SEJA BASELINE SURVEY REPORT

Foundation for Human Rights
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FOUNDATION
FOR HUMAN RIGHTS

the **doj** & **cd**
Department:
Justice and Constitutional Development
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

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Glossary of terms

Term	Definition
AG	Auditor-General
AJPCR	Access to Justice and Promotion of Constitutional Rights
CAPI	Computer-Assisted Personal Interviewing
CGE	Commission for Gender Equality
CRL Commission	Commission for the Promotion and Protection of the Rights of Cultural, Religious and Linguistic Communities
DOJ&CD	Department of Justice and Constitutional Development
EA	Enumeration area
FHR	Foundation for Human Rights
IEC	Independent Electoral Commission
Kish Grid	Method for selecting members within a household to be interviewed, a technique widely used in survey research
PP	Public Protector
SAHRC	South African Human Rights Commission
SAIFAC	South African Institute for Advanced Constitutional, Public, Human Rights and International Law
SEJA	Socio-Economic Justice for All
SHaSA	Strategy for the Harmonisation of Statistics in Africa
Stats SA	Statistics South Africa, the national statistics agency

Introduction

The Foundation for Human Rights (FHR), in partnership with the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development (DOJ&CD) funded by the European Union through Sector Budget Support, is implementing the Socio-Economic Justice for All Programme (SEJA).

The SEJA programme is premised on a rights-based approach to the long-term eradication of poverty, in which people living in poverty are treated as free and autonomous agents who are empowered to assert their constitutional rights as active members of society. Previous surveys have shown that marginalised and vulnerable people are not able to assert these basic human rights because of a lack of knowledge of their rights or of the mechanisms and institutions that have been established to assist them. The extent to which these rights are being promoted, protected and implemented by the state, as well as the extent to which people have access to them in case of need, is highly uneven.

Programmes that attempt to redress this unevenness require reliable empirical data to understand the nature, location and depth of the problems experienced by members of marginalised and vulnerable groups with respect to understanding and asserting their rights. The DOJ&CD and the FHR has undertaken this nation-wide survey as part of the SEJA programme, using an expanded questionnaire to measure the awareness of the Constitution of the population at large.

The SEJA Baseline Survey will make a significant contribution to the Department's research activities. A better understanding of people's awareness of, attitudes towards, and access to their constitutional rights will assist the Department to develop activities that promote citizens' awareness of their rights, and to promote participatory democracy.

The successful execution of the survey is a condition of the Technical and Administrative Provisions for Implementation of the Financing Agreement between the European Commission and the government of the Republic of South Africa.

This report details the implementation of the SEJA Baseline Survey and provides the main findings emanating from the study. A synopsis of previous research is presented as Appendix A, while a select bibliography of relevant documents is presented as Appendix B.

Methodology

Questionnaire design

The questionnaire was carefully designed by FHR to produce a dataset that could be used to inform the work of DOJ&CD as well as other stakeholders in government and civil society.

To ensure that the survey produced a rich, statistically sound data set, we did a literature review and extensive stakeholder consultation. The review included an earlier 2011 study by the FHR, demographic health and quality of life surveys, the European Social Survey, and Afrobarometer public attitude studies in 35 African countries.

Following initial consultation with Statistics South Africa on how to align the survey with African statistical standards, we developed a draft questionnaire that was then circulated amongst government departments, Chapter 9 institutions and civil society organisations for comment and feedback.

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The questionnaire was completed in October 2016 after extensive pilot testing in Johannesburg (10 respondents) and Cape Town (25 respondents).

Language

The questionnaire was translated from English into all the other official languages. A rigorous process was followed in translating the questionnaires into all the languages. In order to ensure the quality of translations, a double-blind translation methodology was used, which consisted of both forward- and back-translations:

- The forward translation entailed using suitably-qualified people to translate the English into the desired official language.

- Thereafter, the translated questionnaire was translated back into English by a different translator who had not seen the original English questionnaire. This is known as the back-translation.

- The two translations were compared and further refined based on the review of the back translations.

Computer-assisted personal interviewing (CAPI)

The fieldworkers used hand-held devices to administer the questionnaire, a process known as computer-assisted personal interviewing (CAPI).

The CAPI questionnaire allowed for in-built interviewer checks, automated routing, capturing GPS coordinates of the interview's location, audio recording of open-ended responses, and timestamps to be captured. It also negated the need for coding and capturing of the questionnaires after the interview process was completed.

The 81 questions were pre-loaded on the tablets, as well as maps and navigation software that took the fieldworker to the correct location. GPS positions were recorded, and stored against each interview's data.

The translations were overlaid on the tablet so that once the interviewer had established the home language of the respondent they simply clicked the relevant translation of the questionnaire to continue the interview. Interviews were conducted in the language that the respondent felt most comfortable with. Fieldworkers were able to switch between languages without losing any of the data previously captured in the interview.

Data was downloaded onto a central server, and not stored on the device. If no cell phone signal was available, the device stored the captured data and uploaded that data as soon as it re-established a connection.

The fieldwork

Following an open and competitive tender process, a service provider, Citizen Surveys, was contracted to design and draw a sample, recruit and train a team to conduct the fieldwork and provide a weighted dataset on completion of the fieldwork.[1]

The survey used a sampling frame designed by Dr Ariane Neethling in conjunction with AfricaScope and Geo TerraImage (GTI), based on Census 2011 and disaggregated to the level of enumeration area. An enumeration area (EA) is the smallest geographical unit (or piece of land) usually allocated to a single enumerator during census enumeration (South Africa was divided into 103 576 EAs for Census 2011).

The sampling frame is updated on an annual basis using Stats SA's mid-year estimates as well as the latest available imagery and aerial photography, dwelling unit counts and land use information from GTI. The sampling frame is then checked and benchmarked to the Census 2011 population figures (per main place) regarding number of households, gender, race, age group, etc.

The sample for the SEJA Baseline Survey was designed as a nationally-representative, multi-stage, stratified random sample of South African adults aged 18 years and older (these include citizens and non-citizens). The building blocks for this sample were as follows:

- Province, geographic area (metro/urban/rural) and dominant race group were used as the explicit stratification variables in the selection of EAs, in order to ensure good coverage and the best possible precision per stratum.

- Variables such as EA type (including formal residential, informal residential, traditional, farms, etc.), main place, and sub-place were used as implicit stratification variables to improve the representation within the sample.

The EAs were used as the primary sampling units (PSUs) with the number of households per EA as the measure of size. Households were the secondary sampling units (SSUs), and adults aged 18 years and older were the ultimate sampling units (USUs). The power allocation rule – a disproportional allocation technique that is applied internationally – was used to determine the number of EAs to be drawn per explicit stratum.

The aim of using the power allocation rule was to somewhat decrease the allocation of EAs to the larger strata, and to somewhat increase the allocation to the smaller strata. Using this technique, one can ensure – as far as the overall sample size allows – that the sample sizes were large enough in each

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[1] See Citizen Survey's *Technical Report* for a more detailed discussion of the sampling, fieldwork and weighting of the data.

of the strata, thus providing good precision for each province and population group within South Africa.

The target population for the SEJA Baseline Survey was the non-institutional population residing in private dwellings in the country. The institutional and transient population were out of scope for the survey. Therefore, people who resided in hospitals, prisons, military barracks, etc. during the fieldwork period were ineligible for inclusion in the SEJA Baseline Survey.

As mentioned above, the sample for the SEJA Baseline Survey was designed as a multi-stage, stratified random probability sample. Probability sampling in the context of a household survey refers to the means by which the elements of the target population are selected for inclusion in the survey, such as the geographic units (the EAs) the dwelling units/households in an EA, and persons aged 18 years and older in the selected household. It is this mathematical nature of probability samples that permits scientifically-grounded estimates to be made from the survey. In the analysis of the survey results, we can therefore draw probable conclusions about the South African population of 36 million adults, and not only about the sample of cases.

In the case of the SEJA Baseline Survey, the stages of the sample selection process were as follows:

- **Stage One:** Selection of the geographically-defined units (i.e. the EAs – a sample of 4 167 EAs were drawn with 6 interviews to be conducted per EA).

- **Stage Two:** Selection of the six (main) dwelling units in an EA. The predetermined number of dwellings per EA were drawn systematically from the Stats SA Dwelling Frame sample lists after all dwelling units of that EA had been sorted according to their GIS co-ordinates.

- **Stage Three:** Selection of the household within the selected dwelling unit (in the case of multiple households in a dwelling unit).

- **Stage Four:** Selection of the person/household member aged 18 years or older who had to be interviewed in the selected household. All adult household members were listed and one adult was randomly selected through the Kish Grid method, which was pre-programmed into the electronic questionnaire script.

During the data collection process, three attempts/visits spread over different times of the day and days of the week were made at each randomly-selected dwelling before substitution of that dwelling was allowed.

After the data collection, validation, and editing processes, the files were made available for the calculation of sample weights. Prior to the weighting process, it was important to verify the number of records (i.e. EAs and households enumerated) in the data files received against the actual sampled EAs in the initial sample file. This allowed each record in the EA sample file to be reconciled with data returning from the field, and assisted in accounting for each sample record during the weighting process.

The file was then taken through another process of checks to ensure that there were no missing, invalid, or duplicate identifiers. The records were then validated against the EA sample file to identify and remove any erroneously enumerated households (i.e. households enumerated in EAs that were not part of the sample). The final number of EAs in the realised sample was 4 165 EAs – the two EAs in which no interviews were realised were treated as non-responses, and were compensated for in their respective strata and adjusted in the weighting.

The design weights for the realised sample data were calculated and, after compensating for non-response, the weights were benchmarked to resemble the adult population (aged 18 and older) in South Africa according to the 2016 midyear estimates of Stats SA.
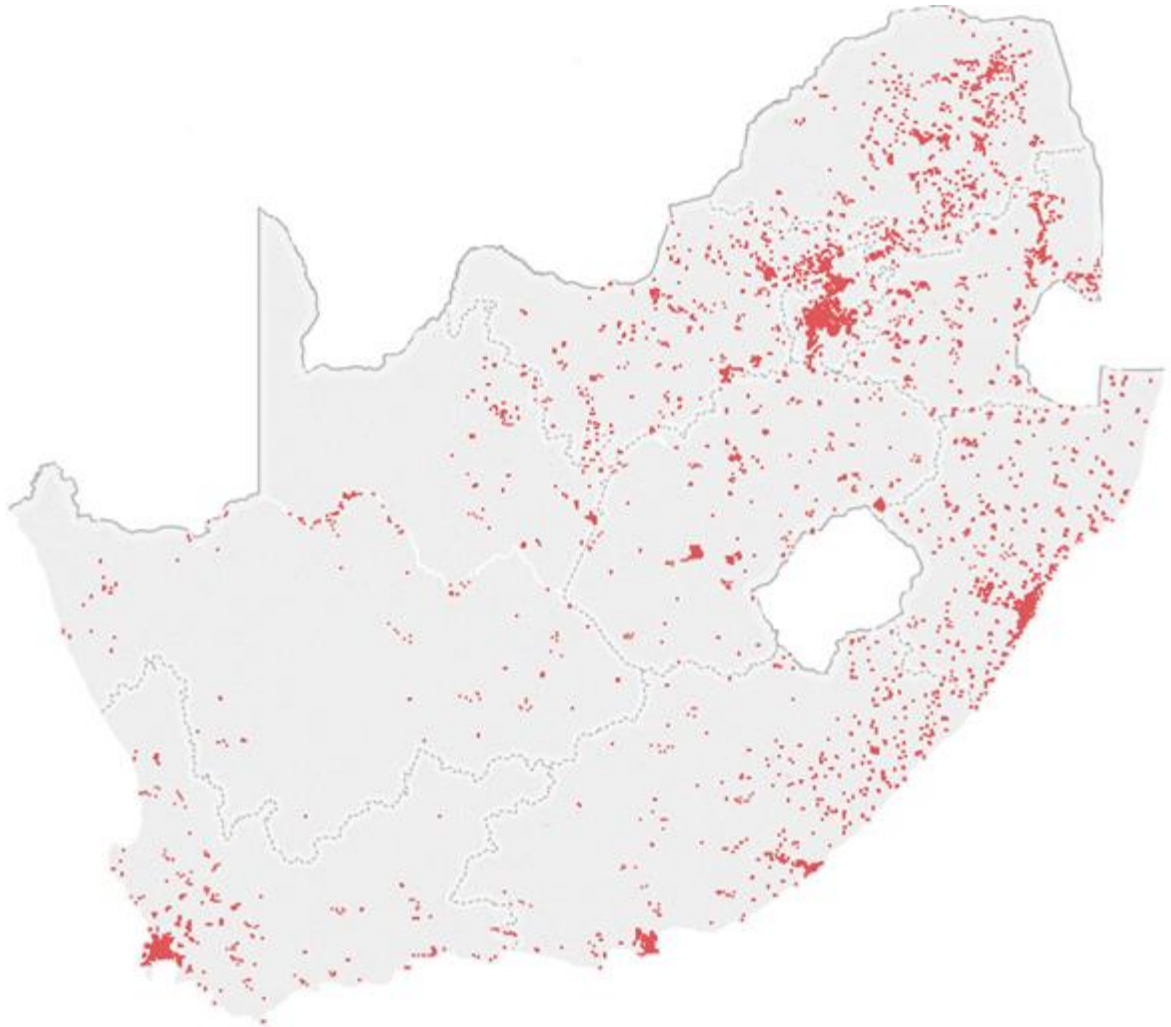
The final sample consists of 24 897 interviews.

Figure 1: Distribution of completed interviews across South Africa

Access to basic services

Introduction

This section looks at the access respondents had to various basic services such as housing, water, sanitation, refuse disposal and energy for lighting purposes. Where appropriate, comparison is made to the findings from Stats SA's General Household Survey (GHS) 2016 in order to provide a robust confrontation of the data. The findings from GHS 2016 focus on the situation of adults in the country in order to provide an appropriate comparison. In concluding, this section provides a measure of poverty by looking at the lived poverty index.

Housing

With regards to the main dwelling that the respondent was living in at the time of the interview, approximately four out of every five (82%) respondents were living in formal housing, while one in ten (10%) were living in informal dwellings either in backyards or in informal settlements. The SEJA Baseline Survey found only 7% of respondents living in traditional dwellings. As Table 1 shows, this compares favourably with data from GHS 2016.

	SEJA (%)	GHS 2016 (%)
Formal	82	81
Informal	10	12
Traditional	7	7
Other	1	1

Table 1: Dwelling type (compared with GHS 2016)

While the differences between the dwelling types that men and women were living in were negligible, there were differences across races. The vast majority of whites (98%), Indians/Asians (96%) and coloureds (93%) were living in formal housing. In the case of black Africans, four fifths (79%) were living in formal housing while a fifth were in informal (12%) or traditional (8%) housing.

It is important to bear in mind that informal housing is a reality across all geographic types – the proportion of respondents living in informal dwellings was fairly constant across metropolitan (10%), urban (10%) and rural (9%) areas. There were, however, differences across the provinces.
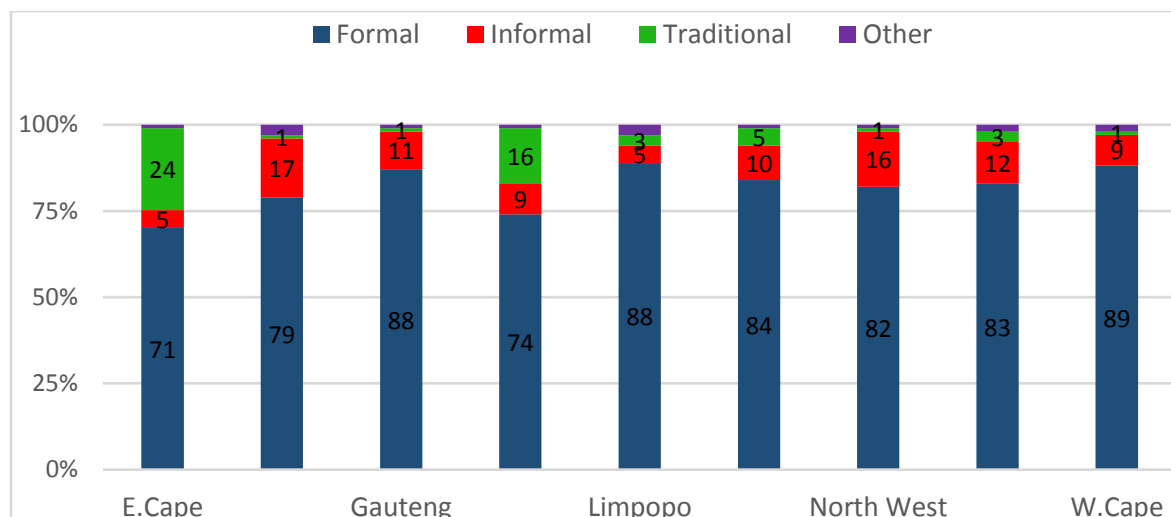
Figure 2: Dwelling type by province

The provinces with the highest proportion of respondents living in formal housing were found to be Western Cape (89%), Gauteng (88%) and Limpopo (88%). Those respondents living in traditional housing were more likely to be found in Eastern Cape (24%) and KwaZulu-Natal (16%). And while there were significant proportions of respondents living in informal dwellings across all nine provinces, the provinces with the highest proportion of adults living in informal dwellings were Free State (17%) and North West (16%).

Respondents were asked how satisfied they were with the dwelling that they were living in. On the positive side, more than two fifths (43%) stated that they were very satisfied, with a further fifth (20%) reporting that they were somewhat satisfied. Together, therefore, more than three out of every five adults in South Africa were somewhat or very satisfied with the dwelling that they were living in. At the other end of the scale, one out of every five (21%) respondents were not at all satisfied with the dwelling they were living in and 16% were only slightly satisfied.

As one would expect, levels of satisfaction differed significantly across the different dwelling types.

Figure 3: Level of satisfaction with dwelling by dwelling type
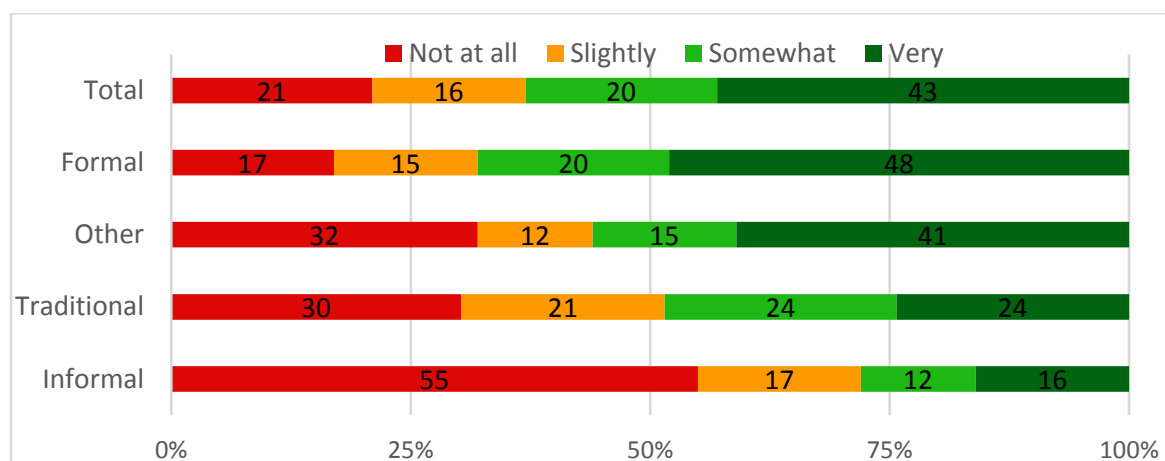
While almost half (48%) of respondents living in formal dwellings were very satisfied with their dwelling, this was only true for a quarter (24%) of respondents living in traditional dwellings and 16% of those living in informal dwellings. The majority (55%) of respondents living in informal dwellings were not at all satisfied with the dwelling they were living in.

Levels of satisfaction with their dwelling differed significantly across geographic area. Almost half (48%) of respondents from metropolitan areas were very satisfied with their dwelling as were 46% of those from urban areas. In contrast, approximately a third (35%) of those from rural areas were very satisfied with their dwelling. At the other end of the scale, respondents from Free State (31%) and North West (30%) were most likely to be not at all satisfied with the dwellings that they were living in.

Water

Respondents were asked about the main water source for their household. More than half (52%) of respondents were found to be living in dwellings with tap water inside the dwelling, slightly higher than the proportion found by GHS 2016. A further quarter (23%) had a tap in their yard, while one in ten (12%) used a neighbour's or communal tap to get water. Overall, almost nine out of every ten (87%) adults in South Africa had access to piped water.

	SEJA (%)	GHS 2016 (%)
Tap inside	52	47
Tap in yard	23	25
Communal tap	12	15
Other in yard	3	2
Other	10	10

Table 2: Water source (compared with GHS 2016)

A small proportion (3%) of respondents were getting water from other sources – a borehole or a rainwater tank – within their yard. However, one in ten (10%) were accessing water from non-piped sources outside of their yards such as streams, rivers, dams, springs, water carriers or tankers.

The dwelling type of respondents had an obvious impact on their water source. While three fifths (61%) of those living in formal dwellings had access to water through a tap in their dwelling, this was true for less than one in ten (7%) respondents living in traditional dwellings and only 16% of those living in informal dwellings.

Similarly, the main source of water differed across the different geographic areas. Whilst more than three quarters (77%) of respondents from metropolitan areas had a tap inside their dwelling this was true for three fifths (62%) of their counterparts from urban areas and only a tenth (12%) of those in rural areas. Figure 4 shows the significant differences across the provinces.
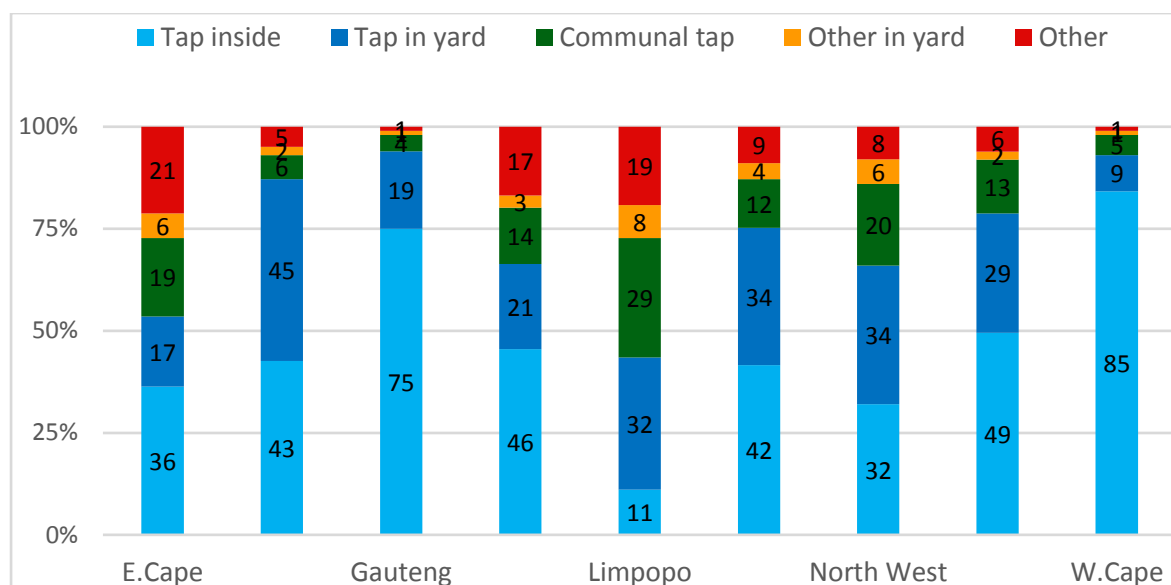
Figure 4: Water source by province

It was mentioned above that Western Cape, Gauteng and Limpopo had the highest proportion of adults living in formal housing. In terms of access to water, the highest proportions of adults having piped water inside their dwelling were also found in Western Cape (85%) and Gauteng (75%). However, adults living in Limpopo had the lowest access to piped water in their dwellings at only 11%. In Limpopo, whilst 73% of adults had access to some form or other of piped water, a fifth (19%) had to get their water from streams, rivers, dams and so on. This was true for a similar proportion of adults from Eastern Cape (21%) and KwaZulu-Natal (17%).

To check the quality of the water that respondents received from their water source, they were asked whether, before any treatment, the water was safe to drink, was clear, was good in taste and was free from bad smells. As Table 3 highlights, more than four fifths of respondents rated their water quality positively on each indicator, while more than three quarters (77%) rated the quality positively across all four indicators.

	Positive (%)	Negative (%)
Safe to drink	86	14
Clear	84	16
Good in taste	84	16
Free from bad smells	85	15
Across all four indicators	*77*	*9*

Table 3: Rating of water quality from water source

What the table does not show are the one in ten (9%) respondents that rated their water quality negatively across all four indicators. The majority (55%) of these respondents lived in rural areas, followed by those living in urban areas (31%) and metropolitan areas (14%). The source of their water was obviously also a factor. While only 5% of those with a tap in their dwelling rated the water quality

negatively across all four indicators, this was true for 11% of those getting water from a communal tap and more than a third (35%) of respondents who got their water from sources such as streams, rivers, dams, springs, water carriers or tankers.

When asked to indicate their level of satisfaction with the water that they access, more than half (52%) stated that they were very satisfied while a further one in six (17%) said that they were somewhat satisfied. Not surprisingly, those with tap water inside their dwellings were likely to be most satisfied – two thirds (66%) of such respondents were very satisfied as compared with half (51%) of those who got water from a tap in their yard, two fifths (42%) of those who got water from a borehole or tank in their yard, a quarter (28%) of those who got water from a communal tap and only in seven (14%) who got their water from a stream, river, dam, or such like.
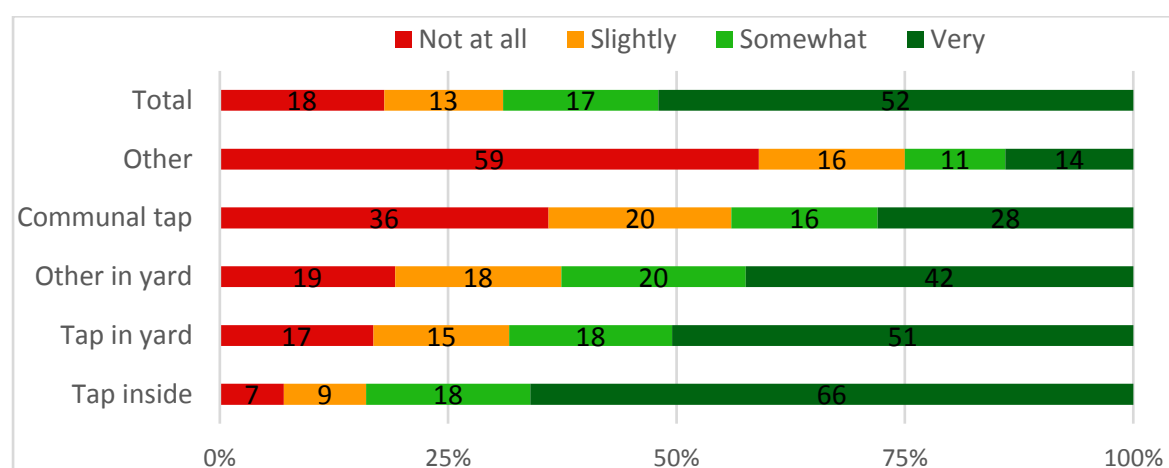

Figure 5: Level of satisfaction with water by water source

Given the situation outlined above regarding water access across the different geographic areas, it is unsurprising to find very different levels of satisfaction across these areas. Adults from metropolitan areas were almost twice as likely (65%) to be satisfied with the water they get as compared with their counterparts from rural areas (34%). Approximately half (54%) of urban respondents stated that they were very satisfied. Levels of satisfaction were also lowest in Eastern Cape and North West, where only 37% of respondents in both provinces stated that they were very satisfied with the water that they access.

Sanitation

The SEJA Baseline Survey investigated what type of toilet facility was used by the respondent's household. More than two thirds (68%) of all respondents had access to a flush toilet or a chemical toilet, slightly higher than the findings of GHS 2016. When combined with those who had access to a ventilated pit latrine, it was found that four fifths (82%) of all adults in South Africa had access to what Stats SA term "improved sanitation". As Table 4 shows, GHS 2016 found that 81% of adults in the country had access to such sanitation.

	SEJA (%)	GHS 2016 (%)
Flush/chemical	68	63
Pit latrine ventilated	14	18
Pit latrine	12	14
Other/none	7	5

Table 4: Toilet facility (compared with GHS 2016)

As one would expect, the dwelling type inhabited by respondents influenced the type of toilet that the household had access to. Three quarters (75%) of respondents living in formal dwellings had access to a flush or chemical toilet as compared with only two fifths (41%) of those living in informal dwellings and less than one in six (16%) respondents living in traditional dwellings.

Geographic location was also a determining factor – the vast majority of metropolitan (92%) or urban (87%) dwellers had a flush or chemical toilet while this was the case for only a fifth (20%) of rural dwellers. If one included ventilated pit latrines to look at access to improved sanitation, more than two fifths (42%) of rural dwellers still fall outside of this category. The differences across the provinces were again marked.
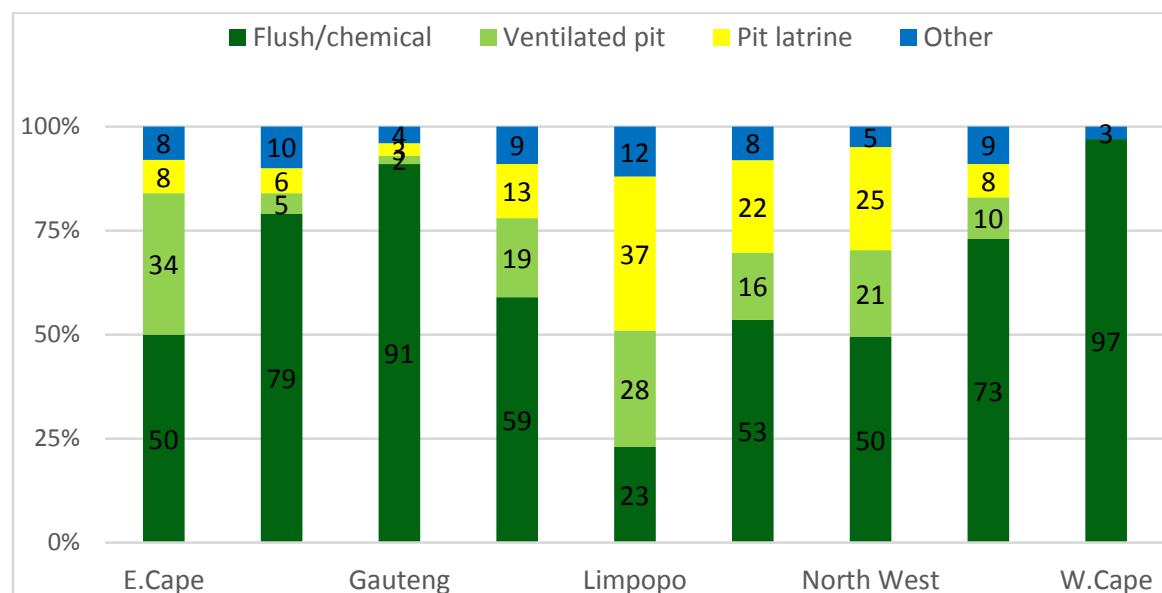
Figure 6: Toilet facility by province

Figure 6 shows that almost all adults in Western Cape had access to a flush or chemical toilet, as did nine out of ten (91%) adults in Gauteng. In contrast, only half of adults in North West (50%) and Eastern Cape (50%) had this access as did less than a quarter (23%) of adults in Limpopo. Limpopo also showed the lowest levels of access to improved sanitation across all the provinces, with only a half (51%) of adults having such access.

The investigation around access to sanitation also explored where the sanitation facilities were located. Less than half (49%) of adults had access to a facility inside of their dwelling, with a further

44% having access within their yard. The remaining 7% either had access outside of their yard or no access at all.

Respondents were again asked to rate their level of satisfaction with the toilet facility that they had access to. As Figure 7 shows, almost half (48%) indicated that they were very satisfied with their toilet facility and a fifth (18%) were somewhat satisfied. At the other end of the scale, a fifth (21%) were not satisfied at all with the toilet facility that they had access to.
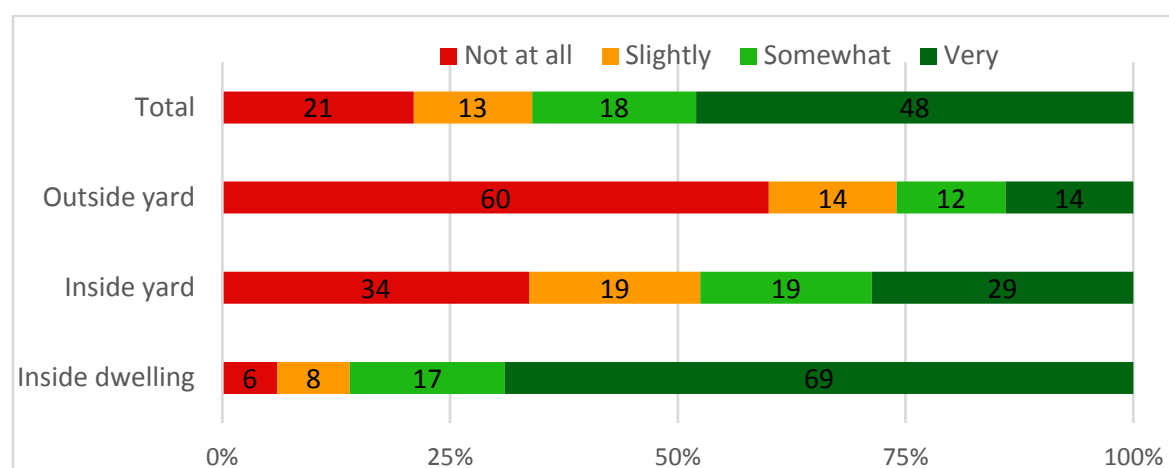

Figure 7: Level of satisfaction with toilet facility by location of facility

The level of satisfaction expressed by respondents was, in part, influenced by the location of the toilet. While only 6% of those with toilets in their houses stated that they were not at all satisfied, this was true for a third (34%) of those whose facility was in their yard and for three fifths (60%) of those whose facility was outside of their yard.

Given the differential access to toilet facilities across the different areas, it is unsurprising to find satisfaction levels differing significantly across these areas. Respondents from rural areas were more than twice as likely (36%) to be not at all satisfied as compared with their urban (17%) or metropolitan (13%) counterparts. Respondents from Limpopo (33%) and North West (33%) were most likely to be very dissatisfied.

Refuse disposal

The survey looked at the ways in which the respondents' households disposed of their refuse. Almost two thirds (63%) of respondents lived in households where their refuse was collected by the local municipality, a private company or the community at least once a week. Approximately a quarter (27%) placed their refuse on their own dump, burned it in a pit or buried it. Only 5% of adults lived in households with no organised means of refuse disposal and would dispose of their refuse anywhere in the street or veld. Table 5 shows that these findings were very similar to those of GHS 2016.

	SEJA (%)	GHS 2016 (%)
Removed weekly	63	64
Removed less often	3	2
Communal dump	2	3
Own dump	27	29

Dump anywhere	5	2

Table 5: Refuse disposal (compared with GHS 2016)

Respondents living in formal dwellings were far more likely (71%) to have their refuse collected at least once a week than those living in informal (42%) or traditional (9%) dwellings. They were also far less likely (3%) to have to just dump their refuse anywhere whereas this was the case for almost one out of every seven (15%) respondents living in informal dwellings. The vast majority (81%) of rural residents placed their refuse on their own dump, burned it in a pit or buried it. The differences across the provinces are shown in Figure 8.
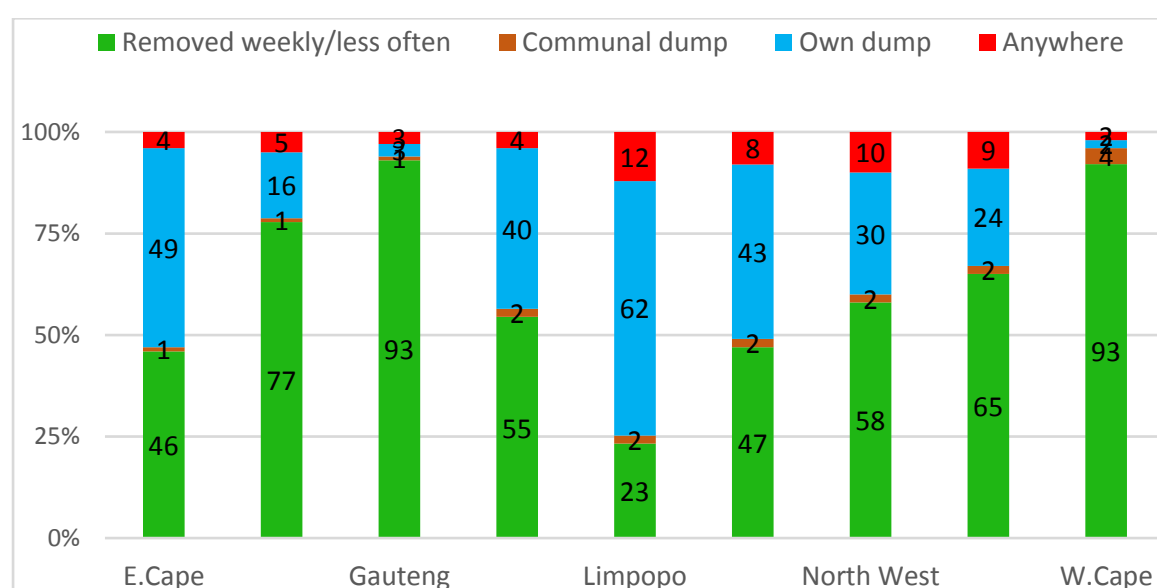

Figure 8: Refuse disposal by province

The vast majority of respondents in Gauteng (93%) and Western Cape (93%) had their refuse collected by the local municipality, a private company or the community. This was the case for less than half of respondents in Eastern Cape (46%) and Mpumalanga (47%) and less than a quarter (23%) in Limpopo. The use of their own dump, burning or burying the refuse was the main means of disposal for respondents from Limpopo (62%) and Eastern Cape (49%) and was also common practice amongst respondents from Mpumalanga (43%) and KwaZulu-Natal (40%). Refused was disposed anywhere by approximately one in ten respondents in Limpopo (12%), North West (10%), Northern Cape (9%) and Mpumalanga (8%).

When asked about their levels of satisfaction with their current system for disposing of refuse, more than two fifths (44%) of respondents stated that they were very satisfied. However, in contrast, a quarter (24%) of respondents were not at all satisfied with their current system. Almost half (48%) of respondents from informal dwellings, where the incidence of no formal disposal system were highest, were very dissatisfied with their refuse disposal system, significantly higher than for respondents from traditional dwellings (36%) or formal dwellings (20%).
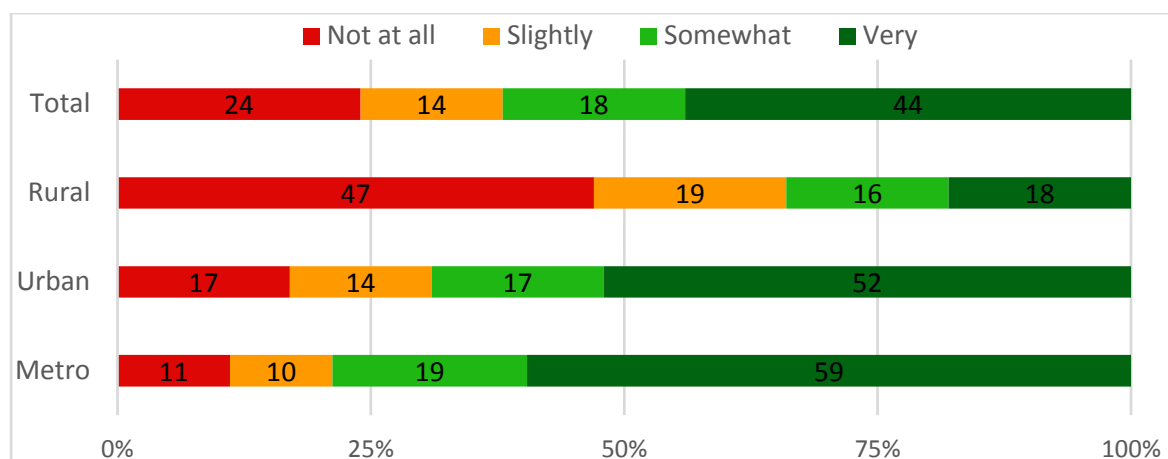
Figure 9: Level of satisfaction with refuse disposal by area

The levels of dissatisfaction were particularly high for those respondents living in rural areas, where, as seen above, the onus for disposal of refuse fell more squarely on the shoulders of the respondents themselves. Almost half (47%) of rural respondents were not at all satisfied with their refuse disposal as compared with one in six (17%) respondents from urban areas and one in ten (11%) living in metropolitan areas.

Levels of satisfaction were highest in Western Cape (70%) and Gauteng (58%), the two provinces with extensive refuse collection services. At the other end of the scale, levels of dissatisfaction were highest in Limpopo – where more than half (52%) of respondents were not at all satisfied with their system of disposal – which was the province with the least extensive refuse collection service.

Energy for lighting

Respondents were asked what their household's main source of energy was for lighting purposes. As Table 6 highlights, the SEJA Baseline Survey (and the GHS 2016) found that the overwhelming majority (92%) of adults in South Africa were living in households that used electricity for lighting. A small proportion were using candles, paraffin or other energy sources, although it should be noted that this proportion still translates into almost 3 million South African adults that are not using electricity for lighting purposes.

	SEJA (%)	GHS 2016 (%)
Electricity	92	93
Candles	3	4
Paraffin	2	2
Other	3	1

Table 6: Energy source for lighting (compared with GHS 2016)

A very high proportion (97%) of respondents living in formal dwellings were using electricity for lighting purposes as opposed to seven out of every ten (72%) respondents living in traditional dwellings and two thirds (67%) of those living in informal dwellings. Electricity access was similarly

high across metropolitan (95%) and urban (95%) areas and was impressively high in rural areas (85%) as well.

While adults in the Western Cape had the highest levels of access to electricity (98%), there were only two provinces where access levels were lower than 90% – KwaZulu-Natal (88%) and Eastern Cape (87%).

Lived poverty index

The lived poverty index, developed by Afrobarometer, is described as "an experiential measure that is based on a series of survey questions about how frequently people actually go without basic necessities during the course of a year".[2] For the purposes of this survey, respondents were asked how often in the past 12 months they or anyone else in their household had gone without:[3]

- Enough food to eat

- Enough clean water for home use

- Medicines or medical treatment when needed

- Enough fuel to cook their food

- Any cash income

- Electricity in their home (except for load shedding)

In Figure 10 one can see that the majority of adults in South Africa did not forego any basic necessities in the previous year, except for that of cash income – only 46% of adults stated that they had not gone without any cash income. At the other end of the scale, one in ten (11%) adults were found to have constantly gone without any cash income in previous year.
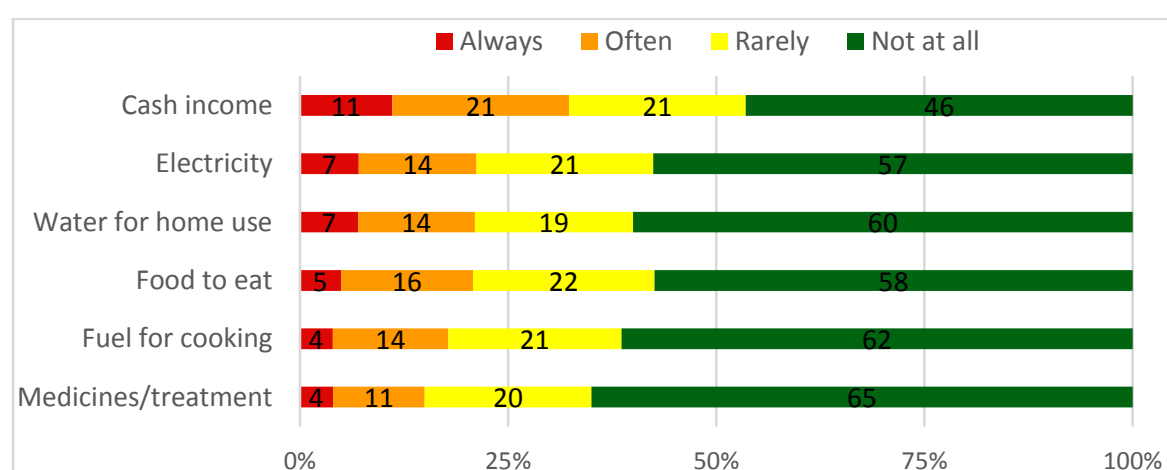
Figure 10: Frequency of deprivation on the indicators of the lived poverty index

For each respondent, the scores on each indicator were added together and the resultant score was then scaled back to the four-point scale, so that each respondent had a score of always, often, rarely or not at all on the lived poverty index.

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[2] See Mattes, R., Dulani, B. & Gyimah-Boadi, E. (2016). *Africa's growth dividend? Poverty drops across most of the continent.* Afrobarometer Policy Paper No.29.
[3] Afrobarometer's lived poverty index was slightly adapted by the SEJA Baseline Survey to fit in with the main use of a four-point scale throughout the questionnaire (Afrobarometer uses a five-point scale).

Figure 11: Frequency of deprivation on the lived poverty index

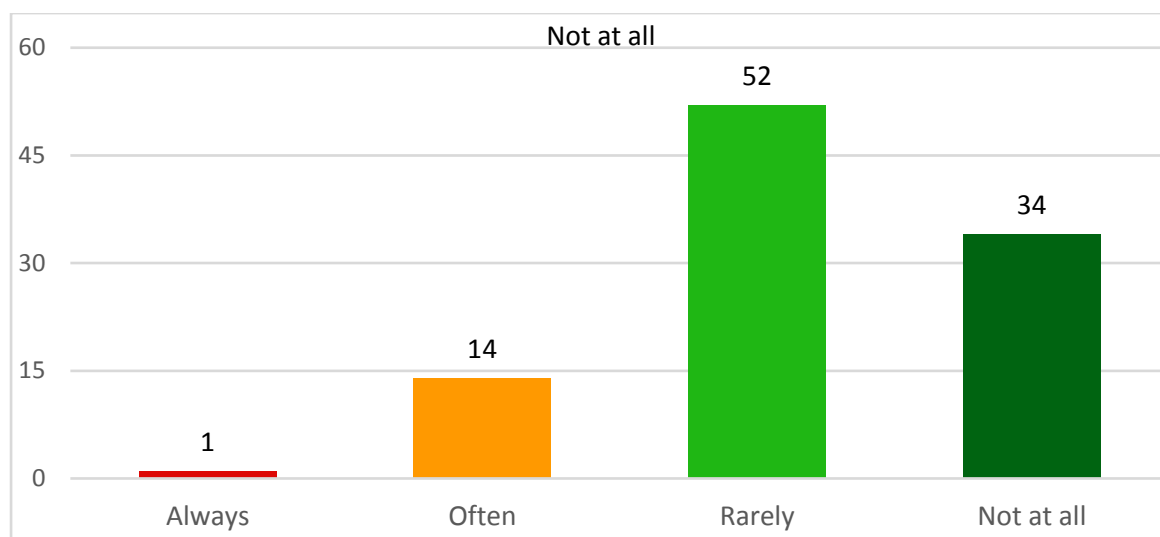Although only 1% of adults in South Africa experienced constant deprivation on all six indicators in the previous year, when added to those who often experienced deprivation on some or all of the indicators we see that 15% of adults could be termed "extremely poor" according to the index.[4] A further half (52%) of respondents experienced deprivation on some level on some of the indicators in the previous year, while the remaining third (34%) had not experienced any deprivation on any of the indicators.

The differences between men and women were mostly insignificant. However, male respondents were more likely (38%) than their female counterparts (31%) to have not experienced any deprivation at all.

Frequency of deprivation	Sex		Race			
	Male (%)	Female (%)	Black African (%)	Coloured (%)	Indian/Asian (%)	White (%)
Always	1	1	1	-	1	1
Often	12	14	16	7	2	2
Rarely	50	54	58	44	29	19
Not at all	38	31	26	47	68	79

Table 7: Frequency of deprivation on the lived poverty index by sex and race

There were significant differences on the lived poverty index across the races. More than one out of every six (16%) black African respondents experienced deprivation often as compared with 7% of coloured respondents, 2% of Indian/Asian respondents and 2% of white respondents. At the other end of the scale, four fifths (79%) of white respondents did not experience any deprivation. This was true for two thirds (68%) of Indian/Asian respondents and almost half (47%) of coloured respondents.

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[4] Although the food poverty line is a different measure of poverty using money-metric data, Stats South Africa found that 17% of adults in South Africa were living below the food poverty line in 2011.

In contrast, only a quarter (26%) of black African respondents had not experienced any deprivation in the past 12 months.

This section has detailed the differential access to basic services across the different geographic areas. It is therefore unsurprising to find rural respondents being worst off on the lived poverty index.

	Metro (%)	Urban (%)	Rural (%)
Always	-	1	1
Often	8	11	22
Rarely	49	50	58
Not at all	43	38	19

Table 8: Frequency of deprivation on the lived poverty index by area

Approximately a quarter (23%) of rural respondents experienced deprivation on the index always or often. This was the case for 12% of urban respondents and 8% of metropolitan respondents. As Table 8 shows, metropolitan (43%) and urban (38%) respondents were twice as likely to have not experienced any deprivation as their rural counterparts (19%).
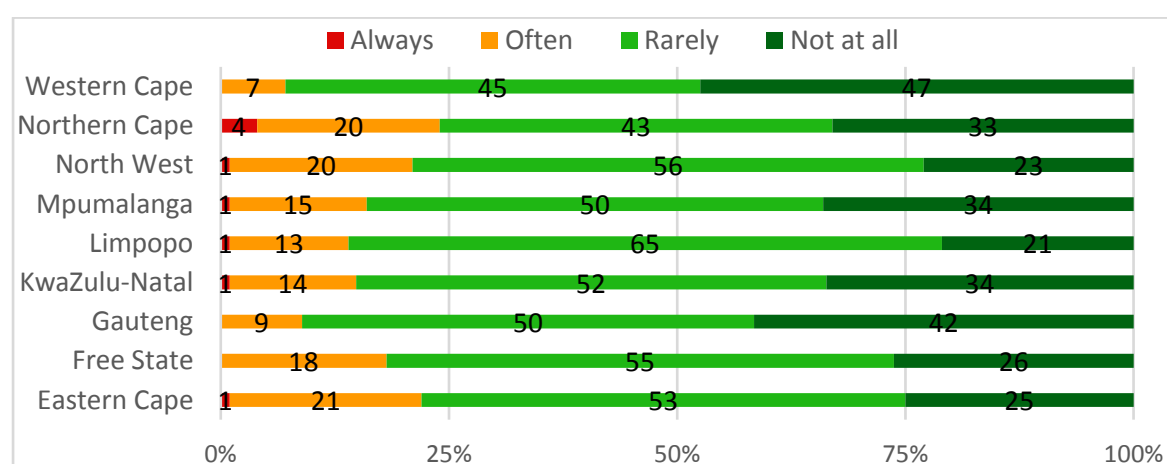
Figure 12: Frequency of deprivation on the lived poverty index by province

Northern Cape showed the highest proportion of respondents that always experienced deprivation at 4%. When combined with those who often experienced deprivation, a quarter (24%) of Northern Cape respondents fell into this category. In contrast, less than one in ten respondents from Western Cape (7%) and Gauteng (9%) fell into this combined category.

Attitudes

Introduction

This section of the report looks at the attitudes that respondents hold to various issues as context for their attitudes to democracy, the Constitution and human rights.

This section starts off by focusing on respondents' general mood about life in South Africa before turning to issues related to sex and sexuality. Attention is then given to feelings of alienation and anomie, before dealing with burning issues such as land and property, HIV and foreigners. To end, the section looks at the levels of trust people have in different groups of people.

General mood about the country

Respondents were asked to think about what was going on in the country at the time of the interview, and state whether they thought things were getting better, staying the same or getting worse. As can be seen in Figure 13, almost half (47%) of respondents thought that things were getting worse, while a quarter of respondents either thought things were staying the same (27%) or getting better (26%).
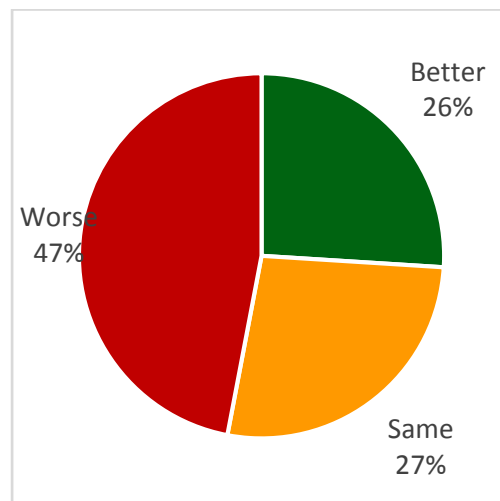

Figure 13: Opinion of how things are going in the country

While there were no significant differences across male and female respondents, the differences across the races were interesting. Three out of every ten (29%) black Africans thought that things were getting better, as did two out of every ten (22%) white respondents. Indian/Asian and coloured respondents were less enthusiastic about the direction of the country. Almost two thirds (65%) of coloured respondents and three fifths (62%) of Indian/Asian respondents thought that things were getting worse – this was in contrast to only half (53%) of whites and two fifths (43%) of black Africans.

Residents living in traditional housing (29%) or formal housing (27%) were more likely than those living in informal housing (19%) to think that things were getting better. Interestingly, rural respondents, who we saw earlier had less access to basic services than their urban or metropolitan counterparts, were most positive about the country. Three out of every ten (30%) thought things were getting better – as did 27% of urban and 23% of metropolitan dwellers – while only two fifths (41%) thought things were getting worse as compared with 46% of urban respondents and 51% of those in metropolitan areas.
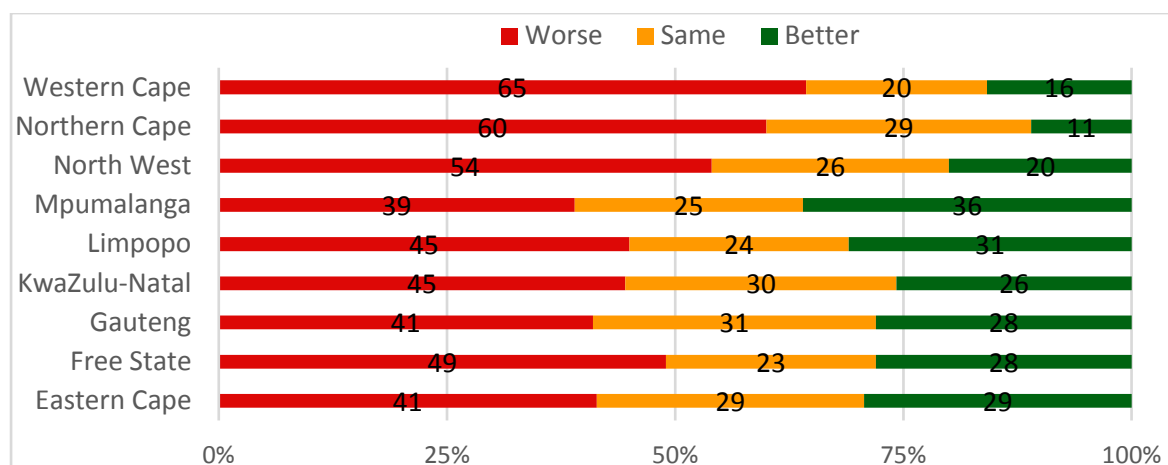
Figure 14: Opinion of how things are going in the country by province

On average, respondents from the Western Cape were most negative about how things were going in the country, with two thirds (65%) stating that things were getting worse. Northern Cape residents were similarly negative – while six out of every ten (60%) said that things were getting worse, only one out of every ten (11%) thought that things were getting better. In contrast, respondents from Mpumalanga were most positive with similar proportions stating that things were getting worse (39%) or getting better (36%).

Sex and sexuality

With regards to issues related to men and women, respondents were asked about their level of agreement or disagreement with the following:

- Women are just as capable as men to be the head of a company

- A married woman is allowed to refuse to have sex with her husband

- The primary role for caring for children should fall upon women

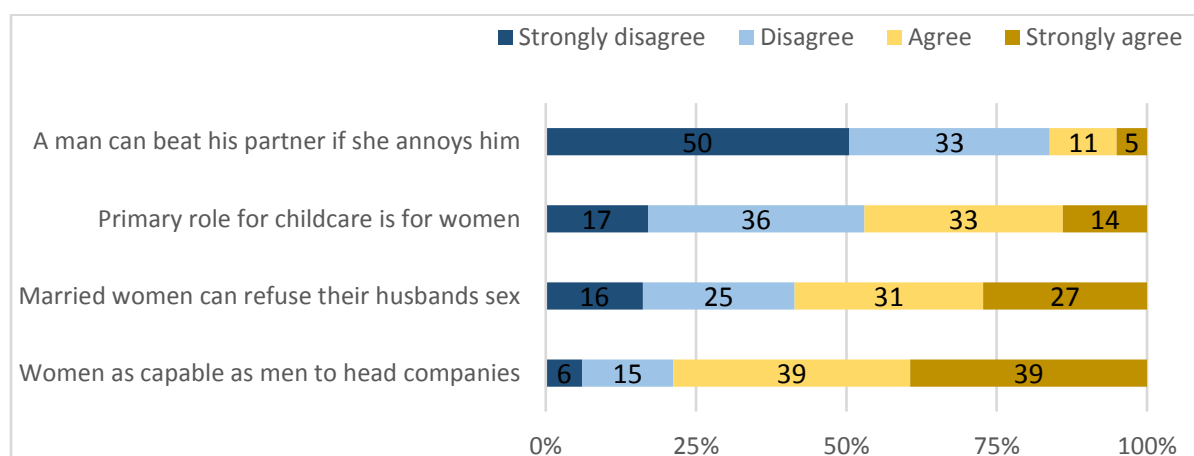- A man is justified in hitting or beating his partner if she annoys him

Figure 15: Level of agreement with statements around men and women

More than three quarters (79%) of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that women are just as capable as men to be the head of a company. However, what this also means is that one in five (21%) respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement. Male (23%) and female (20%)

respondents were similarly likely to disagree with the statement. There were also no significant differences between respondents from different dwelling types or geographic areas on the levels of agreement or disagreement with this statement.

In response to the statement that married women are allowed to refuse to have sex with their husbands, a worrying two fifths (41%) of all respondents disagreed with this statement. Again the differences between male (44%) and female (39%) were not that stark. Although differences were negligible across the different geographic types, the majority of respondents from Limpopo (52%) and North West (51%) disagreed that women can refuse to have sex with their husbands. At the other end of the scale, respondents from Western Cape (72%) and Eastern Cape (66%) were most likely to have agreed that women can refuse to have sex with their husbands.

Although the majority (53%) of respondents disagreed that the primary role of caring for children should fall upon women, there was little difference between the proportion of men (52%) and women (53%) disagreeing on this. Rural respondents were more likely (53%) to agree that women should play the primary role of caring for children as compared with their urban (46%) or metropolitan (43%) counterparts. These sentiments were prevalent in KwaZulu-Natal (53%), Limpopo (52%) and Mpumalanga (52%).

Finally, Figure 15 also shows that while the vast majority (84%) of respondents did not think that a man is justified in hitting or beating his partner if she annoys him, there are still approximately one in six (16%) South African adults who think that a man is justified. White respondents were more likely (20%) than black African (16%), Indian/Asian (13%) or coloured (13%) to agree that a man is justified in beating his partner. The proportion of respondents agreeing with this statement were highest in Mpumalanga (21%), KwaZulu-Natal (19%) and Gauteng (19%).

Respondents were asked about their level of agreement or disagreement with the following:

- People in South Africa are free to choose and express their sexual orientation without fear or judgement

- Being gay or lesbian is against the values of my community

Figure 16: Level of agreement with statements around sexuality
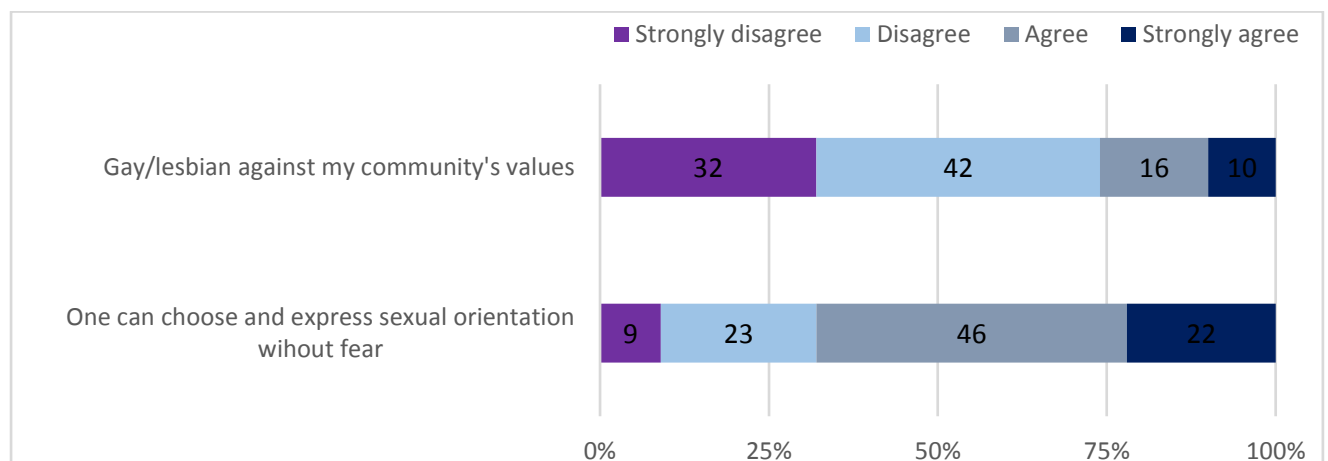
Two thirds (68%) of all respondents agreed or strongly agreed that people in South Africa are free to choose and express their sexual orientation without fear or judgement. There were no significant differences across different sexes, races or age cohorts. Similarly, attitudes did not differ according to the dwelling type or geographic area in which respondents lived.

Figure 16 also shows that almost three quarters (74%) of respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed that being gay or lesbian was against the values of their community. This finding was consistent across Indian/Asian (72%), black African (73%), white (77%) and coloured (77%) respondents as well as both male (73%) and female (74%) respondents. It was also consistent across the different age cohorts, as well as the different dwelling and geographic types in which respondents lived. Respondents from North West (80%) and Free State (80%) were most likely to have disagreed with the statement while those who lived in Mpumalanga were least likely (66%), although they were still in the overwhelming majority.

Alienation and anomie

To explore levels of alienation, respondents were asked whether they agreed or disagreed with the statement that "Nobody cares about people like me". Similarly, to explore levels of anomie, they were asked whether they agreed or disagreed with the statement "People like me cannot influence developments in my community".
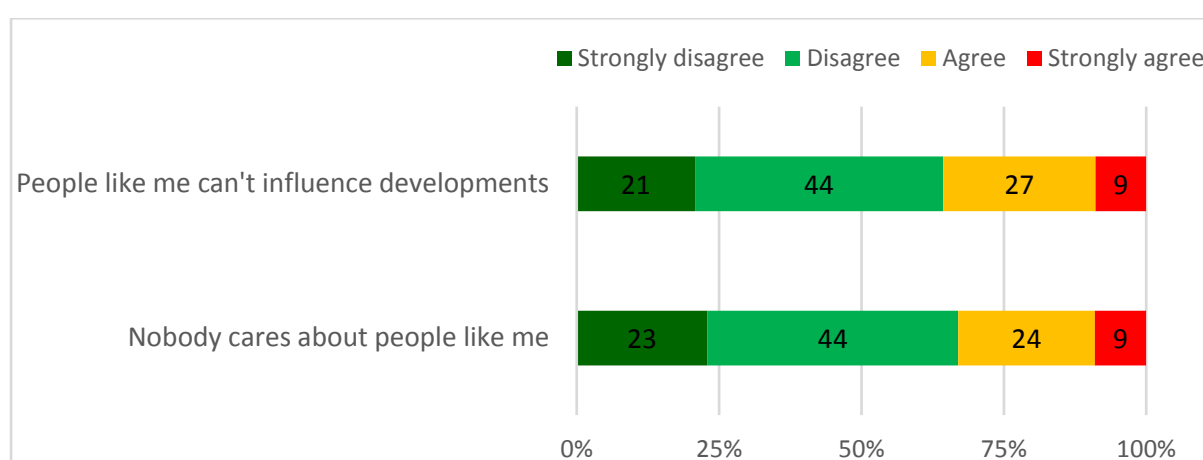

Figure 17: Level of agreement with statements on alienation and anomie

With regards to the levels of alienation amongst adults in South Africa, the SEJA Baseline Survey found that a third (33%) of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that nobody cared about people like them. While there were no significant differences across sex or race, respondents living in informal dwellings were more likely (42%) to agree with the statement than their counterparts from traditional (32%) or formal (33%) dwellings. Two fifths (42%) of Northern Cape respondents felt that nobody cared about them, whilst levels of agreement were lowest in Eastern Cape (26%) and Western Cape (29%).

In terms of levels of anomie, Figure 17 shows that one in ten (9%) respondents strongly agreed and a further quarter (27%) agreed that people like them could not influence developments in their community. Levels of anomie were again highest in Northern Cape (44%) with Gauteng (41%) and Mpumalanga (39%) also showing fairly high levels. Levels of anomie were again also lowest in Eastern Cape (27%).

Land and property

To explore issues related to land and property, respondents were asked about their level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements:

- It is acceptable to burn government property to force the state to provide services

- Land should be returned to black people where it was taken away

- No-one should be allowed to take my land away from me and my family

It is encouraging to see that the overwhelming majority (82%) of adults in South Africa disagreed that it is acceptable to burn government property to force the state to provide services. However, the flip side is that almost one out of every five (18%) adults thought that burning government property was acceptable. There were no significant differences across sex, race, age cohort or geographic type.
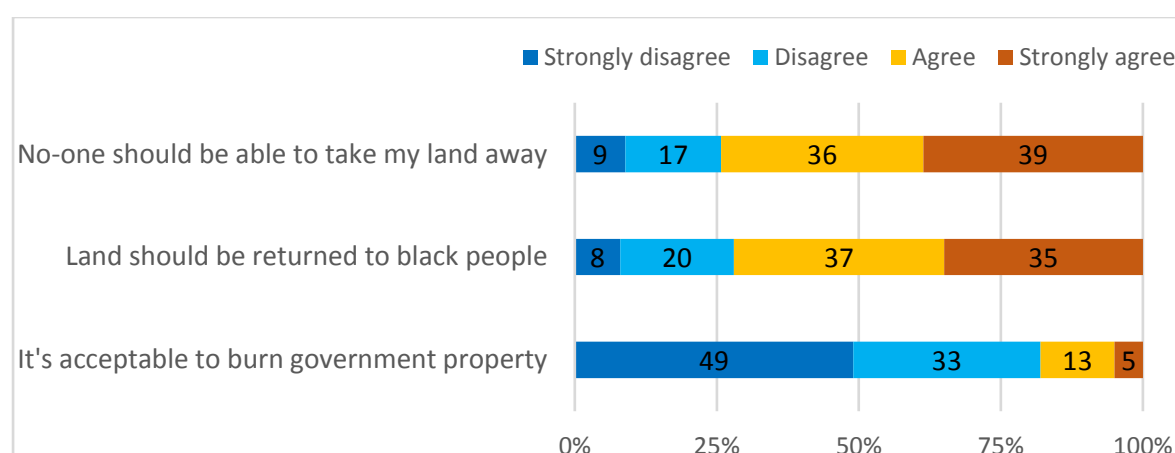

Figure 18: Level of agreement with statements on land and property

Almost three quarters (72%) of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that land should be returned to black people where it was taken away. As one would expect, there were differences across the races. While 77% of black Africans agreed, this was true for three fifths of coloureds (63%) and Indians/Asians (61%) and less than half (45%) of whites. Rural residents were more likely (77%) to agree than those living in urban (73%) or metropolitan (67%) areas. Similarly, respondents from Eastern Cape (79%) and North West (79%) were most likely to agree as compared to those from Western Cape (63%).

Despite these levels of support for returning land to black people where it was taken away, three quarters (75%) of all adults agreed that no-one should be allowed to take their land away from them or their families. The findings were consistent across men and women as well as across black Africans (74%), coloureds (77%), Indians/Asians (76%) and whites (73%). Levels of support for the statement were highest amongst those living in North West (81%) and lowest amongst those in KwaZulu-Natal (69%).

HIV

Respondents were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement with the statement "People who are HIV-positive should not be allowed to work with children". As Figure 19 shows, more than a third (35%) strongly disagreed while a further two fifths (44%) disagreed. This means that the overwhelming majority (79%) disagreed that HIV-positive people should not be allowed to work with children.
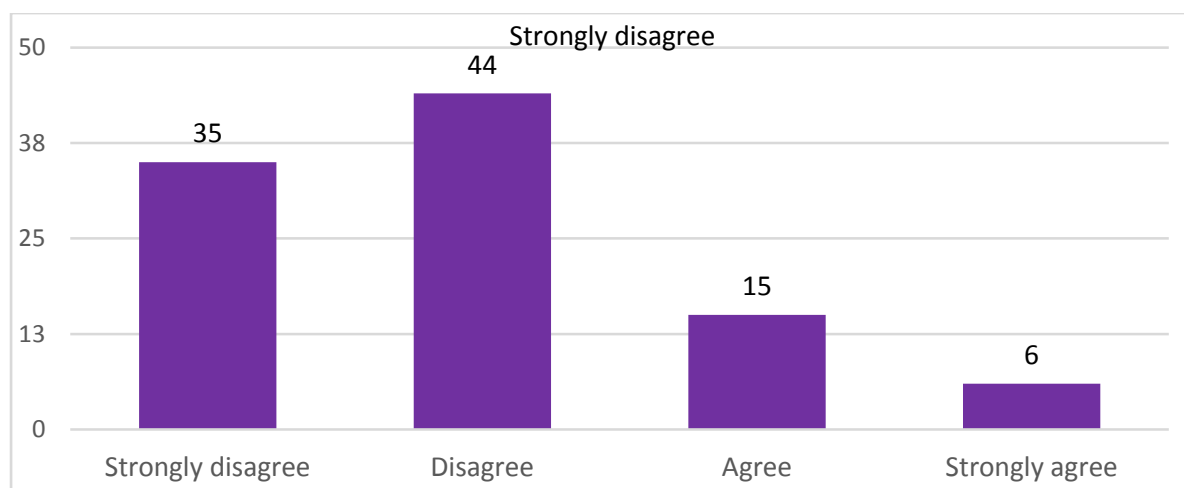
Figure 19: Level of agreement with statement on HIV

The fifth (21%) of respondents who agreed or strongly agreed that HIV-positive should not be allowed to work with children are of concern. Indian/Asian (16%) and coloured (18%) were least likely to have agreed as compared with the black African (21%) or white (28%) counterparts. Levels of agreement were highest amongst respondents from Northern Cape (24%) and lowest amongst those from Free State (15%).

Foreigners

Respondents were asked whether they agreed or disagreed that "Foreigners should not be allowed to live in South Africa because they take jobs and benefits away from South Africans".
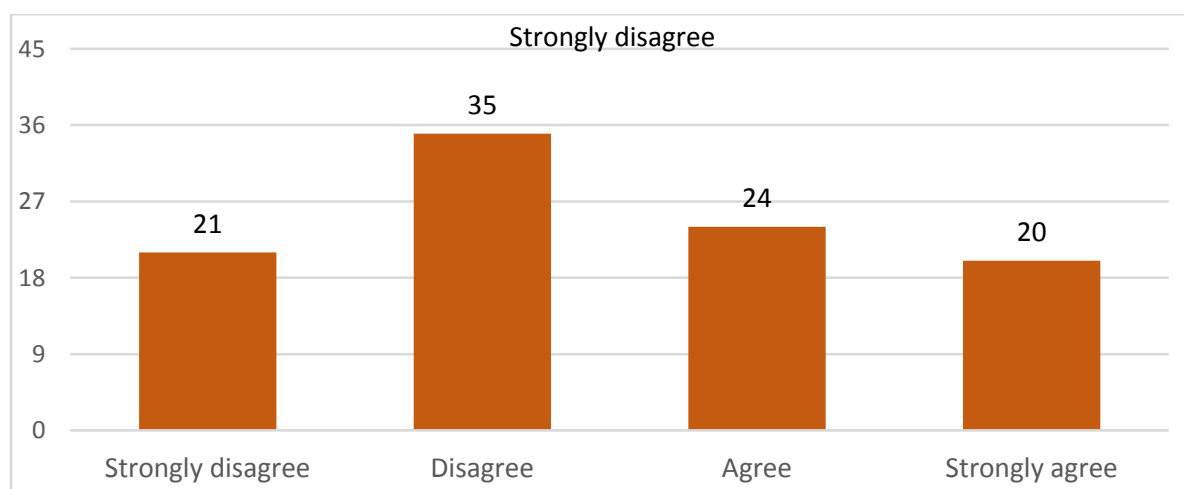

Figure 20: Level of agreement with statement that foreigners take away jobs and benefits

As can be seen in Figure 20, one in five adults in South Africa either strongly agreed (20%) or strongly disagreed (21%) with the statement. A further third (35%) disagreed while the remaining quarter (24%) agreed. This means that the majority (56%) disagreed but a significant proportion (44%) agreed that foreigners should not be allowed to live in South Africa. Almost half of all white (48%) and coloured (48%) respondents agreed with foreigners not being allowed in the country as did 43% of black Africans and 36% of Indians/Asians.

Although the differences were not large, respondents living in informal dwellings were more likely (47%) than those in formal (43%) or traditional (40%) dwellings to agree that foreigners should not be

allowed to live in South Africa. More than half (51%) of respondents from Mpumalanga agreed, while at the other end of the scale only a third (35%) of respondents from Free State agreed.

Trust in others

Finally in this section on the attitudes of respondents, attention is given to the levels of trust that respondents had in different groups of people. Respondents were asked to what extent they trusted the following groups of people – relatives; neighbours; people from a different race; people with a different language; people with a different religion; people with a different political affiliation; people with a different sexual orientation; people from other African countries who live here; and people from other non-African countries who live here.

As one would expect, the highest levels of trust were shown for one's relatives and one's neighbours. Three fifths (62%) of respondents completely trusted their relatives, while a third (31%) completely trusted their neighbours.
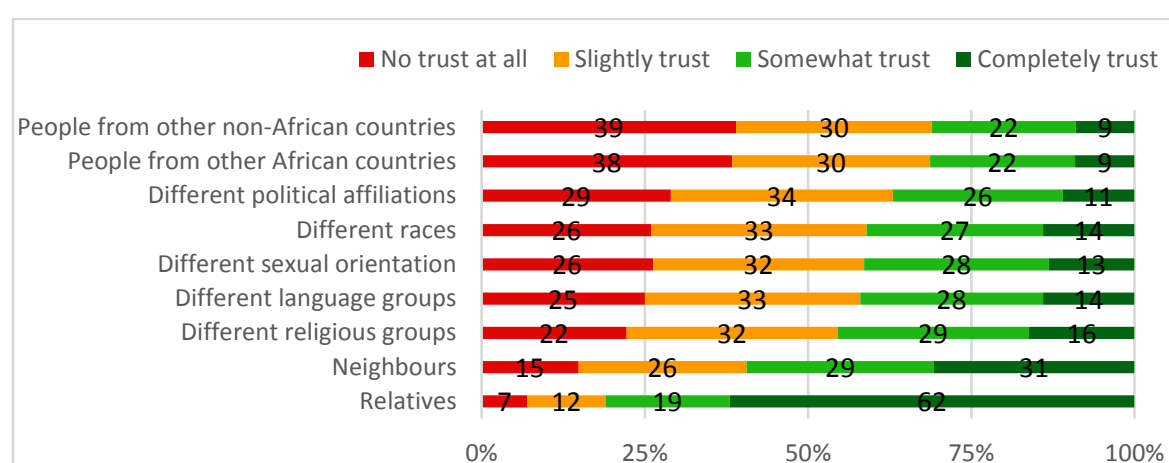

Figure 21: Level of trust in different groups of people

The highest levels of distrust were in people from other countries – both African and non-African countries – reinforcing the attitudes to foreigners reported above. Approximately two fifths of all adults in South Africa had no trust at all in people from other African countries (38%) or those from other non-African countries (39%).

As a proxy for social cohesion, an overall level of distrust of others was calculated by focusing on the number of groups in which the respondent had no trust at all.

Level of distrust	Proportion (%)
None (no trust at all in no groups)	44
Low (no trust at all in 1-3 groups)	28
Medium (no trust at all in 4-6 groups)	15
High (no trust at all in 7-9 groups)	13

Table 9: Composite level of distrust in others

More than two fifths (44%) of all adults in South Africa did not cite any group in which they had no trust at all. A quarter (28%) had no trust at all in 1 to 3 groups, while similar proportions either had no trust at all in 4 to 6 groups (15%) or showed high levels of distrust with no trust at all in 7 to 9 groups (13%).

Levels of distrust were similar across male and female respondents. There were differences across races – while the majority of Indian/Asian (58%) and white (56%) respondents did not have any group of people in which they had no trust at all, this was true for 47% of coloured respondents and 42% of black Africans. With regards to high levels of distrust, this was the case for 15% of black Africans, 10% of coloureds and 8% of both Indians/Asians and whites.

In terms of geographic area, respondents from metropolitan areas displayed lower levels of distrust than their counterparts from urban or rural areas – less than one in ten (9%) metropolitan dwellers had a high level of distrust, while this was the case for 16% of urban dwellers and 17% of rural dwellers.

Figure 22: Composite level of distrust in others by province
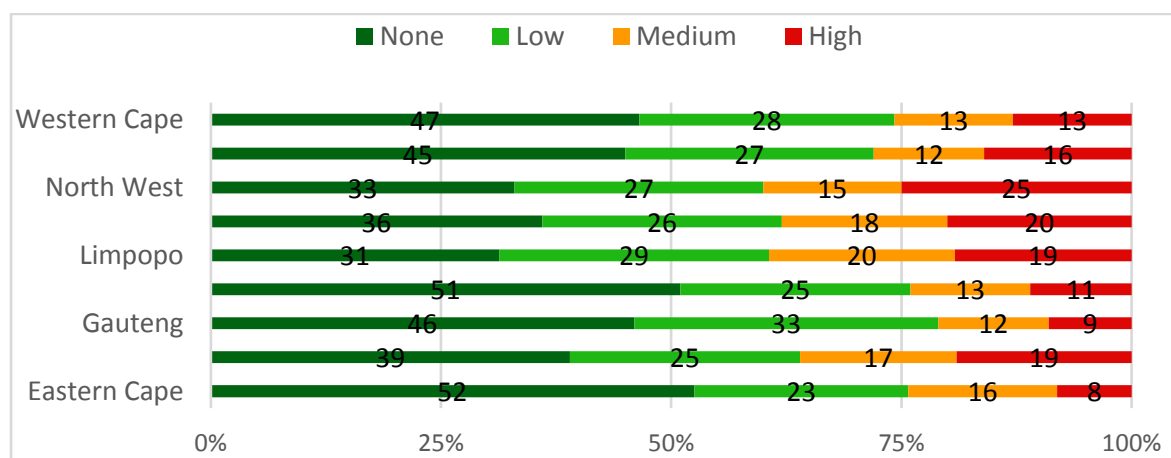
Figure 22 shows that the majority of respondents from Eastern Cape (52%) and KwaZulu-Natal (51%) had the lowest levels of distrust. Conversely, the proportions of respondents with high levels of distrust were largest in North West – where one in four respondents (25%) had high levels of distrust – and Mpumalanga, where one in five (20%) respondents had these high levels.

Democracy and human rights

Introduction

This section deals broadly with issues related to democracy and human rights. It looks at how respondents perceived the change in South Africa from 1994 in a variety of areas, before exploring their attitudes to human rights and democracy and the observance thereof in South Africa. Finally, it looks at respondents' evaluation of the performance of various institutions of democracy in the country as well as their rating of government performance.

Change since 1994

Using a scale of much better, better, same, worse or much worse, respondents were asked how the following has changed for them and their family since the first democratic election in 1994:

- The ability to participate in political activities in the country

- Personal safety

- Economic circumstances

- Access to basic services like water, sanitation and electricity

- Employment opportunities

- Relations between members of different race groups

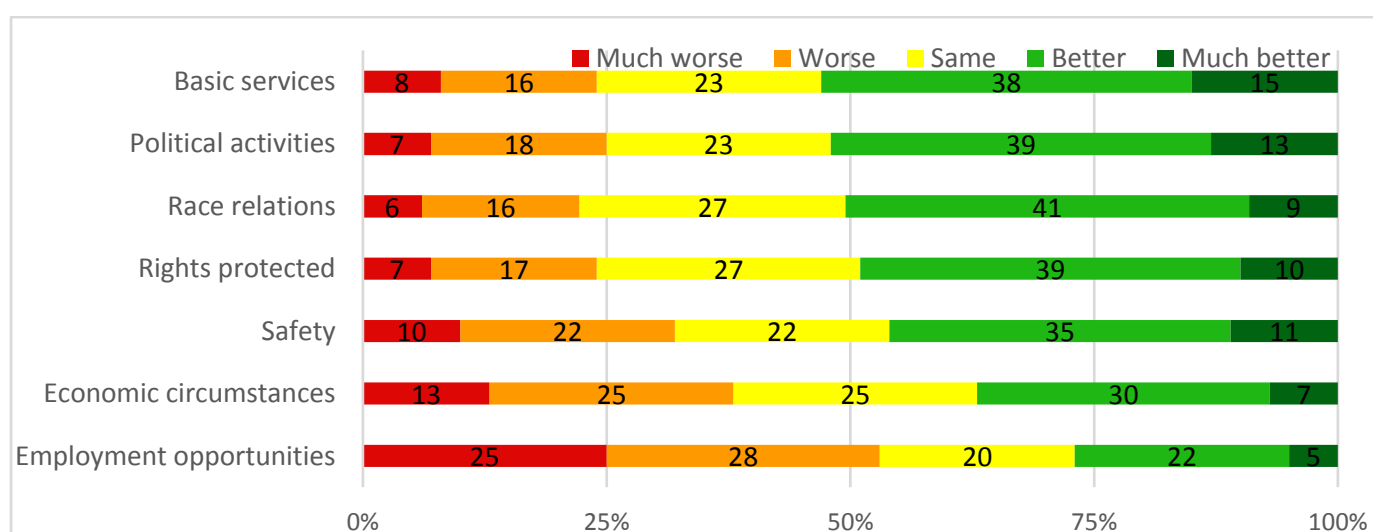- The ability to have one's rights respected and protected

Figure 23: Perceived change from 1994 to present day

At the one end of the scale, Figure 23 shows that the majority (53%) of respondents felt that their access to basic services had got better or much better since 1994. Black African respondents were most likely (55%) to have thought that their access had improved, followed by Indian/Asian (51%), coloured (46%) and white (43%) respondents. As one may expect, the majority (56%) of respondents from formal dwellings cited an improvement in services, whereas those from traditional dwellings (43%) and particularly those from informal dwellings (38%) were less likely to have cited such an improvement.

At the other end of the scale, Figure 23 also shows the level of unhappiness with the economic situation in South Africa. The majority (53%) thought that employment opportunities had got worse or much worse for them and their families since 1994, whilst two fifths (38%) thought that economic circumstances had got worse or much worse. The proportion of adults pointing to the worsening economic circumstances was fairly similar across races and geographic areas. There were, however, differences with regards the attitudes to employment opportunities. Black African respondents were most likely (55%) to have thought things had got worse as opposed to coloured (47%), Indian/Asian (46%) or white (42%) respondents. Similarly, almost two thirds of those living in informal (65%) or traditional (64%) dwellings felt employment opportunities had got worse as compared with half (51%) of those living in formal dwellings.

Human rights

Respondents were asked how satisfied they were with the way that human rights are respected in South Africa. More than a quarter (28%) stated that they were not at all satisfied, with a similar proportion (29%) saying that they were only slightly satisfied. This means that the majority were not satisfied with the respect for human rights in the country.
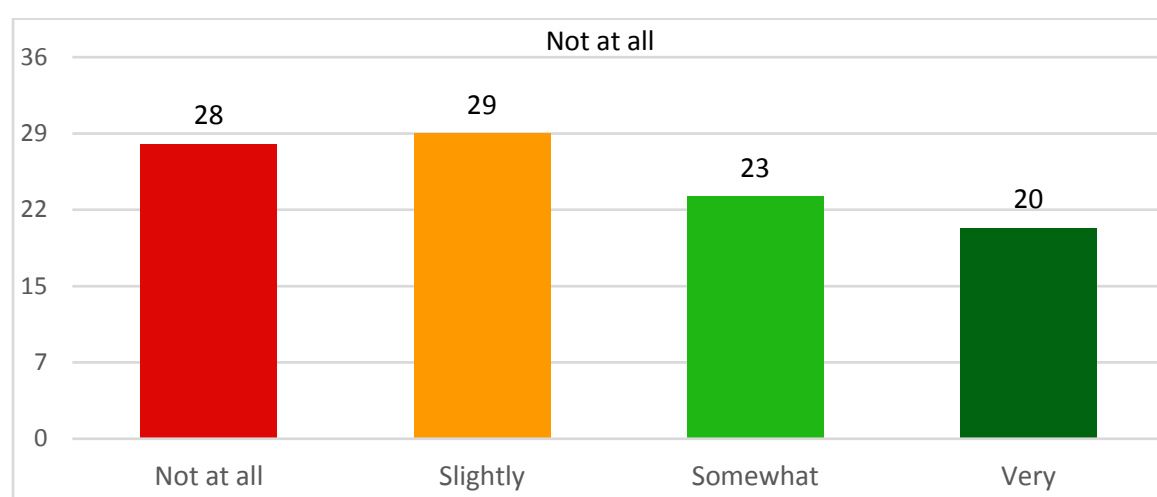

Figure 24: Level of satisfaction with the way human rights are respected in South Africa

The majority (53%) of white respondents were either somewhat or very satisfied with the way human rights are respected in South Africa. This compared to 47% of Indian/Asian respondents, 42% of black African respondents and only 39% of coloured respondents. Residents in informal (31%) and traditional (37%) dwellings were less likely to be satisfied as opposed to the counterparts from formal dwellings (45%).

	Somewhat or very satisfied (%)
Eastern Cape	34
Free State	43
Gauteng	50
KwaZulu-Natal	44
Limpopo	42

Mpumalanga	52
North West	32
Northern Cape	38
Western Cape	38

Table 10: Proportion satisfied with respect for human rights by province

As Table 10 indicates, levels of satisfaction were highest in Mpumalanga (52%) and Gauteng (50%) and lowest in North West (32%) and Eastern Cape (34%).

Attitude to democracy

To explore attitudes to the concept of democracy, respondents were asked to imagine the following three friends talking about how they feel about democracy:

- The first one says: "Democracy is always preferable to any other kind of government"

- The second says: "In some circumstances, a non-democratic government can be preferable"

- Then the third one says: "For someone like me, it doesn't matter what kind of government we have"

Respondents were then asked which person best described how they felt about democracy. Half (51%) of respondents went with democracy always being the most preferable form of government, while a further quarter (26%) stated that, in some circumstances, a non-democratic government can be preferable. The remaining quarter (23%) felt that it did not really matter what kind of government we have in South Africa.
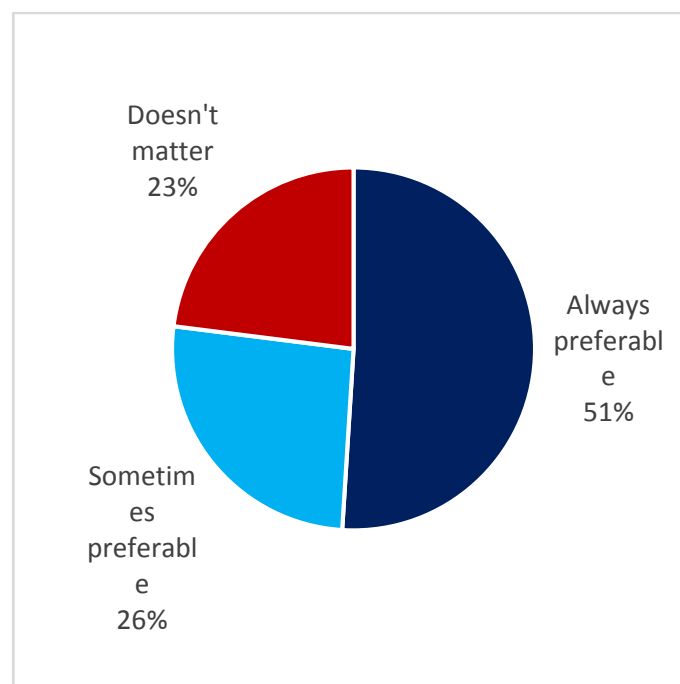

Figure 25: Attitude to the system of democracy

Whilst the majority of Indian/Asian (54%) and black African (53%) respondents – and half (50%) of white respondents – opted for democracy as always be preferable, less than two fifths (38%) of coloured respondents chose this option. Coloured respondents were more or less equally divided across the three options, with 31% saying that a non-democratic government can sometimes be preferable and the same proportion (31%) stating that they did not matter what kind of government we have in the country. In comparison, a fifth (20%) of white respondents said that it did not matter as did 23% of black Africans and 24% of Indians/Asians.

In terms of the dwelling types that respondents were living in, those in traditional homes were far more likely (59%) to opt for democracy always being preferable as opposed to 51% of those in formal dwellings and less than half (46%) of those in informal dwellings. Those in informal dwellings were most likely (28%) to state that the type of government does not really matter as this was true for 23% of those in formal dwellings and only 18% from traditional dwellings. Interestingly, the differences across geographic type – that is, metropolitan, urban and rural areas – were not that marked.

However, as Table 11 details, there were differences across the provinces. The majority of respondents in six of the nine provinces cited democracy as being the most preferable form of government – these were North West (61%), Gauteng (56%), Mpumalanga (53%), Eastern Cape (51%), KwaZulu-Natal (51%) and Limpopo (51%).

	Always preferable (%)	Sometimes preferable (%)	Doesn't matter (%)
Eastern Cape	51	28	21
Free State	46	31	23
Gauteng	56	22	22
KwaZulu-Natal	51	28	20
Limpopo	51	26	23
Mpumalanga	53	21	25
North West	61	19	20
Northern Cape	39	30	31
Western Cape	38	29	33

Table 11: Attitude to the system of democracy by province

In contrast, less than two fifths of respondents in Western Cape (38%) and Northern Cape (39%) thought democracy was always preferable. Respondents in these two provinces were more evenly spread across the three options.

Responsibilities of citizens in a democracy

For each of the following actions, respondents were asked whether they thought it was something a good citizen in a democracy should always do, never do, or do only if they chose to:

- Agree with the majority of people in his or her community on political issues

- Complain to government officials when public services are of poor quality

- Pay taxes they owe to government

- Take action when your rights are violated
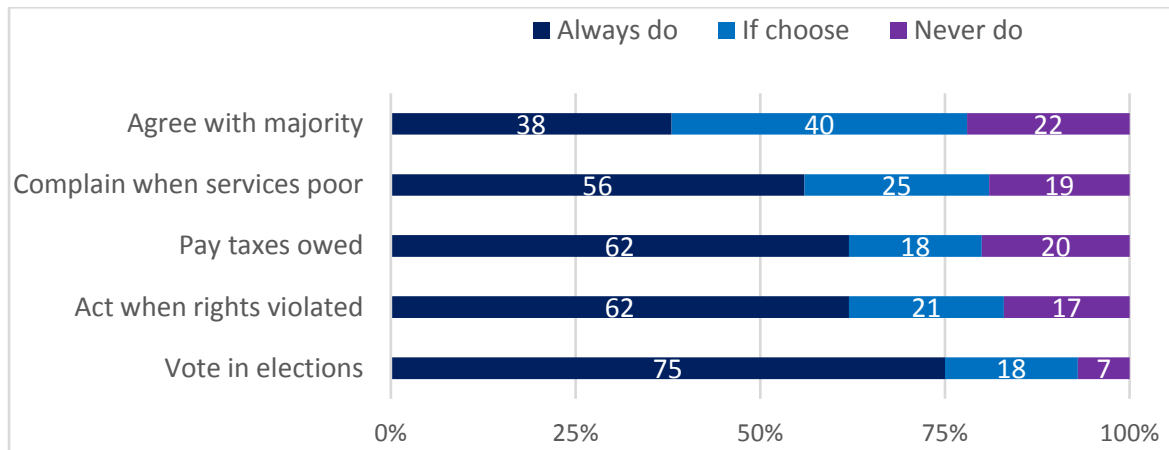
- Vote in elections

Figure 26: What a good citizen in a democracy should do

Three quarters (75%) of all adults in South Africa stated that a good citizen in a democracy should always vote in elections (their own involvement in the 2016 local elections will be looked at in the section on political engagement). This proportion was consistently high across race and sex as well as across the different dwelling and geographic types. Limpopo (66%) was the only province in which this proportion fell below 70% – a quarter (26%) of Limpopo respondents argued that a good citizen would only vote if they chose to.

Figure 26 shows that whilst the majority of respondents felt that a good citizen in a democracy should always pay their taxes or act when their rights were violated, it is of concern that approximately one in five respondents stated that one should never pay their taxes (20%) or act when their rights are violated (17%). Those arguing against paying taxes were more likely to be residents of informal (30%) or traditional (26%) dwellings than residents from formal dwellings (19%). They were also least likely to be residing in Northern Cape (7%) or Western Cape (15%).

Attitude to democracy in South Africa

In addition to exploring their general attitudes to democracy, respondents were asked how satisfied they were with the way that democracy works in South Africa. Three out of ten (30%) adults in South Africa claimed not to be satisfied at all, with a similar proportion (29%) stating that they were only slightly satisfied. Taken together, almost six out of every ten adults were not satisfied with the way democracy works in the country.
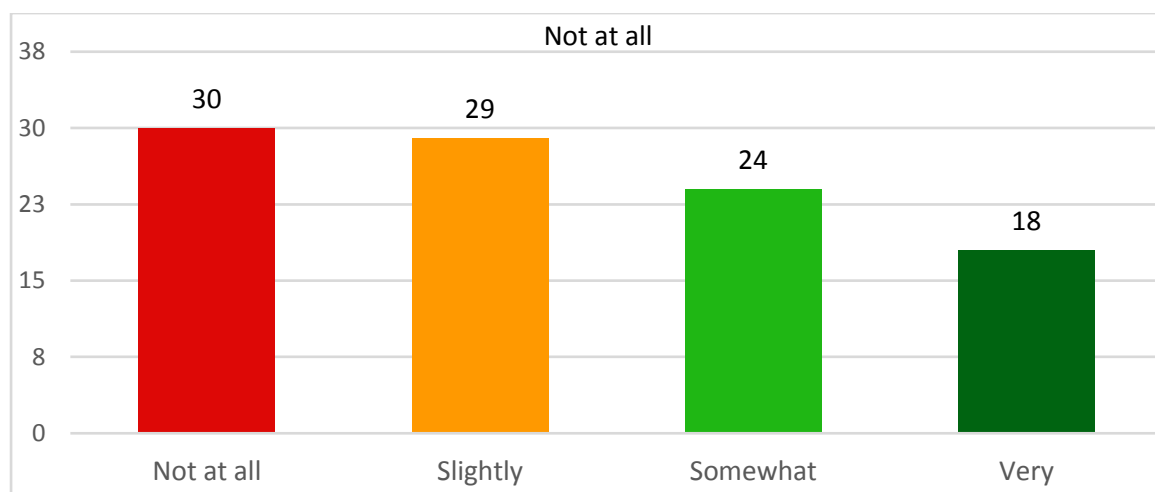
Figure 27: Level of satisfaction with how democracy works in South Africa

Levels of satisfaction varied across races. Whilst the majority of coloured (62%), black African (60%) and Indian/Asian (57%) respondents were not at all satisfied or only slightly satisfied, this was true for less than half (48%) of white respondents. These levels of dissatisfaction were highest amongst residents of informal dwellings, where almost three quarters (72%) stated that they were either not at all satisfied (44%) or only slightly satisfied (28%). This is in contrast to less than two thirds (63%) of those living in traditional dwellings and 57% of respondents from formal dwellings.

Levels of dissatisfaction were highest amongst residents of Eastern Cape (67%) and North West (67%). In all other provinces, those who were dissatisfied were in the majority, except for Mpumalanga, where slightly less than half (49%) of respondents were dissatisfied.

Characteristics of democracy in South Africa

Democracy is often associated with a number of characteristics. Respondents were asked how much they thought the following characteristics were respected in South Africa today:

- Freedom of expression – people are free to say what they think

- Freedom of press – newspapers and other media are free to publish without fear of being shut down

- Equality before the law – everyone is treated equally in the courts of law

- Political freedom – people are free to join any political party

- Free and fair elections – people can cast their vote without any intimidation

- Freedom of movement – people may choose where to live without any restriction and may leave and return to their country at any time

- Religious freedom – people are free to practise their faith without persecution

- Freedom of association – people may join any organisation they wish without interference from government

- Absence of discrimination – the rights of all people are equally respected in daily life

As Figure 28 shows, religious and political freedoms were seen to be most commonly respected in South Africa today, with half (51%) or respondents stating that they were always respected and a

further quarter (24%) stating that they were often respected. At the other end of the scale, although a slight majority (51%) thought that it was always or often respected, a quarter of respondents (24%) felt that equality before the law was never respected while a similar proportion (25%) felt that it was rarely respected.
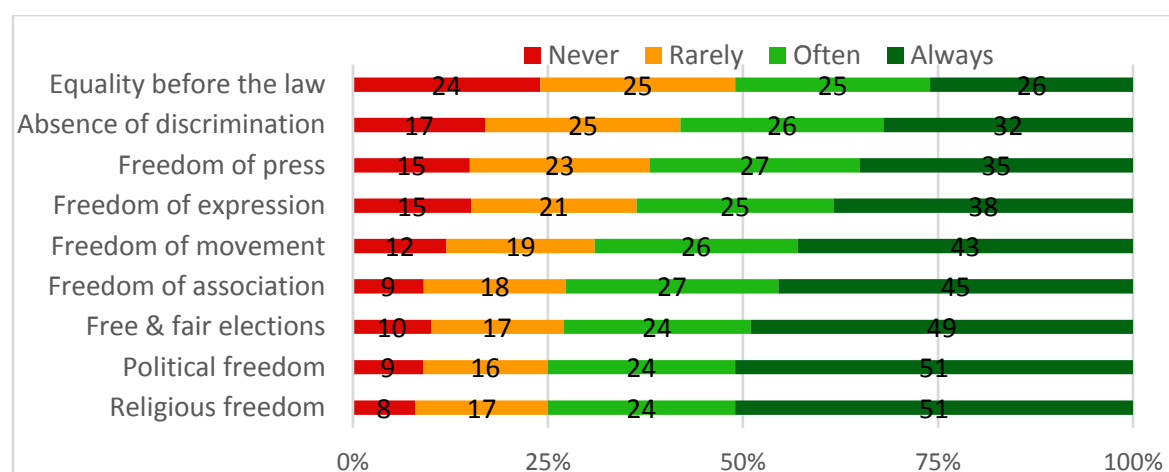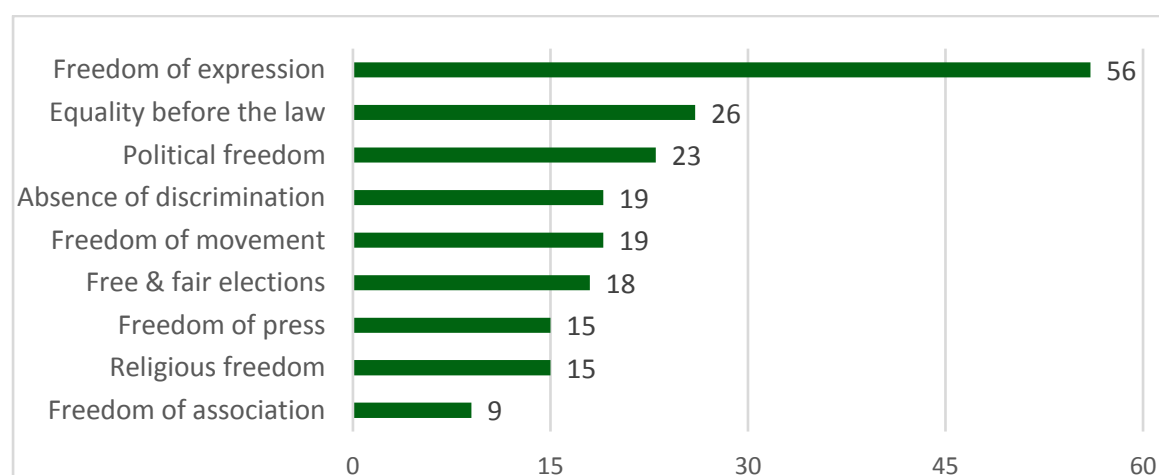

Figure 28: How characteristics of democracy are respected in South Africa

In terms of political freedoms, white respondents were less likely (68%) to state that the right to join any political party was often or always respected when compared with their black African, Indian/Asian or coloured counterparts (all 76%). Political freedom was cited by the majority of respondents as being often or always respected across all nine provinces – only in Gauteng (69%) did the proportion fall below 70%. In Mpumalanga and Western Cape, this majority reached 82% with seven out of every ten (70%) adults in Mpumalanga stating that political freedom was always respected in South Africa.

With regard to everyone being treated equally in the courts of law, there were no real differences across sex and race on the proportion of respondents who thought that equality before the law was never or rarely respected. Differences across dwelling and geographic type were also negligible.

Having asked respondents about the extent to which they thought each characteristic was respected in South Africa, they were then asked which two characteristics they thought were most important to them. As shown in Figure 29, more than half (56%) of all respondents indicated that freedom of expression was most important to them, followed by equality before the law (26%) and political freedom (23%).

While freedom of expression and equality before the law were the top two characteristics commonly cited by all races, the third most common characteristic differed as shown in Table 12. For black Africans (24%) and coloureds (23%), the third most common characteristic cited was political freedom. For Indian/Asian respondents, however, this was absence of discrimination (25%) and for white respondents, it was freedom of the press (24%).

	Black African (%)	Coloured (%)	Indian/Asian (%)	White (%)
Freedom of expression	55	61	59	56
Equality before the law	26	28	25	24
Political freedom	24	23	17	17
Absence of discrimination	18	20	25	21
Freedom of movement	20	15	15	18
Free and fair elections	19	15	14	18
Freedom of press	14	16	15	24
Religious freedom	15	15	19	14
Freedom of association	9	8	9	8

Table 12: The characteristics of democracy deemed most important by race

While freedom of expression was the number one characteristic for the majority of respondents across all nine provinces, respondents from Free State (62%) and North West (60%) were more likely to have cited this than those in Limpopo (51%). Limpopo and Mpumalanga were the only two provinces where freedom of expression and equality before the law were not the two most commonly cited characteristics. In both instances, political freedom was the second most mentioned (and then came equality before the law).

Characteristics of democracy not previously mentioned that made it into the top three across the provinces included the need for free and fair elections cited in Eastern Cape (27%), freedom of movement cited in Gauteng (23%) and North West (21%), and absence of discrimination cited in KwaZulu-Natal (23%).

Elements of democracy in South Africa

Respondents were asked about their level of satisfaction with the following elements of democracy in South Africa:

- How the rights in the Constitution are upheld

- The independence of the National Prosecuting Authority

- The system we have for elections and voting

- The accountability of members of parliament

Figure 30 shows that more than a third (35%) of respondents were very satisfied with the system for elections in the country, while a further quarter (26%) were somewhat satisfied – taken together this accounts for six out of every ten respondents expressing some level of satisfaction. The majority of respondents across race and sex, dwelling and geographic types, as well as geographic area, were satisfied with the system for elections. However, this was the only element in which the satisfied were in the majority.
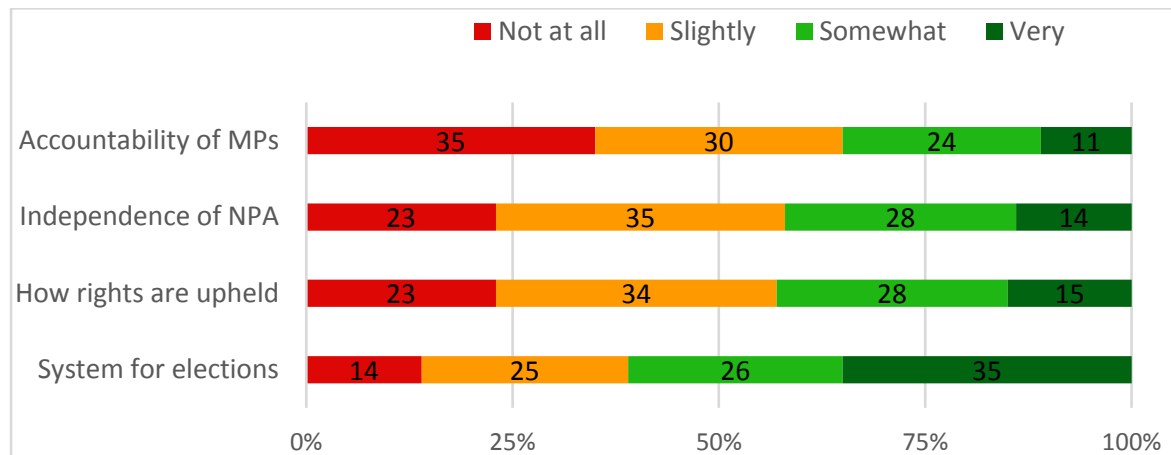

Figure 30: Level of satisfaction with certain elements of democracy in South Africa

We saw above that the majority (57%) of adults in South Africa were not satisfied with the respect for human rights in the country. A similar proportion were either not at all satisfied (23%) or only slightly satisfied (34%) with the way in which the rights in the Constitution are upheld. Six out every ten (58%) respondents were also dissatisfied with the independence of the NPA, while the level of dissatisfaction was highest (65%) on the accountability of members of parliament (MPs) – more than a third (35%) were not at all satisfied and three tenths (30%) were only slightly satisfied.

Dissatisfaction about the accountability of MPs was fairly consistent across black African (63%), Indian/Asian (65%), coloured (68%) and white (68%) respondents, as well as across male (66%) and female (63%) respondents. Levels of dissatisfaction were highest in North West (75%) and Western Cape (71%), whilst they were lowest in Mpumalanga (58%) and KwaZulu-Natal (59%).

Attitudes to government

The final component of this section looks at the evaluation by respondents of government performance, at a range of levels and across a range of issues. To begin with, respondents were asked to rate their level of satisfaction with the performance of the three different spheres of government in South Africa – national, provincial and local government.

The results – as shown in Figure 31 – were predominantly negative across all three spheres of government. Two fifths (38%) of respondents were not at all satisfied with the performance of national or local government, while a third (32%) were not at all satisfied with performance of provincial government. Combined with those who were only slightly satisfied, it means that almost two thirds of adults in South Africa were dissatisfied with the performance of both local (65%) and provincial (65%) government, while over two thirds (68%) were dissatisfied with the performance of national government.
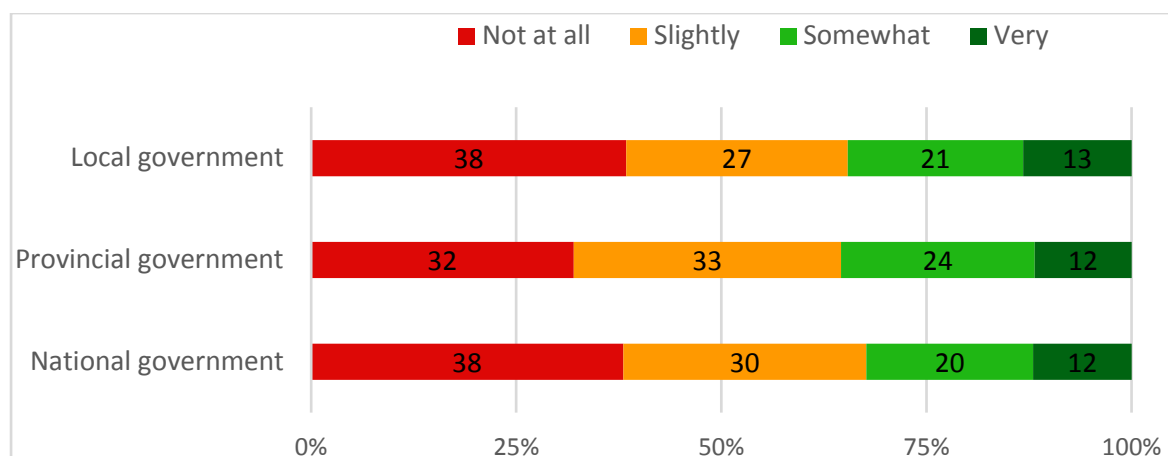
Figure 31: Level of satisfaction with the three spheres of government

The level of dissatisfaction expressed by black African respondents was fairly constant across the three spheres of government – approximately two out of every three were dissatisfied with the performance of national (66%), provincial (65%) and local (68%) government. For coloureds, Indians/Asians and whites, the levels of dissatisfaction were highest when rating the performance of national government. Two thirds (66%) of Indian/Asian respondents were dissatisfied with national government as were seven tenths (70%) of white respondents and more than three quarters (77%) of coloured respondents. With regards to the rating of local government, six out of every ten coloured (60%) and Indian/Asian (61%) respondents were dissatisfied as were 54% of white respondents.

The proportion of dissatisfied respondents (which combines those not at all satisfied with those only slightly satisfied) with the performance of the three spheres of government across the provinces is shown in Table 13.

	National (%)	Provincial (%)	Local (%)
Eastern Cape	70	69	67
Free State	67	63	69
Gauteng	68	68	65
KwaZulu-Natal	61	58	65
Limpopo	67	67	70
Mpumalanga	61	60	63
North West	74	75	80
Northern Cape	72	73	74
Western Cape	77	57	52

Table 13: Proportion dissatisfied with the performance of the three spheres by province

Levels of dissatisfaction with the performance of national government were highest among respondents in Western Cape (77%), North West (74%) and Northern Cape (72%). North West and Northern Cape respondents showed high levels of dissatisfaction across all three spheres of government, rising to 80% in North West with regards to the performance of local government. Levels of dissatisfaction – although still in the majority – with the performance of national government were lowest in Mpumalanga (61%) and KwaZulu-Natal (61%). Apart from Western Cape – where the levels of dissatisfaction for provincial government were 57% and for local government were 52% – Mpumalanga and KwaZulu-Natal also showed relatively lower levels of dissatisfaction in provincial and local government.

National government and sharing of information

Respondents were asked how much information they thought the national government provided to the people of South Africa about the decisions that it takes. Almost three out of every ten (29%) respondents thought that the national government provided no information, with a further half (49%) stating that it provided a little information. Only one out of every twenty (5%) respondents thought that national government provided thorough information regarding the decisions that it takes.
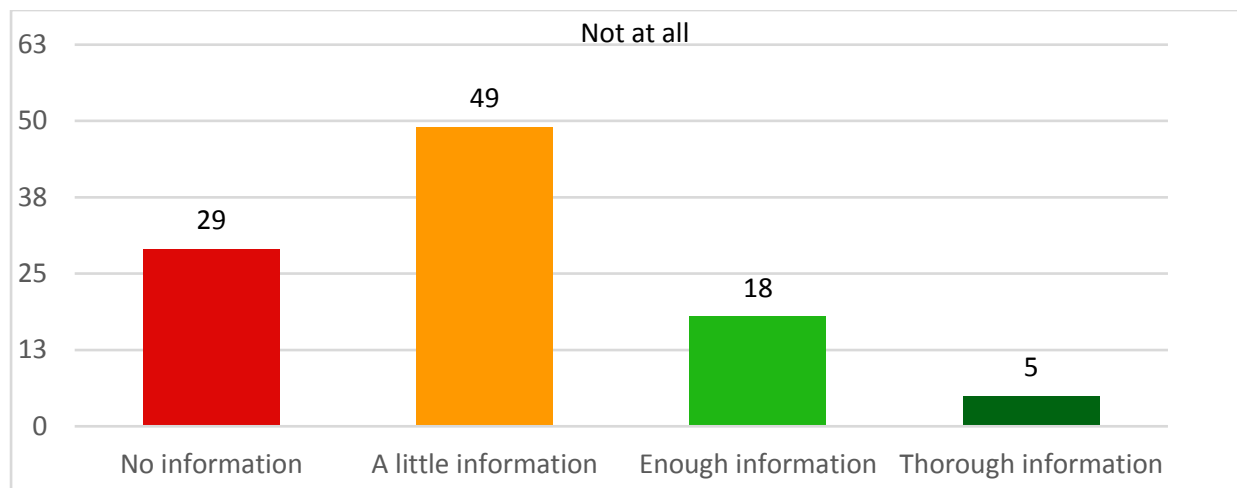

Figure 32: Attitude to national government's sharing of information

Differences across race and sex were marginal with regards to the attitudes to national government's sharing of information. Although rural (31%) and urban (30%) respondents were slightly more likely than their metropolitan (26%) counterparts to believe national government provided no information, the type of dwelling a respondent lived in was more likely to influence one's belief – 38% of those from informal dwellings and 37% of those from traditional dwellings held the belief that government provided no information as compared to 27% of those in formal dwellings.

Provinces in which the larger proportions of respondents that thought that national government provided no information about the decisions it takes included North West (35%), Mpumalanga (34%) and Eastern Cape (33%). In comparison, this proportion was lowest in Western Cape (21%).

Local government and local services

The SEJA Baseline Survey asked respondents how well they thought local government was handling delivering local services, consulting with local leaders and reporting back to the people. Figure 33 shows that the majority of respondents thought that local government was doing badly or very badly across all three aspects.
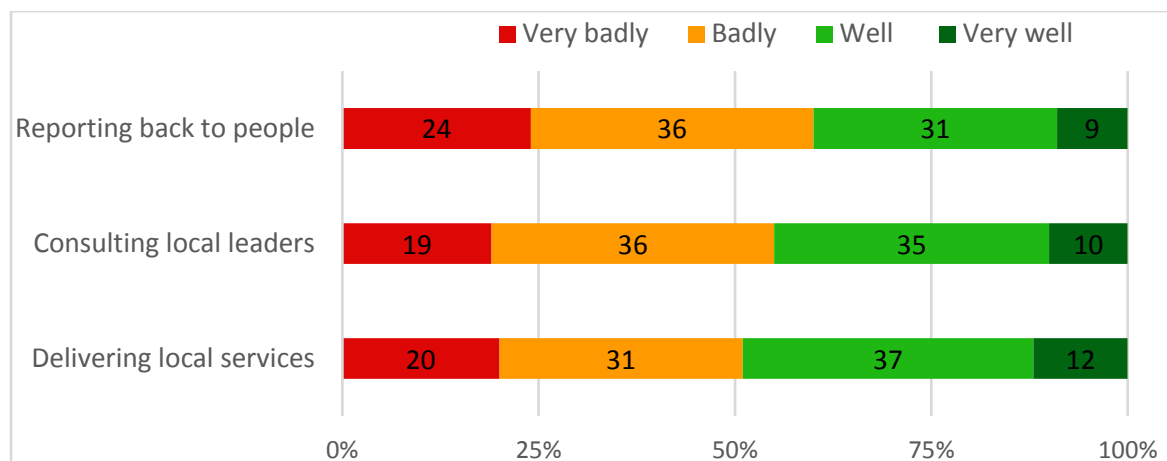
Figure 33: Rating the performance of local government

A slight majority (51%) of respondents thought that their local government was faring very badly or badly on delivering local services. This was true for 55% of black African respondents but was only the case for 45% of Indians/Asians, 39% of coloureds and 36% of whites. As one would expect given the level of services (and the satisfaction thereof) detailed previously, respondents from informal dwellings (68%) and traditional dwellings (64%) were more likely to have rated local government poorly on this aspect than those living in formal dwellings (48%). Similarly, respondents from rural areas (63%) were more critical than their urban (49%) or metropolitan (43%) counterparts.

Respondents were generally more critical of local government's performance in reporting back to the people – six out of ten (60%) respondents rated their performance as very bad or bad. This was the case for three fifths of black African (62%) and coloured (61%) respondents, 56% of Indian/Asian respondents and less than half (46%) of white respondents. Criticism was again highest amongst residents from informal dwellings (73%) as compared to those from traditional (64%) or formal (58%) dwellings.

The Constitution

Introduction

This section looks at awareness issues – both of the Constitution and some of the institutions that exist because of the Constitution. It then explores attitudes to the Constitution before ending off by looking at actual knowledge of what is in the Constitution.

Constitutional awareness

To compare with the findings of the AJPCR Baseline Survey, respondents were asked if they had heard of the Constitution of South Africa and if they had heard of the Bill of Rights in Chapter 2 of the Constitution. While the AJPCR Baseline survey found that 46% of respondents had heard of either the Constitution and/or the Bill of Rights, the SEJA Baseline Survey found that slightly more than half (51%) of respondents had heard of either.
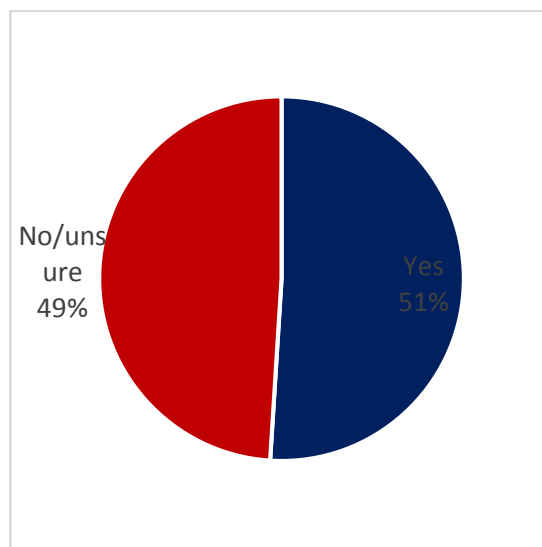
Figure 34: Heard of the Constitution or Bill of Rights

Male respondents were more likely (55%) than their female counterparts (47%) to have heard of either the Constitution or the Bill of Rights. With regards to the race of respondents, whites were the most likely (68%) to have heard of either, followed by Indian/Asian respondents (61%). While the majority (56%) of coloureds had heard of either the Constitution or the Bill of Rights, less than half (48%) of black African respondents had heard of either. Female black African respondents were least likely (44%) to have heard of the Constitution or the Bill of Rights.

As Table 14 shows, the likelihood of having heard of the Constitution or the Bill of Rights decreased with age:

Age cohort	Heard of either (%)
18-19	57
20-29	54
30-39	50
40-49	52
50-59	50
60-69	43
70+	40

Table 14: Heard of the Constitution or Bill of Rights by age cohort

Of those who had heard of the Constitution, the majority (56%) of respondents aged 18 or 19 had heard of it at school, as had 44% of those aged 20 to 29. The older cohorts were more reliant on mainstream media – particularly television and radio – to hear about the Constitution.

When looking at black African respondents only, those aged 18 or 19 were almost twice as likely (57%) as those aged 70 or older (29%) to have heard of either the Constitution or the Bill of Rights.
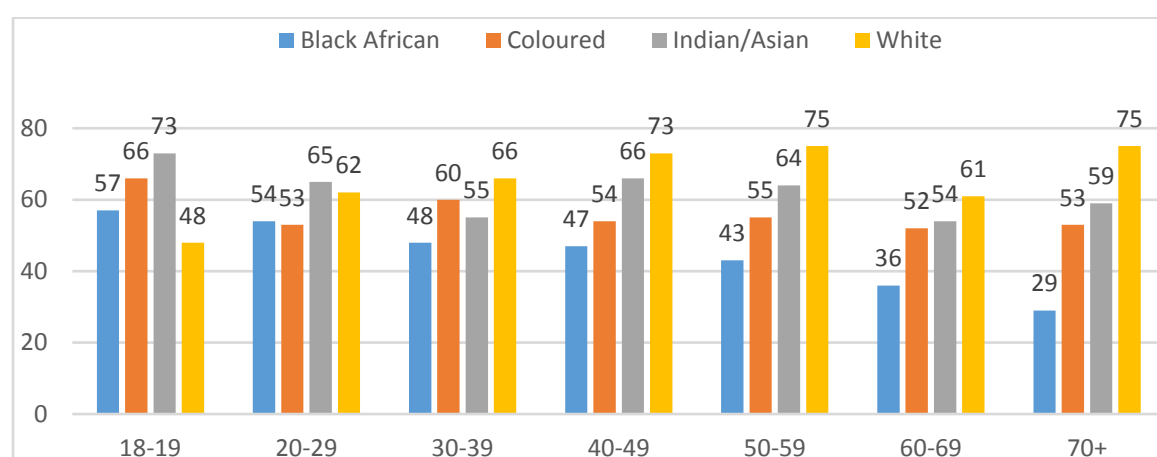
Figure 35: Heard of the Constitution or Bill of Rights by age cohort and race

As one would expect, respondents living in the metropolitan areas were most likely (57%) to have heard of the Constitution or Bill of Rights as compared with those living in urban areas (51%) or those living in rural areas (42%).

As Figure 36 shows, respondents from Western Cape were most likely (60%) to have heard of the Constitution or Bill of Rights, followed by those respondents from Northern Cape (56%), Mpumalanga (54%) and Limpopo (54%). Respondents from KwaZulu-Natal (45%) and Eastern Cape (45%) were least likely to have heard of either.

Figure 36: Heard of the Constitution or Bill of Rights by province

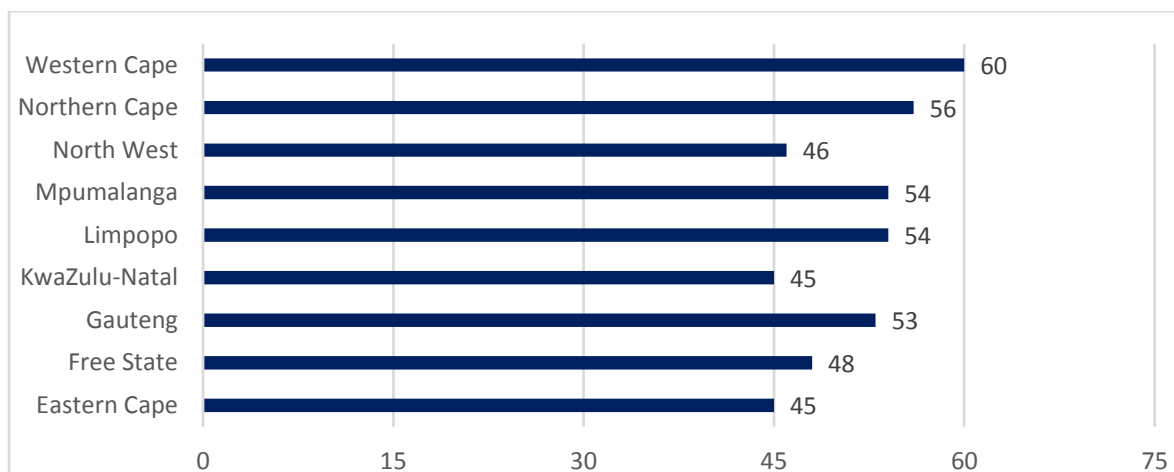Awareness levels were also looked at according to the lived poverty index reported earlier. Figure 37 shows that as poverty levels increased, so the awareness levels of the Constitution or Bill of Rights decreased. Of those who were not deprived on the lived poverty index at all, 57% had heard of either the Constitution or the Bill of Rights. This was true for half (51%) of those who were rarely deprived and for less than two fifths (38%) of those who were often deprived. Only three out of every ten (30%) respondents who were always deprived had heard of either.
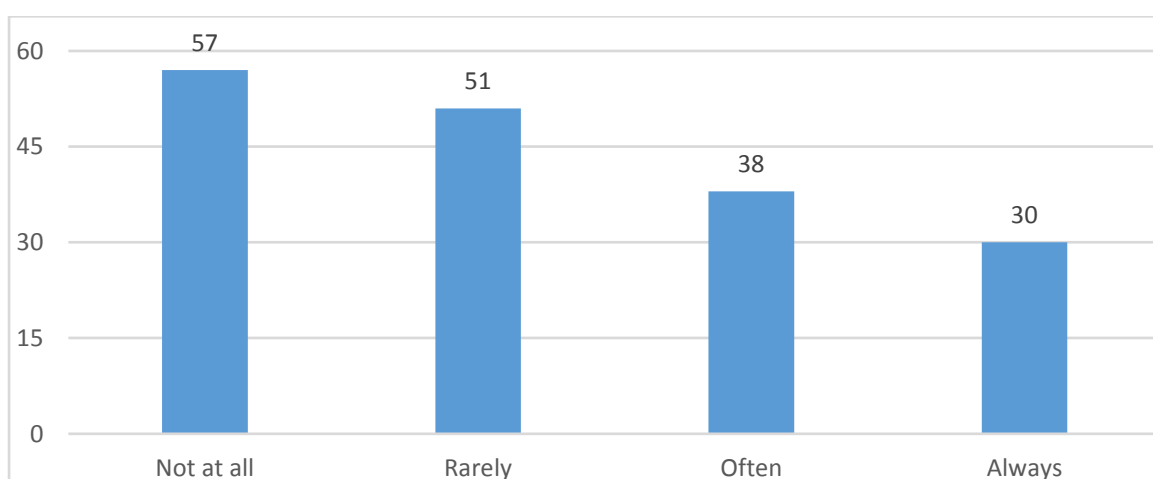
Figure 37: Heard of the Constitution or Bill of Rights by lived poverty index

Chapter 9 institutions

Respondents were asked if they were aware of any institutions established in terms of the Constitution of South Africa in order to protect and promote human rights and that these institutions are sometimes also called Chapter 9 institutions. If they said they were aware of such institutions, they were asked to name them without being prompted. Once they had exhausted their knowledge they were prompted about the other institutions that they had not mentioned.

Figure 38 shows the low levels of awareness when respondents were not prompted and the significant jump in reported awareness when they were prompted.

Figure 38: Awareness of Chapter 9 institutions

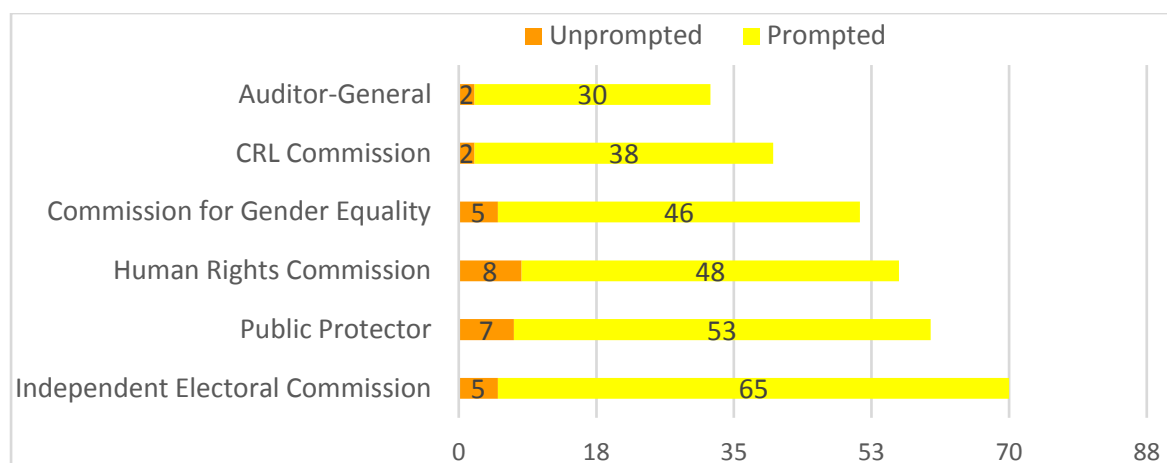The South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC) was the most cited institution when the respondents were not prompted, although less than one in ten (8%) respondents identified it. When prompted, seven out of ten respondents were aware of the Independent Electoral Commission (IEC) and six out of ten had heard of the Public Protector. Only two fifths had heard of the CRL Commission and only a third had heard of the Auditor-General.

Table 15 shows combined awareness of the various institutions by sex and race.

	IEC (%)	PP (%)	SAHRC (%)	CGE (%)	CRL (%)	AG (%)
Sex						
Male	73	64	58	54	43	35
Female	69	56	53	49	39	29
Race						
Black African	71	58	53	50	39	28
Coloured	64	56	54	45	36	33
Indian/Asian	79	73	67	66	52	50
White	77	75	76	69	58	60

Table 15: Awareness of Chapter 9 institutions by sex and race

Male respondents had slightly higher levels of self-reported awareness than female respondents across all the Chapter 9 institutions. Similarly, Indian/Asian and white respondents had higher levels of self-reported awareness than their black African or coloured counterparts.

Age cohort	IEC (%)	PP (%)	SAHRC (%)	CGE (%)	CRL (%)	AG (%)
18-19	69	58	54	55	43	27
20-29	71	62	55	54	42	30
30-39	73	62	57	52	40	33
40-49	72	61	58	52	41	35
50-59	70	59	57	51	42	35
60-69	67	52	52	46	38	31
70+	64	49	44	41	35	27

Table 16: Awareness of Chapter 9 institutions by age cohort

As Table 16 highlights, across all the institutions (except for the Auditor-General), levels of awareness were fairly similar across all the cohorts up to the age of 59, with the two oldest cohorts showing the lowest levels of knowledge.

Respondents were asked which Chapter 9 institution they thought was most important.
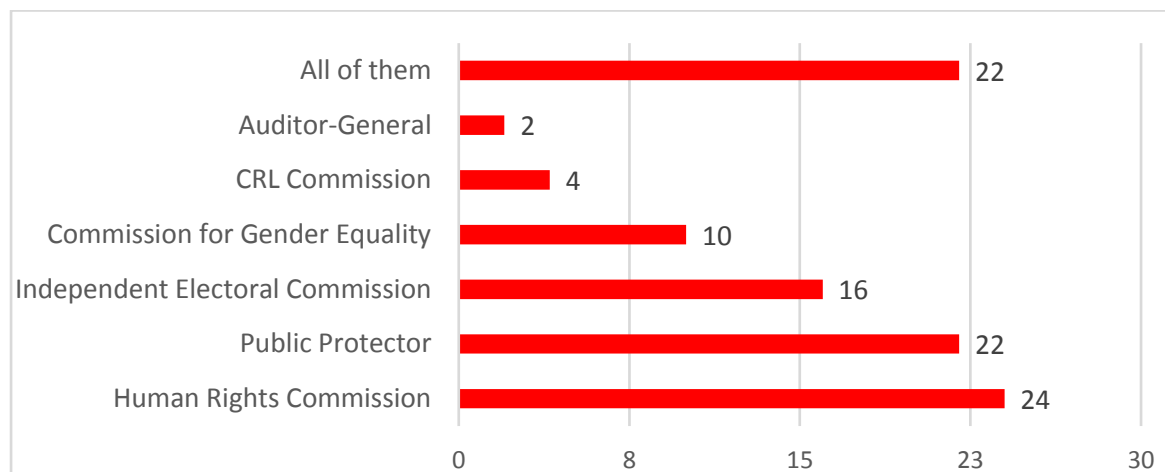
Figure 39: Which Chapter 9 institution is the most important?

The SAHRC was the most commonly cited institution, with a quarter (24%) of respondents stating that it was the most important Chapter 9 institution. It was closely followed by the Public Protector (22%). At the other end of the scale, and possibly reflecting the low levels of awareness of their existence, very few respondents cited the Auditor-General (2%) or the CRL Commission (4%) as being the most important institution.

The proportion of respondents who mentioned the SAHRC as the most important institution was fairly constant across sex and race as well as across geographic type. More than one in five respondents in every province cited the SAHRC – in Mpumalanga this proportion rose to one in three (33%) respondents.

Interestingly, as this was not a prompted question, more than one in five (22%) respondents stated that all of them were equally important. While similar proportions of both men and women felt all Chapter 9 institutions were equally important, coloured (33%), white (32%) and Indian/Asian (31%) respondents were more likely to have felt that way than their black African counterparts (19%). A third

(33%) of Western Cape respondents and a quarter of those from Northern Cape (27%) and KwaZulu-Natal (25%) also mentioned all Chapter 9 institutions as being important.

Attitudes to the Constitution

Respondents who had heard of the Constitution were asked if they thought that the Constitution was the best that South Africa could have.
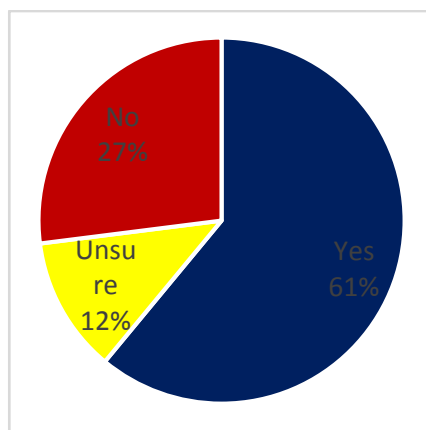

Figure 40: Is the Constitution the best that South Africa could have?

Six out of every ten (61%) respondents who had heard of the Constitution thought that it was the best that South Africa could have, while a quarter (27%) did not think that it was. Approximately one in ten (12%) were unsure. Those who thought it was the best that South Africa could have, pointed to the existence of a "legal framework that provides for the rights and duties of all citizens" and that "we are all equal now" as the main reasons for their positive attitude to the Constitution. The main reasons cited by those who thought that the Constitution was not the best South Africa could have included "we are not able to exercise our rights", that the Constitution "does not protect all races" or that "the Constitution does not protect us against government corruption".

Male and female respondents were equally likely (61%) to think that the Constitution was the best South Africa could have. However, as Table 17 details, there were differences across the different race groups. Two thirds (65%) of black African respondents who had heard of the Constitution thought it was the best that South Africa could have as compared to approximately half of whites (53%), Indians/Asians (52%) or coloureds (49%) who had heard of the Constitution.

As Table 17 also shows, the differences across the age cohorts were marginal.
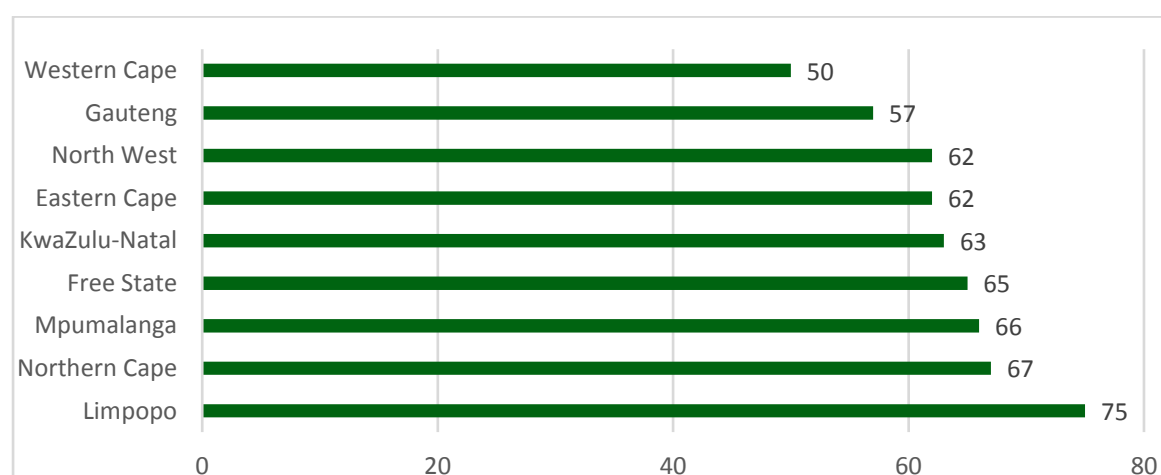
	Proportion (%)
Race	
Black African	65
Coloured	49
Indian/Asian	52
White	53

Age cohort	
18-19	63
20-29	62
30-39	61
40-49	59
50-59	62
60-69	60
70+	57

Table 17: Proportion who thought the Constitution was the best South Africa could have by race and age cohort

There were again differences across the different areas of residence on this question. Bearing in mind that levels of knowledge of the Constitution or the Bill of Rights were higher in metropolitan and urban areas, it is interesting to see that respondents from the rural areas were the most positive about the Constitution. Seven out of every ten (71%) respondents living in rural areas who had heard of the Constitution thought that it was the best that South Africa could have. This was true for 60% of urban respondents and 56% of those from metropolitan areas.

Figure 41: Proportion who thought the Constitution was the best South Africa could have by province

Three quarters (75%) of respondents from Limpopo who had heard of the Constitution thought that it was the best that South Africa could have as compared to only half (50%) of those in Western Cape.
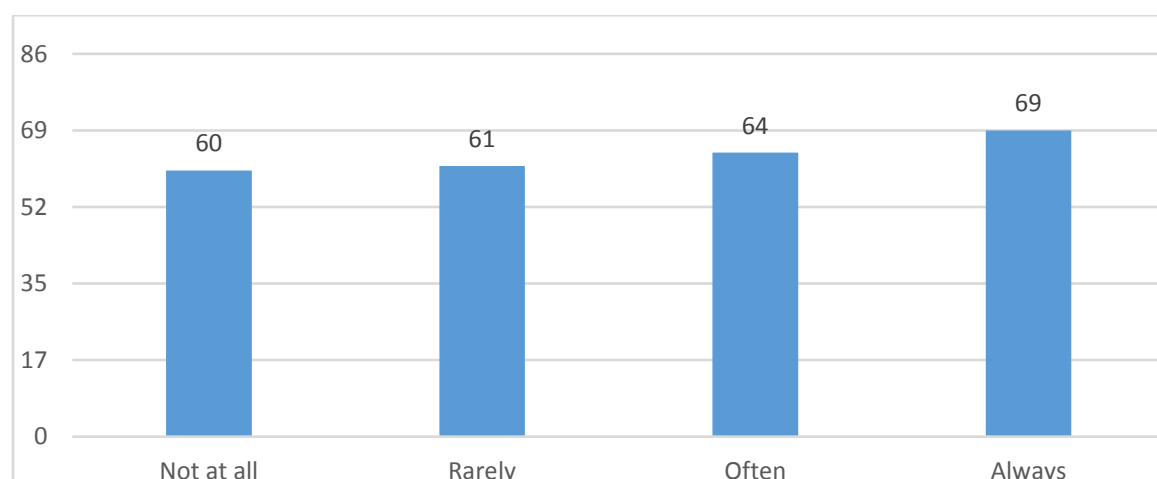
Looking at the attitudes to the Constitution across the lived poverty index, Figure 42 shows that as the poverty status of respondents increased, so did their positive attitude to the Constitution. While six out of every ten (60%) respondents who did not experience any deprivation at all thought that it was the best South Africa could have, this proportion had grown to seven out of every ten (69%) respondents who always suffered deprivation.

Constitutional knowledge

To try and gauge levels of constitutional knowledge, all respondents were asked to indicate whether the following statements were true or false:

- The Constitutional Court may stop a law passed by parliament if the law goes against the Constitution
- The Public Protector makes laws for South Africans
- The Constitution says I have a right to adequate housing
- It is too expensive for ordinary people to go to the Constitutional Court to protect their rights
- A province can pass its own constitution if it does not conflict with the national constitution
- The Constitution recognises the customary laws of the African people
- The Constitutions says I have a right to sufficient food, water and sanitation
- The Bill of Rights is a chapter in the Constitution which details the rights of all people in our country

A score out of 8 was then calculated for each respondent to reflect their overall knowledge. As the graph on the left in Figure 43 shows, very few respondents (2%) got all of the statements correct while more than one in ten (12%) did not get any of the statements correct.

The scores were then categorised into low (0 to 3 correct), medium (4 to 5 correct) and high (6 to 8 correct) levels of knowledge. The graph on the right in Figure 43 shows that the largest proportion (39%) of respondents fell into the low level of knowledge. A quarter (27%) showed a medium level of knowledge, with the remaining third (34%) displaying high levels of knowledge.
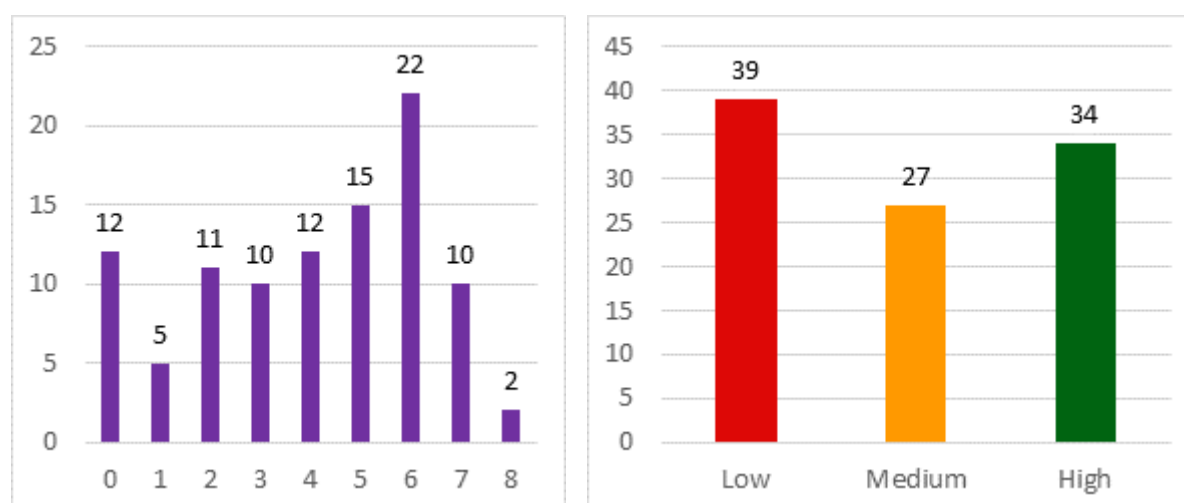

Figure 43: General knowledge about the Constitution

Levels of knowledge were similar across male and female respondents. While 37% of male respondents displayed low levels of knowledge, this was true for 40% of female respondents. At the other end of the scale, 36% of male respondents had high levels of constitutional knowledge as did 32% of female respondents.

	Level of constitutional knowledge		
	Low (%)	Medium (%)	High (%)
Sex			
Male	37	27	36
Female	40	28	32
Race			
Black African	39	28	33
Coloured	41	26	33
Indian/Asian	28	31	41
White	34	26	40
Age cohort			
18-19	33	29	38
20-29	38	29	33
30-39	38	28	34
40-49	38	26	35
50-59	39	27	34
60-69	42	25	33
70+	47	23	30

Table 18: Level of knowledge about the Constitution by sex, race and age cohort

Indian/Asian respondents showed the highest levels of constitutional knowledge – only 28% had low levels of knowledge, while 41% had high levels of knowledge. In contrast, only a third (33%) of coloured respondents had high levels of knowledge and 41% had low levels of knowledge.

We saw earlier that older respondents had lower levels of awareness about the Constitution or the Bill of Rights. It is therefore unsurprising that the older cohorts display lower levels of constitutional knowledge. As shown in Table 18, almost half (47%) of those respondents aged 70 and above displayed low levels of knowledge as compared with only a third (33%) of those respondents aged 18 or 19.

The proportion of respondents with low levels of constitutional knowledge were similar across metropolitan (39%), urban (37%) and rural (39%) areas. A higher proportion of respondents from urban areas (37%) showed high levels of knowledge as compared to their metropolitan (34%) or rural (31%) counterparts.
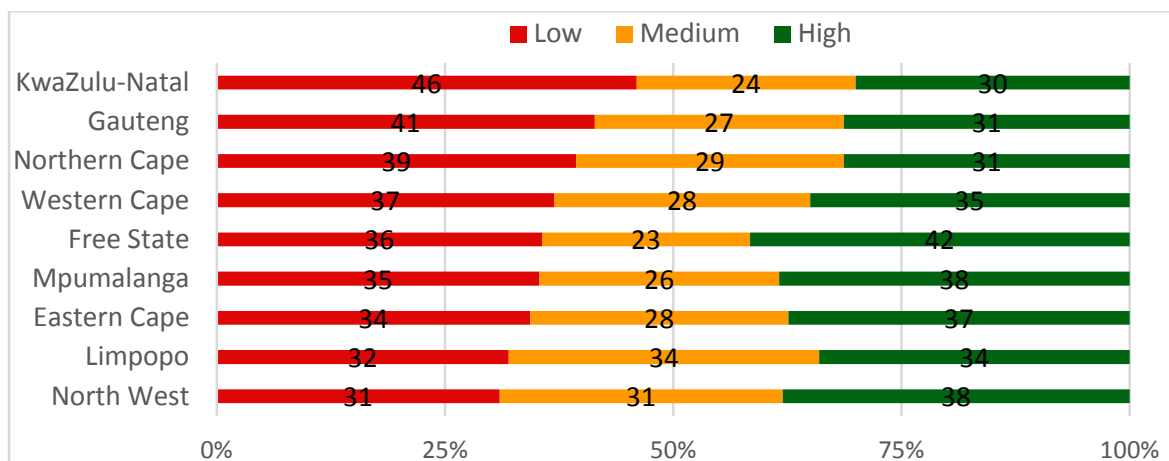
Figure 44: Level of knowledge about the Constitution by province

Provinces with the largest proportions of low levels of knowledge included KwaZulu-Natal (46%) and Gauteng (41%). At the other end of the scale, the largest proportions of high levels of knowledge were found in Free State (42%), Mpumalanga (38%) and North West (38%).

It was reported earlier in this section that poorer respondents had lower levels of awareness about the Constitution or Bill of Rights. They also displayed lower levels of knowledge as shown in Figure 45.
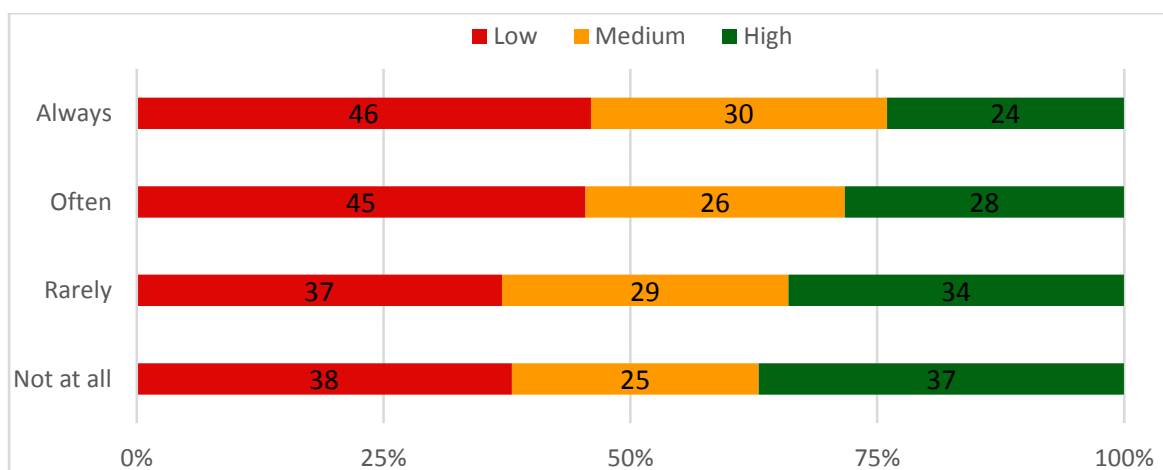
Figure 45: Level of knowledge about the Constitution by lived poverty index

While more than one in three respondents who never experienced deprivation (37%) or only rarely experienced deprivation (34%) had high levels of knowledge, this was the case for approximately one in four respondents who often experienced deprivation (28%) or always experienced deprivation (24%).

Civic engagement

Introduction

This section looks at the civic engagement of respondents by focusing on their community life, their use of public services and institutions and the trust they have in these services and institutions. It then looks at their attendance of various public meetings and forums, and explores their attitudes to, and involvement in, political activities. It concludes by examining respondents' attitudes to enforcing their rights.

Firstly, however, attention is given to the connectedness of respondents by looking at their ownership of telephones and cell phones as well as their internet access.

Telecommunications

With regards to connectivity, respondents were asked whether anyone in the household owned a telephone (via a landline) or a cell phone. One can see in Table 19 that the vast majority (95%) of adults lived in households where there was at least one cell phone (GHS 2016 reported this to be 98%). In most cases, these households only had access to cell phones – less than one in ten (9%) adults lived in households which had both a cell phone and a telephone and only 1% in households that only had a telephone.

	SEJA (%)	GHS 2016 (%)
Cell phone only	86	90
Telephone only	1	-
Cell phone and telephone	9	8
Neither	4	2

Table 19: Household access to cell phone and/or telephone (compared with GHS 2016)

The vast majority (92%) of black African respondents lived in households that had a cell phone only. In contrast, this proportion was 76% for coloureds, 58% of Indians/Asians and 57% of whites as access to a telephone was far higher for these adults. Two fifths of Indian/Asian (39%) and white (42%) respondents lived in households with a telephone as did 15% of coloured respondents. Only 3% of black African respondents lived in a household with a telephone.

The cell phone has become an important aspect of connectivity, especially in rural areas. Nine out of every ten (92%) adults in rural areas lived in a household with only cell phone connectivity, as only 2% had a telephone in their household. In contrast, urban (7%) and metropolitan (16%) residents had higher access to telephones in their households. However, cell phone penetration was high across all areas – 96% for metropolitan residents, 94% for urban residents and 94% for rural residents.

Table 19 also shows that only 4% of adults lived in households that had neither a telephone nor cell phone. These adults were more likely to be coloured (9%) than black African (4%), Indian/Asian (3%) or white (2%). They were also more likely to be living in traditional (9%) or informal (7%) dwellings than in formal dwellings (4%). The proportion of adults living in households with no connectivity was highest in Northern Cape (13%) and Eastern Cape (8%).

Respondents were asked about their personal use of the internet and where this use took place. Not surprisingly, given the penetration of cell phones, almost half (48%) of adults claimed to access the internet anywhere through a cell phone or tablet. Other common ways to access the internet were through visiting an internet café (17%) or through using a public wifi hotspot (15%).

Three quarters (73%) of white respondents accessed the internet through a cell phone or tablet as did three fifths (61%) of Indian/Asian respondents, half (51%) of coloured respondents and approximately two fifths (44%) of black African respondents. This means of accessing the internet was almost twice as common for metropolitan dwellers (59%) as it was for rural dwellers (33%), with almost half (48%) of urban dwellers also using a cell phone or tablet to access the internet.
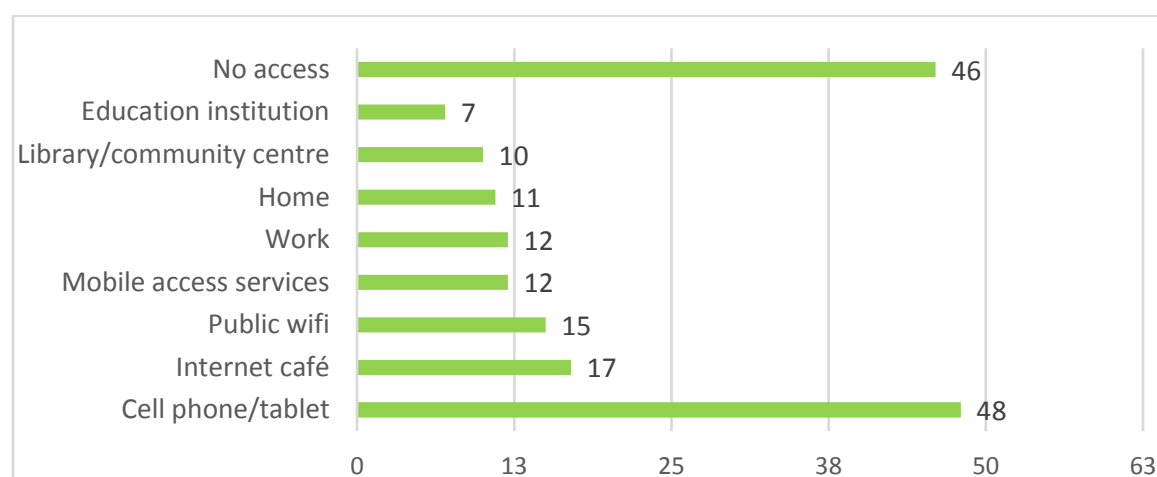
Figure 46: Access to the internet

Figure 46 also shows that approximately half (46%) of all adults in South Africa claimed to have no access to the internet. Female respondents were slightly more likely (48%) than their male counterparts (42%) to not access the internet. Whilst half (50%) of black Africans had no internet access, this was true for 44% of coloureds, 32% of Indians/Asians and only 16% of whites.

As one would expect, levels of internet access were different across different geographic areas – whilst a third (32%) of metropolitan residents had no access, this was the case for almost half (46%) of urban dwellers and nearly two thirds (63%) of rural dwellers. Lack of access to the internet was highest in the Northern Cape (66%). In all other provinces – except Western Cape (38%) and Gauteng (27%) – the majority of respondents also reported no access to the internet.

Community life

Respondents were asked where they generally hear about what is happening in their community (meaning the area where they live).

	Where hear from (%)
Community meeting	23
Television	16
Radio	14
Community leaders	12
Family/friends/colleagues	11
Newspaper	11

Table 20: Where respondents hear about what is happening in their community

Approximately, a quarter (23%) of all respondents indicated that they heard about happenings in their community from a community meeting, with community leaders (12%) also singled out as an important source of information. Other common sources were the mainstream media – television (16%), radio (14%) and newspapers (11%) – as well as word of mouth from family, friends or colleagues.

Community meetings or community leaders were more commonly identified as important sources of information by those living in rural areas (50%) as compared with urban (31%) or metropolitan (26%) dwellers. While radio was an important source of information across all areas, when combined with the other mainstream media forms, the media was cited by almost half (48%) of metropolitan residents, two fifths (42%) of urban residents and 29% of rural residents. Word of mouth was cited by similar proportions of respondents across all the areas.

Respondents were asked what the biggest problem facing their community was. Three tenths (29%) of all respondents cited crime as the biggest problem. The majority (57%) of Indian/Asian respondents pointed to crime as the biggest problem as did 44% of whites, 38% of coloureds and 26% of black Africans. Crime was more likely to have been mentioned by metropolitan (39%) or urban (30%) residents than their rural (17%) counterparts.
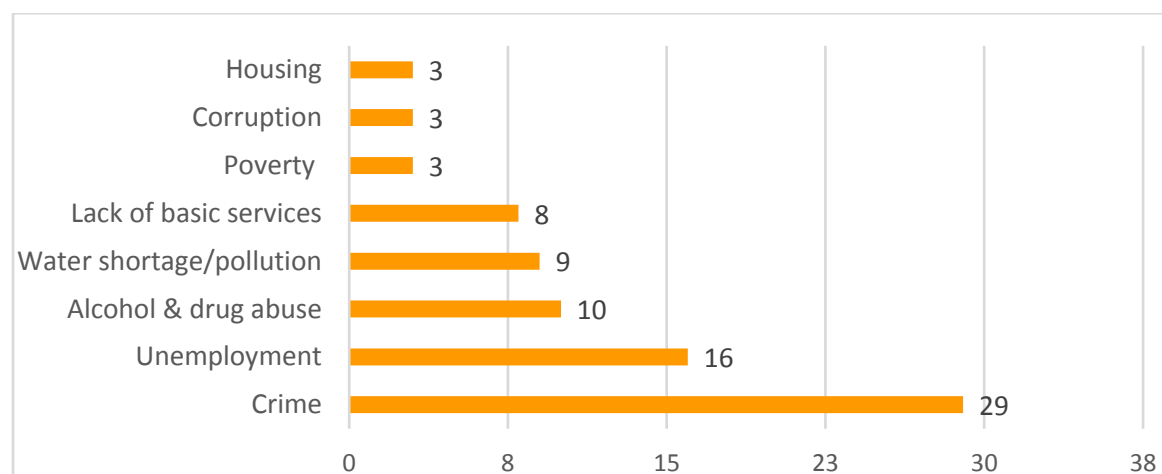
Figure 47 shows that unemployment was the second most mentioned problem – while it was mentioned by Indians/Asians (7%), whites (9%) and coloureds (12%), almost one in five (18%) black African respondents singled out unemployment. It was also fairly consistently mentioned across metropolitan (13%), urban (20%) and rural (17%) areas.

Alcohol and drug abuse was identified as a problem by one in ten (10%) respondents. They were more commonly cited by coloured (26%) respondents than their white (6%), Indian/Asian (8%) or black African (8%) counterparts. These concerns were more likely to have been raised by respondents from metropolitan (12%) or urban (11%) areas than respondents from rural (6%) areas.

One in ten (9%) respondents also cited a lack of water or polluted water as the biggest problem facing their community, with a similar proportion (8%) pointing to a lack of basic services. These two problems were more likely to have been cited by rural respondents – 23% pointed to the issue of water and 15% to the lack of basic services. In contrast, only 2% of metropolitan respondents and 5% of urban respondents cited the issue of water while a lack of services was mentioned by 5% of metropolitan respondents and 8% of urban respondents.

Respondents were asked if they had a problem in the area in which they lived, who they would first talk to in order to sort it out. As Figure 48 shows, a third (32%) of respondents would go to the police, while a further 22% of respondents would approach their ward councillor or ward committee to sort out their problem.
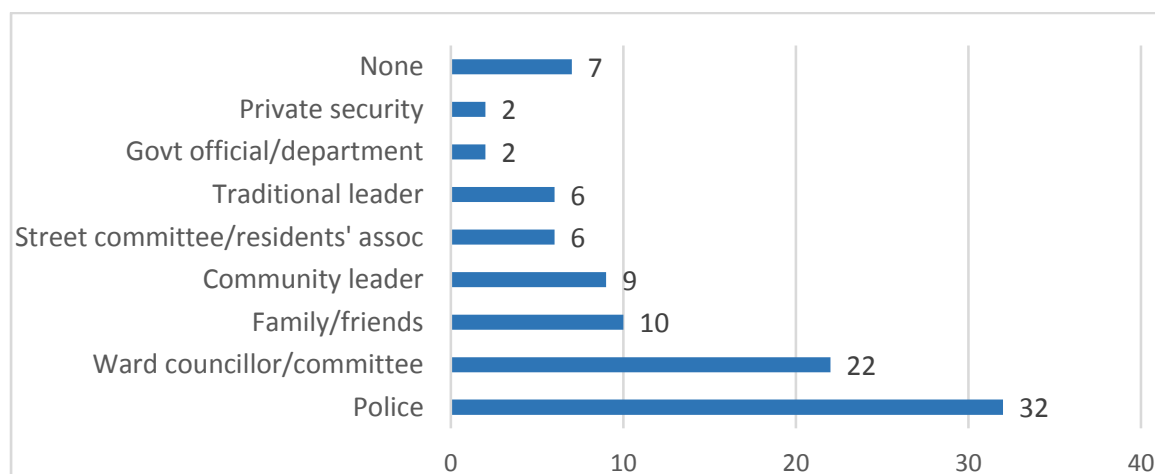
Figure 48: Who respondents go to first to sort out a problem

The police were cited by approximately half of all Indian/Asian (50%), coloured (47%) and white (46%) respondents as being the first port of call to sort out a problem. This was only true for three tenths (29%) of black African respondents, who were also more likely to have identified their ward councillor or committee (25%) as the place to go than Indian/Asian (15%), coloured (14%) or white (9%) respondents. Turning to private security to sort out a problem was almost the exclusive domain of white (9%) and Indian/Asian (6%) respondents as opposed to black African (1%) or coloured (1%) respondents.

There were also marked differences across geographic areas as shown in Table 21.

	Metropolitan (%)	Urban (%)	Rural (%)
Police	40	37	19
Ward councillor/committee	15	27	28
Family/friends	12	11	10
Community leader	6	6	14
Street committee/residents' association	10	5	3
Traditional leader	-	1	17
None	8	8	6

Table 21: Who respondents go to first to sort out a problem by area

While the police was the most commonly mentioned place where respondents from metropolitan (40%) and urban (37%) areas would go to sort out a problem, this was not the case for respondents from rural (19%) areas. Their most commonly mentioned place was the ward councillor or committee (28%). As one would also expect, one in six (17%) respondents from rural areas stated that they would go to their traditional leader first to sort out a problem.

Public services and institutions

Respondents were asked whether they had used the following services or institutions during the previous year:

- The public service in general (that is, the services that government provides)
- The police
- The courts
- Public/government hospitals or clinics
- Public/government schools
- Social security agency (for grants, pensions, etc.)
- Community based organisation (CBO/NGO)
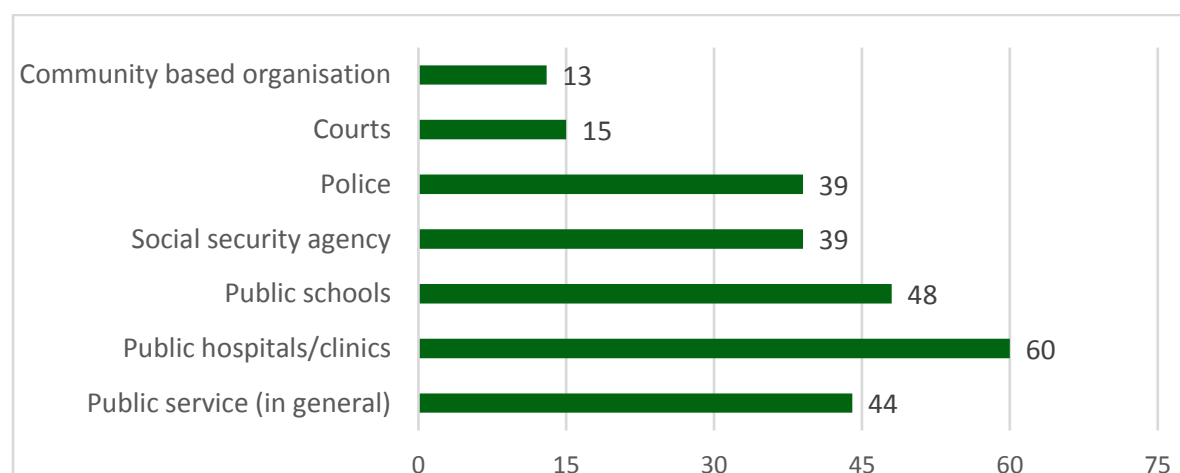
Figure 49: Use of public services and institutions

The discrepancy between the proportion of respondents who stated that they have used the public service in the past year (44%) and the proportion who reported having used public hospitals or clinics (60%) or public schools (48%) suggests that there may be a misunderstanding about what the public service is and what it offers.

Reported use of the public service in general was fairly consistent across black African (46%), coloured (44%), white (38%) and Indian/Asian (37%) respondents. It was also consistent across informal (42%), traditional (40%) and formal (45%) dwellings as well as across the metropolitan (46%), urban (43%) and rural (44%) areas.

While six tenths (60%) of respondents stated that they had used public hospitals or clinics in the previous year, female respondents were more likely (67%) to have used these services than their male counterparts (53%). Black Africans were also most likely (65%) to have used these services as only a quarter (26%) of white respondents reported such use as did 50% of Indian/Asian respondents and 58% of coloured respondents.

It was reported above that a third of respondents would first approach the police if there was a problem in their community. Figure 49 shows that two fifths (39%) of respondents had in fact made use of the police in the previous year. While this was fairly consistent across the races – 35% for coloureds, 39% for black Africans, 43% for Indians/Asians and 44% for whites – there were differences across geographic areas. Almost half (45%) of metropolitan dwellers and 39% of urban dwellers had used the police, as opposed to only 31% of rural dwellers.

More than one in ten (13%) respondents indicated that they had used the services provided by a community based organisation in the previous year. There were no significant differences across sex or race lines nor across dwelling or geographic types. However, respondents from Limpopo were most likely (24%) to cite having used services from a community based organisation, followed by respondents from Northern Cape (18%) and Western Cape (15%). At the other end of the scale, respondents from KwaZulu-Natal (10%) and Gauteng (12%) were least likely to have used such services.

Regardless of whether they had used them or not, respondents were asked how much they trusted the same set of services and institutions. Figure 50 shows that the highest level of trust was in the public/government schools with 45% stating that they completely trusted public schools and a further 28% stating that they somewhat trusted public schools – combined, almost three quarters (73%) expressed trust in public schools.
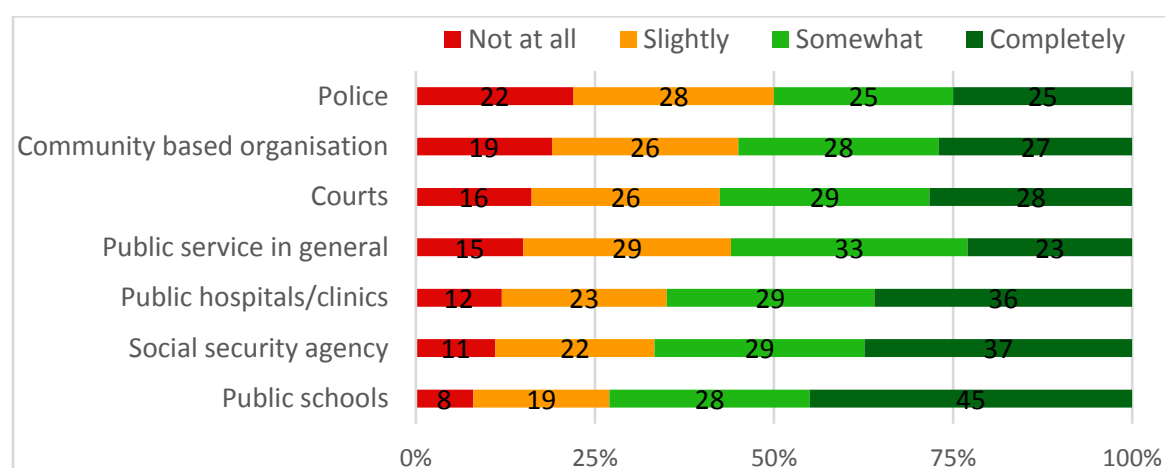

Figure 50: Level of trust in public services and institutions

Black African respondents were more likely (49%) to have had complete trust in public schools as compared with coloured (40%), Indian/Asian (32%) or white (24%) respondents. Rural residents were also more likely (56%) to report complete trust in public schools than their counterparts from urban (45%) or metropolitan (37%) areas. The highest levels of complete trust were amongst respondents from Limpopo (64%) and Free State (61%) with the lowest levels amongst respondents from Gauteng (32%).

At the other end of the scale, Figure 50 also shows that the highest level of distrust was in the police, with more than one in five (22%) respondents stating that they did not trust the police at all. A further quarter (28%) claimed to have only slight trust in the police – when combined with those who had no trust at all, it means that the sample was split down the middle in terms of those who trusted and those who distrusted the police.

Distrust of the police was fairly consistent across the races – 27% of coloureds, 22% of black Africans, 22% of Indians/Asians and 20% of whites did not trust the police at all. Levels of distrust were also consistent across geographic area, although respondents from informal dwellings showed the highest levels of distrust at 26% as compared to 22% amongst those from formal dwellings and 17% amongst those from traditional dwellings. At a provincial level, the highest levels of distrust in the police were found in Mpumalanga (29%) and North West (28%) while the lowest levels were in KwaZulu-Natal (18%) and Eastern Cape (15%).

Meetings

Respondents were asked whether they had attended any of the following meetings or forums in the past year: a ward committee meeting, council forum, clinic committee meeting, street committee or residents' association meeting, community development forum meeting, mayoral imbizo meeting, integrated development plan (IDP) meeting, school governing body (SGB) meeting or a community policing forum meeting.
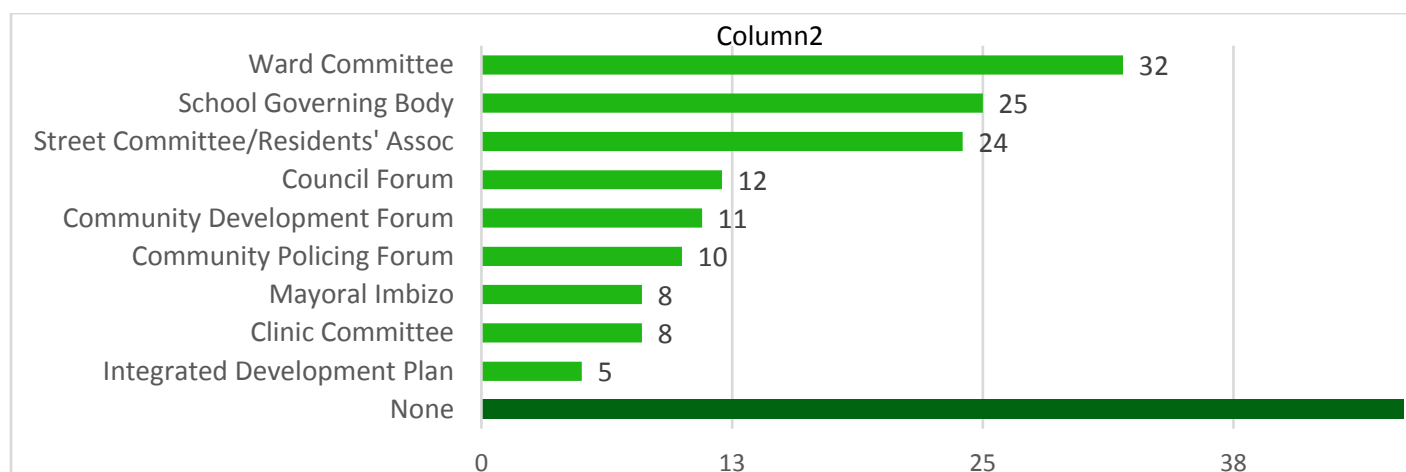
Figure 51: Attendance of meetings/forums in the previous 12 months

Approximately a third (32%) of all adults in South Africa indicated that they had attended a ward committee meeting in the past year. It should be noted that the survey took place after the 2016 local government elections and therefore this relatively high proportion could be explained by local election campaigning that was taking place at a ward level. Black African respondents were far more likely (37%) to have attended a ward committee meeting than their Indian/Asian (16%), coloured (15%) or white (11%) counterparts. While levels of attendance were relative high across the different dwelling

types, rural respondents attended such meetings in higher proportions (39%) than respondents from urban (33%) or metropolitan (26%) areas.

A quarter (25%) of respondents had attended an SGB meeting, while a similar proportion (24%) stated that they had been at a street committee or residents' association meeting in the past year. Attendance of a street committee or residents' association meeting was fairly consistent across the different geographic types, while residents of informal dwellings were more likely (32%) to have attended such meetings as opposed to residents from formal (24%) or traditional (22%) dwellings. SGB meetings were more likely to have been attended by women (30%) than men (20%) whilst attendance was only slightly higher amongst residents of traditional dwellings (30%) than those from formal (25%) or informal (23%) dwellings.

Figure 51 also shows that almost half (46%) of respondents indicated that they had not attended any of these meetings in the past year. Non-attendance was highest among white (70%), coloured (64%) and Indian/Asian (62%) respondents, where the majority had not attended any meeting. In contrast, only two fifths (40%) of black Africans had not attended any meeting in the past year. It was noted earlier that community meetings were an important source of information for rural dwellers in particular. This was again reflected in the findings on non-attendance at meetings – just over a third (36%) of rural dwellers had not attended any meeting in the past year as compared to half of urban (47%) and metropolitan (52%) dwellers. Non-attendance was highest in Western Cape (62%) and Northern Cape (51%) – the only two provinces where it accounted for the majority – and lowest in Eastern Cape (33%) and Limpopo (30%).

Political engagement

Respondents were asked to imagine the following three friends talking about how they feel about politics and identify the one that best described how they felt about politics:

- The first one says: "Politics is a waste of time. I don't care about it"

- The second says: "I don't really like politics but it's important to keep in touch with what's happening"

- Then the third one says: "Politics affects everyone, and it's very important to be as involved as possible"

On the one hand, less than one in five (18%) respondents thought that politics was a waste of time. On the other hand, while half (48%) of respondents didn't really like politics but thought that it was important to keep in touch, a third (34%) thought it was important to be as involved as possible.
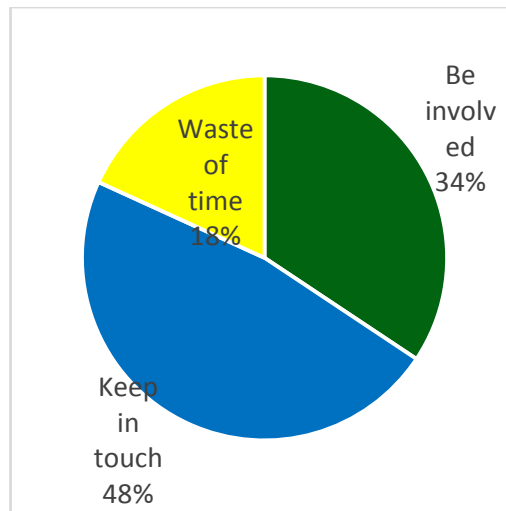
Figure 52: General attitude to politics

While there were no marked differences between men and women, white respondents were more likely to be disinterested in politics. A quarter (25%) of whites thought that politics was a waste of time as compared with one in six black Africans (18%) and coloureds (17%) and one in seven (14%) Indians/Asians. A third of black African (35%), Indian/Asian (34%) and coloured (34%) respondents thought that it was important to be as involved as possible as did a quarter (26%) of whites.

Whilst levels of interest in politics were fairly similar across dwelling and geographic types, there were differences across the provinces.

	Waste of time (%)	Keep in touch (%)	Be involved (%)
Eastern Cape	16	52	32
Free State	11	46	44
Gauteng	23	46	30
KwaZulu-Natal	17	54	29
Limpopo	15	39	47
Mpumalanga	22	40	38
North West	17	45	38
Northern Cape	9	47	44
Western Cape	17	50	34

Table 22: General attitude to politics by province

Table 22 shows that respondents in Gauteng (23%) and Mpumalanga (22%) were more likely to think politics was a waste of time than their counterparts in Northern Cape (9%) and Free State (11%). At the other end of the scale, those residing in Limpopo (47%), Northern Cape (44%) and Free State (44%) were most likely to have thought that it was important to be as involved in politics as possible. This was true for three tenths (29%) of respondents from KwaZulu-Natal.

It was reported earlier that three quarters (75%) of respondents thought that voting in an election was something that a good citizen should always do in a democracy. When respondents were asked about their participation in the 2016 local government elections, seven out of ten (70%) respondents stated that they had voted.[5] Not all of those who thought that a good citizen should always vote in a democracy had themselves voted – one in five (22%) had not.
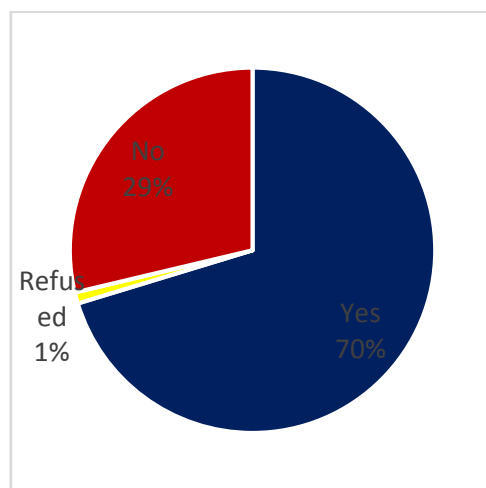
Figure 53: Participation in 2016 local government elections

Self-reported levels of voting were consistently high across sex and race as well as geographic area, with residents living in informal dwellings less likely (63%) to have participated than their counterparts from formal (71%) or traditional (77%) dwellings. Those who thought politics was a waste of time were less likely to have voted (59%) than those who thought it was best to keep in touch (72%) or be as involved as possible (74%).

In addition to their participation in elections, respondents were asked whether they had taken part in various forms of protest in the past year. Table 23 shows that less than one in ten adults had engaged in any of the forms of protest. More than eight of every ten (84%) had not engaged in any form of protest in the preceding year.

	%
Contacted politician	9
Participated in a strike	8
Signed a petition	7
Involved in demonstration	5
None	84

Table 23: Participation in some form of political protest in past 12 months

There were no marked differences in the levels of involvement or non-involvement across sex, race, dwelling type or geographic type. There were differences across the provinces, however, with Eastern

[5] This is likely to be an over claim as the Independent Electoral Commission reported that the number of people who voted in the 2016 election was approximately 15 million, which is 42% of the total number of adults in the country.

Cape showing the highest level of non-involvement (91%) and Gauteng showing the lowest level of non-involvement (78%).

Enforcing one's rights

In concluding this section on civic engagement, attention is given to how easy or difficult respondents thought it was to do the following:

- Contact their local councillor if they wanted to express their point of view

- Contact a Member of Parliament if they wanted to express their point of view

- Challenge a violation of their rights in court

- Approach the Constitutional Court directly to assert their rights

- Lodge a complaint with a Chapter 9 institution such as the Public Protector or Human Rights Commission

Figure 54 highlights that the highest proportion of respondents thought that contacting a Member of Parliament was the most difficult – half (49%) thought that this was very difficult while a further two fifths (39%) thought it difficult – while contacting a local councillor was least difficult. However, the majority of respondents still thought that contacting their local councillor was very difficult (23%) or difficult (33%).
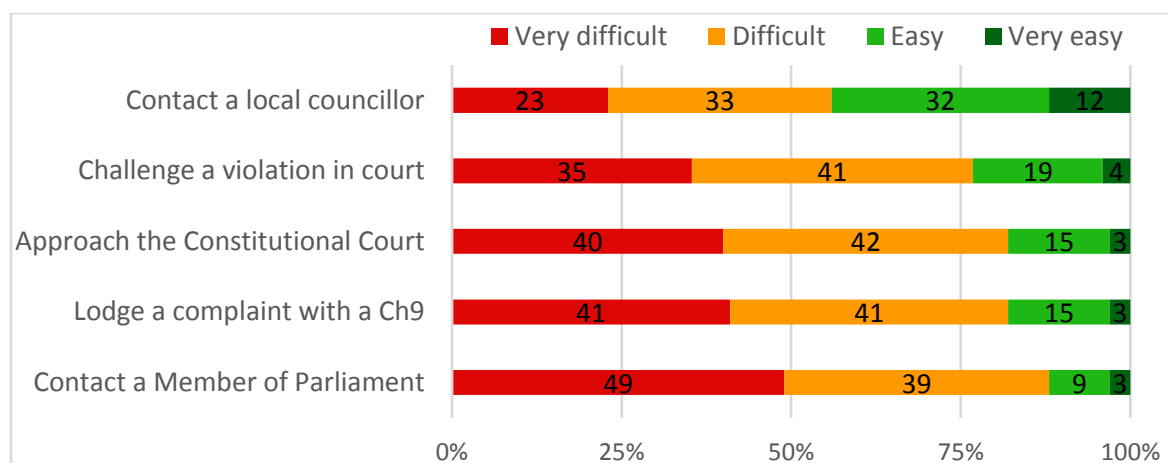
Figure 54: Perceived ease or difficulty in enforcing one's rights

The perception that contacting an MP was very difficult was higher amongst black African (52%) and Indian/Asian (47%) respondents, with 42% of coloureds and 25% of whites sharing this perception. While differences across other variables were not marked, respondents from Northern Cape (32%) and Western Cape (40%) were least likely to think that contacting an MP was very difficult. On the other hand, respondents from North West (57%) were most likely to hold this perception.

With regards to contacting one's local councillor to express a point of view, respondents from informal dwellings (29%) were most likely to rate this as very difficult as compared to those from formal dwellings (23%) or traditional dwellings (18%). The majority (52%) of residents from traditional dwellings stated that contacting their local councillor was easy or very easy – this proportion was in the minority for residents from formal (44%) or informal (39%) dwellings.

Discrimination and crime

Introduction

This final section looks at issues related to discrimination and crime. It begins by looking at the extent to which respondents feel that they are unfairly treated by others before exploring the level and nature of discrimination that respondents have experienced in the past year. It also looks at where people would go to if they felt that they had been discriminated against, and ends off by looking at the level and nature of crime experienced by respondents.

Unfair treatment

Respondents were asked to think about their life in general and indicate to what extent they felt that people treated them unfairly. The majority (57%) stated that they were not unfairly treated at all, with a further quarter (24%) indicating that they were unfairly treated only rarely.
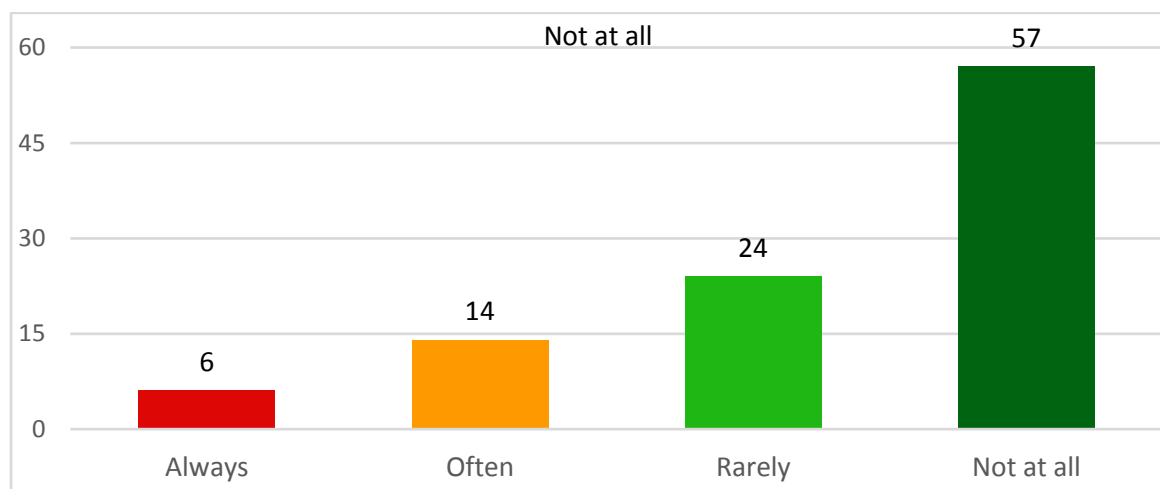

Figure 55: Extent to which respondents feel that people treat them unfairly

Figure 55 shows that one in five respondents felt that they were often (14%) or always (6%) unfairly treated by other people. There were no marked differences across sex or race, although white respondents were most likely (22%) to feel that they were often or always treated unfairly as opposed to black African (19%), coloured (18%) or Indian/Asian (14%) respondents.

There were also no significant differences across dwelling or geographic types. However, respondents from Limpopo were most likely (28%) to have felt often or always unfairly treated, followed by those from Northern Cape (22%) and Gauteng (22%). At the other end of the scale, respondents from Eastern Cape (13%) and North West (14%) were least likely to have felt that they were often or always treated unfairly by other people.

Discrimination

Respondents were asked whether they had been a victim of discrimination in the past year. As can be seen in Figure 56, approximately one in ten (9%) respondents said that they had suffered discrimination in the past year. Male (10%) and female (9%) respondents were equally likely to have suffered discrimination, and this was also consistent across black African (9%), Indian/Asian (10%), coloured (10%) and white (11%) respondents. While these self-reported levels of discrimination were fairly constant across metro (11%), urban (9%) and rural (8%) areas, residents in traditional dwellings were least likely (6%) to have reported being discriminated against as compared to those living in formal (10%) or informal (9%) dwellings.
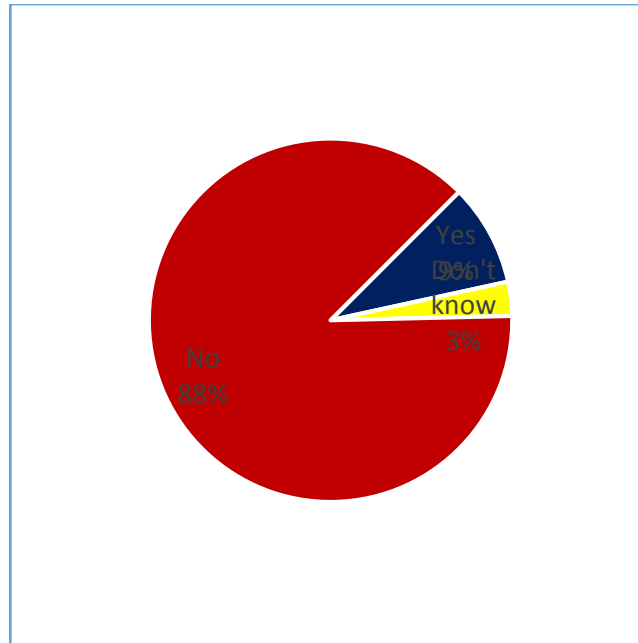
Figure 56: Victim of discrimination in past 12 months

Levels of discrimination were highest in Northern Cape (12%), Gauteng (11%), North West (11%), Western Cape (11%) and Limpopo (11%) followed by Free State (10%) and Mpumalanga (8%). The levels were lowest in KwaZulu-Natal (7%) and Eastern Cape (6%). With regards to the poverty status of respondents, those who were never deprived on the lived poverty index were least likely (7%) to have reported discrimination as compared to those who rarely (10%), often (12%) or always (11%) experienced deprivation.

Those respondents who reported being discriminated against were then asked where this discrimination took place. A third (32%) of all respondents who had suffered discrimination said that this took place in a public place by a person unknown to them. The second most common place where the discrimination took place was at work (30%), followed by at home (25%).
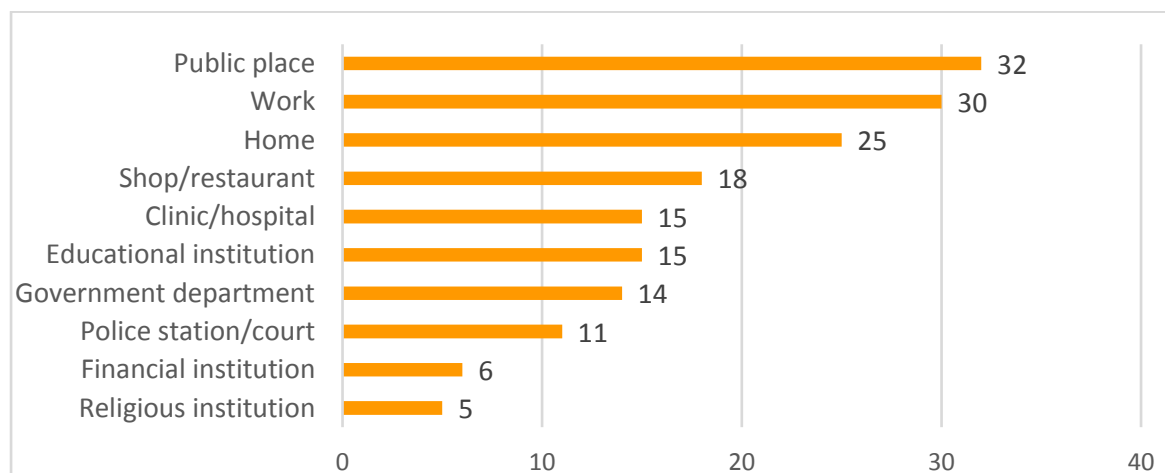
Figure 57: Where discrimination takes place

Those who had been discriminated against in a public place by an unknown person were almost as likely to be male (34%) or female (31%). The levels across black African (32%), Indian/Asian (33%) and white (35%) respondents were also fairly similar with coloured respondents least likely (28%) to point to such discrimination. Such discrimination was also constant across metropolitan (32%), urban (34%)

and rural (32%) areas. It was, however, more likely to be cited by those who had experienced discrimination from traditional (38%) or formal (33%) dwellings as opposed to their counterparts living in informal dwellings (21%).

Male respondents who had been discriminated against were far more likely (36%) than their female counterparts (24%) to have experienced this discrimination at the workplace. Levels of discrimination at the workplace were fairly consistent across race, with 28% of black African citing such discrimination as did 35% of Indians/Asians, 35% of whites and 38% of coloureds. This was also more common amongst those from metropolitan (34%) and urban (30%) areas as opposed to those in rural areas (22%).

Female respondents were more likely (29%) than their male counterparts (22%) to have experienced discrimination at home. While levels of discrimination at home were fairly consistent across black African (27%), Indian/Asian (25%) and coloured (24%) respondents, white respondents were less likely (13%) to have identified the home as being where the discrimination took place. Respondents living in traditional (36%) or informal (33%) dwellings were more likely to have mentioned the home than those living in formal dwellings (24%). This discrimination was also more likely to have been signalled by respondents from rural areas (33%) as compared to those from urban (25%) or metropolitan (21%) areas.

Respondents were asked to speculate why they thought the discrimination had taken place. Almost half (45%) of those who had experienced discrimination cited their race as the main reason for that discrimination, while a further quarter (27%) cited their language as being the factor behind the discrimination.
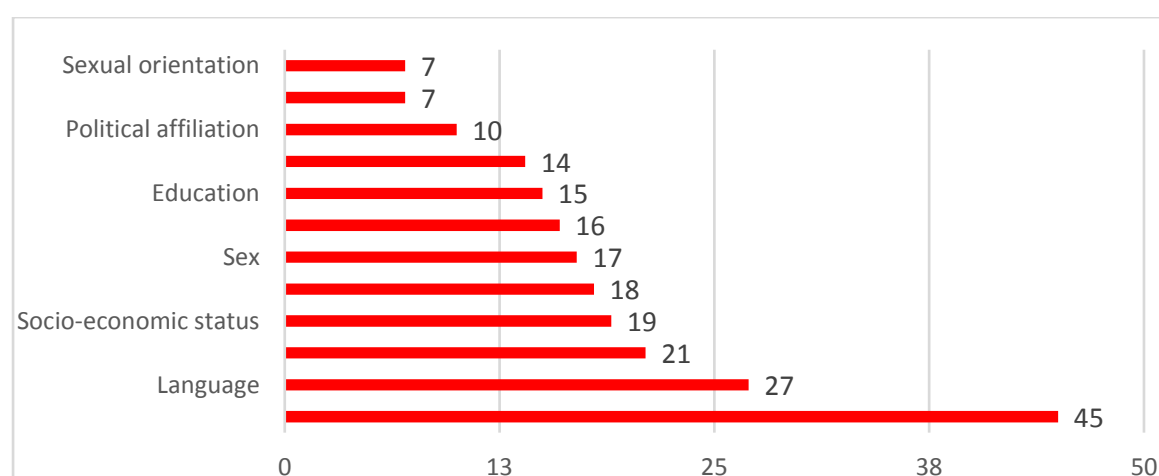
Figure 58: Why discrimination takes place

Male respondents who had experienced discrimination were more likely (51%) than female respondents (39%) to identify race as the reason for the discrimination. Indian/Asian respondents were most likely (68%) to point to race as were 61% of whites, 57% of coloureds and only 41% of black Africans. Race was also more likely to be cited as the factor behind the discrimination by respondents in metropolitan (52%) or urban (47%) areas as compared to those from rural areas (33%).

All respondents were asked if they believed that their rights had been violated, or that they had been unfairly discriminated against, where they would first go to for help. The findings were very similar to those from the AJCPR Baseline Survey. Almost one in ten (8%) stated that they would not go anywhere – this is a worrying finding. The largest proportion (43%) of respondents stated that they would go to

the police, with ward councillors/committees (13%) and family/friends (12%) also cited by more than one in ten respondents.
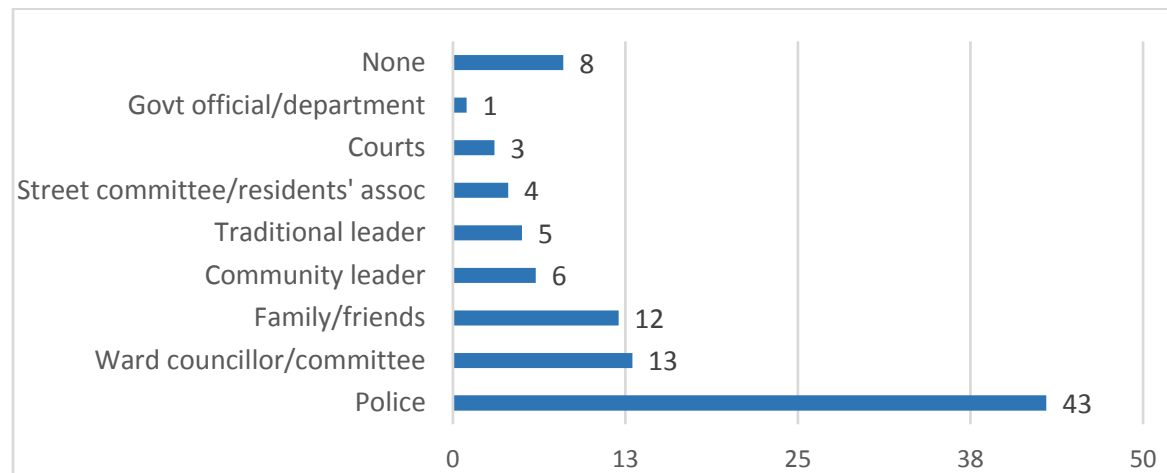
Figure 59: Where respondents would go to first if they had been discriminated against

The police were more likely to be cited by respondents from metropolitan (49%) or urban (46%) than their rural (32%) counterparts. In rural areas, where the police may be very far away, traditional and community leaders (24%) were more important ports of call than in urban (4%) or metropolitan (4%) areas.

Perceptions of discrimination based on race or sexual orientation

Respondents were asked, based on the situation in South Africa at the moment, whether they thought someone's race or sexual orientation affects their chances of getting:

- Access to public/government services

- Government jobs

- Government tenders

- Private sector jobs

- Educational opportunities at university

Figure 60: Perceived impact of race or sexual orientation on various opportunities

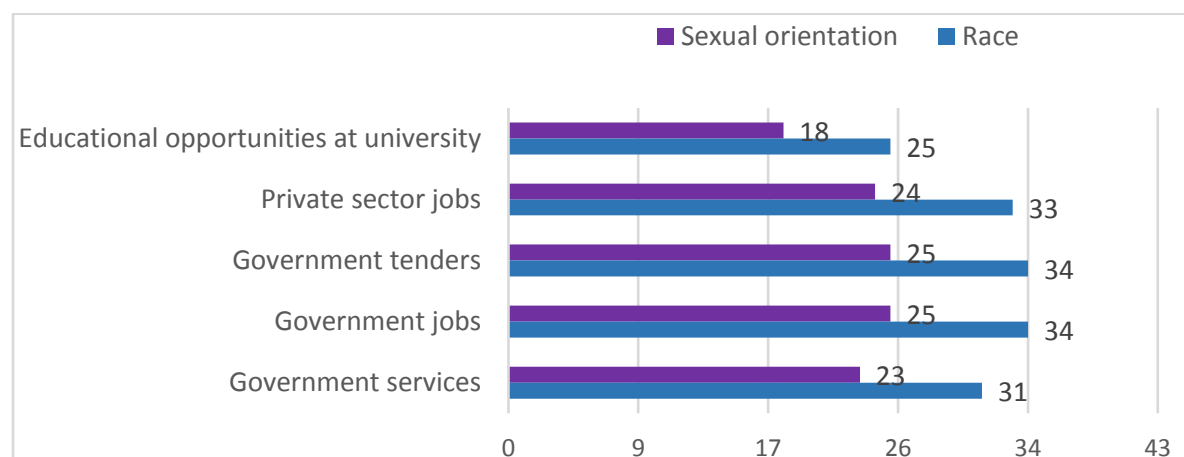The first point that is obvious in Figure 60 is that a higher proportion of respondents thought that one's race had an impact on each of the issues as opposed to one's sexual orientation. The other point is that educational opportunities at university were deemed to be less impacted upon by either race or sexual orientation than government services, tenders or jobs or private sector jobs.

Approximately a third of all respondents thought that someone's race affected their chances of getting a government job (34%), a government tender (34%) or a private sector job (33%). While two fifths (42%) of Indian/Asian, coloured or white respondents felt that one's race affected their chance of getting a government tender, this was true of a third (32%) of black African respondents. Respondents from metropolitan areas were most likely (41%) to think that race was a factor in getting a government tender as compared with their counterparts from urban (32%) or rural (26%) areas.

	Government job (%)	Private sector job (%)
Eastern Cape	27	27
Free State	25	19
Gauteng	37	38
KwaZulu-Natal	31	29
Limpopo	27	26
Mpumalanga	37	33
North West	34	32
Northern Cape	42	38
Western Cape	46	42

Table 24: Impact of race on government and private sector jobs by province

Apart from respondents from Eastern Cape and Gauteng, Table 24 shows that in every other province, more respondents thought that race affected one's chance of getting a government job as opposed to a private sector job. It also shows that far higher proportions of respondents in Northern Cape (42%) and Western Cape (46%) thought that race affected one's chance of getting a government job.

Crime

Respondents were asked if any of the following had happened to them in the previous year:

- If they were physically assaulted

- If someone had gotten into their residence without permission and stole or tried to steal something

- If someone deliberately destroyed or damaged their home, shop or any other property that they or their household owned

- If something was stolen from them outside of their home

- If they had experienced sexual harassment

Figure 61 shows that the most common crimes experienced by adults in South Africa were house-breaking, which affected more than one in six (15%) adults, and theft outside of the home (12%). From the list of crimes explored, the least common were physical assault (6%) and sexual harassment (2%). Nevertheless, when extrapolated into actual numbers of people, the 2% that reported having experienced sexual harassment in the past year could relate to over 800 000 people.
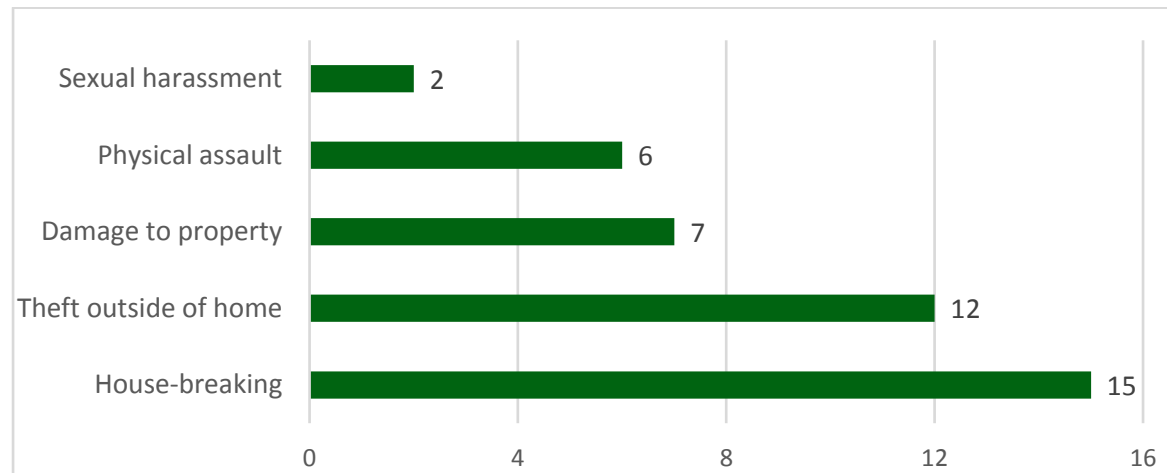
Figure 61: Victim of crime in past 12 months

House-breaking was a commonly reported crime across sex and race and across dwelling and geographic types – 17% of metropolitan residents reported such crime as did 15% of rural residents and 14% of those from urban areas. These levels were also fairly consistent across the provinces as well as across the different poverty status of respondents.

In fact the levels of crime experienced by respondents were similar across the different areas and types of residence. By means of further illustration, theft outside of the home was experienced only slightly more often by residents of metropolitan (13%) and urban (12%) residents as compared to those from rural areas (9%). While residents of informal (13%) and formal (12%) dwellings were almost twice as likely as those from traditional dwellings (7%) to have experienced this crime, the differences were not substantial. Crime appears to be widespread and a part of South African society in general.

Appendix A: Previous research

The Constitutional Assembly

After the first democratic election in South Africa, the newly elected Parliament, working as the Constitutional Assembly, was tasked with writing a new constitution for the country. From 1995 to 1997, the Constitutional Assembly contracted the Community Agency for Social Enquiry (CASE) to conduct a series of evaluations of their work. This culminated in the 1997 evaluation which sought to establish the extent to which ordinary people were included in the constitution-making processes and how widespread knowledge of the Constitution was.

The evaluation in 1997 established that a third of all adult South Africans had seen the final Constitution. In addition, approximately half a million people had attended an event as part of the National Constitution Week in March 1997 and almost three quarters (73%) of all adults had seen, heard or read one or other advertisement put out by the Constitutional Assembly.

The South African Human Rights Commission

The first nationwide assessment of the extent to which the new democratic government was fulfilling its constitutional obligations was carried out by the South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC) during 1997-1998.

Based on information obtained from institutions of state, the 'SAHRC Economic and Social Rights Report' provided a useful, if limited, view of how various government departments understood their human rights obligations and the actions they reportedly undertook to meet them.

Simultaneously, the SAHRC oversaw a nationwide survey conducted by CASE on public perceptions of the realisation of economic and social rights.

These reports captured aspects of human rights awareness from both the state's perspective as well as that of the public, but their analytical character and limited methodological scope suggested the need for a more comprehensive survey specifically targeted at marginalised and vulnerable groups that would include knowledge and awareness of rights, attitudes, access to institutions and sources of information.

The Foundation for Human Rights

In 1998, the Foundation for Human Rights (FHR) commissioned Community Agency for Social Enquiry (CASE) to conduct a nationwide survey titled 'Assessing Knowledge of Human Rights among the General Population and Selected Target Groups', targeted at women, children, prisoners, refugees and (illegal) migrants, disabled people, people with HIV/AIDS, and dispossessed people.

Besides gathering information on the levels of human rights knowledge, the survey also included assessing knowledge of the mechanisms needed to secure these rights as well as the media through which such knowledge was obtained and to determine attitudes towards specified target groups and their rights.

The survey assessed the following:

- General knowledge and education of the Bill of Rights;
- Attitudes towards the rights of minorities and communities;
- Sources of assistance and access to information;
- Opinions on key human rights issues.

National Institute for Public Interest Law and Research

In 2000, the National Institute for Public Interest Law and Research (NIPILAR) commissioned a study titled 'National Survey Report on Human Rights Awareness'. This study assessed:

- Basic knowledge of the Bill of Rights;
- Knowledge of Chapter 9 institutions;
- Sources of information on human rights issues and institutions;
- Context and/or circumstances in which human rights had been violated;
- Attitudes towards key human rights issues.

Human Sciences Research Council Public Opinion Survey

As part of its 2001 Public Opinion Survey, the Human Sciences research Council (HSRC) included questions specifically related to human rights, covering:

- Knowledge of the major instruments and institutions designed to protect and enforce human rights;
- Access to Chapter 9 institutions;
- Attitudes to human rights in their broadest sense, including socio-economic rights.

Survey on Protection of Human Rights: Perceptions and Awareness

The results from this small-scale academic survey carried out in 2004 confirmed most of the key findings of previous surveys as summarised above. The study included assessments of:

- Perceptions about the causes of human rights violations;
- Legitimacy of election processes;
- Freedom to speak and express opinions.

AJPCR Baseline Survey

The surveys described above, conducted over the last two decades, played a key role in informing the work of the FHR, but the results highlighted a need for a more updated, expansive and integrated survey to ascertain the extent to which human rights awareness and knowledge of institutions and processes had shifted since the 1990s, particularly in vulnerable and marginalised communities.

As a result, the FHR developed a questionnaire and executed its AJPCR Baseline Study which was completed in March 2011. In addition to the questionnaire, several respondent focus groups were convened to obtain more nuanced information on particular issues and desktop studies were undertaken on the status of rights among particular groups of vulnerable groups.

The AJPCR survey was a site-based survey, designed to obtain detailed information from vulnerable and marginalised groups, as opposed to being a national, sample-based survey. Responses from 4,200 people from 20 sites were collected and analysed. The questionnaire measured basic knowledge of human rights by assessing respondents' awareness of the Constitution and its Bill of Rights, Chapter 9 Institutions, and key pieces of human rights legislation, while detailed knowledge was measured by awareness of the implications of each of these.

The survey found that a minority (46%) of all respondents were aware of the existence of either the Constitution or the Bill of Rights and that less than 10% of respondents had read these documents, or had either of the documents read to them.

South African Institute for Advanced Constitutional, Public, Human Rights and International Law Survey

A survey of the Gauteng adult population on constitutional legitimacy in South Africa was commissioned by the South African Institute for Advanced Constitutional, Public, Human Rights and International Law (SAIFAC), a centre of the University of Johannesburg.

The field work was conducted in October and November 2015. The sample comprised 608 respondents from areas within Gauteng. The results obtained from the interviews were weighted to reflect the 9.2 million adult residents of Gauteng.

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