Patterns and the changing role of the Global Burden of Disease categories in South Africa: 1997-2005

Barbara A. Anderson (barba@umich.edu) University of Michigan and Statistics South Africa

Heston E. Phillips (hestonp@statssa.gov.za) Statistics South Africa

A paper prepared for presentation at the Union of African Population Studies Conference

Arusha, Tanzania December 2007

INTRODUCTION

For any country, the health and survival of its citizens is one of its main concerns. Knowing the chances of dying at each age for either sex, how these risks have changed over time, and understanding the causes of death, are crucial to obtaining an accurate picture of mortality and to effective policy planning to improve rates of survival. This paper uses the three category Global Burden of Disease approach to examine changes over time in overall adult mortality risks by age and sex as well as the contribution of: 1) communicable and related diseases, 2) non-communicable diseases and 3) unnatural causes. We also look at what the overall mortality situation would have been if certain aspects of the three global burden of disease categories had not changed since 1997.

Over time mortality from infectious and parasitic and other communicable diseases has typically decreased, and an increased portion of deaths have resulted from non-communicable diseases, which include degenerative and chronic conditions that especially afflict the elderly.

In South Africa deaths from HIV have become a source of ever-increasing concern. HIV only appeared to any substantial extent in South Africa in the early 1990s. The average time from becoming HIV-positive to death is about 8-10 years in sub-Saharan Africa (Hunter and Williamson, 2000: 23). Large increases in the death rates of women in their twenties and thirties since the late 1990s are thought to result mainly from HIV. With the increases in HIV prevalence since 1990, and with the long average lag from infection to death, it seems likely that HIV deaths will continue to increase in South Africa for some years. In the Global Burden of Disease system, HIV mortality is mainly reflected in increased mortality from communicable diseases.

Traditional communicable causes of death, such as malaria, have not disappeared and in some cases present an increasing problem as drug-resistant strains of malaria and other diseases have emerged (World Health Organization, 2005).

Mortality from non-communicable diseases, such as cancer and stroke, which play a major role in mortality at older ages throughout the world, is also important in South Africa. However, in much of the developing world, unhealthy behaviours common in the developed countries, such as smoking, high levels of alcohol consumption, and consumption of high calorie foods with little nutritional value, have increased (Bah, 1993; Gwatkin, 1980; Kurylowicz and Kopczynski, 1986; Walker, 1996; World Health Organization, 1999).

These behaviours are expected to contribute to higher adult mortality for both sexes (Beaton, 1997; Gunawardene, 1999), as they already have in many parts of the world (Nizard and Munoz-Perez, 1993; Shkolnikov and Mesle, 1996; Shkolnikov *et al.*, 1997). These behaviours and their mortality consequences have an especially large effect on men, since men tend to smoke and drink alcohol more than women (Waldron, 1986, 2000; Zhang, Sasaki, and Kesteloot, 1995). However, in much of the world, as women's status rises, women also increasingly adapt the negative health behaviours that are more typical of men. In many countries women's lung cancer rates have risen as an increasing proportion of women smoke (Dwyer *et al.*, 1994; Jemal *et al.*, 2003).

Problems associated with a shift in diet toward more fat consumption have affected the South African population (Bourne, Lambert, and Steyn, 2002; Puoane *et al.*, 2002). The South African Department of Health has been concerned about

chronic diseases of lifestyle (South Africa, Department of Health, 2005b), including effects of diet, tobacco and alcohol consumption. Diabetes in particular seems to be a serious and increasing problem in South Africa (Levitt *et al.*, 1997; Temple *et al.*, 2001). In 1998, 30% of women in South Africa were obese (South Africa, Department of Health, 2002: 247). These behaviours contribute primarily to higher mortality from non-communicable diseases.

South Africa also has high death rates from unnatural causes and probably has the second highest homicide rate in the world, trailing only Colombia. Although mortality from some unnatural causes, such as homicide, seems to have declined, little reduction in overall mortality from unnatural causes remains a source of concern.

For all these reasons, the South African government has long been concerned with reducing mortality and with understanding patterns and causes of mortality. Mortality analysis is an integral part of the South African Government Programme of Action, including directing specific attention to research and to programmes to reduce mortality from malaria, tuberculosis, non-communicable diseases such as diabetes, asthma and hypertension, and unnatural causes of death, as well as ongoing concern with HIV (South Africa, 2006).

Data and data quality considerations

In this paper, we examine the mortality conditions of adult South Africans age 15-64, over the period 1997-2005. People age 15-64 are those who have had their fifteenth birthday and have not yet had their sixty-fifth birthday. Our analysis is based primarily on data from the Death Notification Forms. Denominators to calculate death rates come from the Statistics South Africa Mid-Year population estimates.²

South Africa has come a long way since 1994 when a representative vital registration system was non-existent. We start the analysis with 1997 because the completeness of registration of deaths improved substantially from 1996 to 1997. It is estimated that in 1996, only 67% of all deaths were registered (Statistics South Africa, 2000: vi), while in 1997, 80% of all deaths to males and 78% of all deaths to females were registered. Although valuable work has been done using the death registration data from 1996 (Bradshaw *et al.*, 2002), data from 1997 and later present many fewer problems.

Registration of deaths of children 0-14 is much less complete than registration of deaths of adults age 15-64. We estimated that for 1997, 92% of all deaths of males age 15-64 were registered, but only 41% of all deaths to males age 0-14; whilst for females, 84% of deaths of persons age 15-64 were registered but only 45% of deaths of children 0-14.

The estimated completeness of registration of deaths to those age 65 or older is much higher, sometimes estimated, implausibly, as greater than 100%. However,

¹ It is estimated that in 2002 the homicide death rate in South Africa was 48 per 100,000 population (based on the number of homicides from the South African Police Service and the Statistics South Africa mid-year population estimates) and in Colombia was 66 per 100,000 population (Colombia, 2005).

² For more about the approach used in making mortality and cause of death estimates see Anderson and Phillips (2006). That publication presented results based on data for 1997-2004. The data upon which this paper is based include data for 2005 as well as revised estimates for earlier years.

we know that the elderly are chronically undercounted and their ages are often exaggerated in censuses (Anderson and Silver, 1994; Coale and Li, 1991; Phillips, Anderson and Tsebe, 2003; Rosenwaike and Preston, 1984).

ALL CAUSE MORTALITY

First we examine mortality by sex from all causes. In this section we look at death rates by age and sex and how they changed between 1997 and 2005.

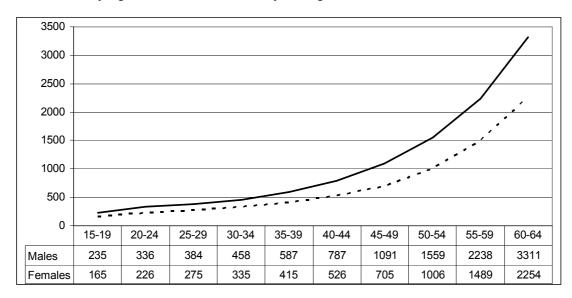


Figure 1. Death rates by age and sex per 100,000: UN general mortality pattern

It is useful to set a context for examination of mortality in South Africa by noting typical patterns of mortality by age and sex throughout the world. Figure 1 shows how death rates by age and sex have usually differed.³ Typically, after age 15, death rates increase with age. After age 35 they rise at an increasing rate. Usually male death rates are higher at every age than female death rates.

Occasionally female death rates have been higher than male death rates at some ages, especially among infants and young children. But this has typically been in high male preference and female deprivation societies (Anderson and Liu, 1997; D'Souza and Chen, 1980; Dyson and Moore, 1983; Miller 1981), of which South Africa is not one. Higher female than male mortality has become increasing rare above age 15 (Tabutin, 1992).

Usually, over time death rates for both sexes and at all ages have declined. However, in some societies at times other than wartime, death rates have increased for certain age-sex groups. For example after World War II, male death rates in the older working ages increased in the United States and much of Europe substantially due to cigarette smoking (Anderson and Silver, 1986; Preston, 1970). However, mortality increase over a sustained time has been fairly uncommon. A long-term increase in mortality of adult men and to a lesser extent of adult women in the former Soviet Union and parts of Eastern Europe has been an object of concern (Demko, loffe and Zayonchkovskaya, 1999; McKee and Shkolnikov, 2001; Mitchell, 1997).

³ The death rates in Figure 1 are from United Nations (1982: 212-213, 236-237) with the same death rate at age 15-19 for both sexes as the estimated death rate at that age in South Africa in 1997. "Per 100,000" in all graphs and tables means "per 100,000 of the population".

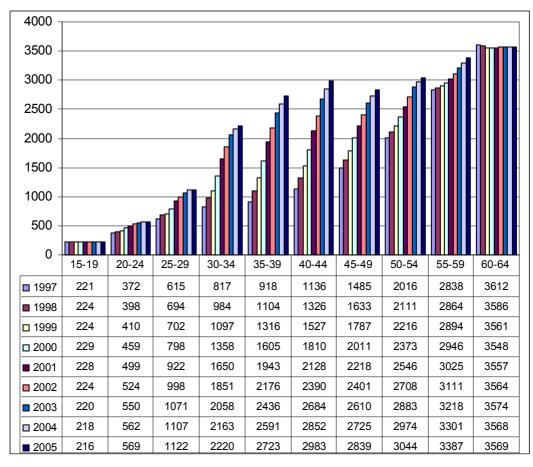


Figure 2. Male death rates by age per 100,000: 1997-2005

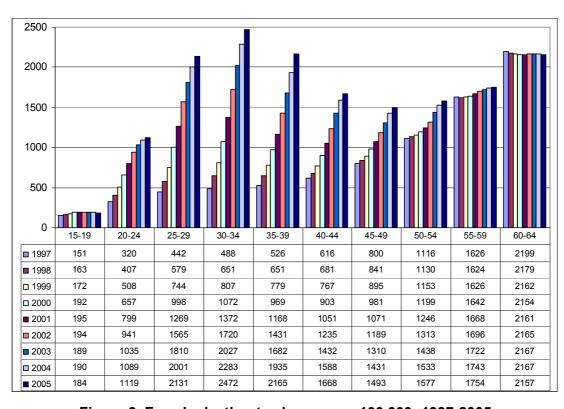


Figure 3. Female death rates by age per 100,000: 1997-2005

Now we turn to the mortality situation in South Africa. First we consider mortality by age and sex from all causes. Figures 2 and 3 show age-specific death rates by sex for every year 1997-2005.

The presentations in Figures 2 and 3 make it easy to determine what the trend has been in death rates for a given sex and age. We see that except for those under age 20 and for those over age 60, death rates have increased in each year for each sex in every age group.

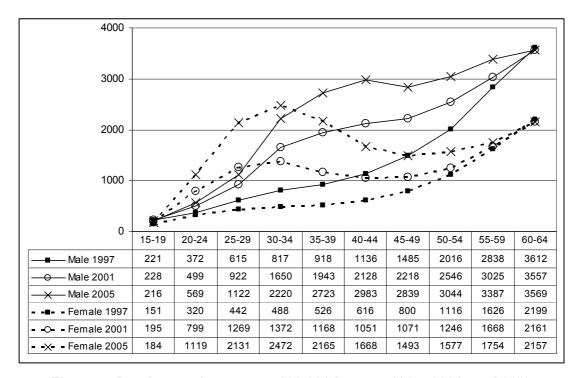


Figure 4. Death rates by age per 100,000 by sex: 1997, 2001, and 2005

Figure 4 shows the death rates for each sex in 1997, 2001 and 2005. Focusing on 1997, 2001 and 2005 makes it easy to get a clear picture of the age pattern of death rates by sex and how these have changed over time. In Figure 4, and in other figures that show age-specific death rates by sex in 1997, 2001 and 2005, rates for males are indicated by a solid line for all dates, while rates for females are indicated by a dashed line for all dates. The marker for both sexes for the data referring to 1997 is a solid square, the marker for 2001 is a hollow circle and the marker for 2005 is an "X".

In 1997, for each sex, death rates increase with each successively older age, as was shown in Figure 1. In 2001, the male death rate increases with each successively older age, while in 2005 the male death rate also increases with age, except for a small decline from the 40-44 to the 45-49 age group. However, in both 2001 and 2005, after a rapid increase up to age 30, there is a slower rise to age 50, and then a more rapid rise. In 2001, for females the death rate at age 25-39 is higher than at age 40-49, and for females in 2005, the death rate at age 25-39 is higher than at age 40-59, which is quite unusual.

The age pattern shown in Figure 4 above age 35 is very different for the two sexes. Above age 35, male death rates tend to continue to rise, while female death rates decline sharply and then rise after age 50. In 2005, the death rate for females at age 30-34 is higher than for females at age 60-64.

In 1997, at every age the male death rate was higher than the female death rate, as is seen in Figure 1 and as is usually found in the world. In 2001, for age 20-29 the female death rate was higher than the male death rate, and in 2005 for age 20-34 the female death rate was higher than the male death rate.

Figure 5 shows for each sex by age the death rates in 2001 and in 2005 relative to the value for the given age and sex in 1997. The much greater proportionate increase in female than male death rates below age 45 is striking. It is clear from Figure 9 that the increase in mortality between 1997 and 2005 has been concentrated in the younger ages, 20-44, especially for females.

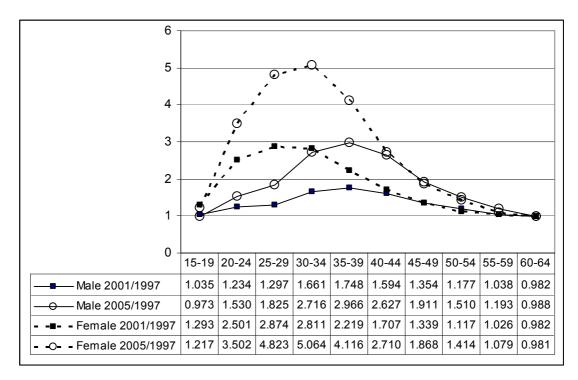


Figure 5. Death rates in 2001 and in 2005 by age and sex relative to value in 1997 (1997 value=1.00)

The large increase in mortality for women in their twenties, thirties and early forties is not part of a commensurate increase in female mortality at all ages. Although adult female death rates increased at all ages below 60 between 1997 and 2005, the increa above age 45 and especially above age 55 was much less. The increase in death rates for females in their twenties and thirties has been attributed to HIV by many people (Dorrington *et al.* 2001; Hosegood, Vanneste, and Timaeus, 2004; Tollman, *et al.*, 1999). Whether similar large increases in mortality will occur at older ages as those age 20-44 in 2005 (the cohort that was born in 1960-1989) grow older is yet to be seen.

Age-standardised death rates

As we see in Figure 4, death rates differ greatly by age and by sex. We are considering people age 15-64 in this report. One could calculate a death rate for men age 15-64 from all causes or from some particular cause of death by dividing the total number of deaths to men age 15-64 from the given cause by the number of men age 15-64. However, the level of this rate would be affected by the age distribution of men within the 15-64 age range. For example, in Figure 4 the male death rate increases with age. If the male population grew older with time, the kind

of simple death rate just described would increase even if the chance of men dying at each age were unchanged.

To take account of changes in the age distribution within the 15-64 age range over time, we calculate an age-standardised death rate for both sexes. To do this, first we choose a standard population. We use the 2001 mid-year population of South Africa for both sexes by five-year age group, as estimated by Statistics South Africa, as the standard population. We then take the actual death rate for the given sex by five-year age group and calculate how many deaths these rates would have produced in the 2001 population. We take the implied number of deaths to the 2001 population of the given sex and divide that number of deaths by the number of people of the given sex in mid-2001. We do this for each year. What results is a series of rates for which the age distribution (by sex) is held constant. Thus, the age-standardised rate does not go up or down because the population of the given sex has got older or younger over time. The age-standardised death rate for age 15-64 for a given sex is what the overall death rate would be for that sex in those ages per 100,000 population –

100,000*(deaths to people of the given sex age 15-64) (number of people of the given sex age 15-64)

– if the people in that year of that sex had the same age distribution as people of that sex did in South Africa as a whole in 2001.

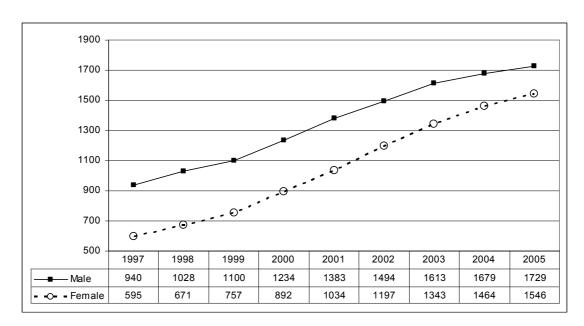


Figure 6. Age-standardised death rates per 100,000 from all causes by sex, age 15-64: 1997-2005

Figure 6 shows the age-standardised death rate per 100,000 population for each sex. The rate for each sex increases every year. Moreover, the rate is much lower for females than males in every year, although the gap has narrowed over time.

Looking at younger and older adults

It is clear in the figures we have already examined that the pattern of increase in mortality is very different for younger adults than for older adults and that the relation between male death rates and female death rates also differs according to

the age range considered. In this section we divide the 15-64 50-year age span into two 25-year segments, those age 15-39 and those 40-64.

Besides being a convenient division, these two segments encompass very different stages of the life cycle. The 15-39 age range includes the completion of education and establishment of a career. For most women it includes all of their childbearing. It is the family formation part of the life cycle. The 40-64 age range encompasses the mature career and preparation for retirement. It often includes grandparenthood.

Just as Figure 6 showed age-standardised death rates over the entire 15-64 age range, we can calculate age-standardised death rates separately for the 15-39 age range and the 40-64 age range. In each of these age ranges we calculate for the given sex for a given year what the death rate in that age range would be if the group had the death rates by age and sex of the given year but had the age distribution that was present for the given sex in mid-2001.

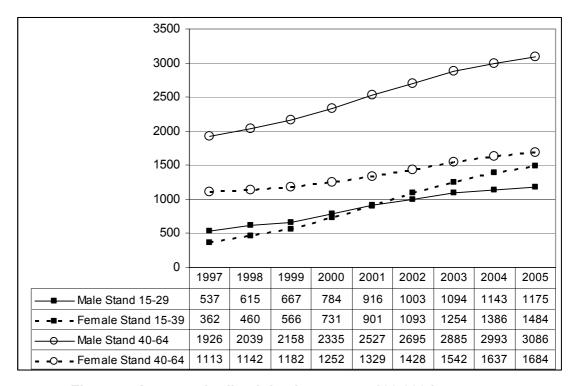


Figure 7. Age-standardised death rates per 100,000 by sex, age 15-39 and age 40-64: 1997-2005

Figure 7 shows age-standardised death rates by sex for the younger and older age ranges. Figure 7 makes even clearer some things that were apparent in earlier figures. For the younger age range, the male rate is higher than the female rate in 1997-2001, but in 2002-2005 the female rate is higher than the male rate. For the older age range, the male rate is always higher than the female rate, and the gap increases over time. The age-standardised rate for the older age range for either sex is always higher than for the younger age range for either sex, although for females the gap between the older and the younger age ranges becomes very small by 2005. In 1997, the age-standardised death rate for females 40-64 was 3.0 times that for females age 15-39; in 2001 the value for the older age segment was 1.5 times that for the younger age segment, and by 2005, the rate for the female older age segment was only 1.1 times that of the younger female age segment.

Despite worsening younger female mortality between 1997 and 2005, the overall conclusion about which sex and which age segment had worse mortality is

that even in 2005, the highest chance of dying in a 25-year period was for males 40-65, the next highest was for females age 40-65, third came females age 15-40 and the lowest chance of dying in a 25-year period was for males 15-40. However, if current trends continue, in the near future the female chance of dying in the 15-40 age range will exceed that of females in the 40-65 age range.

There was also a narrowing of the morality differential between the younger age segment and the older age segment for males, although not as drastically as for females. In 1997, males were 3.6 times more likely to die in the older age segment than in the younger age segment, in 2001 the value for the older age segment was 2.6 that of the younger age segment and by 2005, the rate for the male older age segment was 2.6 times that of the younger male age segment.

Comments

Age-specific death rates increased for each sex for almost every adult age group, 1997-2005. The increase for younger adult females is especially striking. However, even in 2005, age-standardised death rates 15-64 remained higher for males than females, and age standardised death rates for males age 40-64 remained higher for males age 15-39 or for females in either age segment. However, soon females age 15-39 are likely to have higher mortality than females age 40-64.

GLOBAL BURDEN OF DISEASE CATEGORISATION

The World Health Organization Global Burden of Disease project groups causes of death into three categories: (1) communicable diseases, maternal conditions, perinatal conditions, and nutritional deficiencies (ICD-10 categories A00-B99, G00-G04, N70-N73, J00-J06, J10-J18, J20-J22, H65-H66, O00-O99, P00-P96, E00-E02, E40-E46, E50, D50-D53, E51-E64. The reference also includes D64.9 in this classification, but since South Africa does not use 4-digit ICD-10 coding, we coded all of D64 as non-communicable), (2) non-communicable diseases (ICD-10 categories C00-C97, D00-D48, D55-D64, D65-D89, E03-E07, E10-E16, E20-E34, E65-E88, F01-F99, G06-G98, H00-H61, H68-H93, I00-I99, J30-J98, K00-K92, N00-N64, H75-N98, L00-L98, M00-M99, Q00-Q99), and (3) unnatural causes (ICD-10 categories V01-Y89).4 For simplicity, we will refer to the first category as "communicable and related diseases".5

Communicable diseases can be spread from one person to another. Noncommunicable diseases cannot be spread between people. They include the chronic debilitating diseases common among older people that often cause or contribute to death. Deaths from unnatural causes are sometimes called external cause deaths, accidental deaths or violent deaths.

⁴ ICD-10 categories for this classification are from Mathers *et al.*, 2003: Table 3, pp. 55-59.

⁵ There is a list of natural causes of death (R00-R99) that are ill-defined – all you know about these causes is that they were natural. These ill-defined natural causes have been distributed among deaths by natural causes proportionately to their share in defined natural causes of death. This follows the recommendation of Mathers et al. (2003: 13). It is somewhat different than the procedure employed by Bradshaw et al. (2003: 19; 2006) in which they redistributed these ill-defined deaths based on a multivariate model.

In South Africa, this distinction between communicable and non-communicable diseases is especially useful because almost all of the causes of death thought to be mistakenly coded when HIV is the actual cause of death are communicable diseases. Although a few non-communicable diseases are likely sites of misclassification of HIV deaths (Kaposi's sarcoma for example (Peto, 2001; IARC, 1997)), non-communicable diseases are thought to play a smaller role in this misclassification than communicable and related diseases.

Communicable and related diseases

Figures 8 and 9 show death rates by age from communicable and related diseases for each sex. The rates increase for every year except for males age 15-24 and 60-64 (2003-2004) and females age 15-19.

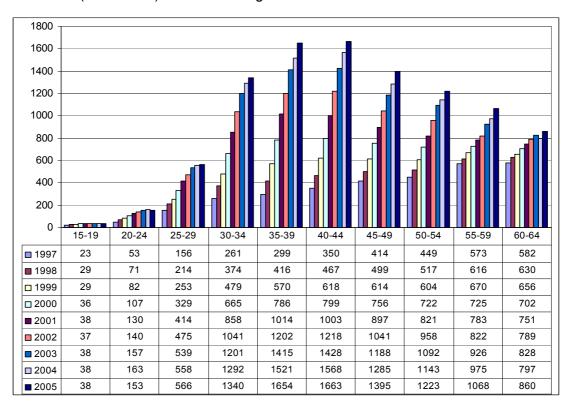


Figure 8. Male death rates by age per 100,000 from communicable and related diseases: 1997-2005

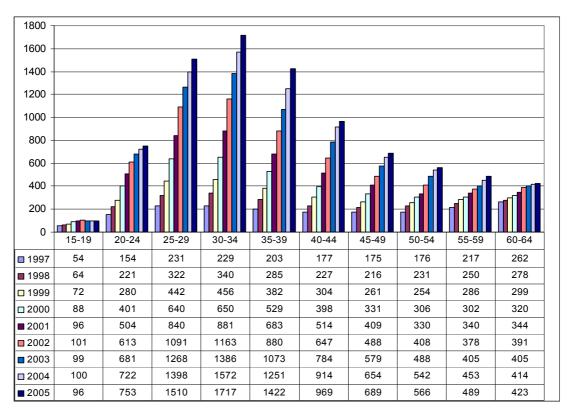


Figure 9. Female death rates by age per 100,000 from communicable and related diseases: 1997-2005

Figure 10 shows the age-specific death rates from communicable and related diseases for both sexes in 1997, 2001 and 2005. It is clear that for each sex at each age, there has been a considerable increase in the death rate (except for males 15-19), especially between age 20 and age 55.

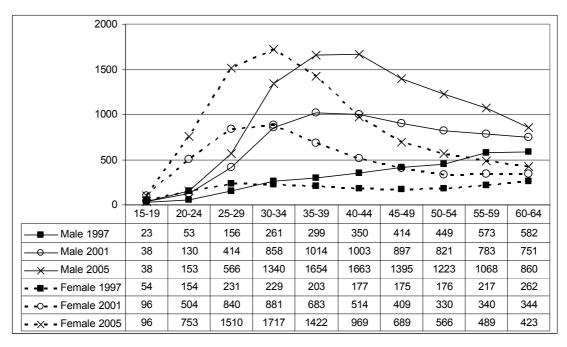


Figure 10. Death rates by age and sex per 100,000 from communicable and related diseases: 1997, 2001 and 2005

The age pattern of the increase between 1997 and 2005 is different for the two sexes. For males, the increase is greatest at age 35-44 and only slowly declines until age 55. For females there is a rapid rise to age 25-34, after which the death rate drops sharply.

The age pattern in Figure 10 for 2005 also contrasts with that in Figure 4, which showed age-specific death rates by sex in 1997 and 2005 from all causes. For all causes, the rates for both sexes increased at the older ages, while for communicable and related causes, the rates decline at each successively older age after a peak at age 40-44 for males and age 30-34 for females.

Figures 11 and 12 show the values of the death rate from communicable and related diseases in a given year relative to its value in 1997. The rapid increases in death rates from communicable and related diseases are even clearer than in Figures 8 and 9.

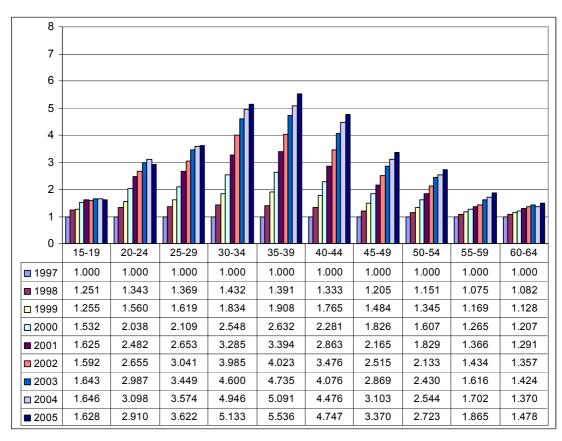


Figure 11. Male death rates from communicable and related diseases by age relative to value by age in 1997 (1997 value=1.00): 1997-2005

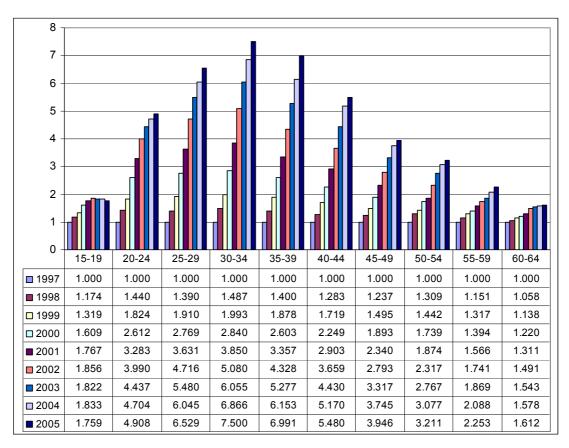


Figure 12. Female death rates from communicable and related diseases by age relative to value by age in 1997 (1997 value=1.00): 1997-2005

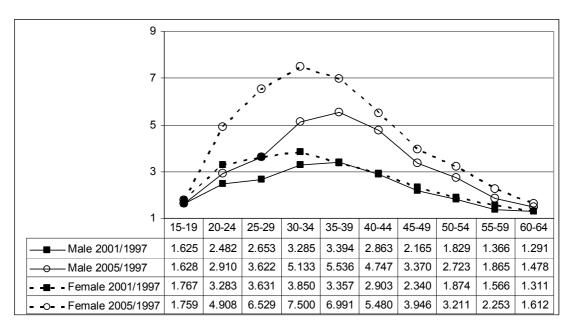


Figure 13. Death rates from communicable and related diseases by sex in 2001 and 2005 relative to value by age and sex in 1997 (1997 value=1.00)

Figure 13 shows the death rate in 2001 and in 2005 as a multiple of the value for the given sex in 1997. As for all causes shown in Figure 5, the increase in death rates from communicable and related diseases was concentrated in the 20-44 age range, especially for females. Unlike the situation in Figure 5, in Figure 13 the

percentage increase in female death rates is larger in 2005 than the increase in male death rates at all ages.

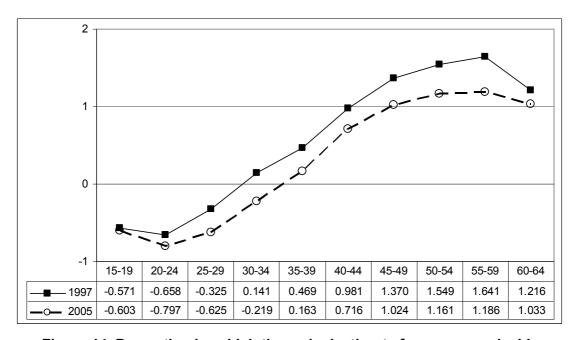


Figure 14. Proportion by which the male death rate from communicable and related diseases exceeds or falls short of the female death rate from communicable and related diseases ((MaleDR-FemaleDR)/FemaleDR): 1997 and 2005

Figure 14 shows the proportion by which the male death rate from communicable and related diseases exceeds or falls short of the female death rate from communicable and related diseases in 1997 and in 2005. When the value is greater than zero, the male rate is higher than the female rate; when the value is less than zero, the female rate is higher than the male rate.

In 1997, below age 30, the female death rate from communicable and related diseases was higher than the male death rate from communicable and related diseases. In 2005, the female rate was higher than the male rate below age 35. In both years, in the age range 35-59, the male death rate increased with age more rapidly than did the female death rate to age 60, after which the sex difference declined somewhat.

Figure 15 shows the age-standardised death rates by sex from communicable and related diseases. They have risen rapidly for both sexes. The male rate was higher than the female rate from 1997 to 2001, but from 2002 to 2005 the female rate was higher.

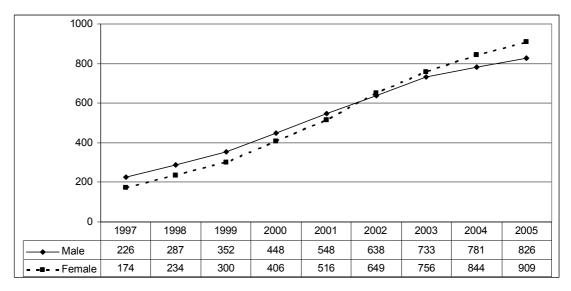


Figure 15. Age-standardised death rates per 100,000 from communicable and related diseases by sex, age 15-64: 1997-2005

Non-communicable diseases

Before the onset of HIV and the emergence of more virulent forms of several infectious diseases, the picture of mortality decline in the world had been one of ever lower death rates from communicable diseases and increasing concern with non-communicable diseases, which were becoming an increasing portion of all mortality (Shigan, 1988). Despite the concern with HIV and other communicable diseases, levels and trends in non-communicable diseases in South Africa still deserve attention.

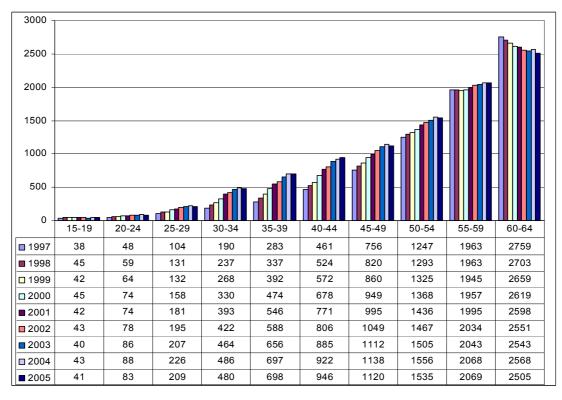


Figure 16. Male death rates by age per 100,000 from noncommunicable diseases: 1997-2005

Non-communicable diseases show a very different pattern from that for communicable and related diseases. As seen in Figures 16 and 17, death rates from non-communicable diseases tend to increase with age.

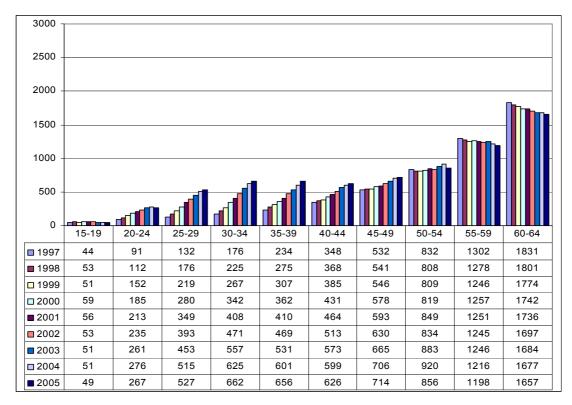


Figure 17. Female death rates by age per 100,000 from noncommunicable diseases: 1997-2005

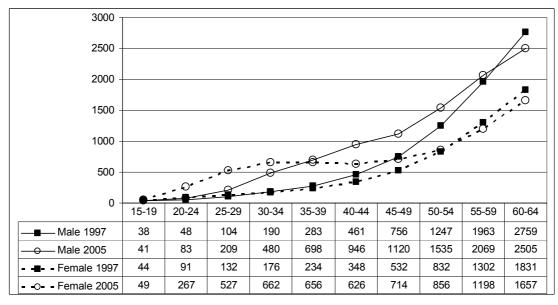


Figure 18. Death rates by age and sex per 100,000 population from noncommunicable diseases: 1997 and 2005

Figure 18 shows death rates from non-communicable diseases by age and sex in 1997 and 2005. Non-communicable diseases increased somewhat at most ages over time, but male death rates increased at each successively older age. For females in 2005, the rates declined from the 30-34 age group through the 40-44 age

group, before rising with age again from the 40-44 age group through the 60-64 age group.

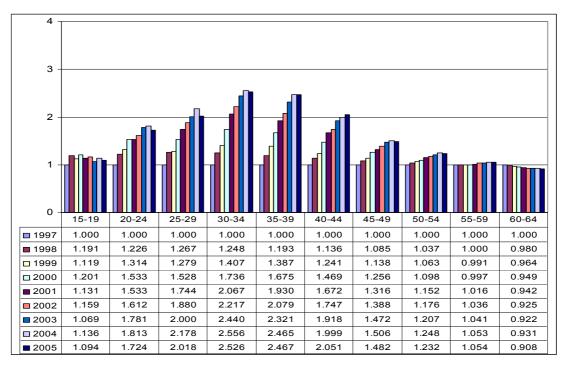


Figure 19. Male death rates from non-communicable diseases by age relative to value in 1997 (1997 Value=1.00): 1997-2005

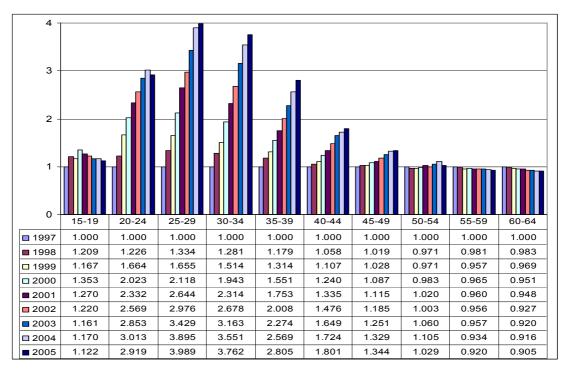


Figure 20. Female death rates from non-communicable diseases by age relative to value in 1997 (1997 Value=1.00): 1997-2005

Figures 19 and 20 show the values for each sex of the death rate from non-communicable diseases for the given sex in a given year relative to the value for that age and sex in 1997. Below age 20 for both sexes, at 55-59 for males and at 45-54 for females, there was only a small increase in death rates from non-communicable

diseases. Above age 55, female death rates from non-communicable diseases declined over time.

Figure 21 shows the death rate from non-communicable diseases in 2005 relative to 1997 and for each sex. Below age 40, the percentage increase in death rates from non-communicable diseases between 1997 and 2005 was greater for females than males. At ages 40-64, it was greater for males than females. Although death rates from non-communicable diseases increased between 1997 and 2005 for each sex, except at the oldest ages, comparing Figure 21 with Figure 13 makes clear that at all ages the proportionate increase between 1997 and 2005 for non-communicable diseases was far less than for communicable and related diseases.

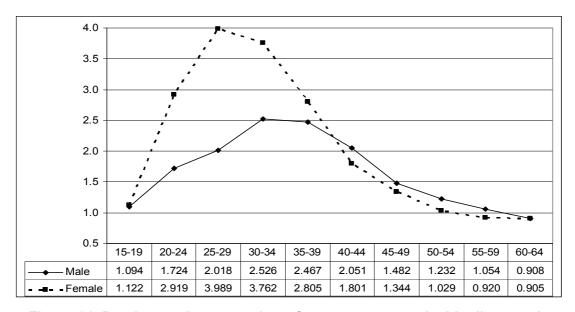


Figure 21. Death rates by age and sex from non-communicable diseases in 2005 relative to value in 1997 (1997 Value=1.00)

Figure 22 shows the proportion by which the male death rate from non-communicable diseases exceeds or falls short of the female death rate. When the value is greater than zero, the male rate is higher than the female rate; when the value is less than zero, the female rate is higher.

In 1997, below age 30, the female rate is higher than the male rate; in 2005, below age 35, the female rate is also higher than the male rate. At age 40-64, the male death rate from non-communicable diseases exceeded the female rate by a greater percentage in 2005 than in 1997.

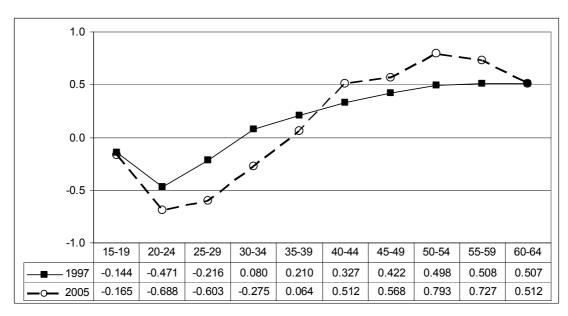


Figure 22. Proportion by which the male death rate from non-communicable diseases exceeds or falls short of the female death rate from non-communicable diseases ((MaleDR-FemaleDR)/FemaleDR): 1997 and 2005

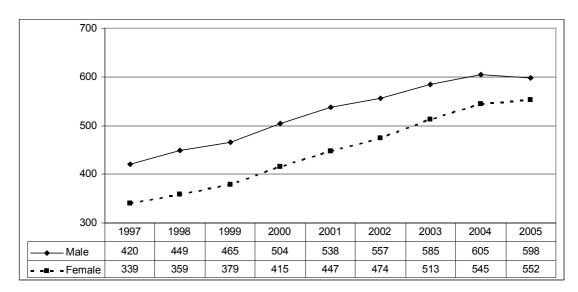


Figure 23. Age-standardised death rates per 100,000 from non-communicable diseases by sex, age 15-64: 1997-2005

Figure 23 shows the age-standardised death rates by sex from non-communicable diseases. If we compare Figure 23 to Figure 15 (for communicable and related diseases), it is again clear that communicable and related diseases have increased much more rapidly than non-communicable diseases. Also, at every date, the male age-standardised death rate from non-communicable diseases is substantially higher than the rate for females, and the gap between the rates for the two sexes only narrowed slightly until 2004, with a greater narrowing in 2005.

Unnatural causes of death

Unnatural causes of death are those in ICD-10 codes V01-Y89. Figure 24 shows age-specific death rates from unnatural causes for males, and Figure 25 shows similar information for females.

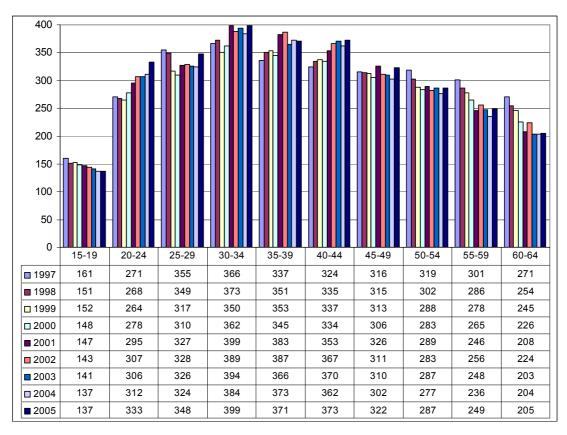


Figure 24. Male death rates by age per 100,000 from unnatural causes: 1997-2005

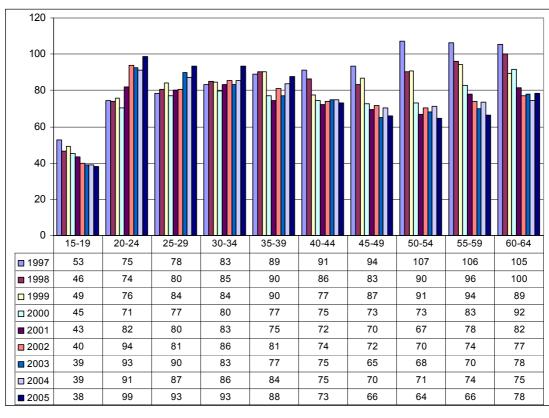


Figure 25. Female death rates by age per 100,000 from unnatural causes: 1997-2005

In Figures 24 and 25 we do not see the steady rise in death rates over time that we saw for all cause mortality. For most age-sex groups unnatural cause death rates declined over time; for other age-sex groups, there were modest increases. In many countries death rates from unnatural causes are high for young men, due to their tendency to engage in risky behaviour. At the older ages unnatural mortality is usually mainly from accidents.

Figure 26 shows age-specific death rates from unnatural causes by sex for 1997 and 2005. As in most countries, male unnatural cause death rates are much higher than female unnatural cause death rates.

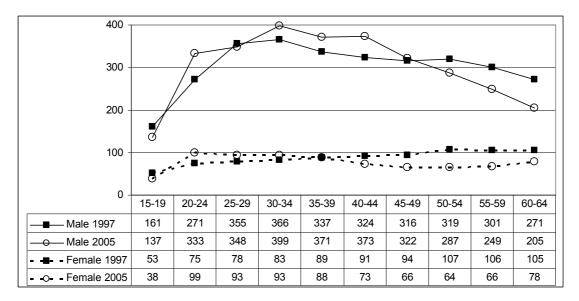


Figure 26. Death rates per 100,000 from unnatural causes by age and sex: 1997 and 2005

While the age profile of unnatural death rates for females is almost horizontal, for males there is a distinct pattern of increase in unnatural cause death rates until their twenties or thirties and then moderate declines with age. For both sexes, over time the rates increased slightly at some ages and decreased at other ages.

Figure 27 shows male death rates from unnatural causes relative to the value for 1997, and Figure 28 shows similar information for females. Death rates from unnatural causes tended to increase over time at younger ages (except for age 15-19) and to decrease at older ages.

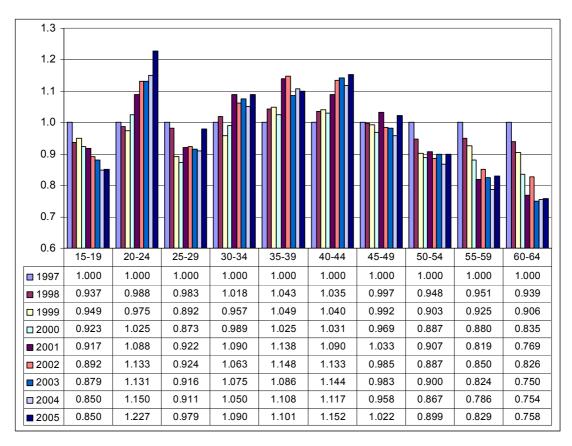


Figure 27. Male death rates from unnatural causes relative to value by age in 1997 (1997 Value=1.00): 1997-2005

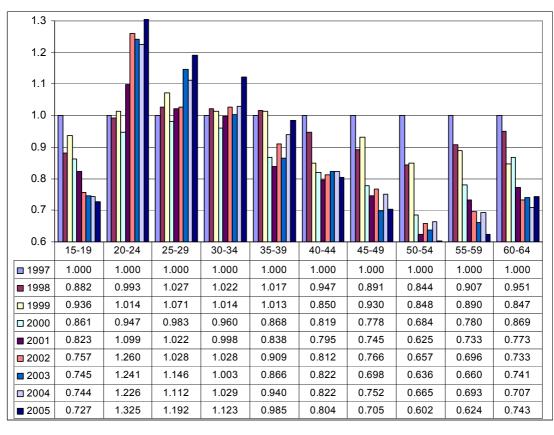


Figure 28. Female death rates from unnatural causes by age relative to value by age in 1997 (1997 Value=1.00): 1997-2005

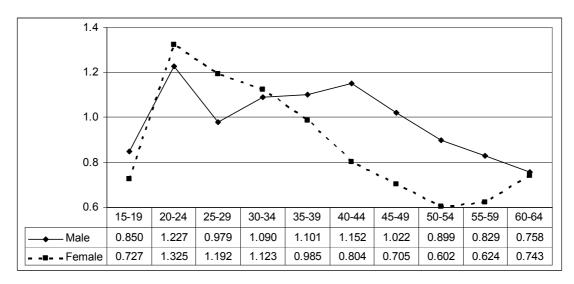


Figure 29. Death rates from unnatural causes in 2005 by sex relative to value by age and sex in 1997 (1997 Value=1.00)

Figure 29 shows death rates from unnatural causes in 2005 relative to the value in 1997 for each sex. Below age 20 and above age 35 (for females) and above age 50 (for males) death rates from unnatural causes were lower in 2005 than in 1997. Males age 25-29 had a relatively high death rate from unnatural causes, but it declined by more than 11% between 1997 and 2005. The decline in the unnatural cause death rate for the 15-19 age group for both sexes is an encouraging trend. Perhaps teenagers have begun to engage in less risky behaviour. For both sexes at older ages, unnatural death rates declined substantially. This is probably due to a decrease in fatal accidents above age 50 for males and above age 40 for females, which is also an encouraging trend.

The unnatural cause death rate increased in the 20-24 age group between 1997 and 2005 by 23% for males and by 32% for females. For each sex the increase at age 20-24 was a larger proportionate increase than for any other age group. At this time, it is not clear what the cause of these increases might be. If these kinds of increases in death rates from other types of causes were seen for people in their early twenties, some people might have interpreted them as hidden HIV mortality, which is very unlikely in this case.

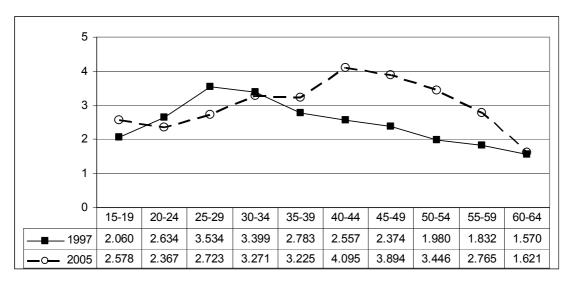


Figure 30. Proportion by which the male death rates from unnatural causes exceeds or falls short of the female death rates from unnatural causes ((MaleDR-FemaleDR)/FemaleDR): 1997 and 2005

Figure 30 shows for 1997 and 2005 the proportion by which the male death rate from unnatural causes exceeded (or fell short) of the female death rate from unnatural causes. In both years, at every age the male death rate from unnatural causes was much higher than the female death rate from unnatural causes. The smallest percentage differential was for age 60-64 in 1997, for which the male rate exceeded the female rate by 1.56 times. This means that the male rate was 2.56 times the value of the female rate at that age. In 2005, the proportionate female advantage was somewhat less at ages 20-29 than it was in 1997, while at 15-19 and above age 35, the female advantage was greater in 2005 than in 1997.

The changing contribution of the three Global Burden of Disease categories to mortality

Figures 31 and 32 show one way of looking at the contribution of the three Global Burden of Disease categories to mortality over time. In each figure, the three categories sum to the overall age-standardised death rate.

We see that for both males and females, unnatural causes contributed to no change or a slight decline in mortality, while non-communicable diseases contributed somewhat to an increased age-standardised death rate. The bulk of the increase was due to communicable and related diseases.

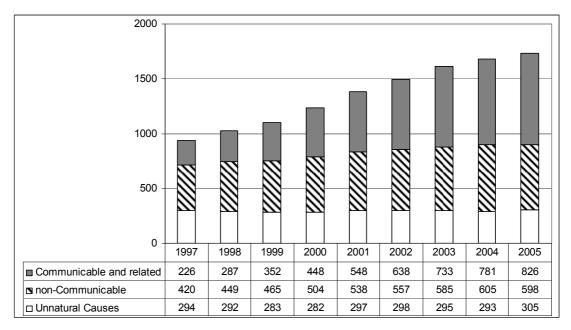


Figure 31. Contribution of the three Global Burden of Disease categories to the male age-standardised death rate per 100,000, age 15-64: 1997-2005

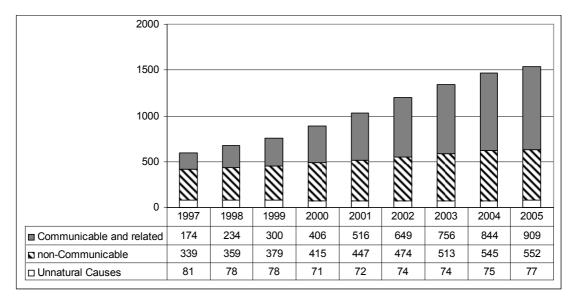


Figure 32. Contribution of the three Global Burden of Disease categories to the female age-standardised death rates per 100,000, age 15-64: 1997-2005

Figures 33 and 34 show the percentage distribution of deaths in the three categories used in calculation of the age-standardised death rates. These diagrams clearly demonstrate the increasingly dominant role of communicable and related diseases.

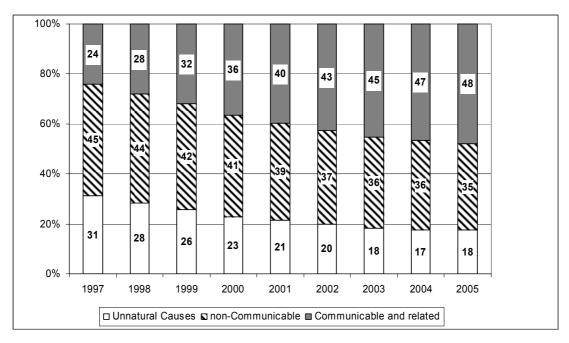


Figure 33. Percentage distribution of male age-standardised deaths among the three Global Burden of Disease categories, age 15-64: 1997-2005

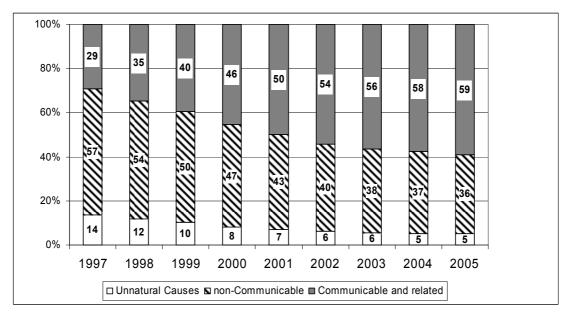


Figure 34. Percentage distribution of female age-standardised deaths among the three Global Burden of Disease categories, age 15-64: 1997-2005

Again using the division into three kinds of causes of death, Figures 35-38 show the contribution of each of the three categories to death rates by age in 1997 and in 2005, for males and females separately.

For males at the younger ages, unnatural causes are the main source of deaths in both years. This is true up to age 40 in 1997 and up to age 25 in 2005. After age 40 in 1997 and after age 50 in 2005, non-communicable diseases are the main cause of death. Thus we see unnatural causes dominating among the young, and non-communicable diseases dominating at the older ages. In 1997, communicable and related diseases are not the major cause of death at any age; in 2005, they are dominant at ages 25-49.

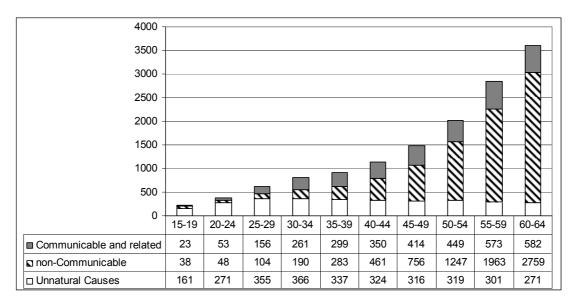


Figure 35. Contribution of the three Global Burden of Disease categories to male death rates by age per 100,000: 1997

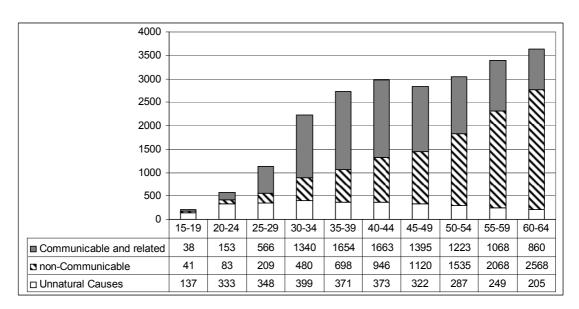


Figure 36. Contribution of the three Global Burden of Disease categories to male death rates by age per 100,000: 2005

For females, unnatural causes are the main cause of death only for age 20-34. Above age 35 in 1997 and above age 45 in 2005, non-communicable diseases are the main cause of death. It is interesting that non-communicable diseases become the major cause of death starting at a younger age for females than for males.

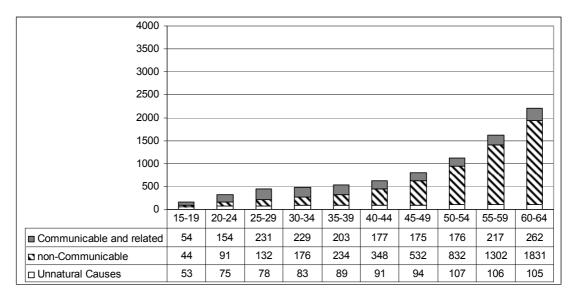


Figure 37. Contribution of the three Global Burden of Disease categories to female death rates by age per 100,000: 1997

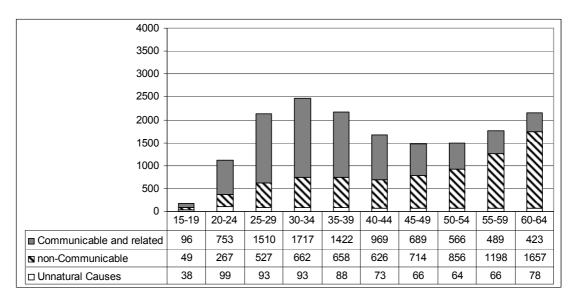


Figure 38. Contribution of the three Global Burden of Disease categories to female death rates by age per 100,000: 2005

Figures 39 and 40 show the role of the three categories of causes of death in age-standardised death rates by sex over time. Communicable and related diseases were less important than unnatural causes for males in 1997, and were about even with unnatural causes in 1998; in 2001, they became more important than non-communicable diseases. For females, communicable and related diseases were more important than unnatural causes even in 1997. They became more important than non-communicable diseases in 2001.

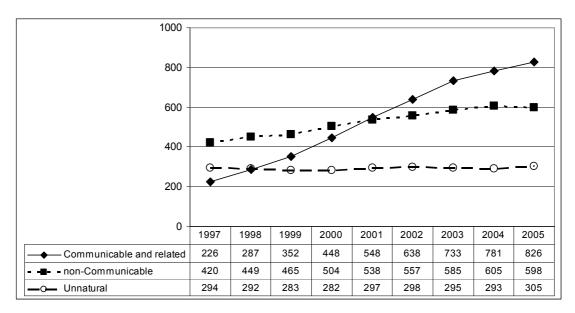


Figure 39. Male age-standardised death rates from the three Global Burden of Disease categories per 100,000, age 15-64: 1997-2005

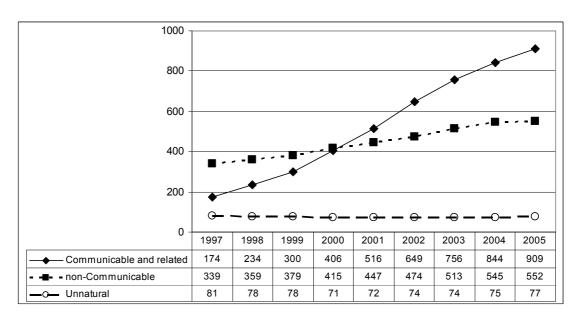


Figure 40. Female age-standardised death rates from the three Global Burden of Disease categories per 100,000, age 15-64: 1997-2005

Figures 41 and 42 show the age-standardised death rates from the three causes relative to the value of each in 1997. The age-standardised death rate from all causes relative to its value in 1997 is also shown. The rapid rise of communicable and related diseases is very clear in these figures.

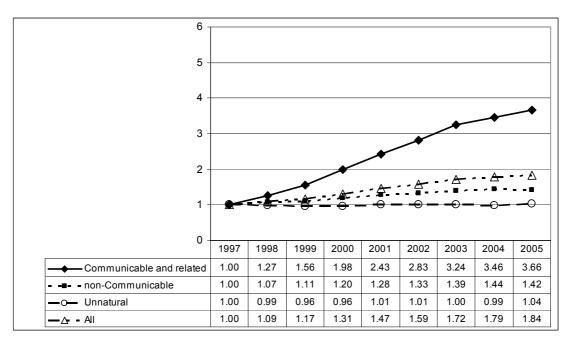


Figure 41. Male age-standardised death rates from the three Global Burden of Disease categories, age 15-64, relative to value in 1997 (1997 Value=1.00): 1997-2005

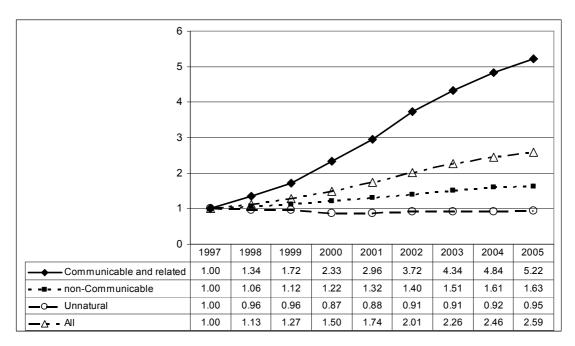


Figure 42. Female age-standardised death rates from the three Global Burden of Disease categories, age 15-64, relative to value in 1997 (1997 Value=1.00): 1997-2005

Figures 43, 44 and 45 show the age-standardised death rates from communicable and related diseases (Figure 43), from non-communicable diseases (Figure 44) and from unnatural causes (Figure 45) by sex for the younger ages (age 15-39) and for the older ages (age 40-64).

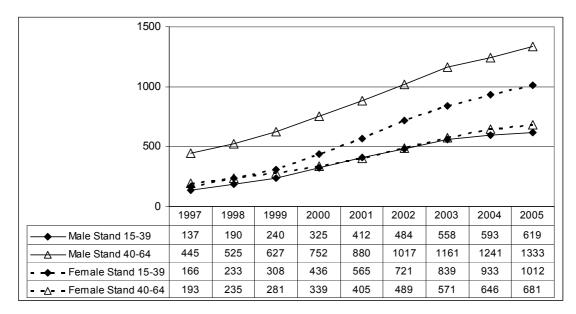


Figure 43. Age-standardised death rates per 100,000 from communicable and related diseases by sex, age 15-39 and age 40-64: 1997-2005

The age-standardised death rates from communicable diseases for males age 40-64 and for females age 15-39 rose more rapidly than for the younger males or the older females, although the rates for older males remained the highest, and the gap between the rate for the older males and the younger females remained almost constant.

Older males also maintained the highest age-standardised rates from non-communicable diseases, followed by older females. However, the gap between the rate for older males and for older females increased over time. Younger males and females had much lower rates, and the rate for younger females gradually increased compared to that for younger males over time.

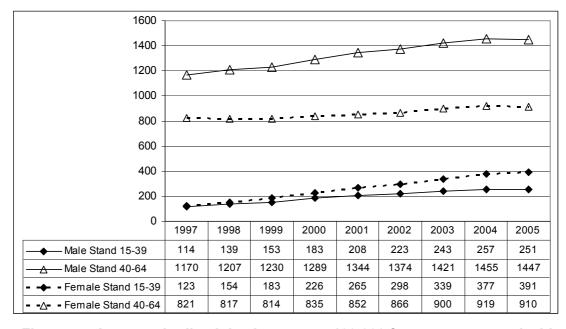


Figure 44. Age-standardised death rates per 100,000 from non-communicable diseases by sex, age 15-39 and age 40-64: 1997-2005

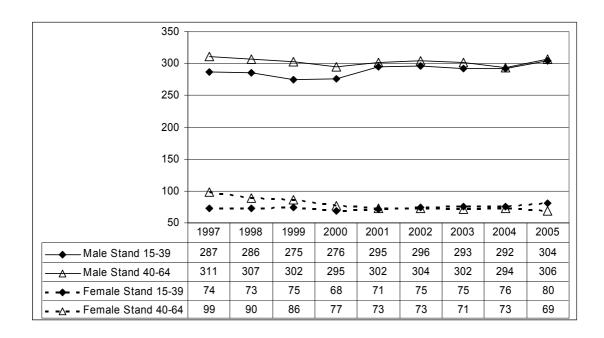


Figure 45. Age-standardised death rates per 100,000 from unnatural causes by sex, age 15-39 and age 40-64: 1997-2005

Comments

It is clear that communicable and related diseases are the major cause of increasing mortality for both sexes in South Africa. For males, unnatural causes of death dominate at the younger ages at all dates, and for both sexes non-communicable causes of death dominate at the older ages. However, the range of ages in which communicable and related diseases dominate has increased over time. Although the importance of communicable and related diseases should not be underestimated, unnatural causes of death and non-communicable diseases are still the most important causes of death in some age ranges and should not be ignored out of exclusive concern with communicable and related diseases.

It is interesting that at the younger ages, female death rates from both communicable and related diseases and from non-communicable diseases in both 1997 and 2005 are higher than male rates at the same ages. Further research is warranted to understand the mortality situation at the younger ages according to sex.

MORTALITY SCENARIOS

We now examine three different mortality scenarios. In each scenario we vary one aspect of the mortality situation in 2005, unnatural cause mortality, mortality from communicable and related diseases, or mortality from non-communicable diseases. In each scenario we leave the other two components of the global burden of disease framework at their 2005 level.⁶

_

⁶ We follow the approach of Preston, Heuveline and Guillot (2001: 75-76) in calculating the effects of eliminating a given cause of death or of changing the impact of a particular cause of death.

The first scenario is what mortality conditions would look like in 2005 if there were *no* unnatural deaths. South Africa is well-known for having high death rates from unnatural causes, and it is interesting to know what the impact would be if death rates from unnatural causes were not just low, but were zero.

In the second scenario, we leave unnatural cause death rates and non-communicable cause death rates unchanged, but we examine the impact on mortality if communicable and related death rates in 2005 had the values by age and sex that they had in 1997.

In the third scenario, we calculate what mortality would have looked like in 2005 if non-communicable mortality had been at the level by age and sex that it was in 1997, but the other two components were unchanged.

Figures 46 and 47 show the actual death rates by age in 1997 and 2005. They also show what the death rates in 2005 would have been under each of the three scenarios.

For both males and females returning to the communicable disease death rates of 1997 (Scenario 2) would have had the greatest effect on lowering death rates by age. For males, eliminating all unnatural deaths (Scenario 1) and returning death rates from non-communicable diseases to their 1997 values (Scenario 3) would have had almost identical effects on male death rates by age. For females, eliminating unnatural deaths (Scenario 1) would have had almost no effect on death rates by age. Above age 55, returning to the 1997 non-communicable disease situation (Scenario 3) results in higher death rates by age for females, because at those ages non-communicable disease death rates declined between 1997 and 2005.

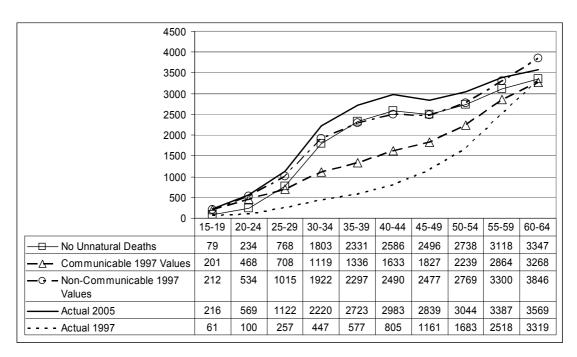


Figure 46. Male death rates by age per 100,000 according to three scenarios: 2005

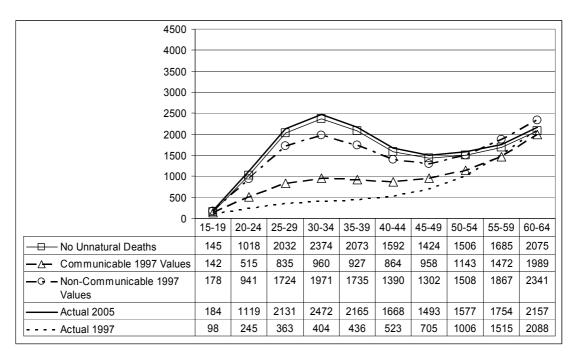


Figure 47. Female death rates by age per 100,000 according to three scenarios: 2005

Figures 48 and 49 show under the three scenarios and for the actual situations in 1997 and 2005 the number of survivors to given ages out of 100,000 on their 15th birthday. Below age 35, for males Scenario 1 (eliminating unnatural deaths) gives the best survival of all the alternatives considered. Above age 35, the actual 1997 situation yields the best survival, followed by Scenario 2 (communicable disease mortality at its 1997 level). Scenario 1 always results in better survival than Scenario 3. This is because unnatural deaths are common among the young and preventing deaths at young ages improves survival for all the rest of life. For females, only below age 25 does Scenario 1 yield the best survival. After that the actual 1997 situation has the best survival, followed by Scenario 2.

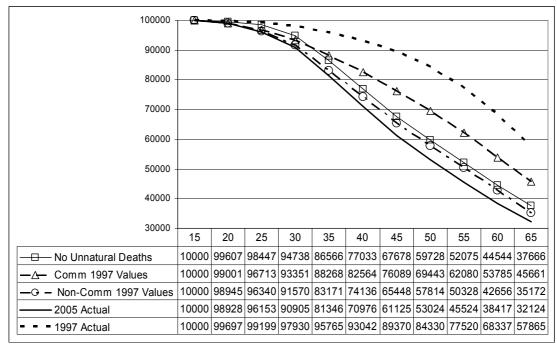


Figure 48. Male survivors to given ages out of 100,000 on their 15th birthday, according to three scenarios: 2005

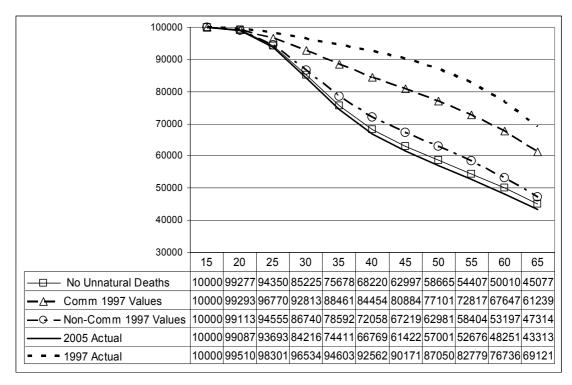


Figure 49. Female survivors to given ages out of 100,000 on their 15th birthday, according to three scenarios: 2005

By looking at Figures 48 and 49 and mentally drawing a vertical line at age 40, we can see the effects of the various scenarios on survival to age 40 among those who are alive on their 15th birthday. For both males and females the ordering of the effects of the scenarios is unchanged from when we looked at survival from age 15 to 65. However, for both sexes, the relative effects for survival from age 15 to age 40 are greater than for survival from age 15 to 65.

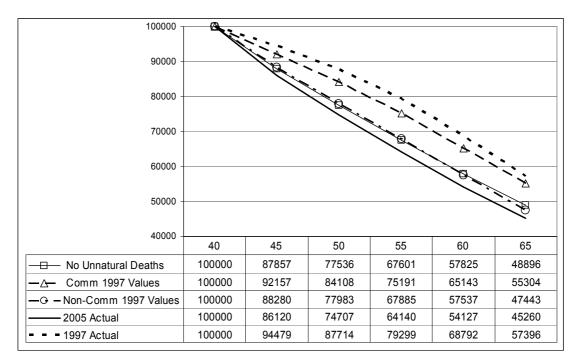


Figure 50. Male survivors to given ages out of 100,000 on their 40th birthday, according to three scenarios: 2005

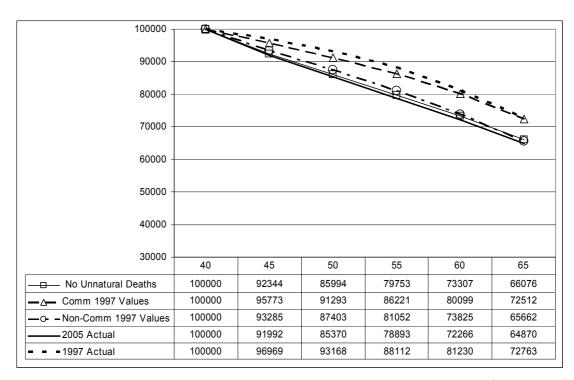


Figure 51. Female survivors to given ages out of 100,000 on their 40th birthday, according to three scenarios: 2005

Figures 50 and 51 show the number of survivors to various ages out of 100,000 persons alive on their 40th birthday under the three scenarios and also with the actual mortality situation in 1997 and in 2005. The various scenarios make less difference for female survival from age 40 to 65 for females than for males. This is because there was relatively less change in female mortality between age 40 and 65 1997-2005 than in male mortality.

Figures 50 and 51 also make clear how very much better female survival between age 40 and 65 was than male survival between age 40 and 65. The best situation for males shown in Figure 50 is the 1997 actual mortality situation, in which 57.4% of those alive at age 40 were still alive at age 65. In Figure 51 the worst survival scenario for females was the actual 2005 mortality situation, in which 65.3% of females survived from age 40 to age 65 – a considerably higher percentage than the best survival situation for males.

Table 1 shows the effects of the three scenarios on the number of years lived age between the 15th and the 65th birthday. For years lived from the 15th birthday, this is shown among those alive on their 15th birthday. For years lived between the 40th and 65th birthday, this is shown for those who survive to the 40th birthday, Then it shows the increase in the percentage surviving to the 65th birthday over the actual 2005 situation and the increase in the number of years lived age 15-65 compared to what was implied by the actual 2005 mortality situation. This is also shown for the 15-40 and the 40-65 age segments.

Table 1. Years lived in given age groups and increase in years lived according to three scenarios compared with actual mortality: 2005

Male	Years Lived 15-65	Increase in Years Lived 15-65 Compared to Actual 2005	Years Lived 15-40	Increase in Years Lived 15-40 Compared to Actual 2005	Years Lived 40-65	Increase in Years Lived 40-65 Compared to Actual 2005
No unnatural Deaths	37.5	2.4	23.4	0.7	18.3	0.7
1997 Communicable & related death rates	39.7	4.6	23.4	0.7	19.7	2.1
1997 Non- communicable death rates	36.4	1.3	22.9	0.2	18.3	0.7
Actual 2005	35.1		22.7		17.6	
Female						
No unnatural Deaths	36.1	0.6	22.1	0.2	20.7	0.2
1997 communicable & related death rates	42.1	6.6	23.5	1.6	22.0	1.5
1997 Non- communicable death rates	37.3	1.8	22.3	0.4	20.9	0.4
Actual 2005	35.5		21.9		20.5	

Mba (2000) estimated that the effect on years lived from the 15th to the 65th birthday of eliminating unnatural deaths for both sexes combined would be an increase of 1.97 years. Our estimates are generally consistent with that result.

Table 1 is helpful in putting the impact of mortality change 1997-2005 in perspective. Scenario 2 – returning to the 1997 mortality situation for communicable and related diseases – would have the largest impact on years lived for each sex for

most age segments. However, for males 15-40, eliminating unnatural deaths and returning to the 1997 communicable and related diseases situation would have the same impact on the number of years lived between age 15 and 40. This is because deaths at relatively young ages within an age interval have a much larger impact on the number of years lived in the age interval than do deaths at older ages in an age interval, and unnatural deaths tend to come at young ages within the15-39 age range.

CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

South Africa is a member of a select but undesirable group of countries. McMichael *et al.* (2004: 1156) list 21 countries in which life expectancy at birth (both sexes combined) declined by 4 years or more between 1990 and 2001. This was looking at changes in mortality from all causes. The 21 countries include South Africa. All of the 21 countries are either in Africa or were formerly part of the Soviet Union. It is hoped that this report provides information and interpretations that will be helpful in understanding mortality change in South Africa and elsewhere.

Even though by the World Bank definition South Africa is an intermediate income country, it shares many mortality risks and challenges with other developing countries and especially with other sub-Saharan African countries. We hope that the patterns found will be helpful not just for understanding South Africa but will contribute to the understanding of sub-Saharan Africa more generally.

REFERENCES

Abid, A., Jamoussi, H., Kammoun, H., Blouza, S., and Nagati, K. 2000. "Relation entre l'obesite et le diabete (The relationship between obesity and diabetes)," *Cahiers du Medecin*, 3: 22-24.

Anderson, Barbara A., and Liu, Jinyun. 1997. "Son preference and excess female infant mortality among Koreans and non-Koreans in Yanbian Prefecture, Jilin Province, China, with implications for the Republic of Korea," in Doo-Sub Kim and Barbara A. Anderson, Eds. *Population process and dynamics for Koreans in Korea and China*. Seoul: Hanyang University Press: 189-243.

Anderson, Barbara A., and Phillips, Heston E. 2006. *Adult mortality (age 15-64) based on death notification data in South Africa: 1997-2004. Report No. 03-09-05.* Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

Anderson, Barbara A., and Silver, Brian D. 1986. "Sex differentials in mortality in the Soviet Union: Regional differences in length of working life in comparative perspective," *Population Studies*, 40: 191-214.

Anderson, Barbara A., and Silver, Brian D. 1994. "Ethnicity and mortality in northern China," 1990 Population Census of China--Proceedings of international seminar, Beijing: China Statistical Publishing House: 752-772.

Bah, S. M., 1993. "Social pathologies in Zimbabwe," *Central African Journal of Medicine*, 39: 201-213.

Beaton, G. 1997. "Prevention and the role of nutrition," SCN News, 14:14-17.

Bourne, L. T., Lambert, E. V., and Steyn, K. 2002. "Where does the black population of South Africa stand on the nutrition transition?" *Public Health Nutrition*, 5 (1A): 157-162.

Bradshaw, Debbie, Schneider, Michelle, Dorrington, Rob, Bourne, David E., and Laubscher, Ria. 2002. "South African cause-of-death profile in transition – 1996 and future trends," *South African Medical Journal*, 92: 618-623.

Bradshaw, Debbie, Groenewald, Pam, Laubscher, Ris, Nannan, Nadine, Nojilana, Beatrice, Norman, Rosana, Pieterse, Desiree, and Schneider, Michelle. 2003. *Initial burden of disease estimates for South Africa, 2000.* Cape Town: South African Medical Research Council.

Coale, A. J., and Li., S. 1991. "The effect of age misreporting in China on the calculation of mortality rates at very high ages," *Demography*. 28: 293-301.

Colombia. 2005. *Colombia, a positive country*. Available at http://www.embcol.or.at/Colombia/2005/febrero/04022005_ing.htm Accessed on March 17, 2006.

Demko, George J., Ioffe, Grigory, and Zayonchkovskaya, Zhanna. Eds. 1999. *Population under duress: The geodemography of post-Soviet Russia*. Boulder: Westview.

Dorrington, R., Bradshaw, D., Laubscher, R., and Timaeus, I. M. 2001. *The impact of HIV/AIDS on adult mortality in South Africa*. Cape Town: South African Medical Research Council.

D'Souza, Stan, and Chen, Lincoln C. 1980. "Sex differences in mortality in rural Bangladesh." *Population and Development Review,* 6: 257-270.

Dwyer, T., Blizzard, L., Shugg, D., Hill, D., and Ansari, M. Z. 1994. "Higher lung cancer rates in young women than young men: Tasmania, 1983 to 1992," *Cancer Causes Control*, 5: 351-358.

Dyson, T., and Moore, M. 1983. "On kinship structure, female autonomy, and demographic behavior in India," *Population and Development Review*, 9: 35-60.

Gunawardene, N. 1999. "Sri Lanka's double burden kills rich and poor alike," *Health for the Millions*, 25: 27.

Gwatkin, D. R. 1980. "Indications of change in developing country mortality trends: the end of an era?" *Population and Development Review*, 6: 615-644.

Hosegood, Victoria, Vanneste, Anna-Maria, and Timaeus, Ian M. 2004. "Levels and causes of adult mortality in rural South Africa: the impact of AIDS," *AIDS*, 18: 663-671.

Hunter, S., and Williamson, J. 2000. *Children on the brink: Updated estimates & recommendations for intervention.* United States Agency for International Development (USAID). Washington, D.C.: The Synergy Project.

IARC (International Agency for Research on Cancer). 1997. Epstein-Barr virus and Kaposi's sarcoma virus/human herpesvirus 8. IARC Monographs on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans, 67. Lyon: IARC.

Jemal, Ahmedin, Travis, William D., Tarone, Robert E., Travis, Lois, and Devesa, Susan S. 2003. "Lung cancer rates convergence in young men and women in the United States: An analysis by birth cohort and histologic type," *International Journal of Cancer*, 105: 101-107.

Jung, R. T. 1997. "Obesity as a disease," British Medical Bulletin, 53: 307-321.

Kurylowicz, W., and Kopczynski, J. 1986. "Diseases of civilization, today and tomorrow," *World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 2: 253-265.

Levitt, N. S., Bradshaw, D., Zwarenstein, M. F., Bawa, A. A., and Maphumolo, S. 1997. "Audit of public sector primary diabetes care in Cape Town, South Africa: High prevalence of complications, uncontrolled hyperglycaemia, and hypertension," *Diabetes Medicine*, 14: 1073-1077.

Mathers, Colin D., Bernard, Christina, Iburg, Kim Moesgaard,, Inoue, Mie, Fat, Doris Ma, Shibuya, Kenji, Stein, Claudia, Tomijina, Niels, and Xu, Hongyi. 2003. *Global burden of disease in 2002: Data sources, methods and results.* Global Programme on Evidence for Health Policy Discussion Paper No. 54, (December). Geneva: World Health Organization.

Mba, Chuks J. 2000. "The impact of external causes on South Africa's expectation of life," *African Population Studies*. Supplement B to Volume 19: 165-177.

McKee, Martin, and Shkolnikov, Vladimir. 2001. "Understanding the toll of premature death among men in eastern Europe," *British Medical Journal*, 323: 1051-1055.

McMichael, Anthony J., McKee, Martin, Shkolnikov, Vladimir, and Valkonen, Tapani. 2004. "Mortality trends and setbacks: Global convergence or divergence?" *Lancet*, 363: 1155-1159.

Miller, B. D. 1981. *The endangered sex*. Ithaca: Cornell University Press.

Mitchell, Faith. Ed. 1997. *Premature death in the new independent states.* Washington: National Academy Press.

Nizard, A., and Munoz-Perez, F. 1993. "Alcool, tabac et mortalite en France depuis 1950: incidence de la consommation d'alcool et de tabac sur la mortalite (Alcohol, tobacco, and mortality in France since 1950: the effects on mortality of alcohol consumption and smoking)," *Population*, 48: 975-1014.

Peto, Richard, Lopez, Alan D., Boreham, Jillian, Thun, Michael, and Heath, Clark. 1994. *Mortality from smoking in developed countries 1950-2000: Indirect estimates from national vital statistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Philips Heston E., Anderson, Barbara A., and Tsebe, N. Phindiwe. 2003. "Sex ratios in South African censuses 1970-1996," *Development Southern Africa*, 20: 387-404.

Popkin, B., Zohoori, N., Kohlmeier, L., Baturin, A., Martinchik, A., and Deev, A. 1997. "Nutritional Risk Factors in the Former Soviet Union," in F. Mitchell, Ed., *Premature death in the new independent states*. Washington, D.C., National Academy Press: 314-334.

Preston, S. H. 1970. *Older male mortality and cigarette smoking: A demographic analysis*. Population Monograph #7, Institute of International Studies, Berkeley: University of California-Berkeley.

Preston, Samuel H., Heuveline, Patrick, and Guillot, Michel. 2001. *Demography: Measuring and modeling population processes*. Malden, Massachusetts: Blackwell.

Puoane, Thandi, Steyn, Krisela, Bradshaw, Debbie, Laubscher, Ria, Fourie, Jean, and Lambert, Ria. 2002. "Obesity in South Africa: The South African Demographic and Health Survey," *Obesity Research*, 10: 1038-1048.

Rosenwaike, I., and Preston., S. H. 1984. "Age overstatement and Puerto Rican longevity," *Human Biology*. 56: 503-525.

Shigan, E. N. 1988. "Integrated programme for noncommunicable diseases prevention and control (NCD)," *World Health Statistics Quarterly*, 41: 267-273.

Shkolnikov, V. M., and Mesle, F. 1996. "The Russian epidemiological crisis as mirrored by mortality trends," in J. DaVanzo, Ed., *Russia's demographic "crisis.*" Conference Report CF-124-CRES. Santa Monica: RAND: 113-161.

Shkolnikov, V. M., Mesle, F., and Vallin, J. 1997. "Recent trends in life expectancy and causes of death in Russia, 1970-1993," in J. L. Bobadilla, C. A. Costello and F. Mitchell, Eds., *Premature death in the new independent states*. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press: 34-54.

South Africa. 2006. *Government's Programme of Action – 2006; Social cluster.* Available at http://www.info.gov.za/aboutgovt/poa/report/social.htm Accessed on April 14, 2006.

South Africa, Department of Health. 2002. *South Africa Demographic and Health Survey 1998: Full Report.* Pretoria: Department of Health.

South Africa, Department of Health. 2004. *Report: National HIV and Syphilis Antenatal Sero-Prevalence Survey in South Africa 2003*. Pretoria: Department of Health. Available at http://www.doh.gov Accessed on March 9, 2006.

South Africa, Department of Health. 2005a. *Report: National HIV and syphilis Antenatal Sero-Prevalence Survey in South Africa 2004*. Pretoria: Department of Health. Available at http://www.doh.gov Accessed on March 9, 2006.

South Africa, Department of Health. 2005b. *National guideline on primary prevention of chronic diseases of lifestyle (CDL)*. Pretoria: Department of Health. Available at http://www.doh.gov Accessed on April 12, 2006

Statistics South Africa. 2000. *Recorded deaths, 1996*. Report No. 03-09-01 (1996). Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

Tabutin, Dominique. 1992. "Excess female mortality in northern Africa since 1965: A description," *Population: An English Selection*, 4: 187-208.

Temple, N. J., Steyn, K., Hoffman, M., Levitt, N.S., and Lombard, C. J. 2001. "The epidemic of obesity in South Africa: a study in a disadvantaged community," *Ethnicity & Disease*, 11: 431-437.

Tierney, E. F., Geiss, L. S., Engelgau, M. M., Thompson, T. J., Schaubert, D., Shireley, L. A., Vukelic, P. J., and McDonough, S. L. 2001. "Population-Based estimates of mortality associated with diabetes: Use of a death certificate check box in North Dakota," *American Journal of Public Health*, 91: 84-92.

Tollman, Stephen M., Kahna, Kathleen, Garenne, Michel, and Gear, John S. S. 1999. "Reversal in mortality trends: Evidence from the Agincourt field site, South Africa, 1992-1995," *AIDS*, 13: 1901-1097.

United Nations. 1982. *Model life tables for developing countries*. New York: United Nations.

Waldron, I. 1986. "The contribution of smoking to sex differentials in mortality," *Public Health Reports*, 101: 163-173.

Walker, A. R. 1996. "Urbanisation of developing populations: What are the health/ill-health prospects regarding diseases of prosperity?" *Urbanisation and Health Newsletter*, Sep. (30): 20-28.

World Health Organization. 1998. Report of a World Health Organization consultation on obesity: Obesity, prevention and managing the global epidemic, Report WHO/NUT/NCD/98.1. Geneva: World Health Organization.

World Health Organization. 1999. *The World Health Report 1999: Making a difference*. Geneva: World Health Organization.

World Health Organization. 2005. *World Malaria Report 2005*. Report of the roll back malaria program. Available at http://rbm.who.int/wmr2005/html Accessed on April12 2006.

World Health Organization. 2006. WHO Mortality Database Available at http://www3.who.int/whosis/menu.cfm?path=whosis,mort&language=english Accessed on March 15, 2006

Zhang, X. H., Sasaki, S., and Kesteloot, H. 1995. "The sex ratio of mortality and its secular trends," *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 24: 720-729.

Zohoori, N., Mroz, T. A., Popkin, B., Glinskaya, E., Lokshin, M., Mancini, D., Kozyreva, P., Kosolapov, M., and Swafford, M., 1998. "Monitoring the Economic transition in the Russian Federation and its implications for the demographic crisisthe Russian Longitudinal Monitoring Survey," *World Development*, 26: 1977-1993.