SUBJECTIVE POVERTY IN SOUTH AFRICA

FINDINGS FROM THE GENERAL HOUSEHOLD SURVEY 2019

Report: 03-10-25

IMPROVING LIVES THROUGH DATA ECOSYSTEMS

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Department:
Statistics South Africa
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Subjective Poverty in South Africa: Findings from General Household Survey, 2019/ Statistics South Africa

Published by Statistics South Africa, Private Bag X44, Pretoria 0001

Stats SA Library Cataloguing-in-Publication (CIP) Data
Subjective Poverty in South Africa: Findings from General Household Survey, 2019/ Statistics South Africa. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa, 2022

Report No. 03-10-25
182 pp

ISBN: 978-0-621-50063-9

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Abbreviations

SPWQ	Self-Perceived Wealth Question
MIQ	Minimum Income Question
IEQ	Income Evaluation Question
GHS	General Household Survey
LCS	Living Conditions Survey
IES	Income and Expenditure Survey
STATS SA	Statistics South Africa
WC	Western Cape
EC	Eastern Cape
NC	Northern Cape
FS	Free State
KZN	KwaZulu-Natal
NW	North West
GP	Gauteng
MP	Mpumalanga
LP	Limpopo
RSA	South Africa

Preface

This report presents the subjective poverty levels based on data collected by Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) through the General Household Survey (GHS) of 2019. In the past, Stats SA made use of data from the Income & Expenditure Survey (IES) and Living Conditions Survey (LCS) to derive subjective poverty indicators. In recent years, the relevant subjective poverty data items, namely the self-perceived wealth question (SPWQ), the minimum income question (MIQ) and the income evaluation question (IEQ), have been included in the GHS series which allows Stats SA to update these indicators on a more regular basis.

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Statistician-General

Chapter 1: Literature review

1.1 Introduction

Over recent years, theorists and researchers have put forward different proposals on how an individual's living standards should be measured. The most common of these - and also the official approach used by Statistics South Africa - is the objective measurement of poverty using poverty lines, which looks at a fixed minimum monetary amount below which an individual is classified as poor. However, as stated by Wang, Zhao, Bai, Zhang, Yu (2020), there are many who argue that individuals themselves are the best judge of their own welfare status, as they hold all the knowledge needed to make that assessment. Hence, using subjective poverty measures to complement the traditional objective poverty indicators allows for a more robust and holistic measurement of welfare in South Africa.

Authors have identified many factors that contribute to an individual's self-classification as being subjectively poor. These factors are generally based on characteristics of the household and its head, as well as their access to various social and economic resources (Kingdon & Knight, 2006; Wang, et al. 2020). For example, some features of the head of the household include sex, age, marital status, education level, population group, employment status, religion, and health status. At a household level, these features can include settlement type, household size, number of dependants, size and value of the dwelling unit, productive asset value and consumption assets (Benfield, 2008; Kingdon & Knight 2006; Wang, et al. 2020).

In a study conducted by Jansen, Moses, Mujuta and Yu (2015), results showed that South Africans living in urban areas were more likely to rate themselves subjectively poor as opposed to their counterparts living in rural areas. The same pattern was observed when the analysis was done for sex of the household head, where males were more likely to identify as being subjectively poor than females. Furthermore, subjective poverty headcounts are often higher than objective poverty headcounts across a range of variables.

Interestingly, when looking at international comparisons, the most important determinant of subjective well-being for most countries, according to a study by Bird, Diego-Rosell and Tortora (2016), is material well-being. In their research, material well-being was measured using the following variables: "not enough money for food", "not enough money for shelter", "satisfaction with household income", "home has a cellular phone", "home has TV", "home has internet access", "home has a landline telephone", and "city economy".

Empirically, subjective welfare/poverty (note that these terms will be used interchangeably throughout this report) is obtained by using surveys that measure an individual's welfare condition and minimum requirements (Wang et al., 2020). In the past, Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) made use of data from the Income & Expenditure Survey (IES) and Living Conditions Survey (LCS) to derive subjective poverty indicators; however, since the most recent available estimates from these data sources is 2015, this report will utilize data that is sourced from the 2019 General Household Survey (GHS). The GHS, among other things, measures the living standards of South Africans. In recent years, the relevant subjective poverty data items, namely the self-perceived wealth question (SPWQ), the minimum income question (MIQ) and the income evaluation question (IEQ), have been included in the GHS series which allows Stats SA to update these indicators on a more regular basis.

For the remainder of Chapter 1, the report will explain how each of these indicators are used to derive the subjective poverty status of South African households, as well as the literature that supports these measurements.

1.2 Construction of subjective poverty status for households using the SPWQ, MIQ and IEQ

The subjective poverty reports previously produced by Stats SA in 2012 and 2018, used data from the LCS 2008/09 and 2014/15. Below is an extract from the first report titled "Subjective Poverty in South Africa" which was published in 2012 and explains how these subjective concepts were developed. While this text directly refers to the LCS, these data items are now also applicable to the GHS which adopted these questions from the LCS.

The self-perceived wealth question (SPWQ) asked in the LCS requires respondents to select the classification they believe best represents their household's wealth status. The response categories are grouped using an ordinal scale ranging from 'very poor' to 'wealthy'. Households who responded 'poor' or 'very poor', are termed subjectively poor, while all other categories are classified as subjectively non-poor. A subjective poverty line following the Leyden approach, named for its origin at Leyden University in the Netherlands in the 1970s (Van Praag and Frijters 1999; Ravallion 2012), is constructed through a minimum income question (MIQ) which asks respondents to select the smallest level of income with which their household could make ends meet. If reported per capita household income falls below this minimum income level, then the household (and all individuals living in it) are identified as poor. The advantage to this method is that the extent, depth and severity of poverty can be estimated. For example, using the standard Foster-Greer-Thorbecke (FGT) set of poverty measures (Foster et al. 1984), the average distance of each household from its reported minimum income (as a proportion of this level of income) can be estimated (i.e. the depth of poverty). A direct way to use the MIQ available in the LCS is to ask respondents whether or not their household's actual level of income is above or below the minimum level reported in the previous question. In this way, respondents evaluate their own perception on whether they receive more than their reported minimum level (IEQ). In the LCS, the response items are presented in an ordinal scale ranging from 'much lower' to 'much higher'. Households are therefore identified as 'poor' if they described their income as 'lower' or 'much lower' than the minimum required income. All other responses are identified as 'non-poor'.

Table 1.1 shown below highlights how the SPWQ, MIQ and IEQ was asked in the LCS 2008/09 and 2014/15 (and now also in the General Household Survey 2019). It also displays the poverty cut-offs that are used to determine the subjective poverty status of a household. The questions highlighted in Table 1.1 were all asked at household level. The responses to the questions were provided by only one person within the household who was responding on behalf of other household members. This approach assumes that all members of a household will have the same perception about their economic well-being and thus will be classified as per the perception of the person responding on behalf of the household. This assumption may not be true for all instances as perceptions may influenced by various features already identified above. Analysis for this report was done at household level.

Table 1. 1: Subjective poverty indicators available in the GHS 2019

Subjective poverty indicator	Response items	Poverty cut-off
Self-perceived wealth question (SPWQ) *"Would you say you and your household are at present"*	1 = Wealthy 2 = Very comfortable 3 = Reasonably comfortable 4 = Just getting along 5 = Poor 6 = Very poor	5 = Poor 6 = Very poor
Minimum income question (MIQ) *"Which net household income per month in Rand would be the absolute minimum for your household? That is to say, that you would not able to make ends meet if your household earned less."*	Continuous	If reported per capita household income falls below the perceived minimum income level then the household is classified as poor
Income evaluation question (IEQ) *"Is the total monthly income of your household higher, lower, or more or less the same as the minimum income given above?"*	1 = Much higher 2 = Higher 3 = More or less the same 4 = Lower 5 = Much lower	4 = Lower 5 = Much lower

1.3 Literature pertaining to subjective poverty indicators

In addition to using money-metric measures of poverty, subjective poverty estimates provide a holistic picture of poverty in a country. Subjective poverty measurements are able to capture aspects of a household's living circumstances, which might not be reflected in their income and expenditure profile (Posel & Rogan, 2014). Consequently, using a self-assessment poverty question such as the self-perceived wealth question (SPWQ), allows for greater insight into various welfare components of the household, such as access to housing and basic services (Posel & Rogan, 2014).

The second subjective indicator used in this paper is one of the most widely used subjective poverty measures, namely the minimum income question (MIQ). The popularity of the MIQ stems from the fact that it is easily understood by respondents and is also the most realistic way of asking a subjective question in a survey (Van Praag et al., 1982; Gustafsson et al., 2004; Bishop et al., 2006 as cited in Wang et al., 2020). The MIQ is widely used to measure subjective welfare in both developing and developed countries. While the phrasing and positioning of this question may differ in questionnaires, they all ultimately measure the same thing, that is, what the respondent views as their minimum household income, below which they would not be able to make ends meet.

Following the study conducted in rural China by Wang et al. (2020), where the MIQ was used as the official subjective poverty measure, results showed that the subjective poverty rate was actually higher than the officially reported objective poverty lines, both nationally and globally. For example, 29% of households classified as non-poor in objective terms perceived themselves as subjectively poor. Furthermore, when comparing the average subjective poverty rate to that of the real per capita net income for each province and the country at large, the findings show that the mean subjective poverty rate was much lower than the mean per capita income.

Another study conducted in Czech Republic and Slovakia by Mysíková, Želinský, Garner, & Večerník, (2019), used a combination of the MIQ and what they refer to as the "ability to make ends meet" question. Critiques of the MIQ prefer using the latter question as they believe that it is easier for individuals to rank their poverty status using a scale, rather than trying to derive an exact amount that would be viewed as the minimum income required. They also believe that the MIQ is too unpredictable as a respondents understanding of the minimum income required can differ; along with the fact that they believe the MIQ is strongly influenced by individual's preferences, beliefs and goals. Interestingly, research undertaken by Posel and Rogan (2017), supports this finding.

In their paper, Posel and Rogan (2017) explore the relationship between inequality and the MIQ, specifically whether the high levels of inequality in South Africa have an effect on a household's income aspirations. Findings from the study indicate that more than half of poor households in South Africa reported a MIQ much higher than their current income, regardless of their living circumstances. Thus, indicating that the skewed income distribution in South Africa does not negatively affect income aspirations. On the contrary, it shows that the uneven distribution of income and resources inspires households to want more in life, particularly in terms of their minimum household income.

The third and final subjective poverty indicator used in this report is the income evaluation question (IEQ). The IEQ was derived from the Leyden approach (Ferrer-i-Carbonell & van Praag, 2001). The Leyden approach was developed at the Leyden University in Netherlands in the 1970s in an attempt to measure the abstract idea of experienced utility (Van Praag & Frijters, 1999). Initially, the approach focused mainly on evaluating income, however, this changed over the years. The Leyden approach according to Van Praag & Frijters (1999) is said to be based on two notions; first, that the individual is able to assess their own income levels and income levels in the greater sense using, what is known as verbal qualifiers, these include terms like "good", "bad" and "sufficient". Second, that these verbal qualifiers can be converted into a numerical bounded scale that is then used to evaluate income levels.

Van Praag, Spit and van de Stadt (1982) believe that unlike other poverty measures, the IEQ is less sensitive to changes in family size. This belief stems from the fact that when parents evaluate their income using the IEQ, the amount of children they have, shows a positive effect on their welfare evaluation (Van Praag, Spit & van de Stadt, 1982). The indicators used in the study, were the IEQ and the food poverty line (FPL).

High levels of income inequality has been an inherent legacy of South Africa linked to its colonial history and later the policies of Apartheid administration. Twenty-eight years' post-apartheid, and this scourge remains embedded in society, and ever more pronounced within and between the different population groups, where a notable gap between black Africans and whites has been an area of concern for policy makers. Intra-race inequality accounts as the main driver in increased inequality as compared to inequality between groups, particularly for black Africans (Van Der Berg, 2010; Leibbrandt, M. et al, 2010). The Gini co-efficient based on household per capita income using the LCS 2014/15 was found to exceed 0,6. This estimate qualifies South Africa as one of the most unequal countries in the world.

This challenge calls for targeted policies that address income redistribution. Literature has ascribed the bulk of income inequality to wage distribution, as compared to proceeds from income-producing assets and government grants. Radical intervention and the application of remedial labour market policies are therefore fundamental in the redress of this ill.

The association between income inequality and poverty is not obvious. In his paper, Van Der Berg shows that increased inequality can improve or exacerbate the poverty headcount, depending on where the poverty line lies relative to modal incomes. A question follows: what has been the trend for SA? According to Stats SA (2017), the NDP and Vision 2030 are our most recent guiding framework for development, which are based by two core objectives: poverty eradication and inequality reduction. South Africa is routinely recognized as one of the world's most unequal nations and despite numerous efforts by the South African government to alleviate inequality since 1994, progress has been slow (Stats SA, 2019). In this report, descriptive statistics such as quintiles have been used as measures to gauge the state of inequality in SA. However, there are some limitations when using income measures, such as recall bias and underreporting by households. An additional common source of error in the measurement of income is due to substantial refusals by households to share this information leading to missing values.

This report also sheds light on the subject of happiness, a much explored and well-documented area of research, and previously an area of psychology. This subject has recently attracted scholars from various fields and has become central in areas such as economic research and population sciences. Occasionally, happiness is labelled by synonyms such as subjective well-being, welfare and often times quality of life, which in essence is a reflection of the level of satisfaction with one's overall circumstances. Two components of happiness exist, viz. a cognitive and an affective one (Veenhoven, 2017). The former refers to happiness in light of the extent to which one gauges what they have achieved in life. However, this report focuses on the latter, which is a self-reported summative of how one often feels.

To date, literature studies investigating the factors that constitute or determine happiness, or rather a good quality of life, have been published. This literature often supports the notion that income, whether absolute or relative, is a key influence on the state of one's subjective well-being, even more so for those that are living in money-metric poverty. In addition, relative income, rather than absolute income, has been identified as more instrumental in explaining self-perceived wellbeing (Frey, Stutzer; 2002). However, the question surrounding the extent to which additional income raises subjective well-being remains. Researchers have also established that on its own, income does not perfectly explain the outcomes surrounding happiness. That is, income does not adequately predict happiness and a broad set of variables can be attributed to one's overall perception of happiness (Kingdon & Knight; 2005). A study by Easterlin (2001) also shows that although a correlation between income and happiness exists at any point in time, it is absent over the life cycle. Thus, more income translates to more happiness at any instant; however, happiness does not increase with income overtime. This apparent paradox has been explained by the idea that aspirations increase with income, subsequently dampening the positive effect of increased income on experienced happiness. An alternative argument is that beyond a certain level of income (which varies for individuals), additional income ceases to be the basis of happiness, and other factors such as family and health take precedence (Clark et al, 2008). Another shortcoming of income as pointed out by Fuller (2003) is that "income poverty measures miss crucial aspects of human welfare and opulence tells us little about how people succeed in living". Furthermore, factors such as crime, illness, political environment can offset the gains of household income. The aforementioned weaknesses of income in elucidating subjective well-being has resulted in the proposal of a multidimensional nature of this concept. This pursuit of a solid multidimensional approach to quantifying subjective well-being has sparked an interest toward the identification and inclusion of economic and non-economic domains that are fundamental to the framework.

Studies investigating the determinants of happiness using South African data have been conducted. A study by Blaauw et al. based on the 2008 NIDS[1] dataset revealed factors such as age, gender, marital status, location, educational attainment, household composition, and religion to be influential to one's well-being. Concisely, being more educated, married, male or staying in a rural province is associated with higher levels of happiness. The effect of age on well-being was found to be quadratic in nature; happiness decreased as age increased up to a certain point; after which an additional year increases overall well-being. Moreover, black Africans recorded the lowest happiness score of all population groups, and additional children in the household was correlated to more happiness (Blaauw et al, 2012). In an alternative study using the 1998 October Household Survey (OHS) dataset, Fuller (2003) noted that households with access to electricity and/or gas recorded higher satisfaction as compared to those that rely on coal. Households with access to a private motor vehicle were also happier as compared to those using public transport and other modes of transportation. The study furthermore revealed that food security accounts for the leading marginal effect on life satisfaction, and this influence was even greater for female-

[1] National Income Dynamics Study

headed households. In addition, factors of subjective well-being were found to impact different population groups dissimilarly. As an extension, Neff (2007) incorporates ethnicity in the analysis of subjective well-being and shows that significant intra-racial differences exist. Results suggest the presence of nuances of cultural differences associated with subjective well-being outcomes within races, particularly for black African and coloured population groups.

Another important issue to note is the effect of macro indicators on subjective well-being. Frey and Stutzer (2002) refer to studies that indicate that at an aggregate level, a higher unemployment rate results in reduced general well-being, the same was true for higher rates of inflation. In addition, people living in rich countries demonstrated more happiness than those in poor countries. This could be attributed to aspects such as sound democratic environments, improved healthcare systems, and better upheld fundamental human rights, which are characteristics often associated with affluent countries. This is consistent with the findings that "in the short term, happiness and economic growth are positively related" (Easterlin; 2013)

Similar to objective measures of welfare, the approach of measuring well-being subjectively has been met with some challenges. These challenges include matters such as identification of the non-economic goods befitting inclusion into the composite welfare indices and setting the relative weights across dimensions. Moreover, the question arises as to what constitutes a good quality of life (Ravillion; 2012).

In this report, happiness denotes the state of one's wholesome well-being, and is measured by means of a qualitative multiple category question in the GHS asking the respondent to state if they consider themselves to be happier, the same, or less happy with life than they were ten years ago, and is indicative of one's overall satisfaction with life. There has been criticism addressed to the existing methodology of asking this question at household level instead of the better-suited approach of asking it at an individual level. This criticism revolves mainly around matters that address the degree of accuracy and validity of a single individual's perception/response which is hypothetically representative of the entire household's position. The possibility that the respondent answers this question considering their personal state, instead of the household's, cannot be undermined (see Kingdon & Knight, 2005; Neff, 2007).

For the purpose of this report, it is also necessary to probe the correlation between income inequality and subjective happiness, if any. A study by Oishi et al. (2011) using the General Social Survey, found that lower-income Americans were in general happier when income inequality was lower than at periods where it was higher. This possibly signify an inverse relationship between happiness and income inequality. In a separate study using the World Database of Happiness and World Development Indicators Online Database, Oishi et al. (2015) show that economic growth did not directly translate to increased levels of happiness when accompanied by significant levels of income inequality, which supports the notion by Van Der Berg (2010) that "growth and trends in inequality jointly determine trends in poverty". Oishi et al. (2015). also concede that income and happiness are positively correlated when accompanied by an even distribution of income, that is, when income inequality is low. An interesting study on China by Jiang et al. (2012) finds evidence that between-group inequality reduces subjective well-being, whereas overall inequality increased it. In a comparison study between Europeans and Americans; Alesina et al. (2001) find that income inequality affects happiness for Europeans negatively, but not for Americans. Regrettably, there is a notable gap in literature addressing this matter in the South African context and other African developing countries.

Chapter 2: Key Findings

Table 2. 1: Poverty incidence of households by subjective poverty indicator

Poverty indicator	Poverty incidence
Self-perceived wealth question (SPWQ)	26,3%
Minimum income question (MIQ)	57,0%
Income evaluation question (IEQ)	46,7%

Table 2.1 presents the incidence of poverty according to the three subjective poverty measures examined in this report. The SPWQ measure recorded the least incidence of poverty of the three indicators with 26,3% of households who perceived themselves as poor. The IEQ measure reported the second highest incidence of poverty with 46,7% of households identified as living in poverty. Meanwhile, the MIQ measure yielded the highest subjective poverty rate with more than half of South African households (57,0%) being classified as poor. Based on these estimates, it appears that poverty levels increase when it is measured as the perceived inability to earn enough income to 'make ends meet'.

Figure 2. 1: Poverty incidence of households by subjective poverty indicator and happiness status

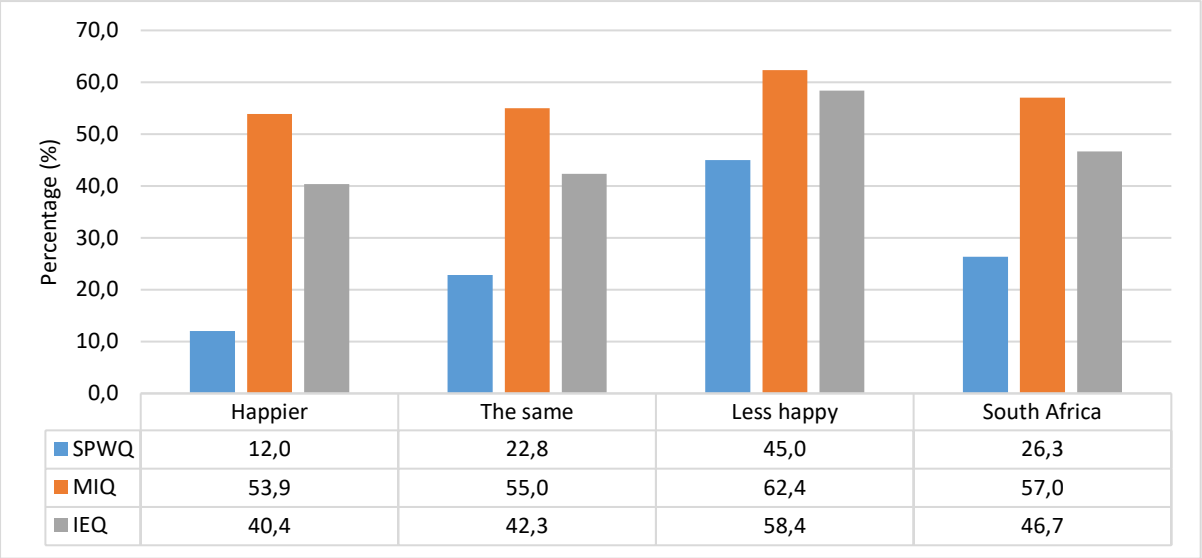
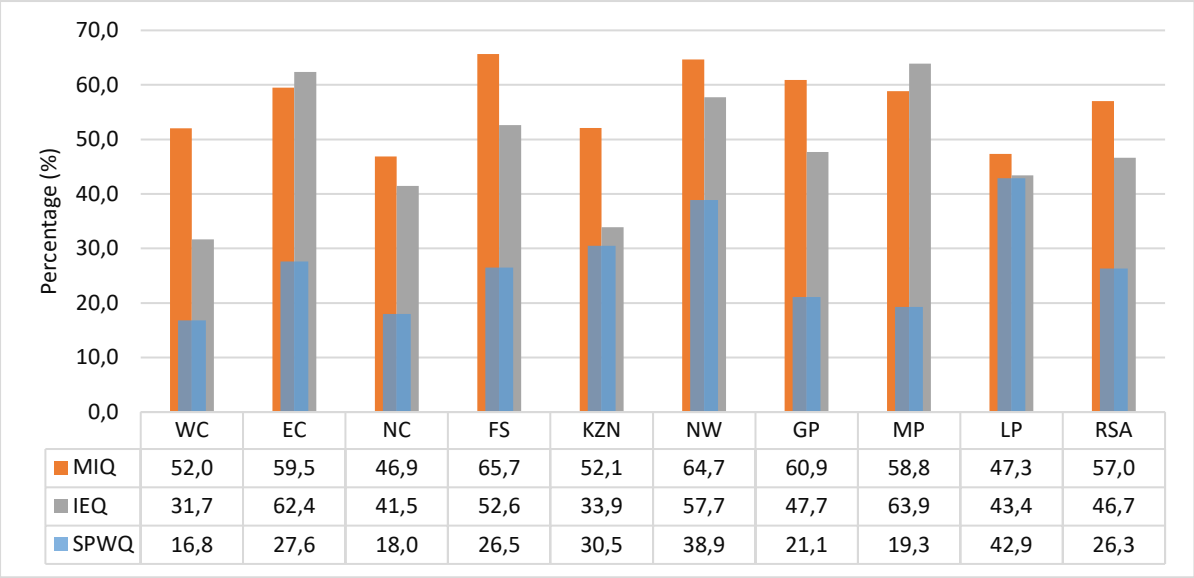


Figure 2.1 shows that when the happiness status of households (another subjective data item collected in the GHS series) is disaggregated by the three subjective poverty indicators, poor households also tend to be less happy households. This finding is especially true for all the poverty measures. Essentially, the majority of the poor were less happy than they were previously. According to the MIQ indicator, the highest incidence of poverty (62,4%) was reported from less happy households. In terms of the IEQ indicator, the highest incidence of poverty (58,4%) was also identified from less happy households. With the SPWQ indicator, the highest incidence of poverty (45,0%) also came from less happy households.

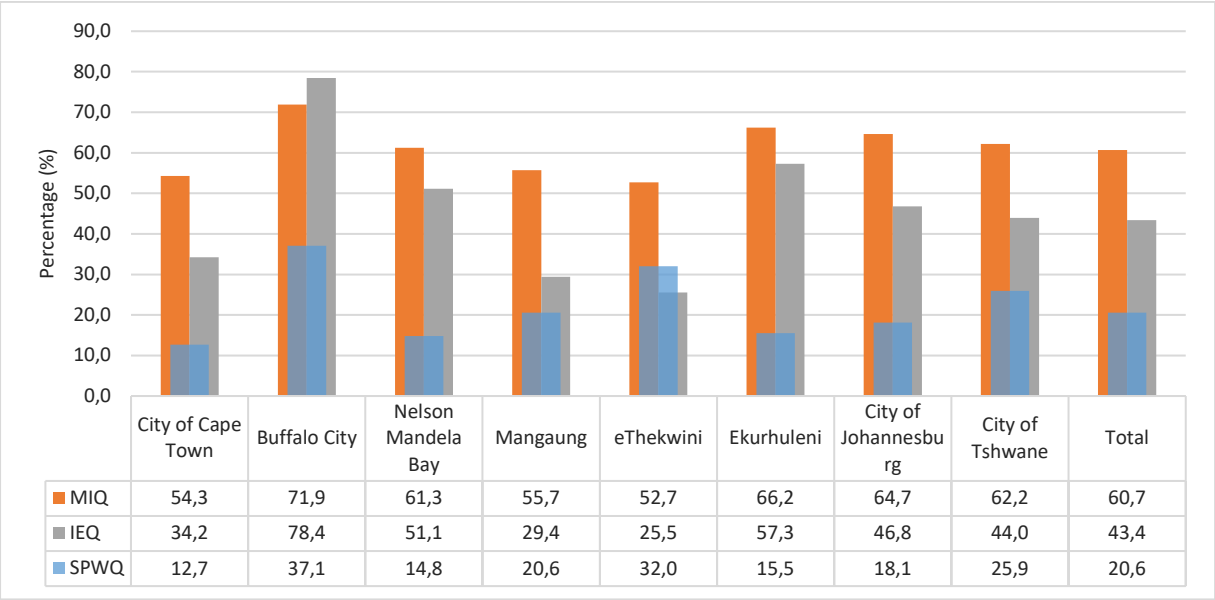
Figure 2. 2: Poverty incidence of households by subjective poverty indicator and province



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	RSA
MIQ	52,0	59,5	46,9	65,7	52,1	64,7	60,9	58,8	47,3	57,0
IEQ	31,7	62,4	41,5	52,6	33,9	57,7	47,7	63,9	43,4	46,7
SPWQ	16,8	27,6	18,0	26,5	30,5	38,9	21,1	19,3	42,9	26,3

Provincially, according to the SPWQ measure, subjective poverty was most prevalent in Limpopo (42,9%), followed by North West (38,9%) and then KwaZulu-Natal (30,5%). Based on the MIQ indicator, results suggest that subjective poverty was most predominant in the Free State (65,7%) and North West (64,7%), followed by Gauteng (60,9%). The remaining provinces recorded proportions of less than 60 percent. Contrary to the SPWQ indicator outcomes, Limpopo (47,3%) had the second lowest incidence of households classified as poor according to the MIQ. Poverty estimates according to the IEQ showed that Mpumalanga (63,9%) had the highest incidence of poor households, followed by Eastern Cape at 62,4%. The Western Cape had the lowest incidence of subjectively poor households according to the IEQ (31,7%) and SPWQ (16,8%) measures. Interestingly, although the three poverty measures varied in terms of which provinces reported the highest incidence of poor households, all the provinces with the highest rates of subjective poverty are predominately rural-based provinces.

Figure 2. 3: Poverty incidence of households by subjective poverty indicator and metropolitan area

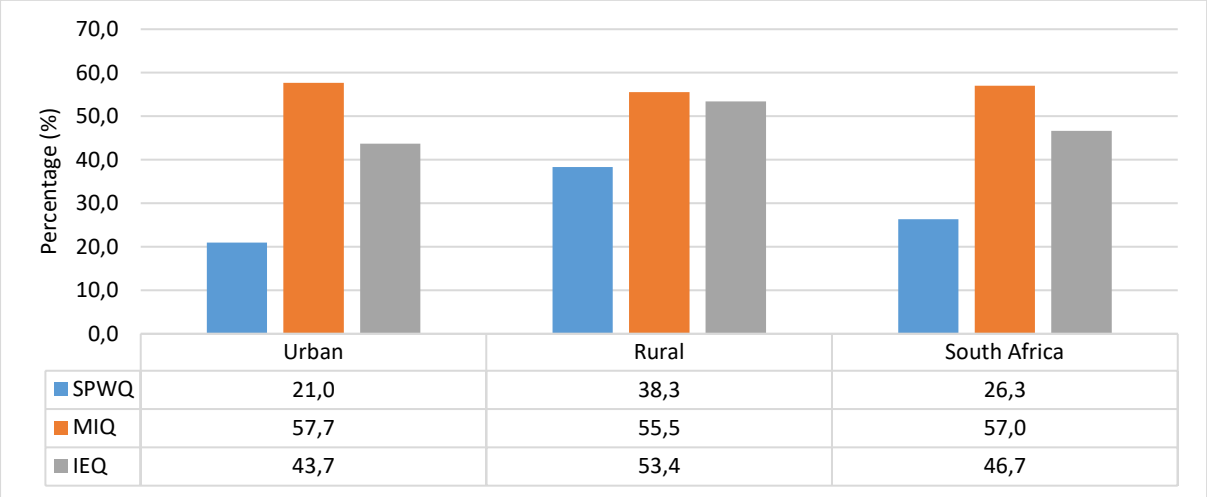


	City of Cape Town	Buffalo City	Nelson Mandela Bay	Mangaung	eThekwini	Ekurhuleni	City of Johannesburg	City of Tshwane	Total
MIQ	54,3	71,9	61,3	55,7	52,7	66,2	64,7	62,2	60,7
IEQ	34,2	78,4	51,1	29,4	25,5	57,3	46,8	44,0	43,4
SPWQ	12,7	37,1	14,8	20,6	32,0	15,5	18,1	25,9	20,6

Figure 2.3 shows the incidence of poverty by metropolitan area. Buffalo City in the Eastern Cape showed significantly higher proportions of subjectively poor households compared to the other metros across all three poverty measures. The poverty rate in the metro was 71,9% using the MIQ and 78,4% according to the IEQ; both proportions are significantly higher than their corresponding national average. This is in line with the high levels of subjective poverty reported in Eastern Cape as illustrated in Figure 2.2. The City of Tshwane in Gauteng is another metro that had higher rates than the national average in all three poverty measures, specifically 62,2%, 44,0% and 25,9% when using the MIQ, IEQ and SPWQ measures, respectively.

Interesting to note also is the higher proportion of poor households when using the SPWQ (32,0%) indicator than the IEQ (25,5%) measure in eThekwini as this opposes the pattern observed in other metros and nationally. The City of Cape Town had the lowest proportion of poor households according to the SPWQ (12,7%). However, the lowest proportion of poor households according to the MIQ and IEQ are found in eThekwini with 52,7% and 25,5%, respectively.

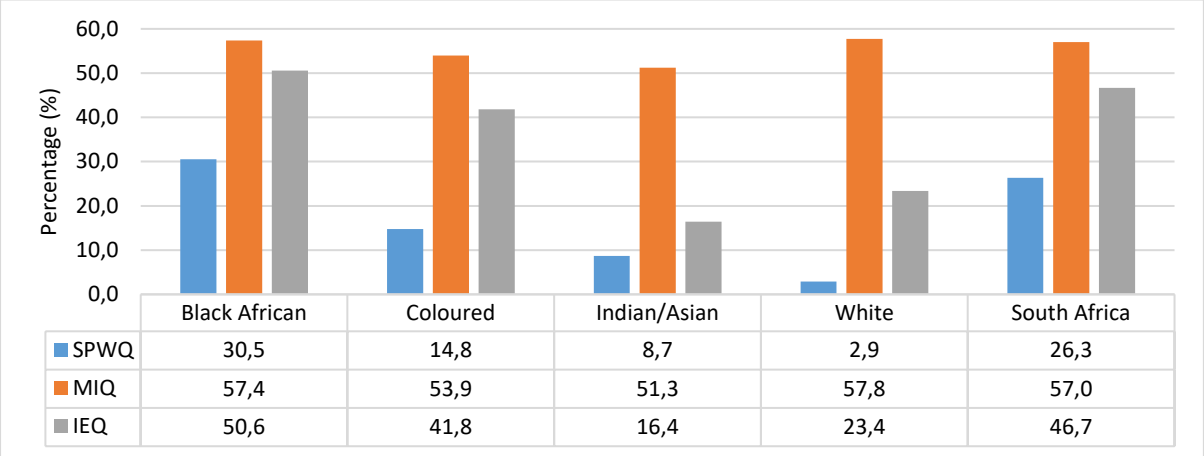
Figure 2. 4: Poverty incidence of households by subjective poverty indicator and settlement type



	Urban	Rural	South Africa
SPWQ	21,0	38,3	26,3
MIQ	57,7	55,5	57,0
IEQ	43,7	53,4	46,7

Figure 2.4 compares poverty levels in urban and rural areas. In line with objective poverty measures, poverty levels were generally higher in rural-based areas. Two of the three poverty measures had notably higher poverty rates in rural areas, namely the SPWQ (38,3% versus 21,0%) and the IEQ (53,4% versus 43,7%), while the poverty levels based on the MIQ were about equal (55,5% versus 57,7%).

Figure 2. 5: Poverty incidence of households by subjective poverty indicator and population group

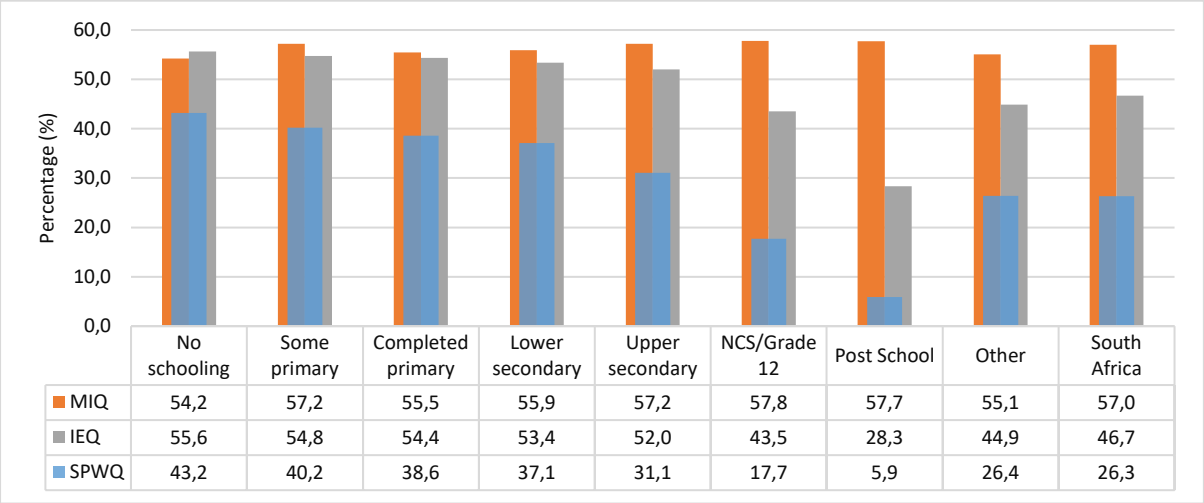


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	South Africa
SPWQ	30,5	14,8	8,7	2,9	26,3
MIQ	57,4	53,9	51,3	57,8	57,0
IEQ	50,6	41,8	16,4	23,4	46,7

The results highlighted in Figure 2.5 reiterate the stark differences in the experiences of poverty in the country based on population group, with black African-headed households significantly more impacted by poverty. Black African-headed households had the highest levels of subjective poverty across the poverty measures with the exception of the MIQ indicator where white-headed households had the highest levels. According to the SPWQ indicator, 30,5% of black African households perceived themselves as poor, while 57,4% reported a per capita household income not exceeding their desired minimum income required to meet the household's needs. Additionally, 50,6% of black African households indicated that their total monthly income was lower than the minimum income required for the household to make ends meet.

Although only 2,9% of white-headed households reported being poor according to the SPWQ indicator, a substantial 57,8% of these households perceived a minimum net household income exceeding their reported current household income as identified by the MIQ indicator.

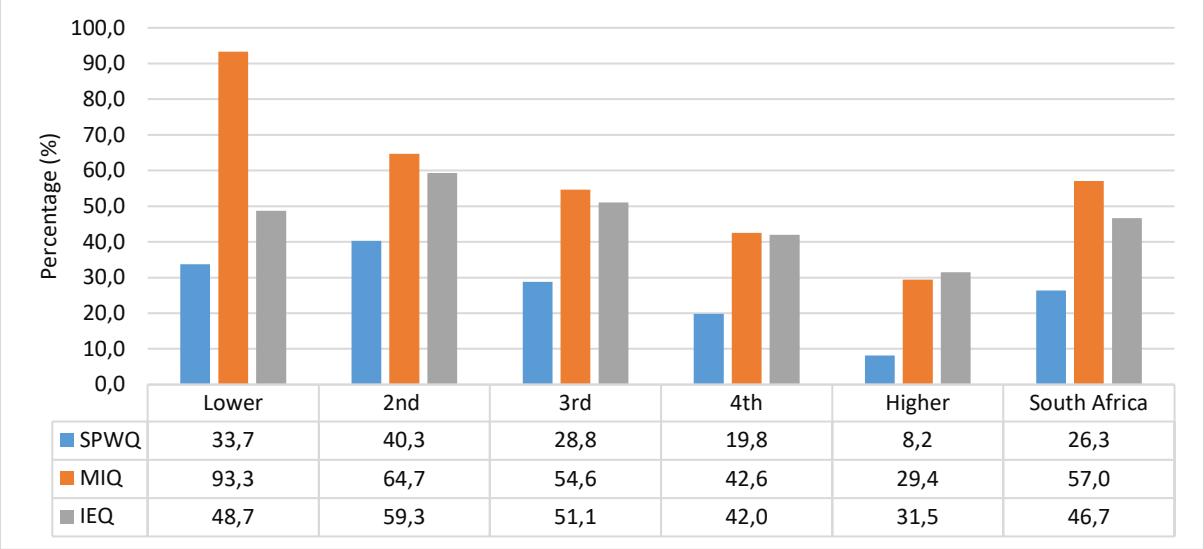
Figure 2. 6: Poverty incidence of households by subjective poverty indicator and highest educational attainment of the household head



	No schooling	Some primary	Completed primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	NCS/Grade 12	Post School	Other	South Africa
MIQ	54,2	57,2	55,5	55,9	57,2	57,8	57,7	55,1	57,0
IEQ	55,6	54,8	54,4	53,4	52,0	43,5	28,3	44,9	46,7
SPWQ	43,2	40,2	38,6	37,1	31,1	17,7	5,9	26,4	26,3

Figure 2.6 examines subjective poverty prevalence in terms of the head of household's highest educational attainment. A clear pattern is observed when focusing on the SPWQ indicator, where the results suggest a negative correlation between educational attainment and the incidence of poverty. In essence, households with less educated heads were more likely to perceive themselves as poor, as compared to their more educated counterparts. There is a notable 37,3 percentage point difference between household heads with no schooling (43,2%) and those with post-school training (5,9%). Although this pattern doesn't apply to the MIQ, a similar pattern is observed when focusing on the IEQ indicator, which reinforces the afore-mentioned proposed association between poverty and education. These findings are a reflection of the importance of education in combatting poverty in South Africa.

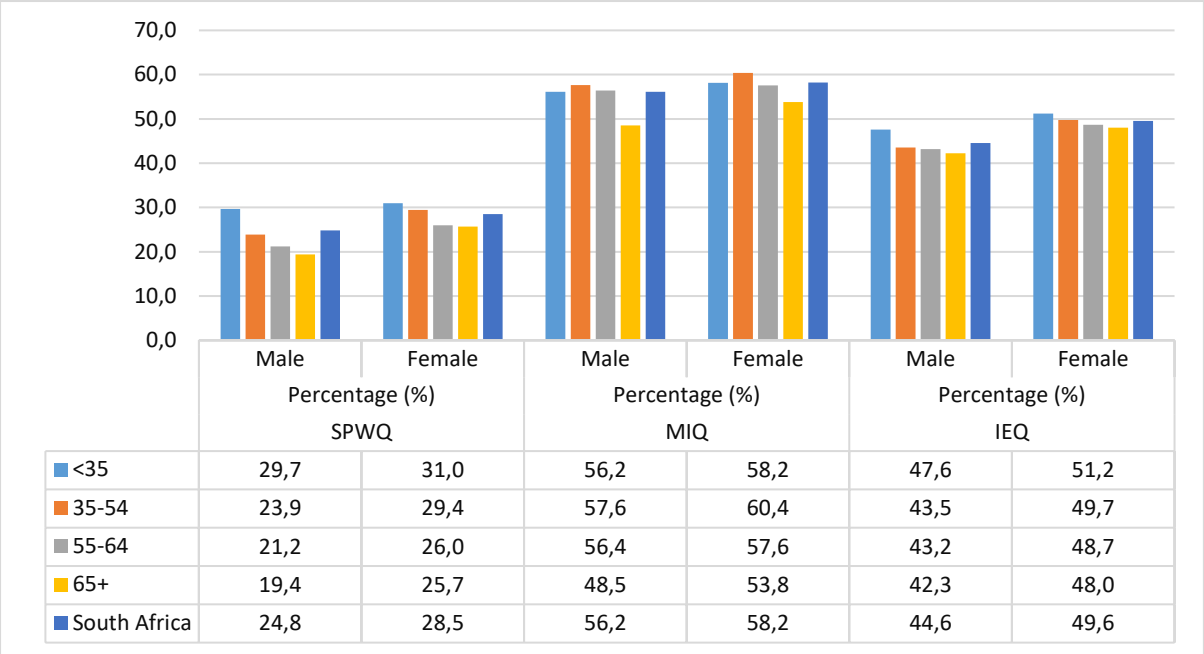
Figure 2. 7: Poverty incidence of households by subjective poverty indicator and household income quintiles



	Lower	2nd	3rd	4th	Higher	South Africa
SPWQ	33,7	40,3	28,8	19,8	8,2	26,3
MIQ	93,3	64,7	54,6	42,6	29,4	57,0
IEQ	48,7	59,3	51,1	42,0	31,5	46,7

Figure 2.7 illustrates the incidence of poverty within each of the five household income quintiles. Essentially, this is a depiction of the intersection between money-metric and subjective poverty. Based on the figure above, as you move up quintiles, the prevalence of poverty decreases. Conversely, higher levels of subjectively poverty are reported in the bottom two quintiles. In general, the figure reveals a downward movement in subjective poverty incidence as household income increases, which suggests that the experience of poverty is lower for higher income households. This outcome aligns with the findings outlined in the literature that suggests a robust association between income and subjective poverty. It also aligns with the findings on subjective poverty by Stats SA from the LCS 2008/09 and 2014/15.

Figure 2. 8: Poverty incidence of households by subjective poverty indicator and age and sex of the household head



	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	Percentage (%) SPWQ		Percentage (%) MIQ		Percentage (%) IEQ	
<35	29,7	31,0	56,2	58,2	47,6	51,2
35-54	23,9	29,4	57,6	60,4	43,5	49,7
55-64	21,2	26,0	56,4	57,6	43,2	48,7
65+	19,4	25,7	48,5	53,8	42,3	48,0
South Africa	24,8	28,5	56,2	58,2	44,6	49,6

Figure 2.8 depicts the incidence of subjective poverty in male and female-headed households according to their age cohort. As seen in earlier figures, the indicator with the highest poverty levels was the MIQ poverty measure and this applied to all age groups and both sexes. Across all the poverty measures and age groups, female-headed households consistently reported the highest incidence of poor households compared to their male counterparts. Furthermore, Figure 2.8 shows a pattern of decreasing poverty incidence in older age groups, particularly with regard to the SPWQ and IEQ indicators; that is, poverty prevalence appears to decrease as you move up the age cohort hierarchy. This finding was true for household headed by both sexes. This result could likely be attributed to the incessant difficulty faced by younger generations in accessing the labour market and building their wealth profile, especially as the influence of income on subjective poverty has been established both in the literature and the results of the GHS 2019.

Chapter 3: Subjective Wealth Indicator (SPWQ)

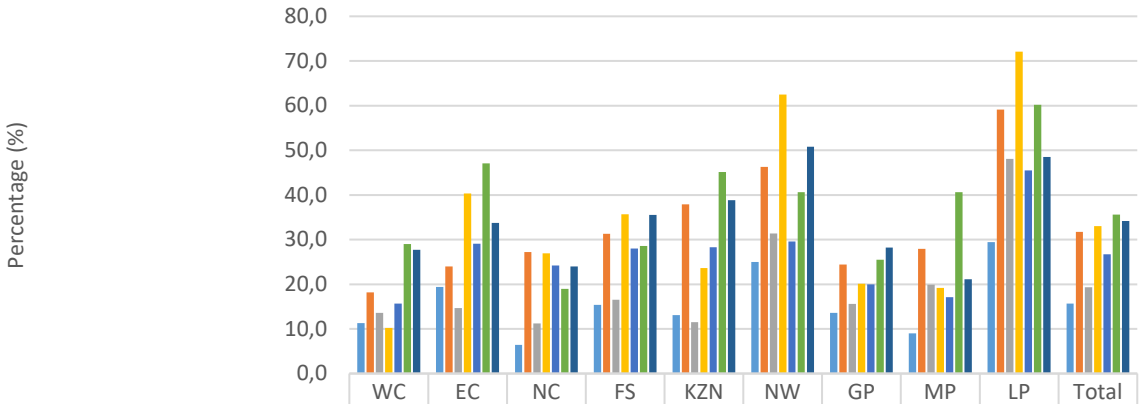
3.1 Introduction

This chapter looks at an in-depth profile of subjective poverty in South Africa using the SPWQ indicator. Sections 3.2 to 3.8 profiles poverty by marital status, household size, household composition, inter-generational households, number of bedrooms, experience of hunger and level of food adequacy. Sections 3.9 to 3.14 profile poverty by happiness status, employment status, medical-aid status, health status, access to internet and ownership of assets. The following variables will mainly be used for disaggregation: province, population group, sex of the household head and settlement type.

3.2 Poverty profile by marital status

3.2.1 Marital status of the household head and province

Figure 3. 1: Poverty incidence of households by province and marital status of the household head

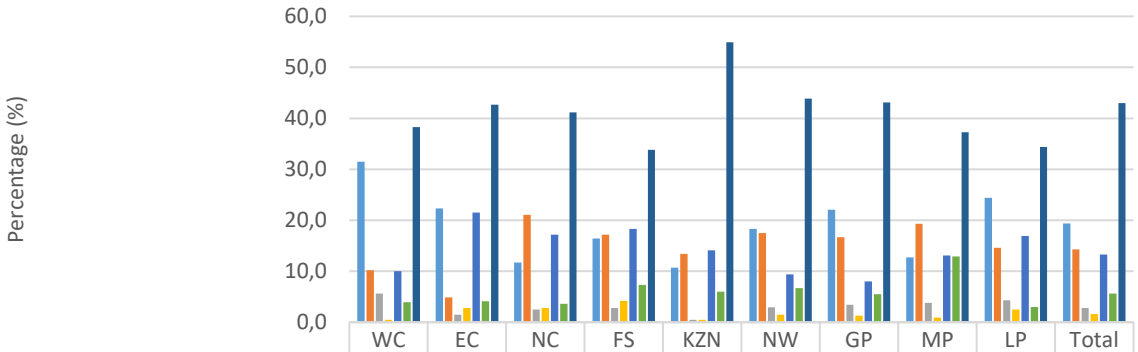


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Legally married	11,3	19,4	6,4	15,4	13,1	25,0	13,6	9,0	29,4	15,7
Living together	18,2	24,0	27,2	31,3	37,9	46,3	24,4	27,9	59,1	31,7
Divorced	13,6	14,7	11,2	16,5	11,5	31,4	15,6	19,9	48,1	19,3
Separated	10,2	40,3	26,9	35,7	23,6	62,5	20,1	19,2	72,1	33,0
Widowed	15,7	29,1	24,2	28,0	28,3	29,6	20,0	17,1	45,5	26,7
Single, but have lived together	29,0	47,1	19,0	28,6	45,1	40,6	25,5	40,6	60,2	35,6
Single and have never been married/never lived together	27,7	33,7	24,0	35,5	38,8	50,8	28,2	21,1	48,5	34,2

Figure 3.1 shows that nationally, residing in a household where the household head is legally married is associated with the lowest risk of poverty with only 15,7% of such households at risk of poverty followed by those residing in a household headed by a divorced person with only 19,3% living in poverty. Households headed by those that are widowed had the third lowest risk of poverty with 26,7% of those households living in poverty. However, residing in a household headed by a single person is associated with higher risk of poverty in cases of either having lived together with someone as husband/wife/partners before (35,6%) or have never been married/never lived together as husband/wife before (34,2%).

When provinces are taken into account Limpopo had the highest incidence of poverty of all the marital status categories except for households headed by a single person who has never been married/never lived together as husband/wife, where North West province (50,8%) has the highest incidence. Households headed by separated, but still legally married heads from Limpopo (72,1%) have the highest incidence of poverty compared to all the other categories, followed by those headed by separated individuals from the North West (62,5%) and Eastern Cape (40,3%) provinces with similar marital status.

Figure 3. 2: Percentage distribution of poor households by marital status of the household head and province



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Legally married	31,5	22,3	11,7	16,4	10,7	18,3	22,1	12,7	24,4	19,4
Living together	10,2	4,9	21,1	17,2	13,4	17,5	16,7	19,3	14,6	14,3
Divorced	5,6	1,5	2,5	2,8	0,5	2,9	3,4	3,8	4,3	2,8
Separated	0,5	2,8	2,8	4,2	0,5	1,5	1,3	0,9	2,5	1,6
Widowed	10,0	21,5	17,2	18,3	14,1	9,4	8,0	13,1	16,9	13,3
Single, but have lived together	3,9	4,1	3,6	7,3	6,0	6,7	5,5	12,9	3,0	5,6
Single and have never been married/never lived together	38,3	42,7	41,2	33,8	54,9	43,9	43,1	37,3	34,4	43,0

Figure 3.2 shows that nationally, the largest share of poor households living in poverty were headed by those that were single and have never been married/never lived together as husband/wife before contributing 43,0%. They were followed by those that were legally married (19,4%) with households headed by those living together like husband and wife/partners (14,3%) contributing the third largest share. In all the provinces the ranking of the largest share of poor households is similar to the national rankings, led by single and have never been married/lived together as husband/wife headed households.

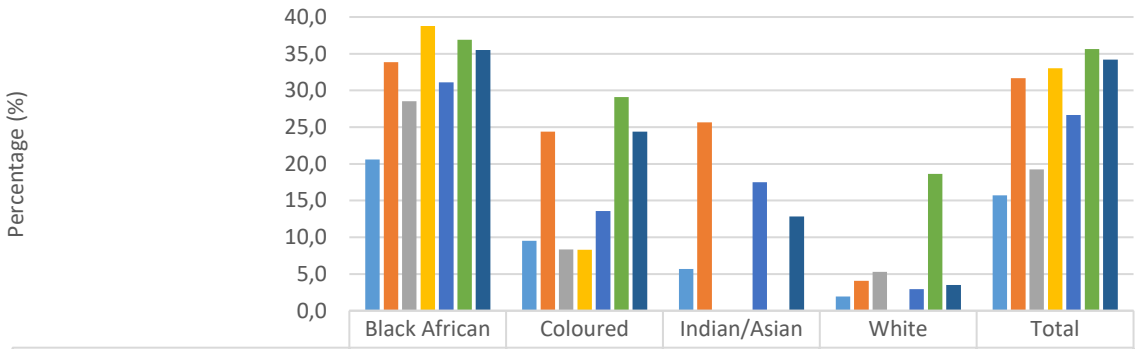
In KwaZulu-Natal (14,1%) and Free State (18,3%) the second largest share of poor households by marital status were found in households headed by those that were widowed. However, in Mpumalanga and Northern Cape the second largest share of poor households came from households headed by those that were living together like husband and wife/partners at 19,3% and 21,1% respectively. This is different from the other remaining provinces of Western Cape (31,5%), Eastern Cape (22,3%), North West (18,3%), Gauteng (22,1%) and Limpopo (24,4%) where the second largest share of poor households came from those headed by legally married heads mirroring the ranking of the total share of poor households.

There was also an over-representation of poor households in Gauteng (43,1%), North West (43,9%) and KwaZulu-Natal (54,9%) relative to the total proportion of poor households (43,0%) for this marital status category; where their shares were higher than that of the total poor households.

Other examples of over-representations of the share of poor households relative to the total proportion of poor households by marital status and province are witnessed in the following provinces for households headed by those that are legally married, Western Cape (31,5%), Eastern Cape (22,3%), Gauteng (22,1%) and Limpopo (24,4%). Households headed by those that are living together, experienced over-representation in the following provinces; Northern Cape (21,1%), Free State (17,2%), North West (17,5%), Gauteng (16,7%), Mpumalanga (19,3%) and Limpopo (14,6%). However, there are also examples of under-representation of the share of poor households by marital status and province relative to the total share of poor households such as those found in households headed by divorced heads in Eastern Cape (1,5%), Northern Cape (2,5%) and KwaZulu-Natal (0,5%) compared to the total share of poor households for this category of 2,8%. Other examples are found in households headed by widowed heads in Western Cape (10,0%), North West (9,4%) and Gauteng (8,0%) compared to the total share of poor households for this category of 13,3%.

3.2.2 Marital status of the household head and population group

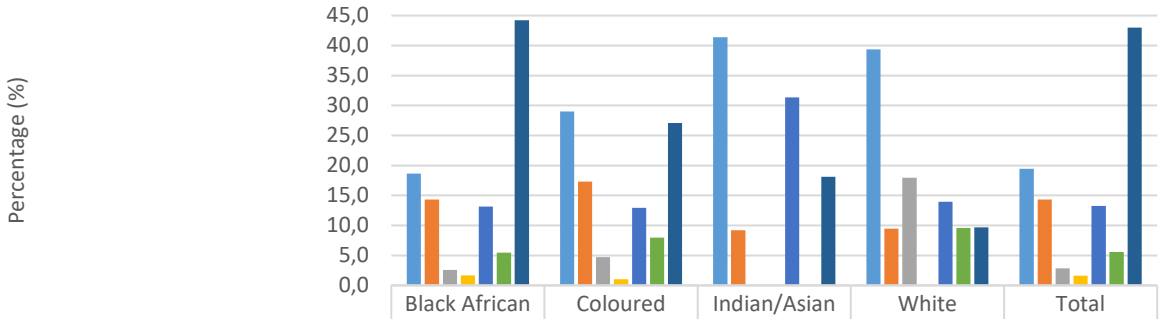
Figure 3. 3: Poverty incidence of households by population group and marital status of the household head



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Legally married	20,6	9,5	5,7	1,9	15,7
Living together	33,9	24,4	25,7	4,1	31,7
Divorced	28,5	8,3	0,0	5,3	19,3
Separated	38,8	8,3	0,0	0,0	33,0
Widowed	31,1	13,6	17,5	2,9	26,7
Single, but have lived together	36,9	29,1	0,0	18,6	35,6
Single and have never been married/never lived together	35,5	24,4	12,8	3,5	34,2

Figure 3.3 illustrates that black African headed households had the highest levels of poverty by all the marital status categories when compared to the other population groups. The poverty levels for black African headed households by marital status were also higher than all the national averages. For households headed by black Africans, the highest proportion of the poor by marital status were found in those with a separated, but still legally married status (38,8%) followed by those with a single, but have lived together marital status (36,9%). For coloured households the highest poverty levels were found in those headed by single persons who have lived together with someone (29,1%). Followed jointly by those who lived together (24,4%) and single and have never been married/lived together with someone (24,4%). The highest proportion of poor households for Indian/Asian headed households were in households headed by those living together like husband and wife/partners (25,7%). For white headed households, the highest incidence of poverty was in those headed by single, but have lived together marital status (18,6%).

Figure 3. 4: Percentage distribution of poor households by population group and marital status of the household head

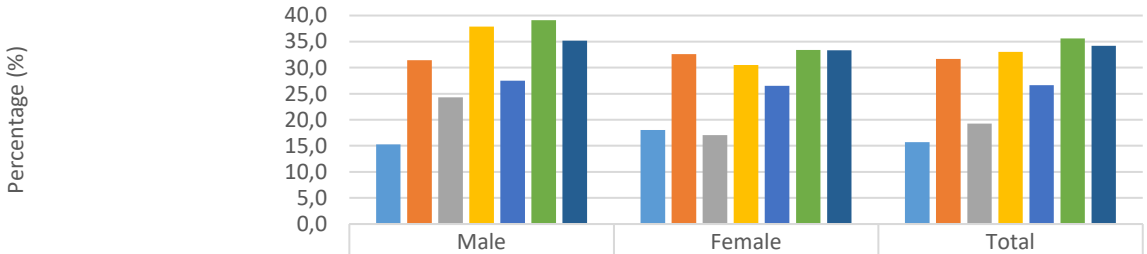


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Legally married	18,6	29,0	41,4	39,3	19,4
Living together	14,3	17,3	9,2	9,5	14,3
Divorced	2,6	4,7	0,0	18,0	2,8
Separated	1,6	1,0	0,0	0,0	1,6
Widowed	13,1	12,9	31,3	14,0	13,3
Single, but have lived together	5,5	8,0	0,0	9,5	5,6
Single and have never been married/never lived together	44,2	27,1	18,1	9,7	43,0

Figure 3.4 shows that black African headed households had the largest share of poor households by marital status. This was contributed mainly by those who were single and have never lived together (44,2%). This indicates an over-representation of the share of poor households by black African headed households relative to the total share of poor households by this marital status of 43,0%. For black African headed households, the second largest share of poor households were from heads who are legally married (18,6%) indicating an under-representation of the share of poor households relative to the share of the total poor households for this category of 19,4%. The largest share of poor households for coloured headed households was contributed by households whose heads were legally married (29,0%) indicating an over-representation of poor households, followed by those living together (17,3%), also depicting an over-representation of poor households. Just like coloured households, households headed by those who are legally married contributed the largest share of poor households for Indian/Asians (41,4%) followed by those headed by widowed heads (31,3%). The highest share contribution of poor households for white households came from those who are legally married (39,3%), followed by those who are divorced (18,0%).

3.2.3 Marital status and sex of the household head

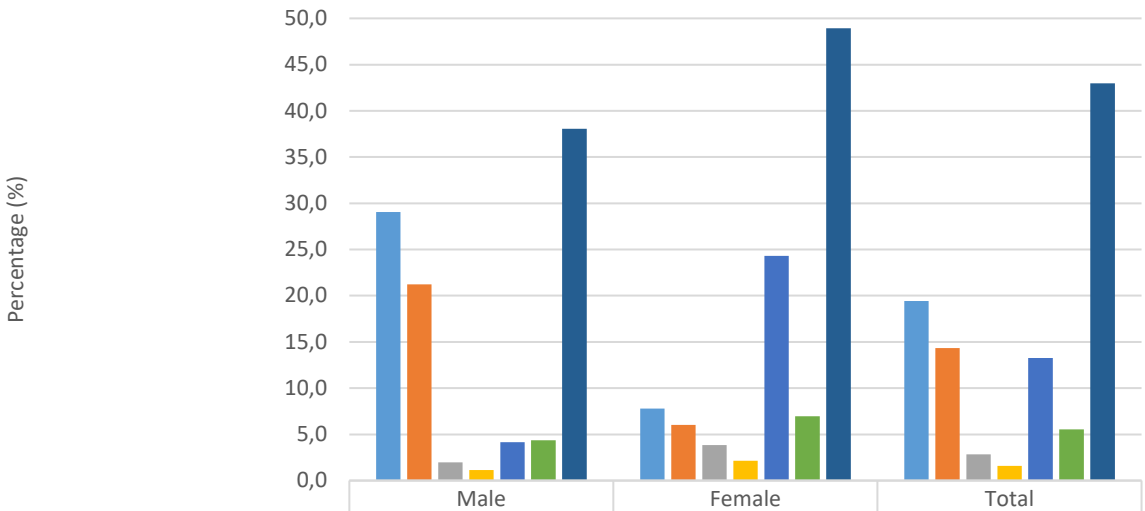
Figure 3. 5: Poverty incidence of households by sex and marital status of the household head



	Male	Female	Total
Legally married	15,3	18,0	15,7
Living together	31,5	32,6	31,7
Divorced	24,3	17,1	19,3
Separated	37,9	30,5	33,0
Widowed	27,5	26,5	26,7
Single, but have lived together	39,1	33,4	35,6
Single and have never been married/never lived together	35,2	33,3	34,2

When evaluating the risk of poverty by sex and marital status of the household head, Figure 3.5 shows that for both male- and female-headed households the highest risk of poverty is found in households headed by a single person who has lived together with someone. Male-headed households had the highest levels of poverty at 39,1% which were higher than the national average of 35,6% compared to female-headed households with poverty levels of 33,4% which were lower than the national average. However, for both sex of household heads the second highest levels of poverty differs where for male-headed households they are found in heads who are separated, but still legally married (37,9%). For female-headed households the second highest poverty levels are found in those headed by a single person who has never been married/lived together (33,3%), depicting a pattern similar to the national average where this category has the second highest poverty levels. Similarly, the third highest levels of poverty for both sexes differ, with households headed by males being depicted by those who are single and have never been married/lived together (35,2%). However, for female-headed households the third highest poverty levels are found in households headed by a head who is living together with someone (32,6%). Overall, when comparing poverty levels for both sexes by marital status, female-headed households only have higher poverty levels compared to male-headed households for two categories, legally married (18,0%) and living together (32,6%). For the rest of the categories male-headed households had higher poverty levels compared to female-headed ones.

Figure 3. 6: Percentage distribution of poor households by sex and marital status of the household head

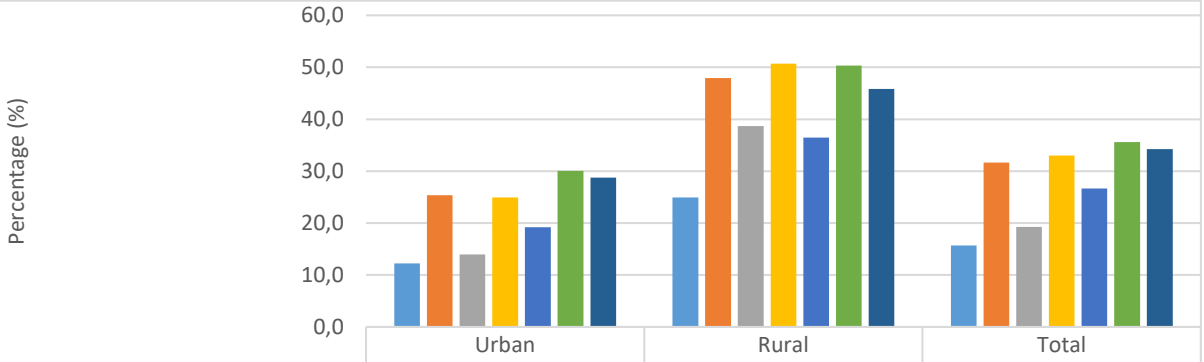


	Male	Female	Total
Legally married	29,1	7,8	19,4
Living together	21,2	6,0	14,3
Divorced	2,0	3,9	2,8
Separated	1,1	2,1	1,6
Widowed	4,1	24,3	13,3
Single, but have lived together	4,4	7,0	5,6
Single and have never been married/never lived together	38,1	48,9	43,0

The share of poor households by marital status and sex of the household heads are shown in Figure 3.6 where for both sexes the highest contribution were from households headed by a single person who has never been married/never lived together; with female-headed households contributing the largest share of 48,9% compared to male-headed households with a share contribution of 38,1%. For male-headed households the second highest share contribution came from those who are legally married (29,1%) depicting the same pattern as the national share contribution. However, for female-headed households the second highest contribution was from households headed by those who are widowed (24,3%). The third largest share contribution for male-headed households was from households headed by those living together (21,2%) which again follows the national pattern. However, in contrast for female-headed households the third-largest share contribution came from households headed by those who are legally married (7,8%).

3.2.4 Marital status and settlement type

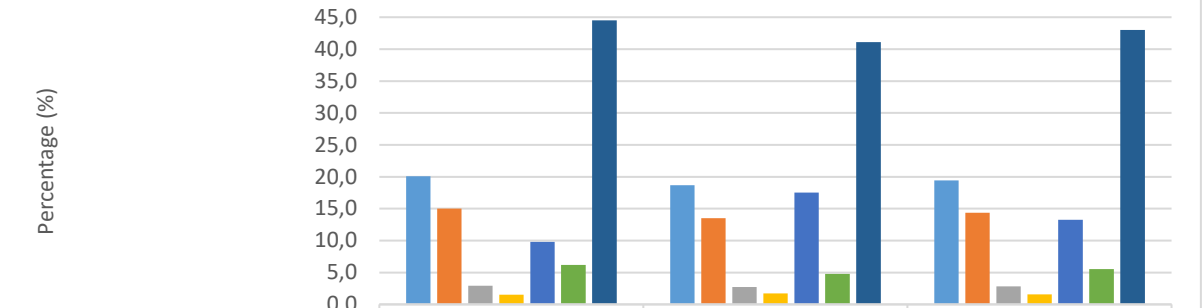
Figure 3. 7: Poverty incidence of households by settlement type and marital status of the household head



	Urban	Rural	Total
Legally married	12,3	24,9	15,7
Living together	25,4	47,9	31,7
Divorced	13,9	38,6	19,3
Separated	24,9	50,7	33,0
Widowed	19,2	36,4	26,7
Single, but have lived together	30,0	50,3	35,6
Single and have never been married/never lived together	28,7	45,8	34,2

Figure 3.7 illustrates that all rural-based households have extremely higher poverty levels by marital status compared to their urban counterparts. The highest poverty levels for rural-based households were found in those headed by heads who are separated, but still legally married (50,7%). However, for urban-based households the highest incidence of poor households was found in those headed by single persons who have lived together (30,0%) which is a similar ranking to the national pattern. The second and third highest poverty levels for rural-based households were found in those that are single, but have lived together (50,3%) and living together (47,9%) respectively. For urban-based households the second and third highest poverty levels were found in those headed by a single person who has never been married/never lived together (28,7%) and those living together (25,4%) respectively, with the third highest poverty ranking pattern similar for both settlement types.

Figure 3. 8: Percentage distribution of poor households by settlement type and marital status of the household head



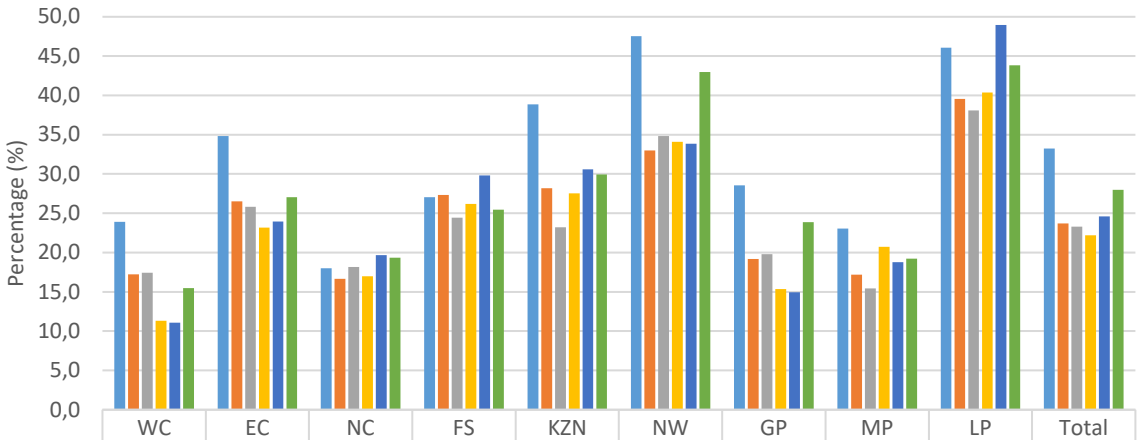
	Urban	Rural	Total
Legally married	20,1	18,7	19,4
Living together	15,0	13,5	14,3
Divorced	2,9	2,7	2,8
Separated	1,5	1,7	1,6
Widowed	9,8	17,5	13,3
Single, but have lived together	6,2	4,8	5,6
Single and have never been married/never lived together	44,5	41,1	43,0

Figure 3.8 shows the share of poor households by settlement type and marital status of the household head. For urban households the highest share of the poor was contributed by those who are single and have never been married/never lived together (44,5%). This indicates an over-representation of poor households because their share is higher than that of the total share of poor households for this marital status category of 43,0%. Similarly, for rural-based households, the highest share of poor households came from those who are single and have never been married/never lived together (41,1%). However, for rural-based households, unlike their urban counterparts theirs was under-representation of poor households. There were also other over-representations of the share of poor households for urban-based households for households headed by legally married (20,1%), living together (15,0%), divorced (2,9%), separated (1,5%) and single, but have lived together (6,2%) heads. There was also under-representation for urban-based households represented by those headed by widowed (9,8%) heads. For rural-based households there were also other under-representations for households headed by those with the following marital statuses; legally married (18,7%), living together (13,5%), divorced (2,7%) and single, but lived together (4,8%). However, for rural households there were also over-representation for those with the following marital statuses; separated (1,7%) and widowed (17,5%).

3.3 Poverty profile by household size

3.3.1 Household size and province

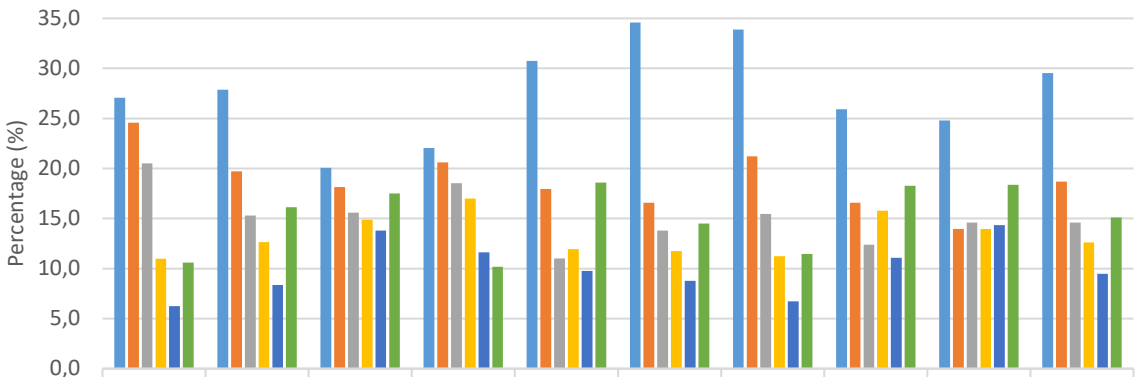
Figure 3. 9: Poverty incidence of households by province and household size



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
1	23,9	34,8	18,0	27,0	38,9	47,5	28,6	23,1	46,1	33,2
2	17,2	26,5	16,7	27,3	28,2	33,0	19,2	17,2	39,5	23,7
3	17,4	25,8	18,2	24,4	23,2	34,8	19,8	15,4	38,1	23,3
4	11,3	23,2	17,0	26,2	27,5	34,1	15,4	20,7	40,4	22,2
5	11,1	23,9	19,7	29,8	30,6	33,8	14,9	18,8	48,9	24,6
6+	15,5	27,0	19,4	25,5	29,9	43,0	23,9	19,2	43,8	28,0

When poverty is evaluated according to household size, the risk of being in poverty decreases as the household size increases as shown in Figure 3.9. However, this is the opposite of the conventional wisdom according to the objective poverty where larger households tend to be poorer in South Africa. Nationally, poverty levels decreased from 33,2% when households comprise of only one individual to 28,0% when households are made up of six and more individuals. When the incidence of poverty is evaluated in terms of household size and province, the pattern is mainly similar to the one observed nationally. For all the provinces except for Northern Cape the risk of poverty mainly decreases as the household size increases. However, the Northern Cape follows an increasing pattern where the risk of poverty increases from 18,0% for households with only one individual to an increase of 19,4% for households made-up of six and more individuals.

Figure 3. 10: Percentage distribution of poor households by household size and province

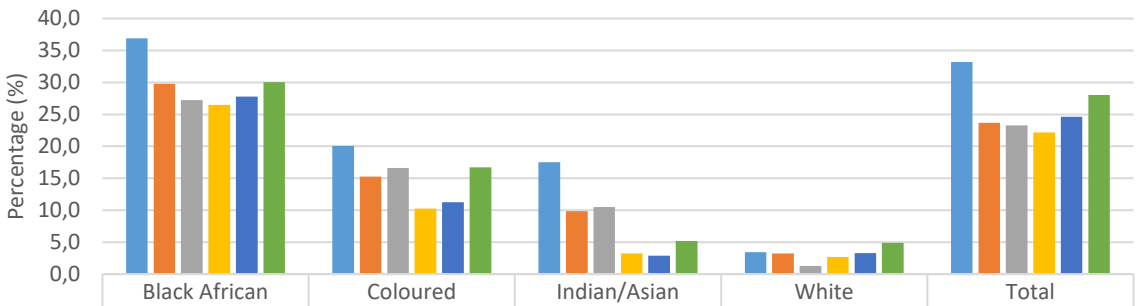


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
1	27,1	27,9	20,1	22,0	30,8	34,6	33,9	25,9	24,8	29,5
2	24,6	19,7	18,1	20,6	17,9	16,6	21,2	16,6	14,0	18,7
3	20,5	15,3	15,6	18,5	11,0	13,8	15,5	12,4	14,6	14,6
4	11,0	12,7	14,9	17,0	11,9	11,8	11,3	15,8	14,0	12,6
5	6,2	8,3	13,8	11,6	9,8	8,8	6,7	11,1	14,3	9,5
6+	10,6	16,1	17,5	10,2	18,6	14,5	11,5	18,3	18,4	15,1

Figure 3.10 indicates that nationally, the largest share of households living in poverty according to the household size are found in household sizes of only one individual (29,5%); followed by those in household sizes that are made up of 2 persons (18,7%) and with household sizes comprising of six and more persons contributing the third largest share of poor households. When looking at the share of poor households by household size and province, Eastern Cape, Northern Cape, North West follows the pattern observed nationally. Interestingly, the rural-based provinces of KwaZulu-Natal, Mpumalanga and Limpopo follow a similar pattern with regards to the largest and second largest share of poor households. They show that the largest share of poor households was from household size consisting of only one individual and the second largest share being that comprising of six and more individuals. This might indicate that in these provinces large household sizes might have an influence in determining the subjective poverty status of a household.

3.3.2 Household size and population group

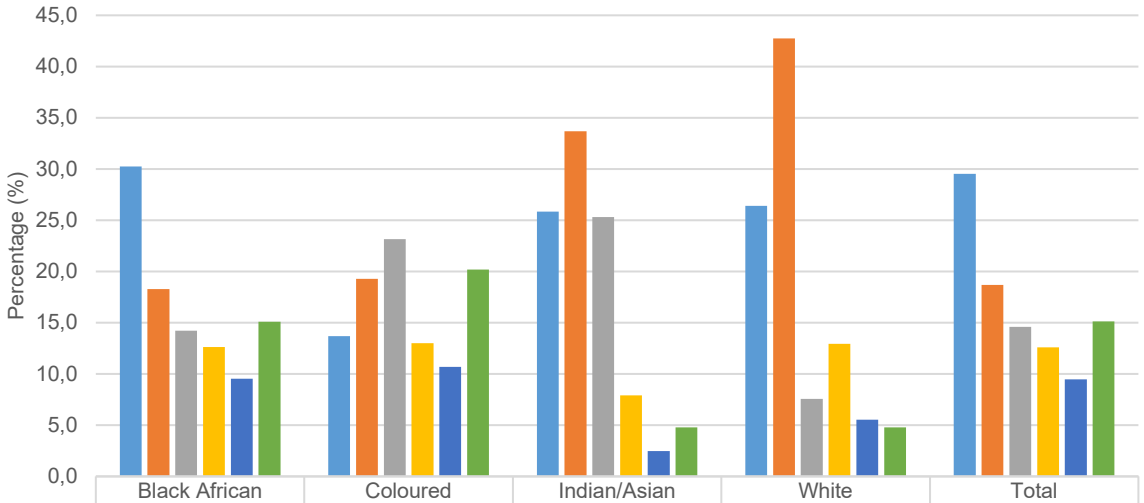
Figure 3. 11: Poverty incidence of households by household size and population group



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
1	36,9	20,1	17,5	3,4	33,2
2	29,8	15,2	9,9	3,2	23,7
3	27,3	16,6	10,5	1,3	23,3
4	26,5	10,2	3,2	2,7	22,2
5	27,8	11,2	2,9	3,3	24,6
6+	30,0	16,7	5,2	4,9	28,0

Figure 3.11 illustrates that black African households had extremely higher poverty levels compared to all the other population groups when evaluated by household size. In addition, the black African households were the only population group whose poverty levels were higher than all the national averages when compared to other population groups. The highest risk of poverty by population group and household size is found in households that only have one individual headed by a black African with an incidence of 36,9%. The second highest risk of poverty is found in households with a household size of six persons and more where the poverty levels of black African headed households are by far the highest with a proportion of 30,0%. Interestingly, amid the high poverty levels at national level by household sizes which are in the double-digits the risk of poverty for white headed households is mainly extremely low with their poverty levels being in the single-digits for all the range of household sizes. Their highest risk of poverty is found in households with the household size of six persons and more (4,9%).

Figure 3. 12: Percentage distribution of poor households by household size and population group

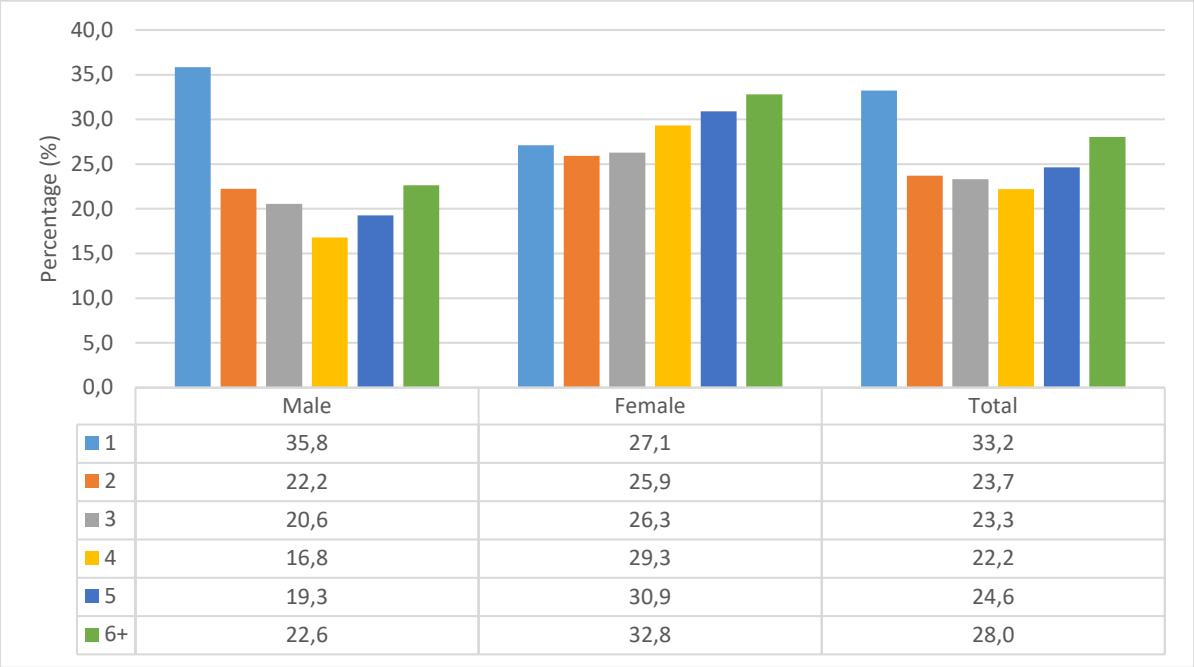


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
1	30,3	13,7	25,9	26,4	29,5
2	18,3	19,3	33,7	42,7	18,7
3	14,2	23,1	25,3	7,6	14,6
4	12,6	13,0	7,9	12,9	12,6
5	9,5	10,7	2,5	5,5	9,5
6+	15,1	20,2	4,8	4,8	15,1

The largest share of poor households for black Africans were found in household size that comprise of only one person (30,3%) which was also the largest share for this household size when compared to all the other population groups. This also indicates an over-representation of poor black African households relative to the total share of poor households of 29,5% for this household size. The smallest share of poor households for black African households was found in household size of five individuals (9,5%). The largest share of poor households for coloureds were in household size of three individuals (23,1%). The smallest share of 10,7% were from households with the size of five individuals. For Indian/Asian households the largest share of poor households was from those with a household size of two individuals (33,7%), similarly with white households the largest share of poor households is from this household size (42,7%).

3.3.3 Household size and sex of the household head

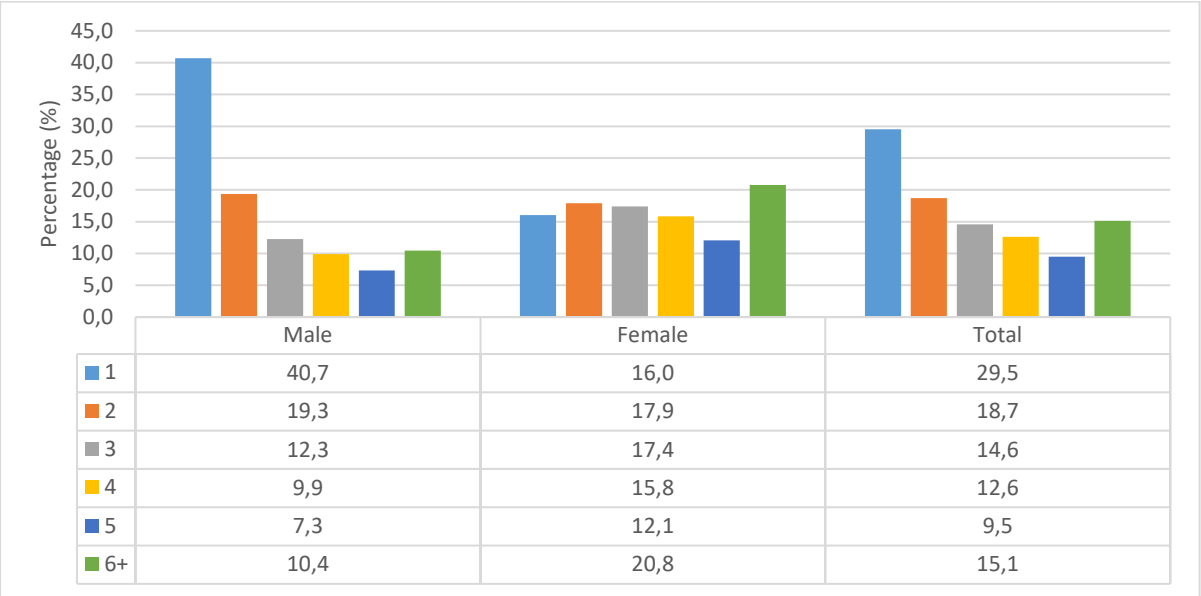
Figure 3. 13: Poverty incidence of households by household size and sex of the household head



	Male	Female	Total
1	35,8	27,1	33,2
2	22,2	25,9	23,7
3	20,6	26,3	23,3
4	16,8	29,3	22,2
5	19,3	30,9	24,6
6+	22,6	32,8	28,0

Female-headed households tend to have higher risk of poverty by household size compared to male-headed households as shown in Figure 3.13. Except for households composed of only one person, female-headed households had higher poverty levels compared to male-headed ones and also their poverty levels were higher than the national averages. Interestingly for female-headed households, in contrast to the most observed patterns for incidence of poverty by household size where the higher the household size the lower the incidence of poverty, the pattern is the opposite with this sex group. Instead the pattern mainly observed was that of the higher the household size the higher the incidence of poverty. Where in a household size of only one person the risk of poverty was 27,1%, but this risk mainly increased as the household size increased to 32,8% for households of six persons and more. This is the opposite of the pattern that was observed for male-headed households where the poverty risk mainly increased from 35,8% for a household of only one person to 22,6% for households of six and more persons.

Figure 3. 14: Percentage distribution of poor households by household size and sex of the household head

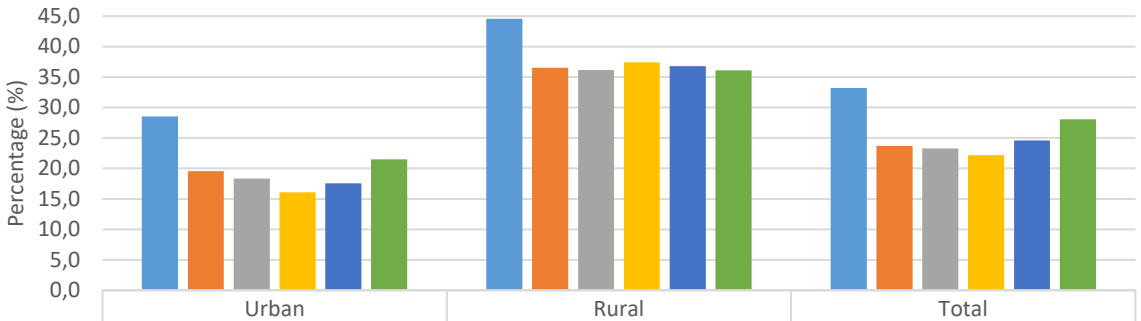


	Male	Female	Total
1	40,7	16,0	29,5
2	19,3	17,9	18,7
3	12,3	17,4	14,6
4	9,9	15,8	12,6
5	7,3	12,1	9,5
6+	10,4	20,8	15,1

Figure 3.14 presents a different picture for both male and female-headed households with the identification of the largest share of poor households by household size. For male-headed households the largest share of poor households was from smaller household sizes mainly driven by those composed of one person (40,7%). However, for female-headed households the largest share of poor households was from bigger household size composed of six and more persons (20,8%).

3.3.4 Household size and settlement type

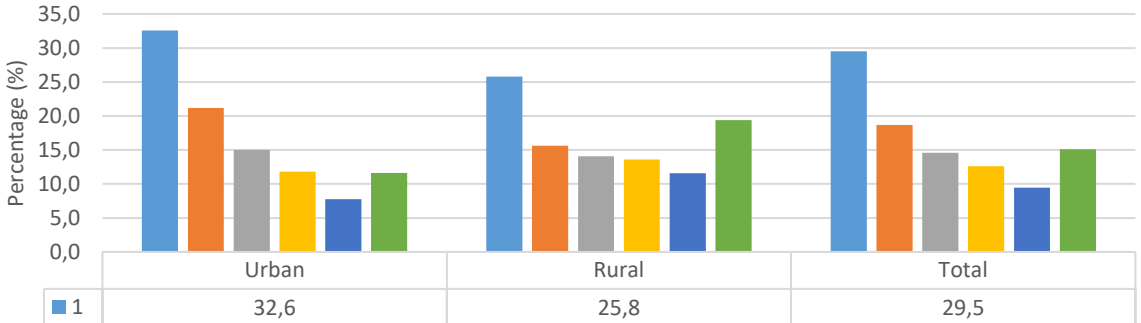
Figure 3. 15: Poverty incidence of households by household size and settlement type



	Urban	Rural	Total
1	28,5	44,6	33,2
2	19,6	36,5	23,7
3	18,3	36,2	23,3
4	16,1	37,4	22,2
5	17,6	36,8	24,6
6+	21,5	36,1	28,0

Households residing in rural areas had extremely higher risk of poverty according to all the household sizes compared to those in urban areas as illustrated by Figure 3.15. The highest incidence of poverty was represented by households composed of only one member with an incidence of 44,6% in rural areas. Households comprising of four members and residing in rural areas had the second highest risk of poverty at 37,4%. The poverty levels of all households in rural areas were also higher than all the national averages. However, as the household sizes increased, the risk of poverty for households residing in rural areas mainly decreased. The same was true for households in urban areas where the risk of poverty decreased with increasing household size. The highest risk of poverty for households residing in urban areas was found in households composed of only one member (28,5%) followed by those with six or more members (21,5%). In contrast with rural-based households all the urban-based households had a risk of poverty that was below the national averages.

Figure 3. 16: Percentage distribution of poor households by household size and settlement type



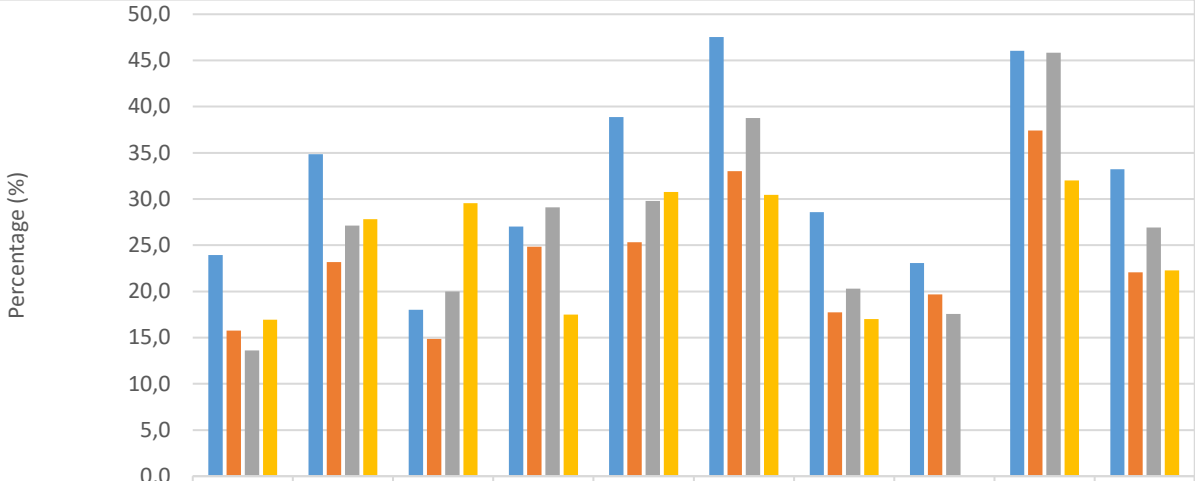
	Urban	Rural	Total
1	32,6	25,8	29,5
2	21,2	15,6	18,7
3	15,0	14,1	14,6
4	11,8	13,6	12,6
5	7,8	11,6	9,5
6+	11,6	19,4	15,1

Figure 3.16 shows that households residing in urban areas had the largest share of poor households compared to those residing in rural areas for all household sizes except for those composed of six or more persons. The largest share of poor households for both urban and rural areas were from the household sizes composed of one person at 32,6% and 25,8% respectively. However, for urban areas this indicated an over-representation of poor households whereas for rural areas it indicated an under-representation. The second largest share of poor households for urban areas was from the household size composed of two persons (21,2%), however, this is in contrast with the rural areas where the second largest share was from households comprised of six persons and more (19,4%). The third largest share for urban areas was from households made-up of three persons (15,0%), again this is in contrast with that of rural areas where their third largest share was from the household size composed of two persons (15,6%).

3.4 Poverty profile by household composition

3.4.1 Household composition and province

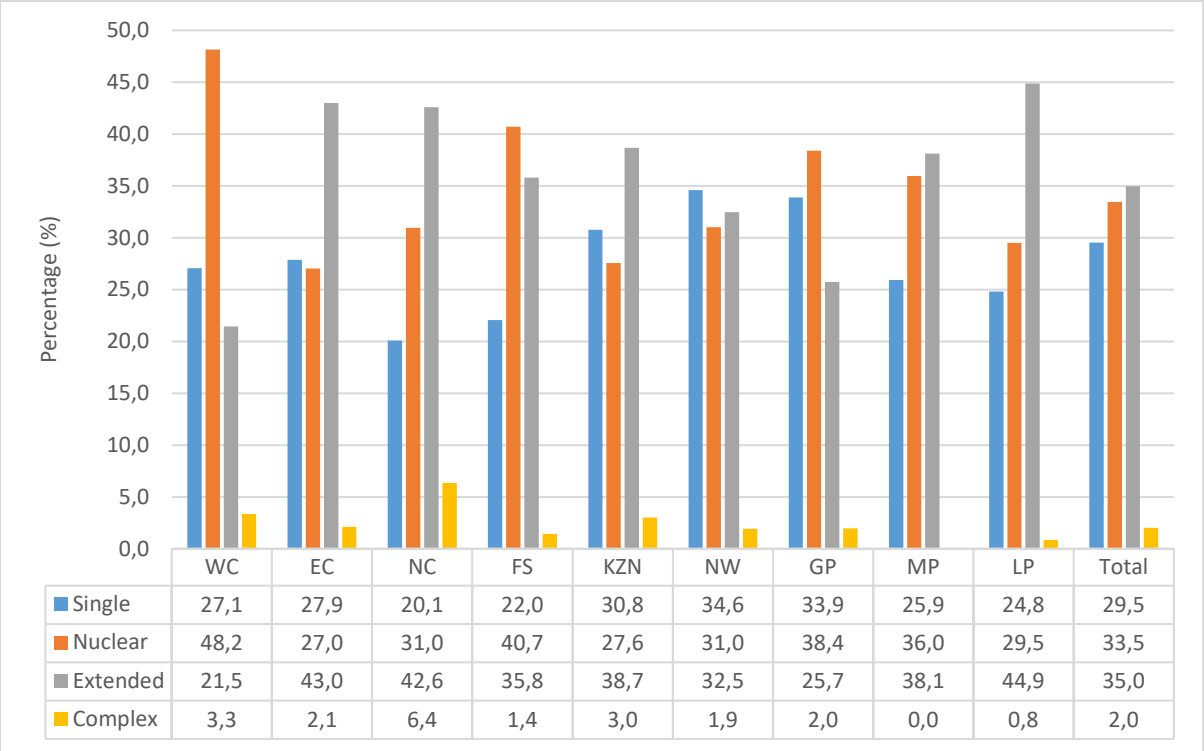
Figure 3. 17: Poverty incidence of households by province and household composition



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Single	23,9	34,8	18,0	27,0	38,9	47,5	28,6	23,1	46,1	33,2
Nuclear	15,8	23,2	14,9	24,8	25,3	33,0	17,7	19,7	37,4	22,1
Extended	13,6	27,1	20,0	29,1	29,8	38,8	20,3	17,6	45,8	26,9
Complex	16,9	27,8	29,5	17,5	30,8	30,5	17,0	0,0	32,0	22,3

Figure 3.17 depicts the incidence of poverty by household composition and province. Households can be configured in a variety of ways. The incidence of poverty and household composition in Figure 3.16 describes a configuration based around the core nuclear unit. The nuclear unit describes a household composed of couples, or one or more parent(s) with children. The extended households are ones made up of a nuclear core combined with other family members such as parents or siblings. Complex households contain non-related persons. Nationally, as already seen with poverty levels on household sizes, single person composed households have the highest risk of poverty at 33,2%, followed by extended households at 26,9%. Nuclear households have the least risk of poverty at 22,1%. When evaluating poverty levels by both household composition and province, Limpopo had the highest poverty levels on all the household compositions when compared with other provinces except for single composed households, where North West (47,5%) had the highest incidence. Northern Cape and Free State were the only two provinces in which the highest poverty levels were not from single households. In Northern Cape the highest poverty levels were found in complex households at 29,5% and in Free State from extended households (29,1%). Interestingly, there were no poor complex households identified in Mpumalanga.

Figure 3. 18: Percentage distribution of poor households by province and household composition

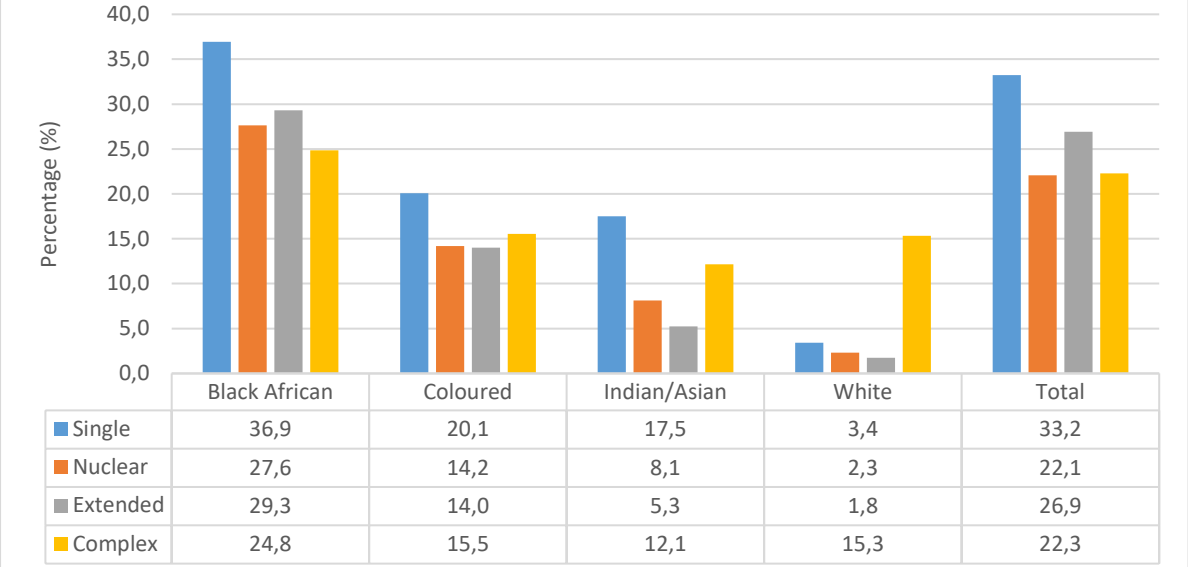


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Single	27,1	27,9	20,1	22,0	30,8	34,6	33,9	25,9	24,8	29,5
Nuclear	48,2	27,0	31,0	40,7	27,6	31,0	38,4	36,0	29,5	33,5
Extended	21,5	43,0	42,6	35,8	38,7	32,5	25,7	38,1	44,9	35,0
Complex	3,3	2,1	6,4	1,4	3,0	1,9	2,0	0,0	0,8	2,0

Figure 3.18 shows that nationally the largest share of poor households by household composition were from extended households (35,0%), followed by nuclear households (33,5%) with the complex households contributing the smallest share of poor households (2,0%). When evaluating the share of poor households by both province and household composition, the figure indicates that different provinces contributed the largest share of poor households for different household compositions. North West (34,6%) had the largest share of poor households for single households, Western Cape (48,2%) contributed the largest share for nuclear households, Limpopo (44,9%) for extended households and Northern Cape (6,4%) for complex households.

3.4.2 Household composition and population group

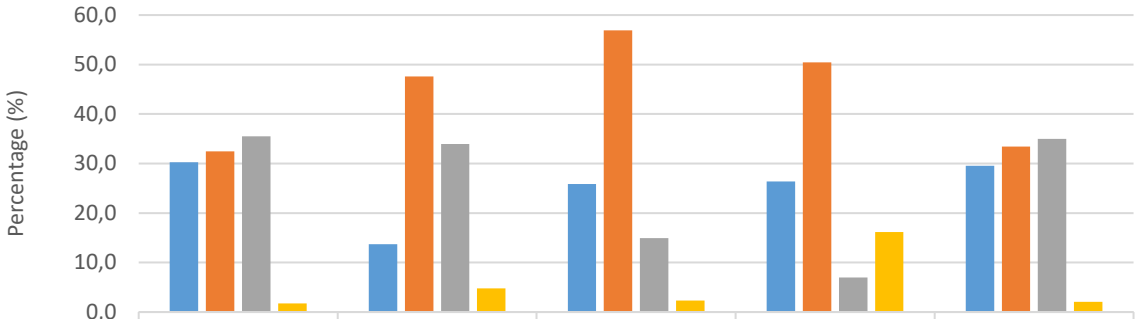
Figure 3. 19: Poverty incidence of households by population group and household composition



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Single	36,9	20,1	17,5	3,4	33,2
Nuclear	27,6	14,2	8,1	2,3	22,1
Extended	29,3	14,0	5,3	1,8	26,9
Complex	24,8	15,5	12,1	15,3	22,3

When poverty levels were evaluated by household composition and population group, black African households had extremely higher levels on all the household compositions compared to all the other population groups as shown in Figure 3.19. All the poverty levels for black African headed households were higher than the national estimates, however, those of all other population groups were below the national estimates. Coloured households had the second highest poverty levels for all the household compositions. Black African households composed of only a single person had the highest poverty levels at 36,9%, followed by extended households at 29,3% with nuclear households having the third highest poverty levels at 27,6%. Interestingly, white headed households had extremely low risk of poverty for most of the household compositions depicting single-digit levels except for the complex households which had double-digit levels of 15,3%.

Figure 3. 20: Percentage distribution of poor households by population group and household composition

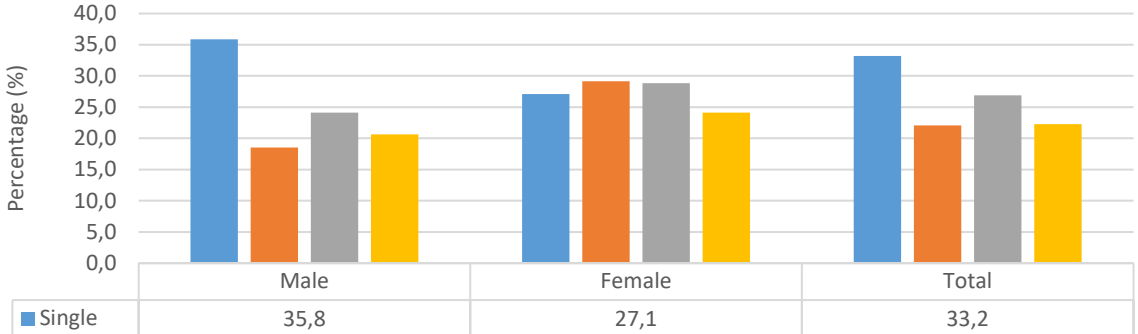


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Single	30,3	13,7	25,9	26,4	29,5
Nuclear	32,5	47,6	56,9	50,4	33,5
Extended	35,5	33,9	14,9	7,0	35,0
Complex	1,8	4,8	2,3	16,2	2,0

Figure 3.20 shows that the largest share of poor households for coloured (47,6%), Indian/Asian (56,9%) and white (50,4%) households were from nuclear households. However, for black African households the largest share of poor households was from extended households at 35,5%. The second largest share of poor households for black African households were from the nuclear households (32,5%) whereas the largest share for coloured households came from extended households (33,9%). For Indian/Asian and white households the second largest share of poor households were from those composed of a single person at 25,9% and 26,4% respectively. The lowest share of poor households for all the population groups except for white headed households were from the complex households. For white households the lowest share came from the extended households at 7,0%.

3.4.3 Household composition and sex of the household head

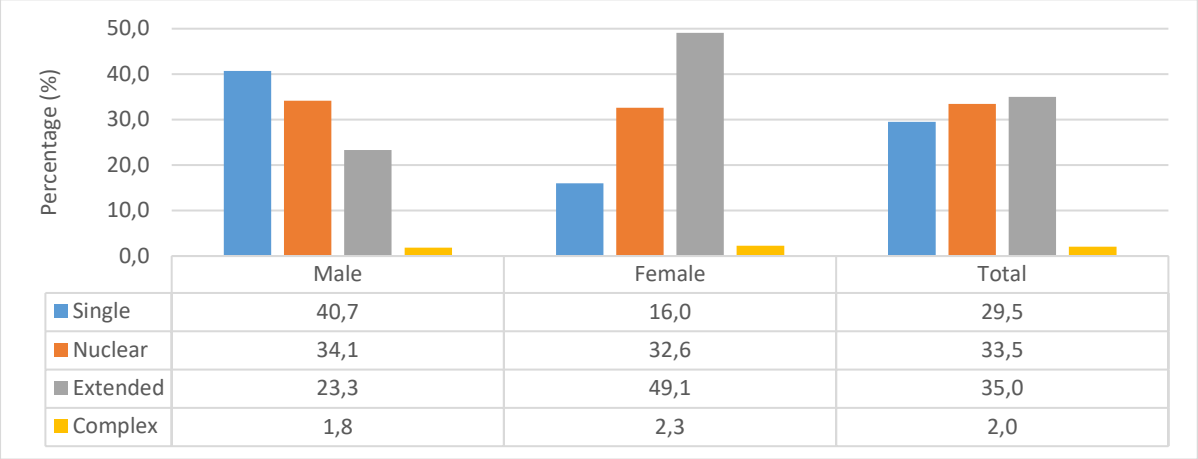
Figure 3. 21: Poverty incidence of households by sex of the household head and household composition



	Male	Female	Total
Single	35,8	27,1	33,2
Nuclear	18,5	29,1	22,1
Extended	24,1	28,8	26,9
Complex	20,6	24,1	22,3

As already seen with household size disaggregation, Figure 3.21 shows that male-headed households composed of a single person had the highest incidence of poverty at 35,8%. However, for all the other household compositions female-headed households had higher risk of poverty compared to male-headed households. Where nuclear households headed by females had poverty levels of 29,1% compared to 18,5% of male-headed households. For extended households; female-headed households had 28,8% poverty levels compared to 24,1% for male-headed households. With complex households; female-headed households had poverty levels of 24,1% compared to 20,6% for male-headed households. For all the household compositions in which the poverty levels of female-headed households were higher than the male-headed ones they were also above the national estimates. Similarly, with the single household composition, where poverty levels of male-headed households were higher than the female-headed households they were also above the national estimates.

Figure 3. 22: Percentage distribution of poor households by sex of the household head and household composition

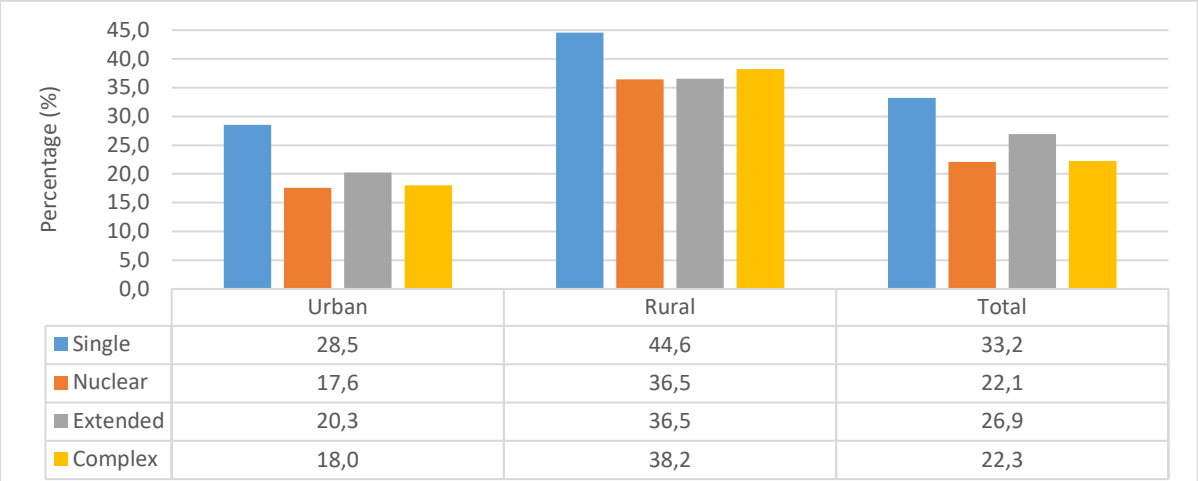


	Male	Female	Total
Single	40,7	16,0	29,5
Nuclear	34,1	32,6	33,5
Extended	23,3	49,1	35,0
Complex	1,8	2,3	2,0

Figure 3.22 shows that for male-headed households the largest share of poor households were from single households with a contribution of 40,7%, this indicates an over-representation of poor households relative to the share of total poor households for this household composition. For female-headed households the largest share of poor households came from extended households with a contribution of 49,1% also depicting an over-representation. The second largest share of poor households for both male and female-headed households came from nuclear households with the share of male-headed households higher at 34,1% compared to 32,6% of female-headed households. The lowest share of poor households from both male and female-headed households came from complex households with the share of male-headed households lower at 1,8% compared to that of female-headed households at 2,3% depicting an over-representation.

3.4.4 Household composition and settlement type

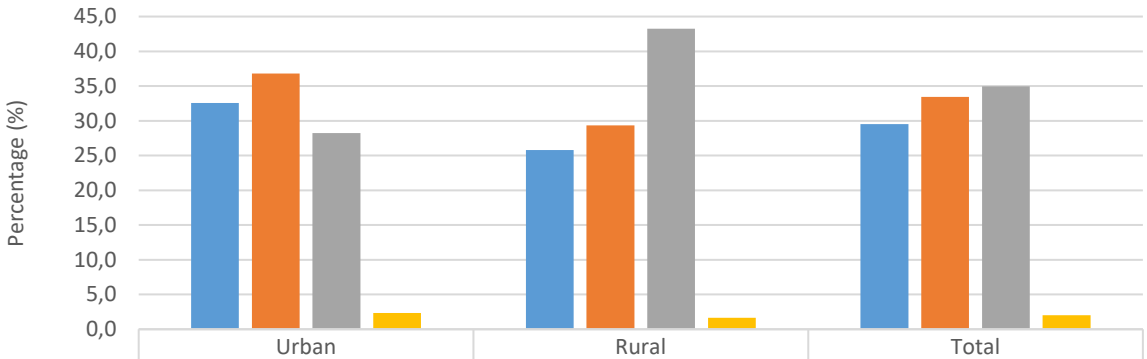
Figure 3. 23: **Poverty incidence of households by settlement type and household composition**



	Urban	Rural	Total
Single	28,5	44,6	33,2
Nuclear	17,6	36,5	22,1
Extended	20,3	36,5	26,9
Complex	18,0	38,2	22,3

Households in rural areas had a higher risk of poverty on all household compositions compared with urban households as Figure 3.23 shows. Single households had the highest incidence of poverty at 44,6% followed by complex households (38,2%). Both nuclear and extended households had similar risk to poverty of 36,5%. All the incidences of poverty for rural areas were above the national averages. In contrast, all the incidences of poverty for urban areas were below the national averages.

Figure 3. 24: Percentage distribution of poor households by settlement type and household composition



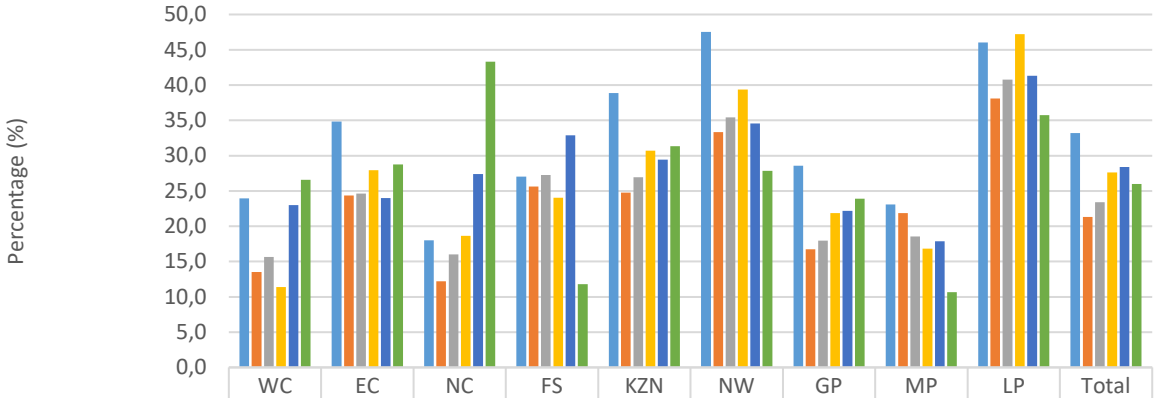
	Urban	Rural	Total
Single	32,6	25,8	29,5
Nuclear	36,8	29,3	33,5
Extended	28,2	43,2	35,0
Complex	2,4	1,6	2,0

Urban households had the largest share of poor households for single (32,6%), nuclear (36,8%) and complex (2,4%) household composition when compared with rural households. In addition, these shares indicated an over-representation of poor households. On the other hand, rural households had the largest share of poor households for extended households (43,2%) when compared with urban households. The rural share also indicated an over-representation of poor households.

3.5 Poverty profile by inter-generational households

3.5.1 Inter-generational households and province

Figure 3. 25: Poverty incidence of households by province and inter-generational households

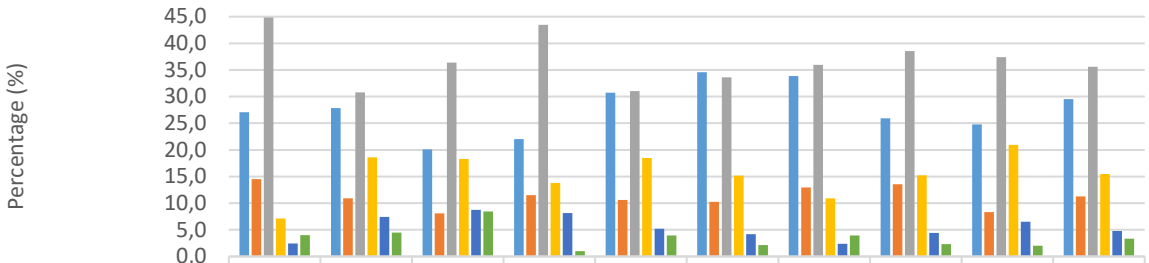


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Single person	23,9	34,8	18,0	27,0	38,9	47,5	28,6	23,1	46,1	33,2
Single generation	13,5	24,4	12,2	25,6	24,8	33,4	16,7	21,9	38,1	21,3
Double generation	15,7	24,6	16,0	27,2	26,9	35,4	18,0	18,5	40,8	23,4
Triple generation	11,4	27,9	18,7	24,0	30,7	39,4	21,8	16,8	47,2	27,6
Skip generation	23,0	24,0	27,4	32,9	29,5	34,5	22,2	17,9	41,3	28,4
Unclear	26,6	28,8	43,3	11,8	31,4	27,8	23,9	10,7	35,7	26,0

Figure 3.25 outlines poverty levels on household membership based on an inter-generational configuration and province. Nationally, based on inter-generational configuration, single person households had the highest incidence of poverty at 33,2%, followed by skip-generation in which grandparents lived with grandchildren at 28,4%. Triple-generation households (comprised of grandchildren living with one or more grandparents in the absence of any biological parents) had the third highest incidence of poverty at 27,6%. Single generation households (partners or siblings living together) had the lowest risk of poverty at 21,3%. Double-generation households (comprising parents and children) had the poverty levels of 23,4%.

When poverty levels are evaluated according to provinces, Limpopo had the highest risk of poverty according to all the inter-generational configurations compared to all the other provinces. With triple-generation households (47,2%) having the highest risk of poverty, followed by single person households (46,1%), whilst skip generation households (41,3%) had the third highest risk to poverty. All the poverty levels for Limpopo were above the national estimates.

Figure 3. 26: Percentage distribution of poor households by province and inter-generational households

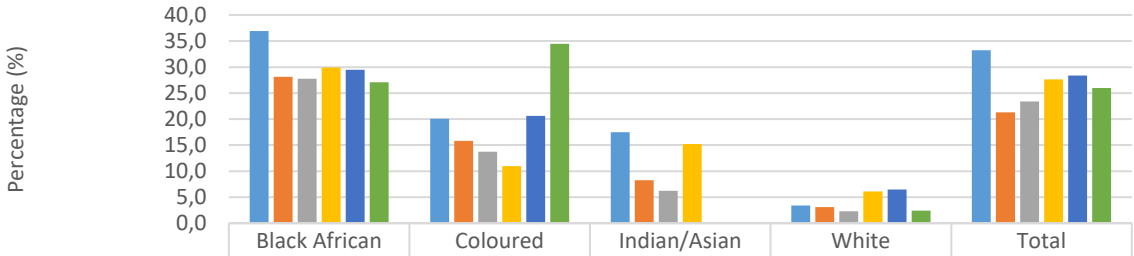


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Single person	27,1	27,9	20,1	22,0	30,8	34,6	33,9	25,9	24,8	29,5
Single generation	14,5	10,9	8,1	11,5	10,6	10,3	12,9	13,6	8,4	11,3
Double generation	44,8	30,8	36,4	43,5	31,0	33,6	36,0	38,5	37,4	35,6
Triple generation	7,2	18,6	18,3	13,8	18,5	15,2	10,9	15,3	20,9	15,5
Skip generation	2,4	7,4	8,7	8,2	5,2	4,2	2,4	4,4	6,5	4,8
Unclear	4,0	4,5	8,4	1,0	3,9	2,1	3,9	2,3	2,0	3,3

Figure 3.26 illustrates that nationally, double-generation households had the largest share of poor households at 35,6%, followed by single person households (29,5%) with triple generation households (15,5%) having the third largest share of poor households. When provinces were taken into account the patterns of double-generation and single person households having the largest and second largest share of poor households nationally also held true in all the provinces. However, the pattern of triple-generation having the third largest share of poor households still held true for Eastern Cape (18,6%), Northern Cape (18,3%), Free State (13,8%), KwaZulu-Natal (18,5%), North West (15,2%), Mpumalanga (15,3%) and Limpopo (20,9%) provinces. Interestingly, for the country's two main urban provinces of Western Cape (14,5%) and Gauteng (12,9%), single-generation households had the third largest share of poor households in both provinces.

3.5.2 Inter-generational households and population group

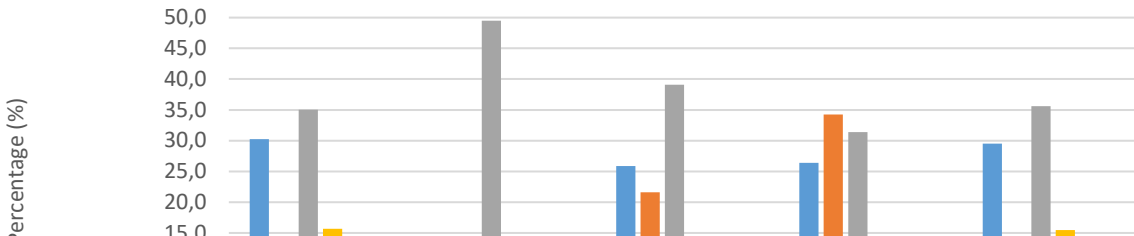
Figure 3. 27: Poverty incidence of households by population group and inter-generational households



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Single person	36,9	20,1	17,5	3,4	33,2
Single generation	28,2	15,9	8,2	3,1	21,3
Double generation	27,8	13,7	6,2	2,3	23,4
Triple generation	29,9	10,9	15,2	6,1	27,6
Skip generation	29,5	20,6	0,0	6,5	28,4
Unclear	27,1	34,4	0,0	2,4	26,0

When the incidence of poverty was evaluated by inter-generational households and population group as shown in Figure 3.27, black African households were found to have the highest poverty levels compared to the other population groups. The highest poverty levels were found in single person households (36,9%) followed by triple-generation households (29,9%) with skip-generation households having the third highest poverty levels at 29,5%. Coloured households had the second highest poverty levels with skip-generation households (20,6%) found to have the highest poverty levels followed by single person households (20,1%) with single-generation households (15,9%) having the third highest poverty levels.

Figure 3. 28: Percentage distribution of poor households by population group and inter-generational households

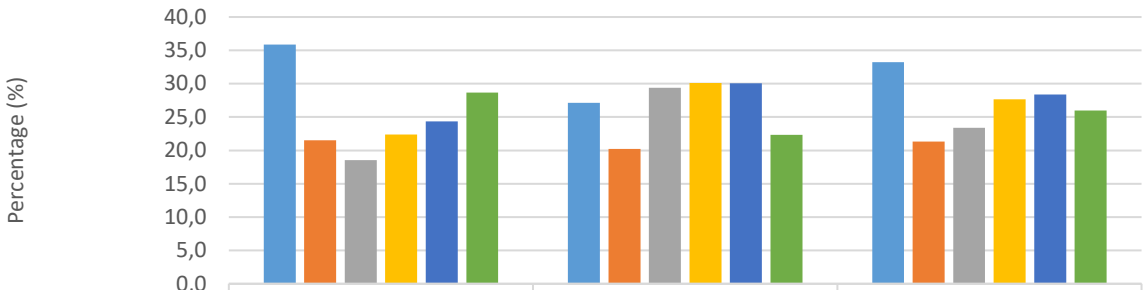


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Single person	30,3	13,7	25,9	26,4	29,5
Single generation	10,9	12,4	21,6	34,2	11,3
Double generation	35,0	49,5	39,1	31,4	35,6
Tripple generation	15,7	14,3	13,4	4,8	15,5
Skip generation	4,9	5,0	0,0	1,5	4,8
Unclear	3,3	5,1	0,0	1,6	3,3

Figure 3.28 shows that except for the white households all the other population groups had double-generation households contributing the largest share of poor households. Coloured households had the largest share of 49,5% followed by Indian/Asian households with a share of 39,1%. For white households the largest share was from single generation households at 34,2%. For black Africans (30,3%) and Indian/Asians (25,9%) their second largest share of poor households was from single person households. However, for coloured households the second largest share was from triple generation households at 14,3% and for white households it was from double-generation households at 31,4%.

3.5.3 Inter-generational households and sex of the household head

Figure 3. 29: Poverty incidence of households by sex of the household head and inter-generational households

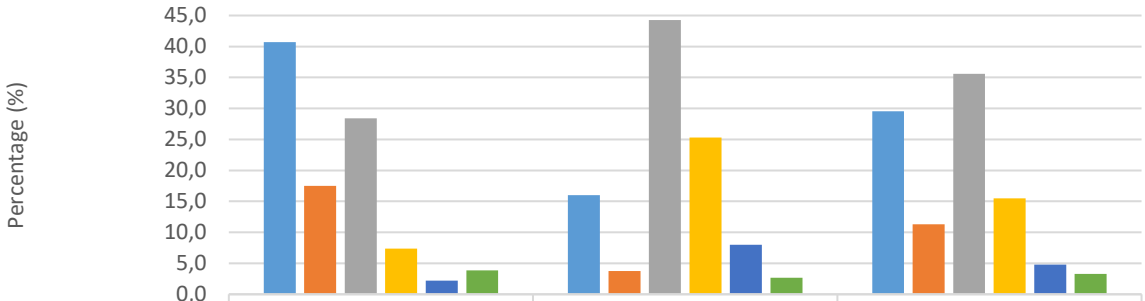


	Male	Female	Total
Single person	35,8	27,1	33,2
Single generation	21,5	20,2	21,3
Double generation	18,5	29,4	23,4
Triple generation	22,4	30,1	27,6
Skip generation	24,4	30,0	28,4
Unclear	28,7	22,3	26,0

When comparing the poverty levels by inter-generational type and sex of household head as shown in Figure 3.29, male-headed households had higher poverty levels for single person households at 35,8% compared with 27,1% for female-headed households. Male-headed households also had higher risk of poverty for single-generation households at 21,5% compared to female-headed households at 20,2%.

However, female-headed households had higher poverty levels compared to male-headed households for double-generation at 29,4% compared with 18,5% for male-headed households. Poverty levels for female-headed households were also higher for triple-generation at 30,1% compared with 22,4% for male-headed households. Even for skip-generation households the poverty levels for female-headed households were higher at 30,0% compared to those of male-headed households at 24,4%.

Figure 3. 30: Percentage distribution of poor households by sex of the household head and inter-generational households



	Male	Female	Total
Single person	40,7	16,0	29,5
Single generation	17,5	3,8	11,3
Double generation	28,4	44,3	35,6
Triple generation	7,3	25,3	15,5
Skip generation	2,2	8,0	4,8
Unclear	3,9	2,7	3,3

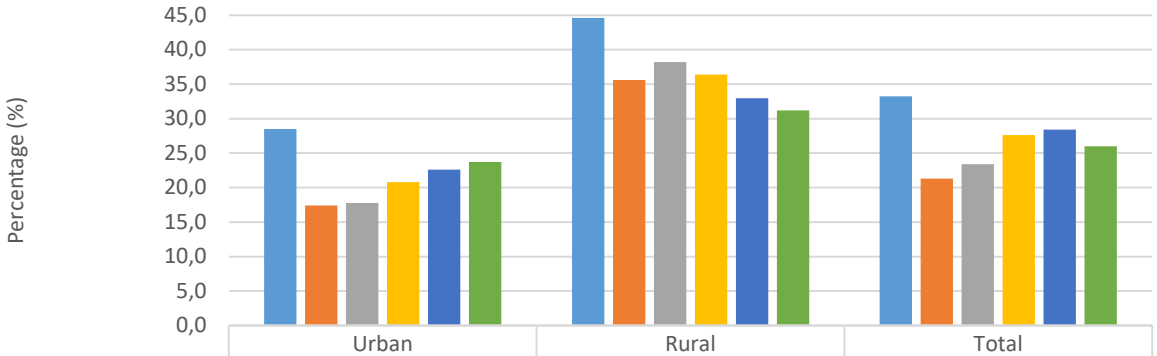
Figure 3.30 shows that male-headed households had the largest share of poor households for single person households at 40,7% compared to 16,0% for female-headed households. This indicates an over-representation of male-headed households relative to the total population share of poor households for this type of inter-generational households.

However, for female-headed households it indicates an under-representation of female-headed households. Male-headed households also had the largest share of poor households for single-generation households at 17,5% compared with female-headed households of 3,8%. Again the share of male-headed households indicated an over-representation of their households whilst the share of female-headed households indicated an under-representation.

Female-headed households had the largest share of poor households for double-generation households at 44,3% compared with male-headed households at 28,4%. The share for female-headed households indicated an over-representation for their households whilst for male-headed households it indicated an under-representation. Female-headed households also have the largest share of poor households compared with male-headed households for triple-households at 25,3% and 7,3% respectively. Again female-headed households had the largest share of poor households for skip-generation at 8,0% compared with that of male-headed households of 2,2%.

3.5.4 Inter-generational households and settlement type

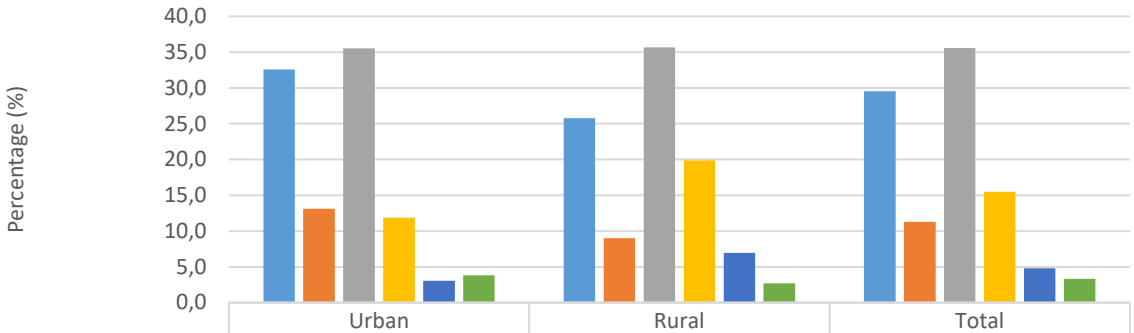
Figure 3. 31: Poverty incidence of households by settlement type and inter-generational households



	Urban	Rural	Total
Single person	28,5	44,6	33,2
Single generation	17,4	35,6	21,3
Double generation	17,8	38,2	23,4
Triple generation	20,8	36,4	27,6
Skip generation	22,6	33,0	28,4
Unclear	23,7	31,2	26,0

Figure 3.31 shows that when poverty levels were evaluated by inter-generational households and settlement type, rural areas had the highest risk of poverty for all the generations. Single person households had the highest risk of poverty at 44,6% followed by double-generation households at 38,2%. Triple generation households had the third highest poverty levels at 36,4%.

Figure 3. 32: Percentage distribution of poor households by settlement type and inter-generational households



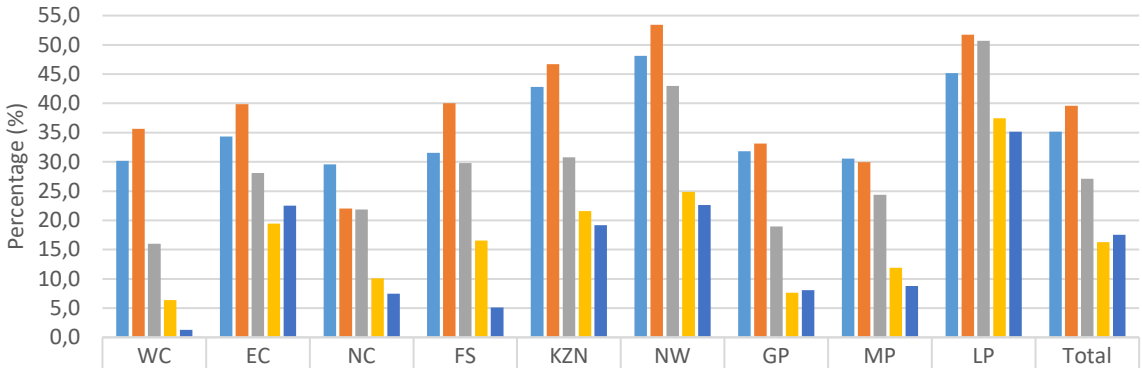
	Urban	Rural	Total
Single person	32,6	25,8	29,5
Single generation	13,1	9,0	11,3
Double generation	35,5	35,7	35,6
Triple generation	11,9	19,9	15,5
Skip generation	3,1	6,9	4,8
Unclear	3,8	2,7	3,3

Figure 3.32 shows that urban areas generally had the largest share of poor households compared to rural areas except for double-generation households where they are almost similar at 35,5% for rural areas and 35,7% for urban areas respectively. The second largest share of poor households for both urban and rural areas was from single person households at 32,6% and 25,8% respectively. For urban areas the third largest share of poor households was from single-generation households at 13,1%. However, for rural areas the third largest share was from triple households at 19,9%. The skip-generation from both urban and rural areas provided the lowest share at 3,1% and 6,9% respectively.

3.6 Poverty profile by number of bedrooms

3.6.1 Number of bedrooms and province

Figure 3. 33: Poverty incidence of households by province and number of bedrooms



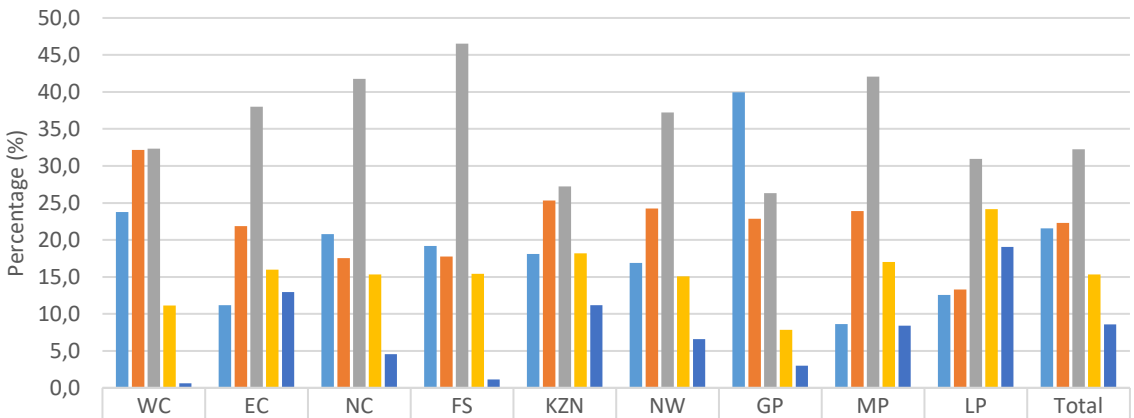
	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
0	30,2	34,4	29,6	31,5	42,8	48,1	31,8	30,6	45,2	35,2
1	35,6	39,9	22,0	40,0	46,7	53,4	33,1	30,0	51,7	39,6
2	16,0	28,1	21,9	29,8	30,8	43,0	18,9	24,3	50,7	27,1
3	6,4	19,4	10,1	16,6	21,6	24,8	7,6	11,9	37,4	16,3
4+	1,3	22,5	7,4	5,1	19,2	22,6	8,1	8,8	35,2	17,5

Figure 3.33 shows that nationally, the incidence of poverty by the number of bedrooms mostly affected households who resided in dwellings with fewer bedrooms compared to those with a higher number. Households who resided in a one-bedroom dwelling had the highest levels of poverty at 39,6%, followed by those in zero bedrooms at 35,2%.

Households who lived in two bedrooms had the third highest poverty levels at 27,1%, whilst those who lived in four bedrooms and larger dwellings had poverty levels of 17,5%. The lowest poverty levels nationally were found in households that lived in three bedrooms' dwellings at 16,3%.

When poverty levels were evaluated by both number of bedrooms and province the pattern mostly resembled that witnessed nationally. It showed that households that resided in dwellings with fewer bedrooms experiencing higher incidence of poverty. With the exception of Northern Cape all the other provinces' highest incidence of poverty was experienced by those living in one-bedroom dwellings followed by those in zero bedroom dwellings. North West province had the highest poverty levels for households living in one and zero bedroom dwellings at 53,4% and 48,1% respectively. Limpopo had the highest poverty levels for households living in two bedrooms at 50,7%. The lowest poverty levels were mostly experienced by households in four and three bedroom dwellings; where the Western Cape had the lowest poverty levels for households living in four and three bedrooms at 1,3% and 6,4% respectively.

Figure 3. 34: Percentage distribution of poor households by number of bedrooms and province

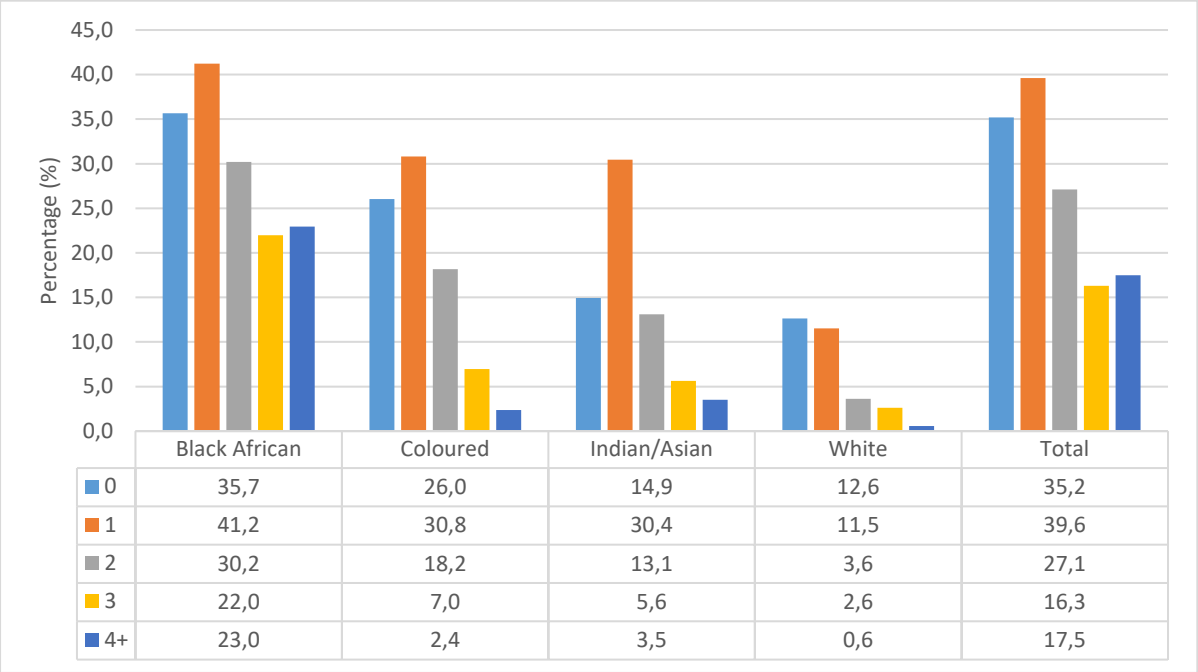


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
0	23,8	11,2	20,8	19,2	18,1	16,9	40,0	8,6	12,6	21,5
1	32,1	21,9	17,5	17,8	25,3	24,3	22,9	23,9	13,3	22,3
2	32,3	38,0	41,8	46,5	27,2	37,2	26,3	42,1	31,0	32,2
3	11,1	16,0	15,3	15,4	18,2	15,1	7,8	17,0	24,2	15,3
4+	0,6	13,0	4,6	1,1	11,2	6,6	3,0	8,4	19,0	8,6

Nationally, the largest share of poor households by number of bedrooms were found in those residing in two-bedroom dwellings with a share of 32,2%, followed by those in one- bedroom at 22,3%. Households living in zero-bedrooms had the third largest share of poor households at 21,5%, whilst those in four and more bedrooms had the lowest share of 8,6%. Gauteng had the largest share of poor households for those in zero- bedrooms at 40,0%. The largest share of poor households for households in one-bedroom dwellings were found in Western Cape with a share of 32,1% whilst for those in two bedrooms were found in Free State with a share of 46,5%. For households in three and four bedroom dwellings, Limpopo had the largest share of poor households with shares of 24,2% and 19,0% respectively.

3.6.2 Number of bedrooms and population group

Figure 3. 35: Poverty incidence of households by population group and number of bedrooms

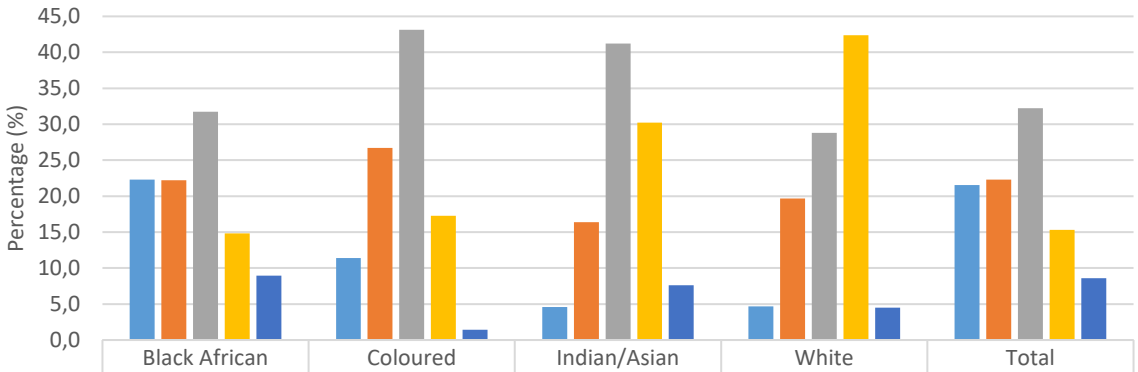


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
0	35,7	26,0	14,9	12,6	35,2
1	41,2	30,8	30,4	11,5	39,6
2	30,2	18,2	13,1	3,6	27,1
3	22,0	7,0	5,6	2,6	16,3
4+	23,0	2,4	3,5	0,6	17,5

Figure 3.35 shows that when the incidence of poverty was evaluated in terms of population group and number of bedrooms, black African households had extremely higher incidences of poverty for all the number of bedrooms compared to the other population groups. The highest incidence of poverty was found in households who lived in one-bedroom dwellings at 41,2%, followed by those in zero-bedroom houses at 35,7%. Households who lived in two-bedrooms had the third highest incidence of poverty at 30,2% and households in three-bedroom houses had the lowest incidence of poverty at 22,0%. For coloured households the highest incidence of poverty, just like the black African households, was found in households who lived in one-bedroom dwellings at 30,8%, followed by those in zero-bedroom houses at 26,7%. Unlike the black African households, coloured households in two-bedroom dwellings had the third highest incidence of poverty at 18,2%, with households in four-bedrooms and larger having the lowest poverty levels at 2,4%. The pattern of poverty levels for Indian/Asian households follows those of coloured households, where households in one-bedroom houses had the highest poverty levels at 30,4%, followed by those in zero-bedrooms at 14,9%. Households in two-bedroom houses had the third highest poverty levels at 13,1%, with households living in four-bedroom and larger houses having the lowest poverty levels at 3,5%.

White households had extremely lower incidence of poverty by all the number of bedrooms and also with their poverty levels declining as the number of bedroom increased. Unlike the other population groups, for white households their highest poverty levels were found in households living in zero-bedroom houses at 12,6%. Their lowest incidence of poverty was 0,6% found in those living in four-bedroom and larger houses.

Figure 3. 36: Percentage distribution of poor households by number of bedrooms and population group

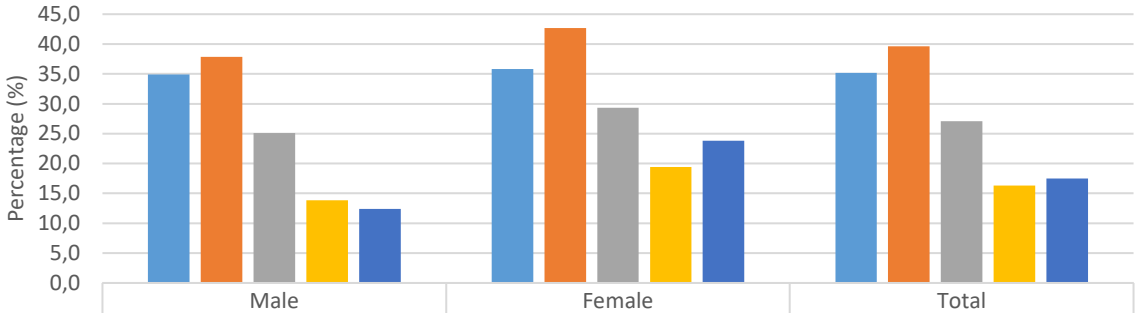


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
0	22,3	11,4	4,6	4,7	21,5
1	22,2	26,7	16,4	19,7	22,3
2	31,7	43,1	41,2	28,8	32,2
3	14,8	17,3	30,2	42,4	15,3
4+	8,9	1,4	7,6	4,5	8,6

Figure 3.36 shows that the largest share of poor households was found in households living in two bedrooms for all the population groups where coloured households had the largest share of 43,1%. The second largest share of poor households for Indian/Asians and Whites was found in households living in three-bedroom houses at 30,2% and 42,4% respectively. For coloured households the second largest share was found in households living in one-bedroom houses with a share of 26,7%. For black African households the second largest share was found in households living in zero-bedroom houses at 22,3% which is marginally higher and also statistically insignificant to those in one-bedroom houses at 22,2%. For all the population groups the lowest share of poor households was found in those living in four and larger bedroom houses. Although the lowest share for white households living in four and larger bedroom houses at 4,5% is marginally lower and also statistically insignificant compared to those in zero-bedroom at 4,7%.

3.6.3 Number of bedrooms and sex of the household head

Figure 3. 37: Poverty incidence of households by sex of the household head and number of bedrooms

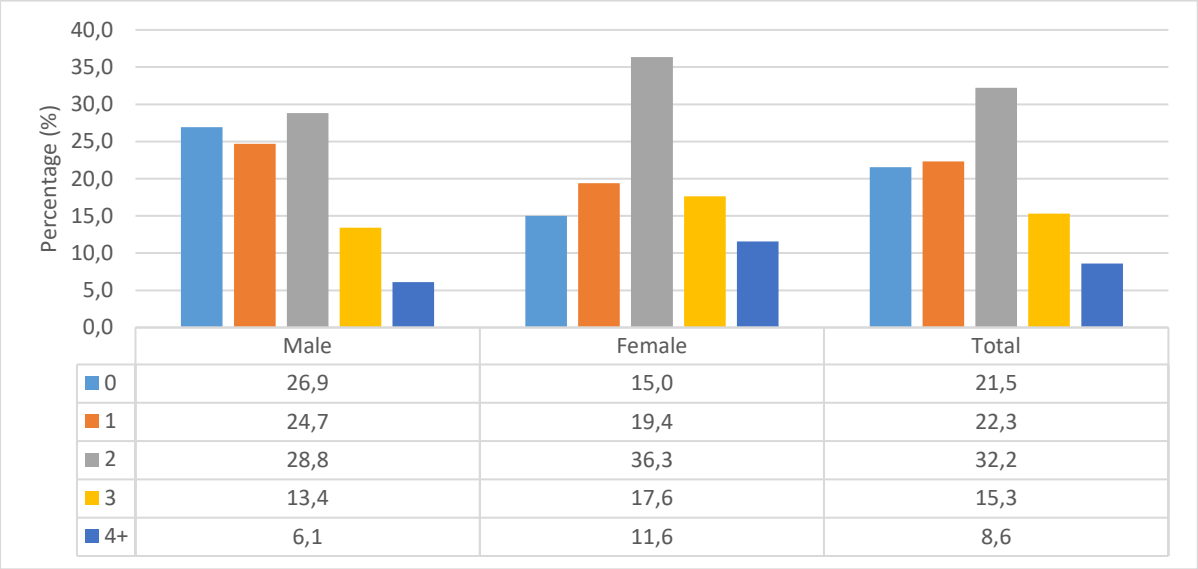


	Male	Female	Total
0	34,9	35,8	35,2
1	37,8	42,7	39,6
2	25,1	29,3	27,1
3	13,9	19,4	16,3
4+	12,4	23,8	17,5

When poverty levels were evaluated in terms of number of bedrooms and sex of household head, female-headed households had the highest risk of poverty in all the number of bedrooms compared to male-headed households. In addition, all the poverty levels for female-headed households were higher than the national averages which is the opposite of male-headed households where all levels fall below the national averages. The highest poverty levels were found in households living in one-bedroom dwellings at 42,7%, followed by those in zero-bedroom dwellings at 35,8%.

For female-headed households the lowest poverty levels were found in households living in three-bedroom houses at 19,4%. However, for male-headed households the lowest poverty levels were found in households living in four-bedroom and larger houses at 12,4%.

Figure 3. 38: Percentage distribution of poor households number of bedrooms and sex of the household head

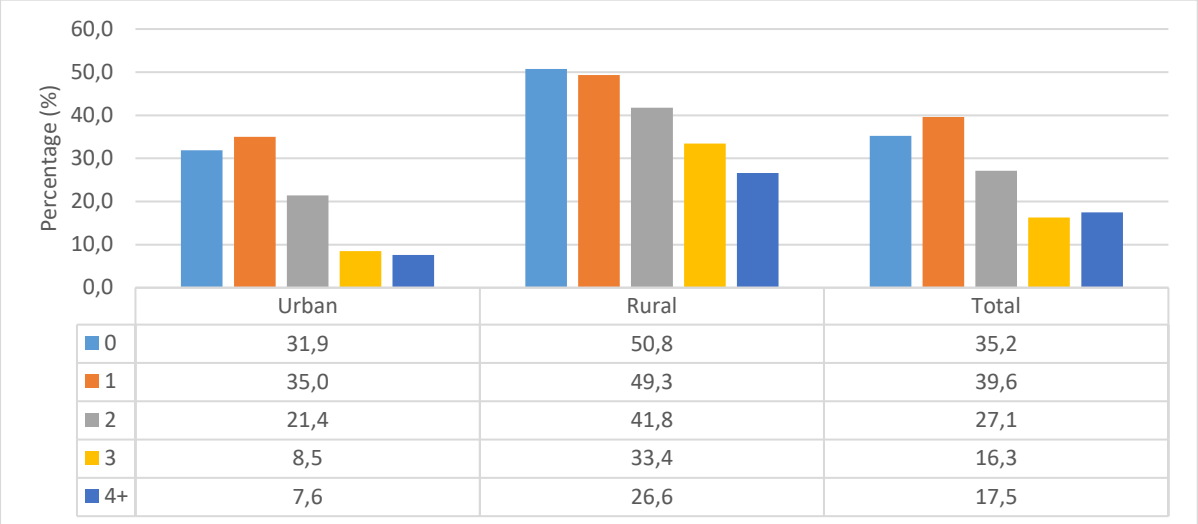


	Male	Female	Total
0	26,9	15,0	21,5
1	24,7	19,4	22,3
2	28,8	36,3	32,2
3	13,4	17,6	15,3
4+	6,1	11,6	8,6

Figure 3.38 shows that as the number of bedrooms increases the share of poor households by female-headed households also becomes more than those of male-headed households. At zero-bedroom dwellings the share of poor households by male-headed households is more than those of female-headed households at 26,9% and 15,0% respectively. At one-bedroom houses the share of poor households by male-headed households are still higher than those of female-headed households at 24,7% and 19,4% respectively. However, when the number of bedrooms increases to two and beyond the share of poor households by female-headed households are higher than the male-headed households. With a share of 36,3% compared to 28,8% at two-bedroom houses for both female and male headed households respectively. At three-bedroom houses the share is 17,6% compared to 13,4% for female and male-headed households respectively. At four-bedrooms and larger the share of poor households by female-headed households is 11,6% compared to 6,1% for male-headed households.

3.6.4 Number of bedrooms and settlement type

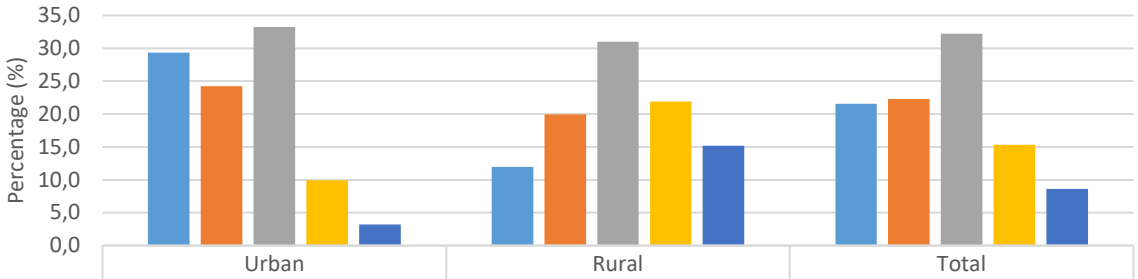
Figure 3. 39: Poverty incidence of households by settlement type and number of bedrooms



	Urban	Rural	Total
0	31,9	50,8	35,2
1	35,0	49,3	39,6
2	21,4	41,8	27,1
3	8,5	33,4	16,3
4+	7,6	26,6	17,5

Figure 3.39 shows that when the incidence of poverty was disaggregated by number of bedrooms and settlement type, rural areas had extremely higher poverty levels compared to urban areas by all the number of bedrooms. Rural households that resided in a dwelling with zero-bedroom had the highest incidence of poverty of 50,8%. They were followed by those in one-bedroom dwellings at 49,3%. In urban areas, households that reside in a one-bedroom dwellings had the highest incidence of poverty of 35,0%. For both urban and rural areas households in a dwelling of four bedrooms and more had the least incidence of poverty at 7,6% and 26,6% respectively.

Figure 3. 40: Percentage distribution of poor households by number of bedrooms and settlement type



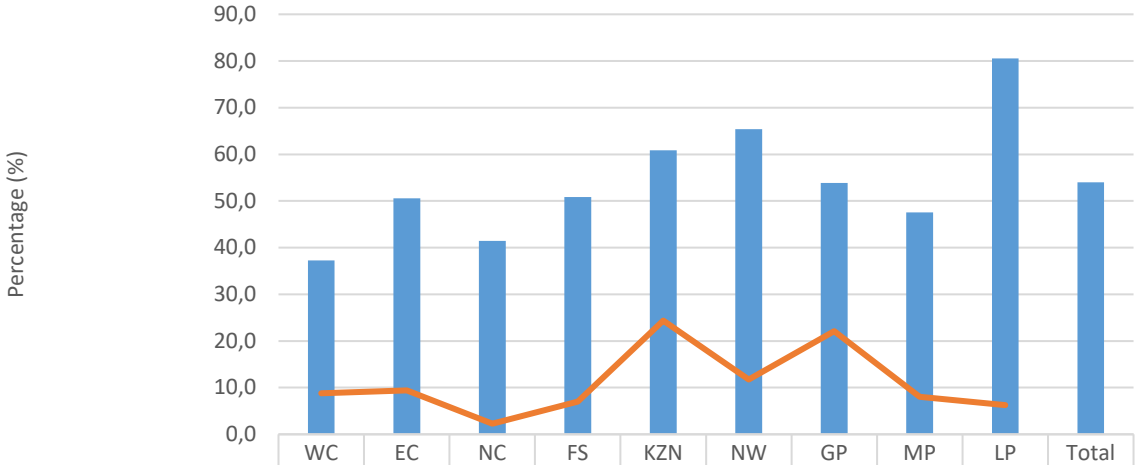
	Urban	Rural	Total
0	29,3	12,0	21,5
1	24,2	19,9	22,3
2	33,3	31,0	32,2
3	10,0	21,9	15,3
4+	3,2	15,2	8,6

Figure 3.40 shows that in both urban and rural areas the largest share of poor households were found in those in two-bedrooms dwellings at 33,3% and 31,0% respectively. For urban areas the second largest share was from households living in zero-bedroom dwellings at 29,3%, in contrast, in rural areas the second largest share was from households living in bigger houses with three-bedrooms with a share of 21,9%. Households living in houses comprising of four bedrooms and more had the least share of the poor in urban areas at 3,2%. However, in rural areas this is completely different with the least share of poor households found in smaller sized houses with zero bedrooms at 12,0%.

3.7 Poverty profile by experience of hunger

3.7.1 Experience of hunger and province

Figure 3. 41: Poverty incidence and distribution of poor households by province and experience of hunger



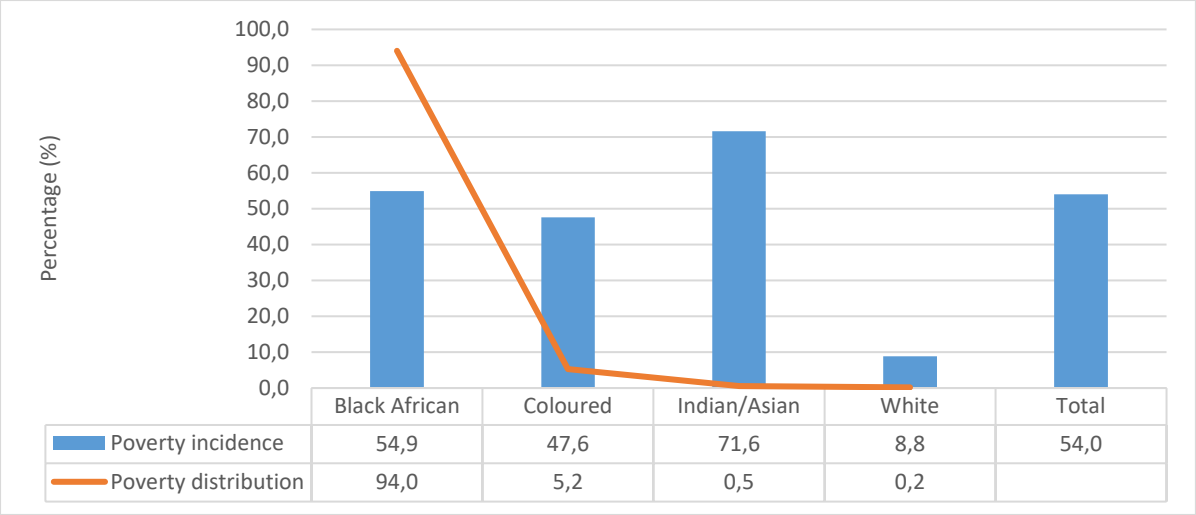
	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Poverty incidence	37,3	50,5	41,4	50,8	60,9	65,4	53,9	47,6	80,5	54,0
Poverty distribution	8,8	9,4	2,3	7,0	24,4	11,8	22,1	8,1	6,2	

Figure 3.41 shows the incidence and distribution of poverty by province for households who had experienced hunger. Nationally, the poverty incidence for households who experienced hunger was 54,0%. Rural-based provinces mainly had the highest incidence of poverty led by Limpopo with an incidence of 80,5%, followed by North West at 65,4% with KwaZulu-Natal having the third highest poverty levels of 60,9%. Western Cape had the lowest incidence of poverty at 37,3%.

The distribution of poor households who experienced hunger shows that KwaZulu-Natal had the largest share of 24,4%, followed by Gauteng at 22,1% with North West having the third largest share of 11,8%. Northern Cape had the lowest share of poor households who experienced hunger at 2,3%.

3.7.2 Experience of hunger and population group

Figure 3. 42: Poverty incidence and distribution of poor households by population group and experience of hunger



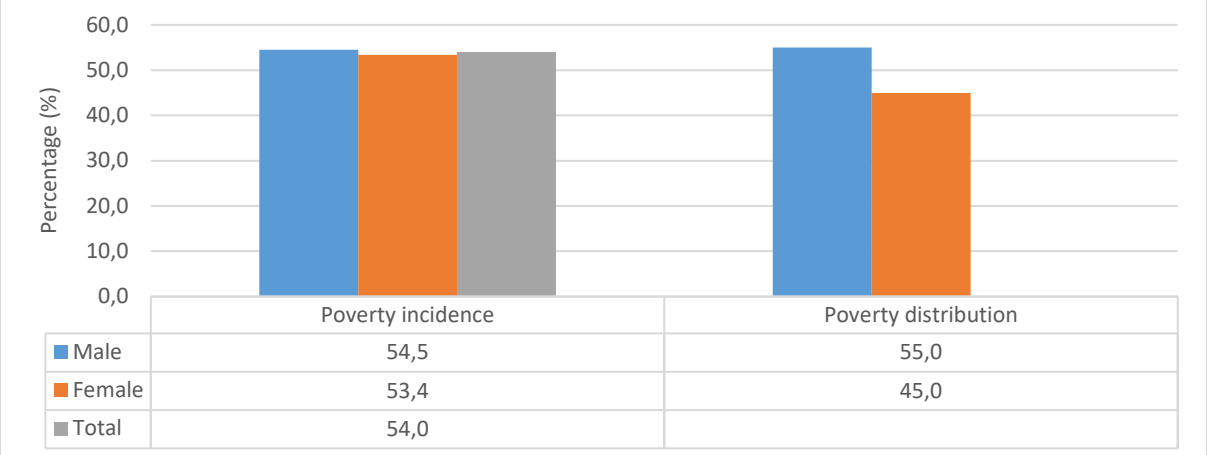
	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Poverty incidence	54,9	47,6	71,6	8,8	54,0
Poverty distribution	94,0	5,2	0,5	0,2	

When the incidence of poverty was assessed by population group and those who experienced hunger, Indian/Asian households had the highest incidence of poverty of 71,6% followed by black African households at 54,9% with both incidences higher than the national average of 54,0%. White households had the lowest incidence of 8,8% which was extremely below the national average.

Of the poor households who experienced hunger, black African households had the largest share of 94,0% as shown in Figure 3.42. Coloured households had the second largest share of poor households who experienced hunger at 5,2%, with white and Indian/Asian households having the lowest shares of 0,2% and 0,5% respectively.

3.7.3 Experience of hunger and sex of the household head

Figure 3. 43: Poverty incidence and distribution of poor households by sex of the household head and experience of hunger



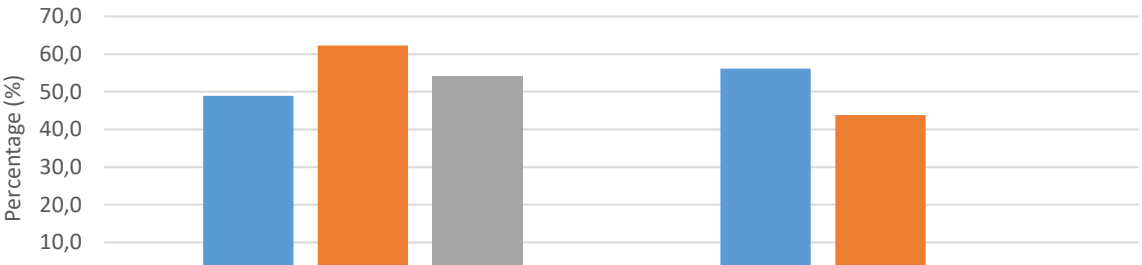
	Poverty incidence	Poverty distribution
Male	54,5	55,0
Female	53,4	45,0
Total	54,0	

When poverty levels were calculated in terms of households who had experienced hunger and sex of household head as shown in Figure 3.43, male-headed households had the highest risk of poverty compared to female-headed households. The incidence of poverty for male-headed households was 54,5% compared to 53,4% for female-headed households. The poverty incidence for male-headed households was higher than the national average of 54,0% whereas those of female-headed households were lower than the national average.

Additionally, Figure 3.43 shows that male-headed households had the largest share of those households who are poor and experienced hunger with a share of 55,0% compared with 45,0% for female-headed households.

3.7.4 Experience of hunger and settlement type

Figure 3. 44: Poverty incidence and distribution of poor households by settlement type and experience of hunger



	Poverty incidence	Poverty distribution
Urban	48,9	56,2
Rural	62,2	43,8
Total	54,0	

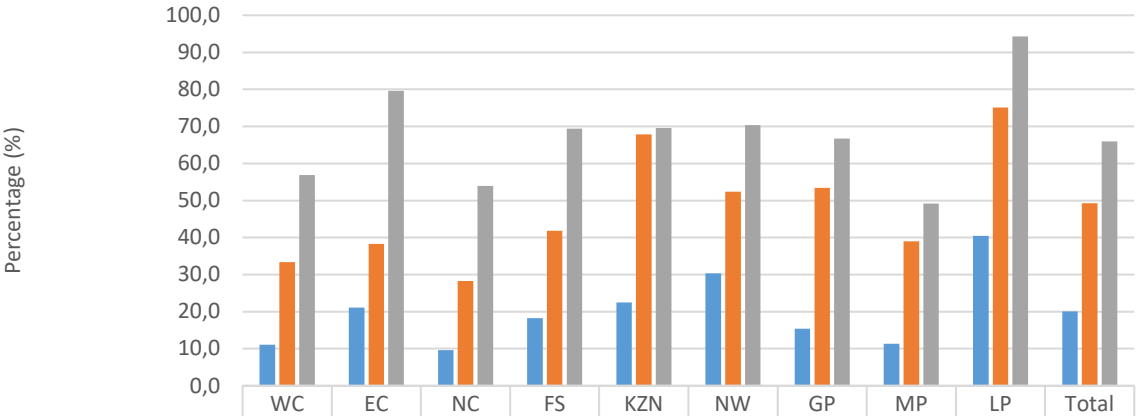
Figure 3.44 illustrates that for households who experienced hunger by settlement type, rural-based households had the highest incidence of poverty of 62,2% which was higher than the national average and also when compared to urban-based households with a poverty incidence of 48,9%.

Furthermore, figure 3.44 shows that urban-based households had the largest share of poor households who experienced hunger compared with rural-based households at 56,2% and 43,8% respectively.

3.8 Poverty profile by level of food adequacy

3.8.1 Level of food adequacy and province

Figure 3. 45: Poverty incidence of households by province and level of food adequacy



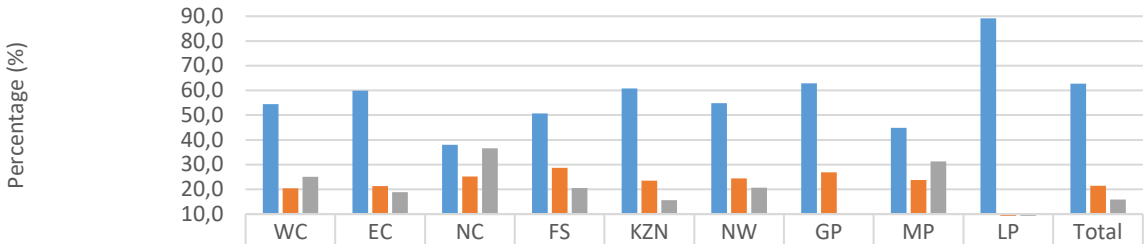
	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Adequate	11,1	21,1	9,6	18,2	22,5	30,4	15,4	11,4	40,5	20,1
Inadequate	33,4	38,3	28,3	41,8	67,9	52,4	53,5	39,0	75,1	49,2
Severely inadequate	56,9	79,6	53,9	69,4	69,6	70,4	66,8	49,1	94,3	65,9

Figure 3.45 shows that nationally, households who had indicated that their level of food was severely inadequate had extremely higher incidence of poverty compared to the other levels of food adequacy. The incidence of poverty for households who were severely food inadequate was 65,9%, followed by those who indicated that their level of food was just inadequate at 49,2%. Households who indicated that their level of food was adequate had by far the lowest incidence of poverty of 20,1%.

When poverty levels were assessed by the level of food adequacy and province, it shows that for all the provinces, households who indicated that their level of food was severely inadequate had extremely higher poverty levels, followed by those with inadequate and adequate food levels. Limpopo had by far the highest incidence of poverty compared to all the other provinces which were also above the national averages. The rural-based provinces of Limpopo (94,3%), Eastern Cape (79,6%), North West (70,4%) had the top three highest incidence of poverty for households who were severely food inadequate. Limpopo (75,1%), KwaZulu-Natal (67,9%) and Gauteng (53,5%) had the top three highest incidence of poverty for households who were food inadequate.

Rural-based provinces of Limpopo (40,5%), North West (30,4%) and KwaZulu-Natal (22,5%) had the highest incidence of poverty for households who were food adequate.

Figure 3. 46: Percentage distribution of poor households by level of food adequacy and province

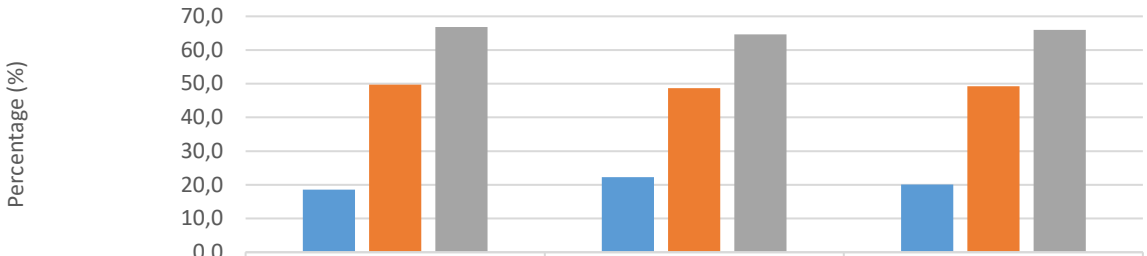


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Adequate	54,5	59,9	38,1	50,8	60,8	54,9	62,9	44,9	89,2	62,7
Inadequate	20,5	21,3	25,3	28,7	23,6	24,5	26,9	23,8	4,8	21,4
Severely inadequate	25,1	18,8	36,7	20,5	15,6	20,6	10,2	31,3	6,1	15,9

Figure 3.46 depicts that nationally, the largest share of poor households by level of food adequacy was from those with adequate level of food at 62,7%, followed by those with inadequate food at 21,4% with households who had severely inadequate food having the third largest share of 15,9%. When the shares of poor households by level of food adequacy were evaluated by province, Limpopo (89,2%) had the largest share for households who were food adequate indicating an over-representation of poor households. For households who were food inadequate, Free State (28,7%) had the largest share of poor households which also indicated an over-representation of poor households. Northern Cape (36,7%) had the largest share of poor households for severely food inadequate households which also indicated an over-representation of poor households.

3.8.2 Level of food adequacy and sex of the household head

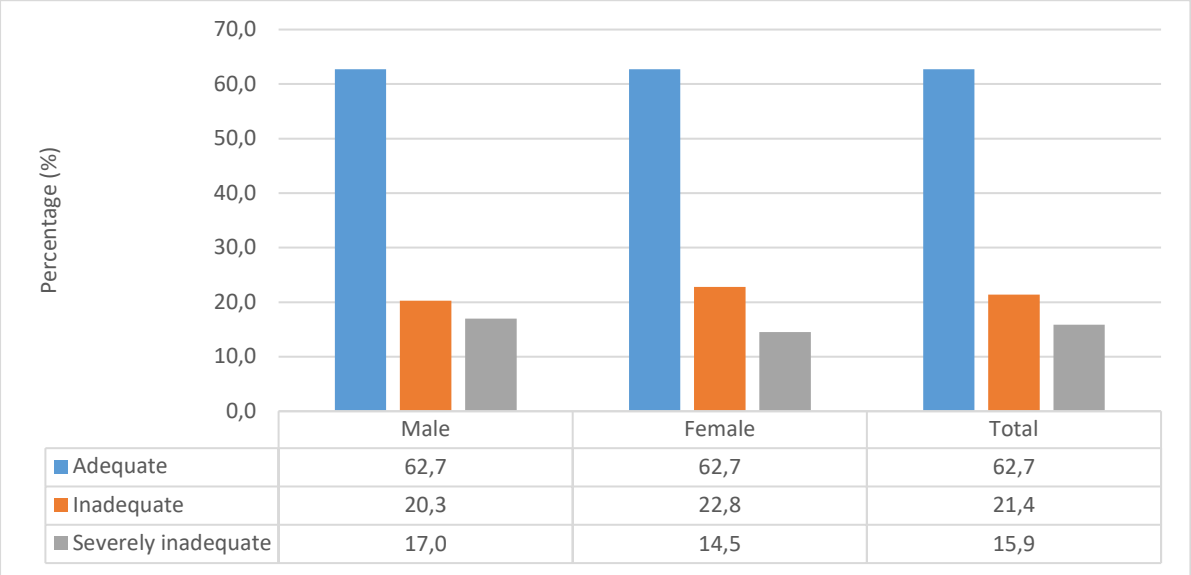
Figure 3. 47: Poverty incidence of households by sex of the household head and level of food adequacy



	Male	Female	Total
Adequate	18,6	22,3	20,1
Inadequate	49,7	48,7	49,2
Severely inadequate	66,9	64,7	65,9

Figure 3.47 indicates that when poverty levels were disaggregated by the level of food adequacy and sex of the household head, male-headed households had higher incidence of poverty for inadequate (49,7%) and severely food inadequate (66,9%) households compared to female-headed households. Female-headed households, however, had higher poverty levels for households who were food adequate (22,3%).

Figure 3. 48: Percentage distribution of poor households by level of food adequacy and sex of the household head

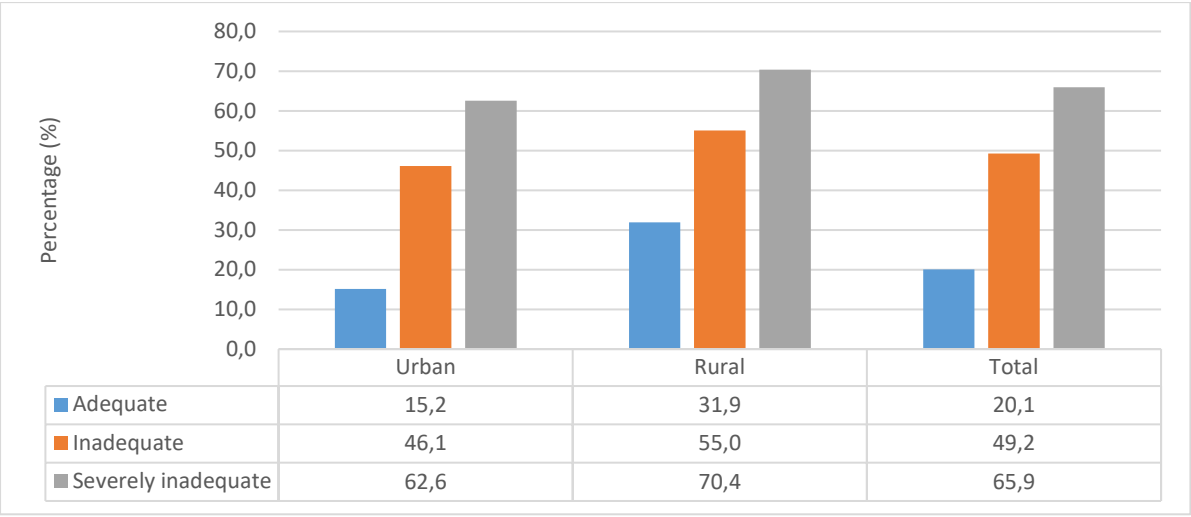


	Male	Female	Total
Adequate	62,7	62,7	62,7
Inadequate	20,3	22,8	21,4
Severely inadequate	17,0	14,5	15,9

Figure 3.48 shows that for both male and female-headed households the largest share of poor households was contributed by those who indicated that they had adequate food level with a similar share of 62,7% which was also to the same share as the national estimate. However, female-headed households had the largest share for households with inadequate food level with a share of 22,8% compared with 20,3% for male-headed households. For households who were severely food inadequate male-headed households had the largest share of poor households with a share of 17,0% compared with a share of 14,5% by female-headed households.

3.8.3 Level of food adequacy and settlement type

Figure 3. 49: Poverty incidence of households by settlement type and level of food adequacy

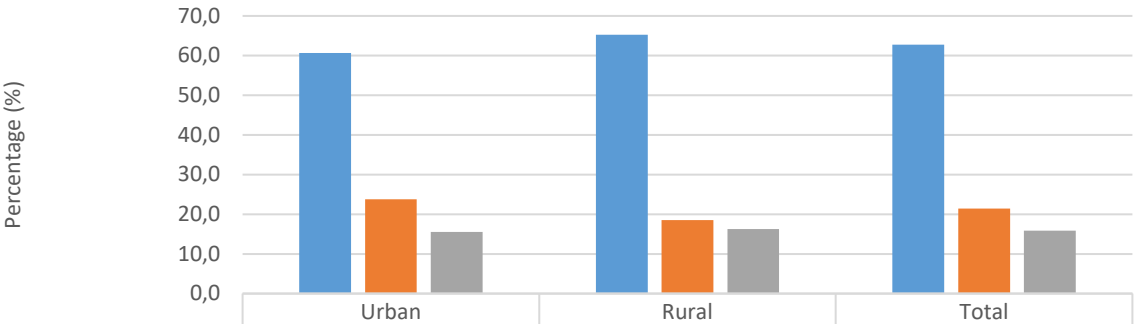


	Urban	Rural	Total
Adequate	15,2	31,9	20,1
Inadequate	46,1	55,0	49,2
Severely inadequate	62,6	70,4	65,9

Figure 3.49 shows that rural-based households had far higher risk of poverty on all the levels of food adequacy compared to urban-based households.

Rural households that were severely food inadequate had the highest incidence of poverty at 70,4%, followed by those that were food inadequate at 55,0%. All the poverty levels for rural-based households were higher than the national averages whereas those for urban-based households were all below the national averages.

Figure 3. 50: Percentage distribution of poor households by level of food adequacy and settlement type



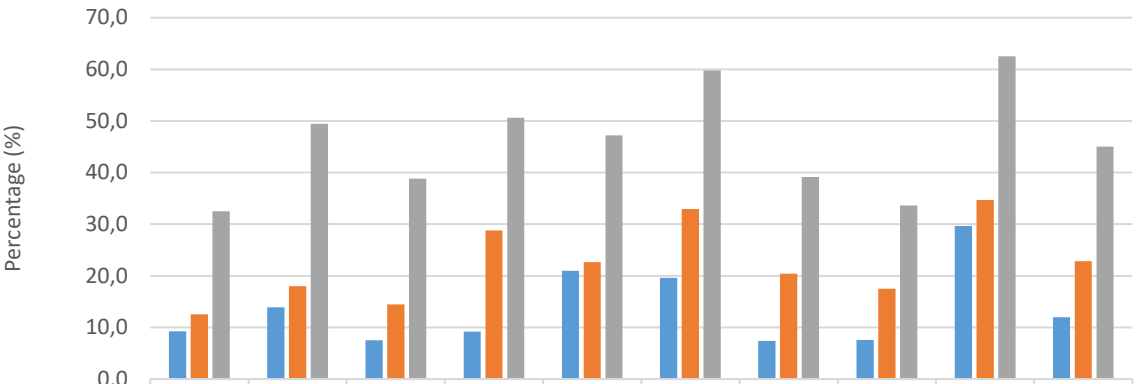
	Urban	Rural	Total
Adequate	60,7	65,2	62,7
Inadequate	23,8	18,5	21,4
Severely inadequate	15,5	16,3	15,9

Figure 3.50 shows that the largest share of poor households by level of food adequacy and settlement type was contributed by households with adequate food where rural areas had the largest of share of 65,2% compared to 60,7% of urban areas. The share of rural areas was above the national average of 62,7% therefore indicating an over-representation of poor rural households relative to the total share of poor households. However, the share for urban households was below the national average which indicated an under-representation. For both urban and rural areas, households with inadequate food had the second largest share of poor households where urban areas accounted for the highest share of 23,8% compared to rural areas with a share of 18,5%. Households that indicated they had severely inadequate food adequacy had the lowest share of poor households for both urban and rural areas; where rural areas had a share of 16,3% compared to 15,5% in urban areas.

3.9 Poverty profile by happiness status

3.9.1 Happiness status and province

Figure 3. 51: Poverty incidence of households by province and happiness status

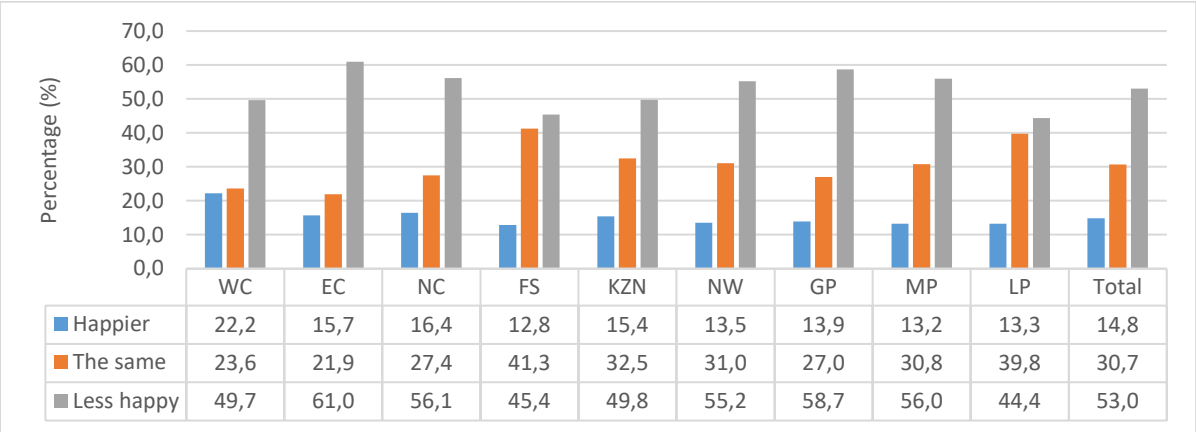


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Happier	9,3	13,9	7,5	9,2	21,0	19,6	7,4	7,6	29,7	12,0
The same	12,6	18,0	14,4	28,8	22,7	32,9	20,4	17,5	34,7	22,8
Less happy	32,5	49,4	38,9	50,6	47,2	59,8	39,1	33,6	62,5	45,0

Figure 3.51 indicates that happiness status has an influence on the subjective poverty status of households where households that were less happy than they were 10 years ago were found to have extremely higher incidence of poverty compared to households with other happiness statuses.

Limpopo was again found to have the highest incidence of poverty on all the happiness statuses compared to all the other provinces. The mostly rural-based provinces of Limpopo (62,5%), North West (59,8%), Free State (50,6%), Eastern Cape (49,4%) and KwaZulu-Natal (47,2%) were found to have the highest incidence of poverty for those households that were less happy. The same rural-based provinces of Limpopo (34,7%), North West (32,9%), Free State (28,8%) and KwaZulu-Natal (22,7%) were also found to have had the highest incidence of poverty for households that had the same happiness status compared to 10 years ago. For households that were happier than they were 10 years ago rural-based provinces were again found to have had higher incidence of poverty led by Limpopo (29,7%), North West (19,6%), KwaZulu-Natal (21,0%) and Eastern Cape (13,9%).

Figure 3. 52: Percentage distribution of poor households by happiness status and province

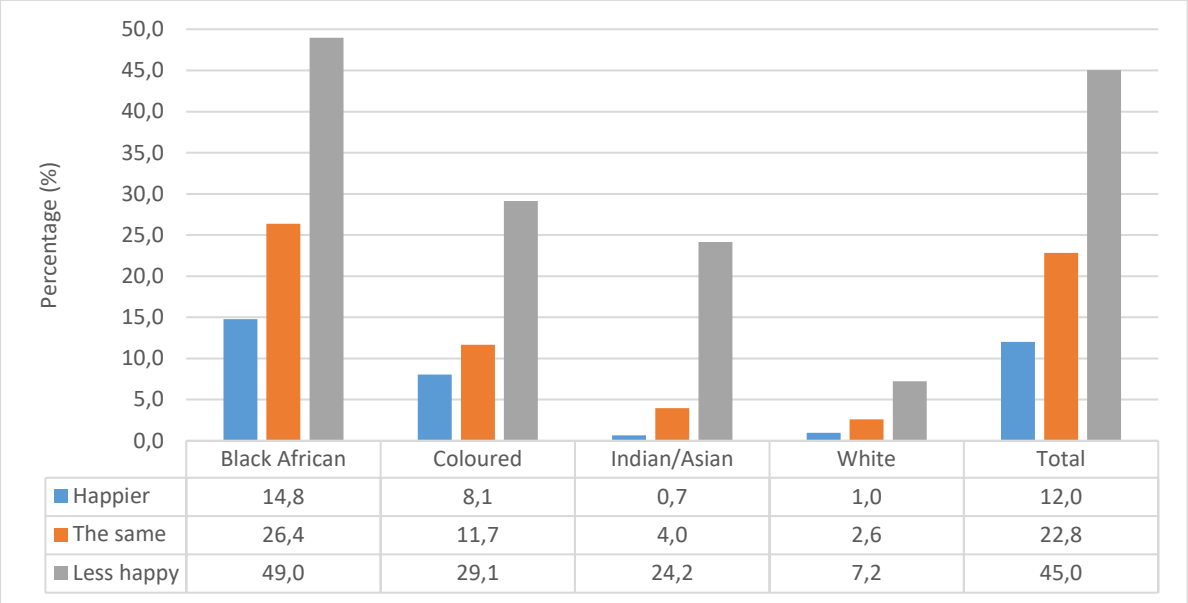


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Happier	22,2	15,7	16,4	12,8	15,4	13,5	13,9	13,2	13,3	14,8
The same	23,6	21,9	27,4	41,3	32,5	31,0	27,0	30,8	39,8	30,7
Less happy	49,7	61,0	56,1	45,4	49,8	55,2	58,7	56,0	44,4	53,0

Figure 3.52 shows that nationally the largest share of poor households by happiness status was contributed by less happy households (53,0%), followed by households with the same status (30,7%) with happier households (14,8%) contributing the lowest share of poor households. When provinces were taken into account the pattern of share contribution witnessed nationally was repeated with Gauteng (58,7%) contributing the largest share for less happy households. Limpopo (39,8%) had the largest share for households with the same status, with the Western Cape (22,2%) having the largest share for happier households.

3.9.2 Happiness status and population group

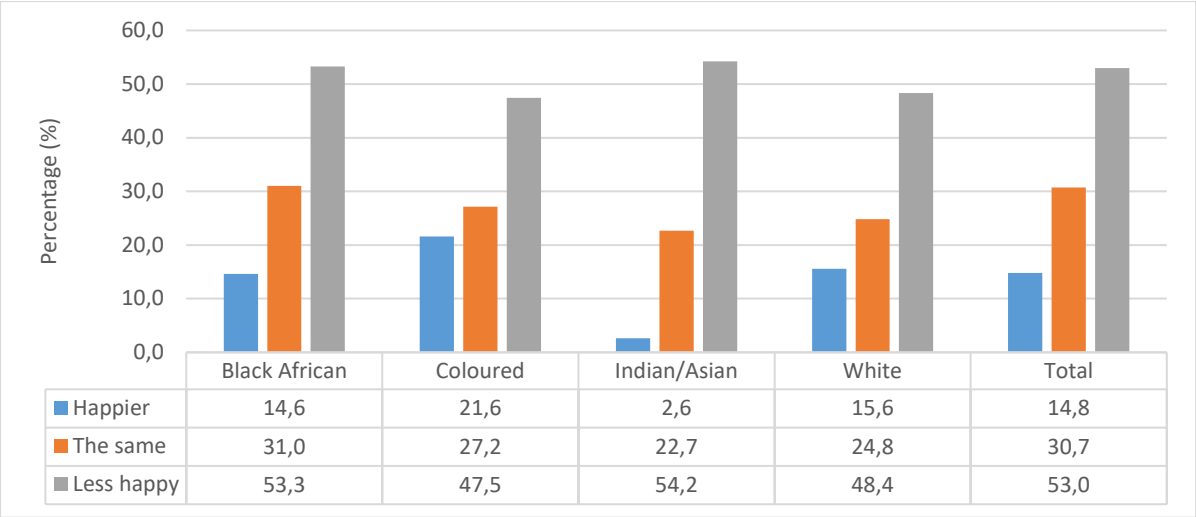
Figure 3. 53: Poverty incidence of households by population group and happiness status



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Happier	14,8	8,1	0,7	1,0	12,0
The same	26,4	11,7	4,0	2,6	22,8
Less happy	49,0	29,1	24,2	7,2	45,0

When the incidence of poverty was assessed by happiness status and population group as shown in Figure 3.53, black African households had by far the highest incidence of poverty compared to the other population groups. Households that were less happy were found to have had the highest incidence of poverty led by black Africans (49,0%), followed by coloureds (29,1%), Indian/Asian (24,2%) and white households at 7,2%. The same pattern was followed for households that were found to have had the same happiness status led by black Africans (26,4%) followed by coloureds (11,7%), Indians/Asians (4,0%) and white households at 2,6%. The incidence of poverty for households that were happier were much lower than the other happiness statuses where Indian/Asian households had the lowest incidence at 0,7% followed by white households at 1,0%.

Figure 3. 54: Percentage distribution of poor households by happiness status and population group

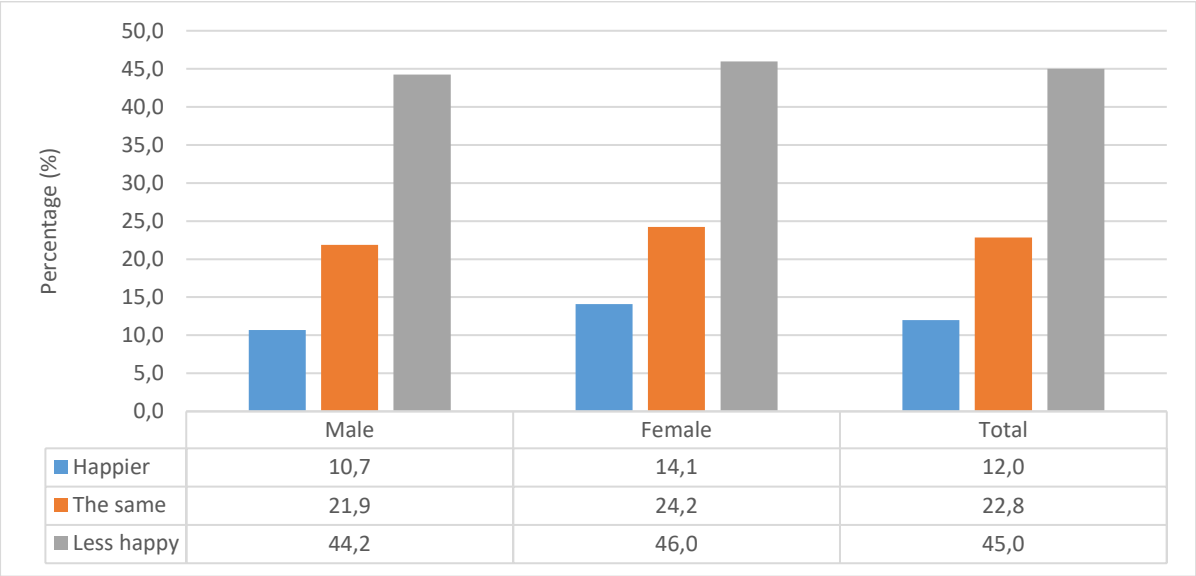


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Happier	14,6	21,6	2,6	15,6	14,8
The same	31,0	27,2	22,7	24,8	30,7
Less happy	53,3	47,5	54,2	48,4	53,0

Figure 3.54 depicts the share of poor households by happiness status and population group where Indian/Asian households had the largest share for less happy households at 54,2%. Black African households had the largest share for households with the same status at 31,0%. White households had the largest share for happier households at 15,6%.

3.9.3 Happiness and sex of the household head

Figure 3. 55: Poverty incidence of households by sex of the household head and happiness status

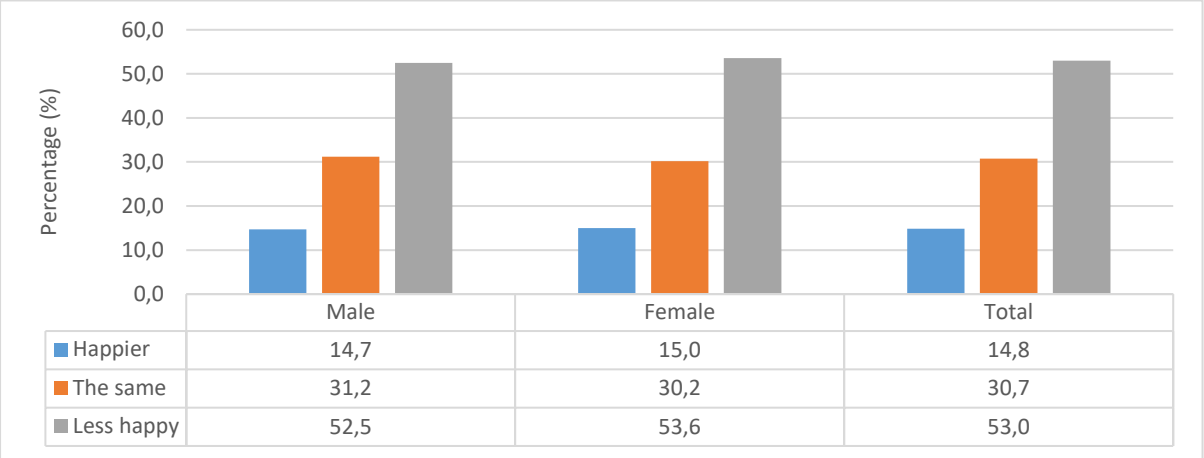


	Male	Female	Total
Happier	10,7	14,1	12,0
The same	21,9	24,2	22,8
Less happy	44,2	46,0	45,0

Female-headed households have higher incidence of poverty compared to male-headed households by all the happiness statuses as shown in Figure 3.55.

In addition, their poverty levels were all higher than the national averages whereas those of male-headed households were below them. Less happy female-headed households had the highest poverty incidence of 46,0% compared to those of male-headed households of 44,2%. They were followed by the poverty incidence of households with the same happiness status, with 24,2% and 21,9% for female and male-headed households respectively. Happier households had the lowest incidence of poverty compared to the other happiness statuses where male-headed households had a poverty incidence of 10,7% compared to 14,1% for female-headed households.

Figure 3. 56: Percentage distribution of poor households by happiness status and sex of the household head

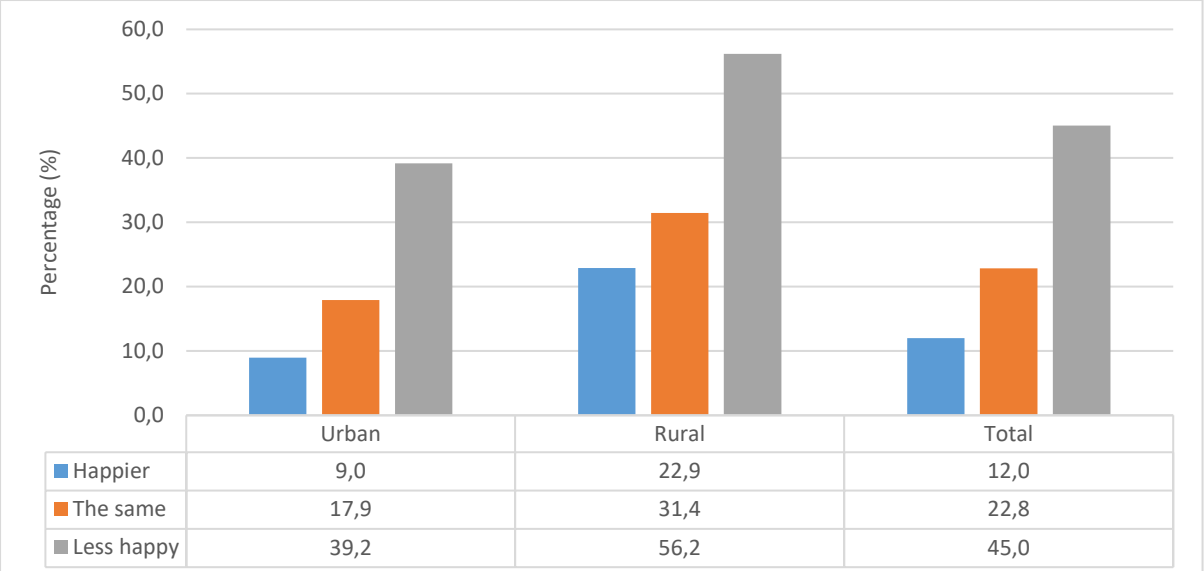


	Male	Female	Total
Happier	14,7	15,0	14,8
The same	31,2	30,2	30,7
Less happy	52,5	53,6	53,0

Figure 3.56 illustrates that female-headed households had the largest share of poor households for households with less happy status at 53,6% compared with 52,5% for male-headed households. Female-headed households again had the largest share for households with happier status at 15,0% compared with 14,7% for male-headed households. However, male-headed households had the largest share for those households with the same happiness status at 31,2% compared with 30,2% for female-headed households.

3.9.4 Happiness status and settlement type

Figure 3. 57: Poverty incidence of households by settlement type and happiness status

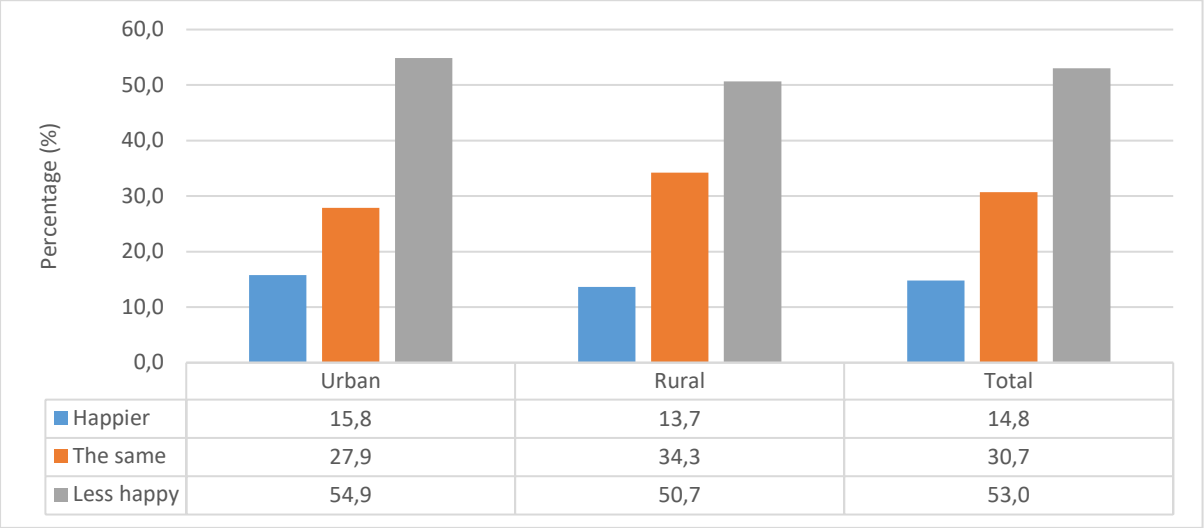


	Urban	Rural	Total
Happier	9,0	22,9	12,0
The same	17,9	31,4	22,8
Less happy	39,2	56,2	45,0

Figure 3.57 shows that when the incidence of poverty was evaluated by happiness statuses, rural-based households had extremely higher poverty levels on all the statuses compared to urban-based households. In addition, their poverty levels were all above the national averages whereas those of urban-based households were all below the national averages.

Less happy households led the way with having higher incidence of poverty of 56,2% and 39,2% for both rural and urban-based households respectively. They were followed by households with the same happiness status with the incidence of 31,4% for rural-based households and 17,9% for urban-based households. Happier households had the lowest incidence of poverty with the incidence of 9,0% and 22,9% for urban and rural-based households respectively.

Figure 3. 58: Percentage distribution of poor households by happiness status and settlement type



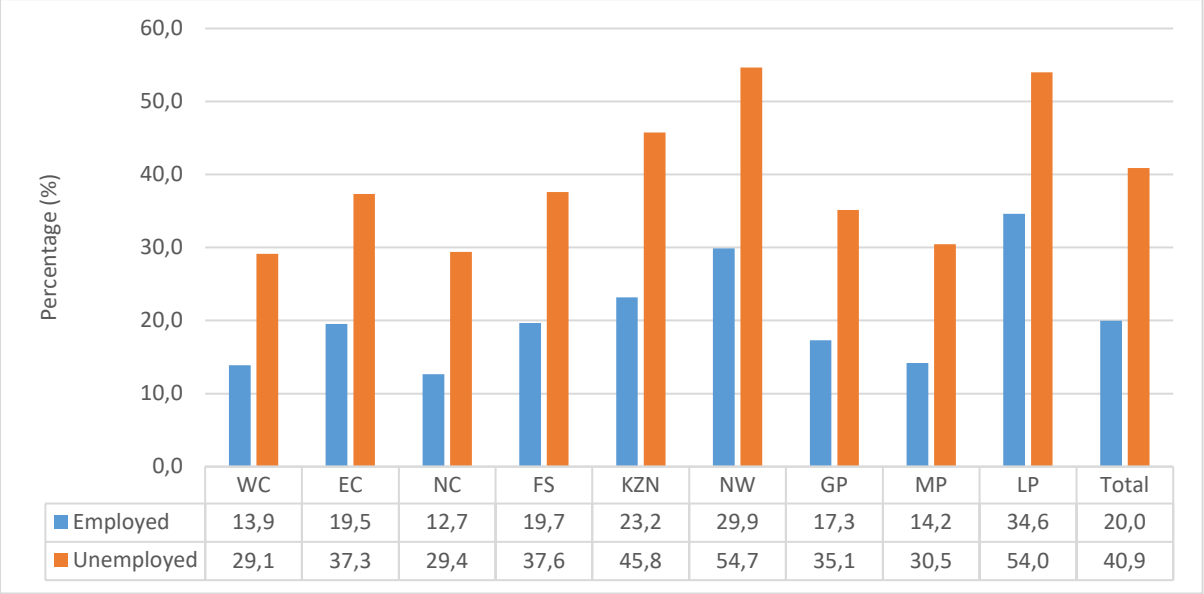
	Urban	Rural	Total
Happier	15,8	13,7	14,8
The same	27,9	34,3	30,7
Less happy	54,9	50,7	53,0

Figure 3.58 depicts that urban areas had the largest share of poor households for households with less happy status (54,9%) and those with happier status (15,8%) compared with rural areas. However, rural areas had the largest share of poor households for those with the same happiness status at 34,3% compared with urban areas with a share of 27,9%.

3.10 Poverty profile by household employment status

3.10.1 Household employment status and province

Figure 3. 59: Poverty incidence of households by province and household employment status (with at least one member employed)

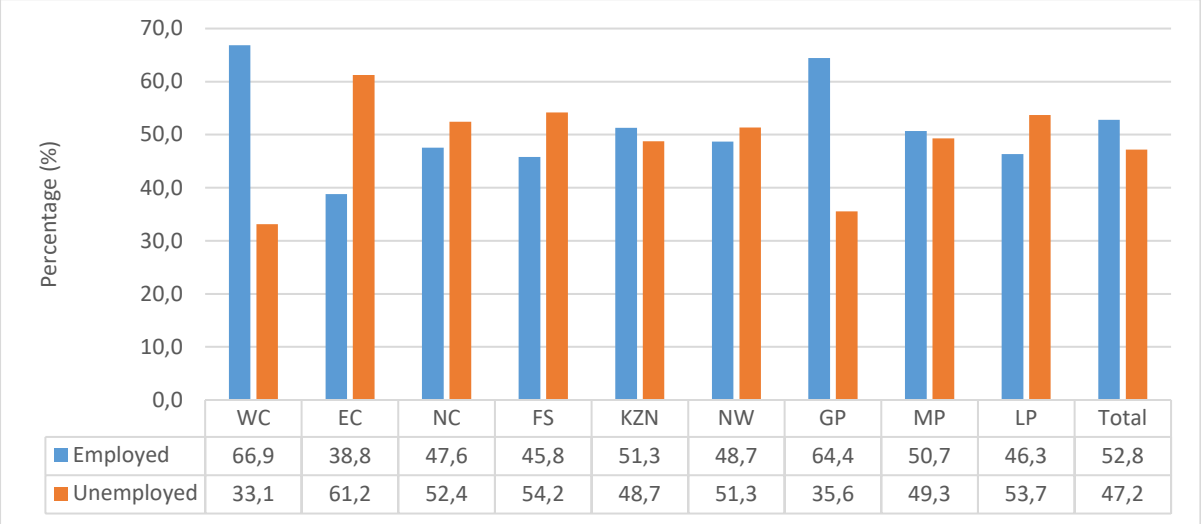


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Employed	13,9	19,5	12,7	19,7	23,2	29,9	17,3	14,2	34,6	20,0
Unemployed	29,1	37,3	29,4	37,6	45,8	54,7	35,1	30,5	54,0	40,9

Figure 3.59 shows the incidence of poverty by province and the employment status of households with at least one member employed or where there is no one employed. Nationally, the incidence of poverty by employment status shows that households in which no household member was employed had extremely higher poverty levels at 40,9% compared to

households in which there was at least one household member employed with poverty levels of 20,0%. When the incidence of poverty was evaluated by both employment status and province, in all the provinces, households in which all economically active members were unemployed had higher incidence of poverty compared to those in which there was at least one member employed. This shows that employment status plays a role in determining the poverty status of a household. For households with unemployed status, North West had the highest incidence of poverty of 54,7%, followed by Limpopo with an incidence of 54,0% and KwaZulu-Natal with an incidence of 45,8% rounding-up the top highest three provinces. For households with employed status Limpopo (34,6%) had the highest incidence of poverty followed by KwaZulu-Natal (29,9%). Northern Cape (12,7%) and Western Cape (13,9%) had the lowest incidence of poverty for households with employed statuses.

Figure 3. 60: Percentage distribution of poor households by employment status and province (with at least one member employed)

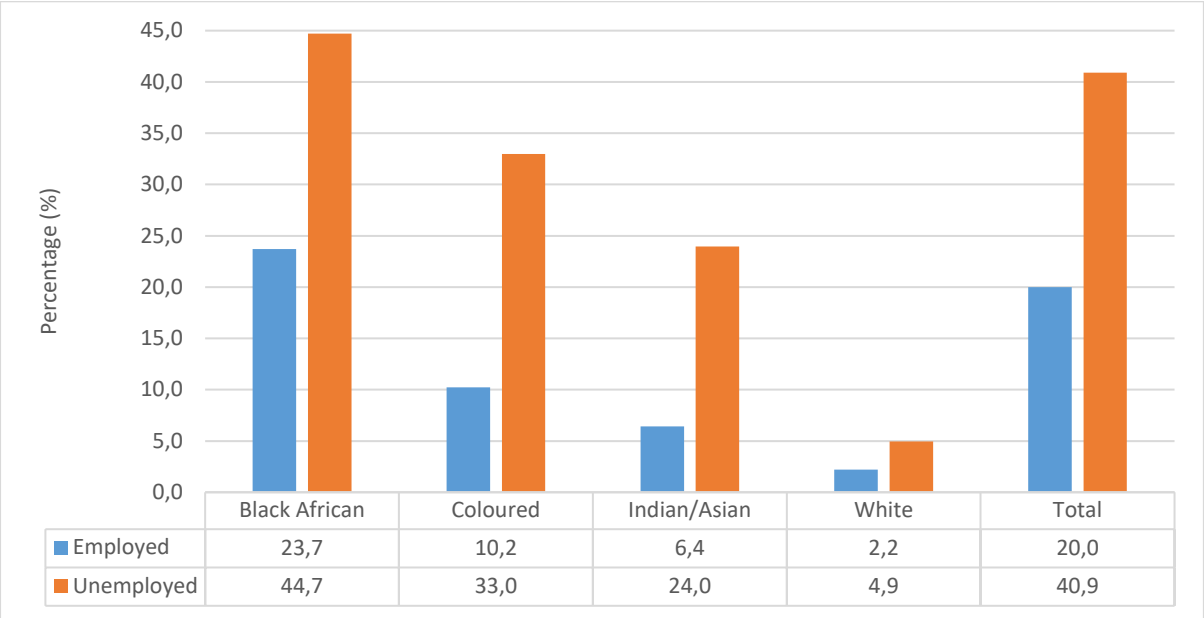


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Employed	66,9	38,8	47,6	45,8	51,3	48,7	64,4	50,7	46,3	52,8
Unemployed	33,1	61,2	52,4	54,2	48,7	51,3	35,6	49,3	53,7	47,2

Figure 3.60 shows that nationally, households with at least one person employed had the largest share of poor households at 52,8% compared with those who had all economically active members unemployed at 47,2%. When provinces were taken into account, Western Cape (66,9%) had the largest share of poor households for households with employed status followed by Gauteng (64,4%) with KwaZulu-Natal (51,3%) having the third largest share. For households with all unemployed economically active members, Eastern Cape had the largest share of 61,2% followed by Free State at 54,2% with Limpopo (53,7%) having the third largest share.

3.10.2 Household employment status and population group

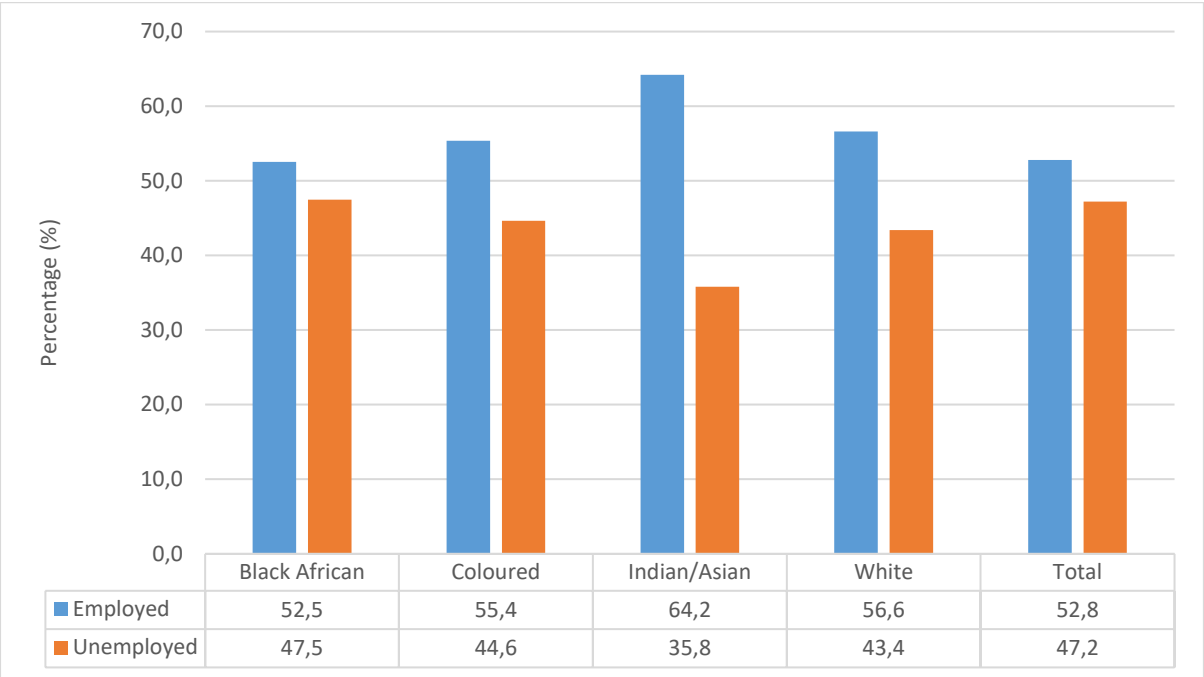
Figure 3. 61: Poverty incidence of households by population group and household employment status (with at least one member employed)



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Employed	23,7	10,2	6,4	2,2	20,0
Unemployed	44,7	33,0	24,0	4,9	40,9

Figure 3.61 shows that black African households had extremely higher incidences of poverty by both categories of employment status which were also above the national averages. For households with unemployed status the incidence for black African households was 44,7%, followed by coloured households at 33,0%. Interestingly, while all the other population groups had double-digit incidence of poverty for households with unemployed status, white households had extremely lower incidence of a single-digit of 4,9% which was way lower than the national average of 40,9%. For households with employed status, black African households had the highest incidence of 23,7%, followed by coloured households at 10,2% while white households had an extremely lower incidence of 2,2%.

Figure 3. 62: Percentage distribution of poor households by household employment status and population group

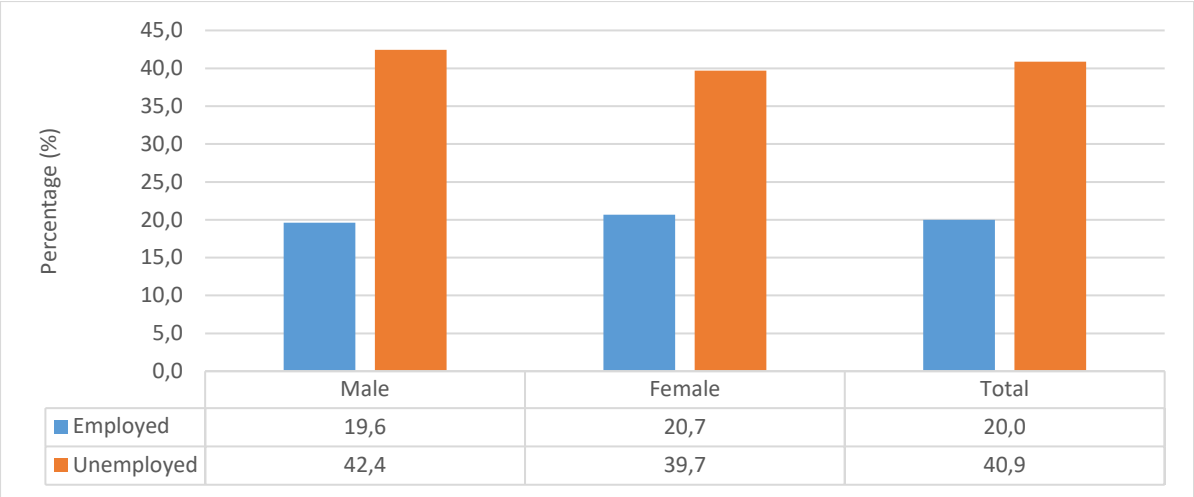


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Employed	52,5	55,4	64,2	56,6	52,8
Unemployed	47,5	44,6	35,8	43,4	47,2

Figure 3.62 shows that the largest share of poor households for all the population groups was contributed by households with employed status. Indian/Asian households had the largest share at 64,2%, followed by white households at 56,6% with coloured households rounding-up the top three highest share contributors at 55,4%. For households with unemployed status, black African households had the largest share of 47,5% followed by coloured households at 44,6% with white households rounding-up the top three highest contributors at 43,4%.

3.10.3 Household employment status and sex of the household head

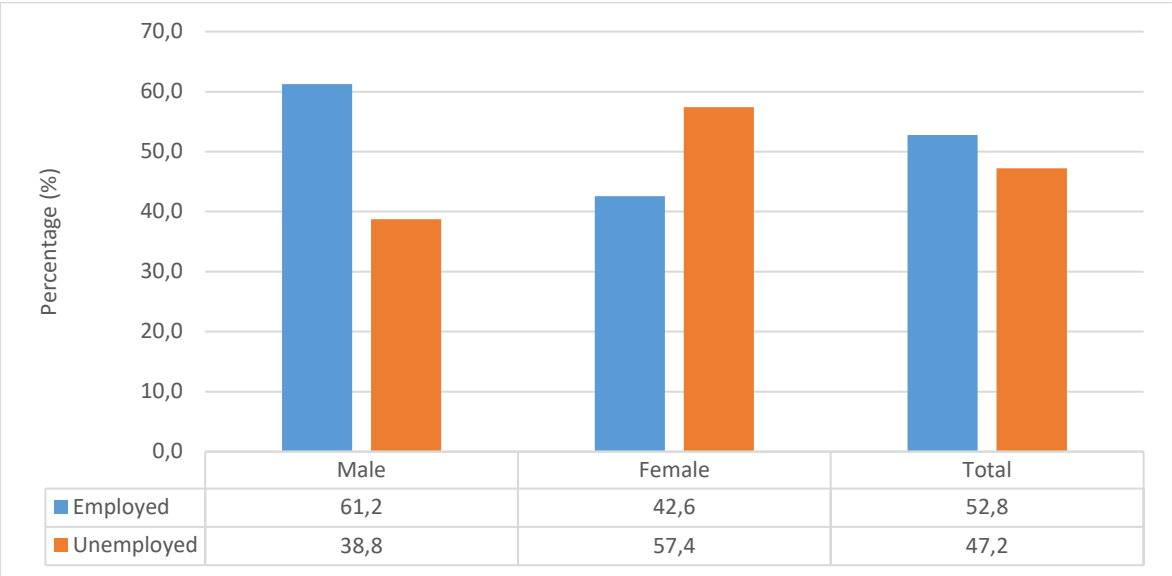
Figure 3. 63: Poverty incidence of households by sex of the household head and household employment status (with at least one member employed)



	Male	Female	Total
Employed	19,6	20,7	20,0
Unemployed	42,4	39,7	40,9

Figure 3.63 depicts differing patterns for the incidence of poverty by the sex of household head and employment status. For households with unemployed status, male-headed households had higher incidence of poverty of 42,4% compared to that of female-headed households of 39,7%. The poverty levels of male-headed households for the unemployed status were higher than the national average of 40,9% whereas those of female-headed households were lower than the national average. However, for households with employed status, female-headed households had higher incidence of poverty (20,7%) compared with male-headed households (19,6%).

Figure 3. 64: Percentage distribution of poor households by household employment status and sex of the household head

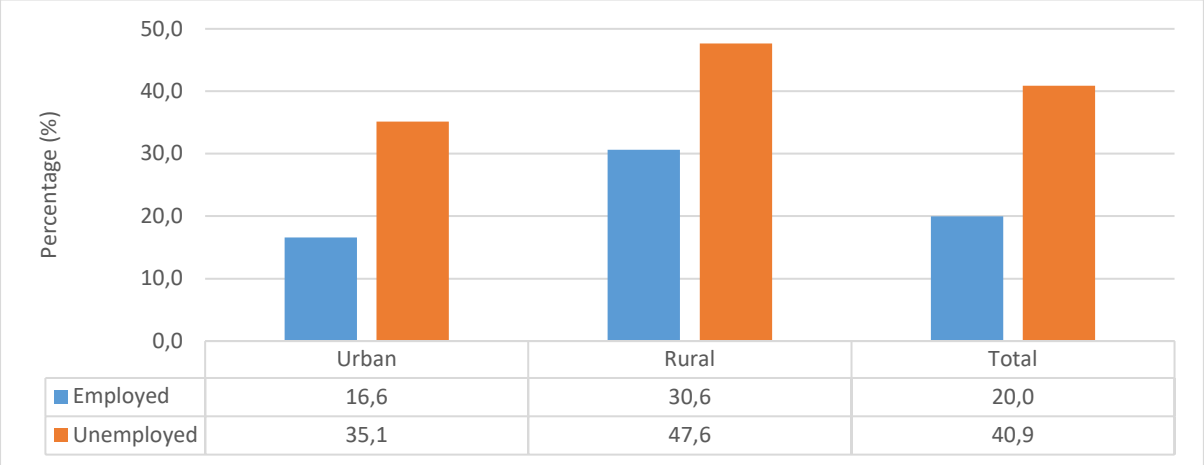


	Male	Female	Total
Employed	61,2	42,6	52,8
Unemployed	38,8	57,4	47,2

Male-headed households had the largest share of poor households for those with employed status at 61,2% compared with 42,6% for female-headed households as shown in Figure 3.64. However, for households with unemployed status, female-headed households had the largest share of poor households at 57,4% compared with male-headed households at 38,8%.

3.10.4 Household employment status and settlement type

Figure 3. 65: Poverty incidence of households by settlement type and household employment status (with at least one member employed)



	Urban	Rural	Total
Employed	16,6	30,6	20,0
Unemployed	35,1	47,6	40,9

Figure 3.65 illustrates that rural-based households had a higher risk of poverty based on both employment statuses. Rural-based households with unemployed status had the highest risk of poverty with the incidence of 47,6% compared to that of 35,1% for urban-based households. For households with employed status, rural-based households had the highest incidence of poverty of 30,6% compared with that of 16,6% for urban-based households. Both the employed and unemployed statuses of rural-based households were above the national averages whereas those of urban-based households were below them.

Figure 3. 66: Percentage distribution of poor households by household employment status and settlement type

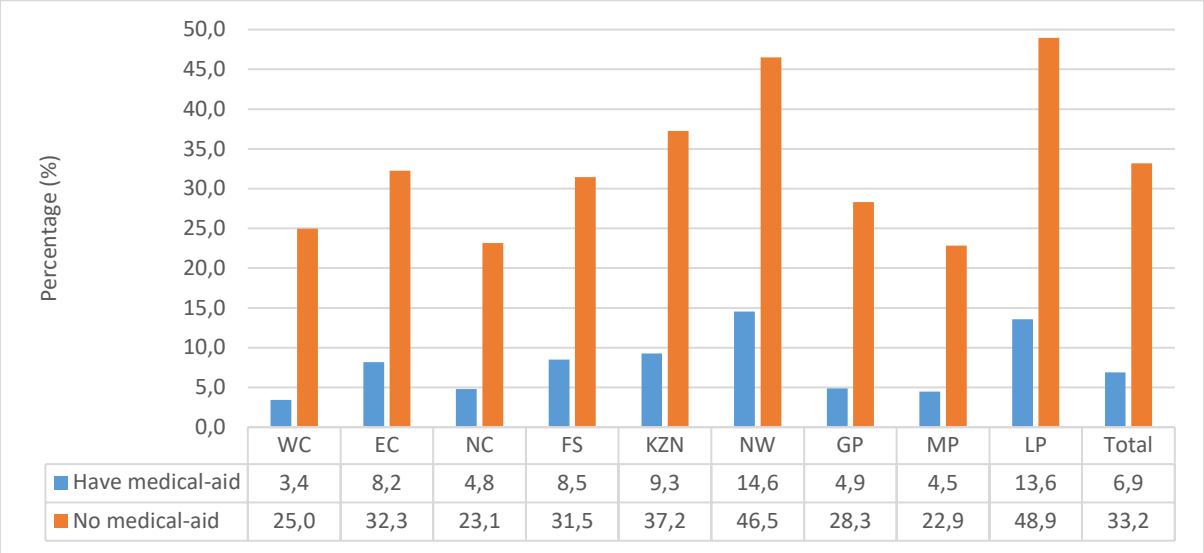
	Urban	Rural	Total
Employed	60,2	43,8	52,8
Unemployed	39,8	56,2	47,2

Figure 3.66 shows that urban households had the largest share of poor households with employed status at 60,2% which was also higher than the national average compared with rural areas with a share of 43,8%. For households with unemployed status, rural households had the largest share of poor households of 56,2% which was also above the national average compared with that of urban households at 39,8%.

3.11 Poverty profile by households medical-aid status

3.11.1 Households medical-aid status and province

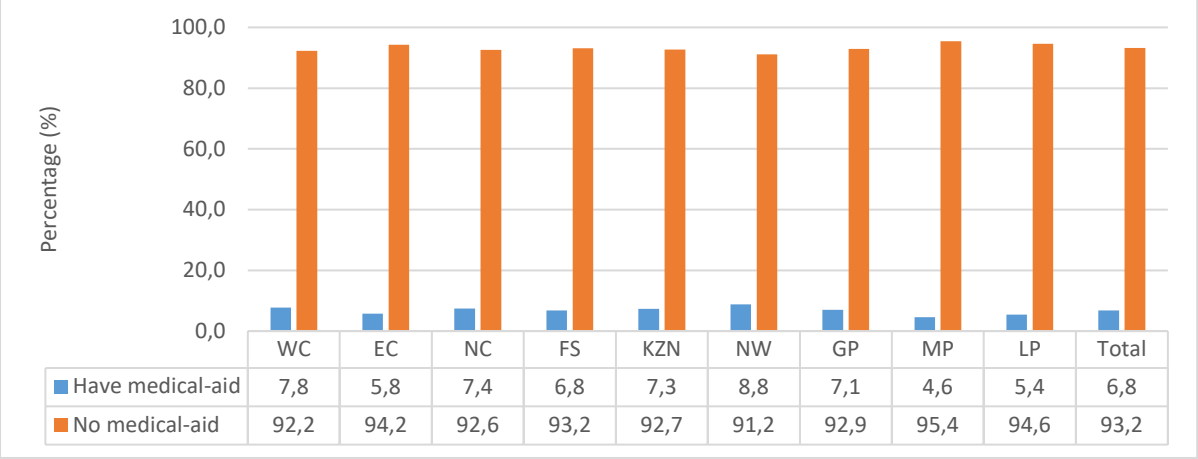
Figure 3. 67: Poverty incidence of households by medical-aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and province



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Have medical-aid	3,4	8,2	4,8	8,5	9,3	14,6	4,9	4,5	13,6	6,9
No medical-aid	25,0	32,3	23,1	31,5	37,2	46,5	28,3	22,9	48,9	33,2

Figure 3.67 indicates that medical-aid status of households may also play a role in determining poverty status. Nationally, the incidence of poverty by medical-aid status shows that households with at least one member having a medical-aid had considerably lower poverty levels at 6,9% compared to those with no household member having a medical-aid at 33,2%. When provinces were taken into consideration, Limpopo had the highest poverty levels for households with members without a medical-aid at 48,9%. North West had the second highest incidence of poverty for households without a medical-aid at 46,5% with KwaZulu-Natal rounding-up the top three provinces with the highest incidence of 37,2%. For provinces with at least one household member with a medical-aid, North West had the highest incidence of 14,6% followed by Limpopo at 13,6%. Western Cape had the lowest incidence of poverty for households with at least one member having a medical-aid at 3,4%.

Figure 3. 68: Percentage distribution by medical-aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and province



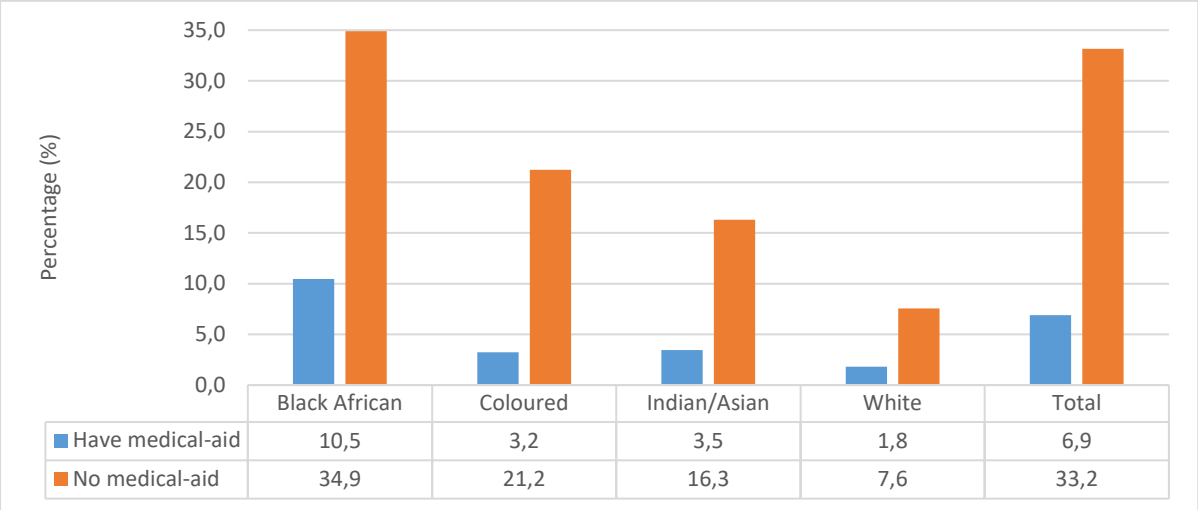
	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Have medical-aid	7,8	5,8	7,4	6,8	7,3	8,8	7,1	4,6	5,4	6,8
No medical-aid	92,2	94,2	92,6	93,2	92,7	91,2	92,9	95,4	94,6	93,2

Figure 3.68 shows that nationally, the largest share of poor households by medical-aid status was mainly contributed by those with no medical-aid status with a share of 93,2%. Households where at least one member had a medical-aid had a share of 6,8%. When provinces were taken into account the pattern witnessed nationally continued where households with no medical-aid had the largest share of poor households. Mpumalanga had the largest share of households with no medical-aid at 95,4% followed by Limpopo at 94,6% with Eastern Cape with an incidence of 94,2% rounding-up the top three largest

share contributors. For poor households with access to a medical-aid Mpumalanga had the lowest share of 4,6% followed by Limpopo at 5,4% with Eastern Cape at 5,8% rounding-up the top three lowest share contributors. It should always be taken into consideration that medical aid is always insured on an individual (person) basis; not at a household or family level.

3.11.2 Households medical-aid status and population group

Figure 3. 69: Poverty incidence by medical aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and population group

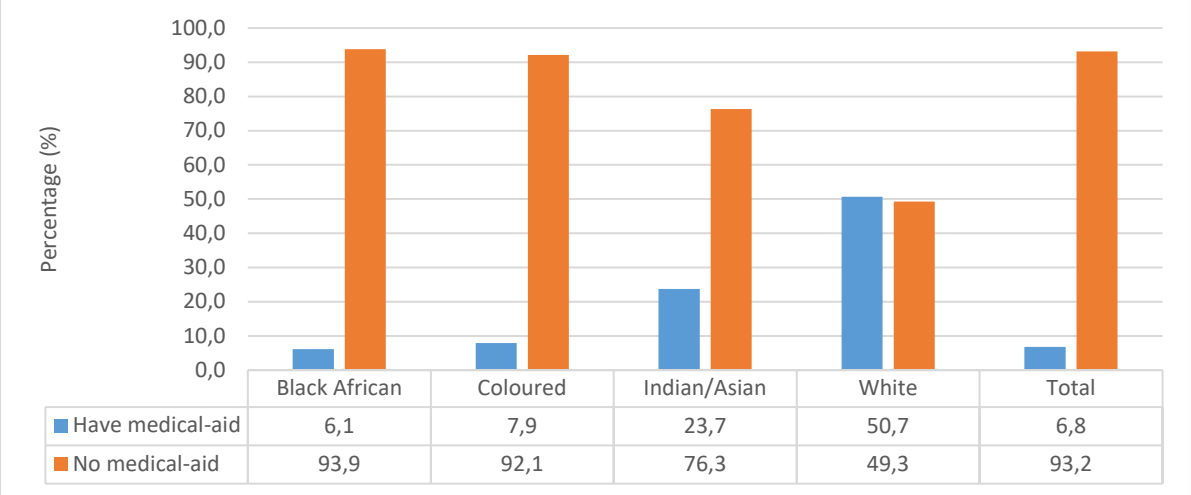


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Have medical-aid	10,5	3,2	3,5	1,8	6,9
No medical-aid	34,9	21,2	16,3	7,6	33,2

Figure 3.69 depicts that for all population groups the incidence of poverty was highest for those households with no member with a medical-aid compared to those with at least one member having a medical-aid. Black African households had the highest incidence of poverty compared to all other population groups for households without a medical-aid with an incidence of 34,9% which was higher than the national average of 33,2%, followed by coloured households at 21,2%. White households had the lowest incidence of poverty for those without a medical-aid at 7,6%.

For households with at least one member with a medical-aid, white households had the lowest incidence of poverty of 1,8% followed by coloured (3,2%) and Indian/Asian households at 3,5%.

Figure 3. 70: Percentage distribution of poor households by medical-aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and population group



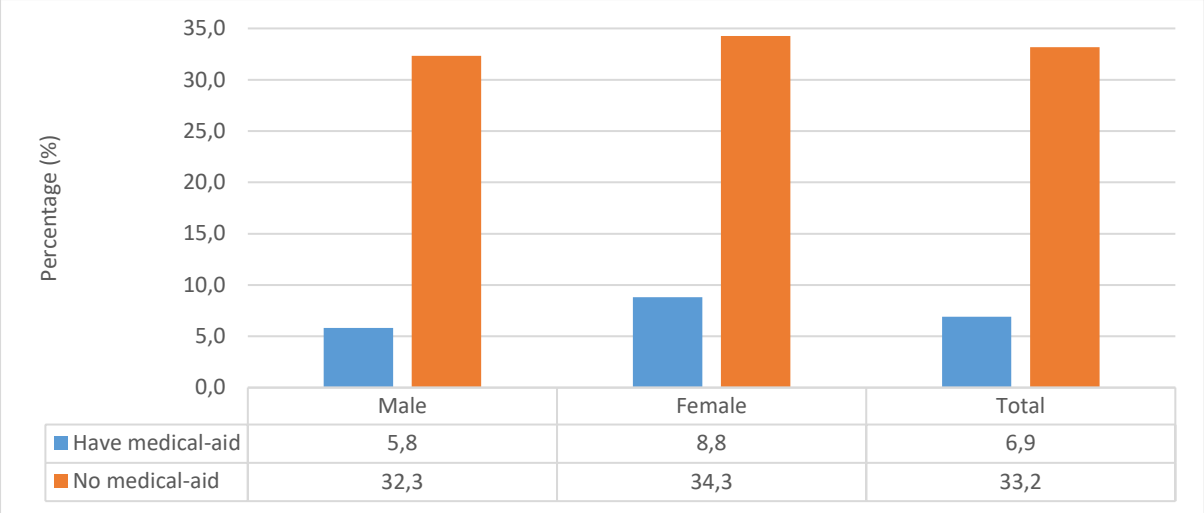
	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Have medical-aid	6,1	7,9	23,7	50,7	6,8
No medical-aid	93,9	92,1	76,3	49,3	93,2

Figure 3.70 illustrates that black African and coloured households had by far the largest share of poor households without medical-aid access with over 90% from both population groups.

The share of poor Indian/Asian households with no medical-aid access followed those of black African and coloured households with a share of 76,3%. White households had by far the least share of poor households with no medical-aid with nearly a half of the households with no access at 49,3%. For poor households with medical-aid, black African households had the lowest share of such households at 6,1% followed by coloured households at 7,9%. White households had an extremely higher share of poor households with access to medical-aid where over half of the households had access at 50,7%.

3.11.3 Households medical-aid status and sex of the household head

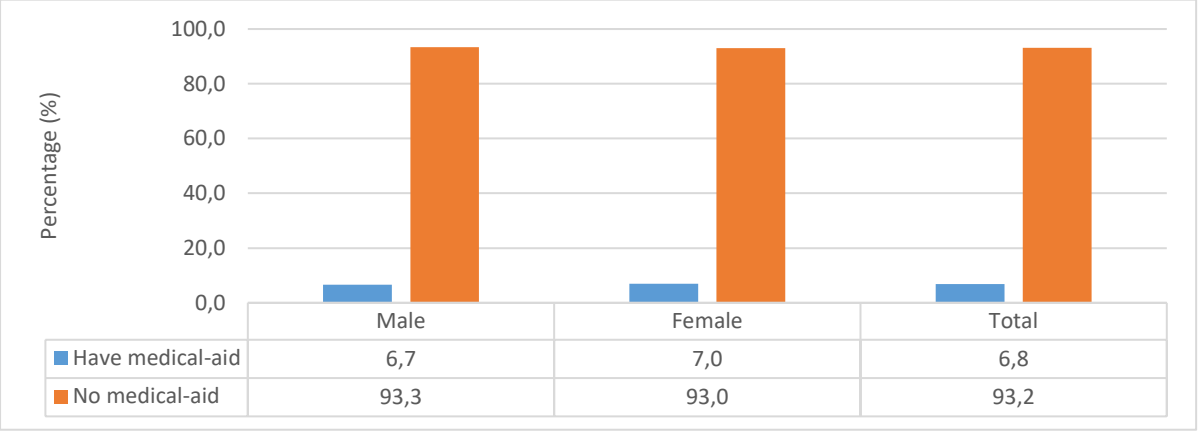
Figure 3. 71: Poverty incidence of households by medical-aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and sex of the household head



	Male	Female	Total
Have medical-aid	5,8	8,8	6,9
No medical-aid	32,3	34,3	33,2

Female-headed households had higher incidences of poverty by medical-aid status compared to male-headed households which were also higher than the national averages as illustrated in Figure 3.71. For households without a medical-aid, female-headed households had the incidence of poverty of 34,3% compared with male-headed households of 32,3%. For households with at least one household member with a medical-aid, female-headed households had poverty incidence of 8,8% compared with those of male-headed households of 5,8%.

Figure 3. 72: Percentage distribution by medical-aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and sex of the household head

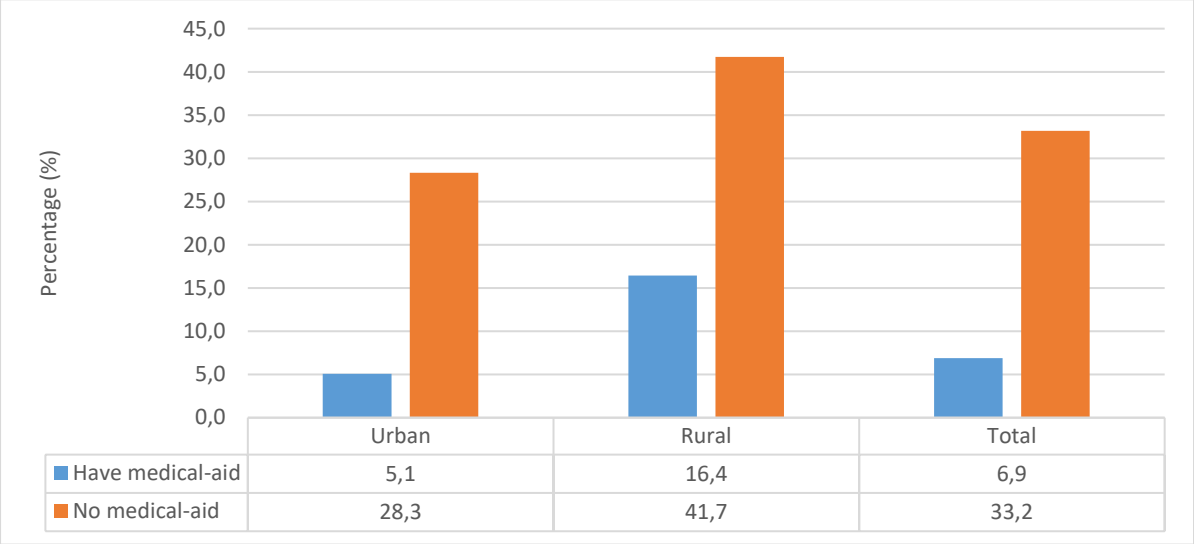


	Male	Female	Total
Have medical-aid	6,7	7,0	6,8
No medical-aid	93,3	93,0	93,2

The share of poor households by medical-aid status and sex of the household head is shown in Figure 3.72 where both male and female-headed households had almost similar shares of poor households with no medical-aid access. Male-headed households had a slightly larger share of 93,3% compared to the share of 93,0% by female-headed households. For households with access to medical-aid, female-headed households had a slightly higher share of 7,0% compared to the 6,7% share for male-headed households.

3.11.4 Households medical-aid status and settlement type

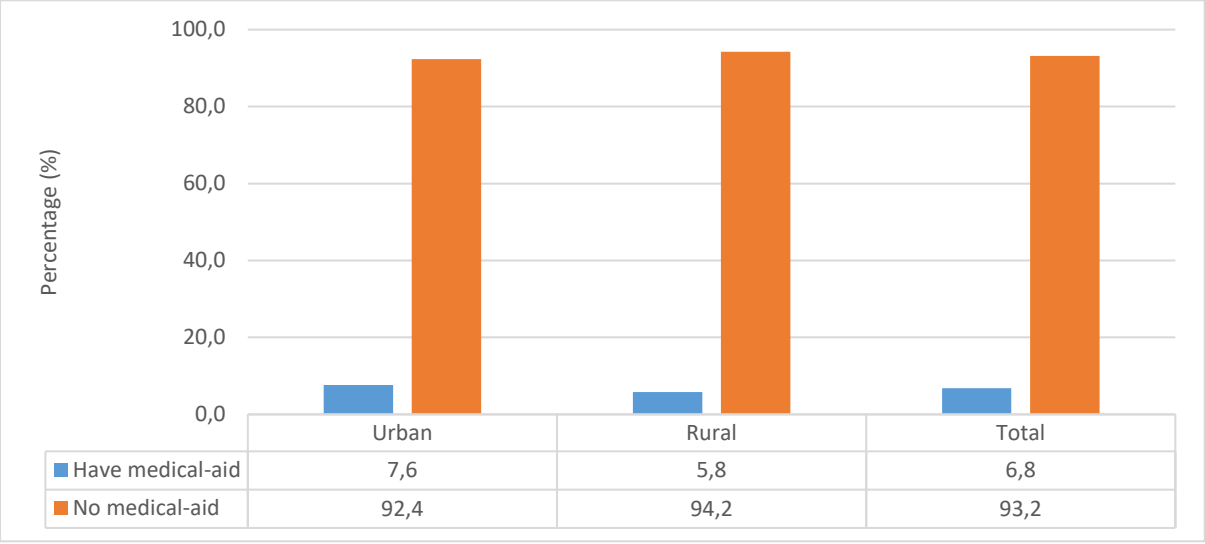
Figure 3. 73: Poverty incidence of households by medical-aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and settlement type



	Urban	Rural	Total
Have medical-aid	5,1	16,4	6,9
No medical-aid	28,3	41,7	33,2

Figure 3.73 shows that rural-based households had considerably higher incidence of poverty by medical-aid status where households without a member having a medical-aid had poverty levels of 41,7% compared to those of urban households of 28,3%. For households with at least one member with a medical-aid, rural-based households had the incidence of poverty of 16,4% compared with those of urban-based households of 5,1%.

Figure 3. 74: Percentage distribution of poor households by medical-aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and settlement type



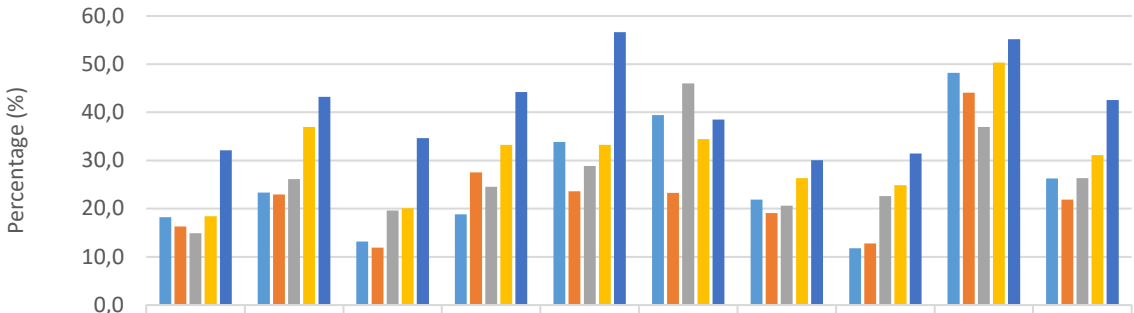
	Urban	Rural	Total
Have medical-aid	7,6	5,8	6,8
No medical-aid	92,4	94,2	93,2

The distribution of poor households by medical-aid status and settlement type is shown in Figure 3.74 where rural areas had the largest share of 94,2% of poor households without medical aid compared to 92,4% for urban areas. For households with access to medical-aid, rural households had the lowest share of 5,8% compared with 7,6% by urban households.

3.12 Poverty profile by health status of the household head

3.12.1 Health status of the household head and province

Figure 3. 75: Poverty incidence of households by health status of the household head and province



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Excellent	18,3	23,4	13,2	18,9	33,9	39,4	21,9	11,8	48,2	26,3
Very good	16,3	22,9	11,9	27,6	23,6	23,3	19,1	12,8	44,1	21,9
Good	14,9	26,2	19,6	24,5	28,9	46,0	20,6	22,6	36,9	26,3
Fair	18,4	37,0	20,1	33,3	33,3	34,5	26,4	24,9	50,4	31,1
Poor	32,2	43,2	34,6	44,2	56,6	38,5	30,1	31,5	55,2	42,6

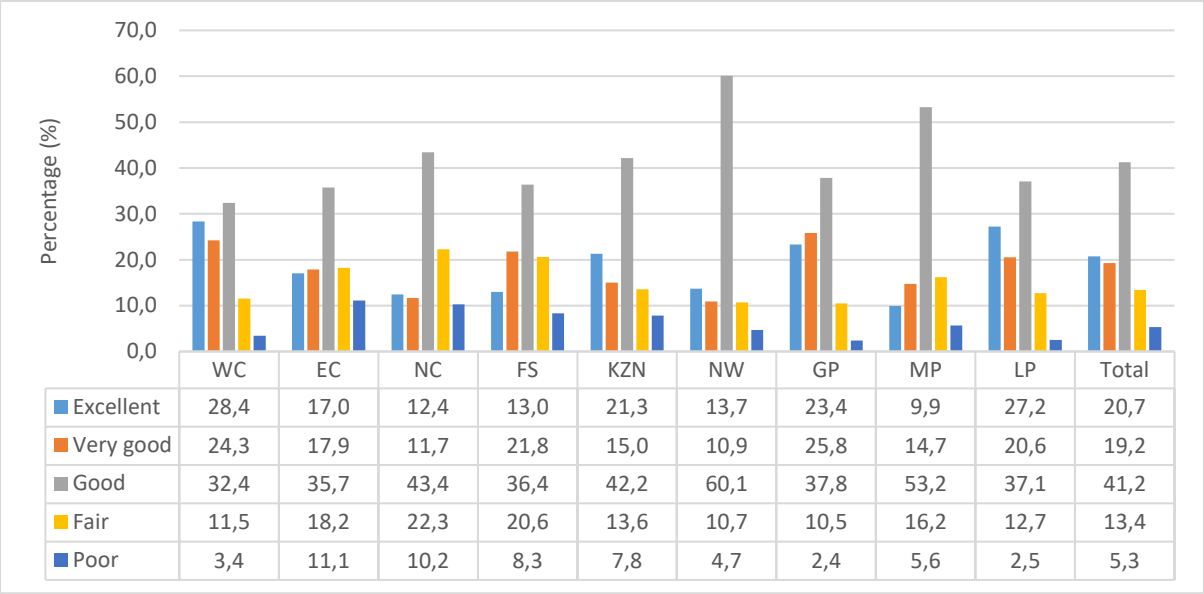
Figure 3.75 illustrates the incidence of poverty by the health status of household head with indications that the health status of household heads might have an influence on poverty status. Nationally, households headed by those with poor health status had the highest incidence of poverty of 42,6%, followed by those with fair health status with an incidence of 31,1%. Households headed by those with excellent and good health status had the third joint highest incidence of poverty of 26,3%. Household headed by those with very good health status had the lowest incidence of poverty of 21,9%.

When the incidence of poverty is looked at by provinces it shows that households headed by those with poor health status in KwaZulu-Natal (56,6%) had the highest poverty levels, followed by Limpopo (55,2%) with Free State (44,2%) rounding-up the top three highest provinces. Limpopo (48,2%) had the highest incidence of poverty for households headed by those with excellent health status, followed by North West (39,4%) and KwaZulu-Natal (33,9%).

Mpumalanga had the lowest incidence of poverty with 11,8% for households headed by those with an excellent health status. Limpopo also had the highest incidence of poverty for households headed by those with very good health status of 44,1%, followed by Free State (27,6%) and KwaZulu-Natal (23,6%). Northern Cape had the lowest incidence for households headed by those with very good health status with an incidence of 11,9%. North West with an incidence of 46,0% had the highest poverty levels for households headed by those with good health status, followed by Limpopo (36,9%) and KwaZulu-Natal (28,9%).

For households headed by those with fair health status, Limpopo had the highest poverty incidence of 50,4% followed by Eastern Cape (37,0%) and North West (34,5%). Western Cape had the lowest incidence of 18,4% for households headed by those with fair health status.

Figure 3. 76: Percentage distribution of poor households by health status of the household head and province

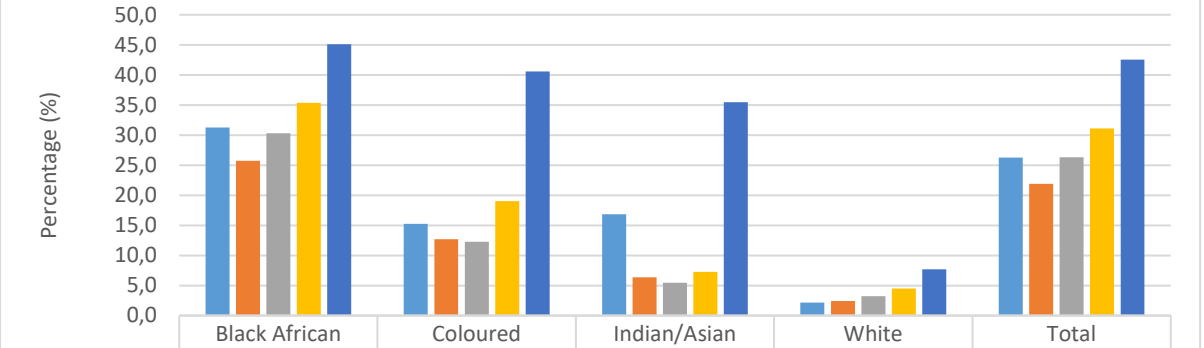


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Excellent	28,4	17,0	12,4	13,0	21,3	13,7	23,4	9,9	27,2	20,7
Very good	24,3	17,9	11,7	21,8	15,0	10,9	25,8	14,7	20,6	19,2
Good	32,4	35,7	43,4	36,4	42,2	60,1	37,8	53,2	37,1	41,2
Fair	11,5	18,2	22,3	20,6	13,6	10,7	10,5	16,2	12,7	13,4
Poor	3,4	11,1	10,2	8,3	7,8	4,7	2,4	5,6	2,5	5,3

Figure 3.76 shows the share of poor households by medical status of household head and province where nationally, the largest share of poor households by medical status was contributed by households headed by those with a good medical status with a share of 41,2%. They are followed by the share of households with excellent health status with a share of 20,7%. Interestingly, households headed by those with poor health status contributed the least share of 5,3%. When provinces were taken into account households headed by those with good health status had the largest share of the poor in all the provinces with North West having the largest proportion of 60,1%, followed by Mpumalanga at 53,2% with Northern Cape at 43,2% rounding-up the top three largest contributions. In all the provinces, households headed by those with poor health status had the least share of poor households, with Eastern Cape (11,1%) and Northern Cape (10,2%) being the only two provinces with double-digit share contributions.

3.12.2 Health status of the household head and population group

Figure 3. 77: Poverty incidence of households by health status of the household head and population group



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Excellent	31,3	15,3	16,8	2,1	26,3
Very good	25,7	12,7	6,4	2,4	21,9
Good	30,3	12,3	5,5	3,2	26,3
Fair	35,3	19,0	7,2	4,5	31,1
Poor	45,1	40,6	35,5	7,7	42,6

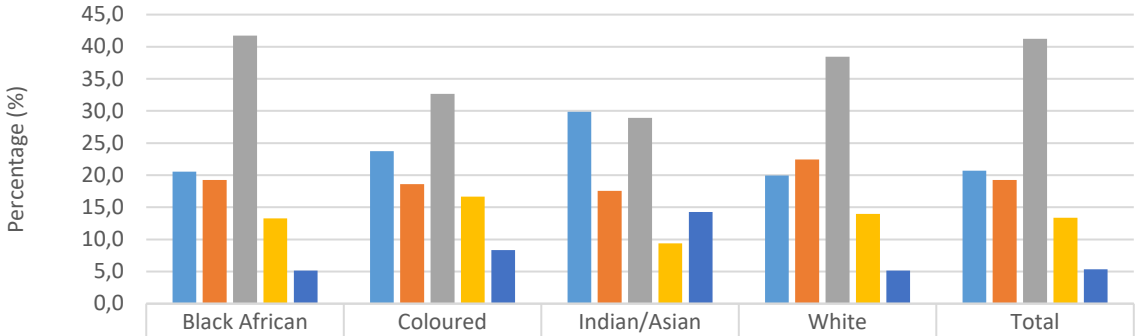
Figure 3.77 shows that the incidence of poverty by health status of household head and population group mainly affected black African households who had the highest incidences in all the health statuses which were also above the national averages. White households were the least affected with the lowest incidences in all the health statuses which were also

below the national averages. Black African households headed by those with poor health status had the highest prevalence with an incidence of 45,1%. Coloured households had the second highest incidence of 40,6%.

Interestingly, white households had by far the lowest incidence of poverty of 7,7% which was the only single-digit incidence for all the health statuses. Households headed by those with fair health status had the second highest incidence of poverty with an incidence of 35,3% led by black African households, followed by coloured households with an incidence of 19,0%. White (4,5%) and Indian/Asian (7,2%) households had by far the lowest incidence of poverty for households led by those with a fair health status.

Interestingly, for black African, coloured and Indian/Asian households led by heads with excellent health status; the incidence of poverty was higher than for those households led by heads with good or very good health statuses. However, this situation was reversed for white households with households led by those with excellent health status having the lower incidence of poverty compared to those led by heads with either good or very good health statuses.

Figure 3. 78: Percentage distribution of poor households by health status of the household head and population group

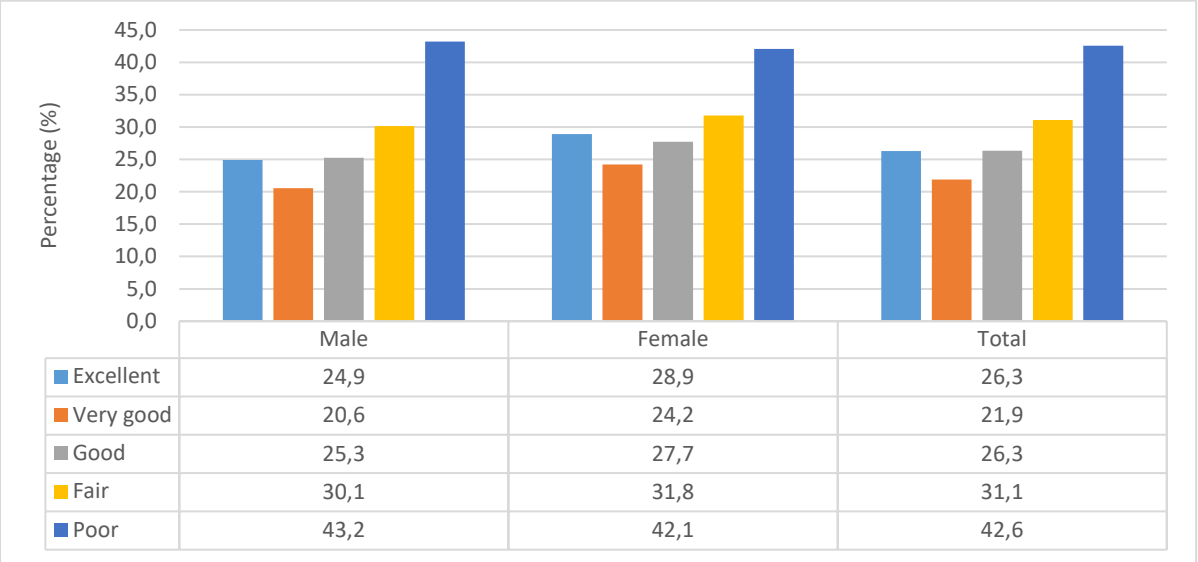


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Excellent	20,5	23,7	29,9	20,0	20,7
Very good	19,3	18,6	17,5	22,4	19,2
Good	41,7	32,6	28,9	38,5	41,2
Fair	13,3	16,7	9,4	14,0	13,4
Poor	5,1	8,4	14,3	5,2	5,3

Figure 3.78 shows that for all population groups the largest share of poor households by health status of household heads was from those with good health status with black African households having the largest share of 41,7%. They are followed by white headed households with a share of 38,5%. For all the population groups except for the white group the second largest share of poor households were from households with excellent health status. Where Indian/Asian households had the largest share of 29,9% followed by coloured households with a share of 23,7%. For white headed households the second largest share of poor households was from households with very good health status of 22,4%. For all the population groups except for Indian/Asian households, households headed by those with poor health status had the least share of poor households for their respective population groups. For Indian/Asian households the least share of poor households was from those headed by a head with a fair health status.

3.12.3 Health status of household head and sex of household head

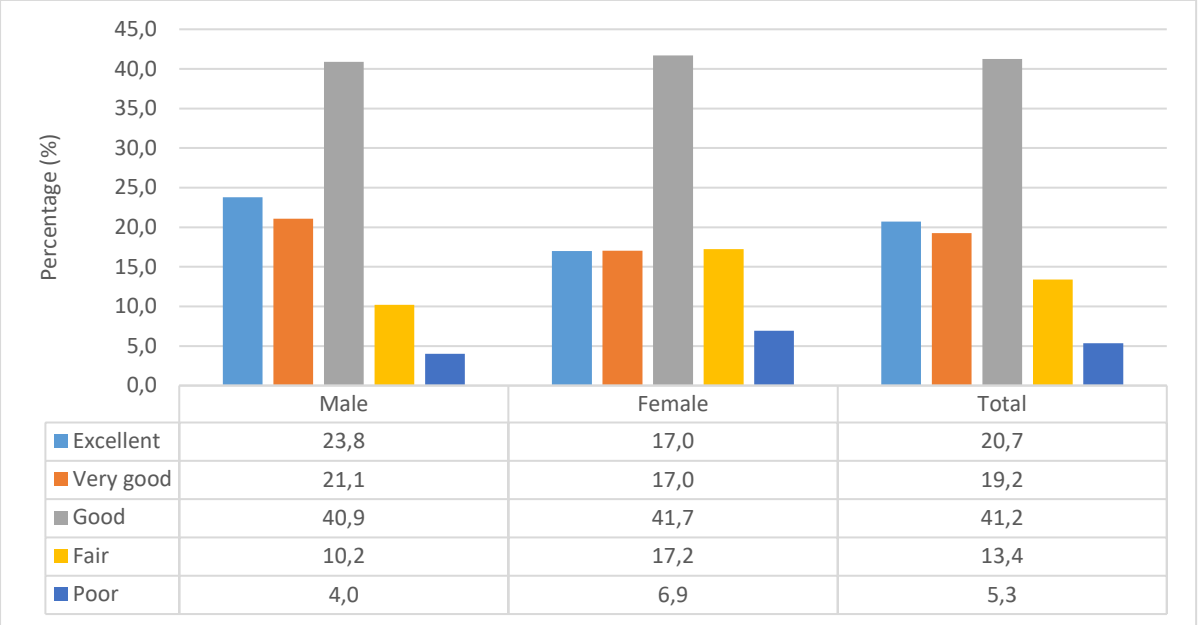
Figure 3. 79: Poverty incidence of households by health status and sex of the household



	Male	Female	Total
Excellent	24,9	28,9	26,3
Very good	20,6	24,2	21,9
Good	25,3	27,7	26,3
Fair	30,1	31,8	31,1
Poor	43,2	42,1	42,6

Figure 3.79 shows that the incidence of poverty by health status of household head mainly affected female-headed households compared to male-headed households. Female-headed households had higher incidences except for the poor health status where male-headed households had higher incidences. The poverty incidence for households with poor health led by male heads had an incidence of 43,2% compared to 42,1% for female-headed households. For both the male and female-headed households, those led by heads with very good health status had the lowest incidence of poverty of 20,6% and 24,2% respectively.

Figure 3. 80: Percentage distribution of poor households by health status and sex of the household head

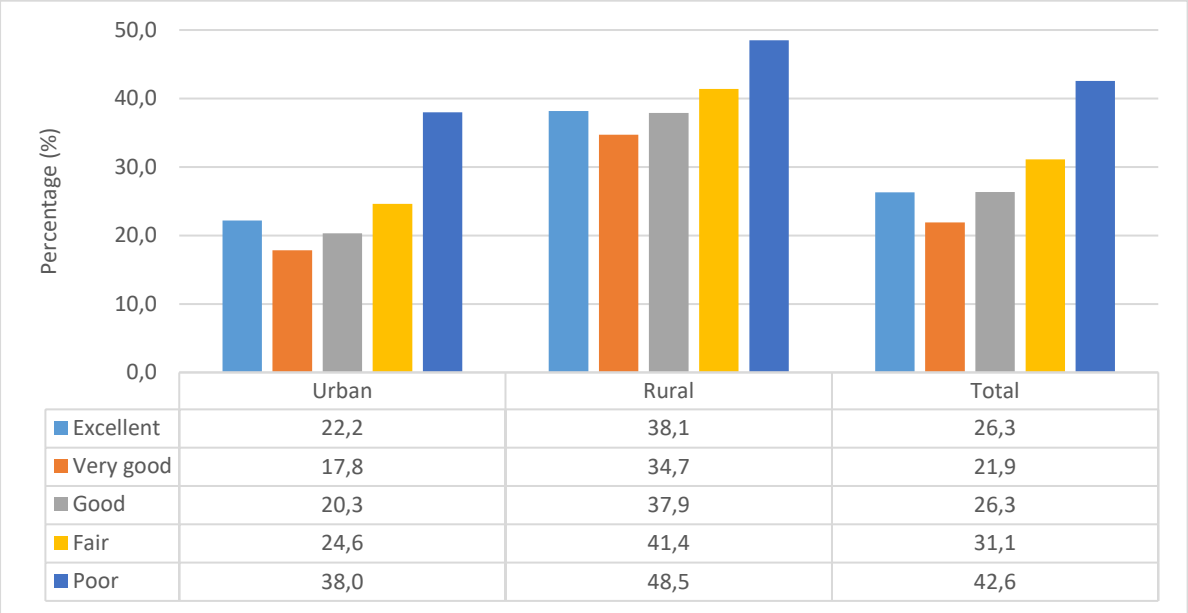


	Male	Female	Total
Excellent	23,8	17,0	20,7
Very good	21,1	17,0	19,2
Good	40,9	41,7	41,2
Fair	10,2	17,2	13,4
Poor	4,0	6,9	5,3

When the share of poor households by sex and health status of households heads were evaluated, the largest share of poor households headed by both sexes were from those with good health status as illustrated in Figure 3.80. Where female-headed households had the largest share of 41,7% compared with male-headed households with a share of 40,9%. For both sexes the least share of poor households were from households headed by those with poor health status with female-headed households having a larger share of 6,9% compared with male-headed households with a share of 4,0%.

3.12.4 Health status of household head and settlement type

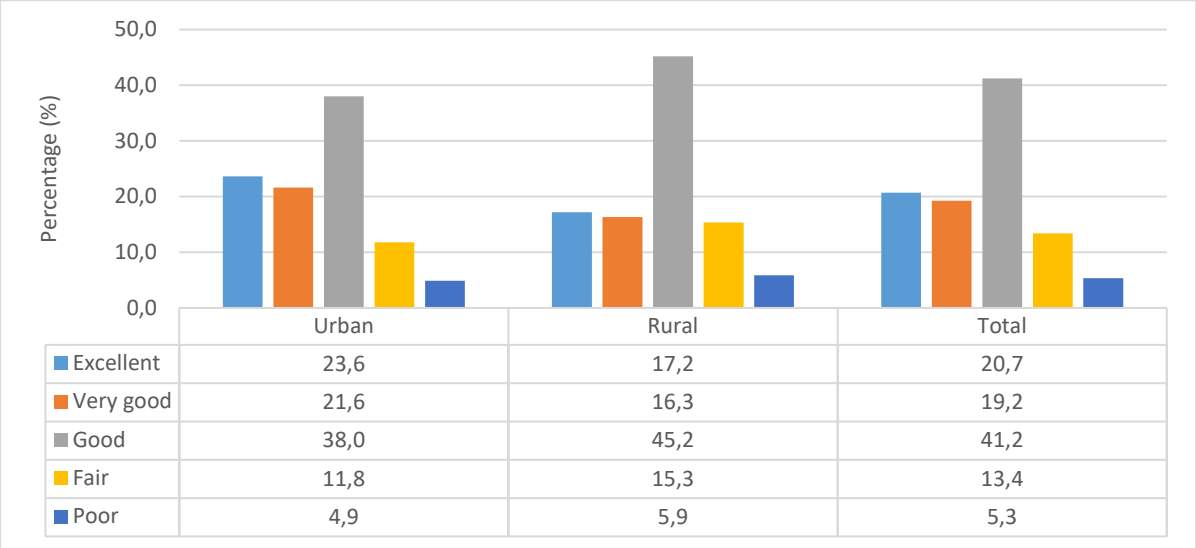
Figure 3. 81: Poverty incidence of households by health status of the household and settlement type



	Urban	Rural	Total
Excellent	22,2	38,1	26,3
Very good	17,8	34,7	21,9
Good	20,3	37,9	26,3
Fair	24,6	41,4	31,1
Poor	38,0	48,5	42,6

Figure 3.81 depicts that incidence of poverty by health status and settlement type mainly affected households in rural areas with extremely higher poverty levels compared to those in urban areas. All the poverty levels for rural households were also higher than the national averages led by households headed by those with poor health status with an incidence of 48,5% compared with 38,0% for urban households. Rural households with a fair health status had the second highest incidence of poverty of 41,4% compared with 24,6% for urban households. For both urban and rural-based households those headed by heads with very good health status had the lowest incidence of poverty of 17,8% and 34,7% respectively. Interestingly, for both urban and rural-based households; those led by heads with excellent health status had an incidence of poverty that was higher than for those households led by heads with good or very good health statuses.

Figure 3. 82: Percentage distribution of poor households by health status of the household head and settlement type



	Urban	Rural	Total
Excellent	23,6	17,2	20,7
Very good	21,6	16,3	19,2
Good	38,0	45,2	41,2
Fair	11,8	15,3	13,4
Poor	4,9	5,9	5,3

Figure 3.82 shows the share of poor households by health status of household head and settlement type with households headed by those with good health status having the largest share of poor households from both settlements. Rural areas had the largest of 45,2% compared to urban areas with a share of 38,0%. Households headed by those with excellent health status had the second largest share of poor households from both settlements with households in urban areas having the

largest share of 23,6% compared with 17,2% share of rural households. The least share of poor households from both settlements were from households headed by those with poor health status where rural areas had a share of 5,9% which was higher than that of urban areas of 4,9%.

3.13: Poverty profile by access to internet services and ownership of assets

3.13.1 Access to internet services

Figure 3. 83: Proportion of poor households with access to internet services

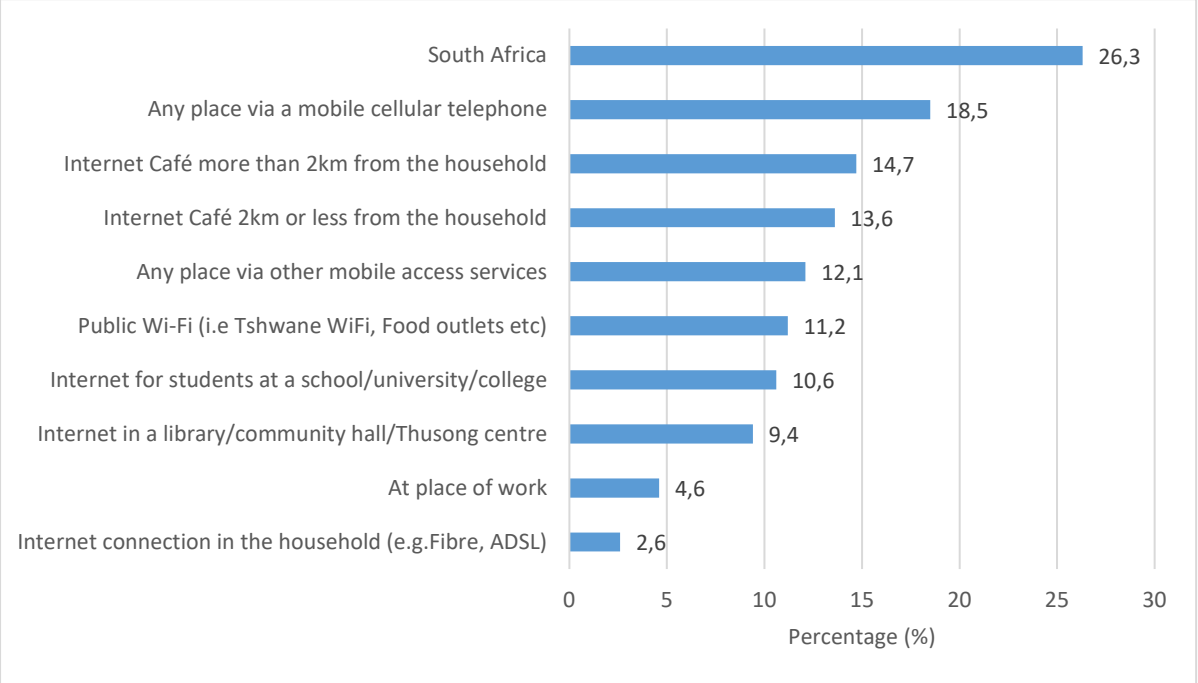


Figure 3.83 shows that poor households generally had low access to various internet services. The highest access for an internet service was through a mobile cellular telephone where only 18,5% of poor households had such access. They were followed by those who had access through internet café more than 2 kilometres from their households with only 14,7% having such access. Only 13,6% of poor households had internet access at internet café 2 kilometres or less from their households. Also only 11,2% of poor households had access to internet through the public Wi-Fi. Access to internet in the household and also at place of work had the lowest access at 2,6% and 4,6% respectively.

3.13.2 Ownership of assets

Figure 3. 84: Proportion of poor households by ownership of selected household assets

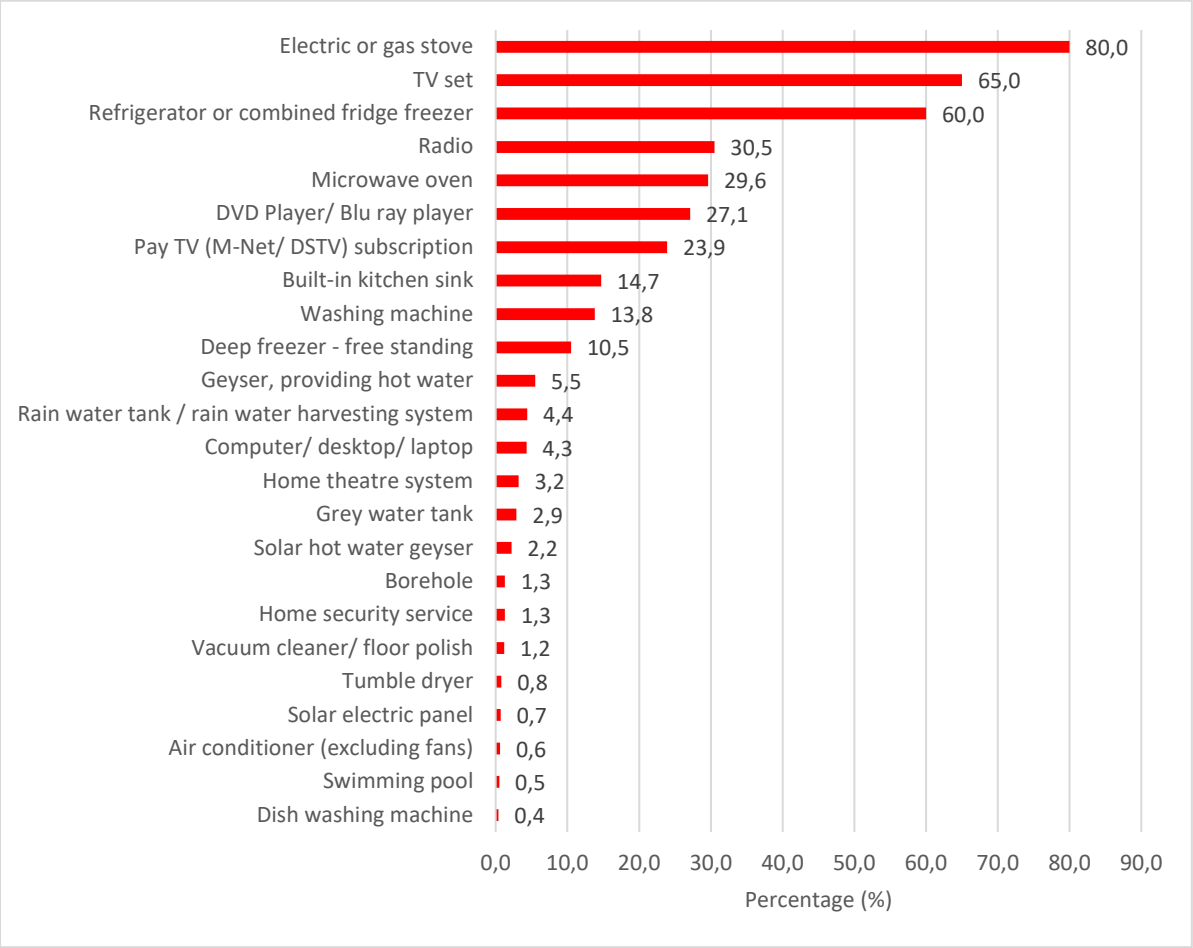


Figure 3.84 depicts the proportion of poor households by ownership of selected assets. The table shows that majority of poor households own an electric/gas stove with 80,0% owning the asset. Television set is owned by 65% of poor households with refrigerators or combined fridge freezer owned by 60% of such households. However, radio is only owned by 30,5% of poor households. Microwave oven is owned by 29,6% of poor households with DVD/Blu-ray player owned by 27,1% of such households.

Chapter 4: Minimum Income Question (MIQ)

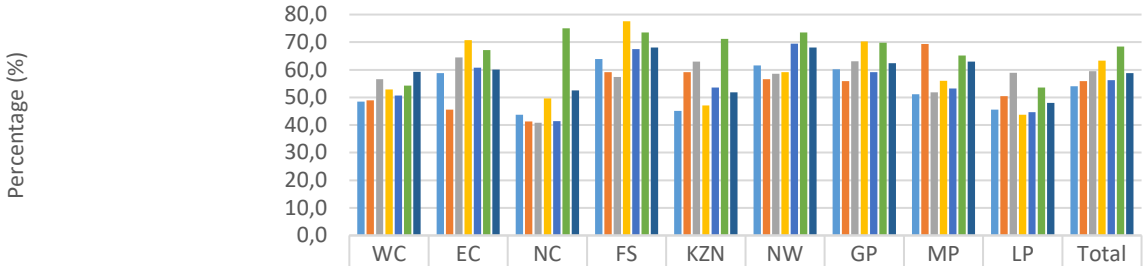
4.1 Introduction

The chapter outlines the measurement of subjective poverty using the Minimum Income Question (MIQ) approach. Section 4.2 will explore the poverty profile of household heads by marital status while section 4.3 to 4.5 will evaluate how households are configured in terms of household size, household composition and inter-generational household configuration. The impact that the number of bedrooms the household occupies has on those households considered to be MIQ poor is assessed in section 4.6, followed by evaluating the extent of experiencing hunger and the adequacy of food in MIQ poor households. The sections that follow will focus on the level of happiness, employment status, medical-aid status, and health status of household head. Finally, we conclude by exploring the relationship between MIQ poor households, internet access as well as ownership of assets.

4.2 Poverty profile by marital status

4.2.1 Marital status of household head and province

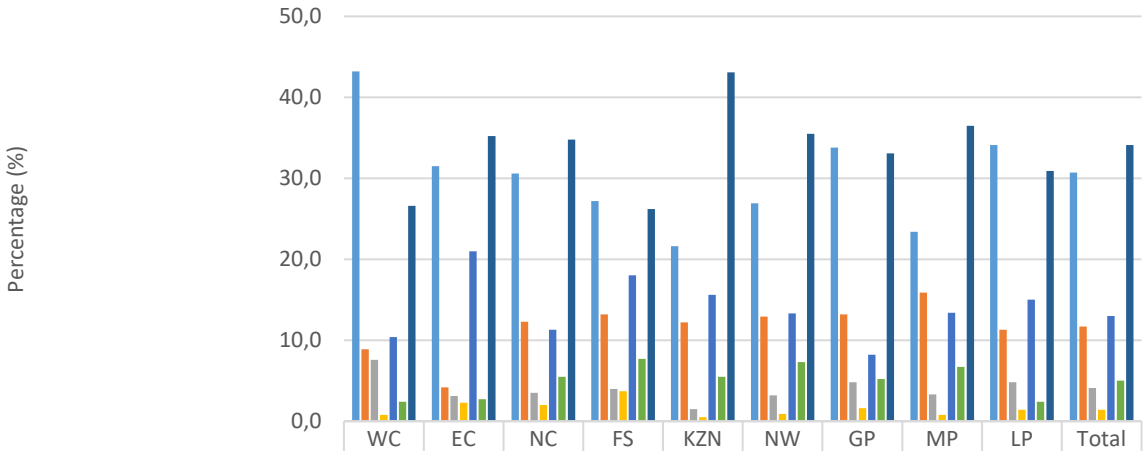
Figure 4. 1: Poverty incidence of households by province and marital status of the household head



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Legally married	48,5	58,8	43,7	63,9	45,1	61,6	60,2	51,2	45,5	54,0
Living together	48,9	45,6	41,3	59,2	59,1	56,6	55,9	69,3	50,4	55,9
Divorced	56,6	64,5	40,8	57,4	63,0	58,6	63,1	51,9	58,9	59,5
Separated	52,9	70,7	49,6	77,6	47,1	59,2	70,3	56,0	43,7	63,3
Widowed	50,7	60,7	41,4	67,5	53,6	69,5	59,1	53,2	44,7	56,3
Single, but have lived together	54,2	67,1	75,1	73,5	71,2	73,5	69,8	65,1	53,6	68,4
Single and have never been married/never lived together	59,2	60,1	52,5	68,1	51,8	68,1	62,3	62,9	48,0	58,7

Figure 4.1 illustrates that a household that is headed by a single household head (that has lived together with someone as husband/wife/partners before) has the highest risk of being exposed to poverty with 68,4% of such households living in poverty, followed by those residing in households headed by separated (but still legally married) persons where 63,3% of them are living in poverty. Households headed by persons that are widowed account for 56,3% of those households living in poverty which has the third lowest risk to poverty. On the other hand, persons living in a household where the household head is legally married has the lowest risk of poverty with 54,0% of such households at risk of experiencing poverty followed by households headed by individuals that are living together (like husband and wife/partners) with 55,9% of them living in poverty based on the MIQ subjective measure. Free State has the highest incidence of poverty for those households headed by legally married persons (63,9%) followed by North West (61,6%) and Gauteng (60,2%) respectively. Households headed by persons that are separated (but still legally married) have the highest incidence of poverty of all the marital status categories in the Free State (77,6%) while the Northern Cape (40,8%) has the lowest incidence across all the different categories.

Figure 4. 2: Percentage distribution of poor households by marital status of the household head and province

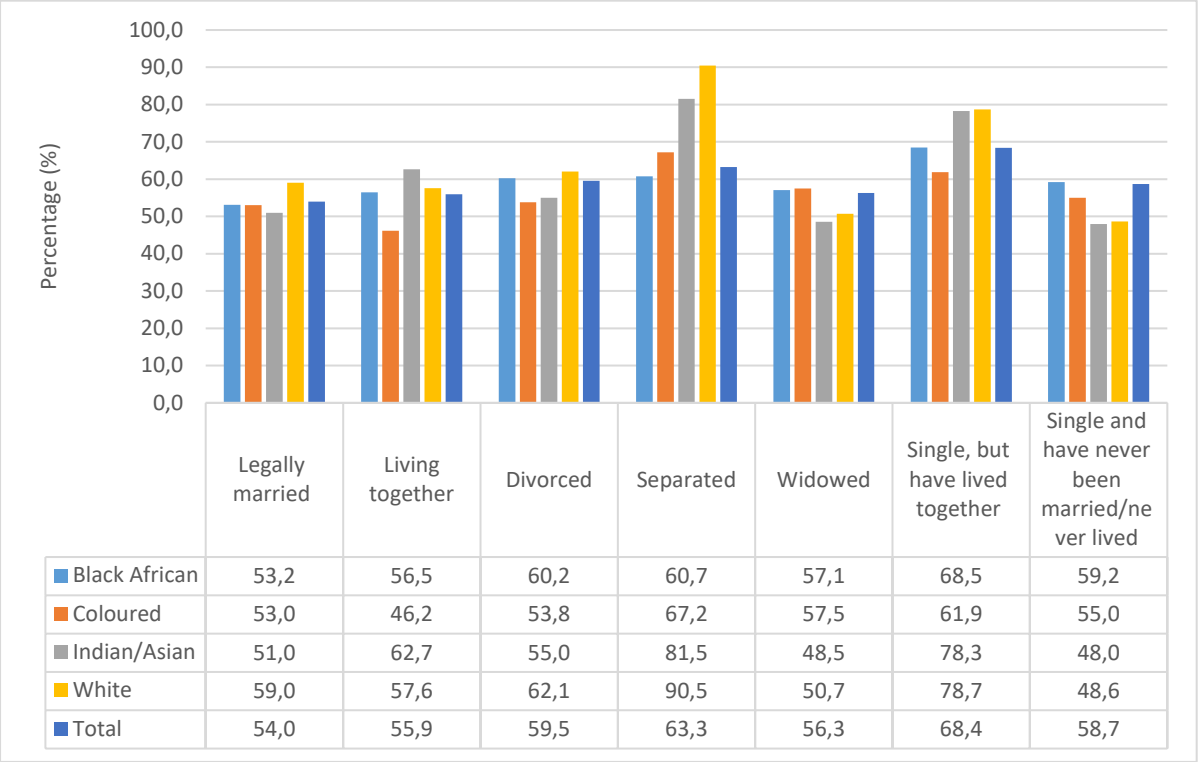


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Legally married	43,2	31,5	30,6	27,2	21,6	26,9	33,8	23,4	34,1	30,7
Living together	8,9	4,2	12,3	13,2	12,2	12,9	13,2	15,9	11,3	11,7
Divorced	7,6	3,1	3,5	4,0	1,5	3,2	4,8	3,3	4,8	4,1
Separated	0,8	2,3	2,0	3,7	0,5	0,9	1,6	0,8	1,4	1,4
Widowed	10,4	21,0	11,3	18,0	15,6	13,3	8,2	13,4	15,0	13,0
Single, but have lived together	2,4	2,7	5,5	7,7	5,5	7,3	5,2	6,7	2,4	5,0
Single and have never been married/never lived together	26,6	35,2	34,8	26,2	43,1	35,5	33,1	36,5	30,9	34,1

At a national level, figure 4.2 depicts that the largest share of poor households was headed by those that were single and have never been married/never lived together at 34,1%. They are followed by those household heads that are legally married (30,7%) while households headed by those who are widowed (13,0%) have the third largest share. When focusing on the provinces, the ranking of the largest share generally reflects those observed at national level led by those who are single and have never been married/never lived together. The share of poor households for this particular marital status category for KwaZulu-Natal (43,1%), Mpumalanga (36,5%), North West (35,5%), Eastern Cape (35,2%) and Northern Cape (34,8%) are all higher than the national average of 34,1%. This indicates an over-representation of poor households in relation to the total share of poor households. There are also other instances of an over-representation of poor households, most notably in the legally married category. On the other hand, the share of poor households for the separated marital status category for Western Cape (0,8%), KwaZulu-Natal (0,5%), North West (0,9%), Mpumalanga (0,8%) are all lower than the national average of 1,4%. This suggests an under-representation of the share of poor households relative to the total share of poor households. In addition, households headed by divorced heads underwent an under-representation of the share of poor households relative to the share of the total poor households for the following provinces; Eastern Cape (3,1%), Northern Cape (3,5%), Free State (4,0%), KwaZulu-Natal (1,5%), North West (3,2%) and Mpumalanga (3,3%).

4.2.2 Marital status of household head and population group

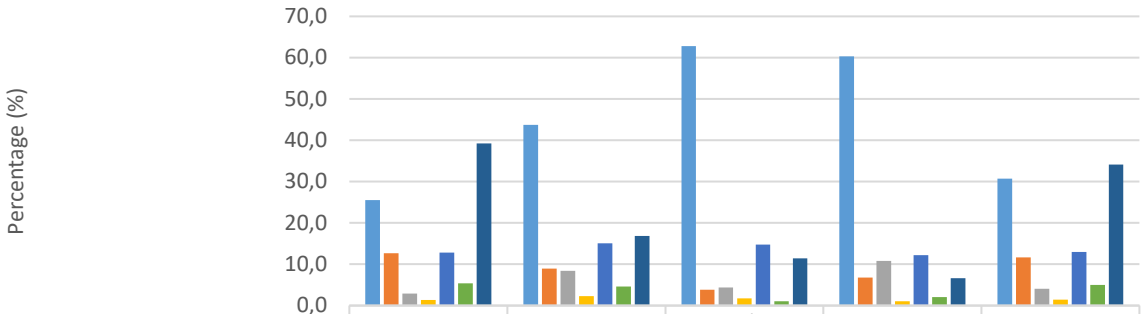
Figure 4. 3: Poverty incidence of households by population group and marital status of the household head



	Legally married	Living together	Divorced	Separated	Widowed	Single, but have lived together	Single and have never been married/never lived
Black African	53,2	56,5	60,2	60,7	57,1	68,5	59,2
Coloured	53,0	46,2	53,8	67,2	57,5	61,9	55,0
Indian/Asian	51,0	62,7	55,0	81,5	48,5	78,3	48,0
White	59,0	57,6	62,1	90,5	50,7	78,7	48,6
Total	54,0	55,9	59,5	63,3	56,3	68,4	58,7

Figure 4.3 illustrates that white headed households had the highest levels of poverty by the marital status categories when compared to the other population groups with a few exceptions. The poverty levels of White headed households by marital status were also higher than the national averages of the marital status categories with a few notable exceptions. Households headed by those who are single, but have lived together with someone had the highest levels of poverty at 68,4% followed by those who are separated and still married at 63,3%. Households headed by divorced persons had the third highest levels of poverty by marital status with a proportion of 59,5%. For households headed by black Africans, the highest proportions of poverty by marital status were found in those households where persons are single, but have lived together (68,5%) followed by those with a separated, but still legally married status (60,7%). For coloured headed households the highest levels of poverty by marital status were found in households headed by those who were separated but still legally married (67,2%). The highest proportion of poor households by marital status for Indian/Asian headed households were found in households headed by those who were separated but still legally married (81,5%). Also, for white headed households the highest incidence of poverty by marital status was found in households headed by those who were separated but still legally married (90,5%).

Figure 4. 4: Percentage distribution of poor households by population group and marital status of the household head

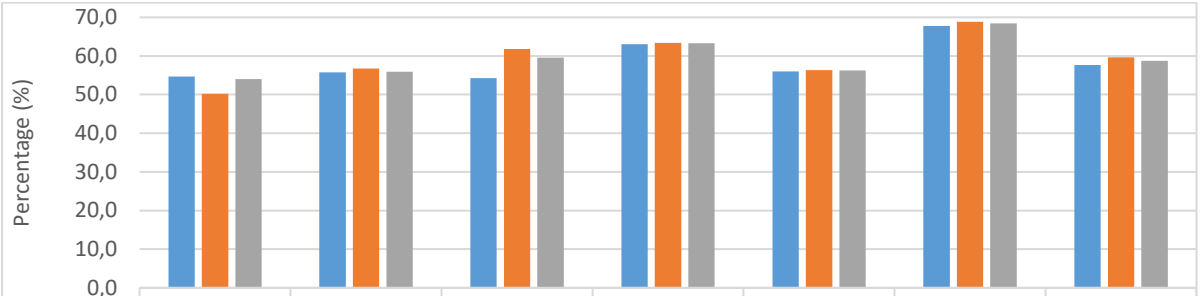


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Legally married	25,5	43,8	62,8	60,3	30,7
Living together	12,7	9,0	3,8	6,8	11,7
Divorced	2,9	8,4	4,4	10,8	4,1
Separated	1,4	2,3	1,7	1,1	1,4
Widowed	12,8	15,0	14,8	12,2	13,0
Single, but have lived together	5,4	4,6	1,0	2,1	5,0
Single and have never been married/never lived together	39,2	16,9	11,5	6,7	34,1

Figure 4.4 shows that Indian/Asian headed households had the largest share of poor households by marital status which was mainly driven by those who are legally married (62,8%) followed by White headed households (60,3%) in the same marital status category. This indicates an over-representation of the share of poor households by Indian/Asian as well as White households in relation to the total share of poor households in this particular marital status which is 30,7%. The third largest share of poor households by marital status overall and the largest share for black African households were those headed by single (and never been married/never lived together as husband/wife before) persons (39,2%). This represents an over-representation of the share of poor households by this population group relative to the total share of poor households for this category (34,1%). Coloured headed households had their largest share of poor households contributed by those households there are legally married (43,8%), followed by those who are single (and never been married/never lived together as husband/wife before) persons (16,9%) which portrays an under-representation of poor households in this category.

4.2.3 Marital status and sex of household head

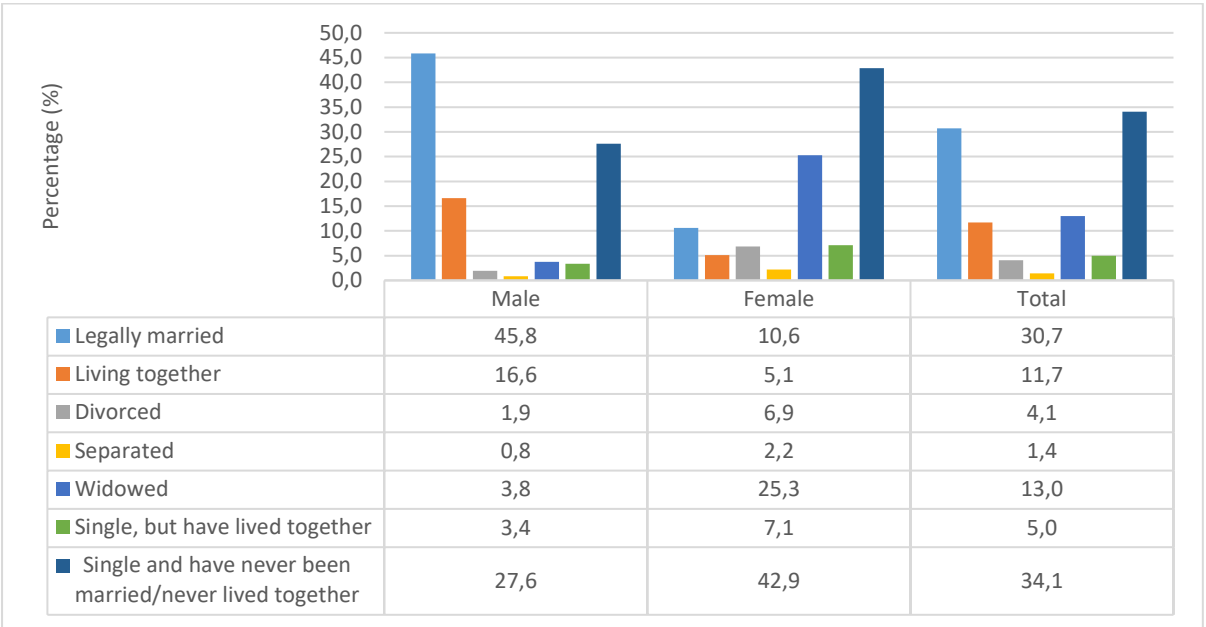
Figure 4. 5: Poverty incidence of households by sex and marital status of the household head



	Legally married	Living together	Divorced	Separated	Widowed	Single, but have lived together	Single and have never been married/never lived together
Male	54,7	55,8	54,3	63,0	56,0	67,8	57,7
Female	50,2	56,8	61,8	63,4	56,3	68,8	59,7
Total	54,0	55,9	59,5	63,3	56,3	68,4	58,7

According to Figure 4.5, both male and female-headed households can find their highest risk of experiencing poverty in households headed by a person that is single (but have lived together with someone as husband/wife/partners before). For instance, female-headed households have the highest levels of poverty at 68,8% and male-headed households have the highest poverty levels at 67,8% for this particular marital status category. The figure for the former is higher than the national average (68,4%) while the latter is lower. The second highest poverty levels for female-headed households are found in households headed by persons who are separated, but still legally married (63,4%). The second largest poverty levels for male-headed households (63,0%) are also found in the above-mentioned category. The only marital status category where male-headed households (54,7%) have higher poverty levels than female-headed households (50,2%) occurs where households are headed by persons who are legally married

Figure 4. 6: Percentage distribution of poor households by sex and marital status of the household head



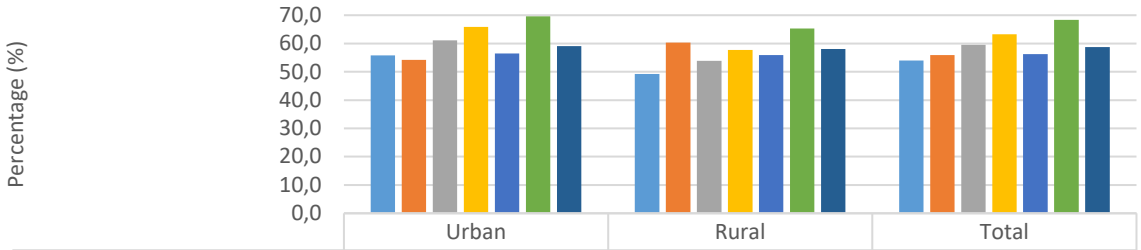
	Male	Female	Total
Legally married	45,8	10,6	30,7
Living together	16,6	5,1	11,7
Divorced	1,9	6,9	4,1
Separated	0,8	2,2	1,4
Widowed	3,8	25,3	13,0
Single, but have lived together	3,4	7,1	5,0
Single and have never been married/never lived together	27,6	42,9	34,1

Figure 4.6 depicts the share of poor households by marital status and sex of the household head where the highest contribution for male-headed households came from those that are headed by persons who are legally married (45,8%) while the largest contribution for female-headed households came from households headed by single (and have never been married/never lived together as husband/wife before) persons (42,9%).

The second highest contribution for female-headed households were from those that are widowed (25,3%) while male-headed households' second largest contribution emanated from the single (and have never been married/never lived together as husband/wife before) category (27,6%).

4.2.4 Marital status and settlement type

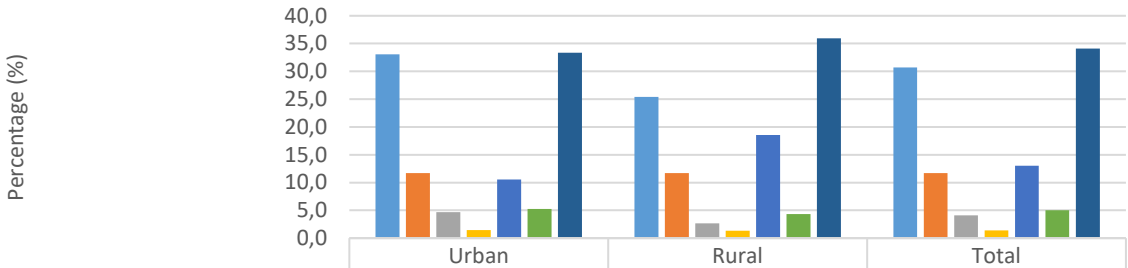
Figure 4. 7: Poverty incidence of households by settlement type and marital status of the household head



	Urban	Rural	Total
Legally married	55,8	49,2	54,0
Living together	54,2	60,3	55,9
Divorced	61,1	53,9	59,5
Separated	65,8	57,7	63,3
Widowed	56,5	55,9	56,3
Single, but have lived together	69,6	65,3	68,4
Single and have never been married/never lived together	59,1	58,0	58,7

Figure 4.7 shows that urban-based households have a higher risk of experiencing poverty than those in rural areas. The highest levels of poverty for both urban-based households (69,6%) and rural-based households (65,3%) were found in those headed by persons who are single but lived together which is similar to the national pattern. For the second and third highest poverty levels by marital status for urban-based households came from households headed by persons who are separated, but still live legally married (65,8%) and divorced households (61,1%) respectively. With regards to rural-based households, the second and third highest poverty levels by marital status were found in those headed by persons living together (60,3%) and those who are single and have never been married/never lived together (58,0%) respectively.

Figure 4. 8: Percentage distribution of poor households by settlement type and marital status of the household head



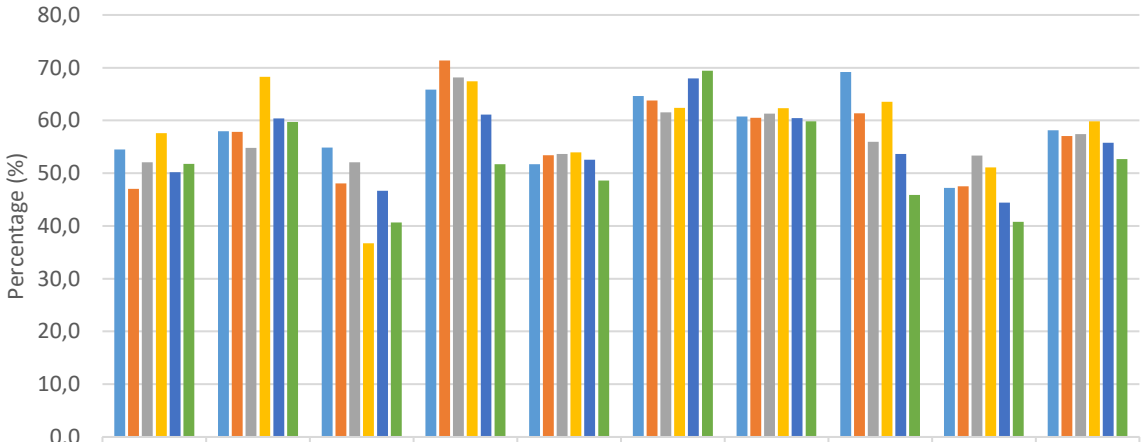
	Urban	Rural	Total
Legally married	33,1	25,4	30,7
Living together	11,7	11,7	11,7
Divorced	4,7	2,6	4,1
Separated	1,4	1,3	1,4
Widowed	10,6	18,6	13,0
Single, but have lived together	5,2	4,3	5,0
Single and have never been married/never lived together	33,4	36,0	34,1

Figure 4.8 depicts the share of poor households by settlement type and marital status. The highest share of the poor for rural households was driven by those who are single and have never been married/never lived together (36,0%). This represents an over-representation of poor households relative to the total share of poor households for this marital status category which is 34,1%. This marital status category (33,4%) was also responsible for the highest share of the poor for those based in urban areas. In this case, there is an under-representation of poor households where their share of the total poor households by marital status is lower than the national share (34,1%). In the case of both urban and rural households, there has been under-representation and over-representation of the share of poor households headed by the various marital status categories. However, neither urban nor rural households headed by persons living together has experienced this phenomenon.

4.3 Poverty profile by household size

4.3.1 Household size and province

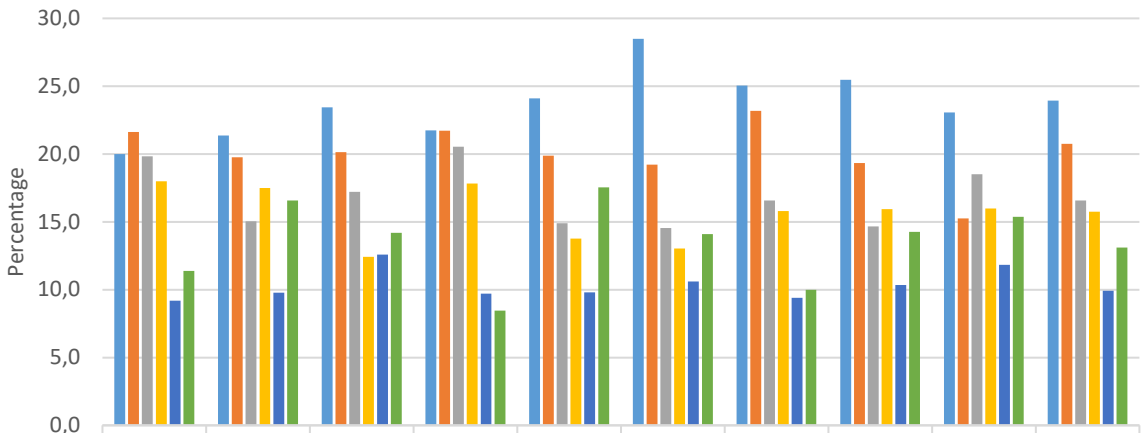
Figure 4. 9: Poverty incidence of households by household size and province



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
1	54,5	57,9	54,9	65,9	51,7	64,6	60,7	69,2	47,2	58,1
2	47,0	57,8	48,1	71,4	53,4	63,8	60,5	61,4	47,5	57,0
3	52,1	54,8	52,0	68,2	53,6	61,5	61,3	55,9	53,3	57,4
4	57,6	68,3	36,7	67,4	53,9	62,4	62,3	63,5	51,1	59,9
5	50,2	60,4	46,6	61,1	52,6	68,0	60,4	53,7	44,4	55,8
6+	51,7	59,7	40,7	51,7	48,6	69,4	59,8	45,9	40,8	52,7

Figure 4.9 illustrates that, in general the risk of being exposed to poverty decreases as the household size increases. Poverty levels based on household size declines from 58,1% for households that consist of one person to 52,7% where households comprise of six or more members. The risk of poverty decreases as the household size increases in all provinces except for the Eastern Cape and North West. As a result, the risk of poverty in the Eastern Cape rises from 57,9% for one-person households to 59,7% for households with six or more members while that of North West increases from 64,6% for one person households to 69,4% for households consisting of six or more persons.

Figure 4. 10: Percentage distribution of poor households by household size and province

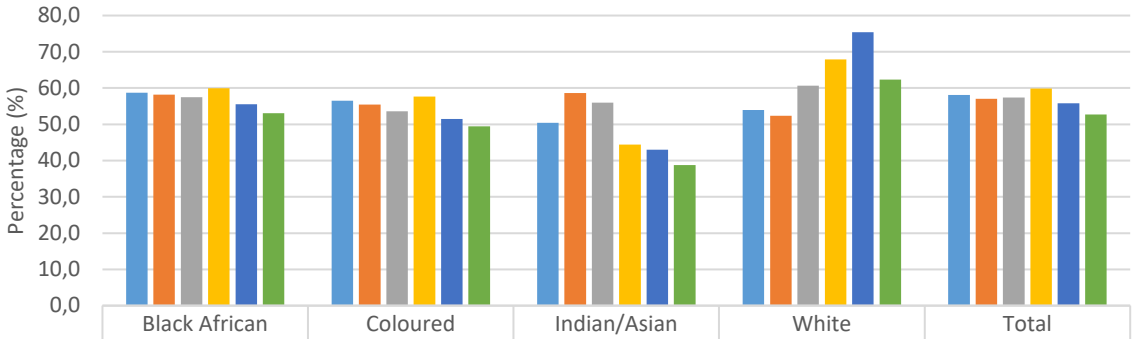


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
1	20,0	21,4	23,4	21,7	24,1	28,5	25,1	25,5	23,1	23,9
2	21,6	19,8	20,1	21,7	19,9	19,2	23,2	19,3	15,2	20,7
3	19,8	15,0	17,2	20,5	14,9	14,5	16,6	14,7	18,5	16,6
4	18,0	17,5	12,4	17,8	13,8	13,0	15,8	15,9	16,0	15,7
5	9,2	9,8	12,6	9,7	9,8	10,6	9,4	10,3	11,8	9,9
6+	11,4	16,6	14,2	8,5	17,6	14,1	10,0	14,3	15,4	13,1

Figure 4.10 shows that the smallest share of individuals living in poverty based on household size came from five person households (9,9%) followed by households that consist of six or more individuals (13,1%). However, households that consist of only one person (23,9%) were driving the largest share of persons living in poverty followed by those household sizes that comprise two people (20,7%). As far as the provinces are concerned, the pattern observed with the total share of household size are similar to those of Eastern Cape, Northern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, North West and Gauteng. Across all provinces, the largest share of poor households came from household size consisting of only one person, except for the Free State.

4.3.2 Household size and population group

Figure 4. 11: Poverty incidence of households by population group and household size

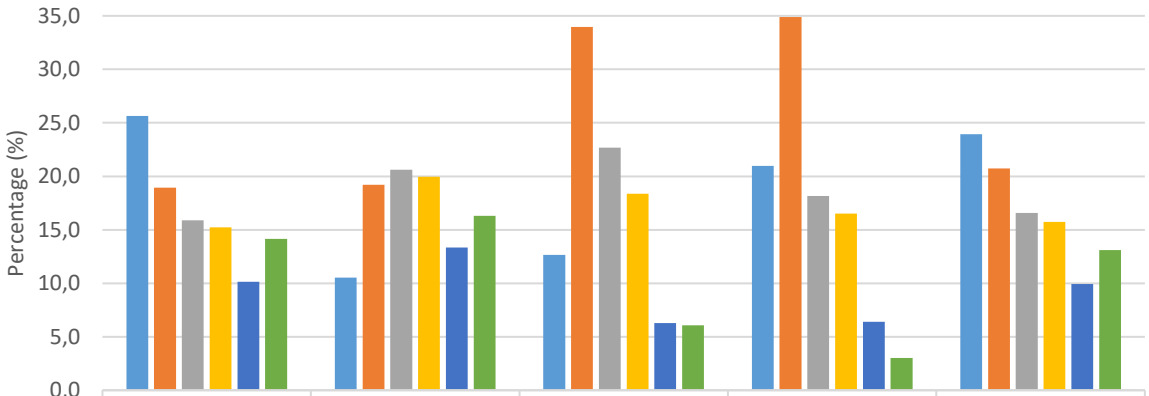


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
1	58,7	56,5	50,4	53,9	58,1
2	58,2	55,5	58,7	52,4	57,0
3	57,5	53,6	56,0	60,7	57,4
4	59,9	57,6	44,4	67,9	59,9
5	55,6	51,5	43,0	75,4	55,8
6+	53,0	49,4	38,7	62,3	52,7

The poverty levels of black African headed households are higher than any other population groups when it is assessed by household size, as indicated by Figure 4.11. This is also the only population group whose poverty levels are higher than the

national averages relative to other population groups for the different household sizes except for household sizes that consist of four and five individuals. When assessing the risk of poverty by population group and household size, the highest risk can be found in households that are headed only by one person with black African households having the highest percentage of 58,7%. On the other hand, the highest risk of experiencing poverty in the white population group occurred in household sizes of six persons or more (62,3%).

Figure 4. 12: Percentage distribution of poor households by population group and household size

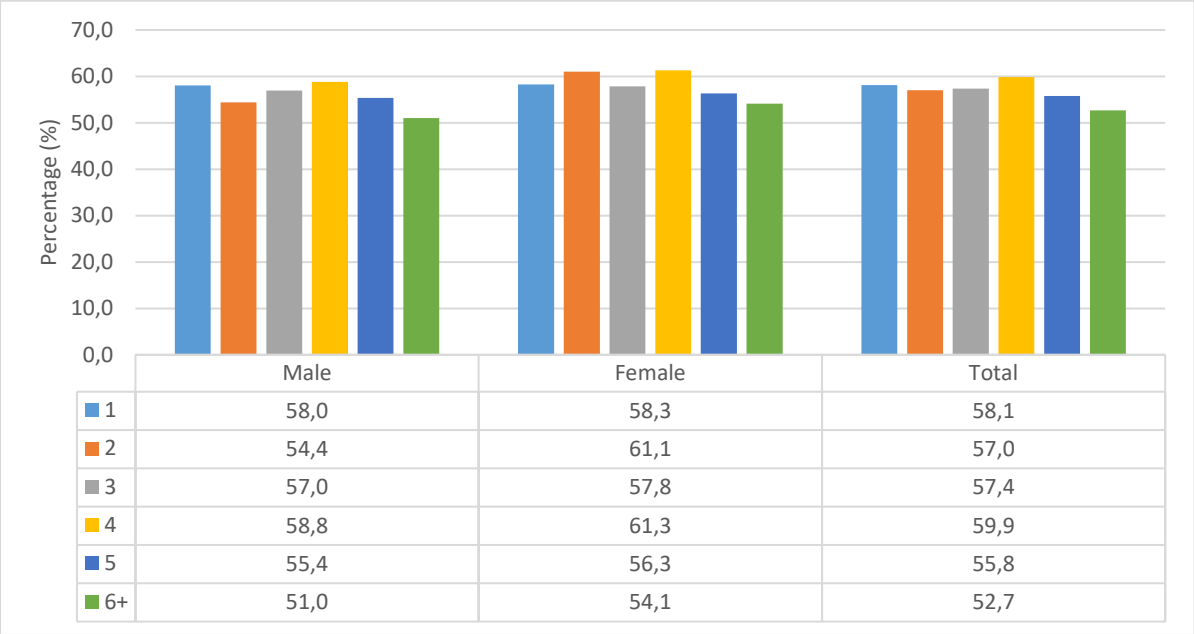


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
1	25,6	10,5	12,6	21,0	23,9
2	18,9	19,2	34,0	34,9	20,7
3	15,9	20,6	22,7	18,2	16,6
4	15,2	20,0	18,4	16,5	15,7
5	10,1	13,3	6,3	6,4	9,9
6+	14,1	16,3	6,1	3,0	13,1

Figure 4.12 illustrates that household sizes that consists of only one individual (25,6%) had the largest share of poor households for black African households. The largest share for White headed households can found in household sizes that comprise of two persons (34,9%) which is also the largest share of poor households across all population groups. This share shows an over-representation of poor White headed households relative to the share of total poor households of 20,7% for this household size. The smallest share of poor households for coloured headed households can be found in household sizes that consist of only one person (10,5%) while the smallest share for Indian/Asian headed households occurred in households of six or more individuals.

4.3.3 Household size and sex of the household

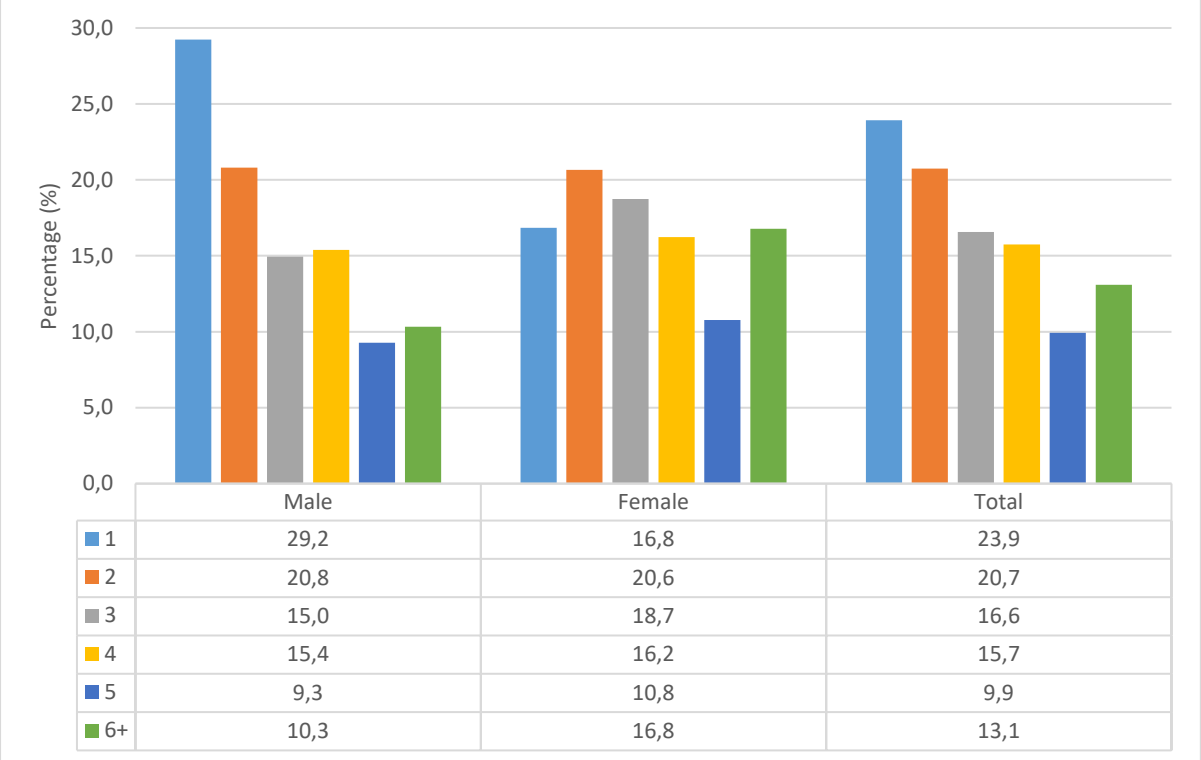
Figure 4. 13: Poverty incidence of households by household size and sex of the household head



	Male	Female	Total
1	58,0	58,3	58,1
2	54,4	61,1	57,0
3	57,0	57,8	57,4
4	58,8	61,3	59,9
5	55,4	56,3	55,8
6+	51,0	54,1	52,7

In general, households that are headed by females have a tendency to have higher risks of poverty by household size in comparison with their male counterparts as depicted in Figure 4.13. The figure also shows that female-headed households have higher poverty levels than the national averages as well as the poverty levels of their male-headed counterparts while the poverty levels for male-headed households of any size is lower than the national averages. Interestingly, the risk of poverty for both male-headed and female-headed households is the highest at 58,8% and 61,3% respectively in households where four persons reside.

Figure 4. 14: Percentage distribution of poor households by household size and sex of the household head

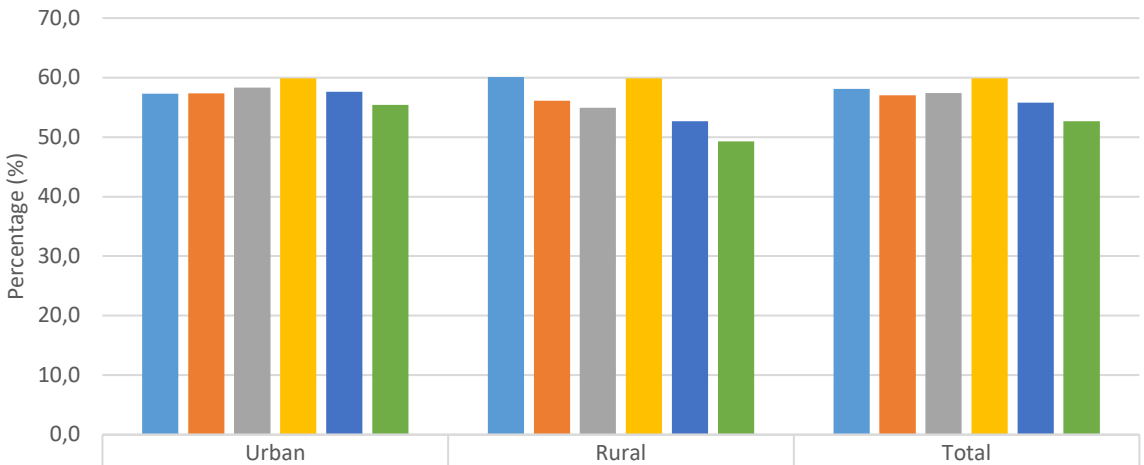


	Male	Female	Total
1	29,2	16,8	23,9
2	20,8	20,6	20,7
3	15,0	18,7	16,6
4	15,4	16,2	15,7
5	9,3	10,8	9,9
6+	10,3	16,8	13,1

Figure 4.14 illustrates that household sizes that consists of only one individual (29,2%) had the largest share of poor households for male-headed households which was also the highest across both sexes. This indicates an over-representation of poor male-headed households relative to the share of total poor households of 23,9% for this household size. However, the largest share of poor households for female-headed households was found in households where two individuals reside (20,6%), which is an under-representation of poor female-headed households in relation to the share of total poor households of 20,7% for this household size.

4.3.4 Household size and settlement type

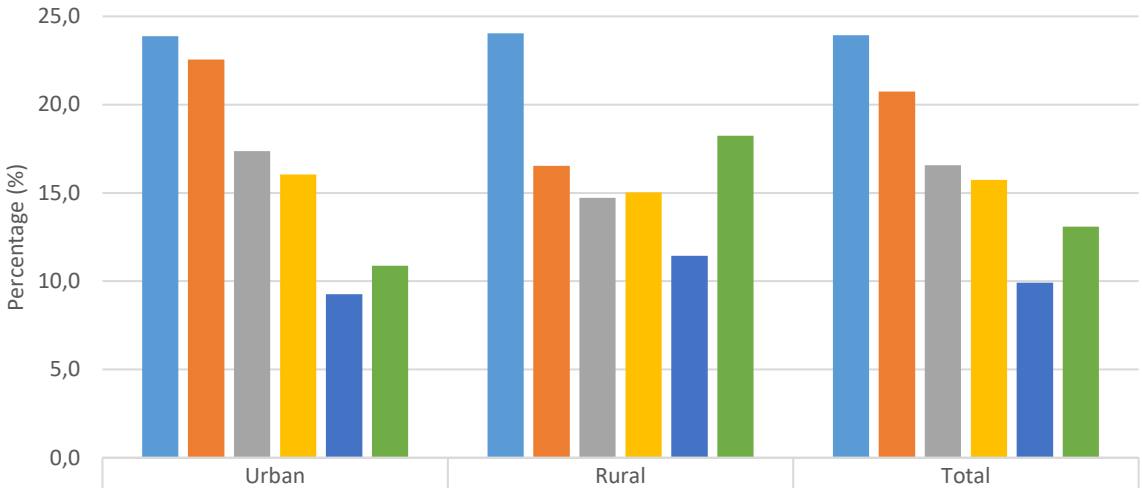
Figure 4. 15: Poverty incidence of households by household size and settlement type



	Urban	Rural	Total
1	57,3	60,1	58,1
2	57,3	56,1	57,0
3	58,3	54,9	57,4
4	59,9	59,9	59,9
5	57,6	52,6	55,8
6+	55,4	49,3	52,7

Households based in rural areas tend to have a higher risk of poverty than their urban counterparts when we evaluate poverty based on household size and settlement type. However, Figure 4.15 depicts the contrary to what we generally perceive except rural based households living in a household consisting of only one person. The highest poverty risk for rural based households is found in households that consists of only one individual (60,1%) which is also the highest poverty level across both settlement types. For urban based households, the highest risk of poverty occurs in households comprising four individuals (59,9%) followed by households consisting of three persons (58,3%).

Figure 4. 16: Percentage distribution of poor households by household size and settlement type



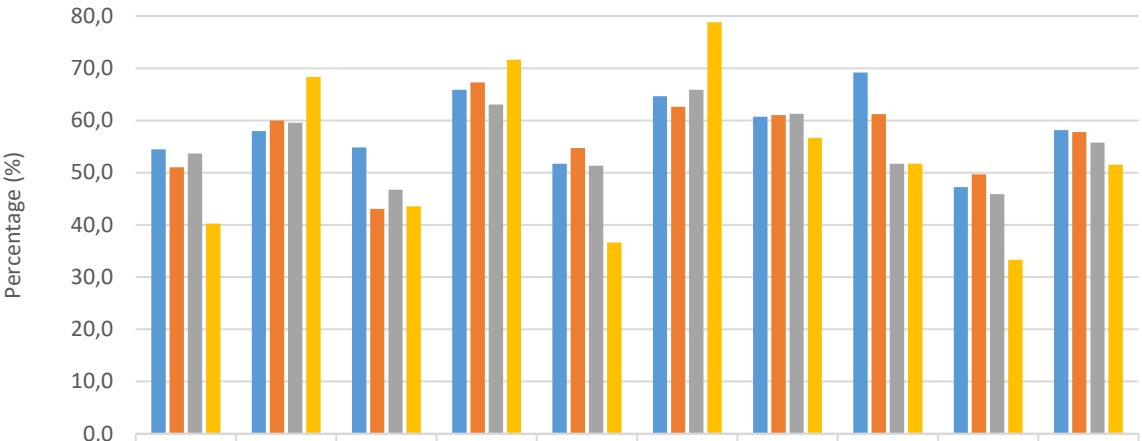
	Urban	Rural	Total
1	23,9	24,0	23,9
2	22,6	16,5	20,7
3	17,4	14,7	16,6
4	16,1	15,0	15,7
5	9,3	11,4	9,9
6+	10,9	18,2	13,1

Figure 4.16 indicates that the largest share of poor households for both urban and rural households is represented by households that consist of only one individual at 23,9% and 24,0% respectively. For rural based households, this indicates an over-representation of poor rural households relative to the share of the total poor households of 23,9% for this household size. The second largest share of poor households for rural areas is from the household size comprising six or more individuals (18,2%) while the second largest share of poor households for urban areas consist of two persons (22,6%). The third largest share of poor households for urban areas consist of three individuals (17,4%) whereas the share for rural areas can be found in households that comprise 2 members.

4.4 Poverty profile by household composition

4.4.1 Household composition and province

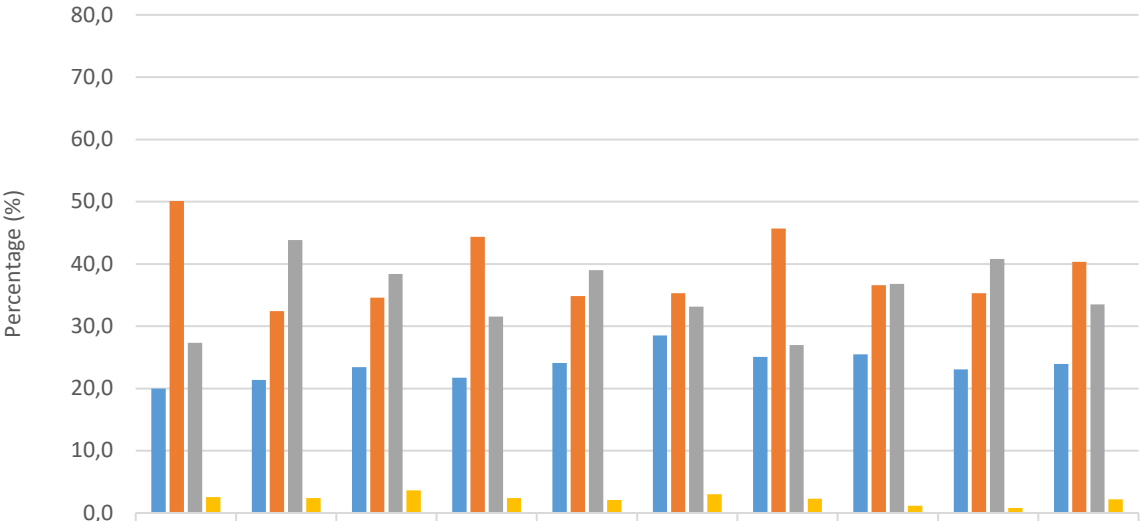
Figure 4. 17: Poverty incidence of households by province and household composition



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Single	54,5	57,9	54,9	65,9	51,7	64,6	60,7	69,2	47,2	58,1
Nuclear	51,0	60,0	43,1	67,3	54,7	62,6	61,0	61,2	49,7	57,8
Extended	53,7	59,6	46,7	63,0	51,3	65,9	61,3	51,7	45,9	55,8
Complex	40,3	68,3	43,6	71,7	36,6	78,8	56,7	51,7	33,3	51,5

The prevalence of poverty by household composition and province are depicted in Figure 4.17. Single composed households have the highest risk of experiencing poverty at 58,1% followed by nuclear households at 57,8%. Complex households had the smallest chance of experiencing poverty at 51,5%. When assessing the risk of poverty by household composition and province, North West has the highest poverty levels associated with complex households (78,8%) which is also the highest across the different provinces.

Figure 4. 18: Percentage distribution of poor households by province and household composition

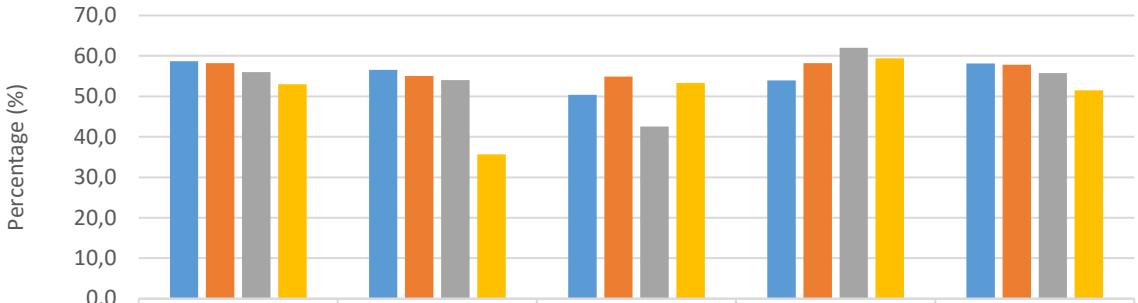


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Single	20,0	21,4	23,4	21,7	24,1	28,5	25,1	25,5	23,1	23,9
Nuclear	50,1	32,4	34,6	44,3	34,8	35,3	45,7	36,6	35,3	40,4
Extended	27,3	43,8	38,4	31,5	39,0	33,2	27,0	36,8	40,8	33,5
Complex	2,6	2,4	3,6	2,4	2,1	3,0	2,3	1,2	0,8	2,2

Figure 4.18 depicts that overall the smallest share of poor households by household composition came from complex households (2,2%) followed by extended households (33,5%) while the largest share of poor households was from nuclear households (40,4%). The largest share of poor households in the different provinces are not dominated by a particular household composition. None of the provinces had their largest share of poor households from single or complex households.

4.4.2 Household composition and population group

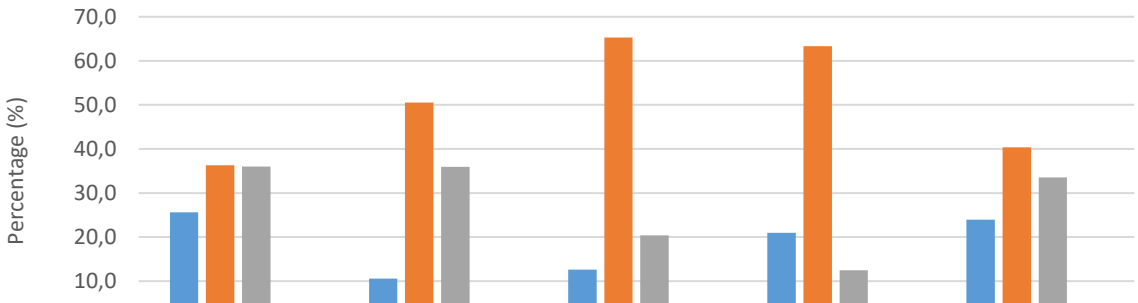
Figure 4. 19: Poverty incidence of households by population group and household composition



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Single	58,7	56,5	50,4	53,9	58,1
Nuclear	58,2	55,0	54,9	58,2	57,8
Extended	56,0	54,0	42,6	62,0	55,8
Complex	53,0	35,7	53,3	59,4	51,5

Figure 4.19 depicts the evaluation of poverty levels by household composition and population group. In general, black African headed households tend to have higher poverty levels in comparison to other population groups. Interestingly, the highest poverty levels for white headed households were from extended households (62,0%) and complex households (59,4%) respectively. This is also the highest poverty levels for all the household compositions when compared to other population groups. Black African headed households have the third highest poverty levels which came from single households (58,7%).

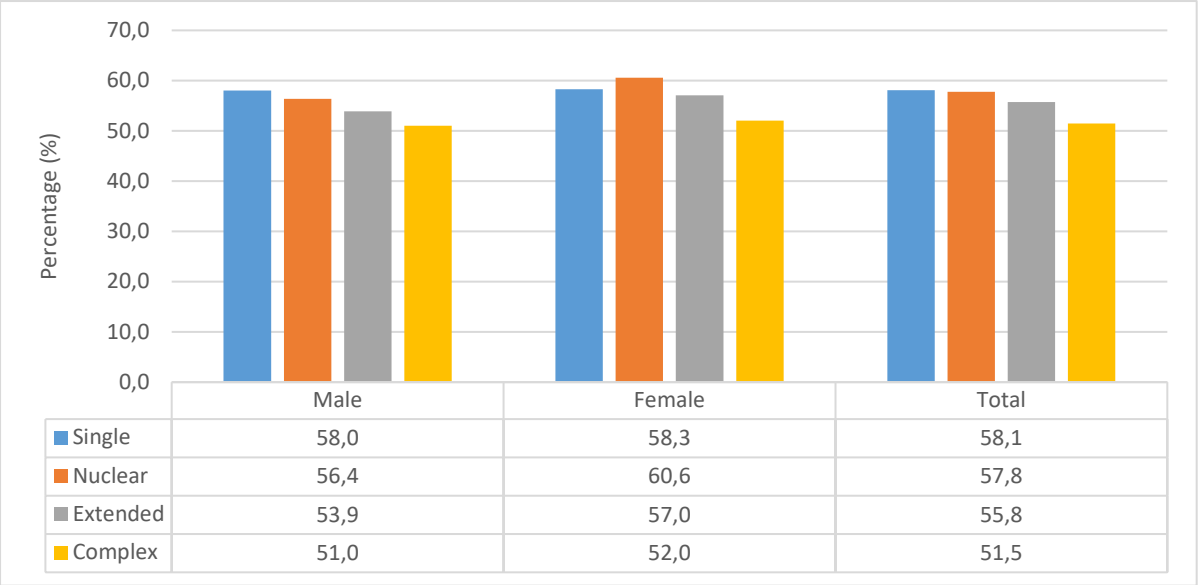
Figure 4. 20: Percentage distribution of poor households by population group and household composition



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Single	25,6	10,5	12,6	21,0	23,9
Nuclear	36,3	50,5	65,3	63,3	40,4
Extended	36,0	36,0	20,4	12,4	33,5
Complex	2,0	3,0	1,7	3,2	2,2

Figure 4.20 illustrates that the largest share of poor households for Indian/Asians (65,3%), whites (63,3%), coloureds (50,5%) and black Africans (36,3%) came from nuclear households indicating that this particular household category is dominant in the share of poor households. This is also the case at the national level. The second largest share of poor households for black African (36,0%), coloured (36,0%) and Indian/Asian (20,4%) households are from extended households. The complex household category was responsible for the lowest share of poor households across all the different population groups.

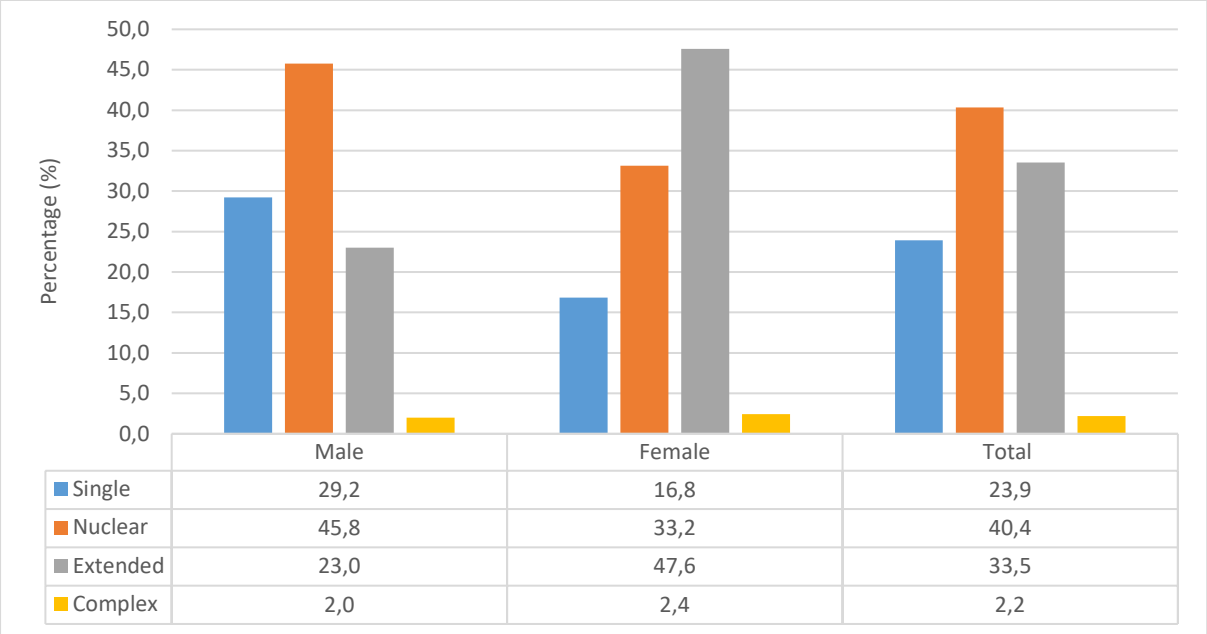
Figure 4. 21: Poverty incidence of households by sex of the household head and household composition



	Male	Female	Total
Single	58,0	58,3	58,1
Nuclear	56,4	60,6	57,8
Extended	53,9	57,0	55,8
Complex	51,0	52,0	51,5

As previously mentioned, female-headed households have higher poverty levels as compared to their male counterparts as shown by Figure 4.21. The highest poverty levels for male-headed households (58%) came from single households while the highest levels of poverty for female-headed households (60,6%) occurred at nuclear households. Regarding extended households, the poverty levels for male-headed households is 53,9% compared to female-headed households at 57,0%. The poverty levels for both sexes are similar when the focus is on single households. Interestingly, the poverty levels for female-headed households are higher across all the different household composition categories as well as the national calculations.

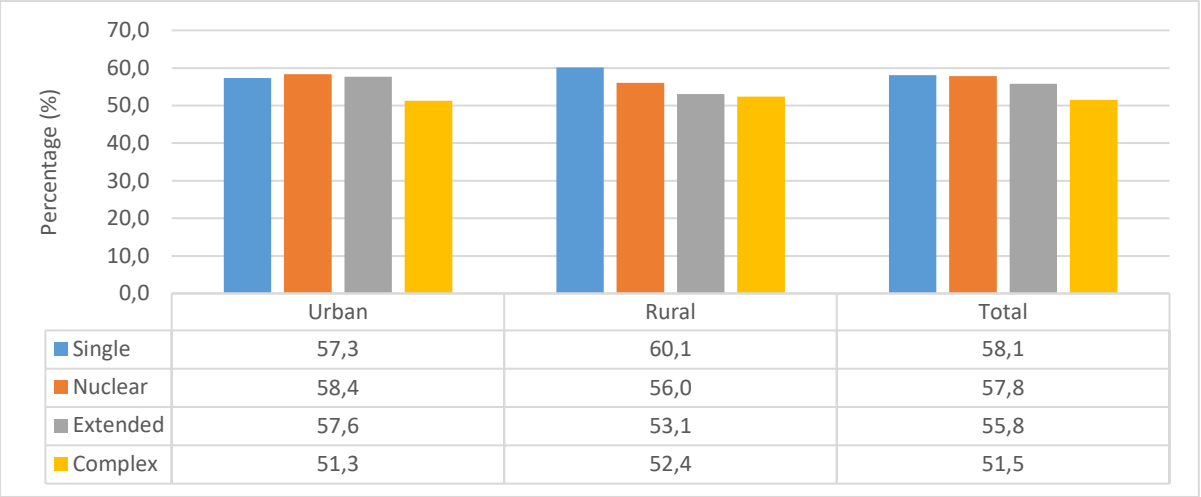
Figure 4. 22: Percentage distribution of poor households by sex of the household head and household composition



	Male	Female	Total
Single	29,2	16,8	23,9
Nuclear	45,8	33,2	40,4
Extended	23,0	47,6	33,5
Complex	2,0	2,4	2,2

Figure 4.22 shows that for male-headed households the largest share of poor households were from nuclear households with a contribution of 45,8%, this indicates an over-representation of poor male-headed households relative to the total share of poor households for this household composition category. For female-headed households the largest share of poor households came from extended households with a contribution of 47,6% which also implies an over-representation. The lowest share of poor households from both male and female-headed households came from complex households with the share of male-headed households lower at 2,0% compared to that of female-headed households at 2,4%.

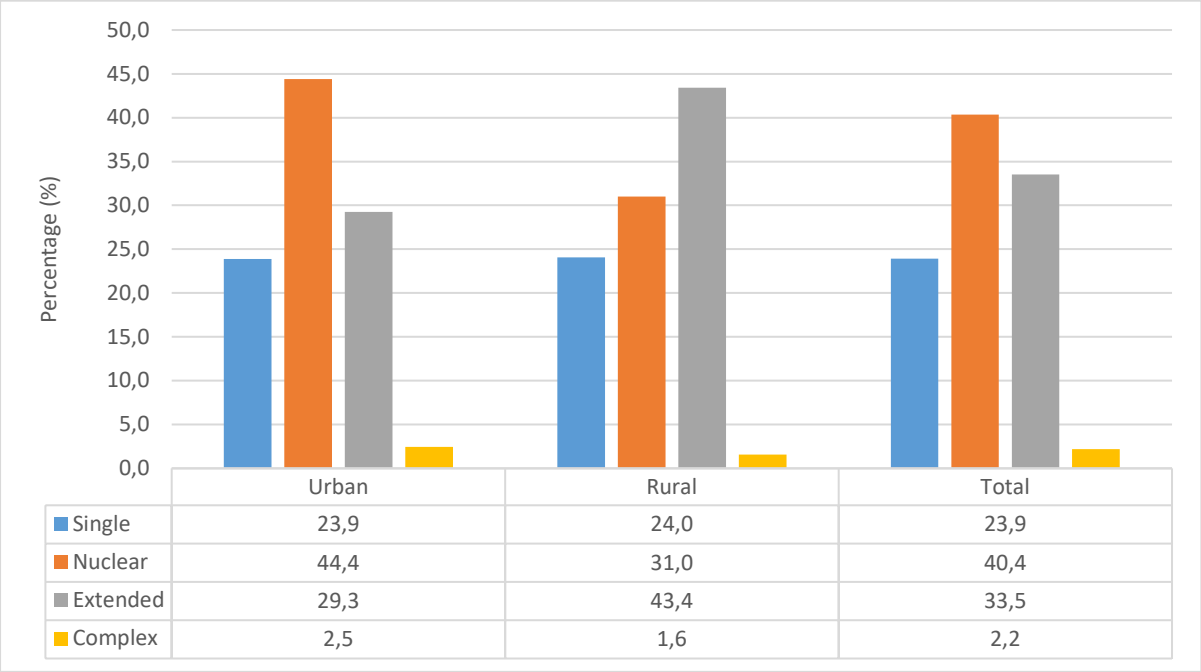
Figure 4. 23: Poverty incidence of households by settlement type and household composition



	Urban	Rural	Total
Single	57,3	60,1	58,1
Nuclear	58,4	56,0	57,8
Extended	57,6	53,1	55,8
Complex	51,3	52,4	51,5

Figure 4.23 illustrates that household in urban areas have a higher risk of poverty in all household compositions when compared to rural households, except for single households with incidence of poverty at 57,3%. Nuclear households in urban areas have the highest risk of experiencing poverty at 58,4% while their rural counterparts have the highest risk at single households (60,1%). The lowest incidence of poverty for poor households occurred in complex households with 51,3% in urban areas and 52,4% in rural areas.

Figure 4. 24: Percentage distribution of poor households by settlement type and household composition



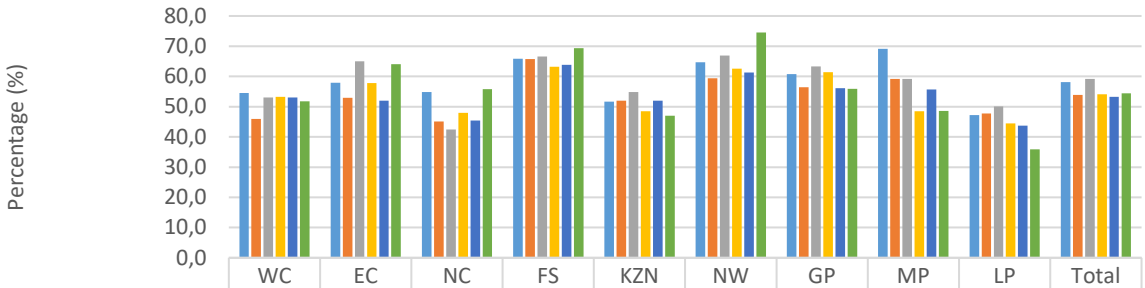
	Urban	Rural	Total
Single	23,9	24,0	23,9
Nuclear	44,4	31,0	40,4
Extended	29,3	43,4	33,5
Complex	2,5	1,6	2,2

According to Figure 4.24, urban households have a larger share of poor households for nuclear (44,4%) and complex (2,5%) households in comparison with rural households. Furthermore, these shares indicate an over-representation of poor urban households relative to total shares of poor households for each of the two household compositions. Households based in rural areas have a larger share of poor households for single (24,0%) and extended (43,4%) households compared with urban households. This also implies an over-estimation of poor rural households because the shares for each household composition is higher than the national averages.

4.5 Poverty profile by inter-generational households

4.5.1 Inter-generational households and province

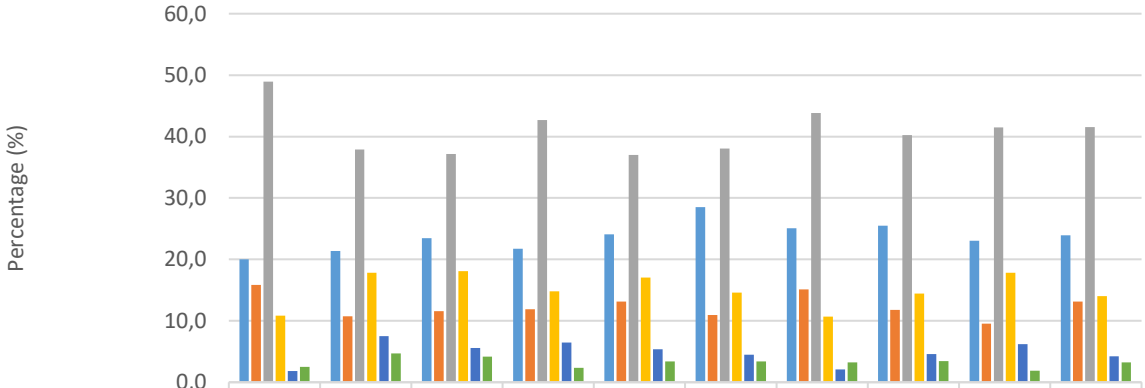
Figure 4. 25: Poverty incidence of households by inter-generational households and province



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Single person	54,5	57,9	54,9	65,9	51,7	64,6	60,7	69,2	47,2	58,1
Single generation	45,9	52,9	45,1	65,7	52,0	59,4	56,5	59,2	47,7	53,9
Double generation	53,0	65,0	42,5	66,6	54,8	66,9	63,3	59,1	50,1	59,2
Triple generation	53,2	57,8	47,9	63,3	48,5	62,6	61,4	48,4	44,4	54,1
Skip generation	53,1	52,0	45,4	63,8	52,0	61,3	56,1	55,7	43,7	53,3
Unclear	51,7	64,0	55,8	69,4	47,0	74,6	55,9	48,6	35,9	54,4

The poverty levels associated with household membership based on an inter-generational configuration and province is shown by Figure 4.25. On a national basis, the double generation households had the highest risk of experiencing poverty at 59,2% followed by the single person households at 58,1%. The third highest incidence of poverty at 54,4% occurred in unclear status households while skip generation households had the lowest risk of poverty at 53,3%. When poverty levels are assessed according to the different provinces, North West has the highest risk of poverty based on the unclear households (74,6%) which is also the highest across all inter-generational configurations and provinces. Limpopo and Northern Cape have relatively low risk of poverty compared to other provinces.

Figure 4. 26: Percentage distribution of poor households by inter-generational households and province



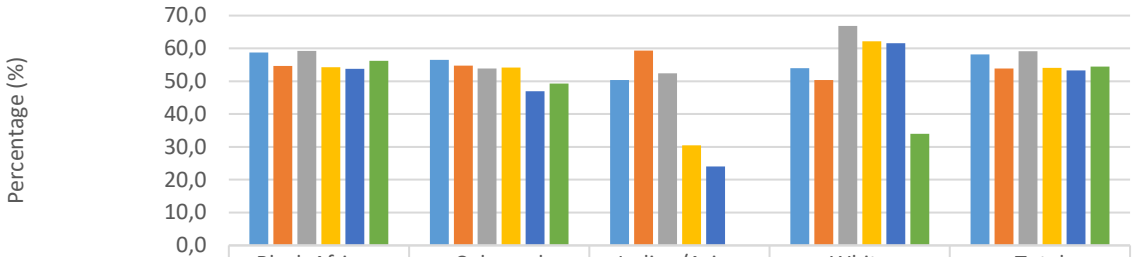
	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Single person	20,0	21,4	23,4	21,7	24,1	28,5	25,1	25,5	23,1	23,9
Single generation	15,8	10,8	11,6	11,9	13,1	11,0	15,1	11,8	9,5	13,1
Double generation	49,0	37,9	37,1	42,7	37,0	38,1	43,9	40,2	41,5	41,5
Triple generation	10,9	17,8	18,1	14,8	17,1	14,6	10,7	14,5	17,8	14,0
Skip generation	1,8	7,5	5,6	6,5	5,4	4,5	2,1	4,6	6,2	4,2
Unclear	2,5	4,7	4,2	2,4	3,4	3,4	3,2	3,5	1,9	3,2

Figure 4.26 shows that at a national level, double generation households had the largest share of poor households at 41,5% followed by single person and triple generation households at 23,9% and 14,0% respectively. When focusing on provinces, double generation and single person households still have the largest and second largest share of poor households across all

the provinces which is a pattern that is also observed at national level. Eastern Cape (4,7%) had the largest share of poor households for unclear households, followed by Northern Cape and Mpumalanga at 4,2% and 3,5% respectively.

4.5.2 Inter-generational households and population group

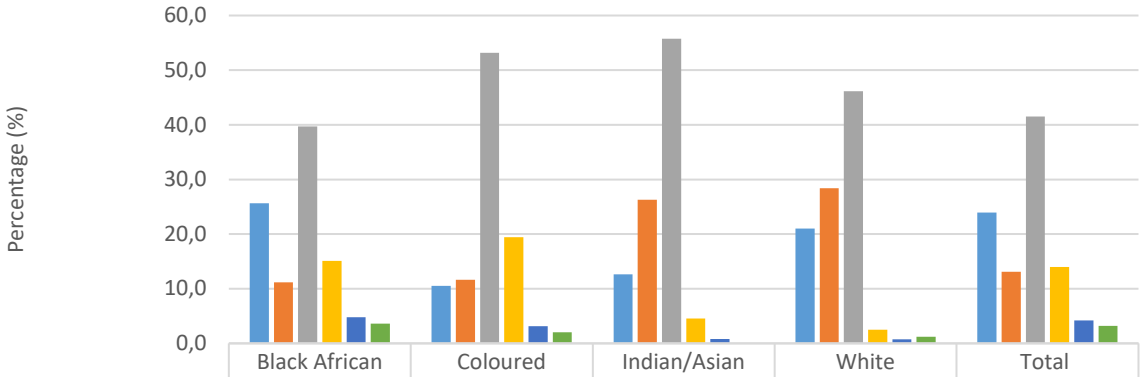
Figure 4. 27: Poverty incidence of households by inter-generational households and population group



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Single person	58,7	56,5	50,4	53,9	58,1
Single generation	54,6	54,8	59,3	50,4	53,9
Double generation	59,2	53,9	52,4	66,8	59,2
Triple generation	54,3	54,2	30,4	62,2	54,1
Skip generation	53,8	47,0	24,1	61,6	53,3
Unclear	56,2	49,3	0,0	34,0	54,4

Black African households were found to have the highest risk of experiencing poverty when we evaluate the incidence of poverty by inter-generational households and population group as indicated by Figure 4.27. However, the highest poverty levels were found in White headed households where the levels for double generation and triple generation were 66,8% and 62,2% respectively. These levels were also the highest across all the inter-generational categories as well as the different provinces. The highest poverty levels for single person households (58,7%) occurred in black African headed households with Indian/Asian headed households having the lowest risk of experiencing poverty at 24,1% in skip generation households.

Figure 4. 28: Percentage distribution of poor households by inter-generational households and population group



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Single person	25,7	10,5	12,6	21,0	23,9
Single generation	11,2	11,7	26,3	28,4	13,1
Double generation	39,7	53,2	55,8	46,2	41,5
Triple generation	15,1	19,4	4,6	2,5	14,0
Skip generation	4,8	3,2	0,8	0,8	4,2
Unclear	3,6	2,0	0,0	1,2	3,2

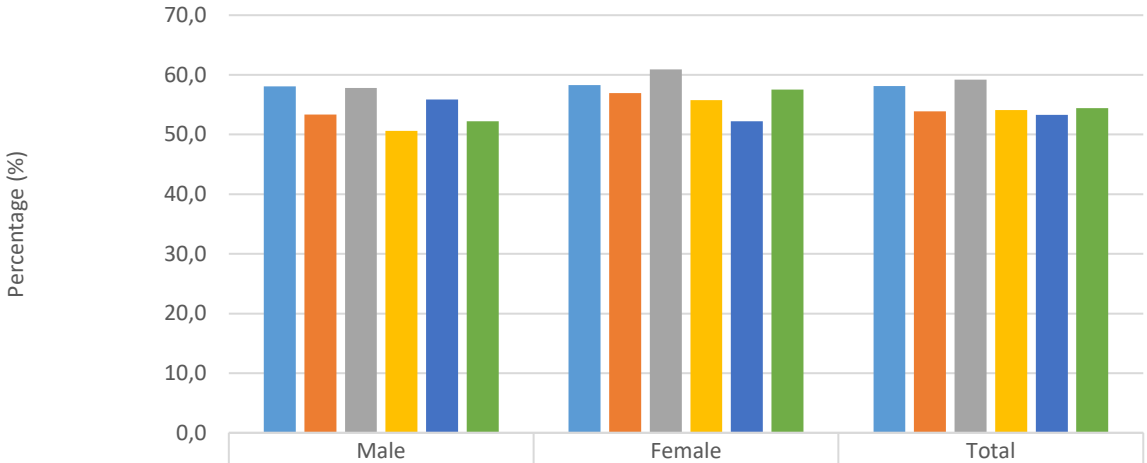
Nationally, as depicted by Figure 4.28 the largest share of poor households was from double generation households at 41,5% followed by single person households (23,9%) with triple generation households (14,0%) having the third largest share of

poor households. The smallest share of poor households was from unclear households (3,2%) followed by skip generation households at 4,2%. When considering the population group of the household head, the category of double-generation households is having the largest share of poor households across all population groups which reflects what has been observed nationally.

When focusing on double generation households, the share of poor households for coloured (53,2%), Indian/Asian (55,8%) and white (46,2%) households are higher than the total share of poor households for this category of 41,5%. This indicates an over-representation of poor coloured, Indian/Asian and White households relative to the share of total poor households. Similarly, for single person households the share of black African households is 25,7% which is higher than the national average of 23,9% which also indicates an over-representation. However, for single generation households, the share of poor households for black African and coloured households were 11,2% and 11,7% respectively which is lower than the national average of 13,1%. This indicates an under-representation of poor black African and coloured households relative to the share of total poor households.

4.5.3 Inter-generational households and sex of the household head

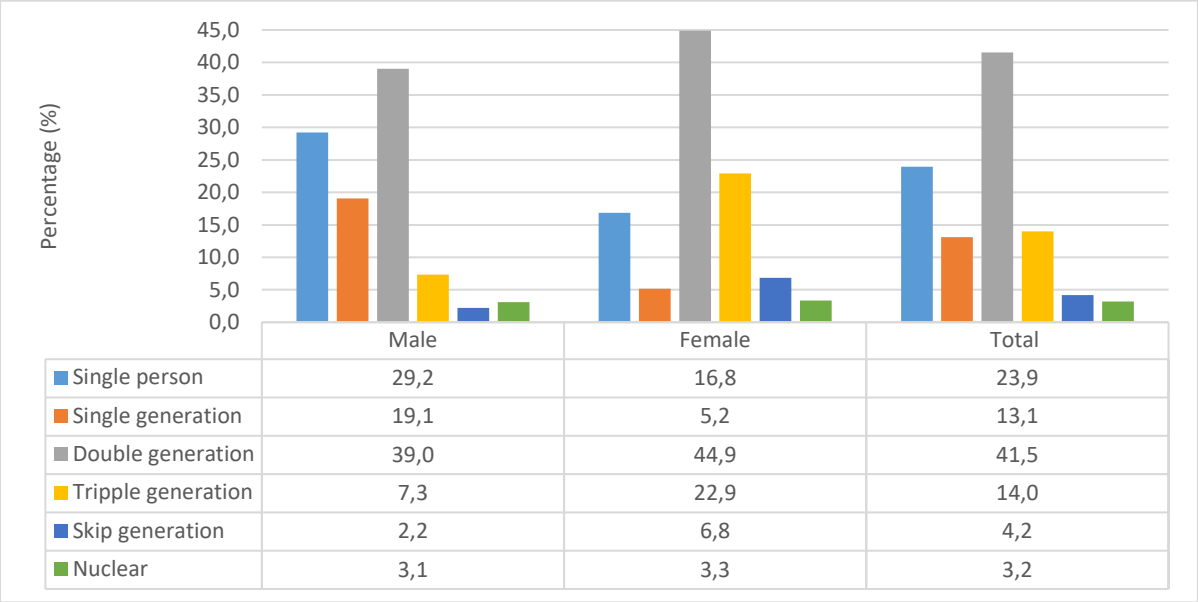
Figure 4. 29: Poverty incidence of households by inter-generational households and sex of the household head



	Male	Female	Total
Single person	58,0	58,3	58,1
Single generation	53,3	56,9	53,9
Double generation	57,8	60,9	59,2
Triple generation	50,6	55,7	54,1
Skip generation	55,9	52,2	53,3
Unclear	52,2	57,5	54,4

Male-headed households have lower poverty levels than their female counterparts when assessing the poverty levels by inter-generational households and sex of the household head, as indicated by Figure 4.29 except for skip generation households at 55,9% compared with female-headed households at 52,2%. The lowest risk of poverty for male-headed households is found at triple generation households with 50,6% while the lowest risk for female-headed households is found in skip generation households at 52,2%. In instances where the poverty levels for female-headed households are higher than their male counterparts, it is also higher than the national estimates.

Figure 4. 30: Percentage distribution of poor households by inter-generational households and sex of the household head

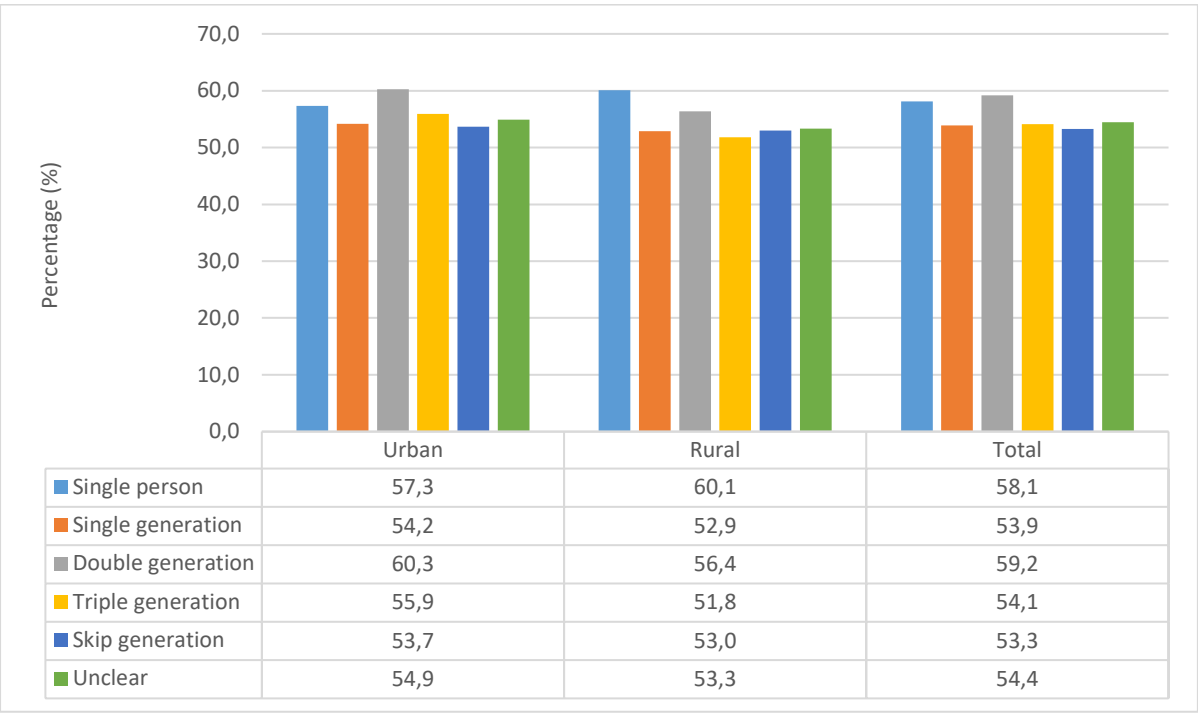


	Male	Female	Total
Single person	29,2	16,8	23,9
Single generation	19,1	5,2	13,1
Double generation	39,0	44,9	41,5
Tripple generation	7,3	22,9	14,0
Skip generation	2,2	6,8	4,2
Nuclear	3,1	3,3	3,2

Figure 4.30 illustrates that female-headed households have the largest share of poor households for double generation households at 44,9% compared to 39,0% for male-headed households. This implies an over-representation of poor female-headed households relative to the total share of poor households for this intergenerational type. At the same time this implies an under-representation of poor male-headed households relative to the total share of poor households. Male-headed households have the largest share of poor households for single person households at 29,2% compared to 16,8% for their female counterparts. This is also the case for single generation households at 19,1% compared to 5,2% for female-headed households.

4.5.4 Inter-generational households and settlement type

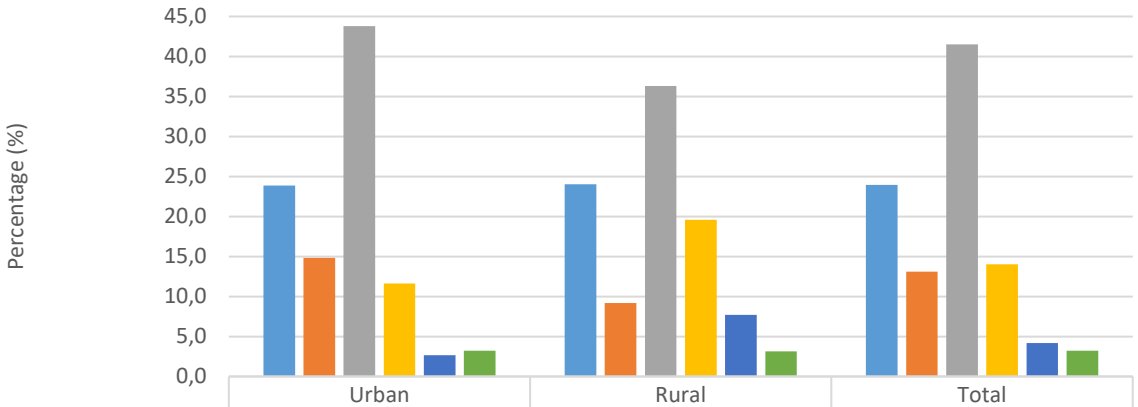
Figure 4. 31: Poverty incidence of households by inter-generational households and settlement type



	Urban	Rural	Total
Single person	57,3	60,1	58,1
Single generation	54,2	52,9	53,9
Double generation	60,3	56,4	59,2
Triple generation	55,9	51,8	54,1
Skip generation	53,7	53,0	53,3
Unclear	54,9	53,3	54,4

The evaluation of poverty levels by inter-generational households and settlement type are depicted in Figure 4.31. The risk of poverty for both settlement types are fairly similar to each other as well as the national estimates. In urban areas, double generation households have the highest risk of poverty at 60,3% while in rural areas single person households have the highest risk of poverty at 60,1%. Skip generation households (53,7%) account for the lowest risk in urban areas while the triple generation households (51,8%) are responsible for the lowest risk of experiencing poverty in rural areas.

Figure 4. 32: Percentage distribution of poor households by inter-generational households and settlement type



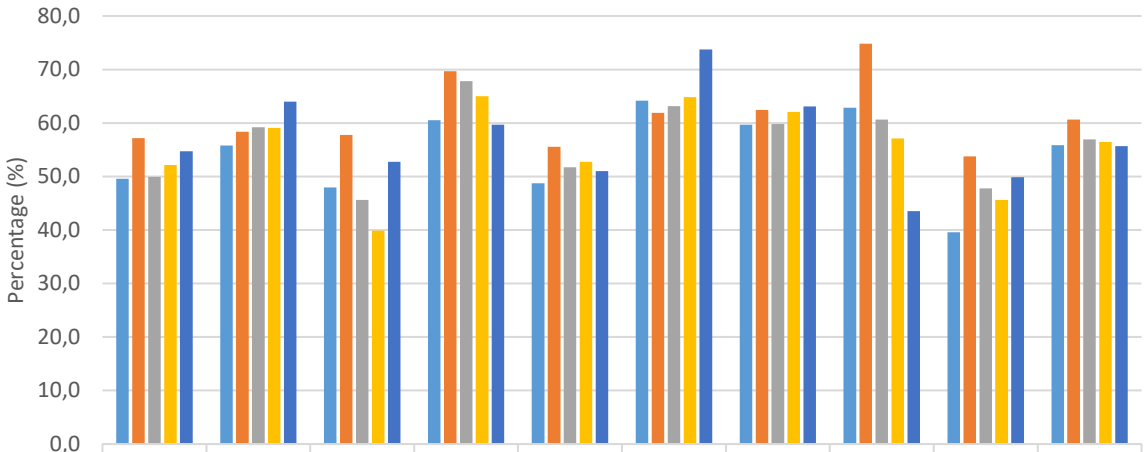
	Urban	Rural	Total
Single person	23,9	24,0	23,9
Single generation	14,8	9,2	13,1
Double generation	43,8	36,3	41,5
Tripple generation	11,6	19,6	14,0
Skip generation	2,7	7,7	4,2
Unclear	3,2	3,1	3,2

According to Figure 4.32 households in urban areas have the largest share of poor households in three of the intergenerational household types while female-headed households have the largest share in the other three. For both urban and rural areas, double-generation households have the largest share of poor households with urban and rural households at 43,8% and 36,3% respectively. The second largest share of poor households for both rural and urban areas are from single person households at 24,0% and 23,9% respectively. However, the third largest share for urban households come from single generation households at 14,8% while the third largest share for rural households come from triple generation households at 19,6%.

4.6 Poverty profile by number of bedrooms

4.6.1 Number of bedrooms and province

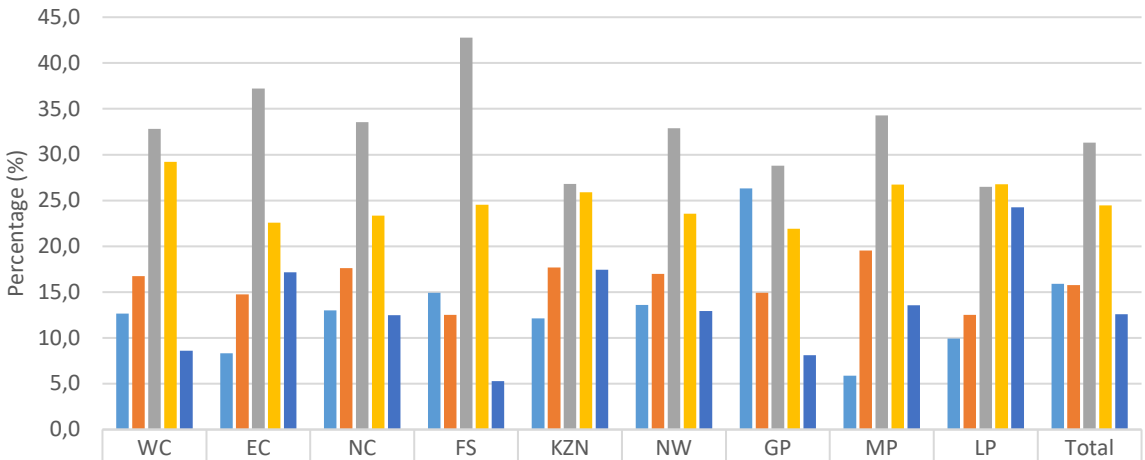
Figure 4. 33: Poverty incidence of households by province and number of bedrooms



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
0	49,6	55,8	47,9	60,5	48,7	64,2	59,7	62,8	39,6	55,8
1	57,2	58,4	57,8	69,7	55,6	61,9	62,5	74,8	53,7	60,6
2	49,9	59,2	45,6	67,8	51,7	63,2	59,8	60,7	47,8	56,9
3	52,2	59,1	39,9	65,0	52,7	64,8	62,1	57,1	45,7	56,5
4+	54,7	64,0	52,7	59,7	51,0	73,7	63,1	43,5	49,8	55,7

The incidence of poverty by the number of bedrooms at a national level as depicted by Figure 4.33 has a greater impact on households with fewer bedrooms compared to households with more bedrooms. Households residing in one bedroom dwellings have the highest levels of poverty at 60,6% followed by those in two bedroom dwellings at 56,9%. with households living in zero bedroom dwellings having an incidence of poverty at 55,8%.

Figure 4. 34: Percentage distribution of poor households by province and number of bedrooms

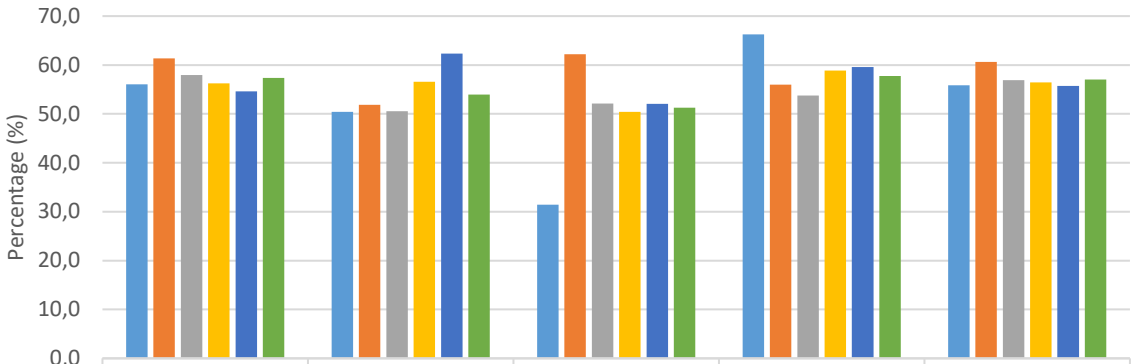


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
0	12,7	8,3	13,0	14,9	12,1	13,6	26,3	5,9	9,9	15,9
1	16,7	14,7	17,6	12,5	17,7	17,0	14,9	19,5	12,5	15,8
2	32,8	37,2	33,5	42,8	26,8	32,9	28,8	34,3	26,5	31,3
3	29,2	22,6	23,4	24,5	25,9	23,6	21,9	26,8	26,8	24,5
4+	8,6	17,2	12,5	5,3	17,5	12,9	8,1	13,6	24,3	12,6

Nationally, the largest share of poor households by number of bedrooms are found in those residing in two bedroom dwellings at 31.3%, followed by those in three bedroom dwellings at 24,5%. Households in zero bedroom dwellings had the third largest share of poor households at 15,9% while those in four and more bedrooms had the lowest share at 12,6%. Gauteng (26,3%) had the largest share of poor households living in zero bedroom dwellings. The largest share for poor households in one bedroom dwellings were from Mpumalanga with a share of 19,5% while the largest share for those in two bedroom dwellings were from Free State at 42,8%.

4.6.2 Number of bedrooms and population group

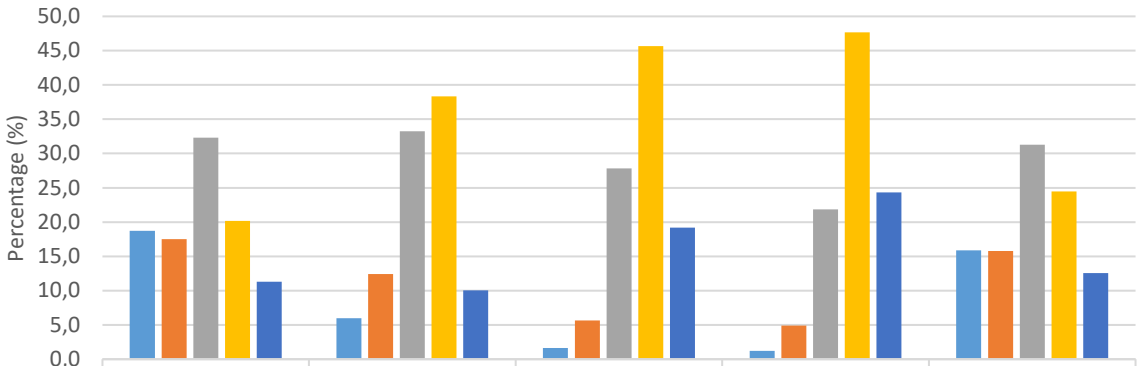
Figure 4. 35: Poverty incidence of households by population group and number of bedrooms



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
0	56,0	50,4	31,5	66,2	55,8
1	61,4	51,9	62,2	56,0	60,6
2	57,9	50,6	52,1	53,7	56,9
3	56,3	56,6	50,4	58,8	56,5
4+	54,6	62,4	52,1	59,6	55,7
Total	57,4	53,9	51,3	57,8	57,0

When the incidence of poverty is evaluated in terms of population group and number of bedrooms as illustrated by Figure 4.35, the highest risk of poverty in households who live in zero bedroom dwellings were white headed at 66,2% followed by black African headed households at 56,0%. For one bedroom dwellings, the highest incidence of poverty occurred in Indian/Asian households at 62,2%. For coloured headed households, the largest poverty levels are found in households living in dwellings with four or more bedrooms (62,4%) while the smallest risk of poverty is found in zero bedroom dwellings at 50,4%. Indian/Asian households residing in zero bedroom dwellings have the lowest poverty levels of 31,5%.

Figure 4. 36: Percentage distribution of poor households by population group and number of bedrooms

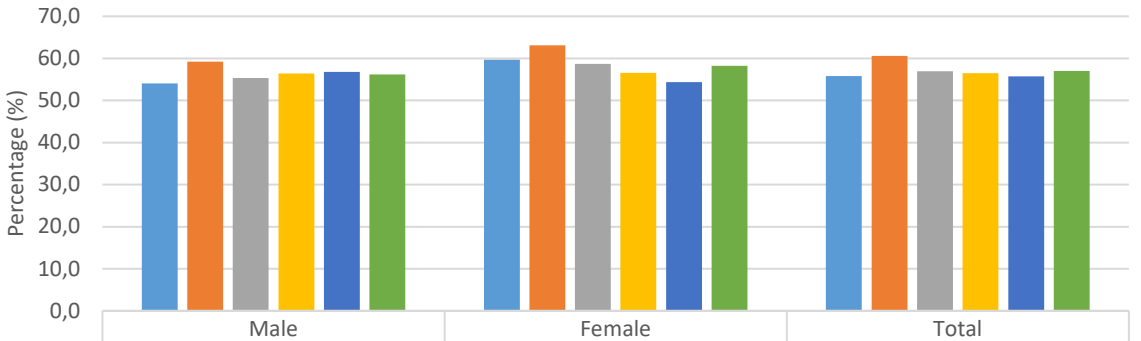


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
0	18,7	6,0	1,6	1,2	15,9
1	17,5	12,4	5,7	4,9	15,8
2	32,3	33,2	27,8	21,9	31,3
3	20,2	38,3	45,7	47,7	24,5
4+	11,3	10,0	19,2	24,3	12,6

Figure 4.36 shows that the largest share of poor households by number of bedrooms and population group was found in white headed households living in three bedroom dwellings with a share of 47,7%. For coloured households the second largest share was found in households living in two bedroom dwellings. For black African households the second largest share was found in households living in three bedroom dwellings at 20,2%. The lowest share of poor households was from those living in zero bedroom dwellings led by whites at 1,2% followed by Indian/Asian households with a share of 1,6%.

4.6.3 Number of bedrooms and sex of household head

Figure 4. 37: Poverty incidence of households by sex of the household head and number of bedrooms

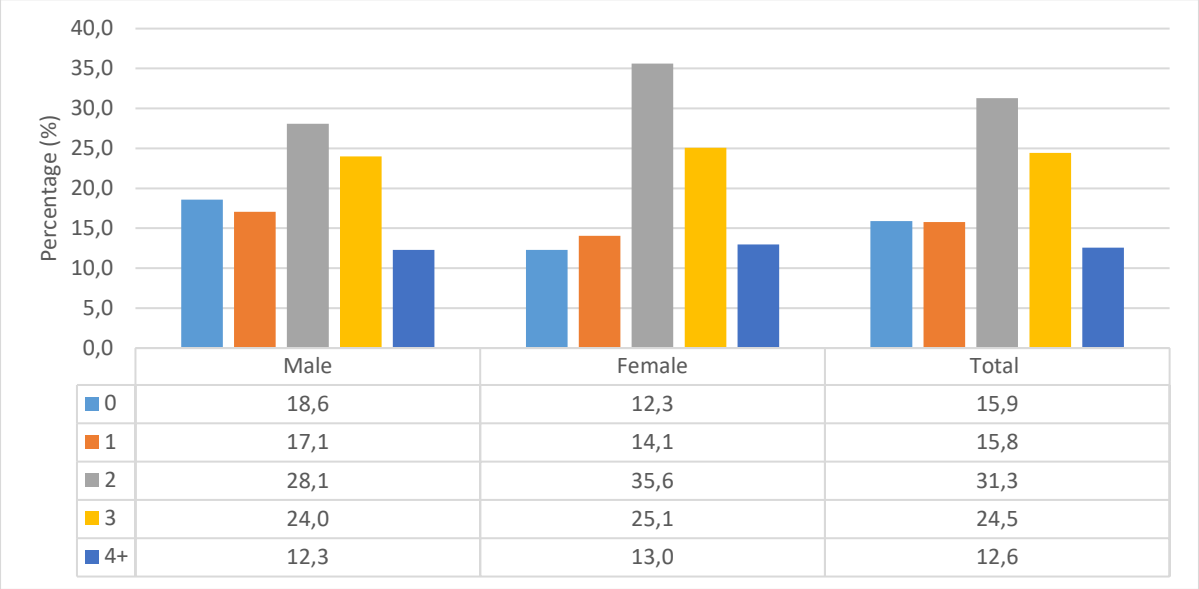


	Male	Female	Total
0	54,1	59,7	55,8
1	59,2	63,1	60,6
2	55,3	58,7	56,9
3	56,4	56,6	56,5
4+	56,8	54,4	55,7
Total	56,2	58,2	57,0

As shown by Figure 4.37, female-headed households have the highest levels of poverty in all the number of rooms in comparison to their male-headed counterparts, except for households residing in four bedroom dwellings. Furthermore, the poverty levels of female-headed households are higher than the national averages which is a pattern that has been previously reported on. The highest level of poverty is found in households living in one bedroom dwellings for both male-headed households (59,2%) as well female-headed households (63,1%) which is consistent with the national estimates.

For male-headed households, the lowest poverty risk is found in households that lives in zero bedroom dwellings at 54,1% while lowest poverty levels for female-headed households are found in households that reside in dwellings with four or more bedrooms at 54,4%.

Figure 4. 38: Percentage distribution of poor households by sex of the household head and number of bedrooms

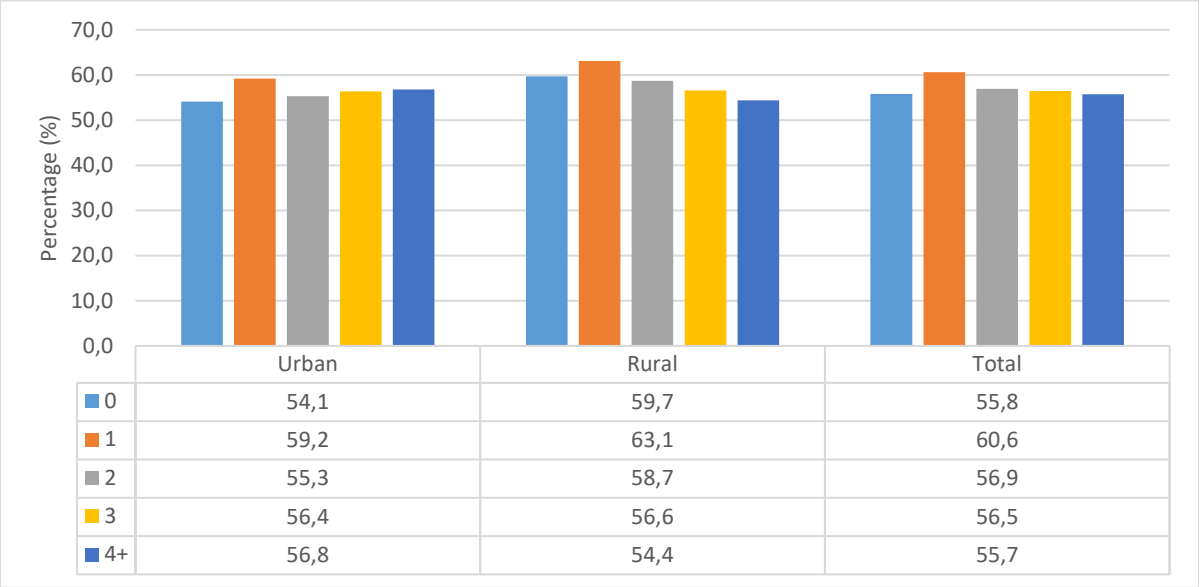


	Male	Female	Total
0	18,6	12,3	15,9
1	17,1	14,1	15,8
2	28,1	35,6	31,3
3	24,0	25,1	24,5
4+	12,3	13,0	12,6

Figure 4.38 shows that as the number of bedrooms increases the share of poor households by female-headed households also becomes more than those of male-headed households. At zero bedroom dwellings, the share of poor male-headed households is more than those of female-headed households at 18,6% and 12,3% respectively. At one bedroom dwellings the shares of poor male-headed households are still higher than those headed by females at 17,1% and 14,1% respectively. At three bedroom dwellings, the share is 24,0% compared to 25,1% for male and female-headed households respectively. In dwellings with four or more rooms, the share of poor households headed by females is 13,0% compared to 12,3% for male-headed households.

4.6.4 Number of bedrooms and settlement type

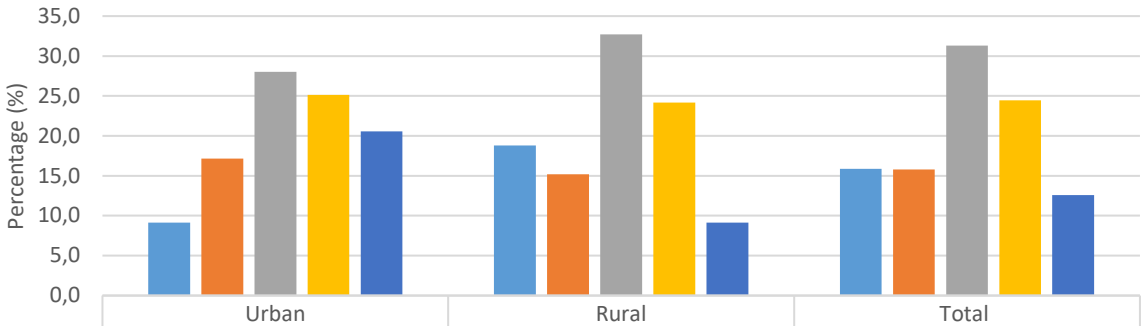
Figure 4. 39: Poverty incidence of households by number of bedrooms and settlement type



	Urban	Rural	Total
0	54,1	59,7	55,8
1	59,2	63,1	60,6
2	55,3	58,7	56,9
3	56,4	56,6	56,5
4+	56,8	54,4	55,7

When evaluating the incidence of poverty by the number of rooms and settlement type, the poverty levels between urban and rural households seem to be similar with a few exceptions as depicted in Figure 4.39. In rural areas, households that reside in dwellings with four or more bedrooms had the lowest incidence of poverty at 54,4% followed by those who live in three bedroom dwellings at 56,6%. For urban households, the lowest poverty levels were found in households that reside in dwellings with zero bedrooms at 54,1% followed by those occupying two bedroom dwellings at 55,3%. Households living in one bedroom dwellings had the highest incidence of poverty for both urban and rural households at 59,2% and 63,1% respectively.

Figure 4. 40: Percentage distribution of poor households by number of bedrooms and settlement type



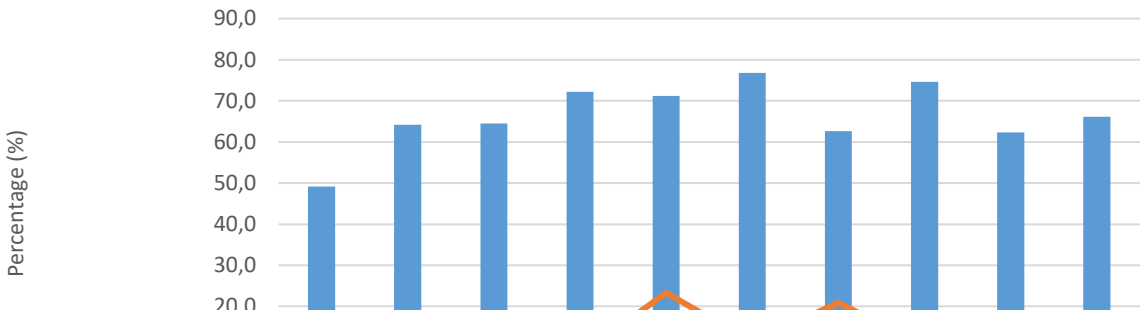
	Urban	Rural	Total
0	9,1	18,8	15,9
1	17,2	15,2	15,8
2	28,0	32,7	31,3
3	25,1	24,2	24,5
4+	20,6	9,1	12,6

Figure 4.40 shows that in both urban and rural areas the largest share of poor households by number of bedrooms are those living in two bedroom dwellings at 28,0% and 32,7% respectively. For urban areas, the second largest share is from households living in three bedroom dwellings at 25,1% compared to rural areas where the second largest share is also from three bedroom dwellings with a share of 24,2%. Households living in houses comprising of four bedrooms and more have the smallest share of the poor in rural areas at 9,1%. However, in urban areas this is completely the opposite in that the smallest share of poor households are found in zero bedroom dwellings at 9,1%.

4.7 Poverty profile by experience of hunger

4.7.1 Experience of hunger and province

Figure 4. 41: Poverty incidence and distribution of poor households by province and experience of hunger



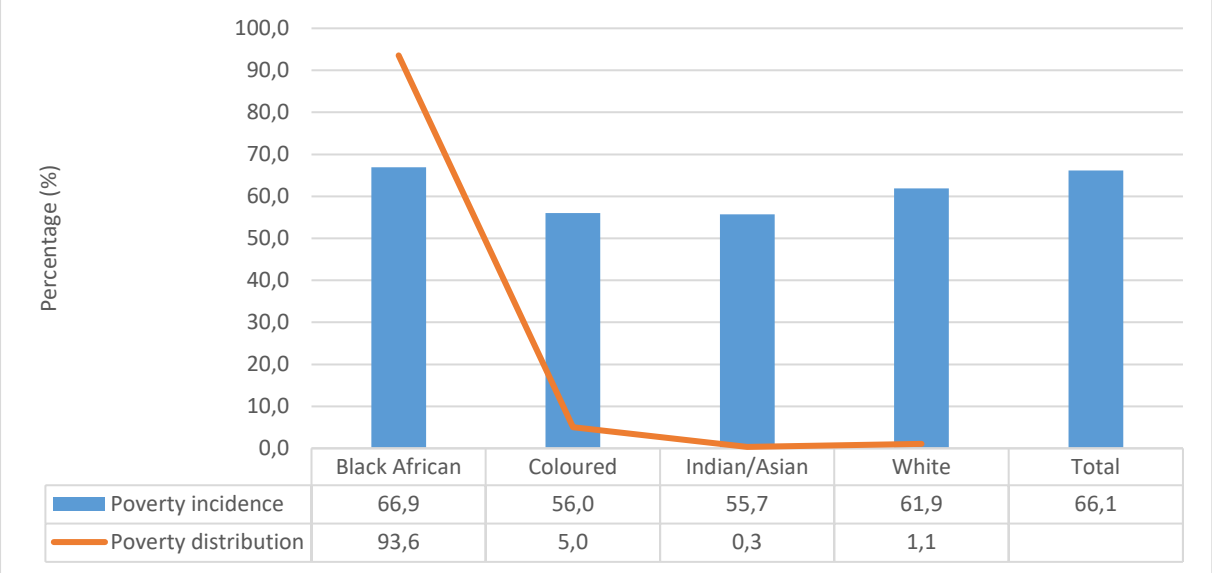
	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Poverty incidence	49,1	64,2	64,5	72,2	71,2	76,8	62,6	74,6	62,3	66,1
Poverty distribution	9,5	9,6	2,9	8,1	23,3	11,3	20,9	10,4	4,0	

The incidence of poverty by province for households who have experienced hunger is depicted in Figure 4.41. At a national level, the poverty levels of those households who experienced hunger was 66,1% which was similar to what was experienced in provinces such as Eastern Cape (64,2%), Northern Cape (64,5%), Gauteng (62,6%) and Limpopo (62,3%). North West had the highest risk of poverty at 76,8% followed by Mpumalanga at 74,6% with Free State having the third highest incidence of poverty at 72,2%. Western Cape had the lowest incidence of poverty at 49,1% and is the only province that has a poverty level below 50%.

Figure 4.41 further illustrates that the largest share of poor households who experienced hunger were from Kwazulu-Natal at 23,3% followed by Gauteng and North West at 20,9% and 11,3% respectively. Northern Cape had the lowest share of poor households who experienced hunger at 2,9% followed by Limpopo (4,0%) and Free State (8,1%).

4.7.2 Experience of hunger and population group

Figure 4. 42: Poverty incidence and distribution of poor households by population group and experience of hunger



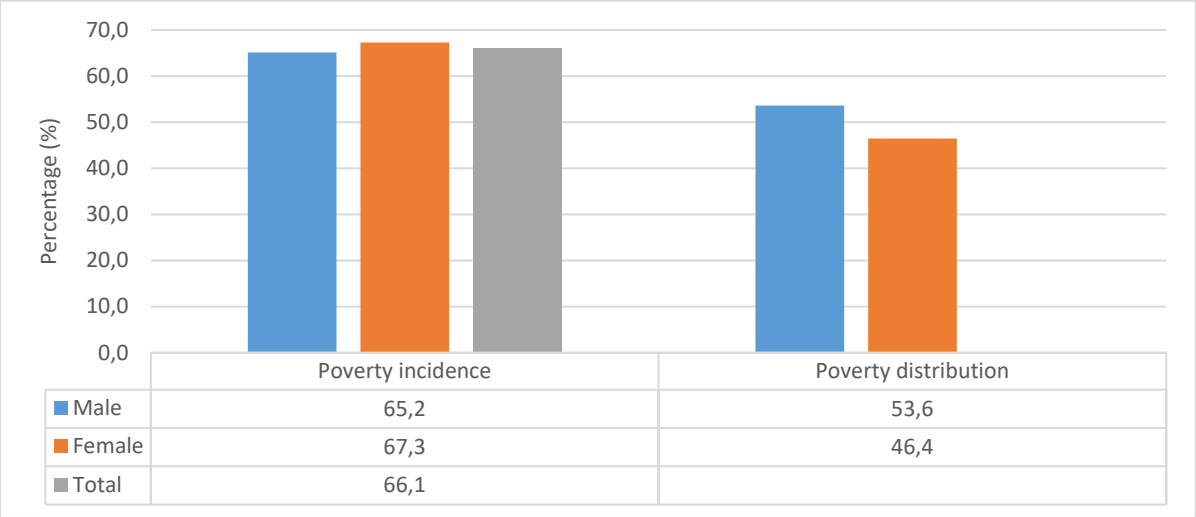
	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Poverty incidence	66,9	56,0	55,7	61,9	66,1
Poverty distribution	93,6	5,0	0,3	1,1	

The evaluation of the incidence and distribution of poverty by population group and those who experience hunger is depicted in figure 4.42. The highest poverty levels were from black African households at 66,9% followed by white households at 61,9%. The lowest incidence of poverty was from Indian/Asian households (55,8%) followed by coloured households (56,0%) which in addition to White households are also lower than the national average of 66,1%.

Figure 4.42 also shows that the largest share of poor households with hunger experience was found in black African households having the largest share of 93,6%. The second largest share of poor households were from coloured households at 5,0% and the lowest share of poor households at 0,3% were from Indian/Asian households. The second lowest share of poor households were from White headed households at 1,1%.

4.7.3 Experience of hunger and sex of household head

Figure 4. 43: Poverty incidence and distribution of poor households by sex of household head and experience of hunger



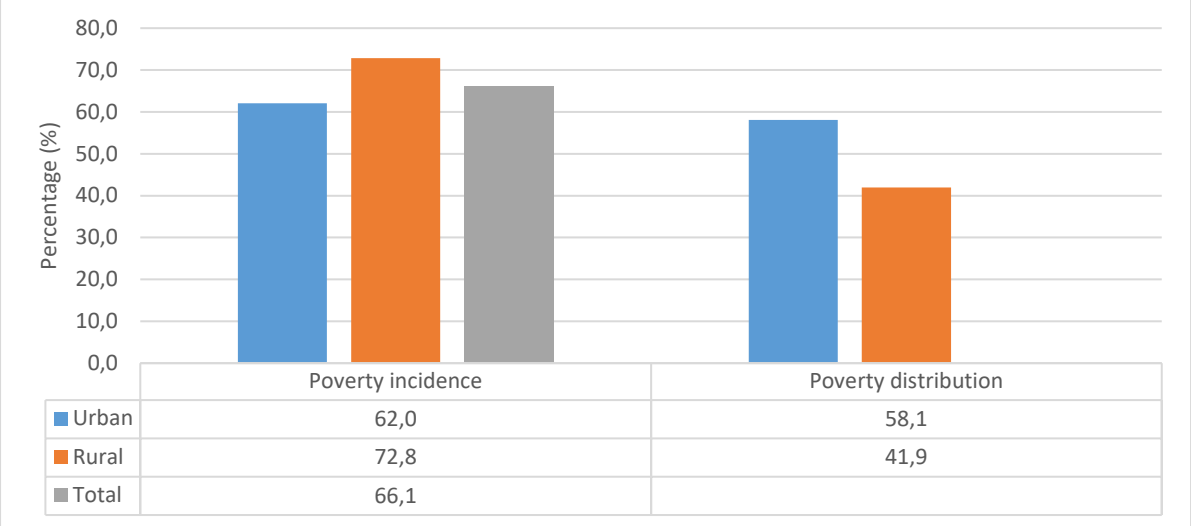
	Poverty incidence	Poverty distribution
Male	65,2	53,6
Female	67,3	46,4
Total	66,1	

Figure 4.43 illustrates that evaluating poverty levels in terms of households who have experienced hunger by sex of the household head, female-headed households have higher poverty levels than their male counterparts. Male-headed households that experienced hunger had poverty levels of 65,2% while female-headed households who experienced hunger had a risk of poverty of 67,3%. In addition, the poverty levels for female-headed households were higher than the national average (66,1%) while that of their male counterparts are lower.

Figure 4.43 also illustrates that male-headed households that have experienced hunger have the largest share of poor household at 53,6% compared to female-headed households at 46,4%. This is painting an opposite picture compared to what was observed in terms of poverty incidence.

4.7.4 Experience of hunger and settlement type

Figure 4. 44: Poverty incidence and distribution of poor households by settlement type and experience of hunger



	Poverty incidence	Poverty distribution
Urban	62,0	58,1
Rural	72,8	41,9
Total	66,1	

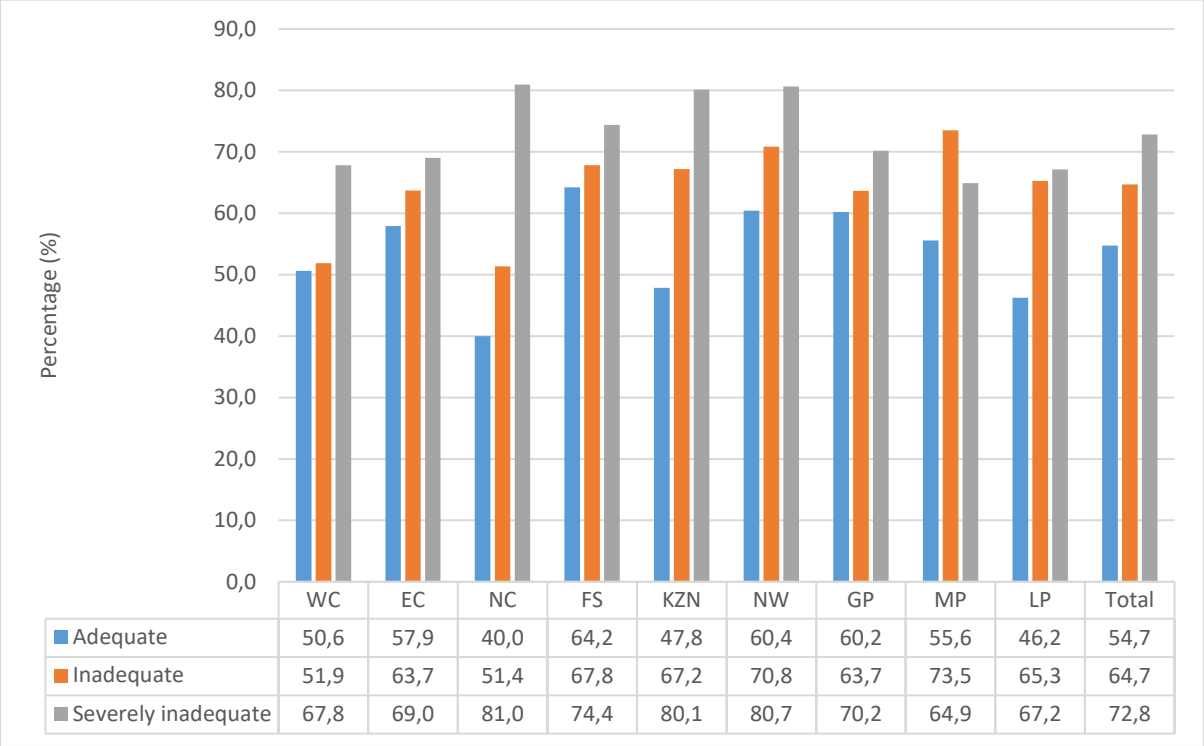
Figure 4.44 depicts the evaluation of poor households who experienced hunger by settlement type which states that the poverty levels of rural households who experienced hunger are at 72,8% compared to their urban counterparts at 62,0%. The incidence of poverty for rural households is also higher than the national average (66,1%) while the poverty level of those households based in urban areas is lower.

According to the figure above, households in urban areas who have experienced hunger have the largest share of poor households at 58,1% compared to households in rural areas at 41,9%. Again, this is painting an opposite picture compared to what was observed in terms of poverty incidence.

4.8 Poverty profile by level of adequacy

4.8.1 Level of food adequacy and province

Figure 4. 45: Poverty incidence of households by province and level of food adequacy

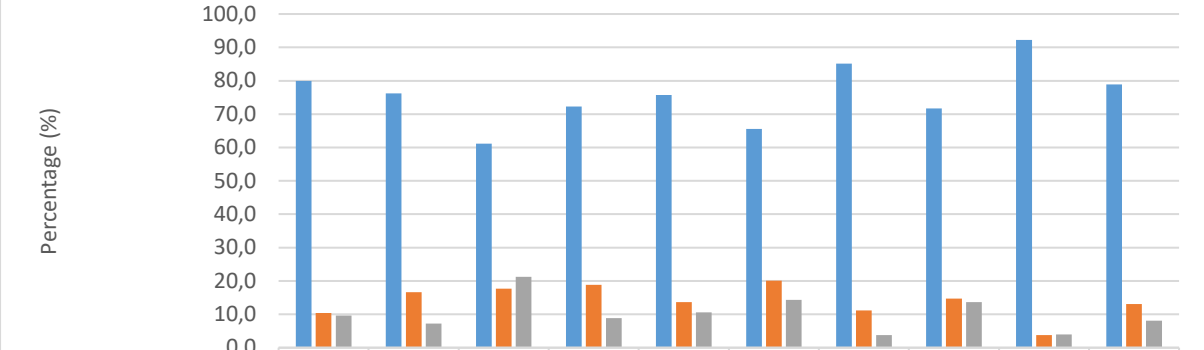


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Adequate	50,6	57,9	40,0	64,2	47,8	60,4	60,2	55,6	46,2	54,7
Inadequate	51,9	63,7	51,4	67,8	67,2	70,8	63,7	73,5	65,3	64,7
Severely inadequate	67,8	69,0	81,0	74,4	80,1	80,7	70,2	64,9	67,2	72,8

Figure 4.45 indicates that at a national level the households who specified that their level of food adequacy was severely inadequate had a higher incidence of poverty relative to the other levels of food adequacy. The incidence of poverty for households identified as severely food inadequate was 72,8% followed by those who specified that their level of food was inadequate at 64,7%; while those who indicated that their food levels was adequate were found to be at 54,7%.

When poverty levels are assessed by province and level of food adequacy, it shows that higher poverty levels were experienced in provinces that indicated that their level of food was severely inadequate compared to the other levels of food adequacy, except for Mpumalanga. As far as severely inadequate food levels are concerned, Northern Cape (81,0%), North West (80,7%) and KwaZulu-Natal (80,1%) were the three provinces who had the highest incidence of poverty. The three provinces with the highest poverty levels for households that were food inadequate were Mpumalanga (73,5%), North West (70,8%) and Free State (67,8%). The highest incidence of poverty for households who are food adequate was observed in Free State (64,2%), North West (60,4%) and Gauteng (60,2%).

Figure 4. 46: Percentage distribution of poor households by province and level of food adequacy

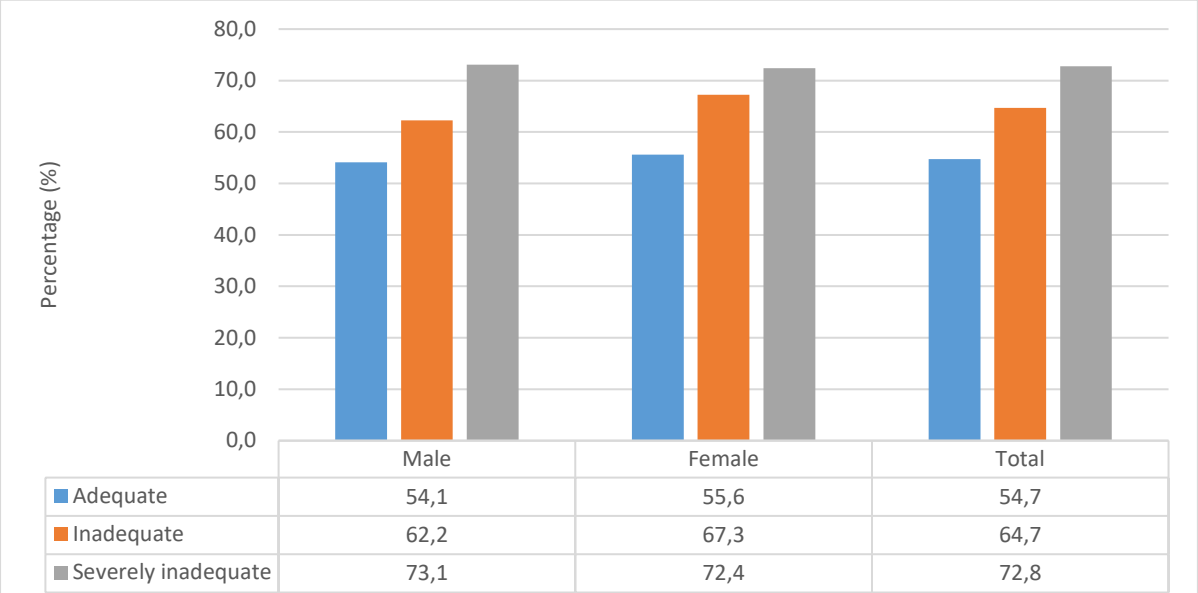


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Adequate	80,0	76,2	61,1	72,3	75,8	65,5	85,1	71,7	92,3	78,9
Inadequate	10,4	16,6	17,7	18,8	13,7	20,1	11,1	14,7	3,8	13,1
Severely inadequate	9,6	7,2	21,2	8,8	10,5	14,4	3,7	13,7	3,9	8,1

At a national level, the smallest share of poor households by level of food adequacy came from households with severely inadequate levels of food at 8,1%, followed by households with inadequate levels of food at 13,1% with the largest share of poor households coming from households with adequate levels of food at 78,9%. When we evaluate the level of adequacy by province, Limpopo (92,3%) had the largest share for households who are food adequate. Households who are food inadequate had the largest share of the poor in North West (20,1%) while those who have severely inadequate food levels had the largest share in the Northern Cape (21,2%).

4.8.2 Level of food adequacy and sex of the household head

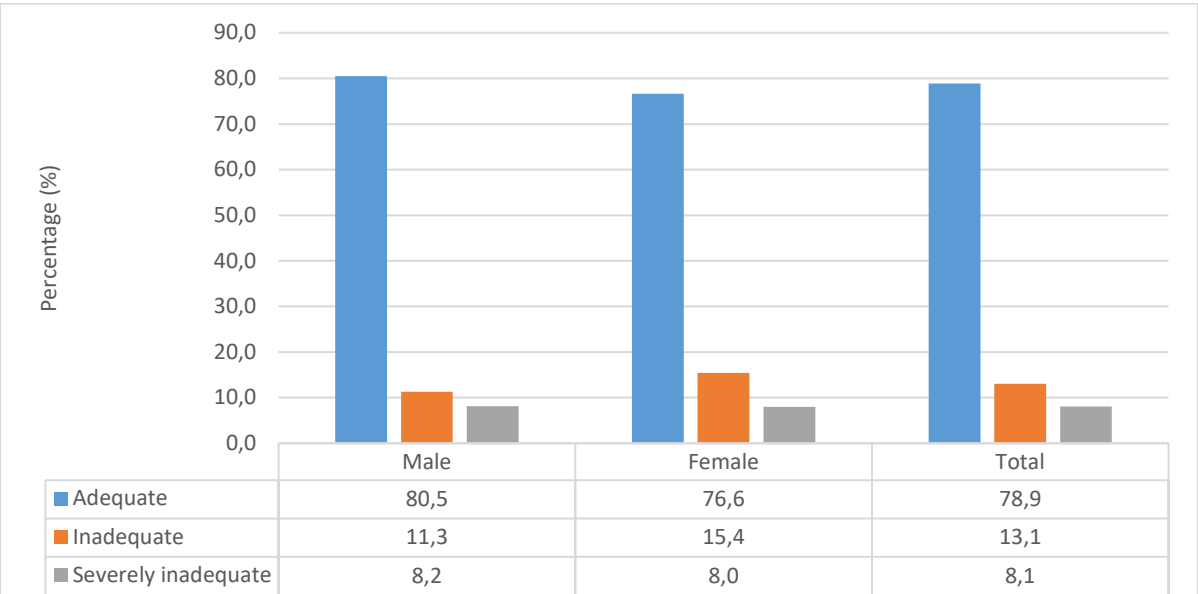
Figure 4. 47: Poverty incidence of households by sex of the household head and level of food adequacy



	Male	Female	Total
Adequate	54,1	55,6	54,7
Inadequate	62,2	67,3	64,7
Severely inadequate	73,1	72,4	72,8

Figure 4.47 illustrates that when poverty levels are assessed by the level of food adequacy and sex of the household head, male-headed households have a higher risk of poverty for severely food inadequate households (73,1%) compared to their female counterparts. However, female-headed households have higher poverty levels than their male counterparts in food inadequate households at 67,3% and food adequate households at 55,6%.

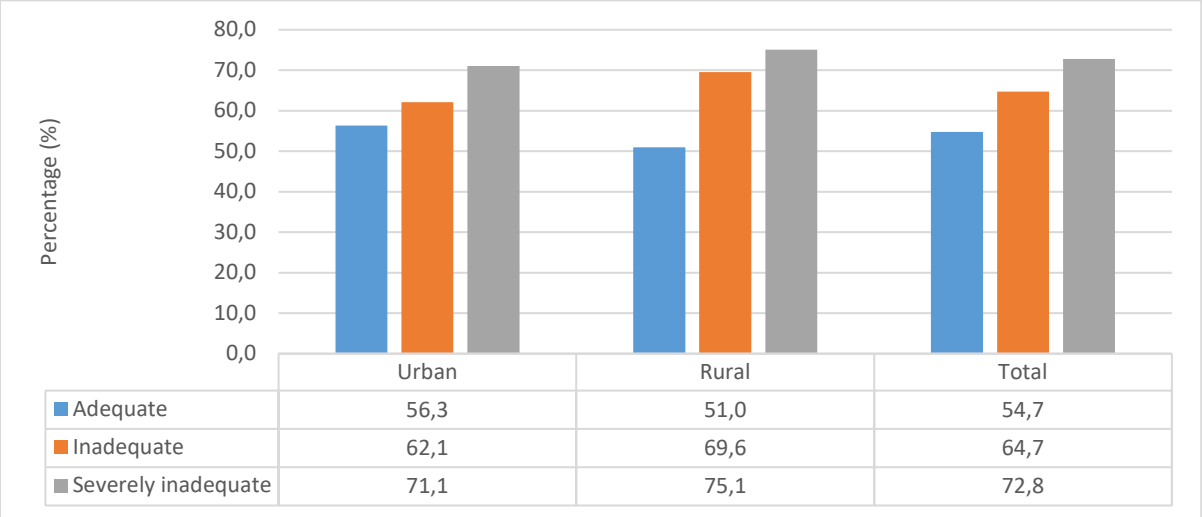
Figure 4. 48: Percentage distribution of poor households by sex of the household head and level of food adequacy



	Male	Female	Total
Adequate	80,5	76,6	78,9
Inadequate	11,3	15,4	13,1
Severely inadequate	8,2	8,0	8,1

Figure 4.48 depicts that the largest share of poor households by level of food adequacy and sex of the household head was driven by households with adequate food where male-headed households had the largest share of 80,5% compared to 76,6% for female-headed households. The share for female-headed households was below the national estimate (78,9%) indicating an under-representation of poor female-headed households relative to the total share of poor households. On the other hand, the share for male-headed households was above the national average indicating an over-representation. Households with inadequate food across both sexes had the second largest share of poor households with female-headed households contributing 15,4% compared to their male counterparts with a contribution of 11,3%. Households with severely inadequate food had similar shares with male and female-headed households contributing 8,2% and 8,0% respectively.

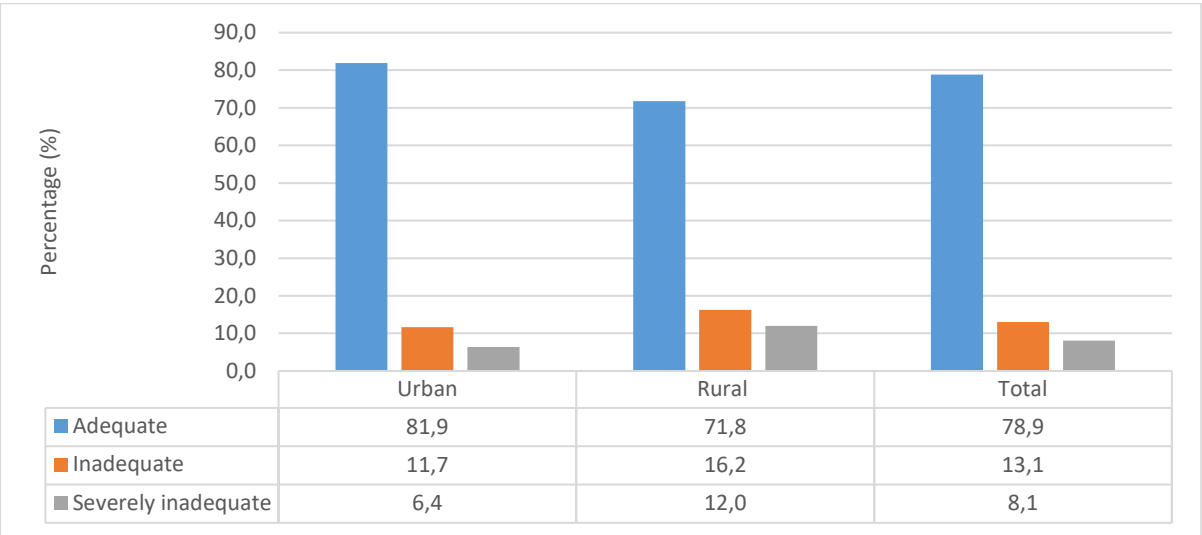
Figure 4. 49: Poverty incidence of households by settlement type and level of food adequacy



	Urban	Rural	Total
Adequate	56,3	51,0	54,7
Inadequate	62,1	69,6	64,7
Severely inadequate	71,1	75,1	72,8

Figure 4.49 shows that when poverty levels are evaluated by settlement type and level of food adequacy, households in rural areas have a higher risk of poverty on all the levels of food adequacy compared to urban households with the exception of food adequate households. Households in rural areas that are considered to be severely food inadequate had the highest incidence of poverty at 75,1% followed by those that are food inadequate at 69,6% while food adequate households have poverty levels of 51,0%. Those households residing in urban areas had similar patterns as their rural counterparts when evaluating the different levels of food adequacy.

Figure 4. 50: Percentage distribution of poor households by settlement type and level of food adequacy



	Urban	Rural	Total
Adequate	81,9	71,8	78,9
Inadequate	11,7	16,2	13,1
Severely inadequate	6,4	12,0	8,1

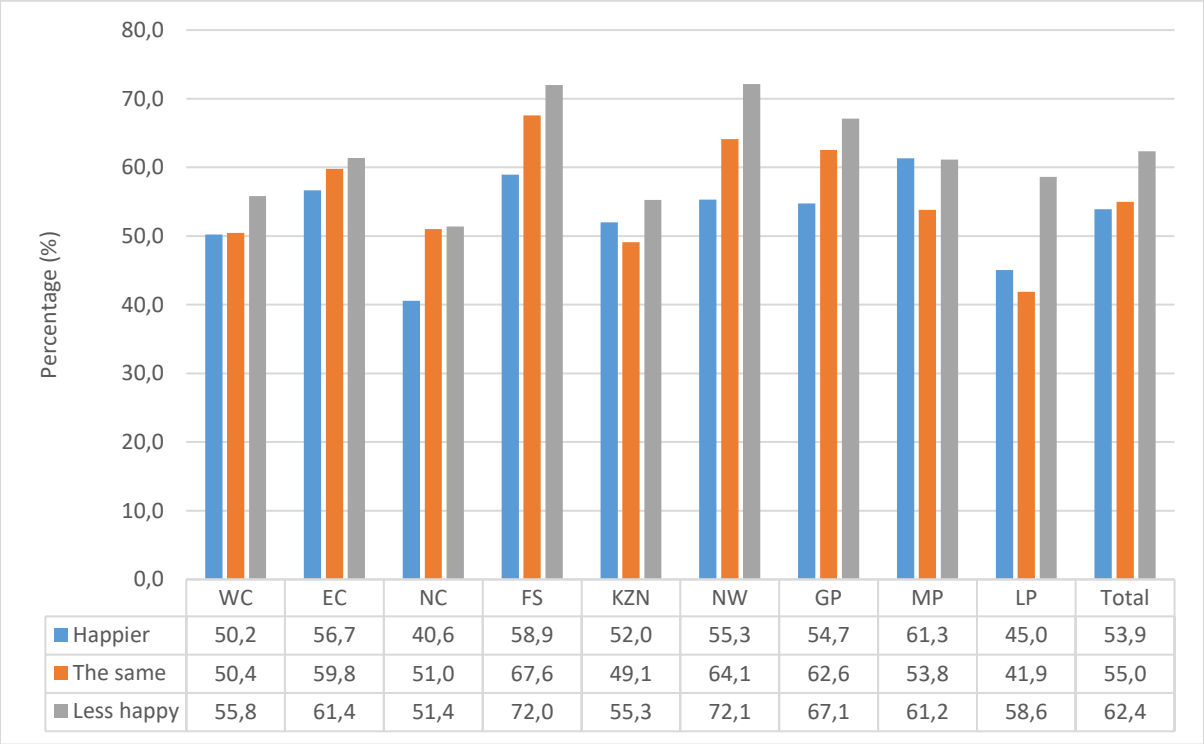
Figure 4.50 indicates that the largest share of poor households by level of adequacy and settlement type was driven by households with adequate food where urban households had the largest share of 81,9% compared to 71,8% for rural

households. The share of urban areas was above the national average of 78,9% which indicates an over-representation of poor urban households relative to the total share of poor households. On the other hand, the share of rural households was below the national estimate resulting in an under-representation of poor rural households. For both urban and rural settlements; households with inadequate food levels accounted for the second largest share of poor households with urban areas contributing 11,7% while households based in rural areas contributed 16,2%. Households with severely inadequate food contributed a share of 6,4% and 12,0% in urban and rural settlements respectively.

4.9 Poverty profile by happiness status

4.9.1 Happiness status and province

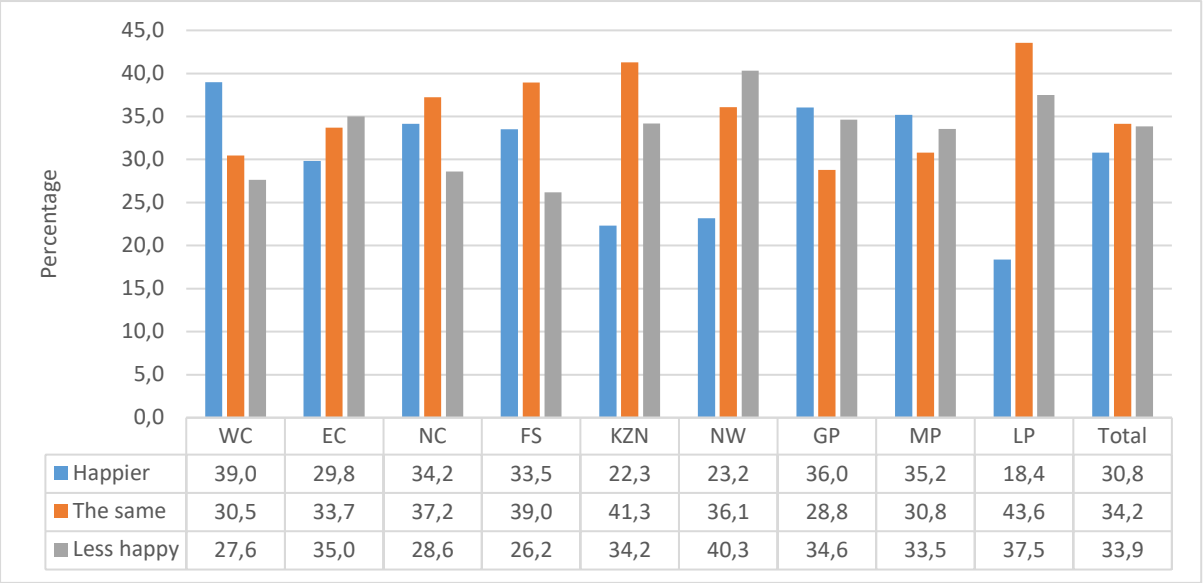
Figure 4. 51: Poverty incidence of households by province and happiness status



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Happier	50,2	56,7	40,6	58,9	52,0	55,3	54,7	61,3	45,0	53,9
The same	50,4	59,8	51,0	67,6	49,1	64,1	62,6	53,8	41,9	55,0
Less happy	55,8	61,4	51,4	72,0	55,3	72,1	67,1	61,2	58,6	62,4

The subjective poverty status of households can be influenced by the happiness status experienced by households as depicted by Figure 4.51. Households that are less happy today than they were 10 years ago were found to have a higher incidence of poverty compared to households with other happiness situations. Free State and North West had the highest incidence of poverty on all the happiness statuses compared to the other provinces. The highest incidence of poverty for households that were less happy than they were 10 years ago were found to be in North West (72,1%) while the lowest incidence of poverty for this happiness category was Northern Cape (51,4%). For those households that were happier than they were 10 years ago, the highest incidence of poverty occurred in Mpumalanga (61,3%) while the lowest risk of poverty was found in Northern Cape (40,6%).

Figure 4. 52: Percentage distribution of poor households by province and happiness status

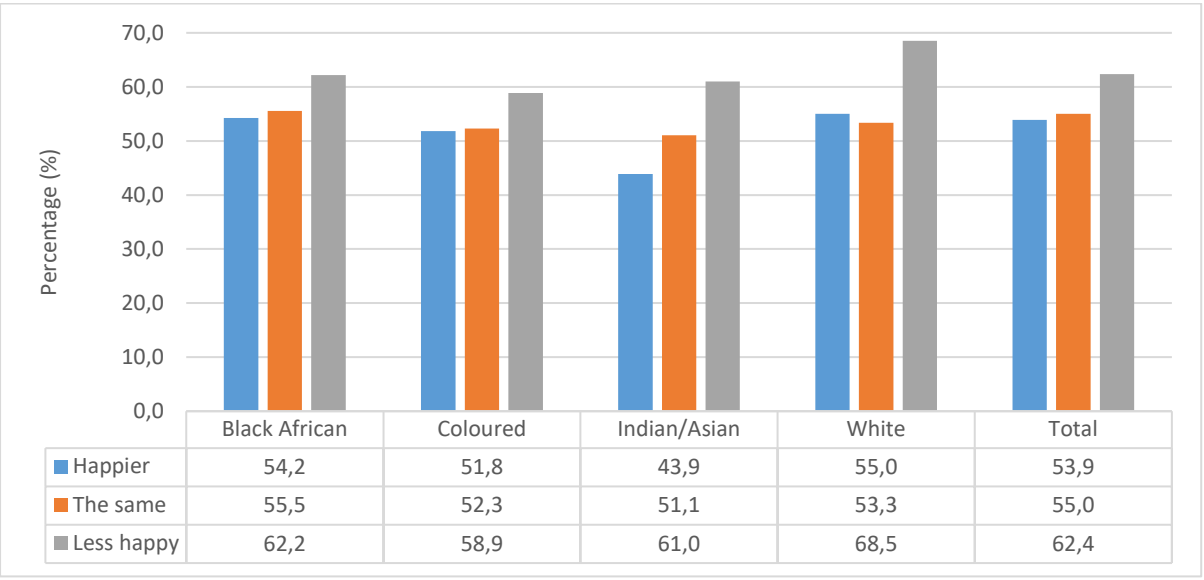


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Happier	39,0	29,8	34,2	33,5	22,3	23,2	36,0	35,2	18,4	30,8
The same	30,5	33,7	37,2	39,0	41,3	36,1	28,8	30,8	43,6	34,2
Less happy	27,6	35,0	28,6	26,2	34,2	40,3	34,6	33,5	37,5	33,9

Figure 4.52 shows that the largest share of poor households by happiness status was driven by households whose happiness status has not changed (34,2%) over the last 10 years followed by less happy households (33,9%). Happier households (30,8%) contributed the smallest share of poor households. Western Cape (39,0%) has the largest share for happier households followed by Limpopo (43,6%) having the largest share for households with the same status; with North West (40,3%) having the largest share for less happy households.

4.9.2 Happiness status and population group

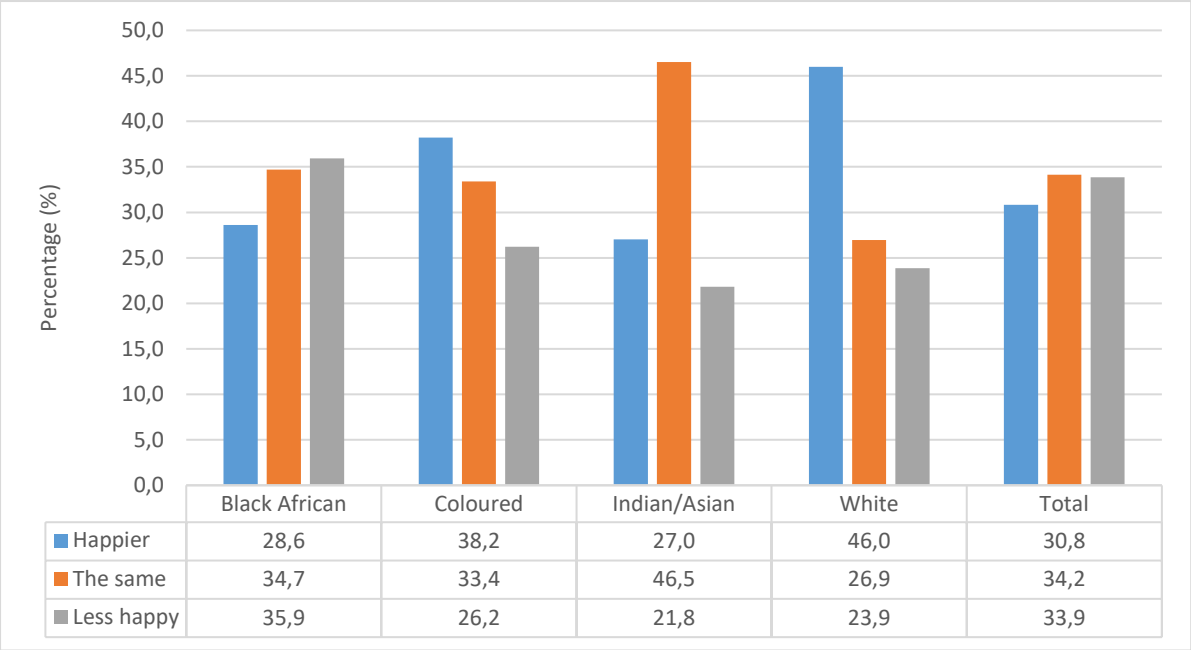
Figure 4. 53: Poverty incidence of households by population group and happiness status



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Happier	54,2	51,8	43,9	55,0	53,9
The same	55,5	52,3	51,1	53,3	55,0
Less happy	62,2	58,9	61,0	68,5	62,4

When evaluating the incidence of poverty by happiness status and population group, as indicated by Figure 4.53, white headed households have the highest incidence of poverty by all the happiness categories compared to other population groups with the exception of those in “The same” happiness category for black African headed households. White headed households that were less happy had the highest incidence of poverty at 68,5% followed by black Africans (62,2%), Indian/Asian (61,0%) and coloured households at 58,9%. The poverty levels for those that were happier were lower than the other happiness categories except for white headed households having the highest incidence again at 55,0%.

Figure 4. 54: Percentage distribution of poor households by population group and happiness status

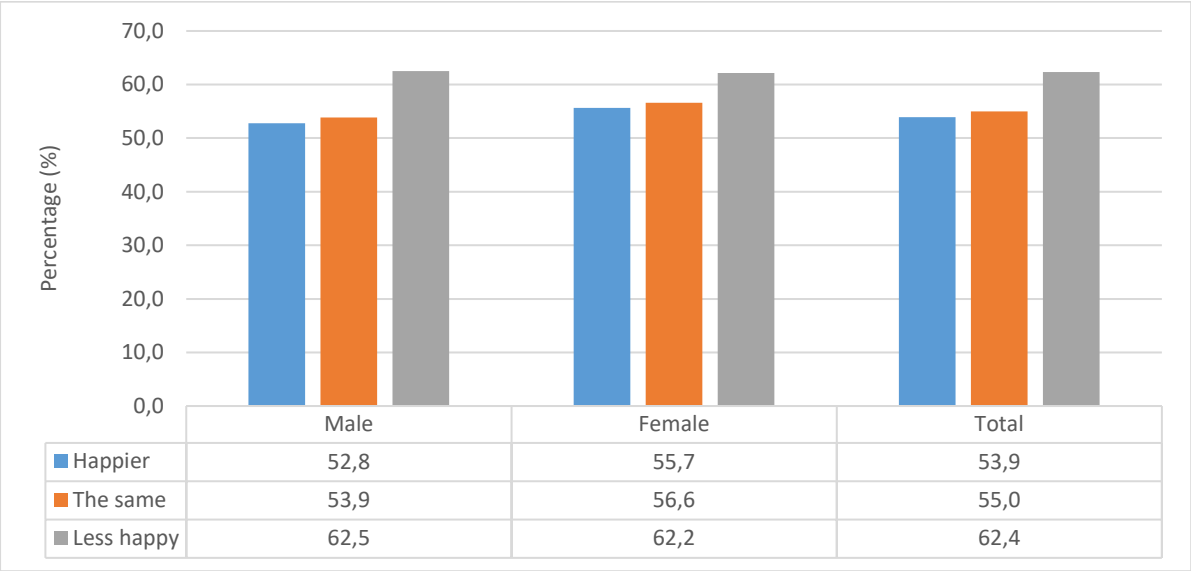


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Happier	28,6	38,2	27,0	46,0	30,8
The same	34,7	33,4	46,5	26,9	34,2
Less happy	35,9	26,2	21,8	23,9	33,9

Figure 4.54 illustrates the share of poor households by happiness status and population group with black African households having the largest share for less happy households at 35,9% which indicates an over-representation of poor black African headed households relative to the total share of poor households because the share is higher than the national average (33,9%). Indian/Asian headed households are having the largest share for households with the same status at 46,5% which implies an over-representation of poor Indian/Asian headed households with the same status of happiness relative to the total share of poor households. The largest share for the happier households belonged to white headed households at 46,0%.

4.9.3 Happiness status and sex of the household head

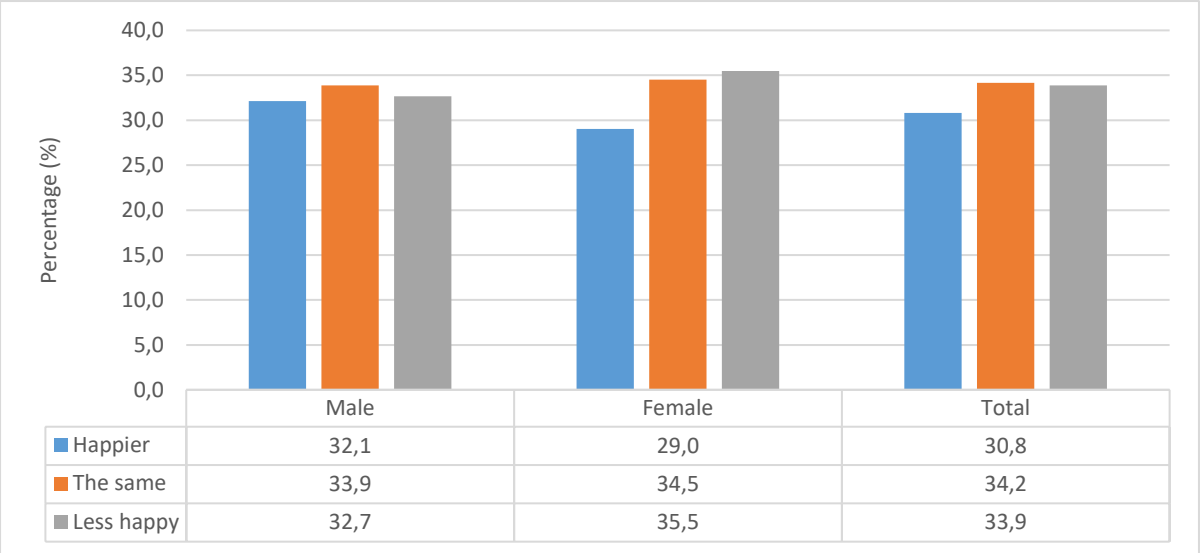
Figure 4. 55: Poverty incidence of households by sex of the household head and level of happiness



	Male	Female	Total
Happier	52,8	55,7	53,9
The same	53,9	56,6	55,0
Less happy	62,5	62,2	62,4

As shown by Figure 4.55, female-headed households have a higher incidence of poverty than their male counterparts, except for the less happy male-headed households. Less happy male-headed households had the highest poverty levels at 62,5% compared to those of female-headed households of 62,2%. Happier households have the lowest poverty levels relative to other happiness statuses with female-headed households having a poverty incidence of 55,7% compared to 52,8% for male-headed households.

Figure 4. 56: Percentage distribution of poor households by sex of the household head and happiness status

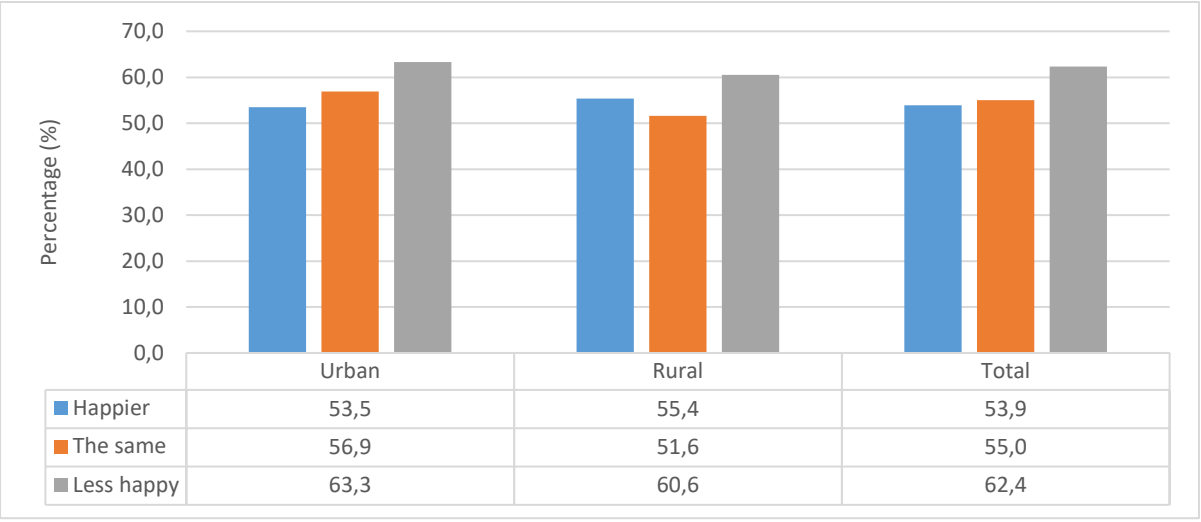


	Male	Female	Total
Happier	32,1	29,0	30,8
The same	33,9	34,5	34,2
Less happy	32,7	35,5	33,9

Figure 4.56 depicts the share of poor households by happiness status and sex of the household head with female-headed households having the largest share of poor households except in the happier status category. Male-headed households have the largest share of poor households with happier status at 32,1% compared to 29,0% for their female counterparts. Female-headed households have a larger share of poor households that are less happy at 35,5% compared to the male counterparts at 32,7%.

4.9.4 Happiness status and settlement type

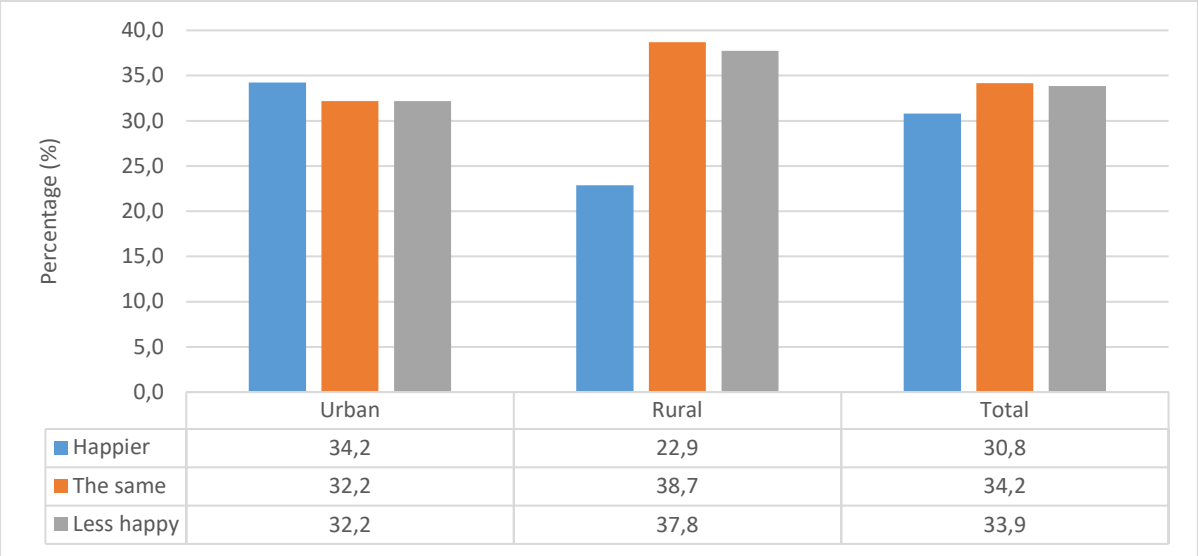
Figure 4. 57: Poverty incidence of households by settlement type and happiness status



	Urban	Rural	Total
Happier	53,5	55,4	53,9
The same	56,9	51,6	55,0
Less happy	63,3	60,6	62,4

Figure 4.57 indicates that when the incidences of poverty is evaluated by happiness statuses urban households have higher poverty levels on all but one of the happiness statuses compared to rural households. Less happy households have higher incidence of poverty with 63,3% and 60,6% for urban and rural households respectively. Urban households with the same happiness status as 10 years prior had an incidence of poverty of 56,9% compared to their rural counterparts at 51,6%. The happier households have the lowest incidence of poverty at 53,5% and 55,4% for urban and rural households respectively.

Figure 4. 58: Percentage distribution of poor households by settlement type and happiness status



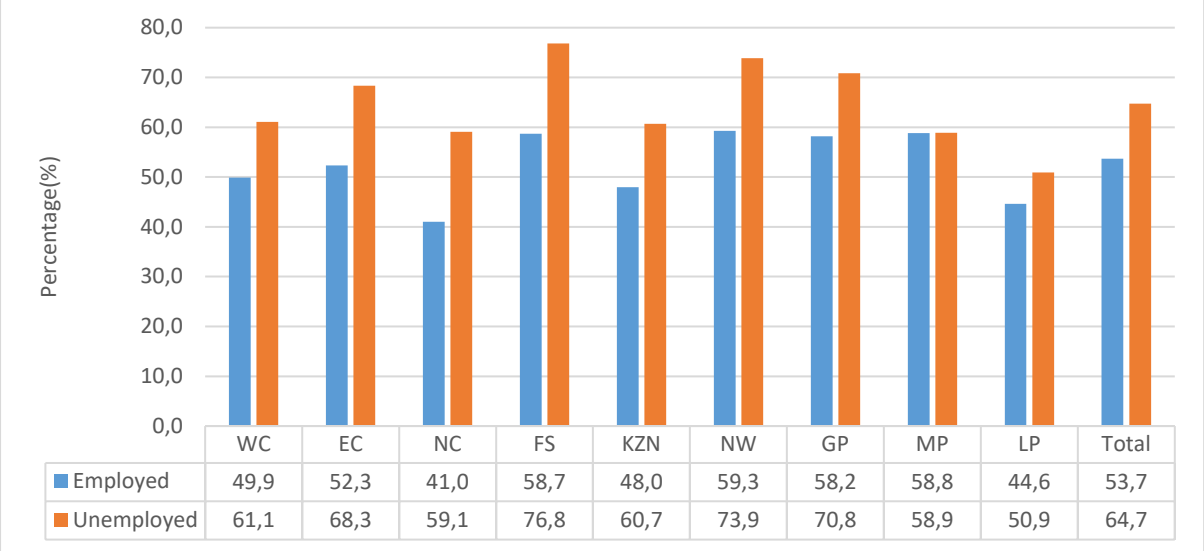
	Urban	Rural	Total
Happier	34,2	22,9	30,8
The same	32,2	38,7	34,2
Less happy	32,2	37,8	33,9

Figure 4.58 shows that rural areas have the largest share of poor households for households with the same happiness status at 38,7% compared to urban areas with a share of poor households of 32,2%. The same pattern can be observed for less happy households where the share of poor households in rural areas is37,8% compared to 32,2% for urban areas.

4.10 Poverty profile by household employment status

4.10.1 Household employment status and province

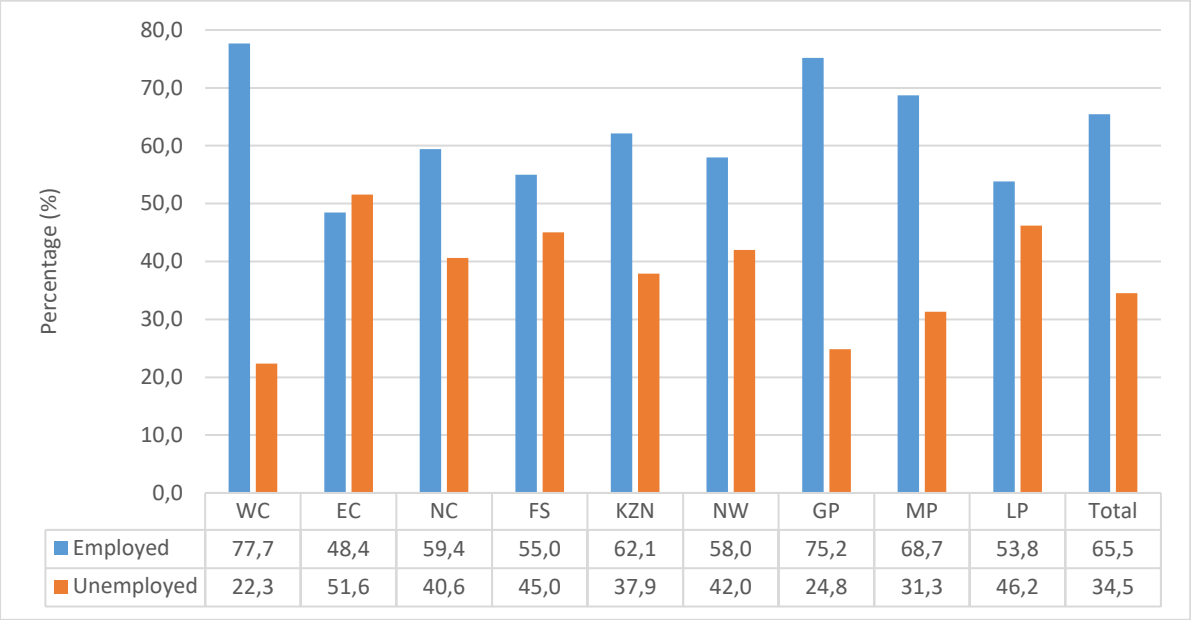
Figure 4. 59: Poverty incidence of households by province and households' employment status (with at least one member employed)



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Employed	49,9	52,3	41,0	58,7	48,0	59,3	58,2	58,8	44,6	53,7
Unemployed	61,1	68,3	59,1	76,8	60,7	73,9	70,8	58,9	50,9	64,7

Figure 4.59 depicts the incidence of poverty by province and the employment status of households where at least one person is employed or where no household member is employed. The incidence of poverty by employment status at a national level shows that households in which at least one household member is employed have lower poverty levels at 53,7% compared to households in which no one is employed with poverty levels at 64,7%. When employment status as well as province is used to evaluate the incidence of poverty, all the provinces show that households in which no one is employed have higher incidence of poverty than their employed counterparts. Thus, the poverty status of a household is influenced by employment status. Households with unemployed status in Free State had the highest incidence of poverty of 76,8%, followed by North West with incidence of 73,9% and Gauteng with an incidence of 70,8%. Households with employed status in North West had the highest incidence of poverty of 59,3% followed by Mpumalanga with an incidence of 58,8% while the Northern Cape and Western Cape had the lowest incidence of poverty at 41,0% and 49,9% respectively.

Figure 4. 60: Percentage distribution of poor households by province and household employment status (with at least one member employed)

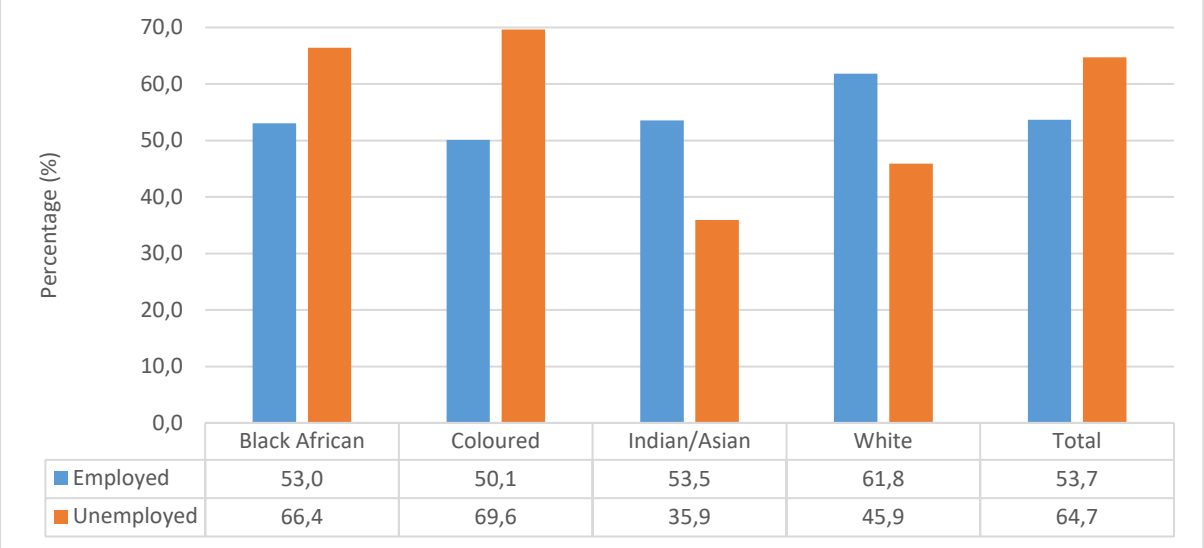


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Employed	77,7	48,4	59,4	55,0	62,1	58,0	75,2	68,7	53,8	65,5
Unemployed	22,3	51,6	40,6	45,0	37,9	42,0	24,8	31,3	46,2	34,5

Households with at least one person employed had the largest share of poor households at 65,5% compared with those in which no one is employed with a share of 34,5%. Western Cape (77,7%) had the largest share of poor households with at least one person employed followed by Gauteng (75,2%) and Mpumalanga (68,7%). For households with unemployed status, Eastern Cape (51,6%) had the largest share of poor households followed by Limpopo (46,2%) and Free State (45,0%).

4.10.2 Household employment status and population group

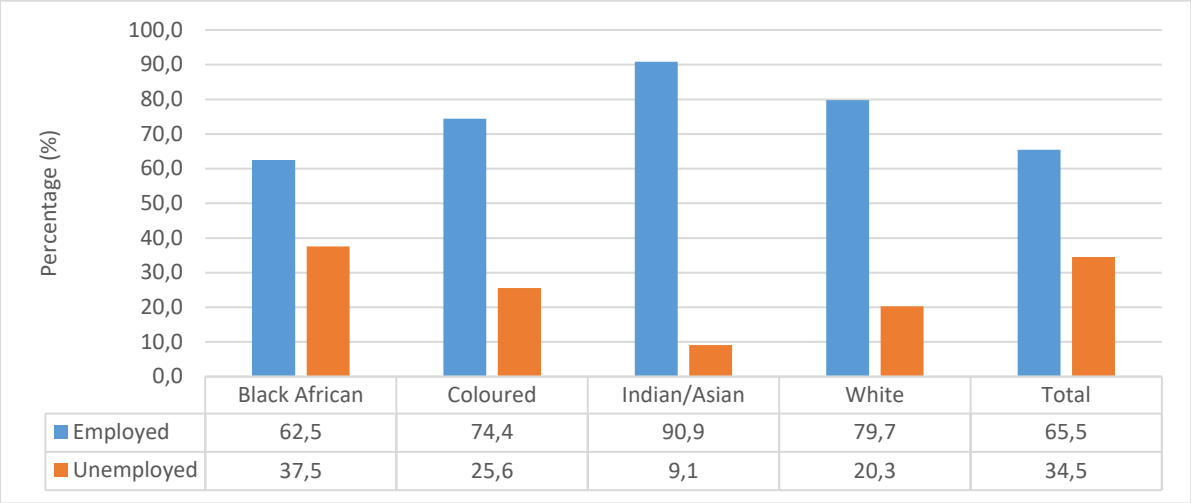
Figure 4. 61: Poverty incidence of households by population group and households' employment status (with at least one member employed)



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Employed	53,0	50,1	53,5	61,8	53,7
Unemployed	66,4	69,6	35,9	45,9	64,7

Figure 4.61 indicates that coloured headed households have higher incidence of poverty for households with unemployed status while white headed households have higher incidence for households with employed status. For households with employed status, the incidence for white headed households is 61,8% followed by Indian/Asian households at 53,5% and black African households at 53,0%. For households with unemployed status, the incidence for coloured households is 69,6% followed by black African households at 66,4% and white headed households at 45,9%.

Figure 4. 62: Percentage distribution of poor households by population group and household employment status (with at least one member employed)

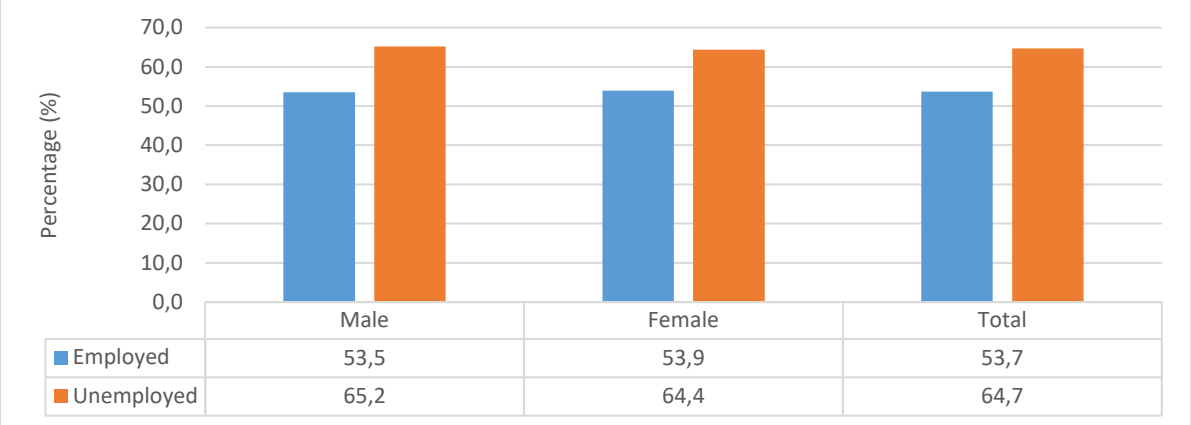


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Employed	62,5	74,4	90,9	79,7	65,5
Unemployed	37,5	25,6	9,1	20,3	34,5

According to Figure 4.62 the largest share of poor households across all the population groups was driven by households with employed status. Indian/Asian households had the largest share at 90,9% followed by white headed households (79,7%) and coloured headed households (74,4%). For households with unemployed status, black African households had the largest share at 37,5% followed by coloured headed households (25,6%) and white headed households (20,3%).

4.10.3 Household employment status and sex of the household head

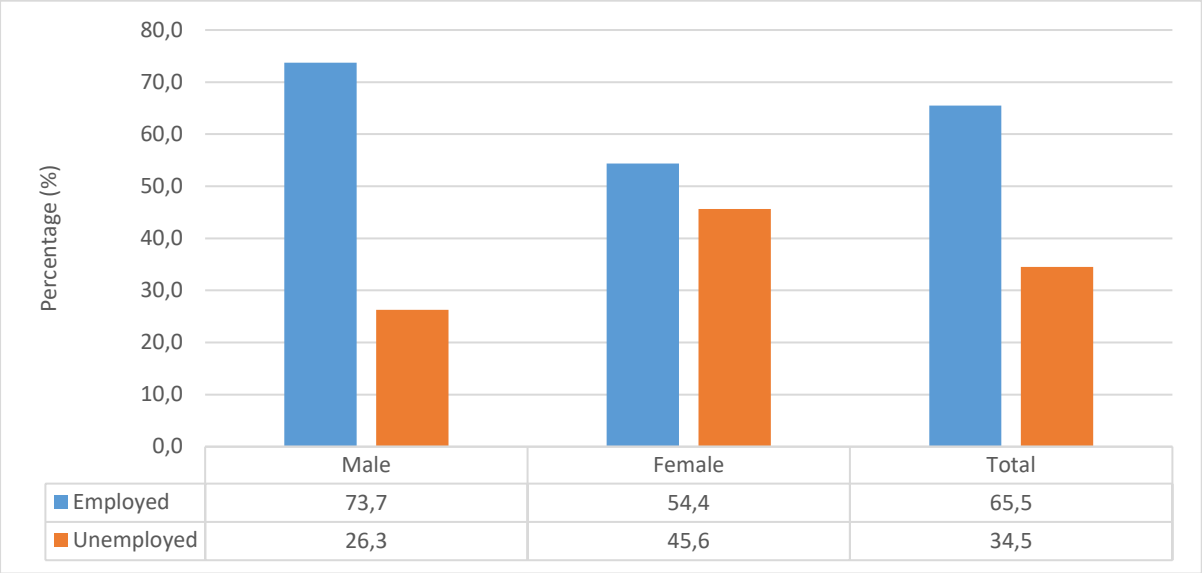
Figure 4. 63: Poverty incidence of households by sex of the household head and households' employment status (with at least one member employed)



	Male	Female	Total
Employed	53,5	53,9	53,7
Unemployed	65,2	64,4	64,7

The incidence of poverty by employment status and sex of the household head is illustrated in Figure 4.63. For households with unemployed status, male-headed households have a higher incidence of poverty of 65,2% compared to their female counterparts of 64,4%. For this employment category, the poverty levels of male-headed households are also higher than the national average (64,7%). On the other hand, in households with employed status, female-headed households (53,9%) have a higher poverty incidence relative to male-headed households (53,5%).

Figure 4. 64: Percentage distribution of poor households by sex of the household head and household employment status (with at least one person employed)



As depicted in Figure 4.64, male-headed households had the largest share of poor households for households with employed status at 73,7% compared to their female counterparts at 54,4%. Because this share for male-headed households is higher than the national average (65,5%) this indicates an over-representation of poor male-headed households relative to the total share of poor households. Female-headed households with unemployed status had the largest share of poor households at 45,6% with their male counterparts at 26,3%.

4.10.4 Household employment status and settlement type

Figure 4. 65: Poverty incidence of households by settlement type and households' employment status (with at least one person employed)

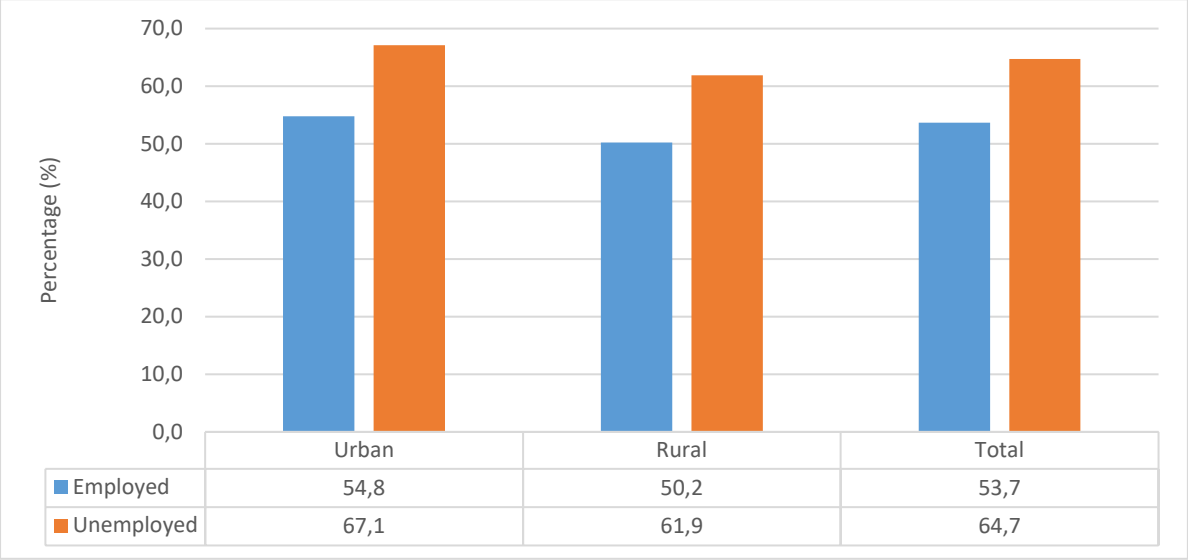
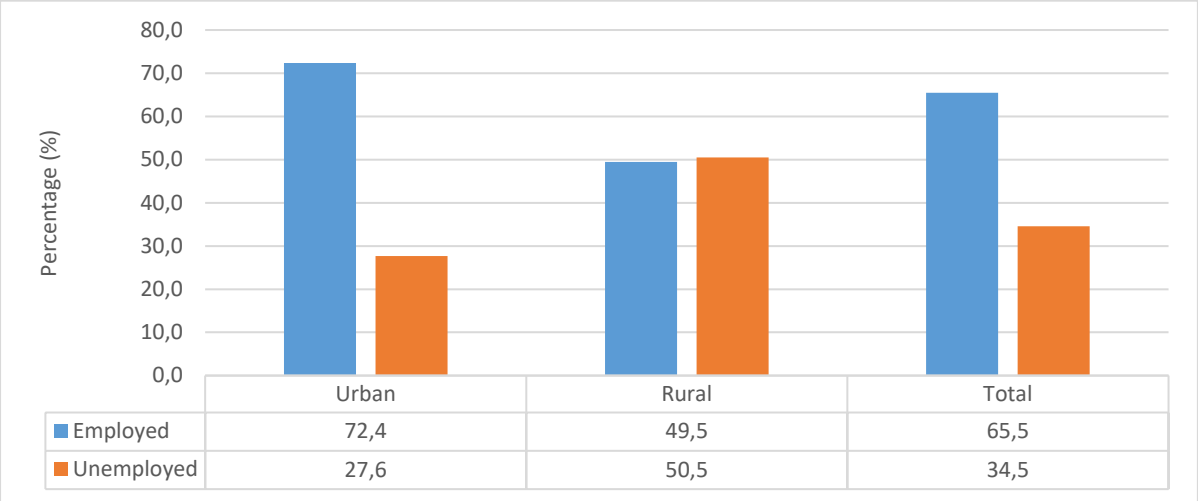


Figure 4.65 shows that households in urban areas have higher incidence of poverty based on employment status. Households in urban areas with unemployed status have higher poverty levels of 67,1% compared to rural households (61,9%). Once again, for urban households with employed status, the incidence of poverty is 54,8% compared to 50,2% for households in rural areas. Nationally, households with unemployed status had the largest share of poor households at 64,7% compared to households with employed status at 53,7%.

Figure 4. 66: Percentage distribution of poor households by settlement type and household employment status (with at least one person employed)



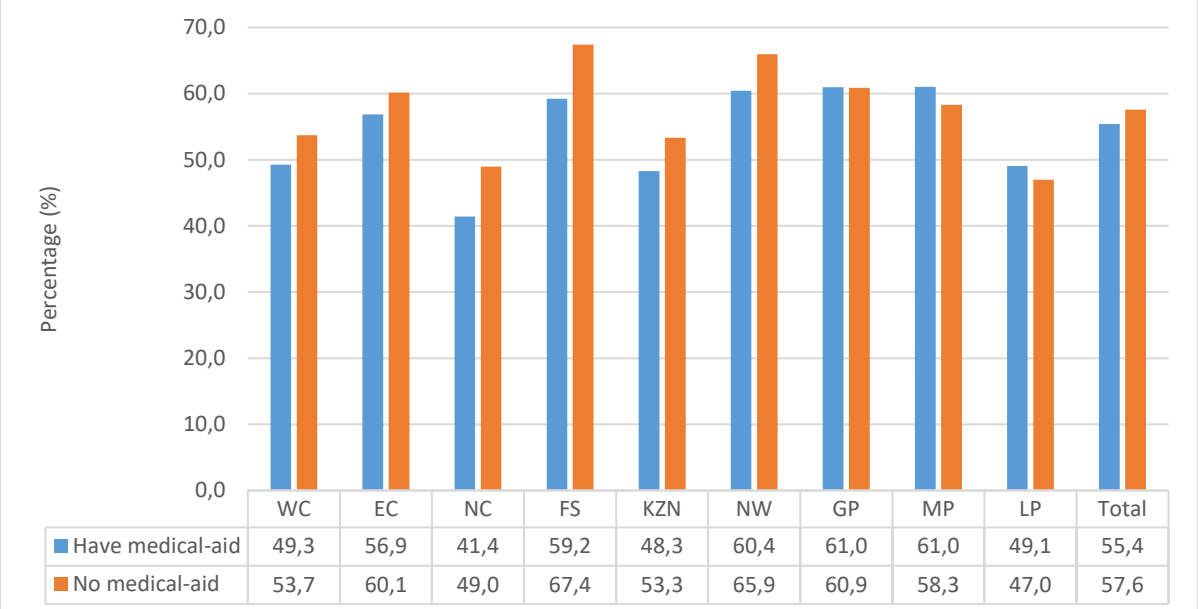
	Urban	Rural	Total
Employed	72,4	49,5	65,5
Unemployed	27,6	50,5	34,5

Figure 4.66 illustrates that urban areas have the largest share of poor households with employed status at 72,4% which is also higher than the national average (65,5%) compared with rural areas with a share of 49,5%. For households with unemployed status, households in rural areas had the largest share of poor households of 50,5% which is also above the national average. This indicates an over-representation of poor rural households relative to the total share of poor households.

4.11 Poverty profile by medical-aid status

4.11.1 Households medical-aid status and province

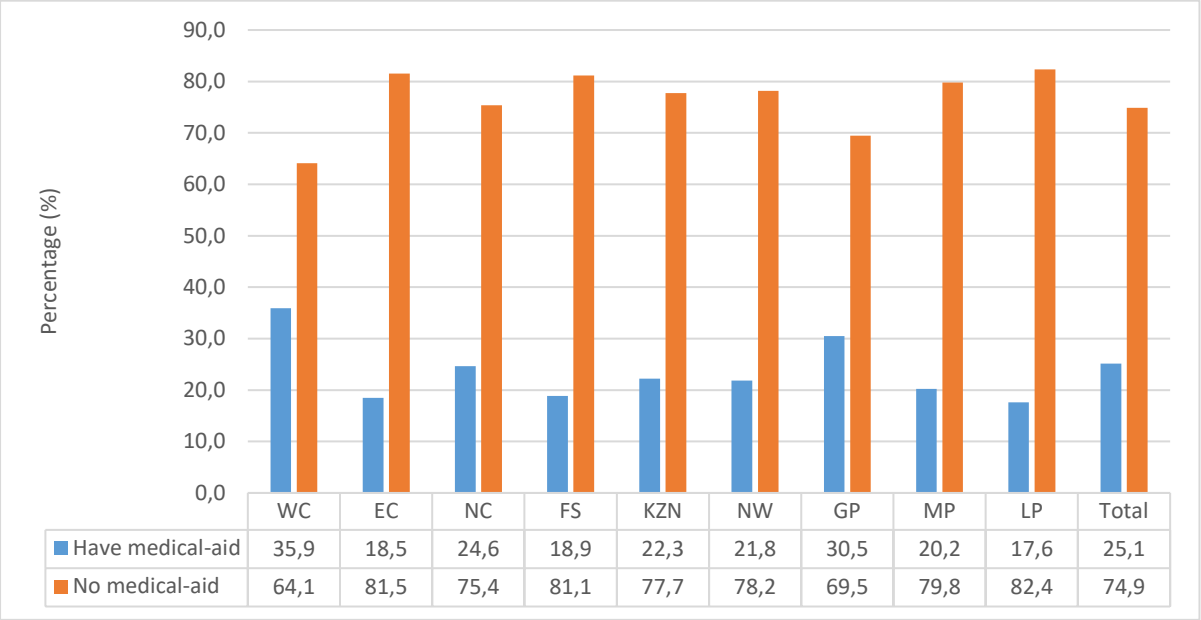
Figure 4. 67: Poverty incidence of households by medical-aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and province



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Have medical-aid	49,3	56,9	41,4	59,2	48,3	60,4	61,0	61,0	49,1	55,4
No medical-aid	53,7	60,1	49,0	67,4	53,3	65,9	60,9	58,3	47,0	57,6

According to Figure 4.67, the incidence of poverty by medical-aid status at a national level can show that households with at least one household member having a medical-aid have lower poverty levels at 55,4% compared to those with no household member having a medical-aid at 57,6%. When focusing on the provinces, the incidence of poverty by medical-aid status indicates that Free State has higher poverty levels for households with members without a medical-aid at 67,4%. North West has the second highest poverty levels for households with members without a medical-aid at 65,9% with Gauteng having third highest incidence at 60,9%. For those households with at least one member with a medical-aid, Gauteng and Mpumalanga both have the highest incidence at 61,0% followed by North West at 60,4%.

Figure 4. 68: Percentage distribution of poor households by province and households medical-aid status (with at least one member with a medical-aid)

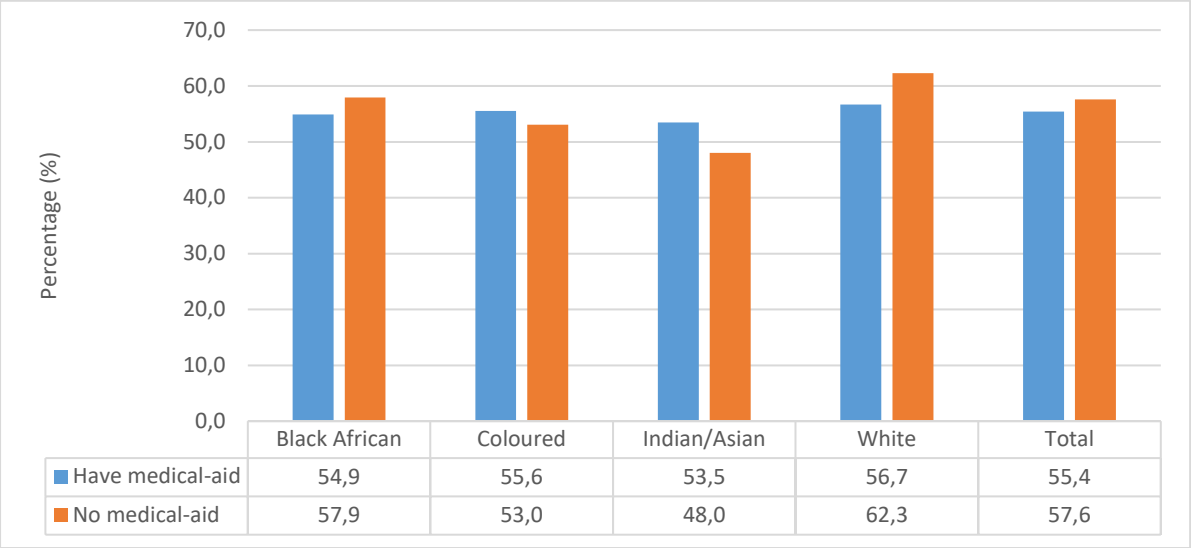


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Have medical-aid	35,9	18,5	24,6	18,9	22,3	21,8	30,5	20,2	17,6	25,1
No medical-aid	64,1	81,5	75,4	81,1	77,7	78,2	69,5	79,8	82,4	74,9

Figure 4.68 states that generally the largest share of poor households by medical-aid status are driven by those with no member within the household with access to a medical-aid with a share of 74,9% while households with medical-aid status had a share of 25,1%. When considering the provinces, the national pattern persists where households with no medical-aid status dominate the share of poor households. Limpopo has the largest share of poor households with no medical-aid at 82,4%, followed by Eastern Cape and Free State at 81,5% and 81,1% respectively.

4.11.2 Households medical-aid status and population group

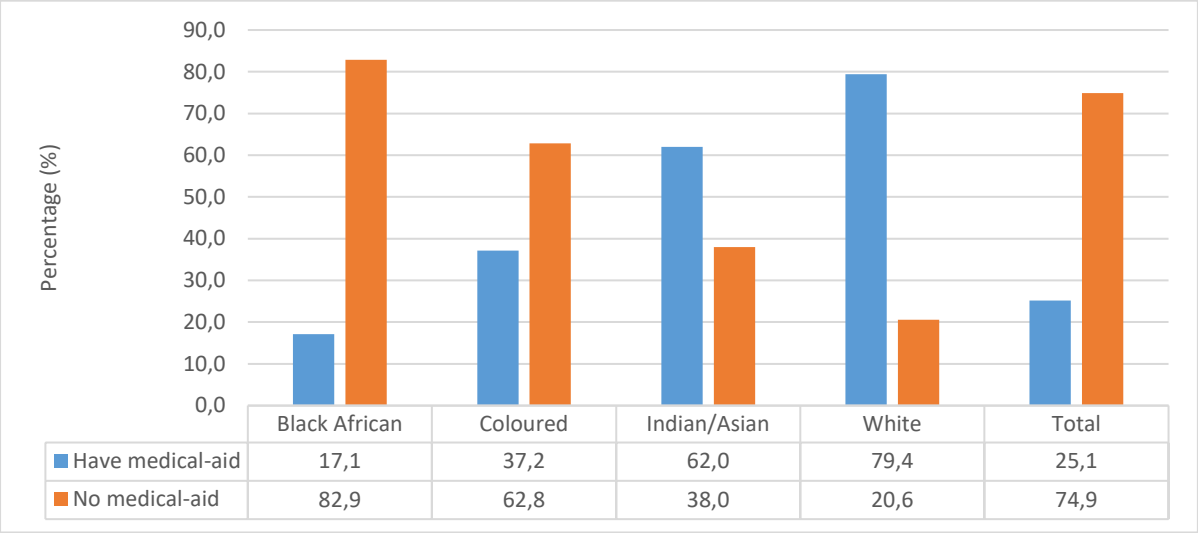
Figure 4. 69: Poverty incidence of households by medical-aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and population group



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Have medical-aid	54,9	55,6	53,5	56,7	55,4
No medical-aid	57,9	53,0	48,0	62,3	57,6

Figure 4.69 shows that at national level that the incidence of poverty is highest for those household who do not have medical-aid status (57,6%) compared to those who have medical-aid status (55,4%). White headed households have the highest incidence of poverty across all population groups at 56,7% for households who have medical-aid followed by coloured households at 55,6% and black African households at 54,9%. For households with no medical-aid, Indian/Asian households have the lowest incidence of poverty by medical-aid status of 48,0% followed by coloured and black African households at 53,0% and 57,9% respectively.

Figure 4. 70: Percentage distribution of poor households by population group and households medical-aid status (with at least one person with a medical-aid)

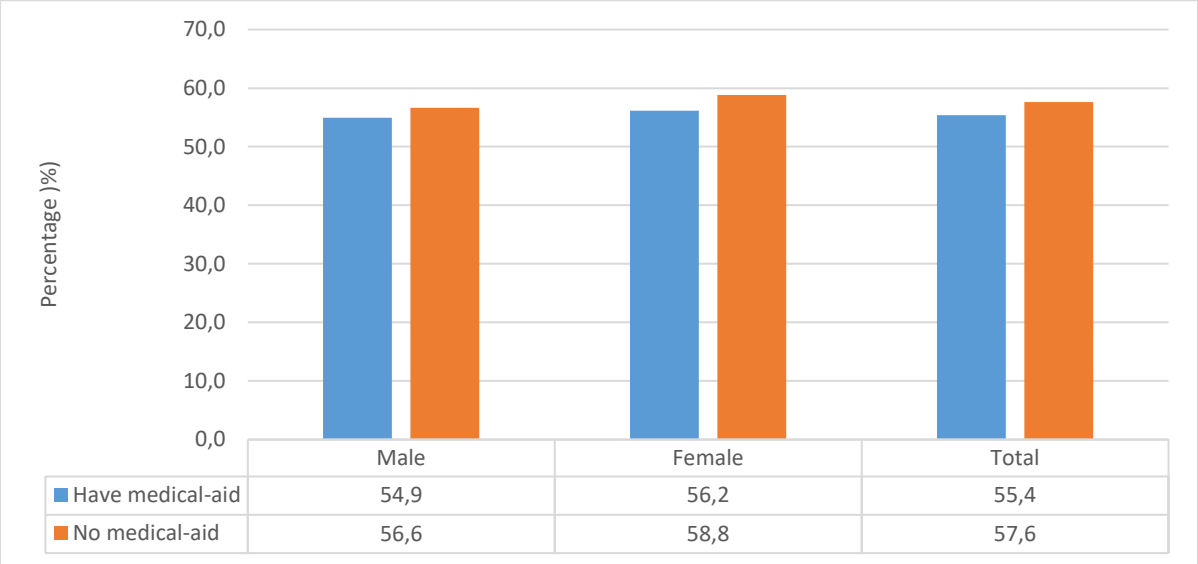


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Have medical-aid	17,1	37,2	62,0	79,4	25,1
No medical-aid	82,9	62,8	38,0	20,6	74,9

Figure 4.70 illustrates that black African and coloured households have the largest share of poor households with no medical-aid status at 82,9% and 62,8% respectively. White households have the smallest share of poor households with no medical-aid at 20,6% followed by Indian/Asian households at 38,0%. For poor households who have medical-aid, black African households have the lowest share at 17,1%, followed by coloured households at 37,2%. Indian/Asian and white households have the highest share of poor households with medical-aid at 62,0% and 79,4% respectively.

4.11.3 Households medical-aid status and sex of the household head

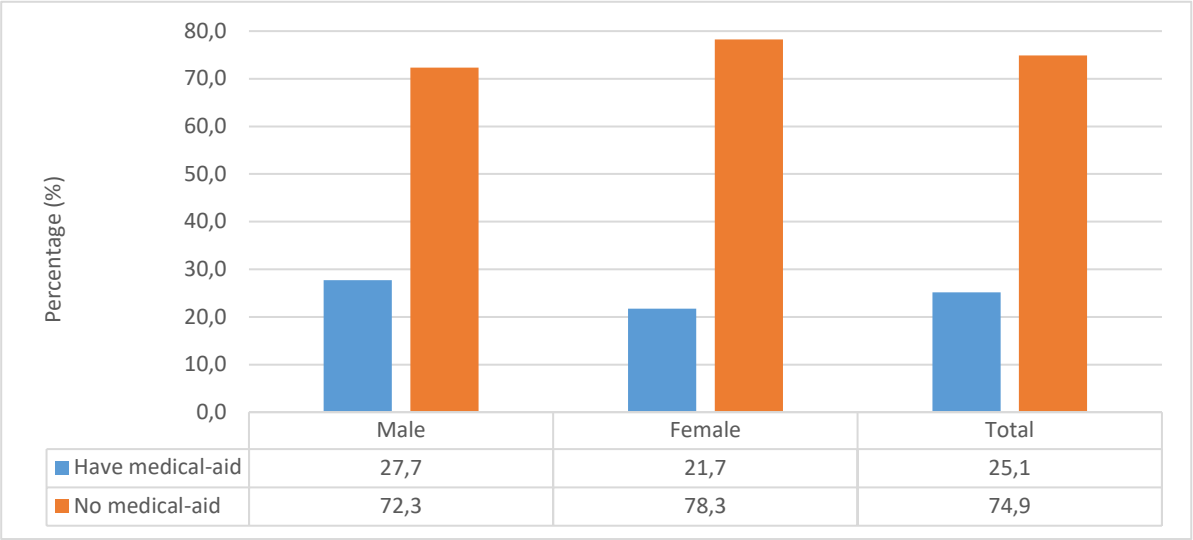
Figure 4. 71: Poverty incidence of households by medical-aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and sex of the household head group



	Male	Female	Total
Have medical-aid	54,9	56,2	55,4
No medical-aid	56,6	58,8	57,6

Figure 4.71 states that female-headed households have higher poverty levels by medical-aid status compared to male counterparts which are also higher than the national averages. In households with medical-aid, female-headed households have poverty incidence of 56,2% compared with their counterparts with 54,9%. In households with no member having medical-aid, female-headed households have poverty incidence of 58,8% while the poverty incidence for male-headed households was 56,6%.

Figure 4. 72: Percentage distribution of poor households by sex of the household head and households medical-aid status (with at least one member with a medical-aid)

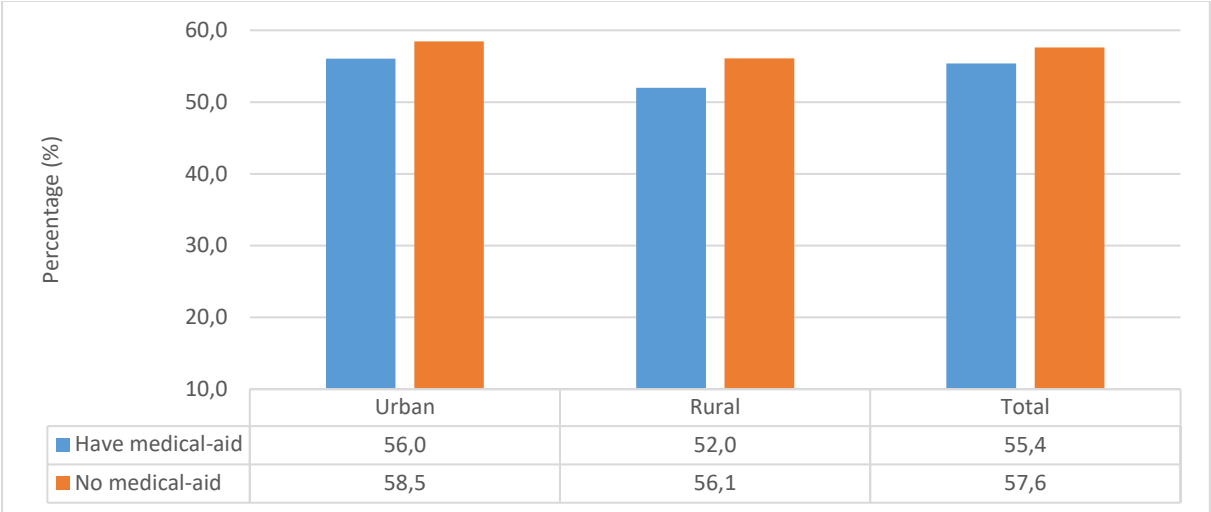


	Male	Female	Total
Have medical-aid	27,7	21,7	25,1
No medical-aid	72,3	78,3	74,9

Figure 4.72 illustrates the share of poor households by medical-aid status and sex of the household's head. Female-headed households have the largest share of poor households with no medical-aid status at 78,3% compared to their male counterparts at 72,3%. This poverty incidence of female-headed households is also higher than the national average (74,9%) which indicates an over-representation of poor female-headed households relative to the total share of poor households. However, male-headed households have the largest share of poor households with medical-aid at 27,7% compared to their female counterparts at 21,7%.

4.11.4 Households medical-aid status and settlement type

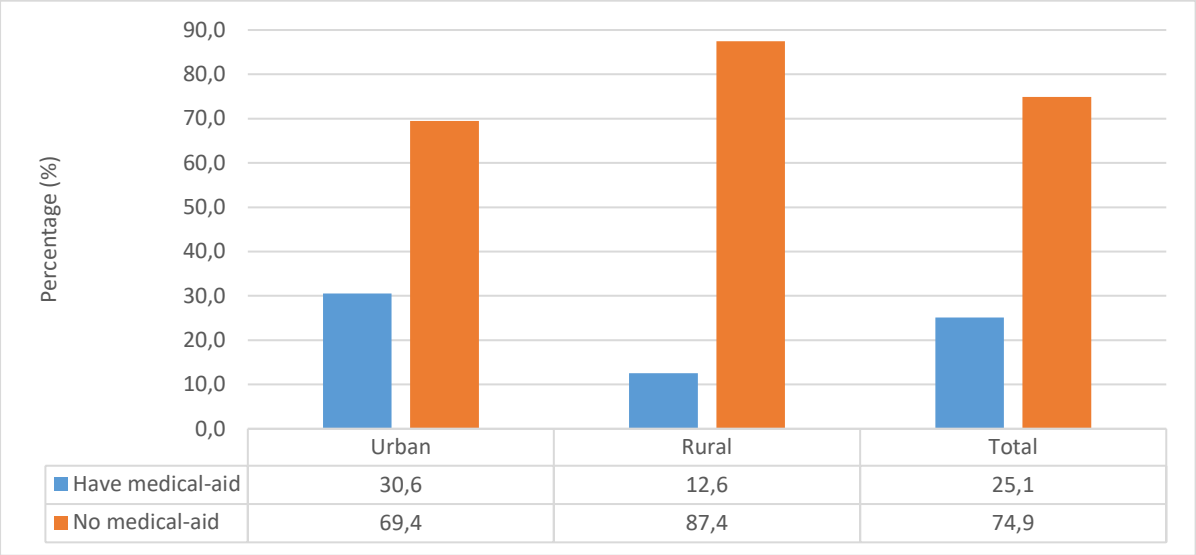
Figure 4. 73: Poverty incidence of households by medical-aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and settlement type



	Urban	Rural	Total
Have medical-aid	56,0	52,0	55,4
No medical-aid	58,5	56,1	57,6

Figure 4.73 shows that urban-based households have higher incidence of poverty by medical status with households that do not have medical-aid status getting poverty levels of 58,5% compared to those of rural households of 56,1%. For those households who have medical-aid status, urban households again have higher incidence of poverty at 56,0% for urban-based households and 52,0% for rural-based households.

Figure 4. 74: Percentage distribution of poor households by settlement type and household medical-aid status (with at least one member with a medical-aid)



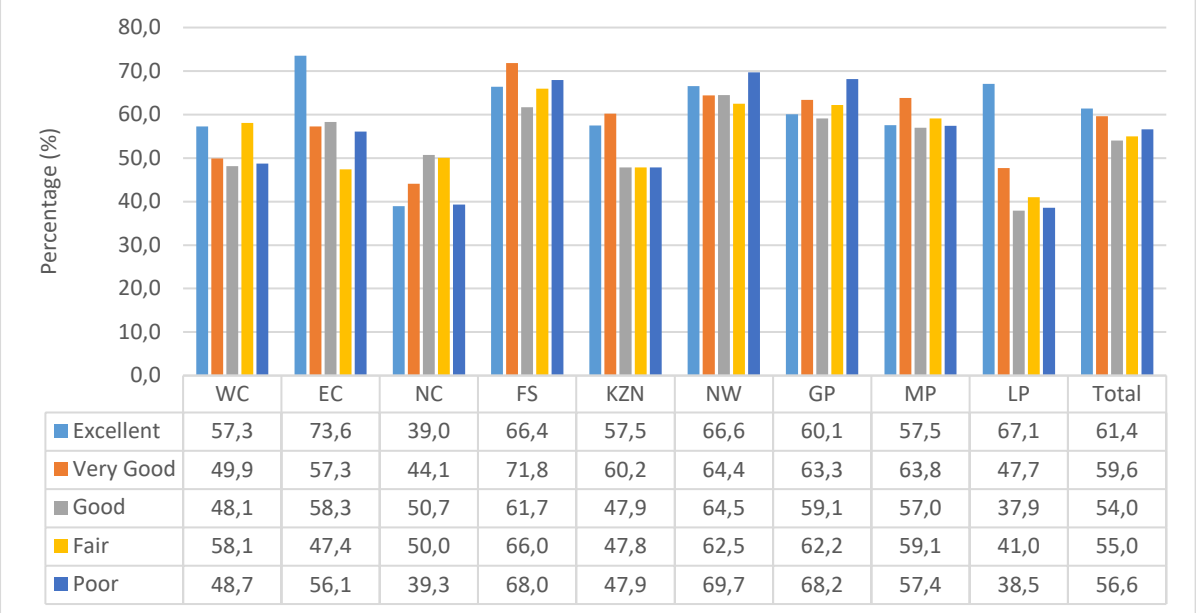
	Urban	Rural	Total
Have medical-aid	30,6	12,6	25,1
No medical-aid	69,4	87,4	74,9

Figure 4.74 depicts the share of poor households by medical-aid status and settlement type. Rural-based households with no medical-aid had the largest share of poor households at 87,4% compared to their urban-based counterparts at 69,4%. The share of rural-based households without access to medical aid is also higher than the national average (74,9%) which implies an over-representation of poor rural households relative to the total share of poor households. For those who have medical-aid, urban-based households have the largest share of poor households at 30,6% compared to their rural-based counterparts at 12,6%.

4.12 Poverty profile by health status of the household head

4.12.1 Health status of the household head and province

Figure 4. 75: Poverty incidence of households by province and health status of the household head



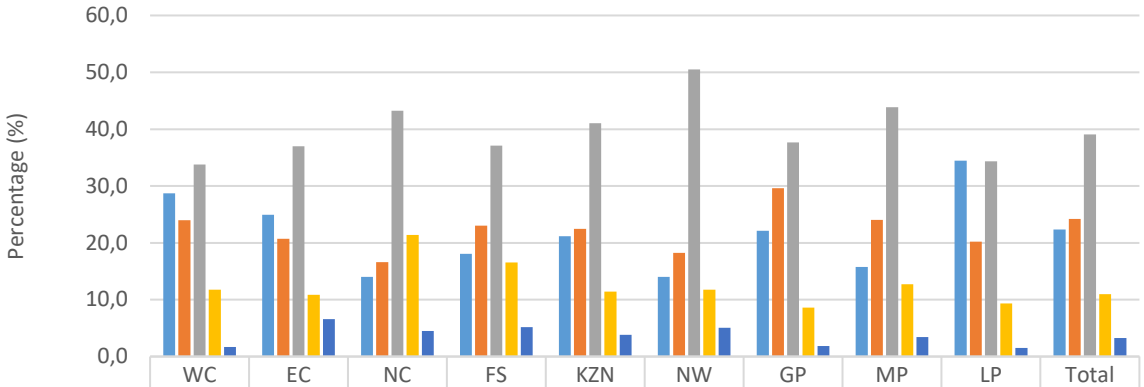
	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Excellent	57,3	73,6	39,0	66,4	57,5	66,6	60,1	57,5	67,1	61,4
Very Good	49,9	57,3	44,1	71,8	60,2	64,4	63,3	63,8	47,7	59,6
Good	48,1	58,3	50,7	61,7	47,9	64,5	59,1	57,0	37,9	54,0
Fair	58,1	47,4	50,0	66,0	47,8	62,5	62,2	59,1	41,0	55,0
Poor	48,7	56,1	39,3	68,0	47,9	69,7	68,2	57,4	38,5	56,6

Figure 4.75 shows the incidence of poverty by the health status of the household head with suggestions that a household's poverty status might be impacted by the health status of the household head. Surprisingly, at a national level, households headed by those with excellent health had the highest incidence of poverty of 61,4% followed by those with very good health status with an incidence of 59,6%. Households headed by those with poor health had the third highest incidence of poverty at 56,6% while those with good health had the lowest incidence of poverty at 54,0%.

When the incidence of poverty is compared across provinces, it shows that households headed by those with excellent health status have the highest poverty levels led by Eastern Cape (73,6%), followed by Limpopo (67,1%) and North West (66,6%).

For households headed by those with poor health status, North West (69,7%) had the highest incidence of poverty followed by Gauteng (68,2%) and Free State (68,0%). Limpopo had the lowest incidence of poverty of 38,5% for households headed by those with poor health status. For households headed by those with good health, North West (64,5%) had the highest incidence of poverty followed by Free State (61,7%) and Gauteng (59,1%).

Figure 4. 76: Percentage distribution of poor households by province and health status of the household head

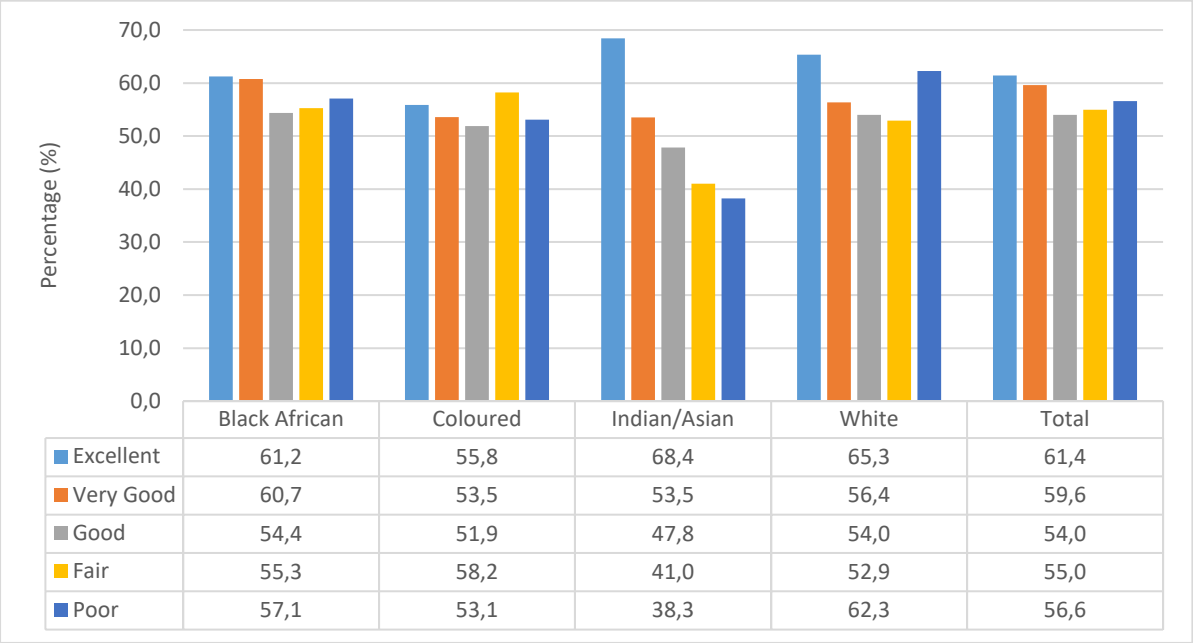


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Excellent	28,7	24,9	14,0	18,1	21,2	14,0	22,1	15,8	34,5	22,3
Very Good	24,0	20,7	16,6	23,0	22,5	18,2	29,6	24,1	20,2	24,2
Good	33,8	37,0	43,3	37,1	41,0	50,5	37,7	43,9	34,4	39,1
Fair	11,8	10,8	21,4	16,6	11,4	11,7	8,6	12,7	9,3	11,0
Poor	1,7	6,6	4,5	5,2	3,8	5,1	1,9	3,4	1,5	3,3

The share of poor households by health status and province are depicted by Figure 4.76 where nationally the largest share of poor households by health status were driven by households headed by those with a good health status with a share of 39,1%. This group is followed by the share of households with very good health status at 24,2% while households headed by those with poor health status have the smallest share of poor households at 3,3%. When focusing on provinces, households headed by those with good health status have the largest share of poor households across all the provinces with North West having the largest share of 50,5% followed by Mpumalanga at 43,9% and Northern Cape at 43,3%. Across all the provinces, households headed by those with excellent health status have the third largest share of poor households with Limpopo having the largest share of 34,5%, followed by Western Cape at 28,7% and Eastern Cape at 24,9%.

4.12.2 Health status of the household head and population group

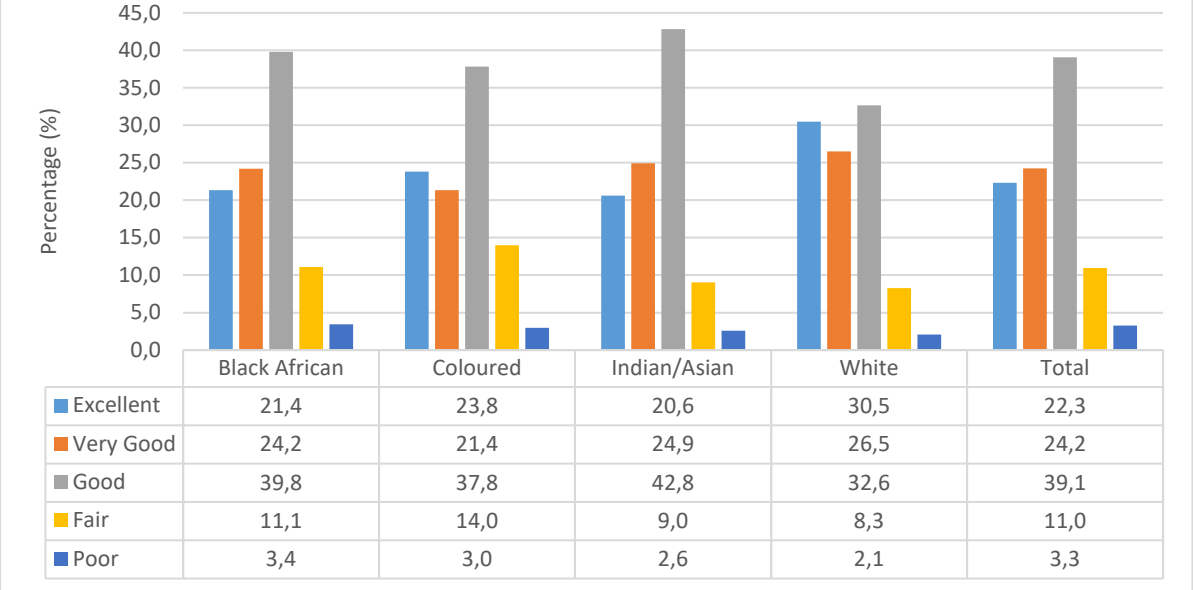
Figure 4. 77: Poverty incidence of households by population group and health status of the household head



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Excellent	61,2	55,8	68,4	65,3	61,4
Very Good	60,7	53,5	53,5	56,4	59,6
Good	54,4	51,9	47,8	54,0	54,0
Fair	55,3	58,2	41,0	52,9	55,0
Poor	57,1	53,1	38,3	62,3	56,6

Figure 4.77 shows that the incidence of poverty by health status of the household head and population group mostly impacts black African and white households that have incidences of poverty that are above the national average for most of the health status categories. Households led by heads with poor health status have the lowest incidence of poverty for Indian/Asian households at 38,3% followed by coloured and black African households at 53,1% and 57,1% respectively. Households headed by those with excellent health status have the highest incidence of poverty overall at 61,4% with Indian/Asian households having an incidence of 68,4% followed by white and black African households at 65,3% and 61,2% respectively. Households led by those with very good health status had the second largest incidence of poverty by health status where black African households have the highest incidence of poverty at 60,7% followed by white households at 56,4%.

Figure 4. 78: Percentage distribution of poor households by population group and health status of the household head



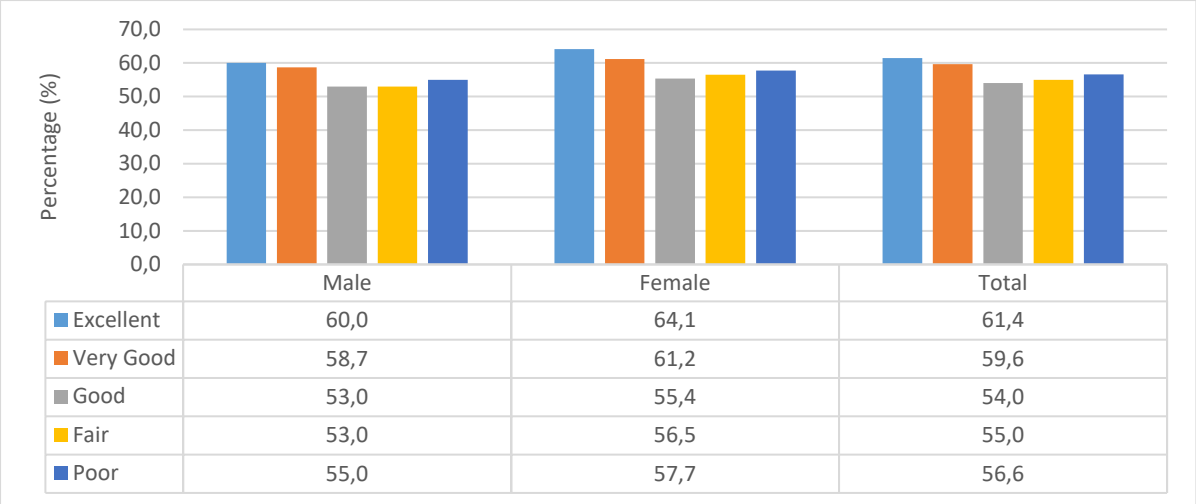
	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Excellent	21,4	23,8	20,6	30,5	22,3
Very Good	24,2	21,4	24,9	26,5	24,2
Good	39,8	37,8	42,8	32,6	39,1
Fair	11,1	14,0	9,0	8,3	11,0
Poor	3,4	3,0	2,6	2,1	3,3

The share of poor households by health status of the household head are depicted by Figure 4.78 where households led by those with good health status are dominant across the different population groups. In this health category, Indian/Asian

households have the largest share of 42,8% followed by black African and coloured households at 39,8% and 37,8% respectively. The second largest share of poor households by health status are from households with very good health status where white households have the largest share of 26,5% followed by Indian/Asian households with a share of 24,9% and black African households with a share of 24,2%. Households led by those with poor health status had the smallest share of poor households by health status across all the population groups. For this health category, the lowest share of poor households were White households with a share of 2,1% followed by Indian/Asian and coloured households at 2,6% and 3,0% respectively.

4.12.3 Health status and sex of the household's head

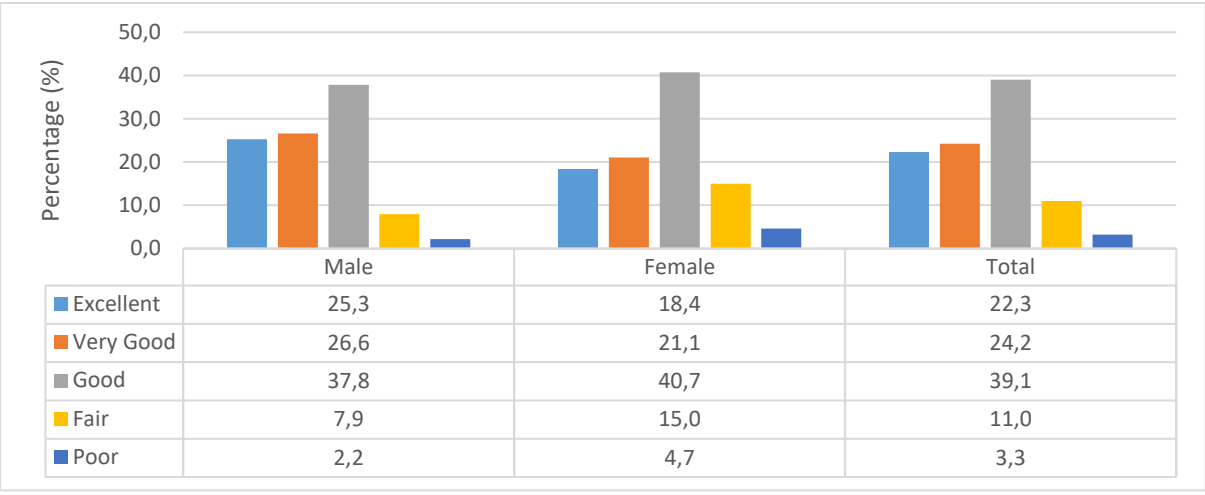
Figure 4. 79: Poverty incidence of households by sex and health status of the household head



	Male	Female	Total
Excellent	60,0	64,1	61,4
Very Good	58,7	61,2	59,6
Good	53,0	55,4	54,0
Fair	53,0	56,5	55,0
Poor	55,0	57,7	56,6

Figure 4.79 shows that the incidence of poverty by health status and sex of the household head impacts female-headed households slightly more than it does male-headed households. Households headed by those with excellent health status had the highest incidence of poverty with female-headed households having an incidence of 64,1% compared to 60,0% for their male counterparts. Households headed by those with good health status had the lowest incidence of poverty in general of 54,0%; where female-headed households had an incidence of 55,4% compared to 53,0% for their male counterparts.

Figure 4. 80: Percentage distribution of poor households by sex and health status of the household head

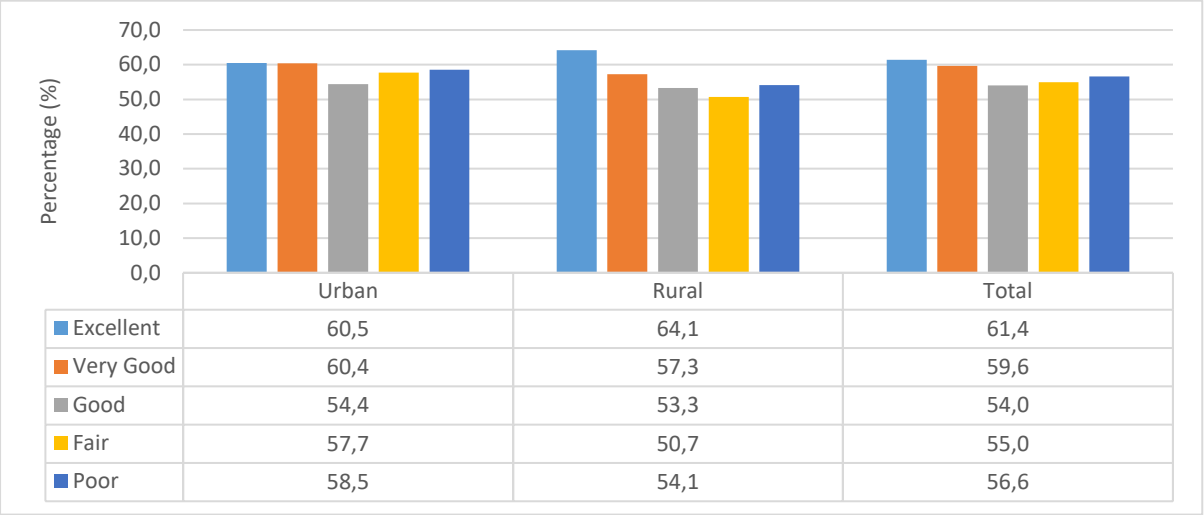


	Male	Female	Total
Excellent	25,3	18,4	22,3
Very Good	26,6	21,1	24,2
Good	37,8	40,7	39,1
Fair	7,9	15,0	11,0
Poor	2,2	4,7	3,3

The largest share of poor households across both sexes come from those with a good health status as depicted in Figure 4.80 when the share of poor households by sex and health status of household head are evaluated. This is where female-headed households have the largest share of 40,7% regarding health status compared with male-headed households with a share of 37,8%. For both sexes, the smallest share is from households headed by those with poor health status with female-headed households having a larger share of 4,7% compared with male-headed households with a share of 2,2%.

4.12.4 Health status of household head and settlement type

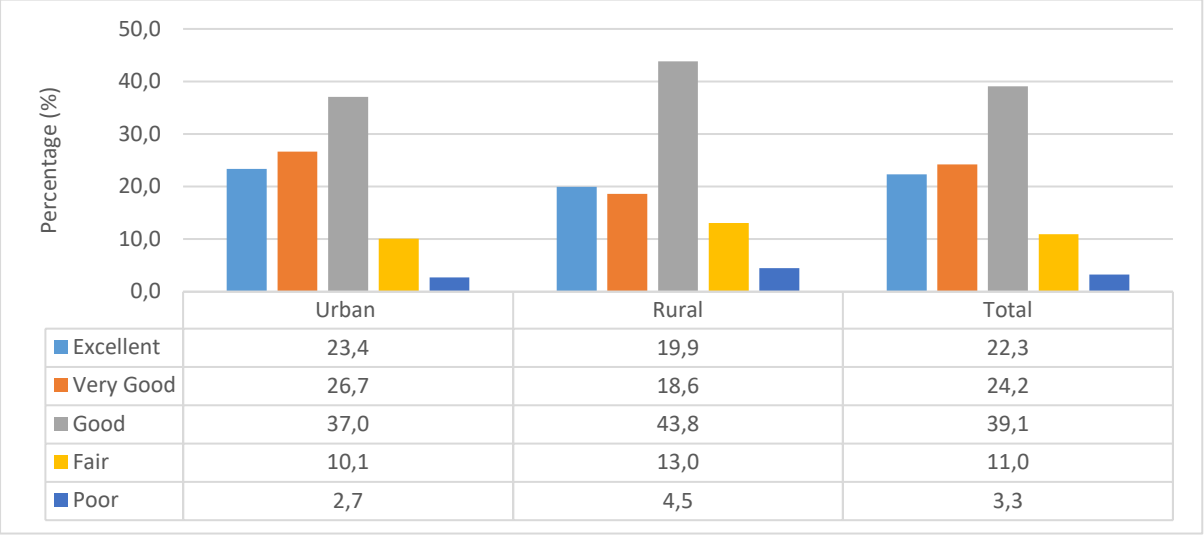
Figure 4. 81: Poverty incidence of households by settlement type and health status of the household head



	Urban	Rural	Total
Excellent	60,5	64,1	61,4
Very Good	60,4	57,3	59,6
Good	54,4	53,3	54,0
Fair	57,7	50,7	55,0
Poor	58,5	54,1	56,6

Figure 4.81 shows that incidence of poverty by health status and settlement type affect urban households more than rural households, even though their poverty levels appear to be similar. All the poverty levels for urban households are also higher than the national averages except for households headed by those with excellent health status. Rural households with excellent health status have the highest incidence of poverty of 64,1% compared with 60,5% for urban households. For both urban and rural households, those led by heads with excellent health status have higher incidences of poverty than those households headed by individuals with good or very good health statuses.

Figure 4. 82: Percentage distribution of poor households by settlement type and health status of the household head



	Urban	Rural	Total
Excellent	23,4	19,9	22,3
Very Good	26,7	18,6	24,2
Good	37,0	43,8	39,1
Fair	10,1	13,0	11,0
Poor	2,7	4,5	3,3

Figure 4.82 shows the share of poor households by health status of household head and settlement type with households headed by those with good health status having the largest share of poor households from both settlement types. Within this health category, households based in rural areas have the largest share of 43,8% compared to urban areas with a share of 37,0%. The least share of poor households from both settlement types are from households headed by those with poor health status where rural areas have a share of 4,5% which is higher than that of urban areas of 2,7%.

Figure 4. 83: Proportion of subjectively poor households with access to internet services

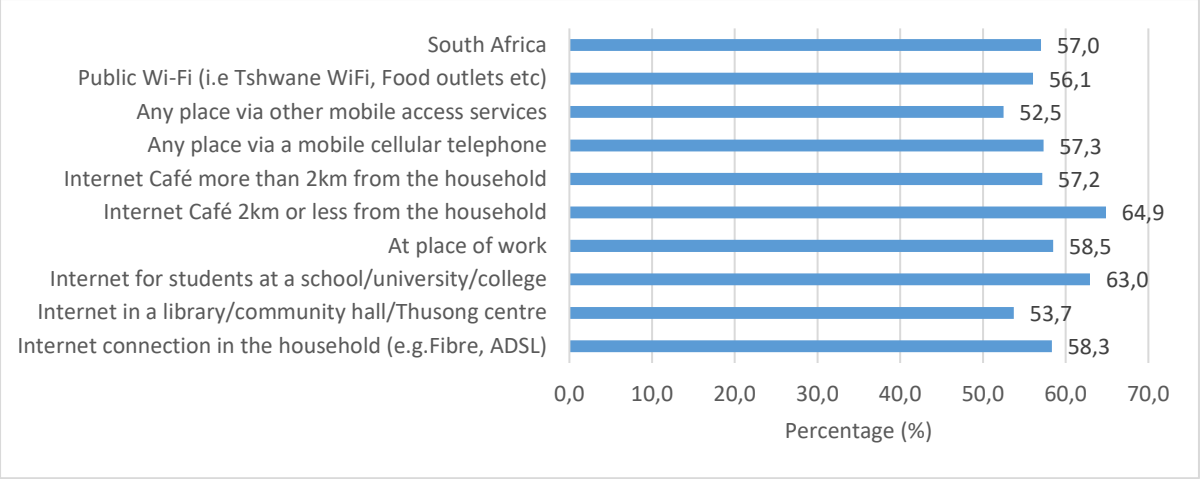


Figure 4.83 shows that poor households have a high degree of access to various internet services. The highest access to internet services is through an internet café (64,9%) which is 2km or less from the household. This is followed by internet access for student at a school/university/college with a proportion of 63,0%. An internet connection at the place of work is third in terms of internet access at 58,5%. Access to internet services in a library/community hall/Thusong centre and access via other mobile access services have the lowest access at 53,7% and 52,5% respectively.

Figure 4. 84: Proportion of subjectively poor households by ownership of selected household assets

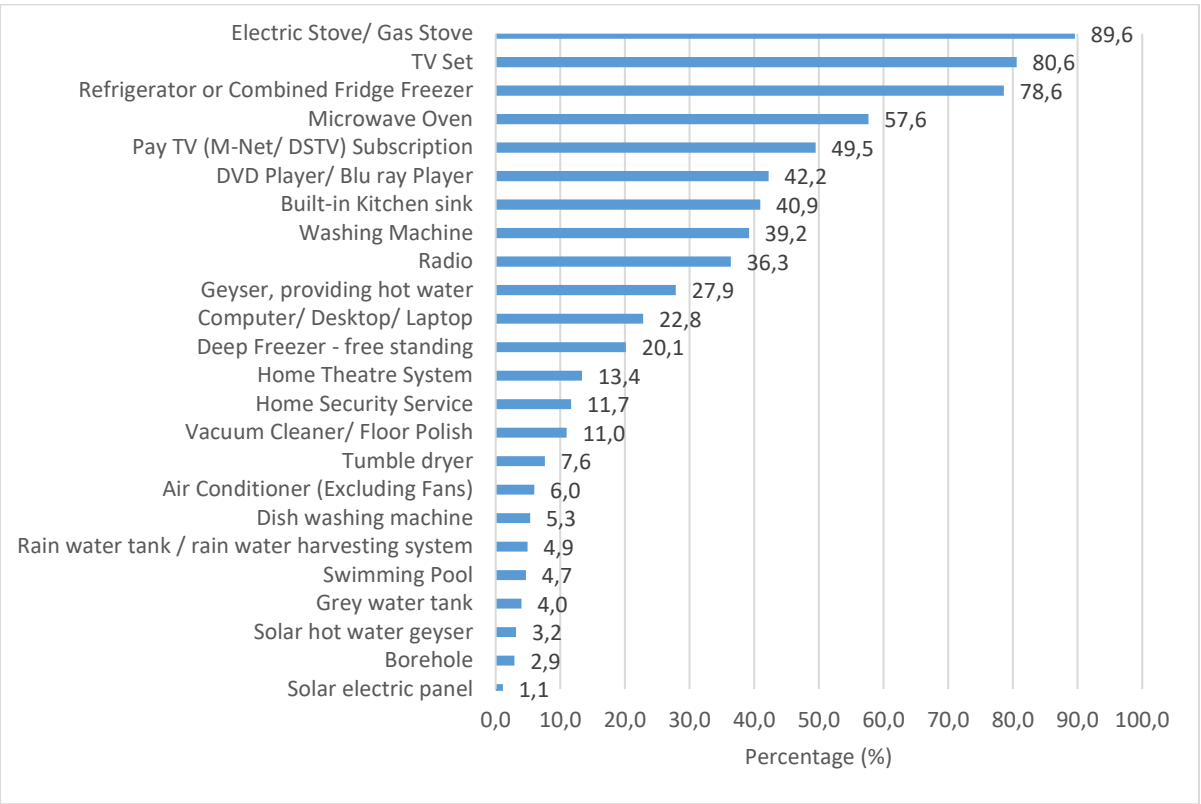


Figure 4.84 shows the proportion of poor households by ownership of selected assets. According to the table, the overwhelming majority of poor households own a gas or electric stove with a proportion of 89,6% of poor households owning the asset. The second asset that is mostly owned by poor households is a TV set which is owned by 80,6% of poor households followed by a refrigerator or combined fridge freezer at 78,6%. Surprisingly, 49,5% of poor households pay TV subscription while only 22,8% own a computer/desktop/laptop.

Chapter 5: Income Evaluation Question (IEQ)

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, a thorough analysis of the third subjective poverty indicator, which is the IEQ, will be provided. As seen in the previous two chapters, various factors such as marital status, settlement type and location will be used as aggregates in the closer examination of this indicator. The inclusion of these additional variables in the study of the IEQ allows for an improved comprehension of the make-up and nature of this concept.

Section 5.2 will take into consideration the interaction between marital status and poverty in IEQ terms, followed by an assessment on how poverty is structured across the various composition of South African households by considering factors such as household size, household structure and the household's generational structure in section 5.3 to 5.5 in that order. Section 5.6 will explore disparities pertaining to poverty and the number of bedrooms the household occupies. The subsequent sections will investigate the extent of experience of hunger and food inadequacy in poor households. Following that, an analysis will be provided in terms of happiness status, employment status, access to a medical and the health status of the head of household. Lastly, factors such as household internet access and asset ownership will be assessed in the latter sections.

5.2. Poverty profile by marital status

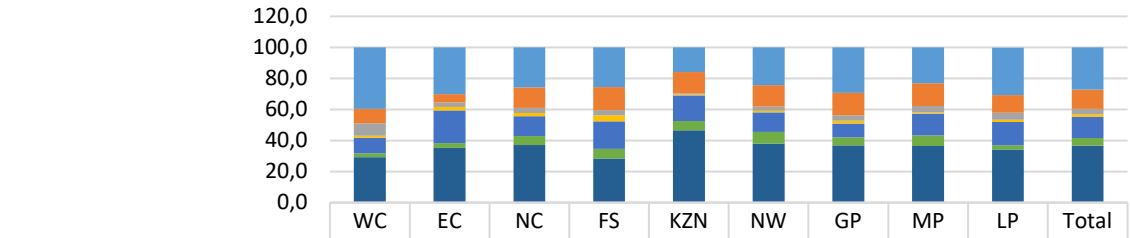
5.2.1 Marital status of the household head and province

Table 5. 1: Poverty incidence of households by province and marital status of the household head

Province	Marital Status							
	Legally married	Living together	Divorced	Separated	Widowed	Single, but have lived together	Single and have never been married/ never lived together	RSA
WC	26.8	31.8	36.3	56.8	29.5	34.4	40.0	31.7
EC	59.1	60.2	60.8	73.5	64.2	79.1	63.0	62.4
NC	32.4	39.3	33.1	44.9	41.6	69.6	49.7	41.5
FS	47.6	53.7	39.5	65.5	53.3	48.0	59.2	52.6
KZN	21.5	43.4	18.4	31.6	36.9	50.6	36.5	33.9
NW	49.5	53.6	44.8	63.3	59.2	68.9	65.0	57.7
GP	40.6	48.0	37.3	60.0	51.0	53.4	54.4	47.7
MP	54.6	69.4	72.4	60.3	60.7	71.7	68.3	63.9
LP	37.2	46.3	51.6	46.4	41.2	52.7	48.9	43.4
Total	**38.9**	**48.8**	**42.3**	**58.4**	**48.5**	**56.9**	**51.6**	**46.7**

An inspection of Table 5.1 reveals haphazard estimations with no clear association when poverty as defined by the IEQ measure is assessed through the lens of the head of household's marital status provincially. Using the national results as a point of reference, we can deduce that households with separated heads were on average the poorest of the group with 58,4% of this cluster reporting a total monthly income that is lesser than that which is required for the household to make ends meet. This was also the case in the Western Cape, Eastern Cape, Free State and Gauteng with provincial estimates of 56,8%, 73,5%, 65,5 & and 60,0% respectively. Nationally, the group on the favourable end of poverty was that of households headed by legally married persons, with a poverty prevalence of 38.9%, which is 19 percentage points lesser than the poorest group. This result was likewise emulated provincially in five of the nine provinces; including the Western Cape and Limpopo.

Figure 5. 1: Percentage distribution of poor households by marital status of the household head and province

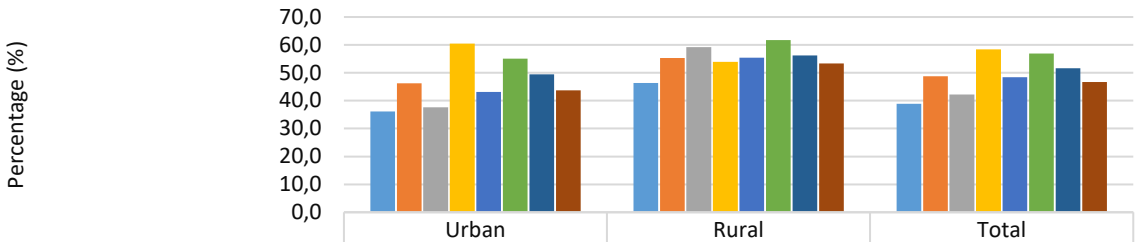


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Legally married	39,5	30,1	25,8	25,6	15,8	24,4	29,2	23,2	30,5	27,2
Living together	9,4	5,4	13,2	14,9	13,8	13,7	14,5	14,5	11,3	12,5
Divorced	7,9	2,8	3,2	3,4	0,7	2,8	3,6	4,1	4,5	3,5
Separated	1,4	2,3	2,1	3,9	0,6	1,0	1,7	0,9	1,6	1,6
Widowed	9,9	21,0	12,9	17,6	16,6	12,6	9,0	14,0	15,1	13,6
Single, but have lived together	2,5	3,1	5,7	6,2	6,0	7,6	5,1	6,8	2,6	5,0
Single and have never been married/never lived together	29,4	35,3	37,2	28,5	46,6	37,9	36,9	36,5	34,2	36,6

Figure 5.1 illustrates the distribution of poor households according to the head's marital status, across all provinces. Provincially, households headed by singles (regardless of whether or not they had married or lived with a partner before) accounted for more than a third of the poor in terms of IEQ standards. An additional category that recorded significantly higher estimates of poor households is that of legally married household heads. This outcome is in line with national estimates, where results rank single heads who had never been married or lived together as husband and wife and those that are legally married as the poorest of the seven marital classes, with estimates of 36,6% and 27,2% respectively. However, it is important to note that these distributions mirror the demographic structure of South Africa, where the majority of persons are single, followed by those that are classified as legally married.

5.2.2 Marital status of the household head and settlement type

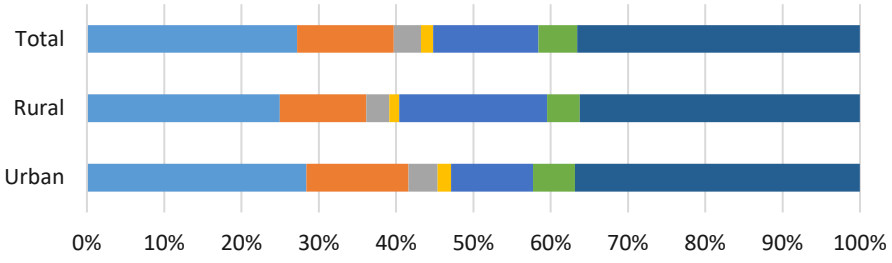
Figure 5. 2: Poverty incidence of households by settlement type and marital status of the household head



	Urban	Rural	Total
Legally married	36,1	46,3	38,9
Living together	46,3	55,3	48,8
Divorced	37,6	59,2	42,3
Separated	60,5	53,9	58,4
Widowed	43,1	55,5	48,5
Single, but have lived together	55,0	61,7	56,9
Single and have never been married/never lived together	49,5	56,2	51,6
Total	43,7	53,4	46,7

Poverty differentials in Figure 5.2 are examined in terms of the household head's marital status and the household's settlement type. The estimated results provide evidence that poverty in general was over-represented in rural areas, except for households with separated but legally married heads. These findings are more in line with findings observed in chapter three and contradictory to those of chapter four, where poverty was over represented in rural areas when using the SPWQ yardstick and overstated in urban areas when taking the MIQ measure into account. Seemingly, notable poverty prevalence disparities exist between the urban and rural settlement types. Firstly, poverty was more pronounced in rural areas than urban for all but one cohort, which is that of households with separated heads by a 6,6 percentage points difference in that regard. A further comparison of urban and rural areas confirms that in 2019, rural households with separated heads were the most exposed to poverty whereas single heads who had never cohabited were leading in rural locations; by poverty levels of 60,5% and 61,7% respectively. The resemblance in the layout of the urban and national outcomes suggests that national estimates were in this case predominantly influenced by urban outcomes.

Figure 5. 3: Percentage distribution of poor households by settlement type and marital status of the household head

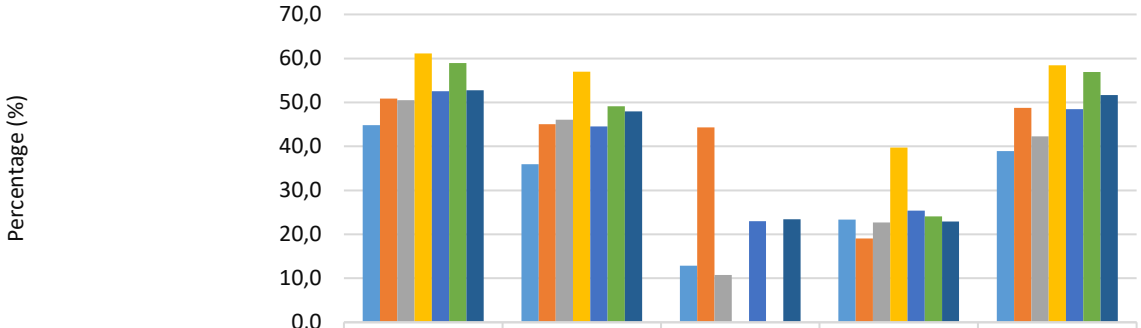


	Urban	Rural	Total
Legally married	28,4	24,9	27,2
Living together	13,2	11,2	12,5
Divorced	3,8	3,0	3,5
Separated	1,7	1,3	1,6
Widowed	10,6	19,1	13,6
Single, but have lived together	5,4	4,2	5,0
Single and have never been married/never lived together	36,9	36,2	36,6

Externally, the distribution of poor households according to the marital status of the head in rural and urban settlements appears to mirror that of the total household count. For instance, of all households affected by poverty; roughly 36% were headed by singles who had never married or cohabited; and this was true for both settlement types. Moreover, the aforementioned group is apportioned the largest share of the distribution. However, a closer inspection into the estimates reveals subtle variation in the features of the two. A take home finding is that widowed-headed households considered to be living in poverty according to the IEQ standard were nearly twice likely in rural settlements than urban (19,1% and 10,6% respectively).

5.2.3 Marital status of the household head and population group

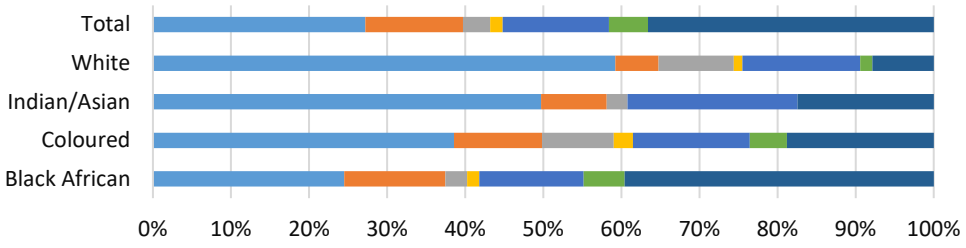
Figure 5. 4: Poverty incidence of households by population group and marital status of the household head



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Legally married	44,8	35,9	12,9	23,3	38,9
Living together	50,8	45,0	44,3	19,1	48,8
Divorced	50,5	46,0	10,8	22,7	42,3
Separated	61,2	57,0		39,7	58,4
Widowed	52,6	44,5	23,0	25,4	48,5
Single, but have lived together	59,0	49,1		24,1	56,9
Single and have never been married/never lived together	52,7	47,9	23,4	22,9	51,6

Racial profiling has for a long time been central in issues concerning poverty, and results in Figure 5.4 are a clear indication of why this should be the case. By all accounts, across all seven marital groups, black Africans were the race most affected by poverty, recording a prevalence of poverty exceeding national estimates in all categories. This is an expected outcome considering that black Africans are a previously disadvantaged majority. In addition, the relative incidences for coloureds in the figure above confirms that poverty is also considerably well embedded in this group, although not to the same extent as is for black Africans. When attention is directed to the remaining groups, namely Indian/Asians and whites, it is evident that these groups have relatively significantly lower poverty incidence. A further interrogation explicitly comparing black Africans and whites reveal gaps ranging from a minimum of 21,4 to a maximum of 34,9 percentage points across all marital status classifications are recorded; the former being for households with separated heads and the latter relating to households with single heads who have lived with someone as husband and wife. This outcome echoes deep racial disparities that exist in South Africa.

Figure 5. 5: Percentage distribution of poor households by population group and marital status of household head

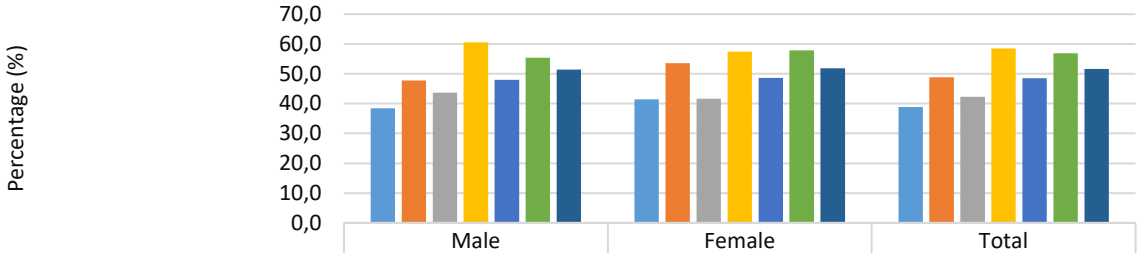


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Legally married	24,5	38,6	49,7	59,2	27,2
Living together	13,0	11,3	8,4	5,5	12,5
Divorced	2,8	9,2	2,7	9,6	3,5
Separated	1,6	2,5		1,1	1,6
Widowed	13,4	15,0	21,8	15,1	13,6
Single, but have lived together	5,3	4,8		1,5	5,0
Single and have never been married/never lived together	39,6	18,8	17,5	7,9	36,6

Unlike in the previous figure where marital and racial disparities in poverty were examined using the head count ratio technique, at this part the distribution method is applied. This is done by calculating the overall distribution of poor households by the marital status of the head for all population groups; the outcome of this exercise is summarized in Figure 5.5 above. Firstly, a disproportionately larger share (59,2%) of poor households headed by legally married heads was recorded for the white population group; this share exceeded double the national estimate which was found to be 27,2%. A closer look at the figure also shows an increase in the share of poor households headed by legally married heads as we move upwards the graph using the black African group as a reference point; this increase is accompanied by a concurrent decrease in the share apportioned to poor households headed by singles who had never married or lived together with someone as husband and wife. Once again the separated cohort is accountable for minimal proportions in all races. Additionally; of the four population groups under discussion; the black African group's distribution is most comparable to the overall national distribution of poor households by marital status of the head of household.

5.2.4 Marital status and sex of the household head

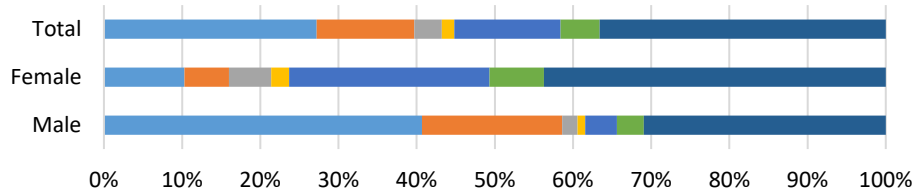
Figure 5. 6: Poverty incidence of households by sex and marital status of the household head



	Male	Female	Total
Legally married	38,4	41,4	38,9
Living together	47,7	53,5	48,8
Divorced	43,6	41,7	42,3
Separated	60,5	57,4	58,4
Widowed	47,9	48,6	48,5
Single, but have lived together	55,3	57,9	56,9
Single and have never been married/never lived together	51,5	51,8	51,6

Gender disparities concerning poor households by the marital status of head of household records poverty incidence of males higher than females in only two of the categories above. Figure 5.6 shows that male headed households were generally poorer than their female counterparts under the condition that they are separated from their spouse or divorced; with a difference of 3,1 and 1,9 percentage points respectively. Furthermore, the poverty incidences of females exceeded male outcomes by a range of 0,89 to 0,99; the minimum pertaining to households headed by people living together like husband and wife and the maximum applicable to households reported to be headed by singles that have lived together with a partner before.

Figure 5. 7: Percentage distribution of poor households by sex and marital status of the household head



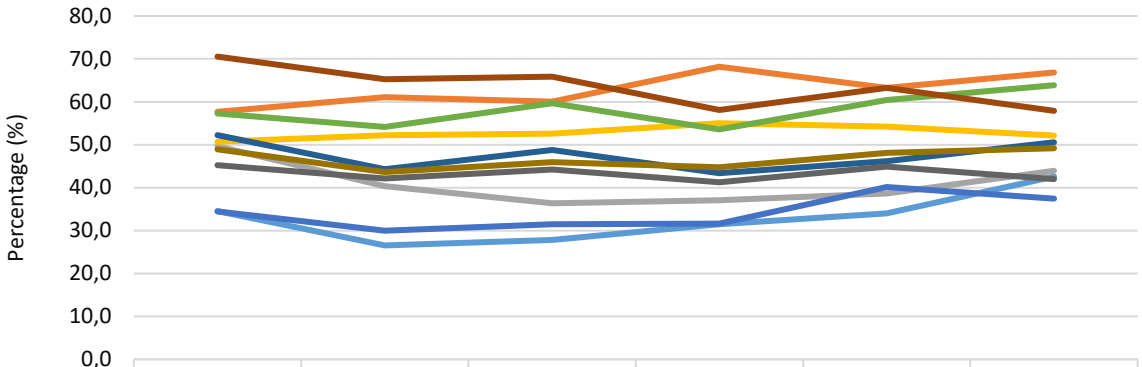
	Male	Female	Total
Legally married	40,7	10,3	27,2
Living together	17,9	5,7	12,5
Divorced	2,0	5,4	3,5
Separated	1,0	2,3	1,6
Widowed	4,0	25,6	13,6
Single, but have lived together	3,4	7,0	5,0
Single and have never been married/never lived together	31,0	43,7	36,6

Noteworthy dissimilarities are depicted in the distributions illustrating the spread of poor households by the marital status of the head for each of the gender categories in Figure 5.7. Firstly; it is interesting to note that neither of the two distributions in question mirrors national outcomes in any respect. That is; neither of the two distributions resembles the overall case. A closer observation at the output confirms an overrepresentation of poor male headed households that are reported to be legally married which exceeds their female counterparts by 30,4 percentage points; consequently, evening out the national estimate of 27,2%. It also important to highlight that this group also accounted for 40% of total poor male headed households. Poverty from a sex and marital status perspective also suggests that poor households headed by widows were six times more likely in female headed than male headed households; and household headed by separated persons contributed the least to both male and female distributions.

5.3 Poverty profile by household size

5.3.1 Household size and province

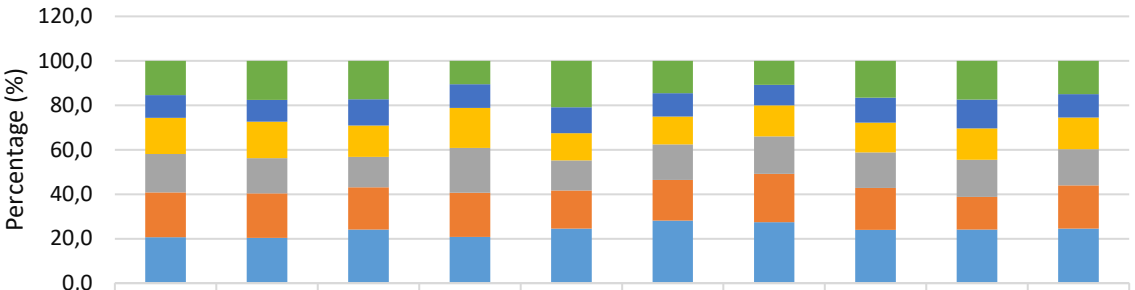
Figure 5. 8: Poverty incidence of households by household size and province



	1	2	3	4	5	6+
WC	34,5	26,5	27,8	31,5	34,0	42,6
EC	57,7	61,1	60,0	68,2	63,3	66,8
NC	49,6	40,3	36,4	37,1	38,7	43,9
FS	50,7	52,2	52,5	55,0	54,3	52,1
KZN	34,4	30,0	31,5	31,6	40,1	37,5
NW	57,2	54,2	59,7	53,6	60,4	63,9
GP	52,2	44,3	48,8	43,4	46,1	50,6
MP	70,5	65,3	65,9	58,1	63,3	57,9
LP	45,2	42,2	44,2	41,3	44,9	42,0
Total	48,9	43,6	46,0	44,8	48,1	49,2

Figure 5.8 provides evidence that poverty when measured by the IEQ tool did not increase or decrease with household size. This inference is reached by means of a clear observation of a lack of pattern in the output when household size is plotted against poverty levels provincially and nationally. In essence, the output derived from the aforementioned method yielded results hinting no particular sequence. However, some notable results can be highlighted. For instance, the Western Cape plot that lies inferior on the y axis suggests that poverty was lowest in this province; however, this was true for households of up to five persons in size. Also, poverty levels in this particular province were significantly lesser than aggregate national levels. A thorough inspection of the figure also suggests that poverty levels in the Free State province were the least affected by household size. This supposition is as a result of the roughly uniform pattern that lies adjacent the 50 percent mark. The data table also confirms this finding by showing that the range of poverty levels for households in this province lie within the 50,7 and 55,0 percent interval.

Figure 5. 9: Percentage distribution of poor households by household size and province

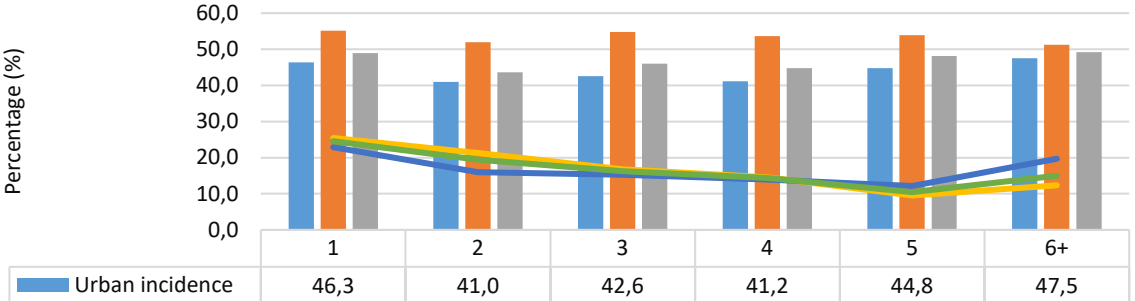


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
6+	15,5	17,6	17,3	10,5	20,9	14,5	10,8	16,6	17,4	15,0
5	10,2	9,8	11,8	10,7	11,5	10,6	9,2	11,3	13,0	10,5
4	16,2	16,5	14,2	18,0	12,3	12,5	14,1	13,3	14,1	14,3
3	17,3	15,7	13,6	20,1	13,5	16,0	16,8	15,9	16,7	16,3
2	20,1	20,1	19,1	19,9	17,2	18,4	21,7	19,0	14,7	19,4
1	20,7	20,4	24,1	20,9	24,5	28,1	27,4	23,9	24,1	24,6

A further assessment of household size on poverty prevalence endorses that single person households were the majority contributors to poverty in all provinces with shares of not less than 20% in all provinces as shown in Figure 5.9. The rightmost column also indicates that five person households contributed the least to overall poverty nationally; with an estimated one in ten poor households expected to be a household of size five. This result was also true in eight of the nine provinces; with Free State being the only exception. The Free State distribution of poor households ranks households of more than five people as the least contributor to total household poverty with an estimate of 10,5%, which is only 0,2 percentage points less than the share contributed by households of size five. Statistically; it is arguable that the difference between the aforesaid proportions is negligible and the two can be considered practically comparable.

5.3.2 Household size and settlement type

Figure 5. 10: Poverty incidence of households and distribution of poor households by household size and settlement type



	1	2	3	4	5	6+
Urban incidence	46,3	41,0	42,6	41,2	44,8	47,5
Rural incidence	55,1	51,9	54,8	53,6	53,9	51,2
Total incidence	48,9	43,6	46,0	44,8	48,1	49,2
Urban distribution	25,5	21,3	16,8	14,6	9,5	12,4
Rural distribution	22,9	15,9	15,3	14,0	12,2	19,7
Total distribution	24,6	19,4	16,3	14,3	10,5	15,0

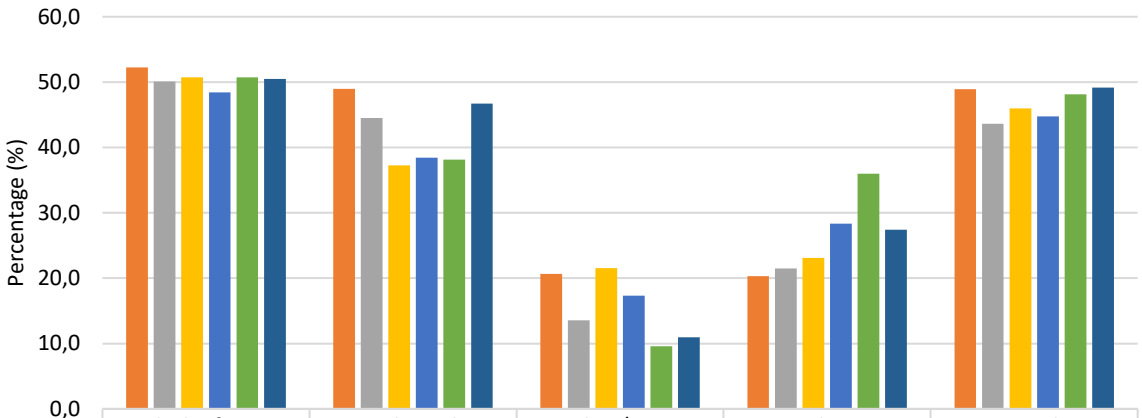
Figure 5.10 profiles poor households in accordance with the size of the household along with the respective settlement type. Seemingly; rural households were more vulnerable than urban households. By way of explanation; poverty prevalence was for all categories listed in the output higher in rural regions as compared to their urban counterparts. Also; households of size four calculated a poverty gap 12,4 percentage points; which was comparatively the widest recorded. On the other hand; households of size six calculated the least poverty disparity (3.7 percentage point difference). A further comparison of poverty prevalence across all categories of household size and settlement type reveals that poverty was most prevalent in

rural-based single based households and least prevalent in urban-based households of size two; by head-count ratios of 55.1% and 41.0% respectively.

The distribution of poor households according to the variables previously mentioned shows that single person households added the most to overall poverty in both urban and rural settlements; by percentages of 25,5 and 22,9 for the former and latter in that order. Also, as household size increases; the respective share in overall poverty is shown to decrease. However; this result is observed up to households of size five; after-which an up-surge in the share contributed by households of size six and above to overall poverty is noted.

5.3.3 Household size and population group

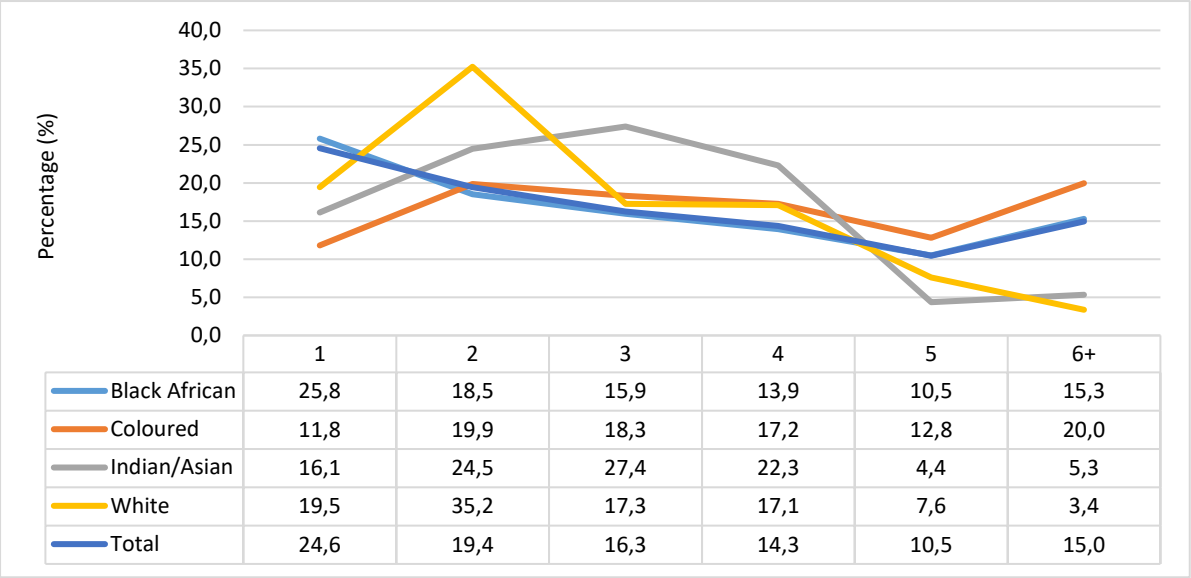
Figure 5. 11: Poverty incidence of households by population group and household size



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
1	52,2	49,0	20,6	20,3	48,9
2	50,1	44,5	13,6	21,5	43,6
3	50,7	37,2	21,5	23,1	46,0
4	48,4	38,4	17,3	28,3	44,8
5	50,7	38,1	9,6	36,0	48,1
6+	50,5	46,7	10,9	27,4	49,2

The inclusion of the population group variable in the study of poverty prevalence for households of different sizes provides crucial information on the attributes that exist within and between the different race profiles as depicted in Figure 5.11. Firstly, the columns on the far left gives an indication that poverty in the black African population was least responsive to the number of people forming a household. This can also be deduced by considering the narrow range of poverty levels determined by the lowest and highest value of the sequence which is [48,4%: 52,2%] in this case. Proceeding rightwards is a profile of the state of poverty in coloured households where household sizes at both extreme ends of the sequence are found to be the most vulnerable to poverty; which is in line with overall national outcomes. In numbers; single person coloured households and households composed of more than six persons recorded the highest poverty levels of 49,0% and 46,7% for the smallest and largest households respectively. The case for white households on the other hand reveals remarkable outcomes. From the onset, a direct relationship between household size and poverty is apparent for households of up to five household members. That is, poverty worsened with increased household size for households of less than six members.

Figure 5. 12: Percentage distribution of poor households by population group and household size

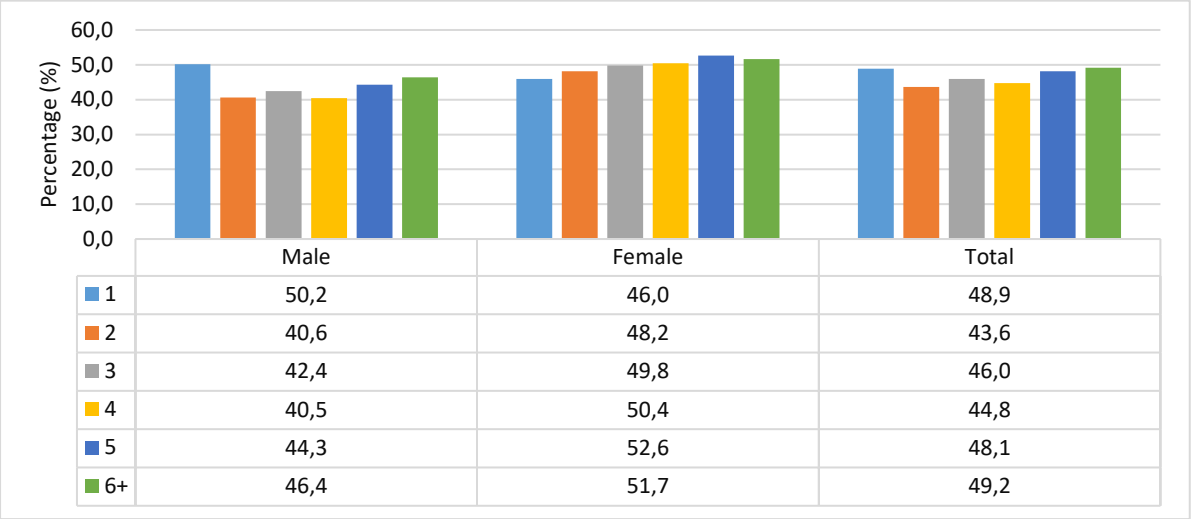


	1	2	3	4	5	6+
Black African	25,8	18,5	15,9	13,9	10,5	15,3
Coloured	11,8	19,9	18,3	17,2	12,8	20,0
Indian/Asian	16,1	24,5	27,4	22,3	4,4	5,3
White	19,5	35,2	17,3	17,1	7,6	3,4
Total	24,6	19,4	16,3	14,3	10,5	15,0

Illustrated in Figure 5.12 is the distribution of variables that were cross-tabulated and discussed in the previous figure. What is of interest in this instance is the weight each household size contributes to overall poverty within each race. Starting with Indians\Asians, a peak at the centre of the sequence suggests that three person households contributed the most to poverty. Contrary to that; the lowest point of the curve which corresponds to households of size five suggests that this category had the smallest share in total poverty for the aforesaid population group. For whites, households of size two and those with more than five members accounted for the largest and least share to total household poverty respectively. A striking likeness between the black African and national household poverty distributions is clearly observed. Both curves show a sequential decline in proportions adding up to the total distribution of poor households as household size increases; this was true for households of sizes up to five; after which a swift upturn of the curve is noted; suggesting an increase in the relative frequency of households of size six and more.

5.3.4 Household size and sex of the household head

Figure 5. 13: Poverty incidence of households by household size and sex of the household head

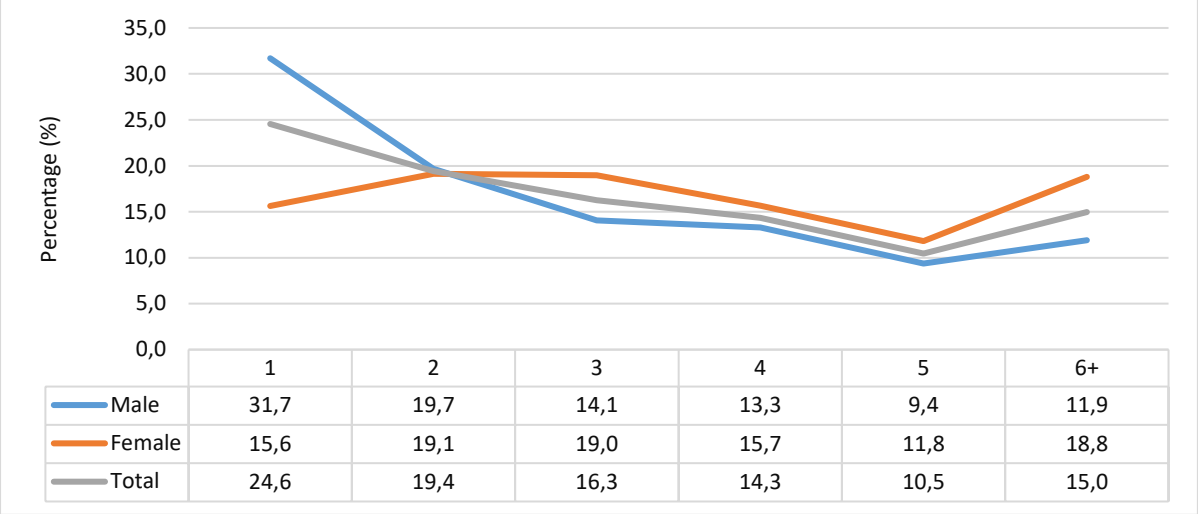


	Male	Female	Total
1	50,2	46,0	48,9
2	40,6	48,2	43,6
3	42,4	49,8	46,0
4	40,5	50,4	44,8
5	44,3	52,6	48,1
6+	46,4	51,7	49,2

Figure 5.13 shows male staying alone were more likely to be vulnerable to poverty when compared to their female counterparts by roughly four percentage points. On the other hand, multiple person households headed by females recorded higher poverty rates than households headed by their male counterparts. The widest gap identified in this regard is calculated for households consisting of four household members; with female headed households demonstrating increased vulnerability by approximately ten percentage points more. Explaining it differently; two in five female headed households

as compared to two in four male headed households were likely to be susceptible to poverty; given that the household is characterised by four members.

Figure 5. 14: Percentage distribution of poor households by household size and sex of the household head



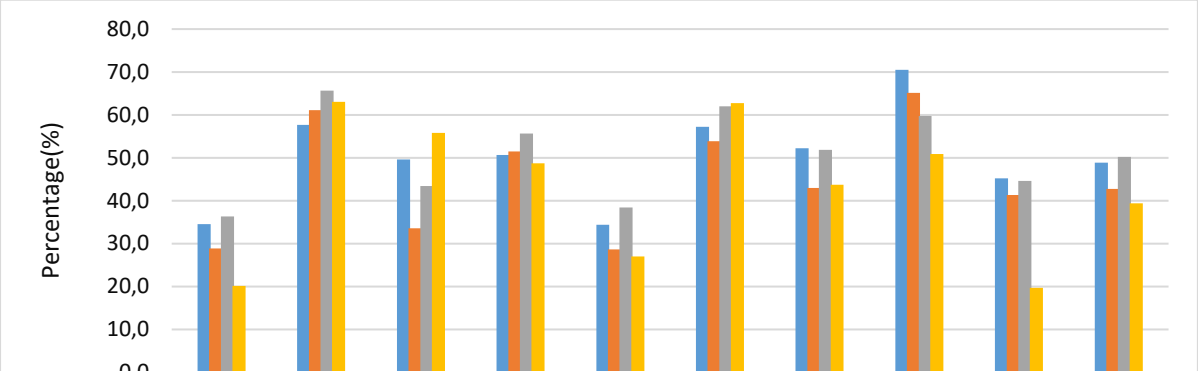
	1	2	3	4	5	6+
Male	31,7	19,7	14,1	13,3	9,4	11,9
Female	15,6	19,1	19,0	15,7	11,8	18,8
Total	24,6	19,4	16,3	14,3	10,5	15,0

Up until the fourth category illustrated in Figure 5.14, which corresponds to households with four members; the distributions for male headed and female headed households appear to be almost symmetrical. This means that at any point that lies within this range, an increase in one group was accompanied by a decrease in the other, consequently balancing out national aggregates. If households of size one and two are considered for instance; two person households headed by males added less to total share of poor households than their single household counterparts; whereas the inverse applies to female headed households. The figure also highlights that the weighted input of two person households to overall share of poor households was more or less similar in both male and female headed household distributions at approximately 19,0%.

5.4 Poverty profile by household composition

5.4.1 Household composition and province

Figure 5. 15: Poverty incidence of households by province and household composition

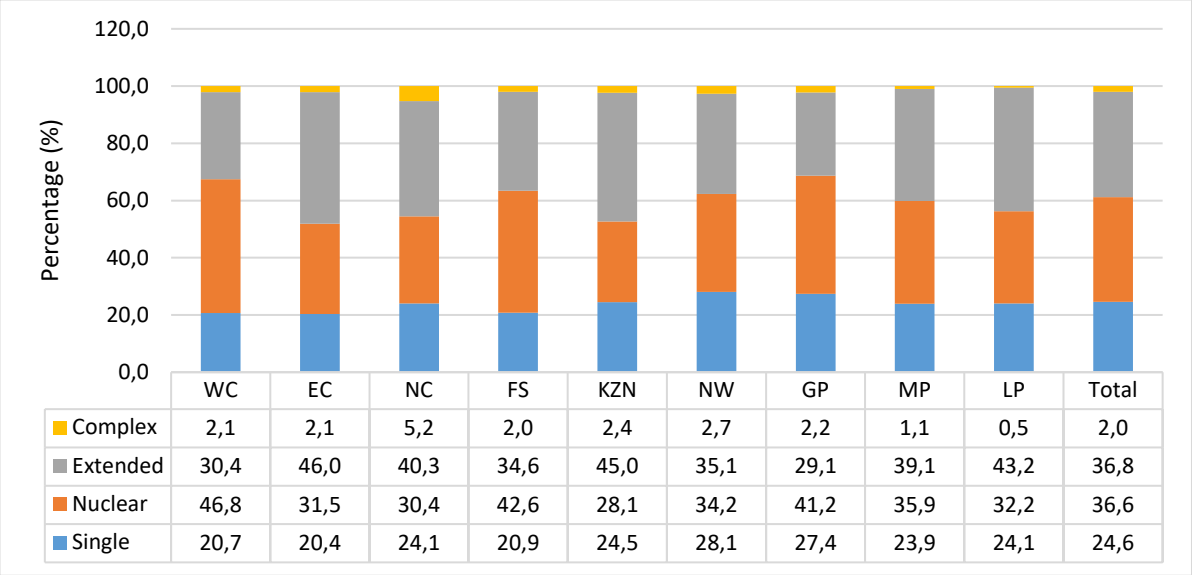


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Single	34,5	57,7	49,6	50,7	34,4	57,2	52,2	70,5	45,2	48,9
Nuclear	28,9	61,1	33,6	51,5	28,7	53,9	43,0	65,1	41,3	42,8
Extended	36,4	65,7	43,4	55,7	38,5	62,0	51,8	59,8	44,6	50,2
Complex	20,2	63,1	55,8	48,7	27,0	62,8	43,7	50,9	19,7	39,4

A breakdown of poverty by province and the structures of household composition in Figure 5.15 shows that extended households were the most vulnerable to poverty with an estimated 50,2% of households stating that the total household monthly income is lesser than that which the household deems sufficient to make ends meet. The Western Cape, Eastern Cape, Free State and KwaZulu-Natal provinces also ranked this type of household composition as the most worse-off in terms

of poverty prevalence. Focusing on the length of the bars, the column representing single person households in Mpumalanga becomes prominent. This is because this particular group was the most vulnerable to poverty; with an astounding 70,5% falling below the threshold that identifies them as non-poor. Still on single households; this class was also ranked poorest in two other provinces, namely Gauteng and Limpopo, with ratios of 52,2% and 45,2% respectively. Interestingly; nuclear households were not identified as leading in poverty levels in any of the nine provinces.

Figure 5. 16: Percentage distribution of poor households by province and household composition

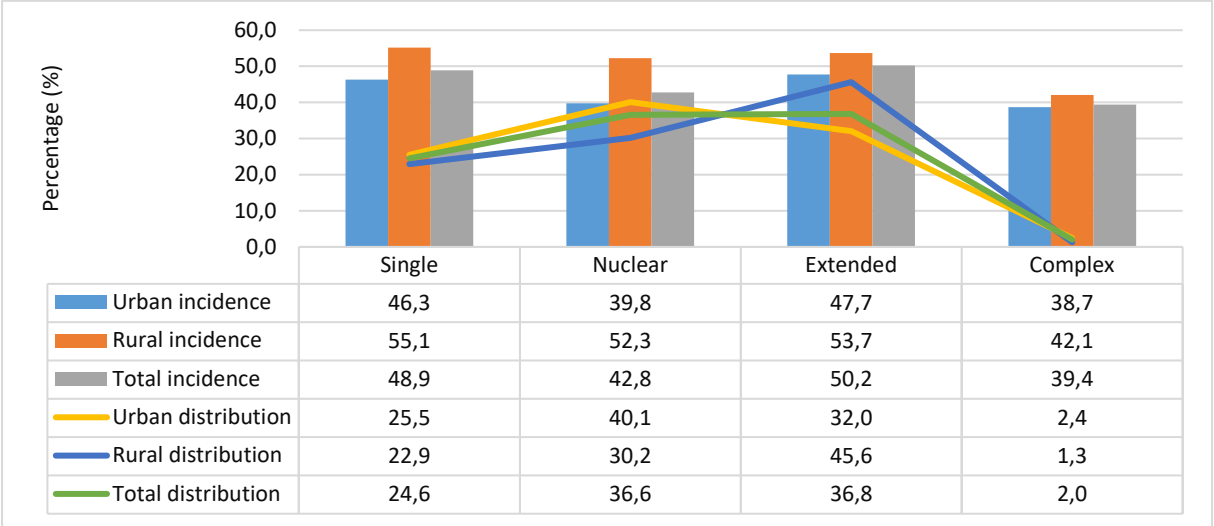


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Complex	2,1	2,1	5,2	2,0	2,4	2,7	2,2	1,1	0,5	2,0
Extended	30,4	46,0	40,3	34,6	45,0	35,1	29,1	39,1	43,2	36,8
Nuclear	46,8	31,5	30,4	42,6	28,1	34,2	41,2	35,9	32,2	36,6
Single	20,7	20,4	24,1	20,9	24,5	28,1	27,4	23,9	24,1	24,6

An assessment of the provincial distribution of poor household by their respective household composition structure reveals that extended and nuclear household setups combined account for at least 70,0% of total share of poor households as depicted in Figure 5.16. Taking it further; the data additionally informs us that complex households were the least likely group in all provinces depicted in the figure above. These findings are reflected in the rightmost column that quantifies national estimates. Putting figures on it; complex households accounted for only 2,0% of the total distribution of poor households; followed by single households at 24,6%. The remainder of the share is apportioned to extended and nuclear households which jointly accounted for roughly 73,0% of total poor households.

5.4.2 Household composition and settlement type

Figure 5. 17: Poverty incidence of households and distribution of poor households by settlement type and household composition



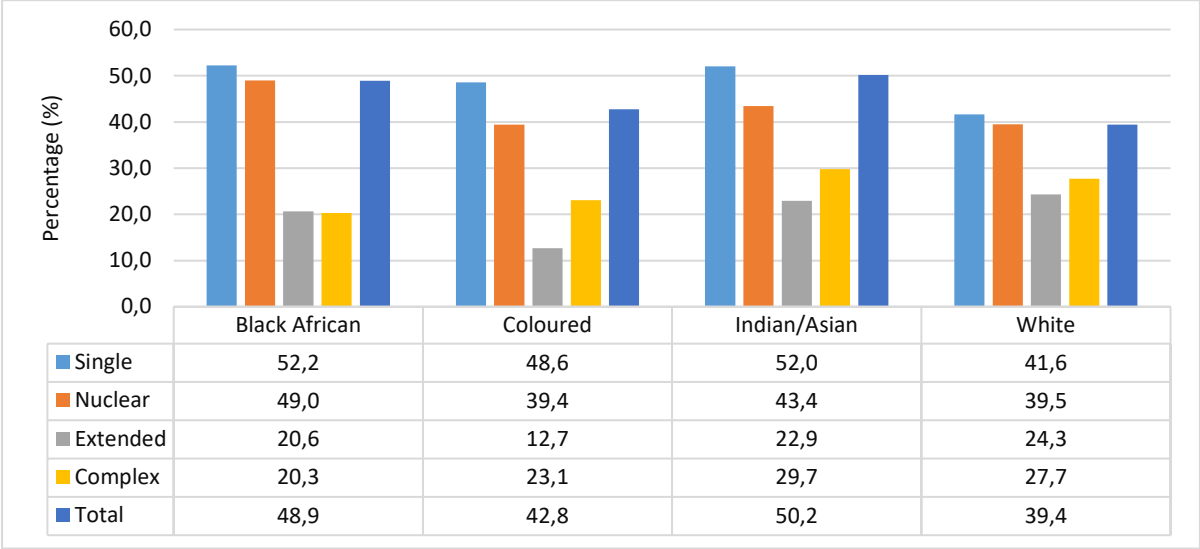
	Single	Nuclear	Extended	Complex
Urban incidence	46,3	39,8	47,7	38,7
Rural incidence	55,1	52,3	53,7	42,1
Total incidence	48,9	42,8	50,2	39,4
Urban distribution	25,5	40,1	32,0	2,4
Rural distribution	22,9	30,2	45,6	1,3
Total distribution	24,6	36,6	36,8	2,0

The first impression of the disaggregation of poverty by location and the nature of the household's composition is the remarkable likeness of the urban and aggregate national poverty outcomes as perceived by the alignment of columns in the plot demonstrating poverty prevalence. As realized in Figure 5.17; in all household composition structures; rural households were found to be worse-off regarding the extent of poverty exposure. A striking outcome is that in both geo-locations; one-person households recorded the highest extent of vulnerability with percentages of 46,3% and 55,1% for urban and rural areas respectively. Alternatively, complex households showed the least exposure with urban and rural areas recording ratios of 38,7% and 42,1% respectively.

An assessment of distribution outcomes shows that Complex households were substantially the least likely group in overall poverty; with shares not exceeding 3,0% in both urban and rural settlements. Additionally; the urban distribution reached its peak at the mark associated with nuclear households; which ascertains that this type of composition added to total poverty the most in the aforementioned settlement type (40,1%). However; the distribution of poor households in the rural geo-location ranks extended households as the leading contributor to poverty by an estimated 45,6 percentage share.

5.4.3 Household composition and population group

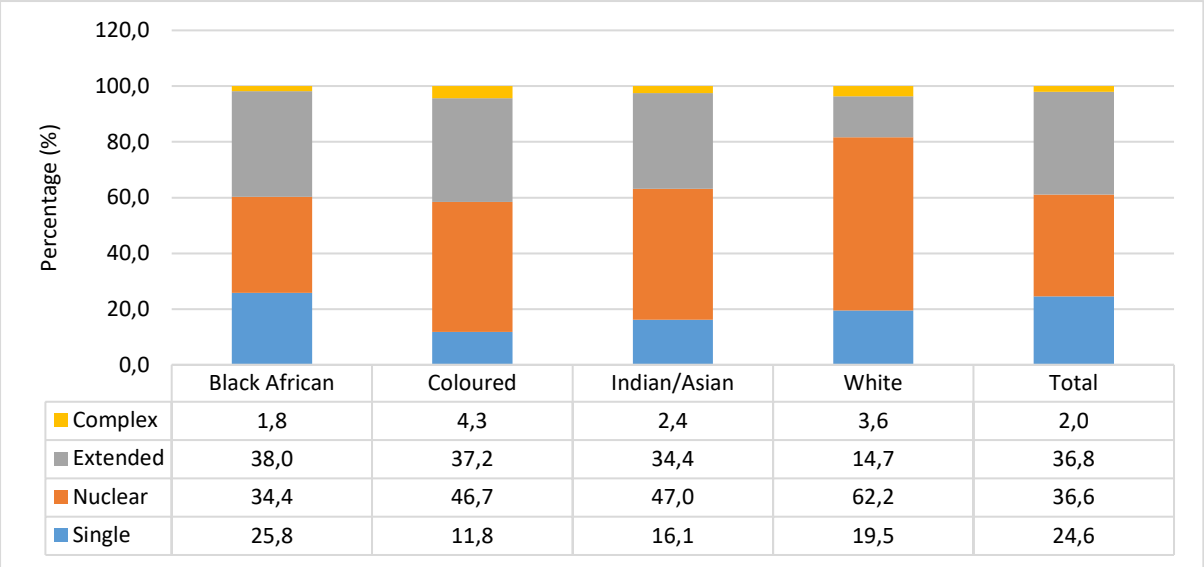
Figure 5. 18: Poverty incidence of households by population group and household composition type



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White
Single	52,2	48,6	52,0	41,6
Nuclear	49,0	39,4	43,4	39,5
Extended	20,6	12,7	22,9	24,3
Complex	20,3	23,1	29,7	27,7
Total	48,9	42,8	50,2	39,4

When examining poverty differentials from a racial angle bearing in mind the household's type of composition; it becomes evident that poverty is more prevalent in single-person households; and this was true for all race groups. Also; poverty levels were for the most part significantly minimal in the extended household category. When attention is directed to Coloured and Indian/Asian single-person households; it is apparent that one in every two households are expected to be poor. Furthermore; the aforementioned groups were by comparison the most susceptible to poverty. A further assessment of the output makes it apparent that poverty became less prevalent as the households' composition broadened periodically from the single to extended category.

Figure 5. 19: Percentage distribution of poor households by population group and household composition

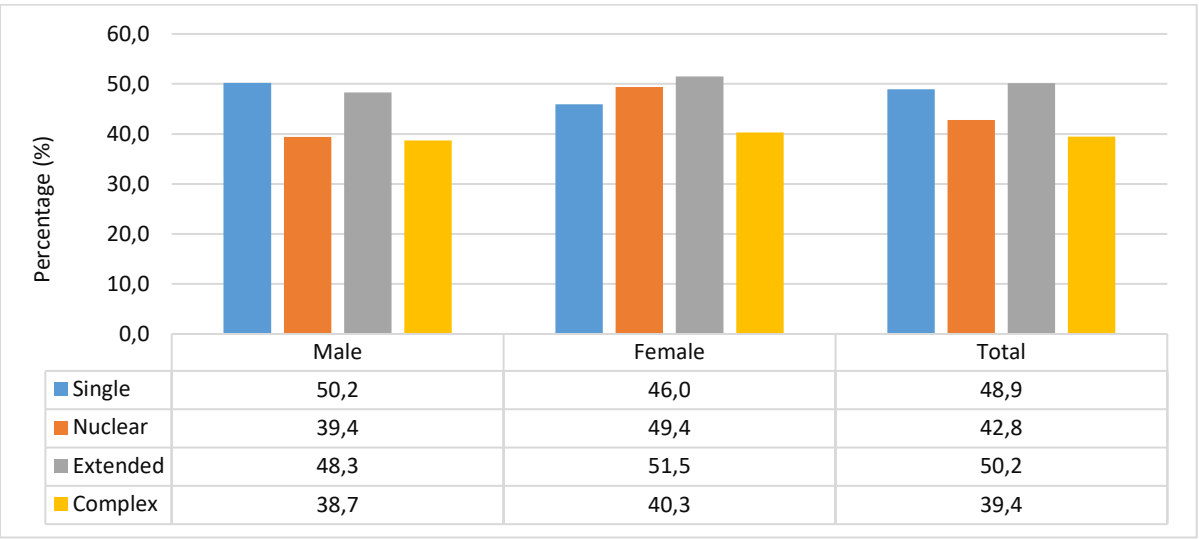


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Complex	1,8	4,3	2,4	3,6	2,0
Extended	38,0	37,2	34,4	14,7	36,8
Nuclear	34,4	46,7	47,0	62,2	36,6
Single	25,8	11,8	16,1	19,5	24,6

Figure 5.19 provides a perspective on how the various household composition structures are spread within the different population groups. A remarkable result is the over-representation of nuclear households in the distribution of poor white households which is correspondingly reflected in the relatively lower share of the extended household composition for the same group (62,2% and 14,7% respectively). With respect to the coloured column; an over-representation of complex households is observed by a record 4,3% which exceeds the national estimate by roughly twice as much. An equally notable result is that single poor households were most likely in the black African race than any other population group.

5.4.4 Household composition and sex of the household head

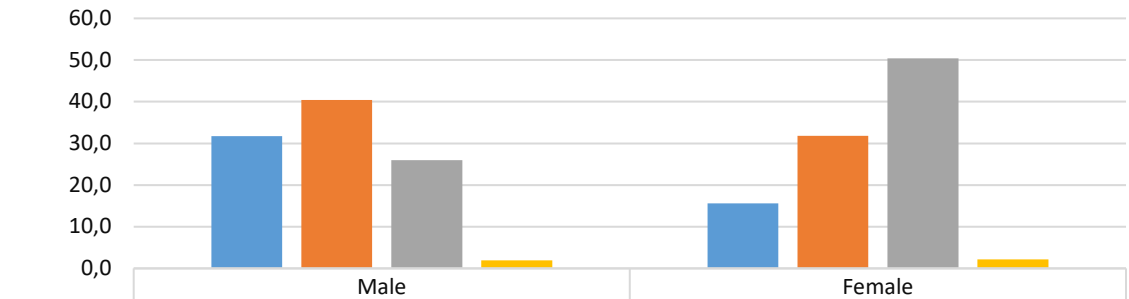
Figure 5. 20: Poverty incidence of households by sex of the household head and household composition



	Male	Female	Total
Single	50,2	46,0	48,9
Nuclear	39,4	49,4	42,8
Extended	48,3	51,5	50,2
Complex	38,7	40,3	39,4

The degree of poverty from a gender and household composition perspective reinforces the findings in Figure 5.20 where males living alone as a one-person household were found to be more exposed to poverty than their female counterparts. However; the rest of the categories recognized women headed households as being poorer than male headed households. For instance, four in ten male headed households classified as nuclear households were found to be poor; whereas female headed households in the same category recorded a five in ten households' statistic. The rightmost cluster shows that in complex settings, poverty was more pronounced for female-headed than male-headed households by a marginal 1,6 percentage points.

Figure 5. 21: Percentage distribution of poor households by sex of the household head and household composition



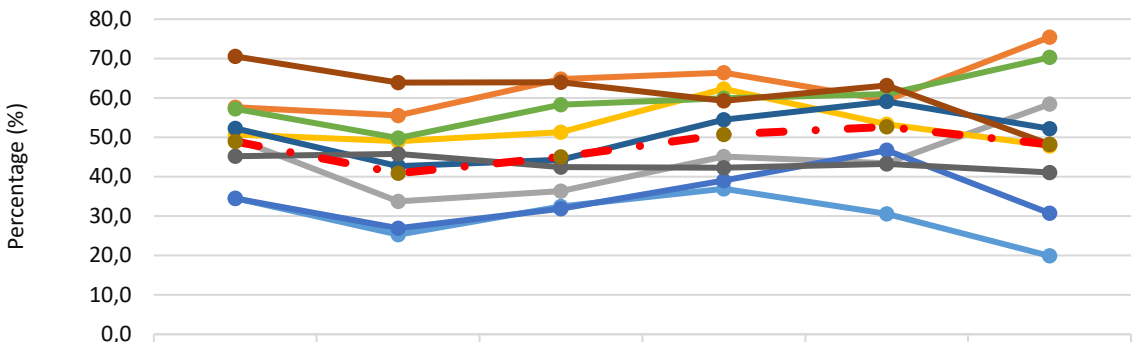
	Male	Female
Single	31,7	15,6
Nuclear	40,4	31,8
Extended	26,0	50,4
Complex	1,9	2,2

Significant gender disparities relating to the distribution of poor households are highlighted in Figure 5.21. On the onset, it is clear that nuclear households contributed the most to the share of poor households in male-headed households whereas extended households were the majority contributors to the female-headed households. Furthermore, single household composition types were twice likely in male-headed households when compared to female-headed households (31,7% and 15,6% respectively). Although the aforementioned disparities between male and female headed households exist; the two groups recorded practically comparable proportions of 1,9% and 2,2% for male and female headed households respectively for complex household structure. This was also observed in chapters 3 and 4 when the SPWQ and MIQ measures of subjective poverty were applied.

5.5 Poverty profile by inter-generational households

5.5.1 Inter-generational households and province

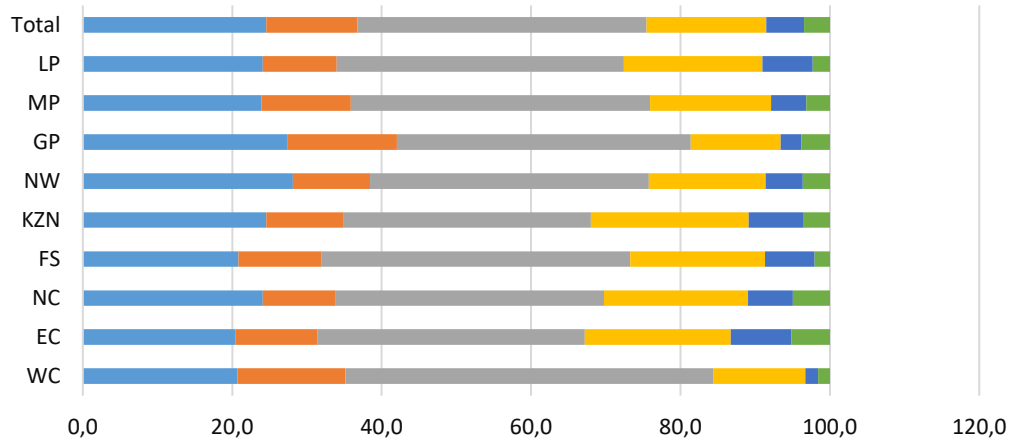
Figure 5. 22: Poverty incidence of households by inter-generational households and province



	Single person	Single generation	Double generation	Triple generation	Skip generation	Unclear
WC	34,5	25,3	32,4	36,9	30,6	19,9
EC	57,7	55,6	64,8	66,4	59,4	75,4
NC	49,6	33,7	36,4	45,1	43,4	58,4
FS	50,7	49,0	51,3	62,3	53,4	47,8
KZN	34,4	26,9	31,8	39,0	46,7	30,8
NW	57,2	49,8	58,3	59,9	61,0	70,3
GP	52,2	42,7	44,3	54,5	59,1	52,2
MP	70,5	63,9	64,0	59,2	63,2	48,2
LP	45,2	45,8	42,4	42,3	43,3	41,1
Total	48,9	40,9	45,1	50,8	52,6	48,2

A provincial representation of the extent to which households are exposed to poverty when considering generational structure is graphically represented in Figure 5.22. The first impression is the lack of a robust pattern between the variables in this multivariate depiction. As a start, the national estimates as represented by the red dashes in the plot with fluctuations along the 50 percent mark are assessed. Although single generation households recorded a prevalence of 40,9%, the general view is that overall poverty prevalence was for the most part approximately 50,0% for the generational types listed. Delving down to provincial outcomes; we note only two provinces that recorded scores below national estimates at every point; namely Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. The Eastern Cape, Mpumalanga, and the Free State provinces on the other hand recorded percentages that were either greater or equal to national rates. Further inspection of the results gives an indication that poverty was most prevalent in the Eastern Cape cluster of households with an unclear generation structure (75,4%).

Figure 5. 23: Percentage distribution of poor households by inter-generational households and province

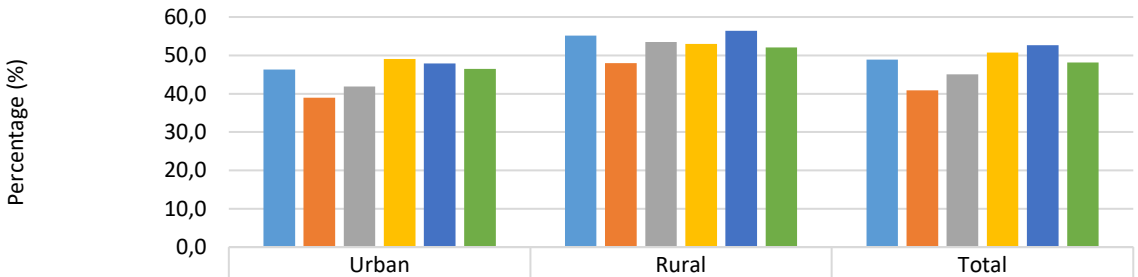


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Single person	20,7	20,4	24,1	20,9	24,5	28,1	27,4	23,9	24,1	24,6
Single generation	14,4	11,0	9,8	11,1	10,4	10,4	14,6	12,0	9,9	12,2
Double generation	49,2	35,8	35,9	41,3	33,1	37,3	39,3	40,1	38,4	38,7
Triple generation	12,3	19,5	19,3	18,0	21,1	15,6	12,1	16,2	18,5	16,0
Skip generation	1,7	8,1	6,0	6,7	7,4	5,0	2,8	4,7	6,7	5,0
Unclear	1,6	5,2	4,9	2,0	3,5	3,6	3,8	3,1	2,3	3,5

The provincial distribution of poor households according to the type of household generation in Figure 5.23 shows that double generation households were uncontestably the leading contributors to poverty in all nine provinces; this is similarly reflected in the national outcome. On the contrary; households classified as unclear on average added to poverty the least of all generation types; this is affirmed by the national estimate of 3,5%. The output further reveals that single person type households were most likely in the North West and Gauteng provinces with shares of 28,1% and 27,4% respectively. Furthermore, skip generation households were over-represented in the Eastern Cape and under-represented in the Western Cape when compared to the national estimate of 5,0%.

5.5.2 Inter-generational households and settlement type

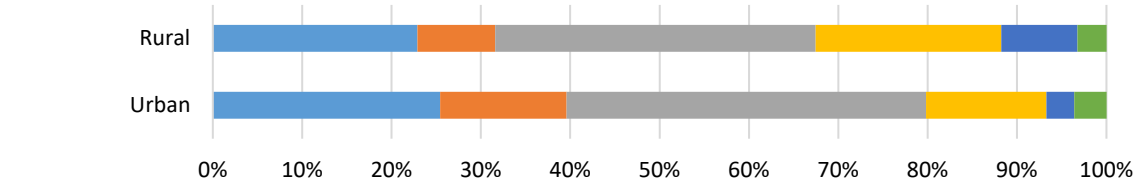
Figure 5. 24: Poverty incidence of households by inter-generational households and settlement type



	Urban	Rural	Total
Single person	46,3	55,1	48,9
Single generation	38,9	48,0	40,9
Double generation	41,9	53,5	45,1
Triple generation	49,0	52,9	50,8
Skip generation	47,9	56,4	52,6
Unclear	46,4	52,1	48,2

The nature of co-residence within South African households and its association with poverty is illustrated for urban and rural households in Figure 5.24. Considering the urban outcomes, it is clear that the extent of poverty increased with the expansion of generations from single to triple; this was also the situation nationally. This pattern, however, was lacking for rural households. Additionally, in the urban geo-location, triple generation households were the most impacted by the scourge of poverty whereas single generational households were the least afflicted. A key highlight of this analysis is that for all household generation types; poverty was more likely in rural households than their urban counterparts, with the widest gap identified for double generational households; where rural households were found to be roughly 1,3 times more vulnerable than urban households.

Figure 5. 25: Percentage distribution of poor households by inter-generational households and settlement type

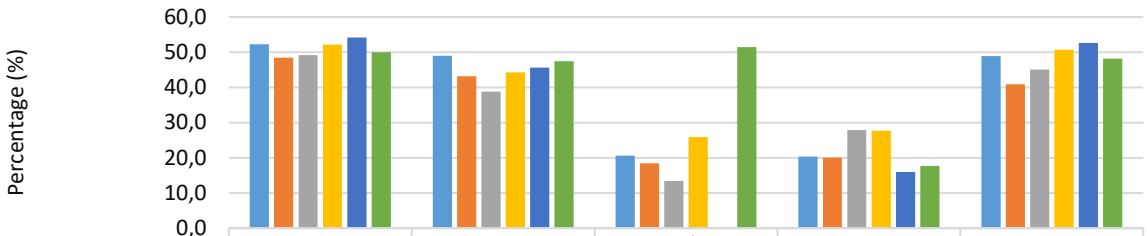


	Urban	Rural
Single person	25,5	22,9
Single generation	14,1	8,7
Double generation	40,2	35,9
Triple generation	13,5	20,8
Skip generation	3,1	8,5
Unclear	3,6	3,2

Double generation households were the largest contributors to poverty in both urban and rural areas, followed by single person households as shown in Figure 5.25. Jointly; the aforementioned generation types contributed over 50% of overall poverty in their respective areas. A close-up on the estimates also reveals that skip generation households classified as poor according to the IEQ indicator were more than twice likely in rural areas than their urban counterparts confirmed by respective approximations of 8,5% and 3,1%. Households lacking an obvious or straightforward generation classification according to the data had minimal impact on the distributions; with approximately 3,0% of this class adding up to aggregate poverty.

5.5.3 inter-generational households and population group

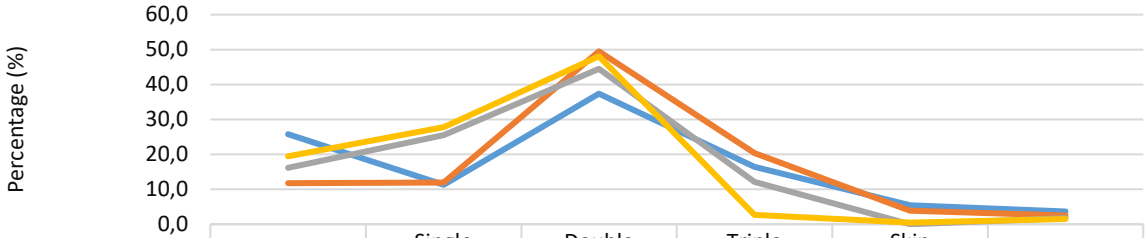
Figure 5. 26: Poverty incidence of households by inter-generational households and population group



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Single person	52,2	49,0	20,6	20,3	48,9
Single generation	48,4	43,1	18,4	20,0	40,9
Double generation	49,2	38,8	13,4	27,9	45,1
Triple generation	52,2	44,3	25,9	27,7	50,8
Skip generation	54,2	45,6		16,0	52,6
Unclear	50,0	47,5	51,4	17,7	48,2

Figure 5.26 is a representation of the headcount ratio of poor households taking into consideration their generational structure and population group. The leftward cluster clearly illustrates that for black Africans, exposure to poverty increased with the expansion of generations sequentially from single to triple generation. Additionally, skip generation households were the most exposed to poverty than the other groups with 54,2% stating a monthly income that falls short of what is perceived sufficient to make ends meet in their household. These findings correspond closely to what is observed for overall estimates. For coloured households; a plunge in the centre of the series that corresponds to double-generation households suggests that this cohort was the least vulnerable to poverty with an estimated 38,8% of households being recognized as poor. The Indian/Asian group outcomes reveal that households with an unclear generational designation were most susceptible to poverty by a considerable magnitude. Relatively, this group calculated a poverty prevalence two times higher than the next highest estimate in this population (51,4% as opposed to 25,9%). Moreover, a plunge at the point representing double-generation households is observed, indicating minimal poverty incidence. Contrary to findings relating to the afore-mentioned population groups, the white race has displayed a peak where double-generation households are concerned, with 27,9% of households in this category considered to be living in poverty.

Figure 5. 27: Percentage distribution of poor households by inter-generational households and population group

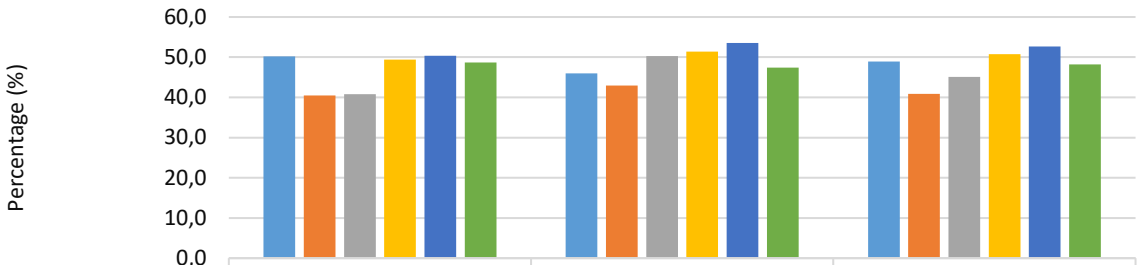


	Single person	Single generation	Double generation	Triple generation	Skip generation	Unclear
Black African	25,8	11,3	37,4	16,5	5,4	3,7
Coloured	11,8	11,9	49,5	20,4	3,9	2,5
Indian/Asian	16,1	25,5	44,5	12,1	0,0	1,8
White	19,5	27,8	48,1	2,7	0,5	1,5

Figure 5.27 shows the variability of poor households by the type of generational structure for each population group. The highlight of the figure is that double-generation households constituted the bulk of poor households in all population groups. This is evident from the vertex aligned with the point that represents this particular household structure. The inferiority of the flat tail at the right of the distribution is an apparent indication that skip generation households and households with an unclear generation structure accounted for the least share in overall poverty.

5.5.4 Inter-generational households and sex of the household head

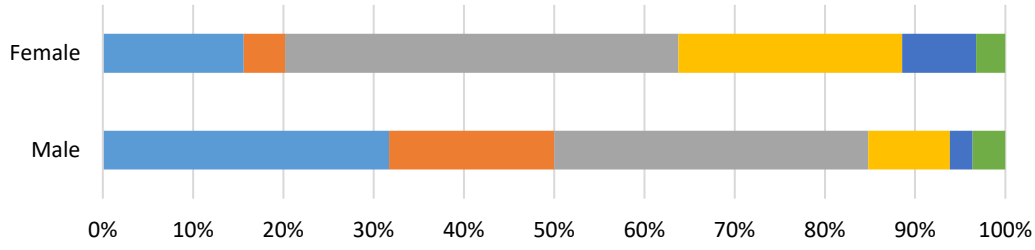
Figure 5. 28: Poverty incidence of households by inter-generational households and sex of the household head



	Male	Female	Total
Single person	50,2	46,0	48,9
Single generation	40,5	42,9	40,9
Double generation	40,8	50,3	45,1
Triple generation	49,4	51,4	50,8
Skip generation	50,4	53,6	52,6
Unclear	48,7	47,4	48,2

Households afflicted by poverty were more likely to be female-headed in single, double, triple and skip generation households as illustrated in Figure 5.28. Also, for female-headed household, poverty worsened consecutively as generations extended from single right through to triple generations. Of note too is that for both male and female headed households; the skip generation type households were the most impoverished by ratios of 50,4% and 53,6% respectively. This finding contradicts findings when poverty is measured by the SPWQ and MIQ standards. To put it plainly, poverty was more prevalent in single generation households by MIQ standards, and this was the case for both male and female headed households. Equally considering the SPWQ indicator with emphasis on male-headed households; results rank single person households as the most likely to be poor by a headcount ratio of 35,8%.

Figure 5. 29: Percentage distribution of poor households by inter-generational households and sex of the household head



	Male	Female
Single person	31,7	15,6
Single generation	18,3	4,6
Double generation	34,8	43,6
Triple generation	9,0	24,8
Skip generation	2,5	8,2
Unclear	3,6	3,2

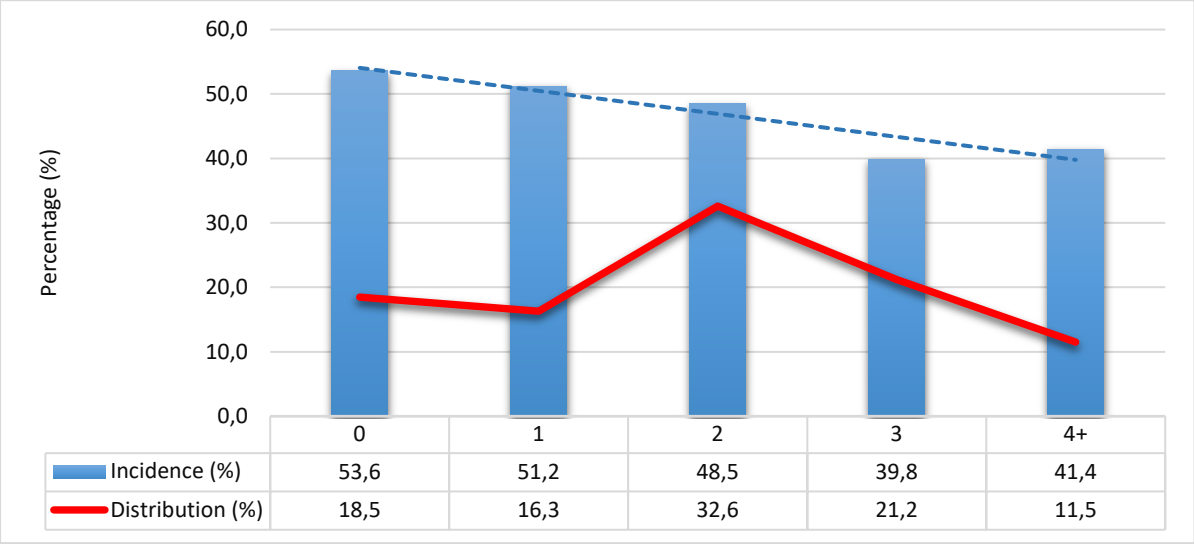
A striking feature in Figure 5.29 is that single person households were twice more likely in poor male-headed households than female-headed households. Furthermore; triple generation households were 2.8 times more likely in poor female-headed than male-headed households. The pronounced gap in the proportion of single-generation households when the two distributions are compared further affirms the gender disparities that continue to prevail in society. In both distributions; double generation households accounted for the majority of poor households. To quantify the aforesaid statement; of the

gross poor female headed households; 43,6% were likely to be double generation households. With reference to poor male-headed households, this estimate was found to be 8,8 percentage points less at 34,8%.

5.6 Poverty profile by number of bedrooms

5.6.1 Poverty incidence and distribution of poor households by number of bedrooms

Figure 5. 30: Poverty incidence and distribution of poor households by the number of bedrooms



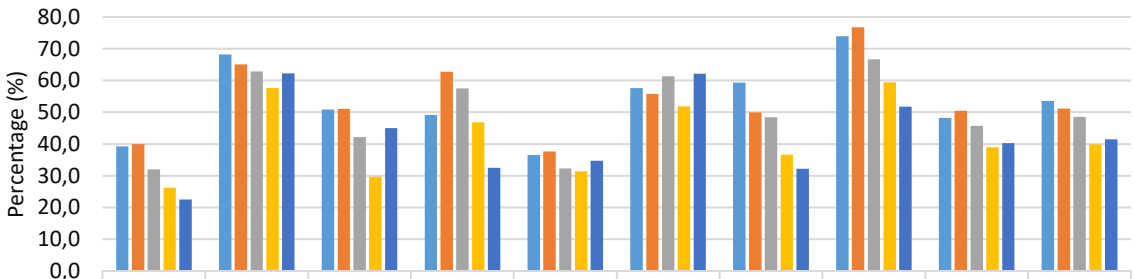
	0	1	2	3	4+
Incidence (%)	53,6	51,2	48,5	39,8	41,4
Distribution (%)	18,5	16,3	32,6	21,2	11,5

Evidence-based literature has established that the number of bedrooms a household occupies generally translates to the extent to which the household is economically well off. Moreover; households that are considered economically well off are presumed non-poor. This widely held view is assessed in Figure 5.30 where the incidence and distribution of subjective poverty is graphically represented for the different number of bedrooms affiliated to a particular household. The trend line, denoted by the blue dashed line and commonly referred to as the line of best fit corroborates an overall decreasing movement of poverty incidence as the number of bedrooms occupied by a household increases.

The red line on the graph denotes the distribution of poor households by the number of bedrooms. The pattern seemingly points out households occupying two bedrooms to be the majority contributors to aggregate household poverty. In summary, the distribution of poor households' spikes from 16,3% for households with one bedroom, to a maximum of 32,6% for two bedroom households. Subsequent to that, a decline is observed with an estimated 21,2% of poor households shown to be occupying three bedrooms.

5.6.2 Number of bedrooms and province

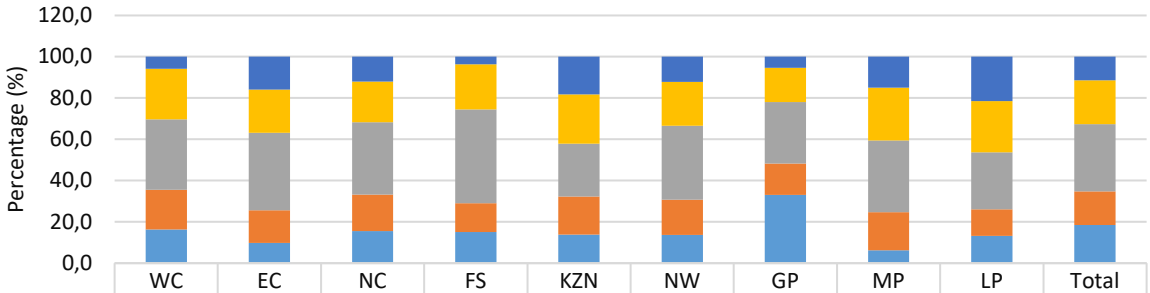
Figure 5. 31: Poverty incidence of households by province and number of bedrooms



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
0	39,3	68,2	50,9	49,1	36,5	57,6	59,3	74,0	48,3	53,6
1	39,9	65,1	51,1	62,7	37,6	55,8	49,9	76,7	50,5	51,2
2	32,0	62,8	42,2	57,5	32,3	61,3	48,4	66,7	45,7	48,5
3	26,2	57,6	29,7	46,8	31,4	51,9	36,6	59,4	38,9	39,8
4+	22,5	62,2	45,0	32,5	34,7	62,1	32,2	51,8	40,2	41,4

Assessing poverty levels by the number of bedrooms a household occupies reveals different patterns for the depicted provinces in Figure 5.31. Firstly; a robust decline in poverty prevalence associated with an increase in the number of bedrooms a household occupies was observed only in Gauteng. That is, with every additional bedroom associated with a household; poverty prevalence declined; this is made clear by the downward inclination of the bars rightward. Although imperfect; the Western Cape, Eastern Cape, Free State and Mpumalanga provinces generally portrayed a similar pattern as previously discussed. Simply put; poverty prevalence for the most part decreased as the number of bedrooms increased for the aforementioned provinces. When assessing the North West province, a fluctuating pattern in poverty exposure is noted throughout the series portrayed by successive up and down movement across the range. An equally notable feature of this assessment is that poverty levels in the Eastern Cape; North West and Mpumalanga exceeded national outcomes in all listed categories of number of bedrooms.

Figure 5. 32: Percentage distribution of poor households by province and number of bedrooms



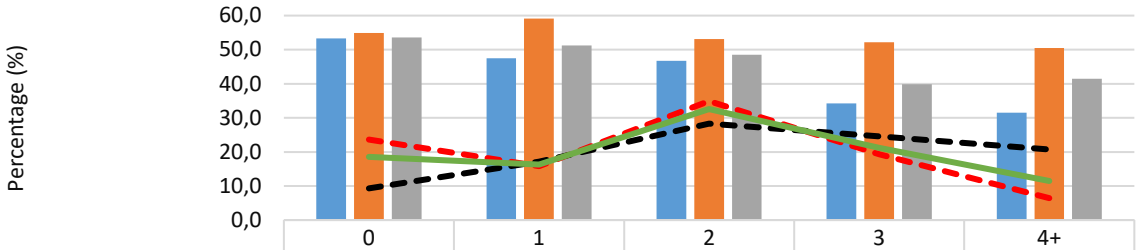
	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
4+	5,9	15,8	12,0	3,6	18,3	12,2	5,3	14,9	21,5	11,5
3	24,4	20,9	19,7	22,0	23,8	21,2	16,6	25,6	24,8	21,2
2	34,2	37,6	35,0	45,3	25,7	35,8	29,8	34,7	27,6	32,6
1	19,1	15,8	17,7	14,0	18,4	17,1	15,3	18,4	12,8	16,3
0	16,4	9,8	15,6	15,1	13,9	13,7	33,0	6,3	13,3	18,5

An extension of the previous table considers the actual distribution of poor households in accordance with the number of bedrooms inhabited by a household for each of the nine provinces. On the surface; it is apparent that households occupying two bedrooms were for the most part the leading contributors to poverty both provincially and nationally. However; this result was false in Gauteng; where households identified as lacking a bedroom in the dwelling accounted for the largest share in poor households at 33,0%. Additionally; this particular type of poor households was least likely in Mpumalanga than any other province with only a 6,3% stake in the provincial distribution.

A closer look at the desirable group of households occupying four or more bedrooms reveals that this cluster accounted for the smallest share in the distribution of poor households in five provinces, and nationally.

5.6.3 Number of bedrooms and settlement type

Figure 5. 33: Poverty incidence and distribution of poor households by settlement type and the number of bedrooms



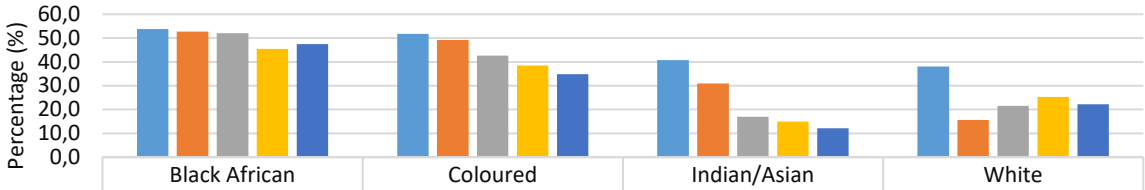
	0	1	2	3	4+
Urban incidence	53,3	47,4	46,7	34,2	31,5
Rural incidence	54,9	59,1	53,1	52,2	50,5
Total incidence	53,6	51,2	48,5	39,8	41,4
Urban distribution	23,6	15,8	34,9	19,3	6,4
Rural distribution	9,3	17,2	28,3	24,6	20,7
Total distribution	18,5	16,3	32,6	21,2	11,5

The exposure to poverty in terms of settlement type and the number of bedrooms is graphically illustrated in Figure 5.33. The blue bars that represent urban areas show a steady decline in the incidence of poverty throughout the series with each additional bedroom. An evaluation of the rural areas incidence outcomes reveals that poverty prevalence declined from 54,9% to 50,5% between the two endpoints; which equates to a decline of 4,45 percentage points.

A comparison of the rural and urban areas distributions is denoted by the dashed lines than run across the bars. At an instance it is evident that households that occupy zero and two bedroom setups contributed more to overall poverty in urban than rural areas. Alternatively; households occupying three bedrooms and more contributed more to poverty in rural areas than Urban. Trivial differences were observed for households associated with one-bedroom occupancy. A noteworthy finding is that both distributions encounter their peak at the point that symbolises residence in two-bedroom set ups. By default, this indicates that for both rural and urban distributions; households associated with two-bedrooms were the modal group of aggregate poverty. This finding was by default also true for the total distribution of poor households by the number of bedrooms a household occupies.

5.6.4 Number of bedrooms and population group

Figure 5. 34: Poverty incidence of households by population group and number of bedrooms

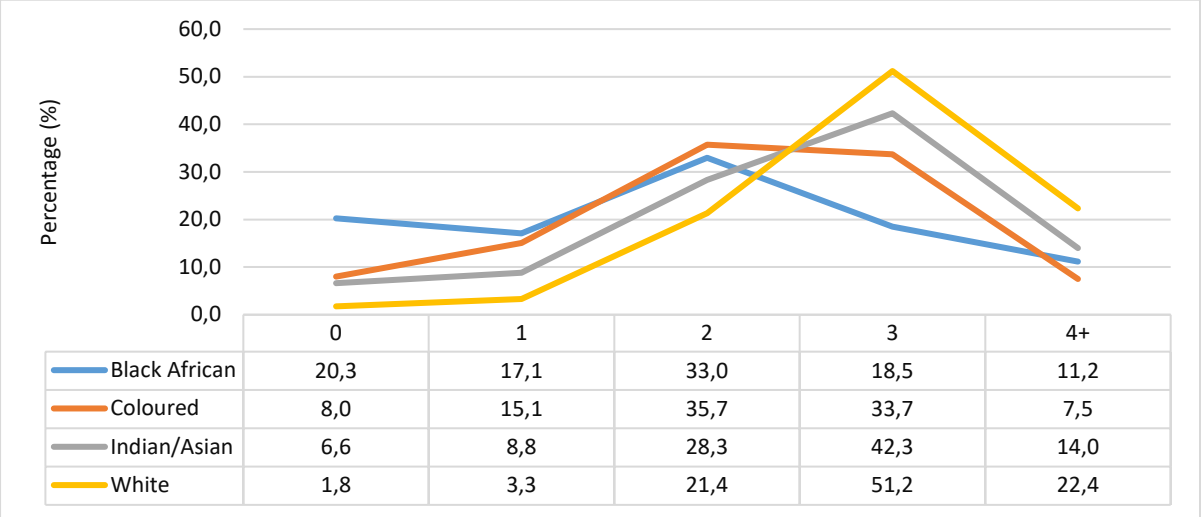


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White
0	53,8	51,7	40,8	38,0
1	52,7	49,2	30,9	15,7
2	52,1	42,6	17,0	21,5
3	45,5	38,5	15,0	25,3
4+	47,5	34,8	12,2	22,2

Figure 5.34 depicts that declines in poverty susceptibility between households living in structures without a bedroom and those with living arrangements of at least four bedrooms were recorded for all population groups; however; distinct racial patterns across the series were observed. To begin with; the coloured and Indian/Asian population groups recorded

successive declines in the proportion of poor households with each additional bedroom occupied by the household throughout the entire series. The black African race on the other hand recorded successive declines up until the three-bedroom category, after which an increase in the proportion of households exposed to poverty increases. An interesting sequence was observed with respect to the white group. A check on the alignment of the aforementioned group's cluster shows consecutive increases in poverty incidence supplemented by increases in the number of bedrooms allotted to a household when the number of bedrooms lies within the constraints of one and three. This outcome is arguably in conflict with previously observed patterns.

Figure 5. 35: Percentage distribution of poor households by population group and number of bedrooms

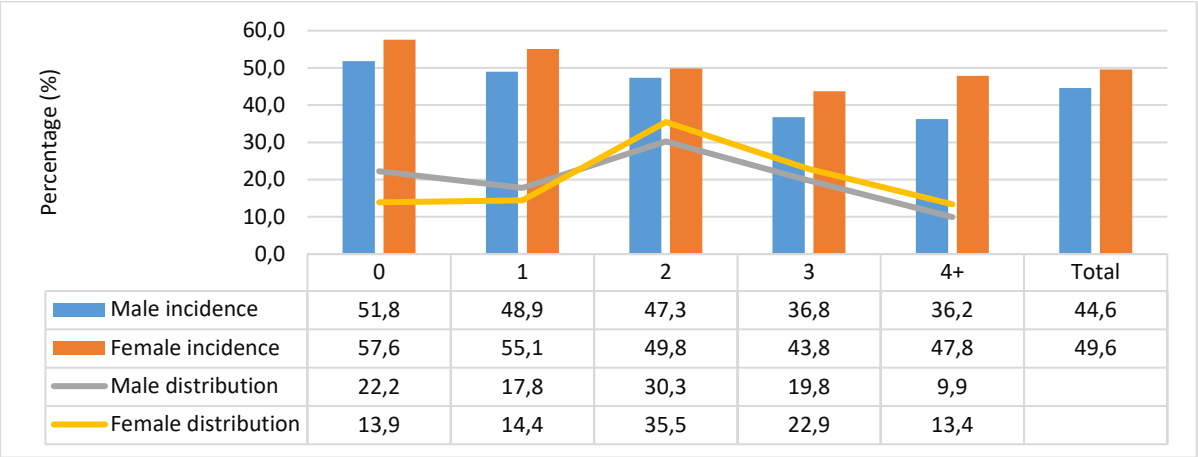


	0	1	2	3	4+
Black African	20,3	17,1	33,0	18,5	11,2
Coloured	8,0	15,1	35,7	33,7	7,5
Indian/Asian	6,6	8,8	28,3	42,3	14,0
White	1,8	3,3	21,4	51,2	22,4

The racial distribution of poor households according to the total number of bedrooms occupied reveals a number of notable outcomes as shown in Figure 5.35. Firstly; an almost similar movement varying across the series is recognized for the white and the Indian/Asian race. For the aforesaid races; the contribution to overall poverty according to the respective number of bedroom categories increases sequentially up to and including the fourth category that denotes households residing in three bedroom dwellings. Subsequent to this increase follows a sharp decline in the relative contribution of households residing in settings of more than three bedrooms to total poverty. Households that occupy two-bedrooms were ranked the majority contributor to total poverty for the coloured race; followed by households associated with three bedrooms with estimates of 35,7% and 33,7% respectively. Summing up the two approximations shows that the two aforementioned categories accounted for roughly 70,0% of overall poor coloured households. Moving along to the remainder group, namely the black African race; it is evident that poor households occupying two bedrooms and those lacking the privilege of a dwelling with a prescribed bedroom accounted for a share that exceeded half the total number of poor households with individual percentages of 33,0 and 20,3 respectively.

5.6.5 Number of bedrooms and sex of the household head

Figure 5. 36: Poverty incidence and distribution of poor households by sex of the household head and number of bedrooms



	0	1	2	3	4+	Total
Male incidence	51,8	48,9	47,3	36,8	36,2	44,6
Female incidence	57,6	55,1	49,8	43,8	47,8	49,6
Male distribution	22,2	17,8	30,3	19,8	9,9	
Female distribution	13,9	14,4	35,5	22,9	13,4	

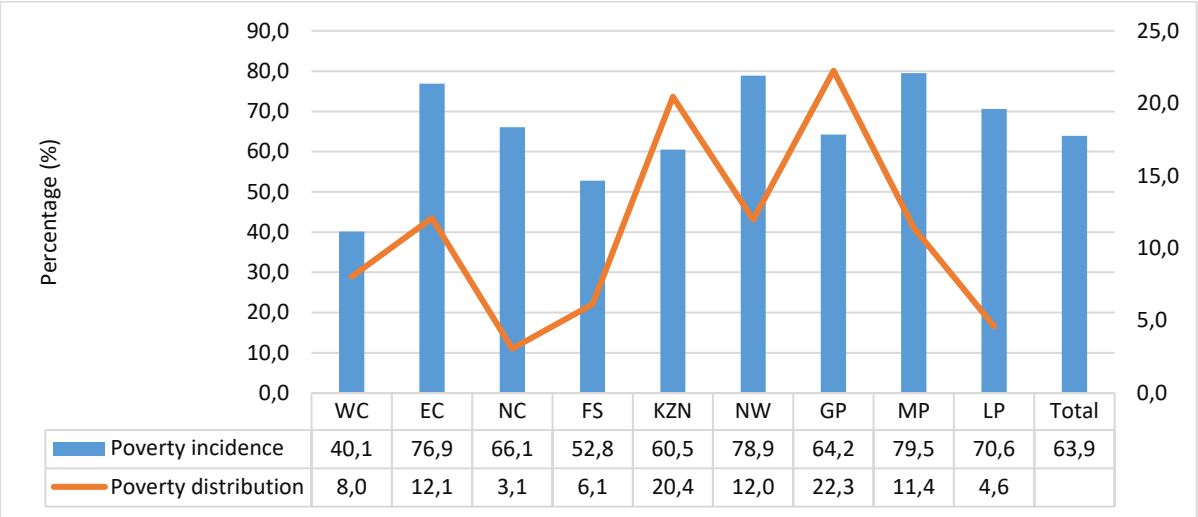
The interaction of sex and the number of bedrooms occupied by poor households is graphically represented in Figure 5.36. A consecutive decline in poverty prevalence is recorded for male-headed households throughout the series. Female-headed households on the other hand showed successive declines in poverty prevalence up to the instance of three-bedroom occupancy. Stating it numerically; three-bedroom female-headed households were 43,8% likely to be poor as opposed to 47,8% of those occupying four or more bedrooms. A further comparison of disaggregated poverty estimates to average estimates represented by the rightmost pair of columns clearly shows that poverty was overrepresented in households associated with two or less bedrooms and underrepresented for those with three or more bedrooms; this was true for both male and female headed households.

In brief, the distribution shows that poor households residing in two-bedroom settings were the chief contributor to overall poverty for both male-headed and female headed households with estimates of 47,3% and 49,8% respectively. Additionally, poor households associated with zero bedrooms were 1.6 times more likely in poor male-headed than female-headed households. Furthermore, poor households on the left end of the distribution representing occupancy of at least four bedrooms were more likely in the female than male distribution.

5.7: Poverty profile by experience of hunger

5.7.1 Experience of hunger and province

Figure 5. 37: Poverty incidence and distribution of poor households by province and experience of hunger



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Poverty incidence	40,1	76,9	66,1	52,8	60,5	78,9	64,2	79,5	70,6	63,9
Poverty distribution	8,0	12,1	3,1	6,1	20,4	12,0	22,3	11,4	4,6	

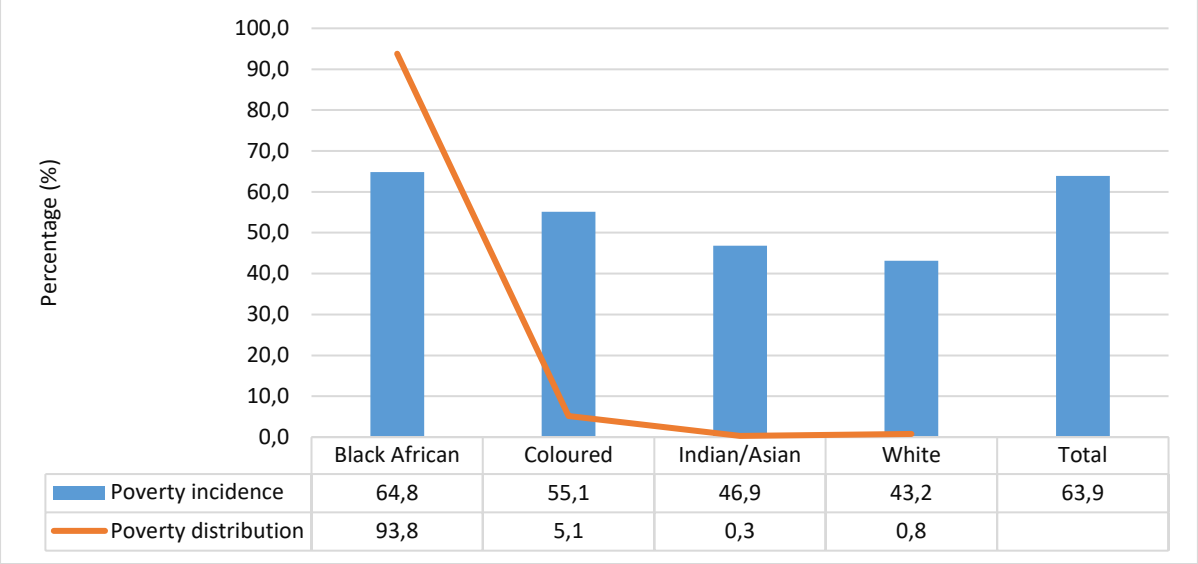
An examination of how subjective poverty as per the IEQ yardstick performs in households that reported to have experienced hunger is carried out in Figure 5.37. This fragment in particular considers provincial disparities as interpreted from the figure. Firstly, it is visible from the figure that the incidence of hunger and poverty was predominant in the Eastern Cape,

North West and Mpumalanga with roughly eight out of ten households that reported to have experienced hunger were also classified as poor in the twelve months prior to the survey. An additional highlight of the tabulation is that the Western Cape was the only province that recorded a poverty incidence not exceeding fifty percent for households that experienced hunger. Also, comparing the Western Cape statistic of 40,1% to the national estimate of 63,9 confirms that the prevalence of hunger in poor households was generally underrepresented in this province.

In terms of the distribution; the KwaZulu-Natal and Gauteng province were by far the chief contributors to the total number of poor households that experienced hunger by individual shares of 20,4% and 22,3% respectively. The lowest point of the curve is identified for the Northern Cape column; with a minimal contribution of only 3,1%. However; distribution outcomes must be interpreted bearing in mind relative provincial population estimates.

5.7.2 Experience of hunger and population group

Figure 5. 38: Poverty incidence and distribution of poor households by population group and experience of hunger

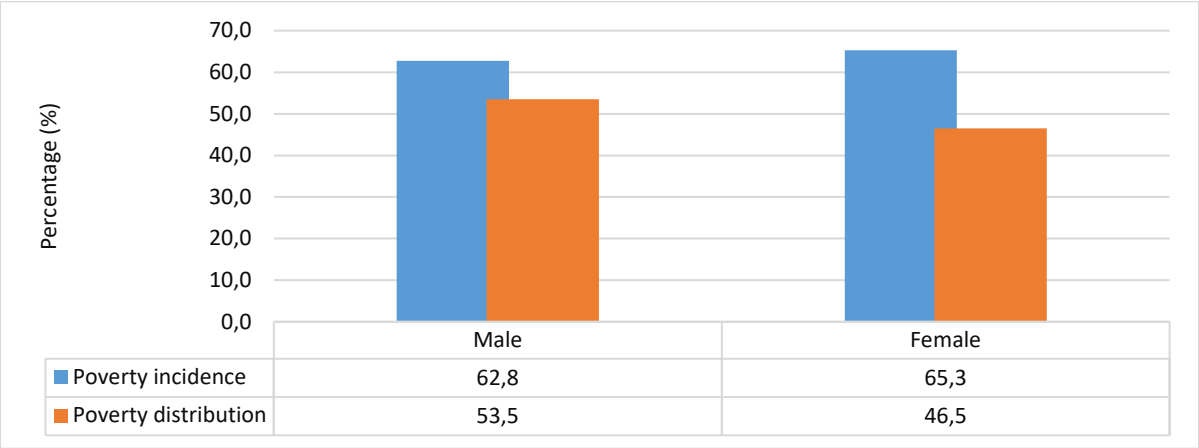


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Poverty incidence	64,8	55,1	46,9	43,2	63,9
Poverty distribution	93,8	5,1	0,3	0,8	

Figure 5.38 shows an analysis of poverty and experience of hunger through a racial lens. It is evident from the representation that the black African population group were affected the most by hunger and poverty. Results clearly state the poverty incidence of 64,8% for households that experienced hunger during the reference period; this was 0,9 percent points more than national outcomes. Additionally; black Africans added to total poverty a majority share of 93,8%. An alternative interpretation would be to say that out of 10 households that were affected by hunger and poverty; nine were likely to be Black African. Consequently; the remainder of population groups combined contributed less than one tenth to overall hunger and poverty occurrence.

5.7.3 Experience of hunger and sex of the household head

Figure 5. 39: Poverty incidence and distribution of poor households by sex of the household head and experience of hunger

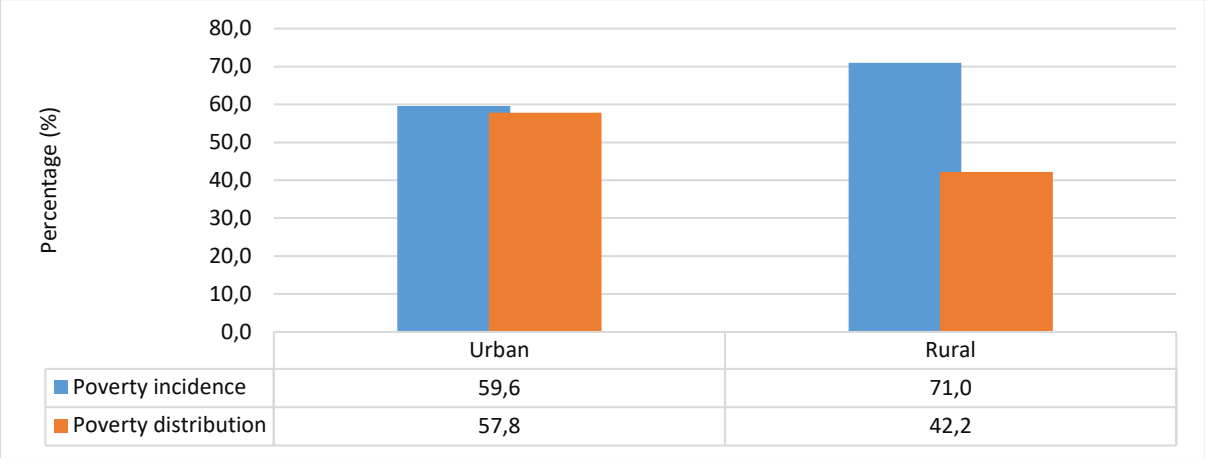


	Male	Female
Poverty incidence	62,8	65,3
Poverty distribution	53,5	46,5

The calculated male to female ratio from the analysis in Figure 5.39 is 96,2%; which is justifiably close to one. This result indicates that although the experience of hunger was more likely in poor female-headed households as compared to their male equivalents; the gap in that regards was fairly narrow. Considering the distribution outcomes; the output reveals that of all poor households with a household member that had gone hungry because of an insufficient provision of food; the majority were male-headed at an estimated 53,5%.

5.7.4 Experience of hunger and settlement type

Figure 5. 40: Poverty incidence and distribution of poor households by settlement type and experience of hunger



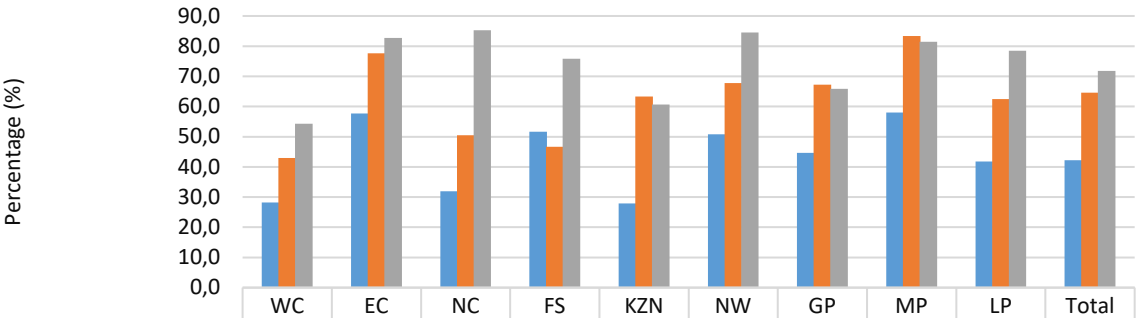
	Urban	Rural
Poverty incidence	59,6	71,0
Poverty distribution	57,8	42,2

The incidence of poverty for households that experienced hunger twelve months prior to the survey are assessed according to their relative settlement type in Figure 5.40. In terms of relative prevalence; rural households recorded significantly higher incidence than urban households (71,0% and 59,6% respectively). With respect to the contribution that each group added to total number of poor households that had similarly experienced hunger; the data table clearly ranks the urban settlement as the majority shareholder in this regard by 57,8% as opposed to 42,2% by rural settlement.

5.8: Poverty profile by level of food adequacy

5.8.1 Poverty incidence of households by level of food adequacy and province

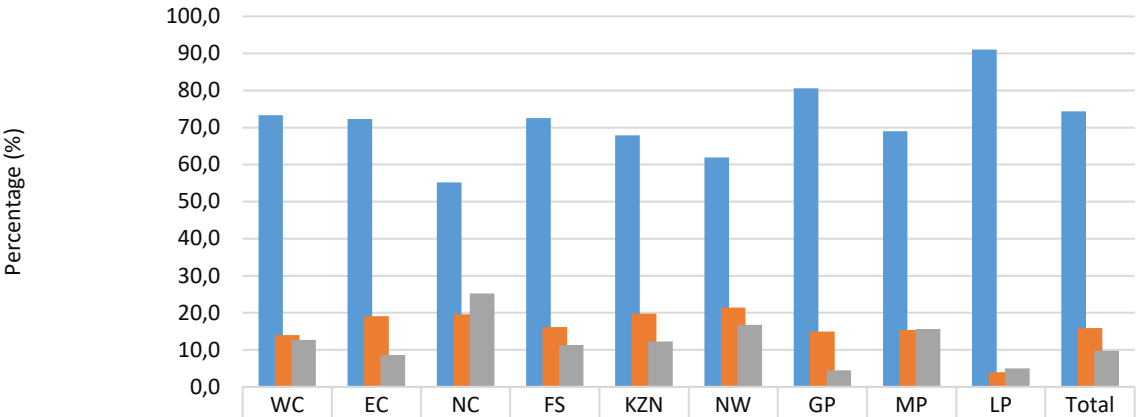
Figure 5. 41: Poverty incidence of households by province and level of food adequacy



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Adequate	28,2	57,7	31,9	51,6	27,9	50,8	44,6	58,0	41,8	42,2
Inadequate	42,9	77,6	50,5	46,7	63,3	67,8	67,3	83,3	62,4	64,5
Severely inadequate	54,3	82,7	85,3	75,8	60,7	84,5	65,9	81,5	78,4	71,8

The provincial poverty incidences associated with each of the three levels of food adequacy are depicted in Figure 5.41. Households that fall under the severely inadequate category were predominantly associated with higher levels of poverty as well. For instance; the Northern Cape recorded a poverty prevalence of 85,3% in this regard; which is comparatively 34,8 and 53,4 percentage points higher than the inadequate and adequate estimates respectively. A significant gap is similarly observed for the Free State province, with notable percentage points differences of 29,1 and 24,2 for the ratios associated with the adequate and inadequate food levels in that order. Nationally as well; households that reported severely inadequate food levels were similarly the most likely to be poor; followed by households that had an inadequate food supply. Consequently; households with adequate food supply were identified as the least likely to be impoverished. Nationally, results suggest that poverty prevalence worsens with increased levels of food inadequacy. This outcome was also observed for the Western Cape, Eastern Cape, Northern Cape, North West and Limpopo provinces.

Figure 5. 42: Percentage distribution of poor households by province and level of food adequacy



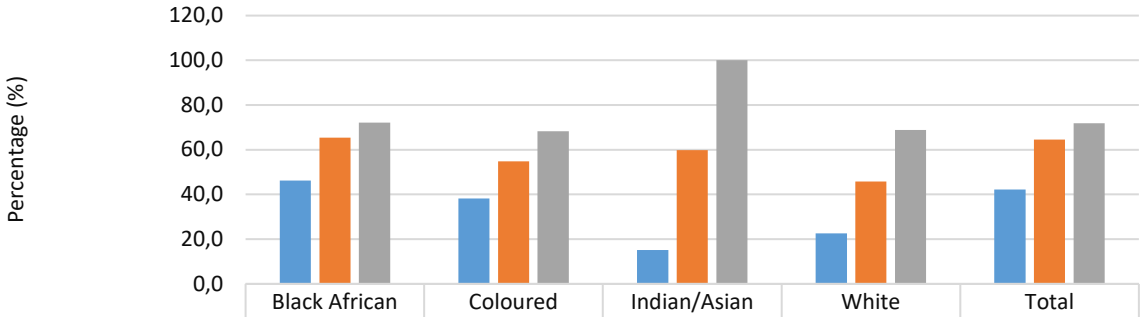
	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Adequate	73,4	72,3	55,2	72,5	67,9	61,9	80,6	69,0	91,1	74,4
Inadequate	14,0	19,1	19,6	16,2	19,8	21,4	15,0	15,3	3,9	15,9
Severely inadequate	12,7	8,6	25,2	11,3	12,3	16,7	4,5	15,6	5,0	9,8

Notable evidence concerning the distribution of poor households according to their level of food adequacy is provided in the attached Figure 5.42. Interestingly; households that reported adequate food provision were undoubtedly the group that added the most to overall poverty; and this was true for all provinces in question. Considering the case of Limpopo for instance; the figure shows that households with adequate food supply accounted for 91,1% of the share of poor households in the province, which exceeds the national estimate by 16,7 percentage points. A further inspection of the total estimates represented by the column on the right reveals that households that reported severely inadequate food supply constituted

the least to overall poverty. These findings suggest that the majority of households that are classified as subjectively poor were at the same time not exposed to unfavourable levels of food adequacy.

5.8.2 Poverty incidence by level of food adequacy and province

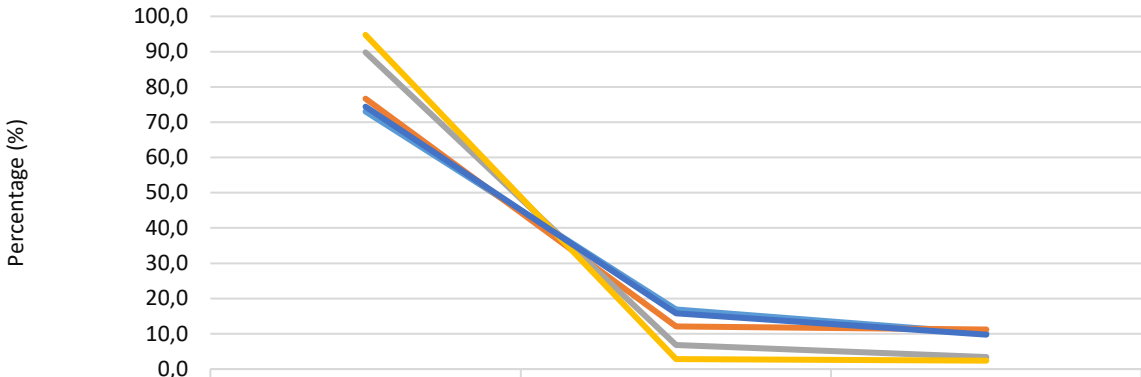
Figure 5. 43: Poverty incidence of households by population group and level of food adequacy



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Adequate	46,3	38,2	15,1	22,6	42,2
Inadequate	65,4	54,8	59,9	45,8	64,5
Severely inadequate	72,1	68,2	100,0	68,8	71,8

The poverty incidence of households according to racial distribution and their levels of food adequacy is illustrated graphically in Figure 5.43 above. The highlight of this output is that for all population groups; and nationally; poverty exposure increased with increased food inadequacy. However; the extent of the increases within the population groups differed in magnitude relative to the level of food adequacy. Taking the Indian/Asian population group as an illustration; poverty prevalence increased by roughly 40 percent points as food inadequacy worsened at each point. Additionally; a gap of 84,9 percentage points was observed between households with adequate food supply and those associated with severely inadequate food supply. When the Black/African case is put forward; estimates of 46,3% and 72,1% are noted for the households with adequate and severely inadequate food supply respectively; which translates to a gap of 25,8 percentage points between the two endpoints.

Figure 5. 44: Percentage distribution of poor households by population group and level of food adequacy



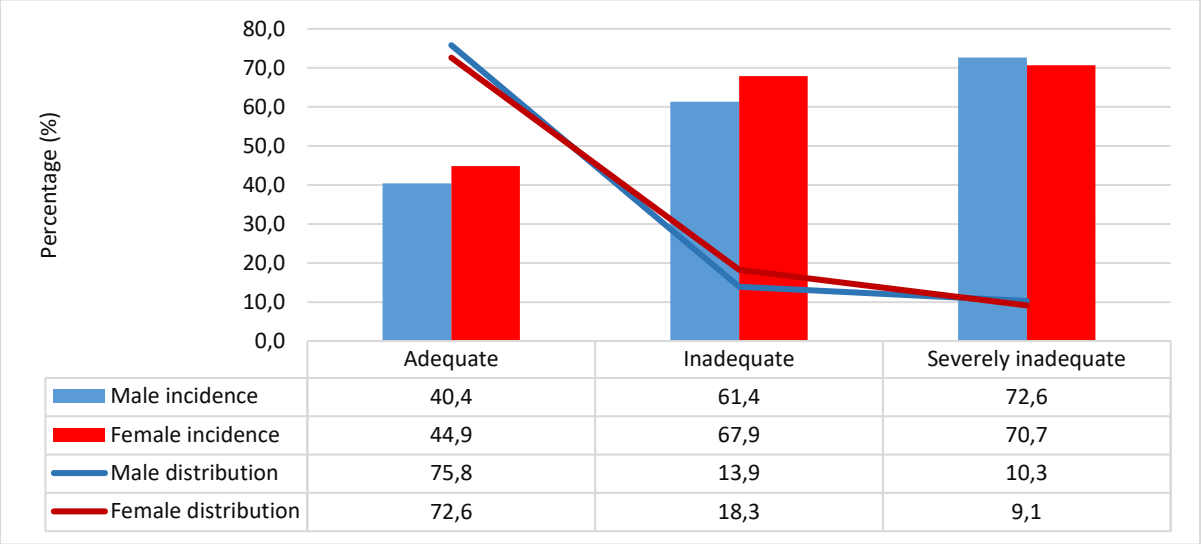
	Adequate	Inadequate	Severely inadequate
Black African	73,0	16,9	10,1
Coloured	76,7	12,1	11,2
Indian/Asian	89,8	6,8	3,4
White	94,7	2,9	2,4
Total	74,4	15,9	9,8

Racially distributing households with respect to the level of food adequacy yields the output presented in Figure 5.44. Yet again households that reported adequate food levels are found to be the prime contributors to overall poverty by estimates exceeding 70,0% in all population groups. Interesting to note also is that the contribution to poverty increased consistently

with improved levels of food adequacy for all population groups. Also, the output highlights that poor households reporting severely inadequate food supply were most likely in the coloured population group; with an estimate that exceeded the national average by 1,4 percentage points. On the favourable end of the output; results show that poor households reporting adequate levels of food supply were most likely in the white population group by a substantial share of 94,7%.

5.8.3 Level of food adequacy and sex of the household head

Figure 5. 45: Poverty incidence and distribution by sex of the household head and level of food adequacy



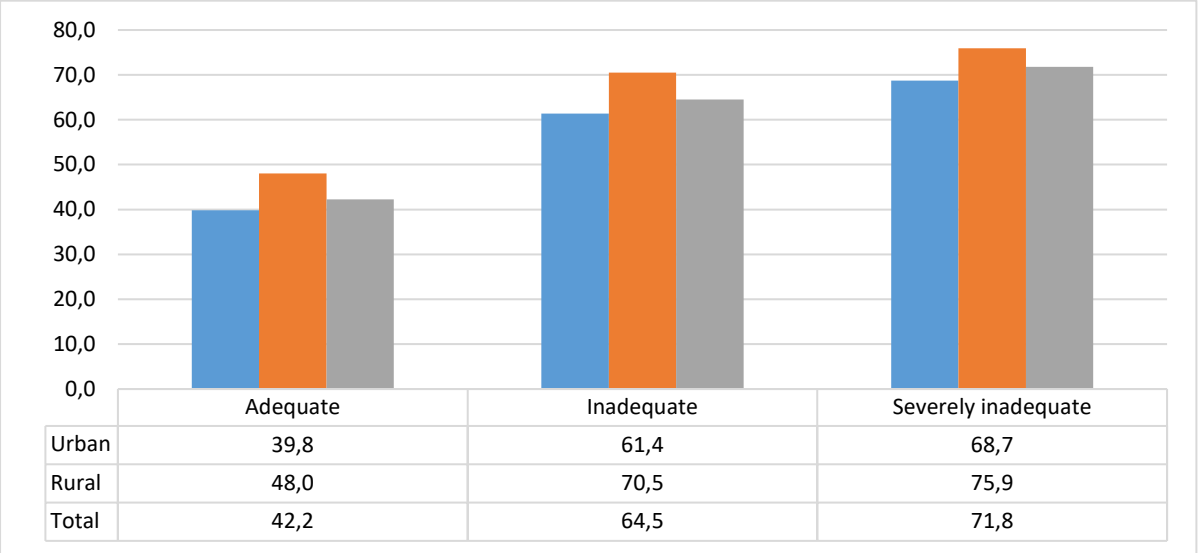
	Adequate	Inadequate	Severely inadequate
Male incidence	40,4	61,4	72,6
Female incidence	44,9	67,9	70,7
Male distribution	75,8	13,9	10,3
Female distribution	72,6	18,3	9,1

The incidence of poverty and the distribution of poor households are yet again perceived through a gender lens; bearing in mind the household's reported level of food adequacy. A comparison of relative frequencies as shown in Figure 5.45 reveals that in households with adequate and inadequate food supply; female-headed households were found to be more vulnerable to poverty. The opposite was the case for households with severely inadequate food supply. Moreover; both male and female headed households recorded increasing estimates of exposure to poverty accompanied by decreases in food adequacy. An indication of the gender disparity within each of levels of food adequacy is given by means of the relative male to female ratios pertaining to each of three levels of food adequacy; which when calculated give ratios of 90,0, 90,43, and 102,69 in the order provided in the presented output.

The distribution of the two groups signified by the continuous lines across the graph suggest that male-headed and female-headed households possess trivial dissimilarities in terms of their distribution across the three categories of food adequacy. Essentially; over 70% of poor households reported adequate food supply in both male and female headed classifications. Consequently, households with inadequate and severely inadequate food provision accounted for less than 30,0% of total share of poor households combined.

5.8.4 Level of food adequacy and settlement type

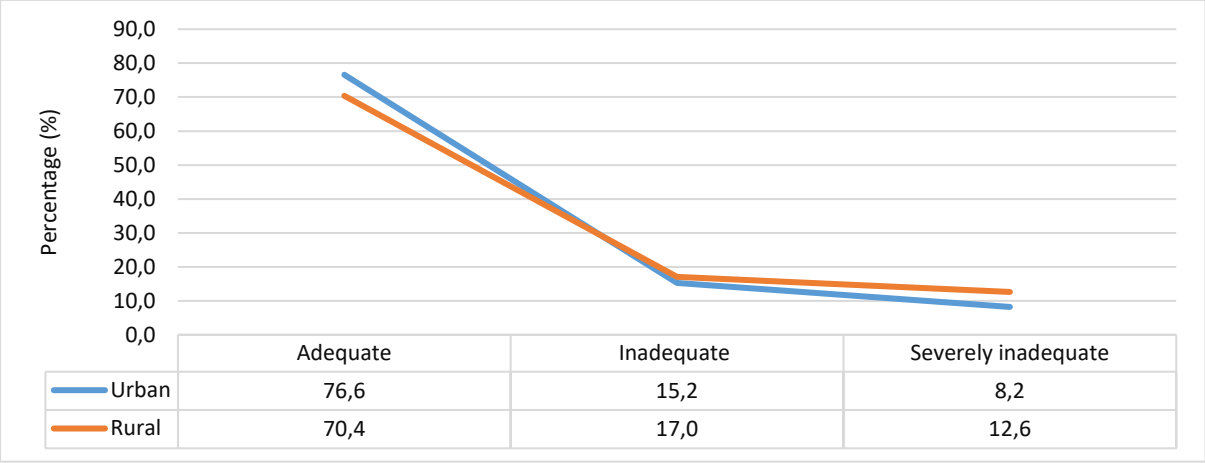
Figure 5. 46: Poverty incidence of households by settlement type and level of food adequacy



	Adequate	Inadequate	Severely inadequate
Urban	39,8	61,4	68,7
Rural	48,0	70,5	75,9
Total	42,2	64,5	71,8

In Figure 5.46 the intensities of poverty in terms of food adequacy is portrayed for both urban and rural settlement types. First and foremost; poverty was more prominent in rural households in each of the three food adequacy levels under discussion. Secondly; the increase in food inadequacy was supplemented by an increase in subjective poverty as per IEQ standards. That is, poverty increased with increased levels of food inadequacy in both rural and urban settlements. This pattern was also identified in chapter three and four when the SPWQ and MIQ indicators were used as a standard of measure of subjective poverty. A comparison of the least severe and most severe food adequacy levels further points out that poverty prevalence increased by roughly 28 percentage points between the two end points respectively in each geographical location.

Figure 5. 47: Percentage distribution of poor households by settlement type and level of food adequacy



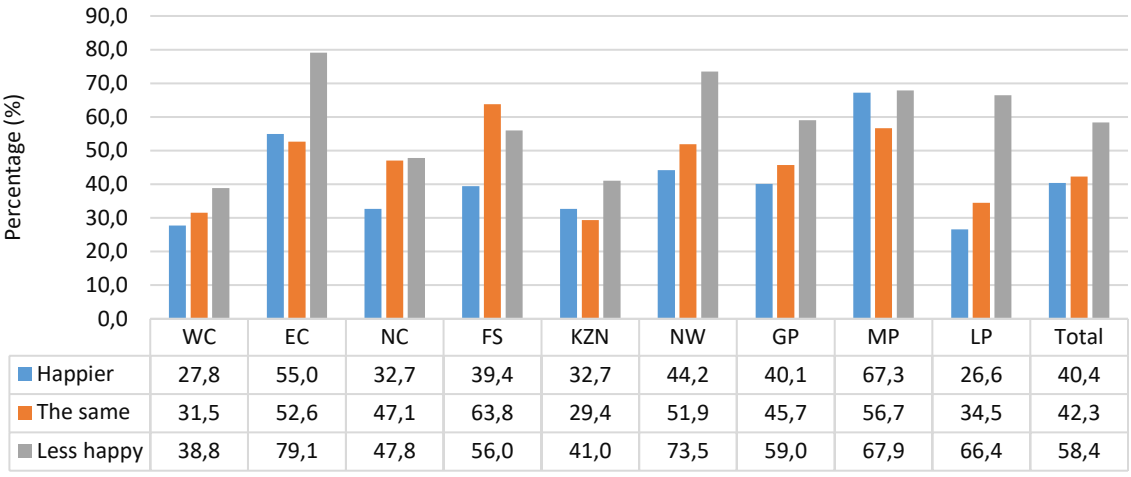
	Adequate	Inadequate	Severely inadequate
Urban	76,6	15,2	8,2
Rural	70,4	17,0	12,6

Results of the provided output in Figure 5.47 remain consistent with what was observed previously when the distribution of poor households by level of food adequacy was disaggregated by population group, sex of the head of household and province. That is, households classified under the adequate food level category are continuously ranked the modal group by over 70% for all categories considered. Also; poverty prevalence decreased with improved levels of food adequacy in both urban and rural households. For this assessment in particular; poor households with severely inadequate food provision were shown to be 1,5 times more likely in rural settlements than their urban counterparts.

5.9: Poverty profile by happiness status

5.9.1 Households by happiness status and province

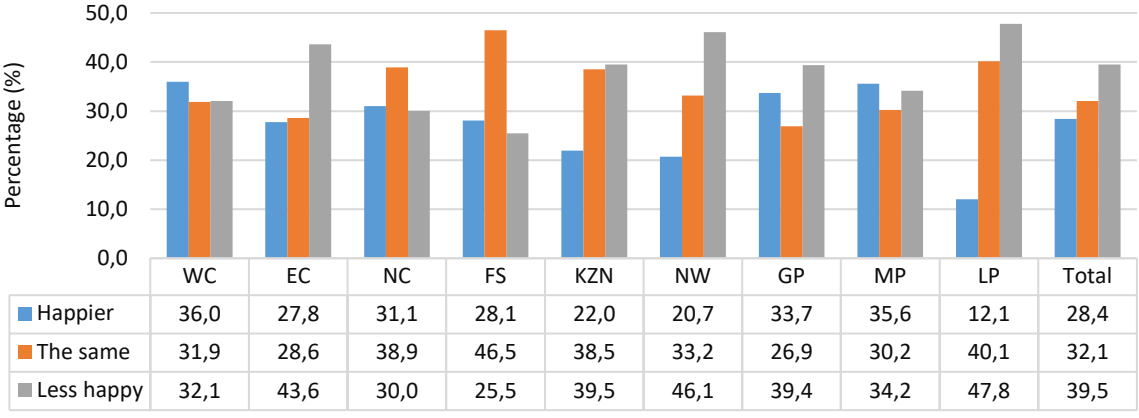
Figure 5. 48: Poverty incidence of households by province and happiness status



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Happier	27,8	55,0	32,7	39,4	32,7	44,2	40,1	67,3	26,6	40,4
The same	31,5	52,6	47,1	63,8	29,4	51,9	45,7	56,7	34,5	42,3
Less happy	38,8	79,1	47,8	56,0	41,0	73,5	59,0	67,9	66,4	58,4

The concept of happiness is becoming more widespread in the studies of subjective poverty; with the interaction between the two being a subject that has attracted much attention overtime. Figure 5.48 above is one such representation of an evidence-based assessment of the two; with provincial disparities taken into consideration. Taking into account aggregate estimates; poverty prevalence was found to decrease with increased status of happiness. That is, households that reported to be happier than they were ten years prior the survey were less poor than those who reported to be the same or less happy. This pattern was similarly identified in the Western Cape, Northern Cape, North West, Gauteng and Limpopo. Also, poor households associated with the less happy status of happiness were more likely to be found in the Eastern Cape than anywhere else. The Free State province on the other hand was ranked number one in terms of the likelihood of the event of a poor household that is reported to have maintained the same status of happiness overtime. Subsequently, poor households that perceived themselves to be in a happier state were more likely to be identified in Mpumalanga and least likely in Limpopo with probabilities of 67,3% and 26,6% respectively.

Figure 5. 49: Percentage distribution of poor households by province and happiness status



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Happier	36,0	27,8	31,1	28,1	22,0	20,7	33,7	35,6	12,1	28,4
The same	31,9	28,6	38,9	46,5	38,5	33,2	26,9	30,2	40,1	32,1
Less happy	32,1	43,6	30,0	25,5	39,5	46,1	39,4	34,2	47,8	39,5

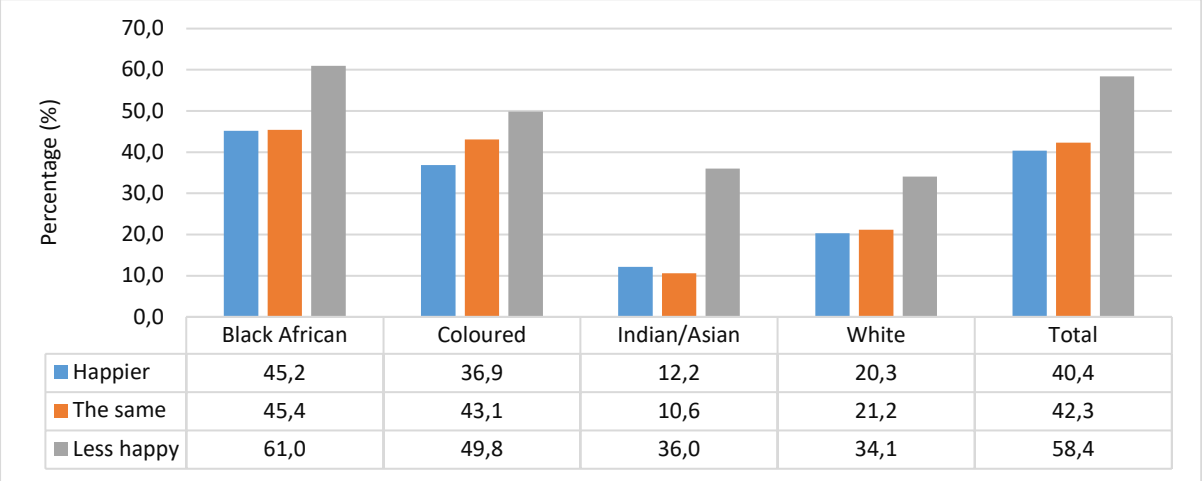
Provided in Figure 5.49 is an extension of Figure 5.45 shown previously, only in this case the poor distribution of households instead of incidence is analysed. The national estimates confirm that generally; households reporting a less happy status contributed the most to overall poverty nationally (39,5%), followed by those who still maintained the same state of happiness as ten years prior the survey (32,1%). Consequently; households reporting a state of improved happiness accounted for the least share of the poor nationally (28,4%).

In essence; results suggest that happier households contributed less to overall poverty. Provincially; this particular ordering is likewise observed in the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, North-West and Limpopo. According to the output; households expressing an improved status of happiness were most likely in the Western Cape and Mpumalanga by shares of 36,0% and

35,6% respectively. Conversely; those reporting a reduced state of happiness were most likely in Limpopo (47,8%) and least likely in the Free State (25,5%).

5.9.2 Happiness status and population group

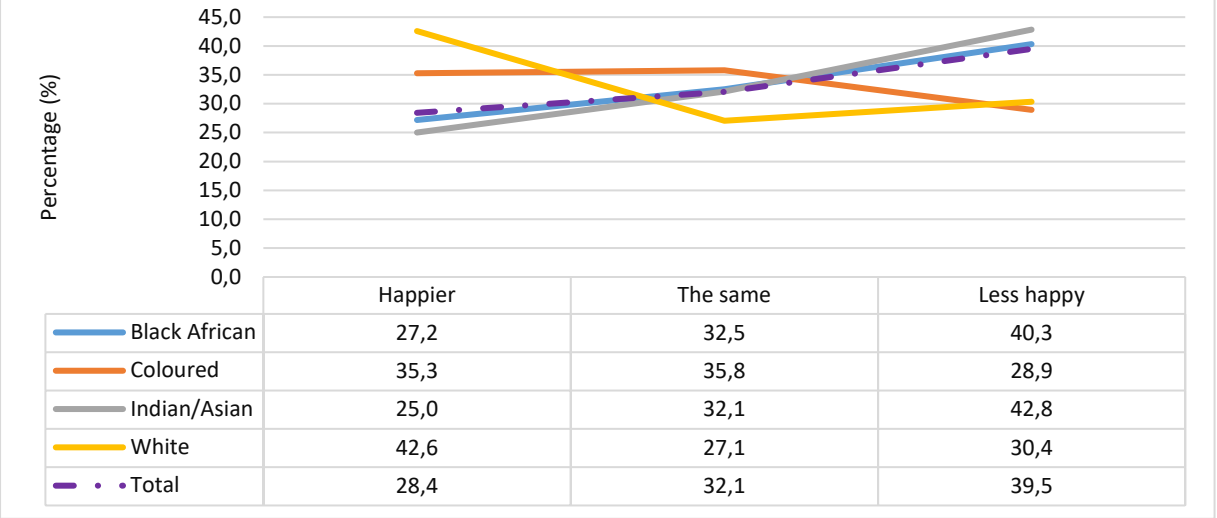
Figure 5. 50: Poverty incidence by population group and happiness status



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Happier	45,2	36,9	12,2	20,3	40,4
The same	45,4	43,1	10,6	21,2	42,3
Less happy	61,0	49,8	36,0	34,1	58,4

A racial profiling of poverty in conjunction with the state of happiness is provided in Figure 5.50; and poverty was found to be predominant in households that were less happy than they were ten years prior to the survey. In line with national estimates; poverty declines corresponding to favourable states of happiness were noted for black Africans, coloureds and whites. An inconsistent pattern was observed for the Indian/Asian population group where poverty levels are shown to be lowest for households that experienced the same state of happiness with an estimate of 10,6%. However; this particular population group recorded a consistent pattern of reduced poverty prevalence associated with favourable states of happiness when measured with the SPWQ and MIQ indicators. Comparatively, poor households that are represented in any of the three states of happiness depicted in the output were more likely to be black African than any other population group.

Figure 5. 51: Percentage distribution of poor households by population group and level of happiness



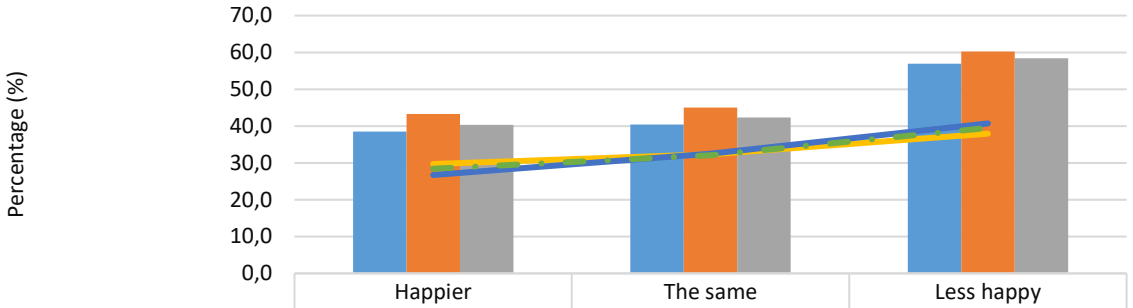
	Happier	The same	Less happy
Black African	27,2	32,5	40,3
Coloured	35,3	35,8	28,9
Indian/Asian	25,0	32,1	42,8
White	42,6	27,1	30,4
Total	28,4	32,1	39,5

Figure 5.51 racially illustrates the distribution of poor households by their happiness status. The output shows that the black African and Indian/Asian distributions were more inclined to national outcomes in terms of the relative shares associated with each status of happiness. In other words; the relative shares of poor households to poverty declined as happiness increased. The coloured and white population groups on the other hand revealed interesting results. For coloured households; the data confirms that households that reported to be less happy than they were ten years ago contributed less to poverty. Also; trivial differences in estimated shares were observed for households that were happier or in the same state of happiness, which subsequently leads to the conclusion that the two categories contributed virtually equally to poverty.

Considering the white population group; households associated with an enhanced status of happiness accounted for the leading share in poor households by an estimate of 42,6%.

5.9.3 Happiness status and sex of the household head

Figure 5. 52: Poverty incidence and distribution of poor households by sex of the household head and happiness status



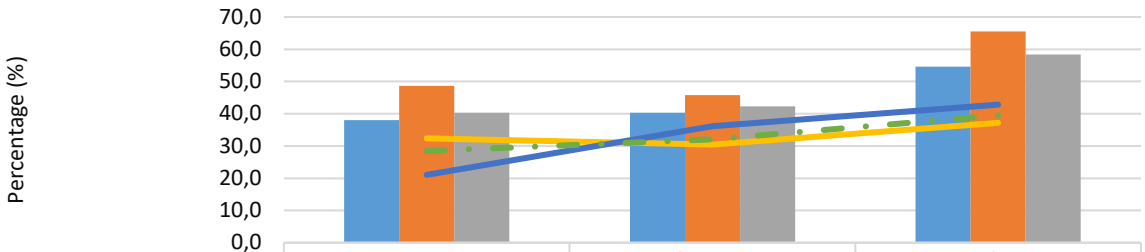
	Happier	The same	Less happy
Male incidence	38,5	40,4	56,9
Female incidence	43,3	45,0	60,2
Total incidence	40,4	42,3	58,4
Male distribution	29,7	32,4	37,9
Female distribution	26,7	32,6	40,7
Total distribution	28,4	32,1	39,5

Although estimated poverty levels associated with the listed states of happiness in Figure 5.52 are not equivalent for male-headed and female-headed households; the likeness of the relative frequencies associated with each of the two groups is acknowledged. Essentially; poverty was predominant in less happy households for both male-headed and female-headed households. Also, poverty declined with improved status of happiness throughout. Furthermore; the incidence of poverty between the happier and the same status of happiness were fairly marginal. The aforementioned statement is easily elaborated by means of the percentage point difference estimator which shows that poverty prevalence in male-headed and female-headed households decreased by 1,9% and 1,7% respectively as happiness transitioned from the status of being the same to a happier one.

At this point the distribution of poor households by the sex of the head while at the same time considering the household's perceived status of happiness is assessed. The close resemblance of the individual distributions represented by the lines depicted in the figure above suggest negligible differences between the three distributions. That is; poor households according to the household's perceived status of happiness were more or less similarly distributed for male and female headed households. The distributions show that for both male and female headed households; poor households reporting relatively lower states of happiness contributed more to poverty than their happier counterparts. Moreover, these conclusions are similarly reflected in the national distribution outcomes.

5.9.4 Households by happiness status and settlement type

Figure 5. 53: Poverty incidence and distribution by settlement type and happiness status



	Happier	The same	Less happy
Urban incidence	38,0	40,3	54,6
Rural incidence	48,7	45,8	65,6
Total incidence	40,4	42,3	58,4
Urban distribution	32,4	30,4	37,2
Rural distribution	21,0	36,1	42,8
Total distribution	28,4	32,1	39,5

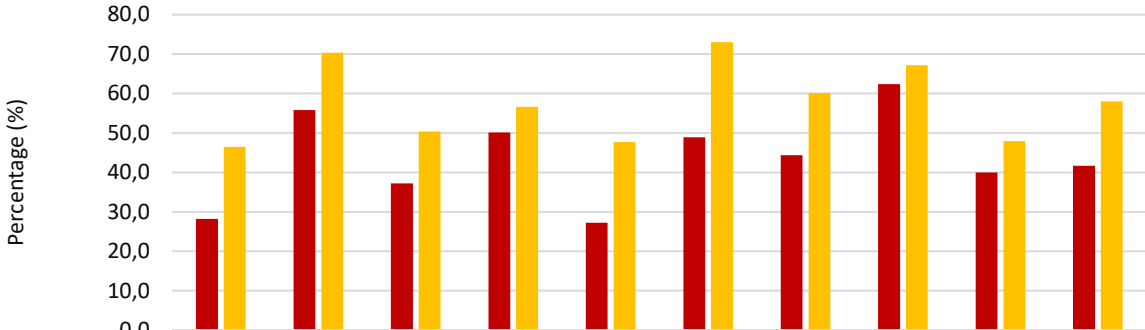
Perceived happiness variations in poor households are summarized for each of the settlement types depicted in Figure 5.53 provided. Results show that improved states of happiness are clearly associated with decreased poverty levels in urban areas; however; the same cannot be affirmed for the rural settlement case. Still on the rural areas; it is apparent that poverty was overrepresented in households reporting reduced status of happiness with an estimate exceeding the national approximate by 7,2 percentage points. Accordingly; for households classified as less happy; poverty was more likely in rural than urban households. Delving into the category of households that perceived their state of happiness to be the same or improved; the finding is that rural scores were once again higher than national estimates. Quantitatively; poverty incidence outcomes associated with households reporting to be happier or the same was 8,3 and 3,5 percentage points higher than overall estimates.

The distributions outlined in the figure show that the rural distribution attributes were more inclined to the national pattern in terms of the shares allocated to each of the status of happiness. This is because as observed nationally; rural-based poor households that were happier contributed the least to the share of poor households (21,0%) whilst their less happy counterparts contributed the most (42,8%). Poor households that reported to be experiencing the same level of happiness as before added the least share in urban areas.

5.10: Poverty profile by households' employment status

5.10.1 Households' employment status and province

Figure 5. 54: Poverty incidence by province and households' employment status (with at least one member employed)

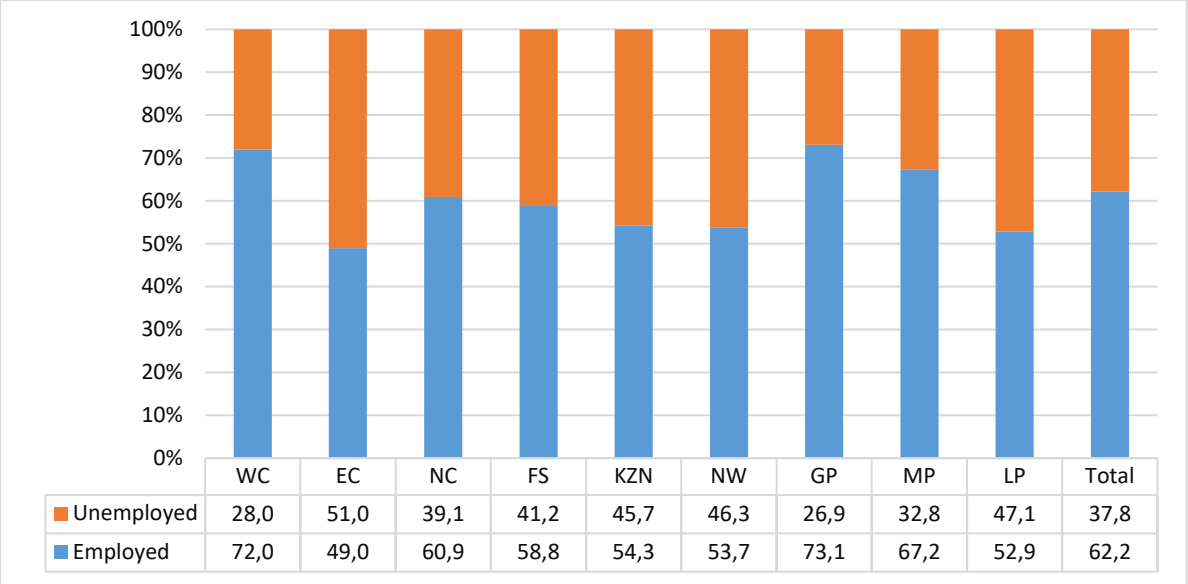


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Employed	28,2	55,8	37,2	50,2	27,3	48,9	44,3	62,4	40,0	41,7
Unemployed	46,4	70,4	50,4	56,6	47,7	73,0	60,1	67,2	48,0	58,0

Essentially, employment translates to income for the household which was shown to be a leading determinant of subjective poverty. An inspection of the data provided in Figure 3.54 shows that in all provinces, poverty was more prevalent in

households without an employed household member. Similar outcomes were observed in Chapters 3 and 4 when poverty was measured by means of the SPWQ and MIQ indicators. Nationally; unemployed households were 1,4 times more likely to be poor than employed households. Provincially; the largest disparity was recorded for the KwaZulu-Natal province where unemployed households were calculated to be 1,7 times likelier to be exposed to poverty; followed by the Western Cape with an estimate of 1,6 in this regard. Minimal disparities were observed in Mpumalanga where households with at least one employed member and those without recorded poverty levels of 62,4% and 67,2%. Additionally; poverty was more prevalent for employed households in Mpumalanga and for unemployed households in the North West province by 62,4% and 73,0% for the former and latter in that order.

Figure 5. 55: Percentage distribution of poor households by province and households' employment status (with at least one member employed)

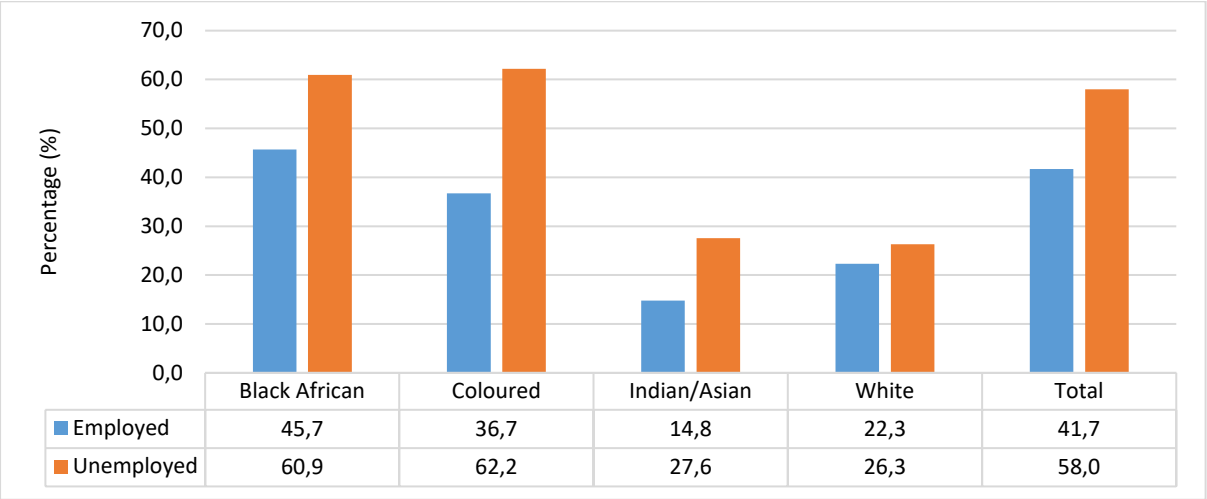


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Unemployed	28,0	51,0	39,1	41,2	45,7	46,3	26,9	32,8	47,1	37,8
Employed	72,0	49,0	60,9	58,8	54,3	53,7	73,1	67,2	52,9	62,2

The distribution of poor households by the household's employment status is provincially outlined in Figure 5.55 above. Results affirm that overall; employed households added more to total share of poor households than their unemployed counterparts. This finding is ascertained by comparing total estimates for both groups; where results show that 62,2% of poor households were employed, leaving a share of only 37,8% to unemployed households. Consistent with national outcomes, eight of the nine provinces similarly displayed proportions that assign the majority share of poor households to employed households. A contradictory result is noted for the Eastern Cape province where unemployed and employed households are apportioned shares of 51,0% and 49,0% respectively with a negligible difference of 1,0 percentage point.

5.10.2 Households' employment status and population group

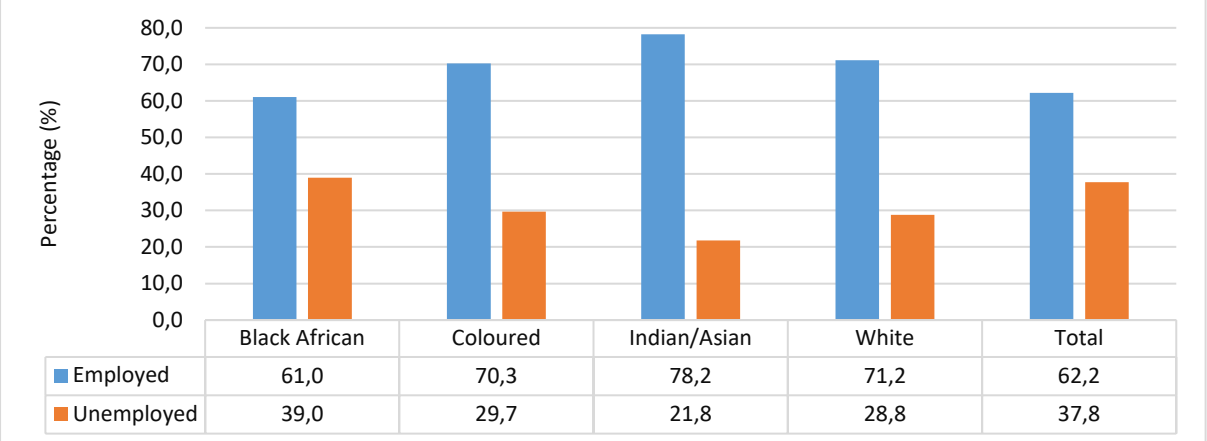
Figure 5. 56: Poverty incidence of households by population group and households' employment status (with at least one member employed)



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Employed	45,7	36,7	14,8	22,3	41,7
Unemployed	60,9	62,2	27,6	26,3	58,0

The vulnerability of households to poverty with relation to the status of employment considered through a racial lens is depicted in Figure 5.56. It is interesting to note that poverty for unemployed households was more dominant in the coloured population group at 62,2%; which was 4,2 percentage points higher than the national estimate. Directing our focus to the employed; black African households are identified as the only population group with poverty prevalence above the national estimate of 45,7% as compared to 41,7%. In terms of the differences in the incidence of poverty; the widest disparity is observed for Indian/Asian households where calculations indicate a parity ratio of 1;89 in favour of unemployed households. Furthermore; poverty levels were yet again found to be higher in unemployed households as opposed to their employed counterparts in all categories under discussion.

Figure 5. 57: Percentage distribution of poor households by population group and households' employment status (with at least one member employed)

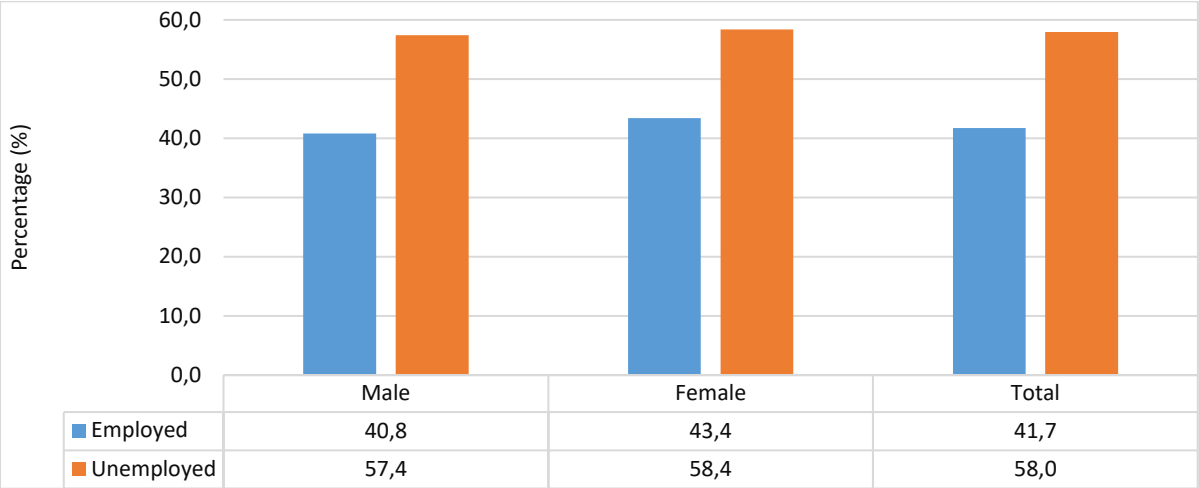


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Employed	61,0	70,3	78,2	71,2	62,2
Unemployed	39,0	29,7	21,8	28,8	37,8

The output provided in Figure 5.57 is a racial distribution of poor households by the households' employment status. The figure provides evidence that poor households were more likely to be employed in all population groups. That is; employed households contributed the most to poverty than unemployed households in all groups under consideration. Considering the extent of the disparity between the shares apportioned to employed and unemployed households; the data clearly shows that out of ten poor households; at least six are expected to be employed. This was true for all population groups. Specifically for black African households; employed and unemployed households are split into shares of 61,0% and 39,0% respectively.

5.10.3 Poverty incidence by employment status and sex of the household head

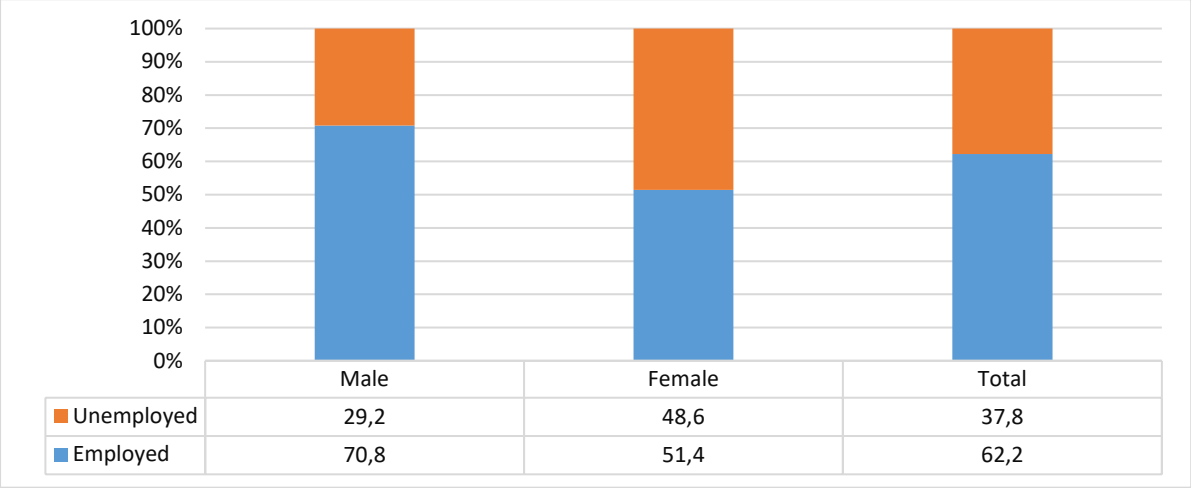
Figure 5. 58: Poverty incidence of households by sex of the household head and households' employment status (with at least one member employed)



	Male	Female	Total
Employed	40,8	43,4	41,7
Unemployed	57,4	58,4	58,0

The exposure of households to poverty given the sex of the head of household and the household's employment status reveals that statistically; poverty prevalence for the two groups was fairly comparable given the minimal disparity between the estimates depicted in Figure 5.58. For instance; the likelihood that an unemployed household is living in poverty was 1,0 percentage point higher for female-headed households when compared to their male counterparts. Considering the unemployed category; female-headed households were 1,1 times more likely to be poor than male-headed households.

Figure 5. 59: Percentage distribution of poor households by sex of the household head and households' employment status (with at least one member employed)

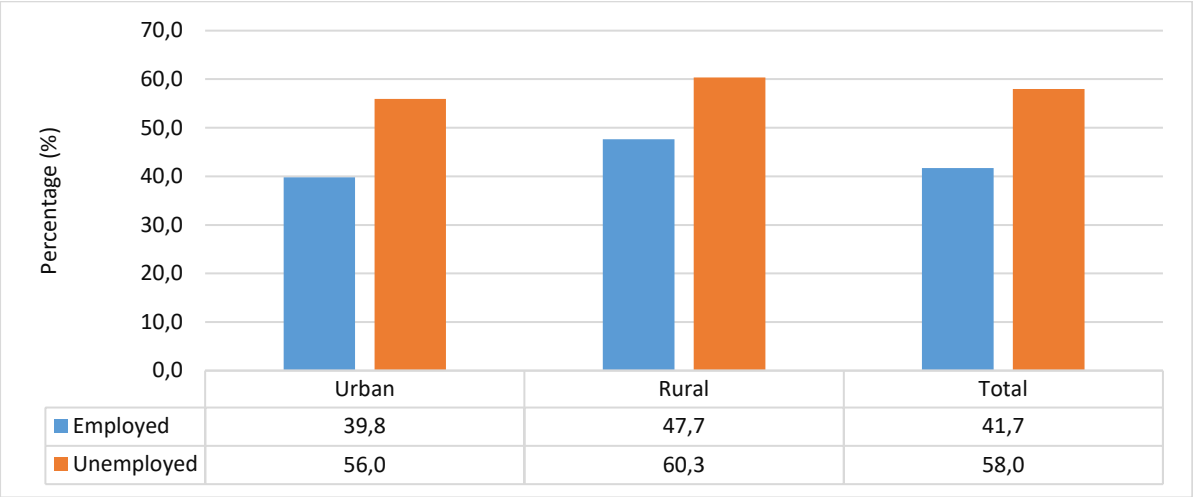


	Male	Female	Total
Unemployed	29,2	48,6	37,8
Employed	70,8	51,4	62,2

The disproportions relating to male and female-headed households in terms of the distribution of poor households by the household's employment status are illustrated in Figure 5.59 above. To start with; the dissimilarities between the two distributions being assessed are remarkably apparent. According to the data; 70,8% of poor households headed by males were employed; as compared to 51,5% in female-headed households; which means that poor employed households were more likely to be male-headed. Alternatively; poor unemployed households were more likely in the female distribution as opposed to the male distribution. It is additionally worth mentioning that the extent of disproportion within the two distributions being discussed was more pronounced in male headed households. That is; the male distribution recorded a larger imbalance between the employed and unemployed households.

5.10.4 Households' employment status and settlement type

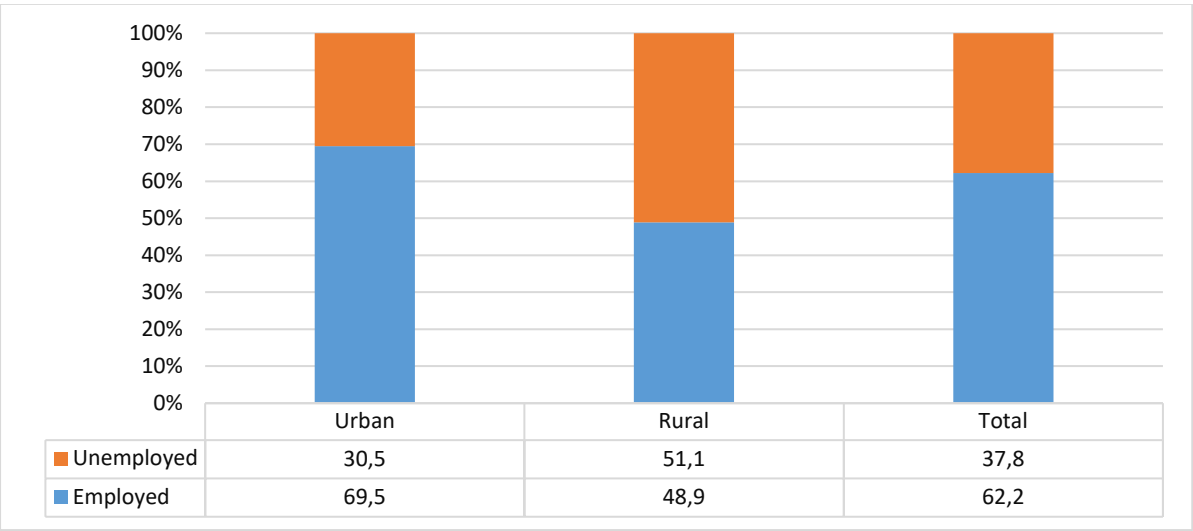
Figure 5. 60: Poverty incidence of households by settlement type and households' employment status (with at least one member employed)



	Urban	Rural	Total
Employed	39,8	47,7	41,7
Unemployed	56,0	60,3	58,0

At this point; the vulnerability of households to poverty is considered with respect to the settlement type and employment status of the household as shown in Figure 5.60. Results point out that unemployed households were more susceptible to poverty regardless of the household's settlement type. That is; for both employed and unemployed households; poverty was more prevalent in rural-based households. Comparing estimates by settlement type reveals that poverty in urban areas were more prevalent in unemployed households by a percentage points difference of 16,2 as opposed to 12,6 percentage points in rural areas.

Figure 5. 61: Percentage distribution of poor households by settlement type and households' employment status (with at least one member employed)



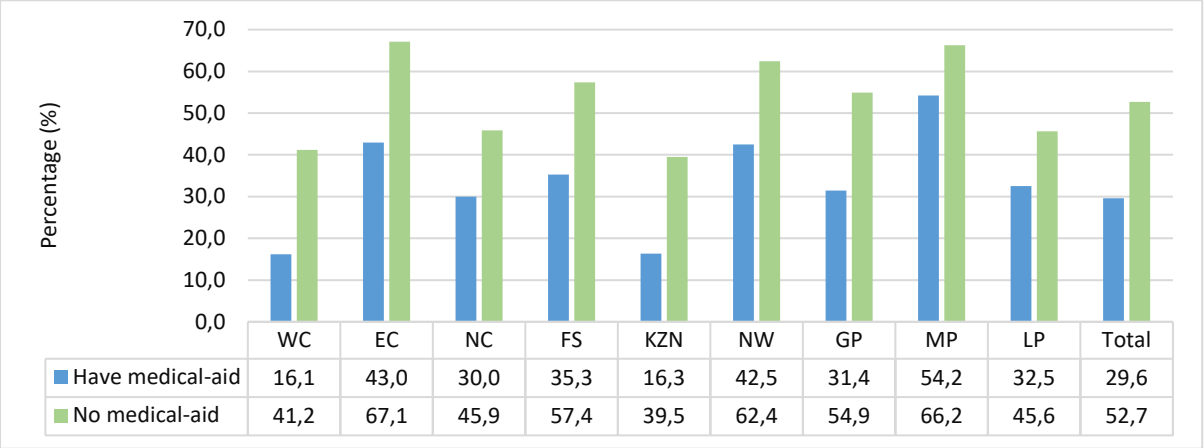
	Urban	Rural	Total
Unemployed	30,5	51,1	37,8
Employed	69,5	48,9	62,2

Figure 5.61 summarizes for each settlement type the distributions of poor households by their respective employment status. Firstly; a significant disproportion between unemployed and employed households in the urban distribution is highlighted in the output. Statistically; for every ten urban households that are poor; seven are expected to be employed. Applying the same narrative to the rural case; results show that the ratio is roughly 1:1.

5.11: Poverty profile by medical-aid status

5.11.1 Medical-aid status and province

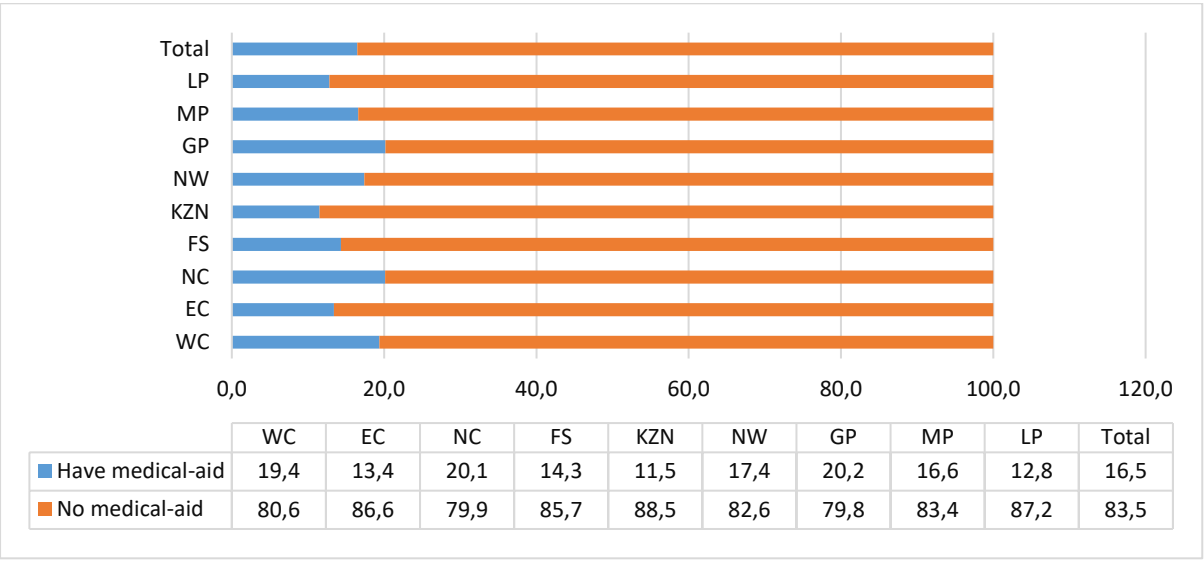
Figure 5. 62: Poverty incidence of households by medical aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and province



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Have medical-aid	16,1	43,0	30,0	35,3	16,3	42,5	31,4	54,2	32,5	29,6
No medical-aid	41,2	67,1	45,9	57,4	39,5	62,4	54,9	66,2	45,6	52,7

Assessing poverty differentials in accordance with a household's accessibility to a medical aid, which is a privilege afforded mainly to households with an income reveals noteworthy outcomes that will be discussed in this part. Firstly; it is remarkable to observe outcomes that are consistent with what was observed earlier when poverty was inspected in relation to a household's employment status; considering the robust association between the two variables. In essence; households with access to a medical-aid were significantly less poor than their counterparts without; and this was true for all provinces. The rightmost column clearly summarizes this outcome at a national level; where a percentage point difference of 23,1 between the two groups is observed. In addition; poor households with at least one member reported to have a medical-aid were most frequent in Mpumalanga and less frequent in the Western Cape by estimates of 54,2% and 16,1% in that order. The output further indicates that 67,1% of poor households in the Eastern Cape were without a medical aid; ranking the province the worst off in this regard.

Figure 5. 63: Percentage distribution of poor households by medical-aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and province



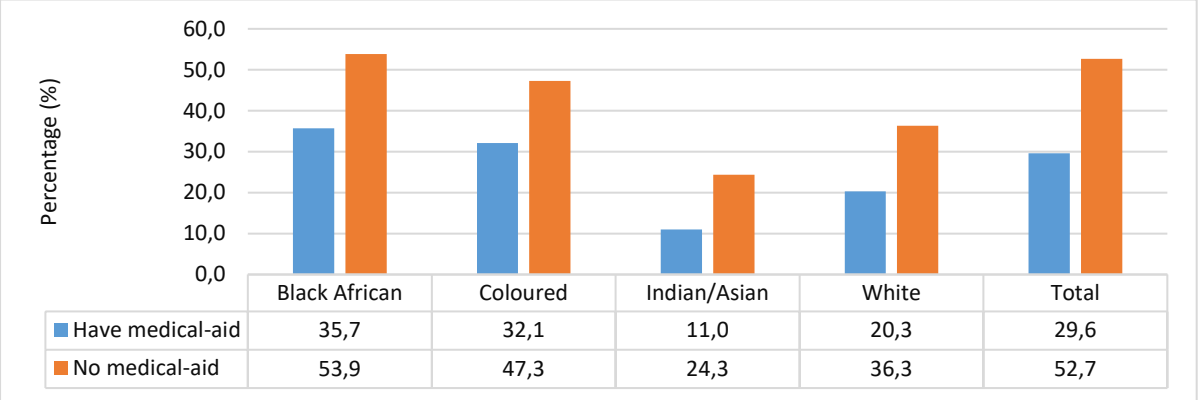
	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Have medical-aid	19,4	13,4	20,1	14,3	11,5	17,4	20,2	16,6	12,8	16,5
No medical-aid	80,6	86,6	79,9	85,7	88,5	82,6	79,8	83,4	87,2	83,5

The distribution of poor households by medical aid status in Figure 5.63 shows that households having at least one member on medical-aid were in all respects the least contributor to aggregate poverty provincially. On average; the aforementioned households contributed a minimal 16,5% to total share of poor households; as opposed to the 83,5% share attributed by their counterparts without medical cover. Provincially; Gauteng calculated the

largest share for poor households with a medical aid (20.2%); meanwhile the smallest share was identified to be 11.5% ascribed to the KwaZulu-Natal province. As a consequence; the statement that at least eight in ten poor households are without medical aid holds for all provinces.

5.11.2 Poverty incidence by medical-aid status and population group

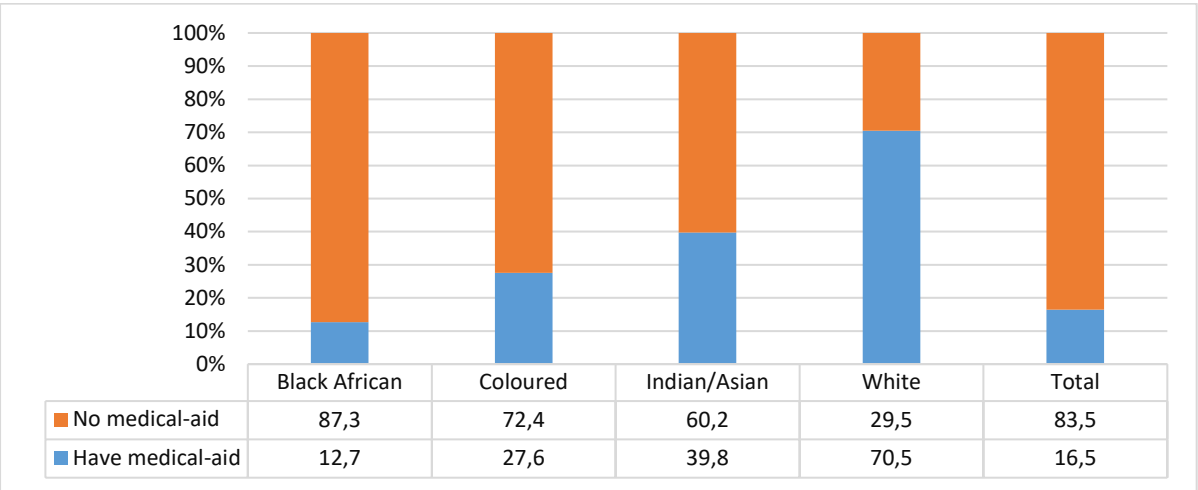
Figure 5. 64: Poverty incidence by medical-aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and population group



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Have medical-aid	35,7	32,1	11,0	20,3	29,6
No medical-aid	53,9	47,3	24,3	36,3	52,7

Figure 5.64 is a racial profile of poor households by whether a household has or lacks access to medical-aid cover. A noteworthy feature of the output is the higher incidence of poverty in households reporting no access to a medical-aid for all population groups. Additionally; results provided highlight that poverty was more dominant in the black African group irrespective of whether or not one household member at least was covered by a medical-aid, followed by coloured and white households respectively. The Indian/Asian population group on the other hand recorded minimal incidences in both medical-aid status categories (11.0% and 24,3% for households with access to a medical-aid and those reporting no medical-aid cover respectively).

Figure 5. 65: Percentage distribution of poor households by medical-aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and population group

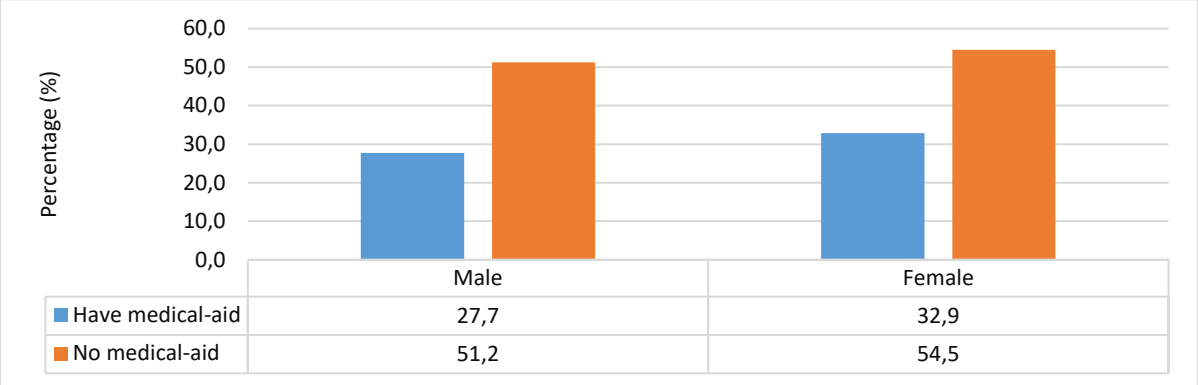


	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
No medical-aid	87,3	72,4	60,2	29,5	83,5
Have medical-aid	12,7	27,6	39,8	70,5	16,5

Figure 5.65 is an assessment of the manner in which poor households are distributed in accordance to their medical-aid status by race. It is interesting to note the inter-racial dissimilarities in terms of the disproportion between poor households with and without a medical aid. To put it in perspective; 87,3% of black African poor households were without access to a medical-aid; as opposed to a relatively low 29,5% apportioned to their white equivalents. Also; roughly 70% of poor coloured households were without medical aid; whilst the opposite was true for the white population group. Essentially; results for the aforementioned population groups were inversely distributed.

5.11.3 Poverty incidence by medical-aid status and sex of the household head

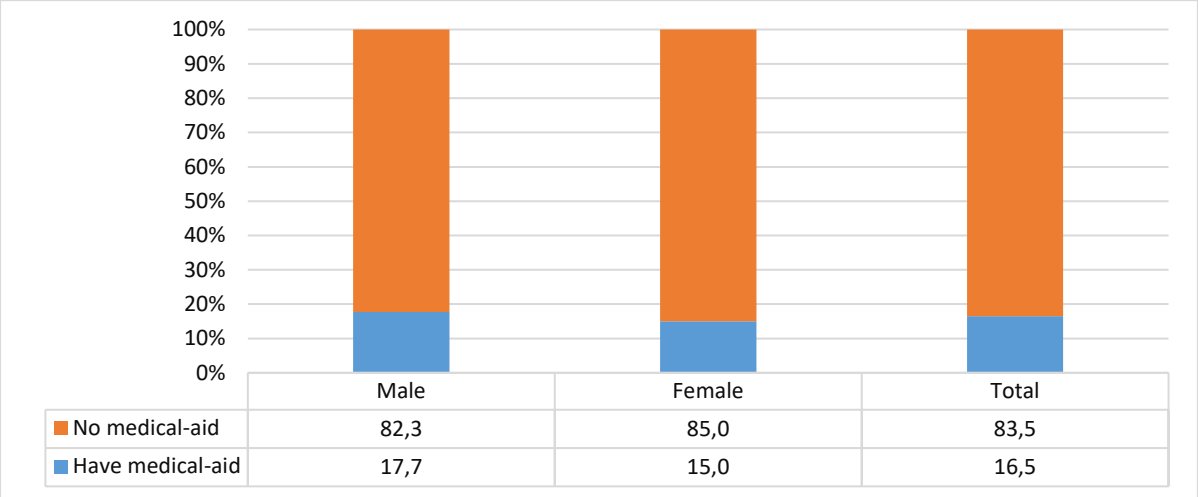
Figure 5. 66: Poverty incidence by medical aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and sex of the household head



	Male	Female
Have medical-aid	27,7	32,9
No medical-aid	51,2	54,5

Gender disparities pertaining to poverty prevalence in accordance with the sex of the household head and the households' medical-aid status in Figure 5.66 shows that poverty was most prevalent in female-headed households without medical aid (54,5%). Furthermore; male-headed households with access to a medical-aid were the least exposed to poverty (27,7%). Additionally; male-headed households without medical-aid were 18,3 percentage points more likely to be poor than female headed households with medical aid access.

Figure 5. 67: Percentage distribution of poor households by medical-aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and sex of the household head

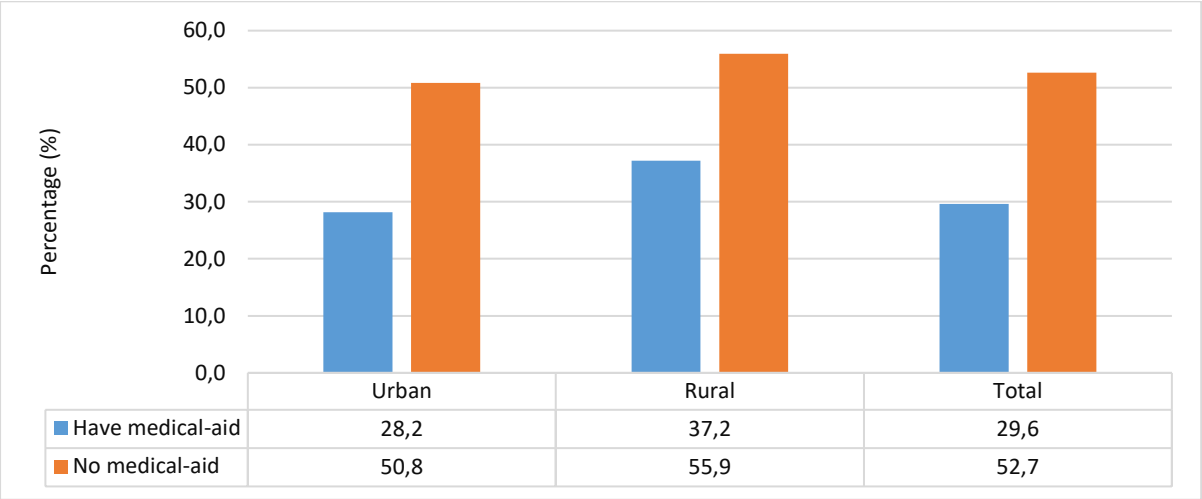


	Male	Female	Total
No medical-aid	82,3	85,0	83,5
Have medical-aid	17,7	15,0	16,5

As an extension to figure 5.67; the distribution of poor households disaggregated by the medical aid status and sex of the head of household is provided. Associating the two distributions illustrated on the output reveals that the two distributions are relatively comparable in terms of their respective proportions. To put it more clearly; poor households without medical-aid maintained shares of 82,3% and 85,0% in both male and female headed households in that order; which translates to a trivial percentage point difference of 2,7. For households reported to have medical-aid access; this difference was similarly found to be 2,7 percentage points in favour of male headed households.

5.11.4 Poverty incidence by medical-aid status and settlement type

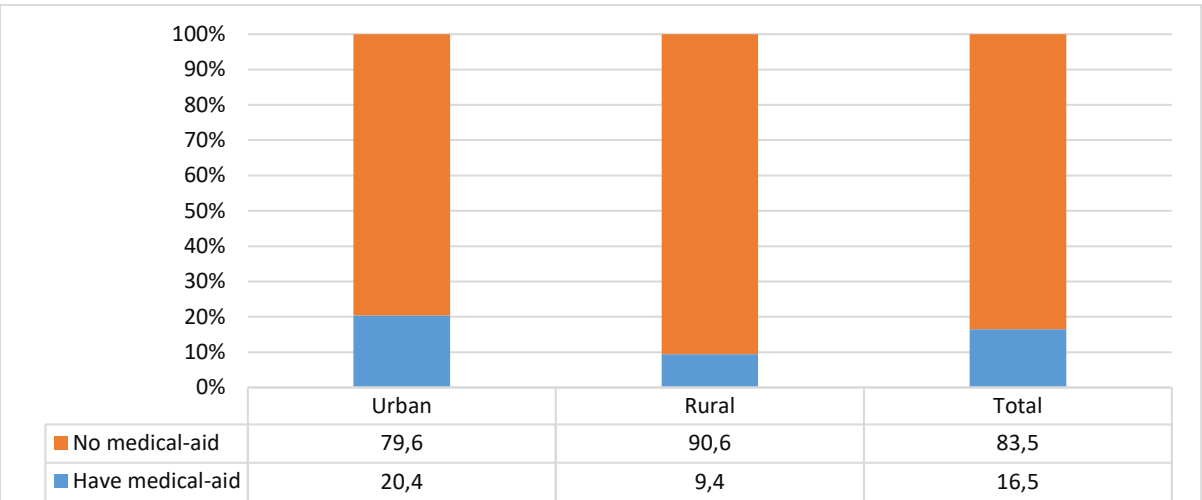
Figure 5. 68: Poverty incidence by medical aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and settlement type



	Urban	Rural	Total
Have medical-aid	28,2	37,2	29,6
No medical-aid	50,8	55,9	52,7

Directing attention to settlement type attributes; it remains the case that poverty was more pronounced in households without access to a medical-aid for all categories under investigation as shown in Figure 5.68. However; for households reporting access to a medical-aid and those without; results show that rural households were more affected by the scourge of poverty than their urban equivalents. To quantify matters; poverty in households with a medical-aid cover was 9 percentage points more prevalent in rural settlements as compared to urban ones. Regarding their counterparts without medical-aid cover; this difference was found to be 5,1 percentage points.

Figure 5. 69.: Percentage distribution of poor households by medical-aid status of households (with at least one member with a medical-aid) and settlement type



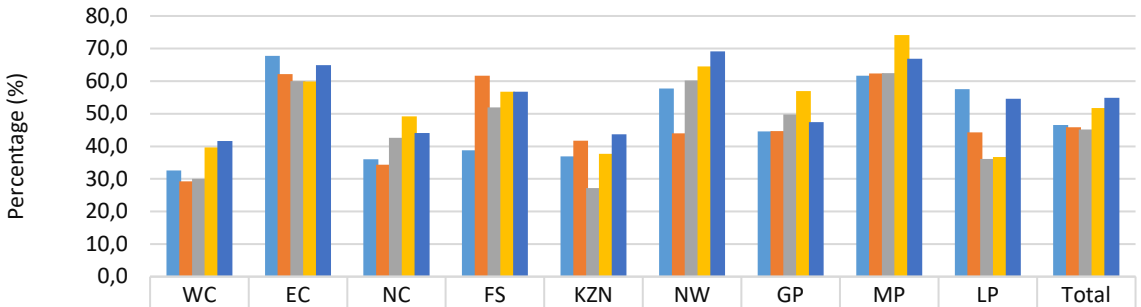
	Urban	Rural	Total
No medical-aid	79,6	90,6	83,5
Have medical-aid	20,4	9,4	16,5

The distribution of poor households according to whether or not their household has access to a medical-aid is shown in Figure 5.69 for each settlement type. The results indicate that poor households without medical aid were indisputably the most frequent group in both urban and rural areas; with shares of 79,6% and 90,6% respectively. Also; poor households that were reported to have medical cover were twice likely in urban settlements than rural; this is deduced from the relative shares of 20,4% and 9,4% for urban and rural households respectively.

5.12: Poverty profile by health status

5.12.1 Health status and province

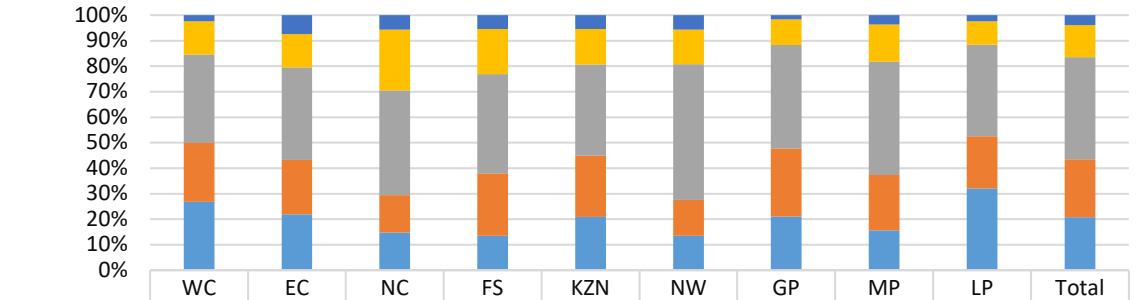
Figure 5. 70: Poverty incidence by province and health status of the household head



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Excellent	32,6	67,8	36,0	38,8	36,9	57,7	44,5	61,7	57,5	46,5
Very Good	29,2	62,1	34,3	61,7	41,7	44,0	44,7	62,3	44,3	45,9
Good	30,0	60,0	42,6	52,0	27,2	60,2	49,8	62,5	36,1	45,1
Fair	39,6	59,9	49,1	56,8	37,7	64,5	57,0	74,1	36,7	51,8
Poor	41,6	65,0	44,0	56,8	43,7	69,1	47,5	66,9	54,6	54,8

Figure 5.70 provides an illustration of provincial disparities concerning poverty in conjunction with the self-perceived health status of the household head. Nationally; poverty was more pronounced in households presided over by heads reported to be in poor health followed by those whose health is considered fair. The percentages in this regard are 54,8 and 51,8 for the former and latter in that order. Negligible differences were noted for households associated with heads in good (45,1%); very good (45,9%) and excellent health (46,5%). Provincial outcomes show that households with heads reported to be in poor health were the most affected by poverty in the Eastern Cape, North West and Mpumalanga province. A further assessment of intra-provincial features shows that poverty was significantly lower for households presided over by heads in a state of excellent health in the Western Cape province (32,6%).

Figure 5. 71: Percentage distribution of poor households by province and health status of the household head

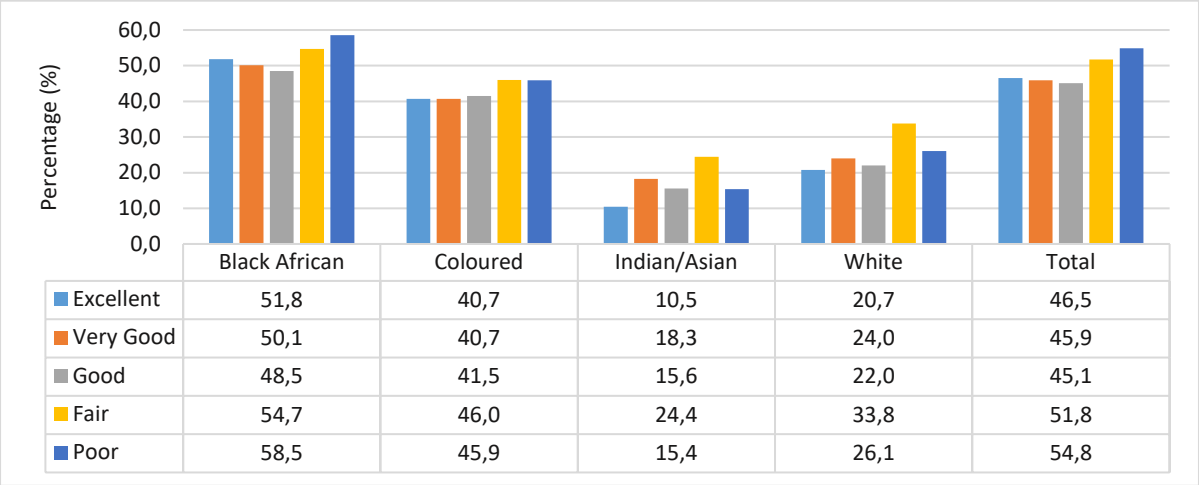


	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
Poor	2,4	7,4	5,7	5,4	5,4	5,7	1,7	3,6	2,4	3,9
Fair	13,2	13,1	23,8	17,7	13,9	13,6	10,0	14,6	9,2	12,6
Good	34,6	36,3	41,1	38,9	35,8	53,2	40,5	44,4	35,8	39,9
Very Good	23,1	21,4	14,7	24,6	24,0	14,0	26,8	21,7	20,4	22,8
Excellent	26,8	21,9	14,8	13,5	20,9	13,6	21,0	15,7	32,1	20,7

Variations in the distribution of poor households across the five health status categories are provincially illustrated in Figure 5.71. Nationally; households affiliated with the poor health status grouping added to overall poverty the least. This was also true for all provinces; with the Eastern Cape province accounting for the largest share (7,4%); which is in excess of the average estimate by 3,5 percentage points. However; households presided over by heads perceived to be in good health constituted the bulk of the distribution both nationally and provincially. The rightmost column indicates that on average 4 out of 10 poor households are likely to be headed by persons in a state of good health; also in the North West province this likelihood was found to be 5 out of 10. Furthermore; the output reveals that poor household with heads reported to be in a state of excellent health were relatively more frequent in Limpopo (32,1%) than any other province.

5.12.2 Health status and population group of household head

Figure 5. 72: Poverty incidence by population group and health status of the household head



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Excellent	51,8	40,7	10,5	20,7	46,5
Very Good	50,1	40,7	18,3	24,0	45,9
Good	48,5	41,5	15,6	22,0	45,1
Fair	54,7	46,0	24,4	33,8	51,8
Poor	58,5	45,9	15,4	26,1	54,8

Figure 5.72 is a depiction of poverty prevalence according to the population group and health status of the head. Looking at the black African and coloured population estimates; poverty is seen to be more pronounced in the category of households overseen by heads reported to be in the least favourable states of health; specifically, the fair and poor health statuses. This was consistent with what was observed nationally. Extending the analysis to the Indian/Asian and white population groups reveals that households presided over by heads in a fair state of health were significantly more exposed to poverty than any other health status classified in the output. Just as importantly; for both the Indian/Asian and white races; poverty was least prevalent in households associated with the excellent health category.

Figure 5. 73: Percentage distribution of poor households by population group and health status of the household head

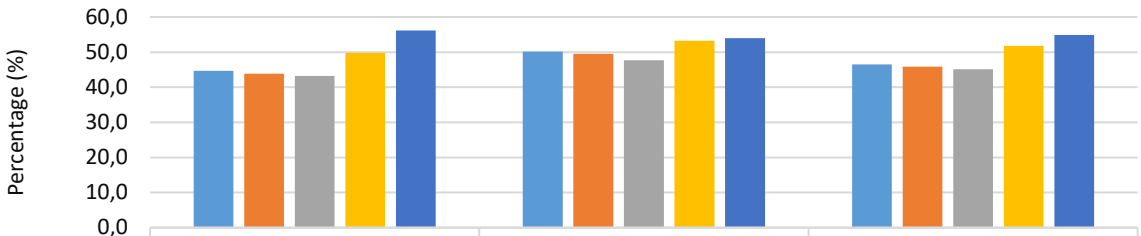
	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor
Black African	20,6	22,6	40,4	12,4	4,0
Coloured	22,4	21,1	39,0	14,3	3,3
Indian/Asian	9,8	26,5	43,6	16,8	3,3
White	24,0	27,9	32,8	13,1	2,2
Total	20,7	22,8	39,9	12,6	3,9

Consistent with national outcomes; the bulk of poor households were centred around the middle category representing households with heads in good health as illustrated in Figure 5.73. The individual apices positioned at this point confirm that for all population groups; households with heads reported to be in good health added the most to aggregate poverty. For the black African, Indian/Asian and white population groups; the pattern is such that the share of poor

households increased steadily as the health status deteriorated from excellent to good; thereafter; a successive decline is observed. Additionally; coloured households presided over by heads in excellent and very good health contributed roughly equal shares of poor households (22,4% and 21,1% respectively). As a final point; households with heads perceived to be in a poor state of health contributed the least to poverty in all population groups.

5.12.3 Health status and sex of the household head

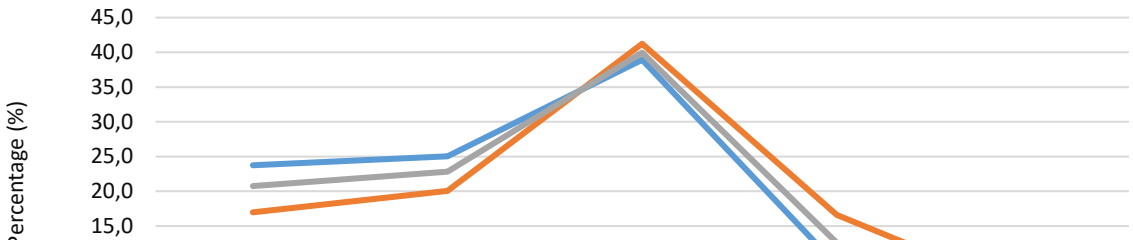
Figure 5. 74: Poverty incidence by sex and health status of the household head



	Male	Female	Total
Excellent	44,7	50,1	46,5
Very Good	43,8	49,5	45,9
Good	43,2	47,6	45,1
Fair	49,8	53,3	51,8
Poor	56,1	54,0	54,8

Incorporating a gender element in assessing poverty prevalence in terms of the head's health status provides evidence of minimal disparities between male and female headed households. To start with; poverty exposure was more prominent in households contained within the poor health category and least prevalent in households encompassed in the good health classification. This was the case for both male and female headed households alike. However; it is necessary to also point out the fairly close estimated poverty levels associated with the three most favourable states of health (excellent, very good and good). That is; estimated poverty levels in the aforementioned health status categories were relatively comparable and as a result the differences thereof marginal.

Figure 5. 75: Percentage distribution of poor households by sex and health status of the household head



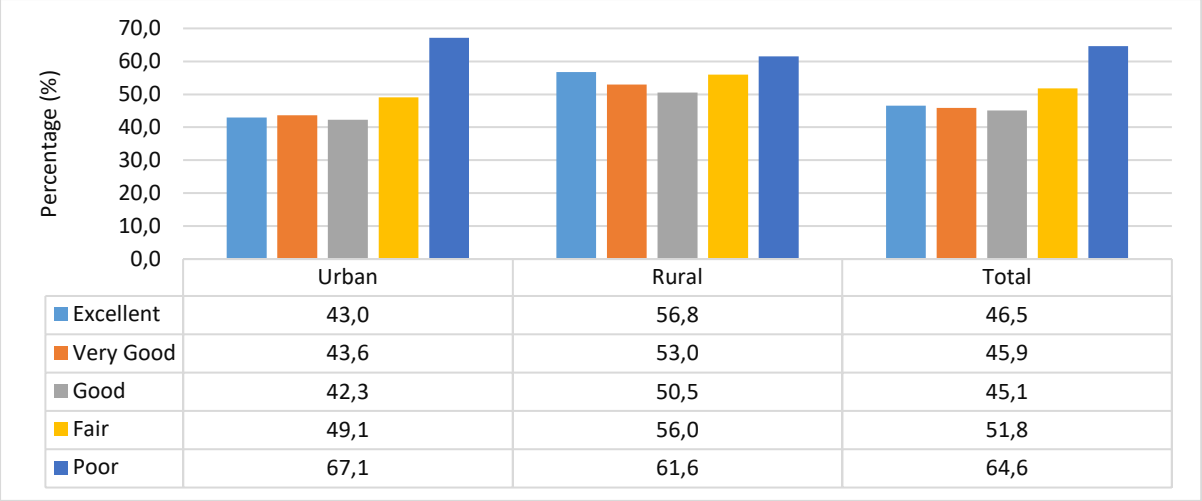
	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor
Male	23,8	25,0	38,9	9,4	2,9
Female	17,0	20,1	41,2	16,6	5,1
Total	20,7	22,8	39,9	12,6	3,9

The distribution of poor households by the sex and health status of the head of household is depicted in the output provided. As observed previously in figures 5.68 and 5.75; households associated with the state of good health were most frequent in both distributions. When inspecting the right tail of the distribution; it becomes evident that poor households headed by persons in excellent and very good health were more likely in the male category; this dominance then changes in

favour of female-headed households as the sequence proceeds to the right. However; the close likeness between the three plotted lines in the output confirms that the dissimilarities between the aforementioned distributions can be considered fairly trivial.

5.12.4 Health status and settlement type

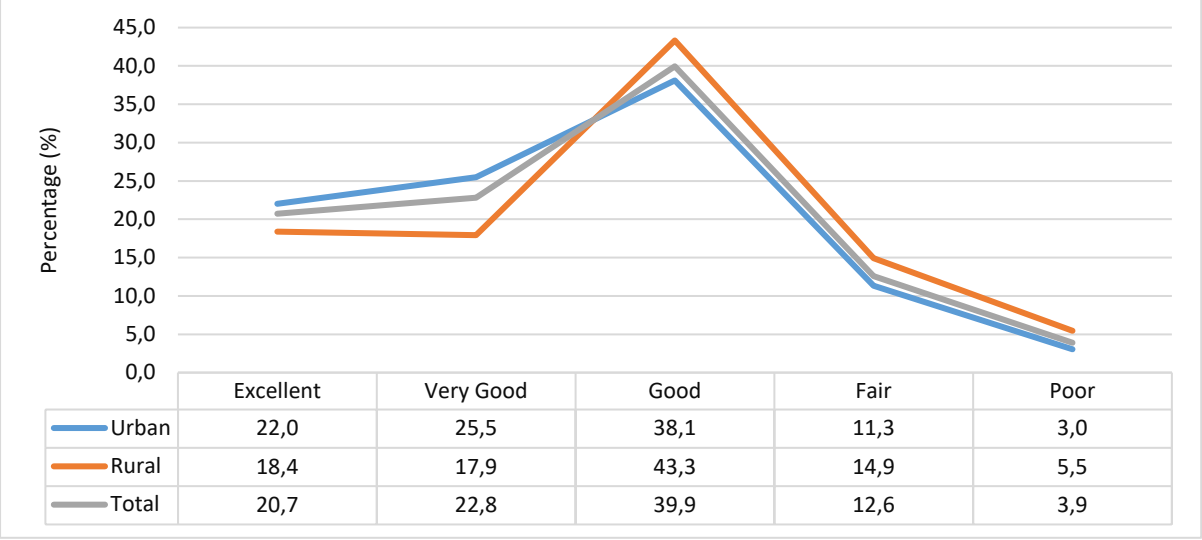
Figure 5. 76: Poverty incidence by settlement type and health status of the household head



	Urban	Rural	Total
Excellent	43,0	56,8	46,5
Very Good	43,6	53,0	45,9
Good	42,3	50,5	45,1
Fair	49,1	56,0	51,8
Poor	67,1	61,6	64,6

The integration of a household's settlement type combined with the head's health status into the analysis of poverty prevalence is summarized in Figure 5.76. Interesting to note is that poverty was more prevalent in urban-based households only where the head's health status is reported to be poor; this finding is ascertained by the 5,5 percentage points difference in the incidence in favour of the urban settlement type. Otherwise; households belonging to the rural settlement type were in other categories more exposed to poverty. Also; poverty levels in both urban and rural households were highest in the case where the head was perceived to be in poor health; the poverty estimates in this regard were 67,1% and 61,6% for urban and rural households respectively. Moreover; households presided over by heads in good health were least affected by poverty in both geographical types (42,3% and 50,5% for urban and rural households respectively).

Figure 5. 77: Percentage distribution of poor households by settlement type and health status of the household head



	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor
Urban	22,0	25,5	38,1	11,3	3,0
Rural	18,4	17,9	43,3	14,9	5,5
Total	20,7	22,8	39,9	12,6	3,9

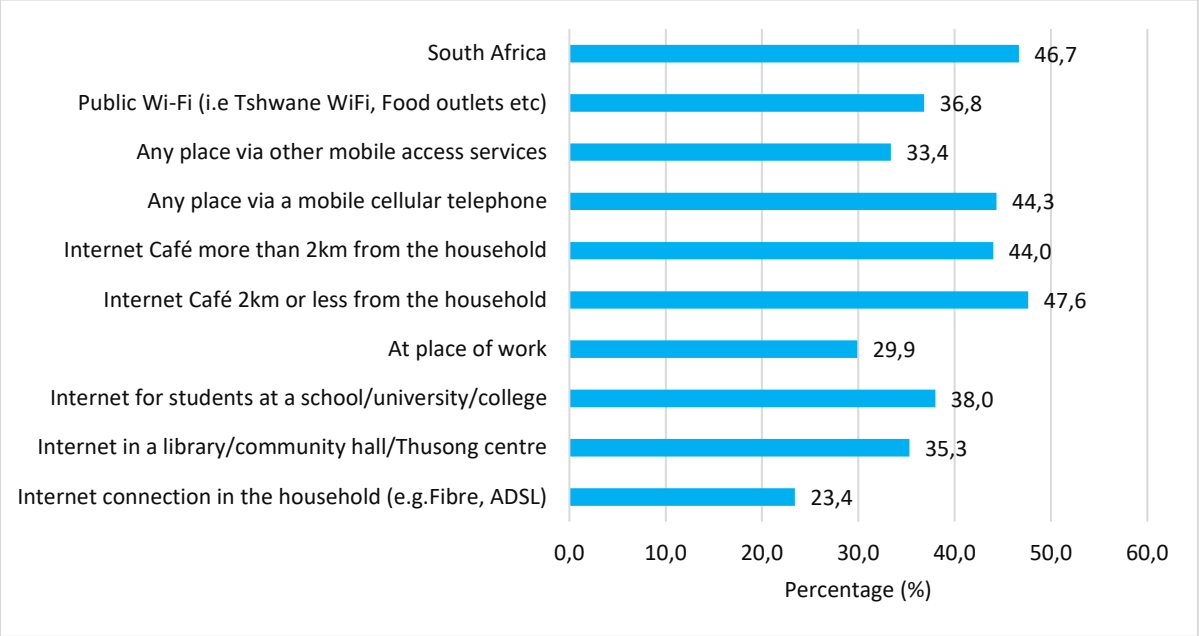
Settlement type distributions of poor households in conjunction with the head's reported health status are outlined in Figure 5.77. The peak aligned with the good health status clearly identifies this category as the leading contributor to poverty for both urban (38,1%) and rural settlements (43,4%). Furthermore, the illustrated distributions are seen to reach

their lowest point at the poor health category; consequently, ranking this class as the group that added the least to aggregate poverty. The respective shares in this regard are shown to be 3,0% and 5,5% for urban and rural households in that order. Directing attention to the left tail of the distribution; it is apparent that poor households headed by persons in excellent or very good health were most likely in urban than rural areas.

5.13: Poverty profile by access to internet services and ownership of assets

5.13.1 Access to internet services

Figure 5. 78: Proportion of poor households with access to internet services



Poverty analysis has in this part as shown in Figure 5.78 been extended to include internet accessibility by members of the household. The data ranks internet cafés that are less than 2 kilometres away from the household as the leading provider of internet services to poor households, with 47,6% of poor households conceding to using the aforementioned infrastructure. On the same note, 44,0% of poor households similarly reported to having utilized internet cafes; only this time it was at a location at a distance exceeding 2 kilometres. An equally popular means of access to the web was found to be a mobile phone; with 44,3% of poor households reporting to have utilised this means. It is encouraging to note the proportion of households attesting to accessing internet services through public Wi-Fi infrastructures, which is one of the initiatives that government is vested in; as an approach to enhance information accessibility with ease for all. It is similarly interesting to note the relatively low proportion of households that are poor that make use of a stable internet connection such as ADSL and fibre in the household; this is pointed out by an estimate of 23,4% ranking it the least accessible to poor households.

5.13.2 Ownership of assets

Figure 5. 79: Proportion of poor households by ownership of selected household assets

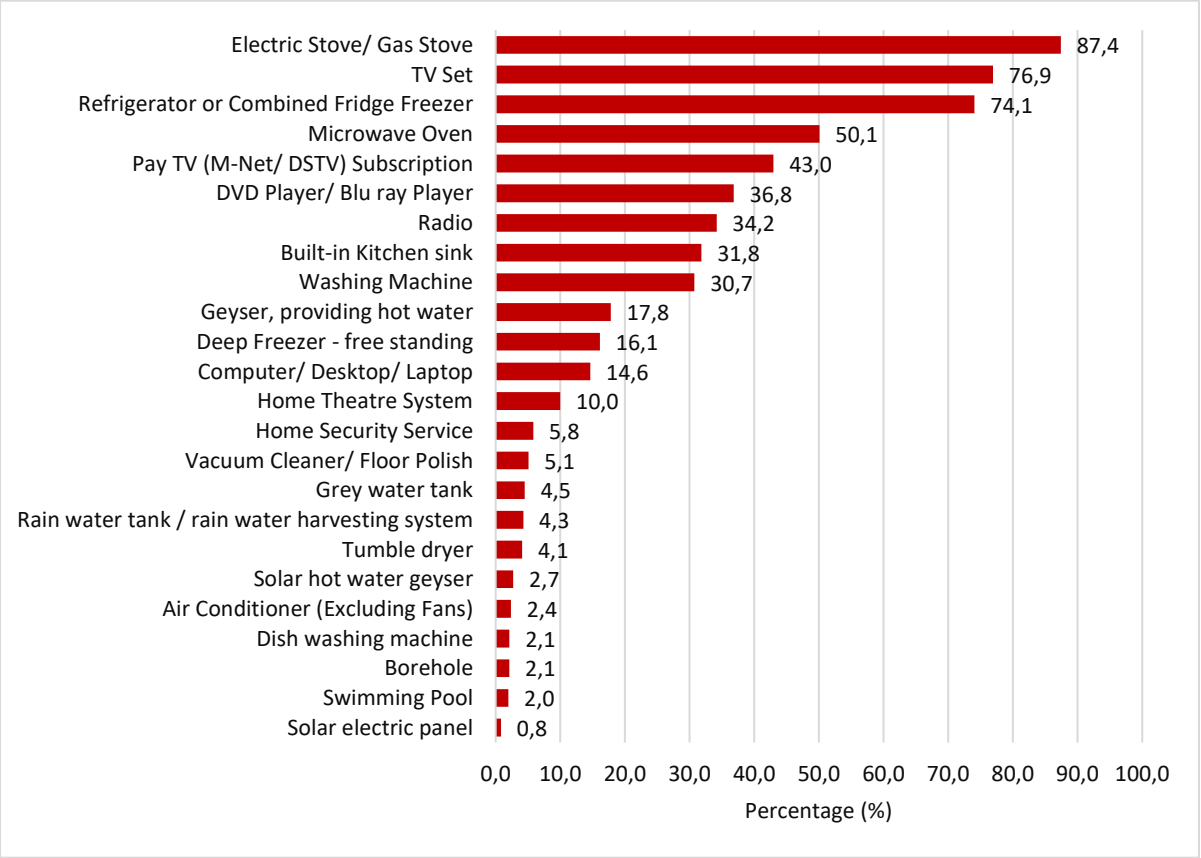


Figure 5.79 above provides interesting findings on the dynamics of poverty when considering assets that are owned by the household. From the outset; the table suggests that an electric stove and a refrigerator, which are necessary items for proper storage, preservation and preparation of food are common in households that are classified as poor. On the contrary; assets such as solar water geysers, air conditioners, dish washing machines, boreholes, a swimming pool and solar electric panels were reported by less than 3,0% of total poor households; consequently ranking these assets as rare in households that are poor as per the IEQ measure. An additional finding of this tabulation is the rarity of home security service infrastructure in vulnerable households; with only 5,8% of households having access to this resource. Imperative devices for data and information manipulation such as computers, desktop and laptop were relatively infrequent in poor households with only 14,6% of poor households declaring ownership to such. Moreover; the proportions recorded for ownership of devices aiding in communication such as the television set and radio were encouraging; with estimates of 76,9% and 34,2% respectively.

Glossary

Subjective poverty:	Considers that people's perception of what constitutes the minimum necessary household budget is the best standard of comparison for actual incomes and expenditures
Household:	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.
Multiple household:	When two or more households live in the same dwelling unit.
Household Head:	Main decision-maker, or the person who owns or rents the dwelling, or the person who is the main breadwinner.
Household member:	Person that resides with the household for an average of four nights a week.
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 pension, etc.
Nuclear households:	Consist of spouses living alone, or with their children
Extended households:	Family that extends beyond the nuclear family and which consists of parents, their children, and other family members such as aunts, uncles,
Complex households:	Consist of a nuclear or extended household core and non-related individuals
Single generation households:	Consist of family members from the same generation (i.e. siblings, parents) living together.
Double generation households:	Consist of family members from at least two generations, i.e. parents and children
Triple generation households:	Contains three generations of families (grandparents, parents and grandchildren) in the same household.
Skip generation households:	Comprised of grandchildren living with one or more grandparents in the absence of any biological parents
Settlement type:	Settlement type refers to the characteristic of an area according to settlement characteristics
Urban:	Formal cities and towns characterised by higher population densities, high levels of economic activities and high levels of infrastructure
Rural:	Farms and traditional areas characterised by low population densities, low levels of economic activity and low levels of infrastructure

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ISBN: 978-0-621-50063-9