LIVING CONDITIONS SURVEY 2008/2009

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Men, Women and Children

Findings of the Living Conditions Survey 2008/2009

Statistics South Africa, 2013
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Preface

This report presents a selection of findings and tables based on the data that were collected by Stats SA through the Living Conditions Survey (LCS) 2008/2009 that was carried out during the period September 2008 and August 2009. The report seeks to understand the differences between the adult and child populations through profiling their living circumstances and levels of poverty. Special focus is given to the differences between males and females.

This report is the result of a collaborative effort between Stats SA and UNICEF. It has also benefited from the inputs made by the Centre for the Analysis of South African Social Policy (CASASP) surrounding the multidimensional aspect of poverty.

Introduction

Poverty is a key development problem in social, economic and political terms. In post-apartheid South Africa, fighting the legacy of poverty and under-development has always been a central theme of Government. Hence, the demand for regular, quality poverty data to inform Government's planning and actions is extremely high. In order to provide such data, Stats SA developed and implemented a multi-topic, user-guided poverty survey known as the Living Conditions Survey (LCS). The first LCS was conducted between September 2008 and August 2009.

At present, three reports have been published using the LCS 2008/2009 data, namely a statistical release (published in September 2011) and two poverty reports (both published in November 2012). In the poverty profile report (Report No. 03-10-03 2008/2009), the country's poverty profile is established using the three national poverty lines developed by Stats SA for statistical reporting in 2008. Table 1 shows the Foster-Greer-Thorbecke (FGT) poverty measures for the country at each poverty line. Using the upper-bound poverty line which takes into consideration both food and non-food needs, approximately 52,3% of the population was living below that line during the time of the survey.

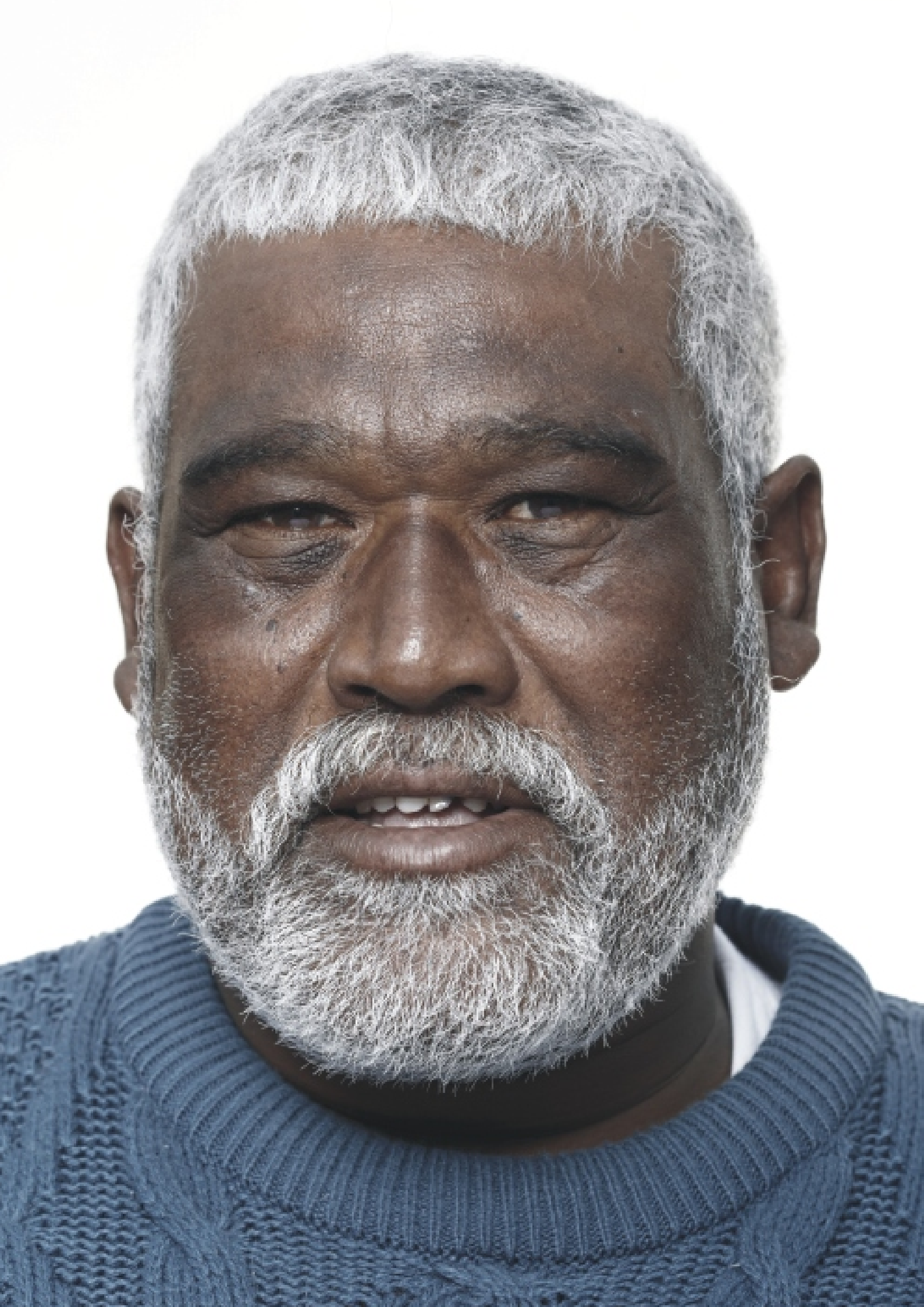
Table 1: Key poverty indicators using national poverty lines

Poverty line	Poverty headcount (P_0)	Poverty gap (P_1)	Severity of poverty (P_2)
Food poverty line (R305 in 2009 prices) per capita per month	26,3	8,5	3,8
Lower-bound poverty line (R416 in 2009 prices) per capita per month	38,9	15,0	7,5
Upper-bound poverty line (R577 in 2009 prices) per capita per month	52,3	23,6	13,3

This report is the fourth publication that applies the findings of Stats SA's first poverty survey. Men, Women and Children (MW&C) profiles poverty across two distinct segments of society, namely adults (18 and older) and children (17 and younger). Contained within these profiles is a detailed examination of differences across key demographic (sex, age and population group) and geographic (province and settlement type) variables. The findings of this report will help identify groups within the population that are most affected by the scourge of poverty and how it manifests itself in their living circumstances.

As the report will examine and explore in more detail, women remain more impoverished than men in South Africa regardless of population group or location. Meanwhile, child poverty is much higher than poverty among adults and the general population.

MEN AND WOMEN



Overview

The adult population

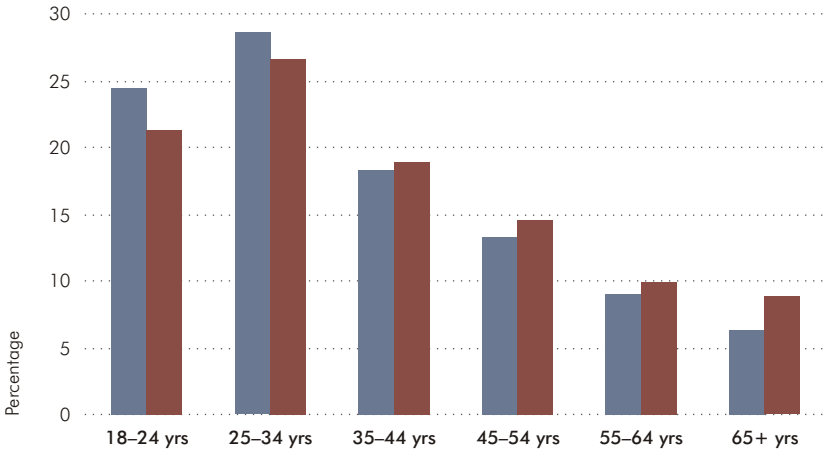
Table 2: Percentage distribution of adults by population group and sex

		Sex	
Population group	**Total (%)**	**Male (%)**	**Female (%)**
Black African	75,8	46,4	53,6
Coloured	9,6	46,9	53,1
Indian/Asian	3,0	49,2	50,8
White	11,5	48,4	51,6
Total	**100,0**	**46,7**	**53,3**

The LCS 2008/2009 estimated that there was a total of 30,1 million adults in the country (those individuals aged 18 and older) out of a total population of 48,9 million. Three-quarters (75,8%) of the adult population were black African, with approximately one in ten being white (11,5%) or coloured (9,6%). The remaining 3,0% were Indian/Asian.

The survey also found that there were more female adults (53,3%) than male adults (46,7%). As Table 2 shows, this was true across all population groups.

Figure 1: Percentage distribution of adults by age cohort and sex



	18–24 yrs	25–34 yrs	35–44 yrs	45–54 yrs	55–64 yrs	65+ yrs
Male	24,4	28,6	18,3	13,3	9,0	6,3
Female	21,3	26,6	18,9	14,5	9,9	8,8

Figure 1 indicates that more than half (53,1%) of the male adult population was between the ages of 18 and 34, true for less than half (47,9%) of female adults. In contrast, women were more likely than men to be found in the older age cohorts, indicating their propensity to live longer than men. A third (33,2%) of women were aged 55 and older as compared to 28,6% of men.

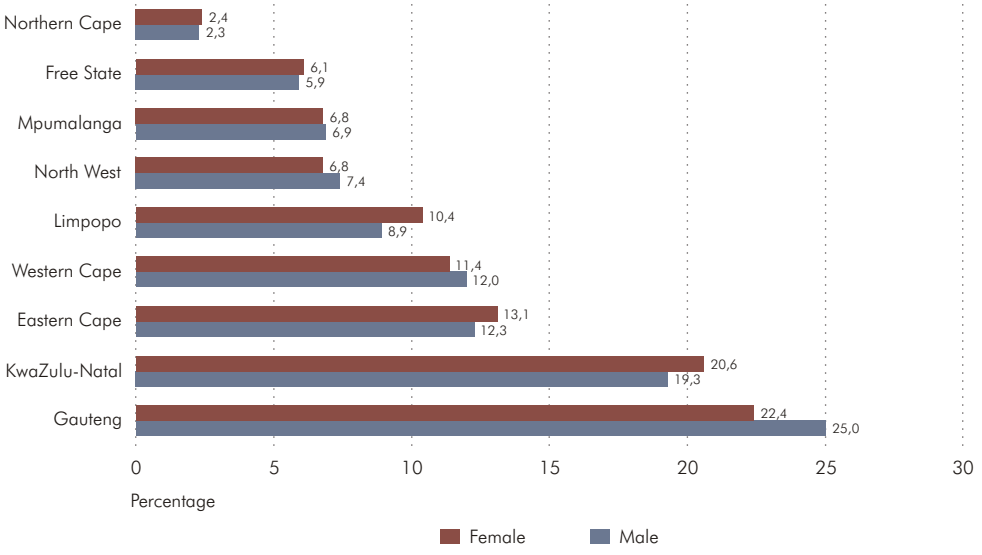
In terms of the areas where adults were living, almost six out of every ten (58,4%) were in urban formal areas with a further 8,4% in urban informal areas. In other words, two-thirds (66,8%) of all adults were living in urban areas. The other third were living in rural areas, with more than a quarter (28,8%) found to be living in traditional areas and 4,4% in rural formal areas.

Table 3: Percentage distribution of adults by settlement type and sex

		Sex	
Settlement type	**Total (%)**	**Male (%)**	**Female (%)**
Urban formal	58,4	59,8	57,2
Urban informal	8,4	9,2	7,8
Traditional	28,8	26,0	31,3
Rural formal	4,4	5,1	3,7
Total	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**

Table 3 shows that male adults (69,0%) were more likely to be in urban areas than their female counterparts (65,0%). On the other hand, a higher proportion of women (31,3%) was living in traditional areas as compared with men (26,0%).

Figure 2: Percentage distribution of adults by province and sex



Gauteng (23,6%), KwaZulu-Natal (20,0%) and Eastern Cape (12,7%) were the most populated provinces, accounting for well over half of all adults. A higher proportion of men (25,0%) than women (22,4%) was found in Gauteng, reflecting the "urban pull" of potentially better economic opportunities available.

Numerically, women were in the majority across all nine provinces. Even in Gauteng, where the proportion of women was lowest, 50,4% of all adults were women. At the other end of the scale, in Limpopo (where Figure 2 indicates that 10,4% of all women reside), 57,2% of all adults were women.

Household characteristics

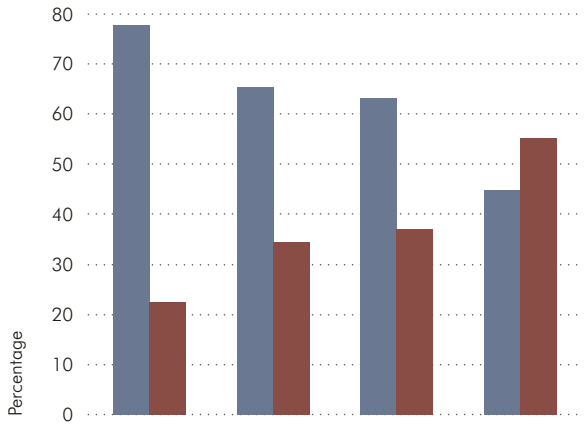
Table 4: Percentage distribution of households by population group and sex of household head

Population group of household head	Total (%)	Sex of household head	
		Male (%)	Female (%)
Black African	76,8	56,2	43,8
Coloured	8,2	66,0	34,0
Indian/Asian	2,5	75,1	24,9
White	12,5	77,7	22,3
Total	**100,0**	**60,2**	**39,8**

The LCS 2008/2009 estimated that there was a total of 12,6 million households in South Africa. Of the total number of households, slightly more than three-quarters (76,8%) of the households were headed by black Africans. Approximately one in eight (12,5%) households was headed by whites with less than one in ten (8,2%) households headed by coloureds. Only 2,5% were headed by Indians/Asians.

The majority of households in South Africa were headed by men, with six out of every ten (60,2%) households being male-headed as opposed to four out of every ten (39,8%) being female-headed. While less than a quarter of white (22,3%) and Indian/Asian (24,9%) households were headed by women, this was the case for more than a third (34,0%) of coloured-headed households and more than two-fifths (43,8%) of black African-headed households.

Figure 3: Percentage distribution of households by settlement type and sex of household head

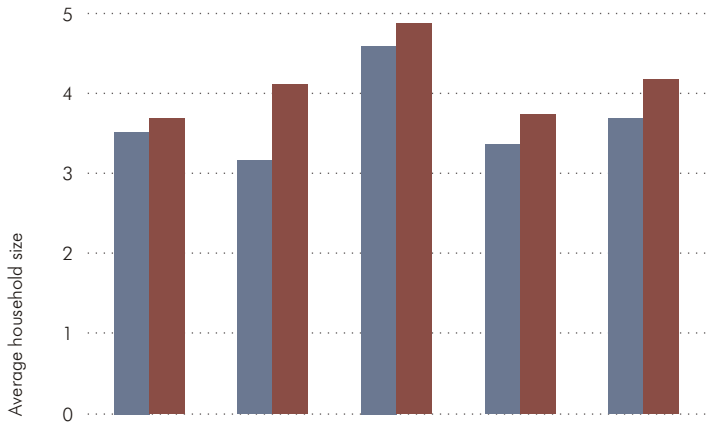


	Rural formal	Urban formal	Urban informal	Traditional area
Male	77,6	65,5	63,1	44,8
Female	22,4	34,5	36,9	55,2

More than two-thirds (67,9%) of all households were located in urban areas (9,3% located in informal areas), more than a quarter (27,5%) in traditional areas and 4,6% in rural formal areas. Households in rural and urban formal areas, as well as those in urban informal areas, were mainly headed by men. Figure 3 shows that more than three-quarters (77,6%) of all households in rural formal areas were headed by men while approximately two-thirds of households in urban formal areas (65,5%) and urban informal areas (63,1%) were also found to be headed by men. In contrast, female-headed households were in the majority in traditional areas, where more than half (55,2%) of all households were headed by women.

The survey found the average household size in South Africa to be 3,89. This average varied across the different population groups with white-headed households showing the smallest average household size at 2,90. Indian/Asian-headed households had an average size of 3,99 with a similar average size of 4,01 found in black African-headed households. Coloured-headed households were largest with an average size of 4,23.

Figure 4: Average household size by settlement type and sex of household head



	Urban formal	Urban informal	Traditional area	Rural formal	Total
Male	3,52	3,16	4,59	3,36	3,69
Female	3,69	4,11	4,88	3,74	4,18

Figure 4 shows that for all households the average household size was higher in female-headed households (4,18) than in male-headed households (3,69). This trend can be seen across all settlement types. The largest average household size was found to be amongst female-headed households in traditional areas at 4,88.

Not only were female-headed households seen to be larger, they were also more intricate in their structure. Table 5 shows that, across all households, one in six (16,9%) was a single-member household. Two-fifths (39,4%) of all households were found to be nuclear in type – defined as households consisting of heads of households, their spouses and offspring – while a similar proportion (37,1%) of all households were classified as extended (these would typically include other relatives in addition to the nucleus). Only 4% of all households were found to be complex – these are households where some of the members are not related to the head of the household at all.

Table 5: Percentage distribution of type of household by sex of household head

		Sex of household head	
Type of household	**Total (%)**	**Male (%)**	**Female (%)**
Single	16,9	18,2	14,9
Nuclear	39,4	46,7	28,4
Extended	37,1	28,6	50,0
Complex	4,0	4,1	3,8
Unspecified	2,6	2,4	2,9
Total	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**

Table 5 also highlights that the majority of male-headed households were either single-member (18,2%) or nuclear (46,7%) households. Only slightly more than a quarter (28,6%) of male-headed households were found to be extended in type. In contrast, half (50,0%) of all female-headed households were of the extended type, possibly reflecting the child-rearing role that many female heads of households tend to play (especially in traditional areas).

Household expenditure

The LCS 2008/2009 provides detailed information pertaining to the expenditure patterns of households in the country. Much of this information has already been provided in the Living Conditions Survey 2008/2009 Statistical Release (*Release No. P0310*) of September 2011. In this section, we take an in-depth look at the expenditure patterns across male and female-headed households.

Table 6: Average annual household consumption expenditure by sex and population group of household head and settlement type

		Sex of household head	
	Average expenditure (R)	Male (R)	Female (R)
All households	71 910	86 219	50 310
Black African	43 478	48 124	37 517
Coloured	80 786	88 721	65 399
Indian/Asian	147 851	162 092	104 851
White	225 874	239 837	177 361
Urban informal	26 671	26 890	26 296
Traditional	30 625	33 448	28 332
Rural formal	48 751	54 029	30 515
Urban formal	100 290	115 216	71 921

The average annual household expenditure in South Africa during the period September 2008 to August 2009 was R71 910. As Table 6 shows, this figure was far higher for male-headed households at R86 219 than for female-headed households at R50 310. What is also evident in Table 6 are the significant differences in average household expenditure across the population groups. Average annual expenditure for black African-headed households was R43 478, just over half of that for coloured-headed households at R80 786. Indian/Asian-headed households spent an average of R147 851 for that year, whilst white-headed households had the highest average expenditure of R225 874.

The pattern, where female-headed households had lower expenditure than their male counterparts, was found across all population groups. At the one end of the scale, white male-headed households had an average expenditure of R239 837. This was more than 35% higher than that of white female-headed households at R177 361. At the other end of the scale, the average expenditure for black African male-headed households was R48 124. While this was only a fifth of their white male counterparts, it was 28% higher than the average for black African female-headed households, which was only R37 517 per annum. So not only are female-headed households generally bigger and more intricate in their structure, but they also have less resources available to spend on their household.

Having looked at the average levels of household expenditure, attention is now given to what money is being spent on. The LCS 2008/2009 found that a quarter (24,9%) of annual consumption expenditure went toward housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels. This was followed by expenditure on food and non-alcoholic beverages (19,3%), transport (15,3%) and miscellaneous goods and services (14,9%). Taken together, these four main expenditure groups accounted for three-quarters (74,4%) of all household expenditure.

Table 7: Average annual household consumption expenditure by sex of household head and main expenditure groups

	Male-headed household		Female-headed household	
	Average (R)	Proportion (%)	Average (R)	Proportion (%)
Food and non-alcoholic beverages*	14 857	17,2	12 492	24,8
Alcoholic beverages and tobacco	944	1,1	329	0,7
Clothing and footwear	3 919	4,5	2 801	5,6
Housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels	21 799	25,3	12 071	24,0
Furnishings, household equipment and routine maintenance of the dwelling	4 433	5,1	2 995	6,0
Health	1 077	1,2	759	1,5
Transport	14 303	16,6	5 960	11,8
Communication	2 947	3,4	1 645	3,3
Recreation and culture	3 969	4,6	1 711	3,4
Education	2 527	2,9	1 210	2,4
Restaurants and hotels	2 065	2,4	1 141	2,3
Miscellaneous goods and services	13 208	15,3	6 950	13,8
Unclassified items	170	0,2	247	0,5
Total	**86 219**	**100,0**	**50 310**	**100,0**

* Using adjusted values

The different expenditure patterns for male and female-headed households can be seen in Table 7. While the actual average amount spent on food and non-alcoholic beverages is not that dissimilar, in female-headed households this is the largest expenditure group accounting for a quarter (24,8%) of all expenditure. In contrast, male-headed households spent 17,2% on this group.

Another interesting contrast can be seen in the expenditure on housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels. In this instance, the proportions across male and female-headed households are similar. However, the average amount spent is quite different – male-headed households spent R21 799 on this group as compared with only R12 071 for female-headed households.

As one would expect, the expenditure levels and patterns across population groups are also very different. Households headed by black Africans were found to have an average annual expenditure of R43 478, almost half that of households headed by coloureds at R80 786. Indian/Asian-headed households had an average expenditure of R147 851 per annum, while white-headed households had the highest average at R225 874.

If one then combines the sex and population group of the household head, the different levels and patterns of expenditure become more accentuated.

Figure 5: Average annual household expenditure by sex and population group of household head and broad expenditure groups

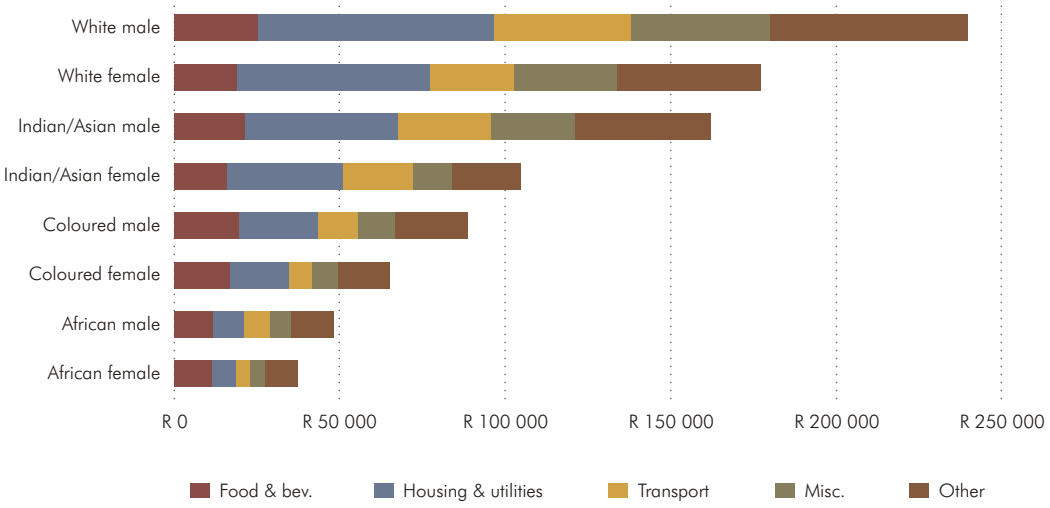


Figure 5 shows clearly that male-headed households have higher expenditure levels than their female counterparts in each population group. Looking at the broad expenditure groups, the average amount of money spent on food and non-alcoholic beverages hovers around R20 000 per annum for households headed by coloureds, Indians/Asians or whites, with male-headed households spending slightly more on this group than households headed by women. In contrast, the amount spent on this group for black African-headed households is almost half that at R11 549, with almost no difference in the average amount spent by male and female household heads.

If one focuses on the proportion of household expenditure spent on food and non-alcoholic beverages, black African female-headed households are spending over three-tenths (30,7%) of their total expenditure, while for black African male-headed households this proportion was 24,1%. For white-headed households, where the level of expenditure was greater, the proportions were very different with both female-headed (10,7%) and male-headed (10,6%) households spending a tenth of their expenditure on this group.

What Figure 5 also shows are the high levels of expenditure on other broad expenditure groups, especially amongst white and Indian/Asian households. White male-headed households spent R71 270 per annum on housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels and R59 734 on other groups that include clothing, footwear, health, education, recreation and culture and so on. Both of these amounts were larger than the total expenditure of black African-headed households.

Poverty profile

Levels of consumption expenditure can also be used to develop poverty lines. In profiling poverty, this report uses the three national poverty lines as specified in the report (Report No. 03-10-03 2008/2009) entitled "Poverty Profile of South Africa: Application of the poverty lines on the LCS 2008/2009". These lines, in March 2009 prices, are:

- Food poverty line = R305 per person per month. The food poverty line refers to the amount of money that an individual will need to consume the required minimum energy intake.
- Lower-bound poverty line = R416 per person per month. This refers to the food poverty line plus the average amount derived from non-food items of households whose total expenditure is equal to the poverty line.
- Upper-bound poverty line = R577 per person per month. This refers to the food poverty line plus the average amount derived from non-food items of households whose total food expenditure is equal to the food poverty line.

These three poverty lines have been employed for the calculation of the conventional money-metric poverty measures widely known as the Foster-Greer-Thorbecke (FGT) measures: poverty headcount, poverty gap and poverty severity. The poverty headcount (P_0) refers to the proportion of the population living below a poverty line. The poverty gap (P_1) refers to the average distance of the poor from the poverty line, with the sum of these poverty gaps reflecting the minimum cost of eliminating poverty, if transfers were perfectly targeted. The severity of poverty (P_2) is an indicator that takes account of extreme poverty by giving greater weight to those further from the poverty line. Owing to ease of interpretation, the headcount measure is predominantly used in this report.

Adult poverty

This section focuses on profiling poverty amongst all adults in South Africa, aged 18 years and older. According to the LCS 2008/2009, more than one out of every five (21,2%) adults are living below the food poverty line, a third (32,3%) are living below the lower-bound poverty line and slightly less than half (45,1%) of adults are living below the upper-bound poverty line.

Table 8 provides an analysis of the poverty headcount by sex. It shows that a higher proportion of female adults are impoverished than male adults, regardless of the poverty line that one uses. Almost five out of every ten (48,3%) female adults are living under the upper-bound poverty live, whilst the same is true for just over four out of every ten (41,5%) male adults. What is also evident is that female adults experience poverty in greater depth and severity than their male counterparts, again regardless of which poverty line is used.

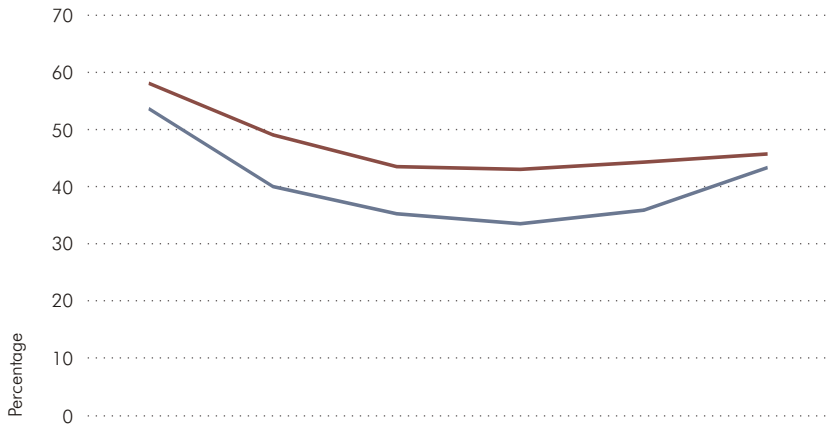
Table 8: Poverty measures of adults on the three national poverty lines by sex

		Sex of adult	
Poverty line	**All adults (18+)**	**Male**	**Female**
Food poverty			
- Headcount (P_0)	21,2	18,9	23,2
- Gap (P_1)	6,7	5,9	7,4
- Severity (P_2)	3,0	2,6	3,3
Lower bound			
- Headcount (P_0)	32,3	29,1	35,1
- Gap (P_1)	12,1	10,8	13,3
- Severity (P_2)	6,0	5,3	6,6
Upper bound			
- Headcount (P_0)	45,1	41,5	48,3
- Gap (P_1)	19,6	17,7	21,3
- Severity (P_2)	10,9	9,7	11,9

In addition to sex, population group is another factor that influences the poverty levels of adults in South Africa. If we focus solely on the upper-bound poverty line, the differences are stark. The headcount for white adults is less than one per cent (0,9%), while for Indian/Asian adults it stands at only 5,9%. In contrast, three out of every ten (29,4%) coloured adults are living below the upper-bound poverty line as are more than half (55,4%) of black African adults. Further accentuating the poverty position of black African females, we see that six out of every ten (59,1%) adults in this group are below the poverty line as compared with just over half (51,1%) of all black African male adults.

As Figure 6 highlights, age also impacts on the levels of poverty.

Figure 6: Poverty headcount by sex and age (upper-bound poverty line)



	18–24 yrs	25–34 yrs	35–44 yrs	45–54 yrs	55–64 yrs	65+ yrs
Male	53,6	40,1	35,3	33,5	36,0	43,4
Female	58,1	49,0	43,5	43,1	44,4	45,8

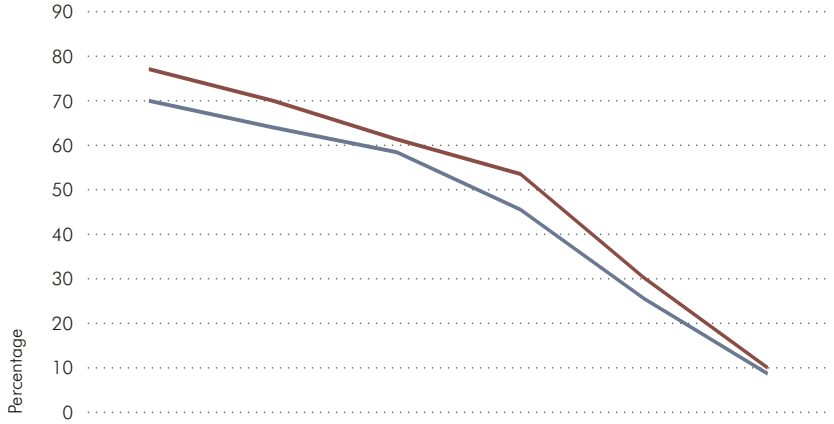
In terms of age cohorts of the adult population in South Africa, poverty is at its highest level in the 18 to 24-years age cohort. Young women showed higher levels of poverty (58,1%) than young men (53,6%) in this cohort. The situation is also compounded by the higher levels of poverty among the child population in South Africa as shall be seen in the next chapter. It highlights the struggle that the majority of the population has to wage in order to escape the trap of poverty.

Figure 6 also shows that, as adults get older, the rate of poverty drops (that is until the 45 to 54-years age cohort). This drop is more pronounced for men than for women, possibly reflecting the relative difficulty over the past few decades for women to make their way in society than for men. For male adults, the poverty headcount dropped 20 percentage points from 53,6% amongst 18 to 24-year-olds to 33,5% amongst 45 to 54-year-olds. The corresponding drop for females was only 15 percentage points to 43,1%.

After the 45 to 54-years age cohort, the rate of poverty then increases again. This is true for both men and women, although the increase for men is larger – an increase of almost 10 percentage points to the 65 and older cohort as opposed to a 2,7 percentage point increase for women.

Education is a fundamental tool in the fight against poverty. Figure 7 shows the sharp decrease in adult levels of poverty (for both men and women) as the level of education increases. For example, more than three-quarters (77,0%) of women with no formal schooling were living below the upper-bound poverty line. This dropped to just above half (53,5%) for those female adults with some secondary education, then to three-tenths (30,4%) for those with matric and to one-tenth (10,0%) for those with some post-matric qualification.

Figure 7: Poverty headcount by sex and education (upper-bound poverty line)



	No schooling	Some primary	Primary	Some secondary	Matric	Higher
Male	70,0	64,0	58,5	45,6	25,6	8,8
Female	77,0	70,0	61,3	53,5	30,4	10,0

We now look at where adult poverty is geographically located. In terms of the upper-bound poverty line, the LCS 2008/2009 found more than a quarter (27,0%) of adults living in urban formal areas to be poor. In contrast, more than half (55,1%) of those living in rural formal areas were poor as were three-fifths (61,6%) of those in urban informal areas. A staggering three-quarters (75,6%) of all adults living in traditional areas were poor.

The poverty headcount amongst women was higher in all settlement types. The difference in urban formal areas was the lowest – 24,8% of men were poor compared to 28,9% of women who were poor. In urban informal areas, the survey found 56,1% of men and 67,3% of women to be poor, while in traditional areas the headcount was 72,9% for men and 77,6% for women. In rural formal areas, half (50,2%) of the men were found to be poor compared with six out of every ten (60,9%) women.

Against the background of these poverty headcounts, it is important to look at the poverty share across the different settlement types. While the incidence of poverty was high in rural formal areas, only 5,3% of poor adults live in these areas. Approximately one in ten (11,5%) poor adults were in urban informal areas while more than a third (34,9%) were in urban formal areas, despite these areas having the lowest incidence of poverty. Reflecting the high incidence of poverty, as well as the size of the population living in these areas, almost half (48,3%) of all poor adults were found in traditional areas.

Table 9: Poverty headcount and poverty share of adults by province and sex (upper-bound poverty line)

	All adults		Men		Women	
Province	Headcount (%)	Share (%)	Headcount (%)	Share (%)	Headcount (%)	Share (%)
Western Cape	26,7	6,9	25,3	3,1	27,9	3,7
Eastern Cape	57,9	16,3	54,5	6,9	60,7	9,4
Northern Cape	52,8	2,8	50,2	1,2	55,0	1,6
Free State	51,0	6,8	48,2	2,9	53,4	3,9
KwaZulu-Natal	52,4	23,2	48,6	9,7	55,5	13,5
North West	50,2	7,9	45,0	3,5	55,2	4,5
Gauteng	24,6	12,9	23,1	6,0	26,1	6,9
Mpumalanga	54,6	8,3	50,0	3,6	58,6	4,7
Limpopo	69,5	14,9	65,4	6,0	72,6	8,9
Total	**45,1**	**100,0**	**41,5**	**43,0**	**48,3**	**57,0**

At a provincial level, Table 9 shows the headcount of adult poverty to be highest in Limpopo at 69,5%, followed by Eastern Cape (57,9%) and Mpumalanga (54,6%). Provinces with the lowest headcount of adult poverty were Gauteng (24,6%) and Western Cape (26,7%). Across all provinces, women were more likely to be poor than were the men.

In terms of poverty share, KwaZulu-Natal had the largest share with almost a quarter (23,2%) of all poor adults living in this province. This was followed by Eastern Cape (16,3%) and Limpopo (14,9%). Gauteng, which had the lowest incidence of adult poverty, had the fourth highest population of poor adults living within its borders (12,9%).[1] Table 9 again shows that women were more likely to be poor than were the men, making up 57,0% of the total poor adult population. A significant proportion (13,5%) of all poor adults in the country were women living in KwaZulu-Natal.

[1] It should be noted that the LCS 2008/2009 was weighted according to Census 2001. It is likely that this proportion would be far higher if the survey was reweighted according to Census 2011, given the significant migration to Gauteng since 2001.

Household poverty

Having looked at levels of poverty amongst the adult population in South Africa, attention is now given to the levels of poverty at household level. The LCS 2008/2009 found that approximately one out of every six (16,2%) households in South Africa was living below the food poverty line. This increased to one out of every four (26,0%) households living below the lower-bound poverty line and more than one out of every three (38,0%) below the upper-bound poverty line.

We have previously detailed the differences between male and female-headed households across a range of variables – the size and structure of the households as well as the levels of consumption expenditure and the different patterns of spending. Against this background, it is to be expected that the poverty situation was far more dire amongst female-headed households. Table 10 shows that at the food poverty line, female-headed households were almost twice as likely to be poor (22,7% were below the poverty line) than male-headed households, where only 11,9% were below the line. Furthermore, the poverty gap and severity of poverty measures were similarly larger for female-headed households.

Table 10: Poverty measures of households on the three national poverty lines by sex of household head

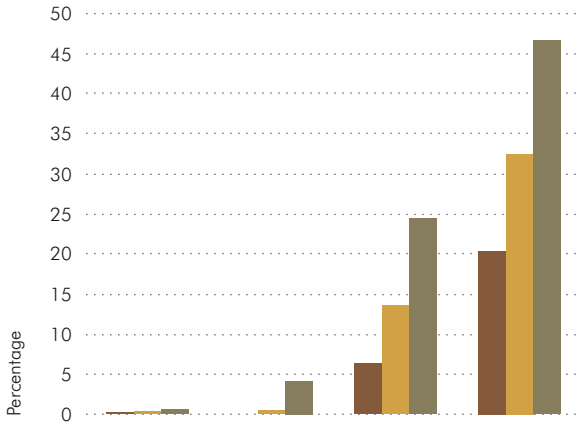
	Sex of household head	
Poverty line	**Male**	**Female**
Food poverty		
- Incidence (P_0)	11,9	22,7
- Gap (P_1)	3,5	6,9
- Severity (P_2)	1,5	3,0
Lower bound		
- Incidence (P_0)	19,9	35,2
- Gap (P_1)	6,8	12,9
- Severity (P_2)	3,2	6,2
Upper bound		
- Incidence (P_0)	30,4	49,4
- Gap (P_1)	12,0	21,2
- Severity (P_2)	6,2	11,6

This pattern more or less repeats itself at both the lower and upper-bound poverty lines. At the upper-bound line, almost one out of every two (49,4%) households headed by women was found to be poor. For male-headed households, this was true for only three out of every ten (30,4%) households.

As can be seen in Figure 8, the incidence of poverty amongst households headed by whites or Indians/Asians was found to be very low – less than one per cent of white-headed households were classified as poor on any of the three poverty lines, while only 4,2% of households headed by Indians/Asians were found to be poor on the upper-bound poverty line.

In contrast, a quarter (24,4%) of coloured-headed households was poor according to the upper-bound poverty line, while a similar proportion (20,4%) of households headed by black Africans was found to be poor according to the lower-bound line. Almost one out of every two (46,6%) black African-headed households was found to be living below the upper-bound poverty line. A further analysis by sex shows that the majority (56,0%) of households headed by black African women were poor according to the upper-bound poverty line as compared with four-tenths (39,4%) of households headed by black African men.

Figure 8: Poverty incidence of households by population group of household head and poverty lines



	White	Indian/Asian	Coloured	African
Food poverty	0,3	*	6,4	20,4
Lower bound	0,4	0,5	13,6	32,4
Upper bound	0,6	4,2	24,4	46,6

* Less than 0,1%

Attention is now given to where, if anywhere, poor households tend to be concentrated. An analysis by settlement type highlights that households in traditional areas were more likely to be poor – two-thirds (67,1%) of all households in these areas were living below the upper-bound poverty line. This was the case for six out of every ten (61,3%) households headed by men and seven out of every ten (71,8%) households headed by women in traditional areas.

Table 11: Poverty incidence and poverty share of households by settlement type and sex of household head (upper-bound poverty line)

	All households		Male-headed households		Female-headed households	
Settlement type	**Incidence (%)**	**Share (%)**	**Incidence (%)**	**Share (%)**	**Incidence (%)**	**Share (%)**
Urban formal	21,5	33,2	17,1	17,3	30,0	15,9
Urban informal	53,3	13,0	47,1	7,2	63,9	5,7
Traditional	67,1	48,6	61,3	19,9	71,8	28,7
Rural formal	43,1	5,2	40,2	3,8	53,1	1,4
Total	**38,0**	**100,0**	**30,4**	**48,2**	**49,4**	**51,8**

By focusing on poverty share as well as the incidence of poverty, Table 11 shows that not only do households in traditional areas show the highest levels of poverty, but they also have the largest share of poor households in the country. Almost half (48,6%) of all poor households in South Africa were found in traditional areas. The importance of looking at both measures can be seen if one looks at the situation of poverty amongst households in urban formal and urban informal areas. Whereas the incidence was far higher for those households in urban informal areas – more than half (53,3%) of the households were living below the poverty line as compared with less than a quarter (21,5%) of those in urban formal areas – the sheer number of households in urban formal areas means that the poverty share in these areas was 33,2% as opposed to only 13,0% for urban informal areas.

An analysis by sex of the household head revealed some interesting findings. We have seen above that six out of every ten (60,2%) households in South Africa were headed by men. We also saw that female-headed households were more likely to be poor as opposed to those headed by men. What Table 11 identifies is that female-headed households also had the biggest share of poor households according to the upper-bound poverty line – 51,8% of all poor households were headed by women versus 48,2% headed by men. What is also evident is that more than a quarter (28,7%) of all poor households in the country are found in traditional areas and are headed by women.

Amongst provinces, Limpopo was found to have the largest incidence of poverty – more than six out of every ten (62,1%) households were living below the upper-bound poverty line. Indeed, this was the only province in which the number of poor households outweighed the number of non-poor households. At the other end of the scale, approximately one in five households in Western Cape (21,4%) and Gauteng (20,2%) were living below the poverty line.

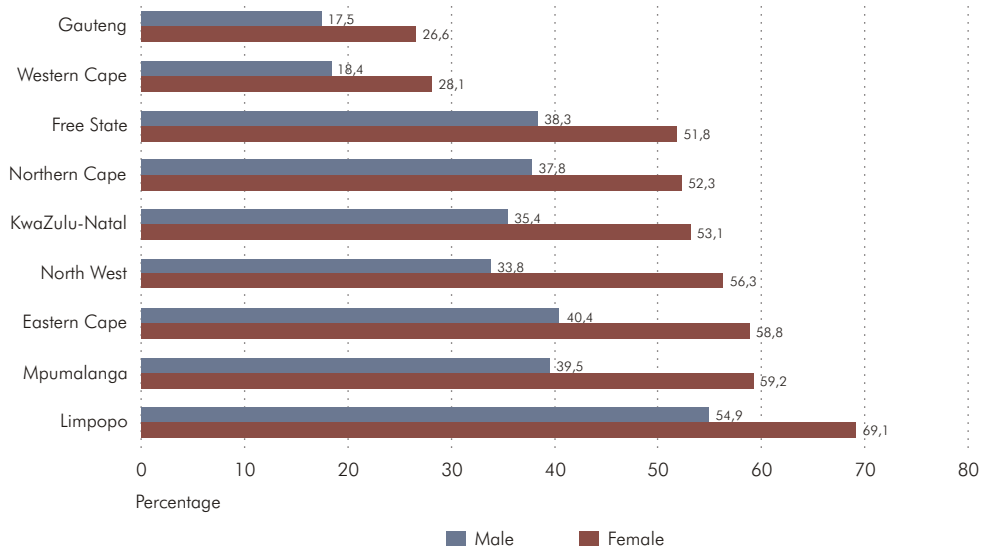
Table 12: Poverty incidence and poverty share of households by province (upper-bound poverty line)

	All households	
Province	**Incidence (%)**	**Share (%)**
Limpopo	62,1	15,8
Eastern Cape	49,6	16,7
Mpumalanga	47,7	8,7
Northern Cape	44,0	2,5
Free State	43,9	7,6
KwaZulu-Natal	43,6	20,9
North West	41,8	8,3
Western Cape	21,4	6,4
Gauteng	20,2	13,2
Total	**38,0**	**100,0**

Comparing the incidence of poverty with poverty share again revealed some interesting differences. KwaZulu-Natal was home to a fifth (20,9%) of all poor households in the country, followed by Eastern Cape (16,7%) and Limpopo (15,8%). Furthermore, while households in the Northern Cape (44,0%) had more than twice the incidence of poverty than those in Gauteng (20,2%), Gauteng had the fourth largest number of poor households, accounting for approximately one in seven (13,2%) of all poor households. In contrast, only 2,5% of poor households were found in Northern Cape.

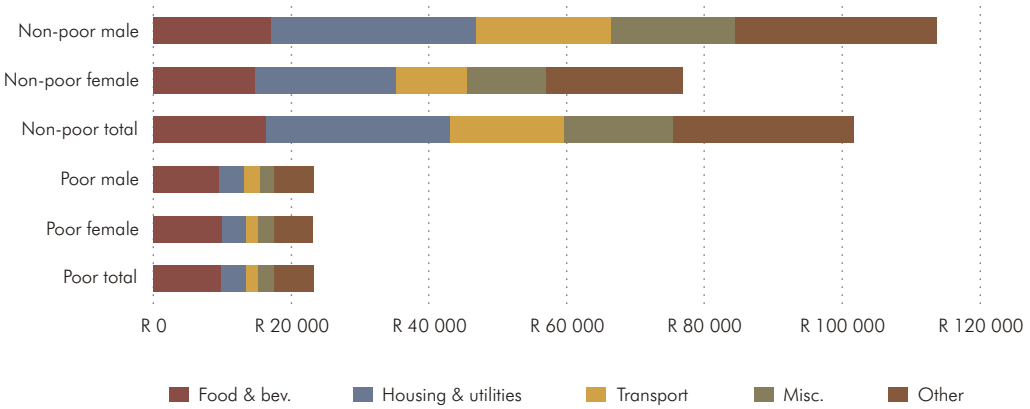
As can be seen in Figure 9, across all nine provinces, female-headed households were far more likely to be poor than male-headed ones. In the province where the incidence of poverty was highest, Limpopo, almost seven out of every ten (69,1%) households headed by women were living below the upper-bound poverty line as opposed to just over half (54,9%) of those headed by men. Even in the relatively more affluent province of Gauteng, more than one out of every four (26,6%) female-headed households were poor as compared with less than one out of every six (17,5%) households headed by men.

Figure 9: Poverty incidence of households by province and sex of household head (upper-bound poverty line)



Noting that the LCS 2008/2009 found the average household consumption expenditure to be R71 910 per annum, Figure 10 shows the levels and patterns of expenditure by broad expenditure group for those households living below (poor) and above (non-poor) the upper-bound poverty line.

Figure 10: Average annual household expenditure by poverty status (upper-bound poverty line), sex of household head and broad expenditure groups



What is striking in Figure 10 is the large difference on annual expenditure between poor and non-poor households. The average expenditure for poor households was only R23 266 per annum, more than four times less than that for non-poor households at R101 736. What is also clear is that while there were large differences between male and female-headed households within the non-poor group – the average for households headed by women was R76 781 and for those headed by men was R113 753 – the differences within the poor group were insignificant. Average expenditure for poor households headed by men was R23 297 and for those headed by women was R23 237. Regardless of the sex of the household head, poor households are equally worse off.

The other striking feature is the pattern of expenditure in poor households, again almost identical across male and female-headed households. More than four-tenths (42,3%) of expenditure in poor households were on food and non-alcoholic beverages as compared with only 16,1% in non-poor households. These findings strongly reflect the survivalist nature of poor households, which we have seen number more than one out of every three households in the country according to the upper-bound poverty line.

Access to basic services

Having profiled the poverty levels of households according to the LCS 2008/2009, we now look at the access poor households had to a range of basic services according to the upper-bound poverty line. We begin by looking at the type of housing that households were living in.

Table 13: Access to housing by poverty status (upper-bound poverty line) and sex of household head

	Male head of household			Female head of household		
Type of housing	All (%)	Non-poor (%)	Poor (%)	All (%)	Non-poor (%)	Poor (%)
Formal	78,6	84,6	64,7	77,9	86,8	68,7
Informal	15,5	12,3	23,0	10,9	8,3	13,5
Traditional	4,8	1,7	11,8	10,7	4,2	17,4
Other	1,1	1,3	0,5	0,6	0,7	0,4
Total	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**

More than three-quarters (78,3%) of all households were living in formal dwellings, one in seven (13,7%) was living in informal dwellings and 7,1% were living in traditional dwellings. The remaining 0,9% were in caravans, tents, hostels or other unclassified dwellings.

Table 13 shows similar proportions of male and female-headed households living in formal dwellings. While male-headed households (15,5%) were more likely to be living in informal dwellings than female-headed households (10,9%), households headed by women (10,7%) were more likely to be in traditional dwellings than their male counterparts (4,8%). This trend is further accentuated when one looks at the poor households headed by men and women. Almost a quarter (23,0%) of poor households headed by men were living in informal dwellings while one in six (17,4%) poor female-headed households were living in traditional dwellings.

Turning to the access that households had to electricity, it is worth noting that Census 1996 found that almost six out of every ten (57,6%) households used electricity for lighting purposes. The LCS 2008/2009 asked a slightly different question as to whether households had a connection to the main electricity supply. The survey found that more than eight out of every ten (82,2%) households had such a connection. Male-headed households were slightly more likely to have a connection (83,1%) than female-headed households (80,7%).

Table 14: Connectivity to main electricity supply by poverty status (upper-bound poverty line) and sex of household head

Connection to main electricity supply	Male head of household			Female head of household		
	All (%)	Non-poor (%)	Poor (%)	All (%)	Non-poor (%)	Poor (%)
Connected	83,1	89,3	69,2	80,7	90,1	71,0
Not connected	16,9	10,7	30,8	19,3	9,9	29,0
Total	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**

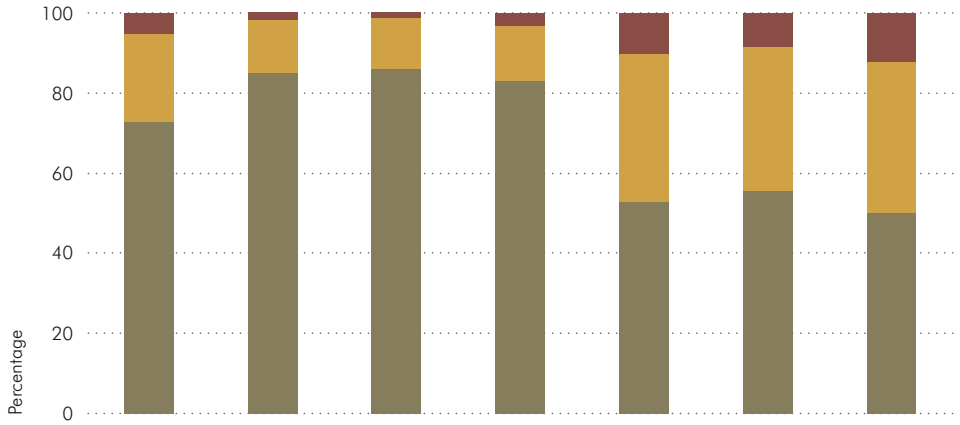
When looked at by poverty status, we found that nine out of every ten (89,5%) non-poor households had a connection to the main electricity supply. This was true for only seven out of every ten (70,1%) poor households, meaning that three out of every ten poor households were living without electricity. Nevertheless, it does still reflect the significant electrification process that has taken place in South Africa over the last two decades. As Table 14 shows, female-headed households had slightly higher levels of connectivity than male-headed households.

We asked households about the access they had to water for drinking and other uses. The responses have been categorised as follows:

- Full access – piped water inside dwelling or yard;
- Some access – borehole, rainwater tank, neighbour's tap, public tap, water tanker or communal borehole; and
- No access – river, dam, well or spring.

Almost three-quarters (72,9%) of all households had full access to water through a piped tap in their dwelling or in their yard, up from six out of every ten (60,4%) according to Census 1996. Just over a fifth (22,1%) had some access to water of one kind or another, while the remaining 5,1% of households had no access at all.

Figure 11: Access to water by poverty status (upper-bound poverty line) and sex of household head



	Total	Non-poor	Non-poor male	Non-poor female	Poor	Poor male	Poor female
None	5,1	1,9	1,3	3,1	10,3	8,5	12,1
Some	22,1	13,0	12,6	13,9	37,0	36,1	37,8
Full	72,9	85,1	86,1	83,0	52,7	55,5	50,1

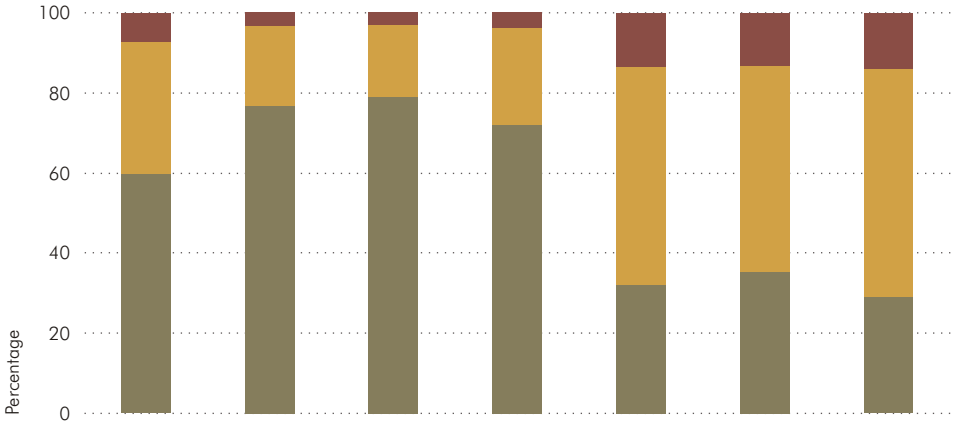
The differences between poor and non-poor households on access to water can be easily seen in Figure 11. While the vast majority (85,1%) of non-poor households had full access to water, this was the case for approximately half (52,7%) of poor households. More than a third (37,0%) of poor households were found to have had some access to water, while a further one in ten (10,3%) had no access at all.

Poor households headed by women were worse off than those headed by men. Half (50,1%) of poor female-headed households had full access to water while the other half either had some access (37,8%) or no real access at all. As with the findings around electricity, this data shows how far we have come in terms of providing access to basic services, but also reminds us of how far we still have to travel.

Households were asked about the type of toilet facility that they had access to. The responses were categorised as follows:

- Full access – flush toilet in dwelling or in yard;
- Some access – flush toilet not in yard, chemical toilet or pit latrine; and
- No access – bucket toilet or no facility.

Figure 12: Access to sanitation by poverty status (upper-bound poverty line) and sex of household head



	Total	Non-poor	Non-poor male	Non-poor female	Poor	Poor male	Poor female
None	7,2	3,4	3,2	3,8	13,5	13,2	13,9
Some	32,8	19,7	17,6	24,1	54,4	51,7	57,0
Full	60,0	76,9	79,2	72,1	32,0	35,2	29,1

The LCS 2008/2009 found that six out of every ten (60,0%) households in the country had full access to sanitation through a flush toilet in their dwelling or in their yard. A further third (32,8%) of households had some access, while the remaining 7,2% reported no access at all to sanitation. This compares with almost a fifth (17,5%) of households that had no access according to Census 1996.

As one would expect, there were large differences between poor and non-poor households in terms of the kind of toilets they had access to. Three quarters (76,9%) of non-poor households had full access to sanitation as compared with only a third (32,0%) of poor households. The majority (54,4%) of poor households had some access to sanitation while more than one in ten (13,5%) poor households reported no access to sanitation.

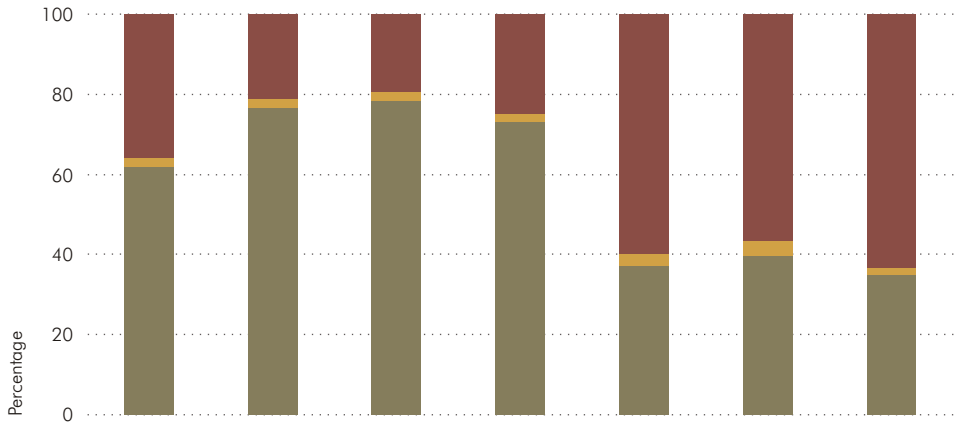
Figure 12 shows that poor female-headed households were worse off in terms of access to sanitation than those households headed by men. While the proportions with no access to sanitation were similar, less than three-tenths (29,1%) of poor households headed by women had full access as compared with more than a third (35,2%) of those headed by men.

The final service that we explore is refuse removal. Households were asked how the refuse or rubbish was taken care of, and their responses categorised as follows:

- Full access – refuse or rubbish removed by a local authority;
- Some access – community members remove the refuse/rubbish or there is a communal refuse dump; and
- No access – refuse dump in yard or no system at all for removal.

Figure 13 shows that slightly more than six out of every ten (61,8%) households in the country had full access to refuse removal. This is slightly up from 1996 where the Census found that just over half (53,4%) of all households had such access. The LCS 2008/2009 found that while a small proportion (2,4%) had some access to refuse removal, more than a third (35,8%) of all households had no access to refuse removal services.

Figure 13: Access to refuse removal by poverty status (upper-bound poverty line) and sex of household head



	Total	Non-poor	Non-poor male	Non-poor female	Poor	Poor male	Poor female
None	35,8	21,2	19,4	24,9	59,9	56,5	63,1
Some	2,4	2,2	2,3	2,0	2,8	3,7	1,9
Full	61,8	76,6	78,3	73,1	37,3	39,8	35,0

Figure 13 also shows that poor households were significantly disadvantaged when it came to access to refuse removal. The survey found that while more than three-quarters (76,6%) of non-poor households had full access to refuse removal, this was only the case for just more than a third (37,3%) of poor households. Poor female-headed households were again found to be worse off than poor male-headed households – more than six out of every ten (63,1%) poor households headed by women had no access to refuse removal.

Poverty from a multidimensional perspective

Introduction

The 'Bristol method' has been a key contributor to multidimensional child poverty measurement internationally. Described in more detail in the next chapter, the method focuses on two versions of the indicators, namely severe and less severe. For comparative purposes, a similar exercise has been undertaken for both the adult population and the child population using the following eight dimensions for measuring poverty: shelter, sanitation, water, energy, information, food, education, and health. The indicators within each dimension and their respective cut-offs are presented in the technical appendix (see Annexure A).

Dimensions of deprivation

Before combining the eight dimensions into an overall multidimensional deprivation index for each threshold, we look at each dimension of deprivation separately.

Table 15: Proportion of adults deprived on each dimension by sex

Dimension of deprivation	Severe threshold			Less severe threshold		
	All adults (%)	Male (%)	Female (%)	All adults (%)	Male (%)	Female (%)
Shelter	14,0	14,9	13,2	30,6	31,1	30,1
Sanitation	5,0	4,8	5,2	37,9	36,1	39,4
Water	5,0	4,6	5,4	25,8	24,8	26,7
Energy	11,3	11,6	11,0	14,2	14,4	14,0
Information	2,8	3,2	2,5	10,5	10,8	10,1
Food	1,2	1,2	1,2	6,7	6,6	6,7
Education	7,0	5,8	8,1	20,4	19,1	21,5
Health[2]	8,7	7,1	10,1	8,7	7,1	10,1

Looking at the severe threshold of deprivation, approximately one in seven (14,0%) adults was deprived on the shelter dimension, reflecting the high levels of informal housing and overcrowding. The second highest deprivation was on the energy dimension where more than one in ten (11,3%) adults do not have electricity, gas, paraffin or solar energy for lighting purposes. Health (8,7%) and education (7,0%) showed the next highest levels of deprivation on the severe threshold, while severe sanitation and water deprivation was experienced by one in twenty (5%) adults. A low proportion of adults experienced information (2,8%) or food (1,2%) deprivation at the severe threshold. The levels of deprivation between men and women were similar at the severe threshold, with women showing slightly higher levels on the education and health dimensions and men showing slightly higher levels on the shelter dimension.

At the less severe threshold, deprivation was highest on the sanitation dimension, where more than a third (37,9%) of adults were using facilities other than flush toilets. Three out of ten (30,6%) adults were deprived on the shelter dimension, while water deprivation was found amongst a quarter (25,8%) of adults. A fifth (20,4%) of adults were educationally deprived, reflecting those that had not completed primary school or who had no formal schooling at all. Less than one in ten (6,7%) adults were found to be deprived on the food dimension. Levels of deprivation were again found to be similar amongst men and women

[2] The health dimension is the same for both thresholds due to the availability of health data in the LCS 2008/2009 survey.

on most of the dimensions. Women were more deprived on the sanitation, water, education and health dimensions, while men were more deprived on the shelter and information dimensions.

Table 16 shows the levels of deprivation on the less severe threshold across the different population groups.

Table 16: Proportion of adults deprived on each dimension by population group (less severe deprivation index)

Dimension of deprivation	Black African (%)	Coloured (%)	Indian/Asian (%)	White (%)
Shelter	36,5	24,3	7,8	2,9
Sanitation	49,1	6,4	0,7	0,3
Water	33,1	3,6	1,0	2,8
Energy	18,1	4,0	1,1	0,4
Information	12,9	4,7	2,7	0,9
Food	7,9	6,4	0,1	0,6
Education	24,2	17,2	8,4	1,2
Health	9,8	6,0	8,9	3,6

It is clear that black African adults are significantly more deprived on almost every dimension than coloureds, Indian/Asians or whites. Almost half (49,1%) were deprived on the sanitation dimension while significant proportions were deprived on shelter (36,5%), water (33,1%) and education (24,2%). It was only on the food and health dimensions that other population groups showed similar levels of deprivation to those of black Africans. Among the black African population, women were found to be more deprived than men on sanitation (50,8% versus 47,0%), water (34,1% versus 32,0%), education (25,4% versus 22,8%) and health (11,4% versus 8,0%). Black African men were more deprived than their female counterparts on shelter (37,4% versus 35,8%), energy (18,5% versus 17,7%) and information (13,5% versus 12,5%).

Table 17: Proportion of adults deprived on each dimension by settlement type (less severe deprivation index)

Dimension of deprivation	Urban formal (%)	Urban informal (%)	Traditional (%)	Rural formal (%)
Shelter	24,3	67,0	32,4	33,0
Sanitation	6,6	58,2	92,9	54,0
Water	3,2	47,3	61,7	50,9
Energy	3,7	37,2	25,0	39,1
Information	5,5	21,8	16,3	16,2
Food	4,8	7,2	10,2	7,7
Education	12,3	22,9	33,4	39,0
Health	7,0	8,2	12,4	7,6

Table 17 shows the levels of deprivation across the different settlement types. As one would expect, levels of deprivation on sanitation, water, energy and information were far higher in urban informal, traditional and rural formal areas than they were in urban formal areas. Education deprivation was also higher in these areas than in urban formal areas.

Creating a multidimensional deprivation index

The first step in the creation of an index is a count for each adult of the number of dimensions in which they are deprived.

Table 18: Number of deprivations experienced by adults

Number of deprivations	Severe index (%)	Less severe index (%)
0	64,4	37,4
1	22,3	21,5
2	8,9	14,9
3	3,1	11,2
4	1,0	8,0
5	0,3	4,7
6	*	1,8
7	*	0,4
8	-	0,1

* Less than 0,1%

Table 18 shows that almost two-thirds (64,4%) of adults did not experience any deprivations on the severe index. More than a fifth (22,3%) of adults experienced deprivation on one dimension, while approximately one in ten (8,9%) adults were deprived on two dimensions. On the less severe index, we see that more than a third (37,4%) of adults were not deprived on any dimension and a fifth (21,5%) showed deprivation on one dimension only. However, 15,0% of adults were deprived on four or more dimensions.

In order to separate the poor from the non-poor on an overall index, it is assumed that those suffering from two or more deprivations are living in poverty.

Table 19: Poverty status of adults by deprivation index and sex

Status on deprivation index	Severe threshold			Less severe threshold		
	All adults (%)	Male (%)	Female (%)	All adults (%)	Male (%)	Female (%)
Non-poor (0 or 1)	86,6	87,0	86,4	58,9	60,4	57,7
Poor (2 or more)	13,4	13,0	13,6	41,1	39,6	42,3

As Table 19 shows, approximately one in eight (13,4%) adults were found to be poor on the severe deprivation index, while more than four out of every ten (41,1%) were poor on the less severe index. Women were found to be marginally poorer on the severe index than men (13,6% versus 13,0%). Women also showed slightly higher levels (42,3%) of poverty on the less severe index than men (39,6%).

Given the findings profiled above regarding the levels of deprivation on the different dimensions, an analysis by population group shows significant differences in the poverty rates on the two indices. Table 20 shows that the poverty rate amongst black Africans was 51,6% on the less severe index as compared with 17,1% for coloureds, 5,5% for Indians/Asians and only 1,3% for whites. Black African females had a slightly higher poverty rate than their male counterparts (52,9% versus 50,1%).

Table 20: Poverty status of adults by deprivation index, population group, province and settlement type

	Poverty rate on severe index (%)	Poverty rate on less severe index (%)
Population group		
Black African	16,9	51,6
Coloured	5,0	17,1
Indian/Asian	0,8	5,5
White	0,3	1,3
Province		
Western Cape	4,6	17,2
Eastern Cape	23,2	58,5
Northern Cape	10,8	40,2
Free State	10,1	34,0
KwaZulu-Natal	18,3	50,2
North West	14,7	52,4
Gauteng	8,9	20,2
Mpumalanga	13,1	49,6
Limpopo	13,5	69,2
Settlement type		
Urban formal	4,4	15,8
Urban informal	31,4	69,7
Traditional	24,4	80,4
Rural formal	25,6	64,0

At provincial level, Eastern Cape had the highest poverty rate on the severe index of 23,2%. It was followed by KwaZulu-Natal (18,3%) and North West (14,7%). Western Cape had the lowest rate of only 4,6%. On the less severe index, however, Limpopo had the highest rate with almost seven out of every ten (69,2%) adults found to be poor. It was followed by Eastern Cape (58,5%) and North West (52,4%) with Western Cape again showing the lowest rate of poverty at 17,2%. These trends are similar to those based on the three money-metric poverty lines.

When analysed by settlement type, adults living in urban informal areas showed the highest rate of poverty (31,4%) on the severe index. This was followed by those living in rural formal (25,6%) and traditional (24,4%) areas. Adults in urban formal areas had the lowest rate at only 4,4%. In contrast, the less severe index found that eight out of every ten (80,4%) adults in traditional areas were poor, as were approximately two-thirds of those living in urban informal (69,7%) or rural formal (64,0%) areas and only 15,8% of adults living in urban formal areas.

The poverty status of adults using a money-metric approach was profiled earlier in the chapter. We now look at the overlap of these two approaches to see the extent to which the two approaches are identifying the same adults as poor.

Table 21: Monetary poverty status of multidimensional poor adults by deprivation index

Deprivation index	Also monetary poor* (%)	Only multidimensional poor (%)
Severe index		
Food poverty	44,4	55,6
Lower bound	61,7	38,3
Upper bound	76,8	23,2
Less severe index		
Food poverty	38,9	61,1
Lower bound	55,8	44,2
Upper bound	72,1	27,9

* Below the money-metric poverty line

Table 21 shows the proportion of poor adults as identified by the multidimensional approach who are also poor according to the three poverty lines from the money-metric approach. At the level of the severe index, we see that more than three-quarters (76,8%) of those identified as poor were also poor using the upper-bound poverty line. This shows the validity of adopting the upper-bound poverty line as the most appropriate national line to monitor poverty levels.

It is clear from this analysis that the two approaches do not overlap completely. While there is significant overlap, the findings strengthen the call to use a range of measures to shed light on the complex task of understanding poverty.

Summary

This chapter has sought to understand both the adult population and the households in South Africa through profiling their living circumstances and levels of poverty (using two different approaches to defining poverty) on the basis of sex, either of the adult or of the head of the household.

We have seen an adult population that is predominantly female and overwhelmingly urban. Nevertheless, a significant proportion of women lived in traditional areas and, while they were in the majority in all provinces, this was especially the case in the more rural provinces of Limpopo, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal.

In terms of poverty, a fifth of all adults were found to be living below the food poverty line. If we employed a multidimensional approach to poverty, more than two-fifths of adults were poor, while on the upper-bound poverty line almost half of all adults were found to be poor. Regardless of which line was used to profile poverty, women were worse off than men. This was true across age cohorts, educational levels, settlement types and all provinces. Of concern were the very high levels of poverty amongst young adults – this situation places a big burden on their shoulders very early on in life. On the positive side, the potential role of education in the fight against poverty was highlighted. Furthermore, the case for using different approaches to understand poverty was also made through the use of the money-metric approach and a multidimensional approach.

On the side of households, six out of every ten were found to be headed by men. Those households headed by women were seen to be larger and more complex in structure. They were also more disadvantaged. Looking at expenditure levels and patterns, female-headed households spent significantly less across population groups and the various settlement types. Households headed by black African females were shown to be particularly disadvantaged.

One out of every six households was living below the food poverty line and more than one out of every three was below the upper-bound poverty line. Almost half of all poor households were found to be in traditional areas and female-headed households were more likely to be poor across all areas and provinces.

Focusing on poor households, we saw that the differences in expenditure were non-existent between male and female-headed households. This reflected their survivalist nature and the struggle they wage to put food on the table. In terms of access to a range of basic services, we saw that poor female-headed households were the most disadvantaged. This profiling serves to both acknowledge the significant number of poor households who now have access to these services as well as highlight the challenges that lie ahead in extending these services to all households in the country. It also allows for the targeting of any poverty eradication strategies, policies, programmes and/or interventions.

please scroll down

CHILDREN

Overview

Characteristics of the child population

The child population, as captured by the LCS 2008/2009, is consistent with those recorded by other national surveys. As Table 22 shows, the child population differs from the adult population in two important aspects. First, in terms of the male-female ratio, the child population had a slight majority of boys (50,5%) whereas we have seen in the previous chapter that the adult population was predominantly female (53,3%). Second, in terms of the racial composition of the child population, the proportion that were black African (84,8%) was higher than that for adults (75,8%). While the proportion of children that were coloured or Indian/Asian were similar across the child and adult populations, white children constituted only 5,3% of the total child population whereas white adults made up more than a tenth (11,5%) of the total adult population.

Table 22: Characteristics of the child population

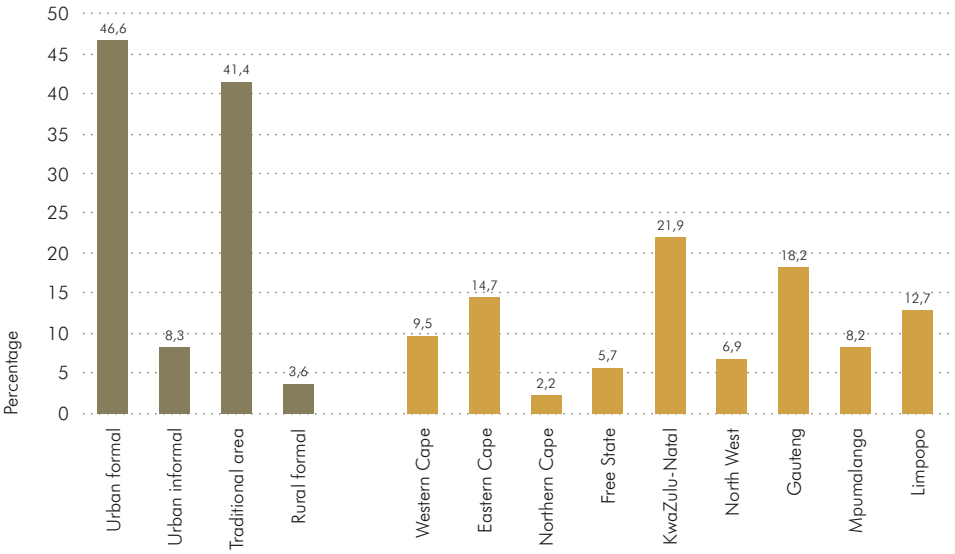
Individual characteristics	Share of child population (%)	Share of boy child population (%)	Share of girl child population (%)
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**
Sex			
Male	50,5		
Female	49,5		
Age			
0–4 yrs	27,2	27,3	27,1
5–9 yrs	27,9	28,0	27,9
10–14 yrs	28,1	28,1	28,1
15–17 yrs	16,8	16,6	16,9
Population group			
Black African	84,8	84,8	84,7
Coloured	8,0	8,0	8,0
Indian/Asian	1,9	1,9	1,9
White	5,3	5,3	5,4

Table 22 shows that the highest proportion (28,1%) of children was found to be in the 10 to 14-years age cohort.

Figure 14 shows that KwaZulu-Natal, Gauteng, Eastern Cape and Limpopo accommodate over two-thirds of the child population. As discussed in the next section, Limpopo, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal are among the most child-poor provinces in the country.

Figure 14 also shows that urban formal and traditional areas accommodate most of the child population. Almost half (46,6%) of the child population lives in urban formal areas, significantly less than the 58,4% of adults that live in these areas. In contrast, while we saw that approximately a quarter (28,8%) of adults were living in traditional areas, this is true of four out of every ten (41,4%) children.

Figure 14: Share of child population



Household characteristics

The survey found that children were almost equally split between households headed by men (52,0%) and those headed by women (48,0%). This is significant given that we saw in the preceding chapter that there are far more male-headed households in the country. It goes some way to explaining the finding that female-headed households were, on average, larger and more intricate in structure than those headed by men (particularly those in traditional areas). It would appear that a significant proportion of children are living in traditional areas in households headed by women that are not necessarily their biological mothers (an issue we return to in a later section).

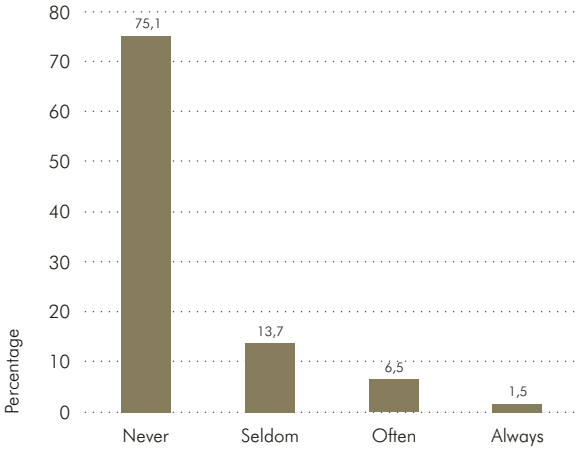
Table 23 also shows that seven out of every ten (69,8%) children live in households with more than five members, while four out of every ten (38,6%) children live in households with seven or more members. As discussed in the next section, household size is closely related to the incidence of child poverty.

Table 23: Household characteristics

	Share of child population (%)
Sex of head of household	
Male	52,0
Female	48,0
Household size	
Less than 3	2,5
3–4 members	27,7
5–6 members	31,2
7+	38,6
Household employment	
No employed adult	31,2
One employed adult	36,6
At least two employed adults	32,1

The survey found that almost a third of children live in households with no employed adult, an issue that again has a direct bearing on the poverty status of the affected children. This is also reflected in the data shown in Figure 15 where more than a fifth (21,7%) of children were living in households where it was reported that there had been some level of child hunger during the year prior to the survey.

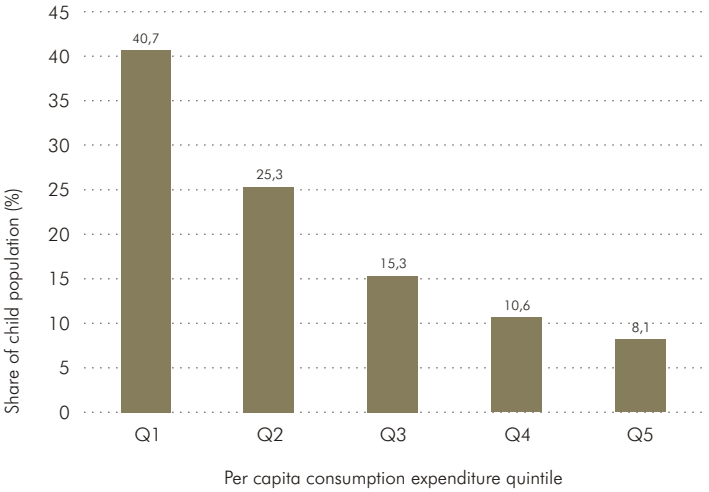
Figure 15: Child hunger in household in past year



Distribution of the child population by expenditure quintiles

Figure 16 reveals the highly skewed distribution among children on the per capita consumption expenditure quintiles.

Figure 16: Distribution of the child population by per capita consumption quintiles



Two-thirds (66,0%) of children were found to be in the bottom two per capita consumption expenditure quintiles, while less than one in ten (8,1%) children were in the top quintile.

Child poverty profile

This section offers a descriptive analysis of the dimensions of child poverty in South Africa based on the food, lower-bound and upper-bound poverty lines as detailed in the preceding chapter.

This section first takes a disaggregated look at child poverty from a demographic perspective (gender, population group, etc.) and then from a geographic and household characteristics perspective. It will then go on to explore the interaction between child poverty and social services, education, health and social protection.

Child poverty by population group

Child poverty in South Africa was found to be much higher than poverty among adults and the general population. As Table 24 shows, more than a third (34,5%) of all children in South Africa were in poverty using the food poverty line compared with a fifth (21,2%) of the adult population and a quarter (26,3%) of the entire population. At the upper-bound poverty line, almost two-thirds (63,9%) of children in South Africa were in poverty compared with 45,1% of the adult population and about 52,3% of the entire population.

Table 24: Poverty headcount by population group on the three national poverty lines

	Children			Adults			General population		
	Food (%)	Lower (%)	Upper (%)	Food (%)	Lower (%)	Upper (%)	Food (%)	Lower (%)	Upper (%)
Black African	39,5	56,0	71,3	26,8	40,3	55,4	32,0	46,7	61,9
Coloured	12,5	24,4	39,5	8,4	16,9	29,4	9,8	19,5	32,9
Indian/Asian	*	2,0	10,2	*	1,1	5,9	*	1,3	7,3
White	1,0	1,6	2,1	0,5	0,6	0,9	0,6	0,8	1,2
Overall	**34,5**	**49,5**	**63,9**	**21,2**	**32,3**	**45,1**	**26,3**	**38,9**	**52,3**

* Less than 0,1%

Black African children bear the brunt of poverty across all three lines with more than seven out of every ten (71,3%) of them living below the upper-bound poverty line. Approximately four out of every ten (39,5%) coloured children were found to be in poverty using the upper-bound poverty line. This contrasts sharply with only one in ten (10,2%) Indian/Asian children and one in fifty (2,1%) white children found to be in poverty at this level. Moreover, while almost four out of every ten (39,5%) black African children lived below the food poverty line, this was true for just 1,6% of white children and less than 0,1% of Indian/Asian children.

The national poverty headcount for boys and girls was the same at 49,5% using the lower-bound poverty line and there were insignificant differences between boys and girls for the other lines.

Table 25 shows the extent of child poverty by population group in South Africa for the upper-bound poverty line for all FGT poverty measures. While black African children constitute about 85% of the child population, almost all (94,6%) children living in poverty were black African, reflecting the skewed distribution of the burden of poverty. The poverty shares of children belonging to the rest of population groups were lower than their shares of the total child population.

The P_1 and P_2 measures further suggest that black African children also experienced poverty in greater depth and severity than the other population groups. While coloured children experienced a relatively high poverty level, it was neither as high in incidence nor as deep/severe as the poverty experienced by black African children.

Table 25: Child poverty measures by population group (upper-bound poverty line)

		Poverty measures			
	Child pop. share (%)	P_0	P_1	P_2	Poverty share (%)
Black African	84,8	71,3	34,0	19,7	94,6
Coloured	8,0	39,5	14,7	7,2	5,0
Indian/Asian	1,9	10,2	2,0	0,5	0,3
White	5,3	2,1	0,9	0,5	0,2
Total	**100,0**	**63,9**	**30,1**	**17,3**	**100,0**

Child poverty by geographic location

Child poverty in South Africa was fairly unevenly distributed across provinces as shown in Figure 17. Limpopo, Eastern Cape, Mpumalanga and KwaZulu-Natal had the highest child poverty headcounts for all the three lines, while the pattern was mixed for the remaining five provinces. Gauteng and Western Cape had the lowest headcounts and showed similar levels of poverty based on the upper-bound line, whereas Western Cape was the lowest based on the lower-bound line and the food line. Child poverty was substantially lower in Gauteng and Western Cape than the rest of the country. The child poverty headcount in the seven other provinces was either close to, or more than, the national average.

Figure 17: Child poverty headcount by province and poverty lines

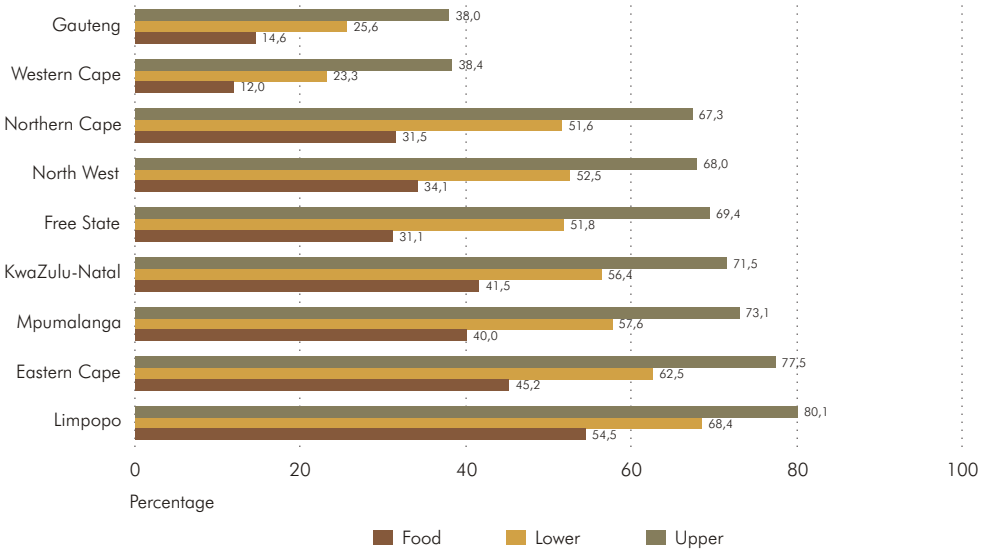


Table 26 presents the distribution of the three FGT measures by provinces for the upper-bound poverty line as well as the share of child poverty for each province. According to the LCS 2008/2009, the highest proportions of children who were poor were found in Limpopo (80,1%) and Eastern Cape (77,5%). Moreover, in terms of poverty share, these two provinces accounted for a third (33,7%) of all poor children in the country. KwaZulu-Natal,

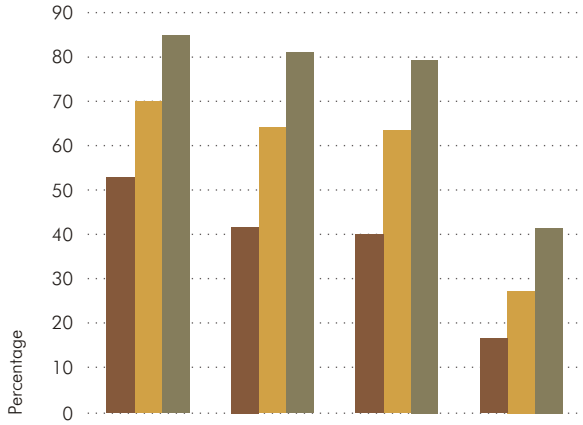
with the fourth highest headcount of poor children, accounted for a quarter (24,5%) of all poor children. Children in Western Cape and Gauteng provinces fared much better than their counterparts in the other provinces with approximately one in every four children being poor in these two provinces. However, Gauteng, with its large population, still accounted for the fourth highest number of poor children.

Table 26: Child poverty measures by province (upper-bound poverty line)

		Poverty measures			
	Child pop. share (%)	P_0	P_1	P_2	Poverty share (%)
Gauteng	18,2	38,0	14,7	7,4	10,8
Western Cape	9,5	38,4	14,0	6,8	5,7
Northern Cape	2,2	67,3	29,8	16,3	2,3
North West	6,9	68,0	31,5	18,1	7,3
Free State	5,7	69,4	29,9	16,0	6,2
KwaZulu-Natal	21,9	71,5	34,6	20,4	24,5
Mpumalanga	8,2	73,1	35,3	20,6	9,4
Eastern Cape	14,7	77,5	38,3	22,6	17,8
Limpopo	12,7	80,1	42,9	26,4	15,9

The measures for the depth and severity of child poverty followed a similar pattern. Children in Limpopo and Eastern Cape had the highest poverty gap and severity of poverty scores compared to other provinces.

Figure 18: Child poverty headcount by settlement type and poverty lines



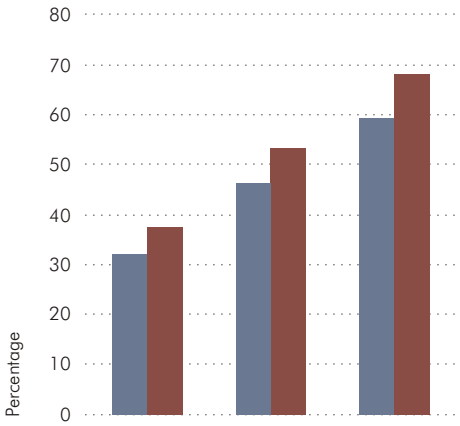
	Traditional area	Rural formal	Urban informal	Urban formal
Food	53,0	41,8	40,2	16,6
Lower	70,2	64,4	63,4	27,5
Upper	84,7	80,9	79,2	41,3

Disaggregation by settlement type reveals that children in traditional areas had the highest incidence of poverty for all poverty lines, with more than four-fifths (84,7%) being poor based on the upper-bound poverty line (see Figure 18). They are nevertheless closely followed by children in rural formal (80,9%) and urban informal (79,2%) settlements.

Child poverty by sex of household head

Figure 19 shows that regardless of the poverty line chosen, there were higher proportions of children in poverty in female-headed households than in male-headed households. This is to be expected, given that female-headed households, as noted in the previous chapter, were more impoverished than male-headed households.

Figure 19: Child poverty head count by sex of head of household and poverty lines



	Food	Lower	Upper
Male-headed	32,0	46,1	59,3
Female-headed	37,2	53,2	68,1

This difference in poverty level of children between male and female-headed households ranged from 5 to 9 percentage points. While the poverty headcount for children in female-headed households was at 68,1% at the upper-bound poverty line, the measure stood at 59,3% for children in male-headed households.

Translated into actual numbers of children, in 2008/2009 there were over 350 000 more children in poverty in female-headed households than in male-headed households using the upper-bound poverty line.

Child poverty by household size

As one would expect, household size and child poverty appear to be directly related; the larger the household, the more likely it was below the poverty line. Table 27 shows that only 6,6% of children in households of fewer than three members were poor using the food poverty line. This proportion rose to 15,4% for those in households of three or four members and 29,7% for children in households with five or six members. At the top end of the scale, more than half (54,0%) of children in households of seven or more members were living below the food poverty line.

As is evident in Table 27, this pattern was similar across all the poverty lines. At the upper-bound poverty line, the headcount of poverty rose from 28,9% for children in households of fewer than three members to 82,2% for children in households of seven or more members.

Table 27: Child poverty measures by household size

	Poverty lines								
	Food			Lower			Upper		
	P_0	P_1	P_2	P_0	P_1	P_2	P_0	P_1	P_2
Fewer than 3	6,6	1,3	0,4	15,0	3,8	1,4	28,9	9,0	3,8
3–4 members	15,4	3,8	1,4	28,4	8,7	3,7	43,3	16,5	8,1
5–6 members	29,7	8,7	3,6	45,8	16,4	7,8	61,1	26,9	14,7
7+	54,0	19,4	9,2	69,9	30,9	16,8	82,2	43,7	27,0
Overall	**34,5**	**11,3**	**5,1**	**49,5**	**19,6**	**10,0**	**63,9**	**30,1**	**17,3**

As suggested in Table 27, a direct relationship also appears to exist between household size and the other FGT measures, namely the poverty gap (P_1) and severity of poverty (P_2). For all poverty lines, both P_1 and P_2 rapidly rose as household size increased. In other words, larger households are further away from the poverty line and would require greater interventions to bring them out of poverty.

Access to basic services

This section looks at the access children had to basic services including access to housing, an RDP housing subsidy, connection to the main electricity supply and energy used for lighting, as well as access to water, sanitation and refuse removal (the same categories of full, some and no access as detailed in the previous chapter were used for access to the latter three services).

Housing

As Table 28 shows, more than three-quarters (77,2%) of all children lived in formal housing, with similar proportions found in informal housing (10,5%) or traditional dwellings (12,0%).

Table 28: Percentage of children with access to different types of housing by poverty status

		Housing			
Poverty line	Poverty status	Formal (%)	Informal (%)	Traditional (%)	Other (%)
	All children	77,2	10,5	12,0	0,3
Food poverty	Non-poor	83,1	9,3	7,1	0,4
	Poor	65,3	12,9	21,7	0,1
Lower bound	Non-poor	87,3	7,6	4,7	0,4
	Poor	66,4	13,7	19,7	0,2
Upper bound	Non-poor	90,6	6,2	2,9	0,3
	Poor	69,3	13,1	17,3	0,3

It is clear from the data in Table 28 that children in poverty, irrespective of the poverty line used, were more likely to live in traditional or informal dwellings than non-poor children. About a third of children under both the food poverty and lower-bound lines lived in informal or traditional dwellings.

RDP housing

More than one in ten (12,3%) children lived in an RDP-subsidised dwelling. The differences between poor and non-poor children were not that significant. As shown in Table 29, at the food poverty line, a higher proportion of non-poor children (12,5%) lived in an RDP-subsidised dwelling than poor children (12,0%). The situation was reversed at the lower-bound and upper-bound poverty lines, where slightly higher proportions of poor children lived in such dwellings than non-poor children.

Table 29: Percentage of children with access to RDP housing subsidy by poverty status

		RDP housing subsidy main dwelling		
Poverty line	**Poverty status**	**Yes (%)**	**No (%)**	**Unspecified (%)**
	All children	12,3	84,1	3,6
Food poverty	Non-poor	12,5	85,4	2,2
	Poor	12,0	81,7	6,2
Lower bound	Non-poor	11,6	86,9	1,5
	Poor	13,0	81,3	5,6
Upper bound	Non-poor	10,1	88,8	1,1
	Poor	13,5	81,4	5,0

Connection to mains

Approximately eight of every ten (81,4%) children lived in households that had a connection to the main electricity supply; 18,6% of children lived in households that were not connected.

Figure 20: Percentage of non-poor and poor children with no connection to mains

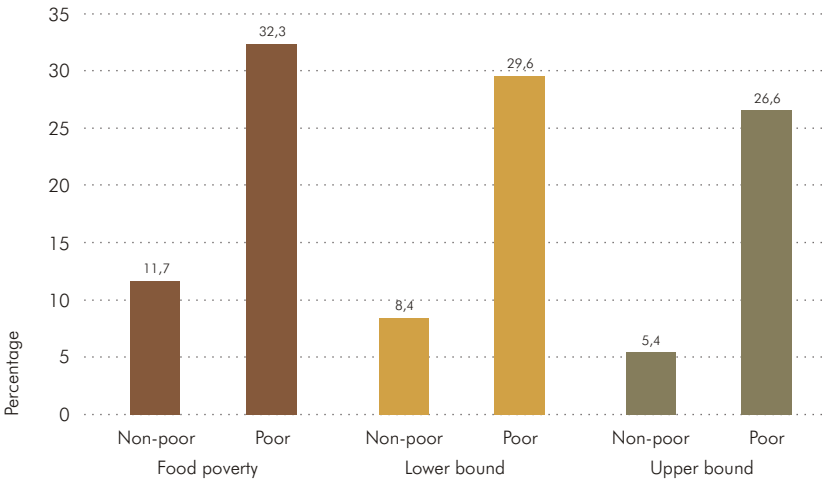


Figure 20 shows the marked differences among poor and non-poor children in terms of access to an electricity connection, irrespective of the poverty line used. Using the food poverty line, 88,3% of the non-poor children were connected to the mains compared to 67,7% of poor children. The pattern was the same for the two other poverty lines. Overall,

between a quarter (26,6%) of children in poverty (using the upper-bound line) or a third (32,3%) of children in poverty (using the food poverty line) were living in households that had no connection to the mains.

Most children (81,4%) relied on electricity as their main source of lighting at home, while 18,5% relied on other sources. Non-poor children had higher levels of access to electricity as a source for lighting. As can be seen in Table 30, a third (32,7%) of children living under the food poverty line did not have access to electricity for lighting.

Table 30: Percentage of children with access to electricity for lighting by poverty status

		Lighting	
Poverty line	**Poverty status**	**Electricity (%)**	**Other (%)**
	All children	81,4	18,5
Food poverty	Non-poor	88,6	11,3
	Poor	67,3	32,7
Lower bound	Non-poor	92,1	7,9
	Poor	70,1	29,8
Upper bound	Non-poor	94,9	5,0
	Poor	73,5	26,4

Water

More than six out of every ten (64,4%) children in the country had full access to water at the time of the survey; 26,9% had some access and 8,7% had no access.

Table 31: Percentage of children with access to water by poverty status

		Access to water		
Poverty line	**Poverty status**	**Full access (%)**	**Some access (%)**	**None (%)**
	All children	64,4	26,9	8,7
Food poverty	Non-poor	76,2	18,7	5,2
	Poor	41,2	43,2	15,5
Lower bound	Non-poor	82,0	14,3	3,7
	Poor	45,8	40,3	13,9
Upper bound	Non-poor	87,7	10,0	2,3
	Poor	50,6	37,0	12,4

Table 31 shows that children in poverty had considerably less access to water than those not in poverty, regardless of which poverty line is used. At the food poverty line, poor children (15,5%) were three times more likely than non-poor children (5,2%) to have no access to water.

The differences between boys and girls (whether poor or non-poor) in terms of access to water were marginal and not of any statistical significance – 8,3% of girls had no access to water as compared to 9,0% of boys.

Sanitation

The survey found that almost half (48,0%) of all children had full access to sanitation, more than two-fifths (42,7%) had some access while approximately a tenth (9,3%) of children had no access at all.

Table 32: Percentage of children with access to sanitation by poverty status

		Access to sanitation		
Poverty line	Poverty status	Full access (%)	Some access (%)	None (%)
	All children	48,0	42,7	9,3
Food poverty	Non-poor	61,7	32,8	5,5
	Poor	20,9	62,3	16,8
Lower bound	Non-poor	69,6	26,3	4,1
	Poor	25,0	60,1	14,9
Upper bound	Non-poor	78,7	18,9	2,4
	Poor	29,6	56,9	13,4

Non-poor children had significantly higher levels of full access to sanitation compared to the poor – Table 32 shows that at the food poverty line, three out of every five (61,7%) non-poor children had full access to sanitation compared to only one out of every five (20,9%) poor children. Using the upper-bound poverty line, more than three-quarters (78,7%) of non-poor children had full access to sanitation, compared to 29,6% of those children in poverty.

There were again no significant differences with regard to access to sanitation according to the sex of the child. About 48,5% of girls had full access to sanitation compared to 47,5% of boys.

Refuse removal

Overall, half (50,4%) of all children had full access to refuse removal (removed by a local authority) at the time of the survey. A similar proportion (48,7%) of all children had no access to refuse removal (see Table 33).

Table 33: Percentage of children with access to refuse removal by poverty status

		Access to refuse removal		
Poverty line	Poverty status	Full access (%)	Some access (%)	None (%)
	Total	50,4	1,8	47,8
Food poverty	Non-poor	63,1	1,8	35,1
	Poor	25,4	1,8	72,8
Lower bound	Non-poor	70,0	1,7	28,4
	Poor	29,7	2,0	68,3
Upper bound	Non-poor	78,2	1,3	20,5
	Poor	33,9	2,1	64,0

As one would expect, there were stark differences in access to refuse removal based on poverty status. At the upper-bound poverty line, one in five (20,5%) non-poor children had no access compared to more than three in five (64,0%) poor children.

Health

Coverage of medical aid and medical consultation

Nationally, approximately one in ten (11,8%) children were covered by medical aid at the time of the survey. Coverage of medical aid among non-poor children ranged from 17,8% to 30,9% depending on which poverty line is used (see Table 34). In contrast, medical aid coverage for poor children was at 1,0% or below for all poor children.

Table 34: Children covered by medical aid by poverty status

Poverty line	Poverty status	With medical aid (%)	Consulted health worker as a result of an illness or injury (%)	Paid for service (%)
Food poverty	Non-poor	17,8	80,8	52,6
	Poor	0,3	79,7	20,7
Lower bound	Non-poor	22,8	81,1	57,0
	Poor	0,6	79,5	23,6
Upper bound	Non-poor	30,9	81,5	63,0
	Poor	1,0	79,6	26,3
Total		**11,8**	**80,5**	**44,8**

Regarding the consultation of a health worker due to illness or injury, Table 34 shows that there was no noticeable difference between poor and non-poor children across all the poverty lines. This reflects the wide reach of the country's public health care system. Importantly, poor children were also less likely to pay for consulting health workers than non-poor children. At the upper-bound poverty line, only a quarter (26,3%) of poor children had paid for the health service as compared with almost two-thirds (63,0%) of non-poor children. This is another indication of the extensive coverage provided by the state.

Physical access to health facilities by poverty status

The LCS 2008/2009 found that three-fifths (60,2%) of children had access to a clinic/health centre within 2 km of their dwelling and more than half (53,2%) of children lived within 10 km of the nearest hospital (Table 35).

Table 35: Distance to health facilities by poverty status

		Clinic within 2 km			Hospital within 10 km		
Poverty line	**Poverty status**	**All (%)**	**Boys (%)**	**Girls (%)**	**All (%)**	**Boys (%)**	**Girls (%)**
Food poverty	Non-poor	63,2	62,3	64,1	58,2	57,6	58,8
	Poor	54,2	53,9	54,6	43,4	43,6	43,2
Lower bound	Non-poor	64,1	63,3	64,9	61,5	61,3	61,7
	Poor	56,0	55,3	56,8	44,4	43,9	45,0
Upper bound	Non-poor	63,3	62,6	64,1	65,5	65,7	65,2
	Poor	58,4	57,6	59,1	46,0	45,2	46,8
Total		**60,2**	**59,5**	**60,9**	**53,2**	**52,8**	**53,6**

Overall, there were no significant gender differences with regard to physical access to health care facilities for all poverty lines. However, poor children had less physical access to health facilities than their non-poor counterparts for all poverty lines. For example, at the food poverty line, more than three-fifths (63,2%) of non-poor children had a clinic/health centre within 2 km of where they lived while this was the case for just over half (54,2%) of poor children. Similarly, 58,2% of non-poor children had a hospital within 10 km of their home as compared with 43,4% of all poor children.

Education

The LCS 2008/2009 included questions on school attendance, reasons for not attending school, grade repetition and age of attending grade 1. Table 36 shows the distribution of children attending pre-school, primary school and secondary school.

Table 36: School attendance by poverty status and sex

		Pre-school			Primary			Secondary		
Poverty line	**Poverty status**	**All (%)**	**Boys (%)**	**Girls (%)**	**All (%)**	**Boys (%)**	**Girls (%)**	**All (%)**	**Boys (%)**	**Girls (%)**
Food poverty	Non-poor	21,1	21,3	20,5	96,8	97,0	96,6	92,8	92,5	93,0
	Poor	9,3	9,2	3,3	96,0	96,2	95,8	88,7	89,1	88,2
Lower bound	Non-poor	23,7	24,1	17,7	96,7	96,8	96,7	93,4	92,9	94,0
	Poor	10,4	10,1	15,5	96,3	96,6	96,0	89,2	89,7	88,6
Upper bound	Non-poor	26,9	27,8	18,4	96,7	96,9	96,4	94,0	93,4	94,6
	Poor	11,6	11,3	15,5	96,5	96,6	96,3	89,8	90,1	89,4
Total		**17,0**	**17,0**	**17,0**	**96,5**	**96,7**	**96,3**	**91,4**	**91,4**	**91,4**

Pre-school attendance among children under five was at a low level of only 17,0% nationally, with no difference between boys and girls in 2008/2009. There were, however, significant differences between poor and non-poor boys and girls with respect to attending pre-school education. Only 3,3% of girls and 9,2% of boys under the food poverty line were attending pre-school, compared to 20,5% of non-poor girls and 21,3% of non-poor boys.

Primary school attendance stood at 96,5% with negligible difference between boys and girls (96,7% boys and 96,3% girls). The noticeable gap between poor and non-poor children at pre-school level appears to close at primary level where attendance for both boys and girls, for all poverty lines, hovered around the national average at above 95%.

Table 36 also shows that school attendance at secondary school level in 2008/2009 was at 91,4% with no real differences between boys and girls. There were slightly more poor boys than poor girls attending secondary school. The difference in the levels of school attendance between poor and non-poor children was above 4 percentage points (above 3 percentage points between poor and non-poor boys and about 5 percentage points between poor and non-poor girls).

Reasons for not attending school

Table 37 shows the reasons for not attending school by sex and poverty status. There were no major differences in the reasons for not attending school across poverty lines and between boys and girls.

Table 37: Reason for not attending school by poverty status and sex

		Reason for not attending school												
		Age (too old/young)			No money for fees			Education useless			Illness			Preg'y
Poverty line	Poverty status	All (%)	Boys (%)	Girls (%)	All (%)	Boys (%)	Girls (%)	All (%)	Boys (%)	Girls (%)	All (%)	Boys (%)	Girls (%)	Girls (%)
Food poverty	Non-poor	90,7	91,0	90,4	3,1	2,9	3,2	0,8	1,0	0,6	1,1	0,9	1,3	0,6
	Poor	89,5	90,3	88,7	3,5	3,5	3,6	1,1	1,1	1,2	1,2	1,4	1,0	1,5
Lower bound	Non-poor	91,0	91,0	91,0	2,7	2,6	2,8	0,7	1,0	0,5	0,9	0,8	1,0	0,3
	Poor	89,6	90,5	88,7	3,7	3,6	3,8	1,1	1,1	1,1	1,3	1,3	1,3	1,4
Upper bound	Non-poor	91,4	91,7	91,1	2,4	2,2	2,6	0,7	1,1	0,3	0,6	0,3	0,8	0,3
	Poor	89,8	90,3	89,2	3,6	3,5	3,6	1,0	1,0	1,1	1,4	1,4	1,3	1,2
Overall		**90,2**	**90,7**	**89,7**	**3,2**	**3,2**	**3,3**	**0,9**	**1,0**	**0,9**	**1,1**	**1,1**	**1,2**	**1,0**

Being too young or too old to attend (90,2%) was the main reason; however, no money for fees (3,2%) and illness (1,1%) were the other reasons given for not attending school. For girls, pregnancy was also cited as a reason for not attending – Table 37 shows slightly higher proportions of poor girls citing this as a reason, although the differences are negligible.

Children repeating grades

As Table 38 shows, poor children appear to struggle more at school and were more likely to have to repeat a grade. Across the country as a whole, more than a fifth (21,9%) of children in primary school and more than a third (36,4%) of children in secondary school repeated grades at least once. Using the upper-bound poverty line, more than a quarter (26,6%) of poor children in primary schools had repeated a grade as compared with only 13,9% of non-poor children. Similarly, more than two-fifths (42,6%) of poor children in secondary school had repeated a grade whereas this was the case for only a quarter (26,4%) of non-poor children.

Table 38: Grade repetition by poverty status

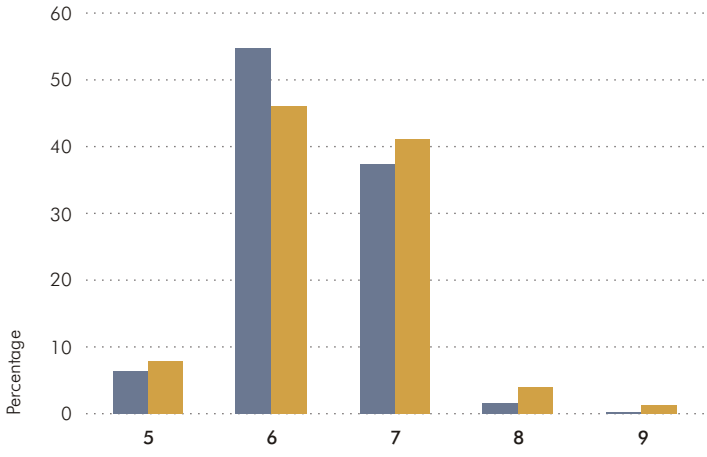
		Primary			Secondary		
Poverty line	**Poverty status**	**All (%)**	**Boys (%)**	**Girls (%)**	**All (%)**	**Boys (%)**	**Girls (%)**
Food poverty	Non-poor	18,7	22,4	15,0	32,8	37,9	27,6
	Poor	28,2	31,3	25,1	43,6	48,5	38,7
Lower bound	Non-poor	16,9	20,7	13,2	30,3	35,3	25,2
	Poor	27,2	30,3	24,1	43,0	48,2	38,0
Upper bound	Non-poor	13,9	17,1	10,7	26,4	31,0	21,9
	Poor	26,6	30,4	22,9	42,6	47,9	37,2
Total		**21,9**	**25,4**	**18,4**	**36,4**	**41,4**	**31,4**

Table 38 also shows that boys repeat grades more than girls. A quarter (25,4%) of all boys in primary school had repeated a grade compared with 18,4% of girls. At secondary school level, two-fifths (41,4%) of boys had repeated a grade as had three-tenths (31,4%) of girls. This pattern was repeated between boys and girls whether poor or non-poor, regardless of which poverty line is used. At the upper-bound poverty line, almost half (47,9%) of poor boys in secondary school had repeated a grade compared with 37,2% of poor girls.

Child poverty and age at grade 1

Using the upper-bound poverty line, Figure 21 shows that non-poor children appear to have an earlier start in school than poor children. Six out of ten (60,9%) non-poor children had started school by the age of 6 as compared with 53,8% of poor children. This early start advantage for the non-poor was reduced, though not fully eliminated, by age 7. By age 7, one in twenty (5,3%) poor children were yet to attend grade 1. This was the situation for only 1,8% of non-poor children.

Figure 21: Age of attending grade 1 by poverty status (upper-bound poverty line)



	5	6	7	8	9
Non-poor	6,2	54,7	37,4	1,5	0,3
Poor	7,8	46,0	41,1	3,9	1,4

There was little difference in the age of attending grade 1 between boys and girls.

Child protection

This section reviews child protection issues that were investigated by the LCS 2008/2009, including child care, orphan status and access to safe play areas.

Child care

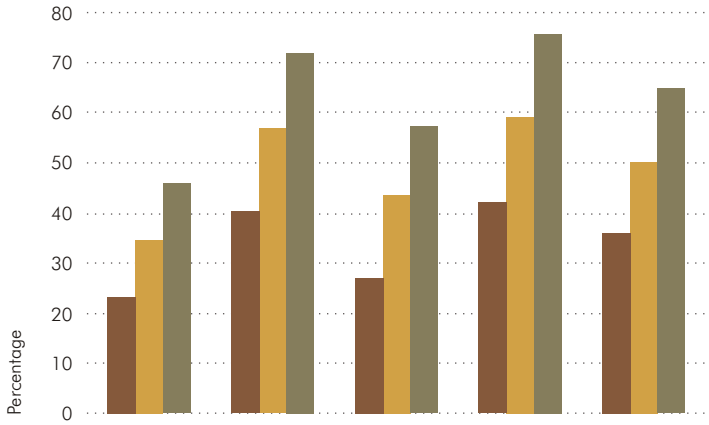
Almost a third (31,3%) of all children live with both biological parents in South Africa (Table 39). The highest proportion (37,8%) of children live with their mother only, while only 3,2% live with their father only. Reflecting some of the findings presented earlier with regard to female-headed households that look after children that are not necessarily their own, Table 39 also shows that more than a fifth (22,0%) of children live in households where neither parent is present.

Table 39: Parental care for children by sex

Parental care	Share of child population (%)	Share of boy child population (%)	Share of girl child population (%)
Both biological parents	31,3	31,0	31,6
Mother only	37,8	37,6	37,9
Father only	3,2	3,6	2,9
Neither parent in household	22,0	22,0	22,1
Unspecified	5,7	5,8	5,6

Parental care did not differ significantly for boys and girls. However, Figure 22 shows that the survey did find that the nature of parental care had an effect on the levels of poverty.

Figure 22: Poverty headcount of children by parental care



	Both biological parents	Mother only	Father only	Neither parent in household	Unspecified
Food poverty	23,0	40,0	26,9	42,2	36,2
Lower bound	34,3	56,8	43,7	59,4	50,1
Upper bound	45,9	72,2	57,1	75,8	65,1

As Figure 22 also shows, child poverty (across all three poverty lines) was highest among children with neither parent in the household. Using the upper-bound poverty line, less than half (45.9%) of children who lived with both parents were poor. This compared with 54,2% of those who lived with their father only. Significantly higher levels of poverty were found amongst those children who lived with their mother only (71,3%) or those who had no parent in the household (74,5%). Therefore, the absence of fathers (a likely income source) clearly impacts on the poverty status of the household/child.

Table 40 presents a mixed picture of other child care issues.

Table 40: Child care

Poverty line	Poverty status	Child has someone to look after him/her when very ill (%)	Child (> 9 yrs) has someone to talk to when he/she is feeling upset or depressed (%)	Child has someone to transport in vehicle in emergency (%)	The household has an adult at home at all times when children under ten are at home (%)
	All children	97,0	91,3	47,5	79,9
Food poverty	Non-poor	97,1	91,9	55,4	80,5
	Poor	96,8	90,3	32,6	78,8
Lower bound	Non-poor	97,1	92,1	60,7	80,7
	Poor	96,8	90,5	34,1	79,1
Upper bound	Non-poor	97,1	93,0	67,8	80,3
	Poor	96,9	90,4	36,1	79,7

Almost all children, irrespective of poverty status, had someone to look after them when ill. Similarly, nine out of ten (91,3%) children aged 10 and older were reported to have someone to talk to when they were upset or depressed. This proportion was again similar when comparing the poor and the non-poor across all poverty lines.

Four out of five (79,9%) children living in households with children under the age of 10 were reported to have adult supervision at all times when the young children were at home. This proportion was similar across poor and non-poor children.

Table 40 does, however, indicate that poor children were more deprived of care in times of emergency. Less than half (47,5%) of all children had someone to transport them in a vehicle if they needed to travel in an emergency. Using the upper-bound poverty line, two-thirds (67,8%) of non-poor children had someone to transport them as opposed to just over a third (36,1%) of poor children.

Orphan status of children

The LCS 2008/2009 found that approximately one in five children were orphans in the country (see Table 41). A total of 12,0% of children had lost a father, 3,8% had lost a mother and 4,2% had lost both of their parents. In terms of actual numbers, this means that an estimated 3,8 million children were found to be orphans during the survey year. About 2,3 million of these children were paternal orphans, 700 000 children were maternal orphans and 800 000 were double orphans.

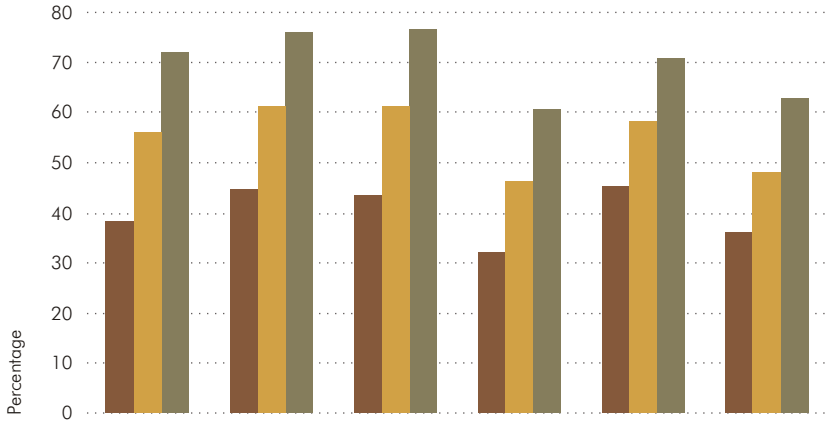
The orphan status of 3,0% of children was either unknown or not specified during the survey. This is not surprising, especially given the reduced presence of fathers at home, leaving their status unknown to the household. There were no significant differences in the orphan status of boys and girls.

Table 41: Orphan status of children by sex

Orphan status	Share of child population (%)	Share of boy child population (%)	Share of girl child population (%)
Maternal orphan	3,8	4,0	3,7
Paternal orphan	12,0	11,8	12,3
Double orphan	4,2	4,3	4,2
No orphan	76,9	76,9	76,8
Status unknown	0,9	0,9	1,0
Unspecified	2,1	2,1	2,1

As can be seen in Figure 23, the incidence of poverty was significantly higher for all categories of orphans than for the average child in the country. Using the upper-bound poverty line, poverty incidence was highest among paternal (76,4%) and double orphans (77,0%), followed closely by maternal orphans (72,0%) and children whose orphan status was unknown (70,9%). Amongst those children who were not orphans, the poverty incidence was lowest at 60,7% (noting that this was still higher than for the adult or general population).

Figure 23: Poverty headcount of children by orphan status



	Maternal orphan	Paternal ophan	Double orphan	No orphan	Status unknown	Unspecified
Food poverty	38,6	44,7	43,7	32,1	45,3	36,1
Lower bound	56,1	61,1	61,2	46,7	58,6	47,9
Upper bound	72,0	76,4	77,0	60,7	70,9	63,3

This pattern remains with regard to the depth and severity of poverty among orphans and non-orphans. Altogether, out of the estimated 3,8 million orphans, between 1,6 million orphans (using the food poverty line) and 2,9 million orphans (using the upper-bound poverty line) were found to be living in poverty.

Access to safe play areas

Having a safe play area is fundamental to the healthy development of a child. The survey found that three out of every ten (29,5%) children lived in neighbourhoods with safe play areas. As Table 42 shows, poor children had less access to safe play areas in their neighbourhoods.

Table 42: Access to safe play areas

Poverty line	Neighbourhood has somewhere for children to play safely (%)
All children	29,5
Food poverty	
Non-poor	34,0
Poor	20,9
Lower bound	
Non-poor	37,4
Poor	21,4
Upper bound	
Non-poor	41,9
Poor	22,4

At the upper-bound poverty line, only one out of every five (22,4%) poor children lived in neighbourhoods with safe play areas, compared to two out of every five (41,9%) non-poor children.

Social grants

More than a third (37,8%) of all children in the country benefited from the Child Support Grant (CSG) according to the LCS 2008/2009; a figure that is likely to have gone up since the survey with the subsequent increase in the age of eligibility. Table 43 shows that almost half of all poor children were receiving the CSG regardless of whether one uses the food poverty line (49,3%), the lower-bound poverty line (48,6%) or the upper-bound poverty line (47,6%).

Table 43: Percentage of children receiving social grants and those living in households that receive other grants

	Children receiving social grants			Children living in households that receive	
Poverty line	Child support grant (%)	Foster care grant (%)	Care dependency grant (%)	Old-age pension (%)	Social relief (%)
All children	37,8	1,9	0,6	19,0	0,7
Food poverty – poor	49,3	1,8	0,6	25,9	1,2
Lower bound – poor	48,6	1,8	0,7	25,5	1,1
Upper bound – poor	47,6	2,0	0,7	24,9	1,0

Far fewer children were found to be receiving foster care grants (1,9%) or care dependency grants (0,6%). As one would expect, the coverage of these grants was not seen to be affected by the poverty status of the child.

Approximately one in five (19,0%) children were living in households that received an old-age pension from government. Amongst poor children, this proportion rose to one in four that were living in households that receive these pensions (again, regardless of which line is used), reflecting another social protection instrument with significant coverage among the poor.

The coverage of social grants was quite extensive among children in South Africa (see Table 44). About two-thirds of children lived in households that received at least one social grant (42,3% and 25,1% received one and multiple grants respectively).

Table 44: Percentage of children living in households that received grants or not

		Children living in households that receive		
Poverty line	Poverty status	No grant (%)	Single grant (%)	Multiple (%)
	All children	32,6	42,3	25,1
Food poverty	Non-poor	42,3	39,5	18,0
	Poor	14,4	47,4	38,5
Lower bound	Non-poor	49,3	36,0	14,7
	Poor	15,6	48,6	35,7
Upper bound	Non-poor	59,8	30,1	10,1
	Poor	17,3	49,1	33,6

At the food poverty line, two-fifths (42,3%) of non-poor children lived in a household that did not receive any social grant. This was the case for only one in seven (14,4%) poor children at this threshold. At the other end of the scale, almost two-fifths (38,5%) of poor children were living in households that received multiple grants as compared with less than one-fifth (18,0%) of non-poor children. This again underpins the significant coverage of social grants among the poor.

There were no significant differences between the proportion of girls and boys benefiting from social grants.

Child poverty from a multidimensional perspective

Children experiencing multiple deprivation

The 'Bristol method' (Gordon et al, 2003) is adopted for the analysis of multidimensional child poverty using the LCS 2008/2009 data. The method has been a key contribution to multidimensional child poverty measurement internationally. The initial work was funded by UNICEF and has been adopted by UNICEF's Global Study on Child Poverty and Disparities. Two versions of the indicators – severe and less severe – are defined in the Global Study Guide (UNICEF, 2007; see also Gordon and Nandy, 2012, p.61). The severe deprivations are the original Bristol measures, while the less severe deprivations use standards which reflect the MDG indicators (UNICEF, 2007).

In analysing the LCS 2009 data, both severe and less severe dimensions and indicators are adapted to take into account South African standards, within the constraints of the questions available in the LCS[3]. Eight dimensions are identified: shelter, sanitation, water, energy, information, education, food and health. The original indicators and their South African equivalent are presented in Annexure A. They do not comprise a definitive set of indicators, and could be refined in future analysis.

[3] An index of multiple deprivation for children at small area level has been constructed previously for the South African context (Barnes et al, 2009), but the LCS does not enable such fine-grained analysis. The Children's Institute (http://www.childrencount.ci.org.za/index.php) also provides South Africa-specific and child-focused indicators, largely measured with the General Household Survey.

Dimensions of deprivation

Although the eight dimensions can be combined into an overall multidimensional poverty index, it is useful to first examine each dimension of deprivation separately. The percentage of children deprived on each dimension is shown in Table 45.

For the severe threshold, shelter and energy are the deprivations experienced by the highest percentage of children. Approximately 15% of children live in an informal dwelling or a dwelling with four or more people per room, and 15% of children do not have electricity, gas, paraffin or solar for lighting. Less than 1% of children aged 7–17 experience education deprivation (i.e. no formal schooling), a result that corresponds well to other findings on levels of school attendance (e.g. De Lannoy and Hall, 2012). Low percentages of children experience severe forms of information deprivation, food deprivation and health deprivation also.

In terms of the less severe threshold, although relatively low percentages of children experience information deprivation, food deprivation and health[4] deprivation (11,2%, 8,0% and 2,3% respectively), over a quarter of children aged 7–17 experience education deprivation (i.e. not currently attending school or having repeated one or more grades at school). Sanitation deprivation is experienced by the highest percentage of children: approximately half use sanitation facilities other than flush toilets (including those who do not have access to a toilet at all). Water deprivation (i.e. using water from sources other than piped water in the dwelling or on site) and shelter deprivation (i.e. living in an informal dwelling or a dwelling with three or more people per room or inadequate roofing) are both experienced by over 30% of children.

Table 45: Children deprived on each dimension

Dimension of deprivation	Severe threshold (%)	Less severe threshold (%)
Shelter	14,9	34,2
Sanitation	7,7	49,8
Water	8,0	34,6
Energy	14,7	18,0
Information	2,9	11,2
Food	1,5	8,0
Education	0,6	26,5
Health	2,3	2,3

Notes:
The percentage of non-deprived children cannot be determined from this table as there are cases with missing information in each domain. The values shown are the percentages of all children (i.e. generally a denominator of 18 776 103).

Information deprivation applies only to children aged 3–17 years and education deprivation applies only to children aged 7–17 years.

[4] Note that the health dimension is the same for the severe and less severe thresholds due to the unavailability of data in the LCS.

Combining the dimensions of deprivation to produce multidimensional poverty rates

The dimensions of deprivation are combined, with equal weight, into a simple index and a count of number of dimensions deprived calculated for each child.

The percentage of children deprived on one or more dimensions is shown in Table 46. For the severe index, 34,9% of children experience one or more deprivations (and therefore 65,1% do not experience any deprivations). These children mainly experience one or two deprivations, and no children experience all eight (or indeed seven) deprivations. For the less severe index, 70,7% of children experience one or more deprivations (and therefore 29,3% do not experience any deprivations). These children experience just one deprivation through to all eight deprivations.

A threshold is required to separate the poor from the non-poor on the overall index. Gordon et al (2003) argue that although children suffering from any severe deprivation of basic human need are very likely to be living in absolute poverty because, in general, the severe deprivation is due to a lack of resources (income), there may also be some children in this situation for other reasons (e.g. discrimination). It is therefore assumed that only children suffering from two or more severe deprivations are living in absolute poverty.

The percentage of children deprived on two or more dimensions is also shown in Table 46. In terms of the severe index, 12,7% experience two or more deprivations, while 48,6% experience two or more of the less severe deprivations.

Table 46: Percentage of children deprived on at least one dimension and two or more dimensions

	Severe index (%)	Less severe index (%)
One or more	34,9	70,7
Two or more	12,7	48,6

The following tables show multidimensional poverty rates (i.e. the percentage of children who are poor) by subgroup, using a threshold of two or more deprivations (Gordon et al, 2003)[5]. Only the rates using the less severe index are shown here. Table 47 shows multidimensional poverty rates by a range of demographic characteristics.

[5] In other work, Gordon and colleagues argue that as a low standard of living (deprivation) should be caused by a lack of resources (income), resources (income) should be used to determine the deprivation threshold – the point at which the difference between two groups (poor and not poor) is maximised. This approach could be adopted here by using the income or expenditure variable available in the LCS. However, the authors were persuaded by the approach in Gordon et al (2003) – a threshold of two or more – and decided to adopt this approach for this analysis.

Table 47: Multidimensional poverty rates (less severe index) by subgroup – individual characteristics

Subgroup	Multidimensional poverty rate (%)
Age group	
Age group 1 (0–5 years)	44,6
Age group 2 (6–11 years)	48,2
Age group 3 (12–17 years)	52,7
Sex	
Male	49,1
Female	48,0
Population group	
Black African	55,8
Coloured	14,4
Indian/Asian	3,8
White	1,4

There are only small differences in multidimensional poverty rates by age group, with slightly higher poverty rates as age increases. This is perhaps unsurprising given that there is greater scope to experience two or more deprivations (the poverty threshold) as the number of applicable dimensions of deprivation increases with age. There is also very little difference by sex.

In terms of population group, the multidimensional poverty rate is much higher for black African children than children in any other population group. Indeed the rate for black Africans (56%) is almost four times higher than the next highest rate (14% for coloured children).

In Table 48, multidimensional poverty rates are presented by characteristics of the household. In terms of household size, children living in households with seven or more members have the highest poverty rate (56,0%). Multidimensional poverty rates decrease as household size decreases, up to a point. The lowest multidimensional poverty rate is for children living in households with three or four members (40,3%). Children living in households with just one other person have the second highest poverty rate (50,0%).

The multidimensional poverty rate does not vary greatly by sex of the head of household. It does, however, vary in terms of the education level of the head of the household. The highest poverty rate is for children living in households where the head does not have any education (72,4%). This compares starkly with children living in households where the head of the household has undertaken education at a level higher than matric (11,7%).

The multidimensional poverty rate for children living in households where there is no adult in paid employment is much higher than for children living in households where at least one adult is in paid employment (69,1% and 37,6% respectively). This is likely to relate to per capita expenditure, where children living in households in the poorest quintile have the highest poverty rate (71,8%), and children living in households in the richest quintile have the lowest poverty rate (2,2%).

Table 48: Multidimensional poverty rates (less severe index) by household characteristics

Subgroup	Multidimensional poverty rate (%)
Household size	
Fewer than 3 members	50,0
3–4 members	40,3
5–6 members	46,5
7+ members	56,0
Education of the head of the household	
None	72,4
Matric or lower	48,4
Higher than matric	11,7
Sex of the head of the household	
Male	49,1
Female	48,0
Quintile of per capita expenditure	
1 (poorest)	71,8
2	52,4
3	31,5
4	10,5
5 (richest)	2,2
Employment	
No adult in the household in paid work	69,1
At least one adult in the household in paid work	37,6

Finally, multidimensional poverty rates are presented by geographical characteristic in Table 49. Areas defined as 'traditional' have the highest poverty rate at 81,3%. The poverty rate in urban informal areas is 64,9%, closely followed by rural formal areas at 63,2%. Urban formal areas have the lowest poverty rate at 15,4%.

Table 49: Multidimensional poverty rates (less severe index) by settlement type

Subgroup	Multidimensional poverty rate (%)
Area type	
Urban formal	15,4
Urban informal	64,9
Traditional areas	81,3
Rural formal	63,2

Children in households lacking socially perceived necessities

The use of the 'Bristol method' for measuring multidimensional child poverty on the basis of the LCS 2009 is complemented by the 'socially perceived necessities' approach. The 'socially perceived necessities' approach takes into account the views of 'ordinary' people in determining what constitutes an acceptable standard of living (Mack and Lansley, 1985).

The LCS included a set of 36 items derived from a module in the South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS) 2006 (see Annexure A). Adult respondents to SASAS were asked which of a list of 50 items are essential for everyone in South Africa to have for an acceptable standard of living and 36 were defined as essential by over 50% of SASAS respondents (the 'socially perceived necessities'). It is therefore possible to measure the extent to which children live in households that lack the 36 items.

LCS respondents were asked (for the majority of items) which of the items they had, and if they did not have an item, whether this was because they could not afford it or because they did not want it. For each item it is possible to measure how many children live in households that lack the item, and for many items whether this is because of a lack of monetary resources or through choice. Table 50 shows this information for the 36 items in the LCS.

Ten items are lacked by over 50% of children. Many of these items relate to the local area (the outdoor environment). In terms of the quality of the outdoor environment, 52,6% live in a neighbourhood with rubbish/refuse/garbage in the streets and 51,7% of children live in a neighbourhood with smoke or smog in the air. A similar percentage of children do not have street lighting in their neighbourhood. Street lighting is important for safety reasons and there are other socially perceived necessities with a safety element. For example, 64,1% of children do not have anywhere to play safely outside of the house, while in terms of the safety of the house itself, 58,8% of children live in a house that does not have burglar bars. Many of the socially perceived necessities relate to the quality of housing and amenities available in the household. The household amenities that are lacked by the highest proportion of children are a flush toilet in the house (65,7%) and a bath or shower in the house (61,6%).

Table 50: Percentage of children in households with and without the socially perceived necessities

Socially perceived necessity	Adults responding that the item is essential (%)	Children without item (enforced lack) (%)
Regular savings for emergencies	71,3	66,8
A flush toilet in the house	77,9	65,7
Somewhere for children to play safely outside of the house	71,5	64,1
A bath or shower in the house	62,0	61,6
Burglar bars in the house	61,6	58,8
A neighbourhood without rubbish/refuse/garbage in the streets	75,0	52,6
Medicines prescribed by doctor when household member is ill**	77,2	52,1
Street lighting	85,3	51,8
A neighbourhood without smoke or smog in the air	68,6	51,7
A large supermarket in the local area	74,5	51,4
Police on the streets in the local area	80,2	47,6
Tarred roads close to the house	79,7	47,1
A garden	50,7	44,9
Someone to transport you in a vehicle if you needed to travel in an emergency	73,8	44,7
Meat or fish or vegetarian equivalent every day	62,1	42,7
Someone to lend you money in an emergency	66,1	40,7
A radio	74,0	40,5
A sofa/lounge suite	54,3	39,5
Paid employment for people of working age	79,1	34,8
Some new (not second-hand or handed-down) clothes**	55,3	32,1
Separate bedrooms for adults and children	81,5	31,3
A fence or wall around the property	73,6	30,1
Pay or contribute to funerals/funeral insurance/burial society	82,1	28,5
A fridge	85,7	27,1
A house that is strong enough to stand up to the weather	90,1	25,4
A television	68,6	23,8
Special meal at Christmas or equivalent festival	55,6	21,3
Mains electricity in the house	91,5	17,9
Clothing sufficient to keep you warm and dry**	88,9	15,7
Adult from the household at home at all times when children under ten are at home (0–9 years)	81,0	15,0
A place of worship (church/mosque/synagogue) in the local area	86,6	11,6
A cellphone	62,5	10,9
Being able to visit friends and family in hospital or other institutions	72,6	8,2
Complete school uniform for children (7–15 years)**	78,8	6,0
*Someone to talk to if you are feeling upset or depressed**	76,2	4,8
Someone to look after you if you are very ill	91,2	1,8

Notes:
Rows do not sum to 100% in all cases as there are also 'don't know' and 'unspecified' responses.
Items in italics were asked at an individual rather than household level.
* Question asked of children aged 10 years and over only.
** These four items are very similar to child-focused social perceived necessities derived from a module in SASAS 2007 (see technical appendix).

Overlaps between different measures of child poverty

The two approaches adopted for measuring child poverty allow for further investigation of overlaps in money-metric and multidimensional child poverty. The socially perceived necessities approach is excluded from this analysis (of overlaps) as, to the extent presented in this report, the approach does not provide an overall measure showing who is poor and who is not.

A child can be categorised in one of four ways: not poor, monetary poor only, multidimensional poor only, or poor on both the monetary poverty measure and the multidimensional poverty measure[6]. Table 51 presents results for children identified as multidimensional poor using the severe index, based on a threshold of being deprived on two or more dimensions. In this table the percentage of these multidimensional poor children that are also identified as poor using the three monetary poverty lines is shown. So for example, of those children who have been identified as multidimensional poor using the severe index, 61,9% are also poor using the food poverty line, 80,3% are also poor using the lower-bound poverty line, and 91,9% are also poor using the upper-bound poverty line.

Table 51: Breakdown of multidimensional poor children (severe index)

	Multidimensional poor and monetary poor (%)	Multidimensional poor but not monetary poor (%)
Food poverty	61,9	38,1
Lower bound	80,3	19,7
Upper bound	91,9	8,1

Table 52 presents results for children identified as multidimensional poor using the less severe index, based on a threshold of being deprived on two or more dimensions. In this table the percentage of these multidimensional poor children that are also identified as poor using the three monetary poverty lines is shown. Of those children who have been identified as multidimensional poor using the less severe index, 52,5% are also poor using the food poverty line, 71,1% are also poor using the lower-bound poverty line, and 85,8% are also poor using the upper-bound poverty line.

Table 52: Breakdown of multidimensional poor children (less severe index)

	Multidimensional poor and monetary poor (%)	Multidimensional poor but not monetary poor (%)
Food poverty	52,5	47,5
Lower bound	71,1	28,9
Upper bound	85,8	14,2

[6] See Perry (2002) for a discussion of the mismatch between income measures and direct outcome measures of poverty.

There are numerous possible explanations for the fact that the various poverty measures do not more closely align. Some of these are outlined below:

1. The monetary poverty lines are based on expenditure patterns of individuals, whereas the multidimensional poverty measure focuses on thresholds of adequacy. In a country with high monetary poverty, these may not necessarily coincide.

2. There may be measurement error, both in the questions used to construct the measures and in assumptions about appropriate thresholds.

3. The deprivation indicators chosen may not be the direct result of a lack of resources and/or individual choices may play a role (i.e. can afford but choose not to have).

4. It may be that the household only recently became monetary poor, and so the child is not currently deprived, but is vulnerable to poverty (Gordon and Nandy, 2012).

5. The household may recently have risen out of poverty (Gordon and Nandy, 2012), either through a 'permanent' change to the household's situation or a temporary change to circumstances (e.g. seasonal or short-term labour opportunities), but the child is still deprived.

6. Children may have recently joined the household, contributing to monetary poverty (by increasing the number of children and thus decreasing per capita resources), but not impacting on, for example, the availability of household amenities.

Summary

From a money-metric perspective, the Living Conditions Survey 2008/2009 shows that child poverty in South Africa is much higher than poverty among adults and the general population. Overwhelmingly, black African children bear the brunt of monetary poverty. Regardless of the poverty line chosen, there are more children in poverty in female-headed households than children in male-headed households. Disaggregation by settlement type reveals that children in traditional areas have the highest incidence of poverty for all poverty lines. They are nevertheless closely followed by children in rural formal and urban informal settlements. Among provinces, Gauteng and Western Cape have substantially lower child poverty rates than the rest of the country.

Children in poverty have considerable less access to basic services than the non-poor – including access to water, sanitation, refuse disposal, electricity and formal housing.

By all three poverty lines, child poverty is highest among children with neither parent in the household. Poverty is also much lower among children with fathers present than among those with their mothers at home. The much-reduced presence of fathers affects millions of children in terms of their poverty status, as poverty is much higher among children with mothers only or neither parents in the household.

From a multidimensional perspective, the LCS 2008/2009 also shows significant levels of child poverty in the country. Furthermore, the multidimensional poverty rate is much higher for black African children than children in any other population group. Areas defined as 'traditional' have the highest multidimensional child poverty rate, followed by urban informal and rural areas.

Overall, the two approaches to child poverty measurement (money-metric and multidimensional approaches) identify different proportions of children as poor in South Africa. Nevertheless, there is considerable overlap in the children identified. Of those children who have been identified as multidimensional poor using the severe index, 61,9% are also poor using the food (monetary) poverty line, 80,3% are also poor using the lower-bound poverty line, and 91,9% are also poor using the upper-bound poverty line. Of those children who have been identified as multidimensional poor using the less severe index, 52,5% are also poor using the food poverty line, 71,1% are also poor using the lower-bound poverty line, and 85,8% are also poor using the upper-bound poverty line.

Although a large proportion of those considered poor by the multidimensional poverty approach are also considered poor by the monetary poverty approach, there are some that would be missed if only one measure was used. Many researchers suggest that a suite of measures – poor on both, monetary poor, multidimensional poor and the total poor (poor on both, monetary poor and multidimensional poor) – should be used to examine poverty (Gordon, 2006, SPII, 2007 and Perry, 2002).

The above analysis has shown that it is important to combine both money-metric and multidimensional measures in order to capture the full picture of child poverty in South Africa. Directly capturing the views of citizens on what constitutes an acceptable standard of living[7] provides an even greater insight to the poverty situation of children in the country.

[7] As illustrated above through the 'socially perceived necessities' approach.

ANNEXURES

Annexure A: Technical notes

Bristol method

The 'Bristol method' (Gordon et al, 2003) has been a key contribution to multidimensional child poverty measurement internationally. The initial work was funded by UNICEF and has been adopted by UNICEF's Global Study on Child Poverty and Disparities. The measures of deprivation are based on a definition of poverty agreed at the World Summit for Social Development. A child is considered to be living in absolute poverty if he or she suffers from two or more severe deprivations of basic human needs (food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education, information, access to services[8]). The thresholds for severe deprivation of each of the basic human needs were determined by the researchers through a systematic review of relevant literature. Although initially produced to enable meaningful comparisons of child poverty between countries, the methodology can be adapted to analyse child poverty within a specific country by making adjustments to the indicators to reflect the local context (Gordon and Nandy, 2012).

Two versions of the indicators – severe and less severe – are defined in the Global Study Guide (UNICEF, 2007; see also Gordon and Nandy, 2012, p.61). The severe deprivations are the original Bristol measures, while the less severe deprivations use standards which reflect the MDG indicators (UNICEF, 2007).

The steps undertaken to apply the Bristol method to the LCS are as follows:

1. **Identify relevant dimensions of deprivation:** The research team (CASASP and UNICEF South Africa) assessed the original Bristol dimensions for relevance to the South African context and for available data in the LCS. It was decided to retain the original seven domains and include one additional domain (energy).

2. **Identify indicators:** The research team assessed the original Bristol indicators for relevance to the South African context and for available data in the LCS. This included both the broad content of the indicator and the specific thresholds separating the poor from the non-poor.

3. **Construct each indicator using the LCS:** The questions and responses used to operationalise each indicator are shown in Table A1 (severe threshold) and Table A2 (less severe threshold).

4. **Calculate deprivation rates for each dimension:** The percentage of children deprived on each dimension was calculated. For most dimensions the denominator is all children aged 0–17 inclusive, which is 38 187 cases or a child population of 18 776 103. Information deprivation applies only to children aged 3–17 years (N=15 748 392) and education deprivation applies only to children aged 7–17 years (N=11 593 602).

[8] This was in the original formulation (Gordon et al, 2003) but information is often not available in the surveys used to measure child poverty.

5. **Calculate the number of deprivations experienced by each child:** A simple count of the number of dimensions of deprivation on which a child was identified as deprived was produced. For most children the maximum number possible was eight. However, for children under three years the maximum was six (information and education deprivation are not measured for this age group) while for children aged between three and seven years the maximum was seven (education deprivation is not measured for this age group).

6. **Calculate the multidimensional poverty rate:** Any child deprived on two or more dimensions was identified as poor and a multidimensional poverty rate calculated as the number of poor children divided by the number of children.

7. **Disaggregate by subgroup:** Multidimensional poverty rates were calculated for different groups in the population.

Table A1: Indicators of severe deprivation - children

Type of deprivation	Original indicators	South African indicators	LCS questions and responses for selecting deprived children
Shelter	Children living in a dwelling with five or more people per room or with no floor material[1]	Children living in an informal dwelling or a dwelling with four or more people per room	Q71MAINDWELLING: Indicate the type of main dwelling that the household occupies on this piece of land. Codes 7 (Informal dwelling in backyard) and 8 (Informal dwelling not in backyard) Q91: What is A) The number of rooms that the household occupies?[2] Household size
Sanitation	Children with no access to a toilet facility of any kind	Children with no access to a toilet facility of any kind	Q724TYPEOFTOILET: What type of toilet facility is available for this household? Code 73 (None)
Water	Children using surface water such as rivers, ponds, streams or lakes, or where it takes 30 minutes or longer to collect water (walk to the water, collect it and return)[3]	Children using water from an unimproved source (i.e. open wells, open springs or surface water)	Q710DRINKINGWATER: What is this household's main source of or access to water for drinking? Codes 9 (Flowing water/stream/river), 10 (Stagnant water/dam/pool), 11 (Well), 12 (Spring)
Energy (new)		Children without electricity, gas, paraffin or solar for lighting	Q733LIGHTING: What is the main source of energy/ fuel for this household for lighting? Codes 5 (Wood), 6 (Coal), 7 (Candles), 8 (Animal dung), 10 (Other), 11 (None)
Information	Children (aged 3–17 years) with no access to a radio, television, telephone, newspaper or computer (i.e. all forms of media)	Children (aged 3–17 years) with no access to a radio, television, telephone or computer (i.e. all forms of media)[4]	Q81OWNITEM: Does the household have access to any of the following: 01. Radio 04. Television 25. Cellular telephone 26. Landline telephone 28. Internet service Code 3 (Neither owns, nor has access) Q14AGE: How old was ..... at his/her last birthday? >=3 &<=17
Food	Children who are more than three standard deviations below the international reference population for stunting (height for age) or wasting (weight for height) or underweight (weight for age)[5]	Children living in a household where any child always went hungry in the previous 12 months	Q242YOUNGGOHUNGRY: In the past 12 months, did any child (17 years or younger) in this household go hungry because there was not enough food? Code 4 (Always)
Education	Children (aged 7–17) who have never been to school and who are not currently attending school	Children (aged 7–17) who have never been to school and who are not currently attending school	Q33HIGHESTLEVELEDUC: What is the highest level of education that ..... has successfully completed? Code 24 (No schooling) Q37CURRENTLYATTENDING: Is ..... currently attending school or any other educational institution? Code 2 (No) Q14AGE: How old was ..... at his/her last birthday? >=7 &<=17

Table A1: Indicators of severe deprivation - children (concluded)

Type of deprivation	Original indicators	South African indicators	LCS questions and responses for selecting deprived children
Health	Children who did not receive immunisation against any diseases or who did not receive treatment for a recent illness involving an acute respiratory infection or diarrhoea[6]	Children reporting that their health is poor, or suffering from any illnesses or injuries over the past month for which they did not consult a health worker for reasons of cost, distance or stigma	Q21HEALTHINGENERAL: How would you describe your health in general? Code 4 (Poor) Q28PASTMONILLNESSINJUR: During the past month, did you suffer from any illnesses or injuries? Code 1 (Yes) Q29CONSULTHEALTHWOR: During the past month, did you consult a health worker such as a nurse, doctor or traditional healer as a result of an illness or injury? Code 2 (No) Q217WHYDIDNOTCONSULT: Why did you not consult any health worker during the past month? Codes 1 (Too expensive), 2 (Too far), 4 (Fear of stigmatisation)

Notes:
1. The LCS does not have a question on floor material so this cannot be included in the dimension.
2. The count of rooms excludes bathrooms only.
3. The LCS does not have a question on time taken to collect water so this cannot be included in the dimension.
4. Access to the internet rather than a computer is used in this indicator. The LCS does not have a question on access to a newspaper so this cannot be included in the dimension.
5. It is not possible to include an indicator relating to stunting, wasting or underweight as the anthropometric measurements are missing for approximately half of the sample.
6. It is not possible to include an indicator relating to immunisation or illness involving an acute respiratory infection or diarrhoea with the available questions in the LCS.

Table A2: Indicators of less severe deprivation - children

Type of deprivation	Original indicators	South African indicators	LCS questions and responses for selecting deprived children
Shelter	Children living in a dwelling with four or more people per room or living in a house with no flooring (i.e. mud or dung floor) or inadequate roofing[1]	Children living in an informal dwelling or in a dwelling with three or more people per room or with inadequate roofing	Q71MAINDWELLING: Indicate the type of main dwelling that the household occupies on this piece of land. Codes 7 (Informal dwelling in backyard) and 8 (Informal dwelling not in backyard) Q91: What is A) The number of rooms that the household occupies?[2] Household size Q75ROOF: In what condition is the roof of the dwelling? Code 1 (Weak, needs major repairs (e.g. not windproof, leaking))
Sanitation	Children using unimproved sanitation facilities (i.e. pour flush latrines, covered pit latrines, open pit latrines, buckets)	Children using sanitation facilities other than flush toilets (i.e. chemical toilets, pit latrines, buckets) or with no access to a toilet	Q724TYPEOFTOILET: What type of toilet facility is available for this household? Codes 32 (Chemical toilet on site), 33 (Chemical toilet off site), 42 (Pit latrine with ventilation pipe on site), 43 (Pit latrine with ventilation pipe off site), 52 (Pit latrine without ventilation pipe on site), 53 (Pit latrine without ventilation pipe off site), 62 (Bucket toilet on site), 63 (Bucket toilet off site), 73 (None)
Water	Children using water from an unimproved source such as open wells, open springs or surface water or where it takes 30 minutes or longer to collect water (walk to the water, collect it and return)[3]	Children using water from sources other than piped water in the dwelling or on site	Q710DRINKINGWATER: What is this household's main source of or access to water for drinking? Codes 3 (Borehole on site), 4 (Rain-water tank on site), 5 (Neighbour's tap), 6 (Public tap), 7 (Water carrier/tanker), 8 (Borehole off site/communal), 9 (Flowing water/stream/river), 10 (Stagnant water/dam/pool), 11 (Well), 12 (Spring), 13 (Other)
Energy (new)		Children without electricity for lighting	Q733LIGHTING: What is the main source of energy/fuel for this household for lighting? Codes 3 (Gas), 4 (Paraffin), 5 (Wood), 6 (Coal), 7 (Candles), 8 (Animal dung), 9 (Solar energy), 10 (Other), 11 (None)
Information	Children (aged 3–17 years) with no access to a radio or television (i.e. broadcast media)	Children (aged 3–17 years) with no access to a radio or television (i.e. broadcast media)	Q81OWNITEM: Does the household have access to any of the following: 01. Radio 04. Television Code 3 (Neither owns, nor has access) Q14AGE: How old was ..... at his/her last birthday? >=3 &<=17
Food	Children who are more than two standard deviations below the international reference population for stunting (height for age) or wasting (weight for height) or underweight (weight for age)[4]	Children living in a household where any child always or often went hungry in the previous 12 months	Q242YOUNGGOHUNGRY: In the past 12 months, did any child (17 years or younger) in this household go hungry because there was not enough food? Codes 3 (Often) and 4 (Always)

Notes:
1. The LCS does not have a question on floor material so this cannot be included in the dimension.
2. The count of rooms excludes bathrooms only.
3. The LCS does not have a question on time taken to collect water so this cannot be included in the dimension.
4. It is not possible to include an indicator relating to stunting, wasting or underweight as anthropometric measurements are missing for approximately half of the sample.

Table A2: Indicators of less severe deprivation - children (concluded)

Type of deprivation	Original indicators	South African indicators	LCS questions and responses for selecting deprived children
Education	Children (aged 7–17) who are not currently attending school or who did not complete their primary education	Children who are not currently attending school (aged 7–15[5]) or who have repeated one or more grades at school (aged 7–17)	Q37CURRENTLYATTENDING: Is ..... currently attending school or any other educational institution? Code 2 (No) Q14AGE: How old was ..... at his/her last birthday? >=7 &<=15 Q35REPEATEDGRADES: Has ..... repeated any grade? Code1 (Yes) Q14AGE: How old was ..... at his/her last birthday? >=7 &<=17
Health	Children who have not been immunised by two years of age or who did not receive treatment for a recent illness involving an acute respiratory infection or diarrhoea[6]	Children reporting that their health is poor, or suffering from any illnesses or injuries over the past month for which they did not consult a health worker for reasons of cost, distance or stigma	Q21HEALTHINGENERAL: How would you describe your health in general? Code 4 (Poor) Q28PASTMONILLNESSINJUR: During the past month, did you suffer from any illnesses or injuries? Code 1 (Yes) Q29CONSULTHEALTHWOR: During the past month, did you consult a health worker such as a nurse, doctor or traditional healer as a result of an illness or injury? Code 2 (No) Q217WHYDIDNOTCONSULT: Why did you not consult any health worker during the past month? Codes 1 (Too expensive), 2 (Too far), 4 (Fear of stigmatisation)

Notes:
5. This is the compulsory schooling age group. The group of children not currently attending school will include those who have never been to school.
6. It is not possible to include an indicator relating to immunisation or illness involving an acute respiratory infection or diarrhoea with the available questions in the LCS.

Table A3: Indicators of severe deprivation - adults

Type of deprivation	Adult indicators	LCS questions and responses for selecting deprived adults
Shelter	Adults living in an informal dwelling or a dwelling with four or more people per room	Q71MAINDWELLING: Indicate the type of main dwelling that the household occupies on this piece of land. Codes 7 (Informal dwelling in backyard) and 8 (Informal dwelling not in backyard) Q91: What is A) The number of rooms that the household occupies?[2] Household size
Sanitation	Adults with no access to a toilet facility of any kind	Q724TYPEOFTOILET: What type of toilet facility is available for this household? Code 73 (None)
Water	Adults using water from an unimproved source (i.e. open wells, open springs or surface water)	Q710DRINKINGWATER: What is this household's main source of or access to water for drinking? Codes 9 (Flowing water/stream/river), 10 (Stagnant water/dam/pool), 11 (Well), 12 (Spring)
Energy (new)	Adults without electricity, gas, paraffin or solar for lighting	Q733LIGHTING: What is the main source of energy/ fuel for this household for lighting? Codes 5 (Wood), 6 (Coal), 7 (Candles), 8 (Animal dung), 10 (Other), 11 (None)
Information	Adults with no access to a radio, television, telephone or computer (i.e. all forms of media)[4]	Q81OWNITEM: Does the household have access to any of the following: 01. Radio 04. Television 25. Cellular telephone 26. Landline telephone 28. Internet service Code 3 (Neither owns, nor has access)
Food	Adults living in a household where any adult always went hungry in the previous 12 months	Q241ADULTGOHUNGRY: In the past 12 months, did any adult (18 years and above) in this household go hungry because there was not enough food? Code 4 (Always)
Education	Adults who have never been to school	Q33HIGHESTLEVELEDUC: What is the highest level of education that …… has successfully completed? Code 24 (No schooling)
Health	Adults reporting that their health is poor, or suffering from any illnesses or injuries over the past month for which they did not consult a health worker for reasons of cost, distance or stigma	Q21HEALTHINGENERAL: How would you describe your health in general? Code 4 (Poor) Q28PASTMONILLNESSINJUR: During the past month, did you suffer from any illnesses or injuries? Code 1 (Yes) Q29CONSULTHEALTHWOR: During the past month, did you consult a health worker such as a nurse, doctor or traditional healer as a result of an illness or injury? Code 2 (No) Q217WHYDIDNOTCONSULT: Why did you not consult any health worker during the past month? Codes 1 (Too expensive), 2 (Too far), 4 (Fear of stigmatisation)

Notes:
1. A dimension around unemployment was considered but omitted due to the unavailability of unemployment data from the LCS 2008/2009.

Table A4: Indicators of less severe deprivation - adults

Type of deprivation	Adult indicators	LCS questions and responses for selecting deprived adults
Shelter	Adults living in an informal dwelling or in a dwelling with three or more people per room or with inadequate roofing	Q71MAINDWELLING: Indicate the type of main dwelling that the household occupies on this piece of land. Codes 7 (Informal dwelling in backyard) and 8 (Informal dwelling not in backyard) Q91: What is A) The number of rooms that the household occupies?[2] Household size Q75ROOF: In what condition is the roof of the dwelling? Code 1 (Weak, needs major repairs (e.g. not windproof, leaking))
Sanitation	Adults using sanitation facilities other than flush toilets (i.e. chemical toilets, pit latrines, buckets) or with no access to a toilet	Q724TYPEOFTOILET: What type of toilet facility is available for this household? Codes 32 (Chemical toilet on site), 33 (Chemical toilet off site), 42 (Pit latrine with ventilation pipe on site), 43 (Pit latrine with ventilation pipe off site), 52 (Pit latrine without ventilation pipe on site), 53 (Pit latrine without ventilation pipe off site), 62 (Bucket toilet on site), 63 (Bucket toilet off site), 73 (None)
Water	Adults using water from sources other than piped water in the dwelling or on site	Q710DRINKINGWATER: What is this household's main source of or access to water for drinking? Codes 3 (Borehole on site), 4 (Rain-water tank on site), 5 (Neighbour's tap), 6 (Public tap), 7 (Water carrier/tanker), 8 (Borehole off-site/communal), 9 (Flowing water/stream/river), 10 (Stagnant water/dam/pool), 11 (Well), 12 (Spring), 13 (Other)
Energy (new)	Adults without electricity for lighting	Q733LIGHTING: What is the main source of energy/ fuel for this household for lighting? Codes 3 (Gas), 4 (Paraffin), 5 (Wood), 6 (Coal), 7 (Candles), 8 (Animal dung), 9 (Solar energy), 10 (Other), 11 (None)
Information	Adults with no access to a radio or television (i.e. broadcast media)	Q81OWNITEM: Does the household have access to any of the following: 01. Radio 04. Television Code 3 (Neither owns, nor has access)
Food	Adults living in a household where any adult always or often went hungry in the previous 12 months	Q241ADULTGOHUNGRY: In the past 12 months, did any adult (18 years and above) in this household go hungry because there was not enough food? Codes 3 (Often) and 4 (Always)
Education	Adults who have not completed Grade 7 and who are not currently attending school	Q33HIGHESTLEVELEDUC: What is the highest level of education that ..... has successfully completed? Codes 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 24 (No schooling)
Health	Adults reporting that their health is poor, or suffering from any illnesses or injuries over the past month for which they did not consult a health worker for reasons of cost, distance or stigma	Q21HEALTHINGENERAL: How would you describe your health in general? Code 4 (Poor) Q28PASTMONILLNESSINJUR: During the past month, did you suffer from any illnesses or injuries? Code 1 (Yes) Q29CONSULTHEALTHWOR: During the past month, did you consult a health worker such as a nurse, doctor or tra ditional healer as a result of an illness or injury? Code 2 (No)

Socially perceived necessities method

Some poverty studies take into account the views of 'ordinary' people in determining what constitutes an acceptable standard of living. The 'socially perceived necessities' approach originates from the work of Mack and Lansley (1985) in Britain, and the method has subsequently been extended and used in a number of countries worldwide including South Africa. The approach has two main stages: first, to determine which items or activities people regard as essential for an acceptable standard of living; and second to measure whether people possess or have access to those items.

The Human Sciences Research Council's (HSRC) SASAS 2006 was used to elicit a definition of poverty by asking respondents which of a list of 50 items are essential for everyone in South Africa to have for an acceptable standard of living (Wright and Noble, forthcoming). The items were intended to represent a range of issues including access to services, social networks and material possessions. They were also intended to comprise a spectrum of standards of living and therefore included some items associated with minimalistic requirements (such as a weatherproof house) through to certain items that might be regarded by many as luxury items (such as a computer). The 36 items which the majority (over 50%) of adult respondents considered as essential for everyone to have or have access to in order to have an acceptable standard of living are referred to as the set of 'socially perceived necessities'.

The LCS included the set of 36 socially perceived necessities derived from the module in SASAS 2006. LCS respondents were asked (for the majority of items) which of the items they had, and if they did not have an item, whether this was because they could not afford it or because they did not want it. When measuring poverty using this approach, the focus is on an 'enforced lack' of items (i.e. lacking because it could not be afforded rather than through choice). Some items were not asked about in the usual way (i.e. could not afford vs did not want). This was either because it did not make sense to do so as it was not an item that could be purchased with money (e.g. someone to talk to if you are feeling upset or depressed), it was an item that related to the wider environment that could not be directly purchased (e.g. street lighting), or because the item was already included in another question in the survey (e.g. some material goods such as a fridge, radio, television or cellphone, or items such as mains electricity and a flush toilet).

For each item it was therefore possible to measure how many children live in households that lack the item, and for many items whether this is because of a lack of monetary resources or through choice.

In addition to the study that measured poverty using the socially perceived necessities approach for the whole population, another study was undertaken that focused specifically on necessities for children (Barnes, 2009a; Barnes, 2009b). In a series of focus groups, children were asked about what they considered to be essential for all children to have. In addition, a module was included in SASAS 2007 to explore adults' views about necessities for children and 11 items were identified as essential for children by the majority of adults.

The child poverty study was undertaken after the LCS questionnaire had been drawn up and so it was not possible to incorporate the set of 11 child-specific socially perceived necessities into the LCS. Nevertheless, there is a suitable proxy for four of the child-specific items within the set of socially perceived necessities included in the LCS.


Bulls

Annexure B: Explanatory notes

The instruments of data collection

The Living Conditions Survey 2008/2009 used four data collection instruments, namely the household questionnaire, the weekly diary, the summary questionnaire and the survey assessment questionnaire.

Household questionnaire

The household questionnaire was a booklet of questions. The questions were administered to respondents during the course of the survey month. There were seven modules in this questionnaire with twenty-seven subsections. The first module dealt with establishing the composition and structure of the household, as well as capturing particulars of all household members. The second module collected information on health, disability, education and employment. The third module dealt with welfare, assets and information on dwellings and services. Modules four and five collected information on the different categories of consumption expenditure (including housing, clothing, furniture, appliances, transport, computer and telecommunication equipment, etc.), as well as information on subsistence and living circumstances. The sixth module dealt with savings, investments, debt, remittances and income. The seventh and last module collected anthropometric measurements (height, weight and waist) for all household members.

Weekly diaries

This is a booklet that was left with the responding household to track all acquisitions made by the household during the survey month. The household (after being trained by the Interviewer) was responsible for recording all their daily acquisitions as well as information about where they purchased the item (source) and the purpose of the item. A household completed a different diary for each of the four weeks of the survey month.

Summary questionnaire

This is a booklet of questions that was for the sole use of the interviewer. The instrument had two primary functions. First, it served as a code list for interviewers when assigning codes for the classification of individual consumption according to purpose (COICOP) to reported items recorded in the weekly diary. It also helped to summarise the household's total consumption expenditure on a weekly basis to allow the interviewers to better understand the household's acquisition patterns to ensure accuracy and completeness of the diary.

Survey assessment questionnaire

This is a booklet of questions that was administered to households after the survey month was complete by either the district survey coordinator or provincial quality monitor. In addition to serving as a control questionnaire to verify information collected by the interviewers, the instrument was designed to evaluate data collection processes and perceptions of the respondent about Stats SA and the survey itself.

How the LCS 2008/2009 was conducted

A household was in a sample for a period of six weeks. The instruments outlined above were administered in stages at different visits during the six weeks of data collection. A module was administered in the beginning of each week. A detailed list of activities conducted each week is shown in Table B1.

Table B1: Data collection activities by week

Week 0 *(Week before the survey month)*	**Weeks 1 to 4** *(The survey month)*	**Week 5** *(Week after the survey month)*
- Hand-over by publicity team - Establish rapport with household - Train household on diary completion - Conduct interview 1 - Make appointments for anthropometric measurements	- Drop weekly diaries to be completed by household - Conduct interviews 2/3/4/5 - Collect completed diaries for weeks 1/2/3 - Verify completed diaries for weeks 1/2/3 - Conduct anthropometric measurements (Module 7) - Codification by means of the summary questionnaire	- Conduct interview 6 - Collect and verify completed diary for week 4 - Codification by means of the summary questionnaire

Data collection

There are three main approaches used to collect data on household consumption expenditure, namely the acquisition, the payment and the consumption approaches. All three methods are used at some stage during data collection for LCS 2008/2009.

The *acquisition approach* entails taking into account the total value of goods and services acquired (not necessarily consumed but for household consumption purposes) during a given period, whether or not they are paid for during the period of collection. This is the general approach that was followed by the LCS 2008/2009 for most of the items. Information on non-durable, semi-durable and durable items is collected using the acquisition approach.

The *payment approach* takes into account the total payment made for all goods and services in a given period, whether or not they were delivered. This approach is followed when collecting data of expenditure on services such as education, health, insurance, etc.

The *consumption approach* takes into account the total value of all goods and services consumed or used during a given period. This approach is used when collecting information on own production.

Table B2: Comparisons between the IES 2000, 2005/2006 and LCS 2008/2009

Survey	IES 2000	IES 2005/2006	LCS 2008/2009
Non-durable items			
Data collection approach	Payment	Acquisition	Acquisition
Data collection method	Recall	Diary	Diary & recall
Semi-durable and durable items			
Data collection approach	Payment	Acquisition	Acquisition & payment
Data collection method	Recall	Diary & recall	Diary & recall
Services			
Data collection approach	Payment	Payment	Payment
Data collection method	Recall	Diary & recall	Diary & recall
Own production			
Data collection approach	Consumption	Consumption	Consumption
Data collection method	Recall	Diary	Diary

Time span

Data collection for the Living Conditions Survey 2008/2009 was conducted over a period of one year between September 2008 and August 2009.

Sample

The sampling frame for the LCS was obtained from Statistics South Africa's Master Sample (MS) based on the 2001 Population Census Enumeration Areas.

The scope of the Master Sample (MS) is national coverage of all households in South Africa and the target population consists of all qualifying persons and households in the country. The MS focuses on private dwelling units, workers' hostels, residential hotels, nurses' and doctors' quarters, but excludes patients in hospitals or clinics, guests in hotels and guesthouses, prisoners in prisons, scholars and students in school or student hostels and the aged in old-age homes. In summary, it has been designed to cover all households living in private dwelling units and workers living in workers' quarters in the country.

The MS consists of 3 080 primary sampling units (PSUs) made up of enumeration areas. The PSU coverage comprises all settlement types, including urban formal, urban informal, rural formal and traditional areas. For the LCS, 3 065 PSUs were sampled from the MS and roughly ten dwelling units (DUs) were sampled on average per PSU. In the case of multiple households, all households in the DU were included.

The sample was evenly split into four rotations (quarters) with national representativity in each rotation. Each rotation (consisting of a sample for three months) was then evenly split into monthly samples. Ultimately, the sample was evenly spread over the 12 survey periods (one month each).

Coverage

The LCS 2008/2009 included all domestic households, holiday homes and all households in workers' residences, such as mining hostels and dormitories for workers. It did not include institutions such as hospitals, prisons, old-age homes, student hostels and dormitories for scholars. Boarding houses, hotels, lodges and guesthouses were also excluded from the sample.

Response details

From the 31 473 dwelling units sampled across South Africa, 32 809 households were identified. Out of these, there was a sample realisation of 25 075 households.

Table B3 shows the response details for the LCS 2008/2009.

Table B3: Response details for the LCS 2008/2009

Province	Response rate (%)
RSA	**88,0**
Western Cape	85,2
Eastern Cape	94,2
Northern Cape	90,4
Free State	95,9
KwaZulu-Natal	84,8
North West	89,3
Gauteng	79,7
Mpumalanga	88,5
Limpopo	94,9

Annexure C: Concepts and definitions

Acquisition approach – An approach taking into account the total value of goods and services actually acquired during a given period, whether fully paid for or not during the period.

Anthropometrics – Use of body measurements, such as height and weight, to determine a person's nutritional status.

Classification of individual consumption according to purpose (COICOP) – International system of classification of goods and services based on individual consumption by purpose.

Consumption approach – An approach that takes into account the total value of all goods and services consumed (or used) during a given period.

Consumption expenditure – Expenditure on goods and services acquired, and privately used by household members, including imputed values for items produced and consumed by the household itself.

Diary – A record with discrete entries arranged by date reporting on what has happened over the course of a defined period of time. With regards to the LCS, diaries recorded all acquisitions, including the value of those acquisitions, made by the household over the period of a week.

Durable goods – Household items that last for a long time, such as kitchen appliances, computers, radios and televisions, cars and furniture, usually acquired once in several years.

Dwelling unit (DU) – Structure or part of a structure or group of structures occupied or meant to be occupied by one or more than one household.

Enumeration area (EA) – The smallest geographical unit (piece of land) into which the country is divided for census or survey purposes.

Household – A group of persons who live together and provide themselves jointly with food and/or other essentials for living, or a single person who lives alone.

Household head – The main decision-maker, or the person who owns or rents the dwelling, or the person who is the main breadwinner.

Household income – All receipts by all members of a household, in cash and in kind, in exchange for employment, or in return for capital investment, or receipts obtained from other sources such as social grants, pension, etc.

Income (individual) – All money received from salary, wages or own business; plus money benefits from employer, such as contributions to medical aid and pension funds; plus all money from other sources, such as additional work activities, remittances from family members living elsewhere, state pensions or grants, other pensions or grants, income from investments, etc.

Income-in-kind / expenditure-in-kind – This refers to items acquired by the household without paying for them, e.g. bursaries, subsidies from employer, free medical services, private use of a company car or similar vehicle, value of discounted fares for educational purposes, grants from schools and other educational institutions, excluding gifts and maintenance from other household members.

Master Sample (MS) – A sample drawn from a population for use on a number of future occasions, so as to avoid ad hoc sampling on each occasion.

Non-durable goods – Household items that do not last long, for example food, and personal care items. Households acquire these items on a daily, weekly or monthly basis.

Poor – Population living below a poverty line.

Poverty gap – This provides the mean distance of the poor from the poverty line.

Poverty headcount – This is the share of the population whose income or consumption is below the poverty line, that is, the share of the population that cannot meet its basic needs.

Poverty line – Line drawn at a particular level of income or consumption, households/individuals whose incomes fall below a given level of the poverty line or whose consumption level is valued at less than the value of the poverty line are classified as poor.

Poverty severity – This takes into account not only the distance separating the poor from the poverty line (the poverty gap), but also the inequality among the poor. That is, a higher weight is placed on those households/individuals who are further away from the poverty line.

Primary sampling unit (PSU) – Geographical area comprising one or more enumeration areas of the same type (and therefore not necessarily contiguous) that together have at least one hundred dwelling units.

Rural – Farms and traditional areas characterised by low population densities, low levels of economic activity and low levels of infrastructure.

Sample – Part of the population on which information can be obtained to infer about the whole population of units of interest.

Settlement type – Settlement type refers to the characteristic of an area according to settlement characteristics.

Semi-durable goods – Items that last longer than non-durable goods but still need replacing more often than durable goods, for example clothing, shoes, material for clothing.

Traditional area – Communally owned land under the jurisdiction of a traditional leader.

Urban – Formal cities and towns characterised by higher population densities, high levels of economic activities and high levels of infrastructure.

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