
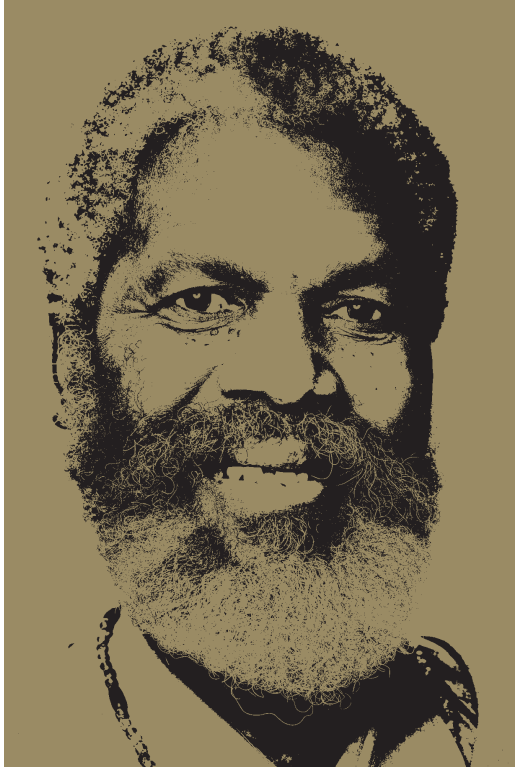


Men, Women and Children

Findings of the Living Conditions Survey, 2014/15

Report number 03-10-02 2014/15



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Men, Women and Children

Findings of the Living Conditions Survey 2014/15

Statistics South Africa, 2018
Risenga Maluleke, Statistician-General

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Preface

This report presents a selection of key findings and tables based on the data that were collected by Stats SA through the Living Conditions Survey (LCS) 2014/15 that was carried out during the period 13 October 2014 to 25 October 2015. The report seeks to understand the difference between the adult and the children populations through profiling their living circumstances and levels of poverty, with special attention given to the differences between males and females.

Risenga Maluleke
Statistician-General

Introduction

In order to assess the improvements made and to identify any gaps that remain in socio-economic needs. Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) collects information from households in South Africa through censuses and surveys. The Living Conditions Survey (LCS) is part of Stats SA's household survey programme and provides detailed information on household's living circumstances, as well as their income and expenditure patterns. This is the second Men, Women and Children Report produced by Stats SA with the first being published in 2013 using the LCS 2008/09.

Table 1 shows the different poverty measures for the three national poverty lines. According to the Upper bound poverty line (UBPL), the estimated poverty headcount was 55,5% of the population in 2015. Meanwhile, the headcount for the Lower bound poverty line (LBPL) was 40,0% with approximately a quarter of the population (25,2%) living below the Food Poverty Line (FPL). The poverty gap measures the distance poor people are from the poverty line and thus, the higher the gap, the poorer the individual. At the UBPL the gap was measured to be 27,7% declining to 16,6% for the LBPL and 9,0% for the FPL.

Table 1: Key poverty indicators using national poverty lines

Poverty line	Poverty headcount (P_0)	Poverty gap (P_1)	Severity (P_2)
Food poverty line (R441) per capita per month	25,2	9,0	4,5
Lower-bound poverty line (R647) per capita per month	40,0	16,6	9,1
Upper-bound poverty line (R992) per capita per month	55,5	27,7	17,0

This poverty report profiles across two distinct segments of society, namely adults (18 years and older) and children (17 years and younger) with particular focus on differences between men and women. In a nutshell, the report will look at households' characteristics, expenditure, access to basic services, health, education, child protection and social grants by household's poverty status.

CHAPTER 1
men and women

Overview

The adult population

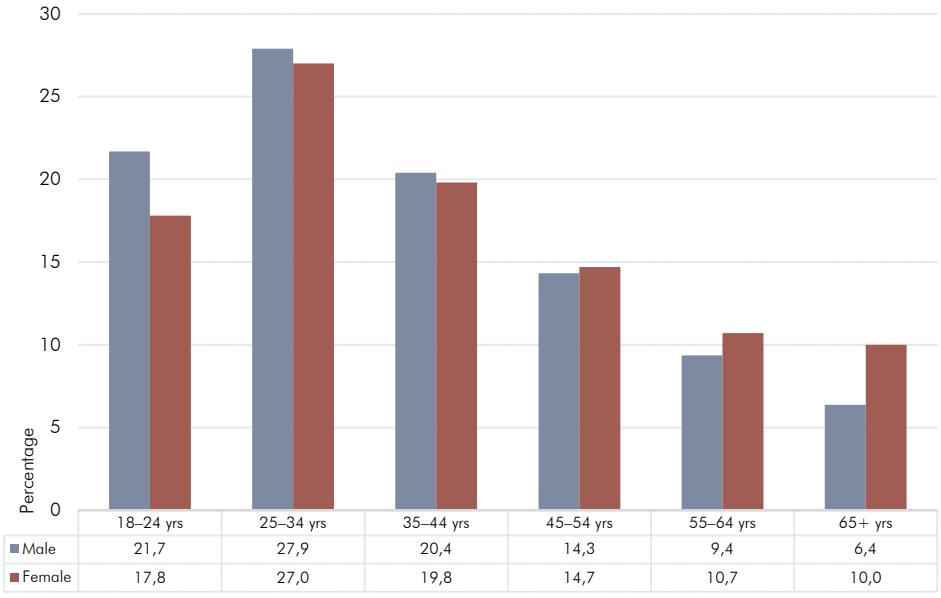
In 2015, there were 35,1 million adults (aged 18 years and older) in South Africa according to the LCS 2014/15. Table 2 below illustrates that there were more females (51,9%) compared to males who only accounted for 48,1% of the population.

Table 2: Percentage distribution of adults by population group and sex, 2015

		Sex	
Population group	**Total (%)**	**Male (%)**	**Female (%)**
Black African	77,7	48,1	52,0
Coloured	9,3	47,4	52,6
Indian/Asian	2,9	50,3	49,7
White	10,2	48,1	51,9
Total	**100,0**	**48,1**	**51,9**

The results further indicates that women were the majority in all population groups except for Indian/Asian population who had slightly more males than females. Almost eight out of every ten adults were black African (77,7%), followed by whites and coloureds who accounted for nearly 10,0% (10,2% and 9,3% respectively). Indians/Asians accounted for less than 3,0% of the adult population.

Figure 1: Percentage distribution of adults by age cohort and sex, 2015



	18–24 yrs	25–34 yrs	35–44 yrs	45–54 yrs	55–64 yrs	65+ yrs
Male	21,7	27,9	20,4	14,3	9,4	6,4
Female	17,8	27,0	19,8	14,7	10,7	10,0

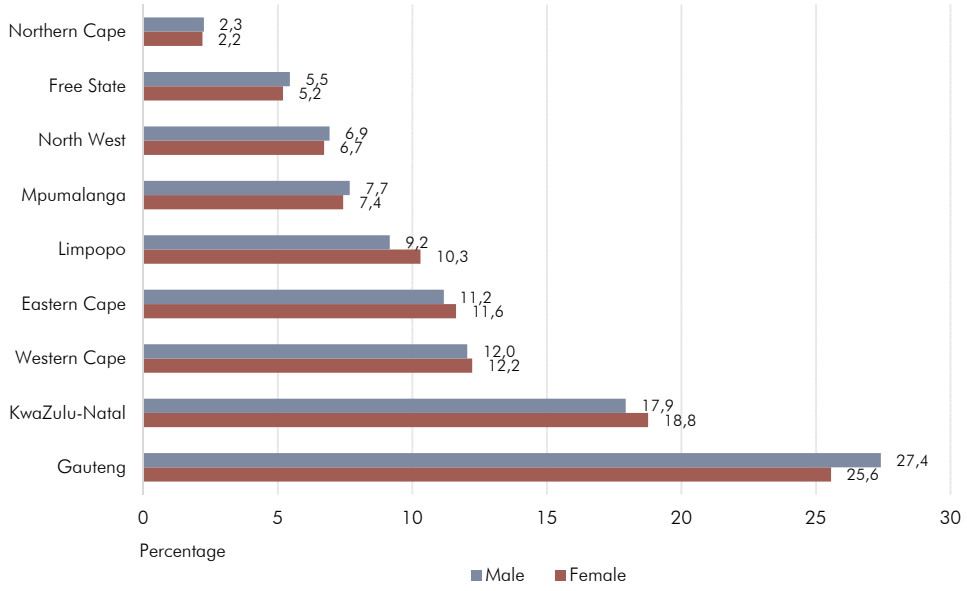
As shown in Figure 1, there were more males in the younger age cohorts than their female counterparts, as a result more females were found in the older age cohorts. The population was made up of more male adults between the ages of 18 and 44, and thereafter in the older age cohorts 45+ there were more females in the population. Seven out of every ten male adults were aged between 18–44 years which was higher than the proportion for females (64,6%). Both males and females had a decline of 6,1 percentage points respectively when moving from the 35–44 to 45–54 age cohorts. In the older age cohorts (55+ years) there were more females in the population who accounted for 20,7% compared to 15,8% for males.

Table 3: Percentage distribution of adults by settlement type and sex, 2015

		Sex	
Settlement type	**Total (%)**	**Male (%)**	**Female (%)**
Urban formal	59,6	60,7	58,7
Urban informal	8,2	8,6	7,9
Traditional	28,5	26,9	29,9
Rural formal	3,7	3,9	3,5
Total	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**

Table 3 indicates that more male adults (69,3%) were residing in urban areas, where 60,7% of them resided in urban formal and only 8,6% in urban informal. The female adults in comparison had 66,6% residing in urban areas and 58,7% of these females were found in urban formal and 7,9% in urban informal. The results further indicate that in contrast to urban residence, there were more females (65,1%) residing in traditional/rural areas than their male counterparts (30,8%). A higher proportion of males 3,9% was residing in rural formal areas compared to just 3,5% of females.

Figure 2: Percentage distribution of adults by province and sex, 2015



The majority of the adult population was concentrated in Gauteng (26,4%), followed by those in KwaZulu-Natal (18,4%), and Western Cape (12,1%). Meanwhile Free State and Northern Cape had the lowest proportions of adults residing within the provinces (at 5,2% and 2,2% respectively). Interestingly, there were more females in the population cross all provinces except for Gauteng and Northern Cape.

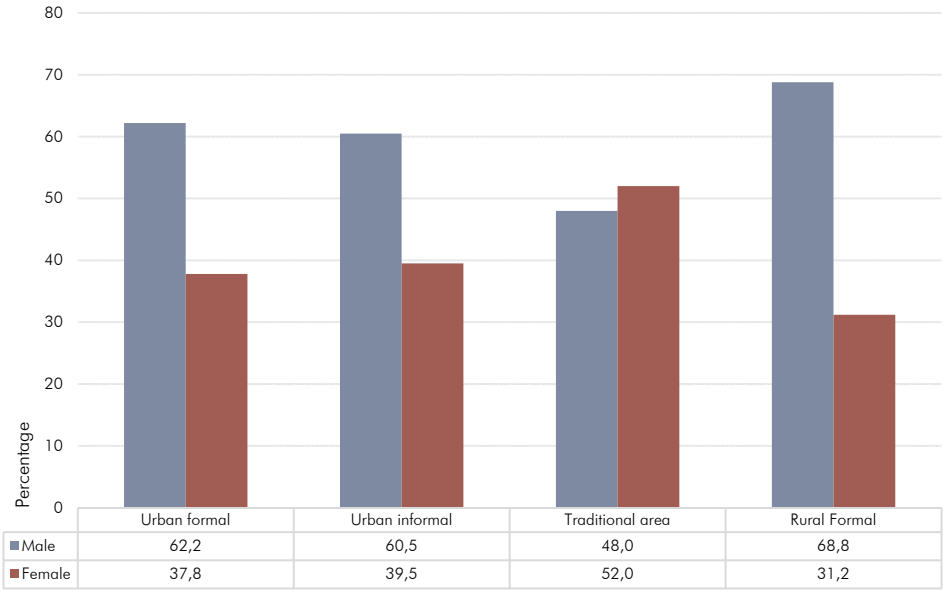
Household characteristics

Table 4: Percentage distribution of households by population group and sex of the household head, 2015

		Sex of household head	
Population group of household head	**Total (%)**	**Male (%)**	**Female (%)**
Black African	80,4	57,3	42,7
Coloured	7,2	58,8	41,2
Indian/Asian	2,3	71,0	29,1
White	10,1	67,1	32,9
Total	**100,0**	**58,7**	**41,3**

According to the LCS 2014/15 results, the majority of households, eight out of every ten (80,4%) were headed by black Africans, this was followed by white-headed households (10,1%) and coloured (7,2%), Indian/Asian (2,3%) headed households, respectively. The survey further indicated there were more male-headed households (58,7%) than female-headed households (41,3%) in South Africa. There were significantly more male-headed households within the Indian Asian population group (71,0% vs 29,1%), compared to black African and coloured population groups. Similarly to Indian/Asians, white-headed households were also biased towards male-headship (67,1% vs 32,9%).

Figure 3: Percentage distribution of households by settlement type and sex of household head, 2015



In 2015, slightly more than seven out of every ten households in South Africa were found in urban areas (70,3%), of which only 9,8% located in urban informal areas. More than a quarter (25,7%) of households were from traditional areas whereas the remaining 4,1% resided in rural formal areas. Figure 3 shows that over six out of every ten households in rural formal (68,8%), urban formal (62,2%) and urban informal (60,5%) areas were headed by men. Households from traditional areas were mainly headed by women (52,0%).

According to the LCS 2014/15, the average household size in South Africa was 3,49. Not only does the average household size differ amongst settlement types, it also varies across the different population groups. Coloured- and black African-headed households had the largest households sizes with an average of 4,06 and 3,56, respectively. White-headed households showed the smallest average household size at 2,60; while an average size of 3,27 was found for Indian/Asian-headed households.

The results from Figure 4 reveals that, the average household size was highest in female-headed households (3,77) compared to male-headed households (3,29). This trend was observed across all settlement types. The largest average household size was found to be amongst female-headed households in traditional areas at 4,43 whereas the smallest average household size was amongst male-headed households in urban informal areas, at 3,07.

Figure 4: Average household size by settlement type and sex of household head, 2015

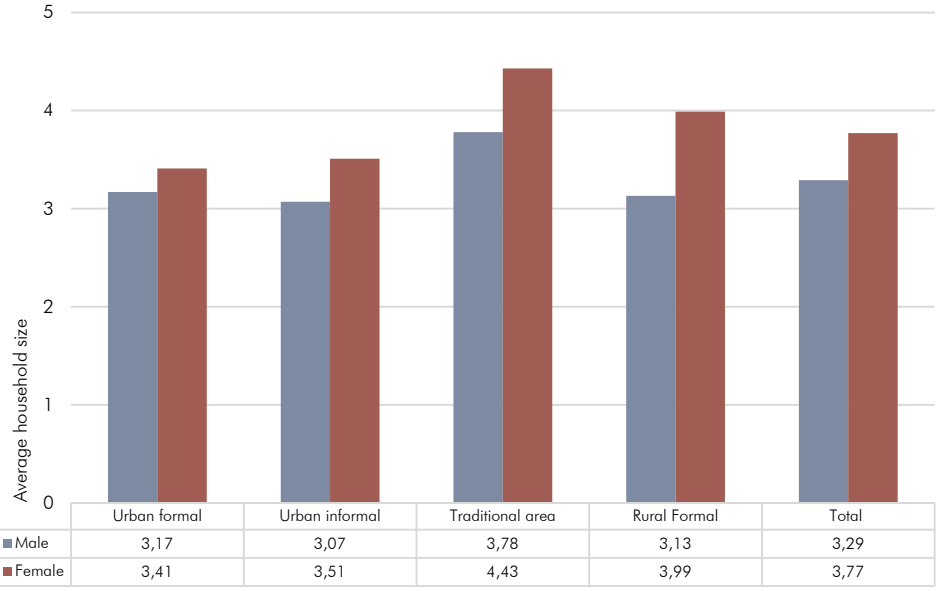


Table 5 shows that almost four in every ten households were reported to be nuclear (39,0%) and extended (36,0%) households. Nuclear households are households consisting of a head, their spouse and offspring. On the other hand, extended households normally go beyond the classic nuclear family type, and consist of a mix of parents, aunts, uncles, and cousins, all living in the same household. The remaining quarter of households were made up by single-member households (22,1%) and complex households (2,9%). Complex households are defined as households where some of the members are not related to the head of the household at all.

Table 5: Percentage distribution of type of household by sex of household head, 2015

		Sex of household head	
Type of household	**Total (%)**	**Male (%)**	**Female (%)**
Single	22,1	24,7	18,4
Nuclear	39,0	46,3	28,6
Extended	36,0	26,2	49,9
Complex	2,9	2,9	3,0
Total	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**

The results further illustrates that amongst sexes, approximately half of the female-headed households (49,9%) were classified as extended households as compared to just a quarter of male-headed households (26,2%). The majority of all male-headed households were from the nuclear type of households (46,3%) whereas 28,6% were from female-headed households. Approximately, 18,4% of female-headed households and 24,7% of male-headed households were single-member households.

Household expenditure

This section provides an analysis of household expenditure focusing on the characteristics of the household head such as sex and population group. A more in-depth analysis of household expenditure can be found in the *Living Conditions Survey 2014/15 Statistical Release (P0310)* published on 27 January 2017.

Table 6 presents the average annual household consumption expenditure by sex and population group of the household head as well as settlement type. On average, male-headed households had a higher average expenditure when compared to female-headed households across all population groups and settlement types.

Table 6: Average annual household consumption expenditure by sex and population group of household head and settlement type, 2015

		Sex of household head	
	Average expenditure (R)	Male (R)	Female (R)
All households	**103 543**	**121 602**	**77 895**
Black African	67 994	75 444	58 016
Coloured	124 615	149 890	88 540
Indian/Asian	195 336	210 600	158 055
White	350 937	396 266	258 329
Urban formal	140 720	160 321	108 415
Urban informal	38 834	40 828	35 779
Traditional	44 876	49 976	40 171
Rural formal	75 520	85 866	52 673

The annual expenditure for South African households was approximately R103 543 for the period of October 2014 to October 2015[1]. Male-headed households had much higher expenditure R121 602 compared to female-headed households at R77 895. White male-headed households had the highest average expenditure relative to other population groups, with R396 266 approximately four times higher than black African male-headed households (R75 444) and almost half of the coloured male-headed household (R149 890).

The population group that experienced the largest difference in expenditure between the sexes were households headed by coloureds. Within this population group male-headed households spent R149 890 compared to the R88 540 spent by female-headed households, which was 69,3% more than households headed by coloured women. This trend was also evident in white-headed households, where the males had an expenditure of R396 266, which was 53,4% higher when compared to their female counterparts at just R258 329. For black African and Indian/Asian-headed households the difference in expenditure between male and female-headed household was 30,0% and 33,2% respectively, which was notably less when

[1] Data collection for the LCS 2014/15 started in mid-October 2014 and thus, completed in October of the following year. Nevertheless the period of data collection still covered only 12 months and not 13 months.

compared to other population groups that had a higher disparity. These disparities show that female-headed households, regardless of population group, tend to have less resources available to spend for their households. This is more pertinent for black African female-headed households who had the lowest average expenditure of just R58 016.

As observed with all population groups, female-headed households remain the poorest across all settlement types, and with the lowest levels of expenditure. It was the lowest for those located in urban informal areas with R35 779, while their urban formal counterparts spent R108 415; a similar pattern is observed for males as well. It seems that those in urban informal and traditional areas have less financial resources for their households when compared to those residing in urban formal areas.

Now that we have established levels of expenditure across population groups, sexes and settlement types we then take a closer look at how these households are spending their money. This will be done by looking at the main expenditure groups disaggregated by the sex of the head of household.

Table 7: Average annual household consumption expenditure by sex of household head and main expenditure groups, 2015

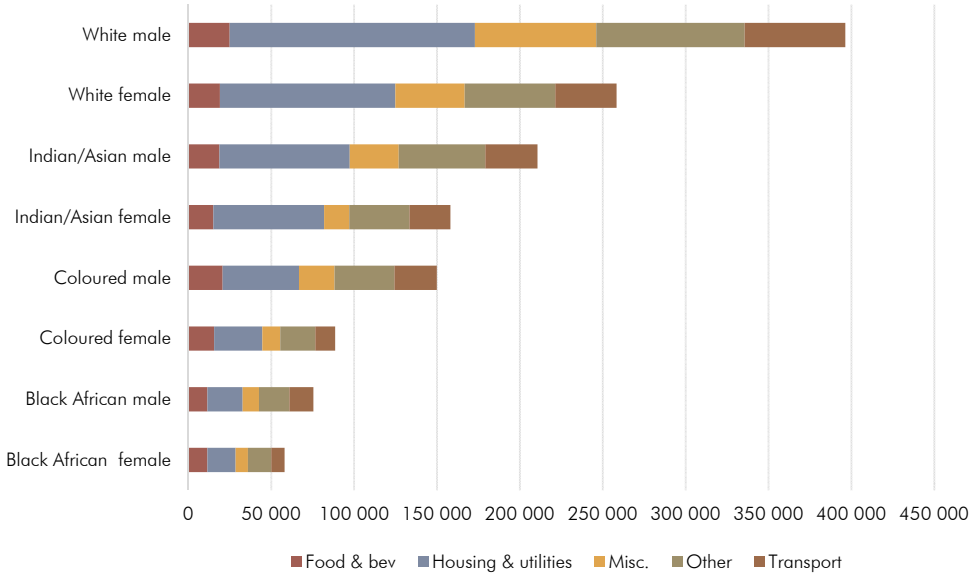
	Male-headed households		Female-headed households	
	Average (R)	Proportion (%)	Average (R)	Proportion (%)
Food and non-alcoholic beverages	13 893	11,4	12 481	16,0
Alcoholic beverages and tobacco	1 215	1,0	485	0,6
Clothing and footwear	5 351	4,4	4 374	5,6
Housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels	39 264	32,3	25 814	33,1
Furnishings and household equipment	6 380	5,2	4 021	5,2
Health	1 139	0,9	651	0,8
Transport	21 131	17,4	10 827	13,9
Communication	4 115	3,4	2 669	3,4
Recreation and culture	4 854	4,0	2 651	3,4
Education	2 984	2,5	1 907	2,4
Restaurants and hotels	2 677	2,2	1 485	1,9
Miscellaneous goods and services	18 534	15,2	10 491	13,5
Unclassified items	65	0,1	40	0,1
Total	**121 602**	**100,0**	**77 895**	**100,0**

Male and female-headed households display varying expenditure patterns in 2015 as seen in Table 7. Even across all expenditure groups, male-headed households tended to spend more than their female counterparts on average. For the most part, both sexes had similar proportions for the majority of the expenditure groups. The only category where there were notable differences on expenditure were on food and non-alcoholic beverages and transport.

Male-headed households tended to spend more on transport when compared to females, as transport had the second largest share for males at 17,4%, while for females it was the third highest at 13,9%. On the contrary, female-headed households spent a larger share of (16,0%) on food and non-alcoholic beverages and males had a share of 11,4%.

It should be noted that both sexes had their highest proportion of expenditure spent on housing and utilities, food and beverages, transport, and miscellaneous goods and service. We will now take a closer look at these broad expenditure groups by sex and population groups.

Figure 5: Average annual household expenditure by sex and population group of household head and broad expenditure groups, 2015



When looking at the broad expenditure groups as presented in Figure 5, it is seen that white male-headed households had the highest average annual expenditure for all the five broad expenditure groups, they are then followed by their white female counterparts. At the bottom end of the scale, black African female-headed households had the least expenditure across all the broad groups.

When looking at food and non-alcoholic beverages, white male-headed households and coloured male-headed households had the highest annual household expenditure: R24 915 and R20 652, respectively; while the lowest was for the black African male- and female-headed households, at R11 473 and R11 531 respectively. Indian/Asian male-headed households spent 37,0% of their total household expenditure on housing and utilities, which is the same for white male-headed households. Meanwhile the Indian/Asian female-headed households and white female-headed households spent slightly more on this expenditure group, at 42,0% and 41,0% respectively.

The "Other group" includes clothing and footwear, health, education, recreation and culture, furnishing and household equipment, communication, restaurants and hotels and other unclassified expenses; in this group Indian/Asian, coloured and black African-headed households had an average expenditure of 24,0% which was relatively higher than that of white-headed households at 23,0% for male-headed households and 21,0% for female-headed households. Shockingly, the expenditure for the "other" group in monetary terms by white male-headed households was larger than the total expenditure by both black African male- and female-headed households on all five categories.

Poverty profile

This report uses the South Africa's official national poverty lines to profile money metric poverty. These lines are in March 2015 prices as follows:

- Food poverty line (FPL) = R441 per person per month. This refers to the amount of money an individual will need to be able to meet required minimum daily energy intake.
- Lower-bound poverty line (LBPL) = R647 per person per month. This uses the food poverty line as a base plus the average amount derived from non-food items of households whose total expenditure is equal to the food poverty line.
- Upper-bound poverty line (UBPL) = R992 per person per month. This also uses the food poverty line as a base plus the average amount derived from non-food items of households whose total food expenditure is equal to the food poverty line.

Adult poverty

This section profiles poverty among adults in South Africa aged 18 years and older. According to the LCS 2014/15, more than one out of every five adults (20,6%) were living below the food poverty line in 2015, while a third (33,8%) were living below the lower-bound poverty line and approximately half (49,2%) were living below the upper-bound poverty line.

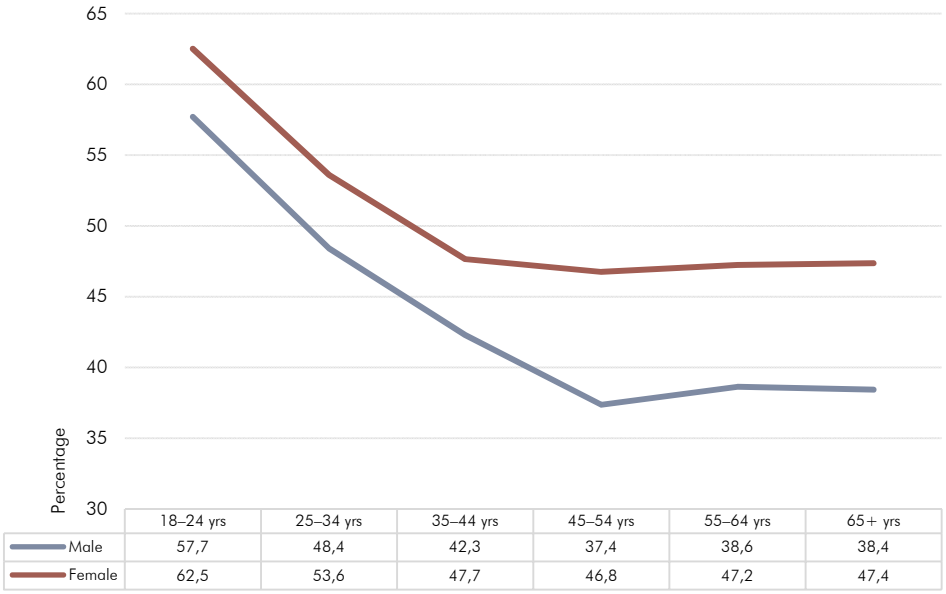
Table 8: Poverty measures of adult on the three national poverty lines by sex, 2015

			Sex	
Poverty line	**Poverty measure**	**All adults**	**Male**	**Female**
FPL	Headcount (P_0)	20,6	18,4	22,7
	Gap (P_1)	7,2	6,3	8,1
	Severity (P_2)	3,5	3	3,9
LBPL	Headcount (P_0)	33,8	30,9	36,5
	Gap (P_1)	13,7	12,2	15,0
	Severity (P_2)	7,3	6,4	8,1
UBPL	Headcount (P_0)	49,2	46,1	52,0
	Gap (P_1)	23,5	21,5	25,4
	Severity (P_2)	14,1	12,7	15,4

When looking at the poverty headcount by sex using the UBPL, both adult males and females experienced a headcount of 46,1% and 52,0%, respectively. According to the FPL the poverty headcount for males was 18,4% while females had a headcount of 22,7%. As observed in Table 8, it becomes evident that adult females experienced higher levels of poverty when compared to their male counterparts, regardless of the poverty line used.

In addition to sex, population group is another factor that influences the poverty levels of adults in South Africa. Figure 6 present the sex and age cohorts of the adult population in the country. The poverty headcount tends to be higher for females than males and this is observable across all age cohorts. For both males and females, those aged 18–24 years had the highest poverty headcount, which generally decreased as the age increased.

Figure 6: Poverty headcount by sex and age (UBPL), 2015



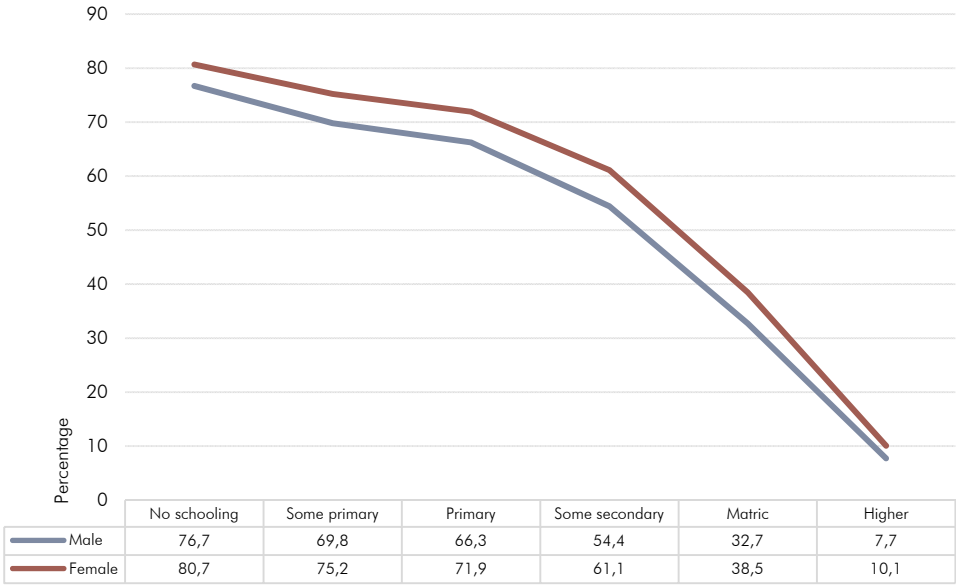
	18–24 yrs	25–34 yrs	35–44 yrs	45–54 yrs	55–64 yrs	65+ yrs
Male	57,7	48,4	42,3	37,4	38,6	38,4
Female	62,5	53,6	47,7	46,8	47,2	47,4

The poverty headcount for females saw a sharp decline of 14,8 percentage points between the cohorts 18–24 years and 35–44 years. Thereafter it slightly dropped by a minuscule 0,9 percentage points for the 45–54 age cohort, and remained relatively stable as the age went up. In total, the poverty headcount for females was 52,0% which was lower than the observed headcount for females within the 18–24 and 25–34 age cohorts. This means that poverty was more concentrated among young adults, especially females.

The male adult population maintained a lower poverty headcount relative to females which also declined as the age increased. There was a sharp decline in the poverty headcounts by 15,4 percentage points from 57,7% for the 18–24 age cohort to 42,3% for the 35–44 age cohort. When compared to the female population, males witnessed a decline across the first four age groups, and stabilised by the 45–54 age cohort, while the decline for females was only witnessed in the first three age cohorts and then remained flat from the 35–44 age cohort and onwards.

Education remains instrumental in addressing poverty. Figure 7 shows the poverty headcount by sex and education level of the adult population in South Africa. Those with no schooling tend to have significantly higher proportions of people living in poverty for both males (76,7%) and females (80,7%). The poverty headcount declined as the educational level increased for both males and females at roughly the same rate.

Figure 7: Poverty headcount by sex and education (UBPL), 2015



	No schooling	Some primary	Primary	Some secondary	Matric	Higher
Male	76,7	69,8	66,3	54,4	32,7	7,7
Female	80,7	75,2	71,9	61,1	38,5	10,1

A greater disparity between the two sexes was observed among those with some secondary education. More than half of males (54,4%) and almost two-thirds of females (61,1%) were living below the UBPL. The attainment of matric makes a significant difference in the reduction of poverty, especially when comparing those with some secondary education to those with matric. For male adults, a percentage point difference of 21,7 was observed between those with some secondary education (54,4%) and matric (32,7%); while for females, it was a percentage point difference of 22,6. Those with higher education had very low poverty headcounts at just 7,7% for males and 10,1% for females.

Table 9: Poverty headcount and poverty share of adults by province and sex (UBPL), 2015

			Sex			
	All adults		Male		Female	
Province	**Headcount (%)**	**Share (%)**	**Headcount (%)**	**Share (%)**	**Headcount (%)**	**Share (%)**
Western Cape	33,2	8,2	32,2	3,8	34,1	4,4
Eastern Cape	67,3	15,6	65,1	7,1	69,2	8,5
Northern Cape	54,3	2,5	51,8	1,1	56,5	1,3
Free State	48,9	5,3	46,7	2,5	51,0	2,8
KwaZulu-Natal	60,7	22,7	55,9	9,8	64,9	12,9
North West	59,6	8,3	55,5	3,8	63,6	4,5
Gauteng	29,3	15,8	27,5	7,4	31,1	8,4
Mpumalanga	54,6	8,4	51,7	3,9	57,3	4,5
Limpopo	67,5	13,4	63,5	5,7	70,7	7,7
South Africa	**49,2**	**100,0**	**46,1**	**45,0**	**52,0**	**55,0**

Table 9 shows both the poverty headcounts and the share of poverty for each province in 2015. The provinces with the highest headcount of adult poverty are Limpopo (67,5%), Eastern Cape (67,3%), KwaZulu-Natal (60,7%) and North West (59,6%). For these four provinces, more than half of the population were living in poverty. Gauteng and Western Cape had the lowest proportion of adults living in poverty at 29,3% and 33,2% respectively.

When looking at the share of poverty contributed by each province, the population size of each province is considered. The province that contributed the largest share was KwaZulu-Natal at 22,7%, followed by Gauteng and Eastern Cape with 15,8% and 15,6% respectively. It is notable that Gauteng and the Eastern Cape had a similar share of poverty yet varying headcounts, this can be explained by the large population size that Gauteng had relative to other provinces which elevated its share.

Household poverty

This section explores household poverty measures, which also use the food poverty line (FPL), lower-bound poverty line (LBPL) and the upper bound poverty line (UBPL). According to the LCS 2014/15, approximately 40,0% of South Africans were living below the UBPL, while 25,1% and 14,0% were living below the LBPL and FPL respectively.

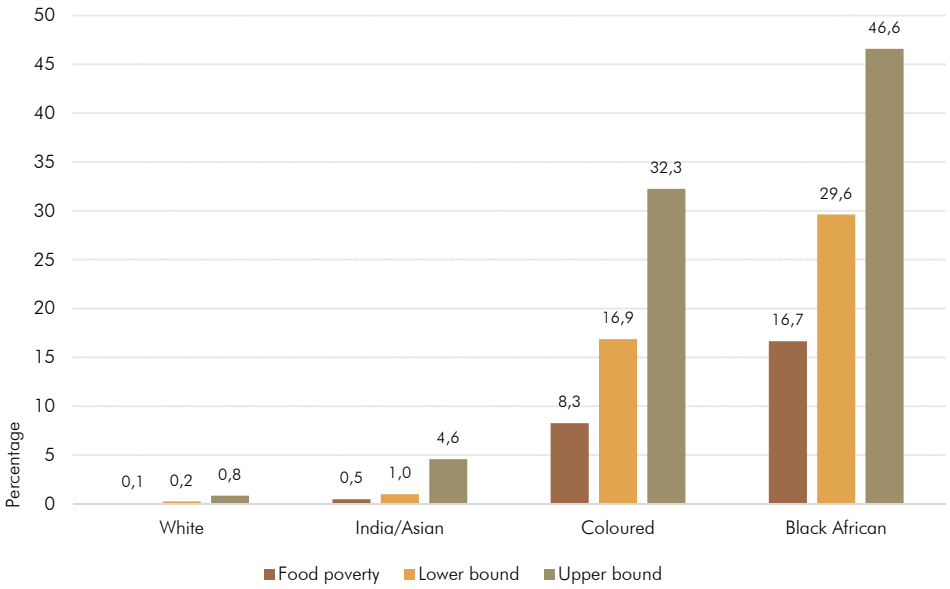
The experience of poverty was mostly felt by female-headed households rather than male-headed households. As seen on Table 10, the food poverty line reveals that female-headed households were almost twice as likely to be poor (19,6%) than male-headed households, who had only 10,1% of their households living below this line. Furthermore, the poverty gap and severity of poverty measures were similarly larger for female-headed households as compared to households headed by males.

Table 10: Poverty measures of households on the three national poverty lines by sex of household head, 2015

		Sex of household head	
Poverty line	**Poverty Measure**	**Male**	**Female**
FPL	Headcount (P_0)	10,1	19,6
	Gap (P_1)	3,1	6,6
	Severity (P_2)	1,4	3,0
LBPL	Headcount (P_0)	19,2	33,4
	Gap (P_1)	6,8	13,0
	Severity (P_2)	3,3	6,7
UBPL	Headcount (P_0)	33,0	49,9
	Gap (P_1)	13,6	23,2
	Severity (P_2)	7,4	13,6

When applying the LBPL, one can see that there was a 14,2 percentage point difference between male-headed households and female-headed households. Approximately 33,0% of female-headed households were living below the LBPL while only 19,2% of male-headed households lived below this line. This pattern repeats itself for the UBPL. The proportion of females living below the UBPL was 16,9 percentage points more than that of households headed by males (49,9% versus 33,0%).

Figure 8: Poverty incidence of households by population group of household head and poverty lines, 2015



According to Figure 8, there are significant differences in poverty levels between the different population groups. The incidence of poverty amongst households headed by whites and Indians/Asians had the lowest percentage of households living below all three poverty lines. There were less than 5,0% of Indians/Asians households living below the FPL, LBPL and the UBPL. On the other hand, less than 1,0% of white-headed households were found to be living under these lines.

In strong contrast, coloured-headed households and black African-headed households had the highest percentage of households living below the three poverty lines. Almost half (46,6%) of households headed by black Africans were living below the UBPL in 2015. While a third (32,3%) of coloured-headed households, lived under this line.

Table 11: Poverty incidence and poverty share of households by settlement type and sex of the household head (UBPL), 2015

	All households		Male-headed households		Female-headed households	
Settlement type	**Incidence (%)**	**Share (%)**	**Incidence (%)**	**Share (%)**	**Incidence (%)**	**Share (%)**
Urban formal	24,3	36,8	19,6	18,5	32,0	18,3
Urban informal	59,1	14,4	55,7	8,2	64,4	6,2
Traditional	67,4	43,2	59,3	18,3	74,8	25,0
Rural formal	54,4	5,5	48,8	3,4	66,8	2,1
Total	**40,0**	**100,0**	**33,0**	**48,4**	**49,9**	**51,6**

Table 11 shows that poverty levels differ significantly across settlement types. It further shows that 67,4% of households residing in traditional areas were living below the UBPL, while the incidence of poverty in urban formal areas was measured at just (24,3%). Almost six out of every ten households headed by males (59,3%) compared to over seven out of every ten households headed by females 74,8% in traditional areas were living under the UBPL.

The incidence of poverty for female-headed households was higher than that of male-headed households across all four settlement types. However, while female-headed households always had a higher incidence of poverty than their male counterparts, this was not always the case in terms of their poverty share. For instance female-headed households in rural formal areas living under the UBPL had a poverty share of just 2,1% while the male-headed households living in the same area had a poverty share of 3,4%. Traditional areas were the only settlement type where female-headed households had a higher poverty share than that of households headed by males.

In terms of the poverty share, we can see that traditional areas accounted for almost half of all poor households (43,2%) in the country. Not only did households in traditional areas have the highest levels of poverty, but their share of poverty was the largest across all the other settlement types. The share of poverty showed that even though the incidence of poverty for households living in urban informal areas (59,1%) was the second highest in the country, their share was just 14,4%; and was the second smallest after that of households residing in rural formal areas (54,4%). The poverty share in urban formal areas was 36,8% with the remaining 5,5% of poor households living in rural formal areas.

Table 12: Poverty incidence and poverty share of households by province (UBPL), 2015

	All households	
Province	**Incidence (%)**	**Share (%)**
Western Cape	25,3	7,2
Eastern Cape	54,2	14,2
Northern Cape	45,6	2,4
Free State	43,1	6,1
KwaZulu-Natal	48,4	20,6
North West	49,0	9,1
Gauteng	26,0	19,0
Mpumalanga	45,9	8,4
Limpopo	55,5	13,1
Total	**40,0**	**100,0**

Table 12 shows the incidence of poverty and the share of household poverty that each province contributed to the national profile. The results revealed some interesting differences between the incidence of poverty and the poverty share. KwaZulu-Natal and Gauteng were the provinces with the highest share of households living in poverty at 20,6% and 19,0% respectively. It is not surprising for them to represent such a large share of poverty as they are the most populous provinces in the country. Eastern Cape and Limpopo also had a high share of poverty at 14,2% and 13,1% respectively. The provinces with the lowest share of poverty were Northern Cape which is also the least populous province at 2,4%, followed by Free State at 6,1%, and Western Cape at 7,2%.

The provinces with the lowest incidence of poverty were Western Cape at 25,3% and Gauteng at 26,0%. Meanwhile, Limpopo and Eastern Cape had the highest incidence of poverty at 55,5% and 54,2% respectively.

Figure 9: Poverty incidence of households by province and sex of household head (UBPL), 2015

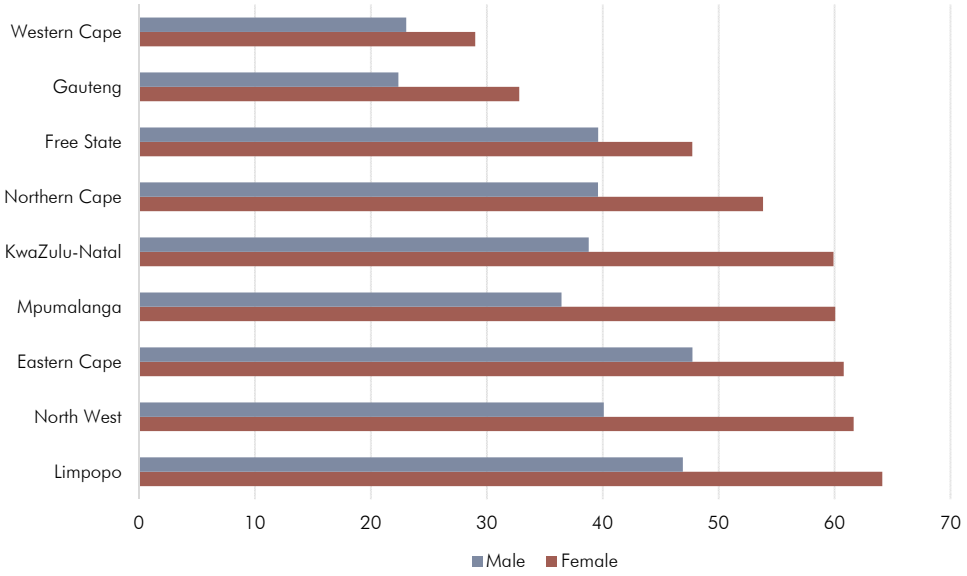


Figure 9 illustrates the incidence of poverty by provinces and sex of the household head. Across all provinces, female-headed households were more likely to be poor than male-headed households. More than six out of every ten (64,1%) households headed by females in Limpopo were living below the UBPL compared to less than five out of ten male-headed households (46,9%). Furthermore, female-headed households in North West (61,6%), Eastern Cape (60,8%) and Mpumalanga (60,0%) were poor as compared to 40,1%, 47,7% and 36,4% for male-headed households in those provinces respectively. Gauteng (32,8%) and Western Cape (29,0%) had the lowest levels of incidence of poverty amongst male-headed households relative to female-headed households.

Figure 10: Average annual household consumption expenditure by poverty status (UBPL), sex of household head and broad expenditure groups, 2015

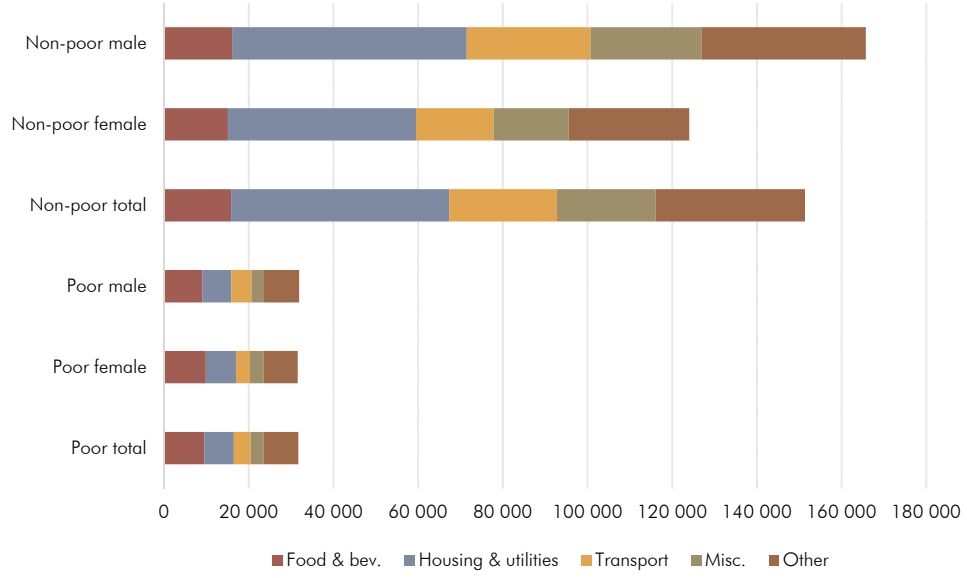


Figure 10 shows the differences in average annual household consumption expenditure between poor and non-poor households and expenditure groups. Poor households had an average annual household consumption expenditure of R31 741 per annum in 2015. This was only about a fifth of the average annual household expenditure of the non-poor households, which was R151 345. Poor and non-poor households had a notable difference on household consumption expenditure between male- and female-headed households. Within non-poor households, households headed by women had an average annual expenditure of R124 026 while those headed by men had R165 725 per annum. There were insignificant differences within poor households, about R31 917 for poor households headed by men while it was R31 575 for those headed by women. Irrespective of the sex of the household head, poor households were equally worse off.

The non-poor households headed by men had their largest expenditure on the housing and utilities category at R55 231 and their lowest expenditure on food and non-alcoholic beverages at R16 243. Households headed by women spent R44 408 on housing and utilities and R15 088 on food and non-alcoholic beverages. The expenditure in poor households is almost the same between male- and female-headed households.

Access to basic services

This section analyses the access poor households had to a range of basic services (such as housing, electricity, water, sanitation and refuse removal) based on the UBPL. The majority of South Africans reside in formal dwellings and, have access to electricity, water, sanitation and refuse removal. These findings illustrated that poor households headed by females had better access to housing and electricity, but not water, sanitation and refuse removal services.

Table 13: Types of housing by poverty status and sex of household head, 2015

	Male-headed households			Female headed households		
Type of housing	**All (%)**	**Non-poor (%)**	**Poor (%)**	**All (%)**	**Non-poor (%)**	**Poor (%)**
Formal	82,0	89,9	66,5	80,4	91,5	70,9
Informal	12,6	8,6	20,3	9,1	6,4	11,4
Traditional	5,2	1,3	12,7	10,3	1,9	17,5
Other	0,3	0,2	0,6	0,2	0,2	0,2
Total	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**

Unsurprisingly, more than 80,0% of households were living in some form of formal dwellings; with slightly more male-headed households living in formal dwellings compared to female headed households as seen in Table 13. Less than 0,4% of all households were living in caravans, tents, hostels or other unclassified dwellings compared to less than 13,0% from informal housing and 5,2% in traditional dwellings.

Male-headed households were more likely to be living in informal dwellings and other dwellings compared to female headed households meanwhile, female headed households were more likely to be living in traditional housing. There was a notable difference when poverty was taken into account. Approximately 71,0% of poor female-headed households resided in formal dwellings compared to about 66,5% of their male counterparts. In addition, more poor female-headed households resided in traditional dwellings as compared to males (17,5% versus 12,7%). Fewer poor female-headed households lived in informal (11,4%) and other (0,2%) dwellings compared to poor male-headed households (20,3% and 0,6% respectively).

Table 14: Connectivity to main electricity supply by poverty status and sex of household head, 2015

Connection to main electricity supply	Male-headed households			Female headed households		
	All (%)	Non-poor (%)	Poor (%)	All (%)	Non-poor (%)	Poor (%)
Connected	93,9	95,06	91,37	95,5	95,8	95,2
Not connected	6,1	4,94	8,63	4,5	4,2	4,8
Total	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**

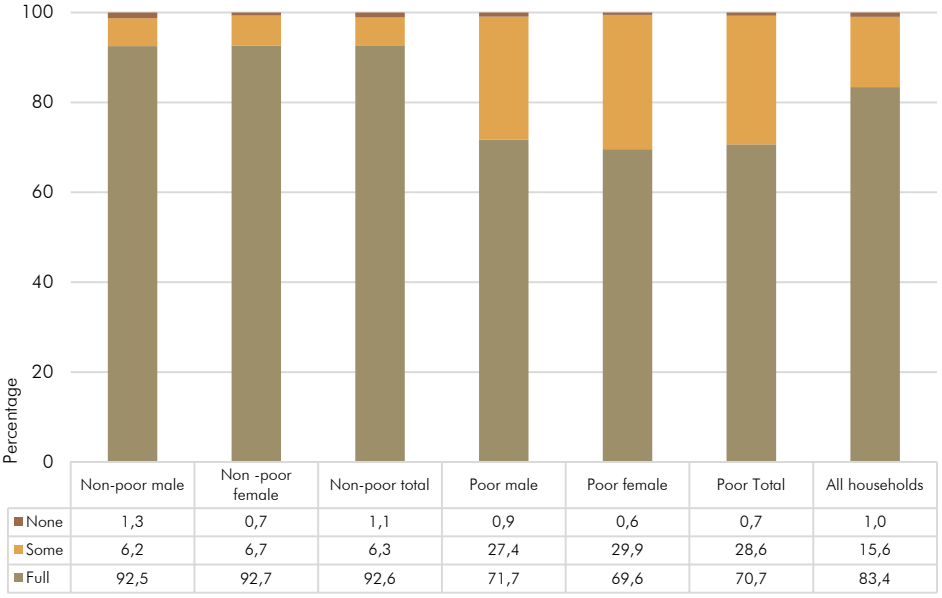
The findings shown in Table 14 exemplified the strides on which South Africa has made in terms of connecting households to the mains electricity supply. Above 90,0% of South Africans were connected, irrespective of their poverty status. Female-headed households (95,5%) were slightly more likely to have a connection to main electricity supply than male–headed households (93,9%).

Based on poverty status, similar proportions were found. About 91,4% of poor male-headed households were connected to electricity compared to 95,2% of poor female-headed households. These findings show that poor female-headed households had slightly better access to mains connected electricity. This is expected as poor female-headed households had more access to formal housing which likely allows better access to electricity.

Figure 11 presents information on access to water by poverty status and sex of household head. Access to water for drinking and other uses was categorised into the following responses:

- Full access – Piped water inside dwelling or yard;
- Some access – Borehole, rainwater tank, neighbour's tap, public tap, water tank or communal; and
- No access – River, dam or spring

Figure 11: Access to water by poverty status and sex of household head, 2015



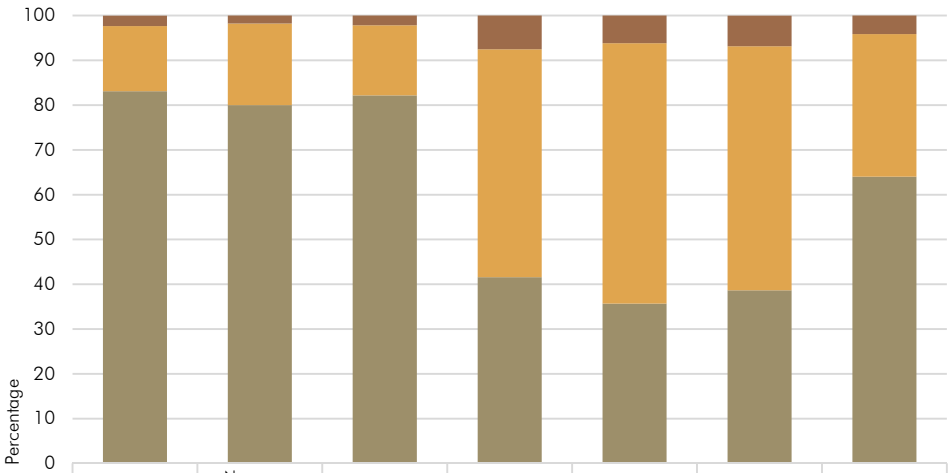
There was a significant number of households who reported having full access to water (83,4%) compared to a very few that stated that they had no access to water (1,0%). Poverty status impacted South Africans' access to water in 2015. Above 90,0% of non-poor households had full access to water, compared to about 70,0% poor households documenting full access to water. Less than 30,0% of poor households had some access to water compared to approximately 7,0% of non-poor households noting the same lack of access. This highlights the kind of access the poor have to wate-r sources.

There was virtually no difference in access to water between non-poor male and female household heads (92,5% vs 92,7%). This is not the case for poor female-headed households as 69,6% had full access to water compared to 71,7% of male-headed households. More poor female-headed households had some access to water compared to poor male-headed households, with 9,0% more poor female-headed households having access to some water compared to their male counterparts. These findings were unexpected as their access to housing and electricity did not translate to better access to water.

Figure 12 presents access to sanitation by poverty status and sex of household head. Households were asked about the type of toilet facility that they had access to. The responses were categorised as follows:

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

Figure 12: Access to sanitation by poverty status (UBPL) and sex of household head, 2015



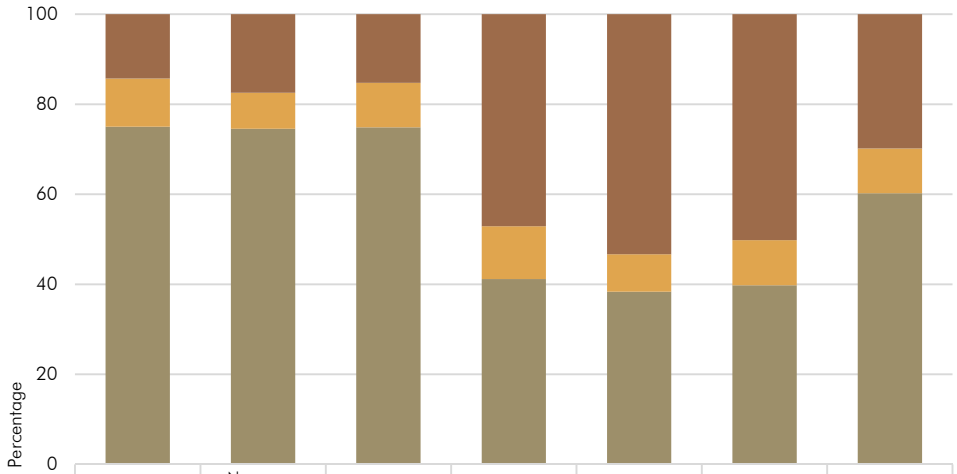
	Non-poor male	Non -poor female	Non-poor total	Poor male	Poor female	Poor Total	All households
None	2,3	1,8	2,2	7,5	6,2	6,9	4,1
Some	14,5	18,2	15,6	50,9	58,1	54,5	31,9
Full	83,1	80,0	82,2	41,6	35,7	38,7	64,0

According to the LCS 2014/15 more than six out of every ten (64,0%) households in the country had full access to sanitation through a flush toilet in their dwellings or in their yards. A further third (31,9%) of households had some access, while the remaining 4,1% reported to having no access to sanitation. As expected, there were more non-poor households who reported to be having full access to sanitation than poor households. Slightly more than eight out of every ten (82,2%) non-poor households had full access to sanitation as compared with only 38,7% of poor households. More than half (54,5%) of poor households had some access to sanitation as compared to 15,6% of non-poor households. The results further highlight that poor female-headed households were worse off than male-headed households in terms of having full access to sanitation. More than 50,0% of poor households (50,9% for male- and 58,1% for female-headed households) reported that they had some access to sanitation.

Refuse removal is the last service to be explored in this section. Households were asked how the household refuse or rubbish was taken care of, and their responses categorised as follows:

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

Figure 13: Access to refuse removal by poverty status (UBPL) and sex of household head, 2015



	Non-poor male	Non -poor female	Non-poor total	Poor male	Poor female	Poor Total	All households
None	14,3	17,5	15,2	47,1	53,3	50,2	29,8
Some	10,7	8,0	9,9	11,7	8,3	10,0	10,0
Full	75,0	74,6	74,9	41,2	38,3	39,8	60,2

Figure 13 shows that slightly more than six out of every ten (60,2%) households in South Africa had full access to refuse removal. The results revealed that almost a third (29,8%) of households reported to not having access at all, while a smaller proportion (10,0%) had some access to refuse removal. The data also revealed that 74,9% of non-poor households had full access to refuse removal while only 39,8% of poor households said they had full access to refuse removal. Poor female-headed households were found to be worse off than male headed-households. More than half (53,3%) of poor households headed by females did not have access to refuse removal while only 38,3% had full access. On the other hand, 47,1% of poor households headed by males had no access to sanitation, whereas 41,2% reported to be having full access.

Summary

The South African population was profiled according to their living circumstances and poverty status. This profile includes demographics such as sex, population group, as well as geographic levels such as province and settlement type.

As seen in the adult chapter, there were more female adults than male adults in 2015, however there were more males in the younger age cohorts (18–44 years) than females. The majority of the adult population (70,3%) was mainly found in urban areas, while women were mainly found in traditional areas (rural).

In terms of expenditure, men had a higher expenditure on average compared to their female counterparts. Differences between population groups also illustrates the inequality present in South Africa. Black Africans on average had expenditure levels four times less than white-headed households.

When looking at poverty amongst the adult population, half were poor based on the UBPL, a third were poor when using the LBPL and a fifth using the FPL. Poverty was more concentrated among young adults, especially females. Female-headed households were poorer than male-headed households and when applying the FPL they were twice as likely to be poor. Limpopo, Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and North West had the highest poverty headcounts with significantly more than half of the population in these provinces living below the UBPL.

CHAPTER 2
children

Overview

The child population

According to the LCS 2014/15, there were approximately 19,7 million children aged 0–17 years in South Africa. Children therefore accounted for more than a third (35,9%) of the national total population. This section of the report provides a comprehensive profile of children in South Africa in 2015.

Contrary to the adult population (and the national population), the child population was comprised of more boys (50,4%) than girls (49,6%) in 2015. Figure 14 also indicates that there were higher proportions of children in younger age groups as compared to older age groups within the child population. Children aged 0–4 years had the largest proportion at 30,1%, while the oldest age group (15–17 years) had the lowest proportion at just 15,7%.

Moreover, the majority of children were black African, accounting for 85,4%, followed by coloured children who accounted for 7,9% of the child population in 2015. White and Indian/Asian children were in the minority, respectively, accounting for 4,9% and 1,8% of the child population.

Figure 14: Characteristics of the child population, 2015

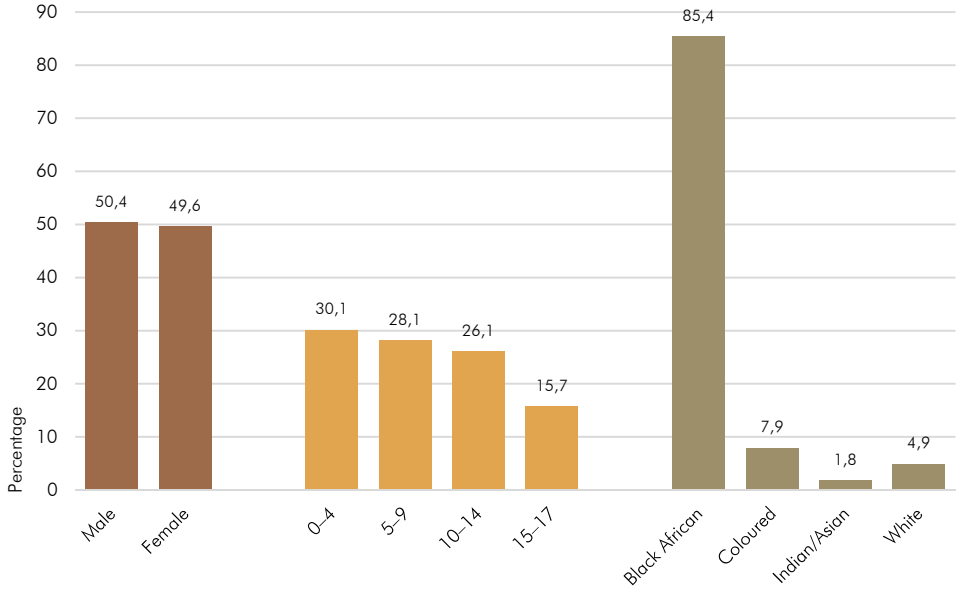
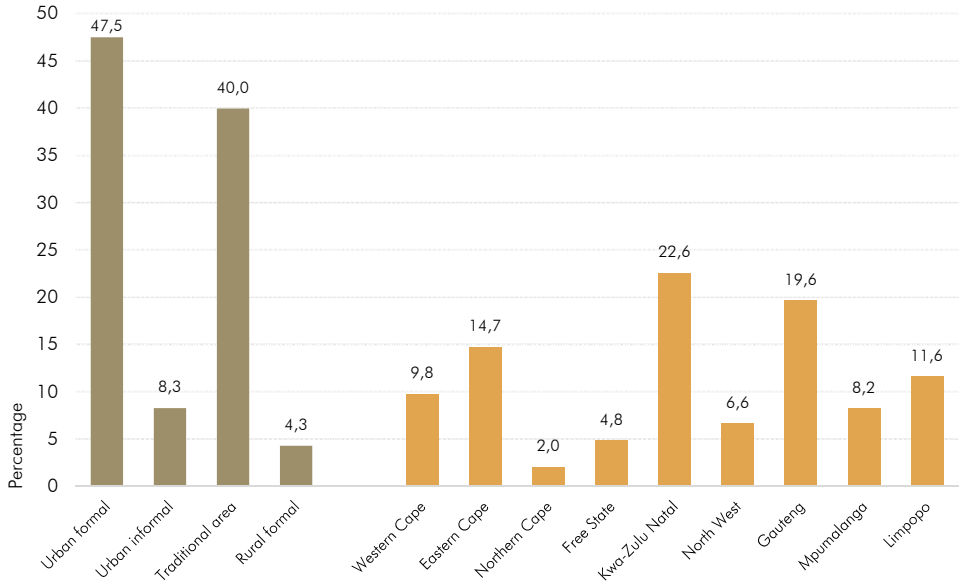


Figure 15 illustrates that roughly half of the child population (47,5%) lived in urban formal areas. A further 40,0% of children were found in traditional areas while children in urban informal areas accounted for 8,3% of the child population. The remaining 4,3% of children were residing in rural formal (farms) areas.

KwaZulu-Natal, together with Gauteng and Eastern Cape, accommodated 56,9% of all children in South Africa. KwaZulu-Natal and Gauteng had the highest proportions of children with 22,6% and 19,6%, respectively. Northern Cape, being the least populated province, accommodated only 2,0% of all children in the country. Overall, the distributions of children across provinces was different from adults in 2015. For instance, the order in which provinces are ranked by the child population share was different from the order in which provinces are ranked by the adult population share.

Figure 15: Percentage distribution of children across settlement types and across provinces, 2015



Household characteristics

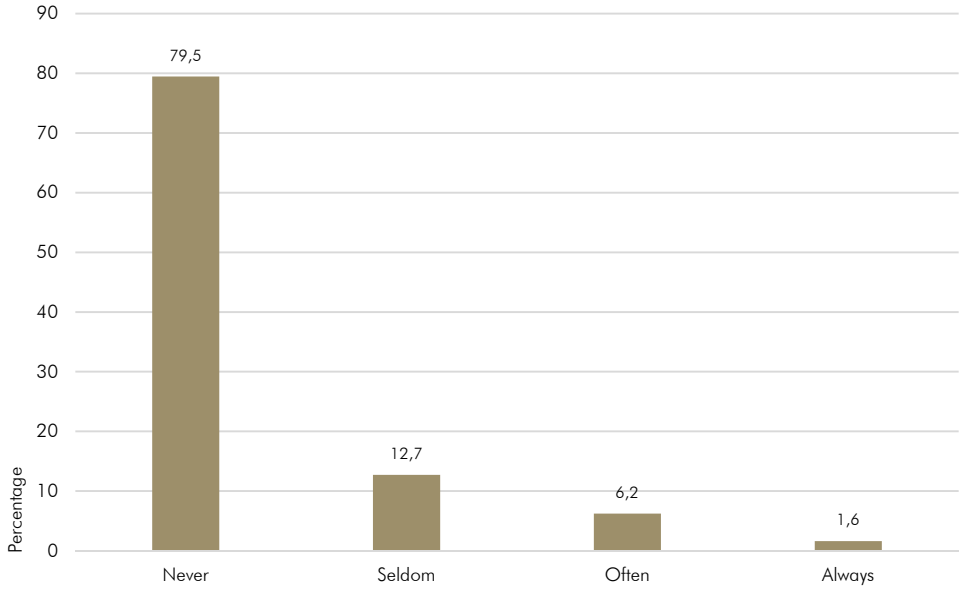
In 2015, children were almost equally split between households headed by males (51,8%) versus females (48,2%). It is also observed in Table 15 that a small proportion of children (2,1%) lived in households with less than three members. This proportion increases as household size increases. The share of children increased to 26,5% in households with three to four household members and 39,9% for those with seven or more members.

Table 15: Household characteristics

	Share of child population (%)
Sex of household head	
Male	51,8
Female	48,2
Household size	
Less than 3	2,1
3-4	26,5
5-6	31,5
7+	39,9
Household employment	
None employed	30,4
One employed	33,7
At least two employed	35,9

When looking at employment, 30,4% of children lived in households with no employed adult. This obviously has a direct and indirect impact on the poverty status of children living in these households. Table 15 further shows that 35,9% of children lived in households which had at least two employed adults, and thus these children are likely exposed to better living conditions and opportunities.

Figure 16: Child hunger in household in the past year

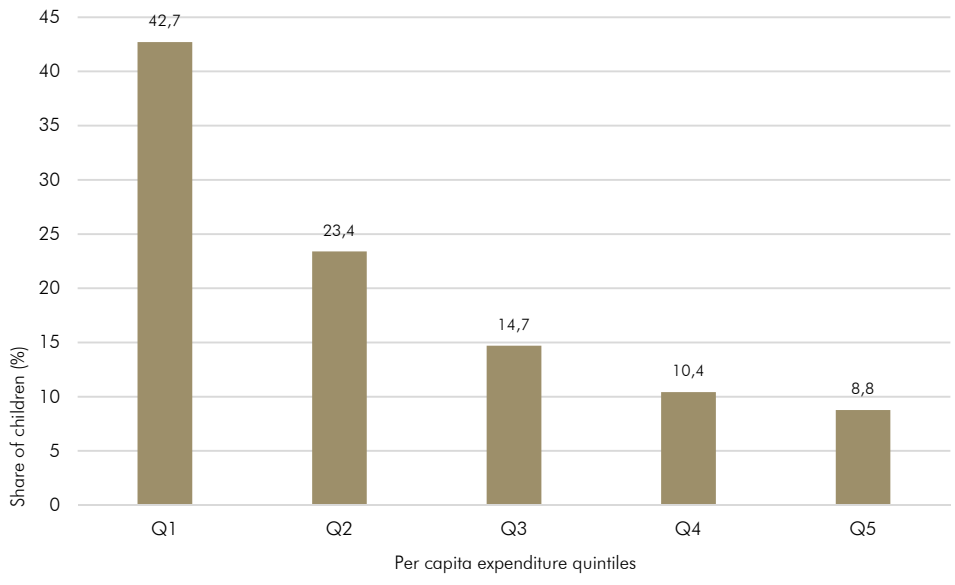


The majority of children (79,5%) lived in households which never experienced hunger in the past year. Only less than one out of every ten children resided in households where they often (6,2%) or always (1,6%) experienced hunger in the past year (see Figure 16).

Distribution of the child population by expenditure quintiles

Figure 17 highlights the distribution of the child population by per capita expenditure quintiles. The bulk of children were found in the bottom two per capita expenditure quintiles, which accounted for more than six out of every ten children combined (66,1%). Those who fell in the upper quintile represented just 8,8% of all children in the country.

Figure 17: Distribution of the child population by per capita expenditure quintiles, 2015



Child poverty profile

This section provides a descriptive analysis on the dimensions of child poverty in South Africa based on the three poverty lines. The outline of this section will be as follows; it will begin with the analysis of disaggregated demographics (population group, sex and age) and the geography of child poverty in the country. Then it explores the interplay between child poverty and their access to basic services.

Child poverty by population group

Children remain amongst the most vulnerable groups to poverty. Table 16 indicates that children had higher poverty rates compared to the adult population and the average South African. More than a third of children (33,3%) were living below the FPL. This figure was two times more than the adult population (14,0%) and 4,9 percentage points higher than the general population (28,4%). Using the LBPL, the overall poverty headcount for children was observed to be 51,0% in 2015. Although this figure was the same as the general population, it was about twice the amount for the adult population (25,1%).

The FPL and LBPL revealed the same pattern as the UBPL. Approximately seven out of every ten children (66,8%) were living in poverty based on the UBPL. The adult population recorded a poverty rate of 40,0% which was 26,8 percentage points less than the rate for children. The difference between the poverty rate for children and the general population was less extreme than the difference between adults and children measuring just 11,3 percentage points difference.

Table 16: Poverty headcount by population group on the three national poverty lines, 2015

	Children			Adults			General population		
	Food (%)	Lower (%)	Upper (%)	Food (%)	Lower (%)	Upper (%)	Food (%)	Lower (%)	Upper (%)
Black African	37,6	57,1	73,6	16,7	29,6	46,6	34,0	60,0	64,2
Coloured	15,3	27,9	47,8	8,3	16,9	32,3	15,1	35,7	41,3
Indian/Asian	0,4	2,2	6,5	0,5	1,0	4,6	2,0	5,0	5,9
White	0,2	0,4	1,4	0,1	0,2	0,8	0,0	0,6	1,0
South Africa	**33,3**	**51,0**	**66,8**	**14,0**	**25,1**	**40,0**	**28,4**	**51,0**	**55,5**

Not only are children more likely to be poor than the adult population, but there are wide and significant differences across population groups. Black African children had the highest poverty headcount across the three poverty lines with 73,6%, 57,1% and 37,6% living below the UBPL, LBPL and FPL, respectively. The coloured population had the second highest poverty rates for children across all poverty lines at 47,8% using the UBPL, 27,9% based on the LBPL and with 15,3% being food poor.

Though children were poorer compared to the adult population, the difference was striking for both the black African and coloured population groups. The LBPL revealed that 29,6% of black African adults were poor, whereas 57,1% of black African children were poor. Less than a fifth of black African adults (16,7%) were food poor compared to just under two-fifths of black African children (37,6%). Close to half of coloured children (47,8%) were living below the UBPL compared to 32,3% of coloured adults. Approximately 17,0% of coloured adults were living below the LBPL, with a poverty headcount of 16,9%. However, coloured children had a poverty headcount that was 11,0 percentage points higher than adults in this group. Less than one in every ten coloured adults (8,3%) were poor using the FPL compared to 15,3% for children.

The results in Table 17 shows the poverty share and measures of child poverty by population group using the UBPL. Out of all children in South Africa, 85,4% were black African with the remaining children being coloured (7,9%), Indian/Asian (1,8%) and white (4,9%). Although black African children constitute 85,4% of the child population, they represented a whopping 94,1% of all poor children in the country. Meanwhile, coloured children accounted for 5,7% of all poor children with Indian/Asian and white children each representing only less than 0,2%.

Table 17: Child poverty measures by population group (upper-bound poverty line)

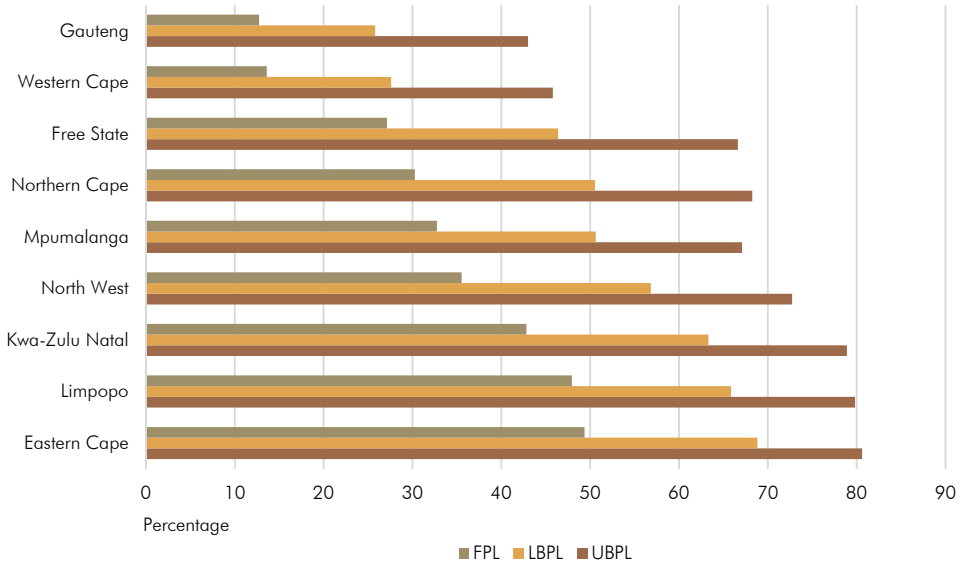
		Poverty measures			
	Child pop. share (%)	P_0	P_1	P_2	Poverty share (%)
Black African	85,4	73,6	39,3	24,9	94,1
Coloured	7,9	47,8	20,0	10,8	5,7
Indian/Asian	1,8	6,5	21,0	0,8	0,2
White	4,9	1,4	0,5	0,2	0,1
South Africa	**100,0**	**66,8**	**35,2**	**22,1**	**100,0**

Black African children were the most vulnerable to poverty as compared to other children. More than seven out of every ten black African children (73,6%) were living below the UBPL, whereas only 1,4% of white children were living under the same line. In addition, roughly five out of every ten coloured children (47,8%) and 6,5% of Indian/Asian children were living in poverty. The poverty gap (P_1) was much higher for black African children (39,3%), while white children had the lowest poverty gap (0,5%). The table above further shows that there were no significant differences in the poverty gap between coloured (20,0%) and Indian/Asian (21,0%) children. This is interesting because these two groups have widely different poverty headcounts. Nevertheless, more coloured children were poorer as they had a notably higher severity of poverty (P_2) measure (10,8 versus 0,8 for Indian/Asian children).

Child poverty by geography

Figure 18 presents the child poverty headcount for provinces across the three poverty lines. Eastern Cape, Limpopo and KwaZulu-Natal had the highest proportions of poor children across all three national poverty lines. Approximately 80,0% of children in Eastern Cape Limpopo and KwaZulu-Natal were living below the UBL. Furthermore almost half of children living in Limpopo and Eastern Cape were experiencing extreme poverty (living below the FPL) in 2015. That is, one in every two children in these provinces lived in households that could not afford the minimum day-to-day nutrition necessary for human survival. On the other hand, Gauteng and Western Cape had the lowest proportions of poor children as compared to other provinces. Gauteng had 12,7% of children living below the FPL, 25,6% below the LBPL and 43,0% below the UBPL. Western Cape was the second least poor province with slightly higher headcounts than Gauteng, but distinctly less than the other provinces.

Figure 18: Child poverty headcount by province and poverty lines, 2015



In provinces like Mpumalanga, Northern Cape and Free State, approximately two in every three children were living below the UBPL. There were, however, slight changes when we shift the attention from poverty headcounts to the poverty share. Table 18 shows the poverty measures and share by province using the UBPL. The province that had the largest share of children was KwaZulu-Natal with 22,6%. However, when it comes to the poverty share KwaZulu-Natal accounted for 26,6% of all poor children meaning they carried larger burden of child poverty in the country. Meanwhile, although Gauteng was the most populous province, it had a lower share of total children compared to KwaZulu-Natal at 19,6%. Its poverty share was only 12,6% which was not only lower than KwaZulu-Natal but also lower than the share of poor children found in Eastern Cape (17,8%) and Limpopo (13,9%).

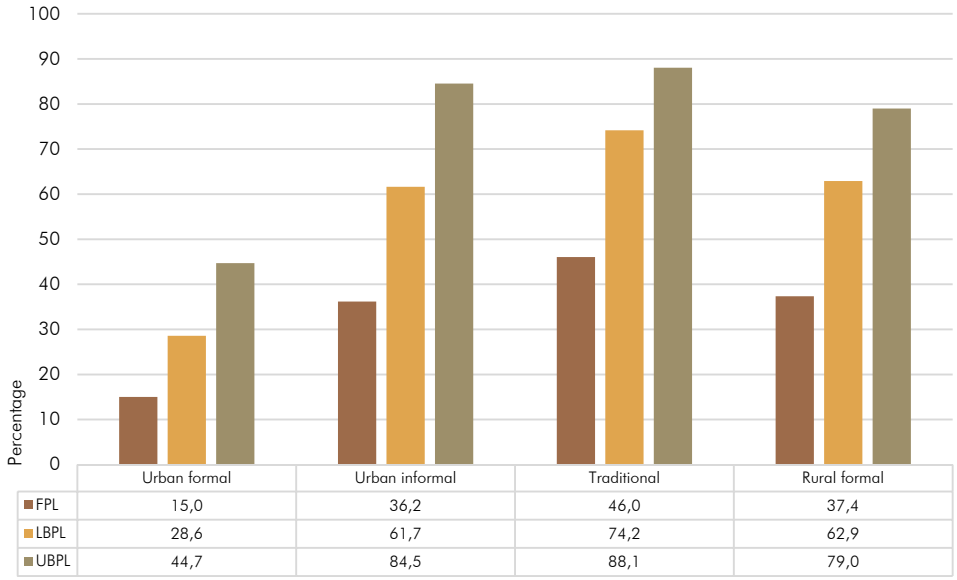
Table 18: Child poverty measures by province (upper-bound poverty line)

		Poverty Measures			
	Child pop. share (%)	P_0	P_1	P_2	Poverty share (%)
Western Cape	9,8	45,8	18,6	9,8	6,7
Eastern Cape	14,7	80,6	47,8	32,0	17,8
Northern Cape	2,0	68,2	33,9	20,4	2,1
Free State	4,8	66,6	31,7	18,3	4,8
KwaZulu-Natal	22,6	78,9	43,6	28,0	26,6
North West	6,6	72,7	38,5	24,2	7,2
Gauteng	19,6	43,0	17,7	9,5	12,6
Mpumalanga	8,2	67,1	34,6	21,2	8,3
Limpopo	11,6	79,8	46,4	31,0	13,9
South Africa	**100,0**	**66,8**	**35,2**	**22,1**	**100,0**

As with the poverty headcount, the top three provinces with the highest shares were KwaZulu-Natal (26,6%), Eastern Cape (17,8%) and Limpopo (13,9%). In addition, the poverty gap and severity were also higher for these three provinces.

Child poverty was further disaggregated by settlement type as presented in Figure 19. The poverty headcount was highest in traditional areas regardless of which poverty line was used. The poverty headcount was the lowest for urban formal areas at 15,0% using FPL, 28,6% using the LBPL and 44,7% using the UBPL.

Figure 19: Child poverty headcount by settlement type and poverty lines, 2015



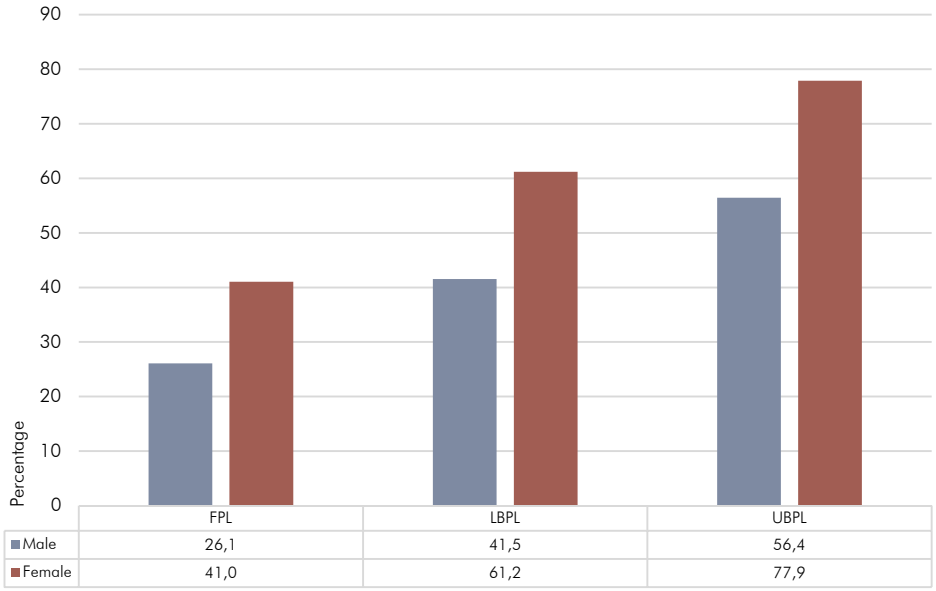
	Urban formal	Urban informal	Traditional	Rural formal
FPL	15,0	36,2	46,0	37,4
LBPL	28,6	61,7	74,2	62,9
UBPL	44,7	84,5	88,1	79,0

There were almost twice as many children living below the UBPL (88,1%) compared to those living under the FPL (46,0%) in traditional areas. A similar pattern was observed in rural formal areas where 37,4% were living below the FPL, while more than twice this number were living below the UBPL at 79,0%. There was not much disparity observed poverty status of children living in urban informal and rural formal areas across the three poverty lines.

Child poverty by sex of household head

Figure 20 shows that there were higher proportions of children living in poverty in female-headed households compared to male-headed households regardless of the poverty line used. This is expected as female-headed households have been shown to be generally poorer than male-headed households.

Figure 20: Child poverty headcount by sex of household head and poverty lines, 2015



	FPL	LBPL	UBPL
Male	26,1	41,5	56,4
Female	41,0	61,2	77,9

The difference in poverty levels for children ranged from 14,0 to 21,0 percentage points between male- and female-headed households depending on which line was used. When using the UBPL, the poverty headcount for children in male-headed households was 56,4% while for female-headed households it stood at 77,9% (roughly four out of every five female-headed households). Based on the FPL, the poverty rate for children in male-headed households was measured to be 26,1% in 2015 compared to 41,0% for their female counterparts.

Child poverty by household size

Household size and child poverty appear to be linked. Table 19 clearly shows that the larger the household, the more likely for the household to be below the poverty line. Approximately one out of every ten children (9,6%) in households with fewer than three members were food poor. This proportion increased to 14,9% for households with three or four members and to 29,1% for children in households with five or six members. Children in households consisting of seven or more household members were the worst-off as more than half (50,1%) were living below the FPL.

As seen on Table 19, this trend was similar across all three poverty lines. Using the LBPL, the poverty headcount rose from 23,1% for children in households of fewer than three members to 70,4% for children in households with seven or more members. When taking the UBPL into consideration, 42,4% of children in households with less than three members were poor and as the household size increases, the poverty rate rises to 85,9% for households with seven or more members. Not only did the households with seven or more household members have the highest poverty headcount, they also constituted the highest poverty share in the country across all the poverty lines (with 60,0% for FPL, 55,0% for LBPL and 51,0% for UBPL).

Table 19: Child poverty measures by household size

	Poverty lines								
	Food			Lower			Upper		
	P_0	P_1	P_2	P_0	P_1	P_2	P_0	P_1	P_2
Fewer than 3	9,6	2,4	0,8	23,1	6,9	2,8	42,4	16,1	8,0
3-4 members	14,9	4,4	1,9	29,1	10,0	4,8	46,3	19,9	10,9
5-6 members	29,1	9,5	4,3	46,8	18,7	9,7	62,1	31,6	19,1
7+	50,1	20,3	10,7	70,4	33,3	19,6	85,9	49,2	32,7
Total	**33,3**	**12,3**	**6,2**	**51,0**	**22,0**	**12,2**	**66,8**	**35,2**	**22,1**

As already seen with the poverty headcount, there is a positive correlation between household size and the poverty measures, including the poverty gap (P1) and severity of poverty (P2). Both the poverty gap and severity of poverty swiftly rose as household size increased.

There are hypotheses that the household size has an impact on the poverty status because larger households may require more resources and income to support the household. Household size also reduces the household savings of members as these resources are required immediately to get by especially during times of sharp spikes in basic needs expenditure. Poor people have the highest dependency ratio and have to spend a lot of their money to support their larger families. Moreover, the household economic situation can also prompt the household increase in size (either by bearing more children or take in children through the external family members as each child is a possible social grant recipient or future source of income for the household).

Access to basic services

This section will look at access to basic services in 2015 for households with children. These services include access to housing, the provision of an RDP housing subsidy, connection to the main electricity supply, access to piped water, sanitation and refuse removal.

Housing

Table 20 shows that across the three poverty lines regardless of the household`s poverty status, the majority of children were residing in formal dwellings. The results revealed that 77,9% of all children resided in formal households, 8,6% in informal dwellings, 13,3% in traditional structures and only 0,3% resided in other types of dwellings (like caravans, tents, etc.).

Table 20: Percentage of children with access to different types of housing by poverty line, 2015

		Housing			
Poverty line	Poverty status	Formal (%)	Informal (%)	Traditional (%)	Other (%)
	All children	77,9	8,6	13,3	0,3
FPL	Non-poor	87,0	7,6	5,2	0,3
	Poor	59,6	10,6	29,6	0,2
LBPL	Non-poor	90,8	6,3	2,8	0,2
	Poor	65,5	10,7	23,4	0,4
UBPL	Non-poor	94,7	4,3	0,8	0,2
	poor	69,5	10,7	19,5	0,3

The table further reveals that poor children (regardless of which poverty line is used) are more likely to live in traditional and informal dwellings compared to non-poor children. For instance, only 5,2% of non-poor children (based on the FPL) were living in traditional dwellings as opposed to a third of poor children (29,6%). When using the UBPL, less than one per cent (0,8%) of those that are not poor were staying in traditional structures versus 19,5% of those that are poor.

RDP housing

Eight out of every ten households with children (81,3%) lived in dwellings that were not subsidised, and only 18,8% of children were living in dwellings that were subsidised. The difference between the poor and non-poor children was not that significant across the poverty lines. As seen in Table 21, 17,6% of the non-poor children using the FPL were staying in RDP-subsidised dwellings, while over two-tenths of poor children (21,1%) were also staying in RDP houses that were subsidised. This trend continued for both the lower-bound and upper-bound poverty lines whereby more poor children were staying in RDP-subsidised houses than those that are non-poor.

Table 21: Percentage of children with access to RDP housing subsidy by poverty status, 2015

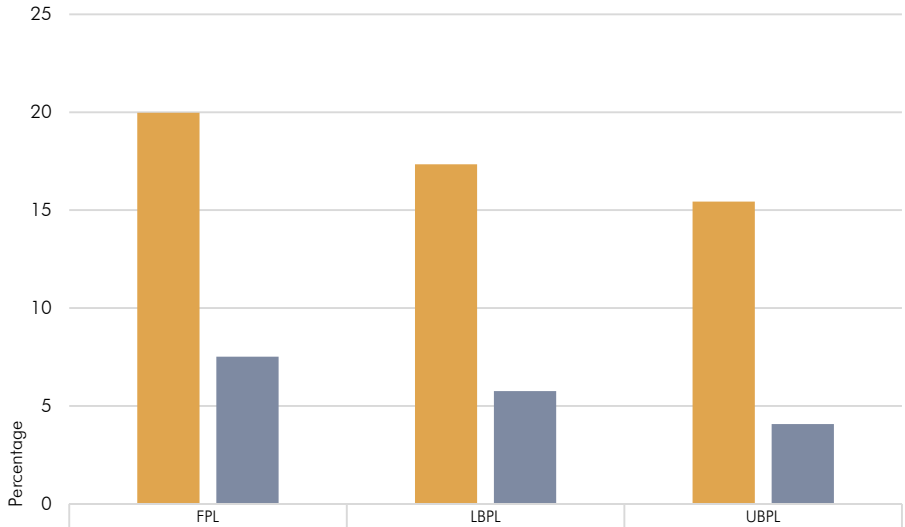
		RDP housing subsidy main dwelling	
Poverty line	Poverty status	Yes (%)	No (%)
	All children	18,8	81,3
FPL	Non-poor	17,6	82,4
	Poor	21,1	78,9
LBPL	Non-poor	15,2	84,8
	Poor	22,1	77,9
UBPL	Non-poor	12,0	88,1
	Poor	22,1	77,9

It is interesting to note that the number of poor children staying in subsidised dwellings was consistent at each poverty line (roughly 22,0%); however, the number of non-poor children living in subsidised housing reduced as the poverty line changed. For the FPL, it recorded 17,6% which dropped to 15,2% for the LBPL and finally 12,0% for the UBPL.

Connection to mains electricity supply

The LCS 2014/15 shows that approximately 88,3% of households with children had a connection to the mains electricity supply. On the contrary, 11,7% of households with children were not connected to the mains electricity supply. Across the three poverty lines, as seen in Figure 21, over 15,0% of poor households with children had no connection to the mains electricity supply, while only 8,0% or less of the non-poor had no connection to the mains electricity supply.

Figure 21: Percentage of non-poor and poor children with no connection to mains, 2015



	FPL	LBPL	UBPL
Poor	20,0	17,3	15,4
Non-poor	7,5	5,8	4,1

The FPL reveals that 20,0% of poor households with children were living below this line as compared to 7,5% of those that were not poor. The same trend was observed across the other poverty lines namely, more poor children were staying in households that had no connection to the mains electricity supply.

As observed in Table 22, there were no significant differences between poor and non-poor households with children regarding who had access to electricity for lighting across the different poverty lines. Over 90,0% of all children across all the poverty lines resided in households that were using electricity for lighting, while only 8,0% were from households that did not have access to electricity for lighting. However, there were substantial differences for those that did not have access.

Table 22: Percentage of children with access to electricity for lighting by poverty status

		Lighting	
Poverty line	**Poverty status**	**Yes (%)**	**No (%)**
	All children	92,1	7,9
FPL	Non-poor	95,9	4,1
	Poor	84,5	15,5
LBPL	Non-poor	97,1	2,9
	Poor	87,2	12,8
UBPL	Non-poor	98,2	1,8
	Poor	89,1	1,0

Water

Table 23 illustrates that over three out of every four households with children (75,9%) in the country were residing in dwellings that had access to piped water. Roughly 23,2% of households with children had some access and only 0,9% reported to not have any access to piped water.

Table 23: Percentage of children with access to water by poverty status

		Access to water		
Poverty line	**Poverty status**	**Full access (%)**	**Some access (%)**	**None (%)**
	All children	75,9	23,2	0,9
FPL	Non-poor	86,3	12,7	1,1
	Poor	55,2	44,2	0,6
LBPL	Non-poor	90,1	8,9	1,1
	Poor	62,4	36,9	0,8
UBPL	Non-poor	93	5,7	1,3
	Poor	67,4	31,8	0,7

Table 23 further illustrates that poor children were significantly more disadvantaged when it came to access to water. This was the case for just above half of poor children (55,2%) living below the poverty line, compared to more than 80,0% of non-poor children based on the FPL who had full access to water. It is also important to note that only 0,9% of both poor and non-poor households with children did not have any access to water. A greater amount of poor children had some access to water as compared to their non-poor counterparts.

Sanitation

The differences between poor and non-poor households with children with access to sanitation can be seen in Table 24. While the majority of households with children (50,4%) had access to sanitation, approximately 44,7% had some access and 5,0% had no access at all.

Table 24: Percentage of children with access to sanitation by poverty status

		Access to sanitation		
Poverty line	Poverty status	Full access	Some access	None
	All children	50,4	44,7	5,0
FPL	Non-poor	64,8	32,2	3,0
	Poor	21,4	69,6	9,0
LBPL	Non-poor	73,5	24,3	2,2
	Poor	28,2	64,2	7,6
UBPL	Non-poor	82,9	15,7	1,5
	Poor	34,3	59,0	6,7

Poor households with children had less access to sanitation than those who were not poor. At the UBPL, the non-poor households with children (82,9%) were more likely to have full access, with 15,7% having some access and 1,5% not having access to sanitation in the country. Comparatively, at the UBPL poor households with children (34,3%) had full access, while 59,0% had some access and only 6,7% had no access at all. This shows that poor households with children were likely to have only some access to sanitation (59,0%) whereas non-poor children tend to have full access.

Refuse removal

The LCS 2014/15 found that almost half of households with children (49,6%) had full access to refuse removal services. A further 8,5% had some access, while 42,0% reported to have no access at all.

Table 25: Percentage of children with access to refuse removal by poverty status

		Access to refuse removal		
Poverty line	Poverty status	Full access	Some access	None
	All children	49,6	8,5	42,0
FPL	Non-poor	61,6	9,9	28,4
	Poor	25,4	5,6	69,1
LBPL	Non-poor	69,2	9,5	21,3
	Poor	30,7	7,5	61,8
UBPL	Non-poor	76,4	9,0	14,6
	Poor	36,2	8,2	55,6

From Table 25, one can see that over half of the poor households with children in the country did not have access to refuse removal services for any of the three poverty lines (69,1% for those living below the FPL, 61,8% for LBPL and 55,6% for UBPL). This means that non-poor children were more likely to have full access to refuse removal whereas poor children tend to have none or limited access.

Health

Coverage of medical aid and medical consultation

In 2015, roughly 81,0% of the child population consulted in public institutions while only 18,8% consulted in private institutions. Furthermore, only 12,4% of all children in the county were covered by a medical aid scheme (see Table 26).

Table 26: Children covered by medical aid and type of health institution/place they usually go when sick by poverty status

Poverty line	Poverty status	With medical aid	Public	Private
FPL	Non-poor	18,4	72,9	27,1
	Poor	0,3	97,8	2,2
LBPL	Non-poor	24,4	64,6	35,4
	Poor	0,8	97,1	2,9
UBPL	Non-poor	34,5	51,0	49,0
	Poor	1,4	96,2	3,8
All children		**12,4**	**81,2**	**18,8**

Table 26 further highlights that there were significant differences between poor and non-poor children across all poverty lines. Amongst non-poor children, medical aid coverage ranged from 18,4% (using FPL) to 34,5% (using UBPL) while for poor children it ranged from 0,3% to 1,4% depending on the poverty line used. Non-poor children were more likely to be covered by medical aid than poor children.

More than 96,0% of poor children consulted in public institutions as compared to less than 4,0% in private institutions across all three poverty lines. There were no noticeable differences between non-poor children who consulted in public and private institutions using the UBPL measure. More than half of non-poor children (51,0%) based on the UBPL measure consulted in public institutions and 49,0% in private institutions.

Physical access to health facilities by poverty status

Table 27 shows that half of all children (50,1%) had access to a clinic within 2 km of their place of residence and almost six out of every ten children (57,4%) lived within 10 km of the nearest hospital.

Table 27: Distance to health facilities by poverty status

		Clinic within 2 km			Hospital within 10 km		
Poverty line	**Poverty status**	**Male**	**Female**	**All children**	**Male**	**Female**	**All children**
FPL	Non-poor	54,4	53,7	54,1	64,6	65,2	64,9
	Poor	42,2	42,2	42,2	42,9	41,9	42,4
LBPL	Non-poor	56,2	55,5	55,9	68,8	69,2	69,0
	Poor	44,7	44,5	44,6	46,5	46,1	53,8
UBPL	Non-poor	56,7	55,6	56,1	74,2	74,0	74,1
	Poor	47,2	47,1	47,1	49,1	49,1	49,1
Total		**50,4**	**49,9**	**50,1**	**57,5**	**57,4**	**57,4**

As seen in Table 27, there were no significant differences with regard to access to health facilities (clinics and hospitals) across all poverty lines and between boys and girls. However, non-poor children generally had greater access to health facilities relative to poor children regardless of which poverty line is used. At the UBPL, more than five out of every ten non-poor children (56,1%) had access to clinics within 2 km of their dwelling while 47,1% of poor children had access within this distance. Moreover, based on the LBPL, more than half of non-poor children (55,9%) had access to clinics within 2 km whereas 44,6% of poor children accessed clinics within a 2 km travelling distance.

Education

The LCS 2014/15 included various questions on education for all household members, including children. This part of the report carefully scrutinises the exposure to Early Childhood Development (ECD) and school attendance and the reasons for not attending school and their relationship to poverty status.

Table 28: Children exposed to an Early Childhood Development programme and school attendance by poverty status

		ECD (0–4 years)			School (5–17 years)		
Poverty line	**Poverty status**	**All children**	**Male**	**Female**	**All children**	**Male**	**Female**
FPL	Non-poor	45,4	43,6	47,1	97,2	97,2	97,1
	Poor	25,5	25,9	25,0	95,3	95,2	95,5
LBPL	Non-poor	49,4	48,3	50,5	97,6	97,4	97,7
	Poor	28,7	28,1	29,3	95,6	95,7	95,5
UBPL	Non-poor	54,1	52,7	55,4	97,6	97,3	98,0
	Poor	31,3	30,5	32,0	96,0	96,2	95,9
Total		**38,4**	**37,4**	**39,4**	**96,6**	**96,6**	**96,6**

The ECD programme is a branch of education theory which relates to the teaching of young children (formally and informally). Infant/toddler education is also a subset of early childhood education. In terms of children exposed to this programme in South Africa, this report looks at children aged 0 to 4 years. Table 28 shows the distribution of children exposed to an ECD programme by poverty status. Almost two out of every five children in South Africa were attending ECD programmes (38,4%) in 2015.

There was a slight difference between the exposure of boys and girls to ECD programmes (37,4% and 39,4% respectively). However, there were significant differences between boys and girls from poor and non-poor households with respect to attending these ECD programmes. Just over a quarter of poor girls (25,0%) and boys (25,9%) living under the FPL were attending ECD programmes, compared to 47,1% of non-poor girls and 43,6% of non-poor boys. Looking at the UBPL, poor children (aged between 0 and 4 regardless of sex) had an average of 31,3% as compared to 54,1% for non-poor children.

Table 28 further shows that school attendance stood at 96,6% with no difference between boys and girls (5–17 age group). The noticeable gap developmental observed between poor and non-poor children at pre-school level appears to narrow at school level where the attendance for both boys and girls (across all poverty lines) was always above 95,0%. These high attendance levels regardless of poverty status are likely due to policies such as no fees schools and government's commitment to universal access to education.

Reasons for not attending school

Table 29 shows the reasons for not attending school by sex and poverty status using the UBPL. There were no major differences in the reasons for not attending school between boys and girls, as well as between those from poor and non-poor households.

Table 29: Reasons for not attending school by poverty status (UBPL), 2015

	Male			Female		
	Total (%)	Non-poor (%)	Poor (%)	Total (%)	Non-poor (%)	Poor (%)
Age (too old/young)	91,6	91,3	91,7	91,5	93,6	90,8
No money for fees	4,3	4,1	4,3	4,5	3,9	4,8
Education useless	0,8	1,0	0,7	0,4	0,0	0,6
Illness	0,5	0,1	0,6	0,6	0,4	0,6
Pregnancy				1,1	0,4	1,3
Other	2,8	3,5	2,6	1,9	1,7	1,9

The results show that being too young or too old to attend was the main reason why boys (91,6%) and girls (91,5%) were not attending school. Approximately 4,0% of boys and girls indicated that not having money for fees was the second key reason for not attending. Less than 2,8% of boys were not attending school in 2015 due to "other" reasons. For girls, pregnancy was also mentioned as a reason for not attending. There was an insignificant difference between poor girls (1,3%) and non-poor girls (0,4%) who do not go to school due to pregnancy.

Child protection

It is irrefutable that children are one of the most vulnerable groups when it comes to issues such as poverty, violence, exploitation and abandonment. To better understand these dynamics, this section of the report will examine issues such as child care, orphanhood status and access to safe play areas.

Child care

As one might expect, the highest proportion of children (45,2%) in the country lived with only a single parent in the household. This group is comprised 41,4% of children who lived with their mothers only and 3,8% who lived with their fathers only. Table 30 further shows that a third of all children (32,9%) lived with both biological parents in the household, while on the other hand about 21,9% of children lived with neither their biological father nor mother in the household.

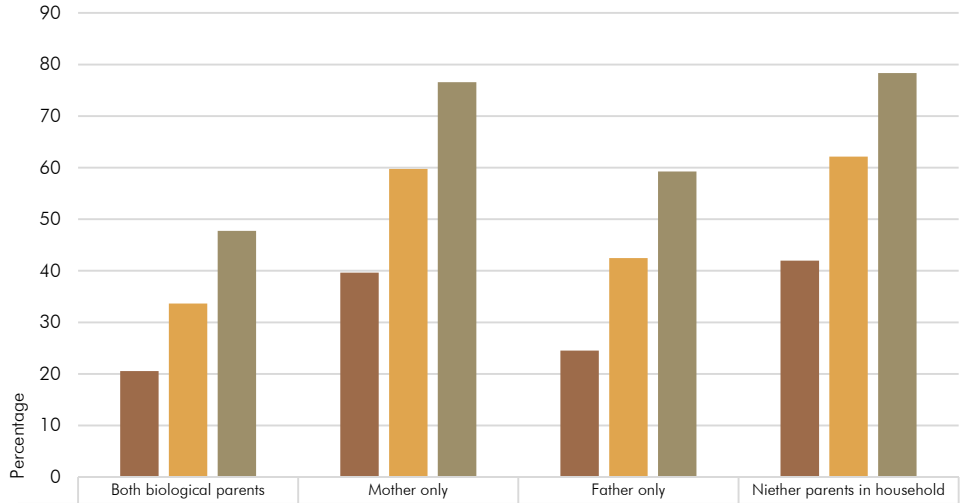
Furthermore, the proportion of boy and girl children living with their biological mothers only was roughly ten times more than that of those living with their biological fathers only. There was no significant difference between the proportions of boy and girl children who did not live with both parents in their households.

Table 30: Parental care for children by sex

Parental care	Share of child population (%)	Share of boy child population (%)	Share of girl child population (%)
Both biological parents	32,9	32,8	33,1
Mother only	41,4	41,0	41,8
Father only	3,8	4,2	3,4
Neither parents in household	21,9	22,0	21,7

Children who lived with neither biological parents in the household experienced the highest poverty headcounts across all three poverty lines. Figure 22 shows that 42,0% of children with no parents in the household were living below the FPL which was two times more than those who stayed with both biological parents (20,6%). Approximately more than a third of children who lived with their mothers only (39,7%) were living below the FPL compared to just 24,5% of children who were living with their fathers only. When we use the UBPL, less than half of children (47,7%) who lived with both parents were poor as compared to roughly more than three quarters of those living with no parents in the household (78,4%) or with their mothers only (76,6%). This clearly shows the significant impact that the absence of a father can have on the poverty status of the household and thus, the child.

Figure 22: Poverty headcount of children by parental care, 2015



	Both biological parents	Mother only	Father only	Niether parents in household
FPL	20,6	39,7	24,5	42,0
LBPL	33,7	59,8	42,5	62,1
UBPL	47,7	76,6	59,3	78,4

Orphan status of children

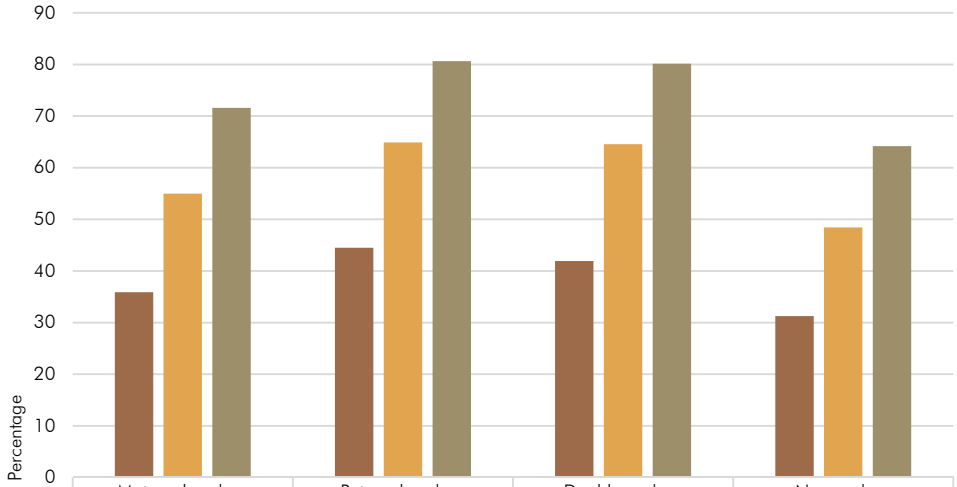
Generally, an orphan is described as a child whose parents are deceased, unknown, or have permanently abandoned them. For this report, the orphan status of a child is categorised as follows, namely a maternal orphan, a paternal orphan, and a double orphan. A maternal orphan is a child whose mother has died or permanently abandoned them; a paternal orphan is a child whose father has died or permanently abandoned them; and a double orphan is a child who has lost both parents or permanently abandoned by them. The LCS 2014/15 data revealed that 17,8% of children in South Africa are orphans with about 3,8% of those children without mothers, 12,0% with no fathers and 4,2% being double orphans. Nearly 83,0% of children were non-orphans in 2015.

Table 31: Orphan status of children by sex

Parental care	Share of child population (%)	Share of boy child population (%)	Share of girl child population (%)
Maternal orphan	3,7	3,9	3,6
Paternal orphan	10,5	10,5	10,5
Double orphan	3,2	3,0	3,3
Non-orphan	82,6	82,6	82,6

Approximately 3,7% of children were maternal orphans, of which 3,9% of boys and 3,6% of girls fell into this category. Table 31 also shows that there were no differences between boys and girls who were paternal orphans, with both accounting for 10,5% of all children. Furthermore, there were no significant differences between boys and girls who were double orphans. More than eight out of every ten boys (82,6%) and girls (82,6%) were not orphans.

Figure 23: Poverty headcount of children by orphan status, 2015



	Maternal orphan	Paternal orphan	Double orphan	Non orphan
FPL	35,9	44,5	41,9	31,3
LBPL	55,0	64,9	64,6	48,4
UBPL	71,6	80,6	80,1	64,2

Figure 23 revealed that poverty was highest amongst children who were either paternal or double orphans. Paternal (80,6%) and double orphans (80,1%) had the highest poverty levels followed by maternal orphans (71,6%) and non-orphan (64,2%) when using the UBPL. More than three out of every ten maternal orphans (35,9%) were living below the FPL while less than half of both paternal orphans (44,5%) and double orphans (41,9%) lived below this line.

Access to safe play area

Having a safe play area is fundamental for the healthy development and growth of a child. Table 32 shows that more than a third (34,9%) of South African children lived in neighbourhoods with safe play areas.

Table 32: Access to safe play

Poverty line	Neighbourhood has somewhere for children to play safely (%)
All children	34,9
Food poverty	
Non-poor	42,1
Poor	20,7
Lower bound	
Non-poor	47,4
Poor	23,0
Upper bound	
Non-poor	53,7
Poor	25,7

Non-poor children were two times more likely to have access to safe play areas in their neighbourhoods than poor children. Approximately 42,1% of non-poor children, based on the FPL, had access to safe play areas in their neighbourhood as compared with 20,7% of food poor children. At the UBPL, more than half of non-poor children (53,7%) lived in neighbourhoods with safe play areas compared to a quarter of poor children (25,7%).

Social grants

As has been already established, children are the most vulnerable group to poverty with 66,8% of them living below the UBPL. Social grants are used as a means to better the lives of the poor. According to the *Poverty Trends Report (Report No. 03-10-06)* which was published in 2017, roughly 16,6 million South Africans were dependent on social grants as a source of income in 2015 of which 11,7 million children were benefiting from Child Support Grants (CSG). This section explores the coverage of social grants based on the poverty status of the household.

Table 33: Percentage of children living in households that receive grants or not, 2015

Poverty line	Poverty status	No grant (%)	Single grant (%)	Multiple (%)
FPL	Non-poor	32,9	44,8	22,3
	Poor	6,2	51,5	42,3
LBPL	Non-poor	41,0	41,8	17,2
	Poor	7,7	52,1	40,3
UBPL	Non-poor	54,0	35,5	10,5
	Poor	9,0	52,8	38,2
All children		**24,0**	**47,1**	**29,0**

Less than a quarter of children (24,0%) were living in households that did not receive any social grants from the government. Approximately 50,0% of children were from households that received a single grant compared to about 30,0% that benefited from multiple grants. This was similar when analysing children from poor households. Above 50,0% of poor children were benefiting from a single grant; however, about 40,0% were from households receiving multiple grants; and less than 10,0% were not benefiting from grants at all.

Table 33 highlights the coverage of social grants among the poor as the overwhelming majority benefited from one or more grants. When considering the UBPL, 52,8% of poor children were from households that received a single grant, as well as 38,2% that received multiple grants; leaving just 9,0% of poor households with children receiving no grants. The findings for poor households are similar for the other two poverty lines with 52,1% and 51,5% benefiting from single grants and 40,3% and 42,3% benefiting from multiple grants for the LBPL and FPL, respectively. As the poverty measure moves from FPL to UBPL, the number of poor children benefiting from a single grant increases.

As expected when looking at the non–poor households with children based on the UBPL, 54,0% of them were not benefiting from grants; 35,5% were from households receiving a single grant and 10,5% benefited from multiple grants. However, the other two poverty lines revealed that more non-poor children were from households that received a single grant (44,8% were food poor and 41,8% when based on the LBPL). Additionally, households with non-poor children that benefited from multiple grants had higher percentages than poor households with children that did not receive any grants – with the FPL recording the largest difference at 16,1 percentage points.

Summary

Children experience notably higher poverty levels compared to adults. Using the UBPL, 70,0% of children were living in poverty and almost a one out of every three children were food poor.

In terms of poverty by population group, black African children were most vulnerable to poverty as compared to other children and represented the largest share. Poor children were mostly found in Eastern Cape, Limpopo and KwaZulu-Natal, while Gauteng and Western Cape had the lowest proportion of poor children.

It was observed that children living in female-headed households had considerably higher levels of poverty relative to male-headed households with children. Poverty and household size appear to be correlated, as the size of the household increases the greater the likelihood that that household will be poor.

Looking at the poverty status, poor children were more likely to live in traditional and informal dwellings compared to non-poor children. In terms of access to water, poor children were significantly disadvantaged. Poor households with children also had less access to sanitation than those who were non-poor.

It was further observed that almost two out of every five children in South Africa attended ECD programmes. Almost all children (96,6%) attended school, with no difference between girls and boys.

ANNEXURES

Annexure A: Explanatory notes

The instruments of data collection

The Living Conditions Survey 2014/15 used three data collection instruments, namely the household questionnaire, the weekly diary, and the summary questionnaire to collect information from households.

Household questionnaire

The household questionnaire was a booklet of questions. These questions, which were split into 26 sections and spread across four modules, were administered to respondents on different occasions during the course of the survey period. One module was completed during each visit to the household (approximately one per week). The first module dealt with establishing the composition and structure of the household, as well as capturing particulars of all household members, including particulars on education and employment. The second and third modules contained the bulk of the expenditure-related questions and covered various expenditure areas, such as housing, clothing and footwear, telecommunications, transport, furniture and equipment, education, and health. These two modules also included questions on household assets, welfare, socially-perceived necessities, and crime. The fourth module comprised sections on subsistence, living circumstances and food security, finance and banking, as well as particulars of income.

Weekly diaries

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

Summary questionnaire

This was a booklet of questions for the sole use of the Survey Officer. The instrument has two primary functions. First, it serves as a code list for Survey Officers when assigning COICOP (Classification of Individual Consumption According to Purpose) codes for the reported items recorded in the weekly diary. Second, it helps to summarise the household's total consumption expenditure on a weekly basis to allow the Survey Officers to better understand the household's acquisition patterns so as to ensure accuracy and completeness of the diary.

How the LCS 2014/15 was conducted

Sampled households participated in the survey for a period of four weeks. The survey instruments were administered in stages at different visits during the four weeks of data collection. A module was administered at the beginning of each week. A detailed list of activities conducted each week is shown in Table A1.

Table A1: Data collection activities by week for the LCS 2014/15

Week 0 *(Week before diary-keeping)*	**Weeks 1 to 2** *(Diary-keeping week)*	**Week 3** *(Week after diary-keeping)*
• Hand-over by publicity team • Establish rapport with household • Train household on diary completion • Conduct interview 1 • Make appointments for anthropometric measurements	• Drop weekly diaries to be completed by household • Conduct interviews 2 and 3 • Collect and verify completed diaries for week 1 • Codification by means of the summary questionnaire • Conduct anthropometric measurements	• Conduct interview 4 • Collect and verify completed diaries for week 2 • Codification by means of the summary questionnaire • Conduct any outstanding anthropometric measurements

Time span

Data collection for the Living Conditions Survey 2014/2015 was conducted over a period of one year between 13 October 2014 and 25 October 2015 with the diary-keeping period starting on 20 October 2014 and ending on 19 October 2015. Publicity operations for the survey began in September 2014 and were run in parallel with data collection activities until the end of the survey.

Sample coverage

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

Response details

From the 30 818 dwelling units sampled across the country, 32 906 households were identified by the survey. Out of these, there was a sample realisation of 27 527 (83,65%) households, with the remaining 5 379 (16,35%) households being classified as out-of-scope due to a number of reasons, such as listing error, vacant/unoccupied dwelling, etc. Table A2 below shows the response rates for the LCS 2014/15 by province.

Table A2: Response rates for the LCS 2014/15 by province

Province	LCS 2014/2015 (%)
RSA	**84,9**
Western Cape	79,1
Eastern Cape	92,7
Northern Cape	90,4
Free State	86,9
KwaZulu-Natal	89,6
North West	90,0
Gauteng	65,3
Mpumalanga	91,6
Limpopo	95,6

Despite the legislative power of the Statistics Act (Act No. 6 of 1999), which compels sampled households by law to participate in Stats SA surveys, we have seen a general decrease in response rates since the introduction of the diary and recall methodology in 2005/06 (see Table A3 below). Overall, we do see lower rates for the two LCS points compared to the IES points. This is likely due to the extra burden that the LCS places on respondents for anthropometric measurements and a generally longer questionnaire that is designed to meet poverty objectives in addition to the CPI objective.

Table A3: Response rates for the IES 2005/06, LCS 2008/09, IES 2010/11 and LCS 2014/15 by province

Province	IES 2005/06 (%)	LCS 2008/09 (%)	IES 2010/11 (%)	LCS 2014/15 (%)
RSA	**96,8**	**88,0**	**91,6**	**84,9**
Western Cape	94,1	85,2	94,3	79,1
Eastern Cape	99,6	94,2	95,8	92,7
Northern Cape	98,7	90,4	95,6	90,4
Free State	98,5	95,9	94,7	86,9
KwaZulu-Natal	95,9	84,8	92,3	89,6
North West	97,1	89,3	91,6	90,0
Gauteng	95,3	79,7	82,9	65,3
Mpumalanga	96,4	88,5	93,5	91,6
Limpopo	97,7	94,9	90,3	95,6

Data collection

There are three main approaches used to collect data on household consumption expenditure, namely the acquisition, the payment and the consumption approaches. All three methods were used at some stage during data collection for the LCS 2014/15.

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

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

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

Data processing

Data processing refers to a class of computer programmes that organise and manipulate large volumes of numeric data. Data processing involved the processing of completed instruments; in the case of the LCS 2014/15, these included household questionnaires, diaries and the summary questionnaires. Information received from these instruments collected during fieldwork was converted into electronic format represented by numbers or characters. The main method used for this conversion was scanning. To ensure quality electronic data, the data were verified, as well as edited and checked for consistency according to the predetermined editing rules. All information contained in damaged instruments that could not be scanned was identified and transcribed onto clean instruments in order to be scanned.

Coding of acquired items

Coding is the process of assigning numerical values to responses to facilitate data capturing and processing in general. The code list for acquired items was based on the United Nations Classification of Individual Consumption According to Purpose (COICOP). Codes were assigned to expenditure items and listed in the diaries by field staff while the head office staff did coding for the household questionnaire. During data processing, all assigned codes were checked and improved when necessary to ensure and enhance quality.

Data editing and imputation

Decision table technology was used to develop edit rules that were compiled to produce SAS edit programmes for the purpose of identifying logical, consistency and out-of-range errors. Once identified, these errors were manually fixed on the system after verification against corresponding scanned images of the survey instruments. The introduction of a 3-digit check number helped in the reduction of human error often introduced by COICOP coding in the field.

Within the money-metric sections of the household questionnaire, all data entries for specific expenditure items were considered for analysis, even if the preceding filter question might have indicated otherwise. If there was conflict, the latter was changed to a 'Yes'. All skips in the household questionnaire were treated in a similar fashion.

In the case of missing key demographic variables (age, sex and population group), hot-deck imputation was used. For the age variable, the age of 0,2% of the respondents was imputed; for the sex variable, the sex of 0,4% of the respondents was imputed; and for the population group variable, the population group of 0,2% of the respondents was imputed.

Not all households that participated in the survey automatically qualified to be included in the final data. Households were disqualified from inclusion if they did not have a completed household questionnaire or if the questionnaire did not have information for Section 1 (personal information) and/or Section 6 (housing). Households that did not have any diary information were also disqualified. Therefore, to be included in the final dataset, a household needed to have a household questionnaire with Sections 1 and 6 properly completed, and with diary information for at least one week. If a household had only one week of diary information, imputation was done for the missing week. A random donor household was chosen from a cluster of households with similar characteristics and its corresponding diary was used to impute for the missing diary.

For owner-occupied dwellings, a rental yield of 7,135% was applied to the total value of the dwelling to determine housing expenditure for that household. This was the average rental yield (based on quarterly data) that corresponds to the timeframe of the LCS 2014/15. This single rental yield was applied across the board, irrespective of province, type of settlement or type of housing.

Data organisation

Data collected from the LCS 2014/15 had to be reorganised to facilitate meaningful further analysis. Diary data were multiplied by 26 weeks to get an annual value. The questionnaire data were multiplied by 12 months if the COICOP (Classification of Individual Consumption by Purpose) was defined as monthly, and the questionnaire data were multiplied by 1 if the COICOP was defined as annual. This process is known as annualisation.

Since the survey took place over a period of twelve months (13 October 2014 to 25 October 2015), it was necessary to benchmark the reported expenditure data to April 2015, which was midway into the survey year. All the expenditures incurred before the end of March 2015, i.e. before April 2015, were inflated to April 2015 prices and all the expenditures incurred after April 2015 were deflated back to April 2015 prices using CPI data.

Although many data files were generated from the processed data, they all served as input files into what is considered the five primary data files that are released to the public, namely:

LCS2015_persons_final – This is the persons file. This file contains all information regarding the persons in the households that responded to the survey. Particulars of each person as captured on the flap and in Sections 2 to 4, Section 18, as well as Sections 24 and 25 of the household questionnaire are found in this file.

LCS2015_households_final – This is the household file. This file has all information collected about household characteristics. The information is extracted from Section 1 and Sections 5 to 24 of the household questionnaire.

LCS2015_Total_lcs_final – This file contains all the household expenditure and household income data. Total household expenditure data consist of all expenditure from the household questionnaire (Sections 6 to 23) and the weekly diary. Household income data are extracted out of Section 24 of the household questionnaire.

LCS2015_Personsincome_final – This file contains information on personal income. Income at personal level is sourced from Section 24 of the household questionnaire.

LCS2015_Household_assets_final – This file contains information on household assets. The household assets section is Section 6 of the household questionnaire.

Annexure B: Concepts and definitions

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

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

Consumer price index (CPI) – An index that measures the price of a fixed basket of consumer goods and services.

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

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

Diary – A record with discrete entries arranged by date reporting on what has happened over the course of a defined period of time. With regards to the IES and LCS, diaries recorded all acquisitions made by the household during the diary-keeping period. This included the description of the item, value, source, purpose, area of purchase and the type of retailer.

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

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

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

Farm – An area of land, together with its buildings, concerned with the growing of crops or the raising of animals.

Gift – An item received by the household from people who are not members of the household or items given away by members of the household to non-members, without compensation.

Gini coefficient – The Gini coefficient is the ratio of the area between the 45-degree line and the Lorenz curve and the area of the entire triangle. As the coefficient approaches zero, the distribution of income or consumption approaches absolute equality and absolute inequality if it approaches 1.

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

Household head – A person recognised as such by the household, usually the main decision-maker, or the person who owns or rents the dwelling, or the person who is the main breadwinner.

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

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

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

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

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

Non-poor – Population living above a designated poverty line.

Own production – Own production is the activity of producing goods that the household can consume or sell in order to supplement the household income. Many households – especially low-income households – need to grow food items such as vegetables, mealies, etc., or to keep chickens or livestock to consume and/or sell so that they can provide more adequately for themselves.

Payment approach – An approach taking into account the total payment made for all goods and services in a given period, whether the household has started consuming them or not.

Poor – Population living below a designated poverty line.

Poverty gap – This provides the mean distance of the population from the poverty line (this is also referred to as P_1).

Poverty headcount – This is the share of the population whose income or consumption is below the poverty line; that is, the share of the population that cannot meet its basic needs (this is also referred to as P_0).

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

Poverty severity – This takes into account not only the distance separating the population from the poverty line (the poverty gap), but also the inequality among the poor. That is, a higher weight is placed on those households/individuals who are further away from the poverty line (this is also referred to as P_2).

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

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

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

Settlement type – Classification according to settlement characteristics.

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

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.

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

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

Vacant dwelling – Dwelling that is uninhabited, i.e. no one lives there.

Visitor (household) – Person visiting or staying with a household who is not a usual member of the household.