	Chris Hani	Nelson Mandela	O.R. Tambo	Ukhah-lamba
No income	16.2	12.3	9.4	9.4	12.2	11.8	15.3
R1-R4 800	10.7	8.2	3.6	8.3	5.2	8.3	8.5
R4 801-R9 600	15.5	10.9	7.4	13.2	7.1	16.4	13.8
R9 601-R19 200	26.0	26.6	24.8	30.1	20.1	26.4	29.1
R19 201-R38 400	19.6	21.4	22.7	25.4	18.2	22.7	18.5
R38 401-R76 800	6.3	9.3	13.5	6.8	12.8	7.3	7.8
R76 801-R153 600	4.0	6.2	9.4	3.5	10.7	4.2	3.2
R153 601-R307 200	0.9	3.0	6.4	2.0	7.8	1.6	2.2
R307 201-R614 400	0.3	1.4	1.7	0.6	4.3	0.7	0.3
R514 401-R1 228 800	0.0	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.9	0.2	0.3
R1 228 801-R2 457 600	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
R2 457 601 or more	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.0

Table 6.5 shows that the percent of households that reported no income was highest in the districts of Alfred Nzo, and also high in Ukhahlamba, Amathole and O.R. Tambo. Allowing for reporting errors, the relatively high level of this statistic in Nelson Mandela Metropolitan District could be an important indication of urban poverty in the province.

Table 6.6. Annual household income for the populations group, 2007

	Population group			
	African	Coloured	Indian	White
No income	12.9	7.4	9.5	5.4
R1-R4 800	8.5	3.5	1.7	0.3
R4 801-R9 600	13.3	7.1	2.4	0.8
R9 601-R19 200	27.8	19.0	11.6	5.6
R19 201-R38 400	22.4	23.1	14.5	7.2
R38 401-R76 800	8.1	17.2	5.4	14.5
R76 801-R153 600	4.4	13.1	21.9	22.1
R153 601-R307 200	1.6	6.5	18.1	25.3
R307 201-R614 400	0.6	2.3	13.4	12.9
R614 401-R1 228 800	0.2	0.5	1.5	3.2
R1 228 801-R2 457 600	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.9
R2 457 601 or more	0.1	0.1	0.0	1.3

The percent of households with no income or in the lowest income category followed a racial pattern in 2007. It was highest for Africans (21.4%) and lowest for Whites (5.6%) with levels for Coloureds (10.9%) falling in-between these two poles. This statistics is more than twenty percent for Alfred Nzo, Ukhahlamba, O.R. Tambo and Amathole (Figure 6.6).

Figure 6.6. Households with a monthly income of R400 or less, 2007

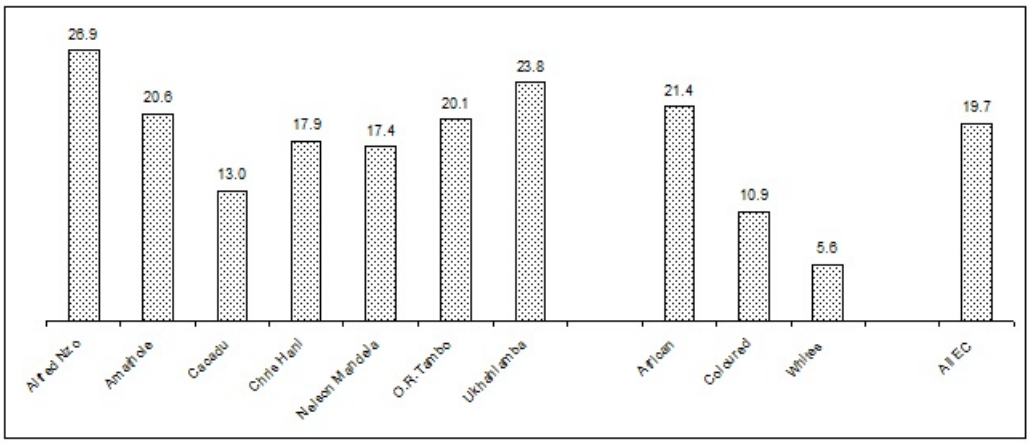


Table 6.7. Differences in households monthly earning, 2007

District	% of households with monthly earning R400 or less			
	African	Coloured	White	All
Alfred Nzo	27.0	8.7	3.0	26.9
Amathole	21.8	11.9	4.4	20.6
Cacadu	15.7	10.2	11.1	13.0
Chris Hani	18.5	5.6	4.6	17.9
Nelson Mandela	23.4	10.7	4.6	17.4
O.R. Tambo	20.0	33.3	31.8	20.1
Ukhahlamba	24.8	16.9	1.4	23.8
All Eastern Cape	21.4	10.9	5.6	19.7

More than a quarter of households reported a monthly income of R400 or less in several local municipalities. These include Matatiele and Umzimvubu in Alfred Nzo District Municipality, Amahlathi, Buffalo City, Ngqushwa, Nkonkobe and Nxuba in Amathole, Intsika Yethu and Sakhisizwe in Chris Hani District Municipality, all but King Sabata Dalindyebo and Nyandeni in O.R. Tambo District Municipality and Elundini and Senqu in Ukhahlamba District Municipality. Percentages of households with a month income of R400 or less were lower than twenty in all local municipalities in Cacadu District Municipality and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan District (Table 6.8).

Poverty and deprivation vary mainly by region in the province. The deprivation index reported in 2007, (Figure 6.7) corresponded roughly with the picture suggested by the demographic profile examined in the previous chapters of this report. Poverty is more in the eastern part of the province, specifically in O.R. Tambo District Municipality and Alfred Nzo District Municipality. The western part, especially Nelson Mandela Bay Metropolitan area and Cacadu District Municipality are more economically prosperous.

Figure 6.7. Deprivation index for the districts, 2007

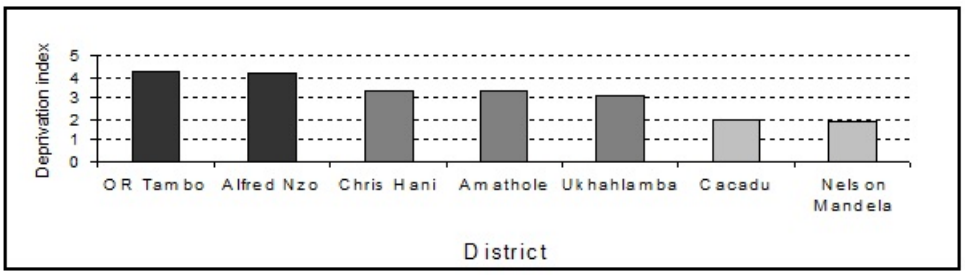


Table 6.8. Households with monthly income R400 or less, 2007

	Monthly R400 or less in:	
	% of all households	Number of households
Alfred Nzo	26.9	27 830
Matatiele	27.4	16 124
Umzimvubu	26.1	11 706
Amathole	20.6	81 936
Mbashe	14.8	8 219
Mnquma	19.2	13 226
Great Kei	18.2	1 732
Amahlathi	20.2	5 575
Buffalo City	21.2	35 530
Ngqushwa	25.7	5 765
Nkonkobe	27.5	8 779
Nxuba	21.1	1 109
Cacadu	13.0	10 658
Baviaans	10.8	391
Blue Crane Route	12.7	856
Camdeboo	8.0	424
Ikwezi	14.1	343
Kou-Kamma	8.3	633
Kouga	14.2	2 373
Makana	17.2	2 853
Ndlambe	11.8	1 536
Sunday's River Valley	13.8	1 157
Chris Hani	17.9	32 898
Emalahleni	17.2	4 814
Engcobo	13.6	4 185
Inkwanca	18.0	681
Intsika Yethu	21.0	8 611
Inxuba Yethemba	10.7	1 249
Lunkanji	17.9	8 799
Sakhisizwe	25.4	3 371
Tsolwana	17.6	1 188
Nelson Mandela	17.4	43 085
O.R. Tambo	20.1	65 909
King Sabata Dalindyebo	18.9	15 171
Mbizana	21.5	9 829
Ntabankulu	21.5	5 552
Nyandeni	18.6	10 063
Port St. Johns	21.3	6 297
Quakeni	21.5	9 736
Ukhahlamba	23.8	14 947
Elundini	23.0	6 610
Gariep	16.4	694
Maletswai	19.2	1 509
Senqu	27.8	6 134
All Eastern Cape	19.7	277 263

Table 6.9. Selected indicators of social development, 2002-2008

	Year						
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
% connected to electricity	54.1	57.0	59.4	68.1	68.8	70.0	68.8
% with no toilet or use bucket	37.9	33.5	33.4	27.3	25.7	24.5	19.5
% with access to piped water	53.6	57.9	62.0	68.1	68.9	74.0	71.6
% owns a television	39.3	40.2	42.2	79.8	52.1	56.0	57.6
% of made use welfare	5.2	8.5	12.5	17.7	18.0	19.1	16.6

SOCIAL ASSISTANCE AND POVERTY RELIEF

The most important direct anti-poverty programme in the country is the social security system that provides a variety of non-contributory grants to qualifying individuals. Selected characteristics of households that received social grants in the province in 2007 are shown in Figure 6.6 and 6.7.

During 2007, 30.5% of all households in the province received social grants. More than a quarter of households in all but Nelson Mandela Metropolitan District received social grants. As many as 32.7% of African households received social grants compared to just 10.3% and 10.8% of Indian and White households.

The characteristics of heads of households that receives social grants are shown in Figure 6.8. The data show that households with widowed, divorced or separated heads, and those headed by women received social grants more than others.

Figure 6.8. Percent of households receiving social grants, 2007

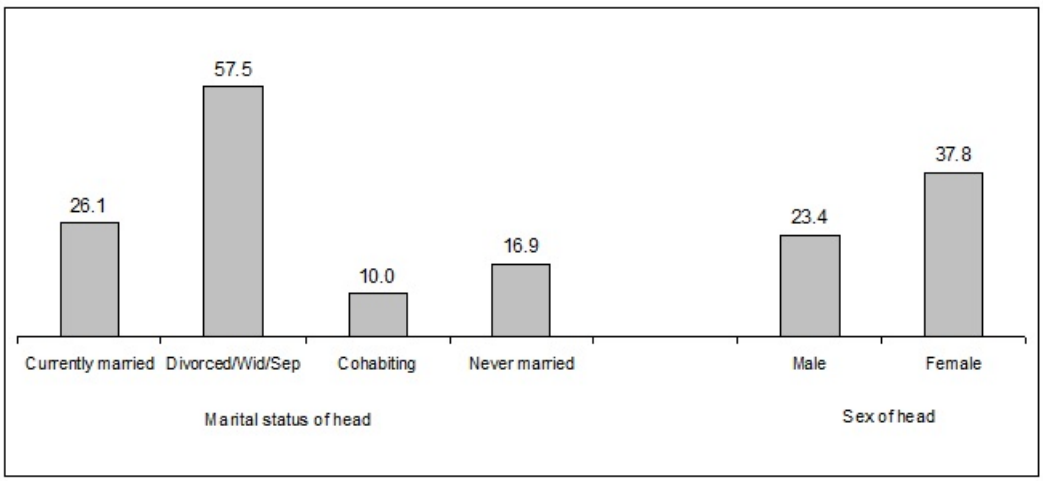
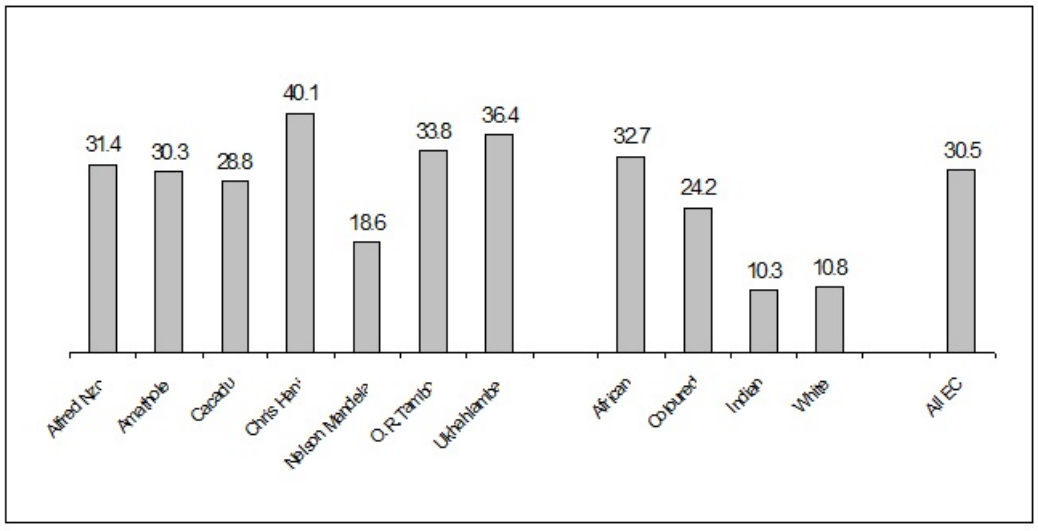


Figure 6.9. Types of households receiving social grants, 2007

Types of social grants that were received by individual in the province in 2007 are summarized in Table 6.10 and Table 6.10. The three most important categories are child support grant, old age pension and disability. Together these three types accounted for 96.9% of all grants received by households in the province in 2007 (Table 6.11). In all districts child support grant is the dominant grant in all districts. It accounted for 73.2% and 68.9% of all grants received by people in O.R.Tambo District Municipality and Alfred Nzo District Municipality respectively. A greater proportion of people in Cacadu received old age pensions (26.0%) than people in other provinces. The proportion of people who received child support grant was more among Africans and Coloureds than among Indians and Whites. On the other hand, Table 6.11 shows that a greater proportion of people received old age pension among Whites and Indians than among Africans and Coloureds.

Table 6.10. Type of grants received by individuals in the province, 2007

	District municipality						
Type of grant	Alfred Nzo	Amathole	Cacadu	Chris Hani	Nelson Mandela	O.R. Tambo	Ukhahlamba
Old age pension	21.8	25.7	26.0	24.2	23.8	17.3	24.7
Disability	6.5	10.1	18.7	9.8	18.9	6.2	10.8
Child support grant	68.9	61.3	48.7	64.1	53.7	73.2	61.9
Care dependency grant	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.1	2.0	1.5	1.2
Foster care grant	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3
Grant in aid	1.1	0.3	4.6	0.3	0.5	0.8	0.5
Social relief	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.3



Multiple grant	0.2	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.5	0.4	0.4

Table 6.11. Grants received by individuals by population group, 2007

	Population group				
Type of grant	African	Coloured	Indian	White	All
Old age pension	21.6	23.4	45.7	51.8	22.0
Disability	8.9	20.4	14.3	27.4	9.6
Child support grant	66.7	51.7	36.9	3.7	65.3
Care dependency grant	1.4	2.2	0.0	1.4	1.5
Foster care grant	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.2
Grant in aid	0.6	1.2	3.1	12.5	0.7
Social relief	0.3	0.3	0.4	2.6	0.3
Multiple grant	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.7	0.4

The social security system is estimated to benefit 28% of the total population in 2010. Although the province accounted for 13.5% of the national population, it received an estimated 17.5% of all grants disbursed by the beginning of 2010. Table 6.12 shows that the two biggest types of grants disbursed in the province are the Child Support Grant (CSG) and the Old Age Grant (OAG) which make up 19.1%.

Table 6.12. Estimates of social grants disbursed in the provinces, 2010.

	Type of grant								
Province	CSG	OAG	DG	FCG	CDG	GIA	WVG	All	% of SA pop
Western Cape	7.4	8.3	11.7	5.6	8.0	1.6	2.3	7.4	10.4
Eastern Cape	**17.5**	**18.5**	**15.9**	**18.8**	**17.2**	**13.5**	**12.6**	**17.5**	13.5
Northern Cape	2.6	2.6	3.7	3.0	3.6	6.7	4.2	2.6	2.2
Free State	5.9	6.0	7.8	8.7	4.1	1.6	2.3	5.9	5.7
KwaZulu-Natal	25.0	20.9	28.5	27.2	30.2	42.3	13.7	25.0	21.3
North West	7.8	8.6	7.7	8.2	8.2	4.4	2.8	7.8	6.4
Gauteng	12.0	12.8	10.2	12.1	11.9	1.6	26.6	12.0	22.4
Mpumalanga	7.4	6.9	6.2	5.7	5.3	2.1	3.9	7.4	7.2
Limpopo	14.4	15.2	8.4	10.5	11.5	12.9	8.8	14.4	10.9
South Africa	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Number (000)	9 352	2 518	1 288	512	110	52	1	13 832	4 991

CONCLUSION

Various economic and labour market indicators confirm the persistence of a high level of poverty in the province. The provincial population has a high dependency ratio. The proportion of those who actually work is very small in most districts. Most indicators show an east-west divide in the socio-economic profile of the province. The underdeveloped former homelands in the east are poor and the west is richer. The province is heavily dependent on formal employment in urban areas. Systematic destruction of the rural economy in the past resulted in the poor performance of subsistence agriculture in the province today.

The results of this research corroborate common observations about the complex nature of the relationship between population trend, poverty and economic vulnerability. Researchers who have observed the dynamics of poverty and demography in African societies at a close range long enough have reached somewhat similar conclusions. Population patterns and reproductive behaviour are to a significant extent, products of bigger responses of the society to socioconomic challenges and constraints.

The current experience of the province provides an opportunity for better understanding of the relationship between population, poverty and development in an African society. A simple introduction of the issues takes the form of a question. Why is it that the Eastern Cape remains one of the poorest provinces in the country one and half decades into a democracy? An exclusively demographic answer would be superficial and unconvincing partly because the socio-economic profile of the region was characterized by poverty decades ago when its fertility was very high. The current socioeconomic environment of the province when fertility has declined appreciably is also dominated by poverty.

The province, like other part of the country experienced the adverse effects of historical policies and development practices that impacted on its demographic profile. Since the creation of the province, provincial and national governments have implemented several policies that collectively are expected to contribute to human development. An issue of greater significance here from the point of view of human development is a search for approaches that are better equipped to handle expected future development challenges that are related to fertility and migration trends in the province.

We conclude by raising two related questions about population trends and economic development that are relevant to the province and other parts of South Africa. The first is about reversibility of population intervention effects. If direct state interventions are able to push fertility down, are they able to raise it when as in many Western societies and newly industrialized countries a low level of fertility ceases to be perceived as an economic asset? Secondly, what sort of long term socioeconomic challenges should be expected in the coming decades if the current trend in poverty and declining fertility were to continue in the Eastern

Cape? Chains of demographic and socioeconomic effects come to mind here. For instance, a continuous drain in the number of people in active working ages and declining levels of fertility do not suggest a supportive environment for rapid economic growth and human development.

The family, household and inter-generational relations

7

The two concepts of the family and household are often confused because of their close relationship to each other. In general terms, a household is defined as people who "live and eat together" and generally, the family is referred to as a relationship which pertains to, or arises from, reproductive processes and which are defined by law or custom. A household usually occupies a single residential unit, which in the Eastern Cape, may be made up of a number of huts. Thus, it is the most relevant population unit for use in the analysis of statistical enumeration (see United Nations, 1987). On the other hand, there is no uniform and universally acceptable definition of the family as a sociological concept. This is partly due to differences in the structure and function of family units in various parts of the world and partly due to the wide variety of approaches taken by social scientists on this issue.

This chapter examines basic characteristics of the family, households and inter-generational relations with a specific focus on household size and composition, marriage and living arrangements in the households. Some attention is given to two demographic segments, namely younger and older people, within the context of emerging issues in inter-generational relations in the household.

GENERAL HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS

The number of households in the province has increased from an estimated number of 1.48 million in 2002 to an estimated number of 1.64 million in 2007. Amathole District Municipality had the biggest number of households (433 231), followed by O.R. Tambo District Municipality (356 201) and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan District (275 138). There were close to two million households in Chris Hani District and one million households in Alfred Nzo District Municipality in 2007. Cacadu District Municipality and Ukhahlamba had 94 387 and 78 545 households respectively in the same year (Figure 7.1).

Table 7.1 shows that 15.6% of all households in the province had only one member. There were relatively more one-person households in Ukhahlamba, Amathole and Chris Hani than in other districts. On the other hand, O.R. Tambo and Alfred Nzo had relatively more large households (with five or more members) than other districts.

Figure 7.1. Distribution of households in the province, 2007 (N=1.65 million)

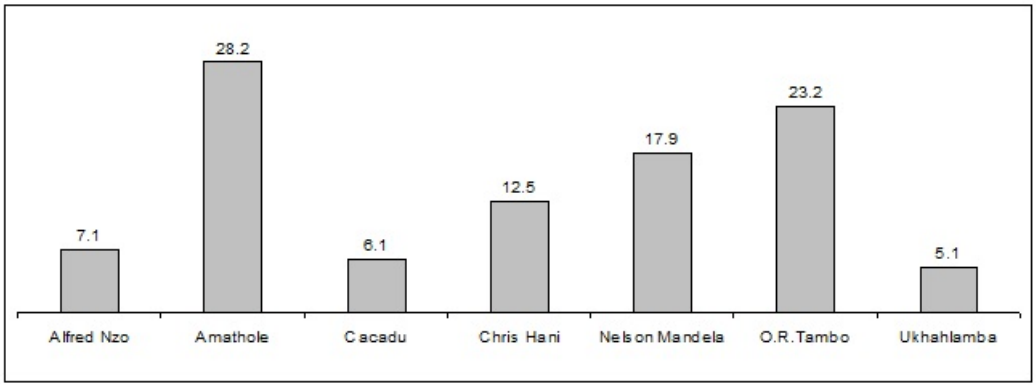


Table 7.1. Household size, 2007

	% of household with size		
	1 person	2-4 persons	5 or more persons
District			
Amathole	17.8	46.5	35.7
Cacadu	12.2	57.9	29.9
Chris Hani	16.6	48.8	34.6
Nelson Mandela	15.1	53.2	31.7
O.R. Tambo	13.5	37.6	48.9
Ukhahlamba	18.1	53.5	28.4
Sex of head			
Male	15.6	47.5	36.9
Female	15.6	46.3	38.2
Pop. group			
African	15.7	45.9	38.4
Coloured	14.8	51.3	33.9
Indian	17.1	44.7	38.3
White	15.2	54.4	30.3
Age of head			
< 20	17.4	44.1	38.5
20-29	14.8	46.4	38.8
30-39	15.2	47.8	37.0
40-49	15.3	46.4	38.2
50 +	15.9	47.0	37.1
Marital status of head			
Currently married	15.4	46.7	37.8
Widowed/Div/Sep	15.8	46.4	37.8
Cohabiting	14.0	52.2	33.8
Never married	16.0	46.5	37.5
Head currently works			
Yes	14.8	48.2	37.0
All Eastern Cape	15.6	46.9	37.5

The average household size decreased from 4.4 persons in 2002 to 3.8 persons in 2009 (see Figure 7.2). Further research is yet to establish the contributions of fertility and mortality change to this trend. It is also an issue of debate whether this trend is evidence of the process of nucleation of the family or a fragmentation of households caused by migration within the province and other factors.

Figure 7.2. Number of household and average household size, 2002-2009

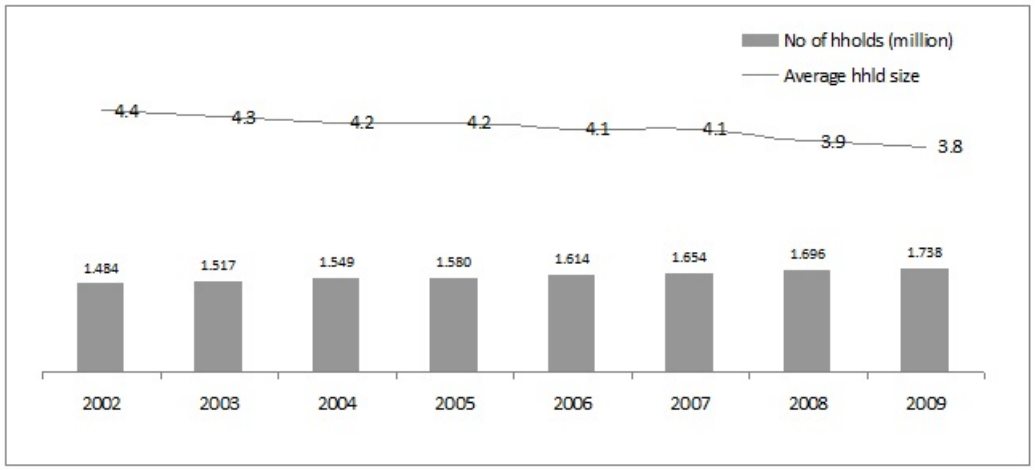
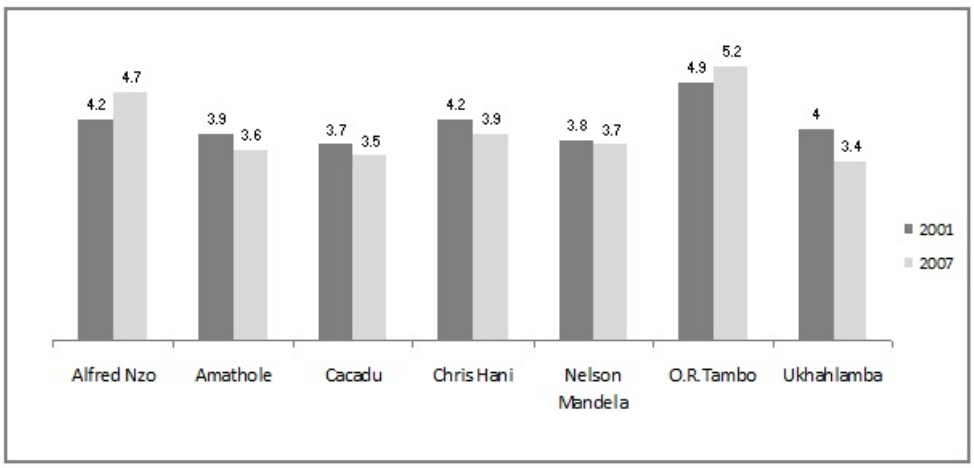


Figure 7.3 shows that the average household size declined in most district municipalities in the province. The exceptions are Alfred Nzo and O.R. Tambo district municipalities where the average household experienced an increase within the period. It rose from 4.2 to 4.7 in Alfred Nzo and from 4.9 to 5.2 in O.R. Tambo from 2001 to 2007.

Figure 7.3. Average household size in district municipalities, 2001-2007



Significant differences in the average household size are observed only for population groups in province (Table 7.2). African and Indian households are generally larger than others. Also households headed by people with no formal education are larger than those with educated heads.

Table 7.3 shows that all but one local municipalities in O.R. Tambo had a household size of five or more persons in 2001. The King Sabata Dalindyebo Local Municipality had an average household size of 4.9 in 2001. Other local municipalities with a fairly large number of persons in 2001 include Mbhashe in Amathole District Municipality (4.8 persons per household) and Engcobo in Chris Hani District Municipality (4.7 persons per household). Apart from these, other local municipalities with an average household size of four or more persons in 2001 include Matatiele and Umzimvubu in Alfred Nzo District Municipality, and Mnquma, Nkonkobe and Amahlathi in Amathole District Municipality, Camdeboo in Cacadu District Municipality. In Chris Hani District Municipality, Emalahleni, Lukanji, Sakhisizwe and Tsolowana also had an average of four or more people in a household. The average household size in Elundini and Senqu in 2001 was four or more people. Local municipalities with a relatively small number of people in a household in 2001 are found mainly in Amathole, Cacadu and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan districts.

A majority of local municipalities in the province experienced a slight reduction in their average household size from between 2001 and 2007. The exceptions are local municipalities in the districts of O.R. Tambo, Alfred Nzo, and four others in Cacadu. Available data for all of the province (Figure 7.2) indicate a declining trend in the average household size.

Table 7.2. Average sizes of types of households, 2007

	Average size (persons)
Population group of head	
African	4.2
Coloured	3.9
Indian	4.2
White	3.7
Marital status of head	
Currently married	4.1
Widowed/Divorced/Separated	4.1
Cohabiting	3.9
Never married	4.0
Education	
No formal schooling	4.2
Primary	4.1
Part secondary	4.1
Matric +	4.1
Work status	
Currently working	4.1
Not working	4.1

Table 7.3. Average household size in district and local municipalities, 2001 and 2007

	Average household size	
	2001	2007
Alfred Nzo DM	4.2	4.7
Matatiele	4.1	4.7
Umzimvubu	4.3	4.6
Amathole DM	3.9	3.6
Mbashe	4.8	4.4
Mnquma	4.2	3.9
Great Kei	3.8	2.8
Amahlathi	4.0	3.1
Buffalo City	3.6	3.4
Ngqushwa	3.9	3.2
Nkonkobe	3.9	3.6
Nxuba	3.7	3.4
Cacadu DM	3.7	3.5
Baviaans	3.8	3.6
Blue Crane Route	3.6	2.6
Camdeboo	4.1	4.5
Ikwezi	3.7	4.4
Kou-Kamma	3.5	3.9
Kouga	3.6	3.7
Makana	3.9	3.5
Ndlambe	3.5	3.1
Sunday's River Valley	4.0	3.5
Chris Hani DM	4.2	3.9
Emalahleni	4.4	4.0
Engcobo	4.7	3.8
Inkwanca	3.7	2.6
Intsika Yethu	4.3	4.2
Inxuba Yethemba	3.6	3.2
Lunkanji	4.1	4.1
Sakhisizwe	4.3	3.4
Tsolwana	4.1	3.4
Nelson Mandela Metro	3.8	3.7
OR Tambo DM	4.9	5.2
King Sabata Dalindyebo	4.6	4.8
Mbizana	5.3	5.8
Ntabankulu	5.0	5.0
Nyandeni	5.0	5.5
Port St. Johns	5.0	5.3
Quakeni	5.0	5.7
Ukhahlamba DM	4.0	3.4
Elundini	4.1	3.4
Gariep	3.7	2.8
Maletswai	3.8	3.7
Senqu	4.0	3.3
All Eastern Cape	4.2	4.1
All South Africa	3.9	3.8

MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY

Marriage plays a central role in the construction of families in most human societies. In sub-Saharan Africa, as in some other parts of the world, marriage has been an important feature of adult life, as evidenced by the fact that marriage is generally early and almost universal. While historically this has also been the case in pre-colonial South Africa, specific socio-political factors over the centuries have contributed important changes in marriage patterns in the country. One of the most noteworthy changes is the decline in the rate of marriage in South

Africa, especially among Africans as exemplified by the Eastern Cape province. Notwithstanding problems of capturing marriage data in South Africa, all available evidence points to the fact that marriage rates are exceptionally low in South Africa and even lower in provinces with large rural areas such as the Eastern Cape.

Low marriage rates in South Africa have been attributed to long-lasting effects of colonization and aspects of the apartheid system, especially the migrant labour system. The migrant labour system resulted in long periods of separation of the adult males from the bonds of African family, shattering the marriage bonds that use to exist within the family (Makiwane, 1996). The effects of labour migration were stronger in the Eastern Cape region with its role as the leading labour reserve area for South Africa.

Another factor in the low marriage rate among Africans is the commercialization of *lobola*. Key to the process of marriage in many African societies is a tradition that requires the family of the bridegroom to give a present to the bride's family in the form of cattle as a symbol of commitment to a lasting relationship. In the Eastern Cape, this present has gradually taken the form of cash payment with a value that is appreciating every year, and sometimes linked to the educational status of the potential bride. This commercialization of *lobola* has resulted in a dilemma for many potential spouses. Some couples who cannot afford the high cost of *lobola* prefer alternatives to a formal marital relationship (see Kumalo 2004). This economic factor has an impact on the marriage market. Available evidence (Chimere-Dan, 2007) suggests that men would like to get married but did not have the economic stability to do so at a culturally standard biological age. The quantitative mean age at first marriage for men in the more distant past is not precisely known but ethnographic studies suggest late teens. However, by the early 1990s, the estimated mean age at marriage was as high as 30.2 for men in the region. Unemployment and general loss of income among young men result in a delay in marriage. One of the demographic effects is a high age at first marriage for men relative to women which, in a society with high male mortality rates, translates into fewer married women.

Low marriage rates in the Eastern Cape could also be a result of the low male to female ratio in South Africa especially at marriageability ages (Letamo, 1993). One of the factors in the low sex ratio is a higher rate of male deaths which in South Africa is attributable to a variety of causes that include lung diseases (which are common among mine workers) and a high rate of violent deaths (related to homicide, motor accidents and work-related causes).

In the Eastern Cape, widowhood occurs more frequently than divorce, and is the most common reason for dissolution of marriages (see Chapter 2). Females are more likely to lose their spouses through death before the end of their reproductive lives than through divorce.

Marriage and family stability

An aspect of marriage that is taken for granted in many social and demographic analyses is the central role of marriage for the stability of a family unit. Historically, apartheid policies placed heavy pressure on marital unions and sexual faithfulness between couples. Men were forced to live as migrant laborers in urban areas, mines and farms usually away from their families. Long periods of separation strained emotional and conjugal bonding of husbands and wives. In a good number of cases, they (both husbands and their wives) were pressured to compromise their sexual faithfulness. Social historians have traced important factors in the de-stabilization of marital union in the country to colonial and apartheid policies. For instance, Posel (2006) showed how African men and women in the Witwatersrand resorted to marriages of convenience, often at the detriment of their families in the former homelands, in order to qualify for urban housing during the 1950s and 1960s.

RESIDENTIAL ARRANGEMENT

Relationships in the household

The pattern of relationship in the province is shown in Figure 7.4. In a typical household in the province during 2007, heads comprised 23.9% of all members while 35.3% were sons or daughters. The share of grand children was relatively high at 19.3%. Other relations of the household head were 8.3% while 8.1% of members were husbands or wives of household heads.

There is a noticeable difference in the percent of grandchildren living with household heads in Ukhahlamba, Alfred Nzo, O.R. Tambo and Chris Hani districts compared to other district municipalities (see Table 7.4). The data also shows a significantly higher percent of grandchildren living with their grandparents among Africans and Coloureds than among Whites and Indians.

Figure 7.4. Relationships in the household (%), 2007

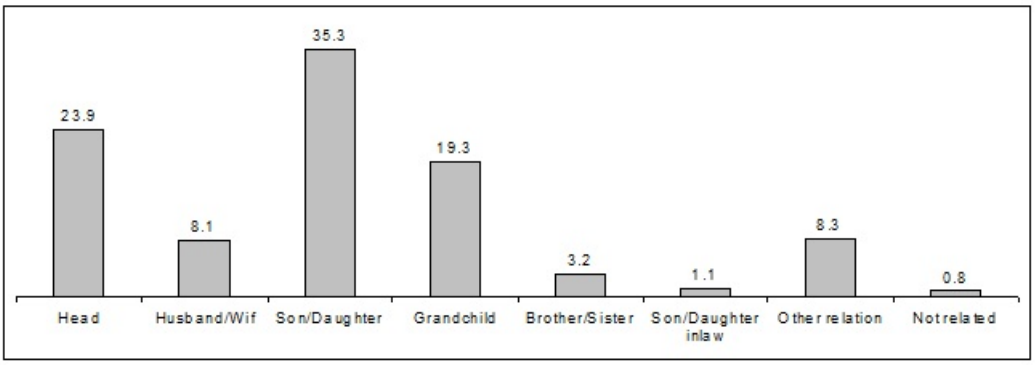


Table 7.4. Household relationships in the districts, 2007

	District municipality						
	Alfred Nzo	Ama-thole	Ca-cadu	Chris Hani	Nelson Mandela	O.R. Tambo	Ukhah-lamba
Head	26.6	26.4	26.8	24.3	26.6	19.3	25.7
Husband/Wife	5.6	8.4	13.6	7.4	12.9	5.3	6.9
Son/Daughter	33.6	32.9	33.0	32.8	35.1	36.9	30.9
Adopted son/daughter	0.9	0.9	1.4	0.6	0.8	1.1	1.0
Stepchild	0.5	0.3	0.6	0.2	0.6	0.5	0.4
Brother/Sister	3.0	3.5	3.0	2.8	3.8	3.1	2.8
Parent (mother/father)	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.7	0.2	0.2
Parent-in-law	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.2
Grand/great grandchild	24.0	18.4	13.3	22.6	10.7	22.8	24.2
Son-in-law/Daughter-in-law	1.7	0.9	0.5	0.9	0.5	1.6	1.4
Brother-in-law/Sister-in-law	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.9	0.6
Grandmother/Grandfather	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.4
Other	5.3	6.2	4.8	6.6	6.3	6.9	4.5
Not related	0.8	0.8	1.5	0.6	1.0	0.7	0.8

Table 7.5. Household relationships for the populations group, 2007

	Population group			
	African	Coloured	Indian	White
Head	23.3	22.8	28.3	36.8
Husband/Wife	6.8	12.6	16.9	26.1
Son/Daughter	34.6	37.0	31.2	26.7
Adopted son/daughter	0.9	1.5	0.4	0.6
Stepchild	0.4	0.6	0.3	1.0
Brother/Sister	3.4	3.4	1.7	0.8
Parent (mother/father)	0.3	0.8	2.0	1.4
Parent-in-law	0.2	0.3	1.1	0.6
Grand/great grandchild	20.9	12.0	8.5	1.8
Son-in-law/Daughter-in-law	1.1	0.7	1.7	0.8
Brother-in-law/Sister-in-law	0.6	0.7	0.4	0.5
Grandmother/Grandfather	0.4	0.3	0.0	0.2
Other	6.5	6.1	6.0	1.6
Not related	0.8	1.3	1.5	1.5

Gender and household headship

A major feature of households in the province is the gender pattern of headship. Figure 7.4 shows that by 2007 there was an almost equal split in the proportions of households headed by women and men. However, this hides an important pattern of difference that shows in O.R. Tambo, Ukhahlamba, Alfred Nzo and Chris Hani districts. In these four district municipalities, a higher percent of households were headed by women in 2007. In contrast, in Nelson Mandela Metropolitan District and Cacadu District Municipality, a higher percent of

households were headed by men. There was no significant gender difference in the gender composition of household heads the Amathole District Municipality in 2007.

The high rate of female-headed households in the economically poorer districts in the province is related to family and household disorganization that resulted from colonial and apartheid policies that affected the Eastern Cape. Unlike the situation in many other parts of Africa where female-headed households are predominantly a result of widowhood and to some temporary absence of a male head, in South Africa, a high prevalence of female-headed households among Africans in South Africa was mainly a legacy of the migrant labour system.

Figure 7.5. Percent of households headed by women, 2007

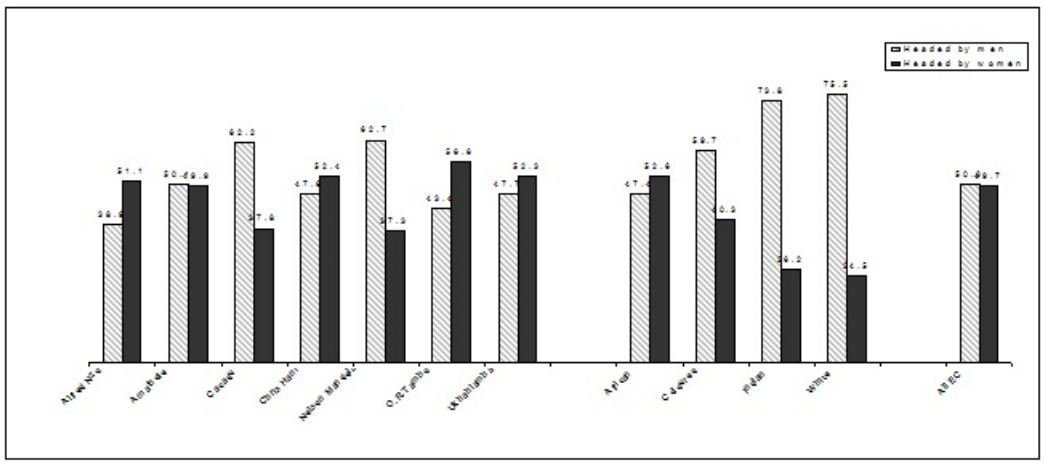


Table 7.6. Characteristics of head of households (%), 2007

	Men	Women	Both
Age group			
< 20	2.3	1.6	2.0
20-29	11.3	8.6	9.9
30-39	22.0	17.4	19.7
40-49	20.7	20.2	20.5
50 +	43.7	52.3	47.9
Marital status			
Currently married	61.3	23.7	42.6
Widowed/Divorced/Separated	8.5	41.4	24.8
Cohabiting	8.2	2.5	5.4
Never married	22.0	32.5	27.2
Education			
No formal schooling	1.1	1.5	1.3
Primary	31.7	33.4	32.5
Part secondary	28.2	28.3	28.3
Matric +	39.0	36.8	37.9
Work status			
Currently working	33.0	18.3	25.7
Not working	67.0	81.7	74.3

More characteristics of household heads in 2007 are shown by gender in Table 7.6. There were more male heads before the age of fifty; after that age, women heads were more than male heads. More male heads of households (61.3%) were in a marriage, compared to only 23.7% of female heads of households who were in a marriage in 2007. Differences in the educational profile of male and female heads of households were not very large. Only 33% of male heads of household were working in 2007. Among female heads of household, the figure was lower at 18.3%.

CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE IN THE FAMILY

The living arrangements of children and young people under the age of ten years are presented in Figure 7.6. More than half of children aged 0-5 years in 2007 (52.8%) lived with only their mothers. Only 20.5% lived with both parents, and 24.2% lived with neither of their parents. Among children aged 5-9 years, 36.8% lived with only their mothers, 22.8% lived with both parents and 38% lived with neither of their parents. A very small number of children in the 0-4 ages and those aged 5-9 years (2.5%) were reported as living with their fathers only.

Among Africans, only 16.7% of all children aged 0-4 lived with both parents in 2007. Comparative statistics for other population groups are 63.2% for Coloureds, 100% for Indians and 73% for Whites. Twenty per cent of African children aged 5-9 years lived with their mothers and fathers compared to 44.9% of Coloured, 44.1% of Indians and 68.8% of Whites (see Table 7.6). Together these data indicate that African children and young people under the age of 10 years are less likely to live with their two biological parents than their counterparts in other population groups.

Figure 7.6. Living arrangements of children and young people, 2009

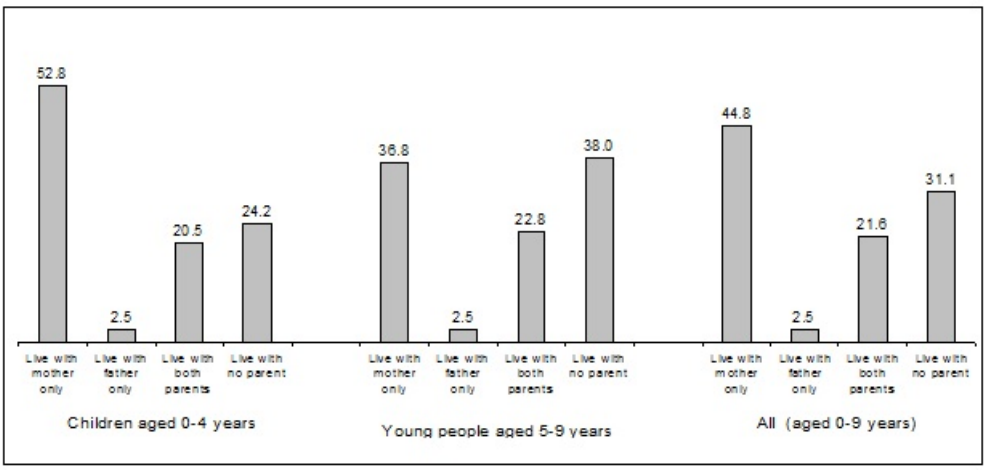


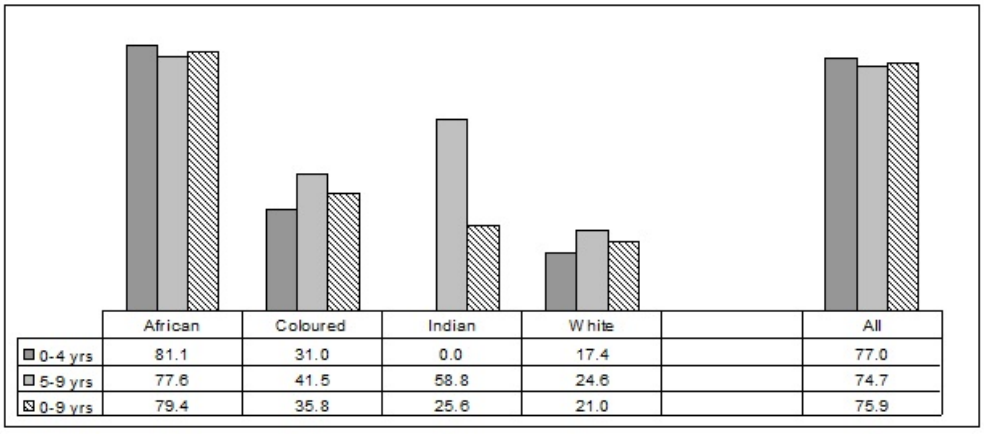
Table 7.7. Living arrangements of children and young people, 2009

	Population group			
	African	Coloured	Indian	White
Aged 0-4				
Live with only mother	55.4	24.5	0.0	13.3
Live with only father	2.2	5.8	0.0	9.6
Live with mother and father	16.7	63.2	100	73.0
Live with neither father or mother	25.7	6.6	0.0	4.1
Aged 5-9				
Live with only mother	37.6	28.5	0.0	19.3
Live with only father	1.9	13.6	0.0	7.6
Live with mother and father	20.5	44.9	41.2	68.8
Live with neither father or mother	39.9	12.9	58.8	4.3
All 0-9				
Live with only mother	46.5	26.3	0.0	16.2
Live with only father	2.0	9.4	0.0	8.6
Live with mother and father	18.6	54.8	74.4	70.4
Live with neither father or mother	32.8	9.5	25.6	4.2

Absence of biological fathers

Most families in the Eastern Cape are matrifocal. Many children grow up without the physical presence of their biological fathers in the same household. In 2007, more than three quarters of all children and young people under the age of ten years did not live with their biological fathers (see Figure 7.7).

Figure 7.7. Percent of children not living with a biological father, 2007



A number of factors contribute to the absence of biological fathers in the lives of their children. First, non-marital childbearing is a major reason. This is especially true for teenage childbearing which occurs predominantly out of wedlock. Secondly, in some communities, men are required to pay a "damage" cost as a condition for access to children they have out of wedlock. This is a major barrier

for many men, especially poor young fathers (Swartz et al 2009). Some scholars have pointed out the effects on children of this economic and other social factors in growing up in a household and families in which the father figure is absent for prolonged periods of time (Richter and Morell, 2006).

Another factor which contributes to the absence of fathers in the lives of their children is a high mortality rate among men in the region. The absence of fathers in the household is also related to the migrant labour system. Labour mobility of mostly young men, has a negative influence on the relationship between men and their families. The negative impacts of labour migration affect both the older persons who are left behind by migrants, and the migrants themselves, who might one day return to the family after reaching pensionable age or during a time of social or economic distress.

A primary effect of labour mobility is experienced in the quality of relationship men have with their spouses and children, especially when male workers are subjected to a life of enforced "bachelorhood," irrespective of their marital status (Ramphele, 1993). During the apartheid era, the norms governing responsible paternity was not enforced in the urban industrial locations. As a result, many men in these areas did not associate fathering a child with full commitment to parental responsibility. Children fathered outside a formal marriage were hardly regarded by many men as their primary social and financial responsibility. This new culture took root in the context of a long absence of men from their stable communal environment.

This feature of the family in the province could easily lead to an underestimation of the role of men. The absence of biological fathers highlighted here does not necessarily mean that most children grow up without a father figure. In a number of African societies, children are exposed to multiple male adult figures that directly or indirectly play the social role of fathers (Townsend 1997, Nsamenang 1989). Generally, in the Eastern Cape, as in African societies, children are seen as belonging to the entire lineage, rather than biological parents, and are often circulated within the kin relationships especially in the event of social and economic distress such as death in the family or loss of employment. Currently, as a result of the AIDS epidemic, extended families, especially grandparents take the responsibility of caring for orphaned children.

OLDER PEOPLE

The Eastern Cape and Kwazulu-Natal have the highest proportion of older persons in South Africa. The high proportion of older persons is mostly a function of economic vulnerability of the province which necessitates outmigration of young people in search of economic livelihood. Thus the province is carrying a heavy load of both children and older persons. Most older persons in the province stay in rural areas. This is a common experience in African countries where workers move back to their rural homesteads after reaching

pensionable age. Older persons generally prefer to reconnect with their extended families in rural areas and co-reside with their children, as a way of extending their pension allowance. Cultural norms, such as filial piety offer part of the explanation, but closely interwoven with culture are economic realities, as all generations benefit from economies of scale offered by multi-generation households.

As stated earlier, women in the region outlive men by a big margin. The fact that majority of the elderly are women weighs heavily on the elderly. Some cultural practices in some parts of the Eastern Cape, can be discriminatory towards women. These include the exclusion or limitations in inheritances within the family and women having less say within the family even when she is the most senior member of the family. In some places, accusations of witchcraft have been targeted at older women leading to their stigmatization and sometimes death. In addition, women are abused by the state machinery such as experiencing a dehumanizing treatment at government health institutions and at pension pay points. Because of the higher longevity of women, they are more likely to experience widowhood, a factor that is compounded by the tendency of women to marry older men, and by the fact that remarriage among women is uncommon in many parts of Africa including the Eastern Cape. These women face a long life without spousal support.

The trend that has been noticed is that successful children leave their childhood households and follow their career pursuits, while less successful children remain stuck in childhood households and thus continue being the responsibility of ageing parents (Makiwane 2010). As result of widespread early out of wedlock childbearing in the region, three generation households are usually created, adding an extra burden to beleaguered grandmothers.

Figure 7.8. Percent of households headed by people aged 65+, 2007

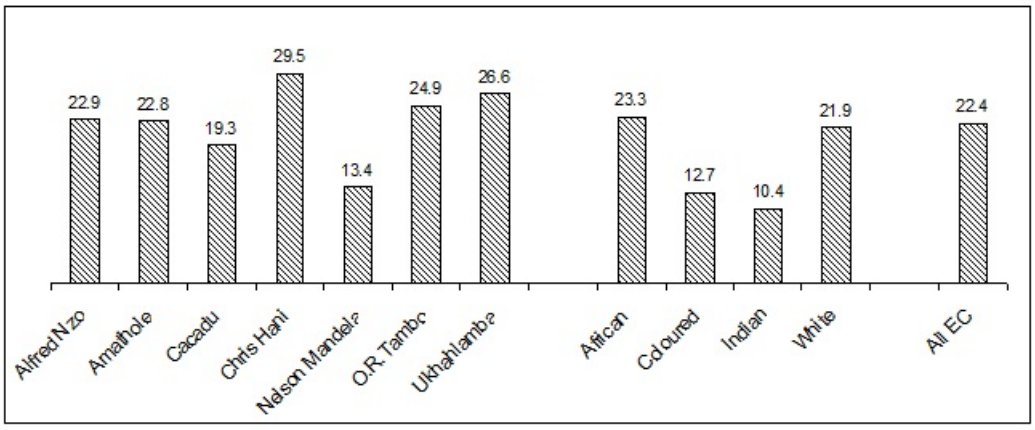


Table 7.8. Size of the population aged 65 +, 2007

District	Number (000)	% of total population
Alfred Nzo	31.3	6.5
Amathole	127.2	7.6
Cacadu	27.9	7.7
Chris Hani	71.7	9.0
Nelson Mandela	58.1	5.5
O.R. Tambo	111.4	
Ukhahlamba	25.8	6.0
All Eastern Cape	457.0	7.1

As a result of the migratory patterns, the Eastern Cape has one of the largest dependency burden as indicated by relatively few people in working ages compared to those who are too young or too old (see chapter 2). That said, it should be noted that the traditional method of calculating dependency rate based on chronological age can be misleading, as it assumes that the elderly are the biggest beneficiaries of multi-generational household arrangements, both economically and as recipients of care. On the contrary, emerging evidence shows that not only are older persons major economical benefactors of such families, they are also major givers of care (Makiwane 2004). There is little empirical information about how extended family structures that included several generations, affected the well-being of elderly persons (Peterson, 2001). On the one hand, these families can be seen as a site of inter-generational conflict serving as an incentive for seeking the independent route during the transition towards nuclear family formations. On the other hand, they are sites of inter-generational co-operation, where each generation comes with relative advantage for the common good.

Two factors have changed the nature of households in South Africa, namely the AIDS pandemic and the rising unemployment of young adults. As a result, in addition to traditional household arrangements that accommodated the integration and care of elderly people, other residential arrangements and roles, are emerging, including the elderly as breadwinners in multi-generational households. People in AIDS affected households have few working members. Most of these old people in the Eastern Cape use meager social grants to support entire households. In addition to being breadwinners, many older person undertake a large part of domestic chores and responsibilities, especially in households occupied by older persons and pre-teenage children.

INTER-GENERATIONAL RELATIONS

Inter-generational relations in the province are characterized by a widening social distance between generations. The data presented above shows that most older persons have a low educational background, stay in three generational households and are surviving on social grants. The main lesson is that older person has

assumed a role as bread winners and main care-givers to grandchildren in multi-generational households. At the same time, the respect and reverence they have enjoyed in African societies over the ages have been eroded. With the rise of formal education older persons are no longer seen as repository of wisdom and a source of guidance.

Rapid social changes in Africa, in general, and in South Africa in particular, are thought to have resulted in high inter-generational disjuncture. An inter-generational "contract" has existed between generations from time immemorial. This contract is usually in a form of reciprocal solidarity. Solidarity manifests itself when "one generation uses its vantage position of being outside a particular generation to be of assistance to a generation in need" (Biggs 2007). Unfortunately, major economic, cultural, political and demographic changes have disrupted the reciprocal relations between generations as shown in the above case studies. This disruption in Africa can be attributed to a number of events which include the rising youth unemployment, youth morbidity and mortality, migration, consumerism and social distance between generations. The nature of inter-generational relations in South Africa is such that it disadvantages older persons. For instance, in the region, there is a selective pattern of co-residence between parents and children, as unsuccessful children share resources with their ageing parents, while children who have obtained education and have become successful might be entangled in the high life offered by South African cities.

An example of a social distance between generations can be when a family ascribed to young girls that are broadly distributed across a variety of domestic chores. Fulfilling these household chores can be time-consuming, thus significantly compromising time spent on school work. This is likely to have a cumulative effect towards lessening the academic performance of girls. A similar predicament besets young boys in rural Eastern Cape. For these boys, school attendance is sporadically interrupted by goat, sheep and, cattle herding, and other homely responsibilities. In this case too, a marked decline in academic performance can be attributed to differences of interest between generations. This, in turn, has a hindering effect for life chances in later life. Thus, responsibilities and values in the parent generation can work together to undermine human potential for girls in the subsequent generation. On the other hand, disjuncture can manifest in the case of children socialized in a culture of "Model C" schools (popular term for multiracial schools) are likely to experience difficulty relating to adults who grew up under "Bantu education." Social distance develops between generations when, for instance, a parent and child are educated in systems that emphasize different values. Language barriers between generations are common, with children being unable to communicate fluently in vernacular, especially those children who attended multiracial schools.

Even those children who are conversant with vernacular might find language a barrier, as different generations use deferent dialects of the same language. For instance, *IsiXhosa* which is the most common language in the area varies considerable among generations. *IsiXhosa* that is communicated by older generation is

supposed to be "polite." On the other hand, younger generations usually flout such regulations, resulting in a manner of speech that the older generation regard as rude, impure and hooligan. In addition, many young people are influenced by multi-cultural media such as television and radio which are heavily influenced by Western popular culture (see Ngwane forthcoming). The alternative language is usually enforced by youth subcultures that frown at local cultures that are a basis social life of the older generations. The possible negative impact education on social cohesion in the region was echoed in the early 20th century by a popular poet in the Eastern Cape, S. E. K. Mqhayi, whose message is relayed below:

> Mqhayi expressed his concern that African political leaders will be unable to defend African rights because they have become ignorant of their own history due to Anglocentric nature of their schooling ….(The English are the only people with intelligence, prudence, knowledge, they alone have national heroes, they have never been defeated by any nation on earth; they claim as theirs even those things that clearly did not originate with them, in this way they indoctrinate nations who do not appreciate that their awe of the English is exaggerated, that their respect for them is excessive). (Opland, 2009)

In addition, physical distance has developed between generations in the region because of the migrant labour system. Physical distance relates largely to occupational commitments of parents. For a great part of the 20th century, a culture of labour migrations has especially prevailed among black South Africans. Most notably, the gold mines of Johannesburg attracted large numbers of young black men. During this period, an entire generation of black children grew up with absent fathers. In some households, where both mother and father work eight-to-five jobs, children are typically attended to by house helpers. In these households, social contact between parents and children is typically minimal.

CASE STUDIES

Two case studies are narrated below that highlight aspects of social and family the experiences of older persons in the Eastern Cape.

Case Study I

An interview of an elderly woman
in Sisila village, Mthatha 2006

The woman in the case study was born in 1936, which makes her 69 years old at the time of the interview. She was widowed and had assumed headship of her household which had nine members. The family lives in a homestead with one hut and one two-bedroom flat, thus having average room occupancy of three. Water supply for the household is a river which was a distance away from the home. The household has no toilets, with occupants using a nearby bush instead.

The head of the house had given birth to six children; three passed away and three are still alive. Of the three children still alive, two are women. One of her daughters is married and not staying with her. The second daughter is widowed and is staying in the household with her five children. She is unemployed and survives on the child grants for the three youngest daughters; with other two children over age eligible for receiving the grant.

The third child is a male, 40 years old and is also living at home. He has never married and is unemployed. He had a slight visual disability, which contributes to him not being employed, and being eligible for a disability grant of R780.

The deceased children, two of whom were boys and the third a girl, died of TB and epilepsy respectively. One of the two boys was married and is survived by the six children. His wife also died of TB. In the household there is also a great grandchild belonging to a children of the deceased son.

Case Study II

On the Family: an interview of an elderly woman in Mqanduli village near Mthatha conducted in 2006

The woman interviewed is a 62 year old, still looking relatively young and healthy. She has seven children and 9 grandchildren, all still alive. Three of the children still live with her and all 9 grand-children also live with her. All seven children are unemployed. The four not living at home are all over the country looking for work. The total number of children in her care is twelve. She still has her husband and they live together. He is also unemployed. He receives a disability grant of R780 (at the time of the interview), which at the time of the interview was about to lapse.

Financially, she survived on a four year disability grant of R780 which has now lapsed. Five of the children have child grants of R180 each per month, which is the family's only source of income. A recipient of the child grant can claim for a maximum number of six children, thus feeds the twelve children of the allowance for half of them. She used to sell fruit at nearby schools, but after sometime she ran out of capital and had to stop. She received training in chicken rearing but due to lack of capital could not start this business.

Two of the children are completing matric this year but she cannot afford to send them to university. All the grand children go to school without remission in school fees that indigent families are entitled to. She supplements her income with a food garden. Most of the money is spent on education of the children for which she is in debt and is trying to pay off. She borrows money from loan sharks, relatives and friends. She also has to pay rent for the two children studying in Mthatha. For medical care they make use of the clinic nearby only for minor illnesses. For serious illnesses they have to travel to a private doctor either in Mqanduli or Coffee Bay, both of which are far away places.

LESSONS FROM THE CASE STUDIES

The case studies above put a human face to the quantitative analyses reported earlier in the text. The section on older persons' quality of life is further confirmation of the plight of the elderly in South Africa. It is apparent in the studies above that most senior citizens in the Eastern Cape live on meager incomes, with the main source of which is the old age government grant. This income amounted to R780 per month in 2006, and has since been increased to R1070, which they spend on household necessities. As shown, most of them live in multigeneral households. In most of these households they are the breadwinners and sources of income. They are also expected to give care to grand children, especially in skip generational households with pre-teenaged children. Most of the financial burden on them is at the expense of their interest and welfare. In the USA for example, some commentators have reported that the increase in social security has resulted in the decline in co-residence, as older persons gained the means to be independent. On the contrary, in South Africa, social security is thought to draw indigent young people to households with older persons. Therefore their companionship, valued greatly by their ageing relatives, comes at a heavy financial cost.

It is of paramount importance to highlight, first of all, the pivotal role of government social security grants in sustaining poor households, the devastation caused by morbidity and subsequent death of young adults in many poor households and the role of other supplementary interventions in such communities. In addition to government grants, and the major role they have to play in these

households, the role of service remissions, the problem of access to grants and the role played by NGOs in facilitating access to services are also emphasized. In all cases mentioned here, families were not getting child grants that they were entitled to. The problem of sorting out necessary documentation is daunting for these marginal families. Even where such documentation exists there is a slow bureaucratic system, which delays the process. Secondly, although such families are entitled to remission in certain service fees, experience shows that without assistance this does not become a reality.

CONCLUSION

There appears to have been no radical changes in the structure of the family in the Eastern Cape from what it used to be before the early 1990s. But there is some noticeable decline in the household size. Currently, the average household size is 4.1. Households are becoming bigger in size in the eastern part of the province (O.R. Tambo, and Alfred Nzo) while in the western part (Amathole, Cacadu and Nelson Mandela) are becoming smaller. It should be noted that the western part is where there are bigger cities in the region, while the Eastern part is poorer with small village towns. The results are in line with what would be expected, as a result of migration many young adults leave the East to go to the west for work, forming one-generational sometimes a one person household next to their work area. In the meantime, children and older persons who are left behind congregate around households that are receiving social assistance. Most households in the East are multi-generational and are becoming bigger, and get most of its financial support from the Old Age Pension grant which is administered by the South Africa Social Security Agency (SASSA). However, the burden of other non-economic needs of older people remains on the shoulders of immediate and extended family members and thus, families congregate together to benefit from economies of scale.

Gender, Population and Development

8

The past two decades have witnessed a major shift in how policy makers and population researchers think about gender issues. For a long time, population programmes remained insensitive to gender concerns. In many popular national population programmes, women were treated merely as factors or agents to be manipulated in order to achieve desired fertility targets. The 1994 International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) served as an international forum for generating new understanding that includes issues such as gender equity and empowerment that go beyond traditionally perceived roles of women in fertility and childbearing.

The confluence of interest that emerged from policy and intellectual interactions at Cairo is often misinterpreted as international consensus on a need to work pursue women's empowerment through population activities. In reality, most interest groups accept that the status of women should be improved in population programmes but do not necessarily share the same goals or means on the matter. In many countries today, population policies support programmes and activities in women's empowerment as one of the means to achieve faster rates of decline in fertility and population growth. On the other hand, gender-sensitive perspectives are interested in population programmes to the extent that they provide means for women to take more effective control of their reproductive and socioeconomic lives.

Past population activities in South Africa subjected women, especially Blacks, to an unacceptable form of reproductive control. Apartheid policies exploited gender vulnerabilities in the socioeconomic lives of many Black women to enforce contraceptive and family building decisions that should be volitional and entirely voluntary. Black women experienced this reproductive oppression in various direct and indirect ways. For instance, they were pressured to use specific types of contraception in public health facilities(see Klugman, 1988, Chimere-Dan, 1992). In the wider society of the apartheid era, some employers conditioned job offers to Black women on preferred reproductive behaviour and family size.

The current population policy of South Africa (Department of Welfare, 1998) is in several ways a departure from the model that was implemented during the

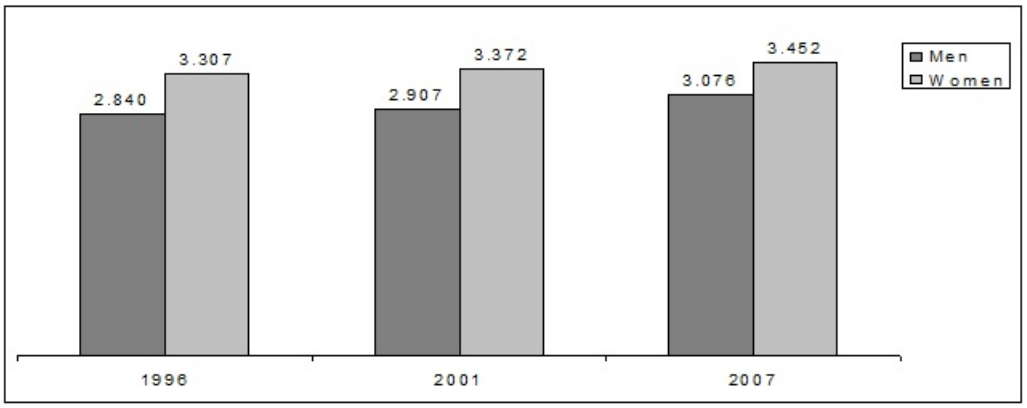
apartheid era (see chapter 1). Despite ambiguities about its implementation strategy, the first post-apartheid population policy placed sufficient emphasis on the need for engaging gender issues as part of national development efforts.

Gender concerns in population dynamics go deeper than a description of male and female differences in demographic measures. However, the scope of the present report does not extend to detailed and complex analyses of gender issues in the province. Based on information already present in different parts of this report, this chapter draws attention to selected aspects of the provincial demography that are relevant in planning for gender equity and women's empowerment at the local level. Areas that are highlighted include population size and structure, fertility, health, mortality, migration and women's economic activities.

GENDER AND POPULATION SIZE

One of the most visible demographic features of the province is the numerical predominance of women. There were 2.84 million men and 3.31 million women in 1996, and 2.91 million men compared to 3.37 million women in 2001. Similarly, in 2007 there were 3.08 million men and 3.45 million women in 2007 (Figure 8.1). Statistics South Africa produced mid-year estimates of 3.24 million men and 3.50 million women in the Eastern Cape in 2010.

Figure 8.1. Male and female population (in millions), 1996-2007



The sex ratios for 2007 in Figure 8.2 show that from the age of 20 years, the proportion of men in the population declined monotonously, reaching a very low sex ratio of 0.39 in the 80-84 age group. Table 8.1 shows that a shortage of men in the adult and active working ages (15-64) ages is experienced in all districts municipalities and most local municipalities. The exceptions are Great Kei,

Sunday's River Valley, Inkwanca and Sakhisizwe and Gariep. In 2007, women were marginally below 50% of the population of these five local municipalities.

The gender differences in the number of people aged 65 years or older are quite big. In all districts and local municipalities, women outnumbered men. In 2007, 64% of people aged 65 years or older were women. In extreme cases such as Matatiele, Tsolowana and Gariep, women comprised more than seventy percent of the population aged 65 years or older in 2007.

This phenomenal shortage of men results from a combination of effects, chief among which are (i) sex-selective patterns of out-migration in active working ages and, (ii) higher male mortality in adult years, especially in older and retirement ages. These two and other causal factors have identifiable historical and socioeconomic roots. In the past, many men in active working ages moved from the province to other part of the country as migrant workers. The consequences for gender and family structures persist today. A higher rate of mortality among men in older ages follows an established epidemiological schedule but could increase disproportionately due to sex-selective occupational hazards and a high prevalence of diseases of poverty.

Figure 8.2. Age specific sex ratios, 2007

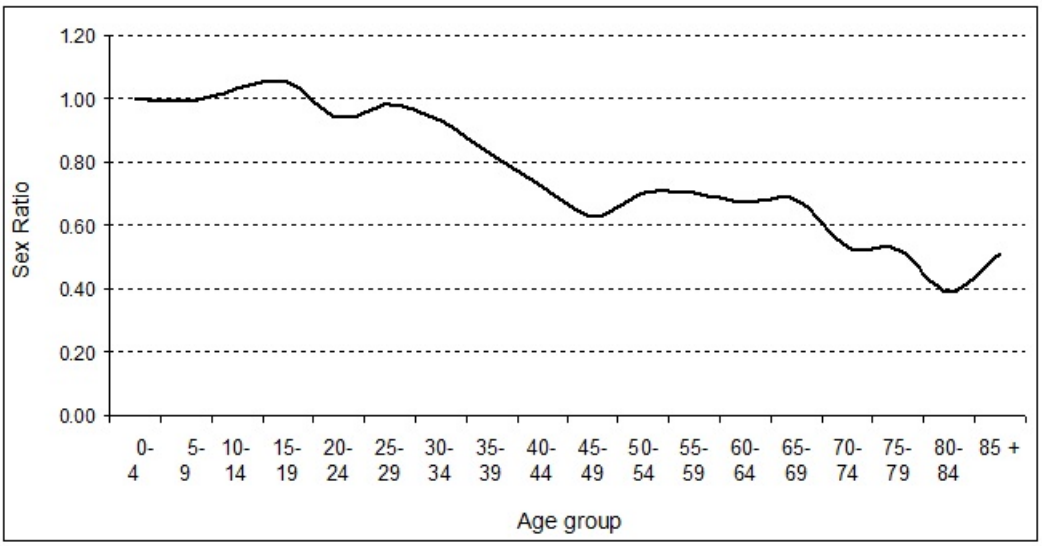


Table 8.1. Percent of people females in the population aged 15 and older, 2007

	Age group		
	15-64	65 +	All
District municipality			
Alfred Nzo	56.9	70.0	54.4
Amathole	53.3	63.2	52.7
Cacadu 52.6	58.0	52.2	
Chris Hani	54.2	63.7	53.3
Nelson Mandela	50.8	60.9	51.1
O.R. Tambo	55.1	66.1	53.4
Ukhahlamba	52.9	65.7	53.8
Local municipality			
Matatiele	57.3	72.7	54.8
Umzimvubu	56.3	67.2	53.9
Mbhashe	59.6	63.8	55.5
Mnquma	56.0	63.4	53.9
Great Kei	47.7	62.7	51.3
Amahlathi	52.1	63.8	52.8
Buffalo City	51.1	61.3	51.5
Ngqushwa	54.0	66.5	53.8
Nkonkobe	53.6	64.9	53.3
Nxuba	51.0	62.3	51.5
Baviaans	56.0	56.7	53.6
Blue Crane Route	51.6	64.7	52.5
Camdeboo	51.4	62.7	52.0
Ikwezi	57.0	63.3	55.0
Kou-Kamma	52.8	51.2	52.3
Kouga	51.9	56.7	51.6
Makana	54.7	57.1	53.9
Ndlambe	54.0	57.2	53.9
Sunday's River Valley	47.9	56.6	48.7
Emalahleni	54.3	65.2	53.6
Engcobo	59.5	50.2	55.7
Inkwanca	49.5	64.0	50.2
Intsika Yethu	55.3	64.2	53.2
Inxuba Yethemba	53.4	54.4	53.7
Lunkanji	52.4	65.3	53.0
Sakhisizwe	49.9	64.6	49.9
Tsolwana	51.4	70.8	51.6
King Sabata Dalindyebo	55.7	65.3	53.7
Mbizana	55.7	69.5	53.9
Ntabankulu	54.5	68.3	52.9
Nyandeni	55.3	68.8	53.9
Port St. Johnson	55.7	63.1	53.9
Port St. Johns	55.7	63.1	53.4
Quakeni	53.5	66.6	52.7
Elundini	53.7	65.0	53.4
Gariep	48.8	76.7	52.9
Maletswai	50.2	65.0	52.3
Senqu	54.1	65.0	55.0
Eastern Cape Province	53.5	64.0	52.9

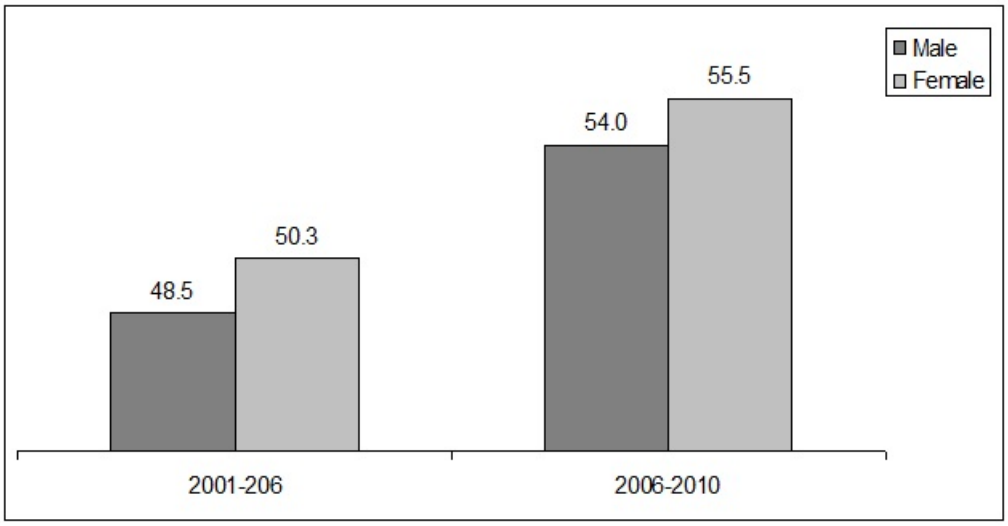
As in other societies, the relationship between gender and health of different subgroups of the provincial population is mediated by a number of complex factors that impinge on the lives of men and women. Generally, women tend to report their health status better than men, and this sometimes results in gender differences that are not easy to interpret correctly. For instance, in 2009, 16.9% of all women in the province reported illnesses or injuries compared to 14.1% of all men who did so. It is not clear whether this genuine or if it is a result of data errors. Available data also show higher prevalence rates among women for certain diseases that include asthma, diabetes, HIV and AIDS, high blood pressure and arthritis.

There are fairly stable patterns of differences in the health behaviour between men and women. On average, women take better care of their health than men, although in some instances, women are presumably pressured by social circumstances to adopt patterns of health behaviour that could be deleterious to their health. An example is the drinking habits of men and women in the province (see chapter 2). Fewer women drink alcohol compared to men but more female drinkers are involved in hazardous drinking than their male counterparts. Other example are found in various issues raised by AIDS—an epidemic about which much has been written in South Africa and other developing countries. Gender factors have powerful influences on the processes of sexual negotiations, differentiated rates of infections and on the experiences of stigma and discrimination by people living with AIDS.

Presently, the province has no very good sets of data to establish the exact pattern of gender differences in mortality especially in the light of AIDS and other causes of mortality to which men and women are differentially susceptible. However, based on known patterns of socioeconomic correlates of health and deaths, gender differences in levels of mortality are probably bigger in the poorer districts and local municipalities.

Available information on gender differences in health status in the province is summarized by the empirical evidence about the levels and trend in the expectation of life at birth. The data (Figure 8.3) show that women live longer than men. The estimated expectation of life at birth in the 2001-2006 period was 48.5 years for men and 50.3 years for women. For the 2006-2010 period, the estimated expectation of life at birth is 54.0 years for men and 55.5 years for women.

Figure 8.3. Sex differences in expectation of life at birth, 2001-2010



GENDER ROLES AND REPRODUCTIVE DECISION-MAKING

Traditionally, childbearing and child rearing are confined to female roles. In the past, these roles were reinforced by policies and economic structures that encouraged absent fatherhood in the Eastern Cape. Today, although there are signs of change towards greater male involvement in fertility-related roles especially among married and educated couples, the burden of childbearing and childbearing rests on women. Many children and young people are raised in households without the physical presence of their biological fathers (see chapter 7).

From a population policy perspective, remarkable features of the provincial demography include a relatively high rate of contraceptive prevalence among women and a declining trend in fertility amidst widespread poverty. It appears that norms of contraceptive use and a small family size have become entrenched in the Eastern Cape. Since the early 1990s, population scientists have closely followed these demographic characteristics of the region. How did women in the region negotiate their way through various powerful constituencies of interest to embrace these non-traditional reproductive norms in a patriarchal society that fiercely resisted apartheid policies including population control programmes? A related question is about the nature of the relationship between a high rate of contraceptive prevalence and a steadily declining rate of fertility on one hand and the status of gender equity and women's empowerment on the other.

A detailed analysis of these and related issues in population and development falls outside the scope of the present report. It should be mentioned though, that researchers have developed various hypotheses on these and related issues.

Chimere-Dan (2007) found some answers to the first question in complex economic and social circumstances that contributed to liberalize men's perspectives on the use of contraception and decisions about reproductive matters. An analysis of empirical data from the early 1990s suggested that the crisis of apartheid disorganized the household and community loci of male authority and contributed to an alteration of intra-spousal power relations partly in favour of women. Over time, the power of men over the reproductive choices and behaviour of their wives and other women in the community were significantly reduced. A complementary explanation draws attention to the extremely harsh economic and social realities that transformed contraceptive use into an essential survival strategy for Black women in the apartheid society.

Rigorous demographic studies are yet to address the second question about the impacts of the prevailing demographic regime on women's empowerment in the province.Women adopt specific forms of reproductive and demographic behaviour such as use of contraceptive preference for a small family size mainly for personal and household economic reasons. In this regard, the present demographic regime in the province raises an important question for policy and for tracking gender equity. What are the returns of increased contraceptive use and a small family size for women's empowerment? Does a woman with three or fewer children experience any less gender disadvantage and discrimination in the wider society than one with eight or more children?

GENDER AND MIGRATION

Gender-selective migration over several decades had fundamental impacts on the social development profile of the province. Indirectly it contributed to processes that de-stabilized family and household structures, re-configured social and economic relations, weakened the traditional male authority structure and feminized the household. These changes in turn influenced other key aspects of the provincial demographic and socioeconomic profile.

For several decades, labour-related migration in the province involved mostly men. Emerging research indicate a gradual change to this pattern with an increasing number of women migrating to other parts of the province, and more significantly, to other provinces (see Kok et. al., 2006). Poverty is a powerful determinant of migration. An increase in female migration could suggest a combination of the impacts of poverty and gender discrimination. Do women who migrate and those who do not experience the same degree of gender discrimination? Which of the two groups of women are more disadvantaged than the other in the contemporary society? The gender-specific push factors, migration networks and social relations in the destinations of female migrants are not as well-known as in male migration. Lastly, it is not yet empirically clear how the

family, household and society in the Eastern Cape are adjusting, or will adjust to a significant increase in the volume of female migration.

In 2007, there were 4.7 million people in this aged 20 years or older who were born in the Eastern Cape. The number of people in this age segment who lived outside the province was 1.6 million. Of these, 757945 or 51.6% were women. Table 8.2 shows no significant differences in their age profile. This suggests, among other things, that perhaps aggregated provincial statistics are yet to capture the demographic details of any increase in the number of women who migrate to other provinces from the Eastern Cape.

Table 8.2. Eastern Cape-born population (20+) in other provinces (%), 2007

Age group	Males	Females	All
20-24	15.7	15.8	15.8
25-29	16.9	17.6	17.3
30-34	16.3	15.9	16.1
35-39	12.1	11.8	11.9
40-44	10.6	10.3	10.5
45-49	9	8.3	8.6
50-54	6.9	5.9	6.4
55-59	4.8	4.1	4.4
60-64	2.9	3.4	3.1
65-69	2	2.4	2.2
70-74	1.2	1.9	1.5
80-84	0.5	0.8	0.6
85 +	0.4	0.6	0.5
Unspecified	0.9	1.2	1.1

WOMEN, DEMOGRAPHY AND WORK

Patterns of women's participation in economic activities are powerful indicators of gender challenges in the society. Statistics South Africa produces a wealth of timely official statistics about important dimensions of gender imbalances in the demography of women's work. Available sets of data include information from the annual General Household Survey and the quarterly Labour Force Survey. However, official economic and demographic data are rarely rigorous in conceptualizing and presenting categories of work in relation to gender issues. Standard definitions and classifications of economic activities have a tendency to underestimate women's work. This caution should be borne in mind when interpreting some of the statistics presented in this sub-section.

Gender composition of the work force

Historically, women played a major role in the economy of the Eastern Cape. Today, there are more women than men in the working ages. Data collected in between April and June for the second quarter of the Labour Force Survey show that 54% of the four million people in the active working ages of 15-64 years are women (Table 8.3).

Table 8.3. Gender distribution of the work force, 2010

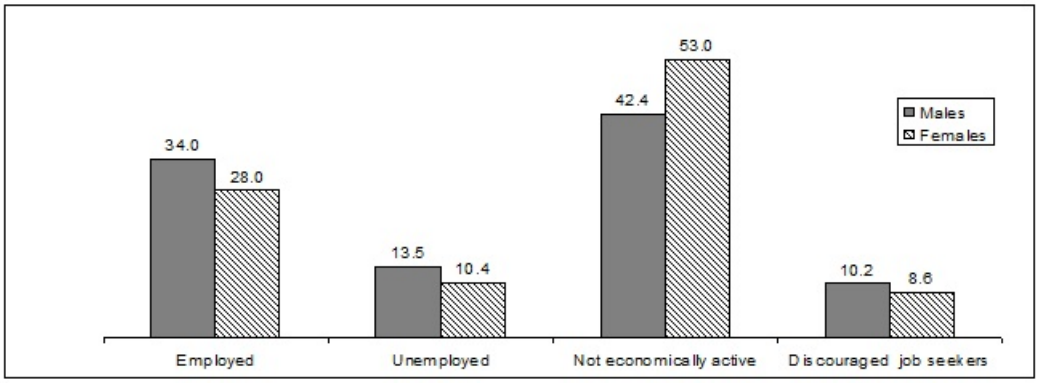
	Men		Women		
	Number	%	Number	%	All (N)
15-19	409 235	49.5	416 976	50.5	826 211
20-29	609 123	49.4	624 864	50.6	1233987
30-39	368 077	45.8	435 521	54.2	803 598
40-49	191 667	38.1	311 415	61.9	503 082
50-64	278 720	41.4	394 155	58.6	672 875
All	1856822	46.0	2182931	54.0	4039753

Gender and pattern of economic activity

There is lack of agreement among analysts about how employment and unemployment should be defined especially in relations to women's work. This subsection uses the official definitions and categorization by Statistics South Africa to examine patterns of gender differences in economic activity in the province.

Figure 8.4 shows the current status of the economically active population (15-64 years). Although there are relatively more men in the categories of unemployed, employed and discouraged job seekers, a bigger gender difference is observed in the category classified as "not economically active."

Figure 8.4. Current employment status of people (15-65) by gender, 2010



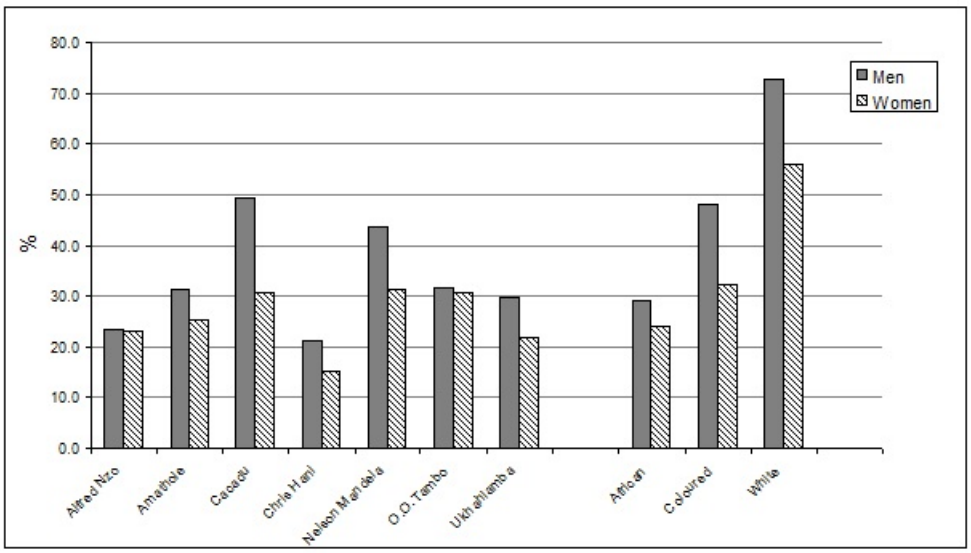
This categorization raises questions about how women's work is socially perceived, formally measured and quantitatively presented in official statistics. The same point applies to statistics about the higher percent of women who are classified in the "unpaid family worker" and "not specified" categories (see Table 8.4).

Table 8.4. Sex differences in work status of people aged 15-64 , 2007

	%		
	Men	Women	All
Paid employee	65.9	60.2	63.1
Paid family worker	1.6	2.5	2.1
Self employed	11.1	10.2	10.6
Employer	1.4	1.1	1.3
Unpaid family worker	9.1	12.6	10.8
Not specified	10.8	13.4	12.1

Data from the Community Survey (Figure 8.5) suggest that in 2007, men were reported to be involved in formal employment more than women in all districts and for population groups in the province.

Figure 8.5. Percent of people (aged 15-64) employed by sex, 2007



Gender and unemployment

The gender difference the current official rate of unemployment (June 2010) for the province is small. Unemployment rates of 28.4% and 27.1% were reported men and women respectively. For people aged 15-29 years, the rate of unemployment is higher among women. From the age of 30 years, the unemployment rate is marginally higher among men (Figure 8.6). The unemployment rate is slightly higher among men in different population groups (Figure 8.7). For married and cohabiting people, the rate of unemployment is higher among women (Figure 8.8), but higher among men for people who have never been married, widows, divorcees and those who are separated.

Figure 8.6. Sex differences in unemployment rate by age, 2010

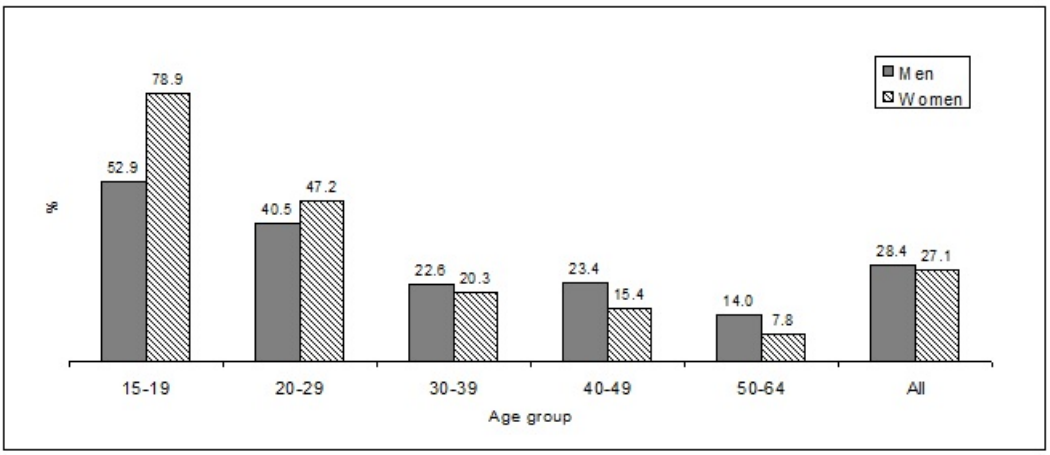


Figure 8.7. Unemployment rate by sex and population group, 2010

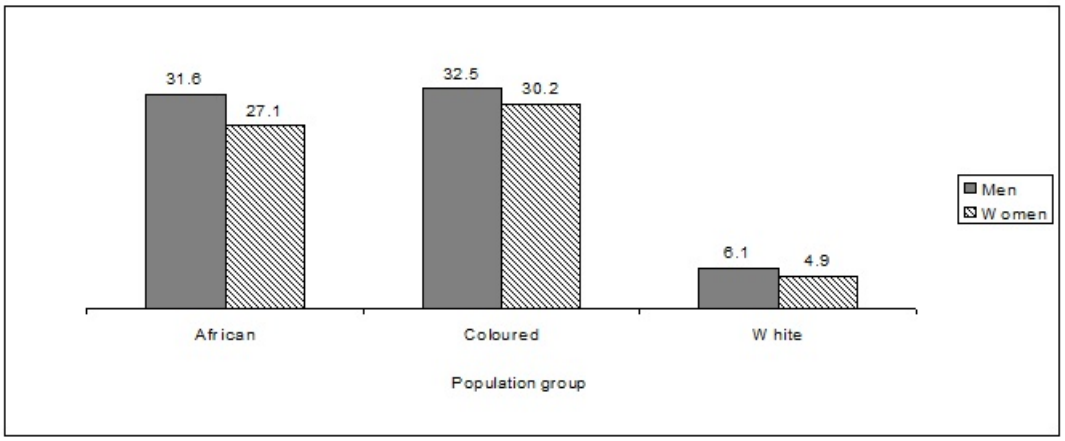
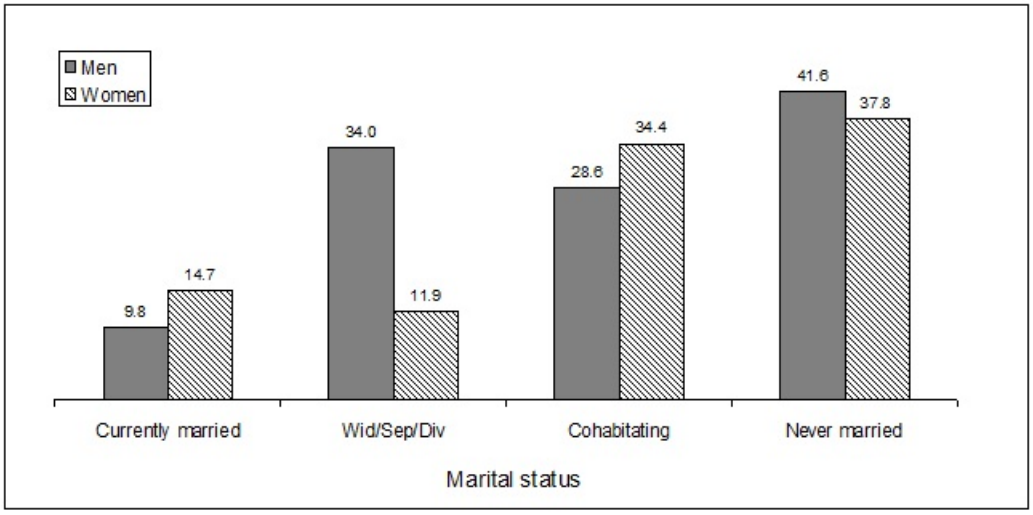
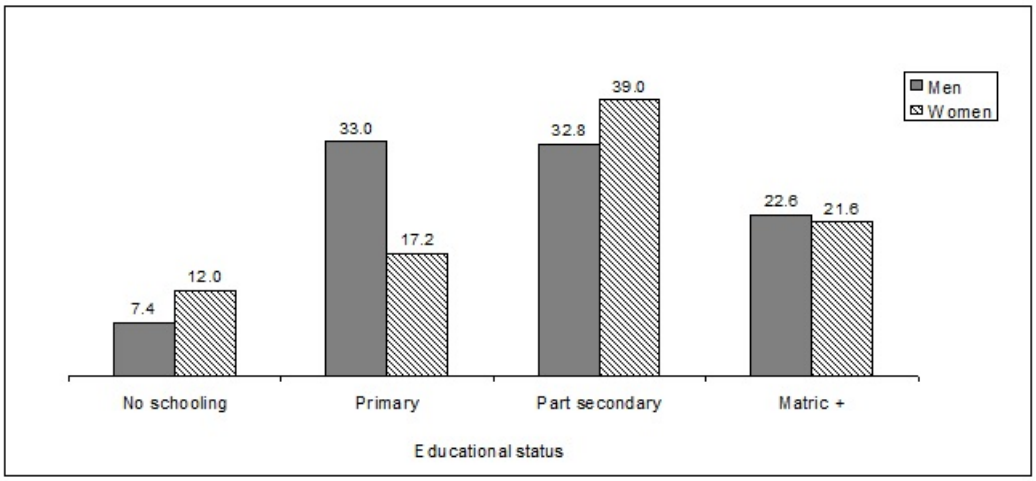


Figure 8.8. Unemployment rate by sex and marital status, 2010



Gender differences in the rate of unemployment for people with different levels of formal education are shown in Figure 8.9. For people with no education, the rate of unemployment is higher among women. Among people with only a primary level of schooling, women experience a higher rate of unemployment than men, and for those with some secondary level of schooling, the rate of unemployment is higher among women. There is only a small difference in the official rate of unemployment for men and women with at least a matric level of education (22.6% for men and 21.6% for women).

Figure 8.9. Unemployment by sex and education, 2010



Gender and type of economic activities

Table 8.5 shows the gender differences in industry and occupation of employment for men and women. These data confirm a common pattern of gender differences in economic activities. Men dominate the industries of mining and quarrying (100%), construction (86.1%) and transport, storage and communication (81.7%). Other industries with a majority of men are agriculture and related activities, and manufacturing (66.7%). On the other hand, private household services are dominated by women (73.5%). Women are also in the majority in community, social and personal services (59.7%), wholesale and retail trade (57.9%) and financial intermediation, insurance and real estate (53.4%).

Table 8.5. Sex composition of people in main industries and occupations, 2010

	%	
	Men	Women
Main industry		
Agriculture, hunting, forestry & fishing	66.9	33.1
Mining and quarrying	100	0
Manufacturing	66.7	33.3
Electricity, gas and water supply	86.1	13.9
Construction	90.6	9.4
Wholesale and retail trade	42.1	57.9
Transport, storage and communications	81.7	18.3
Financial intermediation, insurance & real estate	46.6	53.4
Community, social and personal services	40.3	59.7
Private household	26.5	73.5
Occupation		
Legislators, senior officials and managers	71.6	28.4
Professional	52.0	48.0
Technical and associate professionals	31.5	68.5
Clerks	26.6	73.4
Service workers/shop & market sales	48.2	51.8
Skilled agricultural and fisheries workers	64.3	33.7
Crafts and related trades workers	83.2	16.8
Plant & machine operators & assemblers	87.9	12.1
Elementary occupation	57.9	42.1
Domestic workers	5.5	94.5

Most legislators, senior officials and managers in the province in 2010 (71.6%) are men. The same is true for plant and machine operation and assembling (87.9%), crafts and related trades (83.2%), elementary occupations (57.9%) and professional work (52%). Domestic work is almost exclusively done by women (94.5%). Other occupations with women in the majority are clerical work (73.4%), techni-

cal and associate professional activities (68.5%) and services, shop and market sales (51.8%).

With minor exceptions, data for population groups in Table 8.6 and Table 8.7 follow this broad pattern of gender differentiation in economic activities. African women are in the majority in three industries namely private household (73.2%), wholesale and retail trade (62.5%) community, social and personal services (60.3%). In addition to these areas, coloured women are also in the majority in these three industries as well as in financial intermediation, insurance and real estate (68.6%). White women are in the majority only in two industries—financial intermediation, insurance and real estate (65.35) and community ad personal services (57.7%).

Table 8. 6. Percent of people in different industries who are women, 2010

Type of industry	% women employed		
	African	Coloured	White
Agriculture, hunting, forestry & fishing	34.0	30.1	21.0
Mining and quarrying	0.0	nd	nd
Manufacturing	31.3	46.4	27.3
Electricity, gas and water supply	0.0	nd	48.7
Construction	11.6	0.0	7.1
Wholesale and retail trade	62.5	53.9	39.8
Transport, storage and communications	15.4	8.9	47.0
Financial intermediation, insurance & real estate	44.0	68.6	65.3
Community, social and personal services	60.3	63.2	57.7
Private household	73.2	77.4	-

The patterns of differences in the involvement of women from different population groups in various occupations are shown in Table 8.7. Generally, the data confirm a dominance of men in categories of occupation that are considered key to the market economy in the country. African women are in the majority only in domestic work (94.1%), wholesale and retail sales (74.0%), professional work (63.7%) clerical work (62.5%) and sales and services (54.5%). Coloured women are in the majority in clerical work (71.8%), technical and associate professional work (67.6%) and sales and services (65.5%). White women are in the majority in clerical work (94.8%), technical and associate professional work (53.8%) and elementary occupations (52.0%).

Table 8.7. Percent of people in different occupations who are women, 2010

Type of occupation	% employed		
	African	Coloured	White
Legislators, senior officials and managers	23.8	27.3	31.3
Professional	63.7	23.4	36.4
Technical and associate professionals	74.0	67.6	53.8
Clerks	62.5	71.8	94.8
Service workers/shop & market sales	54.5	65.5	33.9
Skilled agricultural and fisheries workers	39.5	nd	0
Crafts and related trades workers	19.3	19.1	0
Plant & machine operators & assemblers	8.2	34.5	0
Elementary occupation	43.5	25.8	52.0
Domestic workers	94.1	100	-

SUMMARY

This analysis has highlighted selected areas of change and continuity in the interactions of population dynamics and the challenges of gender equity and women's empowerment in the Eastern Cape. Women in the province are in the demographic majority. The foundation of this demographic imbalance was laid by oppressive colonial and apartheid policies that, among other things, encouraged a sex-selective migrant labour system in the Eastern Cape.

Gender-selective population movement initiated a fundamental restructuring of family units that transferred the responsibility of taking care of many households to women. Today, the burden of childbearing and childbearing in the province rests on women, although there are signs of change towards greater male involvement in fertility-related roles especially among educated married couples. In the recent years, economic pressure appears to encourage the migration of not only men but also women in significant numbers. The extent and socioeconomic consequences of this emerging demographic trend for the province remain largely unknown.

Traditionally, childbearing and child rearing are confined to female roles. In the Eastern Cape, these gender roles were reinforced by historical policies and economic structures that encouraged absent fatherhood. Despite pressure from competing gender roles and widespread experience of poverty, women in the province have achieved remarkable changes in fertility and reproductive decision-making. In the process of joggling gender roles, women have embraced reproductive norms that would not be easily expected in a patriarchal and male

dominated society. These include widespread use of modern methods of contraception and preference for a small family size.

Historically, women in the province played a central role in economic development in the Eastern Cape. This is reflected in the disproportionate burden of family and community responsibilities that rested on women. There is no empirical evidence of a reduction in the socioeconomic role of women in the province.

Following an emphasis on understanding and planning for gender equity in the country, official statistics are presented for males and females wherever possible. In this way, gender differences are highlighted. This is an encouraging development but the fact remains that the complex and sometimes subtle dynamics of gender problems in the society are not easily visible in simple statistics comparisons. The problem is compounded by the fact that quantitative information that is important for monitoring critical aspects of gender imbalances is not always available at the provincial and local levels. Some analysts express serious reservations about official statistics because they are not always sensitive enough to capture the full range and value of women's work. Whatever interpretations are given to demographic and economic statistics that currently exist, they show a central and active role of women in the fight against poverty in the province.

Women have numerical dominance over men in the province. Unfortunately, despite this empirical fact, it takes onerous advocacy and sometimes formal legislation before women's interests are fully reflected or represented in a number of areas that affect their personal and social development. The national population policy and other legislative instruments make a case for gender equity and women's empowerment. However, concrete achievements in these areas and in the reduction of gender-based poverty in the Eastern Cape are small.

By the end of the past decade, there was a debate about the ability of population policy to address the roots of causes of women's dis-empowerment and poverty beyond making contraception accessible for women (see Harriet and Sen, 2000, Klugman, 2000, Barraso and Jacobson, 2000). More recently, the issues of gender and poverty in South Africa have been raised by researchers who focused attention on various areas including poverty reduction strategy (Untehalter, 2008; Bennett, 2008), income and access to resources (Posel and Rogan, 2008) skill development (Moorosi, 2008) and migration (Lansink, 2008).

The full impacts of several development activities that are designed to contribute to gender equity, women's empowerment and poverty reduction in the province are yet to be fully determined. A number of domestic and international indicators have been developed for monitoring aspects of gender equity and equality. There is a need for more sets of indicators that are robust enough to capture progress and challenges in efforts to improve gender equity and the empowerment of women in the Eastern Cape.

Population and Education 9

Formal education is universally recognized for its central role in social and personal development. Although details of how formal schooling operates to generate positive socioeconomic effects are yet to be fully understood in contemporary South Africa, education is one of the most effective instruments in the fight against poverty at two important levels. A threshold level of formal education improves the opportunities for personal development and life chances available for the individual in the modern world. For the society, formal education serves a critical purpose of improving the stock of human capital for economic growth and human development.

Education is widely used as an independent variable in population analyses that examine socio-economic and cultural influences on demographic factors such as fertility, mortality and migration. Formal education is a powerful determinant of childbearing patterns and population health. There is a fairly well-established pattern of inverse relationship between the levels of female education and fertility. In most modern societies, the level of maternal education is negatively correlated with rates of infant and early childhood mortality. The constancy of these associations has encouraged advocacies for investment in female education as one of the means to achieve demographic objectives. There is a significant body of research that places an emphasis in the need to educate women as one of the pathways to achieve a lowered rate of fertility in developing countries.

Education is also used as a dependent variable in analyses that focus attention on the training implications of population structures and trends in the society. Research in this area examines the problems introduced in educational services by population factors. The educational profile of the Eastern Cape could be approached from either of these perspectives—as a dependent or narrow or an indecent variable in the development equation. This section of the report does not take an instrumental view of the association between formal education and population factors. It draws attention to aspects of the provincial education profile in the bigger task of growing an adequate base of human capital for long term social development.

Literacy

Table 9.1 is a summary of the reading and writing abilities of people aged ten years or older in 2007. The data show that 33.1% of people in the province aged 10-14 years could not read and 33.4% of people in the same age group could not write. Considering adults aged 20 years or older, 17.8% of Africans could not read and 17.9% could not write in 2007. Comparable figures for Whites are 0.3% and 0.3% (see Table 9.1). The data suggest a small gender difference in the literacy rate in favour of females, especially before the age of 20 years.

Table 9.1. Reading and writing abilities of the provincial population (10 years +), 2007

	% cannot read			% cannot write		
	Male	Female	Both	Male	Female	Both
African						
10-14	38.6	27.1	33.1	38.9	27.3	33.4
15-19	6.7	1.9	4.1	6.7	2.3	4.6
20 +	17.6	17.8	17.8	17.6	18.1	17.9
Coloured						
10-14	16.9	13.4	14.8	16.9	13.4	14.8
15-19	0.9	6.0	3.4	0.9	6.0	3.4
20 +	3.2	6.8	5.1	3.2	7.0	5.2
White						
10-14	12.2	7.1	10.3	12.2	7.9	10.3
15-19	3.1	0.0	1.5	3.1	0.0	1.3
20 +	0.6	0.0	0.3	0.6	0.0	0.3
Eastern Cape						
10-14	37.3	26.0	31.9	37.5	26.2	32.1
15-19	6.2	2.0	4.5	6.3	2.4	4.4
20+	14.9	15.5	15.3	14.9	15.8	15.4

Formal education

The sets of statistics in Figure 9.1 highlight the improvements in formal education in the provincial population. The data show a general declining trend in the percent of people with no formal schooling since 2001. A declining trend in percent by age is observed for people with no formal schooling. Conversely, the percent of people in each age group with matric or higher levels of education is higher for younger generations.

The information in Figure 9.1 shows that following a declining pattern that is experienced in other parts of the country. It declined from more than twenty percent in 2001 to 8.6% eight years later in 2009.

Figure 9.1. Population 20+ with no formal education, 1996-2009

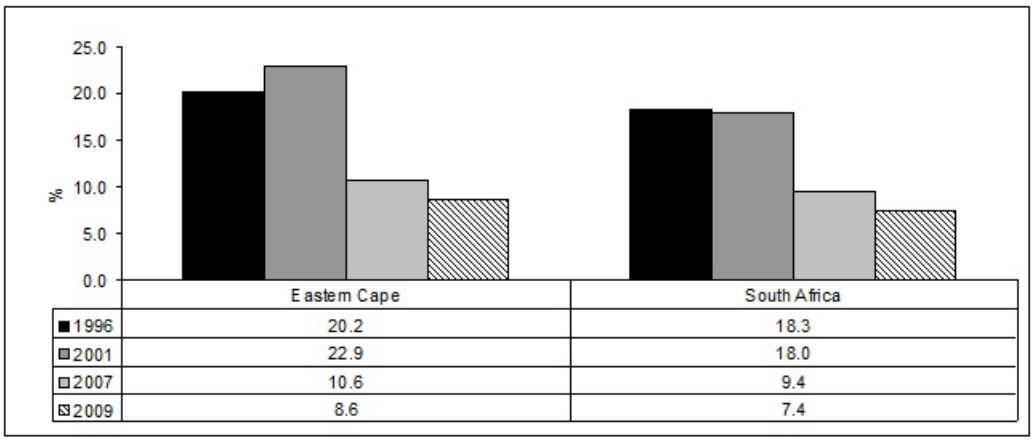


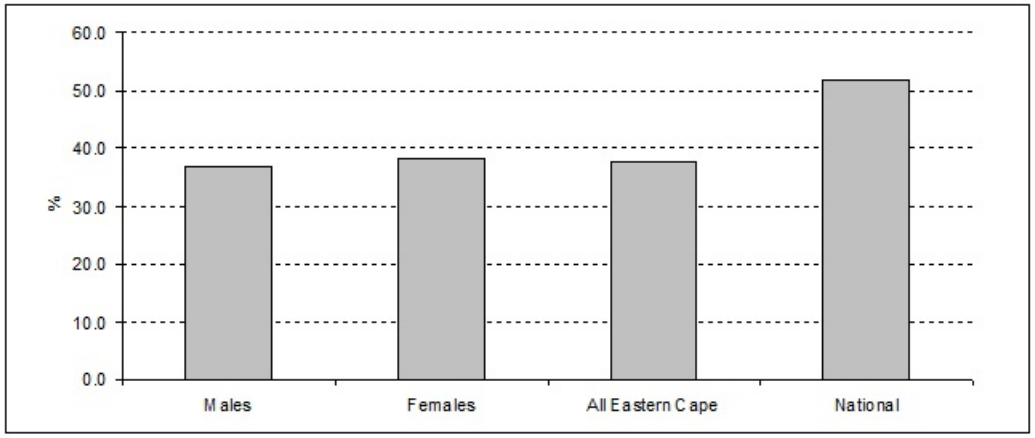
Table 9.2. Educational status of population aged 20 years + (%), 2007

	Level of formal education			
	No schooling	Primary	Some sec.	Matric +
Age group				
20-24	1.9	15.9	48.4	33.8
25-29	2.7	19.0	40.2	38.0
30-34	3.9	22.8	35.7	37.6
35-39	4.8	28.7	32.9	33.7
40-44	6.4	34.1	32.4	27.1
45-49	9.8	39.2	29.3	21.7
50-54	13.7	42.5	26.5	17.2
55-59	18.0	44.1	23.5	14.5
60-64	21.7	42.7	23.2	12.4
65-69	34.2	40.0	17.0	8.8
70-74	35.8	37.6	16.8	9.8
75-79	41.5	35.9	14.8	7.8
80-84	51.2	32.3	9.9	6.5
85 +	38.4	37.5	16.3	7.8

Educational achievement

Statistics on the actual levels of education achieved by different ages older than 19 years are shown in Figure 2.2 and for sub-groups of the provincial population in Table 9.2 and Table 9.3. In 2007, just under forty percent of the population aged 20 years or older had matric or higher levels of education of people in the province aged twenty years or older had matric or higher level of education (—37.6% for all). The percent of females with a matric or higher level of education is 38.2%, a level that is slightly higher the 36.8% recorded for all men in the province.

Figure 9.2. Percent of the population (20 +) with matric + education, 2007



People in the 25-29 age group in 2007 had the highest percent with matric or higher levels of education (38%). Thereafter, the percent of people with matric or higher levels of education decreased with an increase in age . Only 7.6% of the provincial population aged 85 years or older had a matric or higher level of education (Table 9.3).

The data also show that the percent of people older than 19 years with at least a matric level of education was lowest in the Alfred Nzo District Municipality (28.2%) and highest in the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan District (42.8%). In the more economically prosperous district of Nelson Mandela Metro, there are no wide gender differences in reported levels of education. In contrast, there were relatively more percent of females with matric or higher levels of education in O.R. Tambo, Alfred Nzo and Chris Hani districts. The gender difference in educational achievement is not big in Ukhahlamba District Municipality.

There are big differences in educational achievements among different population groups in the province. The percent of Africans aged 20 years or older with at least matric level of education in 2007 was just 30% compared to 74.1% of their White counterparts. The equivalent percent for Coloureds was 33.6%.

Table 9.3. Percent of population aged 20 + with matric or higher education, 2007

	% with matric +		
	Male	Female	All
District			
Alfred Nzo	27.4	28.7	28.2
Amathole	37.2	40.1	38.8
Cacadu	38.0	37.8	37.9
Chris Hani	35.9	37.8	37.0
Nelson Mandela	42.9	42.7	42.8
O.R. Tambo	33.6	36.5	34.3
Ukhahlamba	33.5	32.3	32.8
Population group			
African	33.5	25.5	30.0
Coloured	34.4	27.1	33.6
White	74.4	63.3	74.1
All Eastern Cape	36.8	38.2	37.6

Table 9.4 presents detailed information about the percent of people in local municipalities with matric or higher levels of education in 2007. The levels were generally low, and in all cases below fifty percent. They ranged from a very low level of 24.5% in Kou-Kamma Local Municipality to 46.6% in Ndlambe Local Municipality. Local municipalities with more than forty percent of its adult population with matric or higher level of education include Great Kei, Buffalo City, Makana, Ndlambe, Kouga, Inxuba Yethemba, Tsolwana, Engcobo, Sakhisizwe and Nelson Mandela Bay Metropolitan area. Parts of the province with a particularly low percent of people who had at least matric education include Kou-Kamma (24.5%), Sunday's River Valley (26%), Baviaans (28.5%) and Elundini (28.5%).

The percent of women in 2007 with at least a matric level of education is higher than their male counterparts in a majority of local municipalities in the province. The few local municipalities in which the percent of males with at least a matric level of education include Ikewzi, Sunday's River Valley, Inxuba Yethemba, Inkwanka, Sakhisizwe, Senqu and Maletswai. There were equal proportions of males and females with at least a matric level of education in Baviaans Local Municipality (see Table 9.4).

Table 9.4. Sex differences in educational status of population aged 20+, 2007

		matric +		
		Male	Female	All
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	25.9	25.2	25.4
	Umzimvubu	29.2	33.0	31.5
Amathole	Mbhashe	37.7	39.5	38.8
	Mnquma	27.8	33.6	31.2
	Great Kei	33.7	48.9	41.4
	Amahlathi	32.2	39.9	36.4
	Buffalo City	42.2	44.1	43.2
	Ngqushwa	35.1	43.4	40.0
	Nkonkobe	28.6	29.1	28.8
	Nxuba	29.5	30.2	29.8
Cacadu	Camdeboo	31.8	34.8	33.4
	Blue Crane Route	33.5	35.9	34.8
	Ikwezi	30.9	28.1	29.3
	Makana	42.6	43.5	43.1
	Ndlambe	45.5	47.6	46.6
	Sunday's River Valley	29.0	23.1	26.0
	Baviaans	28.5	28.5	28.5
	Kouga	48.1	43.5	45.6
	Kou-Kamma	23.9	25.1	24.5
	ECDMA10: Cacadu	33.3	35.4	34.3
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	46.2	45.3	45.7
	Tsolwana	41.5	47.7	45.0
	Inkwanka	33.0	31.8	32.4
	Lukanji	36.0	37.9	37.1
	Intsika Yethu	31.0	35.2	33.5
	Emalahleni	32.2	33.6	33.0
	Engcobo	41.7	43.7	43.0
	Sakhisizwe	32.9	29.7	31.1
Nelson Mandela	Nelson Mandela	42.7	42.9	42.8
O.R.Tambo	Mbizana	32.8	36.7	35.2
	Ntabankulu	32.7	37.0	35.2
	Qaukeni	33.2	35.8	34.6
	Port St Johns	33.1	36.2	34.9
	Nyandeni	33.1	35.3	34.4
	Mhlontlo	30.4	34.1	32.6
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	36.9	39.0	38.1
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	29.3	27.9	28.5
	Senqu	32.2	31.6	31.8
	Maletswai	42.4	40.0	41.2
	Gariep	37.5	41.6	39.7
All		36.8	38.2	37.6

Both population data and enrolment statistics show that a high proportion of school-age people are registered in schools in the province. Population-based data from the Community Survey (Table 9.5) show that most people aged 5-24 years in 2007 (76.6%) were reported to be in school. Ninety-three percent of people aged 5-9 years (93%) were in school in 2007. The reported gender differences in the proportions of the population in schools are not big for people under the age of 20 years. From the age 20 years, more males were reported to be in schools in 2007.

The percent of Coloureds aged 5-24 years who were in school in 2007 was relatively smaller than the percent for other population groups in all most age groups. Similarly, Cacadu District Municipality had the lowest percent of people reported to be in school in all age groups in 2007 (Figure 9.4).

Table 9.5. Percent of population aged 5-24 currently in school, 2007

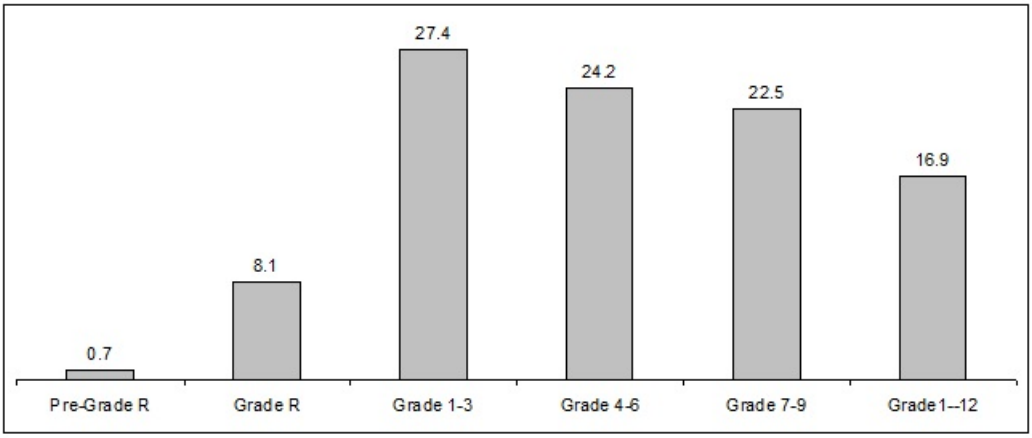
	Age group				All (5-24)
	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	
Sex					
Males	92.7	95.7	79.9	31.2	78.5
Females	93.3	96.0	77.6	28.3	76.8
Population group					
African	93.3	95.7	80.2	31.4	78.8
Coloured	88.1	96.0	57.7	10.8	62.4
White	93.4	91.3	79.6	27.4	73.3
District municipality					
Alfred Nzo	95.6	96.9	81.0	33.9	83.0
Amathole	92.1	95.9	80.5	32.2	77.2
Cacadu	90.4	93.5	61.0	16.3	66.2
Chris Hani	94.4	97.0	82.3	28.9	81.5
Nelson Mandela	94.0	94.9	75.7	22.8	69.1
OR Tambo	92.6	95.7	78.9	33.3	79.7
Ukhahlamba	91.5	95.8	79.7	32.0	79.8
All Eastern Cape	93.0	67.0	78.8	29.7	76.6

The official enrolment data for 2010 in Table 9.6 and Table 9.7 show that more than two million learners are currently registered in public and independent schools in the province. Most learners (97.6%) are enroled in public school. In both public and independent schools, female learners are slightly more than male learners (see Table 9.6). Figure 9.5 shows the percent of learners registered in the province in different phases. 9.5% are registered in pre-grade R and Grade R, 27.4% in the foundation Phase, 24.2% in Intermediate phase, and 16.9% in grades 10-12.

Table 9.6. School enrolment statistics for Eastern Cape, 2010

Type of school (Gr. 1-12)	Enrolment	% of All	% Males	% Females
Public schools	2 003 129	97.6 49.5	50.5	
Independent schools	49 256	2.4 48.4	51.6	
All schools	2 052 386	100 49.4	50.6	

Figure 9.3. Percent of learners in different grades, 2010



The trend in annul enrolment is presented in Figure 9.4 from 1999 to 2010. The data show that the year with the highest rate of enrolment was 1999 when 2.324 million learners were registered in provincial schools. Since that year the rate of enrolment has fluctuated narrowly, ranging from 2.139 million in 2000 to 2.053 million in 2010.

Figure 9.4. Trend in the size of learners (numbers, 000), 1999-2010

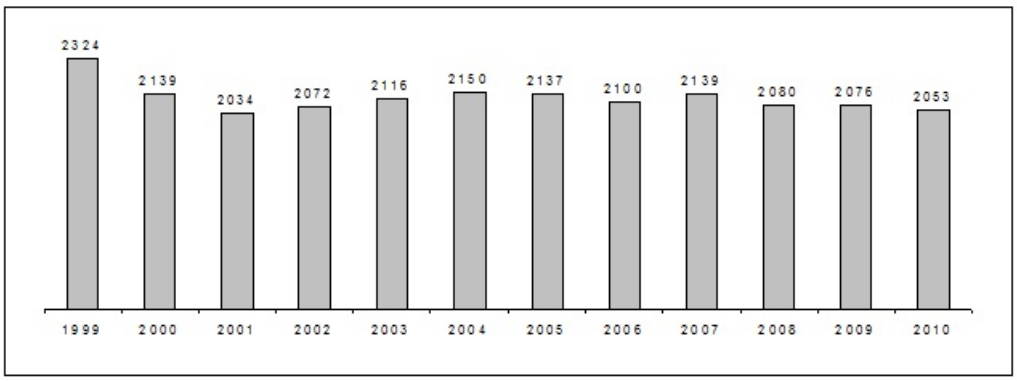


Table 9.7. The population of learners in 2010

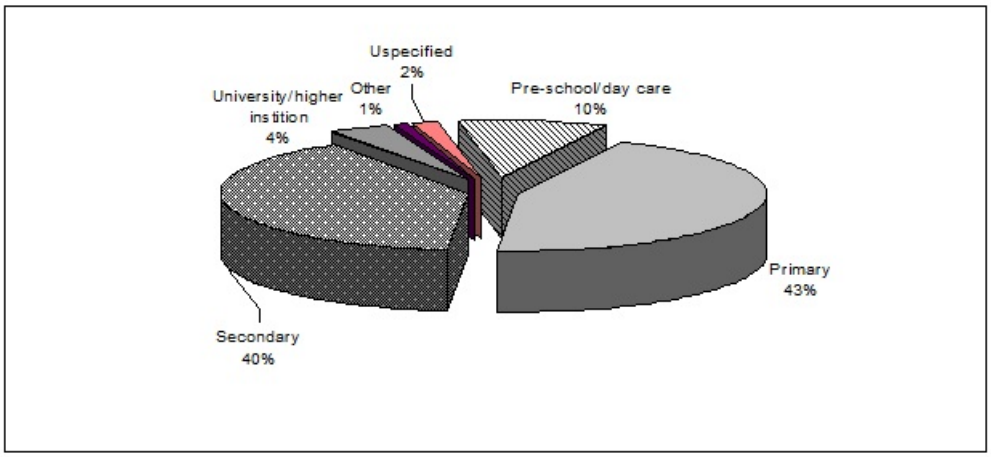
	M	F	All
Pre-Grade R	7 250	7 491	14 741
Grade R	82 791	82 124	164 803
Foundation			
Grade 1	107 599	98 780	206 376
Grade 2	91 993	84 962	176 955
Grade 3	89 478	82 309	171 787
Intermediate			
Grade 4	92 928	83 410	176 338
Grade 5	88 598	82 659	171 257
Grade 6	84 581	82 278	166 859
Senior			
Grade 7	81 557	81 773	163 330
Grade 8	76 817	78 001	154 818
Grade 9	66 034	72 027	140 061
All GET	864 264	828 323	1 692 587
Grade 10	70 883	80 682	151 565
Grade 11	53 370	67 733	121 103
Grade 12	31 257	39 987	71 244
All FET	155 510	188 402	343 912
All (Pre-R to Gr 12)	1 019 774	1 016 725	2 036 499

Source: calculated from EMIS database.

Type of learning institution

The type of learning institutions in which learners were registered in 2007 are shown in Figure 9.5. Primary schools had the biggest share of all learners (43%). Forty percent were registered in secondary schools. Ten percent of all learners were registered in pre-school or day care facilities. Four percent were registered in universities and other higher institutions.

Figure 9.5. Type of schooling by learners in the province, 2009



QUALITY CHALLENGES

Measured by performance of learners in senior certificate examinations, the quality of education in the province is poor. Figure 9.6 shows that the matric pass rate has fluctuated at a very low level since 1996. It declined from 49.7% in 1996 to 1999 when it recorded the lowest level ever (40.3%). Although it has picked up since that year, on average, the matric pass rate in the province remains among the lowest in the country. The highest rate recorded for the province was 60.1% for 2003. It declined to 53.5% in 2004 and improved to 59.3% in 2006. The provincial pass rate declined to 50.6% in 2008. The most recent pass rate (for 2009) is 51%. When placed in a national comparative picture, the poor quality of results in the national senior certificate examinations is fully highlighted (Figure 9.7).

Figure 9.6. Trend in senior certificate pass rate in the province, 1996-2009

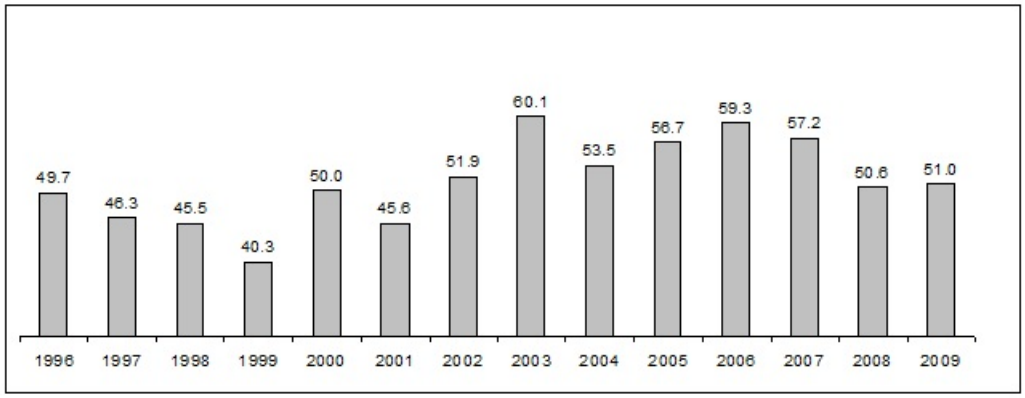
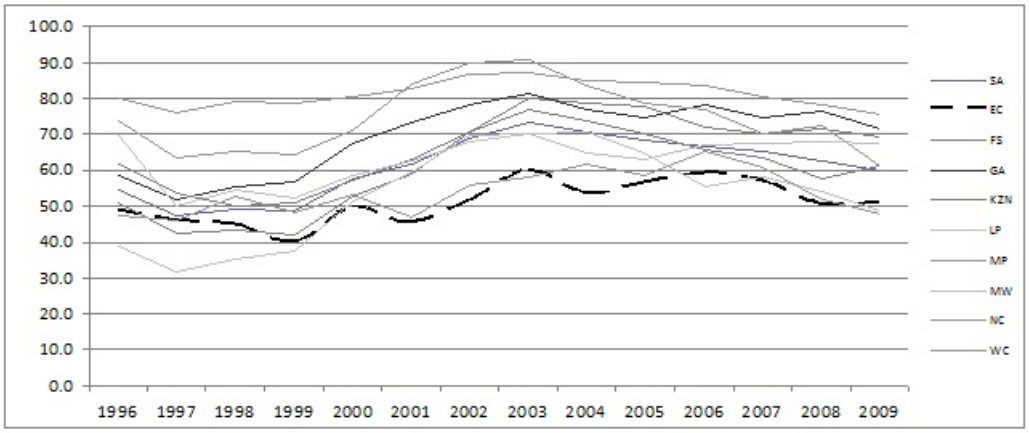


Figure 9.7. Trend in senior certificate pass rate in South Africa, 1996-2009



A perennial question about the quality of education is why the province performs consistently worse than most other parts of the country in these examinations. The scope of the present report does not include an examination of the determinants of the quality of education in the province. The Eastern Cape Education Department (2010) identifies various teaching and learning factors that contribute to poor quality of education in the province. These include operational and management problems on one hand and a number of factors on the side of learners. Some of these problems are general to educational systems while others are unique to the experiences of the Eastern Cape. Beyond, or in addition to these challenges, most specialists are agreed that the problem of quality of education in the province has deeper roots in historical policies and structural poverty to which the region was subjected in the past.

The provincial Education Department has in place an elaborate approach addressing the problem of quality and other challenges in the educational system. Interventions by the Department include a repertoire of programmes, projects and specific activities that are directed to specific problem areas. Programmes, projects and strategies that aim to improve the quality of education include but not limited to the following:

- Implementation of the Learner Attainment Improvement Strategy.
- A commitment to implement the new national curriculum.
- Expansion of access to school in the province.
- Promotion of school safety and security in schools.
- Promotion of skills in mathematics, physical sciences and technology.
- Addressing language problems in learning.
- Promotion of reading.
- Implementation of capitalization, transformation and restoration of schools.
- Support for inclusive education.
- Provision of on-the-job training for teachers.
- Improvement of working conditions for members of staff.
- Promotion of community involvement.

Interventions at each phase of learning are implemented in ways that are expected to have a cumulative effect of improving the performance of learners in the national senior certificate examinations.

SUMMARY

The Eastern Cape Education Department addresses challenges of education in the province using various policy instruments, different aspects of proper procedures, processes, systems and an organizational structure that facilitate the

delivery of a higher quality of education. There is noticeable progress in some areas, namely literacy, access to formal education and female schooling. Primary education in particular shows high rates of enrolment and retention. These are indeed encouraging progress in the complex task of addressing the legacies of inequity in education that was created by past policies. An outstanding challenge is how to translate progress in these areas into demonstrable improvements in the quality of education (measured by the performances of learners in all subjects in the national senior certificate examinations).

Demographic insights draw attention to a number of areas in education and human capital development in the province. First, the current demographic trends in the province (specifically in fertility and migration), do not suggest an unmanageable upsurge in the annual number of people requiring educational services in the near future. This demographic prospect gives education authorities in the province some room to concentrate attention on improving quality dimensions of educational services.

Secondly, the task of strengthening the provincial education system for effective delivery requires better understanding of population dynamics and use of population information in educational planning and management at the local level. The implications of current and projected demographic trend and processes that impact on both learners and teachers should be integrated in provincial education plans and implementation strategy.

Population and environmental concerns

10

Environmental concerns in the first half of the 20th century took a classical Malthusian perspective and blamed human population size and growth for several socio-economic development problems. Before the 1960s, worries about the natural environment focused on the negative impacts of rapid population growth on renewable natural resources and food production. Based on the original concerns about the impact of human numbers on the environment, researchers from economics, agriculture, demography and allied disciplines produced a number of estimates of the optimum population for the earth. Results from such analyses contributed to various revisions of global population stabilization targets by the United Nations. Today, environmental concerns have expanded to include other aspects of human activities that were seen to contribute to environmental problems such as air and water pollution, waste disposal, pesticides and radioactive waste. Interest in environmental problems also spans areas that include global warming, ozone depletion, bio-diversity and deforestation.

The relationship between the environment and population growth is complex and is mediated by several natural, spatial, social and institutional factors which are not fully understood. Population growth and distribution affect and are affected by environmental challenges. This complex relationship between population and the environment is widely recognized in research and policy circles. The point of controversy is usually about which direction is considered more relevant in the management of the challenges of human development.

The empirical case for the relationship between population and environment is yet to be firmly established partly because the factors involved remain poorly conceptualized. In its current state, the population and environmental debate involves at least three of the senses in which we use the term—population as human beings, as demographic dynamics and human activities. Data and discussions often lose direction when they fail to clarify the sense in which the use of the concept of population. Without clarification of models and levels of analysis

discussion of the relationship between population and the environment turns out simplistic and superficial.

Current population thinking and research on the environment take two broad perspectives. One group is interested to understand human impacts on the environment. The dominant perspective is that rapid population growth through natural increase, or specific growth points in the form of concentration of human population is bad for the environment, the economy and the society in general. This perspective is sometimes presented in a modified form that minimizes the unidirectional relationship implied in the mainstream perspectives. They do this by adding a third variable which makes the environmental degradation not just an effect but an intermediate variable. In this view, rapid population growth results in environmental degradation which in contributes to poor quality of life. This is where much of the burgeoning research and discussion on population and the environment can be located. Typically, the expected environmental problems from greenhouse effect are blamed on the rise of human population.

A competing perspective considers the impacts of the environment on human populations. This perspective recognizes and takes seriously important environmental problems that are not easily blamed on local human population but which impacts on area demography. These include a range of events such as flood, erosion, rise and fall in sea levels, drought, invasion of alien plant and climatic influences on human health. In this perspective, the natural environment has played an important role in determining human settlement, the mode of production and social organization. It could be argued that the pattern of human society have been in part empirical response to the physical environment in which people live. Human societies adapt and respond creatively in response to their physical environmental constraints. The modes of production, social relationship and cultures that evolve from these are in large part calculated responses to overcome the constraints of the environment and to maximize human conveniences and physical and environmental setting that would not ordinarily permit it. A strand of argument in this perspective pays attention to impacts that are results of human economic systems, national economic and development policies in combination with the normal processes of living and searching for means of existence by ordinary people and communities.

Locating an analysis

The issues that rise to prominence in the relationship between population and the environment are to a large extent shaped by the scope of the debate in a given situation. Arguments have been put forward depending on whether one is looking at the global, regional, national or sub-national levels. A good starting point for demographic analysis on this subject is to identify where the province

should be appropriately located in order to do a good analysis of the relationship between people and the environment.

Some of the issues are more relevant to the global level, others to continents and regions while others are better handled at the country level. Within a country, the salience of issues can vary considerably on regional or local bases. Because many concepts and empirical data analysis have not developed properly for robust generic application, a better approach is for an analysis to be as geographically specific as possible. Given the wide variations of the issues and the extensive disciplinary linkages, a viable approach that reduces bias is for researchers to look at the local situation. Determine the population and environment profile, and on the basis of the empirical situation, begin the process of searching for associations, establishing correlations and if the data permit, assigning causation and recommending areas of intervention.

POPULATION AND CLIMATE CHANGE

Broadened perspectives on population and development that followed the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development tempered bold statements about the relationship between population and environmental change. However, a resurgence of interest in climate change in the past decade has seen population dynamics back into the centre of environmental debates. At the global level, two basic questions that must be clarified before the population factor is seriously involved remain unresolved. First, we are not sure about the exact extent of the problem of climate change. Recently research and policy circles have been embarrassed by the confusion regarding the quality and scientific integrity of data that drives advocacy and policy recommendations on global warming. Statistics provided in the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change reports (IPCC, 1990, 2001, 2007) are fiercely contested among experts in these matters. Secondly, there is a lack of agreement among experts about the relative contributions of human and natural factors to climate change.

Ordinarily, one would expect rigorous work on the demographic aspects to follow only after clarifications of these and other core issues in the basic science of climate change. Apparently, this caution is not unanimously shared in the population research and policy making community. Since the 1992 international conference on the environment, the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) has promoted programmes that are presumably premised on the assumption that population dynamics contribute to worsen the problem of climate change. Recently, the UNFPA collaborated with a number of organizations to convene a meeting of experts on the relationship between population and climate change. Issues examined by this group without agreement include population dynamics, mitigation, vulnerability, migration, urbanization, data and measurement and

strategy for advocacy (UNFPA, 2009). Climate change was also the subject of the 2009 State of the World Population Report which was published by the UNFPA shortly before the 2009 Copenhagen Summit on climate change.

THE EXPERIENCE OF THE EASTERN CAPE PROVINCE

The social context for addressing environmental and population issues in the province is dominated by poverty and economic vulnerability. Therefore, the first sets of questions that must be addressed are those concerning the environmental constraints on socio-economic development in the province. An analysis of the relationship between population and the environment in the province should necessarily begin by drawing attention to past policies that forced Africans to settle in non-viable rural environments that perpetuated poverty, economic dependency and health hazards. Past colonial and apartheid policies that are relevant for the discussion here include the following:

- *Land dispossession*
  Dispossession of land from traditional farmers and pastoralists was in evidence by the late 19th century, first as economic strategy, and subsequently as a political and racial policy. In 1913 the Land Act formally restricted Blacks to 7% of the total area.

- *Creation Black homelands*
  Black homelands were formally created under apartheid in pursuit of the policy of racial segregation. In the process, settled Black communities were disrupted, uprooted and relocated to areas with little or no consideration of immediate and longer term implications for environmental sustainability.

- *Influx control*
  Influx control measures were ordinally used to control the movement of Black slaves by their White masters. These measures were subsequently used to enforce the system of temporary labour migration by Blacks (Hudson, 1987). Before 1986, Blacks were not allowed into the White areas for permanent settlement. This resulted in population movement from the rural area into impoverished homelands. It was used to restrict black urbanization and to enforce the system of temporary migration.

- *Population relocation*
  At the end of the 1950s, one third of all Blacks lived in the White farms. Technological motivation in White farming reduced this population and surplus Blacks were pushed out of the farms into the reserves. They were not

allowed to live in the cities but were confined to sterile Bantustans that were incapable of sustaining the Black population using the coercive legal instrument of influx control.

The direct and indirect environmental consequences of these state policies are significant and reflect in contemporary environmental problems faced by the population of the province today. In the homelands, agricultural land has poor vegetation, is over-grazed and experiences erosion and degradation. People in the province suffer the most important consequences of the environmental outcomes of past policies. From this standpoint, a number of 'global' environmental concerns, especially some issues that are packaged in ways that suggest negative contributions of the poor, do not make sense to families trapped in historically-related poverty and deprivation in the province.

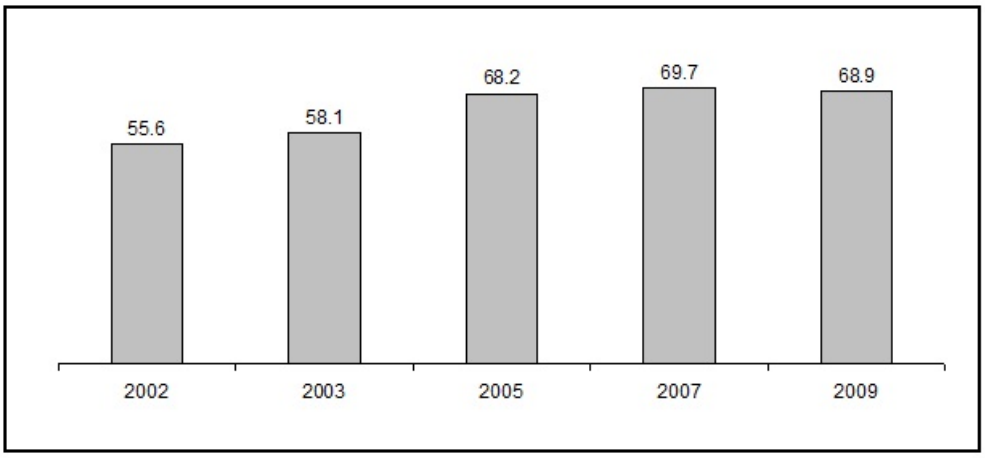
CURRENT ENVIRONMENTAL CHALLENGES

This report approaches the issues about population and the environment from a localized household perspective. Questions addressed here about the environment are those that are of highest concern to individuals, households and communities in the province. Specifically, for the majority of the population, the question is focused. What are the environmental constraints in their fight against structural poverty in the province?

Energy poverty in the province

As in other areas of human development, the province currently experiences a high level of energy poverty. This is evident in a number of common indicators such as the availability and use of different forms of energy for various household purposes. Figure 10.1 shows the trend in the percent of households connected to the mains electricity since 2002. The number rose from 55.6% in 2002 to 69.8% in 2009. There is a noticeable increase from 58.1% in 2003 to 68.2% in 2005. Since then, the data have not shown a further big increase in the number of households connected to the mains electricity supply in the province. Although a significant increase has taken place in the past seven years, the percent of households connected th the mains electricity supply in the province remains below the 2009 national average of 82.6%, and lags behind all other provinces.

Figure 10.1. Percent of households connected to the mains electricity, 2002-2009



The actual patterns of energy use in households are summarized in Figure 10.2, Table 10.1, Table 10.2 and Table 10.3.

Figure 10.2. Sources of energy for household needs, 2007

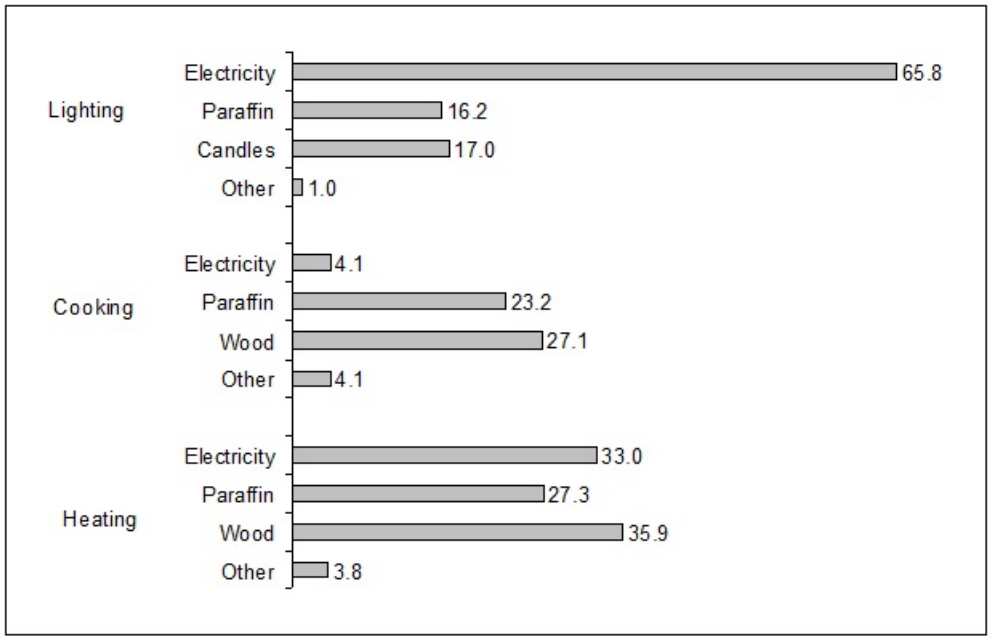


Table 10.1. Main source of energy for lighting in the household (%), 2007

	Electricity	Gas	Paraffin	Candles	Solar	Other
District						
Alfred Nzo	38.7	0.5	12.4	46.4	0.9	0.9
Amathole	67.2	0.3	28.0	4.0	0.1	0.5
Cacadu	84.8	0.2	9.4	4.6	0.2	0.8
Chris Hani	63.7	0.1	20.4	15.1	0.1	0.6
Nelson Mandela	89.9	0.1	8.9	0.8	0.9	0.3
O.R. Tambo	51.2	0.2	8.2	39.0	0.4	1.0
Ukhahlamba	59.2	0.2	15.8	24.3	0.1	0.4
Pop. group of head						
African	60.9	0.2	18.4	19.5	0.2	0.7
Coloured	90.5	0.1	5.1	3.8	0.1	0.5
Indian	94.0	0.0	2.2	3.9	0.0	0.0
White	98.6	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.5
Sex of head						
Male	68.4	0.2	16.1	14.5	0.2	0.7
Female	63.1	0.2	16.3	19.6	0.2	0.6
All Eastern Cape	65.8	0.2	16.2	17.0	0.2	0.6

Table 10.2. Main source of energy for household cooking (%), 2007

	Electr.	Gas	Paraffin	Wood	Coal	Dung	Solar	Other
District								
Alfred Nzo	22.0	4.4	27.0	44.5	0.3	0.8	0.1	0.0
Amathole	46.3	2.7	29.3	19.4	0.2	2.0	0.0	0.1
Cacadu	75.5	3.2	16.8	4.3	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Chris Hani	37.3	2.1	30.6	28.4	0.3	1.1	0.0	0.1
Nelson Mandela	85.3	1.1	13.3	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
O.R. Tambo	20.8	3.5	17.3	56.8	0.1	1.4	0.1	0.1
Ukhahlamba	31.4	3.2	36.4	27.1	0.4	1.2	0.1	0.2
Pop. group of head								
African	38.0	2.8	25.3	31.3	0.2	1.3	0.1	0.1
Coloured	85.6	1.3	9.2	3.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Indian	84.1	3.6	7.2	5.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
White	95.6	3.6	0.6	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Sex of head								
Male	49.8	2.7	23.8	22.5	0.1	1.0	0.0	0.1
Female	41.3	2.7	22.7	31.7	0.2	1.3	0.0	0.0
All Eastern Cape	45.6	2.7	23.2	27.1	0.2	1.1	0.0	0.1

Table 10.3. Sources of energy for household heating (%), 2007

	Electr.	Gas	Paraffin	Wood	Coal	Dung	Solar	Other
District								
Alfred Nzo	11.4	1.1	25.0	60.5	0.5	1.0	0.0	0.5
Amathole	32.4	0.7	35.3	27.7	0.7	1.1	0.1	2.1
Cacadu	67.5	1.0	16.5	11.9	0.6	0.0	0.1	2.5
Chris Hani	16.2	0.3	36.2	44.9	0.4	1.0	0.0	0.9
Nelson Mandela	74.3	0.6	20.9	2.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	2.1
O.R. Tambo	11.7	0.7	20.4	64.8	0.2	0.5	0.0	1.8
Ukhahlamba	17.9	0.8	32.3	41.8	3.2	2.1	0.1	1.8
Pop. group of head								
African	24.3	0.6	31.0	41.0	0.6	0.8	0.0	1.6
Coloured	76.5	0.6	10.4	8.9	0.4	0.0	0.0	3.1
Indian	81.2	1.3	6.0	6.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	5.1
White	93.8	1.9	0.8	1.1	0.2	0.0	0.1	2.0
Sex of head								
Male	38.2	0.7	26.9	31.0	0.5	0.7	0.0	1.9
Female	27.8	0.6	27.8	40.8	0.5	0.8	0.0	1.6
All Eastern Cape	33.0	0.7	27.3	35.9	0.5	0.7	0.0	1.8

Figure 10.3. Household use of electricity in the districts (%), 2007

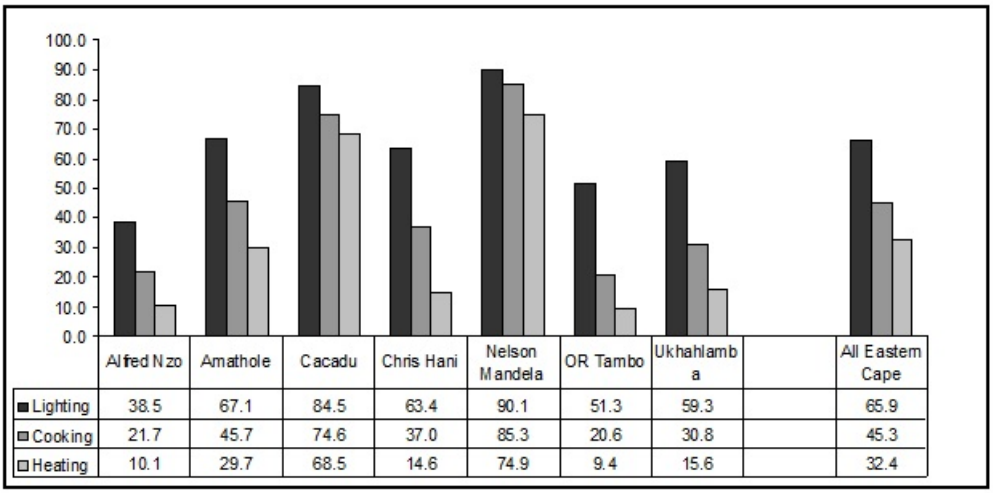


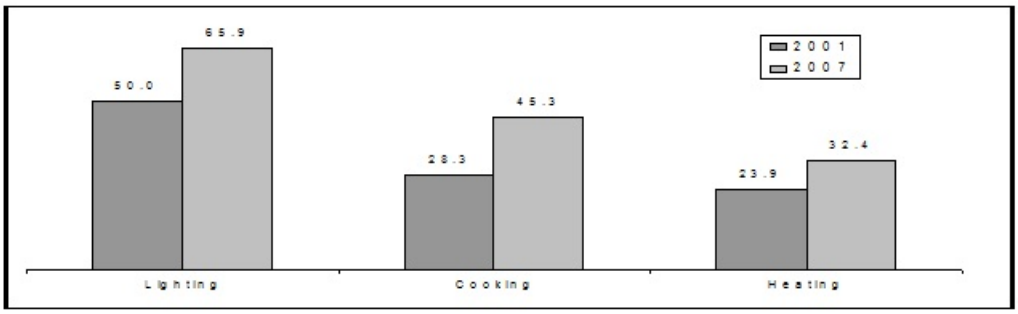
Table 10.4. Access to electricity in districts and local municipalities, 2007

	% of households using electricity for:		
	Lighting	Cooking	Heating
Alfred Nzo DM	47.8	49.5	56.9
Matatiele	50.3	48.7	57.3
Umzimvubu	45.1	50.4	56.3
Amathole DM	48.3	49.7	53.3
Mbhashe	52.0	48.2	59.6
Mnquma	46.5	48.8	56.0
Great Kei	62.1	52.5	47.7
Amahlathi	50.7	50.7	52.1
Buffalo City	47.5	49.9	51.1
Ngqushwa	48.9	48.1	54.0
Nkonkobe	43.1	51.6	53.6
Nxuba	43.5	52.4	51.0
Cacadu DM	50.3	49.2	52.6
Baviaans	40.3	52.8	56.0
Blue Crane Route	49.1	50.9	51.6
Camdeboo	50.2	51.0	51.4
Ikwezi	55.1	48.0	57.0
Kou-Kamma	49.3	52.8	52.8
Kouga	55.7	45.1	51.9
Makana	48.0	52.2	54.7
Ndlambe	47.6	46.7	54.0
Sunday's River Valley	50.3	47.6	47.9
Chris Hani DM	50.7	49.2	54.2
Emalahleni	55.2	47.4	54.3
Engcobo	53.2	49.1	59.5
Inkwanca	56.8	43.8	49.5
Intsika Yethu	47.9	48.3	55.3
Inxuba Yethemba	49.7	55.5	53.4
Lunkanji	50.6	51.8	52.4
Sakhisizwe	46.9	46.1	49.9
Tsolwana	40.0	48.7	51.4
Nelson Mandela M	48.3	50.7	50.8
OR Tambo DM	50.7	49.4	55.1
King Sabata Dalindyebo	49.3	49.3	55.7
Mbizana	49.8	50.1	55.7
Ntabankulu	49.3	48.1	54.5
Nyandeni	51.9	50.1	55.3
Port St. Johns	50.2	49.9	55.7
Quakeni	52.7	49.1	53.5
Ukhahlamba	55.0	51.5	52.9
Elundini	52.4	49.8	53.7
Gariep	59.7	54.0	48.8
Maletswai	58.3	52.0	50.2
Senqu	56.1	52.8	54.1
All Eastern Cape Province	49.8	49.7	53.5

The data in Figure 10.3 show some increase in the use of electricity but altogether these data indicate that a greater percent of households in the province do not have access to good sources of energy for basic household needs. The

energy problems are worse in districts and local municipalities in the Eastern part of the province. In addition, they experience a big burden of energy costs. A recent national survey found that households in the province spend the highest percent of their total monthly household income on energy more than all other provinces in the country. More than seventy percent of all households in the province spend more than 10% of their monthly income on energy (Department of Mineral and Energy, 2009).

Figure 10.4. Household use of electricity (%), 2001-2007



Access to water supply in the household

Figure 10.5 shows that in 2007 only 30.2% of all households in the province had water piped inside their dwelling. Water was piped inside the yard for13.7% of households and was accessed outside the yard by 27% of households.

Figure 10.5. Main source of water for household (%), 2007

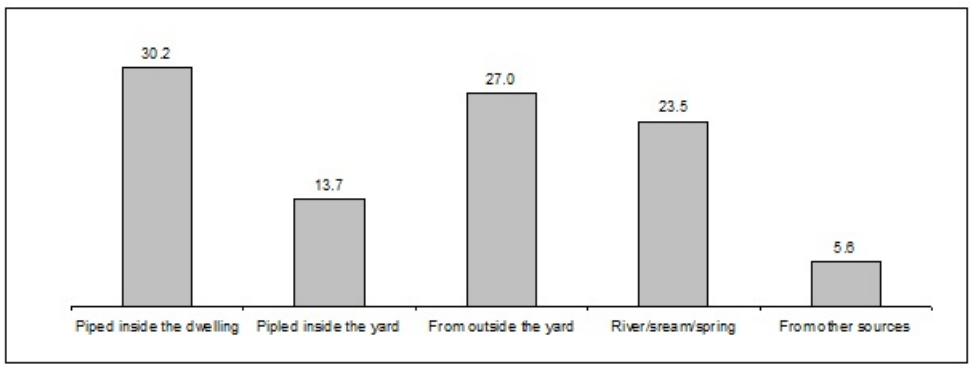
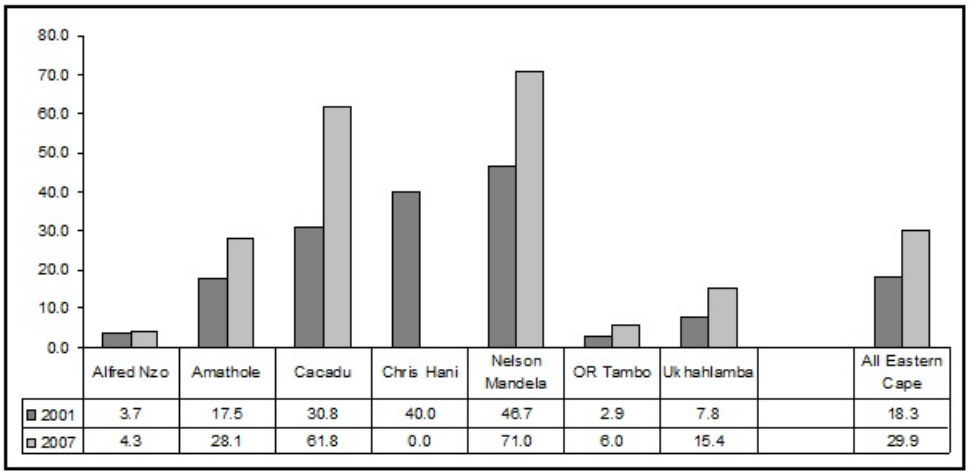


Table 10.5. Main source of water for households (%), 2007

	Piped inside dwelling	Piped inside the yard	Piped Outside the yard	From a river, stream or spring	From Other sources
District					
Alfred Nzo	4.5	12.6	50.5	27.5	4.9
Amathole	28.7	15.0	32.9	17.4	6.1
Cacadu	63.2	25.5	8.1	0.4	3.8
Chris Hani	24.1	15.2	36.6	19.1	5.0
Nelson Mandela	70.9	16.2	11.4	0.1	1.5
O.R. Tambo	5.9	6.6	23.3	55.7	8.6
Ukhahlamba	16.1	15.4	33.4	26.6	8.5
Pop. group of head					
African	21.5	14.2	31.0	27.3	6.0
Coloured	72.0	18.4	6.1	0.9	2.6
Indian	82.4	4.7	6.3	4.9	1.7
White	91.7	3.6	0.4	0.2	3.9
Sex of head					
Male	35.3	13.7	25.8	19.5	5.7
Female	25.0	13.7	28.3	27.5	5.5
All Eastern Cape	30.2	13.7	27.0	23.5	5.6

Figure 10.6. Percent of households with water piped in dwelling, 2001-2007



Environment hygiene

The percent of households using pit, bucket or had no toilet are shown in Figure 10.4. Use of pit latrine rose from 27.4% in 2001 to 29.3% in 2007. Bucket toilets fell from 5.7% to 2.8% and those with no toilets at all declined from 31.3% to 23.5% in the same period. Trend data show the percent of households with no toilet facility or were using bucket toilets decreased from 36.4% in 2002, 26.7 in 2005, 23.5 in 2007 and 18.9 in 2009. The 2009 value as for all other years, was way higher than the national average of 6.6%.

Figure 10.7. Types of toilet facilities for households, 2007

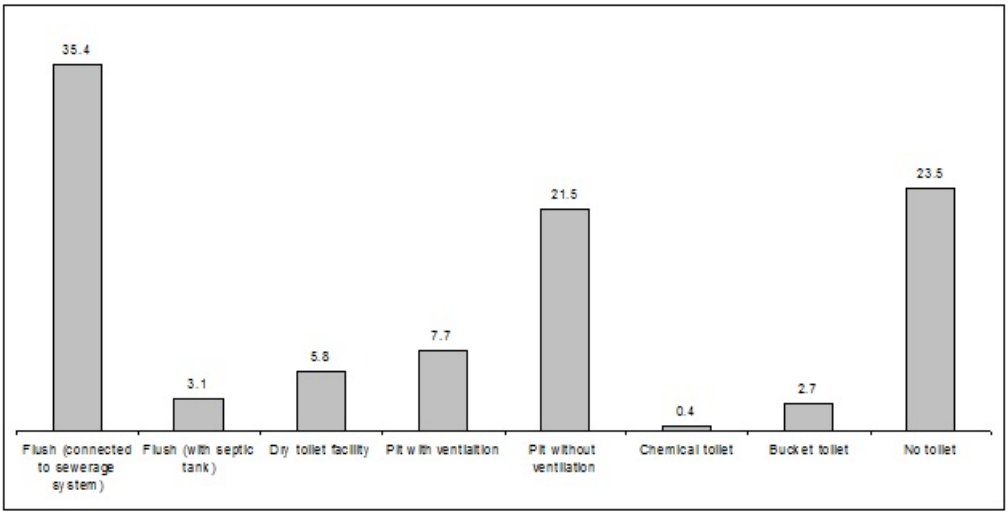


Figure 10.8. Types of toilet facilities, 2001-2007

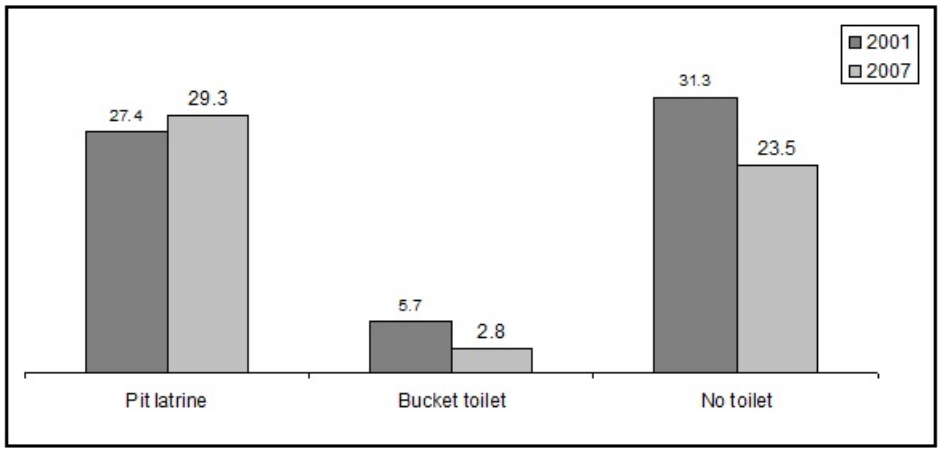


Figure 10.9. Percent of households with no toilet facility, 2001-2007

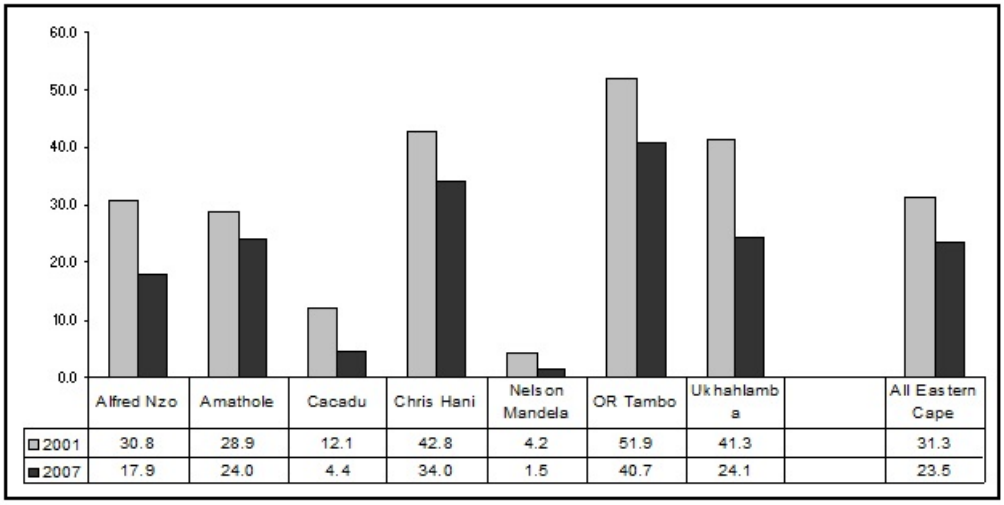


Table 10.6. Type of toilet facility for households (%), 2007

	Flush	Dry	Pit	Chemical	Bucket	None
District						
Alfred Nzo	38.7	0.5	12.4	46.4	0.9	0.9
Amathole	67.2	0.3	28.0	4.0	0.1	0.5
Cacadu	84.8	0.2	9.4	4.6	0.2	0.8
Chris Hani	63.7	0.1	20.4	15.1	0.1	0.6
Nelson Mandela	89.9	0.1	8.9	0.8	0.9	0.3
O.R. Tambo	51.2	0.2	8.2	39.0	0.4	1.0
Ukhahlamba	59.2	0.2	15.8	24.3	0.1	0.4
Pop. group of head						
African	60.9	0.2	18.4	19.5	0.2	0.7
Coloured	90.5	0.1	5.1	3.8	0.1	0.5
Indian	94.0	0.0	2.2	3.9	0.0	0.0
White	98.6	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.5
Sex of head						
Male	68.4	0.2	16.1	14.5	0.2	0.7
Female	63.1	0.2	16.3	19.6	0.2	0.6
All Eastern Cape	65.8	0.2	16.2	17.0	0.2	0.6

Refuse removal

Refuse from less than half of the households in the province (40%) was in 2007 removed by the local authority while 44% of households reported that they owned their own dumps (Figure 10.10). The percent of household who did not have refuse disposal facilities in 2007 was 13.8.

Figure 10.10. How refuse is removed from the household, 2007

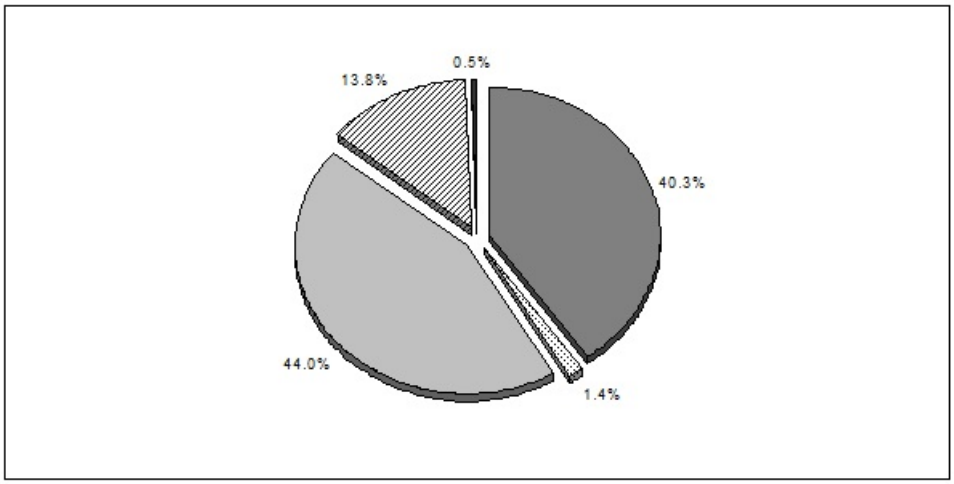
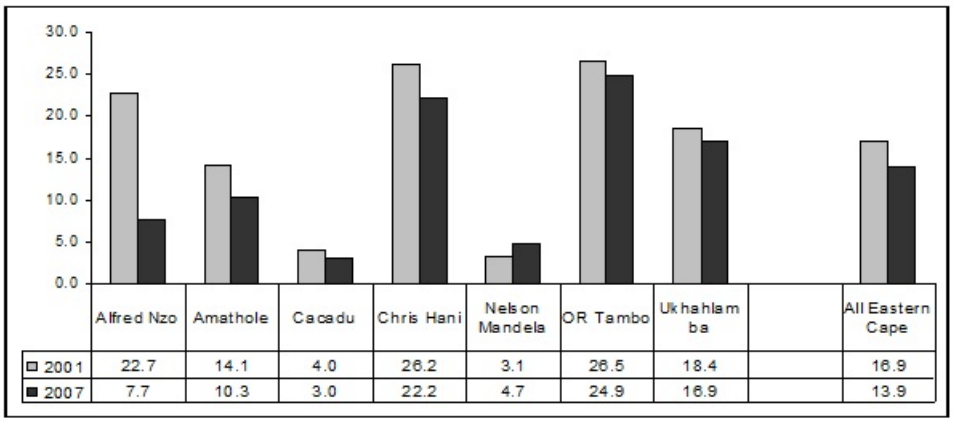


Table 10.7. Refuse removal facility for the household (%), 2007

	By local authority	Comm. dump	Own dump	No disposal facility	Other
District					
Alfred Nzo	9.0	0.2	83.1	7.7	0.0
Amathole	41.3	1.0	47.3	10.2	0.2
Cacadu	85.3	1.6	9.6	3.0	0.5
Chris Hani	28.9	1.0	47.6	21.9	0.6
Nelson Mandela	87.9	3.3	3.6	4.9	0.4
O.R. Tambo	9.1	1.0	64.0	24.9	1.0
Ukhahlamba	26.7	0.8	55.6	16.7	0.2
Pop. group of head					
African	23.2	1.3	50.2	15.8	0.5
Coloured	88.4	0.8	7.2	3.1	0.5
Indian	83.5	3.7	10.4	1.9	0.5
White	88.2	3.2	6.8	1.3	0.5
Sex of head					
Male	45.6	1.6	39.9	12.5	0.5
Female	34.9	1.2	48.2	15.2	0.5
All Eastern Cape	40.3	1.4	44.0	13.8	0.5

Figure 10.8. Percent of households with no refuse removal services 2001-2007



ENVIRONMENTAL PROBLEMS AND MANAGEMENT

Environmental problems

It was indicated earlier that discussion of the environment issues that is relevant to the people in the province are those that directly impinge on their lives and militate their fight against poverty at the household levels. The 2008 GHS collected direct information about the environmental problems experienced by households in the province. These are summarized under five groups in Figure 10.12.

Figure 10.12. Environmental problems experienced by the population, 2008/2009

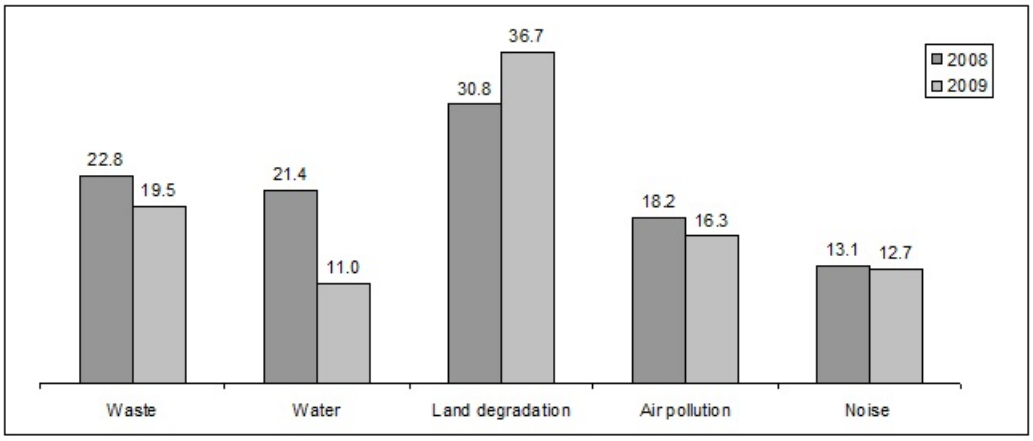
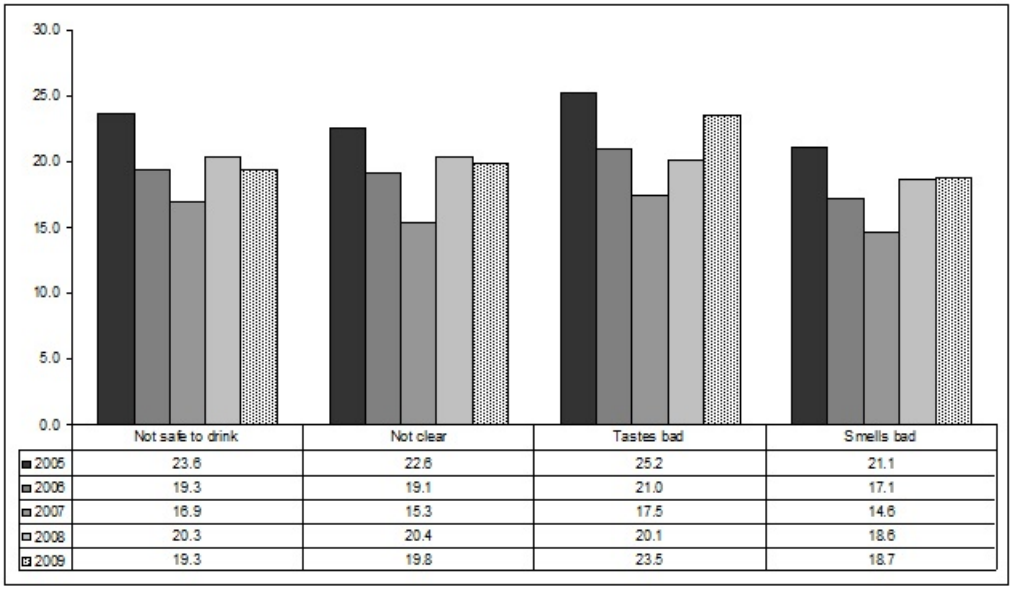


Table 10.8. Percent of households reporting environmental problems, 2008

Pop group	Type of environmental problem				
	Waste removal	Water pollution	Land degradation	Air pollution	Excessive noise
African	25.3	24.7	35.2	20.8	15.1
Coloured	14.7	4.2	6.2	5.3	7.4
Indian	0.0	0.0	4.4	0.0	10.9
White	4.7	1.3	5.7	2.3	6.3
Eastern Cape	22.8	21.4	30.8	18.2	13.9

Figure 10.13. Reported quality of water, 2008



	Not safe to drink	Not clear	Tastes bad	Smells bad
2005	23.6	22.6	25.2	21.1
2006	19.3	19.1	21.0	17.1
2007	16.9	15.3	17.5	14.6
2008	20.3	20.4	20.1	18.6
2009	19.3	19.8	23.5	18.7

SUMMARY

Underlying the dominant perspectives about the relationship between population and development is the notion that a specific demographic profile is a precondition for development. This is an oversimplification that is not supported by history or contemporary empirical evidence. However, when attention moves away from global models, analyses and simulations to specific national or local settings, the true nature of the relationships becomes clearer. In many cases the established models of relationship prove hardly relevant to the critical development challenges faced by people, families and communities. It is therefore not empirically

sound to blame human numbers and the poor for outcomes of complex interaction between population dynamics and people's efforts to improve their quality of life.

The case of Eastern Cape population raises a fundamental question that begins to correct our understanding of the relationship between environmental concerns, human numbers and development at the local level. The policies and practices of pass control and population relocations resulted in a concentration of huge black populations in small land areas usually with fragile ecosystem. Relocated and restricted populations had little or no opportunity to engage in productive socio-economic activities that could lessen population pressures on natural resource and the environment.

As important and contemporary as the issues in climate change are for population research and policy, there is a long way before their true relevance for the pressing developing needs of people in the Eastern Cape are firmly established. Without reliable empirical data, there is no basis for development policy to see poor households and individuals in the province as no more than potential threats to the natural environment.

The main environmental concerns for the majority of people in the province are those that directly impinge on their daily struggles against poverty and socioeconomic deprivation. In a situation where poverty transforms the relationship between people and natural resources into a matter of life and death, people are left with no alternative than to do whatever it takes to survive in a harsh environment.[1] The wave of pessimism that encouraged the ground for the population movement. The post-second world war recovery in the west, balancing of the development in the post-war world and a search of competitive advantages in for nations, regions and other interests in the post-war world. In the 1950 how population concerns were raised. In the 1960s. Then into the 1970s with the popularization of the concept of the 'limits of growth'.

Environmental concerns should not be simplistically pursued at the expense of human development or human right with no clear programme for practical social and economic improvement for ordinary people. Approaches to the problem of the environment should be sensitive to the disabling impact of poverty and the limited choices available to the majority of the population. The government should provide better and more sustainable means to enable the population break out of poverty.

Areas that should be efficiently managed in order to achieve long-term environmental sustainability would include practical programmes of access to, and efficient use of, land other natural resources, rural development and rural indus-

1. An elaborate modeling process that was prepared as a background for this section of the report is available on request.

trialization which, if successfully implemented will reduce negative patterns of migration and stimulate socio-economic development in the province. Provision of basic social services and development infrastructure to the people will encourage sustainable use of common natural resources in the provinces.

General methodological notes

Appendix A

A note on approach

The approach followed in this report avoids the superficial population-blaming frameworks of past decades, but focuses attention on the complex interplay of factors in the wider policy and social environments that could lead to better understanding of and responses to population dynamics.

The national population policy (Department of Welfare, 1998) introduces a major shift in perspective about what exactly constitutes a 'population problem' in South Africa today. At the national level, the National Population Unit has conducted several self-initiated and international reviews of the South African population policy.[2] Provincial and other lower level assessments of the relationship between population and development that have a chance to make meaningful contributions to human development should meet at least two criteria. First, they need a conceptual reorientation that is able to handle the new perspective of the national population policy. Secondly, in methodology, assessments must demonstrate sensitivity to the historical and contemporary development experiences of provinces and communities in the country.

The present report encourages a people-centred approach which starts from a position that population in the Eastern Cape and elsewhere is not about abstract numbers, or statistics but about people—human beings who experience 'development' in the society positively or negatively. Thinking about population in this way directs attention to a search of how policies should meet the needs of the population at any cost. In this way, national and provincial governments targeting and manipulating human population numbers often in pursuit of growth indicators that rarely reflect positively in the daily lives and struggles of many ordinary people.

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1 Major reviews and reports of the National Population Unit on population include South Africa's ICPD+5 country report (NPU, 1999) and more recently a collection of review essays (NPU, 2009). Other related publications since about the time the National Population Policy was adopted include *The State of the South Africa's Population Report 2000 (NPU, 2000)* and UNFPA's country *Programme Review and strategy Development Report* (UNFPA, 1998).

Scope

This report is a general description of basic demographic characteristics during the first half of 2010. It highlights issues in population dynamics that might be of policy interest in the fight against poverty in the province. Attention is also drawn to relevant cross-cutting themes involving the family, gender, poverty, education and the environment. However, this report does not force every development challenge in the province into the population question. These issues that are the full responsibility of specific departments of national and provincial governments are addressed in the report only in relation to population dynamics.

Data sources

Good demographic research and reports are scrupulous about data sources and quality. Considering its limited scope and primary audience, the report did not engage in hairsplitting about data quality that is normal in technical demographic reports. However, care was taken to use only data sets and statistics that are authoritative enough to minimize concerns about data quality. The following sets of data (listed in chronological order), were the major sources for this report.

- The Labour Force Survey (2nd wave of data collected in April-June 2010 and data from previous years).
- EMIS database (National Department of Education).
- National Weather Data for 2010 (from the South African Weather Services)
- The General Household Survey (data from 2009 and previous years).
- Community Survey of 2007.
- Annual Birth Registration Statistics (2007 and data for previous years).
- Annual Reports of Deaths (2007 and data from previous years).
- The 2001 Census.
- The 1996 Census.
- The 2003/04 Demographic and Health Survey.
- The 1998 Demographic and Health Survey.

Where available, information from these data-sets were used to produce customized statistics for the province. In cases where raw data were not accessible,

official published information (usually from Statistics South Africa and other government departments) was used. In addition, members of the study team examined and used several other published and unpublished materials that meet professional standards. Sources used in any part of report are indicated in the relevant sections.

Presentation

The report was not conceived as a collection of thematically disparate technical articles on the population of the province. Information from several technical papers and data produced by specialists for different sections of this report were distilled into accessible materials that inform the contents and conclusions in each section. Therefore, although members of the research team produced technical papers on specific themes as part of this project, the final product in each chapter is the sum of collective contributions.

Following a need for accessibility, the report is presented without technical clutters and unnecessary disciplinary embellishment. As much as possible, the body of the report avoids methodological details, formulae, concepts and expressions that could detract attention from substantive arguments and messages. Technically-inclined readers are welcome to contact the editors for more materials or methodological details in areas of their interest that are not included in the report.

Selected Population and Related Indicators for Planning and Delivery of Services

Appendix B

Effective delivery of services is facilitated when basic demographic and socioeconomic information is available for constructing integrated development indicators. The PGDS (2004-2014) identifies key performance areas that include municipal transformation and organizational development, basic services delivery, local economic development, municipal financial viability, good governance and public participation. Planning, implementation and monitoring of services in these and other areas require demographic and socioeconomic indicators that are standardized and accessible at the lowest level of governance in the province.

Statistics South Africa produces standardized data that serve as the benchmark for assessing provincial, national and international comparison of programme performances. However, in many local situations, there are critical gaps in data needs at points of delivery of development services. With the exception of census data and information from the 2007 Community Survey, many available data sets are of limited practical use mainly because they rarely permit meaningful application at the local level.

The limitations in the existing data raise an urgent need for localized demographic and socioeconomic data systems at the levels of district and local municipalities. Provincial departments should investigate and address gaps in the sociodemographic data for developing planning and monitoring indicators in their various areas of responsibility. A step in this direction would be to initiate a collaborative project that harmonizes and standardizes demographic and other development information with an aim to produce data at the local levels that fall outside the scope of censuses, general household surveys and other large-scale national data collection exercises. Such a project in the province should build on the general demographic and development indicators that are produced and distributed by Statistics South Africa for the province.

The sets of tables in this Appendix illustrate the scale of information that is currently available and possible areas of need. Basic statistics about fertility, mortality and migration at are not included because these are not currently available in good quality at the local levels. Unless indicated, these tables are percentages constructed from data collected in the 2007 Community Survey by Statistics South Africa.

Table A1.0. Population of Eastern Cape by age and sex, 2007

	All Eastern Cape		
	Male	Female	All
0 - 4	11.3	9.9	10.6
5 - 9	12.8	11.5	12.1
10-14	13.9	12.0	12.9
15-19	13.2	11.2	12.2
20-24	9.5	9.0	9.2
25-29	7.0	6.4	6.7
30-34	6.3	6.0	6.1
35-39	5.1	5.5	5.3
40-44	4.1	5.1	4.7
45-49	3.5	4.6	4.1
50-54	3.0	3.9	3.5
55-59	2.7	3.4	3.0
60-64	2.3	3.0	2.6
65-69	2.2	2.9	2.6
70-74	1.3	2.2	1.8
75-79	.9	1.6	1.3
80-84	.5	.8	.7
85 +	.4	.8	.6
	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total (N)	3075400	3452347	6527747

Table A1.1. Population of Alfred Nzo District Municipality by age and sex, 2007

	Alfred Nzo District Municipality		
	Male	Female	All
0 - 4	13.6	10.5	11.9
5 - 9	17.1	13.9	15.4
10-14	16.8	13.9	15.2
15-19	15.0	11.6	13.1
20-24	7.9	7.5	7.7
25-29	5.8	5.3	5.5
30-34	4.7	5.6	5.2
35-39	3.5	4.7	4.2
40-44	2.5	4.1	3.4
45-49	2.3	3.9	3.2
50-54	2.0	3.8	3.0
55-59	2.2	3.6	3.0
60-64	2.1	3.2	2.7
65-69	2.0	2.5	2.3
70-74	1.1	2.2	1.7
75-79	.8	1.7	1.3
80-84	.2	.9	.6
85 +	.2	1.1	.7
	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total (N)	218696	260694	479390

Table A1.2. Population Amathole District Municipality by age and sex, 2007

	Amathole District Municipality		
	Male	Female	All
0 - 4	10.6	8.9	9.7
5 - 9	11.3	9.9	10.6
10-14	12.6	11.2	11.8
15-19	12.9	10.9	11.8
20-24	9.9	9.1	9.5
25-29	7.6	6.7	7.1
30-34	6.8	6.3	6.5
35-39	5.4	6.1	5.8
40-44	4.5	5.7	5.2
45-49	3.7	5.0	4.4
50-54	3.5	4.1	3.8
55-59	2.9	3.5	3.2
60-64	2.4	3.4	2.9
65-69	2.5	3.2	2.9
70-74	1.6	2.3	2.0
75-79	.9	1.6	1.3
80-84	.5	1.0	.8
85 +	.4	1.0	.7
	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total (N)	786891	877862	1664753

Table A1.3. Population of Cacadu District Municipality by age and sex, 2007

	Cacadu District Municipality		
	Male	Female	All
0 - 4	9.7	9.0	9.3
5 - 9	9.9	9.1	9.5
10-14	9.7	8.5	9.1
15-19	10.0	9.5	9.7
20-24	9.0	8.6	8.8
25-29	7.8	7.8	7.8
30-34	8.3	7.7	8.0
35-39	6.9	7.0	7.0
40-44	6.5	6.1	6.3
45-49	4.9	5.7	5.3
50-54	3.8	4.7	4.3
55-59	3.7	4.1	3.9
60-64	3.0	3.7	3.4
65-69	3.2	3.7	3.5
70-74	1.5	1.8	1.6
75-79	.9	1.3	1.1
80-84	.6	.8	.7
85 +	.5	1.0	.8
	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total (N)	173633	189862	363496

Table A1.4. Population of Chris Hani District Municipality, 2007

	Chris Hani District Municipality		
	Male	Female	All
0 - 4	11.3	10.2	10.7
5 - 9	14.0	11.9	12.9
10-14	15.6	13.2	14.3
15-19	14.8	11.0	12.8
20-24	7.4	7.7	7.6
25-29	5.3	4.9	5.1
30-34	5.4	4.8	5.1
35-39	4.1	5.0	4.6
40-44	3.5	4.8	4.2
45-49	3.1	4.6	3.9
50-54	3.1	3.9	3.6
55-59	2.8	4.0	3.4
60-64	2.6	3.2	2.9
65-69	2.8	3.7	3.3
70-74	1.7	2.6	2.2
75-79	1.3	2.0	1.6
80-84	.7	1.1	.9
85 +	.5	1.2	.9
	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total (N)	372648	425949	798597

Table A1.5. Population of Nelson Mandela Metropolitan District by age and sex, 2007

	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan District		
	Male	Female	All
0 - 4	8.9	8.0	8.4
5 - 9	7.8	8.0	7.9
10-14	8.8	8.3	8.6
15-19	10.6	9.9	10.2
20-24	11.2	10.1	10.6
25-29	9.4	8.3	8.8
30-34	8.8	8.0	8.4
35-39	8.0	7.4	7.7
40-44	6.6	7.3	7.0
45-49	5.2	6.0	5.6
50-54	4.2	5.3	4.8
55-59	3.3	3.8	3.6
60-64	2.6	3.1	2.9
65-69	1.8	2.3	2.1
70-74	1.1	1.9	1.5
75-79	.8	1.2	1.0
80-84	.5	.6	.5
85 +	.3	.5	.4
	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total (N)	514028	536902	1050930

Table A1.6. Population of O.R.Tambo District Municipality by age and sex, 2007

	O.R. Tambo District Municipality		
	Male	Female	All
0 - 4	13.1	11.8	12.4
5 - 9	16.2	14.0	15.0
10-14	17.2	14.4	15.7
15-19	14.5	12.4	13.4
20-24	9.6	9.4	9.5
25-29	6.0	6.0	6.0
30-34	4.7	5.2	5.0
35-39	3.6	4.3	4.0
40-44	2.7	3.8	3.3
45-49	2.6	3.6	3.1
50-54	1.9	2.8	2.4
55-59	1.9	2.7	2.3
60-64	1.6	2.3	2.0
65-69	1.8	2.5	2.2
70-74	1.1	2.0	1.6
75-79	.8	1.6	1.2
80-84	.4	.6	.5
85 +	.3	.6	.5
	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total (N)	867130	995087	1862218

Table A1.7. Population of Ukhahlamba District Municipality by age and sex, 2007

	Ukhahlamba District Municipality		
	Male	Female	All
0 - 4	10.3	10.8	10.5
5 - 9	13.0	13.0	13.0
10-14	15.5	13.0	14.2
15-19	14.0	11.9	12.9
20-24	8.5	7.5	7.9
25-29	7.1	5.2	6.1
30-34	6.0	4.6	5.3
35-39	4.3	4.6	4.5
40-44	3.5	4.6	4.1
45-49	2.8	4.3	3.6
50-54	3.1	3.6	3.4
55-59	3.1	3.3	3.2
60-64	2.3	3.0	2.7
65-69	2.5	3.3	2.9
70-74	1.6	3.3	2.5
75-79	1.2	2.3	1.8
80-84	.6	1.1	.9
85 +	.5	.6	.6
	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total (N)	142373	165992	308365

Table A2.1. Percent distribution of the population by age group, 2007

		Age group				
		0-4	5-14	15-24	25-64	65 +
Sex	Male	11.3	26.7	22.7	34.0	5.3
	Female	9.9	23.5	20.2	38.0	8.4
Population group	African	11.0	26.2	21.9	34.2	6.8
	Coloured	9.7	19.8	19.9	46.1	4.4
	Indian	5.6	14.8	21.7	51.1	6.8
	White	4.8	11.8	13.4	55.1	14.8
District	Alfred Nzo	11.9	30.6	20.9	30.1	6.5
	Amathole	9.7	22.4	21.3	39.0	7.6
	Cacadu	9.3	18.6	18.5	45.9	7.7
	Chris Hani	10.7	27.2	20.4	32.8	9.0
	Nelson Mandela	8.4	16.5	20.9	48.7	5.5
	O.R.Tambo	12.4	30.7	22.9	28.0	6.0
	Ukhahlamba	10.5	27.2	20.8	32.8	8.7
All		10.6	25.0	21.4	36.1	7.0

Table A2.2. Distribution of the population in local municipalities by age group, 2007

		Age group				
		0-4	5-14	15-24	25-64	65 +
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	11.6	31.0	21.0	30.2	6.2
	Umzimvubu	12.3	30.2	20.7	29.9	6.9
Amathole	Mbhashe	11.8	31.6	20.0	27.8	8.8
	Mnquma	10.4	26.9	22.5	32.3	8.0
	Great Kei	9.5	18.2	23.0	40.7	8.6
	Amahlathi	9.0	21.9	20.7	38.6	9.8
	Buffalo City	8.7	18.1	21.4	46.1	5.7
	Ngqushwa	9.7	21.7	21.5	34.4	12.7
	Nkonkobe	9.8	19.8	21.6	38.8	10.0
	Nxuba	10.0	19.6	17.8	43.9	8.7
Cacadu	Camdeboo	9.6	22.2	19.0	41.7	7.5
	Blue Crane Route	8.7	19.6	15.7	46.7	9.4
	Ikwezi	12.6	23.6	15.6	43.3	5.0
	Makana	8.4	17.5	22.4	44.9	6.8
	Ndlambe	8.1	17.3	18.5	45.0	11.1
	Sunday's River Valley	9.1	18.5	18.0	47.4	6.8
	Baviaans	11.3	21.8	17.6	43.1	6.3
	Kouga	9.5	15.5	17.4	49.0	8.6
	Kou-Kamma	10.6	21.4	16.7	46.4	4.9
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	8.5	22.8	18.2	42.5	8.0
	Tsolwana	9.6	23.4	19.7	37.5	9.7
	Inkwanca	8.4	20.7	21.8	40.5	8.7
	Lukanji	10.2	23.1	21.5	38.0	7.2
	Intsika Yethu	11.1	30.8	19.9	27.9	10.2
	Emalahleni	11.5	27.9	22.0	27.9	10.8
	Engcobo	12.2	31.6	18.4	29.1	8.7
	Sakhisizwe	9.2	25.4	20.7	36.2	8.6
N. Mandela	Nelson Mandela	8.4	16.5	20.9	48.7	5.5
O.R.Tambo	Mbizana	12.4	32.2	22.8	26.9	5.7
	Ntabankulu	13.6	29.0	24.0	26.6	6.8
	Qaukeni	13.3	31.8	22.1	27.7	5.2
	Port St Johns	13.8	34.0	21.4	25.1	5.8
	Nyandeni	12.7	31.9	22.8	26.9	5.7
	Mhlontlo	11.9	28.9	22.5	28.8	7.8
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	11.0	28.7	23.8	30.8	5.7
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	11.2	29.5	20.5	30.1	8.7
	Senqu	10.7	27.0	21.7	30.7	9.8
	Maletswai	8.3	23.5	21.0	40.5	6.6
	Gariep	9.9	22.1	17.5	43.7	6.8
	All	10.6	25.0	21.4	36.1	7.0

Table A3. Distribution of the population groups, 2007

		Population group				
		African	Coloured	Indian	White	(N)
Sex	Male	87.3	7.6	.3	4.8	3075400
	Female	87.9	7.4	.2	4.5	3452347
District	Alfred Nzo	99.2	.5	.1	.3	479390
	Amathole	92.3	3.9	.2	3.7	1664753
	Cacadu	46.2	40.2	.2	13.4	363496
	Chris Hani	95.3	2.8	.1	1.8	798597
	Nelson Mandela	60.4	22.6	.9	16.1	1050930
	O.R.Tambo	99.5	.3	.1	.1	1862218
	Ukhahlamba	93.5	3.9	.1	2.5	308365
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	98.7	.7	.1	.5	258758
	Umzimvubu	99.8	.1		.1	220631
Amathole	Mbhashe	99.9	.0	.1	.0	262008
	Mnquma	99.3	.5	.1	.1	297663
	Great Kei	92.8	.3	.0	7.0	33382
	Amahlathi	96.4	.5	.3	2.8	112735
	Buffalo City	85.2	7.2	.3	7.4	724312
	Ngqushwa	99.5	.2	.2	.1	83086
	Nkonkobe	95.3	4.4	.0	.3	130100
	Nxuba	75.1	18.7	.1	6.1	21467
Cacadu	Camdeboo	22.1	68.3	.0	9.5	41758
	Blue Crane Route	47.3	41.3		11.4	25573
	Ikwezi	32.3	61.1	.1	6.5	11523
	Makana	73.0	14.6	.8	11.6	70059
	Ndlambe	76.6	6.5	.0	16.9	46359
	Sunday's River Valley	54.5	37.7	.1	7.6	34935
	Baviaans	10.8	83.0	.1	6.1	13950
	Kouga	31.5	43.1	.0	25.4	73274
	Kou-Kamma	26.6	68.1	.0	5.3	40780
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	47.6	36.5	.2	15.7	48399
	Tsolwana	94.0	2.4		3.6	27660
	Inkwanca	89.1	5.5		5.4	14283
	Lukanji	96.9	.7	.2	2.3	208081
	Intsika Yethu	99.9	.0	.1	.0	185342
	Emalahleni	99.6	.1	.1	.3	125293
	Engcobo	99.9	.1	.0	.0	135979
	Sakhisizwe	96.7	3.0	.1	.2	53472
N. Mandela	Nelson Mandela	60.4	22.6	.9	16.1	1050930
O.R.Tambo	Mbizana	99.4	.2	.3	.0	279739
	Ntabankulu	99.9	.0	.0	.0	141358
	Qaukeni	99.7	.2	.0	.1	279795
	Port St Johns	99.1	.7	.0	.1	165084
	Nyandeni	99.8	.1	.1	.0	314273
	Mhlontlo	99.9	.0	.0	.0	237138
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	99.1	.5	.1	.2	444830
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	98.5	.1	.0	1.4	123636
	Senqu	98.3	.6	.2	1.0	118177
	Maletswai	80.6	11.4	.2	7.8	42843
	Gariep	66.0	27.2		6.8	23708
	All	87.6	7.5	.3	4.7	6527747

Table A4. Marital status of the provincial population aged 15+, 2007

		Marital status (%)			
		Cur married	Wid/Div/Sep	Cohabiting	Nev married
Sex	Male	30.2	4.7	4.6	60.4
	Female	30.2	16.3	3.6	49.9
District	Alfred Nzo	30.9	15.2	3.5	50.3
	Amathole	28.7	11.1	4.2	56.0
	Cacadu	34.8	8.7	8.0	48.5
	Chris Hani	30.5	12.4	3.2	53.9
	Nelson Mandela	32.2	8.8	6.4	52.6
	O.R.Tambo	29.1	11.2	1.7	58.0
	Ukhahlamba	29.5	13.5	3.9	53.2
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	30.3	14.9	5.0	49.8
	Umzimvubu	31.6	15.6	1.8	51.0
Amathole	Mbhashe	32.1	15.6	.5	51.7
	Mnquma	28.9	13.3	1.8	56.0
	Great Kei	28.2	16.0	3.4	52.3
	Amahlathi	28.4	12.5	3.8	55.3
	Buffalo City	28.8	8.0	6.5	56.7
	Ngqushwa	27.9	12.4	1.4	58.3
	Nkonkobe	23.0	14.1	3.7	59.2
	Nxuba	27.5	9.4	6.8	56.4
Cacadu	Camdeboo	31.2	8.3	5.9	54.6
	Blue Crane Route	30.8	12.4	15.5	41.3
	Ikwezi	27.4	9.3	15.4	47.9
	Makana	29.8	8.4	3.6	58.2
	Ndlambe	36.7	7.9	6.0	49.5
	Sunday's River Valley	31.2	6.3	11.2	51.3
	Baviaans	36.2	9.1	9.3	45.4
	Kouga	43.4	8.7	6.3	41.5
	Kou-Kamma	34.6	10.3	13.0	42.1
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	34.0	9.6	9.7	46.7
	Tsolwana	30.6	12.8	2.3	54.4
	Inkwanca	24.8	13.5	7.1	54.7
	Lukanji	26.3	9.9	5.2	58.6
	Intsika Yethu	33.8	14.6	.8	50.7
	Emalahleni	29.8	13.5	1.5	55.2
	Engcobo	33.0	13.7	1.5	51.8
	Sakhisizwe	30.7	11.8	4.1	53.4
N. Mandela	Nelson Mandela	32.2	8.8	6.4	52.6
O.R.Tambo	Mbizana	27.8	12.1	1.4	58.7
	Ntabankulu	29.0	14.2	.9	55.9
	Qaukeni	27.4	10.3	1.3	61.1
	Port St Johns	29.3	10.0	1.8	58.9
	Nyandeni	29.7	10.5	1.3	58.5
	Mhlontlo	32.5	14.0	1.6	51.9
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	28.5	9.6	2.8	59.2
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	31.2	15.6	2.3	50.9
	Senqu	28.0	14.7	3.1	54.2
	Maletswai	29.7	6.4	6.4	57.5
	Gariep	28.2	10.8	10.0	51.0
Pop. group	African	27.7	11.2	3.7	57.3
	Coloured	33.5	9.2	6.4	50.8
	Indian	52.3	9.6	.6	37.4
	White	60.9	11.2	6.2	21.6
	All	30.2	11.1	4.1	54.7

Table A5. Educational status of the provincial population, 2007

		Level of education				
		None	Primary	Part sec-ondary	Matric or higher	
Sex	Male	8.4	44.1	31.5	16.0	100
	Female	10.3	40.4	32.2	17.1	100
District	Alfred Nzo	8.0	49.7	31.6	10.7	100
	Amathole	8.9	39.4	32.9	18.8	100
	Cacadu	7.9	39.8	30.5	21.9	100
	Chris Hani	12.0	45.9	29.5	12.6	100
	Nelson Mandela	4.3	29.3	36.4	30.0	100
	O.R.Tambo	12.3	48.0	30.1	9.6	100
	Ukhahlamba	10.8	47.8	29.8	11.6	100
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	6.5	51.2	31.7	10.6	100
	Umzimvubu	9.8	47.8	31.6	10.8	100
Amathole	Mbhashe	16.4	49.9	27.2	6.5	100
	Mnquma	8.4	46.5	32.9	12.3	100
	Great Kei	16.5	40.5	29.1	14.0	100
	Amahlathi	11.1	41.4	32.1	15.3	100
	Buffalo City	5.7	31.4	35.2	27.8	100
	Ngqushwa	13.4	39.5	32.8	14.3	100
	Nkonkobe	7.4	44.4	33.3	14.9	100
	Nxuba	7.1	44.0	32.2	16.8	100
Cacadu	Camdeboo	8.7	43.8	30.1	17.4	100
	Blue Crane Route	9.4	41.1	30.2	19.4	100
	Ikwezi	10.9	47.0	31.1	11.0	100
	Makana	6.2	36.1	30.2	27.5	100
	Ndlambe	10.4	37.3	27.0	25.3	100
	Sunday's River Valley	8.5	44.5	34.4	12.5	100
	Baviaans	9.3	44.6	31.9	14.2	100
	Kouga	5.9	31.6	31.7	30.8	100
	Kou-Kamma	7.4	50.4	30.1	12.0	100
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	12.1	38.0	26.9	22.9	100
	Tsolwana	17.2	41.9	28.5	12.4	100
	Inkwanca	10.9	44.0	31.3	13.8	100
	Lukanji	7.2	39.4	34.2	19.3	100
	Intsika Yethu	13.7	50.5	28.5	7.4	100
	Emalahleni	13.5	50.4	28.1	8.1	100
	Engcobo	16.6	49.4	24.6	9.4	100
	Sakhisizwe	7.7	45.7	32.4	14.2	100
Nelson Mandela	Nelson Mandela	4.3	29.3	36.4	30.0	100
O.R.Tambo	Mbizana	13.4	49.7	29.0	7.8	100
	Ntabankulu	14.1	49.6	28.4	7.9	100
	Qaukeni	13.8	49.7	28.6	7.8	100
	Port St Johns	15.3	52.2	27.0	5.5	100
	Nyandeni	11.5	47.9	30.8	9.8	100
	Mhlontlo	11.9	47.3	32.3	8.5	100
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	9.5	44.4	31.7	14.4	100
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	10.4	52.2	28.1	9.3	100
	Senqu	10.7	47.9	31.3	10.1	100
	Maletswai	10.4	39.8	29.9	20.0	100
	Gariep	13.3	39.7	31.6	15.3	100
Pop.group	African	10.2	44.3	31.9	13.6	100
	Coloured	6.1	37.4	35.6	20.9	100
	Indian	2.9	17.6	29.2	50.4	100
	White	1.5	11.7	25.3	61.5	100
	All	9.4	42.1	31.9	16.6	100

Table A6. Employment status of the population (aged 15-64), 2007

		Employment status			
		Em-ployed	Unemp-loyed	Not econ-active	Unspec-ified
Sex	Male	33.5	19.9	44.1	2.4
	Female	26.8	19.4	51.8	2.0
District	Alfred Nzo	23.2	16.7	57.9	2.1
	Amathole	28.2	21.6	48.3	1.8
	Cacadu	39.7	19.9	37.6	2.7
	Chris Hani	18.0	24.8	55.4	1.7
	Nelson Mandela	37.6	25.1	35.5	1.8
	O.R.Tambo	31.2	12.1	53.9	2.8
	Ukhahlamba	25.7	17.5	54.0	2.8
Population group	African	26.5	20.5	50.8	2.2
	Coloured	39.9	21.4	36.0	2.7
	Indian	55.4	9.1	34.3	1.2
	White	66.1	4.2	28.6	1.1
All		29.9	19.6	48.3	2.2

Table A7. Employment status of the population aged 15-64, 2007

		Employment status			
		Employed	Unemployed	Not economically active	Unspecified
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	24.9	15.7	57.7	1.7
	Umzimvubu	21.2	18.0	58.1	2.7
Amathole	Mbhashe	10.8	11.7	75.8	1.7
	Mnquma	23.8	16.4	58.0	1.8
	Great Kei	36.3	20.6	40.9	2.3
	Amahlathi	26.7	25.2	46.7	1.3
	Buffalo City	36.7	23.4	38.1	1.8
	Ngqushwa	16.6	16.7	63.1	3.5
	Nkonkobe	17.9	36.2	44.8	1.0
	Nxuba	31.2	36.0	31.9	.9
Cacadu	Camdeboo	37.3	17.3	39.2	6.1
	Blue Crane Route	40.2	15.7	43.0	1.1
	Ikwezi	26.3	21.9	32.8	19.1
	Makana	31.6	33.9	32.5	1.9
	Ndlambe	36.9	24.2	37.6	1.4
	Sunday's River Valley	35.3	9.3	53.1	2.4
	Baviaans	29.1	18.2	51.1	1.6
	Kouga	46.0	17.0	36.4	.6
	Kou-Kamma	56.2	11.3	29.4	3.1
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	39.8	24.7	34.4	1.1
	Tsolwana	20.9	28.8	49.7	.6
	Inkwanca	23.7	28.3	46.3	1.7
	Lukanji	24.0	29.4	45.0	1.6
	Intsika Yethu	11.7	20.8	66.0	1.5
	Emalahleni	8.4	20.6	68.2	2.8
	Engcobo	14.9	21.2	62.6	1.3
	Sakhisizwe	15.4	30.9	50.7	3.1
N. Mandela	Nelson Mandela	37.6	25.1	35.5	1.8
O.R.Tambo	Mbizana	32.8	10.3	55.0	1.9
	Ntabankulu	22.7	17.5	58.3	1.5
	Qaukeni	47.8	7.8	40.3	4.0
	Port St Johns	43.0	4.9	49.9	2.1
	Nyandeni	21.7	15.4	60.9	2.1
	Mhlontlo	26.8	10.4	59.1	3.7
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	28.0	15.3	53.6	3.1
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	30.7	15.3	52.3	1.7
	Senqu	16.8	16.7	64.8	1.6
	Maletswai	34.0	22.7	35.6	7.7
	Gariep	27.4	20.8	48.3	3.4
	All	29.9	19.6	48.3	2.2

Table A8. Type of disability reported in the province, 2007

	Disability type							
	None	Sight	Hearing	Communi-cation	Pysical	Intellectual	Emotional	Multiple
Male	94.2	.6	.6	.3	2.3	.5	1.3	.3
Female	95.4	.6	.5	.2	1.8	.3	1.0	.3
Alfred Nzo	95.9	.5	.7	.2	1.4	.5	.7	.1
Amathole	94.8	.5	.5	.3	2.0	.4	1.3	.3
Cacadu	94.8	.5	.4	.2	2.3	.3	1.1	.2
Chris Hani	92.8	.7	.7	.3	3.2	.4	1.6	.3
Nelson Mandela	95.1	.5	.4	.2	2.0	.6	.9	.3
O.R.Tambo	95.5	.5	.6	.3	1.6	.2	1.0	.3
Ukhahlamba	93.8	.9	.6	.3	2.4	.5	1.2	.3
Matatiele	95.8	.6	.8	.3	1.3	.6	.5	.1
Umzimvubu	96.0	.5	.5	.1	1.5	.4	1.0	
Mbhashe	95.3	.5	.6	.3	1.7	.3	.9	.4
Mnquma	94.4	.6	.6	.3	1.9	.6	1.3	.3
Great Kei	91.3	1.2	.5	.2	3.9	.2	2.1	.7
Amahlathi	93.5	.6	.4	.5	2.2	.4	1.6	.8
Buffalo City	95.6	.4	.4	.2	1.7	.3	1.1	.3
Ngqushwa	94.0	.3	.5	.3	2.7	.5	1.5	.1
Nkonkobe	93.3	.9	.5	.3	2.6	.4	1.9	.3
Nxuba	92.3	.8	.5	.2	2.8	.3	2.5	.5
Camdeboo	96.4	.5	.2	.4	1.2	.2	1.0	.0
Blue Crane Route	90.5	.9	.9	.1	5.3	.2	1.4	.7
Ikwezi	95.7	.5	.5	.4	1.5	.5	.8	
Makana	94.7	.5	.4	.3	2.5	.1	1.0	.5
Ndlambe	96.0	.4	.5	.3	1.4	.3	.8	.3
Sunday's River Valley	94.5	.1	.4	.2	3.8	.3	.4	.2
Baviaans	96.6	.4	.2	.1	2.0	.4	.2	.1
Kouga	96.2	.6	.2	.1	2.1	.3	.4	.1
Kou-Kamma	91.8	.7	.6	.3	2.0	.3	4.0	.3
ECDMA10	95.4	.5	2.1	.3	.9	.1	.7	.1
Inxuba Yethemba	93.0	.5	.5	.4	1.3	.2	4.0	.1
Tsolwana	92.0	1.3	.9	.3	2.2	.1	2.7	.5
Inkwanca	88.0	2.3	.5	.2	6.8	.3	1.8	.2
Lukanji	91.7	.6	.5	.2	4.7	.5	1.3	.4
Intsika Yethu	92.7	.9	.9	.1	2.8	.2	1.8	.5
Emalahleni	92.3	.8	.5	.3	3.6	.5	1.8	.2
Engcobo	95.5	.5	.7	.4	1.4	.4	1.1	.1
Sakhisizwe	93.7	.7	.8	.6	2.9	.5	.6	.3
Nelson Mandela	95.1	.5	.4	.2	2.0	.6	.9	.3
Mbizana	96.9	.3	.4	.2	1.3	.2	.6	.1
Ntabankulu	95.8	.5	.6	.3	1.6	.1	.6	.4
Qaukeni	96.5	.4	.4	.3	1.5	.2	.7	.1
Port St Johns	94.4	.6	1.0	.3	2.2	.2	.7	.6
Nyandeni	95.0	.8	.7	.2	1.5	.3	1.5	.1
Mhlontlo	95.0	.4	.6	.3	2.0	.2	1.3	.1
Kng Sabata Dalindyebo	95.0	.6	.7	.2	1.6	.3	1.0	.5
Elundini	94.6	.8	.5	.2	1.6	.7	1.4	.3
Senqu	94.4	1.1	.7	.3	1.8	.4	1.0	.3
Maletswai	95.6	.5	.3	.2	1.5	.3	1.4	.3
Gariep	83.3	1.5	1.2	.8	11.9	.2	.9	.3
African	94.8	.6	.6	.3	2.0	.4	1.1	.3
Coloured	94.2	.5	.4	.2	2.2	.4	1.8	.4
Indian	96.9	.8	.4		1.9			
White	96.2	.4	.6	.2	1.7	.3	.4	.3
All	94.8	.6	.6	.2	2.0	.4	1.1	.3

Table A9.1. Percent of people receiving social grants, 2007

		% receive social grant
Sex	Male	32.2
	Female	32.4
District	Alfred Nzo	30.0
	Amathole	32.4
	Cacadu	25.6
	Chris Hani	37.4
	Nelson Mandela	25.5
	O.R.Tambo	35.8
	Ukhahlamba	32.4
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	31.7
	Umzimvubu	28.1
Amathole	Mbhashe	35.4
	Mnquma	34.8
	Great Kei	31.3
	Amahlathi	34.8
	Buffalo City	29.3
	Ngqushwa	35.9
	Nkonkobe	33.7
	Nxuba	32.3
Cacadu	Camdeboo	28.0
	Blue Crane Route	25.8
	Ikwezi	33.7
	Makana	26.8
	Ndlambe	21.8
	Sunday's River Valley	31.4
	Baviaans	33.7
	Kouga	20.5
	Kou-Kamma	24.5
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	39.7
	Tsolwana	45.1
	Inkwanca	40.1
	Lukanji	35.8
	Intsika Yethu	38.7
	Emalahleni	38.1
	Engcobo	35.7
	Sakhisizwe	35.3
Nelson Mandela	Nelson Mandela	25.5
O.R.Tambo	Mbizana	35.6
	Ntabankulu	35.5
	Qaukeni	36.2
	Port St Johns	36.1
	Nyandeni	37.6
	Mhlontlo	36.0
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	34.5
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	36.2
	Senqu	32.6
	Maletswai	22.1
	Gariep	30.2
Pop group	African	33.0
	Coloured	26.9
	Indian	27.2
	White	29.1
	All	32.3

Table A9.2. Percent of people receiving types of social grants, 2007

	Type of social grant							
	Old age pension	Disability	Child support	Care dependency	Foster care	Grant in aid	Social Relief	Multiple
Male	22.6	10.7	63.6	1.5	.3	.7	.3	.4
Female	21.9	10.5	64.7	1.3	.2	.7	.3	.4
Alfred Nzo	21.9	10.0	64.9	1.8	.1	1.1	.1	.2
Amathole	21.7	9.6	66.1	1.3	.3	.4	.4	.3
Cacadu	25.3	16.9	51.7	1.4	.2	3.8	.4	.3
Chris Hani	24.9	11.4	60.9	1.3	.4	.5	.2	.4
Nelson Mandela	24.6	16.7	56.0	1.3	.3	.3	.2	.7
O.R.Tambo	19.2	7.6	70.0	1.5	.2	.8	.4	.4
Ukhahlamba	27.9	11.5	57.8	1.5	.3	.3	.1	.7
Matatiele	23.1	9.7	63.6	1.8	.3	1.2	.1	.2
Umzimvubu	20.3	10.3	66.5	1.7		.9	.1	.2
Mbhashe	22.0	9.4	65.5	1.4	.4	.7	.5	.1
Mnquma	23.7	10.6	63.5	1.1	.3	.3	.3	.1
Great Kei	29.8	9.2	57.7	2.5			.3	.5
Amahlathi	27.4	9.8	60.7	.9			.3	.9
Buffalo City	20.7	9.7	66.8	1.5	.3	.4	.4	.3
Ngqushwa	17.5	6.8	73.4	1.0	.6	.1	.2	.4
Nkonkobe	16.5	9.0	72.8	.7		.3	.1	.5
Nxuba	25.2	11.6	60.0	1.8		.7	.7	
Camdeboo	29.8	18.7	50.0	.2	.3	.3	.7	
Blue Crane Route	31.5	21.4	44.2	1.8	.3	.4		.5
Ikwezi	23.1	13.8	62.8	.4				
Makana	26.1	14.0	57.6	1.6	.0	.2	.1	.4
Ndlambe	36.5	19.6	40.2	2.3		.7	.6	
Sunday's River Valley	20.5	17.1	58.1	2.3	.9	1.0		.1
Baviaans	20.4	12.1	58.1	1.4		7.3	.1	.6
Kouga	20.9	14.6	46.7	.6	.3	16.1	.4	.3
Kou-Kamma	19.7	20.7	51.1	1.8	.3	4.0	1.6	.8
Inxuba Yethemba	22.4	12.3	63.3	.4	.2	.5	.7	.2
Tsolwana	26.0	9.5	62.7	1.7		.1		
Inkwanca	23.7	8.0	67.5	.6			.3	
Lukanji	25.6	11.7	60.6	1.6	.3	.2	.0	
Intsika Yethu	24.5	10.4	61.7	1.4	.5	.7	.1	.7
Emalahleni	25.0	12.3	58.7	1.5	.2	1.2	.5	.6
Engcobo	24.9	11.1	61.5	1.0	.5	.5	.2	.3
Sakhisizwe	25.4	14.1	57.9	1.2	.7		.1	.7
Nelson Mandela	24.6	16.7	56.0	1.3	.3	.3	.2	.7
Mbizana	21.9	8.8	66.2	1.4	.1	.4	.4	.7
Ntabankulu	14.8	5.3	77.5	1.0	.3	.6	.4	.2
Qaukeni	17.6	5.7	74.0	1.4	.1	.5	.3	.2
Port St Johns	20.0	7.6	69.8	1.0	.1	1.0	.1	.5
Nyandeni	20.8	9.9	66.2	1.8	.3	.9	.1	.1
Mhlontlo	18.9	7.1	71.1	1.1	.2	.5	1.1	
King Sabata Dalindyebo	18.7	7.5	69.8	1.8	.2	1.1	.3	.7
Elundini	28.6	11.0	58.2	1.4	.2	.3		.3
Senqu	28.3	11.5	57.6	1.2	.4	.2	.1	.6
Maletswai	30.5	11.8	55.6	.8	.3	.2		.9
Gariep	17.8	14.8	59.1	3.7	.3	.3	1.1	2.8
African	22.0	10.2	64.9	1.4	.3	.6	.3	.4
Coloured	22.6	15.7	58.3	1.8	.3	1.0	.2	.2
Indian	18.6	9.6	70.6	1.2				
White	26.5	11.7	57.4	.9	.0	2.0	.3	1.2
All	22.2	10.6	64.2	1.4	.2	.7	.3	.4

Table A10.1. Relationship to the head of household, 2007

		Head	Husb/ wife	Child	Bro/ sist	Grand-child	Others	Unre-lated
Sex	Male	25.5	1.7	39.0	3.5	21.1	8.2	.9
	Female	22.4	13.8	32.9	3.0	17.7	9.5	.8
Pop group	African	23.3	6.8	35.9	3.4	20.9	9.1	.7
	Coloured	22.8	12.6	39.1	3.4	12.0	8.9	1.3
	Indian	28.3	16.9	31.9	1.7	8.5	11.2	1.5
	White	36.8	26.1	28.2	.8	1.8	4.9	1.5
District	Alfred Nzo	22.8	5.6	35.1	3.0	24.0	8.8	.8
	Amathole	26.4	8.4	34.1	3.5	18.4	8.5	.8
	Cacadu	26.8	13.6	35.0	3.0	13.3	6.9	1.5
	Chris Hani	24.3	7.4	33.7	2.8	22.6	8.7	.6
	Nelson Mandela	26.6	12.9	36.5	3.8	10.7	8.5	1.0
	O.R.Tambo	19.3	5.3	38.6	3.1	22.8	10.2	.7
	Ukhahlamba	25.7	6.9	32.3	2.8	24.2	7.3	.8
All		23.9	8.1	35.7	3.2	19.3	8.9	.8

Table A10.2. Relationship to the head of household, 2007

		Head	Husb /wife	Child	Bro /sist	Grand-child	Others	Unrel-ated
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	23.7	5.9	34.1	3.9	23.3	8.5	.6
	Umzimvubu	21.7	5.3	36.3	1.9	24.8	9.1	.9
Amathole	Mbhashe	21.7	5.7	37.5	2.4	23.7	8.6	.5
	Mnquma	24.1	6.5	35.5	2.8	21.7	8.8	.5
	Great Kei	29.3	9.0	30.9	4.3	18.1	7.8	.5
	Amahlathi	26.1	8.4	31.6	2.9	22.5	8.3	.2
	Buffalo City	28.7	10.6	34.7	4.3	12.5	8.1	1.1
	Ngqushwa	29.2	6.1	27.4	2.4	23.4	10.5	.9
	Nkonkobe	25.9	7.2	28.8	3.2	25.3	8.6	1.0
	Nxuba	25.9	10.4	30.4	2.8	22.1	7.4	1.0
Cacadu	Camdeboo	21.9	11.1	37.0	2.7	17.3	8.2	1.8
	Blue Crane Route	31.0	14.9	31.4	2.4	13.3	6.3	.8
	Ikwezi	23.9	12.5	38.3	2.8	15.1	6.7	.7
	Makana	25.9	10.8	36.1	4.1	13.9	6.8	2.3
	Ndlambe	29.0	13.7	33.4	3.2	14.0	6.2	.4
	Sunday's River Valley	26.5	13.7	38.2	2.7	12.0	6.0	.9
	Baviaans	27.3	13.4	31.8	1.5	16.9	8.3	.8
	Kouga	27.8	15.9	33.3	2.9	10.8	7.3	2.0
	Kou-Kamma	26.5	15.0	35.4	2.9	12.2	6.6	1.4
	ECDMA10	30.8	18.5	33.5	1.7	8.9	5.6	.9
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	26.9	13.2	31.5	3.0	16.8	7.7	.9
	Tsolwana	26.0	7.8	33.8	3.9	22.4	5.5	.6
	Inkwanca	28.7	9.1	28.8	3.8	22.5	7.0	.2
	Lukanji	25.2	8.2	34.9	3.6	19.5	8.1	.6
	Intsika Yethu	23.0	6.4	33.0	1.9	26.7	8.6	.5
	Emalahleni	23.5	6.4	32.4	2.7	27.0	7.7	.4
	Engcobo	23.1	5.8	35.7	1.5	21.2	11.6	1.1
	Sakhisizwe	25.8	7.8	32.1	5.7	19.2	9.2	.2
N. Mandela	Nelson Mandela	26.6	12.9	36.5	3.8	10.7	8.5	1.0
O.R.Tambo	Mbizana	17.5	4.8	42.4	2.5	23.0	8.8	1.0
	Ntabankulu	19.1	4.8	35.6	3.1	25.1	11.6	.7
	Qaukeni	17.4	4.8	39.8	3.3	24.1	10.1	.6
	Port St Johns	19.0	4.4	36.9	4.3	24.1	11.1	.3
	Nyandeni	18.6	5.1	40.1	3.3	22.0	10.1	.7
	Mhlontlo	21.5	5.9	35.0	1.9	24.4	10.3	1.0
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	21.2	6.1	37.8	3.6	20.1	10.6	.7
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	25.2	6.0	33.1	2.8	24.6	7.1	1.1
	Senqu	25.4	5.9	30.6	2.7	28.3	6.7	.5
	Maletswai	26.9	10.1	34.5	3.2	15.6	8.7	.9
	Gariep	28.0	11.3	32.6	2.5	16.8	8.2	.6
	All	23.9	8.1	35.7	3.2	19.3	8.9	.8

Table A11.1. Age distribution of the household head by age group, 2007

		< 20	20-29	30-39	40-49	50 +
Sex of Head	Male	2.3	11.3	22.0	20.7	43.7
	Female	1.6	8.6	17.4	20.2	52.3
District	Alfred Nzo	3.2	10.5	19.0	17.5	49.9
	Amathole	2.1	11.0	19.0	20.1	47.8
	Cacadu	.5	9.3	22.0	22.4	45.7
	Chris Hani	2.1	7.3	15.5	18.1	57.1
	Nelson Mandela	.5	9.4	24.8	25.7	39.5
	O.R. Tambo	2.6	10.2	19.1	19.4	48.7
	Ukhahlamba	3.5	11.2	17.1	15.9	52.3
Pop group	African	2.2	10.3	19.2	19.7	48.5
	Coloured	.6	9.5	24.5	26.9	38.5
	Indian		4.7	22.3	27.4	45.6
	White	.3	6.1	20.8	22.5	50.4
All	All Eastern Cape	2.0	9.9	19.7	20.5	47.9

Table A11.2. Age distribution of the household head in local municipalities, 2007

		< 20	20-29	30-39	40-49	50 +
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	4.1	11.3	18.7	17.9	48.0
	Umzimvubu	2.0	9.5	19.3	16.9	52.3
Amathole	Mbhashe	3.2	7.0	12.5	15.6	61.7
	Mnquma	2.8	7.9	15.5	19.4	54.4
	Great Kei	2.5	14.1	13.9	19.5	50.0
	Amahlathi	2.1	6.9	13.9	21.5	55.6
	Buffalo City	1.4	14.6	24.2	22.4	37.3
	Ngqushwa	2.4	8.1	12.4	17.3	59.8
	Nkonkobe	2.6	7.3	15.9	16.2	58.0
	Nxuba	.5	8.8	16.5	19.6	54.7
Cacadu	Camdeboo	1.2	7.5	18.2	22.3	50.9
	Blue Crane Route		9.3	19.2	23.8	47.7
	Ikwezi	.4	10.2	24.8	21.3	43.4
	Makana	.4	10.2	20.6	24.7	44.1
	Ndlambe	1.4	5.1	18.6	20.1	54.8
	Sunday's River Valley	.4	8.1	32.4	19.9	39.3
	Baviaans	.3	11.3	19.6	23.1	45.6
	Kouga	.2	10.0	20.2	23.1	46.5
	Kou-Kamma		13.1	28.0	22.5	36.4
	Cacadu	.8	11.1	28.5	17.2	42.4
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	.3	9.8	18.0	21.7	50.1
	Tsolwana	4.2	7.1	17.1	14.6	57.0
	Inkwanca	2.6	12.4	17.6	19.4	48.0
	Lukanji	1.7	10.6	19.2	22.6	45.9
	Intsika Yethu	3.3	4.5	10.4	15.4	66.4
	Emalahleni	1.6	4.5	11.1	15.5	67.3
	Engcobo	1.7	5.8	15.9	17.0	59.6
	Sakhisizwe	2.0	9.5	21.1	15.5	51.9
Nelson Mandela	Nelson Mandela	.5	9.4	24.8	25.7	39.5
O.R. Tambo	Mbizana	2.0	9.4	18.4	20.2	50.0
	Ntabankulu	2.4	10.3	15.6	16.3	55.3
	Qaukeni	2.5	10.8	20.8	19.7	46.3
	Port St Johns	2.6	11.3	18.5	18.6	49.1
	Nyandeni	3.5	10.8	19.5	20.3	46.1
	Mhlontlo	3.3	7.0	14.6	19.9	55.2
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	2.1	11.3	22.2	19.2	45.2
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	3.9	10.0	15.8	17.0	53.3
	Senqu	4.6	9.8	13.8	13.8	58.0
	Maletswai	1.7	16.3	26.5	16.5	38.9
	Gariep	.3	14.4	21.5	19.3	44.5
All	All Eastern Cape	2.0	9.9	19.7	20.5	47.9

Table A12.1. Sex of household head, 2007

		Gender of Head	
		Male	Female
Pop group	African	47.4	52.6
	Coloured	59.7	40.3
	Indian	73.8	26.2
	White	75.5	24.5
District	Alfred Nzo	38.9	61.1
	Amathole	50.1	49.9
	Cacadu	62.2	37.8
	Chris Hani	47.6	52.4
	Nelson Mandela	62.7	37.3
	O.R. Tambo	43.4	56.6
	Ukhahlamba	47.7	52.3
All	All Eastern Cape	50.3	49.7

Table A12.2. Sex of household head in local municipalities, 2007

		Gender of Head	
		Male	Female
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	39.5	60.5
	Umzimvubu	38.2	61.8
Amathole	Mbhashe	39.4	60.6
	Mnquma	44.8	55.2
	Great Kei	55.7	44.3
	Amahlathi	53.0	47.0
	Buffalo City	54.8	45.2
	Ngqushwa	41.1	58.9
	Nkonkobe	51.4	48.6
	Nxuba	58.0	42.0
Cacadu	Camdeboo	56.7	43.3
	Blue Crane Route	64.5	35.5
	Ikwezi	59.9	40.1
	Makana	55.2	44.8
	Ndlambe	60.1	39.9
	Sunday's River Valley	69.4	30.6
	Baviaans	62.6	37.4
	Kouga	66.6	33.4
	Kou-Kamma	63.9	36.1
	Cacadu	72.1	27.9
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	64.8	35.2
	Tsolwana	47.9	52.1
	Inkwanca	55.8	44.2
	Lukanji	53.3	46.7
	Intsika Yethu	42.7	57.3
	Emalahleni	44.4	55.6
	Engcobo	40.4	59.6
	Sakhisizwe	45.6	54.4
Nelson Mandela	Nelson Mandela	62.7	37.3
O.R. Tambo	Mbizana	40.0	60.0
	Ntabankulu	40.0	60.0
	Qaukeni	43.4	56.6
	Port St Johns	40.6	59.4
	Nyandeni	41.6	58.4
	Mhlontlo	47.2	52.8
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	46.4	53.6
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	44.5	55.5
	Senqu	46.7	53.3
	Maletswai	57.1	42.9
	Gariep	51.6	48.4
All	All Eastern Cape	50.3	49.7

Table A13.1. Marital status of household head, 2007

		Marital status			
		Currently married	Wid-owed/Div/Sep	Cohabiting	Never married
Gender of Head	Male	61.4	8.5	8.2	21.9
	Female	23.7	41.4	2.5	32.4
Pop group	African	40.1	25.8	4.9	29.1
	Coloured	49.0	20.7	9.4	20.9
	Indian	66.8	17.3	.4	15.5
	White	66.3	17.9	6.8	9.0
District	Alfred Nzo	41.2	32.8	4.0	21.9
	Amathole	39.3	23.7	5.4	31.6
	Cacadu	46.5	17.9	10.5	25.2
	Chris Hani	43.3	27.2	4.0	25.4
	Nelson Mandela	44.5	19.4	9.0	27.1
	O.R. Tambo	45.2	27.9	2.5	24.5
	Ukhahlamba	39.2	28.3	4.4	28.1
All	All Eastern Cape	42.7	24.9	5.4	27.1

Table A13.2. Marital status of household heads in local municipalities, 2007

		Marital status			
		Currently married	Wid-owed/Div/Sep	Cohabiting	Never married
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	41.3	30.1	5.5	23.0
	Umzimvubu	41.0	36.3	2.2	20.6
Amathole	Mbhashe	44.7	34.6	.7	19.9
	Mnquma	42.1	28.5	2.2	27.2
	Great Kei	34.5	34.7	4.1	26.7
	Amahlathi	40.3	26.7	4.9	28.1
	Buffalo City	38.0	16.7	8.4	36.9
	Ngqushwa	41.1	25.3	1.7	31.9
	Nkonkobe	31.8	31.0	4.8	32.4
	Nxuba	38.1	22.6	9.2	30.1
Cacadu	Camdeboo	47.3	18.9	8.7	25.2
	Blue Crane Route	36.4	23.4	18.2	21.9
	Ikwezi	37.3	21.2	19.4	22.1
	Makana	41.8	19.6	5.4	33.2
	Ndlambe	48.8	16.6	6.4	28.2
	Sunday's River Valley	42.8	14.5	14.8	28.0
	Baviaans	48.2	17.3	11.0	23.5
	Kouga	55.9	15.8	8.1	20.3
	Kou-Kamma	44.2	19.1	16.7	20.0
	Cacadu	52.4	10.5	18.0	19.1
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	46.3	18.2	12.3	23.2
	Tsolwana	43.0	26.6	2.6	27.8
	Inkwanca	33.7	29.2	7.6	29.5
	Lukanji	38.1	22.5	6.9	32.5
	Intsika Yethu	46.1	32.3	1.2	20.5
	Emalahleni	44.6	30.4	1.9	23.1
	Engcobo	47.5	29.4	1.5	21.6
	Sakhisizwe	42.7	25.2	4.6	27.4
Nelson Mandela	Nelson Mandela	44.5	19.4	9.0	27.1
O.R. Tambo	Mbizana	45.3	31.4	2.4	21.0
	Ntabankulu	43.8	37.3	1.1	17.8
	Qaukeni	44.1	27.9	2.3	25.7
	Port St Johns	48.1	22.9	2.5	26.5
	Nyandeni	47.3	26.5	1.7	24.5
	Mhlontlo	46.9	33.0	2.0	18.1
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	42.8	23.1	3.8	30.4
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	40.7	31.8	2.3	25.1
	Senqu	37.2	31.8	3.3	27.6
	Maletswai	41.7	13.1	8.6	36.6
	Gariep	36.2	22.3	11.5	30.1
All	All Eastern Cape	42.7	24.9	5.4	27.1

Table A14.1. Educational status of household heads, 2007

		Education			
		No education	Primary	Part secondary	Matric or higher
Sex of Head	Male	1.1	31.6	28.2	39.0
	Female	1.5	33.4	28.3	36.9
District	Alfred Nzo	1.4	42.3	30.2	26.1
	Amathole	.9	31.2	28.9	39.0
	Cacadu	1.6	32.4	27.3	38.8
	Chris Hani	.8	37.2	24.3	37.7
	Nelson Mandela	.6	22.9	35.3	41.2
	O.R. Tambo	2.3	34.6	24.5	38.6
	Ukhahlamba	2.3	39.4	24.7	33.6
Pop group	African	1.4	35.3	27.9	35.4
	Coloured	.9	29.9	38.0	31.2
	Indian	.9	7.3	28.4	63.4
	White	.1	1.8	23.2	75.0
All	All Eastern Cape	1.3	32.5	28.3	38.0

Table A14.2. Educational status of household heads in local municipalities, 2007

		Education			
		No education	Primary	Part secondary	Matric or higher
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	1.6	42.7	33.0	22.6
	Umzimvubu	1.1	41.8	26.6	30.6
Amathole	Mbhashe	.1	33.3	22.2	44.4
	Mnquma	.9	38.4	28.7	32.1
	Great Kei	1.8	32.9	21.0	44.3
	Amahlathi	.3	35.2	25.9	38.6
	Buffalo City	1.0	24.6	32.5	41.8
	Ngqushwa	.9	33.0	22.9	43.1
	Nkonkobe	1.8	45.6	28.0	24.5
	Nxuba	1.2	40.7	27.0	31.0
Cacadu	Camdeboo	2.7	35.5	28.7	33.2
	Blue Crane Route	3.0	33.6	26.4	37.0
	Ikwezi	1.4	35.9	32.8	29.9
	Makana	1.3	29.2	27.2	42.3
	Ndlambe	2.0	29.0	21.6	47.4
	Sunday's River Valley	2.1	39.0	29.3	29.6
	Baviaans	1.5	35.0	30.1	33.4
	Kouga	.7	23.7	28.6	47.0
	Kou-Kamma	.9	45.7	28.8	24.5
	Cacadu	1.3	42.4	18.8	37.5
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	.9	24.0	26.7	48.3
	Tsolwana	1.1	35.3	16.0	47.6
	Inkwanca	3.3	36.5	24.3	35.9
	Lukanji	.6	32.7	31.5	35.2
	Intsika Yethu	.8	42.7	22.4	34.1
	Emalahleni	.7	45.2	18.1	35.9
	Engcobo	.9	34.1	18.8	46.2
	Sakhisizwe	1.2	39.9	30.2	28.6
Nelson Mandela	Nelson Mandela	.6	22.9	35.3	41.2
O.R. Tambo	Mbizana	1.4	37.5	23.0	38.1
	Ntabankulu	1.3	37.7	19.5	41.4
	Qaukeni	3.5	35.4	20.2	40.9
	Port St Johns	.8	37.9	20.7	40.7
	Nyandeni	1.2	35.4	26.0	37.4
	Mhlontlo	3.2	37.2	25.5	34.1
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	3.0	28.6	28.9	39.5
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	1.6	45.2	24.1	29.1
	Senqu	3.6	39.3	25.6	31.5
	Maletswai	1.4	30.2	22.1	46.2
	Gariep	.4	28.6	28.6	42.4
All	All Eastern Cape	1.3	32.5	28.3	38.0

Table A15.1. Percent distribution of household heads by work status, 2007

		Current work status	
		Yes	No
Sex of Head	Male	33.0	67.0
	Female	18.3	81.7
District	Alfred Nzo	16.6	83.4
	Amathole	28.3	71.7
	Cacadu	39.1	60.9
	Chris Hani	16.4	83.6
	Nelson Mandela	42.3	57.7
	O.R. Tambo	15.5	84.5
	Ukhahlamba	18.4	81.6
Pop group	African	22.5	77.5
	Coloured	42.5	57.5
	Indian	39.1	60.9
	White	47.0	53.0
All	All Eastern Cape	25.7	74.3

Table A15.2. Household heads by work status in local municipalities, 2007

		Current work status	
		Yes	No
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	19.0	81.0
	Umzimvubu	13.6	86.4
Amathole	Mbhashe	8.9	91.1
	Mnquma	19.0	81.0
	Great Kei	32.3	67.7
	Amahlathi	27.6	72.4
	Buffalo City	40.9	59.1
	Ngqushwa	12.4	87.6
	Nkonkobe	14.2	85.8
	Nxuba	29.9	70.1
Cacadu	Camdeboo	31.1	68.9
	Blue Crane Route	38.1	61.9
	Ikwezi	23.5	76.5
	Makana	37.2	62.8
	Ndlambe	36.2	63.8
	Sunday's River Valley	40.4	59.6
	Baviaans	32.4	67.6
	Kouga	41.0	59.0
	Kou-Kamma	54.4	45.6
	Cacadu	43.5	56.5
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	41.4	58.6
	Tsolwana	18.9	81.1
	Inkwanca	26.2	73.8
	Lukanji	26.1	73.9
	Intsika Yethu	5.8	94.2
	Emalahleni	6.3	93.7
	Engcobo	13.3	86.7
	Sakhisizwe	14.1	85.9
Nelson Mandela	Nelson Mandela	42.3	57.7
O.R. Tambo	Mbizana	11.9	88.1
	Ntabankulu	9.8	90.2
	Qaukeni	15.7	84.3
	Port St Johns	10.0	90.0
	Nyandeni	11.8	88.2
	Mhlontlo	17.7	82.3
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	21.9	78.1
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	16.4	83.6
	Senqu	13.7	86.3
	Maletswai	32.5	67.5
	Gariep	25.1	74.9
All	All Eastern Cape	25.7	74.3

Table A16.1. Average household size, 2007

		Household size		
		Sex of Head		
		Male	Female	All
District	Alfred Nzo	4.3	4.2	4.2
	Amathole	4.0	3.9	4.0
	Cacadu	3.6	3.9	3.7
	Chris Hani	3.9	4.0	3.9
	Nelson Mandela	3.8	3.7	3.8
	O.R. Tambo	4.8	4.8	4.8
	Ukhahlamba	3.5	3.6	3.5
Pop group	African	4.1	4.2	4.1
	Coloured	3.9	3.9	3.9
	Indian	4.2	4.1	4.2
	White	3.8	3.5	3.7
All	All Eastern Cape	4.1	4.1	4.1

Table A16.2. Average household size in local municipalities, 2007

		Household size		
		Sex of Head		
		Male	Female	All
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	4.3	4.1	4.2
	Umzimvubu	4.4	4.2	4.2
Amathole	Mbhashe	3.6	3.8	3.8
	Mnquma	3.7	3.8	3.8
	Great Kei	3.9	3.9	3.9
	Amahlathi	4.2	3.9	4.0
	Buffalo City	4.1	4.1	4.1
	Ngqushwa	4.0	3.8	3.9
	Nkonkobe	3.9	3.9	3.9
	Nxuba	4.1	3.7	3.9
Cacadu	Camdeboo	4.3	4.8	4.5
	Blue Crane Route	3.2	3.5	3.3
	Ikwezi	3.6	3.7	3.7
	Makana	3.7	3.9	3.8
	Ndlambe	3.1	3.7	3.3
	Sunday's River Valley	4.2	4.3	4.2
	Baviaans	3.5	3.9	3.7
	Kouga	3.6	3.6	3.6
	Kou-Kamma	3.8	3.7	3.7
	Cacadu	3.4	3.7	3.5
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	4.1	3.8	4.0
	Tsolwana	4.5	3.6	4.0
	Inkwanca	3.9	3.9	3.9
	Lukanji	3.8	4.1	3.9
	Intsika Yethu	3.9	4.1	4.0
	Emalahleni	4.2	4.3	4.2
	Engcobo	3.6	3.6	3.6
	Sakhisizwe	3.9	3.8	3.9
Nelson Mandela	Nelson Mandela	3.8	3.7	3.8
O.R. Tambo	Mbizana	4.9	4.5	4.7
	Ntabankulu	5.9	5.4	5.6
	Qaukeni	5.0	5.1	5.1
	Port St Johns	4.6	5.1	4.9
	Nyandeni	4.5	4.6	4.5
	Mhlontlo	4.6	4.7	4.7
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	4.6	4.7	4.7
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	3.5	3.5	3.5
	Senqu	3.5	3.7	3.6
	Maletswai	3.0	3.3	3.1
	Gariep	3.9	3.9	3.9
All	All Eastern Cape	4.1	4.1	4.1

Table A17. Type of dwelling occupied by households, 2007

		Type of main dwelling			
		House or brick structure on a separate stand or yard	Traditional dwelling/hut/structure made of traditional mater	Flat in block of flats	Town/cluster/semi-detached house (simplex, duplex, triplex)
Sex of Head	Male	50.5	30.6	4.5	1.4
	Female	42.3	42.7	4.5	1.0
district	Alfred Nzo	27.4	63.2	3.3	.2
	Amathole	48.4	28.0	4.3	1.0
	Cacadu	84.9	3.2	1.5	1.1
	Chris Hani	47.4	45.3	2.4	.2
	Nelson Mandela	73.0	.7	6.4	4.2
	O.R. Tambo	18.6	69.9	5.5	.3
	Ukhahlamba	46.3	40.7	4.5	.3
Pop group	African	40.7	42.5	4.0	.5
	Coloured	81.6	1.5	4.5	3.7
	Indian	72.2	6.5	11.6	4.9
	White	80.1	.8	10.4	7.0
All	All Eastern Cape	46.4	36.6	4.5	1.2

		Type of main dwelling				
		House/flat/room in backyard	Informal dwelling/shack in backyard	Informal dwelling/shack NOT in backyard, e.g. in an informal	Room/flatlet NOT in backyard but on a shared property	Other
Sex of Head	Male	2.0	2.0	8.0	.4	.6
	Female	2.1	1.3	5.0	.5	.5
district	Alfred Nzo	3.6	.9	.8	.4	.2
	Amathole	2.6	2.5	12.0	.8	.4
	Cacadu	1.1	1.9	4.9	.3	1.2
	Chris Hani	1.3	.7	2.0	.3	.4
	Nelson Mandela	1.0	2.7	11.4	.1	.5
	O.R. Tambo	2.5	.7	1.4	.4	.8
	Ukhahlamba	1.4	1.5	4.1	.2	.9
Pop group	African	2.2	1.7	7.3	.5	.6
	Coloured	1.6	2.7	3.7	.3	.5
	Indian	1.4	1.3			2.1
	White	.6	.2	.2	.4	.3
All	All Eastern Cape	2.1	1.7	6.5	.4	.6

Table A18. Main source of water supply, 2007

		Main source of water for household				
		Piped inside dwelling	Piped inside the yard	From outside the yard	River/ Spring/stream	Other sources
Sex of Head	Male	35.3	13.7	25.8	19.5	5.7
	Female	25.0	13.7	28.3	27.5	5.5
Pop group	African	18.4	12.1	26.5	23.4	5.1
	Coloured	5.1	1.3	.4	.1	.2
	Indian	.2	.0	.0	.0	.0
	White	6.4	.3	.0	.0	.3
District	Alfred Nzo	4.5	12.6	50.5	27.5	4.9
	Amathole	28.7	15.0	32.9	17.4	6.1
	Cacadu	63.2	24.5	8.1	.4	3.8
	Chris Hani	24.1	15.2	36.6	19.1	5.0
	Nelson Mandela	70.9	16.2	11.4	.1	1.5
	O.R. Tambo	5.9	6.6	23.3	55.7	8.6
	Ukhahlamba	16.1	15.4	33.4	26.6	8.5
All	All Eastern Cape	30.2	13.7	27.0	23.5	5.6

Table A19.1 Type of toilet facility, 2007

		Type of toilet			
		Flush toilet	Dry toilet facility	Pit toilet	Chemical toilet
Sex of Head	Male	44.3	5.1	26.8	.3
	Female	32.6	6.5	31.6	.4
District	Alfred Nzo	6.1	5.1	69.2	.2
	Amathole	40.1	4.4	29.2	.4
	Cacadu	76.0	1.4	10.8	.2
	Chris Hani	29.3	6.5	28.1	.4
	Nelson Mandela	87.2	.5	4.5	.1
	O.R. Tambo	7.9	11.3	39.1	.5
	Ukhahlamba	20.7	11.4	39.2	.9
Pop group	African	29.4	6.7	33.6	.4
	Coloured	86.7	.8	4.2	.2
	Indian	87.3	.7	8.8	
	White	99.5		.2	
All	All Eastern Cape	38.5	5.8	29.2	.4

Table A19.1 Type of toilet facility, 2007

		Type of toilet	
		Bucket toilet	No toilet
Sex of Head	Male	3.1	20.4
	Female	2.3	26.6
District	Alfred Nzo	1.5	17.9
	Amathole	1.9	24.0
	Cacadu	7.3	4.3
	Chris Hani	2.0	33.7
	Nelson Mandela	6.1	1.6
	O.R. Tambo	.4	40.8
	Ukhahlamba	3.2	24.7
Pop group	African	2.8	27.1
	Coloured	4.6	3.5
	Indian		3.3
	White	.1	.2
All	All Eastern Cape	2.7	23.5

Table A19.2. Type of toilet facilities in local municipalities, 2007

	Type of toilet					
	Flush toilet	Dry toilet facility	Pit toilet	Chemical toilet	Bucket toilet	No toilet
Matatiele	6.7	1.9	75.8	.0		15.6
Umzimvubu	5.2	1.2	60.8	.3	3.5	21.8
Mbhashe	4.7	3.3	16.8	.9	.3	74.0
Mnquma	17.5	4.3	38.5	.9		38.8
Great Kei	34.4	2.0	18.8	1.1	2.0	41.7
Amahlathi	25.4	1.0	63.9			9.7
Buffalo City	66.9	3.4	16.3	.2	1.4	11.8
Ngqushwa	7.0	26.2	63.3		.2	3.2
Nkonkobe	20.9	.8	62.0	.2	9.4	6.7
Nxuba	46.5	.8	6.7		38.6	7.4
Camdeboo	95.8	.3	.7		1.0	2.2
Blue Crane Route	73.0		3.6	1.1	14.2	8.1
Ikwezi	52.8		1.0		39.7	6.5
Makana	78.9	.7	9.2	.3	8.7	2.2
Ndlambe	64.1	6.5	24.9			4.5
Sunday's River Valley	64.1	1.1	26.1		4.7	4.0
Baviaans	78.0		4.7		11.1	6.3
Kouga	83.7	.2	5.1		9.3	1.8
Kou-Kamma	77.7	1.4	8.0	.1	3.6	9.3
Cacadu	47.4	1.4	35.5		6.3	9.4
Inxuba Yethemba	92.9	3.9	.4		.2	2.7
Tsolwana	12.8	.8	40.1	8.9	14.0	23.4
Inkwanca	90.7	.8	2.0		.6	6.0
Lukanji	65.1	4.0	22.6	.2	.5	7.6
Intsika Yethu	.9	11.4	31.3	.0	.1	56.3
Emalahleni	4.3	8.4	34.8	.1	8.8	43.5
Engcobo	7.0	5.6	24.9			62.5
Sakhisizwe	17.9	6.3	58.8	.1		16.8
Nelson Mandela	87.2	.5	4.5	.1	6.1	1.6
Mbizana	.5	13.2	43.1	.4		42.9
Ntabankulu	1.4	33.2	25.1	.2	1.1	39.0
Qaukeni	3.0	7.7	40.5	.2	.5	48.1
Port St Johns	1.5	1.4	47.7	.1		49.3
Nyandeni	1.7	10.3	35.4	.2		52.4
Mhlontlo	.9	13.1	50.1	.0	1.6	34.2
King Sabata Dalindyebo	26.1	8.8	33.7	1.4	.2	29.8
Elundini	4.7	5.9	56.3	1.9		31.2
Senqu	6.5	22.3	42.9		6.1	22.1
Maletswai	68.8	4.0	4.1	1.0	1.1	21.1
Gariep	77.5		1.9		9.1	11.5
All Eastern Cape	38.5	5.8	29.2	.4	2.7	23.5

Table A20.1. Sources of energy for household cooking, 2007

		Energy used for cooking							
		Elec-tricity	Gas	Paraffin	Wood	Coal	Animal dung	Solar	Other
Sex of Head	Male	49.8	2.7	23.8	22.5	.1	1.0	.0	.1
	Female	41.3	2.7	22.7	31.7	.2	1.3	.0	.0
District	Alfred Nzo	22.0	4.4	27.0	45.5	.3	.8	.1	
	Amathole	46.3	2.7	29.3	19.4	.2	2.0	.0	.1
	Cacadu	75.5	3.2	16.8	4.3	.1		.0	
	Chris Hani	37.3	2.1	30.6	28.4	.3	1.1	.0	.1
	Nelson Mandela	85.3	1.1	13.3	.4	.0	.0		
	O.R. Tambo	20.8	3.5	17.3	56.8	.1	1.4	.1	.1
	Ukhahlamba	31.4	3.2	36.4	27.1	.4	1.2	.1	.2
Pop group	African	38.0	2.8	26.3	31.3	.2	1.3	.1	.1
	Coloured	85.6	1.3	9.2	3.9	.0			
	Indian	84.1	3.6	7.1	5.2				
	White	95.6	3.6	.6	.2	.0		.0	
All	All Eastern Cape	45.6	2.7	23.2	27.1	.2	1.1	.0	.1

Table A20.2. Sources of energy for household use in local municipalities, 2007

	Energy used for cooking							
	Elec-tricity	Gas	Paraffin	Wood	Coal	Animal dung	Solar	Other
Matatiele	24.3	3.7	29.7	40.5	.4	1.3	.1	
Umzimvubu	19.1	5.3	23.5	52.0		.1		
Mbhashe	12.5	2.1	11.1	65.0	.1	9.2		.1
Mnquma	33.9	4.2	26.3	31.5	.4	3.6		.1
Great Kei	36.7	1.9	36.1	25.3				
Amahlathi	41.3	2.1	36.5	18.7	.4	.6		.2
Buffalo City	59.6	2.6	34.5	2.9	.1	.2	.0	.1
Ngqushwa	51.8	1.8	28.6	15.8	.6	1.2		.3
Nkonkobe	47.6	2.2	28.6	21.1		.5		
Nxuba	68.8	4.9	19.5	6.4				.3
Camdeboo	95.3	.6	2.1	1.9				
Blue Crane Route	70.3	3.0	16.6	9.2	.5		.3	
Ikwezi	76.2	.7	16.0	6.9	.2			
Makana	68.9	6.1	23.9	1.0	.1		.0	
Ndlambe	70.7	3.1	23.1	3.1				
Sunday's River Valley	74.5	.4	21.3	3.4	.4			
Baviaans	65.5	8.7	10.5	15.3				
Kouga	86.2	2.2	10.9	.7				
Kou-Kamma	68.1	3.8	16.9	11.2				
Cacadu	46.6	5.9	35.9	11.7				
Inxuba Yethemba	80.5	1.1	12.7	5.7				
Tsolwana	40.1	1.8	48.3	9.3		.5		
Inkwanca	51.2	2.3	39.7	6.4		.5		
Lukanji	61.5	1.5	32.7	3.7	.1	.3		.1
Intsika Yethu	17.2	2.4	33.5	44.0	.2	2.5	.1	.0
Emalahleni	22.4	3.4	36.5	36.3	.6	.2	.0	.6
Engcobo	16.8	2.6	22.6	55.5	.6	2.0		
Sakhisizwe	41.6	1.0	22.9	32.3	.8	1.0	.2	.2
Nelson Mandela	85.3	1.1	13.3	.4	.0	.0		
Mbizana	14.9	3.7	9.3	71.8			.3	
Ntabankulu	11.7	2.7	9.2	75.0	.2	1.0		.3
Qaukeni	15.9	2.6	12.3	68.9	.3			
Port St Johns	8.5	2.7	11.3	76.6	.3	.2		.3
Nyandeni	20.3	2.9	18.2	58.0		.5	.1	
Mhlontlo	10.8	4.0	27.6	56.0	.1	1.2	.3	.1
King Sabata Dalindyebo	39.1	4.7	22.3	30.0		3.9	.0	
Elundini	17.6	4.0	21.0	55.6	.4	1.0		.4
Senqu	26.2	3.1	56.2	11.4	.6	2.1	.3	
Maletswai	60.7	2.5	32.9	3.9			.1	
Gariep	69.1	1.4	24.8	4.4	.3			
All Eastern Cape	45.6	2.7	23.2	27.1	.2	1.1	.0	.1

Table A21.1. Sources of energy for heating, 2007

		Energy used for heating							
		Elec-tricity	Gas	Paraffin	Wood	Coal	Animal dung	Solar	Other
Sex of Head	Male	38.2	.7	26.9	31.0	.5	.7	.0	1.9
	Female	27.8	.6	27.8	40.8	.5	.8	.0	1.6
District	Alfred Nzo	11.4	1.1	25.0	60.5	.5	1.0	.0	.5
	Amathole	32.4	.7	35.3	27.7	.7	1.1	.1	2.1
	Cacadu	67.5	1.0	16.5	11.9	.6		.1	2.5
	Chris Hani	16.2	.3	36.2	44.9	.4	1.0		.9
	Nelson Mandela	74.3	.6	20.9	2.0	.1	.0		2.1
	O.R. Tambo	11.7	.7	20.4	64.8	.2	.5	.0	1.8
	Ukhahlamba	17.9	.8	32.3	41.8	3.2	2.1	.1	1.8
Pop group	African	24.3	.6	31.0	41.0	.6	.8	.0	1.6
	Coloured	76.5	.6	10.4	8.9	.4	.0	.0	3.1
	Indian	81.2	1.3	6.0	6.4				5.1
	White	93.8	1.9	.8	1.1	.2		.1	2.0
All	All Eastern Cape	33.0	.7	27.3	35.9	.5	.7	.0	1.8

Table A21.2. Sources of energy for heating in local municipalities, 2007

		Energy used for heating							
		Electricity	Gas	Paraffin	Wood	Coal	Animal dung	Solar	Other
Alfred	Matatiele	13.9	.8	27.6	54.9	.6	1.5	.1	.5
Nzo	Umzimvubu	8.3	1.4	21.6	67.7	.3	.3		.4
Amathole	Mbhashe	10.7	.1	16.0	70.7	.1	2.2	.0	.2
	Mnquma	24.4	.4	30.0	40.7	.1	3.9		.4
	Great Kei	21.5	2.4	23.3	48.4	.1		.5	3.7
	Amahlathi	27.5		33.4	36.3	.8	.5		1.4
	Buffalo City	46.8	1.1	43.0	5.9	.3	.1	.1	2.6
	Ngqushwa	19.6	.3	27.2	41.1	3.6	1.7		6.4
	Nkonkobe	15.7	.2	40.8	38.2	2.8	.0		2.2
	Nxuba	20.5	1.8	45.9	25.1	1.9	.2		4.6
Cacadu	Camdeboo	88.5	.3	1.7	8.9				.6
	Blue Crane Route	59.1	.1	13.2	26.4	.5		.3	.4
	Ikwezi	67.6	.4	11.8	18.4	.8			1.0
	Makana	60.9	1.4	33.6	2.4	.3		.1	1.4
	Ndlambe	67.4	.8	18.8	9.9	.1			3.0
	Sunday's River Valley	61.8	.4	24.5	9.1	2.7			1.4
	Baviaans	48.2	.5	8.4	37.9	4.4		.5	
	Kouga	80.5	1.9	9.0	3.0	.3			5.2
	Kou-Kamma	57.9	.6	10.3	26.9	.2		.4	3.7
	Cacadu	43.0	.5	24.8	30.8				.8
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	48.6	.3	30.2	16.2	.6			4.2
	Tsolwana	15.7		30.7	52.0	.6			1.1
	Inkwanca	19.4		57.3	20.1	1.0			2.1
	Lukanji	20.5	.4	61.9	15.6	.2			1.3
	Intsika Yethu	7.5	.1	23.4	65.7	.2	2.9		.3
	Emalahleni	6.6	.3	28.2	62.2	1.0	.8		.9
	Engcobo	13.5	.5	24.1	60.7		1.2		
	Sakhisizwe	23.7	.6	25.9	48.1	1.1	.6		
N. Mandela	Nelson Mandela	74.3	.6	20.9	2.0	.1	.0		2.1
O.R. Tambo	Mbizana	12.1	1.2	9.7	75.7	.1		.1	1.1
	Ntabankulu	10.3	1.3	12.3	74.6	.4	.7		.4
	Qaukeni	13.2	.8	11.2	73.5	.3			1.0
	Port St Johns	3.8	.9	9.0	83.8	.2	.4		2.1
	Nyandeni	13.1	.3	19.8	65.2	.3	.3		1.0
	Mhlontlo	5.5	.4	20.1	72.9	.2	.2		.7
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	16.4	.4	37.5	40.3	.0	1.2	.1	4.0
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	11.7	.4	23.2	61.5	.9	1.7		.5
	Senqu	10.8	.8	37.5	38.9	5.5	3.7	.2	2.6
	Maletswai	43.2	1.7	41.5	8.8	2.4	.2	.1	2.1
	Gariep	35.9	.9	36.1	18.6	4.8	.3		3.4
All	All Eastern Cape	33.0	.7	27.3	35.9	.5	.7	.0	1.8

Table A22.1. Sources of lighting energy in the household, 2007

		Energy used for lighting					
		Electricity	Gas	Paraffin	Candles	Solar	Other
Sex of Head	Male	68.4	.2	16.1	14.5	.2	.7
	Female	63.1	.2	16.3	19.6	.2	.6
District	Alfred Nzo	38.7	.5	12.4	46.5	.9	.9
	Amathole	67.2	.3	28.0	4.0	.1	.5
	Cacadu	84.8	.2	9.4	4.6	.2	.8
	Chris Hani	63.7	.1	20.4	15.1	.1	.6
	Nelson Mandela	89.9	.1	8.9	.8	.0	.3
	O.R. Tambo	51.2	.2	8.2	39.0	.4	1.0
	Ukhahlamba	59.2	.2	15.8	24.3	.1	.4
Pop group	African	60.9	.2	18.4	19.5	.2	.7
	Coloured	90.5	.1	5.1	3.8	.1	.5
	Indian	94.0		2.2	3.8		
	White	98.6	.1	.5	.1	.2	.5
All	All Eastern Cape	65.8	.2	16.2	17.0	.2	.6

Table A22.2. Sources of lighting energy in local municipalities, 2007

		Energy used for lighting					
		Elec-tricity	Gas	Paraffin	Candles	Solar	Other
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	37.9	.6	15.4	44.2	1.4	.4
	Umzimvubu	39.6	.4	8.6	49.5	.3	1.5
Amathole	Mbhashe	40.7	.3	41.4	16.8	.2	.6
	Mnquma	51.7	.2	43.4	4.0		.7
	Great Kei	77.4		19.9	2.7		
	Amahlathi	67.2	.2	27.1	5.2	.1	.2
	Buffalo City	74.2	.3	23.9	1.0	.0	.5
	Ngqushwa	90.5	.1	7.9	.1	.3	1.1
	Nkonkobe	79.4		17.8	2.6		.2
	Nxuba	87.6		5.2	6.7		.5
Cacadu	Camdeboo	98.0		.9	.7		.3
	Blue Crane Route	78.4	.1	9.0	11.1	.9	.5
	Ikwezi	84.3	.6	6.7	7.8		.5
	Makana	87.6		10.1	1.6	.1	.7
	Ndlambe	85.4	.2	13.4	.7		.3
	Sunday's River Valley	85.3		11.4	2.6		.7
	Baviaans	84.3		4.2	10.0	.9	.6
	Kouga	88.1	.3	8.4	1.6	.3	1.3
	Kou-Kamma	71.6	.4	10.0	16.8		1.2
	Cacadu	55.0	.3	33.7	10.2	.7	.2
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	94.3	.3	1.5	3.7		.2
	Tsolwana	87.0		6.5	6.4	.1	
	Inkwanca	86.5		1.9	11.2		.4
	Lukanji	86.3	.2	9.3	4.2		.0
	Intsika Yethu	43.6	.1	37.3	18.0	.5	.6
	Emalahleni	59.1	.2	28.7	11.7		.3
	Engcobo	36.6	.1	25.1	36.9		1.3
	Sakhisizwe	64.6	.0	12.3	21.0		2.1
N. Mandela	Nelson Mandela	89.9	.1	8.9	.8	.0	.3
O.R. Tambo	Mbizana	34.0	.2	3.1	60.7	.6	1.4
	Ntabankulu	19.4	.2	5.0	71.6	1.0	2.8
	Qaukeni	51.5	.7	6.7	39.5	.4	1.2
	Port St Johns	48.3	.1	5.5	45.6		.5
	Nyandeni	63.3	.2	7.9	27.9	.1	.6
	Mhlontlo	37.9	.0	9.1	51.0	.8	1.1
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	70.1	.0	13.1	16.1	.1	.6
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	28.8	.2	24.1	46.0	.2	.7
	Senqu	78.4	.2	9.7	11.8		
	Maletswai	73.0	.3	17.3	8.5	.3	.6
	Gariep	91.1	.4	2.5	5.6		.5
All	All Eastern Cape	65.8	.2	16.2	17.0	.2	.6

Table A23.1. Percent distribution according to ownership of fridge and radio, 2007

		Household owns a refrigerator		Household owns a radio	
		Yes	No	Yes	No
Sex of Head	Male	47.5	52.5	71.3	28.7
	Female	42.1	57.9	64.5	35.5
District	Alfred Nzo	28.0	72.0	68.4	31.6
	Amathole	47.0	53.0	68.5	31.5
	Cacadu	66.8	33.2	78.3	21.7
	Chris Hani	40.4	59.6	64.9	35.1
	Nelson Mandela	73.1	26.9	78.8	21.2
	O.R. Tambo	23.8	76.2	57.7	42.3
	Ukhahlamba	37.1	62.9	67.5	32.5
Pop group	African	37.8	62.2	65.2	34.8
	Coloured	74.8	25.2	75.4	24.6
	Indian	89.8	10.2	81.4	18.6
	White	98.6	1.4	93.5	6.5
All	All Eastern Cape	44.8	55.2	67.9	32.1

Table A23.2. Ownership of fridge and radio, 2007

		Household owns a refrigerator		Household owns a radio	
		Yes	No	Yes	No
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	26.4	73.6	71.2	28.8
	Umzimvubu	30.0	70.0	64.8	35.2
Amathole	Mbhashe	16.5	83.5	54.9	45.1
	Mnquma	31.8	68.2	66.2	33.8
	Great Kei	44.6	55.4	67.8	32.2
	Amahlathi	46.2	53.8	74.1	25.9
	Buffalo City	59.3	40.7	71.8	28.2
	Ngqushwa	54.8	45.2	69.1	30.9
	Nkonkobe	48.8	51.2	69.9	30.1
	Nxuba	61.6	38.4	76.6	23.4
Cacadu	Camdeboo	79.9	20.1	85.7	14.3
	Blue Crane Route	64.1	35.9	78.5	21.5
	Ikwezi	62.1	37.9	74.0	26.0
	Makana	75.1	24.9	83.8	16.2
	Ndlambe	62.2	37.8	77.8	22.2
	Sunday's River Valley	62.7	37.3	74.3	25.7
	Baviaans	65.1	34.9	71.6	28.4
	Kouga	72.9	27.1	81.2	18.8
	Kou-Kamma	47.0	53.0	65.1	34.9
	Cacadu	46.9	53.1	76.3	23.7
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	73.9	26.1	81.6	18.4
	Tsolwana	56.2	43.8	69.9	30.1
	Inkwanca	54.5	45.5	76.4	23.6
	Lukanji	59.8	40.2	71.3	28.7
	Intsika Yethu	22.1	77.9	55.8	44.2
	Emalahleni	35.3	64.7	65.5	34.5
	Engcobo	19.0	81.0	53.0	47.0
	Sakhisizwe	39.7	60.3	72.9	27.1
Nelson Mandela	Nelson Mandela	73.1	26.9	78.8	21.2
O.R. Tambo	Mbizana	16.6	83.4	59.4	40.6
	Ntabankulu	13.3	86.7	53.5	46.5
	Qaukeni	16.6	83.4	59.4	40.6
	Port St Johns	16.9	83.1	52.1	47.9
	Nyandeni	26.0	74.0	57.6	42.4
	Mhlontlo	20.4	79.6	51.3	48.7
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	37.2	62.8	62.5	37.5
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	16.6	83.4	65.5	34.5
	Senqu	45.8	54.2	64.3	35.7
	Maletswai	58.6	41.4	77.0	23.0
	Gariep	57.2	42.8	75.3	24.7
All	All Eastern Cape	44.8	55.2	67.9	32.1

Table A24.1.Ownership of fridge and radio, 2007

		Household owns a computer		Household owns a television	
		Yes	No	Yes	No
Sex of Head	Male	11.1	88.9	54.9	45.1
	Female	4.2	95.8	47.6	52.4
District	Alfred Nzo	1.7	98.3	31.8	68.2
	Amathole	6.8	93.2	54.1	45.9
	Cacadu	15.1	84.9	72.5	27.5
	Chris Hani	3.1	96.9	45.7	54.3
	Nelson Mandela	20.4	79.6	79.8	20.2
	O.R. Tambo	1.6	98.4	32.1	67.9
	Ukhahlamba	5.2	94.8	37.5	62.5
Pop group	African	2.6	97.4	45.0	55.0
	Coloured	16.1	83.9	79.7	20.3
	Indian	48.0	52.0	86.8	13.2
	White	59.5	40.5	97.0	3.0
All	All Eastern Cape	7.7	92.3	51.2	48.8

Table A24.2. Ownership of fridge and radio in local municipalities, 2007

		Household owns a computer		Household owns a television	
		Yes	No	Yes	No
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	1.6	98.4	32.0	68.0
	Umzimvubu	1.9	98.1	31.6	68.4
Amathole	Mbhashe	.7	99.3	20.6	79.4
	Mnquma	1.8	98.2	40.1	59.9
	Great Kei	6.7	93.3	55.0	45.0
	Amahlathi	3.2	96.8	54.3	45.7
	Buffalo City	12.3	87.7	66.1	33.9
	Ngqushwa	1.0	99.0	64.1	35.9
	Nkonkobe	1.1	98.9	57.6	42.4
	Nxuba	7.0	93.0	67.7	32.3
Cacadu	Camdeboo	12.3	87.7	82.0	18.0
	Blue Crane Route	12.3	87.7	68.2	31.8
	Ikwezi	7.0	93.0	68.9	31.1
	Makana	16.0	84.0	79.5	20.5
	Ndlambe	20.5	79.5	74.3	25.7
	Sunday's River Valley	8.0	92.0	66.1	33.9
	Baviaans	8.1	91.9	68.2	31.8
	Kouga	24.2	75.8	78.6	21.4
	Kou-Kamma	4.7	95.3	52.5	47.5
	Cacadu	14.4	85.6	56.2	43.8
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	14.3	85.7	78.3	21.7
	Tsolwana	5.9	94.1	62.6	37.4
	Inkwanca	6.1	93.9	61.1	38.9
	Lukanji	4.8	95.2	64.1	35.9
	Intsika Yethu	.9	99.1	27.4	72.6
	Emalahleni	1.2	98.8	41.6	58.4
	Engcobo	.5	99.5	23.8	76.2
	Sakhisizwe	1.7	98.3	48.0	52.0
N.Mandela	Nelson Mandela	20.4	79.6	79.8	20.2
O.R. Tambo	Mbizana	1.0	99.0	30.7	69.3
	Ntabankulu	.6	99.4	20.1	79.9
	Qaukeni	.8	99.2	29.8	70.2
	Port St Johns	.7	99.3	18.8	81.2
	Nyandeni	.9	99.1	31.9	68.1
	Mhlontlo	.6	99.4	22.4	77.6
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	4.0	96.0	47.3	52.7
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	3.2	96.8	21.1	78.9
	Senqu	3.2	96.8	37.8	62.2
	Maletswai	13.8	86.2	62.5	37.5
	Gariep	9.2	90.8	70.7	29.3
All	All Eastern Cape	7.7	92.3	51.2	48.8

Table A25.1. Ownership of land telephone and cellphone, 2007

		Household has a telephone			Household has a cell phone		
		Yes	No	Unspecified	Yes	No	Unspecified
Sex of Head	Male	13.8	85.9	.3	62.6	36.5	.9
	Female	7.7	91.7	.5	60.1	39.2	.8
District	Alfred Nzo	1.3	98.3	.4	57.9	41.5	.6
	Amathole	9.1	90.5	.4	63.7	35.6	.7
	Cacadu	23.6	76.1	.3	56.6	42.5	.9
	Chris Hani	6.4	93.3	.4	58.7	40.6	.7
	Nelson Mandela	29.2	70.1	.6	64.9	34.2	.8
	O.R. Tambo	1.6	97.9	.6	60.0	38.9	1.0
	Ukhahlamba	5.3	94.3	.3	58.7	40.0	1.3
Pop group	African	4.6	94.9	.4	59.6	39.6	.8
	Coloured	29.0	70.4	.6	59.5	39.3	1.2
	Indian	64.9	35.1		81.3	18.3	.4
	White	65.7	34.0	.4	83.9	15.7	.4
All	All Eastern Cape	10.8	88.8	.4	61.3	37.8	.8

Table A25.2. Ownership of land telephone and cellphone, 2007

		Household has a telephone			Household has a cell phone		
		Yes	No	Unspeci-fied	Yes	No	Unspe-cified
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	1.8	97.8	.4	54.9	44.6	.6
	Umzimvubu	.6	99.0	.4	61.7	37.6	.7
Amathole	Mbhashe	1.0	99.0	.0	53.2	46.5	.4
	Mnquma	1.5	98.5	.1	64.3	35.5	.2
	Great Kei	9.8	90.2		52.2	47.5	.3
	Amahlathi	6.9	93.0	.1	63.3	36.5	.2
	Buffalo City	15.3	84.1	.6	69.9	29.1	1.0
	Ngqushwa	3.5	96.0	.5	52.2	46.3	1.5
	Nkonkobe	5.2	94.8	.0	55.3	44.6	.1
	Nxuba	19.7	79.8	.5	54.6	44.7	.7
Cacadu	Camdeboo	28.7	71.3		59.3	39.4	1.3
	Blue Crane Route	27.0	73.0		57.8	42.2	
	Ikwezi	19.5	79.8	.7	44.9	54.4	.7
	Makana	17.3	82.1	.6	54.0	44.7	1.3
	Ndlambe	27.6	72.4		55.8	44.2	
	Sunday's River Valley	15.8	83.9	.3	50.9	48.2	.9
	Baviaans	24.5	74.8	.8	51.1	48.5	.4
	Kouga	31.1	68.7	.2	67.9	31.0	1.2
	Kou-Kamma	15.9	83.6	.5	47.7	51.3	1.0
	Cacadu	20.2	79.8		55.0	43.7	1.2
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	23.3	76.7		62.5	37.3	.2
	Tsolwana	9.2	90.2	.6	49.9	49.5	.5
	Inkwanca	15.4	83.7	.9	50.2	49.8	
	Lukanji	10.9	88.9	.2	64.2	34.8	.9
	Intsika Yethu	.9	98.7	.4	59.7	39.6	.7
	Emalahleni	4.1	95.4	.4	56.0	42.9	1.1
	Engcobo	.7	98.9	.4	49.6	50.3	.1
	Sakhisizwe	4.5	95.1	.4	65.6	33.5	.8
N. Mandela	Nelson Mandela	29.2	70.1	.6	64.9	34.2	.8
O.R. Tambo	Mbizana	.6	98.1	1.3	59.6	39.4	1.0
	Ntabankulu	.5	99.3	.3	50.4	48.4	1.2
	Qaukeni	1.2	98.8		54.5	44.9	.6
	Port St Johns	.5	99.2	.3	55.8	43.9	.4
	Nyandeni	1.0	98.0	1.0	61.0	37.0	2.0
	Mhlontlo	.9	98.8	.3	57.3	41.6	1.1
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	3.8	95.8	.4	68.3	30.9	.8
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	3.1	96.8	.1	57.2	41.8	1.0
	Senqu	2.3	97.1	.6	59.9	38.9	1.3
	Maletswai	13.9	85.7	.4	66.8	31.4	1.9
	Gariep	14.9	84.8	.2	46.7	51.6	1.7
All	All Eastern Cape	10.8	88.8	.4	61.3	37.8	.8

Table A26.1. Ownership of internet and postal facility, 2007

		Household has internet facilities			Post facilities		
		Yes	No	Unspecified	Yes	No	Unspecified
Sex of Head	Male	5.0	94.5	.5	18.4	80.9	.7
	Female	1.5	97.9	.6	12.6	86.8	.6
District	Alfred Nzo	.4	99.1	.5	5.2	94.2	.5
	Amathole	3.2	96.4	.4	19.4	80.0	.6
	Cacadu	8.7	90.7	.6	27.6	71.7	.7
	Chris Hani	1.1	98.8	.1	10.9	88.9	.2
	Nelson Mandela	7.8	91.3	.9	27.3	71.8	.9
	O.R. Tambo	.9	98.4	.7	5.7	93.4	.9
	Ukhahlamba	1.3	98.2	.5	7.9	91.6	.5
Pop group	African	.8	98.7	.5	10.7	88.7	.7
	Coloured	3.4	95.1	1.5	28.5	70.6	.9
	Indian	20.4	77.0	2.6	49.5	48.0	2.5
	White	32.2	67.3	.5	60.1	39.4	.5
All	All Eastern Cape	3.3	96.2	.6	15.5	83.8	.7

Table A26.2. Ownership of internet and postal facility in local municipalities, 2007

		Household has internet facilities			Post facilities		
		Yes	No	Unspeci-fied	Yes	No	Unspeci-fied
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	.5	98.8	.7	5.8	93.7	.5
	Umzimvubu	.3	99.4	.3	4.5	94.9	.5
Amathole	Mbhashe	.4	99.6		2.6	97.2	.2
	Mnquma	.6	99.2	.2	5.8	93.9	.3
	Great Kei	5.1	94.7	.2	31.3	68.4	.3
	Amahlathi	1.1	98.7	.2	9.4	90.5	.1
	Buffalo City	5.8	93.5	.7	31.0	68.2	.8
	Ngqushwa		99.2	.8	12.9	85.3	1.8
	Nkonkobe	.5	99.5		12.8	86.9	.3
	Nxuba	4.6	94.9	.5	36.8	62.5	.7
Cacadu	Camdeboo	6.5	91.7	1.8	29.7	68.6	1.8
	Blue Crane Route	4.0	95.8	.2	21.9	77.9	.2
	Ikwezi	3.0	95.9	1.1	7.7	91.6	.7
	Makana	7.7	92.1	.2	22.5	76.9	.6
	Ndlambe	15.8	83.8	.5	28.5	71.5	
	Sunday's River Valley	5.1	94.4	.4	30.3	67.9	1.9
	Baviaans	3.6	95.6	.8	52.2	47.0	.8
	Kouga	14.2	85.2	.6	33.1	66.6	.4
	Kou-Kamma	2.5	96.8	.7	21.5	78.1	.5
	Cacadu	8.7	91.3		25.2	72.5	2.3
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	5.3	94.4	.2	31.5	68.3	.2
	Tsolwana	2.2	97.8		8.4	91.6	
	Inkwanca	1.3	98.3	.4	16.1	83.9	
	Lukanji	1.8	98.2		21.0	78.8	.2
	Intsika Yethu	.1	99.6	.2	5.2	94.5	.2
	Emalahleni	.8	99.2		3.9	95.6	.5
	Engcobo		99.9	.1	1.4	98.4	.2
	Sakhisizwe	.2	99.0	.8	7.8	92.1	.2
N. Mandela	Nelson Mandela	7.8	91.3	.9	27.3	71.8	.9
O.R. Tambo	Mbizana	.2	98.7	1.0	2.9	95.6	1.5
	Ntabankulu		99.5	.5	2.9	96.6	.5
	Qaukeni	.4	99.6		3.4	96.2	.5
	Port St Johns	.2	99.3	.5	2.2	97.7	.1
	Nyandeni	1.2	97.7	1.2	2.3	96.4	1.4
	Mhlontlo	.3	99.4	.3	2.2	96.9	.9
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	2.1	96.9	1.0	14.5	84.7	.9
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	.7	99.2	.2	3.6	96.0	.3
	Senqu	.5	98.7	.9	7.5	91.9	.6
	Maletswai	3.6	95.9	.6	14.1	85.1	.8
	Gariep	4.5	95.0	.5	19.3	80.0	.7
All	All Eastern Cape	3.3	96.2	.6	15.5	83.8	.7

Table A27.1. Percent distribution of households according to refusal disposal facility, 2007

		Refuse disposal				
		By local authority	Communal dump	Own dump	No disposal facility	Other
Sex of Head	Male	45.6	1.6	39.9	12.5	.5
	Female	34.9	1.2	48.2	15.2	.5
District	Alfred Nzo	9.0	.2	83.1	7.7	.0
	Amathole	41.3	1.0	47.3	10.2	.2
	Cacadu	85.3	1.6	9.6	3.0	.5
	Chris Hani	28.9	1.0	47.6	21.9	.6
	Nelson Mandela	87.9	3.3	3.6	4.9	.4
	O.R. Tambo	9.1	1.0	64.0	24.9	1.0
	Ukhahlamba	26.7	.8	55.6	16.7	.2
Pop group	African	32.2	1.3	50.2	15.8	.5
	Coloured	88.4	.8	7.2	3.1	.5
	Indian	83.5	3.7	10.4	1.9	.5
	White	88.2	3.2	6.8	1.3	.5
All	All Eastern Cape	40.3	1.4	44.0	13.8	.5

Table A27.2. Household refusal disposal facility, 2007

		Refuse disposal				
		By local authority	Communal dump	Own dump	No disposal facility	Other
Alfred Nzo	Matatiele	11.4	.2	82.6	5.8	.0
	Umzimvubu	6.0	.2	83.8	10.1	
Amathole	Mbhashe	5.8	.5	60.1	33.3	.2
	Mnquma	10.3	1.7	74.8	13.1	.1
	Great Kei	40.6		56.7	2.7	
	Amahlathi	17.5	.4	68.5	13.4	.2
	Buffalo City	71.9	1.0	23.2	3.8	.1
	Ngqushwa	6.5	.6	85.2	6.9	.9
	Nkonkobe	19.3	1.1	71.8	7.8	
	Nxuba	76.1	2.7	20.3	.9	
Cacadu	Camdeboo	94.6	.2	3.2	1.5	.5
	Blue Crane Route	80.8	1.8	14.6	2.8	
	Ikwezi	85.8	.2	13.7	.3	
	Makana	95.1	.7	3.8	.5	
	Ndlambe	93.6	.1	4.8	1.0	.6
	Sunday's River Valley	77.9	.7	14.5	6.5	.3
	Baviaans	78.3		11.7	9.0	1.1
	Kouga	88.6	4.9	4.6	1.5	.3
	Kou-Kamma	63.7	1.0	24.8	8.6	2.0
	Cacadu	39.9	1.3	44.8	12.0	2.0
Chris Hani	Inxuba Yethemba	86.5	.1	12.8	.6	
	Tsolwana	21.9	2.8	44.5	30.7	
	Inkwanca	84.3	.3	11.8	2.9	.7
	Lukanji	60.2	1.8	30.8	5.6	1.5
	Intsika Yethu	1.7	.3	64.0	33.7	.3
	Emalahleni	8.6	2.1	51.8	37.1	.4
	Engcobo	6.7	.3	68.7	24.0	.3
	Sakhisizwe	22.3		46.7	31.0	
N. Mandela	Nelson Mandela	87.9	3.3	3.6	4.9	.4
O.R. Tambo	Mbizana	1.8	.2	70.3	27.4	.2
	Ntabankulu	1.2	.8	75.1	21.9	1.0
	Qaukeni	4.7	.7	60.5	33.8	.3
	Port St Johns	2.2	.7	72.9	23.4	.8
	Nyandeni	1.9	.7	62.7	34.5	.3
	Mhlontlo	5.6	3.3	72.5	17.0	1.7
	King Sabata Dalindyebo	26.3	.7	52.6	18.5	2.0
Ukhahlamba	Elundini	10.7	.6	71.0	17.7	
	Senqu	11.1		65.8	22.8	.4
	Maletswai	81.1	.8	11.0	7.1	
	Gariep	79.4	5.7	13.3	1.2	.4
All	All Eastern Cape	40.3	1.4	44.0	13.8	.5

Table A28.1 Percent distribution of household income by population group, 2007

	Pop group				All
	African	Coloured	Indian	White	Eastern Cape
No income	12.9	7.4	9.5	5.4	12.1
R1-R4 800	8.5	3.5	1.7	.3	7.6
R4 801-R9 600	13.3	7.1	2.4	.8	12.1
R9 601-R19 200	27.8	19.0	11.6	5.6	25.8
R19 201-R38 400	22.4	23.1	14.6	7.7	21.5
R38 401-R76 800	8.1	17.2	5.4	14.5	9.1
R76 801-R153 600	4.4	13.1	21.9	22.1	6.1
R153 601-R307 200	1.6	6.5	18.1	25.3	3.4
R307 201-R614 400	.6	2.3	13.4	12.9	1.5
R614 401-R1 228 800	.2	.5	1.5	3.2	.4
R1 228 801-R2 457 600	.2	.2		.9	.2
R2 457 601 or more	.1	.1		1.3	.2
	100	100	100	100	100

Table A28.2 Percent distribution of household income by district, 2007

	Alfred Nzo	Ama-thole	Cacadu	Chris Hani	Nelson Mandela	O.R. Tambo	Ukhahl amba	All Eastern Cape
No income	16.2	12.3	9.4	9.6	12.2	11.8	15.3	12.1
R1-R4 800	10.7	8.2	3.6	8.3	5.2	8.3	8.5	7.6
R4 801-R9 600	15.5	10.9	7.5	13.2	7.1	16.4	13.8	12.1
R9 601-R19 200	26.0	26.6	24.8	30.1	20.1	26.4	29.1	25.8
R19 201-R38 400	19.6	21.4	22.7	25.4	18.2	22.7	18.5	21.5
R38 401-R76 800	6.3	9.3	13.5	6.8	12.8	7.3	7.8	9.1
R76 801-R153 600	4.0	6.2	9.4	3.5	10.7	4.2	3.8	6.1
R153 601-R307 200	.9	3.0	6.4	2.0	7.8	1.6	2.4	3.4
R307 201-R614 400	.3	1.4	1.7	.6	4.3	.7	.3	1.5
R614 401-R1 228 800	.0	.4	.5	.2	.9	.2	.3	.4
R1 228 801-R2 457 600	.3	.2	.2	.1	.2	.2	.2	.2
R2 457 601 or more	.1	.2	.3	.1	.3	.1	.0	.2
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table A28.3. Household income by sex of household head, 2007

	Sex of Head		All
	Male	Female	Eastern Cape
No income	14.7	9.5	12.1
R1-R4 800	6.6	8.7	7.6
R4 801-R9 600	9.9	14.3	12.1
R9 601-R19 200	20.9	30.7	25.8
R19 201-R38 400	21.7	21.3	21.5
R38 401-R76 800	10.3	7.9	9.1
R76 801-R153 600	7.3	4.9	6.1
R153 601-R307 200	5.3	1.5	3.4
R307 201-R614 400	2.3	.7	1.5
R614 401-R1 228 800	.6	.2	.4
R1 228 801-R2 457 600	.3	.2	.2
R2 457 601 or more	.2	.1	.2
	100	100	100

Table A28.4. Distribution of household income in local municipalities, 2007

	No income	R1-R4 800	R4 801-R9 600	R9 601-R19 200	R19 201-R38 400	R38 401-R76 800	R76 801-R153 600	R153 601+
Umzimvubu	15.9	10.3	12.8	26.3	20.2	8.3	4.5	1.8
Mbhashe	2.0	12.8	14.6	33.7	26.2	6.2	3.6	1.0
Mnquma	7.9	11.3	15.1	27.8	22.3	8.2	4.9	2.4
Great Kei	14.1	4.1	6.8	28.8	32.5	7.6	2.2	3.9
Amahlathi	13.9	6.3	8.9	29.4	24.5	9.0	4.9	3.1
Buffalo City	15.0	6.2	9.4	22.3	18.1	11.4	8.5	9.1
Ngqushwa	17.9	7.8	9.4	32.5	19.1	6.3	4.8	2.2
Nkonkobe	19.2	8.3	7.3	27.7	24.3	8.0	4.7	.6
Nxuba	13.7	7.4	12.0	27.9	22.8	9.3	5.6	1.4
Camdeboo	6.5	1.5	6.0	24.4	31.0	17.4	8.2	4.8
Blue Crane Route	9.7	3.0	10.3	25.4	23.6	12.6	9.9	5.6
Ikwezi	9.9	4.2	13.3	30.0	26.0	10.8	2.0	3.8
Makana	12.7	4.5	6.4	24.4	19.3	12.2	10.7	9.6
Ndlambe	8.9	3.0	7.3	30.4	19.1	9.1	9.4	12.8
Sunday's River Valley	10.7	2.6	9.4	23.2	28.0	16.4	3.9	5.7
Baviaans	5.1	5.7	8.0	24.0	33.0	14.7	6.8	2.7
Kouga	9.6	4.6	5.4	18.8	17.3	15.4	14.7	14.3
Kou-Kamma	5.1	3.2	9.0	27.3	29.9	15.2	4.8	5.7
Cacadu	6.1	1.6	7.9	35.8	19.8	10.1	9.5	9.1
Inxuba Yethemba	7.0	3.7	7.6	27.2	21.5	12.8	8.9	11.3
Tsolwana	7.4	10.1	12.4	30.4	23.9	7.2	4.5	4.0
Inkwanca	13.5	4.5	9.7	26.3	30.5	10.3	3.4	1.8
Lukanji	9.6	8.4	13.4	27.6	23.5	8.1	4.7	4.7
Intsika Yethu	12.5	8.6	13.0	32.6	25.9	5.2	1.3	1.1
Emalahleni	10.8	6.4	11.2	32.4	32.7	3.6	1.6	1.2
Engcobo	3.5	10.1	18.5	31.8	24.7	7.0	3.5	.9
Sakhisizwe	14.7	10.7	11.8	26.1	20.3	7.0	5.2	4.1
Nelson Mandela	12.2	5.2	7.1	20.1	18.2	12.8	10.7	13.6
Mbizana	13.2	8.3	20.8	27.5	17.9	6.0	3.4	2.9
Ntabankulu	12.3	8.7	17.5	25.6	23.1	8.2	2.8	1.8
Qaukeni	14.3	7.2	14.6	25.4	23.1	7.1	3.7	4.5
Port St Johns	10.9	10.5	17.7	27.8	20.8	7.0	4.0	1.5
Nyandeni	10.2	8.4	16.3	28.5	22.9	8.2	3.5	2.0
Mhlontlo	11.6	8.2	15.1	27.2	27.4	6.4	2.8	1.3
King Sabata	11.0	7.9	15.0	24.1	23.0	8.0	6.8	4.3
Dalindyebo								
Elundini	14.6	8.4	14.7	29.3	18.0	8.2	3.5	3.3
Senqu	17.9	9.9	15.0	31.7	16.2	5.2	2.6	1.4
Maletswai	13.3	5.8	12.0	20.4	21.6	11.6	7.3	7.9
Gariep	9.9	6.5	4.2	30.7	28.4	10.6	5.7	4.1
All Eastern Cape	12.1	7.6	12.1	25.8	21.5	9.1	6.1	5.7

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