# MEASUREMENT AND CHARACTERISTICS OF SINGLE MOTHERS IN SOUTH AFRICA:

#### ANALYSIS USING THE 2002 GENERAL HOUSEHOLD SURVEY

by

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Declaration of originality

This dissertation represents original work by the author and has not been submitted in any other form to another University. Where use has been made of the work of others this has been duly acknowledged and referenced in the text.

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#### **ABSTRACT**

A single mother is defined as a mother with one or more children, who is neither married nor living with a partner. The second demographic transition characterized by the decline of marital fertility and an increase in non-marital childbearing has led to increased numbers of single mothers in western countries (Heuveline, Timberlake and Furstenberg, 2003). A recent study of families living in greater Johannesburg and Soweto conducted by the centre for Reproductive health at Witwatersrand University reports an increase of single mothers in families of all racial groups in South Africa (Keeton, 2004). Single mothers are associated with higher levels of poverty and dependence on welfare (Fitzgerald and Ribar, 2004), which may affect the wellbeing of their children.

The study introduces two theories, modernization and rationale choice theory that could be used to explain the high incidence of single mothers in South Africa. The modernization theory predicts that the increase in out-of-wedlock births is a result of modernization and westernization. On the other hand, proponents of the rational choice theory argue that premarital pregnancies are a rational decision to prove fecundity and facilitate marriage. Some authors have found an association between the rational choice theory and dependence theory, according to which poor young women exchange sexual favours for gifts to obtain financial support outside marriage (Al-Azar, 1999). While both theories inform the study and contribute to the conceptual framework, the rational choice theory is argued to be the more appropriate to explain the increase in number of single mothers in South Africa.

The 2002 General Household Survey (GHS) is used to obtain the count of single mothers and a profile of their characteristics. Other surveys questionnaires have been inspected to find out whether it is possible to measure the number of single mothers in the country. The author found that, with the exception of the 1998 Demographic Household Survey (DHS), the 1996 census and one of the October household surveys (OHS), it is not possible to provide an accurate count of single mothers using South Africa's national surveys. Reasons for this limitation are provided in the paper.

This study focuses on women aged between 18 and 49 years. To obtain the count of single mothers, it was first established whether a woman was a mother of a child younger than 18 years who lives with her. The next step was to establish the marital status of the woman and to find out if she had a partner living with her. In this study it is important to distinguish between de jure and de facto single mothers. A de jure single mother living with her child(ren), is unmarried and does not have a partner. De jure single mothers are compared to other types of mothers including married mothers with father present (partnered mothers), married mothers with father absent (de facto single mothers), mothers with children older than 18 years or mothers not staying with their children (other mothers) and women who do not have children (childless women).

Using the 2002 GHS the paper provides the count and some key characteristics of single mothers, including social and economic characteristics of education level and employment status. These characteristics of single mothers and women are profiled at individual and household level. The results of the analysis show that the prevalence of single mothers in South Africa is high in relation to other sub-Saharan African countries. The study supports other research that there is no significant difference between marital and non-marital fertility because the proportion of de jure single mothers is almost similar to the proportion of married mothers with father present (partnered mothers). This study finds that single mothers occur in higher proportions among African/black and coloured populations and are on average younger than 25 years of age. Reasons suggested for the high incidence of single mothers include teenage pregnancy, poverty and unemployment. The groups most affected by poverty and unemployment are African/blacks and coloureds.

When comparing socio-economic characteristics of <u>de jure</u> single mothers and other types of mothers – for instance partnered, <u>de facto</u> single mothers and childless women – the study findings indicate that <u>de jure</u> single mothers are poorer than married mothers for most of the indicators. However, there is also a group of married mothers where the father is absent (<u>de facto</u> single mothers) who also show poor statistics compared to partnered mothers. Partnered mothers are better off in most all the indicators used in this study. A key limitation of this study is that it is cross sectional and therefore does not account for rapid changes in distribution and characteristics of mothers. This makes it somewhat difficult to establish whether models of the modernization or rational choice can explain the high incidence of single mothers.

The paper concludes with recommendations and a discussion on some of the important implications that the relatively high proportion of single mothers has for poverty levels of women in South Africa and the effect this might have on their children.

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#### 1.1 Introduction: Background to problem

The second demographic transition, manifest as the decline of marital fertility and an increase in non-marital childbearing, has led to increased numbers of single mothers in Western countries (Heuveline, Timberlake and Furstenberg, 2003). Africa has also experienced major demographic changes in terms of fertility and nuptiality patterns. Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) data shows that ages at first marriage and proportions of never-married women at any given age are increasing in many African countries (Garenne, Tollman and Kahn, 2000). Data collected from censuses and surveys for the past thirty years have also shown that in sub-Saharan Africa marriage rates have declined and the incidence of divorce and separation has increased (Zulu and Sibanda, 2005: 218-219). Marital fertility was much higher than non-marital fertility when marriage was still a custom in Africa (National Population Unit, 2000). Marriage is no longer a determinant of fertility in some African countries, for example in South Africa, and the difference between marital and non-marital fertility is small and insignificant (National population Unit, 2000). In South Africa, in 1996, the average total fertility rate (TFR) for Africans/blacks who were never married was 3.9 compared to 4.3 for those married (National Population Unit, 2000). The increase in non-marital births implies the increase in the number of single mothers. Single parent families, single mothers in particular, have become a significant family arrangement (Bumpass and Raley, 1995).

An increase in single parent families is of great concern as such families are associated with a number of adverse characteristics, for example, higher chance of poverty and reliance on welfare (Fitzgerald and Ribar, 2004). This increase in non-marital fertility is not only a western phenomenon as some African countries have also experienced an increase in proportion of women who give birth without marriage. In South Africa, in a study of family life in Cape Town in 1990, Burman found that over 50 percent of African (black) marriages (civil and customary) end in divorce (Mills, 2003). After separation the custody of almost two thirds of the children involved is awarded to the mother. Mothers bear the financial and emotional burden of caring for their children because of the high

maintenance default by their fathers (Mills, 2003). The University of Witwatersrand 'Birth to Twenty' study estimated that in 1990 about 55 percent of women and their children spent time in a single parent family arrangement in South Africa. The same study also suggested that single parenting is increasing as the marriage rate goes down in South Africa (Keeton, 2004). From 1995 to 2003, a significant increase in single parenting has been noted in all races between ages between 25 and 35 (Keeton, 2004). This increase in single parent households has an effect on the South African family formation. South African households and family arrangements are complex and undergoing considerable transformation (Malluccio, Duncan and Haddad, 2003). These dramatic changes have direct effects on the young children, as more are being raised in absence of one or both of their parents. It is estimated that more than half of all black children age six were not living with their father and 15 percent of them were not living with their mother (Malluccio et al, 2003).

From the research cited above it appears that the incidence of single mothers is increasing in South Africa possibly exposing more children to poverty. This trend has important implications for poverty reduction strategies and sustainable development in South Africa. To obtain a better understanding of the prevalence of single mothers in South Africa an immediate objective of this research project is to measure the incidence and characteristics of single mothers. It is expected that this research could help decision making over support mechanisms for single mothers with a goal to achieve long term wellbeing of children.

#### 1.2 Outline of dissertation

This study reviews literature on single mothers and the effect of single motherhood on child welfare. It also attempts to count the number of single mothers and their distribution by age, race and province in South Africa. It seeks to answer the following questions: (1) Can we obtain an accurate measure of single mothers in South Africa? (2) How many mothers in South Africa are single mothers? (3) How does the incidence of single mothers in South Africa compare with other African countries? (4) What are the

demographic, social and economic characteristics (such as education level and employment status) of single mothers? and (5) How do the households of single mothers compare to the households of other types of mother?

The dissertation is presented in six chapters. In Chapter One, the second demographic transition of western and African countries is described and the theories that explain the out-of-wedlock births that have resulted into the demographic transition are discussed. 'Single mother' is also defined. Literature on family structures in southern Africa and in the West is reviewed in Chapter Two. Positive and negative characteristics of being a single mother, with particular focus on the wellbeing of the child, are also described in Chapter Two. The methodology for the study is presented in Chapter Three. Analysis of personal characteristics of mothers is presented in Chapter Four. Characteristics measured include demographic indicators (e.g. age and race), spatial indicators (e.g. urban-rural location) and socio-economic indicators (e.g. education level and employment status). Analysis of household characteristics of different types of mother is presented in Chapter Five. Characteristics measured include housing indicators (e.g. ownership and type of dwelling) and access to services (e.g. water and electricity). A critical analysis of factors that explain single motherhood and concluding remarks are presented in Chapter Six.

#### 1.3 Theories to explain the causes of the second demographic transition

Single parent families have become a common phenomenon and it is very important to establish what causes these types of families to develop and persist. The reasons may differ from country to country but certain theories attempt to explain the origin and persistence of single parent families. Two theories stand out when discussing the increase in out-of-wedlock births, the modernisation and rational adaptation theories.

#### 1.3.1 Modernisation theory

Proponents of the modernisation theory argue that in sub-Saharan Africa the increase in out-of-wedlock births has been a product of modernisation and westernization (Shell-Duncan and Wimmer, 1999). The exposure of adolescents to western values has been argued to result in the erosion of traditional moral codes (Toroitich-Ruto, 1990). Rural-urban migration is one of many factors that have contributed in eroding traditional means of regulating sexuality and contraception. In rural areas, early sexual encounters are sometimes monitored by older teenagers, whereas in urban areas schoolmates encourage rather than caution sexual involvement (Preston-Whyte and Zondi, 1992:234). Urban bound migration is also associated with the breakdown of social control by weakening extended family networks that provided stability and support (Toroitich-Ruto, 1990). Globalization of communication is also blamed for disseminating mixed and confusing messages about male versus female sexuality portrayed in the mass media (Toroitich-Ruto, 1990).

Apart from westernisation, there are other social and economic explanations that are used to explain the increases in out-of-wedlock births. Premarital childbearing is considered as a modern phenomenon and it is likely to increase with socio-economic development (Meekers, 1994). The modernisation theory argues that out-of-wedlock childbearing will be prevalent "when females are in excess supply, when they have sufficient income to support a family on their own, and when the gains to marriage are small because male incomes are low" (Wills,1999). According to the theory two criteria have to be in place for out-of-wedlock birth to take place i.e. (1) high proportion of women in the population and (2) most of these women must have economic autonomy. If these two criteria are met out-of-wedlock child bearing would prevail. However, there are several questions that can be raised in terms of universal applicability of this theory taking into consideration the diversity in cultures in different societies and also the variation on how marriage is valued in those societies, particularly in Africa. Marriage in many African societies is still viewed as a source of 'community respect', 'social identity' and 'social security' and more often single women encounter social pressure to get married (Calves, 1999). It is

difficult to establish the exact origin of modernisation theory but the phenomenon of outof-wedlock births can be traced back to what took place in Europe in the eighteen
century. During this period significant proportions of women refused to get married but
were willing to have illegitimate children (Sabean, 1983). This was accompanied by an
increase in divorce, separation or demands for separation, which showed that women had
a better chance to make a living on their own rather than depending on men (Sabean,
1983). The underlying assumption of this theory is that out-of-wedlock child bearing is
linked to the economic development of a particular country. Economic growth result in
better economic opportunities for everyone, particularly women through increasing their
participation in the labour force, including the removal of barriers that inhibit their access
to education, land, capital and housing.

In South Africa, 38 percent of all women of working age were economically active in 1995 and the proportion increased to 51 percent in 2001 (Casale, 2004:1). Previous studies have also shown that the female labour force participation has been increasing in South Africa since the 1960's driven by the rise in unemployment among women (Casale, 2004:1). Despite the rising proportion of female participation in the labour force the level has not reached saturation point and it can't be said that a high proportion of women have economic autonomy. Therefore the modernisation theory is probably not useful for explaining the South African situation. Moreover, a large proportion of women are drawn into the labour force due to the increase in self employment in the informal sector, which has traditionally been associated with lower earnings and more insecure working conditions (Casale, 2004:1). This makes women in South Africa less likely to have economic autonomy.

In addition, one should take into account the contribution of men as women do not operate as purely autonomous and isolated individuals. Gonzalez (2004:10) argues that higher ratios of men to women, higher male earnings and better male employment opportunities will make marriage more attractive for women. These conditions will reduce the chances of women choosing to be an unmarried mother. A favourable marriage market may also increase the chances of remarriage (Gonzalez, 2004:10). This

is possible if female wages are lower and there is a high unemployment rate amongst women. In a study aimed at shedding light on the determinants of the prevalence of single mothers across countries Gonzalez (2004:31-32) found that higher female wages and lower female unemployment rates are significantly associated with higher prevalence of both never-married and divorced mothers, and at the same time lower male earnings and higher male unemployment rates are also significantly associated with higher prevalence of single mothers. Women who are economically autonomous are also more likely to be single mothers particularly if men are able to reproduce children without having to share responsibility of child rearing with their female partners (Wills, 1999). Men may prefer fathering children out-of-wedlock because child rearing would cost them little or nothing compared with fathering the children within a marriage (Wills, 1999).

Literature has supported the suggestion that higher female wages are positively associated with the high incidence of single mothers (Wills, 1999). Low male earnings are also associated with a high proportion of single mothers.

#### 1.3.2 Rational choice theory

The second explanation for the increasing non-marital fertility is "rational adaptation" where pregnancy is used as a rational strategy to prove fecundity and facilitate marriage (Shell-Duncan and Wimmer, 1999). This occurs in spite of evidence that birth out of marriage may reduce the chances of getting married. The University of Witwatersrand's research found that, in South Africa, almost 80 percent of women who were single during their pregnancy, remained unmarried ten years later (Keeton, 2004). Research has also shown that the proportion of young women who use contraception before giving birth is relatively low (Garenne et al, 2000). Contraceptive use increases after the birth of the first child, which may delay the birth of the second child resulting in longer birth intervals between the first and second child (Kaufman et al, 2001).

It is common practice in the African culture that girls have to prove their fertility before a man would want to marry them and more often than not premarital pregnancy doesn't result into marriage (Barker and Rich, 1992; Al-Azar, 1999). The 'rational adaptation' model also suggests that young women exchange sexual favours for gifts to obtain financial support outside marriage (Al-Azar, 1999). This may be one of the many reasons that may trigger early sexually initiation, which result in early childbearing. The consequences of early childbearing are far reaching to both the mother and the children as it is associated with social and health problems ranging from pregnancy complications, HIV/AIDS and dropping out of high school to rising number of households headed by single women (Geronimus and Korenman, 1992). Al-Azar (1999) found that the rational adaptation model is also consistent with dependency theory, under which the poor, particularly women engage in a rational strategy to cope with poverty and marginality. Children are sometimes considered as insurance old age (Preston-Whyte and Zondi, 1992:233). In South Africa, Africans, with the highest unemployment rates, tend to have a higher dependency due to the presence of large numbers of children aged 0-14 years; the dependency ratio is higher in female headed households than in male headed households (Amoateng et al, 2004). Women in such households, having proved their fecundity, are likely to want to facilitate marriage given the economic advantage of being in a partnership. Thus, the rational choice theory would seem to be the more plausible theory in the South Africa context. However, both theories could, in part, explain changes in the high incidence of single mothers in South Africa. Thus, while it is argued the rational choice theory is more relevant for the South African context, both theories inform the study and contribute to the conceptual framework. Aside from these socioeconomic theories, political factors may also effect family arrangements – the impact of South African apartheid policies on family structure cannot be disregarded.

#### 1.3.3. Economic development and the effect of apartheid policies on family structure

In a study of single mothers, Akintola, Dlamini, Malisha and Nqamane (2004) found that South Africa and Namibia have the highest proportion of children living with their mothers only (rather than both parents) compared to several other African countries. The modernization theory maintains that there is some evidence that links economic development to the increase of single mothers. If we adopt the narrow definition of

development by comparing the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of some sub-Saharan African countries, South Africa and Namibia had the highest GDP per capita in all the Africa countries south of the Sahara in 2002 with the exception of Botswana (Nattrass, 2002). One explanation for this high percentage of children living with mother only may be associated with advanced economic development in South Africa and Namibia relative to other African countries. Horner (2005: 10), a South African Sunday Times reporter stated that "when there's wealth, there's more independence, and one therefore stays together – or not out of choice, rather than necessity". He further affirmed that if wealth is more important than an intimate relationship, individuals are more likely to give up that relationship (Horner, 2005:10).

However, there are other explanations that are unique to each country, apart from economic development, which can be explored to explain the high incidence of single mothers in the two countries. There are also common features between the two countries as both countries have experienced the same apartheid policies, which had an impact on the family structures. In South Africa between 1960 and 1980 marriage rates dropped considerably and during this period government policies made African people in urban areas temporary 'sojourners' (Simkins and Dlamini, 1992:66). The apartheid policies affected the foundation of every society, that is the family, by splitting households, with the migrant worker (who is likely to be the male) working in the urban and industrial areas and the other family members remaining in less developed homelands (Malluccio et al. 2003:122). Swartz (nd) found that in South Africa, marriage rates in rural areas have been affected by the exodus of men from rural areas to seek employment in urban areas. Since traditional marriages are more of a process than an event it made the lengthy traditional marriage negotiations lengthier because of the absence of men from their homes (Simkins and Dlamini, 1992:66). The system of apartheid restricted women to rural areas as they were legally prevented from entering towns by the introduction of pass laws and if found in urban areas to see their husbands they were arrested (Baden, Hasim and Meintjes, 1998). The migration of men to urban areas resulted in the increasing number of female headed households in the disadvantaged rural areas (Baden, Hasim and Meinties, 1998). This separation of women from their partners made access to income

parental separation children may spend a brief period in single parent households as the father or mother start to cohabit. The exposure or transition to single parenthood is not the focus of this analysis but it is concerned with the status at birth of children born out-of-wedlock. Table 1.6.1 below shows the proportion of children born out-of-wedlock to single mothers, cohabiting parents and those born to married parents. Heuveline *et al* (2003) demonstrated that cohabiting unions are not stable and evidence from many countries that cohabiting parents are two to four times more likely to separate than married parents. However, there are exceptions for countries like Sweden that have relatively stable cohabiting families.

Table 1.4.1: Percentages of children (0-15) and their status at birth

Country	Single	Cohabiting	Married
Country	mother	parents	parents
Belgium	1.5	4.9	93.6
Italy	2.2	4.1	93.7
Switzerland	3.0	4.4	92.6
Spain	3.1	3.4	93.5
Finland	3.1	13.8	83.1
France	4.3	12.9	82.8
Hungary	4.4	21.3	74.3
Czech republic	5.4	7.8	86.8
Sweden	5.5	41.2	53.3
Slovenia	6.8	12.1	81.1
Canada	8.3	15.8	75.9
Latvia	8.8	7.8	83.4
Poland	9.7	2.4	87.9
New Zealand	12.6	18.4	69.0
Austria	13.6	17.1	69.3
Germany	15.2	10.7	74.1
United States	16.2	10.7	73.2

Source Heuveline et al (2003:56)

From Table 1.6.1, countries with lower non-marital births, for example Belgium (6.4 percent), Italy (6.3 percent), Switzerland (7.4 percent) and Spain (6.5 percent), tend to have high proportions of stable parental unions. On the other hand, countries with high

non-marital fertility like Germany (25.9 percent), Austria (30.7 percent), New Zealand (31 percent) and Sweden (46.7 percent), have lower proportions of married couples. The United States (16.2 percent), followed by Germany (15.2 percent) and Austria (13.6 percent) have the highest proportion of children born to single mothers than any of the other western countries. In the United States the proportion of families with children headed by single mothers have been increasing since the 1960's and some of the explanations given for the rise are the welfare incentives and the increase in economic opportunities for women (Gonzalez, 2004:1). This trend has been common in some western countries such as Britain and Denmark (Gonzalez, 2004:1).

It is also worth noting that in Sweden the chances of being born out-of-wedlock and in marriage are almost equal. Studies have revealed that in Swedish women marry in their late twenties and an increasing number are not marrying at all (Chandler, 1991:32). However, Sweden (41.2 percent) and New Zealand (18.4 percent) have the highest proportions of children born to cohabiting parents. This finding is despite evidence that children born from cohabiting parents are more likely to see their parents separate (Heuveline et al 2003). Studies have also showed that in Sweden during the mid-1960's the marriage rate has gone down by half, which has been associated with Sweden's tradition of living together prior to marriage and more relaxed attitudes towards premarital sexual relations (Chandler, 1991:32). Sweden, on the other hand, is unique since most children born to cohabiting parents never experience single parenting (Heuveline et al 2003). Wu's study in 1996, found that in-union birth of a child or children has positive effect on the stability of cohabitational relationship.

#### 1.4.2 African countries

Information on survival status of parents and children's under the age of 15's living arrangements has been obtained from various demographic and health surveys (DHS) data conducted in different African countries. The information in Table 1.6.2 demonstrates how many children are staying with their 'mothers only' in South Africa relative to other countries. It is not easy to say with certainty whether the mothers are

single or cohabiting. In South Africa children born out of wedlock or from dissolved marriages are more likely to stay with their mothers than their fathers (Zulu and Sibanda, 2005). Table 1.6.2 indicates that Nigeria (10.1%), Uganda (16.9%), Tanzania (17.3 %) and Zambia (17.8 %) have the lowest percentages of children staying with mother only and higher percentages are found in South Africa (34.4%), Namibia (27.3%) and Zimbabwe (26.3%). For South Africa and Namibia the proportions of children living with mother only are marginally higher than those of children living with both parents.

Table 1.4:2: Percentages of children living with mother only, both parents and neither parent

	Year	both parents	mother only	neither parents
Kenya	1998	57.9	20.0	9.8
Malawi	2000	60.3	20.9	15.5
Mozambique	1997	59.7	19.5	12.9
Tanzania <sup>1</sup>	1999	62.6	17.3	13.6
Uganda	2000/1	62.4	16.9	14.8
Zimbabwe	1999	45.5	26.3	19.5
Namibia	2000	26.4	27.3	33.1
Nigeria	1999	72.1	10.1	8.8
Zambia	2001/2	61.6	17.8	15.8
South Africa	1998	32.8	34.4	25.0

Source: various Demographic Housing Surveys 1997-2002

Nigeria (72.1 %) has the highest proportion of children living with both parents. Nigeria has a significant Muslim population for whom out-of-wedlock pregnancies are a taboo and pregnant adolescents are often forced to get married (Barker and Rich, 1992).

Namibia (33.1%) and South Africa (25%) have the highest proportion of children living with neither parent in all the African countries. There may be many explanations to these, including the effect of apartheid policies and subsequent move to democracy to these two countries. Another explanation could be the increasing of adult illnesses and mortality related to HIV/AIDS in families. These diseases affect the capacity of household

members to stay together and provide for each other because it disproportionately affects the economic active people (Zulu and Sibanda, 2005: 219).

#### 1.5 Definition of 'single mother'

A single mother is defined as a mother with one or more children who is neither married nor living together with her partner (Heuveline et al, 2003).

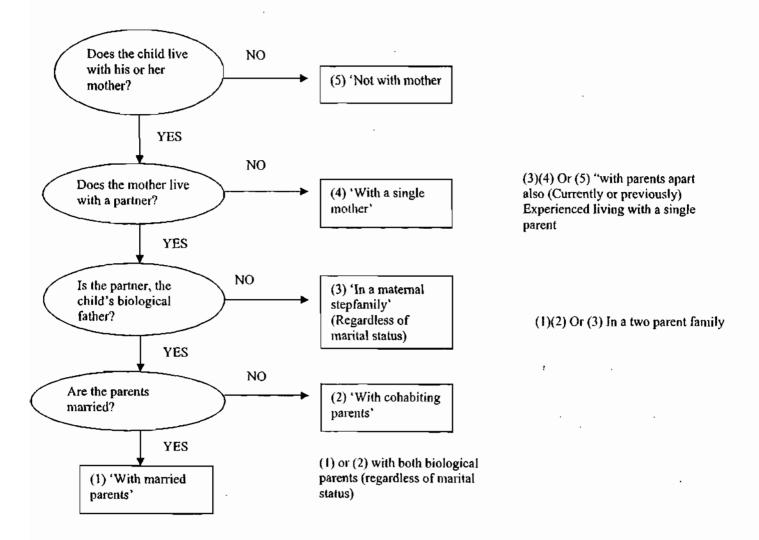


Figure 1.1: Definition of single mother using childhood living arrangements (Source: Heuveline et al 2003:51)

Figure 1.1 depicts five childhood living arrangements: not living with mother; living with single mother; living with stepfamily; cohabiting parents; and children living with both married parents (Heuveline et al, 2003). Since we are still to establish whether this standard definition of single mothers is relevant to the South African context, for now we imply that a single mother is a 'mother' who is 'not in partnership', which includes unmarried, divorced, and widowed mothers.

Marital status is often used to distinguish whether a women is single or not. It is problematic to classify women as a single mother using marital status because there is a group of women outside conventional marriage but with some domestic connection to men (Chandler, 1991:1). Examples include couples living together but who are not formally married; divorced and separated women continuing a relationship with an exhusband (Chandler, 1991: 19-20), and married women living alone because husbands are away for occupational reasons (Chandler, 1991:2-4). Gonzalez (2004) defines a single mother as a woman aged 18 to 60 who lives with her children under the age of 18 and without a partner, including the husband. Gonzalez's definition of a single mother is not defined by marital status because a woman might be living with a partner but not married. For this dissertation a woman living with a partner is not a single mother even if she is not married.

With the exception of married and single women, there are those women in cohabiting relationships. Cohabitation between a woman and a man is often regarded as a form of an unofficial marriage and the difference between cohabitation and marriage is culturally specific (Chandler, 1991:29). There is also difficulty in defining marriage in Africa, which emanates from the fact that in some societies in Africa a couple is considered married if they spend certain duration together and have a child together or when a payment of dowry (bridewealth) has been negotiated, even without the marriage ritual (WFS, 1987). For example, the bridal wealth in some societies in Kenya (Tarkana) can be paid over a long period of time (twenty or more years) and marriage is not considered complete until the bridal wealth has been paid in full (Shell-Duncan and Wimmer, 1999). It is therefore important to understand what 'marriage' means in the South African

context to be able to establish whether children are born within marriage (Shell-Duncan and Wimmer, 1999). It can be problematic to use marital status to determine single mother status because a woman may be married but be reported unmarried. At the same time the presence of a partner excludes the woman from being defined as a single mother.

Single mothers or single parents are also defined as parents with their dependent children and their living arrangement either living as a separate household or living in household of others e.g. grandparents (Ermisch, 1991:5). In a 'normal' household structure other adults are usually present, especially the grandmother, who is not the direct parent or more proximate relative of the child, which means such units are not 'single' parent households (Bumpass and Raley, 1995). Nevertheless one may still argue that the woman is still a single parent because there is no father present. This problem of definition makes living arrangements important when discussing the social and economic consequences of single parents as these multigenerational households may provide the cushion against economic emergencies for single parents (Bumpass and Raley, 1995). In South Africa, more than 85 percent of pensioners live in three-generation families, making old age pension an important source of support for the family (Amoateng et al, 2004). Despite this economic support received in multigenerational households, parenting between married and unmarried families differs in terms of allocation of resources and parental time to children (Bumpass and Raley, 1995).

#### 1.6 Measurement of single parent families

Reliability of measurement of single parent families is questionable because of changes in non-marital fertility and unmarried cohabitation (Bumpass and Raley, 1995). The incidence of single parent families increases when marriage is used as the criterion for determining single parenthood but declines when cohabitation is used (Bumpass and Raley, 1995). If cohabitation is ignored the two parent unmarried family may be classified incorrectly as a single parent family. Couples who are cohabiting should not be compared to single parents since they are two parent families. But it should be noted that cohabiting families are unstable and are more likely to disintegrate reversing to single

parents' family or another cohabitating family (Heuveline et al, 2003). Whatever the social and the economic consequences of being unmarried, children born to cohabiting parents are born in a two parent family compared to those born in single parent family and children of divorce may move into a stepfamily when their father or mother begins to cohabit (Bumpass and Raley, 1995). Formations of new unions by cohabitation before or after marriage gives children less time in single parent families than one would expect (Bumpass and Raley, 1995).

In summary this chapter has captured demographic changes in number of single mothers globally and in South Africa. Theories to explain the demographic transition has been presented. In the next Chapter a sociological perspective of single mothers is presented.

#### Chapter 2

#### 2.1 A comparison of Southern African and western family's structures

In this chapter the various family structures in South Africa are described. Families play a very supportive role as a main source of human capital development, and care for dependent and vulnerable individuals (Amoateng et al, 2004: viii). When families are able to take care of their members, the burden on the State is reduced in 'terms of long term costs incurred by social problems that may emanate from, or be associated with failure of families to perform their normative roles' (Amoateng et al, 2004:6). There are multiple family forms in the South African society, of which two family patterns predominate, namely the nuclear and extended family forms. These are broadly identifiable with whites and Africans respectively (Amoateng and Richter, 2003). Indians and coloureds show evidence of a mixture of the two family patterns (Amoateng and Richter, 2003).

In the 1970 South African population census, a family was defined to have one of the following structures: husband and wife; father, mother and children; father and children; and mother and children (Simkins, 1986:19). In the 1996 census households were classified into six categories; nuclear (couple and children only); single parent; extended-direct (nuclear plus relatives only); extended composed (with both related and unrelated people); unrelated members only and one person households (Zulu and Sibanda, 2005; 229). In practice the classification by type is not this simple and inappropriate interpretation of households structures could arise when simple categories are used (Simkins, 1986:19).

In Chapter One the effect of the second demographic transition was noted in South Africa, including that this transition would change the shape of family structures. Generally it appears that researchers think that the nuclear family structure is growing in proportion, although some researchers contest this view. The 1996 census indicates that the nuclear household was the most common in all racial groups combined but extended

households were more common than nuclear amongst African households (Zulu and Sibanda, 2005; 229). It has been argued that the urban South African household and family arrangements have been undergoing a transformation from an extended household or family structure to a more nuclear structure (Malluccio, et al, 2003; Russell, 2003; Seekings, 2003). However, in the 1996 census an increase in the prevalence of extended (direct) households was observed in all racial groups, except Africans (among whom a small decrease was noted mostly in rural areas) (Zulu and Sibanda, 2005; 231). Russell further stated that although there might be transformation, cultural differences should be taken into account because culture has influence in the relationships formed (Seekings, 2003). Siqwana-Ndulo in Amoateng and Richter (2003) argues that African families are not evolving with urbanisation in a 'linear' way but have adhered to cultural beliefs about family and kin relationships because they have continued live in extended families in the urban-industrial environment. We require clarity on change in family structure.

Underlying the change in family structures are two completely different, but persistence kinship idioms in South Africa. White and black South Africans are brought up under the conjugal and consanguinal system respectively (Russell, 2003). The conjugal system which had predominated in north-western Europe for more than 500 years is defined as a household that comprises the conjugal couple and their dependents or old age parents (Russell, 2003). The consanguinal system, which is subject of much debate, reflects a household or family that is characterised by members who are related by blood as opposed to relationship by marriage. In the consanguinal system, custom allows having children out-of-wedlock under certain circumstances, which include impregnating a woman on behalf of a brother if the brother was dead or sterile (Russell, 2003). In this type of kinship system a high value is placed on children, partly because proponents believe that children provide security at old age (Preston-Whyte and Zondi, 1992:233). For example, in a Swazi practice the father is allowed to buy (paying with cattle) children born out-of-wedlock leaving their mothers to marry elsewhere (Russell, 2003). When the mother gets married to another man who is not the child's father the bride-wealth is reduced (Kaufman et al, 2001:152). But this is not always the case when the child is with the mother. The amount needed to marry the mother is greater because of the child, more especially if the child is a girl (Kaufman et al, 2001:154). It is also common practice in some African societies that if a wife is incapable of bearing children the husband is allowed to marry the second wife with the idea of having children (Amoateng and Richter, 2003:258).

However, these examples should not be interpreted to mean that out-of-wedlock births are condoned in African society. If an unmarried woman becomes pregnant her parents become angry and chastise her severely but after giving birth the child is welcomed and loved (Preston-Whyte and Zondi, 1992:229). Sometimes boyfriends deny paternity and do not want to assume the financial and social obligations of parenthood (Kaufman *et al*, 2001:152). Lobola (dowry) may or may not be paid, but once paternity is established the family of a man responsible for pregnancy is expected to pay for damages in form of money, a goat or head of cattle or both to the girl's father or guardian (Preston-Whyte and Zondi, 1992:229; Kaufman *et al*, 2001:152). The young mother's family can also claim economic support for the child from the father's family because damages are meant to compensate the girl's family for the reduced bride-wealth (Kaufman *et al*, 2001:152).

The two kinship idioms in southern Africa are closely associated with two types of marriage that is western and traditional African marriages. The traditional African marriage is in principle polygamous, although polygyny is also common (Russell, 2003:23). When a woman marries she leaves her home of birth to go and live with her husband's family. The marriage is accompanied by the transfer of dowry (lobola) from the husband's family to the wife's family (Simkins, 1986:21). In the African setting, marriage is not a 'couple centred' institution but it links the two 'descent based' families (Russell, 2003:23). If ever polygyny is permitted the second wife stays in a separate house (Simkins, 1986:21). It has been argued that urbanisation modified this pattern by causing denser forms of settlement in many parts of the 'homelands' (Simkins, 1986:21). Thus polygyny has almost disappeared and the scarcity of houses has transformed simple two generation families into two and three generation families (Simkins, 1986:21). This formation of new family structure included a high incidence of out-of-wedlock births that resulted in large increase of female headed households of two or three generations

(Simkins, 1986:21). Simkins (1986:38) found that there are higher levels of female headed households among Africans than those of other races in both rural and urban areas. Simkins (1986) argued one of the primary reasons for such high levels was the influx control of the African population during the apartheid era.

The African and Western models have different implications for children. In southern Africa, children are often separated from their biological parents. Many children spend time with grandparents because it is likely to be where they were born or sometimes they are sent to childless relatives (Russell, 2003). Russell (2003) further states this separation of children from their biological parents affects their emotional relationship between them. However, the mothers of those children get the opportunity to look for work with the confidence that their children are in safe hands with their relatives. In the west, there is a tendency to rely on non kin to look after children (Russell, 2003).

#### 2.2 The changing role of women and the implication for single motherhood

In this section a brief review of literature on the following themes is presented: role of women in society and in South Africa; positive and negative perspectives on single motherhood; and what research tells us about the wellbeing of children of single mothers.

#### 2.2.1 Parenthood status of women in Third World Countries

In the Third World as the economy changes it is predicted that the gender stereotypes will also change as it happened in western nations. Moser (1993) has noted that as western countries underwent economic change the nature of work for males and women also changed. During the industrial revolution, 'as modern cash economy became increasingly divorced from subsistence economy women lost economic autonomy in their own right as farmers, craft workers and traders and as a result women became dependent on wages of men' (Moser, 1993). The role of women in Third World households has been stereotyped to be 'home-makers', 'reproductive workers' (child bearing and rearing) and also 'productive workers' (in rural areas this takes the form of agricultural work and in

urban areas informal sector enterprises) (Moser, 1993). The stereotype of men in Third World societies has been a 'breadwinner'. This gender division of labour differentiates the work men and women do (Moser, 1993). A comparative study of black and white South African family norms conducted by Russell (2002) found that 87 percent of rural blacks and 41 percent of whites agreed that an absent provider (working man) is better than a nurturer (unemployed man who spends time with his child). These results indicated that those respondents who preferred an absent provider elevated the role of a father as 'material provider' over his nurturing role (Russell, 2002).

These gender stereotypes are gradually changing. Giddens in Amoateng and Richter (2003) noted that globalisation forces are impacting on the family in many ways, as observed in the 'separation of sexuality from reproduction'. Giddens also observed there is an increasing participation of women in work outside of the home and in public life. Giddens noted that this will not apply equally in all parts of the world. Baden and Milward (1997) argue that there is also gender discrimination in labour markets, which limits the access of women to employment and lowers their earning capacity related to men, contributing to their vulnerability to poverty. In developing countries female unemployment and under employment is higher than that of men in developing countries. Females earn less than men on average in both developed and developing countries if variables such as hours worked, education and experience are controlled for.

#### 2.2.2 The effect of apartheid policies on the status of women

The legacy of apartheid had left a situation where you will find many black women employed in domestic services for white families (Sunde and Bozalek, 1995). Apartheid policies institutionalized gender inequality across all racial groups; African women were discriminated against through the setting of specific legislations to ensure their minor status (Baden, Hasim and Meintjes, 1998). African women and men had no political representation, yet white women won the vote in 1921 (Baden, Hasim and Meintjes, 1998). During the last 25 years of apartheid (1970-1995) unemployment worsened considerable in South Africa (Terreblanche, 2002). During the same period the number of

African workers employed in the formal sector decreased by 3.8 percent, while the proportion of non-African workers increased by 45 percent (Terreblanche, 2002). Female unemployment was higher than male unemployment across all racial groups, and unemployment among African women was estimated at 60 percent (Terreblanche, 2002). Before 1994 there was very little focus on emancipation of women within the South African liberation groups. It was assumed that focussing on women's emancipation would divide the struggle and that emancipation would follow automatically when liberation from racial oppression has been achieved (Baden, Hasim and Meintjes, 1998).

This overview of the position of women in Third world countries and South Africa is provided in order to give a perspective that includes the past as well as anticipates some new developments as far as women are concerned, particularly single mothers.

#### 2.2.3 Negative perspectives of single motherhood

Teenage pregnancy is often associated with single motherhood. Early teenage child bearing has many negative connotations and is a contentious area of debate. Teenage childbearing has been identified as one of the main causes and consequences of persistent and chronic poverty that is transmitted in most developing intergenerationally (Geronimus and Korenman, 1992). In most developing countries, having a child may end an education career for girls, sometimes also for boys (Kaufman et al, 2001). Studies have shown that that there is a positive association between parental education and a child's academic achievement (Amoateng et al, 2004). Children of early child bearers may be disadvantaged in comparison to children of women who delay childbearing because they are more likely to grow up in single parent households and more likely to be poor (Furstenberg, Brooks-Gunn and Morgan, 1990).

Female heads and single mothers are sometimes described synonymously as female head; a 'female head' need not be a single mother (London, 1998). The appropriate and precise association would be that unmarried female heads and female heads with no

cohabiting partner are likely to be single mothers. In South Africa, African female heads are also more likely than white female heads to be single mothers (Baden, Hasim and Meintjes, 1998). People tend to identify female-headed households with dependent children as disadvantaged household (Baden, Hasim and Meintjes, 1998). However, Kissman and Allen (1993) argue that the negative attitude by society towards mother-headed families stem from societal disapproval or lack of faith in women's ability to execute leadership. This pessimistic view of single mother-headed household associates children brought up in such families with crime and delinquency. Kissman and Allen, (1993) also argue that a majority of single-mother families are as successful as the two parent families when compared on measures of emotional adjustment and scholastic achievement.

On the other hand, evidence indicates that female headed households many of which are single mother households are associated with high level of female labour force participation, which has a negative impact on the child's welfare (Baden and Milward, 1997). However, there is a strong positive effect of mothers' earnings on children, in the absence of male authority, although it may occur above a critical minimum income level (Baden and Milward, 1997). It is worth noting that not all single mothers live in their own households; some of them live in households that are headed by another individual (a parent or other relative) (London, 1998). In South Africa, Preston-Whyte and Zondi (1992:231), in a study of African teenage pregnancies found that it is a common occurrence after giving birth that a young mother and her child live in her parents' household where the child is reared and cared for by the mothers' parents. This practice of allowing children to be reared by relatives is well established in sub-Saharan Africa and there is heavy reliance on family members, especially grandparents (Zulu and Sibanda, 2005). However, pregnancy and child birth for some girls means moving to the homes of their boyfriends, where they are supported by the in-laws (Kaufman et al. 2001:155).

Women are also more likely to return to parents when marriage breaks up and those who already have children are less likely to leave their parents home (Bumpass and Raley,

1995). If divorced and separated mothers do not return to live with their parents, they are less likely to be able to secure or keep decent accommodation after marriage dissolves and are normally housed in poor accommodation (Chandler, 1991:104). Because when marriage dissolves wives are more likely to be poor because men tend to exit marriage without the custody of minor children (Bianchi, Subaiya and Kahn, 1999). Even though men are required to pay maintenance this is lower value compared to what they would have provided to their wife and children had they remained married (Bianchi et al, 1999).

Single mothers also encounter social exclusion by society. In some African societies there is a stigma attached to those women who live alone. Gage (1998) found that in Kenya, unmarried mothers are considered an embarrassment and are alienated from their biological families and society and are sometimes labelled as 'harlots' particularly if they reside alone. Most of these women expressed feelings of shame, discomfort and fear (Gage, 1998). Unmarried mothers are also ostracised by society and their families in terms of economic support, although this is not universal practice in all societies. For example, among the Luhya in Kenya, single mothers are able to call for economic support and child rearing assistance from their parents and brothers.

Studies have provided evidence that women are more vulnerable to poverty because of the limited employment opportunities available to them and legislation in some countries prevent women from working in certain kinds of occupations (e.g. mining, occupations requiring shifts or night work) (Baden and Milward, 1997). Women may find themselves in situations where they are vulnerable to harassment and abuse because of their economic insecurity, and sometimes they are constrained to stay in these situations (Baden and Milward, 1997). Poor mothers rely on social institutions, for example state welfare, to accommodate their need to care for their children (Mills, 2003). The deliberate exclusion of African families from welfare service provision and the imposition of policies that supported development across racial lines exacerbated the poverty of single mothers in South Africa (Sunde and Bozalek, 1995). However, there is also a stigma attached of being a welfare recipient as you are regarded as someone who

has failed (Sunde and Bozalek, 1995). This may have a psychological effect on children in families that receive welfare.

#### 2.2.4 Positive perspectives of single motherhood

Despite strong evidence that supports the argument that early childbearing increases the risk of social and economic hardship for young mothers and their children there is not always consensus amongst scholars on this issue. For example, Furstenberg et al (1990: 8-9) question this social stereotype on several grounds. Firstly, according to Furstenberg et al (1990: 8-9) the teenage mother has been portrayed as an unemployed woman living on unemployment benefits with poorly cared for children. However, a substantial proportion of adolescent parents manage to recover from the handicap imposed by early parenthood (Furstenberg et al, 1990: 8-9). In South Africa, unlike in most developing countries, certain young mothers are allowed to return to school after giving birth (Kaufman et al, 2001). The possibility of returning to school and aspiration of continuing for some tertiary training prompt many women to wait before having the next child (Kaufman et al, 2001:155). In many African communities children born out of marriage are common and they are by no means confined to 'social drop outs' as demonstrated by some of the successful and respected women in urban areas who have not married but have children (Preston-Whyte and Zondi, 1992).

Secondly, Furstenberg et al (1990: 8-9) argue that the focus of many studies is on the years immediately following the birth of the first child. The transition to parenthood is not an easy passage for many teenagers. But very few studies have followed the teenagers long enough to observe their change and adaptation to childbearing over the life course. As a result investigators miss a chance to understand why some mothers manage to overcome the drawback associated with early child bearing. Some unmarried women rear their children in nice homes with all the accessories of material comfort (Preston-Whyte and Zondi, 1992:232). From a positive point of view to be unmarried and have a child does not ruin ones future. Perpetual poverty or ostracism is not an inevitable consequence of falling pregnant (Preston-Whyte and Zondi, 1992:232). In focus group discussions in

Agincourt, it emerged that some girls expressed a strong negative opinion about marriage (Kaufman et al, 2001). In Agincourt and some parts of South Africa marriage is not a precondition for having children, if a woman can provide for her own economic well-being and that of her children (Kaufman et al, 2001). Some prosperous single mothers choose to be single and unattached because they do not experience the financial and emotional drain imposed by some 'husbands who go out drinking [their] money and spending it on other women' (Preston-Whyte and Zondi, 1992:232). Other women, who have achieved professional status or run their own businesses openly state that marriage is a 'trap' and some women are better off alone (Preston-Whyte and Zondi, 1992:233). In the Agincourt focus groups, some girls expressed negative attitudes about getting married citing reasons that they don't want to be bullied and to be abused by men in marriage (Kaufman et al, 2001:154). In spite of Furstenberg et al arguments and convincing examples, it is important to point out that not all young mothers overcome the early child bearing drawbacks.

#### 2.2.5 Married women as de facto parents

In our definition of single mothers we limited our focus on mothers who are not married and who do not live with a partner (de jure single mother). Another type of mother is the woman who is married but her husband is absent (de facto single mothers). Some literature has paid attention on the effect father absence has on the married mothers and their marriage. The plight of such women receives little or no formal attention from the state, 'as the obligations between the husband and wife remain intact' (Chandler, 1991:27). However, many of these women face circumstances similar to those mothers who are not married, although it is also largely assumed that the extended family fulfils the role of the absent husband and father (Gordon, 1981). A married couple is expected to be co-resident but when one partner is absent, more particularly the man the marriage is seen as abnormal and stressful on the part of the mother. In a study of impact of labour migration on the lives of women in Lesotho, Gordon (1981) found that the youngest wives, aged between 21 and 25 who have just married with no children or one child, were less stressed compared to those wives who are older than 25 with more children. Wives

of the head of household are more likely to be more stressed than those wives who are related to head of household or daughter in law (Gordon, 1981).

In South Africa, a significant proportion of African women are located in rural areas. Many such women are married with a husband who spends most of the time away from home (Baden, Hasim, and Meintjes, 1998). Rural women depend heavily on remittances from their working male partners working in urban and industrial areas, in the absence of other economic opportunities. Lack of reliability of these remittances is a common problem for women (Baden, Hasim and Meintjes, 1998). Clark et al in Chandler (1991:27) described the husband's absence as an 'extension of the traditional division of labour in the home'. Married mothers with absent husbands are bound by marriage and therefore don't have freedom to take opportunities available to de jure single mother. On the other hand, people living in rural areas are isolated and tend to have little contact with family and other members of the community allowing them few conduits to jobs and other opportunities in urban areas (Amoateng et al, 2004: 32). Apart from its economic effect, where the married mother is left to provide for the family needs, the effect of the husband's absence is also associated with depression and anxiety and disrupted pattern patterns of eating and sleeping on the part of the married woman who lives mostly without her husband/partner (Chandler, 1991:64).

According to Chandler (1991: 131) the relationship between mother and child is also influenced by mother-father relationship and therefore an absent father creates a vacuum in both the wife and children's lives. Children benefit from the emotional and material investment from both parents. Temporary absence has the same effect on the children as they normally react to how they are treated by their mothers, who themselves may be frustrated or unable to support their children (Chandler, 1991: 138). Children react sometimes because parenting doesn't continue in the same way as before, as mothers are sometimes restrictive and authoritarian. In this respect de jure and de facto single mothers may share some problems. According to Chandler (1991: 139) research has shown that the behavior of boys is problematic in a father-absent household as they tend to be over-dependent on their over-protective mothers. De facto single mothers may feel anxious

about being unable to impart 'gendered knowledge' to their sons about things like shaving and life in general (Chandler, 1991: 142).

Girls are also affected by the absence of father. In a study to establish whether the absence of father placed daughters at a risk of early sexual activity and teenage pregnancy. Ellis, Bates, Dodge, Ferguson, Horwood, Pettit and Woodward, (2003) found that teenage pregnancy rates were 7 to 8 and 2 to 3 times higher for girls from early age father absence and late age father absence households respectively. De facto and de jure single mothers cannot compensate for the lack of a father and children therefore could be overprotected or underprotected. On the other hand, children may receive undivided devotion from their mothers in absence of their fathers and the power structure of these single parent household is likely to be less hierarchical, and more 'permissive and democratic' (Chandler, 1991: 142). The child in a single parent household is expected to be self reliant, and to be responsible for other young children more especially if the mother is working (Chandler, 1991: 142).

## 2.3 Single parenthood from the perspective of children

Children growing up in single parent families are associated with lower school achievements and aspirations, increased psychological stress, earlier initiation of substance use and sexual activity, increased vulnerability to health problems, and a greater likelihood of engaging in deviant behaviours (Deleire and Kalil, 2002). Some of the disadvantages faced by children born out-of-wedlock are associated with low educational attainment of their mothers (Bumpass and Sweet, 1989). Mothers with higher educational attainment are more likely to be able to provide their children with a favourable environment for cognitive development than mothers with lower education (Jackson, 2003). Higher education attainment increases the chances of better job opportunities and better income. Parental income has an important influence to children's outcomes, since a number of risks are associated with economic hardships and poverty (Jackson, 2003). However, not all social scientists agree with effects of income on children, but some argue that parental characteristics (educational attainment.

psychological well being, employment and welfare statuses) are more important than income (Jackson, 2003). Nevertheless, income is important in way that low income families frequently live in areas characterized by social disorganisation, such as high rates of crime, joblessness, social isolation and few resources for child development (Jackson, 2003). Even on this issue there is debate; Furstenberg *et al* (1990) argue that not all children growing in poverty will have problems and that environmental variation will have an impact on growth. Children do not respond similarly to negative environmental conditions. There are 'invulnerable' or 'resilient' children who seem to respond well to adversity because of their biological and psychological differences as well as the coping strategies of families in facing similar hardships.

However, Cherlin (1999), in his article on family structure, children's well being, and social science points out four premises for the argument that are likely to affect a child's well being. These are: family structure (parental influence); genetic make up; peer groups and environmental influences. In his article Cherlin (1999) warns about the extreme positions on the relation between family structure and child well being. Although there is wealth of evidence that suggests that children growing up in a single-parent family or step family is associated with lower level of well being and poor life outcomes compared with a child living in a family with two biological parents, Cherlin (1999) rejects this one extreme view. Other factors like genetic make up and peer group influence also play a major role in child development although it is not easy to draw a line on the cause-effect relationship since the factors may work in combination in affecting a child's well being (Cherlin, 1999). From a socialization perspective, Deleire and Kalil (2002) argue that to some extent two parent families still provide an optimal child rearing environment in terms of socialising the child and providing the child with a male role model. Studies have also made known that children born to two parent families irrespective of their marriage status are more likely to do better at school than those in single parent households. Cohabiting unions are unstable and such families at higher risk of disintegrating but they allow little time for children to be in single parenting families, if the parent starts cohabiting after a union break up. Joesch and Smith (1997) found that marital stability is greatest when children are fewer (less than three) and are still young

than when the children are older than five. A child with poor health also put stress in a relationship and destabilizes unmarried parents. Unhealthy children are likely to receive low levels of parental investment in their health (Reichman, Cornman and Noonan, 2004).

It has been argued by scholars including Heuveline et al (2003) that children are better off growing up with both biological parents than with one parent, in terms economic benefits they get from both parents. Lack of parental economic support and high rates of poverty are associated with the negative outcomes for children in one parent families (Bianchi et al, 1999). Research findings put forward that income matters most at the early childhood (Jackson, 2003). On the other hand, the advantage of being in a two parent household is that married mothers reduce market work to care for children, although this action may be detrimental in the long run because it creates economic dependence on husbands, and wives are less likely to be economically self sufficient than men when marriage ends (Bianchi et al, 1999). Moreover, mothers have lower employment rates and wages than female non-mothers (Christopher, England, Smeeding, and Phillips, 2002). The differences between children born in single parent and two parent families have been attributed to poverty (Deleire and Kalil, 2002). According to Wojtkiewiez, McLanahan and Garfinkel, (1990) the economic deleterious economic effects of growing up in female headed families are clear, but there is much debate over the psychological effects thereof. į

Children growing up in single parent households are associated with early marriage, become parents early and are more likely to become single mothers (Mclanahan and Bumpass, 1988). Premaritally-born children are more likely to divorce in their first marriages, however the likelihood of divorce decreases the longer the women waits to have the first child (Joesch and Smith, 1997).

However, single mothers living with others adults are alleged to offer a better environment for rearing children than when they stay alone. Deleire and Kalil (2002) found that children growing up in multigenerational families (where grandparents are

present) have higher educational attainment than teenagers living with single mothers with no grandparent present. Therefore shared child rearing apparently minimises the risks to child bearing associated with poverty, parental unemployment, poor parental physical health and mental health. The well being of children depends mainly on the ability of families to function effectively (Department of Social Development, 2003). In a study analysing the academic achievement of adolescent conducted in South Africa by Mboya and Nesengani (1999) it was found that the child whose father is absent from home has developmental deficits. A deficiency in sex role identification is one of the reasons suggested for these deficits. The results from the study also showed that school performance was higher among young people with both parents present than those with a father absent.

There is a relationship between the household size and poverty. Large households with many dependents are more likely to be poor and the couples are unlikely to have a stable marriage. The most disadvantaged households are those with many dependent children without any other adult income earners other than the mother and the children are likely to be working and not attending school (Moser, 1993). Baden and Milward, (1997) stated that a study conducted by UNICEF found that poverty was a contributing factor to child labour, often to children as young as six. In poor households children may be taken out of school, particularly girls to assist or substitute their mothers in domestic labour. This therefore reinforces a vicious circle of poverty, as result the children are deprived an opportunity to further their studies that would enable them to gain access to higher paying employment.

In summary, in an environment where the role of women is changing, more women are likely to be single mothers. Single mothers are more likely to live in poor household and research tends to support the idea that children are better off in two parent households.

#### Chapter 3

### Methodology

This chapter includes a brief history of censuses and surveys in South Africa and a discussion of household surveys in South Africa and how the household and family are conceptualised in surveys. It also explains the methodology used for the study, identifying how a single mother and different living arrangements of mothers were derived from the 2002 General Household survey (GHS). Limitations of the methodology used in this study are noted.

### 3.1 History of censuses and surveys in South Africa

The first official 'population count' in South Africa was conducted as early as 1823 (Haldenwang, 2003). Censuses undertaken in 1918, 1926, 1931 and 1941 included the white population only (Mostert, Hofmeyr and Oosthuizen, 1998). This violated the United Nation's definition of a census that it should be universal and count all people (Haldenwang, 2003). The apartheid government politicised South African demography to prevent political domination of the white minority by the black majority (Chimere-Dan, 1993:32; Moultrie and Timaeus, 2003:266). The exclusion of the majority black population rendered the data from censuses unusable because of under-enumeration (Mostert et al, 1998:29). South African demographic information remained scarce not only because of the unreliable information but also due to the 'intellectual sanctions' against apartheid policies (Caldwell and Caldwell, 1993). South Africa was also excluded from the scope of the world fertility surveys in the 1970's (Moultrie and Timaeus, 2003:266). The South African Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) conducted a survey in 1987-89 but the data was not made available to independent researchers (Moultrie and Timaeus, 2003:265). The surveys undertaken by HRSC were not representative of the whole population but were conducted on sample basis during the 1980s (Mfono, 2001). However, post 1994 surveys have sampled the full south African population, and the 1996 South African census and 1998 South African Demographic Health Surveys (DHS) have emerged as some of the main sources of demographic

information and have opened up previously restricted arenas of research (Moultrie and Timaeus, 2003:265).

#### 3.1.1 Household surveys in South Africa

Since 1989 many surveys have been conducted in South Africa at national and provincial level. Significant surveys include the Project for Statistics on Living Standards and Development (PLSD), the October Household Surveys (OHS) which were conducted between 1994 and 1999, the Labour Force Survey (LFS) which was first conducted from February 2000 to the present and is conducted biannually, and the General Household Survey (GHS) conducted annually from 2002 to present.

The definition of a household and family in household surveys has varied. The definitions used do not capture the diversity of South African households and family compositions. The inconsistency in definition of household has been problematic for effective analysis of household structure in South Africa. For example, the PLSD survey – one of the first surveys to measure poverty levels in South Africa - did not reflect households which contained more than one couple, multiple generations and other groups of multiple adults (Budlender, 2003). The OHS questionnaire did not accommodate structures in South Africa where the structure is grandparent and grandchild with the middle generation absent. In addition, the questions didn't cater for fostered children who are living with aunts (Budlender, 2003:61). In the 1995 OHS, 73 percent of children under the age of seven were reported to be living with their grandparents (who were household head) and not with their parents. Some of the problems related to the conceptualisation of families in South Africa are also inherent to the questionnaires of other surveys including the 2002 GHS used in the analysis of this dissertation.

# 3.2 Secondary analysis of the General Household Survey data (GHS 2002)

This dissertation focuses on whether it is possible to obtain an accurate count of single mothers in South Africa. Questionnaires from numerous national surveys, including the October Household (OHS), Labour Force (LFS), General Household (GHS) and Demographic Health survey (DHS) were inspected to find out whether it is possible to measure the number of single mothers in the country. It was found that, with the exception of the 1998 DHS, the 1996 census and one of the OHSs, it is not possible to provide an accurate count of single mothers using the South Africa's national surveys. Reasons for this are that the rejected surveys do not provide birth statistics that would enable researchers to establish a woman as being a mother.

In terms of measuring single mothers the 1998 Demographic and Health Survey has provided much potential. The women's questionnaire asks the following questions, which could be used to derive an accurate measure of single mothers:

- ξ Are you currently married or living with a man?
- $\xi$  Have you ever been married or lived with a man?
- ξ What is your marital status now: are you widowed, divorced, or separated?
- ξ Is your husband/partner living with you now or is he staying elsewhere?

However, the 1998 DHS cannot be used to measure single mothers as it appears that the marital status was coded with two categories only i.e. married and single. We do not know how many women are not married but have a regular partner with the family.

The 2002 GHS questionnaire does not provide a direct question 'Are you a single mother?' but it is possible to work out whether a woman is a single (or another type of mother and not yet a mother) using a set of questions from the children and household roster (list of individuals in the household) data files. The 2002 GHS questionnaire is attached electronically in appendix B.

### 3.2.1 Identifying mothers in the dataset

The first step in the process was to establish whether a woman was a mother of a child younger than 18 years of age who lives with that mother (as noted earlier for the purposes of this study a child is 17 years or younger). These criteria (a mother of a child younger than 18 years old living in the household with that mother) can be identified by using three questions from the children file (Figure 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3). In this file, having established the woman had given birth to a child, it is then established whether the child is still alive (Figure 3.1), what is the age of the child (Figure 3.2) and whether the child still lives with the mother (Figure 3.3).

3.1.5	Is still alive?	
	1 = YES	
	2 = No	Go to 3.1.10

Figure 3.1 GHS question measuring whether child is still alive

3.1.7	How old is? (In completed years - In whole numbers)
	Less than 1 year = 00.

Figure 3.2 GHS question measuring the age of the child.

3.1.9	Is currently a member of this household?	
	1 = YES }	
	2 = No ∫ Go to 3.1.13	

Figure 3.3 GHS question to establish if the child is living in the household

The above information is recorded for each child born by a woman. Still births and deceased children are recorded in the survey but are not included in this analysis; to meet the criteria of 'single mother' the child must be alive and living with his or her mother. It can be assumed that the mother is the biological mother since the question used to establish if the mother has ever given birth is addressed to each individual woman (Figure 3.4).

3.1.1	How many children (live births) have you ever given	 	
	birth to?		

Figure 3.4 GHS question to establish if a woman has ever given birth.

Two cautions around the birth data used to derive categories of mother for this research relate to second hand reporting of information and the reliability of data provided by statistical organisations (in this case Statistics SA). In this case the data for the questions in figures 3.1, 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4 may not be provided by the woman herself but by a respondent on her behalf. Respondents providing information on behalf of a woman may not be able to give accurate and reliable responses. However, if the respondent knows the women and her family well the information should be reliable. The second caution relates to reliability of statistics provided by statistical organisations. Recently Statistics South Africa have been criticised for poor quality statistics (Devey, Skinner and Valodia, 2004). The children and the birth data files were not provided on the official CD distributed to the public because the data was still being verified by demographers; a special request was needed to obtain the data. A query as to why no cases of stillbirths or deceased children occur in the files has not been answered by Statistics SA (Devey, 2005, pers.comm). Since this specific data (stillbirths and deceased children) is not immediately relevant for the computation of categories of mother for this study it was possible to use the data. It is likely that Statistics SA has released the data file with selected cases (i.e. live children only). For this purpose it is assumed that the children and birth data is reliable for live children.

#### 3.2.2 Establishing marital or partner status of mothers

As defined for this study a single mother does not live with a husband or partner. To classify mothers as single mothers it was therefore necessary to identify the marital or partner status of those women identified as mothers. The question from the household roster file used to identify the partner status of mothers was marital status (Figure 3.5)

1.2.a	What is's present marital status?					
	1 = MARRIED OR LIVING TOGETHER AS HUSBAND AND WIFE					
	2 = WIDOW/WIDOWER					
	3 = DIVORCED OR SEPARATED 0 Go to Q 1.3.a					
	4 = NEVER MARRIED					

Figure 3.5 GHS question measuring marital status of child's mother

# 3.2.3 Establishing the presence of a father in the household

Up until this point the woman has been the point of reference for categorising an individual as a single mother. Using the child as a reference point it is possible to further refine the characteristics of the woman to get a more accurate measure of single mothers. To compliment marital status as a criterion for determining single mother status it is also possible to establish the presence of the child's father in the household in the 2002 GHS household roster file (Figure 3.6). If the father of a child is present in a household a woman should not be classified as a single mother.

1.3.b	Is's father part of the household?				
	1 = YES				
	2 = No	o Go to Q 1.4.a			

Figure 3.6 GHS question measuring presence of father in the household.

Since the presence of a father is referenced to the child it is necessary to associate the father information to the woman. This link is provided through the question shown in the Figure 3.7. That is, the information that the child's father is present or absent can be linked to the relevant woman through the code provided for his or her mother.

1.4.c	Which person is's mother?
	Give person number

Figure 3.7 GHS question identifying the mother of the child in the household

As noted earlier the information provided for these questions may be entirely reliable if reported by another member of the household. Nevertheless, it is possible to use the information provided to categorise women as different types of mother.

### 3.2.4 The categories of mothers

In this study, at the individual level, women of childbearing ages (18-49) are our unit of analysis. Many studies consider the reproductive ages as between the bracket of 15 to 49. In this study the researcher was faced with a difficult dilemma in this regard. Women aged 15 to 17 can bear children and could be single mothers. However, the constitutional definition of a child is a person aged 17 or younger. Ideally it would be useful to run two sets of analysis, one on women aged 15-49 and another on women aged 18-49. Because of time and space constraints only the latter group was analysed in detail. The women aged 18-49 were categorised according to their living arrangements including the criteria of: child (ren) aged 17 or younger living in the household; marital or partner status; and father present or absent. The study distinguishes between mothers who have children living in the household and those who do not. The analysis focuses on the former since the focus is on single mothers; a mother living apart from her children is not classified as a single mother because there is no child in the household.

When classifying women by living arrangements seven categories were generated:

- a) A mother married or living with partner, child present, and father present. These women are referred to as partnered mothers in the analysis.
- b) A mother neither married nor living with a partner, child present, and father absent. These women are referred to as de jure single mothers in the analysis.
- c) A mother married or living with partner, child present, but father is absent. A woman in this category might be a partnered mother because she may be living with a partner who is not the father of her children. It may be possible from the data provided to find out if the father of children in the household is the same person as the spouse or partner of the mother; but this was not attempted for this analysis. Indeed it is suggested that most of the women in this category are

married women with an absent husband. Such women are not single mothers because of their marital status but it is also not clear what role the husband plays in helping the children. For this reason this category is treated as a separate group, a category between partnered mothers and single mothers. These women are referred to as *de facto* single mothers in the analysis.

- d) A woman who has never given birth is referred to as *childless* in the analysis. This group include younger women who intend to have children or are not able to have children. Many women in this group can be considered as potential partnered, *de facto* and *de jure* single mothers.
- e) A mother of a child or children 18 years or older is referred to as 'other' mother. These mothers are excluded from the analysis because they do not meet the criteria of having a child younger than 18 years of age. The analysis is concerned with mothers living with dependent children.
- f) A mother married or living with a partner but her child does not /children do not live with her. Such a mother is excluded from the analysis because she does not meet the criteria of having a child living with her.
- g) A mother neither married nor living together with a partner but her child does not / children do not live with her. Such a mother is also excluded from the analysis because she does not meet the criteria of having a child living with her.

The main focus of analysis will be on partnered, de facto and de jure single mothers. Some comparisons are made with childless women and other mothers.

# 3.2.5 Indicators used for profiling mothers

Having classified women into the different categories of mother indicators were selected from the household roster and worker file to develop a profile. Demographic indicators included age, race group and spatial indicators (rural or urban and provincial location). Socio-economic indicators included educational attainment, income and employment status. These selected indicators answer the question: What are the demographic and personal characteristics of single mother? At individual level this analysis counts the

types of mother and provides a breakdown by age, race group, province and so on. From this it was possible to describe a comparative profile of the mothers' demographic and socio-economic characteristics. As noted in section 3.2, the questionnaire is attached in electronic format in Appendix B.

#### 3.2.6 Measurement at the household level

Types of mother were aggregated to the household level to enable the measurement of household level indicators. The aggregation of the different types of mother produced some households of an exclusive nature and others with a combination of types of mother. Although some analysis is provided of the combinations of mother within households, the analysis was conducted for households containing a type of mother regardless of whether other types of mother were present.

As with the individual level indicators, a profile of household indicators by type of mother was developed. Indicators measured included: type of housing; ownership of housing; access to services (such as water, electricity and sanitation facilities): sources of energy; standard of living items; and welfare indicators (including access to grants and information on who supports the mother).

#### 3.2.7 Descriptive and inferential statistics

Much of the analysis for this report is descriptive in nature taking the form of frequencies and cross tabulations. During a survey the information about the population is collected from a proportion of the population and for the 2002 GHS, 26 287 households from all nine provinces were surveyed. The households are selected by chance to avoid bias and the number selected in each province was proportional to the population size of that province. Statistics SA provide a weighting variable, based on the South African census statistics that can be applied to obtain numbers that represent the population (Stats SA, 2002). In this study the descriptive statistics are weighted, which makes data nationally representative. However, when running inferential statistics like the chi square test the

data are unweighted. Cross tabulations were carried out between relevant variables to test for significance of association in Chapter 4. The significance of each association was tested at the level p = 0.05. Statistical testing was not performed on household level data (Chapter 5) because households were not exclusively partnered mother, de jure single mother, and so on.

#### 3.3 Limitations of methodology

As noted earlier, the accuracy of reporting on behalf of others may not always be reliable. In the GHS 2002 some respondents were asked questions like 'Is....child still alive?' and 'Age of child' on behalf of mothers. It depends on the respondent on how s/he interprets 'mother' but we assume that 'mother' refers to 'biological mother'. In other situations grandparents usually claim a grand child as ones own, especially if the child's mother is a young or unmarried daughter and when the biological parents are absent (Russell, 2003; Budlender, 2003). Some households are three generations deep with the homestead children being the offspring of a variety of absent homestead members (Russell, 2003). There is also a problem if children who share the same mother in the household have different fathers and one of the fathers is present.

Given the cross-sectional nature of the 2002 GHS this study is not able to provide an analysis of changes in the status of a mother. It is likely that the status of a woman will change, for example from childless to single mother or childless to partnered mother or from partnered mother to single mother. A longitudinal analysis would be required to give a sense of what fluctuations take place in the status of mothers and childless women.

As noted earlier, the study defines children as 17 years or younger but women aged 15 to 17 could be mothers. It should be noted that although a child is defined as under eighteen not all of them are still dependents.

# Chapter 4

## Demographic and social-economic characteristics of women 18-49

The purpose of this chapter is count the number of women in the categories defined in Chapter Three and provides a demographic profile of such women. It also compares demographic and socio-economic characteristics of *de jure* single mothers to other types of mothers, for instance partnered, *de facto* single mothers and childless women. The results are presented in four sections. The first section provides a count of the types of women and shows their relation to the head of the household. The second section describes some demographic characteristics of women, including their distribution for age and race group, whether they reside in an urban or rural location and what province they live. The third section describes socio-economic indicators – including education attainment, employment status (for those employed) and income categories – for the various categories of women. The last section describes health indicators for women. All data are obtained from the 2002 GHS.

#### 4.1.1 Number of mothers in South Africa

Table 4.1.1 places women aged 18 to 49<sup>1</sup> into seven exclusive categories. The categories are: a mother who is married and is living with her partner or husband and at least one of her children in the household (partnered mother); a mother who is married and is living with at least one of her children but the father is absent (de facto single mother); a mother who is living with at least one of her children but is neither married nor living with a partner (de jure single mothers); a woman who is not yet a mother (childless woman); a mother who's child is/children are 18 and older (other mother); a married mother living with her partner but all her children are absent (partnered mother with absent children-other mother); and a mother who is neither married nor living with her partner and all her children are absent (single mother with absent children – other mother).

It is important to note that a mother can be younger than 18 years of age but for analysis purposes it is not possible to designate an individual as both a child (younger than 18) of a mother and a mother simultaneously.

Table 4.1.1: Number of women aged 18-49 by mother status.

Status of women	Number of women	Percentages
Partnered mothers	2,774,174	24.7
De facto single mothers	728,591	6.5
De jure single mothers	2,822,203	25.1
Childless women	3,437,850	30.6
Mother of children older than 17	490,963	4.4
Partnered mothers with child absent	365,465	3.3
Single mothers with child absent	604,593	5.4
Total	11,223,839	100

Source: GHS 2002

Table 4.1.1 shows that there were 11,223,839 women aged 18-49 in South Africa in 2002. Of these women, the highest proportion was childless women (30.6 percent). Proportions of partnered and *de jure* single mothers were similar (24.7 percent and 25.1 percent respectively). This finding is supported by national statistics that reveal there is no major difference between marital fertility and non marital fertility (National Population Unit, 2000). The relatively high proportion of *de jure* single mothers (25.1 percent) and *de facto* single mothers (6.5 percent) is consistent with other reports of number of single mothers. For example, the 1998 DHS measured a high proportion (34.4 percent) of children aged less than 15 years staying with their mother only (see Table 1.6.1).

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Table 4.1.1 also indicates that there are 5.4 percent of single mothers (women without a partner) who do not live with their children. Preston-Whyte and Zondi (1992) asserted that it is common practice among Africans that the baby of an unmarried woman can be reared by her parents or other relatives. In some cases both the mother and baby can stay in the same household. Therefore it is important to discuss how mothers relate to the household head (see section 4.1.2).

The focus of this chapter will be on four categories, namely partnered, de facto and de jure single mothers, and childless women. Mothers of children older than 17 (adults) and women who do not live with their children will be excluded from the analysis in this chapter. In this regard the analysis focuses on the groups that occur in the highest frequencies. This focus makes the analysis more manageable and is not intended to detract from the importance of the smaller groups. Indeed, mothers living separate from their children are cause for concern and such a group is worthy of separate analysis.

1-4-3

### 4.1.2 Relationship to the head of household

The relationship to head status of the types of women is presented in Table 4.1.2. Earlier it was noted single mothers and female heads were used interchangeably to describe single mother households. Table 4.1.2 demonstrates that the women are quite different in their relation to the head. Statistics South Africa defines a household head as a "person the household regards as such and it is usually the person who assumes responsibility for decision-making in the household" (Zulu and Sibanda, 2005: 234). There has been some debate about the definition of household head. However, it has been noted that in surveys and censuses respondents tend to report the eldest person as the head and this person may not be the chief economic provider of the household (Zulu and Sibanda, 2005: 234). Partnered mothers are generally reported as the spouse of head i.e. the male in the household is perceived as head (89.5% of cases). Of single mothers, de facto single mothers are the most likely (62.5 percent of cases) to be reported as head of household. De jure single mothers and childless women show fairly similar characteristics. About half of de jure single mothers and childless women are reported to be the daughter of the head. However, de jure single mothers are more likely to be cited as the head compared with childless women (31.0 percent compared with 12.8 percent). A fair proportion (14.4) percent) of de facto single mothers are reported as being the spouse of the head indicating the husband retains an important status in the household.

Table 4.1.2: Relationship to household head by category of woman

Relationship to head	Partnered	De facto single	De jure single	Childless	Total
	mother	mother	mother	woman	
N	2,774,174	728,591	2,822,202	3,437,296	9,762,263
Head/acting/head	2.0	62.5	31.0	12.8	18.7
Husband/wife/partner	89.5	14.4	0.7	12.9	1.3
Son/daughter/step	1.3	5.9	51.0	47.1	32.1
child					
Brother/sister	0.2	1.1	5.7	6.2	4.0
Father/mother	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1
G parent/G g parent	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.6	0.3
G child/g g child	0.2	0.8	6.8	8.1	4.9
Other relatives	6.5	14.7	3.9	9.9	7.5
Non related persons	0.3	0.5	0.4	2,4	1.1
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: GHS 2002 Key: G (grand) g g (great grand)

Almost fifteen percent of *de facto* single mothers are other relatives to the head. This seems to indicate that some *de facto* single mothers rely on another person for support, as opposed to the *de facto* mother who is head and somewhat independent.

#### 4.2 Demographic characteristics of mothers and childless women

The demographic indicators included for the analysis are age, number of children, race, province and rural/urban residence.

# 4.2.1 Age and average number of children per mother

The average age of all women aged 18-49 is 31.2 years and the age that has the highest frequencies are 18, 19 and 20. Table 4.2.1.1 shows that there are significant differences<sup>2</sup> in age distribution for the broad categories of women.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> As noted in Chapter 3, the chisquare test was used to establish significant association between dependent and independent variables. Unless otherwise stated, the chisquare statistic is significant at the p=0.05 level.

Table 4.2.1.1: Age group by category of woman

Age	Partnered mother	De facto single mother	De jure single mother	Childless woman	Total
N	2,774,174	728,591	2,822,203	3,437,852	9,762,820
Average age	35.1	36.1	30.8	25.6	31.6
18-19yrs	0.8	0.8	5.6	23.1	8.9
20-24yrs	7.5	6.0	21.8	36.2	20.1
25-29yrs	16.0	13.0	22.3	17.3	18.0
30-34yrs	21.8	21.9	18.7	8.5	16.1
35-39yrs	23.7	21.7	13.6	5.8	14.4
40-44yrs	19.3	22.6	10.8	4.3	12.7
45-49yrs	10.8	14.0	7.3	4.7	9.9
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: GHS 2002 Note:  $X^2 = 7801.8$ , d.f = 24, p < 0.05

Childless women aged 18-49 show the youngest age distribution; over half of such women are younger than 25 years. The group of women with the next youngest age profile are *de jure* single mothers. This is not unsurprising as single motherhood is often associated with teenage pregnancy (Geronimus and Koreman, 1992). The high proportion of *de jure* single mothers at ages less than 25 – 27.4 percent – probably reflect this trend. In addition, of 1 553 820 women between ages 15 and 17, four percent (61 796) are mothers. Africans constitute the highest proportion of these mothers (89 percent) and coloureds constitute 9.7 percent. Amoateng and Richter (2003:262) found that the prevalence of marriage in the South African society is decreasing among younger generations and non-marital cohabitation is increasing. One of the many consequences of the drop in marriages among the younger generations is the increase of non marital fertility, especially among Africans. The proportion of *de jure* single mothers is lower than average in age categories above 35 years old. The singulate mean age at first marriage (SMAM) for females was estimated to be 28.7 years in 1996 (Udjo, 2001). This suggests that single mothers may marry or live with a partner as they grow older.

Partnered mothers and *de facto* single mothers show similar age distributions. These women occur in low percentages in younger age categories and, for both groups, over 75

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percent are 30 years and older (Table 4.2.1.1). *De jure* single mothers, who are generally young, have a lower average number of children compared to older mothers (*de facto* and partnered mothers) (Table 4.2.1.2).

Table 4.2.1.2 Average number of children per mother

Women status	Average number of children per mother		
Partnered mother	2.22		
De facto Single mother	2.66		
De jure single mother	1.67		
Childless woman	0.00		
Other mother	1.11		

Source: GHS 2002

De jure single mothers tend to have longer birth intervals after their first out-of-wedlock birth and the next child so they tend to have a smaller number of children (Kaufman et al, 2000).

### 4.2.2: Racial profile of women

Table 4.2.2 shows the distribution of women within each race group. There is a significant association between type of mother and race ( $\chi^2 = 1611.546$ , d.f = 12, p<0.05).

Significantly higher proportions of black and coloured women are *de jure* single mothers compared to Indian and white women. *De facto* single mothers occur in highest proportion in the black population and partnered mothers occur in the highest proportion amongst Indian and white populations. The proportion of African/black *de jure* single mothers (28.1 percent; Table 4.2.2) in 2002 is comparable to that reported by Amoateng and Richer (2003) based on the 1996 population census data (i.e. 32.4 percent).

Table 4.2.2: Category of woman by Race

	African/black	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
N	8,762,770(78.1)	1,053,590(9.4)	276,426(2.6)	1,103,925(9.8)	11,216,711
Partnered mother	20.3	35.2	47.3	43.6	24.7
De facto single mother	7.2	5.0	3.0	2.9	6.5
De jure single mother	28.1	25.3	7.7	5.9	25.2
Childless woman	30.2	25.6	34.6	37.9	30.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: GHS 2002

The results obtained from the 2002 GHS survey correspond with other researchers observations on family structure. For example, Amoateng and Richter (2003:262) note that marriage rate is relatively low among Africans and coloureds. Thus the higher proportion of single mothers in these groups is not unexpected. On the other hand, Africans have the lowest divorce rates of all the race groups, while white marriages tend to be non-stable (Amoateng and Richter, 2003:262). Unfortunately the cross-sectional nature of this analysis does not allow measurement of changes in marital status.

#### 4.2.3: Spatial indicators: distribution of women by urban-rural location and province

Africans and coloureds are identifiable with extended family households, which are predominately found in rural areas (Amoateng and Richter, 2003:250). Nuclear family households predominate in urban areas and are identifiable with whites and Indians/Asians (Amoateng and Richter, 2003:250). Studies assert that urban Africans households have not transformed completely to nuclear family households but have continued to live in extended families (Amoateng and Richter, 2003:251). One may pose the question: what implications do the family formations in rural and urban areas have on the distribution of the different categories of women by urban/rural residence? The

question can be answered in part by Table 4.2.3.1 and will be dealt with in detail in Chapter Five when discussing living arrangements in households.

There is a significant association between the categories of women and urban/rural residence ( $\chi^2 = 632.9$ , d.f = 4, p< 0.05; Table 4.2.3.1).

Table 4.2.3.1: Category of woman by rural/urban location

Category of woman	Urban	Rural	Total
N	6,787,455(60.5)	4,436,384(39.5)	11,223,839
Partnered mother	27.2	20.9	24.7
De facto single mother	3.3	11.4	6.5
De jure single mother	23.1	28.2	25.1
Childless woman	32.7	27.5	30.6
Other mother	13.7	12.0	13.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: GHS 2002

Table 4.2.3.1 indicates that 60 percent of women between age 18 and 49 live in urban areas and a significant proportion (32.7 percent) are childless. The urban bias is caused, in part by the rural-urban migration in search for better living conditions, which include better education and employment opportunities. Anti-urbanization policies affected and undermined the stability of African family life before apartheid was dismantled (Simkins and Dlamini, 1992:67). An important statistic suggesting the effect in Table 4.2.3.1 is that there are higher proportions of *de facto* and *de jure* single mothers in rural areas than in urban areas.

There is a significant association between type of mother and provincial residence ( $\chi^2$  = 857.3, d.f = 32, p< 0.05; Table 4.2.3.2). Higher proportions of *de jure* single mothers are found in poorer provinces with larger rural populations such as Limpopo, North West, Mpumalanga and KwaZulu Natal (Table 4.2.3.2). Historically, the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, Mpumalanga and Limpopo province have been affected by the out-

migration of males (Udjo, 2001). There are high proportions of *de jure* single mothers in Limpopo, Mpumalanga and Eastern Cape. The lowest proportions of *de jure* single mothers are found in richer provinces of Western Cape and Gauteng.

Table 4.2.3.2: Category of woman by province

Category of woman	Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State.	KwaZulu-Natal
N	1,234,001	1,409.980	197,040	701,280	2,344,818
Partnered mother	34.5	20.3	33.5	29.5	19.7
De facto single mother	4.6	10.6	5.4	5.2	5.4
De jure single mother	20.4	25.6	24.0	21.5	28.1
Childless woman	31.1	30.8	25.6	31.6	32.3
Total	9.5	12.5	11.7	12.2	14.5
Total % hy province	11.0	12.6	1.8	6.2	20.9

GHS 2002

Table 4.2.3.2 continued

Category of woman	North . West	Gauteng	Mpumalanga	Limpopo	Total
N	893,103	2,488,404	764,731	1,190,481	11,223,838
Partnered mother	24.6	27.5	22.9	20.9	24.7
De facto single mother	5.2	2.4	7.8	15.3	6.5
De jure single mother	29.8	21.2	15.3	29.1	25.1
Childless woman	28.0	33.9	29.1	24.1	30.6
Total	7.6	14.9	8.5	8.5	13.0
Total % by province	8.0	22.2	6.8	10.6	100.0

GHS 2002

In Gauteng, Northern Cape, Western Cape and Free State, there appears to be higher chance of finding stable unions than in the other provinces since there are higher proportions of partnered mothers than de facto and de jure single mothers. It should be noted that 33.9 percent of women aged 18-49 in Gauteng are childless. This can be attributed in part to that most urban women chose to be independent and access to education and employment may influence their choices about marriage and fertility.

However, the analysis by rural/urban location for each province indicate that Gauteng followed by Western Cape are highly urbanised provinces relative to the other provinces.

about 90 percent of all women reside in urban areas (see Appendix A). In contrast, North West, Mpumalanga, Limpopo and Eastern Cape have the high proportions of women living in the rural areas. Inspite of the increasing age of marriage noted earlier, women in rural areas are more likely to marry early and have more children, partly because of lack employment opportunities.

#### 4.3 Socio-economic measures

Socio-economic indicators measured for mothers included education, literacy (ability to read and write), employment status and income.

### 4.3.1. Education and literacy

The modal category for education is secondary education; 64.2 percent of women aged 18-49 have at least secondary education.

Table 4.3.1.1: Education attainment by category of woman

<b>EDUCATION</b>	Partnered	De facto	single	De	jure	single	Childless	Total
	mother	mother		moth	er		woman	
N	2,772,834		727,038			220,616	3,434,781	11,215,897
No Schooling	6.2		11.3			4.4	3.7	5.6
Primary	20.8		35.1			22.3	12.8	20.4
Secondary	57.5		46.2	-	-	65.8	72	63.1
Tertiary	14.9		6.9			6.9	10.9	10.3
Other	0.6		0.5			0.6	0.6	0.6
Total	100.0		100.0			100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: GHS 2002 Note: X<sup>2</sup>=1140.5, d.f=16, p<0.05

While de jure single mothers show an education distribution similar to the norm other types of women show differences (Table 4.3.1.1). Partnered mothers show higher proportions than average in the tertiary education category (Table 4.3.1.1). De facto single mothers occur in higher proportions in lower education levels (below secondary education). It appears that de facto single mothers are the worse off group in terms of education attainment, perhaps because of the disadvantage of living in rural areas.

Childless women are more likely than *de jure* single mothers to have education beyond primary school (Table 4.3.1.1). This may reflect the fact that *de jure* single mothers may postpone or abandon their education. In South Africa, unlike in other African countries where pregnant school-going girls are either expelled or asked to return after a stipulated time period the South African education policy allows young mothers to continue with their education after giving birth. Sometimes they are allowed to finish their education in another school (Al Azar, 1999).

Table 4.3.1.2: Literacy indicators by category of woman

EDUCATION	Partnered	De facto single	De jure single	Childless	Total
(Literacy)	mother	mother	mother	woihan	
Ability to read(N) <sup>1</sup>	2,772,412	728,300	2,820,097	3,434,640	11,215,531
Yes	93.4	86.6	95,1	95.8	93.7
Ability to write (N)2	2,771,678	728,300	2,819,692	3,435,101	11,215,095
Yes	93.2	86.3	94.8	95.6	94.0

Source: GHS 2002 Note:  $1 X^2 = 311.0$ , df = 4, p < 0.05,  $2 X^2 = 311.0$ , df = 4, p < 0.05

While high proportions of women aged 18-49 are reported to be able to read and write, *de facto* single mothers show poorer literacy statistics compared with other women (Table 4.3.1.2).

## 4.3.2. Employment status and income

Higher educational attainment is positively correlated to better job opportunities and income. Since education levels are relatively poor (secondary school mostly) woman may not have access to suitable employment.

### 4.3.2.1 Employment status

Almost half of *de facto* single mothers and childless women are not economically active (Table 4.3.2.1). *De jure* single mothers are more likely than other women to be unemployed (over one quarter of *de jure* single mothers are seeking employment).

Partnered mothers show the highest proportion in the employed category; 45 percent of such women have employment (Table 4.3.2.1).

Table 4.3.2.1: Employment status by category of woman

Official employment status	Partnered mother	De facto single mother	De jure single mother	Childless woman	Total
N	2,774,174	728,591	2,822,202	3,437,850	11,223,838
Not economically active	38.9	47.1	38.3	50.9	41.3
Employed	45,0	36.9	33.8	27.1	37.2
Unemployed	16.1	16.0	27.9	22.0	21.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: GHS 2002 Note: X<sup>2</sup>=1242.9, d.f=8,p<0.05

### 4.3.2.2 Reasons for not working

Focusing on women who are unemployed or not economically active, the reasons why mothers and women between 18 and 49 are not employed are presented in Table 4.3.2.2. The table provides some important clues as to differences in the employment needs of the different categories of women. It has been established that childless women are younger than mothers (Table 4.2.1.1). Considering many younger women are still in school or studying at tertiary institutions it is not surprising to find childless women are significantly more likely than mothers to report their being a scholar or student as the reason for not working (Table 4.3.2.2).

Over one third of partnered and *de facto* single mothers (36.4 percent and 34.9 percent respectively) report being a housewife as the reason they are not working compared with less than five percent of *de jure* single mothers and childless women. Their husbands or partners may provide the necessary economic support to keep the household functioning. It is important to note that not all partnered and *de facto* single mothers choose the role of housewife and it is worth reiterating that 45.0 and 36.9 percent respectively of such women are employed (Table 4.3.2.1).

Over two-thirds of *de jure* single mothers appear to be seeking work but cannot work because they lack the necessary skills (40.8 percent) or cannot find a suitable job (27.2 percent) (Table 4.3.2.2). This category of mother is most likely to be seeking work and is therefore much in need of the necessary training to obtain suitable employment.

Single mothers are often associated with social problems like dropping out of high school which may prevent them from getting decent employment. And this is seen to result to persistent poverty that could be transmitted intergenerationally (Baden and Milward, 1997).

Table 4.3.2.2: Reasons for not working in the past seven days by category of woman

WHY NOT WORK PAST SEVEN DAYS	Partnered mother	De facto single mother	De jure single mother	Childless woman	Total
(N)	1,514,749	456,879	1,858,111	2,489,928	6,319,667
Lack skills/qual for avail jobs	25.2	35.8	40.8	27.7	31.6
Can't find suitable work	21.3	13.8	27.2	18.9	21.5
Scholar/student &prefers not to work	1.1	0.7	8.3	36.7	17,2
Housewife/home maker prefers not work	36.4	34.9	4.2	3.5	13.8
Illness, invalid, disabled, unable to work	3.4	3.6	6.3	5.5	7.5
Other reasons	7.9	7.0	10.0	. 5.5	7.5
To young/or old to work	1.6	1.7	0.8	0.8	1.1
Found job, start def date in future	0.2	0.9	0.5	0.4	0.4
Retired &prefers not to seek formal work	0.3	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.7
Seasonal worker fruit packer, wool shearer	1.1	0.7	0.9	0.7	0.7
Recently retrenched	1.2	0.4	0.7	0.5	0.7
Contract worker e.g. mine worker resting	0.3	0	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: GHS 2002 Note:  $\chi^2 = 5111.0$ , d.f=4,p<0.05

One may infer from the evidence above that women have skills that are not marketable. High unemployment rates demonstrate that women in South Africa are therefore far from reaching economic autonomy in the labour market. Whether such women have access to support structures as financial support from other members of the household or government grants will be presented and discussed in Chapter Five (household indicators).

# 4.3.2.3 Occupation and industry

Shifting from the unemployed and not economically active to those women who are employed, what are the differences and similarities between the occupation and industry for different categories of women? Statistics for the various categories of occupation are provided in Table 4.3.2.3a.

Table 4.3.2.3a: Main occupation by category of woman (employed).

Main occupation	Partnered mother	De facto single	De jure single mother	Childless women	Total
N	1,245,777	266,731	953,166	923,489	4,163,429
Professional	29.4	17.6	14.7	24.6	21.4
Clerks	20.5	10.5	12.5	21.2	16.2
Service/shop/market workers	10.7	8.9	14.8	13.7	12.2
Skilled Agriculture &fishery workers	1.8	5.3	1.7	1,3	1.8
Crast &related trade workers	4.0	6.0	4.8	3.5	4.1
Plant & machinery operators & assemblers	3.4	4.0	5.3	3.0	3.8
Elementary Occupations	18.6	30.0	27.7	18.1	22.4
Domestic workers	11.6	17.7	18.5	14.6	18.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100

Source: GHS 2002 Note: X<sup>2</sup>=577.7, d.f=2,p<0.05

There is likely to be a strong correlation between education level and type of occupation for example, individuals with better education level are likely to be professional and

skilled workers. Partnered mothers and childless women showed better education levels and occur in higher proportions than *de jure* and *de facto* single mothers in the professional occupations (and to a lesser extent in the clerks category) (Table 4.3.2.3a). In contrast, *de jure* and *de facto* single mothers show higher proportions than partnered mothers and childless women in the elementary occupations (and to a lesser extent in the domestic worker category).

Statistics for the various categories of industry are provided in Table 4.3.2.3b. It is noticeable that all women are concentrated in 'community, social and personal services',' wholesale and retail trade' and 'private household' industries. Much smaller numbers of women work in electricity, gas and water supply', 'transport' and 'construction, storage and communication' and 'mining' industries.

De jure and de facto single mothers are well represented in less skilled industries, for example in 'private households' and 'wholesale and retail trade'. De jure single mothers' participation in different industries shows a similar trend with de facto single mothers. Childless woman who work are concentrated in wholesale and retail industry, and community, social and personal services. Thirty-two percent of employed 'other' mothers, including mothers who do not live with their children, report their industry as 'private households' (result not shown). These women are likely to be domestic workers, separated from their children.

Table 4.3.2.3b: Industry by category of woman (employed)

INDUSTRY	Partnered mother	De facto single mother	De jure single mother	Childless woman	Total
N	1,239,578	267,377	951,326	923,022	3,381,303
Agriculture ,hunting, forestry &fishing	6.5	12,1	8.6	6.9	8.0
Mining and Quarrying	0.7	0.3	0.5	0.9	0.6
Manufacturing	12.5	11.6	15.6	11.9	12.5
Electricity, gas, and water supply	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2
Construction	1.5	2.0	1.2	1.8	1.4
Wholesale and retail trade	22.0	28.8	26.4	23.7	23.7
Transport, Storage &communication	2.4	1.1	1.6	3.6	2.2
Financial, insurance, real estate & business	12.2	3.6	7.1	13.4	9.4
Community, social and personal services	30.0	22.6	20.1	22.7	23.6
Private Households	11.9	17.7	18.8	14.8	18.3
Exterior organisations &foreign government	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: GHS 2002 Note: X2=449.5, df=40,p<0.05

#### 4.3.2.4 Income

Employment in a higher level occupation (e.g. professional) is likely to be correlated to better income. Incomes of employed woman are presented in Table 4.3.2.4.

Partnered mothers show the high proportions in wealthier income categories (Table 4.3.2.4). Moreover, partnered mothers occur in higher proportions in the tertiary education category (Table 4.3.1.1). In contrast, *de facto* single mothers show high percentages in the lower income categories. Research has shown many women work in the informal economy (Casale, 2004). Unfortunately it is not possible to establish

whether the women are working in the formal or informal economy using the GHS survey.

Table 4.3.2.4: Income by category of woman

INCOME GROUPS	Partnered mother	De facto single mother	De jure single mother	Childless woman	Total
N	1,118,839	255,411	898,116	816,811	3,835,562
NONE	2.8	7.3	2.3	2.9	2.7
R1-200	8.8	14.8	11.3	6.2	9.0
R201-R500	15.3	25.4	25.3	19.1	22.7
R501-R1000	13.4	18.8	22.0	17.9	18.3
R1001-R1500	8.8	7.3	9.8	10.2	9.3
R1501-R2000	10.6	6.1	10.7	10.7	10.2
R2001-R4500	17.3	9,4	10.5	16.9	13.6
R4500+	22.9	10.9	8.2	16.2	14.3

Source: GHS 2002 Note: X2=496.3, d.f=28,p<0.05

It is important to consider other mechanisms of support beyond employment and income for mothers. Bumpass and Raley (1995) argue that in a household a parent can help a single mother. Table 4.3.5a shows that a high proportion of *de jure* single mothers and childless woman stay in households where their mothers are present, 32.9 and 24.7 percent respectively.

Table 4.3.2.5a: Presence of mother and/or father by category of woman

	Partnered	De facto single	De jure single	Childless	Total
	mother	mother	mother	woman	
N	2,774,174	728,591	2,822,202	3,437,850	11,223,838
Both mother and father present	0.7	1.3	19.3	2 <b>3</b> .8	12.8
Mother only	1.5	5.9	32.9	24.7	17.7
Father only	0.4	0.4	3.2	2.9	2.0
Neither	97.4	92.5	44.6	48.6	67.5

Source: GHS 2002 Note: X<sup>2</sup>=6553.13, d.f=12,p<0.05

A high proportion of partnered mothers and *de facto* single mothers are not staying with either of their parents. Table 4.3.2.5a also indicates that it is more likely for mothers and women to stay with their mother than their father. It should not be assumed that single mothers living with their parents do not work (free rider concept). Nevertheless the category of *de jure* single mother with the highest percentage of employment is those living with neither parents (Table 4.3.2.5b).

Table 4.3.2.5b: Employment status of de jure single mothers when mother and/or father is present.

Employment status	Both parents	Mother only	Father only	Neither parent	Total
N	543,880	927,741	90,646	1,259,937	2,822,204
Not economically active	47.0	43.5	42.3	30.4	38.4
Employed	21.3	23.1	24.6	47.8	33.8
Unemployed	31.8	33.4	33.1	21.8	27.9

Source: GHS 2002 Note: X2=428.4, d.f=6,p<0.05

The category of *de jure* single mothers with the highest proportion in not economically active is those living with both parents.

#### 4.4 Health indicators and categories of women

The unemployed and not economically active are likely to be poor and are less likely than employed women to have access to health benefits (not all employed women, particularly those in the informal economy, will have access to health benefits). The government of South Africa has committed itself in improving access to health services for its people, women in particular. In 1994, the then President Nelson Mandela declared 'free health care for pregnant women', which was later followed by announcement made by Health Minister Nkosazana Zuma declaring 'free health care for all south Africans' in March 1996 (People and the Planet, 1997). A healthy mother is important for the well being of her child or children. The GHS measures some health indicators; what are the similarities and differences for these indicators between categories of mother?

4.4.1: State of health and type of illness by category of woman

HEALTH INDICATORS	Partnered mother	De facto single mother	De jure single mother	Childless woman	Total
Suffer illness/injuries in past month (N)	2,772,946	728,591	2,820,470	3,433,345	11,215,582
Yes	11.9	11.9	10.3	10.3	11.7
Illness: severe trauma (N) <sup>2</sup>	33,0795	86,519	291,455	353,891	1,309,201
Yes	2.6	2.1	4.4	3.4	303
Illness: depression or mental illness (N) <sup>3</sup>	330,795	87,049	291,455	354.410	1,310,250
Yes	4.6	2.4	3,3	5.4	4.3
Illness: HIV (N)4	330,795	87,049	290,783	354,410	1,309,578
Yes	0.4	0	0.5	0.4	0.5

Source: GHS 2002 Note:  $1 \times X^2 = 111.53$ , d.f = 4, p < 0.05,  $2 \times X^2 = 2.2$ , d.f = 4, p < 0.05,  $3 \times X^2 = 6.2$ , d.f = 28, p < 0.05,  $4 \times X^2 = 1.9$ , d.f = 4, p < 0.05

Table 4.4.1 indicates that about 12 percent of women aged 18-49 have been ill or injured in the past month. Of those who reported illness or injury low percentages suffer from severe trauma (3.3 percent) or depression (4.4 percent). Although *de jure* single mothers seem slightly more likely to suffer severe trauma than the other mothers the difference is not statistically significant. Partnered and childless woman seem slightly more likely to report depression or mental illness.

HIV-related illness is clearly under-reported. No *de facto* single mother reported to be infected with HIV virus according to the survey. There are three possible explanations to this: first, people are still ignorant about HIV in rural areas where many *de facto* single mothers reside; second, it may suggest that HIV/AIDS infection rates in rural areas are lower than in urban areas; third, the phenomenon of HIV/AIDS infection is underreported in the survey. The HIV statistics are more likely to underestimate the real impact of the pandemic and its effect on families.

High proportions (more than 80 percent) of all the women who were ill or injured consulted a health worker (Table 4.4.2). This may suggest that health workers are accessible and within reach. However, the two reasons for not consulting a health worker were not necessary to do so (51.1 percent) and the cost being expensive (36.2 percent). The responses by type of mother were not statistical different (Table 4.4.2).

Table 4.4.2: Consultation of health worker by category of woman

HEALTH INDICATORS	Partnered	De facto single	De jure single	Childless	Total
	mother	mother	mother	woinan	
Consult a health worker (N)	331,115	87,049	291,455	354,411	1,064,030
Yes	82.8	83.0	82.9	77.6	81.1
Why not consult a health worker (N) <sup>2</sup>	5,469	14,673	49,905	78,056	197,324
Too expensive	37.0	24.2	38.4	37.1	36.4
Too far	2.3	7.7	6.1	6.3	5.4
Not necessary	52.6	66.4	45.5	52.9	51.3
Don't know	1.9	0.0	1.2	1.0	1.0
Other	6.2	1.7	8.8	2.7	5.2

Source: GHS 2002 Note:  $1 X^2 = 8.78$ , d.f = 4, p < 0.05,  $2 X^2 = 19.63$ , d.f = 16, p < 0.05

Women who are employed or who live with a partner are more likely to have access to medical aid (as primary beneficiary or as a secondary beneficiary through a partner). Earlier it was noted partnered mothers are more likely to be employed (Table 4.3.2.1). The linkage between employment or a partner and medical aid is evident in Table 4.4.3. Partnered mothers are significantly more likely than other women to have access to medical aid (although the relative number accessing medical aid is relatively low at about 30 percent). De jure single mothers – most likely to be unemployed and without partner – are the least likely to have access to medical aid (just over six percent of de jure single mothers have access to medical aid; Table 4.4.3).

Table 4.4.3: Access to medical aid

HEALTH	Parinered	De facto single	De jure single	Childless	Total
INDICATORS	mother	mother	mother	woman	
Covered by medical	2,764,544	727,603	2,811,133	3,419,523	9,722,803
aid					
Yes	29.7	11.7	64	16.2	16.9

Source: GHS 2002

In summary, this chapter has revealed that that there are more de jure and de facto single mothers in the African/black population; de facto single mothers are notably prevalent in rural areas. The analysis also shows that partnered mothers are better off than single mothers for many socio-economic indicators. It is interesting to note that de facto single mothers rank poorly on many of the indicators. Unlike de jure single mothers, de facto single mothers are unlikely to access available opportunities to them because they are married (Gordon, 1983:61). While the proportion of single mothers seemed to diminish with the increase in age, the cross-sectional nature of this study it makes it difficult to address the issue of change with regard to marriage and other events.

### Chapter 5

# Household characteristics of mothers

Chapter Four focussed on personal characteristics of mothers and childless women. This chapter focuses on analysis of household characteristics because it is important to assess similarities and differences in the characteristics of women at household levels than their individual statistics. Because households can contain more than one woman and they could have different mother status, it is necessary to work out all combinations and then select the main categories of households for further analysis. This chapter contains five sections. The first section counts the number of households in which type of mother (partnered, de jure single, de facto single, other mothers and childless women) live. A count of combinations of mother within a household is also provided in this section. The second section provides a profile of household by three key demographic indicators i.e. race group, gender of head, and urban rural location. The third section focuses on socioeconomic support structures in the household. Variables measured in this section include main source of income for the household, sources of support and welfare and household expenditure. The fourth section describes characteristics of the dwelling, ownership of the dwelling, and access to selected services. In section five perceptions of crime, violence and public safety of mothers are presented.

# 5.1. Distribution and combination of women within households

Households are not exclusive for each of the tables presented in this chapter i.e. a household with a partnered mother and *de jure* single mother will be counted under both 'partnered and *de jure* mother' columns<sup>1</sup>; it must be noted that columns of information

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For this reason testing for statistical significance was not possible on household level data. The chisquare test must be applied to exclusive categories. There is no relevant statistical test for multiple groups. A solution would be to analyse households with exclusive types of mother only but this would result in many households being excluded from the analysis (see Tables 5.1.2-5.1.6). For this study it was decided to include all households.

presented includes all race groups. Table 5.1.1 shows the number and percentage of households containing a specified type of mother and other women aged 18-49 years in South Africa.

Table 5.1.1: Number of households by category of woman

Type of women	N (households)	Percent
Partnered mother	2,751,869	23.4
De facto single mother	717,549	6.1
De jure single mother	2,306,496	19.6
Other mother	1,392.660	11.8
Total (total # of households)	11,780,379	100.0

Source: GHS, 2002

Table 5.1.1 demonstrates that a significant proportion of households in South Africa contain at least one mother. Twenty three percent of household contain at least one partnered mother and 19.6 percent of households contain at least one *de jure* single mother.

A group of women can give each other support and an adult woman can support a younger mother. For instance, among Africans there is much dependence on other family members especially the grandmother when it comes to raising children (Zulu and Sibanda, 2005). Table 5.1.2 shows the combinations of women and mothers that occur in South African households. A significant proportion (31.4 percent) of selected households does not contain any woman aged between 18 and 49 (Note: such households may house a woman older than 49 who is mother). Households with at least one partnered mother (and no other woman aged 18-49) constitute the second highest proportion (18.0 percent) of households.

Table 5.1.2: Combination of women in households

Combinations of women in households	N	Frequency
No women aged 18-49	3,701,803	31.4
Partnered mother(s) only	2,125,703	18.0
Childless woman(women) only	1,487,870	12.6
De jure Single mother(s) only	1,306,519	11.6
Other mother(s) only	900,067	7.6
De jure single mother and childless woman (women)	515,431	4.4
De facto single mother(s) only	479,567	4.1
Partnered mother(s) and childless woman (women)	373,960	3.2
Childless woman(women) and other mother(s)	218,814	1.9
Partnered mother(s) and De jure single mother(s)	131,682	1.1
De jure single mother(s) and other mother(s)	129,864	1.1
De facto single mother(s) and childless woman	111,777	0.9
Other combinations	294,509	2.6
Total	11,780,379	100

Source: GHS 2002 Notes: An 'other' mother is a mother of adult children (18+years old) or her children do not live in the household; 'Other' combinations include a variety of other combinations – these combinations occur in low frequencies.

The second highest percentage (12.6 percent) is that of households containing at least one childless woman only. There are those women who postpone childbearing and marriage and prefer to remain single for different reasons. De jure single mother households, which don't house other women aged 18-49 constitute 11.6 percent of South African households; some of those households are possibly those of successful single mothers who prefer to stay alone and unattached. In the households where partnered mother or other mother is sharing the same household with a de jure single mother (1.1 percent), the single mother could be the daughter of a married mother. De facto single mothers who stay with women who are not yet mothers constitute 4.4 percent of the households. These are possibly older mothers living with their daughters.

To further illustrate the combinations of women in households a specific type of mother is measured in combination with other types of women. Table 5.1.3 to 5.1.5 establish how unique is a specific type of mother household. Table 5.1.3 demonstrates the combinations that result when only households with partnered mothers are selected. Over three quarters of partnered mother households have no other women aged 18-49 living in their household and 90.8 percent of such households are 'exclusive' (partnered mother only).

Table 5.1.3: Household composition of women aged 18-49 for partnered mother households.

Combinations	N	Percent
Partnered mother only	2,125,703	77.2
Partnered mother and childless woman	373,960	13.6
Partnered mother and de jure single mother	131,682	4.8
Partnered mother, de jure single mother, and childless woman	48,276	1.8
Partnered mother and other mother	35,318	1.3
Partnered mother, childless woman, and other mothers	11,816	0.4
Other combinations	24,767	0.9
Total	2,751,969	100.0

Source: GHS 2002. Note: There may be more than one of the listed type of woman in a household.

Table 5.1.6 demonstrates that a low proportion of partnered mother households house a woman 50 years and older (8.8 percent). A significant proportion of these households feature a male aged 18-49 (92.5 percent) or a male 50 years and older (17.5 percent). In about 14 percent of partnered households the married couple could be living with their childless daughter or a female relative without a child.

However, for 6.6 percent of partnered mother households the daughter or relative is a *de jure* single mother. Table 5.1.3 also shows that in 1.7 percent of the households the married couple is living with a mother of children older than 18 or a mother who's children do not live with her.

In almost two thirds of the *de facto* single mother households there are no other women or mothers aged 18-49 (Table 5.1.4). Over 80 percent of *de facto* single mother households are exclusive (*de facto* mother only). In about 16 percent of the *de facto* single mother households the mother lives with a woman who is childless and in about 12.8 percent of such households with a woman who is a *de jure* single mother. In such cases the woman may be the daughter of the *de facto* single mother. The proportion of *de facto* single mother households sharing with a *de jure* single mother (9.5 percent; Table 5.1.4) is higher than the proportion of partnered mother households sharing with *de jure* single mother (4.8 percent; Table 5.1.3). This finding perhaps underlines the difficulties faced by the *de facto* mother (often a rural mother); having a double burden of raising children in the absence of a father while supporting a *de jure* single mother. Table 5.1.6 shows that *de facto* mother households are less likely to house a male 18-49 (45.7 percent) or 50 years and older (10.4 percent).

Table 5.1.4: Household composition of women aged 18-49 for de facto single mother households.

Combinations	N	Percent
De facto single mother	479,567	66.8
De facto single mother and childless woman	111,777	15.6
De facto single mother and de jure single mother	67,857	9.5
De facto single mother, de jure single mother, and childless woman	23,612	3.3
De facto single mother and other mother	10,256	1.4
De facto single mother and partnered mother	9,269	1.3
Other combinations	15,209	2.1
Total	717,547	100.0

Source: GHS 2002. Note: There may be more than one of the listed type of woman in a household.

Almost two fifths of *de jure* single mother households are exclusively *de jure*. Fifty-six percent of *de jure* single mother households do not cohabit with another woman aged 18-49 (Table 5.1.5).

Table 5.1.5: Combinations of women aged 18-49 for de jure single mother households.

Combinations	N	Percent
De jure single mother only	1,306,519	56.6
De jure single mothers and childless woman	515,431	22.3
De jure mother and partnered mother	131,682	5.7
De jure single mother and other mother	129,864	5.6
De jure single mother and de facto single mother	67,857	2.9
De jure single mother, other mother, and childless woman	66,374	2.9
De jure single mother, partnered mother, and other mothers	48,276	2.1
De jure single mother, de facto single mother, and childless woman	23,612	1.0
Other combinations	16,880	0.9
Total	2,306,495	100.0

Of the three main categories of mother, de jure single mothers are least likely to live in a household with another woman aged 18-49 (56.6 percent compared with 77.2 percent and 66.8 percent for partnered mother and de facto single mothers respectively). A significant proportion of de jure single mothers households (43.4 percent) include another woman aged 18-49 years. About a quarter of de jure single mother households include a childless adult woman. About six percent of the de jure single mother households each share with an 'other' mother and a partnered mother. Table 5.1.5 also shows a low proportion (2.9 percent) of de jure mother household include a de facto single mother.

In table 5.1.6 *de jure* single mother households have the highest percentage of households with male 50 years and older (22.5 percent) and female 50 years and older (44 percent). This might suggest reliance on a parent or grandparent. Table 5.1.6 shows a relatively low percentage of these households have a male aged between 18 and 49 (51 percent) and the highest proportion of female 18-49 (29.2 percent).

Table 5.1.6: Presence of other males and females in mother household

	Partnered mother households	De facto mother households	De jure mother households	Other mother households	All households
N	2,751,869	717,549	2,306,496	1,392,660	11,780,379
50+ Male	17.2	10.4	22.5	16.6	21.3
50+ Female	8.8	20.3	44.0	13.5	29.9
18-49 Male (not father)	92.5	45.7	51.0	56.3	65.9
18-49 Female (not Mother)	16.0	20.7	29.2	24.1	24.J

Having noted that many women live in households with other types of mother the analysis will now shift to demographic and socio-economic characteristics of households containing different types of women. As can be observed in Tables 5.1.2 through 5.1.5 households can exhibit numerous combinations. The analysis that follows is run for all households that include the type of mother listed. The tables represent multiple responses; for example, a specific household may be measured under both partnered mother and under de jure single mother in a case where there are both partnered and de jure single mothers in a single household.

#### 5.2 Demographic profile of households

In this section households are categorised by three key demographic indicators i.e. population group (Table 5.2.1), gender of head of the household (Table 5.2.2) and urban-rural location (Table 5.2.3).

Table 5.2.1: Category of household by population group

Category	Black	Coloured	Indian	White	Total
N	9,071,948	930,097	282,476	1,478,874	11,780,379
Partnered mother	19.5	38.9	48.8	32.7	23.4
De facto single mother	6.9	5.3	3.1	2.3	6.1
De jure single mother	22.1	23.3	7.8	4.4	19.6
Other mother	13.0	9.2	7.9	7.2	11.8

Table 5.2.1 shows that partnered mother households occur in higher percentages for coloureds, Indians and white groups. *De jure* single mother households occur in low proportions for Indians and whites.

Table 5.2.2: Category of household by gender of household head

Category	Male	Female	Total
N	7,319,683	4.451,522	11,780,379
Partnered mother	35.4	3.6	23.4
De facto single mother	2.2	12.2	6.1
De jure single mother	8.8	37.3	19.6
Other mother	8.3	17.6	11.8

Source: GHS 2002

From table 5.2.2 male headed households are significantly more likely to be partnered mother households. Female headed households are significantly more likely to be *de facto* and *de jure* single mother households.

Table 5.2.3: Category of household by urban and rural location

Category	Urban	Rural	Total
N	7,319,683	4,451,522	11,780,379
Partnered mother	26.1	19.3	23.4
De facto single mother	3.1	10.5	6.1
De jure single mother	18.1	21,7	19.6
Other mother	12.6	10.7	11.8

Source: GHS 2002

Only 26.1 percent urban households house a partnered mother and 10.5 percent of rural households have *de facto* single mother. But this is higher than urban households (3.1 percent; table 5.2.3).

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# 5.3 Socio-economic indicators: sources of income, sources of welfare and household expenditure

This section describes main source of income and sources of welfare support in the households of partnered, de facto and de jure single, and other mothers.

# 5.3.1 Main source of income

Salaries and wages are the primary source of income for the household of partnered (79.1 percent) and other (70.2 percent) mothers (Table 5.3.1).

Table 5.3.1: Main source of income in households by type of household

Main source	Partnered	De facto	De jure single	Other	Total
of income	mother in hh	single	mother in hh	mother in	
		mother in hh		hlt	
N	2,751,869	717,549	2,303,634	1,392,660	11,718,963
Salaries and wages	79.1	38.3	47.9	70.2	59.4
Pensions and grants	8.3	15.2	28.5	10.0	18.2
Other non farm income	5.4	3.5	5.1	5.4	5.2
Remittances	4.7	41.1	14,9	10.7	13.5
No income	1,3	1.4	2.7	2.6	2.7
Sales of farm produce	1.2	0.6	1.1	1.1	1.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: GHS, 2002

The main source of income for de facto single mother households is remittances; 41.1 percent of such households receive income through a remittance. This underpins an earlier suggestion that the partner of the de facto single mother makes a contribution to the household. However, there is a significant proportion (38 percent) of de facto mother households that receive salaries and wages as source of income. Salaries and wages are the main source of income in almost half (47.7 percent) of de jure single mothers households this proportion is significantly lower than partnered mothers and other mother households. A high proportion of de jure single mother households (28.3 percent) report pensions and grants and the primary source of income (Table 5.3.1). This finding is corroborated by earlier statistics that showed de jure single mothers are more likely to be the daughter of the head (possibly a pensioner) and more likely to be living with a mother or father (see Table 5.1.6). About three percent of de jure single and childless women report having no source of income. A higher proportion of de jure single mother (43.8 percent) and 'other' mother (34.4 percent) households have an unemployed person in the household (Table 5.3.2). Almost 80 percent of partnered mother households reported salaries and wages as their source of income and they constitute almost 90 percent of these households have at least one person who is employed (Table 5.3.1 and 5.3.2).

Table 5.3.2: Employment status of members in households

Employment	Partnered	De facto single	De jure single	Other mother	Total
status	mother hh	mother in hh	mother in hh	in hh	
Employed	88.4	51.4	63.5	80.1	69.4
Unemployed	30.6	27.0	43.8	34.4	27.7

Source: GHS, 2002

#### 5.3.2. Sources of support and welfare grants

Table 5.3.2.1 illustrates the number and proportion of households that receive support from a variety of sources.

Table 5.3.2.1: Sources of support and welfare by type of household

Source of support	Partnered mother in	De facto single mother in	De jure single mother in	Other mother in household	Total
	household	household	household		
N	2,751,869	717,549	2,306,496	1,392,660	11,780,379
Old age pension	8.3	16.9	29.0	11.2	18.2
Disability grant	3.9	4.2	7.1	3.4	4.3
Child support grant	10.4	16.6	21.8	7.1	7.9
Other grant	1.1	2.2	1.9	0.3	1.1

From table 5.3.2.1 it is not surprising to discover that a significant proportion of *de jure* single mother households (29 percent) have access to old age pension. *De jure* single mother households also constitute the highest proportion of households living with a person 50 years or older (see Table 5.1.6). Table 5.3.2.1 indicates that a relatively high proportion of *de facto* and *de jure* single mother households have access to the child support grant.

# 5.3.3. Household expenditure

Over 25 percent of partnered mother households' expenditure is R2500 and above compared with de facto (8.2 percent), de jure (6.7 percent) and other mother (4.3 percent) households. De jure (67.9 percent) and de facto (69.5 percent) single mother and other mother (63.7 percent) households show significantly higher proportions than partnered mothers (42.9 percent) of household expenditure below R800 (Table 5.3.3). Partnered mothers occur in higher proportions than other types of household for expenditure above R1200.

Table 5.3.3: Household expenditure by type of household

Total household expenditure in last	Partnered mother in	De facto single mother in	De jure single mother in	Other mother in household	Total
month	household	household	household		
(N)	2,629,932	701,302	2,254,004	1,349,327	11,372,212
R0-399	20.4	30.6	32.6	35.7	32.4
R400-799	22.5	38.9	35.2	28.0	28.1
R800-1199	13.1	12.6	13.6	12.6	12.4
R1200-1799	9.9	6.4	7.4	7.5	7.4
R1800-2499	8.2	3.5	4.5	6.1	7.3
R2500-4999	12.3	3.8	4.5	5.8	5.7
R5000-9999	9.6	3.5	1.9	3.1	4.9
R10000+	4.0	0.9	0.3	1.2	1.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

# 5.4 Type of dwelling, ownership and access services

Poverty research demonstrates that a house and land are important assets for a family (Lal, 2000). A roof over ones head and access to good quality services are important factors in determining satisfaction (Lal, 2000). Objective indicators such as type of dwelling, home ownership and access to services are presented here.

# 5.4.1 Type of dwelling

Table 5.4.1 shows the main type of dwelling by type of household. A high proportion of partnered mother households are 'formal house or brick stand' (69.4 percent), and a relatively high percentage of *de facto* single mother households are traditional dwellings (23.2 percent).

Table 5.4.1: Main type of dwelling by type of household

Main dwelling	Parinered mother in	De facto single mother in	De jure single mother in	Other mother in household	Total
	household	household	household		
N	2,751,869	717,549	2,306,496	1,392,660	11,780,379
House/brick stand	69.4	61.7	63.7	57.3	58.6
Informal dwelling/shack	9.3	6.4	9.5	11.8	9.0
Traditional dwelling	7.9	23.2	14.8	8.0	11.2
Flat/apartment	4.2	2.6	3.3	5.9	6.2
Informal dwelling backyard	3.3	1.1	2.6	4.3	3.3
Dwelling in back yard	2.2	2.8	3.0	5.2	3.7
Town/cluster	2.0	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.9
Room/flat let	1.0	0.5	1.0	4.6	3.3
Other	0.6	0.1	0.4	1.1	2.9
total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Other mother households occur in higher proportions for categories of informal dwelling or shack and informal dwelling in a backyard. *De jure* single mother households occur in higher proportions than other and *de facto* mother households in a 'formal house or brick stand'.

# 5.4.2 Roof and wall material and condition of roof

Table 5.4.2 shows that mothers with a husband or partner present are well represented in houses with tiled roofs (26.6 percent) and brick walls (64.4 percent).

Table 5.4.2: Roof and wall material and condition by type of household

Roof material	Partnered mother	De facto single mother	De jure single mother	Other mother	Total
Roof material (N)	2,751,869	717,549	2306496	1,392,660	11,780,379
Corrugated iron/zinc	51	65.3	62.6	58.4	57.5
Tile	26.6	8.8	10.1	16.1	17
Asbestos	13.5	7.4	16.5	15.8	13.5
Thatching	4.0	14.8	7.0	3.4	5.7
Cement block/concrete	2.7	2.0	1.9	3.3	3.7
Bricks	0.5	0.6	1.5	0.5	0.6
Wood	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.8	0.6
Roof condition (N)	2,751,869	713,596	2,306,496	1,392,660	11,780,379
Very good	23.9	12.4	12.5	17.4	18.7
Good	40.3	46.4	40.6	40.8	40.9
Needs minor repairs	18.2	20.2	22.6	20.5	19.7
Weak	11.0	13.3	15.4	13.9	12.8
Very weak	6.6	7.6	8.9	7.5	7.6
Walls material (N)	2,751,869	717,549	2,306,496	1,392,660	11,780,379
Bricks	64.4	46.6	50.1	54	58.2
Cement/concrete	12.1	16.7	18.0	16.3	13.9
Corrugated iron/zinc	9.5	5.6	9.2	12.7	9.2
Mud	7.8	22.6	14.1	8.4	11.3
Wood	2.6	1.7	2.2	3.3	2.4
Mix mud +cement	1.8	4.7	4.5	2.7	2.7
Asbestos	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.4
Cardboard	0.2	0	0.2	0.2	0.3
Wattle & daub	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.4

In contrast, significantly high proportions of *de facto* and *de jure* single mother households have corrugated iron/zinc roofs (65.3 percent and 62.3 percent respectively). Significant proportions of *de facto* single mother households have mud walls and thatched roofs; this has much to do with many of such women living in traditional dwellings in a rural location. In spite of many *de facto* single mothers living in traditional dwellings most of them live in households in which the roof is in a good condition.

However, partnered mother households show the best statistics for very good roof condition; 23.9 percent of such households report very good roof conditions. A high proportion of *de jure* single mother households (18.0 percent) are walled with cement or concrete. This group has the highest proportion of households reporting weak to very weak structures that need repairs.

## 5.4.3. Ownership of dwelling

Table 5.4.3 shows that 80.2 percent of *de facto* single mother and 75.2 percent of *de jure* single mother households are owned and paid off compared to 52.9 percent of partnered mother households. Many of the owned and paid off dwellings of *de facto* single mother households are likely to be traditional dwellings in rural areas. About one fifth of partnered mother households are owned but not paid off. These households are likely to be formal houses in urban areas. Other mother households and partnered mother households are more likely to be rented (20.8 percent and 16.3 percent respectively).

Table 5.4.3. Ownership of dwelling by type of household

	Parinered mother	De facto single mother	De jure single mother	Other mother	Total
Ownership of  Dwelling (N)	2,751,869	717,549	2,306,496	1,388,559	11,780,379
Own paid off	52.9	80.2	75.2	51.3	58.4
Owned not paid off	21.8	6.3	6.7	9.2	10.9
Rented	16.3	7.2	11.8	20.8	18.0
Occupation rent free employ	5.8	3.5	2.6	12.4	7.7
Occupation rent free	3.0	2.3	3.3	5.5	4.2
Other	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.8	0.8
Government subsidy(N)	2,739,869	717,549	2,299,810	1,384,960	11,726,974
Yes	7.3	4.6	7.7	5.7	5.4

Source: GHS 2002

Slightly higher proportions of *de jure* single mothers (7.7 percent) and partnered mothers (7.3 percent) live in households that have access to a government subsidy (Table 5.4.3).

#### 5.4.4 Access to services in households

The relative affluence or poverty of a household will be reflected in the type of structure and access to services. Table 5.4.4 indicates that while around 90 percent of households have access to clear and safe water to drink just below 80 percent of *de facto* single mother households have such access. This probably reflects a rural disadvantage (a high proportion of *de facto* single mother households are located in rural areas (see Table 5.2.2).

Table 5.4.4 Source of water by type of household

Source of water	Partnered	De facto single	De jure single	Other	Total
	mother	mother	mother	mother	
(N)	2,751,869	717,549	2,306,496	1,392,660	11,774,209
Pipe in dwelling	52.4	20.0	31.4	39.1	39.2
Tape on site	25.2	25.7	32.3	33.8	31.1
Public tap	10.9	20.6	16.6	13.8	13.5
Natural	7.6	26.2	13.2	7.5	10.9
Bore hole	3.3	6.5	5.5	4.8	4.4
Other	0.6	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.9
Water safe to drink	2,736,978	711,977	2,297,209	1,382,314	11,723,450
Yes	92.5	79.4	87.3	91.6	90.1
Water is it clear (N)	2,751,869	717,549	2,306,496	1,392,660	11,780,379
Yes	92.3	80.9	88.6	92.3	90.5

Source: GHS 2002

De facto single mothers have poorest access to more desirable water supply (Table 5.4.4) and constitute the least electrified households (Table 5.4.5). Partnered mother households have the highest proportion (52.4 percent) with 'pipe in dwelling' households (Table 5.4.4).

Table 5.4.5 Services and sanitation facilities by type of household

HOUSEHOLD	Parinered	De facto single	De jure single	Other	Total
SERVICES	mother	mother	mother	mother	
Main electricity supply(N)	2,263,467	459,050	1,748,076	1,285,737	11.763,135
Yes	82.3	64.2	75.8	75.3	76.6
Sanitation facility (N)	2,751,869	717,549	2,306,496	1,392,660	1,1780,379
Inside flush toilet connected to public sewer	49.0	40.5	32.2	34.4	35.0
On site pit-laterine without ventilation pipe	20.4	20.9	25.9	23.9	24.7
On site flush toilet connected to public sewer	12.5	16.8	18.2	21.1	18.3
None	8.1	7.2	10.7	8.3	10.2
On site pit laterine with ventilation	3.5	6.9	5.6	4.1	4.4
On site bucket toilet	2.1	2.6	2.8	2.0	2.1
In house flush septic tank	1.5	2.2	2,1	1.7	1.8
Off site pit laternine without ventilation	1.2	0.7	0.6	1.1	1.1
Other	1.8	2.3	1.9	3.4	2.3

Table 5.4.5 shows that partnered mother households occur in the highest proportion (49 percent) for an inside dwelling flush toilet connected to public sewerage. A low percentage of *de jure* and *de facto* single mother households have an inside flush toilet. On the other hand other mother households show the highest proportion (21.1 percent) for on site flush toilets connected to a public sewerage system. High proportions of *de jure* single mother households have a pit latrine without ventilation (32.2 percent) or no sanitation facility at all (10.7 percent). *De jure* single mothers are worst off in terms of telecommunication (result not shown).

# 5.5 Victimization and perception of safety of mothers.

One may ask a question does domestic violence has anything to do with women remaining single? Or does poverty perpetuate domestic violence where woman and children become victims? Research has shown that the dependency of women for economic support in South Africa, women are willing to accept a considerable level of male violence (Preston-Whyte, 2003). Table 5.1.6 showed that almost half of *de jure* single mothers are living with male who is at least 50 years and is not her child's father.

Table 5.5 shows that women are more likely to be threatened by someone outside the household (5.1 percent compared with 1.2 percent from within the household). However, the percentage of women reporting being threatened or physically abused is generally very low (1-2 percent). This information is not enough to adequately answer some of the questions posed. But table 5.5 shows that most crime committed to the women is reported to be committed by someone outside the household.

Table 5.5 Victimization and perception of safety by type of household

Crime: molestation,	Partnered	De facto single	De jure single	Other	Total
harassed, threatened	mother	mother	mother	mother	
By household member (N)	2,742,981	715,747	2,301,928	1,390,096	11,780,379
Yes	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.8	1.2
By someone out (N)	2,745,047	716,750	2,305,824	1,391,000	11,780,379
Yes	5.6	4.0	4.8	5.9	5.1
Beaten up/ hurt by member of hh (N)	2,741,643	717,549	2,304,616	1,391,000	11,753,086
Yes	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.2	1.1
Someone out of hh (N)	2,740,996	716,750	2,304,173	1,391,000	11,749,850
Yes	2.1	2.3	3.5	2.4	2.5
Satisfaction with public safety (N)	2,749,495	716,750	2,305,171	1,389,976	11,780,379
Safe	48.9	54.1	47.9	48.1	49.5
Unsafe	40.5	35.8	41.1	41.2	39.9
Neither Un/safe	10.7	10.1	10.9	10.8	10.6

Source: GHS 2002

The statistics for partnered mother (1.5 percent), de facto mother (1.3 percent) and de jure single mother (1.4 percent) households do not appear to be different. A significant proportion of all mother households are more likely to be beaten up or hurt by member of household but de facto and de jure single mother show higher statistics although not significantly different (1.6 percent and 1.5 percent) from each other. In terms of molestation and beaten up, de jure single mothers show higher proportions of outside household violence. De jure single mothers and mother of children older than age 18 households are dissatisfied with public safety, yet de facto single mother households (who mostly reside in rural areas) are satisfied with public safety (54.1 percent). However, almost half of the mother households consider themselves safe despite that South Africa has a high crime rate.

In conclusion, de facto single mother households (mostly found in rural areas) constitute the highest proportions of female headed households followed by de jure single mothers. More than half of the de jure single mothers live with their parents. In Chapter Four it was shown that half de jure single mothers are daughters of the head of household. In this chapter it was demonstrated that a high proportion of de jure single mothers live in households with a person who is at least 50 years old. In 44 percent of the de jure single mother households the mother lives with another female 50 years and older. The picture on indicators developed is that partnered mothers have better quality indicators. For example, partnered mothers households constitute the highest proportion of households with clear and safe water to drink and with flush toilets. It would appear that such households benefit from a pooling of resources.

#### Chapter 6

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# Discussion and Conclusion

# 6.1 The second demographic transition

The objectives of this study were to count the number of *de jure* single mothers and develop profiles of their characteristics for various indicators at individual and household level. From the secondary analysis of the 2002 General household survey data, we found that 25.1 percent of women aged between 18 and 49 are *de jure* single mothers. This figure is slightly less than 31.2 percent of married women (partnered and *de facto* single mothers). The relatively high percentage of women who are *de jure* single mothers supports the National Population Unit (2000) statement that there is no significant difference between marital and premarital fertility in South Africa. It is certainly feasible South Africa might be going through the second demographic transition, where marital fertility is in decline and non-marital fertility is increasing, leading to an increased numbers of single mothers. In addition, South Africa has the highest percentage (34.4 percent) of children living with mother only compared to other selected sub-Saharan countries.

#### 6.2 Modernisation theory

There are many theories that have been developed to try and explain the causes that lead to the increasing number of single mothers. This study discussed only two, the modernisation and rational choice theory. Proponents of the modernisation theory state that the increase in out-of-wedlock births is a result of exposing adolescents to western values that wear down the traditional moral regulations. Rural-urban migration is seen as one of the factors that have contributed in eroding these traditional values inculcated in rural areas. However, results show that rural areas have the higher proportion (28.1 percent) of *de jure* single mothers than in urban areas (23.1 percent). These findings are in contrast with the modernisation theory, which claims that premarital births are a

product of urbanisation. An explanation for this observation would require further investigation.

The modernisation theory also states that higher female wages and a high proportion of women who have economic autonomy are associated with the prevalence of *de jure* single mothers. The results of this study indicate that almost two thirds of *de jure* single mothers are either unemployed or not economically active. The reason given for not working is lack of necessary skills or 'cannot find a suitable job'. For those *de jure* single mothers who are employed, their main occupation is 'elementary occupation'. *De jure* single mothers are concentrated in less skilled industries, for example 'private households' and wholesale and retail trade'. About 61 percent of *de jure* single mothers earn R1000 or less. This evidence shows that it is less likely that *de jure* single mothers can have economic autonomy.

Another argument against modernisation theory is the restrictive cost of marriage, in particular amongst some black African groups. The cost of marriage remains high and this is likely to result in delay of marriage, however, young women are not likely to delay child bearing. If modernisation were having an impact on fertility and marital status one would expect lowering of cost of marriage and higher rate of marriage.

Thus the modernisation theory is not applicable in South Africa, particularly since large percentages of *de jure* single mothers are far from being economically autonomous.

# 6.3 Rational choice theory

Research has shown that the increasing non-marital fertility is partly due to "rational adaptation" where pregnancy is used as a rational strategy to prove fertility and facilitate marriage. The results of this study indicate that the highest proportions of single mothers are between ages 20 to 29 years. This tends to support the idea that young women might use pregnancy as a strategy to prove fertility and facilitate marriage. However, the cross-sectional nature of the 2002 General household survey does not allow analysis of changes

in a mother marital /partner's status. A longitudinal analysis would provide a measure of whether single mothers marry or remain single.

Al-Alzar (1999) found that the rational choice model is consistent with the dependency theory. The dependency theory states that poor women engage in a 'rational strategy' to cope with poverty and marginality. It emerged from the analysis that high proportion of de jure single mothers are found in poor provinces (Limpopo, Mpumalanga and Eastern Cape) and the lowest proportions are found in richer provinces of Western Cape and Gauteng. In addition, high proportions of de jure single mothers are found among black/African and coloured populations. According to Terreblanche (2002), there is a close correlation between race and poverty in South Africa and a high proportion of black and coloured South Africans are poor and unemployed. Discriminatory laws prevented Africans from doing skilled and high paying jobs and Africans were paid lower wages even if they were doing the same job categories as whites (Terreblanche, 2002).

Terreblanche (2002) argues that there is also a strong correlation between education achievement and poverty. More than 90 percent of *de jure* single mothers have secondary education or less. Individuals with no education and less education (less than seven years of primary education) have a higher chance of being poor than individuals with higher education. The main source of income in almost a third of *de jure* single mother households is grants and old age pension. Almost half of the *de jure* single mothers live with a male person older than 50 years and 37.3 percent households are headed by *de jure* single mothers. A significant proportion of *de jure* single mothers appear to get support from someone in the household. About half of *de jure* single mothers who are not staying with either the father or the mother are employed suggesting that some single mothers are economically independent and therefore may not be relying entirely on marriage to survive.

# 6.4 The effect of apartheid policies

South African history tells us that the root cause of poverty is racial inequality and social injustices owed to the legacy of colonialism, segregation and apartheid (Terreblanche, 2002). To measure poverty the study used the following proxy indicators: type of dwelling; ownership of dwelling; household expenditure; access to services; roof and wall material; and condition of household. But it should be noted that de jure single mothers live with other mothers (partnered, de facto and 'other' mothers) in almost 45 percent of the households. About two thirds of de jure single mothers live in formal houses made of bricks and 15 percent live in a traditional dwelling, which is more likely to be in a rural area. In 46.9 percent of the de jure households the roof condition ranges from very weak to those that requires minor repairs. Almost three quarters of de jure single mother households are paid off. This might reflect that most de jure single mother households are located in rural areas and most of them are still staying with their parents (either both or the mother). More than 75 percent of de jure single mother households have access to electricity but a low proportion of households have an inside flush toilet. De jure single mother households have the poorest access to telecommunication. 81.4 percent of de jure single mothers' households spend R1200 or less per month. In generally de jure single mothers are worse off than partnered mothers but do have access to welfare through pension and child support.

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#### 6.5 Partnered and de facto single mothers

Partnered mothers show better statistics for virtually all the selected indicators including education attainment at tertiary level, income and employment, when compared with de jure, de facto, 'other' mothers and childless women. Partnered mothers generally have better living standards compared to the other mothers because they stay with their partners; apparently they are more likely to pool resources (or males have better access to resources). Studies have pointed out that educated women are more likely to marry equally or highly educated husbands than themselves (Basu, 1995). Research findings

have also supported that children are better off if they are raised by both biological parents. The racial profile of women shows that African (20.3 percent) and coloureds (35.2 percent) have the lowest proportions of partnered mothers compared to whites (43.6 percent) and Indians (47.3 percent). One may ask the question, what makes coloureds and African have the lowest proportion of partnered mothers? Is it the issue of poverty? The modernisation theory has stated that lower male earnings and less male employment opportunities make marriage unattractive. These conditions increase the chances of women choosing to be unmarried mothers. However, this dissertation did not discuss the employment status of men in relation to the increased number of de jure single mothers. Further research is required to establish how male earnings and job opportunities affect chances of getting married or remarried. On the other hand, marriage might not be the solution to problems encountered by women since another married group of women where the father is absent (de facto single mother) appeared to be worse off for most of the selected indicators compared to the other mothers including de jure single mother. The de facto single mothers' situation is obscured by their marital status. The plight of this group of women does not receive the attention it deserves from the state because it is largely assumed that the responsibilities between the husband and the wife remain intact or the extended family is fulfilling the role of the absent husband (Chandler, 1991:14).

#### 6.6 The implications of single motherhood

This study has shown that there is a high proportion of single mothers in South Africa. Reports from previous studies have shown that the proportion of single mothers has increased. What implication does this have on South African family structures? Literature has shown that the negative outcomes associated with early parenthood change with time and some single mothers are able to overcome the setbacks. This study used cross sectional data, which makes it difficult to address the issue of change. Even assuming single mothers can adapt to childbearing over the life course there are far reaching implications to the lives of their children. Mclanahan and Bumpass (1988:130) argue that there is evidence that suggest that living in a single parent family is related to the reproduction of female headed families through premarital fertility and marital

disruption. Mclanahan and Bumpass (1988:130-135) provide three major explanations why children from female headed families are more likely to become single parents themselves. First, the intergenerational effects to economic deprivation may affect the character of children and the general outlook of their parental household. Economic need may force children to drop out of school in order to contribute time and money into the household. Adolescent females from low income families may see parenthood as means of escaping poverty.

A Second explanation emphasizes the importance of adolescent socialisation and parental supervision. The absence of one parent, particularly the male has its consequences for 'personality development' and 'heterosexual relation'. Marriage disruption through divorce increases the daughter's interest and dependency on men while disruption due to death prevents the 'cross sex interaction'. The role model presented by a single mother may portray that women are capable of managing family alone. Daughters of single mothers may see single parenthood as an alternative if faced with an unhappy marriage. Affecting the role modelling process may undermine parental authority and social control. Studies have hypothesized that lack of supervision is related to early sexual activity and premarital birth.

The third explanation is borrowed from the 'stress theory', which emphasizes that marital disruption may force children out of their family into assuming adult roles. The 'stress theory' suggests that parents' divorce or remarriage may persuade children to become sexually active or leave home prematurely.

#### 6.7 Recommendations

Marriage and divorce rates are low in South Africa and marriage is more likely to
dissolve through death than divorce (Amoateng et al, 2004). De facto single
mothers are more likely to originate from high adolescent pregnancy than divorce.
In the view of the fact that adolescent pregnancy is associated with single
motherhood, there is a need to improve attempts that allow adolescents to have

control over their fertility. Studies have shown that a high proportion of young girls start using contraception after their first birth in South Africa (Kaufman et al., 2001; Garenne et al, 2000). Research has also shown that some of the reasons young girls fall pregnant are ignorance, curiosity, peer pressure or feelings of competition, fear of attending clinics that are unwelcoming to young contraceptive users, and, occasionally, forced sex (Kaufmann et al, 2001). According to Garenne et al (2000) providing safe and effective contraceptive methods may work well with experienced woman but could fail to fulfil the needs of adolescents and young adults before their first pregnancy. Better access to contraception would require three inputs (Garenne et al, 2000). Firstly, recognise adolescent's (especially the youngest) special needs, including the skills to negotiate with male partners. Secondly, provide adolescents (both males and females) with appropriate and cultural sensitive information on reproductive health, including contraception (Garenne et al, 2000). Third, provide youth friendly contraceptives outlets to allow young contraceptive users easy access to contraception.

- 2. As it has been documented from this dissertation, de facto and de jure single mothers are worse off than married mothers. The state to some degree supports de jure single through child support grants and enforcing child maintenance. Law and order does not guarantee stability in within marriage relationships, which are permanently negotiable (Edgars, 1992). Therefore, de facto single mothers lack such support from the state and this matter requires attention from the State.
- 3. Excessive harmonization by state degrades 'civil society' (Edgars, 1992). Just as state control and an exaggerated welfare state degrades the integrity of individuals, there is a need to rejuvenate moral obligations in society. Individuals need to be reminded to be responsible for their obligations to others and their obligation to protect social order that makes their freedom possible (Edgars, 1992).

#### 6.8 Conclusion

In conclusion, the study has shown that the number of single mothers in South Africa is high and *de jure* single mothers are poorer than partnered mothers but they can get support from other adults. *De facto* single mothers, on the other hand, show similar poverty characteristics to *de jure* single mothers so not all married or partnered women are better off. The poverty status of single mothers has implications for the wellbeing of their children.

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# APPENDIX A

Distribution of women aged 18-49 by province and urban-rural location:

Table A1: Province by rural/urban location

Rural/ urban	W.C	Eastern Cape	Norther n Cape	Free State	KwaZulu Natal	North West
N	1,116,754	1,233,542	174,000	615,789	2,005,670	781,754
Urban	89.2	40.0	69.4	72.7	51.9	39.5
Rural	10.8	60.0	30.6	27.3	48.1	60.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table A1: continued

1 dote 111. continuen								
Rural/urban	Gauteng	Mpumalanga	Limpopo	Total				
N	2,116,526	652,323	1,066,461	9,762,819				
Urban	96.1	43.4	12.5	60.0				
Rural	3.9	56.6	87.5	40.0				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0				

#### APPENDIX B

## General Household Survey 2002 questionnaire (Stats SA, 2002)

The 2002 GHS questionnaire is included in electronic format (CD pouch on back cover).

The CD contains the following files:

GHS Cover page.doc

GHS Section 1a.doc

GHS Section1b.doc

GHS Section2.doc

GHS Section3.doc

GHS Section4.doc

The files are in rich text format (rtf). The files can be opened in either MS Word or any other software application that can read this format.

Should you use this electronic version of the questionnaire (or any part thereof) for your own research please acknowledge and cite Stats SA as the source.

**Questionnaire ID** 

+



# **General Household Survey**

<b>Particulars</b>	of the household		For office	use		
PSU number			Respo	nse details		
Dwelling unit number	er		Visit no	Date (actual)	Result code	Next visit (planned)
Physical identification	on of the dwelling unit/househo	ld	2			
			3			
Telephone number of	of enumerated household (if an	y)	FINAL RE	SULT	,	,
Total number of pers	sons in the household		Comments	s and full details of all n	on-response/unu	sual circumstances
Questionnaire no. fo	or this household (for persons r	no. 01 - 10 = 1, etc.)	<u> </u>			
Households a	at the selected dwell for this household	ling				
Total number of hou	seholds at the selected dwellin	g				
Field staff			RESULT C	CODES (for response de	etails)	
Interviewer	Number	Interview date	2 3	Completed Non-contact Refused	)	
Supervisor	Number	Date checked	4 5	Partly complete  No usable information		and give full details above
RSM / QA	Number	Date checked	6 7	Vacant dwelling Listing error	, containing	
			8	Other	J	

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FLAP This section covers particulars of each person in the household
The following information must be obtained in respect of every person who normally resides in this household at least four nights a week.

Do not forget babies. If there are more than 10 persons in the household, use a second questionnaire.

		Person (re	espondent)	number							
	Ask who the <u>head</u> (or the <u>acting head)</u> of the household is	<b>01</b> Head/ Acting head	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
A	First name and surname Write down first name and surname of each member of the household, starting with the head or acting head.										
	If more than one head or acting head, take the oldest.  Write sideways if necessary.										
В	Has stayed here (in this household) for at least four nights on average per week during the last four weeks?										
	1 = YES	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	<u> </u>	☐ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = No → End of questions for this person	2	_ 2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
С	Is a male or a female?										
	1 = MALE	1	<u> </u>	☐ 1	1	<u> </u>	1	1	1	1	1
	2 = FEMALE	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	□ 2	2	☐ 2
D	<b>How old is?</b> (In completed years - In whole numbers) Less than 1 year = 00.										
Е	What population group does belong to?										
	1 = AFRICAN/BLACK	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = COLOURED	2	2	□ 2	2	2	2	2	□ 2	2	2
	3 = Indian/Asian	☐ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	☐ 3	□ 3	<u></u> 3
	4 = WHITE	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	4	<u> </u>					
	5 = OTHER, specify	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	☐ 5
F	Is there any other person residing in this household, than those already mentioned, who is not presently here?	☐ YES	<i>→ If "</i> YE	s" <b>, Go ba</b>	ck to A						

**SECTION 1** This section covers particulars of each person in the household Start from the left (person number 01) and complete section 1 for each person in the household separately.

		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	80	09	10
1.1	What is's relationship to the head of the household? (I.e. to the person in column 1)										
	1 = Mark the head/acting head	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	☐ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = Husband/wife/partner	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2
	3 = SON/DAUGHTER/STEPCHILD/ADOPTED CHILD	☐ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	☐ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3
	4 = Brother/sister	☐ 4	☐ 4	□ 4	□ 4	☐ 4	☐ 4	□ 4	□ 4	□ 4	□ 4
	5 = FATHER/MOTHER	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5
	6 = Grandparent/great grandparent	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6
	7 = GRANDCHILD/GREAT GRANDCHILD	□ 7	□ 7	□ 7	□ 7	□ 7	□ 7	□ 7	□ 7	□ 7	□ 7
	8 = OTHER RELATIVE (E.G. IN-LAWS OR AUNT/UNCLE)	□ 8	□ 8	□ 8	□ 8	□ 8	□ 8	□ 8	□ 8	□ 8	□ 8
	9 = Non-related persons	9	<u> </u>	□ 9	□ 9	□ 9	□ 9	□ 9	□ 9	□ 9	□ 9
1.2.a	What is's present marital status?										
	1 = Married or Living together as husband and wife	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = WIDOW/WIDOWER	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
	$3 = Divorced or Separated > \rightarrow Go to Q 1.3.a$	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
	4 = Never married	4	4	<u> </u>	4	<u> </u>	4	4	<u> </u>	4	<u> </u>
1.2.b	Does's spouse/partner live in this household?										
	1 = YES	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = No → <b>Go to Q 1.3.a</b>	2	2	2	2	<u> </u>	2	2	<u> </u>	2	<u> </u>
1.2.c	Which person is the spouse/partner of?										
	Give person number										
1.3.a	Is 's father still alive?										
	1 = YES	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = No	 2	_ 2	2	2	2	2	2	2	_ 2	_ 2
	3 = Don't know	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3

Questionnaire ID

							<u> </u>	1			
		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
1.3.b	Is's father part of the household?										
	1 = YES	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	<u> </u>	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = No → <b>Go to Q 1.4.a</b>	2	2	2	□ 2	2	2	2	2	☐ 2	☐ 2
1.3.c	Which person is's father?  Give person number										
1.4.a	Is 's mother still alive?										
	1 = YES	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	1	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	□ 1
	$2 = No \qquad \qquad \rightarrow \textbf{Go to Q 1.5.a}$	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
	3 = Don't know J	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3
1.4.b	Is's mother part of the household?										
	1 = YES	1	<u> </u>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	<u> </u>
	$2 = No   \rightarrow \textbf{Go to Q 1.5.a}$	2	2	2	<u> </u>	2	2	2	2	2	2
1.4.c	Which person is's mother?										
	Give person number										
1.5.a	Can read in at least one language?										
	1 = YES	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	☐ 1	□ 1	☐ 1	□ 1
	2 = No	_ 2	2	_ 2	2	2	2	_ 2	2	2	2
1.5.b	Can write in at least one language?										
	1 = YES	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	☐ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = No	_ 2	_ 2	_ 2	□ 2	2	2	2	□ 2	☐ 2	□ 2
1.6.a	In the last seven days, did spend at least one hour fetching water for home use (not for sale)?										
	1 = YES	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□1
	$2 = No$ $\rightarrow$ Go to Q 1.7.a	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2
1.6.b	How many hours did spend on fetching water in the last seven days?										

 1	1		1	

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		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
1.7.a	In the last seven days, did spend at least one hour fetching wood/dung for home use (not for sale)?										
	1 = YES	<u> </u>	□ 1	<u> </u>	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	<u> </u>	□ 1	□ 1
	$2 = No$ $\rightarrow$ Go to Q 1.8	_ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	_ 2	□ 2	_ 2	2	□ 2
1.7.b	How many hours did spend on fetching wood/dung in the last seven days?										

1.8	Do you know if there is a welfare office in your area?	
	1 = YES	□ 1
	2 = No	□ 2
	3 = Don't know	□ 3
1.9	Who is the person who usually brings in the most money into the household?	
	Give person number and mark a box below	
	<ul><li>1 = If there is one person who brings in the highest amount, give the person number of this person and mark box 1</li></ul>	<u> </u>
	2 = If two persons or more bring in the same highest amount, give person number of <b>the oldest of them</b> and mark box 2	2
	3 = If the respondent does not know, give person number of <b>the oldest person who brings in money</b> and mark box 3	□ 3 
	4 = If no-one brings in money, give person number of the oldest person in the household and mark box 4	<u> </u>

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# **EDUCATION**

		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
1.10	What is the highest level of education that has completed?										
	00 = No schooling	O0	□ 00	□ 00	□ 00	□ 00	□ 00	□ 00	□ 00	□ 00	□ 00
	01 = GRADE R/0	01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01
	02 = Sub A/Grade 1	02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02
	03 = Sub B/Grade 2	03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03
	04 = Grade 3/Standard 1	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04
	05 = Grade 4/Standard 2	05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05
	06 = Grade 5/Standard 3	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06
	07 = Grade 6/Standard 4	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07
	08 = Grade 7/Standard 5	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	80 🗌	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08
	09 = Grade 8/Standard 6/Form 1	O9	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09
	10 = Grade 9/Standard 7/Form 2	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	□ 10	□ 10	□ 10	<u> </u>	□ 10	□ 10
	11 = Grade 10/Standard 8/Form 3	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	□ 11	□ 11	□ 11	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	□ 11
	12 = Grade 11/Standard 9/Form 4	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	☐ 12	<u> </u>				
	13 = Grade 12/Standard 10/Form 5/Matric	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	☐ 13	☐ 13	☐ 13	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
	14 = NTC I	14	<u> </u>	□ 14	☐ 14	□ 14	□ 14	□ 14	□ 14	☐ 14	☐ 14
	15 = NTC II	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
	16 = NTC III	□ 16	□ 16	□ 16	☐ 16	□ 16	□ 16	□ 16	□ 16	□ 16	☐ 16
	17 = DIPLOMA/CERTIFICATE WITH LESS THAN GRADE 12/STD 10	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
	18 = DIPLOMA/CERTIFICATE WITH GRADE 12/STD 10	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	□ 18	<u> </u>	□ 18	□ 18	□ 18	□ 18	□ 18	<u> </u>
	19 = Degree	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
	20 = Postgraduate degree or diploma	<b>20</b>	<u> </u>	<u>20</u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u>20</u>	<u>20</u>	<u>20</u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
	21 = OTHER (specify in column)	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
	22 = Don't know	22	<u>22</u>	<u>22</u>	<u> </u>	<u>22</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>22</u>
1.11	Is currently attending school or any other										
1.11	educational institution?				_						
	1 = YES  → <b>Go to Q 1.13</b>	1	1	<u> </u>	1	<u> </u>	1	1	1	1	1
	2 = No	2	□ 2	☐ 2	2	□ 2	2	2	2	2	2

2 = No

**Questionnaire ID** 

							<u> </u>	1 1	J	,	
		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	80	09	10
1.12	What is the main reason why is currently not attending school or any other education institution?										
	01 = Too old/young	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01
	02 = Has completed school/education	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02
	03 = SCHOOL/EDUCATION INSTITUTION IS TOO FAR AWAY	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03
	04 = No money for fees	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04
	05 = He/she is working (AT HOME OR JOB)	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05
	06 = EDUCATION IS USELESS OR UNINTERESTING	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06
	07 = ILLNESS	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07
	08 = Pregnancy	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08
	09 = FAILED EXAMS	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09
	10 = GOT MARRIED	□ 10	□ 10	□ 10	□ 10	□ 10	□ 10	□ 10	□ 10	□ 10	□ 10
	11 = FAMILY COMMITMENT (CHILD MINDING, ETC.)	□ 11	□ 11	□ 11	□ 11	□ 11	□ 11	□ 11	□ 11	□ 11	□ 11
	12 = OTHER, specify in column underneath	□ 12	□ 12	□ 12	□ 12	□ 12	□ 12	□ 12	□ 12	□ 12	□ 12
	→ Go to Q 1.19										
1.13	Which of the following educational institutions does attend? Include distance and correspondence education										
	1 = Pre-school (including day care, crèche, pre-primary)	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1		□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = School										
	3 = University	3	$\begin{bmatrix} \Box 2 \\ \Box 3 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} \Box 2 \\ \Box 3 \end{bmatrix}$	☐ 2 ☐ 3	$\begin{bmatrix} \Box 2 \\ \Box 3 \end{bmatrix}$	3	$\begin{bmatrix} \Box 2 \\ \Box 3 \end{bmatrix}$			
	4 = Technikon	☐ 3 ☐ 4			☐ 3 ☐ 4	□ 3   □ 4	☐ 3 ☐ 4	☐ 3 ☐ 4		☐ 3 ☐ 4	
	5 = College	5	☐ 5	☐ 5	□ <del>1</del> □ 5		☐ 5	□ <del>1</del> □ 5	5	☐ 5	5
	6 = Adult basic education and training/literacy classes				☐ 6						☐ 6
	7 = Other adult educational classes				☐ 7	☐ 7		☐ 7		☐ 7	7
	8 = Other than any of the above	_	_	_			_				
		8 🗌	8 🗌	8 🗌	8 🗌	□ 8	8 🗌	8 🗌	8 🗌	8 🗌	□ 8
1.14	Is it a correspondence/distance educational institution?										
	1 = YES → Go to Q 1.16	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = NO	2	☐ 2	2	□ 2	2	<u>2</u>	2	☐ 2	2	□ 2

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		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
1.15	How long does it take to get to the school/educational institution where he/she attends?										
	1 = LESS THAN 15 MINUTES	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = 15 - 30 MINUTES	_ 2	_ _ 2	_ 2	_ 2	_ _ 2	_ _ 2	2	_ _ 2	_ 2	_ 2
	3 = More than 30 minutes	3	3	3	_ 3	3	3	3	3	3	_ 3
	4 = Don't know	4	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	4	<u> </u>					

# Ask for all who are attending school any educational institution

1.16	What is the total amount of tuition fees paid for in a year?  Do not include the cost of uniforms, books and other learning										
	materials.										
	01 = R1 - R100	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01
	02 = R101 - R200	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02
	03 = R201 - R300	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03
	04 = R301 - R500	<u> </u>	□ 04	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04
	05 = R501 - R1000	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05
	06 = R1001 – R2000	<u> </u>	□ 06	□ 06	<u> </u>	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	<u> </u>	□ 06	□ 06
	07 = R2001 – R3000	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07
	08 = R3001 – R4000	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08
	09 = R4001 - R8000	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09
	10 = R8001 - R12000	<u> </u>									
	11 = More than R12000	<u> </u>	□ 11	<u> </u>	□ 11	<u> </u>	□ 11	□ 11	□ 11	□ 11	□ 11
	12 = NONE	<u> </u>									
	13 = Don't know	<u> </u>	□ 13	□ 13	<u> </u>	□ 13	□ 13	□ 13	□ 13	□ 13	□ 13
1.17	This academic year, has benefited from any exemptions and/or bursaries?										
	1 = YES	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	□ 1	□ 1	<u> </u>	☐ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = No	_ 2	<u> </u>	☐ 2	2	2	_ 2	<u> </u>	☐ 2	2	<u></u>
	3 = Don't know	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3

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During the past 12 months, what problems, if any, did experience at the school(or other educational	Vsa Na
institution)?  Yes No Y	Yes No
1 = Lack of books	1 🗆 2
2 = Poor teaching	1 🗆 2
3 = Lack of teachers	1 🗆 2
4 = Facilities in bad condition	1 🗆 2
5 = Fees too high	1 🗆 2
6 = Classes too large	1 🗆 2
7 = Other, specify in column	1 2

#### **HEALTH**

#### Ask for everyone

ASK	tor everyone										
1.19	Is covered by a medical aid or medical benefit scheme or other private health insurance?										
	1 = YES	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	01	□ 01
	2 = No	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02
	3 = Don't know	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03
1.20	During the past month, did suffer from any illnesses or injuries?										
	1 = YES	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	<u> </u>	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	<u> </u>	□ 01
	2 = No → <b>Go to Q 1.29</b>	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02

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		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
1.21	What sort of illnesses or injuries did suffer from? Was it										
	01 = Flu or acute respiratory tract infection	Yes No	Yes No	Yes No	Yes No	Yes No	Yes No	Yes No	Yes No	Yes No	Yes No
	02 = Diarrhoea	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2				□ 1 □ 2			□ 1 □ 2
	03 = Severe trauma (e.g. due to violence, motor vehicle accident, gunshot, assault, beating)	□ 1 □ 2 □ 1 □ 2	□1 □2 □1 □2	□1 □2 □1 □2				□1 □2 □1 □2			□1 □2 □1 □2
	04 = TB or severe cough with blood										
	05 = Abuse of alcohol or drugs	$\begin{bmatrix} \Box 1 & \Box 2 \\ \Box 1 & \Box 2 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} \Box 1 & \Box 2 \\ \Box 1 & \Box 2 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} \Box 1 & \Box 2 \\ \Box 1 & \Box 2 \end{bmatrix}$				$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$			
	06 = Depression or mental illness	$\begin{bmatrix} \Box 1 & \Box 2 \\ \Box 1 & \Box 2 \end{bmatrix}$	$     \begin{array}{c c}                                    $	$     \begin{array}{c c}                                    $			□1 □2 □1 □2	□1 □2 □1 □2			$\square$ 1 $\square$ 2 $\square$ 1 $\square$ 2
	07 = Diabetes	$\begin{bmatrix} \Box & \Box & \Box & Z \\ \Box & \Box & \Box & Z \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} \Box & \Box & \Box & Z \\ \Box & 1 & \Box & 2 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} \Box & 1 & \Box & 2 \\ \Box & 1 & \Box & 2 \end{bmatrix}$				$\begin{bmatrix} \Box & 1 & \Box & 2 \\ \Box & 1 & \Box & 2 \end{bmatrix}$		$\begin{bmatrix} \Box & 1 & \Box & 2 \\ \Box & 1 & \Box & 2 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} \Box & \Box & \Box & Z \\ \Box & 1 & \Box & 2 \end{bmatrix}$
	08 = High or low blood pressure	$\begin{bmatrix} \Box & \Box & \Box & 2 \\ \Box & 1 & \Box & 2 \end{bmatrix}$	$\square$ 1 $\square$ 2	$\square$ 1 $\square$ 2				$\begin{bmatrix} \Box & 1 & \Box & 2 \\ \Box & 1 & \Box & 2 \end{bmatrix}$			$\begin{bmatrix} \Box & \Box & \Box & 2 \\ \Box & 1 & \Box & 2 \end{bmatrix}$
	09 = HIV/AIDS	$\Box$ 1 $\Box$ 2	$\Box$ 1 $\Box$ 2	$\square$ 1 $\square$ 2				$\Box$ 1 $\Box$ 2			$\Box$ 1 $\Box$ 2
	10 = Other sexually transmitted disease	1 2	$\Box$ 1 $\Box$ 2	1 2		1 —		1 2			1 2
	11 = Other illness or injury	1 2	1 2	1 2				1 2		1 2	
1.22	During the past month, did consult a health worker such as a nurse, doctor or traditional healer as a result of illness or injury?										
	1 = YES	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01
	$2 = No$ $\rightarrow$ Go to Q 1.28	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02
1.23	What kind of health worker was it? If more than one consultation, take the most recent.										
	1 = Nurse	□ 1	□ 1	<u> </u>	□ 1	<u> </u>	□ 1	<u> </u>	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = Doctor	☐ 2	□ 2	_ 2	<u>2</u>	_ 2	□ 2	<u> </u>	<u>2</u>	□ 2	2
	3 = MEDICAL SPECIALIST	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	☐ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3
	4 = PHARMACIST/CHEMIST	☐ 4	☐ 4	□ 4	□ 4	<u> </u>	☐ 4	☐ 4	□ 4	☐ 4	□ 4
	5 = DENTIST	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5
	6 = Spiritual healer (Church related)	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6
	7 = Traditional healer	□ 7	□ 7	□ 7	□ 7	□ 7	□ 7	□ 7	□ 7	□ 7	□ 7
	8 = Any Other Health Care Provider Including psychologist, physiotherapist, chiropractor, homeopath, optometrist	□ 8	□ 8	8	□ 8	8	□ 8	□8	□ 8	□ 8	□8
	9 = Don't know	□ 9	□ 9	□ 9	□ 9	□ 9	□ 9	□ 9	□ 9	□ 9	□ 9

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		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
1.24	Where did the consultation take place?  If more than one consultation, ask about the most recent one.										
	Public sector (i.e. government, provincial or community institution)										
	01 = HOSPITAL	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01
	02 = CLINIC	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02
	03 = Other in public sector, specify	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03
	<b>Private sector</b> (including private clinics, surgery, private hospitals and sangomas)										
	04 = HOSPITAL	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04
	05 = CLINIC	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05
	06 = PRIVATE DOCTOR/SPECIALIST	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06
	07 = Traditional healer	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07
	08 = Pharmacy/chemist	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08
	09 = HEALTH FACILITY PROVIDED BY EMPLOYER	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09
	10 = ALTERNATIVE MEDICINE, E.G. HOMEOPATHIST	□ 10	<u> </u>	□ 10							
	11 = OTHER IN PRIVATE SECTOR, <i>specify</i>	□ 11	☐ 11	□ 11	☐ 11	☐ 11	□ 11	□ 11	☐ 11	□ 11	□ 11
	12 = Don't know	<u> </u>									
1.25	What problems, if any, were experienced by during this particular visit to a health worker?	Yes No									
	1 = Facilities not clean	1 2	□ 1 □ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2
	2 = Long waiting time	1 2		□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2
	3 = Opening times not convenient	1 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2
	4 = Too expensive	1 2	□ 1 □ 2	1 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2
	5 = Drugs that were needed, not available	1 2		□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2		□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2
	6 = Staff rude or uncaring or turned patient away	1 2	□ 1 □ 2	1 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2
	7 = Incorrect diagnosis	1 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2		□ 1 □ 2		□ 1 □ 2		□ 1 □ 2	
	8 = Other, specify in column	1 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	1 2	□ 1 □ 2	1 2	□ 1 □ 2	1 2

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		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
1.26	How satisfied was with the service he/she received?										
	1 = Very satisfied	□ 1	□ 1	<u> </u>	□ 1	<u> </u>	□ 1	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	□ 1
	2 = Somewhat satisfied	□ 2	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>						
	3 = Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	☐ 3	□ 3	☐ 3	☐ 3	☐ 3	□ 3	☐ 3	□ 3	☐ 3	□ 3
	4 = Somewhat dissatisfied	<b>4</b>	□ 4	☐ 4	□ 4	☐ 4	□ 4	□ 4	□ 4	□ 4	□ 4
	5 = Very dissatisfied	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5
	6 = Don't know	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6
1.27	Did have to pay for this service?										
	1 = YES	□ 1	<u> </u>	☐ 1	□ 1	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	□ 1
	2 = No	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2
	3 = Don't know	☐ 3	□ 3	☐ 3	☐ 3	☐ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3
	→ Go to Q 1.29										
Ask	only if "No" to Q 1.22										
1.28	Why did not consult any health worker during the past month?										
	1 = Too expensive	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□1
	2 = Too far	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
	3 = Not necessary	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
	4 = Don't know	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4

□ 5

□ 5

5 = OTHER, specify in column underneath

12

□ 5

□ 5

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□ 5

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# Ask for everyone in the household

Read out: I am now going to ask about disabilities experienced by any persons within the household.

		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
1.29	Is limited in his/her daily activities, at home, at work or at school, because of a long-term physical, sensory, hearing, intellectual, or psychological condition, lasting six months or more?										
	1 = YES	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01
	2 = No  → <b>Go to Q1.31</b>	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02
1.30	What difficulty or difficulties does have? Is it		YES No		Yes No	Yes No			Yes No	1	Yes No
	1 = Sight (blind/severe visual limitation)	1 2	□ 1 □ 2	1 🗌 2	1 🗆 2	1 🗆 2				1 🗆 2	□ 1 □ 2
	2 = Hearing (deaf, profoundly hard of hearing)	1 2		□ 1 □ 2				□ 1 □ 2			1 2
	3 = Communicating (speech impairment)										□ 1 □ 2
	4 = Physical (e.g. needs wheel chair, crutches or prosthesis; limb or hand usage limitation)	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2
	5 = Intellectual (serious difficulties in learning, mental retardation)	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2
	6 = Emotional (behavioural, psychological problems)	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2
	7 = Other, specify in column	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2
1.31	During the past 12 months, did make use of a welfare office or services?										
	1 = YES	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	$2 = No$ $\rightarrow$ <b>Go to section 2</b>	<u> </u>	□ 2	□ 2	<u></u>	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	2
	3 = Don't know	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3

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		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
1.32	Which of the following services/assistance was in need of?										
	a. Social worker										
	1 = YES	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	☐ 1	☐ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = No	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2
	3 = Don't know	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□3
	b. Social grant										
	1 = YES	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	☐ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = No	□ 2	□ 2	2	2	☐ 2	2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	2
	3 = Don't know	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□3
	c. Poverty relief/Job creation project										
	1 = YES	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	☐ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = No	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	☐ 2	2	□ 2	☐ 2	□ 2	2
	3 = Don't know	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3
1.33	Ask only if there is a "Yes" in any part of Q 1.32										
	How satisfied was with the service/assistance rendered at the welfare office?										
	1 = Very satisfied	☐ 1	☐ 1	□ 1	□ 1	☐ 1	☐ 1	☐ 1	□ 1	☐ 1	□ 1
	2 = Somewhat satisfied	□ 2	☐ 2	☐ 2	☐ 2	2	2	□ 2	☐ 2	☐ 2	2
	3 = Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3
	4 = Somewhat dissatisfied	□ 4	☐ 4	☐ 4	☐ 4	☐ 4	☐ 4	□ 4	□ 4	☐ 4	<u> </u>
	5 = Very dissatisfied	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5
	6 = Don't know	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6	□ 6

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SECTION 2 This section covers activities of household members aged 15 and above in the last seven days, unemployment and non-economic activities. Ask for all household members aged 15 and above. It is very important that you try to ask these questions of each person themselves if at all possible. Read out. Now I am going to ask some questions about activities in the last seven days for each household member aged 15 and above

		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
2.0	Interviewer to answer Is the person him/herself responding to questions? 1 = YES	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	2 = No	□ 2	□ 2	2	<u> </u>	☐ 2	☐ 2	<u> </u>	2	2	2
2.1	In the last seven days, did do any of the following activities, even for only one hour? Show prompt card 2.	YES NO	YES NO	YES NO	YES NO	YES NO	YES NO	YES NO	Yes No	Yes No	YES NO
	<ul> <li>a) Run or do any kind of business, big or small, for himself/herself or with one or more partners?</li> </ul>	1  2	1  2	□1 □2	1  2	1  2	1  2	□1 □2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2
	Examples: Selling things, making things for sale, repairing things, guarding cars, brewing beer, hairdressing, crèche businesses, taxi or other transport business, having a legal or medical practice, etc.										
	b) Do any work for a wage, salary, commission or any payment in kind (excl. domestic work)?	<u>□</u> 1 <u>□</u> 2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	□1 □2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	1  2	□1 □2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	□1 □2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2
	Examples: a regular job, contract, casual or piece work for pay, work in exchange for food or housing.										
	c) Do any work <u>as a domestic worker</u> for a wage, salary, or any payment in kind?	1  2	1  2	□1 □2	1 🗆 2	1 🗆 2	1  2	□1 □2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	1  2
	d) Help unpaid in a family business of any kind?  Examples: Help to sell things, make things for sale or exchange, doing the accounts, cleaning up for the business, etc. Don't count normal housework.	1  2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	□1 □2	1  2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	1  2
	e) Do any work on his/her own or the family's plot, farm, food garden, cattle post or kraal or help in growing farm produce or in looking after animals for the household?	□1 □2	□1 □2	<u>□</u> 1 <u>□</u> 2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	□1 □2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2			
	Examples: ploughing, harvesting, looking after livestock.										
	f) Do any construction or major repair work on his/her own home, plot, cattle post or business or those of the family?	1  2	1  2	□1 □2	1  2	1  2	1  2	□1 □2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2
	g) Catch any fish, prawns, shells, wild animals or other food for sale or family food?	<u>□</u> 1 <u>□</u> 2	□1 □2	□1 □2	□1 □2	□1 □2	□1 □2	□1 □2	□1 □2	<u>□</u> 1 <u>□</u> 2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2
	h) Beg for money or food in public?	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2	□1 □2	□1 □2	<u>□</u> 1 <u>□</u> 2	□1 □2	□1 □2	□1 □2	□1 □2	<u></u> 1 <u></u> 2

If "YES" for a person to any part of Question 2.1→ Go to Q 2.3 for that person.

If all "No" for a person, continue with next question.

		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
2.2	If "No" to all parts of Question 2.1  Even though did not do any of these activities in the last seven days, does he/she have a job, business, or other economic or farming activity that he/she will definitely return to?										
	For agricultural activities, the off season in agriculture is not a temporary absence.		]	]	]	]	]	]	]	]	
	1 = YES 2 = NO → <b>Go to Q 2.10</b>	☐ 1 ☐ 2									
2.3	Read out:  You said was doing these activities during the last seven days (or was temporarily absent).  Refer to Q 2.1 or Q 2.2										
	What kind of work did do in his/her main job during the last seven days (or usually does, even if he/she was absent in the last seven days)? Give occupation or job title.										
	Work includes all the activities mentioned earlier Record at least two words: Car sales person, Office cleaner, Vegetable farmer, Primary school teacher, etc.										
	For agricultural work on own/family farm/plot, state whether for own use or for sale mostly.										
2.4	What were's main tasks or duties in this job?  Examples: Selling fruit, repairing watches, keeping accounts, feeding and watering cattle.										
	CODE BOX FOR OFFICE USE										

 1	ı	

		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
2.5	What is the name of's place of work?  For government or large organisations, give the name of the establishment and branch or division: e.g. Education Dept – Rapele Primary School; ABC Gold Mining, Maintenance Div. Write 'Own house' or 'No fixed location', if relevant.										
2.6	What are the main goods and services produced at's place of work? What are its main functions?  Examples: Repairing cars, Selling commercial real estate, Sell food wholesale to restaurants, Retail clothing shop, Manufacture electrical appliances, Bar/ restaurant, Primary Education, Delivering newspapers to homes.										
	CODE BOX FOR OFFICE USE										

					01	02	03	04	05	06	07	80	09	10
			salary/pay at his/h llowances and bonu											
		deductions.		,										
			e figures, without an	<u>-</u>										
			or "Don't know"→	Go to Q 2.9										
	On Is t	<i>ly if amount give</i> his	n in Q 2.7											
	1	= Per week			<u> </u>	□ 1	<u> </u>	<u> </u>						
		2 = Per month			2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
	3	B = Annually			□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	<u></u> 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3
2.9	On	<i>ly if "</i> None <i>", "</i> Ref	FUSE" <b>or "</b> Don't kno	ow" <b>in Q 2.7</b>										
	Show the categories. Make sure the respondent points at the correct income column (weekly, monthly, annually) on													
			nark the applicable											
		Weekly	Monthly	Annually										
0	01	NONE	None	None	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	<u> </u>	01	□ 01	□ 01	<u> </u>	□ 01
	02	R1 - R46	R1 - R200	R1 - R2 400	<u> </u>	<u>02</u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>						
0	03	R47 - R115	R201 - R500	R2 401 - R6 000	□ 03	□ 03	03	☐ 03	03	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	03	<u></u> 03
	04	R116 - R231	R501 – R1 000	R6 001 - R12 000	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>						
	05	R232 - R346	R1 001 - R1 500	R12 001 - R18 000	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	05	<u> </u>	∐ 05	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u></u> 05
	06	R347 = R577	R1 501 = R2 500	R18 001 - R30 000	06	<u> </u>	06	<u></u>	06	06	06	06	06	06
-	07	R578 - R808	R2 501 - R3 500	R30 001 - R42 000	<u> </u>	07	☐ 07	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	☐ 07	07	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
	80	R809 - R1 039	R3 501 - R4 500	R42 001 - R54 000	08	08	08	□ 08	08	08	□ 08	08	08	08
	09	R1 040 - R1 386	R4 501 - R6 000	R54 001 - R72 000	<u></u> 09	<u></u> 09	<u></u> 09	<u></u> 09	09	09	<u> </u>   09	<u></u> 09	<u></u> 09	<u></u> 09
	10 11	R1 387 - R1 848 R1 849 - R2 540	R6 001 - R8 000	R72 001 - R96 000	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	10	<u> </u>	<u></u> 10	10	∐ 10	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	☐ 10
	12	R1 649 - R2 540 R2 541 - R3 695	R8 001 - R11 000	R96 001 - R132 000	11	11	11	∐ 11 □	11	☐ 11	11 12	11	11	☐ 11 ☐
			R11 001 - R16 000	R132 001 - R192 000	☐ 12	☐ 12	12	<u> </u>	12	<u> </u> 12	12	☐ 12	12	12
	13 14	R3 696 - R6 928 R6 929 OR MORE	R16 001 - R30 000 R30 001 OR MORE	R192 001 - R360 000 R360 001 OR MORE	☐ 13	☐ 13	13	☐ 13	☐ 13	☐ 13 ☐ 14	☐ 13	☐ 13 ☐ 14	☐ 13 ☐ 14	13
-	15	Don't know	Don't know	DON'T KNOW	☐ 14 ☐ 45	☐ 14 ☐ 15	☐ 14 ☐ 45	∐ 14 □ 45	☐ 14 ☐ 15		∐ 14 □ 45	☐ 14 ☐ 15		☐ 14 ☐ 45
		REFUSE	REFUSE	REFUSE	☐ 15 ☐ 16	☐ 15 ☐ 16	☐ 15 ☐ 16	☐ 15 ☐ 16						

→ Go to Section 3

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Questionnaire ID		

The following questions cover unemployment and non-economic activities

Ask for all household members aged 15 and above who did not work and were not absent from work (i.e. for those whose answer on Q 2.2 = 2).

Read out. Now I am going to ask some questions about whether you (.....) wanted and were (was) available for any of the types of work mentioned earlier

		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
2.10	Why did not work during the past seven days?										
	01 = Has found a job, but is only starting at a definite date in the future $\rightarrow$ <b>Go to Q 2.14</b>	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01
	02 = LACK OF SKILLS OR QUALIFICATIONS FOR AVAILABLE JOBS	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02
	03 = SCHOLAR OR STUDENT AND PREFERS NOT TO WORK	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03
	04 = Housewife/homemaker <u>and</u> prefers not to work	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04
	05 = RETIRED AND PREFERS NOT TO SEEK FORMAL WORK	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	□ 05	<u> </u>	□ 05
	06 = ILLNESS, INVALID, DISABLED OR UNABLE TO WORK (HANDICAPPED)	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06
	07 = Too young or too old to work	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07
	08 = Seasonal worker, e.g. fruit picker, wool-shearer	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08
	09 = CANNOT FIND SUITABLE WORK (SALARY, LOCATION OF WORK OR CONDITIONS NOT SATISFACTORY)	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09	☐ 09	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09
	10 = CONTRACT WORKER, E.G. MINE WORKER RESTING ACCORDING TO CONTRACT	□ 10	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	□ 10	<u> </u>	□ 10	□ 10	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
	11 = RECENTLY RETRENCHED	<u> </u>	□ 11	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	□ 11	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
	12 = OTHER REASON	□ 12	□ 12	□ 12	□ 12	□ 12	□ 12	□ 12	□ 12	□ 12	□ 12
2.11	If a suitable job is offered, will accept it?										
	1 = YES	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	☐ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = No	2	2	2	2	2	2	□ 2	2	2	2
	$3 = Don'T KNOW $ $\rightarrow$ <b>Go to Q 2.14</b>	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3
2.12	How soon can start work?										
	1 = WITHIN A WEEK	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = WITHIN TWO WEEKS	2	_ 2	2	2	2	_ 2	□ 2	□ 2	2	2
	3 = WITHIN FOUR WEEKS	<u> </u>	□ 3	□ 3	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	□ 3	<u></u> 3	□ 3	□ 3
	4 = LATER THAN FOUR WEEKS FROM NOW	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	4	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	4
	5 = Don't know	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	<u></u>	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	□ 5	<u></u>

Questionnaire ID

	T	1		1	T	1	T	1	1	1	
		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	80	09	10
2.13	During the past four weeks, has taken any action	YES NO	Yes No	YES NO	Yes No	Yes No	YES NO	YES NO	YES NO	Yes No	YES No
	1 = to look for any kind of work	1 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	1 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2				□ 1 □ 2
	2 = to start any kind of business	□ 1 □ 2	1 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	1 2	1 2	□ 1 □ 2	1 2	1 🗆 2
Ask	for everyone who has come to Question 2.10 (all pers	sons unem	ployed or	not econo	mically ac	ctive)					
2.14	Has ever worked before?										
	1 = YES	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	☐ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = No → <b>Go to Q 2.16</b>	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	2	2
2.15	How long ago was it since last worked?										
	01 = 1 WEEK - LESS THAN 1 MONTH	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01
	02 = 1 MONTH - LESS THAN 2 MONTHS	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02
	03 = 2 MONTHS - LESS THAN 3 MONTHS	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03
	04 = 3 MONTHS - LESS THAN 4 MONTHS	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04
	05 = 4 MONTHS - LESS THAN 5 MONTHS	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	□ 05	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	□ 05	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	□ 05	□ 05
	06 = 5 MONTHS - LESS THAN 6 MONTHS	☐ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06	□ 06
	07 = 6 MONTHS - LESS THAN 1 YEAR	☐ 07	<u> </u>	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07	□ 07
	08 = 1 YEAR - LESS THAN 2 YEARS	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08	□ 08
	09 = 2 YEARS - LESS THAN 3 YEARS	<u></u> 09	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
	10 = 3 YEARS OR MORE	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
	11 = Don't know	☐ 11	<u> </u>	□ 11	□ 11	□ 11	□ 11	☐ 11	□ 11	□ 11	<u> </u>

Questionnaire ID				
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		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
2.16	How does support him/herself?	Yes No									
	1 = Did odd jobs during the past seven days	☐ 1 ☐ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2
	2 = Supported by persons in the household	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2
	3 = Supported by persons not in the household	1 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	1 2	□ 1 □ 2
	4 = Supported by charity, church, welfare, etc.	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2
	5 = Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF)	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2
	6 = Savings or money previously earned	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2
	7 = Old age or disability pension	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2	□ 1 □ 2
	8 = Other sources, e.g. bursary, study loan, <i>specify in</i> column	1 2	1 2	1 2	□ 1 □ 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2
	If "YES" to response category 1										
	$\rightarrow$ Go back to Q 2.1 for that person										

A	-4:	:	10
CHIES	ระเกท	naire	

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## SECTION 3 This section covers information regarding children ever born

The following information must be obtained in respect of every woman aged between 12 and 50 years. For each woman record the total number of children ever born alive. Include all children born alive, (i.e all those who are still living, whether or not they live in the household, and those who are dead). Do not include stillbirths and children adopted by the mother. Start with the last born and strictly follow the birth order. **Do not forget babies.** 

If there is no woman in the household, go to section 4.

Read out: I am now going to ask regarding mothers in this household

3.0.1	Is there any woman in this household aged between 12 and 50 years, who has ever given birth?	
	1 = Yes	□ 1
	2 = No End of this section. Go to Section 4	
		L 2
3.0.2	How many women in this household aged between 12 and 50 years have ever given birth?	
3.0.3	What are the names of the women who have ever given birth?	Person number
	1.Name of the first woman	
	2.Name of the second woman	
	3.Name of the third woman	
	4.Name of the fourth woman	
	5.Name of the fifth woman	

Remember: If there are more than 3 women aged between 12 and 50 years in the household, who have ever given birth, you will need another questionnaire.

A	-4:	:	10
CHIES	ระเกท	naire	

Read out: I am now going to ask each woman questions regarding all the children she has ever had.

Record the name of the woman and her personal number, as indicated on the flap. Record births by each woman on a separate form.

First name of woman.....Person number

		Male	Female	Total
3.1.1	How many children (live births) have you ever given			
	birth to?			
3.1.2	How many of your children are still alive?			
3.1.3	How many children (live births) have you had in the			
	past 12 months			

Read out: Now, I am going to ask you questions regarding each of the live births you have ever had, starting with the most recent

						Child r	number				
	If there are more than 10 children born to one woman, continue on the next form and change the child numbers (ie, 01=11 and so on) Record twins on separate columns	O1 Start with the last born	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
3.1.4	First name and surname (Write down the first name of each child born alive, starting with the last born. Strictly follow the birth order)  First name:										
3.1.5	Is still alive ?  1 = YES  2 = No	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2
3.1.6	If alive, Is a male or a female?  1 = MALE 2 = FEMALE	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2
3.1.7	How old is? (In completed years - In whole numbers) Less than 1 year = 00.										

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		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
3.1.8	What was 's date of birth?  (Write down the year month and day of birth in the YYYY)										
	anage provided for each shild. The year must be a										
	4 digit number).			<u></u>	<u> </u>			<u> </u>			
0.4.0	DD .										
3.1.9	Is currently a member of this household?	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = NO Go to 3.1.13	□ ¹ □ 2	□ ¹ □ 2	☐ <sup>1</sup>	□ ¹ □ 2		2		☐ 2	□ ¹ □ 2	☐ <sup>1</sup>
3.1.10	If dead, Was a male or a female?										
	1 = MALE	1	<u> </u>	1	1	1	<u> </u>	1	1	1	1
	2 = FEMALE	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	_ 2
3.1.11	How old was when he/she died?										
	(In completed years - In whole numbers) Less than 1 year = 00.										
3.1.12	When did 's death occur?										
	(Write down the date of death as indicated) YYYY										
	MM			<u></u>						<b></b>	
	DD										
Ask f	or all children ever born to the woman				1		1				1
3.1.13	Where was born?	_				_					
	1 = In a hospital	<u> </u>	□ 1	□1	□ 1	<u> </u>	☐ 1	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	□ 1
	2 = AT A CLINIC	☐ 2	☐ 2	☐ 2	☐ 2	2	2	2	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
	3 = ELSEWHERE	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3
3.1.14	Was the birth of registered?										
	1 = YES End of section 3 for this child	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	<u> </u>	□ 1	<u> </u>	□ 1	☐ 1	□ 1
	2 = No	2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	2	2	_ 2	2	2	2
3.1.15	Why was the birth of not registered?										
	1 = Far Distance	<u> </u>	□ 1	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	1	1	1	1	1	1
	2 = LACK OF KNOWLEDGE	2	2	2	<u> </u>	2	2	2	2	2	2
	3 = Does Not Seem Important	□ 3	□ 3	☐ 3	□ 3	☐ 3	□ 3	☐ 3	□ 3	☐ 3	□ 3

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Read out: I am now going to ask each woman questions regarding all the children she has ever had.

Record the name of the woman and her personal number, as indicated on the flap. Record births by each woman on a separate form.

First name of woman.....Person number

		Male	Female	Total
3.2.1	How many children (live births) have you ever given			
	birth to?			
3.2.2	How many of your children are still alive?			
3.2.3	How many children (live births) have you had in the			
	past 12 months			

Read out: Now, I am going to ask you questions regarding each of the live births you have ever had, starting with the most recent

						Child r	number				
	If there are more than 10 children born to one woman, continue on the next form and change the child numbers (ie, 01=11 and so on) Record twins on separate columns	01 Start with the last born	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
3.2.4	First name and surname (Write down the first name of each child born alive, starting with the last born. Strictly follow the birth order)  First name:										
3.2.5	Is still alive ?  1 = YES  2 = No	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2
3.2.6	If alive, Is a male or a female?  1 = MALE 2 = FEMALE	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2
3.2.7	How old is? (In completed years - In whole numbers) Less than 1 year = 00.										

Questionnaire ID

							<u> </u>		<u> </u>		
		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
3.2.8	What was 's date of birth?										
	(Write down the year, month and day of birth in the YYY) space provided for each child. The year must be a										
	4 digit number).	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		·				-			
	DE										
3.2.9	Is currently a member of this household?										
	1 = YES }	1	1	1	1	1	1	<u> </u>	1	☐ 1	☐ 1
	2 = No	2	2	□ 2	2	2	2	2	2	2	☐ 2
.2.10	If dead, Was a male or a female?		_							_	_
	1 = MALE		□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	1	□ 1	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	1	□ 1
	2 = FEMALE	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
3.2.11	How old was when he/she died?										
	(In completed years - In whole numbers) Less than 1 year = 00.										
.2.12	When did 's death occur?										
	(Write down the date of death as indicated) YYYY	<u> </u>									
	MN	ı   <u>                                    </u>							<u> </u>		
	DE	,									
Ask fo	or all children ever born to the woman				'					,	
.2.13	Where was born?										
	1 = IN A HOSPITAL	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = AT A CLINIC	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	☐ 2	2	2
	3 = Elsewhere	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3
3.2.14	Was the birth of registered?										
	1 = YES End of section 3 for this child	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = No	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	☐ 2	2	2	2	2
3.2.15	Why was the birth of not registered?										
	1 = FAR DISTANCE	□ 1	□ 1	<u> </u>	□ 1	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = Lack Of Knowledge	2	☐ 2	□ 2	2	□ 2	2	□ 2	2	2	2
	3 = DOES NOT SEEM IMPORTANT	□ 3	☐ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	□ 3	☐ 3	□ 3

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Read out: I am now going to ask each woman questions regarding all the children she has ever had.

Record the name of the woman and her personal number, as indicated on the flap. Record births by each woman on a separate form.

First name of woman.....Person number

		Male	Female	Total
3.3.1	How many children (live births) have you ever given			
	birth to?			
3.3.2	How many of your children are still alive?			
3.3.3	How many children (live births) have you had in the			
	past 12 months			

Read out: Now, I am going to ask you questions regarding each of the live births you have ever had, starting with the most recent

			Child number								
	If there are more than 10 children born to one woman, continue on the next form and change the child numbers (ie, 01=11 and so on) Record twins on separate columns	O1 Start with the last born	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
3.3.4	First name and surname (Write down the first name of each child born alive, starting with the last born. Strictly follow the birth order)  First name:										
3.3.5	Is still alive ? 1 = YES 2 = No	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2
3.3.6	If alive, Is a male or a female?  1 = MALE 2 = FEMALE	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2	☐ 1 ☐ 2
3.3.7	How old is? (In completed years - In whole numbers) Less than 1 year = 00.										

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		01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10
3.3.8	What was 's date of birth?										
	(Write down the year, month and day of birth in the YYYY space provided for each child. The year must be a										
	4 digit number).			<u></u>							
	DD										
3.3.9	Is currently a member of this household?				_		_	_			_
	1 = YES }	☐ 1	<u> </u>	1	☐ 1	<u> </u>	☐ 1	1	1	☐ 1	☐ 1
	2 = No	<u> </u>	2	2	2	2	_ 2	2	_ 2	2	□ 2
3.3.10	If dead, Was a male or a female?										
	1 = MALE	☐ 1				1					
	2 = FEMALE	2	<u> </u>	2	2	2	2	2	2	<u> </u>	□ 2
3.3.11	How old was when he/she died?	ļ									
	(In completed years - In whole numbers) Less than 1 year = 00.										
3.3.12	When did 's death occur?										
	(Write down the date of death as indicated) YYYY										
	MM										
	DD										
	or all children ever born to the woman						1		1		Т
3.3.13	Where was born?										
	1 = IN A HOSPITAL	☐ 1			☐ 1	☐ 1		<u> </u>	1	☐ 1	
	2 = AT A CLINIC	☐ 2 ☐ 3	□ 2 □ 3	☐ 2 ☐ 3							
	3 = ELSEWHERE	3	3	3	3	3	3	∐ 3	3	3	□ 3
3.3.14	Was the birth of registered?					_		_		_	
	1 = YES End of section 3 for this child	<u> </u>	1	<u> </u>	1	1	<u> </u>				
	2 = No	□ 2	☐ 2	2	□ 2	_ 2	2	_ 2	2	_ 2	2
3.3.15	Why was the birth of not registered?										
	1 = Far Distance	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	□ 1	<u> </u>	□ 1	<u> </u>	□ 1
	2 = LACK OF KNOWLEDGE	□ 2	□ 2	_ 2	_ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2	□ 2
	3 = DOES NOT SEEM IMPORTANT	□3	□3	□ 3	Пз	□ 3	□3	□ 3	□3	□3	□ 3

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# **SECTION 4** This section covers information regarding the household.

# Ask a responsible adult in the household

4.1	Indicate the type of main dwelling and other dwelling that the household occupies?	Main dwelling	Other dwelling
	01 = DWELLING/HOUSE OR BRICK STRUCTURE ON A SEPARATE STAND OR YARD OR ON FARM	□ 01	☐ 01
	02 = Traditional dwelling/Hut/Structure made of Traditional materials	□ 02	□ 02
	03 = FLAT OR APARTMENT IN A BLOCK OF FLATS	□ 03	□ 03
	04 = Town/Cluster/Semi-detached house (Simplex, Duplex or Triplex)	□ 04	□ 04
	05 = Unit in retirement village	□ 05	□ 05
	06 = DWELLING/HOUSE/FLAT/ROOM IN BACKYARD	□ 06	□ 06
	07 = Informal dwelling/Shack in backyard	□ 07	□ 07
	08 = INFORMAL DWELLING/SHACK NOT IN BACKYARD, E.G. IN AN INFORMAL/SQUATTER SETTLEMENT OR ON FARM	□ 08	□ 08
	09 = Room/Flatlet	□ 09	□ 09
	10 = CARAVAN/TENT	<u> </u>	□ 10
	11 = OTHER, specify	<u> </u>	□ 11

4.2	Thinking back five years ago, what type of dwelling/dwellings did this household occupy?	Main dwelling	Other dwelling
	01 = DWELLING/HOUSE OR BRICK STRUCTURE ON A SEPARATE STAND OR YARD OR ON FARM	□ 01	☐ 01
	02 = Traditional dwelling/Hut/Structure made of Traditional materials	□ 02	□ 02
	03 = FLAT OR APARTMENT IN A BLOCK OF FLATS	□ 03	□ 03
	04 = Town/Cluster/Semi-detached house (Simplex, Duplex or Triplex)	□ 04	□ 04
	05 = Unit in retirement village	□ 05	□ 05
	06 = Dwelling/House/Flat/room in backyard	□ 06	□ 06
	07 = Informal dwelling/Shack in backyard	□ 07	□ 07
	08 = Informal dwelling/Shack not in backyard, E.G. in an informal/squatter settlement or on farm	□ 08	□ 08
	09 = ROOM/FLATLET	□ 09	□ 09
	10 = Caravan/Tent	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
	11 = OTHER, specify	<u> </u>	□ 11
	12 = Household did not exist	☐ 12	☐ 12

4.3	What is the main material used for the roof and the walls of the main dwelling?	Roof	Walls
	Mark one code in each column.	_	_
	01 = BRICKS	<u></u> □ 01	□ 01
	02 = CEMENT BLOCK/CONCRETE	<u></u> □ 02	<u></u> □ 02
	03 = CORRUGATED IRON/ZINC	<u></u> 03	□ 03
	04 = WOOD	<u> </u>	04
	05 = PLASTIC	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
	06 = Cardboard	□ 06	□ 06
	07 = MIXTURE OF MUD AND CEMENT	□ 07	□ 07
	08 = WATTLE AND DAUB	□ 08	□ 08
	09 = TILE	□ 09	□ 09
	10 = MUD	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
	11 = Thatching	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
	12 = ASBESTOS	☐ 12	<u> </u>
	13 = OTHER, specify	☐ 13	<u> </u>
	14 = NOT APPLICABLE	☐ 14	☐ 14
4.4	In what condition are the roof and the walls of the main dwelling?	Roof	Walls
	1 = Very weak	□ 1	□ 1
	2 = Weak	□ 2	□ 2
	3 = Needs minor repairs	□ 3	□ 3
	4 = Good	<u> </u>	□ 4
	5 = Very good	□ 5	□ 5

4.5	Is the dwelling  1 = Owned and fully paid off  2 = Owned, but not yet fully paid off (e.g. with a mortgage)  3 = Rented  4 = Occupied rent-free as part of employment contract of family member  5 = Occupied rent-free not as part of employment contract of family member  6 = Other, specify	1   2   3   4   5
4.6	What is the total number of rooms in the dwelling(s) that the household occupies?  Give the total number of rooms, including living rooms, bedrooms and kitchens, but excluding bathrooms and toilets.	
4.7	Did any member of this household receive a government housing subsidy, such as RDP housing subsidy, to obtain this dwelling or any other dwelling?  Do not include housing subsidies for government employees.  1 = YES	<u> </u>

**Questionnaire ID** 

2 = No

3 = Don't know

□ 3

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What is the household's main source of water? 4.8 Mark one code only 01 01 = PIPED (TAP) WATER IN DWELLING 02 02 = PIPED (TAP) WATER ON SITE OR IN YARD □ 03 → Go to Q 4.10 03 = NEIGHBOUR'S TAP 04 04 = BOREHOLE ON SITE 05 05 = RAIN-WATER TANK ON SITE □ 06 06 = PUBLIC TAP 07 = WATER-CARRIER/TANKER 07 08 08 = BOREHOLE OFF SITE/COMMUNAL 09 09 = FLOWING WATER/STREAM/RIVER □ 10 10 = DAM/POOL/STAGNANT WATER 11 = WELL 12 = Spring 13 = OTHER, specify 

### Ask if water is not in dwelling, yard or site, otherwise go to Q 4.10.

4.9	How long does it take members of this household to get to the water source?	
	1 = 0 - 14 MIN	□ 1
	2 = 15 - 29 MIN	□ 2
	3 = 30 - 44 MIN	□ 3
	4 = 45 - 59 MIN	□ 4
	5 = 60 MIN OR MORE	□ 5
4.10	The water from the main source	Yes No
	1 = Is it safe to drink?	□ 1 □ 2
	2 = Is it clear?	□ 1 □ 2
	3 = Does it taste good?	□1□2
	4 = Is it free from odours?	□ 1 □ 2

# Ask only if Q 4.8 = 01, 02, 03 or 06 (e.g. tap/piped water), otherwise go to Q 4.14

	-	
4.11	How often do you get interruptions in your piped water supply?	
	1 = DAILY	□ 1
	2 = WEEKLY	□ 2
	3 = MONTHLY	□ 3
	4 = 6 MONTHLY	<b>4</b>
	5 = YEARLY	□ 5
	$6 = ALMOST NEVER$ $\rightarrow$ <b>Go to Q 4.14</b>	□ 6
4.12	What normally causes the interruption?	
	1 = Burst pipes	□ 1
	2 = PUMP NOT WORKING	□ 2
	3 = GENERAL MAINTENANCE	☐ 3
	4 = Not enough water in the system (demand too high)	☐ 4
	5 = WATER ONLY DELIVERED AT FIXED TIMES	□ 5
	6 = NON-PAYMENT FOR SERVICES  (CUT OFF)  → Go to Q 4.14	□ 6
	7 = VANDALISM	□ 7
	8 = OTHER, <i>specify</i>	□ 8
	9 = Don't know	<u> </u>
4.13	The last time it happened, when was the problem rectified?	
	1 = THE SAME DAY	□ 1
	2 = DURING THE SAME WEEK	□ 2
	3 = DURING THE SAME MONTH	☐ 3
	4 = LONGER THAN MONTH, <i>specify</i>	☐ 4

4.14	Does this household have a connection to the MAINS electricity supply?	
	1 = YES	□ 1
	2 = No	2

	_			
4.15	What is the main source of energy/fuel for this household?	Cooking	Heating	Lighting
	01 = ELECTRICITY FROM MAINS	□ 01	□ 01	□ 01
	02 = ELECTRICITY FROM GENERATOR	□ 02	□ 02	□ 02
	03 = GAS	□ 03	□ 03	□ 03
	04 = Paraffin	□ 04	□ 04	□ 04
	05 = WOOD	□ 05	□ 05	
	06 = COAL	□ 06	□ 06	
	07 = CANDLES		□ 07	□ 07
	08 = Animal dung	□ 08	□ 08	
	09 = Solar energy	□ 09	□ 09	□ 09
	10 = OTHER, specify	□ 10	□ 10	□ 10
	4.4 5.1			

11 = NONE

4.16	Thinking back five years ago, did this household have a connection to the MAINS electricity supply, then?	
	1 = YES	□ 1
	2 = No	□ 2
	3 = HOUSEHOLD DID NOT EXIST	□ 3
	4 = Don't know	☐ 4

4.17	What type of toilet facility is available for this household?  Mark only one, the main toilet	In dwelling	On site	Off site
	1 = FLUSH TOILET CONNECTED TO A PUBLIC SEWAGE SYSTEM	☐ 11	☐ 12	□ 13
	2 = FLUSH TOILET CONNECTED TO A SEPTIC TANK	<u> </u>	□ 22	□ 23
	3 = CHEMICAL TOILET		□ 32	□ 33
	4 = PIT LATRINE WITH VENTILATION PIPE		42	43
	5 = PIT LATRINE WITHOUT  VENTILATION PIPE		□ 52	□ 53
	6 = BUCKET TOILET		□ 62	□ 63
	$7 = NONE \rightarrow Go to Q 4.20$			☐ <b>7</b> 3

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#### Ask if toilet is "On SITE" or "OFF SITE". Otherwise Go to Q 4.19

4.18	How far is the nearest toilet facility to which the household has access?	
	1 = LESS THAN 2 MINUTES (LESS THAN 200M)	□ 1
	2 = 2 MINUTES BUT LESS THAN 5 MINUTES (200M - 500M)	□ 2
	3 = More than 5 minutes (more than 500m)	□ 3

#### Ask if answer to Q 4.17 is "BUCKET TOILET". Otherwise Go to Q 4.20

4.19	How frequently is it removed?	
	1 = ONCE A WEEK OR MORE OFTEN	□ 1
	2 = ABOUT ONCE A FORTNIGHT	□ 2
	3 = ABOUT ONCE A MONTH	□ 3
	4 = LESS OFTEN THAN ONCE A MONTH	□ 4

#### Ask for all households

4.20	How is the refuse or rubbish of this household taken care of?	
	1 = REMOVED BY LOCAL AUTHORITY AT LEAST ONCE A WEEK	□ 1
	2 = REMOVED BY LOCAL AUTHORITY LESS OFTEN THAN ONCE A WEEK	2
	3 = REMOVED BY COMMUNITY MEMBERS AT LEAST ONCE A WEEK	□ 3
	4 = REMOVED BY COMMUNITY MEMBERS LESS OFTEN THAN ONCE A WEEK	☐ 4
	5 = COMMUNAL REFUSE DUMP/COMMUNAL CONTAINER	□ 5
	6 = OWN REFUSE DUMP	□ 6
	7 = No rubbish removal	□ 7
	8 = OTHER, specify	□ 8

4.21	Does this household have a landline telephone in the dwelling?	
	1 = YES	□ 1
	2 = No	2
4.22	Is there a cellular telephone available to this household for regular use?	
	1 = YES	□ 1
	2 = No	

### Ask if answer is "No" to both Q 4.21 and Q 4.22. Otherwise Go to Q4.25

4.23	How far does it take from here, to the nearest accessible telephone, using your usual means of transport?	
	1 = 0 - 14 MIN	□ 1
	2 = 15 - 29 MIN	□ 2
	3 = 30 - 44  MIN	□ 3
	4 = 45 - 59  MIN	□ 4
	5 = 60 MIN OR MORE	□ 5

# Ask for all households

4.24	Thinking back five years ago, did this household have a landline telephone in the dwelling then?	
	1 = YES	□ 1
	2 = No	□ 2
	3 = HOUSEHOLD DID NOT EXIST	□ 3
	4 = Don't know	□ 4

How does this household receive most of its mail/post?	
1 = Delivered to the dwelling	□ 1
2 = Delivered to a post box/private bag	□ 2
3 = Through friend or neighbour	□3
4 = Through shop	□ 4
5 = Through school	□ 5
6 = Through workplace	□6
7 = Through authority	□ 7
8 = DO NOT RECEIVE MAIL	□8
9 = OTHER, specify	□9
	1 = Delivered to the dwelling 2 = Delivered to a post box/private bag 3 = Through friend or neighbour 4 = Through shop 5 = Through school 6 = Through workplace 7 = Through authority 8 = Do not receive mail

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4.	.26 What means of transp members of this hous facilities?		• •		•		•
	If more than one means distance	of trans	port, take	I	used ove	er the lon	gest
F	acility	On FOOT	TAXI	Bus (PUBLIC)	TRAIN	OWN TRANS- PORT	OTHER, specify below
а	Food market	□ 1	<u></u>	□ 3	□ 4	<u></u> 5	□ 6
b	Public transport	□ 1	2	□ 3	☐ 4	□ 5	□ 6
С	Pre-Primary/Pre-school centre	<u></u> 1	2	3	<u></u>	□ 5	□ 6
d	Primary school	□ 1	□ 2	□3	☐ 4	□ 5	□ 6
е	Secondary school	□1	□ 2	□3	☐ 4	□ 5	□ 6
f	Clinic	□ 1	□ 2	□3	☐ 4	□ 5	□ 6
g	Hospital	□1	□ 2	□3	☐ 4	□ 5	□ 6
h	Post office or post office agent	□ 1	2	3	☐ 4	□ 5	□ 6
i	Welfare office	□1	□ 2	□3	□ 4	□ 5	□ 6
			•	•		•	•

If "Other" in Q 4.26, specify:

4.	How long in minutes nearestusing				,	here to r	each the
F	acility	0 - 14 MIN	15 - 29 MIN	30 - 44 MIN	45 - 59 MIN	60 MIN OR MORE	Don't KNOW
а	Food market	□ 1	□ 2	□ 3	<u></u>	□ 5	□ 6
b	Public transport	□ 1	2	□ 3	□ 4	□ 5	□ 6
С	Pre-Primary/Pre-school centre	☐ 1	2	3	□ 4	□ 5	□ 6
d	Primary school	□ 1	2	□ 3	□ 4	□ 5	□ 6
е	Secondary school	□ 1	2	□ 3	□ 4	□ 5	□ 6
f	Clinic	□ 1	□ 2	□ 3	□ 4	□ 5	□ 6
g	Hospital	□ 1	□ 2	□ 3	□ 4	□ 5	□ 6
h	Post office or post office agent	□ 1	2	□ 3	☐ 4	□ 5	□6
i	Welfare office	□1	□ 2	□ 3	□ 4	□ 5	□ 6

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4.28	Does this household have access to land that is, or could be, used for agricultural purposes?			
	1 = YES	□ 1		
	$2 = No$ $\rightarrow$ Go to Q 4.32	2		
4.29	How many hectares of land, for agricultural purposes, if any, does the household have access to?  Exclude communal grazing land			
	1 = LESS THAN $5.000 \text{ m}^2$ ( $5.000 \text{ m}^2$ is approximately one soccer field)	1		
	$2 = 5.000 \text{M}^2 - 9.999 \text{M}^2$	□ 2		
	3 = 1 BUT LESS THAN 5 HA	□ 3		
	4 = 5 BUT LESS THAN 10 HA	□ 4		
	5 = 10 BUT LESS THAN 20 HA	□ 5		
	6 = 20 HA OR MORE	□ 6		
	7 = Don't know	□ 7		
4.30	On what basis does the household have access to the land?			
	1 = OWNS THE LAND	□ 1		
	2 = RENTS THE LAND	□ 2		
	3 = Sharecropping	□ 3		
	4 = Tribal authority	□ 4		
	5 = OTHER, <i>specify</i>	□ 5		
	6 = Don't know	□ 6		

1	1			

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4.31	What farming activities, if any, take place on the land? Is	
	it?	YES No
	1 = Field crops	□ 1 □ 2
	2 = Horticulture	1 2
	3 = Livestock	1 2
	3 = Poultry	1 2
	5 = Orchards	□ 1 □ 2
	6 = Other, (Specify)	□ 1 □ 2

4.37	Does the household own any poultry such as chickens, ducks, etc (but excluding chicks)	
	1 = YES	□ 1
	2 = No → <b>Go to Q 4.39</b>	2
4.38	How many chicken, ducks, etc. are currently owned by the household?	

### Ask for all households

		1
4.39	Does the household own any of the following?	YES No
	01 = Car or truck	1 2
	02 = Motorcycle	□ 1 □ 2
	03 = Tractor	□ 1 □ 2
	04 = Plough	□ 1 □ 2
	05 = Television	□ 1 □ 2
	06 = Bicycle	□ 1 □ 2
	07 = Radio	□ 1 □ 2
	08 = Bed	□ 1 □ 2
	09 = Watch or clock	□ 1 □ 2
	10 = Books	□ 1 □ 2
4.40	In the past 12 months, did any adult in this household go hungry because there wasn't enough food?	
	1 = NEVER	□ 1
	2 = SELDOM	<u> </u>
	3 = SOMETIMES	☐ 3
	4 = OFTEN	☐ 4
	5 = ALWAYS	□ 5
1		1

4.32	Did the household receive a government land grant to obtain a plot of land for residence or for farming?	
	1 = YES	□ 1
	2 = No	□ 2
	3 = Don't know	□ 3
4.33	Does the household own any cattle or other large livestock?	
	1 = YES	<u> </u>
	2 = No → <b>Go to Q 4.35</b>	☐ 2
4.34	How many head of cattle and other large livestock are currently owned by the household?	
4.35	Does the household own any sheep, goats and other medium size animals?	
	1 = YES	□ 1
	2 = No → <b>Go to Q 4.37</b>	□ 2
4.36	How many sheep, goats and other medium size animals are currently owned by the household?	

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4.41	In the past 12 months, did any child (17 years or younger) in this household go hungry because there wasn't enough food?	
	1 = NEVER	□1
	2 = SELDOM	
	3 = SOMETIMES	
	4 = OFTEN	
	5 = ALWAYS	□ <del>-</del> 1 5
4.42	In the past 12 months, is there any young person, aged 5 - 17, who has left this household to live on the streets?	
	1 = YES	□ 1
	2 = No	□ 2
	3 = Don't know	□ 3
4.43	Does any member of this household receive any of the following Welfare Grants?	Yes No
	1 = Old age pension	□ 1 □ 2
	2 = Disability grant	□ 1 □ 2
	3 = Child support grant	□ 1 □ 2
	4 = Care dependency grant	□ 1 □ 2
	5 = Foster care grant	□ 1 □ 2
	6 = Grant in aid	□ 1 □ 2
	7 = Social relief	1 2
4.44	What is the main source of income for this household?	
	1 = SALARIES AND/OR WAGES	□ 1
	2 = REMITTANCES	□ 2
	3 = PENSIONS AND GRANTS	□ 3
	4 = SALES OF FARM PRODUCTS	<b>4</b>
	5 = OTHER NON-FARM INCOME	□ 5
	6 = No income	□ 6

4.45	What was the total household expenditure in the last month?	
	Include everything that the household and its members spent money on, including food, clothing, transport, rent and rates, alcohol and tobacco, school fees, entertainment and any other expenses.	
	01 = R 0 - R 399	□ 01
	02 = R 400 - R 799	□ 02
	03 = R 800 – R 1 199	□ 03
	04 = R 1 200 – R 1 799	<u></u> 04
	05 = R 1800 - R 2499	□ 05
	06 = R 2500 - R 4999	□ 06
	07 = R5000 - R9999	□ 07
	08 = 10 000 OR MORE	□ 08
	09 = Don't know	□ 09
	10 = Refuse	□ 10

#### Please read as you show the prompt card

Now, I am now going to ask you questions regarding your physical safety and that of other members of your household. In some of the questions I will show you a <u>prompt card</u>, which has eleven choices "00" to "10" describing the level of your feelings about safety or satisfaction. Kindly point out the level that best describes your feelings.

4.46	Regarding your own safety, how safe do you feel if you are walking in this area at night?	
	1 = VERY SAFE	□ 1
	2 = RATHER SAFE	□ 2
	3 = RATHER UNSAFE	□ 3
	4 = VERY UNSAFE	<u> </u>
4.47	Thinking about your physical safety in your neighbourhood, how safe do you and other members of the household feel living here?	
	(Ask respondent to point out the answer on a <u>prompt card</u> )	
	01 = 10 (COMPLETELY SAFE)	☐ 01
	02 = 09	☐ 02
	03 = 08	☐ 03
	04 = 07	☐ 04
	05 = 06	☐ 05
	06 = 05	□ 06
	07 = 04	□ □ 07
	08 = 03	□ 08
	09 = 02	□ 09
	10 = 01	∐ 10
	11 = 00 (COMPLETELY UNSAFE)	□ 11

4.48	During the past 12 months, have you or any member of this household been subjected to the following incidents?	
	Have you or any member of this household	Yes No
	1 = had things stolen	
	2 = been harassed or threatened by a household	
	member	□ 1 □ 2
	3 = been harassed or threatened by someone outside	
	the household	□ 1 □ 2
	4 = been sexually molested by a household member	□ 1 □ 2
	5 = been sexually molested by someone out side the	
	household	□ 1 □ 2
	6 = been beaten up or hurt by a household member	□ 1 □ 2
	7 = been beaten up or hurt by someone outside the household	□1□2
4.49	Taking everything into account, how satisfied are you with public safety these days?	
	(Ask respondent to point out the answer on a <u>prompt card</u> )	
	01 = 10 (COMPLETELY SATISFIED)	□ 01
	02 = 09	□ 02
	03 = 08	□ 03
	04 = 07	□ 04
	05 = 06	□ 05
	06 = 05	□ 06
	07 = 04	□ 07
	08 = 03	□ 08
	09 = 02	<u> </u>
	10 = 01	<u> </u>
	11 = 00 (COMPLETELY DISSATISFIED)	□ 11

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#### Please read out

Now, in the following questions, I am going to ask you whether you agree with several statements dealing with general problems of life. Please tell me if you completely agree, somewhat agree, somewhat disagree or strongly disagree with the statement.

4.50	Would you agree with the statement that, you can't do much to change most of the difficulties we face today?	
	1 = COMPLETELY AGREE	□ 1
	2 = SOMEWHAT AGREE	□ 2
	3 = SOMEWHAT DISAGREE	□ 3
	4 = STRONGLY DISAGREE	<u> </u>
4.51	Would you agree with the statement that, you often feel lonely?	
	1 = COMPLETELY AGREE	□ 1
	2 = SOMEWHAT AGREE	2
	3 = SOMEWHAT DISAGREE	<u></u> 3
	4 = STRONGLY DISAGREE	☐ 4
4.52	Would you agree with the statement that, you don't really enjoy your work?	
	1 = COMPLETELY AGREE	□ 1
	2 = SOMEWHAT AGREE	2
	3 = SOMEWHAT DISAGREE	□ 3
	4 = STRONGLY DISAGREE	<u> </u>

4.53	Would you agree with the statement that, life has become so complicated today that you almost can't find your way?	
	1 = COMPLETELY AGREE	□ 1
	2 = SOMEWHAT AGREE	□ 2
	3 = SOMEWHAT DISAGREE	□ 3
	4 = STRONGLY DISAGREE	<u></u>
4.54	Would you agree with the statement that, you are very optimistic about the future?	
	1 = COMPLETELY AGREE	□ 1
	2 = SOMEWHAT AGREE	□ 2
	3 = SOMEWHAT DISAGREE	□ 3
	4 = STRONGLY DISAGREE	☐ 4
4.55	Would you agree with the statement that, in order to get ahead nowadays you are forced to do things that are not correct?	
	1 = COMPLETELY AGREE	□ 1
	2 = SOMEWHAT AGREE	□ 2
	3 = SOMEWHAT DISAGREE	□ 3
	4 = STRONGLY DISAGREE	∐ 4

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4.56	Please tell me how satisfied you are with your life in general.	
	(Ask respondent to point out the answer on a prompt card)	_
	01 = 10 (COMPLETELY SATISFIED)	<u></u> □ 01
	02 = 09	□ 02
	03 = 08	□ 03
	04 = 07	□ 04
	05 = 06	□ 05
	06 = 05	□ 06
	07 = 04	□ 07
	08 = 03	□ 08
	09 = 02	□ 09
	10 = 01	□ 10
	11 = 00 (COMPLETELY DISSATISFIED)	□ 11

End of interview.

Thank the respondent!

Interviewer to answer questions on next page.

4.57	Indicate the column number of the person who answered the questions in Section 5	
4.58	In what language was the main part of the interview conducted?	
	01 = Afrikaans	<u> </u>
	02 = English	□ 02
	03 = ISINDEBELE/SOUTH NDEBELE/NORTH NDEBELE	□ 03
	04 = Isixhosa/Xhosa	□ 04
	05 = Isizulu/Zulu	□ 05
	06 = SEPEDI/NORTHERN SOTHO	□ 06
	07 = SESOTHO/SOUTHERN SOTHO/SOTHO	□ 07
	08 = SETSWANA/TSWANA	□ 08
	09 = Siswati/Swazi	□ 09
	10 = TSHIVENDA/VENDA	□ 10
	11 = XITSONGA/TSONGA	□ 11
	12 = OTHER, specify	□ 12

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