PERCEIVED CAUSES OF POVERTY OF THE POST-APARTHEID GENERATION IN A HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTION

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ABSTRACT

This study explores the perceptions of the causes of poverty of South Africa's post-apartheid generation at the North-West University's Vaal Triangle Campus. The study uses a sample of 203 respondents aged 20 years or younger, from the campus' two faculties (Economic Sciences and Information Technology, and Humanities).

The main objective of the study is determining whether the post-apartheid generation perceives poverty as the result of fatalistic, individualistic or structural factors, as indicated by the Feagin scale. The secondary objective of the study was to determine whether demographic variables such as age, gender, home area and the faculty of study, along with socio-economic variables such as the employment status of the respondents' parents, monthly expenses and the respondents' lived poverty index influence perceptions of the causes of poverty.

Key terms:

Perceptions, poverty, post-apartheid, NWU-VTC, poor, non-poor

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS	:	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AMPS	:	All Media and Products Survey
ANC	:	African National Congress
APS	:	Attribution of Poverty Scale
ASGISA	:	Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa
BBBEE	:	Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment
BEE	:	Black Economic Empowerment
CPCPS	:	Chinese Perceived Causes of Poverty Scale
CPI	:	Consumer Price Index
EXIST	:	Existential Well-being Scale
GEAR	:	Growth, Employment and Redistribution strategy
GER	:	Gross Enrolment Rate
GDP	:	Gross Domestic Product
GHQ	:	General Health Questionnaire
GPI	:	Gender Parity Index
GTIBR	:	Grant Thornton International Business Report
HIV	:	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IES	:	Income and Expenditure Survey
IWH	:	Institute for Work and Health
KMO	:	Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy

LIFE	:	Life Satisfaction Scale
LPI	:	Lived Poverty Index
LSE	:	London School of Economics and Political Science
MAS	:	Mastery Scale
NPC	:	National Poverty Center
NRC	:	Natives Representative Council
NWU	:	North-West University
NSFAS	:	National Student Financial Aid Scheme
PCA	:	Principal Component Analysis
PCPS	:	Perceptions of the Causes of Poverty Scale
RDP	:	Reconstruction and Development Programme
SANP	:	South African National Party
SEM	:	South End Museum
Stats SA	:	Statistics South Africa
SPSS	:	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
UI	:	University of Idaho
UMSL	:	University of Missouri – St. Louis
UN	:	United Nations
UNHCR	:	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
USA	:	United States of America
VTC	:	Vaal Triangle Campus

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1. INTRODUCTION

Poverty constitutes a danger to prosperity (Rodgers,1995:1). McMurray (2003:41) defines poverty as a state where one lacks the adequate resources as well as income necessary for the consumption of goods and services that will result in a healthy life. It is important to note that poverty is not just about the lack of income, it also involves the incapacity to develop human capabilities, and economic weakness.

As poverty is such a broad concept, two approaches to its definition have been developed, namely the relative and absolute approach. The relative approach to poverty is based on the view that people are poor in relation to the community of residence. This suggests that income earned will be beneath the level needed to attain and maintain a specific standard of living. The absolute approach however, is based on the viewpoint of deprivation; or lacking the necessary income in order to satisfy basic needs (Wratten, 1995:12). Slabbert and Sekatane (2009:60) explain that unfulfilled needs, particularly the physiological needs are perceived as absolute poverty.

Todaro and Smith (2011:235) argue that the magnitude of absolute poverty is the consequence of the country's unequal distribution of income, as well as a rather low per capita income. It is also stated that at any income distribution level, high per capita income should lead to lowered numbers of those people who are perceived as absolutely poor. Of course the perceptions of poverty and its causes vary among people.

In South Africa, poverty and inequality were exacerbated by apartheid. Instead of benefiting every South African citizen, apartheid perpetuated high levels of poverty among black people, as well as inequality. As a consequence of apartheid era laws, black people were expelled from the land in urban areas and had access to fewer employment opportunities as compared with white people. While black people lived in conditions of poverty, the country's white minority benefited from prejudicial policies. This was in the form of better employment opportunities and higher income

(Seekings, 2007:1). The consequence of such inequalities was that South Africa became known as one of the countries with high levels of income inequality, along with Brazil.

In 1994 South Africa became a democratic country. With the democratisation of the country came the expectations and promises of improved economic and political conditions. These expectations were not just about what the new government would seek to achieve to improve the lives of current citizens, but also what would be done to ensure that the post-apartheid generation (also termed the born-free generation) would not have to live in conditions of economic and political instability (Mattes, 2011:9). The newly elected government made promises to alleviate poverty through policies such as the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP). Such a strategy would ensure that every South African would have economic security and decent living conditions (ANC, 1994:15-16).

Instead of the better economic conditions, the post-apartheid generation has been confronted with high levels of poverty, inequality and an economy that has failed to provide better living standards for the millions of South Africans. Before attempting to come up with solutions to poverty, it is vital that the perceived causes of poverty first be understood. More so, it is important to understand the perceptions of the causes of poverty of the post-apartheid generation as this is the generation that will soon be making economic decisions affecting the whole country.

1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

The years following the end of apartheid saw a rise in poverty alleviation strategies. Included in these strategies are the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), the Growth, Employment and Redistribution strategy (GEAR) as well as the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa (ASGISA). According to Mubangizi (2007:1), this range of anti-poverty measures, although mildly effective, were poorly administered and failed to meet the set objectives.

Although South Africa recorded strong economic growth and a decline in the deficit following the end of apartheid, these positive indicators were masking an economy that had made no significant strides in reducing unemployment, increasing income

levels or reversing the devastating effects of poverty (Mattes, 2011:10). Leibbrandt and Levinsohn (2011) argue that the gap between the rich and the poor has become larger than the gap between blacks and whites. This has reinforced the belief that the post-apartheid generation is now faced with similar, if not worse levels of poverty, unemployment and inequality in comparison with the previous generation. However, the post-apartheid generation is also confronted by the problems of HIV/AIDS and increasing crime levels.

This is the generation that was expected to be more urbanised, with higher levels of education. There was also the expectation that this generation would be exposed to better opportunities - economically and otherwise - than the preceding generations. Mattes (2011:9) explains that in certain ways, this generation has been confronted with a world that differs significantly with the South Africa that previous generations were exposed to. In theory, there are no limits regarding the path that this generation can take, particularly in terms of work, studying and socialising, for instance. These expectations were in part informed by South Africa's extended period of economic growth during the early years of the new century. This growth led to an expanding middle class, especially amongst black people.

Each generation has its own perceptions of poverty, as well as perceptions of the causes of poverty. However, when it comes to the post-apartheid generation, these perceptions have not been measured. As a consequence, policymakers are forced to make policy decisions based on out-dated information that has not measured the perceptions of the post-apartheid generation (Terreblanche, 2002). According to Mubangizi (2007:1), to develop a strategy to lessen/eradicate poverty, there should first be agreement regarding poverty and its perceived causes.

The post-apartheid generation, particularly those born in 1994 are now the young adults in South Africa. This means this generation will soon be making the economic and political decisions that will affect the country. To be able to formulate poverty alleviation policies that will cater to this generation of South Africans, it is necessary to first understand poverty as viewed by this generation. The focus of this study lies in determining the post-apartheid generation's perceptions of the causes of poverty.

1.3. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.3.1. PRIMARY OBJECTIVE

The primary objective of this research is to determine the perceptions of the causes of poverty of the post-apartheid generation.

1.3.2. THEORETICAL OBJECTIVES

- Review the theoretical and empirical literature concerning the perceptions of the causes of poverty.
- Review the theoretical and empirical literature related to measuring perceptions of the causes of poverty.
- Review the theoretical and empirical literature concerning economic conditions in South Africa prior to 1994 and post 1994.
- Review the theoretical and empirical literature concerning the lived poverty index (LPI) and the steps involved in classifying people as either poor or non-poor.

1.3.3. EMPIRICAL OBJECTIVES

- Provide a profile of the post-apartheid generation in the area being studied.
- Determine the perceptions of the causes of poverty.
- Determine whether or not the perceptions of the causes of poverty differ based on demographics such as race, gender and field of study, for instance.
- Determine whether or not the perceptions of the causes of poverty differ based on socio-economic variables such as employment status of parents, income level of parents as well as monthly expenses of the respondents.
- Determine whether or not the respondent's lived poverty index (whether the respondent is classified as poor or non-poor) has an impact on the perceived causes of poverty.

1.4. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

For the purposes of this research, a literature study and empirical study was done.

1.4.1. LITERATURE REVIEW

In the case of the literature study, focus was given to the theory regarding poverty and its perceived causes (whether fatalistic, individualistic or structural, as per the Feagin scale). This theory also looked at previous studies conducted both in South Africa and abroad. Articles, textbooks and journal articles are some of the sources that were used for the literature review.

1.4.2. EMPIRICAL STUDY

Questionnaires were used as a data collection instrument for the empirical part of the study. The data collection process involved 203 respondents from North-West University's Vaal Triangle Campus (NWU–VTC) who were either 20 years or younger. Buz, Ontas and Hatiboğlu (2012:191) performed a study on the perceptions of the causes of poverty among social work students at the Hacettepe University in Turkey, and 127 respondents were considered a big enough sample.

The Feagin scale or the Perceptions of poverty scale developed by Joe Feagin was used to measure the perceptions of the causes of poverty. (Shek, 2004:273) states that this scale comprises twelve statements regarding the perceptions of the causes of poverty, and respondents answer these statements using a Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5. In this scale, 1 represents strongly disagree; while 5 represents strongly agree.

The sampling procedure for the empirical study comprises the following steps:

1.4.2.1. Target Population

The target population was made up of students who were 20 years old or younger. These students were in the first year of study at NWU–VTC during 2013. Both male and female students were allowed to take part in the data collection process.

1.4.2.2. Sampling Frame

The sample frame was made up of students aged 20 or younger. These students were in the first year of study, and in various fields of study. These respondents were

students, so availability was not an issue as the questionnaires were completed during class.

1.4.2.3. Sample Method

While the choice of institution was based on convenience, selection of the sample was done randomly in order to obtain an unbiased sample.

1.4.2.4. Sample Size

Past studies amongst university students and adolescents had sample sizes below 200. For this study, the sample size of 203 was decided on due to the fact that it was representative of the university's first year population. The racial distribution of the sample was also in line with the racial distribution of the university.

1.4.2.5. Measuring Instrument and data collection method

A questionnaire was used as the measuring instrument for this study. There were three sub-sections in the questionnaire. The focus of the first sub-section was on the respondents' demographics, which included gender, race and age. This sub-section also concentrated on socio-economic variables such as the respondents' monthly expenses and the employment status of the respondents' parents. The second sub-section focused on the perceptions of the causes of poverty as measured with the Feagin scale. This sub-section was answered using a Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5. The third and final sub-section focused on the lived poverty index (LPI), which measured the respondents' access to certain necessities over a period of one year. This index is used to determine whether the respondent is poor or non-poor.

The questionnaire was distributed amongst almost 203 respondents during classes. To ensure that the same respondent did not complete the questionnaire twice, the questionnaire was distributed to respondents in different fields of study, in different faculties. For instance, some respondents were part of the school of education, in the faculty of humanities, while other respondents were in the faculty of economic sciences and IT studying law or economics for instance. Reliability statistics were performed to ensure that the perceptions of the respondents were reliably measured.

1.4.3. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The interpretation of the captured data was done using SPSS Statistics 21, Stata 11 and Microsoft Excel 2010. Principal component analysis (PCA) played a major role in the interpretation of the data. Some of the statistical procedures used were:

- Descriptive statistics,
- Reliability analysis,
- Significance tests, and
- Regression analysis.

An example of the model used us as follows:

$$P = \alpha + ß1X1 + ß2X2 + ß3X3 + ß4X4 + ß5X5 + ß6X6 \quad \text{.....(1)}$$

This model was run three times, each time each perception was used as the dependent variable P.

P = Perceptions of poverty

- P = 1 if the respondent believes poverty is the result of individualistic factors, 0 if the respondent believes otherwise,
- P = 1 if the respondent believes poverty is the result of fatalistic factors, 0 if the respondent believes otherwise, and
- P = 1 if the respondent believes poverty is the result of structural factors, 0 if the respondent believes otherwise

B1, B2, B3, B4, B5, B6 = Coefficients

- **Employment status (X1):**

Focus here was given to the employment status of the parents of the respondents, including the sector of employment (either primary, secondary or tertiary). This variable helped with determining the source of financial support for the respondent.

- **Race (X2):**

South Africa is a country 19 years out of apartheid. In past years, white people had far more economic opportunities than black people. As a result, white people were better off than black people, economically. This variable helped with determining whether this is indeed still the case, and whether or not perceptions of the causes of poverty differ based on the respondents' race.

- **Faculty (X3):**

As the respondents were already in university, access to education was already covered. This means the distinctive factor was the faculty in which the respondents belonged, be it the economic sciences and IT or the Humanities faculty. The reason for the inclusion of the faculty was to determine the impact, if any at all, that this has on the respondents' perceptions of the causes of poverty.

- **Area of residence (X4):**

For the purpose of this study, it was assumed that area of residence was determined by income level and class status. Those participants living in suburbs were assumed to be far less exposed to poverty than those residing in townships or rural areas. This variable was regressed against the perceived causes of poverty to establish the relationship and its statistical relationship.

- **High school attended (X5):**

As with the area of residence, the kind of high school the respondents attended was influenced by the level of income of the parents. This was assumed to have some influence, no matter how little, on the respondents' perceptions of the causes of poverty. To determine the extent of the relationship, this variable was also included as an independent variable during the regression analysis process.

- **Number of family members (X6)**

The number of family members influences the extent of poverty, especially amongst poor families with too many members. This variable was included to determine the

kind of impact that the number of family members has on the perceptions of the causes of poverty.

1.5. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This study will be performed in compliance with the ethical principles of academic research. All the involved participants will be asked permission to participate in this study; making participation voluntary. Information provided by participants will be treated with confidentiality.

1.6. CHAPTER LAYOUT

Chapter 1: Background and Introduction of the study

This section will introduce the topic of study, and the different subsections to be covered. It will also include the problem statement and objectives of this research, and explain the methods that will be used throughout the study.

Chapter 2: Theoretical background to poverty and apartheid

This section will focus on the literature about poverty, including the perceptions of the causes of poverty. It will also look at the definitions of poverty and the way that perceptions will be measured.

Chapter 3: Research design and methodology

This chapter will provide information about the research methodology and data collection techniques. This will include explanations of the sample size, the reason for focusing on this particular cohort and also the data collection process.

Chapter 4: Analysis of the perceptions of the causes of poverty and socio-economic and demographic variables

The focus of this chapter will be on analysing the results and findings from the collected data.

Chapter 5: Summary and conclusion

This section will be used to make conclusions on all the information and findings provided in the preceding sections.

1.7. CONCLUSION

In a country fresh out of over four decades of apartheid and discriminative policies, it is important to understand the perceived causes of poverty, especially those of the post-apartheid generation. This study aims to determine those perceptions of the causes of poverty, as well as the factors that influence these perceptions. Chapter two expands on the literature regarding poverty and the perceived causes of poverty.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND TO POVERTY AND APARTHEID

2.1. INTRODUCTION

About 60% of South Africa's black children live in households with monthly incomes below the R575 per individual poverty line (Nicholson, 2012). Since the end of apartheid, the gap between the poor and non-poor, and black and white has been growing instead of declining. As a result, the poorest 10% receive below 1% of the country's income, while the wealthiest 10 % receive 57% of national income. Poverty is a key problem both nationally and internationally. Often, poverty is attributed to factors such as the lack of education, income, skills and unemployment. According to Nzimande (2000), one of the greatest contributors to poverty is the issue of loss of employment.

This chapter focuses, firstly on the background of apartheid. This includes a list and explanation of some apartheid laws that contributed to the country's high poverty rate. The next section focuses on poverty and the definitions of poverty. This will also include the factors that affect the way in which poverty is defined, as well as an explanation of why poverty is considered a multidimensional issue.

2.2. THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON POVERTY

2.2.1. Definitions of poverty

A country's poverty rate is in part, determined by its politics (Raphael, 2013:5). Poverty threatens the social and human development of millions of people around the world. According to Raphael (2013:5), poverty cannot be blamed on individuals; instead, it is the outcome of the political and economic organisation within a country. Davids (2010:18) states that the conceptualisation and way of defining poverty will have an impact on how poverty is measured.

Lister (2004:12) explains that it is vital that the definitions and measures of poverty not be confused as this might result in repeated conceptualisation and no clear definition. The lack of a clear difference between defining, measuring and

conceptualising poverty makes poverty research a difficult task to do. Saunders (2004) explains that some of the difficulty arises from the contradictory political and economic agendas, principles and country-specific circumstances that monitor the conversation concerning the necessity of developing suitable ways of measuring and defining poverty.

The World Bank (2000) has defined poverty as unmistakable deprivation that hinders the welfare of households. Bird and Ludi (2007:1) state that poverty has traditionally been defined in relation with income of households. However, as the measurement instruments change, the definitions of poverty have also changed. As such, the new definitions of poverty have incorporated basic necessities such as food and clothing, access to services such as healthcare and education, as well as being able to contribute to the country's decision making process.

Maxwell (1999:2) states that poverty is definable in terms of private income or consumption. However, the definition is often based on consumption so as to make room for consumption smoothing over time, which can be achieved by managing saving for instance. In the Copenhagen Declaration (1995:41), poverty is defined as inclusive of a lack of income and other resources used in the production/acquiring of the basic necessities.

This definition also encompasses ill health, high mortality rates, as well as a lack of services which include sanitation and education. In short, poverty is defined as deprivation. The World Bank has split the definition of poverty into poverty (in terms of people who survive on less than $3.20 a day) and extreme poverty (which refers to people surviving on less than $1.60 a day) as per 2007 prices (MacEwan, 2007:1).

However, Makoka and Kaplan (2005:5) have argued that since there are other factors that contribute to, or determine people's wellbeing, poverty cannot be defined in terms of income alone. It is important to take other factors into consideration, especially factors that might leave people vulnerable, for instance, diseases, and natural disasters which could leave people without homes, sanitation and food.

A more holistic definition of poverty was developed by the United Nation's High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR, 2004), which defines poverty as deprivation in

terms of resources, capabilities, choices and the power required to attain as well as maintain an acceptable standard of living. This level of deprivation also negatively influences people's civil, economic, cultural as well as political and social rights.

Narayan, Patel, Schaff, Rademacher and Koch-Schult (2000:3) state that being poor comes with physical pain that is the consequence of not having sufficient food to eat, while having to withstand hours of hard work. This is combined with the emotional pain that is an outcome of being dependent on other people for sustenance, and lacking the means to change one's circumstances. In short, poverty has been defined as pain.

According to Lister (2004:12), the way in which poverty is defined is important for debates relating to policy, academics as well as the politics of the concept itself. The definition of poverty has major implications related to solutions on poverty alleviation, and eradication. Therefore, to avoid misinterpretation, poverty has been divided into two approaches; namely, the relative and absolute approach to poverty.

2.2.1.1. Absolute approach to poverty

Absolute poverty refers to the aggregate income needed by an individual or a family to attain an absolute amount of the basic provisions needed for survival. According to Madden (2000:182), this income is not the maximum income needed to attain the basket of necessities, but rather the minimum income needed. This basket will not necessarily change as the household income changes. Chambers (1983:1) refers to absolute poverty as synonymous with malnutrition, illiteracy, as well as high infant mortality. Wratten (1995:12) states that the absolute approach to poverty is based on the viewpoint of deprivation or lacking the necessary income needed to satisfy basic needs. Slabbert and Sekatane (2009:60) explain that unsatisfied needs, particularly those of a physiological nature, are perceived as absolute poverty.

When it comes to the absolute poverty line, its value will stay unchanging in actual terms; and the only changes that will occur will be adjustments to the monetary values due to taking into account inflation (Oosthuizen, 2008:2). The problem with the absolute poverty level however, is that there are no absolutes when it comes to the consumption of goods and services. The reasoning behind this view is that one

can easily consume the required poverty level of calories by consuming expensive food, or food that has been taken from trash, which would suggest that that individual is not in fact poor. The amount of income required to access these calorie minimums differs. Lister (2004:12) criticizes absolute poverty for its limited view, along with its inability to take into consideration the social context of the household needs.

2.2.1.2. Relative approach to poverty

Townsend (1979:31) defines relative poverty as a situation in which households are without the resources essential to maintaining a healthy diet, take part in community activities, as well as have the living conditions and conveniences encouraged within that society. This means that the resources of the household are fewer than those possessed by the typical household, thus excluding that household from the kind of living experienced by the society. In short, relative poverty is centred around the lack of basic necessities.

These necessities are defined in relation to the organisation of the society and economy. For instance, a stove might seem like a necessity for someone residing in the suburbs, but it might seem like a luxury for someone from the rural areas who is accustomed to using firewood. However, Oosthuizen (2008:3) explains that unlike the absolute poverty line, the relative poverty line isn't attached to the minimum standards of living. When those individuals living below the relative poverty line have been identified based on the features of the society of residence; then the poverty line will be used to measure the individual or household's capability to participate sufficiently within society.

2.2.2. Factors to consider when defining poverty

There are a number of factors that one must consider, especially in the South African context. Sekatane (2004:25) lists the following factors:

The first of these factors relates to deprivation and basic needs. Over the past few years, the focus on the concept of deprivation has grown. The shifts in attention from absolute poverty to relative poverty; and from income poverty to dimensional analysis have altered the conceptualisation of deprivation, as well as the way in which it is observed and measured (United Nations, 2010:45). According to Roberts,

wa Kivuli and Davids (2010:170), in contrast with low income, deprivation is believed to be a far more direct way of measuring poverty.

In comparison with low income, the notion of deprivation strives to determine those items as well as activities that people will not be able to acquire as a result of low or no income. Some of the items incorporated in the measurement of deprivation are income, health, education and employment. Deprivation has a greater implication than the simple lack of access; it is important to make a distinction with reference to relative deprivation as well as absolute deprivation. Relative deprivation is more social as well as political than technical; it also necessitates a point of reference while the absolute approach requires no point of reference (Runciman, 1966).

The second of these factors relates to Political and cultural influences. Poverty is not only a problem of economics; it is also a problem of politics and culture. In South Africa, the exclusion of black people from mainstream economics and politics led to high levels of inequality, especially along race lines. According to Lund (2008:2), as a consequence of the social exclusion of black people from mainstream economics and politics, the level of inequality resulted in blacks being at the bottom of the social ladder. However, Davids (2010:5) states that in spite of the economic and political changes since the end of apartheid, the country still has rather high levels of poverty, with close to 60% of black children living in poverty.

Sekatane (2004:25) explains that in South Africa, the view that poverty is an issue of politics is emphasized by the elevated levels of income and wealth inequalities and disproportions that are the consequence of previous policies regarding the way of defining poverty. There appear to be a cause and effect relationship between poverty and inequality (May, 1998:1). The same can more or less be said regarding racial differences. Often, it is assumed that white people are wealthier than black people. This assumption might be the result of the fact that a considerable number of black people live in poverty, as compared with the small number of white people living in poverty.

2.2.3. The causes of poverty

According to The Hunger Project (2014), globally, one in eight people do not have access to enough food to eat. The majority of these undernourished people are spread around in developing countries in Asia and Africa. Although there are global efforts to eradicate poverty, there are still questions regarding the causes of poverty. The roots of poverty are to be traced back to an intersection of local, national and international issues relating to economics and politics. These, combined with certain social and cultural issues leave room for slow development, which is likely to result in poverty (United Nations, 2000).

Amongst some of the social, economic and political issues, Al Saleh (2010:5) has identified some of these issues:

- **Warfare:**

Warfare is a major contributor to poverty, especially in developing countries. In some cases, the existence of war has increased the problem of poverty through the damage of public infrastructure, and the migration of skilled people who look for job opportunities in far more peaceful countries.

- **Colonial history:**

The majority, if not all those countries with extremely high poverty rates have a long history of colonialism. This left those countries without the infrastructure required to grow the economy and develop people with the necessary skills. As such, the economies are highly dependent on the primary sectors to support millions of people.

- **Population growth:**

The majority of developing countries have high populations. This is partly the result of lack of access to equipped hospitals that can provide contraceptives, as well as medical care for the population, especially women and children. This combined with a high dependency on the primary sectors leaves a lot of people unemployed and

dependent on a government that can barely afford to take care of such a large population.

- **Education:**

While education does not guarantee employment and a way out of poverty, it does equip people with ways to get out of poverty. However, part of the problem in poverty riddled countries, especially those that are still developing, is that a large percentage of the population is illiterate. This might be due to the high cost of education, as well as people substituting school for jobs that require no skills just to make a bit of income.

- **Agricultural cycles:**

Countries with high levels of poverty are still largely dependent on the primary sector for revenue, especially agriculture. As such, when certain agricultural products are out of season, an even higher percentage of the population might not have access to income, as a result, the poverty levels will increase.

These are some of the factors that result in high poverty rates. Of course there are other issues that have to be considered, such as levels of corruption and debt within those countries with high poverty rates. There is also the issue of the high percentage of female headed households. According to Moghadam (2005:2), an increasing percentage of the world's poor are women, and these women are far more likely than males to be taking care of dependents. What makes it even more troubling is that these women are single earners supporting more than one dependent, while relying on a labour market that is skewed in favour of men.

When evaluating the causes of poverty, it is important to take into consideration the different ways in which poverty affects different members of the population, as well as how levels are skewed towards women and children.

2.2.4. Measuring poverty

Other than the absolute and relative approaches to poverty, poverty can also be viewed from either a subjective or objective approach. According to Makoka and Kaplan (2005:8), the objective approach (also known as the welfare approach) is based on normative judgements of what constitutes poverty, as well as the different ways in which those who are poor can be moved out of the state of poverty. This is different from the subjective approach, which takes into consideration people's preferences, along with how much those people value certain goods and services.

Although not obvious, the numerous methods of measuring poverty take into consideration these various approaches to poverty. As the definition of poverty develops, so do the various methods used for measuring poverty.

2.2.4.1. Poverty as a multidimensional concept

The multidimensional approach for specifying living standards views poverty in terms of multiple indicators such as income, health, education and employment. Unlike the uni-dimensional approach, which places emphasis on income as a way of measuring poverty, the multidimensional approach combines a variety of indicators and uses those indicators to determine the well-being of individuals and/or households (Bellu & Liberati, 2005:3).

According to United Nations (2010:59), this is reflective of the fact that poverty cannot be defined in a straight line that will view the population in terms of have and have-not as reflected by the household expenditure criteria. Frequently, one finds that in developing nations a great deal of the population survive with expenditure levels that are almost the same as the poverty line.

2.2.4.2. Incidence of poverty, or poverty rate

Makoka and Kaplan (2005:19) define the poverty rate as the share of the population whose income level is below the national poverty line, and therefore cannot afford to buy the goods and services required to maintain an adequate living standard. According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2010:236), two countries having the same poverty rate does not mean those

countries are poor in the same way. The reason for this is that when calculating the poverty rate, it is important to consider the size of the population, as well as the income level of that population. So, two countries can have the same poverty rate, but different income levels for those who are considered poor.

This measurement tool has the advantage of being easy to construct, and understand. It also helps with providing an adequate size of the country's poor population. However, the disadvantage is that it does not take into consideration the degree of poverty amongst those members of the population who are poor. This means that a change in income levels will not be reflected as long as those people remain below the stated poverty line (National Statistical Coordination Board, NSCB: 2014).

2.2.4.3. The poverty gap index

The poverty rate provides a percentage of those people living below the poverty line. However, it does not provide any idea of how far below the poverty line these people are. The poverty gap index, also known as the depth of poverty index, is used to measure the degree of poverty. This index is used along with the poverty rate to provide a more holistic measure of the extent of poverty. For instance, the poverty rate might reveal that 20% of a country's population is below the national poverty line of R150 per week, but it will not reveal the difference in living standards of those who are below that poverty line (NSCB:2014). This can be understood through the poverty gap, which will provide an overview of how many people are close to the poverty line (R130 for instance), and how many are way below the poverty line (at R75 for instance).

2.2.4.4. The squared poverty gap index

This index is also referred to as the severity of poverty index. According to Makoka and Kaplan (2005:19), the squared poverty gap index is used to measure the differences in the income levels of those who are considered poor. This measure does not only take into account the difference the poverty gap, it also takes into consideration the levels of inequality amongst the poor. This means that any changes in the distribution of income which result in a transfer of resources from

those just below the poverty line to those who are way below the poverty line will be reflected by the squared poverty gap index.

2.2.4.5. Human poverty index

The human poverty index is used to measure poverty not solely based on income levels, instead it uses the concept of deprivation. Unlike with the other measures where the focus in on determining how many people are below a certain poverty line, this index measures the extent of poverty based on the lack of certain factors important for human development. These factors include the likelihood of a long and healthy life, normally expressed in terms of whether a person will reach the age of 40 or not. The other factor focuses on access to education and knowledge, which plays an important role in the development of people. This level of access is measured using the literacy rate of adults. The last factor focuses on an adequate standard of living. The required level of adequacy is measured using the access to certain necessities such as food and clean drinking water (Makoka & Kaplna, 2005:19; Mowafi, 2003:11).

2.3. APARTHEID: THE BACKGROUND

2.3.1. The beginning of apartheid

The roots of apartheid, according to Lipton (1985:17), can be traced back to actions undertaken by the four colonies which made up the Union of South Africa in 1910. According to Giliomee and Schlemmer (1989:1), there was nothing unique about the apartheid system; instead, its foundation was the already developed segregation that had accompanied the country's rapid industrial development following the discovery of diamonds and gold between 1869 and 1886.

There is no single simple definition of apartheid; and as a result, Lipton (1985:14) has chosen to define apartheid based on certain defining characteristics:

- **Hierarchical ordering of economic, social and political structures**: this was always based on race. Whites, though a minority group, were the ruling race with higher incomes and better access to services. The next group in line was made up of coloured and Indians; with blacks at the bottom.

- **Discrimination**: this was often always directed at black people. However, this is not to say that Indians and coloureds were never subject to discrimination. The discrimination experienced by these three groups ranged between exclusion from political, economic and civil rights as well as the freedom to engage in any job of choice.
- **Segregation**: the different race groups were segregated in many areas of life. This included residential areas, hospitals, schools, public parks etc. This form of segregation was enforced by laws such as the group areas act of 1950 and the extension of university education act of 1959.
- **The legalisation and institutionalisation**: this refers to the legalisation, or making into law, practices such as segregation, political and economic exclusion etc.

Lipton (1985:15) explains that the political and economic marginalisation of other races by the country's privileged white elite suggests that this is not where the difference between apartheid and other social systems lay. Such marginalisation was already a global phenomenon. Instead, the difference between these systems was apartheid's inflexibility when it came to freedom of movement. Unlike the other systems, under apartheid law it was an illegal act to change one's race. This is what affirmed the perception that apartheid was a system heavily reliant on caste.

In social science studies, apartheid is divided into two different approaches. The first is based on the perception that economically, apartheid was a form of capitalism that was uniquely South African. Through the exploitation of black people, employers in different sectors such as agriculture and mining, together with the state, were able to make profits. This is to say, apartheid is viewed as a system that was designed to improve the livelihood of the white minority, at the cost of development of the black majority (Lowenberg & Kaempfer, 1998:1).

The second approach however was based on the belief that apartheid was an anti-capitalist system that obstructed the efficient functioning of the market economy. According to Lowenberg & Kaempfer (1998:1), this approach perceives apartheid as a sort of redistributional policy that was designed to shield white employees from any

labour market competition resulting from an excess of black (skilled) labour. In short, apartheid was affirmative action for the white minority.

2.3.2. Apartheid laws

There were many laws that were put into place to promote segregation, while also preserving white privilege. These laws succeeded not only in keeping the different race groups separated; these laws were able to ensure that black people remained in disadvantaged areas with the least access to services, and employment requiring skills (Giliomee & Schlemmer, 1989:40). Some laws that exacerbated apartheid and poverty among black people are the following:

2.3.2.1. The Natives Land Act of 1913

According to the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (2013) and Mahlangeni (2013:2), the Natives Land Act of 1913 was designed to regulate and limit the buying of land by black people. This act followed the removal of black people from whatever family land was owned. These people were relocated to areas that covered only 7.3% of the country's land. However, in 1936, the amount of land was increased to 13% when the Native Trust and Land Act was passed. After this law was put into effect, black people were not allowed to buy, sell, or lease any land outside of the designated areas. This also meant that white people were not allowed to own any land in the area designated to blacks.

Roth (1987:314) states that the Natives Representative Council (NRC) believed that, before the passing of the Natives Land act, black people in rural areas were well-off. The NRC one of the main reasons that the act was passed was to make sure there would be enough labour for the country's rapidly growing mining sector. The passing of the Trust act in 1936 allowed black people to purchase land. However, this could not be done by individuals; instead, black communities could purchase land through community trusts.

2.3.2.2. Group Areas Act of 1950

The process of forced removals continued until the late 1980s, displacing over 3.5 million people in the process. Over the years, these forced removals were justified

through new Acts such as the Group Areas Act of 1950. Often, these people were removed without compensation of any form. Suburbs and urban areas were reserved for white people, as such, black people were relegated to rural areas and townships, where there were often not enough job opportunities (Group Areas Act, 41 of 1950).

According to the South End Museum (2013:1), this act was passed with the objective of separating the country's various race groups. This allocated 87% of the country's land to 16% of the country's population; which left 13% of the land to the rest of the population. SEM (2013:1) also states that as a consequence of over-population in such a small area, there were frequently food shortages and diseases, among other things. Placing black people in isolated areas of the country also meant that these people were far away from hospitals, police stations and other services. People who were allowed to be in white areas were those who were working for white families as maids, gardeners, or delivery men.

2.3.2.3. Bantu Education Act of 1953

Following the Group Areas Act on 1950, the apartheid government passed into law the Bantu Education Act in1953. According to Christie and Collins (1982), the motive behind this act was the belief that education was vital in the process of achieving apartheid. This new act stripped missionaries of control over the education received by black students; instead, control was given to the Native Affairs Minister. While this might have seemed like a good thing, racist policies have ensured that the education received by non-white students was of an inferior quality. This new act also limited black student's access to higher education. As a consequence of the low quality of the education, the majority of black people could only perform labour that required no special skills. This mainly involved jobs in mining, agriculture or working for white families.

2.3.3. The case of apartheid and its legacy

Haydar (2005:240) believes that in any environment, the blame for severe cases of poverty can, and should be attributed to the conditions of that environment as well as the practices and policies prevailing in that environment. This is not to suggest that national government has no role to play. South Africa has a well-documented history

of apartheid that saw black people, Coloureds and Indians denied the economic and political privilege enjoyed by white people. This placed black people at the bottom of the food chain, followed by Coloureds and Indians (Lund, 2008:2).

According to Rubinstein and Chapman (1998), apartheid –or apartness – formed the foundations of South African existence both politically and economically between 1948 and 1994. This meant that South African citizens were categorised based on race. As a result, certain rights were denied to the majority of the population, which was black people, while the white minority took control of the economic and political spheres in the country. While a great number of countries selected to move past the structures of colonialism and racial discrimination; the South African National Party (SANP) chose to preserve those laws that placed the white minority at a place of privilege.

As a result of apartheid, South Africa experienced gross inequalities and the violation of human rights. These inequalities were not just political, but economical as well. Nineteen years after South Africa became a democratic country, South Africans are still battling the effects of inequality. According to Keswell (2004:1), South Africa has one of the highest levels of inequality globally, and this inequality is divided along the racial lines. So while the end of apartheid signalled a change in the economic and political conditions of the country; it has failed to bring with it the expected change in actual conditions.

With the aid of the R322 poverty line which was generated at 2000 prices adjusted for inflation, Özler (2007:487) establishes that a minimum of 58% of all South Africans; along with 68% of black people lived in poverty in 1995. With a Gini Coefficient of 0.56 South Africa was among the highly unequal countries in the world. But the new South Africa did not just inherit an unequal political and economic state from the apartheid government; there was also rife inequality in the education, health and housing sectors as well.

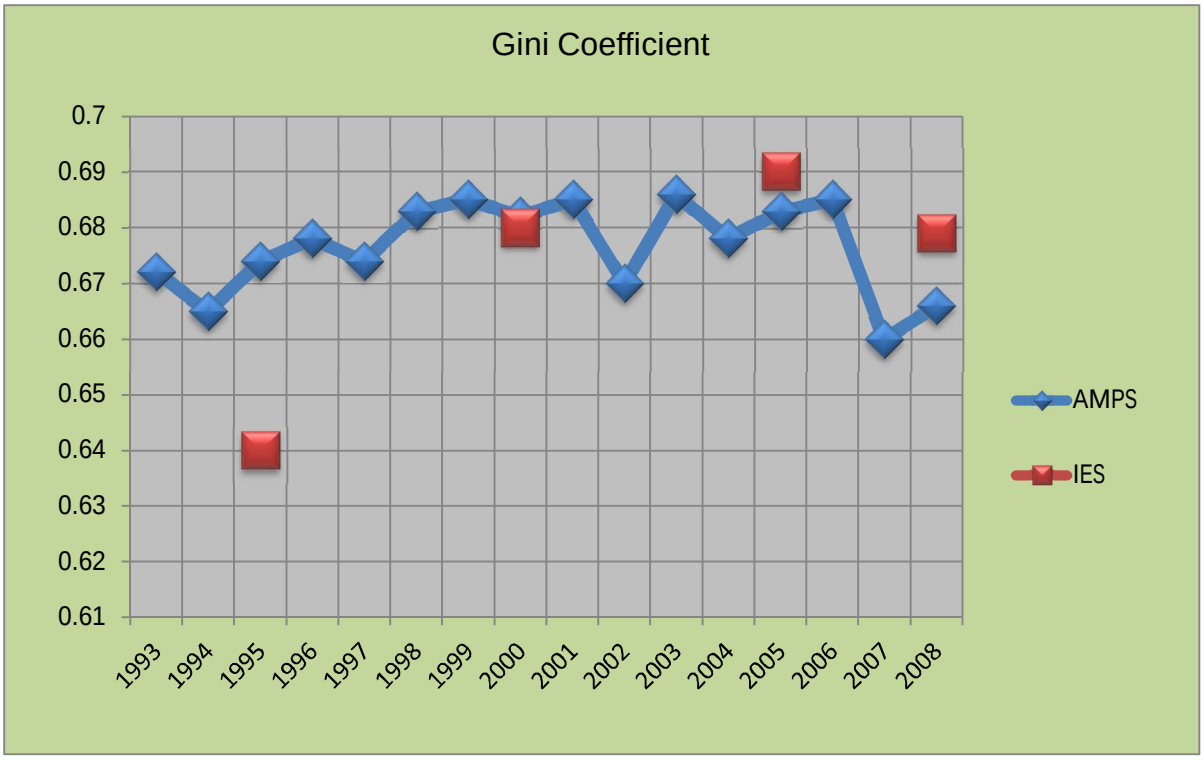
Table 2.1: Gini Coefficient by population group (2009)

Population group	Gini Coefficient
Black	0.54
Coloured	0.52
Indian/Asia	0.49
White	0.39

Source: Statistics South Africa (2011)

Using 2008/09 statistics from the Stats SA (2011:17), Table 2.1 was constructed. In this table, the Gini coefficient of each race group in South Africa was established. According to this data, the level of inequality among white people was found to be the lowest, at 0.39 while black people had the highest levels of inequality at 0.54.

Figure 2.1: National Gini Coefficient (1993 - 2008)



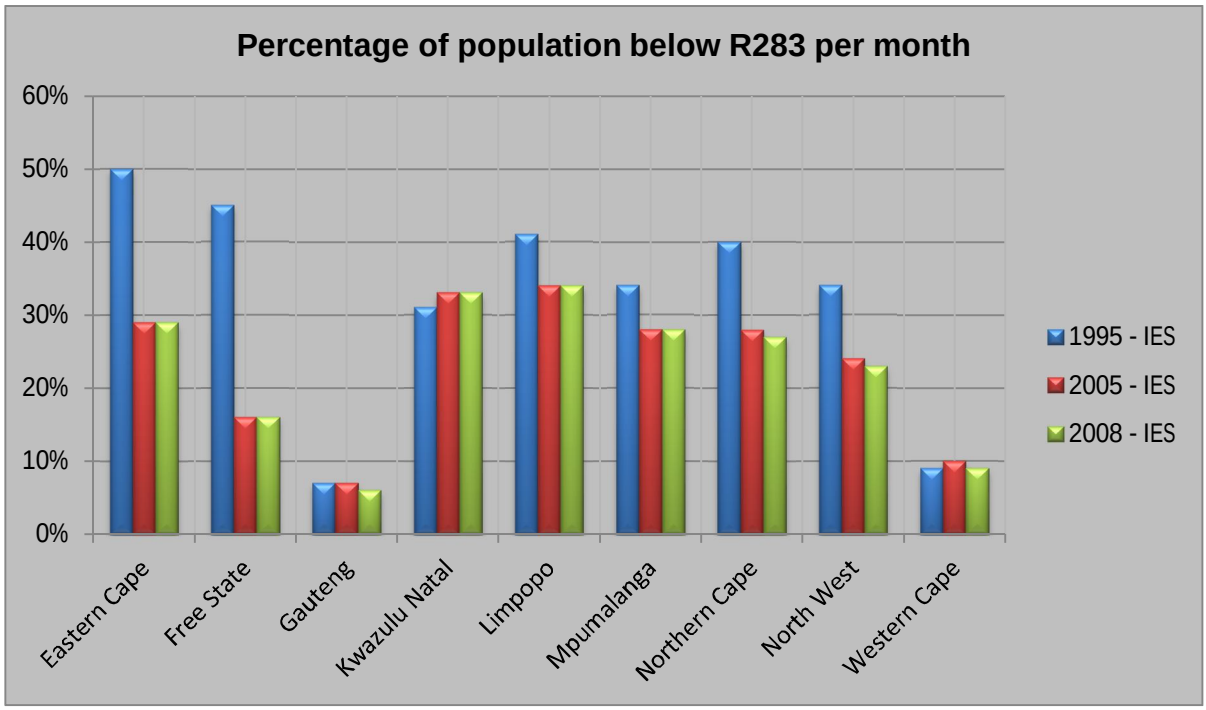
Source: The Presidency (2009)

According to The Presidency (2009:25), the Gini coefficient is utilised to illustrate the level of income inequality among citizens. The level of equality is measured between

0 and 1; 0 is used to denote complete equality while 1 denotes extreme inequality. With the help of the AMPS and IES for the years 1993 until 2008, the Gini coefficient for the country was established. It is a known fact that South Africa has shown very high levels of inequality since the apartheid period; however, according to the above figure, inequality is a bigger problem that it is taken to be, and has not declined since the end of apartheid in 1994.

Using the AMPS, it has been determined that the Gini coefficient for South Africa in 1993 was 0.672, while in 2008 it was 0.666. Using the IES, in 1995 the country had a Gini coefficient of 0.640 while in 2008 it was at 0.679 – a rise in inequality rather than a decline. Remarkably, data shows that in the years following the end of apartheid, South Africa experienced an increase in economic growth; however, this increase in economic growth was accompanied by deteriorating levels of inequality. So while inter-racial inequality is still rather high, inequality among black people is said to be showing a decline since 2000 (The Presidency, 2009:25).

Figure 2.2: Percentage of population below R283 per month (2008)



Source: The Presidency (2009)

Figure 2.2 shows the percentage of the South African population living below a poverty line of R283 per month. This information is shown according to province. According to this figure, in 1995, based on the Income and Expenditure Survey, the Eastern Cape had the highest proportion of people living below the poverty line of R283. Half the province's population lived in poverty. This depicts a stark contrast with Gauteng, with only 7% of the population living below R283 per month. However certain changes did occur, and by 2008 Eastern Cape had only 29% of its total population living below R283 per month. Gauteng, the province with the lowest number of people living below R283 also showed a decline from 7% to 6% in 2008.

2.4. THE POST-APARTHEID GENERATION AND THE ECONOMY

2.4.1. The political generations

Almond and Verba (1963) explain that according to political theory, political change and volatility often happens as a consequence of inconsistencies in the attitudes and values of the general population, and those of the ruling political institutions. In the period between 1975 and 2005, a new wave of democracy took over the world; and with it, came the end of apartheid. This new wave of democracy is attributed to the totalitarian and authoritarian regimes' incapability to provide satisfactory political and economic goods to the public (Mattes, 2011:1).

South Africa has gone through a sequence of political transformations since the early 1900s. According to Mattes (2011:2), South Africa has undergone not just economic and political change; it has undergone demographic change as well since the end of apartheid. South Africa's post-apartheid generation is too young to remember the old apartheid laws of segregation; however, this generation is now old enough to vote. Pre-dating the current post-apartheid generation however, are four other political generations. Mattes (2011:4-6) lists the following generations:

- **Pre-apartheid generation**: This is said to be the smallest group of South African citizens at present. This is the generation that turned 16 before the victory of the National Party in 1948. While this group only constitutes a small percentage of the current voting population, in 1994, it made up a great percentage of the votes.

- **Early apartheid generation**: This generation is made up of the people who were 16 between 1948 and 1960. While these people were there during the apartheid era; this is also the age group that has no experience of South African life before the implementation of apartheid laws.
- **Grand apartheid generation**: This is the generation born after 1960. Although this generation has no experience or memory of life before apartheid; it is the generation that was born during the beginning of the mass resistance towards apartheid. This is the generation that witnessed and/or took part in major events such as the Sharpeville massacre and the banning of political parties such as the ANC.
- **The struggle generation**: This generation consists of those people who turned 16 between 1976 and 1996. This generation witnessed, and formed part of the violent struggle against apartheid. Unlike the early-apartheid and grand-apartheid generations, the struggle generation was characterised by large-scale violence which was the result of the National Party's attempt at maintaining the apartheid system using the Tricameral Constitution.

2.4.2. The post-apartheid generation

Following the release of Nelson Mandela from prison, South Africa began moving in a new direction that led to democracy. In 1994 the first democratic elections were held where the ANC won the majority of the votes and Nelson Mandela became the new president of the country. The generation born during this period (nicknamed the born-free generation) now has the advantage of living in a country that is democratic and where opportunities are endless. Mattes (2011:7) states that the post-apartheid generation – unlike the generations before it - has access to better economic and political conditions, better education and better public services.

According to the London School of Economics and Political Science (2013), there is an assumption that the post-apartheid generation, unlike the previous generations, is likely to show more support for sensible policies without falling into the trap of emotional politics. This generation has more or less received universal education, and because of factors such as globalisation and faster access to information; this is

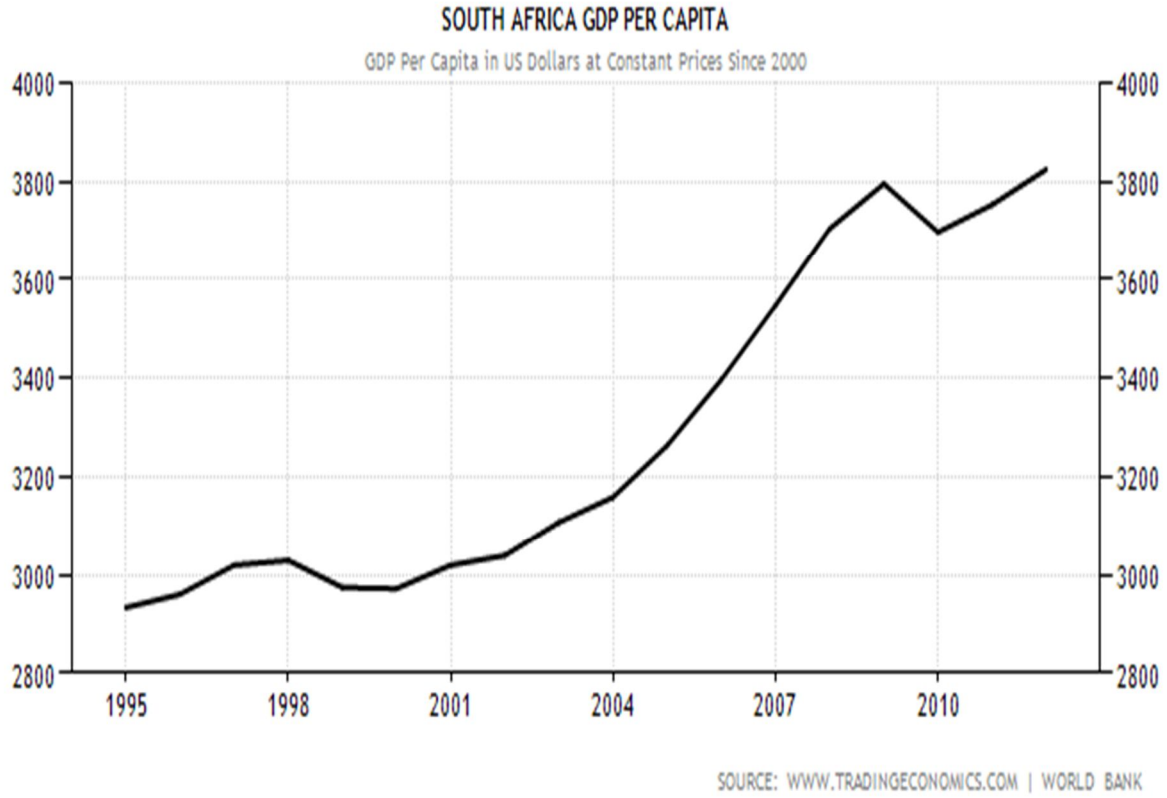
the generation that is expected to lay the foundation and begin building a South Africa that is democratic in terms of both economics and politics.

This is the generation that has benefited, and still benefits from development and growth policies such as Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) and the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASGISA). These are some of the policies that were aimed at skills development, investment (especially infrastructure investment) along with improving the quality and access to education in order to alleviate poverty in the country (Mlambo-Ngcuka, 2006). Another policy that has benefited the post-apartheid generation is Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE); this is a revised version of Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) which was established in 2001.

In 1960, South Africa's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita was at a low of US $2207.37. Although there was an improvement in the following years, the amount did decline again, and by 1992 had dropped to less than US $ 3000. It is important to note however that in the years following the end of apartheid, the country's GDP per capita has remained consistently above US $ 3600 (Trading Economics, 2013).

Over the years, the country's GDP increased due to an increase in taxes, exports, and investment. The government also put into place strategies aimed at promoting South Africa products domestically, so as to decrease imports. These strategies have included the Proudly South African initiative. While the population size has risen up to 50 million people since 1994, this rise in population size has been accompanies by a rise in the GDP, thus assisting with keeping the GDP per capita consistently above a certain level. Figure 2.3 shows the country's GDP per capita since 1995.

Figure 2.3: South Africa's GDP per capita (1995 – 2013)



Source: Trading Economics (2013)

2.4.3. Post-apartheid: the expectations

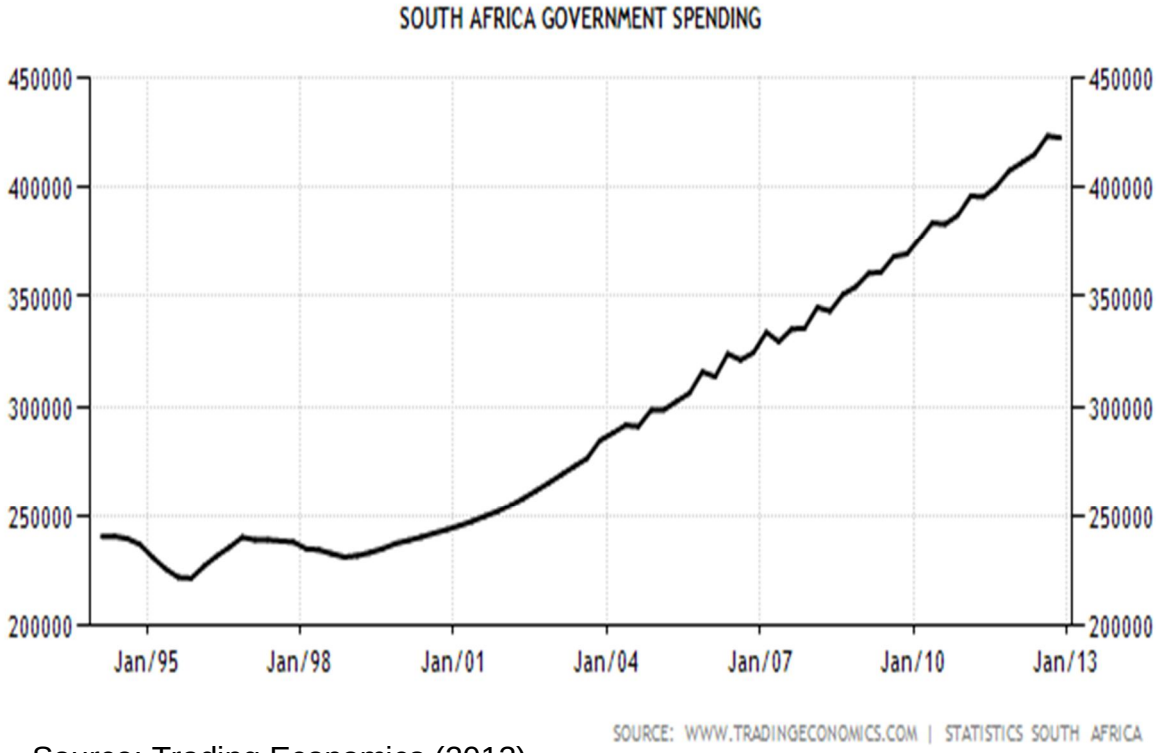
Although South Africa's first democratic elections in 1994 might have ushered in a new period of political freedom; it has failed to bring with it the necessary economic independence for all South Africans. Bray, Gooskens, Kahn, Moses and Seekings (2010:21) state that, of all the people who suffer as a result of economic dependence on the government, it is children who suffer the most. It has been noted that a great majority of South Africa's children grow up in poverty, while a minority lives in great affluence and privilege. The margins of privilege have, however extended far beyond race dynamics. Case in point, the country's black elite has grown considerably, and has a spending power of more than R 250 million.

For most young people in South Africa, the end of apartheid brought with it a mixture of disappointments and much needed changes. In many ways this generation still faces some of the problems that the previous generations faced. This is in the form of high unemployment rates, high poverty levels, social inequality and an economic environment that is not conducive to economic independence. According to Mattes

(2007:11), high crime rates and high HIV infection rates have not made the transition into post-apartheid easy. Instead, the post-apartheid generation might in fact be facing worse off economic conditions than the previous generations.

Almost two decades following the end of apartheid, average South Africans are even more disgruntled as a result of unmet expectations and promises made by the post-apartheid government. According to Du Plessis and Smit (2006), while government expenditure showed a steady increase in the years post 1994, the country still experienced high levels of unemployment in spite of the rapid economic growth. This did little to assist with the alleviation of poverty. Instead, according to Leibbrandt and Levinsohn (2011), the gap between the rich and the poor has increased over the years. Figure 2.4 shows that the level of government spending has been increasing since 1994. However, according to the Presidency (2009), the number of people living below the poverty line is still too high.

Figure 2.4: Government expenditure (1995 – 2013)



Source: Trading Economics (2013)

As expected, South Africans are asking questions regarding economic performance and the country's ability to meet targets that were set following the 1994 elections. The trouble here is that South Africans took the end of apartheid as a promise of a

move towards greater employment prospects, lower levels of poverty, wealth, better education and better economic conditions. According to Altbeker (2007), the growing discontent, illustrated by the rising number of service delivery strikes, has led quite a number of people to conclude that South Africa is a country at war with itself.

Table 2.2 illustrates the fact that while there has been a decline in the number of people living below the poverty line of R388; the percentage of people still living in poverty is too high. The poverty line of R388 was developed from the AMPS from 1993 to 2008. For this poverty line, income data was gathered for households making up more than 30 income brackets. Once this was done, the incomes for the different households were converted into per capita levels; this was done by dividing the incomes with the size of the household. For each race and category for size of the household, pareto estimates of income were projected in an open interval (Van der Berg *et al*., 2009).

According to the Presidency (2009), using a poverty line of R524 from the IES, it was determined that 49% of South Africa's population was poor in 2008. This percentage drops to 22% when a poverty line of R283 is used. This raises the question of where the government spending goes if not towards poverty relief and skills development. The IES was used to develop some poverty lines by Statistics South Africa. These poverty lines were inflated from the 2000 values by making use of CPI (consumer price index, for all items) to the 2008 constant Rand. For these poverty lines, the population was already weighted by the household weight, which was then multiplied by the size of the household, using data from the 2001 population census (Bhorat, 2009).

Table 2.2: Percentage of population living below different poverty lines (1993 - 2008)

Year	IES - R524	AMPS - R388	IES - R283
1993		50%	
1994		51%	
1995	53%	52%	31%
1996		53%	
1997		51%	
1998		51%	
1999		52%	
2000	58%	51%	38%
2001		51%	
2002		49%	
2003		48%	
2004		47%	
2005	48%	45%	23%
2006		43%	
2007		41%	
2008	49%	39%	22%

Source: The Presidency (2009)

Although using a poverty line of R283 makes the poverty problem seem like a small issue, there are certain factors to consider. One of these factors is inflation. Trading Economics (2013) illustrates that the country's inflation rate has declined since the 1960s. In the 1960s the average inflation rate was 9.54%; which is very low when compared with the inflation rate in 1986, which was at a high of 20.90%. Obviously the inflation rate has declined immensely since the implementation of inflation targeting. However, the question that begs answering is how one can live on a mere R283 per month; particularly when the cost of living is high. So, although a poverty line as low as R283 per month makes the problem look insignificant; the South African people continue to live from hand to mouth struggling to pay for the essential minimums such as food, shelter, clothing and education.

Table 2.3: Depth of poverty (1993 - 2008)

	R524 a month (IES)	R388 a month (AMPS)	R283 a month (IES)
1993		24%	
1994		24%	
1995	26%	27%	12%
1996		26%	
1997		25%	
1998		25%	
1999		26%	
2000	31%	25%	16%
2001		26%	
2002		24%	
2003		23%	
2004		22%	
2005	21%	21%	7%
2006		20%	
2007		19%	
2008	21%	19%	6%

Source: The Presidency (2009)

The depth of poverty indicates how far from the poverty line the average household is, in terms of income. The Canadian Council on Social Development (2001) defines poverty depth as the extent of poverty, or how people are poor. On the other hand, Omonona (2010:1) defines poverty depth as the poverty gap, or the information relating to how far from the poverty line a household is. This measure is used to measure the household's consumption shortfall in relation to the poverty line. This is done for all households that make up the country's population.

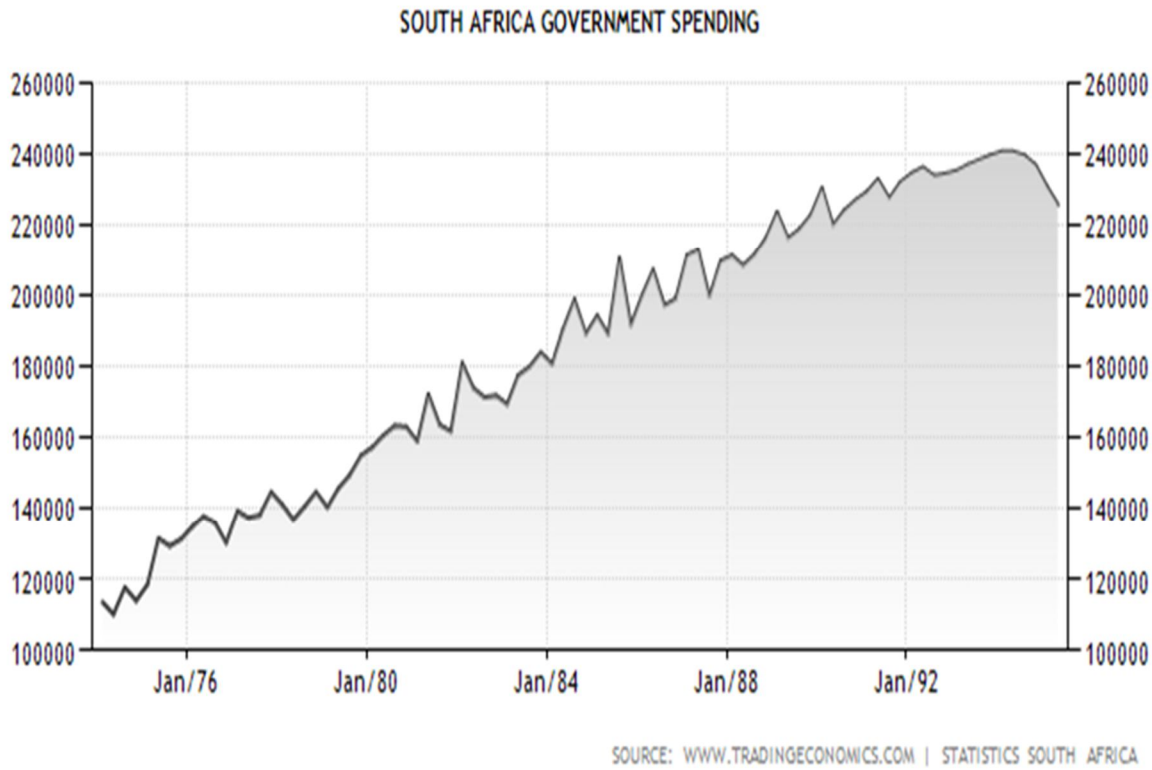
Based on the R524 a month poverty line, the data shows that 26% of the population's poor people were below the poverty line in 1995. The R388 a month poverty line reveals a higher percentage of 27% in 1995, while using the R283 a month poverty line reduces the percentage of poor people below the poverty line to 12% for 1995. In 2000, the percentage of poor people living below the poverty line of R524 a month increased to 31%, while the percentage of poor people below the R388 a month poverty line decreased to 25%, and the percentage of poor people

below the R283 a month poverty line increased to 16%. Table 2.3 shows this information.

2.4.4. Public welfare and addressing inequalities post-apartheid

According to Padayachee and Desai (2011), three in five South African children live in conditions of poverty, suffer from malnutrition, are exposed to domestic violence and have to go through inconsistent schooling. Over the years, the government has tried to address this problem through growth policies such as BEE, and income redistribution initiatives. Expenditure on the black population began to increase in the 1970s; first as a result of the political instability following the 1976 uprising, then in 1993 when the National Party was attempting to secure votes for the 1994 national elections. This increase in expenditure is depicted in Figure 2.5. During the last few years of apartheid, government expenditure began to rise; this spending went to education and security improvements.

Figure 2.5: Government expenditure pre 1994



Source: Trading Economics (2013)

Table 2.4: Child support grant recipients (1998 – 2008)

Year	Recipients
1998/1999	21997
1999/2000	150366
2000/2001	1111612
2001/2002	1277396
2002/2003	1998936
2003/2004	2996723
2004/2005	4165545
2005/2006	7075266
2006/2007	7863841
2007/2008	8189975
2008/2009	8765354

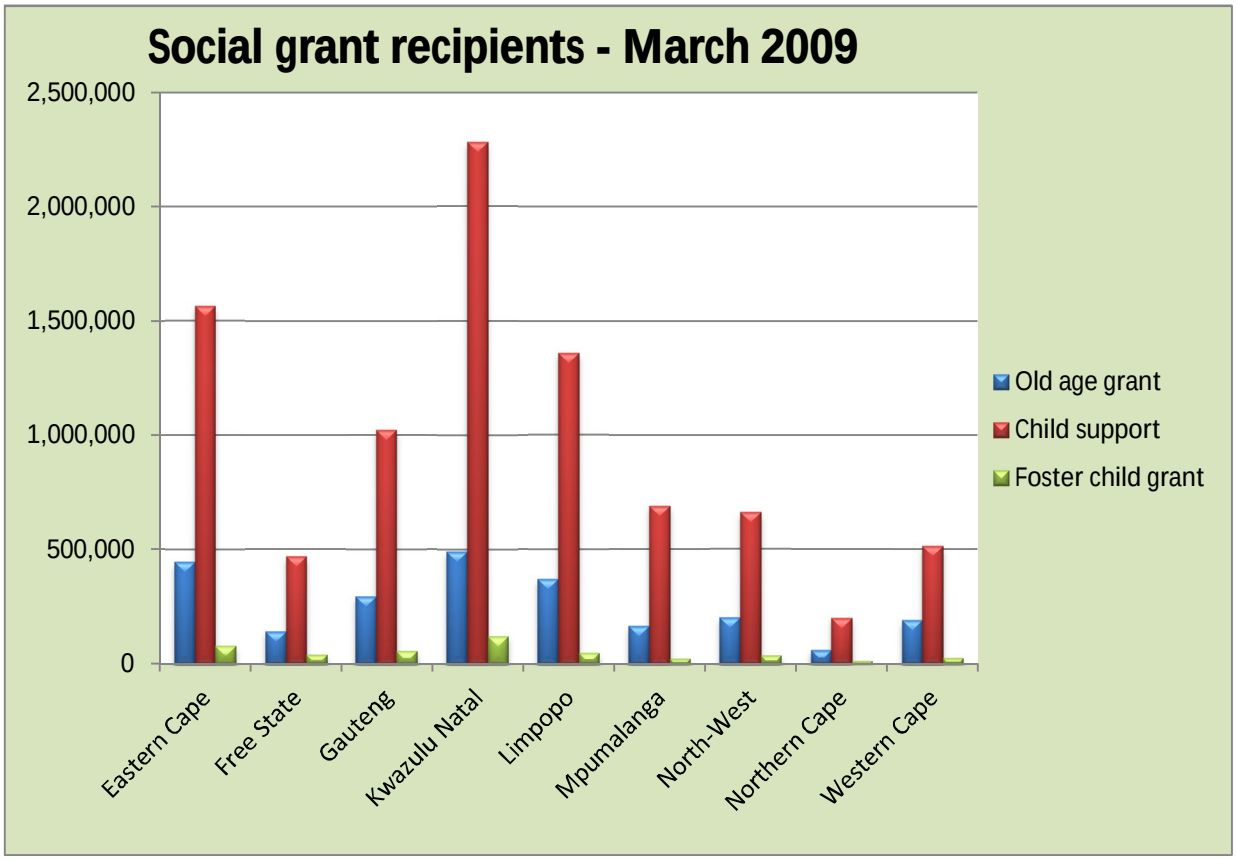
Source: The Presidency (2009:28)

In attempt to address past inequalities and alleviate the country's problem of poverty, the post-apartheid government increased its spending on certain items; particularly education, social welfare and growth policies. Van der Berg, Burger, Burger, Louw and Davids (2006:23) state that in the year 2000 the government increased spending on social grants to R22 billion in order to meet the growing number of people relying on these social grants. Table 2.4 illustrates that since 1998; the number of children receiving the monthly social grant has risen sharply; from a low 21997 in the 1998/99 financial year to almost 9 million recipients in the 2008/09 financial year.

Padayachee and Desai (2011) state that social assistance isn't needed by children alone however; as a consequence, the government also offers the old age grant, the war veterans grant, disability grant and foster child grant. Figure 2.6 displays the number of social welfare recipients by province for March 2009. According to this figure, Kwazulu Natal has the highest number of social welfare recipients for the

child support grant, old age grant and foster child grant. The other provinces with a high number of social welfare recipients are the Eastern Cape, Limpopo and Gauteng. Oddly, the provinces with the highest number of social welfare recipients are also the provinces with the highest number of people living below the poverty of R283 per month (The Presidency, 2009).

Figure 2.6: Social grant recipients – March 2009



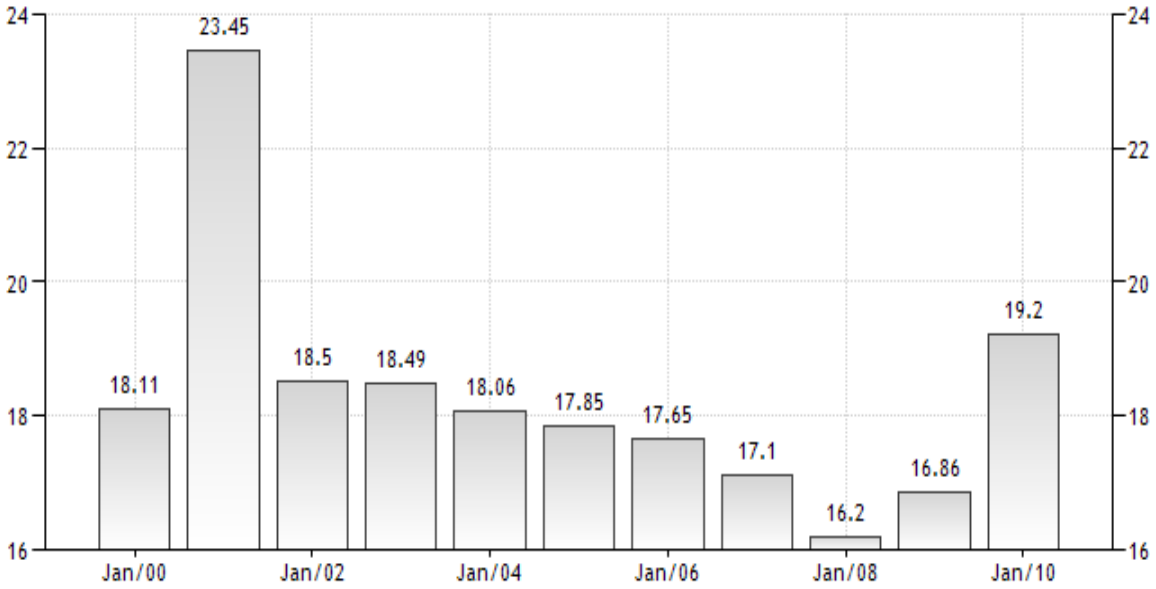
Source: The Presidency (2009)

Social welfare alone could never solve South Africa's problem of poverty. According to May (1998), in the few short years following the end of apartheid, it was already clear that new macroeconomic strategies were needed if South Africa was to lessen poverty. However, these macroeconomic policies had to be sustainable in the long run in order to help improve economic growth and economic development; while also contributing to employment creation and the funding of public services such as the provision of clean drinking water and sanitation.

2.4.4.1. Education as a poverty alleviation strategy

Over the years, the government has also used education as a poverty alleviation strategy. According to Padayachee and Desai (2011), the government has tried to ensure that all South Africans receive education by making primary and secondary education free in some areas of the country. Those in tertiary institutions, or about to enter tertiary institutions have access to the available sources of funding such as government bursary schemes and loans through the National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS). Government expenditure on education has also risen over the years. In 2001, government spending on education as a percentage of aggregate government spending reached a record high of 23.45%. However, there has been a decline since then, with the spending reaching 19.2% of government spending. Sadly, while spending on education is still high; this is not reflected in the quality of education received by South Africa's young people. Some people have gone so far as to claim that the current quality of education in the country is worse than Bantu education, which was used during the apartheid era.

Figure 2.7: Spending on education as a percentage of government expenditure (2000 – 2010)



Source: Trading Economics (2013)

The high expenditure on education has not helped with the quality of education in the country, especially in public schools in the poor provinces such as the Eastern Cape,

Limpopo and Kwazulu Natal. According to the Presidency (2009), Kwazulu Natal has the highest number of learners, followed by Eastern Cape, Gauteng and Limpopo. However, the learner to teacher ratio is uneven from province to province. Table 2.5 shows that in the Eastern Cape the learner to teacher ratio is 31, while in Gauteng the ratio is 29. Based on the fact that the Eastern Cape has almost twice the amount of students as Gauteng, the quality of learning received by these learners is clearly questionable. With rising expenditure on public education, it is not apparent why the number of teachers in the country is low.

Table 2.5: Teacher to student ratio within provinces (2008)

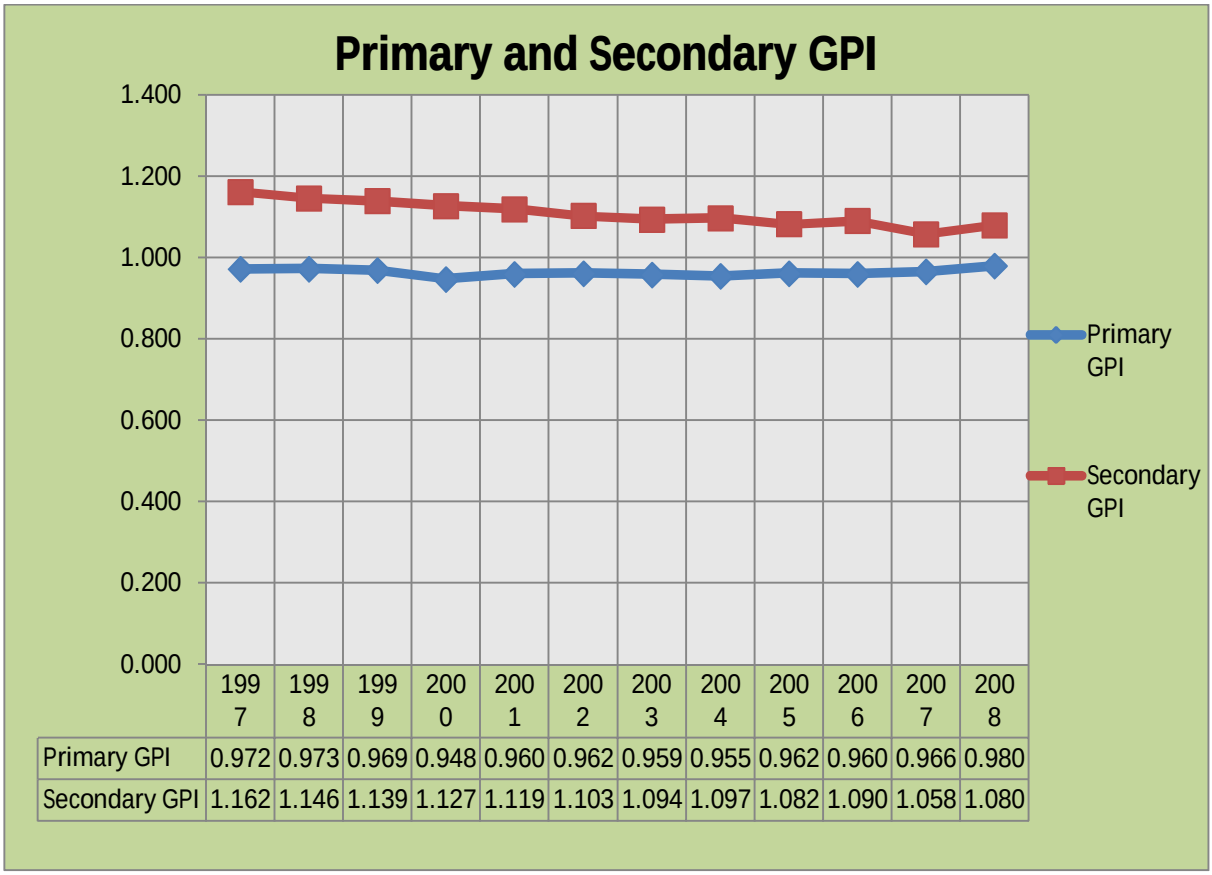
Province	Learners	As % of national total	Educators	As % of national total	Schools	As % of national total	Learner : Educator ratio
Eastern Cape	2 079 994	16.99	66 536	16.59	5 825	22.51	31
Free State	670 588	5.47	23 383	5.83	1 675	6.47	29
Gauteng	1 894 027	15.47	64 307	16.04	2 405	9.29	29
Kwazulu Natal	2 771 420	22.64	86 983	21.69	5 938	22.95	32
Limpopo	1 764 669	14.42	57 083	14.23	4 122	15.93	31
Mpumalanga	1 051 531	8.59	33 644	8.39	1 959	7.57	31
North-West	779 260	6.37	26 620	6.64	1 784	6.89	29
Northern Cape	265 866	2.17	9 019	2.25	617	2.38	29
Western Cape	962 008	7.86	33 378	8.32	1 550	5.99	29
National	**12 239 363**	**100**	**400 953**	**100**	**25 875**	**100**	**31**

Source: The Presidency (2009)

Although the extent of government expenditure is important for education, it is not the only important indicator of the education attainment of a country's population. This is to say, while it is important for government to spend money on providing and improving the education system and infrastructure, this will not make any beneficial difference to a country if the infrastructure is not used. To determine the level of

access to education, the Gender Parity Index (GPI) was developed. This index is used to determine women's access to education, in comparison with men. The GPI is used along with the Gross Enrolment Rate (GER). The GER is defined as the sum of leaner per education level, divided by the population of corresponding official age in the education level (The Presidency, 2009:45).

Figure 2.8: Primary and Secondary GPI (1997 – 2008)



	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Primary GPI	0.972	0.973	0.969	0.948	0.960	0.962	0.959	0.955	0.962	0.960	0.966	0.980
Secondary GPI	1.162	1.146	1.139	1.127	1.119	1.103	1.094	1.097	1.082	1.090	1.058	1.080

Source: The Presidency (2009:45)

Figure 2.8 shows the GPI for primary and secondary students. According to this data, unlike with most countries in the developing world, girls have greater access to education in South Africa (in terms of enrolment from grade 1 to grade 12). However, there are fewer females than there are males attending primary school, although the difference isn't too great. Enrolment levels change in secondary school, where there are more female students than there are male students. This suggests that male students are more likely to drop out of school, in comparison to female students (The Presidency, 2009:45). A scarcity of financial resources is one factor that might

contribute to male students dropping out of school. In some cases, male students drop out in order to find jobs that require unskilled labour, in order to earn money for the household.

One of the ways in which the government has tried to ensure that students don't drop out of school has been the introduction of free education. This means students in public schools are able to get an education without having to pay for school, and books. This sort of plan removes the burden of paying for school from parents who are already financially constrained parents, and places it on all taxpayers.

2.4.4.2. Black economic empowerment and addressing inequalities

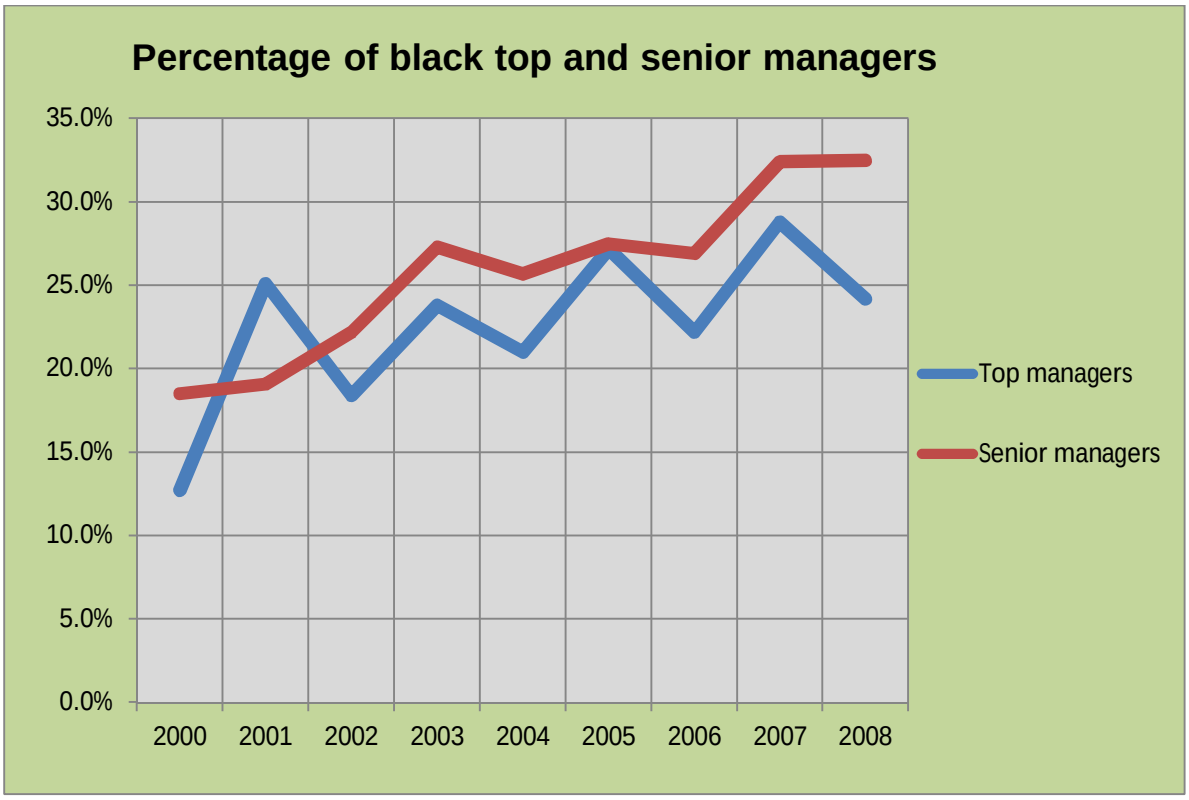
Following the end of apartheid in 1994, the government embarked on a national plan to address past inequalities and discriminative policies that restricted non-white South Africans from participating in the economy. The objective of this new plan was to create policies and programmes that would assist in bridging the gap in the labour market, while serving to provide better economic opportunities to South Africans who previously had no access to these opportunities. One such programme was Black Economic Empowerment (BEE), or Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE), as it is now known (Butler, 2007:1).

Unlike GEAR and ASGISA, BEE is a policy that was designed to address South Africa's past policies of political and economic discrimination; while also pushing the population to realise full economic potential and serving to bring the country's black population into the economic mainstream. In the wake of the controversy after the implementation of BEE, due to reports of self-enrichment on the part of government officials, the government introduced Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE).

Butler (2007:1) defines BBBEE as a government strategy, whose objective is to deracialise the country's public institutions in an attempt to provide employment opportunities and economic benefits to poor people, the majority of whom are black. In the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Act (53 of 2003), BBBEE is defined as referring to the empowerment of all black people, with the inclusion of women, workers, disabled people, people in rural areas and the youth, through

diverse and socio-economic strategies which include an increase in black people who own, manage and control enterprises for instance.

Figure 2.9: Percentage of black top and senior managers (2000 – 2008)



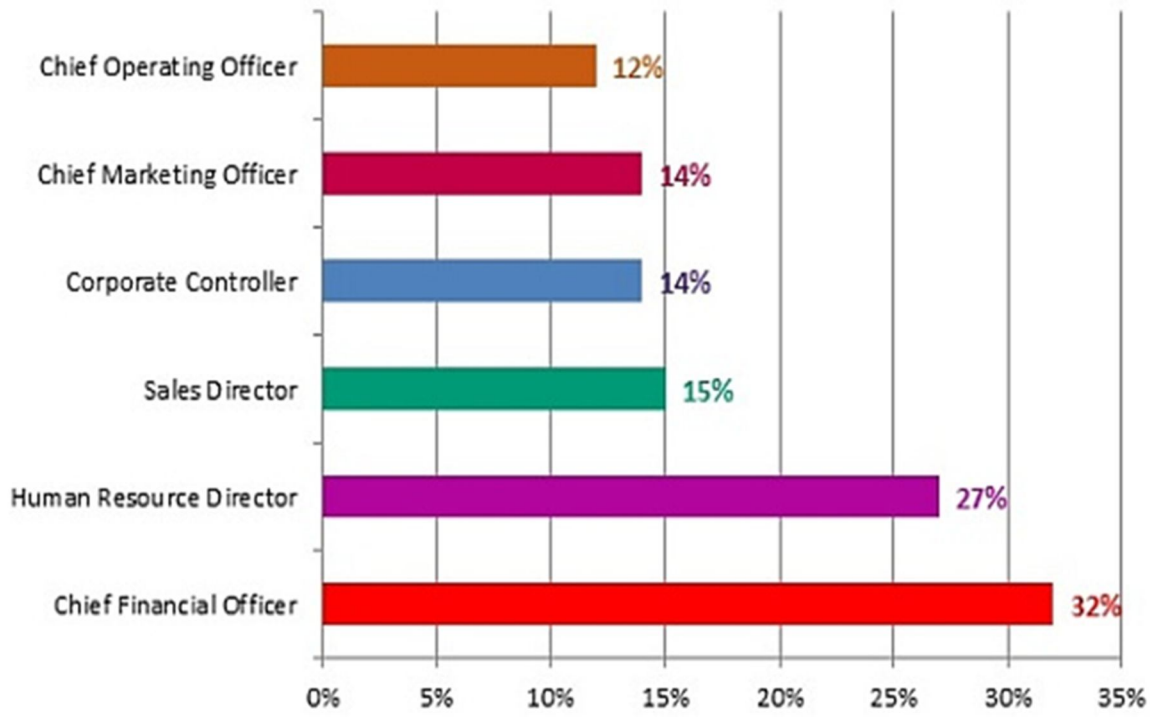
Source: The Presidency (2009)

Figure 2.9 illustrates the percentage of top and senior managers who are black. Based on this data, the percentage of black top managers almost doubled between 2000 and 2008, from 12.7% in 2000 to 24.2% in 2008. Between 2000 and 2001, the percentage of black top managers increased from 12.7% to 25.1%, which is a 12.4% increase. However, in 2002, this percentage decreased by 6.7% to 18.4%. For the period between 2000 and 2008, the percentage of black senior managers increased from 18.5% to 32.5%. This shows an increase of 14% in less than ten years. Unlike with the percentage increase for top managers, the percentage increase for senior managers was not accompanied by drastic increases. Instead, the percentage of senior managers increased from 18.5% in 2000, to 19.1% in 2001.

Over the years, there have been improvements in the percentage of women in senior managerial positions. According to the Grant Thornton International Business Report

(2013), 12% of chief operating officers were female, while 14% of chief marketing officers were female. On the other hand, the percentage of female chief financial officers increased from 14% in 2012, to 32% in 2013. The percentage of female chief executive officers increased from8% in 2012 to 10% in 2013. Figure 2.10 shows the top six positions roles and the percentage of women occupying those positions in 2013. While this data reflects an improvement in the working conditions, and access to better job opportunities for women, the data does not show the percentage of black women occupying these senior management positions. As a consequence, it is difficult to determine whether the rise in promotion opportunities for is the same for black women, as it is for white women.

Figure 2.10: Female senior management levels (2013)



Source: GTIBR (2013)

What the data does reveal is that in general, the senior managerial opportunities for black people have risen over the years. However, due to lack of data, it has been a bit difficult to determine how these opportunities fared out between 2008 and 2012. What is important to consider is that, while the senior managerial opportunities have increased for black people over the years, this increase in opportunities do not mean much if there are not enough economic and job opportunities for black people in low

level posts. The reason behind this statement is that, for every one senior manager, there are above twenty low level employees, and if none of these low level posts is occupied by black people, then it makes no difference if the senior manager is black. To effectively address labour inequalities, it is not enough to fill senior managerial posts with black people; instead, these opportunities should also be available at the lowest level of the business.

2.5. CONCLUSION

Almost 20 years since apartheid came to an end, most South Africans still live in poor economic conditions. While it is important to remember that 20 years is not long enough for the government to be able to completely fix the country's economic and political problems, it is not enough to use this as an excuse not to work at improving the lives of the country's most vulnerable citizens. Addressing inequalities requires knowledge of where such inequalities are concentrated, and in the case of South Africa, these inequalities are concentrated in the different parts of the economy.

Addressing and solving problems related to a failing economy that has been plagued by high levels of inequality requires more than increasing government expenditure. It requires spending money in the right programmes. Expenditure on programmes like free education, social support for children, old people, as well as disabled people and making sure that black people have access to economic opportunities through BBBEE has one way in which the country's government has tried to address poverty.

While attempting to develop strategies to alleviate poverty, it is important to take into consideration the perceived causes of poverty. By understanding the factors to which people attribute poverty, it becomes easier to develop policies, and strategies to help people improve their lives. For instance, if the post-apartheid generation attributes poverty to structural factors, it becomes easier to develop strategies that government can put in place to assist the population. To do this, the government would have to address the factors contributing to poverty. The Lack of societal justice or uneven distribution of income, are some of the factors contributing to poverty, for instance. These two factors are already being addressed through social grants, and BBBEE policies.

CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Research methodology is an important part of the research process. A discussion about the research design and methodology is essential in helping the reader to understand how the research question was answered, or how the research problem was examined. This chapter serves to outline the research design and methodology used for this study. First, the aims of the study were outlined. This was followed by the research questions. The next part focused on the sample design, sampling method, the research instrument, data collection, data capturing and data analysis. The last section outlined the limitations and shortcoming of the study.

3.2. AIMS OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to investigate the post-apartheid generation's perceptions of the causes of poverty. Investigating the perceived causes of poverty is an important part of policy design; and as such, this study aims to achieve the following:

- Provide an understanding as to the perceptions of the causes of poverty, either structural, fatalistic, individualistic, or a combination of the three.
- Provide an understanding of whether the post-apartheid generation's perceived causes of poverty are influenced by factors such as the student's field of study, race, nationality, etc.
- Determine the respondents' lived poverty index.
- Determine whether the perceptions of the causes of poverty of the post-apartheid generation are influenced by the respondent's lived poverty index.

3.3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main research question focused on the perceived causes of poverty of the post-apartheid generation in one higher education institution. This question attempted to determine whether the post-apartheid generation perceived the causes of poverty as structural, individualistic, fatalistic, or a combination of the three. The secondary part of the research question looked at demographic variables such as race, nationality,

field of study, home area and current area of residence, and the influence these variables have on the respondents' perceptions of the causes of poverty.

3.4. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This is an empirical study which uses primary data to answer questions related to the perceived causes of poverty of the post-apartheid generation. The Institute for Work and Health (2008) defines primary data as data that has been gathered for the first time for the purposes of a particular study. This is the sort of data collected through the use questionnaires and surveys for instance. Statistical methods are necessary for analysing and interpreting the data. One of the major advantages of primary data is that the researcher is able to design a questionnaire, and collect only the data that is relevant to the study being carried out.

3.4.1. STUDY POPULATION

The target population for this research was students who are 20 years old or younger enrolled at the Vaal Triangle Campus of the North-West University. There was no boundary as to the nationality or field of study; as long as the respondent was not older than 20 years.

3.4.2. SAMPLING DESIGN

A sample size of 203 respondents was used. Previous studies testing the perceptions of students used samples that were smaller than 200. For this study, a sample of size 203 was deemed acceptable as it is representative of the first year population on the campus. This is explained in section 1.4.2.4, in chapter 1. To make room for questionnaire errors, more than 203 questionnaires were handed out, and all questionnaires with errors were discarded during the questionnaire screening process. While the questionnaire covered demographics such a race, gender, area of residence and field of study, the most important demographic was age. There was no lower limit when it came to age, but the higher limit was 20 years. Kinnear and Taylor (1991:396) have identified five steps involved in the selection of a sample. These are listed in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Steps in selecting a sample

Step 1	Defining the target population
Step 2	Identifying the sample frame
Step 3	Determining the sample size
Step 4	Selecting the sample procedure
Step 5	Selecting the sample

Source: Kinnear & Taylor (1991:396)

Step one: Defining the target population

Kinnear and Taylor (1991:395) state that when defining the target population, it is important to determine the sampling units, elements, extent and time needed for the research. Chisnall (2005:71) defines the target population as a collection of those objects or elements with certain characteristics sought by the researcher, and about which deductions have to be made. It is vital that this target population be accurately defined; if not, this might lead to misleading conclusions about the subject being researched. For the purposes of this research, the population is students aged 20 years or below.

A sample element refers to the unit or case that has been selected from the target population to be measured for analysis purposes. This could be a person, year, etc. The element must be available for selection when the sample is selected (University of Idaho, 2013). For this study, the sample elements and sampling units utilised are students below the age of 20; from NWU-VTC, during the year 2013.

Step two: identifying the sample frame

The University of Missouri – St. Louis (2013) defined the sample frame as a list of all the elements or units within the target population from which the sample will be selected. The reason for the identification of the sample frame is so that each unit in the target population has an equal opportunity for selection as part of the sample. According to the University of Idaho (2013:9), the sample frame (or list of elements) should closely approximate all the units forming part of the target population. For this

research, the sample frame is made up of students below the age of 20 within all first year undergraduate students at NWU-VTC.

Step three: determining the sample size

Once the sample frame is determined, the next step is determining the sample size. According to Chrisnall (2005:86), the choice of sample size is highly dependent on the target population's characteristics, the sort of information the researcher requires from the survey, and the cost of performing the survey. One should be careful not to make the sample size either too small or too large. A large sample size increases the degree of accuracy of the research (Zikmund, 1994:406). Survey Systems (2013) states that a large sample size increases the probability of the answers being a true reflection of the target population. This is to say, for a given confidence level, a large sample size will result in a small confidence interval. The sample size for this study is 203 students.

According to the UI (2013), the sample size depends on a number of factors:

- How much sampling error the researcher will tolerate,
- The size of the target population,
- The distinctions within the target population with regards to characteristics being studied,
- The sample size should be large enough to effectively estimate the smallest sub-group, and
- The smallest sub-group within the sample size for which estimates are required.

Step four: selecting a sampling procedure

There are different sampling procedures that can be used in sampling selection. It is essential that the researcher make a clear distinction between probability sampling as well as non-probability sampling (Kinnear and Taylor, 1991:397). According to UMSL (2013), in probability sampling, also known as random sampling, each element of the target population has an opportunity for selection to part of the sample. This way of sampling increases the degree of representativeness of the target population while also lessening sampling error and sampling bias. While the

advantage of this method is that results can be generalised for the target population; the disadvantage is that it is a difficult and costly method.

In the non-probability method, it is not every element of the population that has a chance at selection for the sample. There is no sampling frame; as a consequence, the target population parameters might be unknown. In this type of sampling method, selection for the sample is not random; which increases the chances of the sample being biased (USML, 2013). According to the Department of Neighborhood and Community Services (2012), the results of a non-probability sample cannot be generalised for the target population. For the purposes of this research, the random sampling method was used.

Step five: selecting the sample

The final step of the sample design process is the actual selection of the sample. This selection is done based on the selected sampling procedure. For this study, NWU-VTC students below the age of 20 were listed as the target population. Table 3.2 depicts the sampling process for this study.

Table 3.2: The sampling process

1 Defining the target population:		
	1. Elements	NWU-VTC students 20 years of age or below
	2. Units	NWU-VTC students 20 years of age or below
	3. Extent	NWU-VTC
	4. Time	2013
2 Identifying the sample frame		NWU-VTC students 20 years of age or below
3 Determining the sample size		203 students
4 Selecting the sampling procedure		Probability/random sampling
5 Selecting the sample		As explained in step four

Source: Adapted from Kinnear and Taylor (1991:396)

3.5. MEASURING PERCEPTIONS OF THE CAUSES OF POVERTY

For this research, a questionnaire was used as the research instrument to determine the perceptions of the causes of poverty of the post-apartheid generation. The first part of the questionnaire covered demographics. The reason for the inclusion of these demographics was to determine the impact, if any, that these demographics might have on the perceived causes of poverty of the post-apartheid generation. These demographics include:

- Gender,
- Race,
- Nationality,
- Field of study,
- Current area of residence,
- Home area and
- Number of family members etc.

The next section of the questionnaire covered the perceived causes of poverty, which are explained in section 3.5.1. The final section of the questionnaire covered the Lived Poverty Index (LPI), which is explained in section 3.5.4.

3.5.1. Perceived causes of poverty: the categories

According to Davids (2010:8), literature regarding the perceptions of the causes of poverty can be explained with the aid of three viewpoints. The first standpoint is that the existence and persistence of poverty can be attributed to individuals, while the second view states that poverty is a result of factors that are outside of the individual, such as political and cultural factors. Outside of these two observations, poverty can be attributed to conditions that are unanticipated and uncontrollable by the individual. In South Africa, poverty is entrenched in the deagrarianisation the economy, as well as large-scale unemployment.

To measure the perceptions of the causes of poverty, the Perceptions of the Causes of Poverty Scale (PCPS) developed by Joe Feagin. According to Shek (2004), the Feagin scale is made up of twelve statements. The respondents were asked to

indicate to what degree they agree or disagree with the twelve statements in the questionnaire about poverty perceptions using a Likert scale. This scale provides the following options: Strongly agree (5), agree (4), not sure (3), disagree (2) and strongly disagree (1). Shek (2004:272-292) lists the statements as follows:

1. “They lack the ability to manage money”,

2. “They waste their money on inappropriate items”,

3. “They do not actively seek to improve their lives”,

4. “They are exploited by rich people”,

5. “The society lacks social justice”,

6. “The distribution of wealth in the society is uneven”,

7. “They lack opportunities due to the fact that they live in poor families”,

8. “They have bad fate”,

9. “They lack luck”,

10. “They have encountered misfortunes”,

11. “They are not motivated because of welfare”, and

12. “They are born inferior”.

Statements 1 to 3 measured individualistic perceptions, statements 4 to 7 measured structural perceptions while statements 8 to 12 measured the fatalistic perceptions of the causes of poverty.

3.5.2. Results of previous studies

Over the years, there has been an increase of studies focusing on the perceived causes of poverty. For instance, Hunt (1996:312) did a study on the perceptions of poverty and found that black people tend to view poverty in structural terms. Ljubotina and Ljubotina (2007:741-749) also did a study comparing the perceptions

of social work and non-social work students regarding the perceptions of the causes of poverty. The outcomes revealed that social work students tended to lean on factors other than individualistic factors.

While global economic conditions have improved over the years, the improvement has not been the same across all races. Research has shown that often, the number of people living in poverty is higher among black people than it is with other race groups. For instance, the National Poverty Center (2009:1) found that in the USA, 1 in 3 African-American and 1 in 4 Latino children live in poverty, which is two times higher than the number of white children living in poverty. In South Africa, 68% of black children, 33% of coloured children, 6% of Asian and 4% of white children live in poverty (Hall & Chenells, 2012:3).

Other studies have concluded that women tend to suffer most as a result of poverty. This is mostly a consequence of structural factors that put men at the top of the food chain; while women are expected to remain uneducated homemakers. Todaro and Smith (2011:237) have stated that women account for a considerable percentage of the world's poor. According to Cagatay (1998: 3), women are often subjected to discrimination – be it the labour market, or education institutions - and often possess less or no property as compared to men. Blau and Kahn (1994:22-28) also explain that available theory makes the suggestion that there are differences between skills and qualifications that women acquire, in comparison with men. As a consequence, women's economic resources tend to lag behind those of men, thus increasing the likelihood of women being poor than men.

According to Kandel (2011:27) poverty among foreign-born people tends to differ based on citizenship status. Studies have shown that the percentage of people living in poverty was lower among naturalised citizens, and higher among non-naturalised citizens. In the USA in 2008, the difference in poverty levels between foreign-born and locally-born noncitizens was 8%. Kandel (2011:28) also explains that amongst the foreign born; the rate of poverty differed based on the people's region of origin. Based on the above information, it is vital to find out how these demographics have impacted the post-apartheid generation's perceptions of the causes of poverty.

3.5.3. Application of the Feagin scale

Since its inception, the Chinese Perceived Causes of Poverty Scale (CPCPS) has been utilised in various countries, under differing conditions. In Croatia, Ljubotina and Ljubotina (2007:741-749) did a study titled Attributions of poverty among social work and non-social work students in Croatia. The aim of this study was to examine how students in Croatia perceive the causes of poverty, and how these perceptions vary between Social work (SW) and non-social work (NSW) students. The study comprised 365 respondents; 143 were SW students, 137 were economics students and 85 were agriculture students.

The study done by Ljubotina and Ljubotina (2007:741-749) made use of a newly created Attribution of Poverty Scale (APS) which consists of four different factors: Individual causes, micro-environmental causes, structural/societal causes and fatalistic causes. This study also used a questionnaire that measured five different dimensions of the students' personal values: humanistic values, family values, hedonistic values, striving for self-actualisation, and traditional values. The study concluded that SW students view individual causes as less vital than students doing agriculture or economics. Those students who view humanistic and traditional values as important put more stress on external sources of poverty (Ljubotina & Ljubotina, 2007:741-749). The results of the study revealed a consistency with other studies, which speaks to the reliability of the Feagin scale as well as the data.

Another study that made use of the PCPS was on the perceptions of the causes of poverty comparing three national groups: Lebanon, Portugal, and South Africa. This study was done by Nasser, Abouchedid and Khashan (2002) and comprised 563 respondents from numerous colleges. The results of the study showed that South African students viewed the causes of poverty as more individualistic than students from Portugal and Lebanon. Overall, students from all three countries perceived the causes of poverty as more structural than individualistic or fatalistic.

In China, Shek (2002:789-803) did a study titled Chinese adolescent' explanation of poverty: the perceived causes of poverty scale. This paper included an explanation about the establishment of a measure to evaluate the perceived causes of poverty in Chinese culture (Chinese Perceived Causes of Poverty Scale, CPCPS).The

outcomes of this study were based on the response of 1519 Chinese adolescents; which assisted in evaluating the psychometric properties of the scale. One of the goals of this study was to gain insight regarding the attitudes and adjustments of Chinese adolescents, students were requested to respond to statements recorded on the CPCPS, as well at the Existential Well-being Scale (EXIST), Mastery Scale (MAS), Life Satisfaction Scale (LIFE) and the Chinese version of the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ).

According to Shek (2002:789-803), respondents whose views about the external causes of poverty were strong displayed signs of poor existential well-being, lower levels of life satisfaction and mastery; and high levels of psychiatric symptoms. Although these findings are consistent with the findings of Lefcourt (1982), which revealed that psychological adjustment and the external focus of control are directly related; the results also revealed that the link between the Personal Problems subscale and the various measures of psychosocial adjustment was not as strong. Shek (2002:789-803) also states that these findings must be duplicated to determine the level of generalisability to Chinese adolescents.

3.5.4. The lived poverty index (LPI)

According to Seekings (2007:12), poverty in South Africa has been intensified by old apartheid laws such as the Land Act which saw black people being forced off the land in order to inhabit only a small percentage of arid land. Due to planning that was prejudiced during the apartheid era, there has been spatial isolation and lack of development in townships and rural areas which has resulted in the poor having restricted access to resources that might result in development and increased capability to exploit economic opportunities (Hindson, Xaba & Associates, 2003:2).

The purpose of the lived poverty index, according to Afrobarometer (2003), is to describe people's ability to attain life's basic necessities; such as food and fuel. This index is comprised of six questions which assist in assessing how often people have gone without certain necessities over the course of the year. This index is as follows: In the past year, how frequently have you and your family gone without

1. "Enough fuel to cook your food",

2. “Enough food to eat”,
3. “Medicines or medical treatment”,
4. “Cash income”,
5. “Electricity in your home”, and
6. “Enough clean water for home use”.

Davids (2009:6) states that the response choices for these questions range between one and five. One represents “never”, while five represents “always”. The LPI score is calculated by adding together the respondent’s responses to generate an average mean for each respondent. The generated score will then range along a five-point scale between zero and four. Higher values are said to illustrate a higher lack of access to life’s basic necessities, while the lower values illustrate a lower lack of, or no lack of the basic necessities.

The LPI has been used in a number of studies; one of which was done by the Afrobarometer (2009:1). One of the goals of this study was to determine the link between poverty reduction, economic growth and democracy. In the surveyed countries, the most common shortage was cash income; which was followed by the shortage in medical care, food, clean water and fuel for cooking (Afrobarometer, 2009:1).

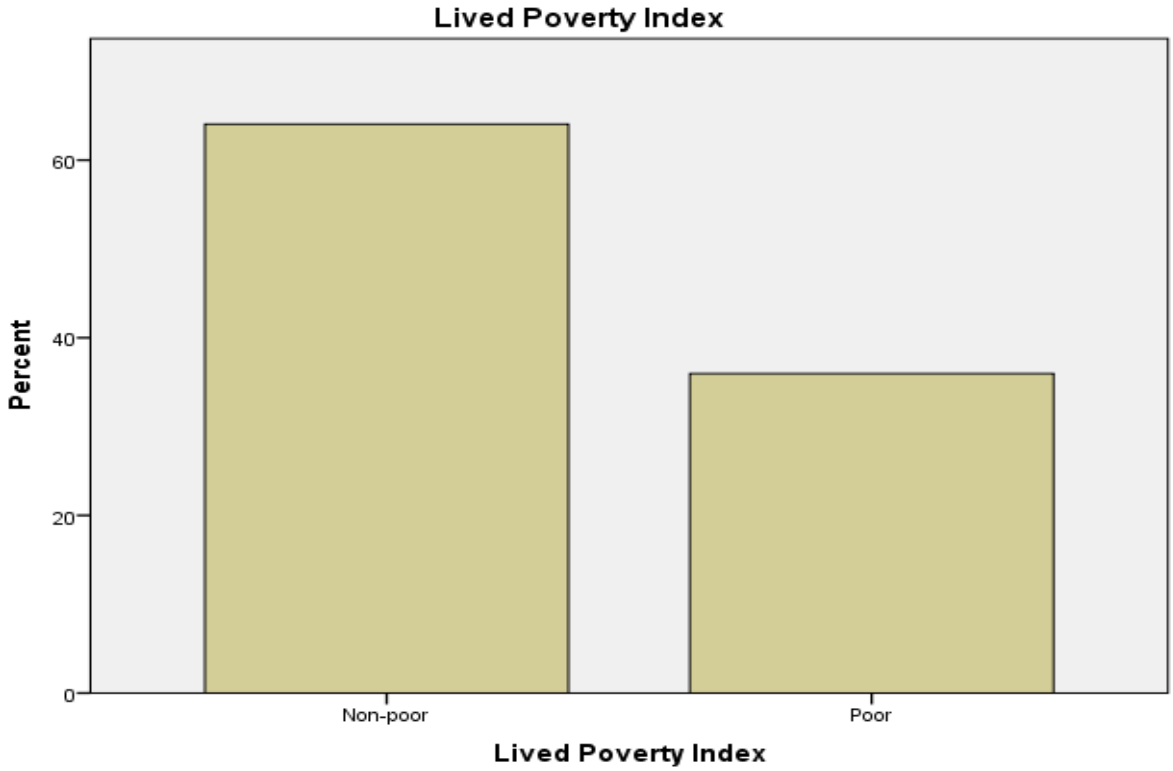
Mattes, Bratton and Davids (2002:7) stated that in the past, poverty has often been tested with the aid of surveys whose focus was mainly on cash income, expenditure as well as assets. While this method was helpful, it was made complicated by the fact that in some societies, income was not always in the form of cash. Instead, people sometimes made use of goods and services as payment. Mattes *et al*. (2002:8) also state that while the lack of cash income or assets might influence people’s ability to attain life’s basic necessities; the most important factor was not the availability of cash income or assets, but whether or not people were able to attain the necessities. This suggests that the correct measure of poverty is not the quantity of money that people have, but how often these people have to survive without the necessities.

To determine the poverty line, the average LPI score is calculated for respondents. This means that for each of the six LPI items, the score will be calculated for each

respondent. Once the LPI score for each individual is calculated, the grand LPI mean is calculated for all the respondents. This grand mean is then used as the poverty line. The grand mean, or poverty line will differ based on the sample size, as well as the respondents' level of access to the listed basic necessities (Mattes et al., 2002; Davids, 2010).

The poverty line for this study was 1.81. As such, all respondents with a mean score below 1.81 were considered non-poor, while all respondents with a mean score above 1.81 were considered poor. For the purposes of the study, the dummy variables were: Non-poor = 0 and poor = 1. Based on this poverty line, 64% of the respondents were classified as non-poor, while the remaining 36% were classified as poor. Figure 3.1 shows the graphical illustration of the LPI distribution in percentages. This is in line with a report by the Mail & Guardian (2011) and Stats SA (2011), which found that close to half of South Africa's population lived in poverty.

Figure 3.1: The poor and non-poor (2013)



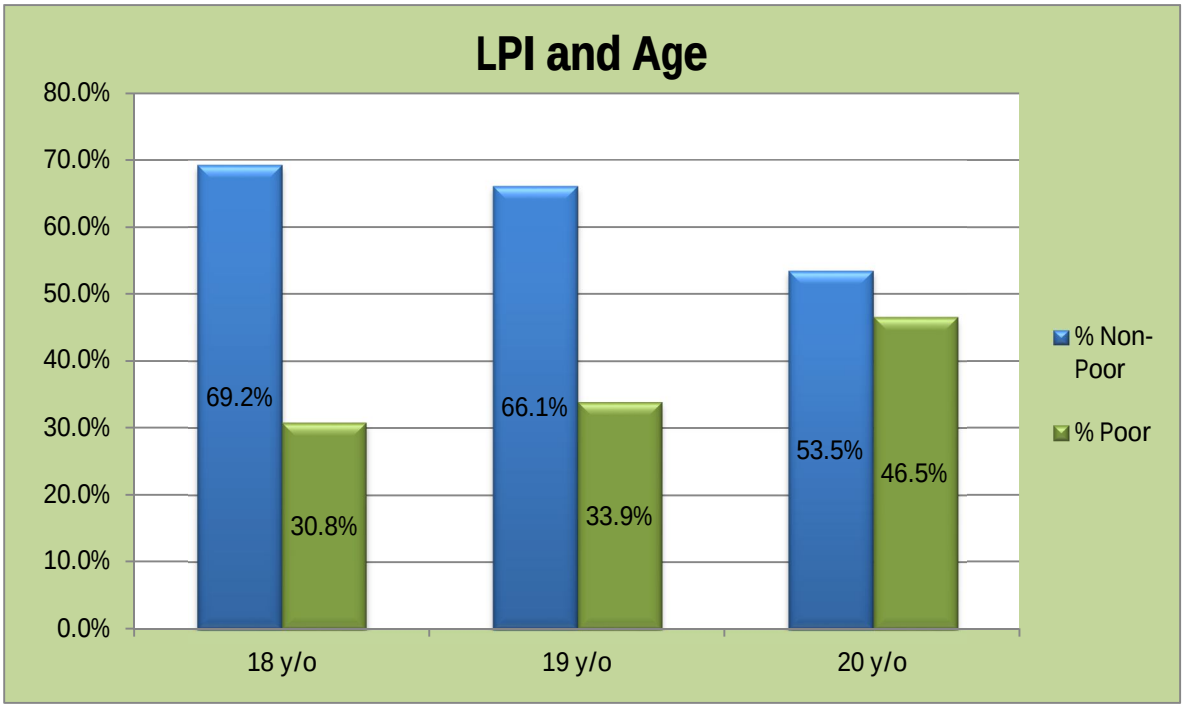
Source: Survey data (2013)

The distribution of the respondents based on age shows uneven results. Based on the data, there were 39 respondents aged 18, while 121 of the respondents were

aged 19, and only 43 of the respondents were aged 20. The outcomes of the LPI analysis based on age revealed that 69.2% of the 18 year old respondents were classified as non-poor, while only 30.8% were classified as poor. On the other hand, 66.1% of respondents aged 19 years were classified as non-poor, and only 33.9% were classified as poor. Of those respondents aged 20 years, 53.5% were classified as non-poor, and 46.5% were classified as poor.

These results reveal that there is not a large gap between the poor and non-poor among the 20 year old respondents. On the other hand, a little over half of the 19 year old respondents were classified as poor. Todaro and Smith (2011:237) have found that children (along with women) often suffer the most from deprivation. A study by the Institute of Education Sciences (2011) found that, amongst American youth, the poverty rate had increased from 12% to 17% for males, and from 16% to 22% for females. These poverty rates are lower than those of South Africa's post-apartheid generation. Figure 3.2 illustrates the findings for the post-apartheid generation.

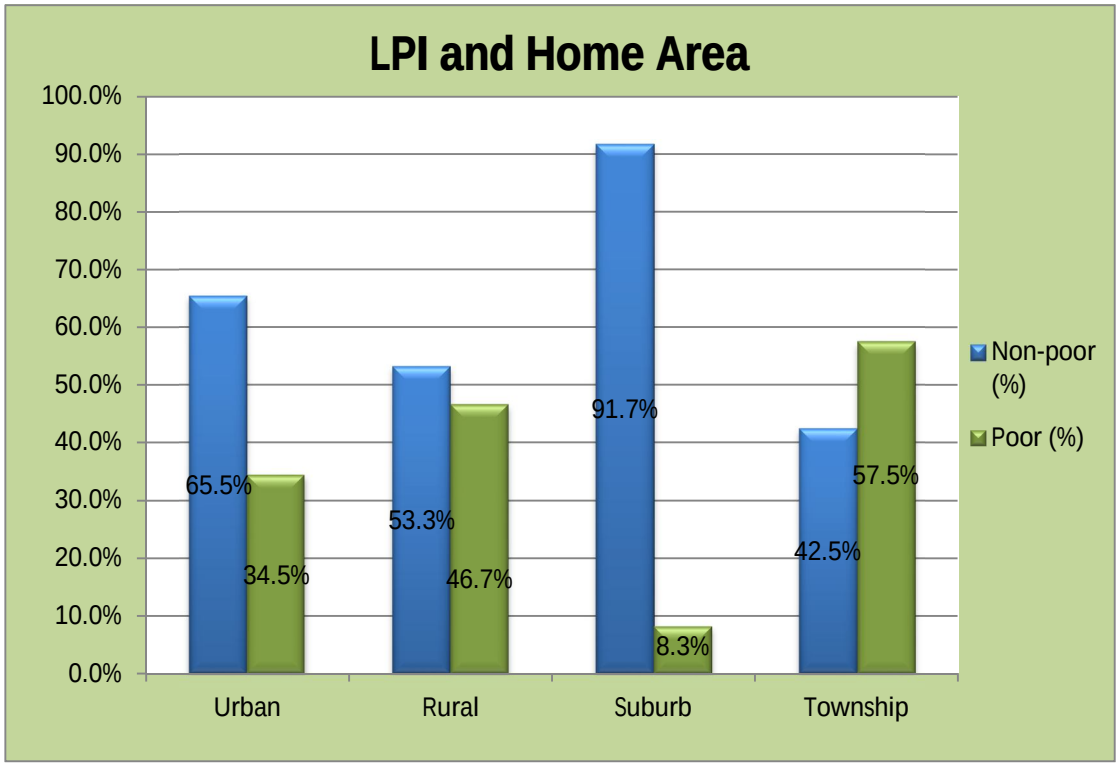
Figure 3.2: LPI and age (2013)



Source: Survey data (2013)

In South Africa, most black people live in townships and rural areas (with few living in the suburbs or urban areas), while the majority, if not all white people live in suburbs or urban areas. As such, the respondents' home area provides some indication of the race of the respondents. For instance, none of the respondents whose home area is in the townships was white. In fact, all 73 respondents whose home area is in the township were black. On the other hand, only 29 of those respondents whose home area was in the suburbs were black. This number accounts for 20% of the black respondents. Figure 3.3 is an illustration of the percentage of poor and non-poor respondents explained in terms of the home area. According to Figure 3.3, 65.5% of respondents whose home area was in an urban area were classified as non-poor, and 34.5% were classified as poor.

Figure 3.3: LPI and home area (2013)



Source: Survey data (2013)

The percentage of respondents whose home area was in a rural area, and who were classified as non-poor was 53.3% and 46.7% were classified as poor. This data reveals that close to half of the respondents whose home area was in a rural area were classified as poor. Unlike this study which shows that respondents whose

home area was in the township were more exposed to poverty, Todaro and Smith (2011:237) found that people residing in rural areas are more likely to be exposed to poverty than those living in suburbs, for instance.

Stats SA (2011:13) also found that respondents whose home area was in a rural area were more likely to be living in poverty. Not surprisingly, 91.7% of the respondents residing in the suburbs were classified as non-poor, while only 8.3% were classified as poor. These findings are in line with studies done by (source), which found that people living in suburbs are more likely to be economically better off, and thus less likely to be exposed to poverty.

Figure 3.3 has shown that there are more respondents classified as non-poor, as compared to those who are classified as poor, living in urban areas, suburbs, or rural areas. The same cannot be said about those respondents whose home area is in the township. Based on the data, there are more respondents classified as poor (57.5%), than there are respondents classified as non-poor (42.5%). Studies done by (source) are in agreement with this data. These studies found that respondents whose home area was in the township were more likely to be exposed to poverty due to high rates of unemployment and low levels of education. As such, people living in the township are less likely to have a stable source of income, a stable source of food, or even access to clean drinking water for extended periods.

In terms of the LPI, the data has revealed that the gap between those who are classified as poor and those who are classified as non-poor is not so large, especially based on the respondents' age and home area. The data has found some similarities with other studies in terms of who is more likely to be exposed to poverty. Further analysis of the LPI is done in chapter 4. The next section of this current chapter focuses on the demographics of the respondents. These demographics include variables such as gender, race, faculty (of study), and nationality, to name a few.

3.6. DEMOGRAPHICS OF THE STUDY

A sample of 203 was used, with students from NWU-VTC as the respondents. The questionnaire covered demographics such a race, gender, area of residence, field of

study, and the area of high school attended. There was no lower limit set for the respondent's age, however, 20 years was the upper age limit. Demographic results for the sample revealed some interesting information, as shown by Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 displays the demographic information for the 203 respondents. According to this data, there were more female than male respondents (41.4% and 58.6% respectively) participating in this study. The data also shows that the highest number of respondents came from the faculty of Economic Sciences and IT (88.2%), while the remaining 11.8% came from the faculty of Humanities. A great majority of the respondents was 19 years old (59.6%), while 21.2% of the respondents were 20 years old, and only 19.2% were 18 years old.

Table 3.3 also shows the race distribution of the respondents. The results show that 70.7% of the respondents were black, 28.1% of the respondents were white, while only 0.5% of the respondents were any race other than black or white. This sort of racial distribution is in line with the racial distribution of both the first year class, as well as the NWU-VTC, where the majority of the student population is black, followed by white students. The remaining small percentage of the class and campus is comprised of Coloured, Indian and Chinese students. Since this study is focused on age, race did not play a part in the selection of respondents.

Of the 203 respondents, 27.1% permanently reside in an urban area, 7.4% reside in a rural area, while only 29.6% reside in the suburbs. However, the majority of the respondents were permanent residents of a township, as shown in Table 3.4. Of these students, 33.5% attended high school in an urban area, while 9.4% attended high school in a rural area. The amount of respondents who went to high school in a suburb is almost equal to the number of respondents who attended school in a township, with the actual percentages being 28.1% and 29.1% respectively. This is also depicted in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Demographics

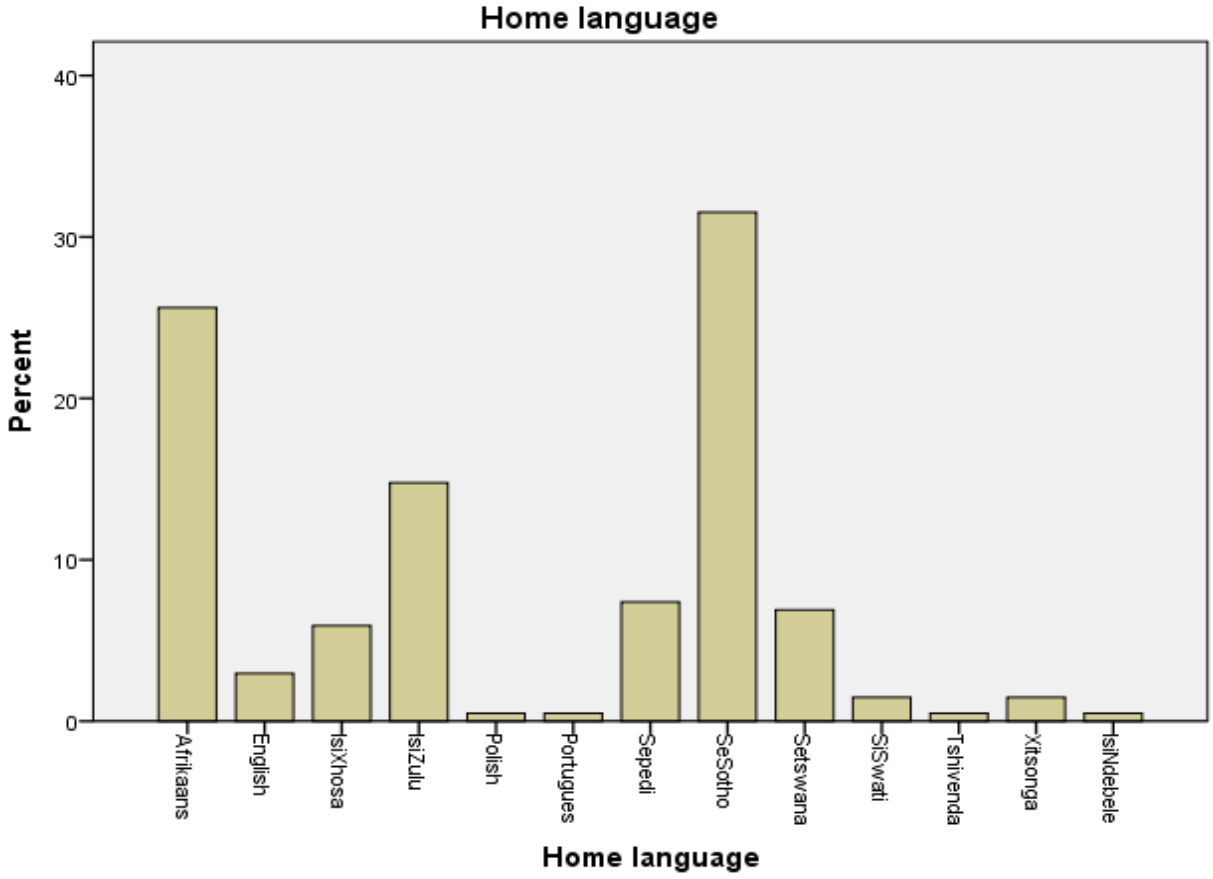
Variable	Values	N	Percentage
Age	18	39	19.2%
	19	121	59.6%
	20	43	21.2%
Gender	Male	84	41.4%
	Female	119	58.6%
Race	Black	145	71.4%
	White	57	28.1%
	Other	1	0.5%
Nationality	South African	201	99.0%
	Other	2	1.0%
Faculty	Economic Sciences & IT	179	88.2%
	Humanities	24	11.8%
Current area of residence	Urban	77	37.9%
	Rural	2	1.0%
	Suburb	77	37.9%
	Township	47	23.2%
Home area	Urban	55	27.1%
	Rural	15	7.4%
	Suburb	60	29.6%
	Township	73	36.0%
Area of high school attended	Urban	68	33.5%
	Rural	19	9.4%
	Suburb	57	28.1%
	Township	59	29.1%
Number of family members	3 to 5	149	73.4%
	6 to 8	45	22.2%
	Other	9	4.4%
Solely dependent on parents?	Yes	179	88.2%
	No	24	11.8%
Transport to campus	Taxi	76	37.4%
	Bus	49	24.1%
	Private transport	78	38.4%

Source: Survey data (2013)

A majority of the respondents is dependent solely on parents for financial assistance. The total percentage of respondents dependent on parents is 88.2%, only 11.2% of the respondents did not depend exclusively on parents. Respondents not solely dependent on parents listed bursaries, siblings and other relatives such as aunts and uncles as sources of financial aid. Surprisingly, the number of respondents making use of a taxi to get to campus is almost equivalent to the percentage of respondents making use of private transport to get to campus (37.4% and 38.4% respectively). The results also reveal that of the 76 respondents who take a taxi to campus, only one was not black. On the other hand, all 49 respondents who make use of the bus to get to campus; none is of any race other than black.

Figure 3.4 shows the distribution of home languages. This figure reveals that the most common home language amongst the respondents is SeSotho, followed by Afrikaans, IsiZulu and Sepedi. This makes sense as the majority of the respondents are black South Africans residing in the townships.

Figure 3.4: Home language (2013)



Source: Survey data (2013)

3.7. DATA COLLECTION

The research method utilised for the data collection for this study was questionnaires with 203 respondents from NWU-VTC. Completing the questionnaire took about 15 minutes. There were no volunteers involved in the data collection and data capturing phases of this research. Data collection and capturing were done and completed at the end of August 2013.

3.8. DATA CAPTURING

The data capturing was done using SPSS statistics 21 and Microsoft Excel 2010 version. All the data was collected from NWU students in the first year of study. Once all the data was collected, a screening process took place. This was done to ensure that only correctly filled out questionnaires were considered for capturing. All incorrectly filled out questionnaires (those with incomplete data) were discarded. Questionnaires filled out by respondents above the required age (20 or below) were not at all considered for this study.

The data collection and capturing was not done by fieldworkers. As a result, there was no training required for anyone. Once the data collection and questionnaire screening were done, the process of coding the questionnaires ensued. The coding of the questionnaire was done in sections so as to ensure there was no confusion regarding the capturing process. Section A of the questionnaire concentrated on the demographics of the respondent. This section consists of 14 items coded as A1 to A14. Section B covered the respondent's monthly expenses. This included items like food, clothing and toiletries. The coding ranged from B1 to B6.

The focus of Section C was the respondent's parents' employment status. Each parent could either be employed or unemployed. The respondent was also required to specify the sector in which each parent was employed (primary or secondary sector for instance), as well at the average annual income earned. The results reveal that 78.3% of the respondents' mothers are employed, while only 74.4% of fathers were employed. Of the employed mothers, 21.7% were in the informal sector, 8.9% in the primary sector, 24.6% in the secondary sector and 44.8% in the tertiary sector. The results indicate a higher number of fathers were employed in the informal sector

(25.1%) as compared with mothers. On the other hand, fewer fathers were employed in the primary sector (6.4%), 24.1% were in the secondary sector and 44.3% were in the tertiary sector.

Table 3.4: Parents' employment status

Variable	Value	Percentage
Mother	Employed	78.3%
	Unemployment	21.7%
Father	Employed	74.4%
	Unemployment	25.6%
Sector [mother]	Informal	21.7%
	Primary	8.9%
	Secondary	24.6%
	Tertiary	44.8%
Sector [Father]	Informal	25.1%
	Primary	6.4%
	Secondary	24.1%
	Tertiary	44.3%
Average annual income [Mother]	R0 to R990	17.8%
	R1000 to R5000	21.3%
	R5500 to R10000	19.3%
	R11000 to R20000	29.2%
	Other	12.4%
Average annual income [Father]	R0 to R990	24.3%
	R1000 to R5000	12.9%
	R5500 to R10000	15.8%
	R11000 to R20000	28.2%
	Other	18.8%

Source: Survey data (2013)

3.9. DATA ANALYSIS

The data analysis was done in three sub-sections using SPSS Statistics 21, Stata 11 and Microsoft Excel 2010. The focus of the first sub-section was determining the respondents' perceived causes of poverty (fatalistic perceptions, individualistic perceptions and structural perceptions). This analysis was done using SPSS Statistics 21. The purpose of this sub-section was to determine which of the three factors the respondents perceive as being the cause of poverty. Some of the analysis was done with the aid of Microsoft Excel 2010.

The second sub-section focused on the lived poverty index of the respondents. This analysis was also done with the aid of SPSS Statistics 21 and Microsoft Excel 2010. The objective of this sub-section was to determine whether the respondent is classified as poor or as non-poor. A bivariate correlation between the LPI and the demographics, as well as between the LPI and the perceived causes of poverty was done to determine the extent of the relationship (if any) between the variables.

The third and final sub-section focused on the correlation between the respondents' demographics, and the three perceived causes of poverty (fatalistic index, structural index and the individualistic index). The goal of this analysis was to determine the effect that the demographics have on the perceived causes of poverty, if any. This analysis was completed using Stata 11 and Microsoft Excel 2010. The rest of the details of the analysis are explained in chapter four.

3.10. LIMITATIONS OF THE DATA

In order to avoid any misleading results, it is important that the right information be obtained. This means making sure that the captured data is the actual data that was required. To do this, the questionnaire has to be screened for any mistakes. Once this has been done, reliability statistics should be performed.

However, it is not only questionnaire errors that lead to misleading results. At times, respondents are shy about responding to questions truthfully. This presents a sort of limitation for the data. Circumstances also influence respondents' perceptions, for instance, being poor or non-poor might influence the respondents' perceptions of the causes of poverty, which suggests that perceptions might not be objective. However,

since the LPI for each respondent was captured, this presented the opportunity to establish the differences in the perceived causes of poverty of those who were classified as poor, in comparison with those who were classified as non-poor.

3.11. CONCLUSION

With the exception of the study done by Davids (2010), not much research has been done on the perceived causes of poverty of South Africans, let alone the perceptions of the post-apartheid generation. As a result, finding already tested methodology for measuring perceptions in South Africa proved to be difficult. To overcome this, the study done by Davids, as well as other studies done internationally, was consulted for the research methodology.

In order to carry out the empirical study, the statistical procedures listed in previous sections of this chapter were used. This involved following the provided steps related to sample selection (first defining the population, classifying the sampling frame, determining the size of the adequate sample, selection of the sampling procedure, and finally, the selection of the actual sample. In order to collect data that is suitable for the research being undertaken, it is vital that these research methodology steps be followed so as to ensure that the data collected yields reliable results.

The population for this study comprised NWU-VTC students aged 20 or below. The elements as well as sampling units are part of this group. The sampling frame was made up of first year students aged 20 years or below. From this group, a sample size of 203 respondents was selected. The sample was made up of 43 respondents who were 20 years old, 121 respondents aged 19, as well as 39 respondents who were 18 years of age. The selection of these respondents was done randomly, which explains the uneven distribution of the three different age groups.

The next chapter outlines the results of the obtained from the 203 questionnaires that were captured. The analysis of the data was done using SPSS Statistics 21, Microsoft Excel 2010, as well as Stata 11. The results are presented statistically, using tables, figures, as well as percentages.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF THE PERCEPTIONS OF THE CAUSES OF POVERTY AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

4.1. INTRODUCTION

Studies measuring the perceived causes of poverty are significant, particularly for policymaking. Studies have been conducted to understand how the perceptions of the causes of poverty contribute to understanding the stigma attached to poverty, as well as people living in poverty. By understanding how poor people perceive poverty and its causes, policymakers might be able to design and implement policies to help the poor in breaking the poverty cycle (Shek, 2004:273). Perceptions of the causes of poverty may be influenced by various demographic and socio-economic factors such as race, age, gender as well as the employment status (Nasser, Abouchedid & Khashan 2002: 111).

According to Davids (2010:70), race impacts respondents' perceptions of the causes of poverty. Black people have tended to lean towards structural perceptions. Shek (2002:790) states that mothers have tended to attribute poverty to fatalistic components. On the other hand, adolescents who might be seen as poor tend to lean towards external factors. However, the effect of these demographic and socio-economic factors on the perceived causes of poverty cannot be standardised because of the influence of culture, and the (economic) history of the respondents. Thus, this chapter presents the results of the data that was collected. These results are presented in tables, figures using statics such as percentages.

Due to the fact that the data collected covered the lived poverty index, the Feagin scale and demographics, the results are presented in three sub-sections. The first sub-section focuses on the perceived causes of poverty, which are listed in terms of structural, individualistic as well as fatalistic components. The second sub-section focuses on determining whether the respondents are classified as poor or non-poor using the LPI. The third sub-section focuses on the regression of the perceptions against the respondents' demographics and socio-economic variables such as monthly expenses and the LPI.

For the analysis, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used. According to Smith (2002:12), PCA is a technique used for identifying patterns within collected data. The data is then expressed in a way that highlights the similarities and differences between those patterns. PCA has the advantage of being able to highlight patterns, then extracting the relevant components without losing any information.

In the case of this analysis, PCA was used to extract the three components relevant for this study (fatalistic, structural and individualistic components). Once this was done, a scree plot was used for confirmation. The scree plot confirmed the results of the eigenvalues and total variance, and so the next step was taken. This next step focused on the factor loadings. Each component of the Feagin scale (be it fatalistic, structural or individualistic) has a number of items within it. For instance, the fatalistic component has five items. The factor loadings show the respondents' perceptions. Since each item falls under a specific component, the loadings should confirm this. However, some respondents might perceive a certain item as falling under a different component. The factor loadings are explained further in Section 4.2.

4.2. PERCEPTIONS OF THE CAUSES OF POVERTY OF THE POST-APARTHEID GENERATION

This sub-section focuses on the respondents' perceptions of the causes of poverty. The aim of this sub-section is to determine whether respondents perceive poverty as a consequence of fatalistic, individualistic or structural factors. Principal component analysis (PCA) was used as the factor extraction method. Before the actual analysis can take place, it is vital to test for the sampling adequacy. This is done by running a Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin test. Once this is done, the extraction of factors then takes place. This method extracts a number of factors on the initial eigenvalues. Only factors with eigenvalues equal to, or above one, are extracted. Once the number of factors for the sample has been determined through the eigenvalues, item loadings are rotated into the relevant factors. A calculation of the mean scores for the different factors helps with determining the respondents' perceptions of the causes of poverty. This is explained further in the next section.

4.2.1. Sampling adequacy

There are numerous steps involved in the interpretation of PCA output. Pallant (2001:163) states that the first step is ensuring that correlation coefficients, in the correlation matrix table, equal to or above 0.3. If there is no correlation coefficient corresponding to the required number, then the use of factor analysis should be reconsidered. Once this is done, it is important to check the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO). The KMO should be 0.6 or above. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity should also be checked to make sure that the significant value is 0.05 or below. Correlation coefficients for this data revealed that factor analysis could be used. The data also showed a KMO of above 0.6, along with Bartlett's test below 0.05. These values are shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: KMO and Bartlett's test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.704
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity **Approx Chi-Square**	678.243
df	66
Sig.	.000

Source: Survey data (2013)

4.2.2. Principal component analysis of the perceived causes of poverty

Having tested for the sampling adequacy, the next step is to use PCA to determine the number of components to be extracted. This assists with confirming whether or not all twelve items of the Feagin scale are grouped into three components as suggested by theory. In other words, three components to be loaded should match the three perceptions of the causes of poverty (individualistic, fatalistic and structural). Each of these components should have an eigenvalue of one or above.

Table 4.2: Eigenvalues and total variance explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction of Sums of Squared loadings			Rotation sums of squared loadings		
Component	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	2.988	24.898	24.898	2.988	24.898	24.898	2.384	19.866	19.866
2	2.160	17.998	42.897	2.160	17.998	42.897	2.264	18.868	38.734
3	1.764	14.697	57.594	1.764	14.697	57.594	2.263	18.860	57.594

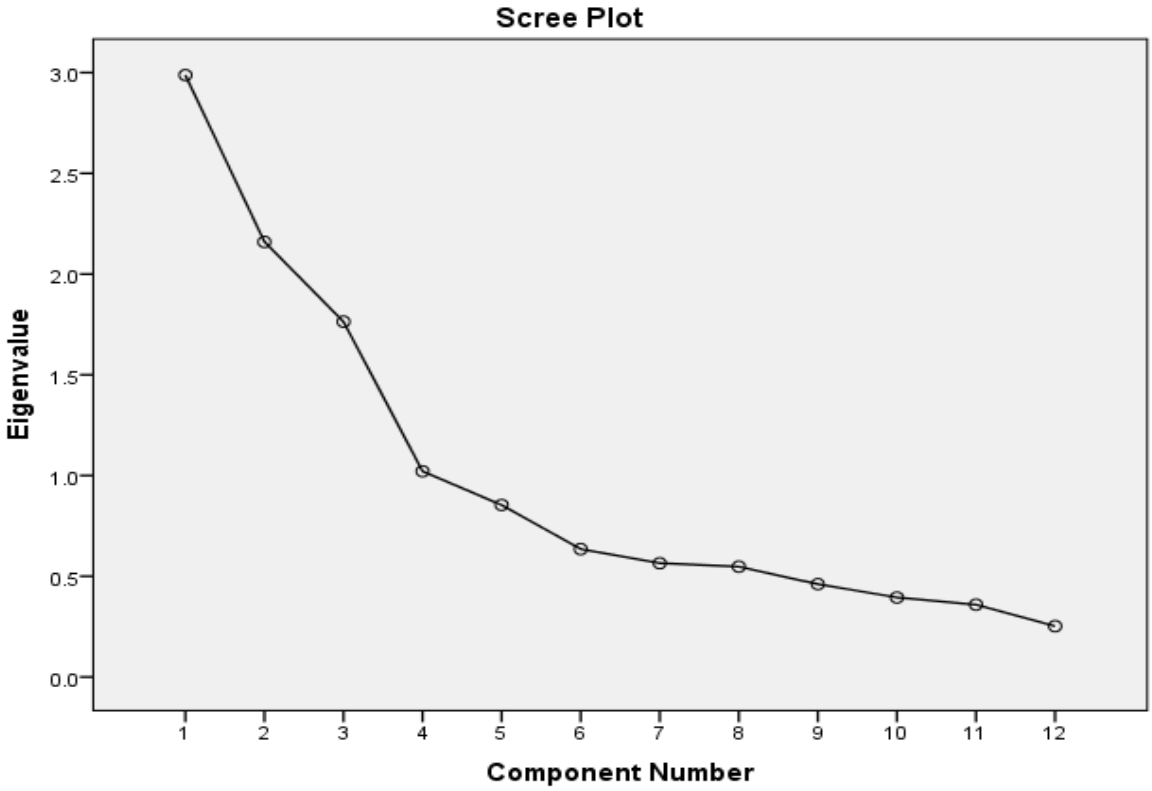
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Source: Survey data (2013)

Table 4.2 shows eigenvalues of loaded components and the total variance explained by these components. The three components explain 57.594% of the common variance. The first component has an eigenvalue of 2.988, which explains 19.866% of the total variance. The second component has an eigenvalue of 2.160, which explains 18.868% of the total variance, while the third component has an eigenvalue of 1.764, which explains 18.860% of the total variance.

A scree plot is used to confirm the outcomes obtained from the total variance. This is the third step, which serves to ensure that any mistakes that might have occurred in step two (Eigenvalues and total variance) are corrected. Pallant (2001:161) explains that sometimes the Kaiser criterion extracts too many components. As such the plot helps to confirm or rectify the results from the Kaiser criterion. In the scree plot, only those values above the point where a change in direction occurs are retained. Figure 4.1 shows the plot for the estimated PCA. Retained components are those above component 4. This implies that only three components are extracted because the fourth component is not considered. Thus, scree plot confirms results from the Kaiser criterion that three component are extracted.

Figure 4.1: Scree plot



Source: Survey data (2013)

The concentration of the fourth step is on the component matrix. This focus on determining all the loadings for the items listed on the extracted components. The initial component matrix revealed that results were unclear for interpretation. However, a rotation of the loadings delivered improved results. A varimax rotation technique, with Kaiser Normalization was used, and the rotation converged in 4 iterations. It is important to note that the rotation process does not lead to a modification of the results; rather, it serves to place the loadings in a pattern that makes better sense, making it easier to interpret. This component matrix is set up to display only those factor loadings above 0.3. It should be noted that the majority of the factor loadings in this matrix are way above 0.3, as shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Factor analysis: item loadings

Reasons why people are poor	Factor 1: Fatalistic	Factor 2: Structural	Factor 3: Individualistic
They have bad fate	**.815**		
They lack luck	**.746**		
They are born inferior	**.719**		
They have encountered misfortunes	**.613**		
They are not motivated because of welfare	**.413**	**.333**	
Distribution of wealth in society is uneven		**.818**	
The society lacks social justice		**.767**	
They are exploited by the rich		**.705**	
They lack opportunities due to the fact that they live in poor families		**.593**	
They lack the ability to manage money			**.889**
They waste their money on inappropriate items			**.847**
They do not actively seek to improve their lives			**.813**
Cronbach's Alpha (standardized item)	**.714**	**.718**	**.816**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. (Rotation converged in 4 iterations)

The most significant indices for the purposes of this study are the fatalistic, structural and individualistic perceptions of the causes of poverty. The focus of this sub-section is determining the perceived causes of poverty of the post-apartheid generation, and so these are the indices that will be used. Each of these three indices is made up of numerous items. The structural index involves four items (distribution of wealth within

the society is uneven, they lack social justice, they are exploited by the rich and the lack of opportunities due to the fact that they live in poor families).

The individualistic index comprises three items (they do not actively seek ways to improve their lives, they waste their money on inappropriate items and they lack the ability to manage money). The fatalistic index on the other hand encompasses five items (they have encountered misfortunes, they lack luck, they are born inferior, they have bad fate and they are not motivated because of welfare). For the confirmation of dimensionality and reliability, reliability statistical tests were performed using factor analysis. This involved principal component analysis, varimax rotation as well as Cronbach's alpha.

As previously revealed, three factors (fatalistic, structural and individualistic) were extracted for analysis. However, the analysis also indicated that these factors needed rotation in order to provide interpretable results. Table 4.3 contains the factor loadings for each index. At the bottom of the table is the cronbach alpha (based on standardized items) for each index. Gliem and Gliem (2003:83) state that Cronbach's alpha aids with the measuring of internal consistency reliability. Tavakol and Dennick (2011:53-55) state that Cronbach's alpha offers a way of determining the internal consistency of a scale.

Internal consistency describes the degree to which the items in the test measure the same concept. The alpha is conveyed by a value between 0 and 1. A valid alpha should be between 0.70 and 0.90. An alpha below 0.70 might be a sign of too few items/questions, while an alpha above 0.90 might be indicative of a redundancy in some items. All three alphas are above 0.70, but still below 0.90. These alphas are strong, and indicative of internal consistency between the items.

Table 4.4 displays the reliability statistics for the three indices combined. Cronbach's alpha (based on standardized items) is above 0.70 and below 0.90. This shows strong alpha coefficients, thus indicating internal consistency among the twelve items belonging to these three indices. As such, the outcome for the factor loadings are indicative of the respondents' true perceptions, and can therefore be considered as reliable for interpretation.

Table 4.4: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.713	.716	12

Source: Survey data (2013)

The fatalistic index is made up of five items listed in Table 4.3. All the Respondents were asked to indicate, using the Likert scale, the level of agreement with each of the five items. This scale ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5), with a higher value deemed to be indicative of a greater importance regarding the reason why people are perceived as poor. Using the first item under the structural index, the following example can be made: people are poor because “they have bad fate”, and the respondent might indicate “strongly disagree”, which is 5 on the Likert scale.

Results from the analysis revealed that of the 12 items, 5 correlated with the fatalistic perceptions of the causes of poverty. The loadings also revealed a correlation with the underlying factor. These items revealed these results: (1) “they have bad fate” (.815), (2) “they lack luck” (.746), (3) “they are born inferior” (.719), (4) “they have encountered misfortunes” (.613) and (5) “they are not motivated because of welfare” (.413). These findings are consistent with the theory regarding the distribution of the items within the components. This is also consistent with the study done by Davids (2010) on the perceptions of poverty of the South African population, as well as that done by Shek (2004).

The structural perceptions of the causes of poverty contain four of the twelve items that make up the three indices. The loadings for these four items displayed a strong correlation with the underlying factor (structural). The results revealed the following information: (1) “distribution of wealth in society is uneven” (.818), (2) “the society lacks social justice” (.767), (3) “they are exploited by the rich” (.705), (4) “they lack opportunities due to the fact that they live in poor families” (.593). However, Table 4.3 also revealed that there is an item that has been attributed to the structural factor although it is a fatalistic item “they are not motivated because of welfare”. This is not consistent with theory related the distribution of the items amongst the components,

nor is it consistent with previous studies such as that done by Davids (2010:122) as well as Shek (2010). As such, the loading is considered as falling under the fatalistic factor because of the higher factor loading. Cronbach's alpha for the fatalistic factor is .714, meaning that these results reliably capture the respondents' perceptions.

The final index (individualistic perceptions of the causes of poverty) makes up three of the twelve items making up the three indices. As with the nine previous items, the items for this index correlated with the underlying factor (individualistic). These are the results for the index: (1) "they lack the ability to manage money" (.889), (2) "they waste their money on inappropriate items" (.847), (3) "they do not actively seek to improve their lives" (8.13). These results are consistent with the theory.

4.2.3. Descriptive analysis of the perceptions of the causes of poverty

The aim of the primary analysis is to examine the preferences of respondents with regard to the perceived causes of poverty in terms of fatalistic, individualistic as well as structural perceptions. For this type of analysis, descriptive statistics must be generated. These statistics include the mean, the standard deviation and the total number of, or percentage of people corresponding to each index. Table 4.5 provides the descriptive statistics for the three indices.

Table 4.5: Descriptive statistics (mean scores)

Indices	N	Percentage	Mean	Std Dev.
Fatalistic	106	52.22	2.40	0.80
Structural	106	52.22	3.18	0.90
Individualistic	104	51.23	3.24	1.09

Source: Survey data (2013)

In order to determine whether the respondents perceive the causes of poverty as fatalistic, structural or individualistic, the standard deviations and means of each of the three indices are compared. This requires calculating the respondent's score for each index. The Feagin scale is made up of twelve items, which are divided into

three components (fatalistic, structural and individualistic). As confirmed by Table4.3, each component is made up of a number of items. The fatalistic component is made up of five items, with a minimum score of 1 and a maximum score of 25. The structural component is made up of four items with a minimum score of 1 and a maximum score of 20, while the individualistic index is made up of three items with a minimum score of 1 and a maximum score of 15.

To determine each respondent's perception of the cause of poverty, the mean score for the entire sample (grand mean) in each index was calculated. This was done by summing up the scores for each of the three components then determining the mean scores. The results revealed that the mean score for the fatalistic component was 2.40, while the mean score for the structural component was 3.18 and that of the individualistic component was 3.24. As such, each respondent with a mean score above 2.40 was listed as perceiving poverty to be the result of fatalistic factors, while each respondent with a mean score above 3.18 was listed as perceiving poverty to be the outcome of structural factors, and each respondent with a mean score above 3.24 was listed as perceiving poverty to be the outcome of individualistic factors.

The results of the descriptive statistics reveal that respondents perceive poverty to be the result of individualistic factors (Mean = 3.24, with a standard deviation of 1.09). Structural factors have the next highest mean score and standard deviation (Mean = 3.18 and standard deviation = 0.90), while fatalistic factors have the lowest mean score as well as standard deviation (Mean = 2.40 and standard deviation = 0.80). Since the differences between the mean scores for the three perceived causes of poverty are moderately low, further analysis is required. The results for the descriptive analysis reveal that the post-apartheid generation view individualistic factors as the main cause of poverty, instead of structural and fatalistic factors. Structural factors are next in line in terms of the perceived causes of poverty. However, it should be noted that the individualistic index has a highest standard deviation; suggesting this index has a relatively high level of variation.

Table 4.6 shows that a greater percentage of the respondents strongly disagree that people are poor as a result of bad fate (52.2%). This high percentage of respondents who strongly disagree is also reflected on the statement "they lack luck" (54.7%),

while only 3% of the respondents strongly agree. There were more respondents who strongly agree with the statement that people are poor because “they are born inferior” (35.5%). On the other hand, there were more respondents who agree that people are poor as a result of misfortunes (28.6%), than there were respondents who strongly disagree (21.2%).

A high percentage of respondents agree that people are poor as a consequence of the uneven distribution of wealth within the society (36.9%), while only 6.4% strongly disagree. There is also a high percentage of respondents who agree that people are poor as a result of the lack of social justice within the society (31.5%), while 7.4% of the respondents strongly disagree with this statement.

When it comes to the view that people are poor because of being exploited by the rich, there is almost the same percentage of people who disagree as there are people who are not sure (26.6% and 26.1%, respectively). However, a great percentage of respondents agree with the statement that people are poor as a result of a lack of opportunities due to living with a poor family. There are respondents agree with the views that people are poor as a consequence of an “inability to manage money” (28.6%), “wasting money on inappropriate items” (27.1%), and “don’t actively seek to improve their lives” (29.1%).

Table 4.6: Perceptions of the causes of poverty: the percentages

Reasons why people are poor	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree
Fatalistic Perceptions					
They have bad fate	52.2%	26.6%	14.3%	3.0%	3.9%
They lack luck	54.7%	23.6%	12.3%	6.4%	3.0%
They are born inferior	35.5%	24.1%	19.2%	15.3%	5.9%
They have encountered misfortunes	21.2%	18.7%	22.7%	28.6%	8.9%
They are not motivated because of welfare	10.8%	18.2%	21.7%	35.5%	13.8%
Structural Perception					
Distribution of wealth in society is uneven	6.4%	9.9%	22.7%	36.9%	24.1%
The society lacks social justice	7.4%	19.7%	27.1%	31.5%	14.3%
They are exploited by the rich	18.2%	26.6%	26.1%	19.2%	9.9%
They lack opportunities due to the fact that they live in poor families	15.3%	25.6%	12.8%	29.1%	17.2%
Individualistic Perceptions					
They lack the ability to manage money	8.4%	20.2%	21.2%	28.6%	21.7%
They waste their money on inappropriate items	17.7%	21.2%	22.2%	27.1%	11.8%
They do not actively seek to improve their lives	10.3%	12.3%	24.1%	29.1%	24.1%

Source: Survey data (2013)

Using the mean scores and standard deviation, the results have revealed that the post-apartheid generation perceives poverty to be the outcome of individualistic factors, followed by structural factors. However, these results are not conclusive. Ranking the results first by the number of respondents, then by the means scores produces a different outcome. Figure 4.2 shows that the structural component and

the fatalistic component both have the same number of respondents (106), though the structural component has the highest mean score (M = 3.18), and M = 2.40 for the fatalistic component.

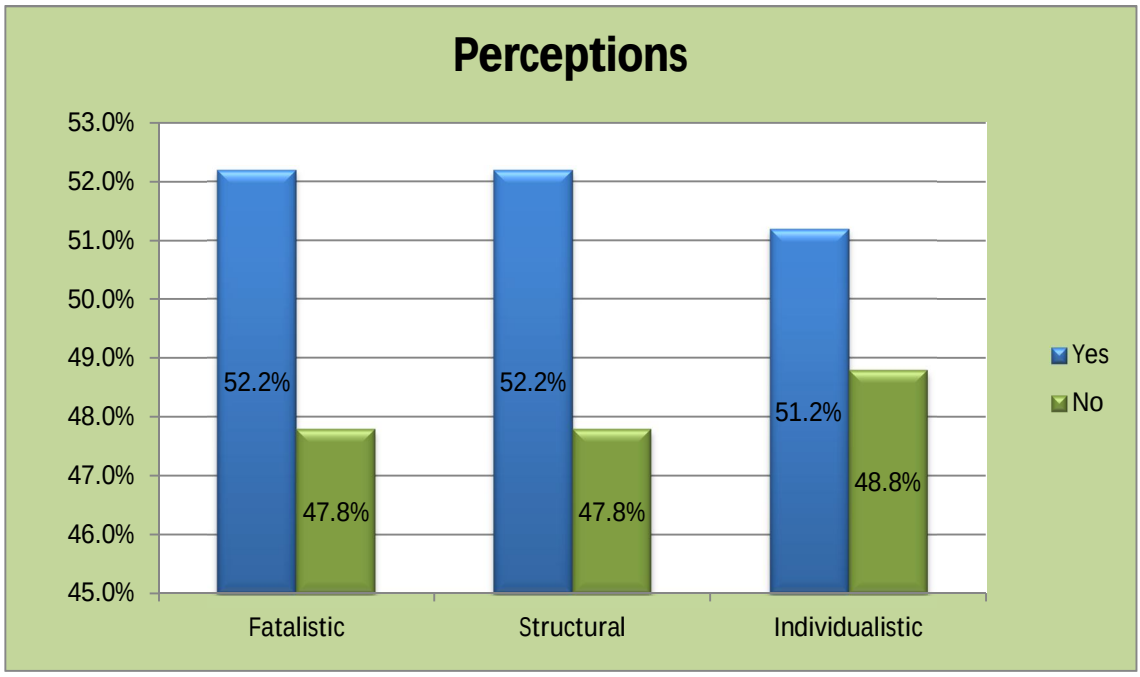
The results point to the structural as well as fatalistic components as the perceived causes of poverty for the post-apartheid generation, followed by the individualistic component. These findings are in line with a study done by Nasser *et al*. (2002:111), which revealed that students in South Africa were more likely to attribute poverty structural factors. This study also revealed that white and coloured students were more likely to blame fatalistic factors. However, a study by Hunt (2004:843), on the other hand, revealed that African Americans and Latinos were more likely to attribute poverty to structural as well as individualistic factors, while white Americans were less likely to blame these two factors. These studies reveal that respondents of different ages tend to lean towards structural factors when it comes to the perceived causes of poverty.

4.2.4. Graphical analysis and correlation of indices and demographics

This section focused on graphical analysis and correlation of the indices with socio-economic variables, as well as with demographic variables. The graphical analysis is done on Section 4.2.4.1. This analysis shows the gender, race, age, the home area, the LPI, and employment status of the respondents' parents for each of the three indices.

4.2.4.1. Graphical analysis

Figure 4.2: The perceived causes of poverty (2013)



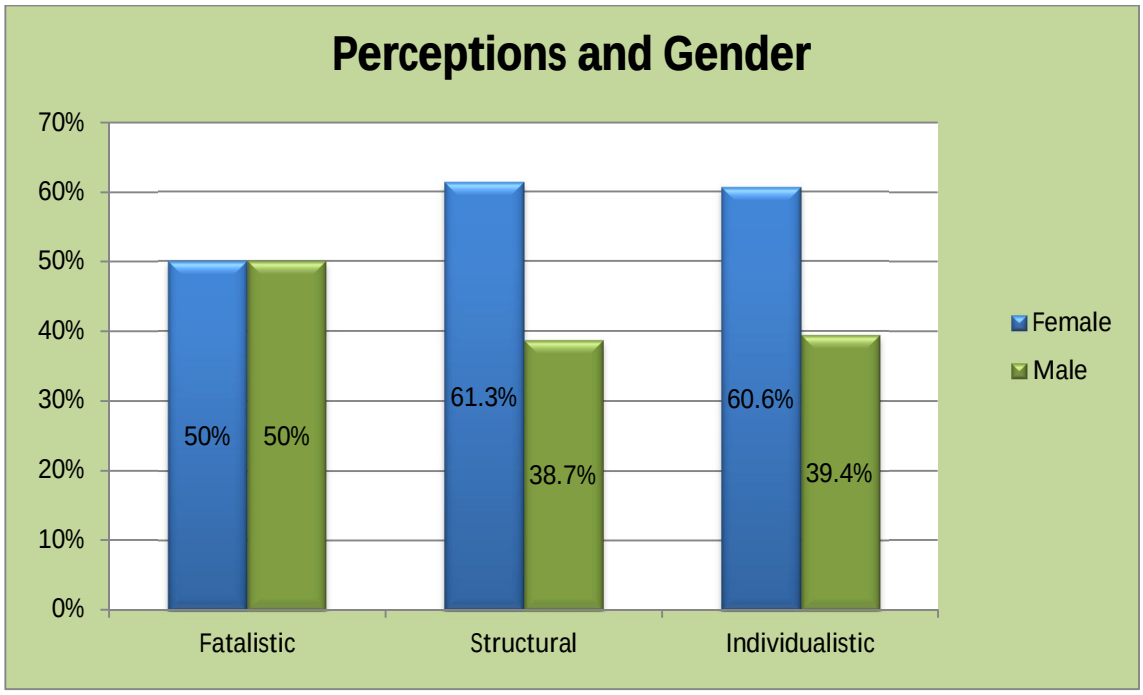
Source: Survey data (2013)

The results of the analysis revealed that 52.2% of the respondents perceived poverty as the consequence of fatalistic factors. This percentage is the same for respondents who perceive poverty as the consequence of structural factors (52.2%). Only 51.2% of the respondents viewed poverty as the consequence of individualistic factors. Figure 4.2 shows the perception of the respondents in percentages. The results are similar to findings in a study by Davids (2010:126), who found that South Africans tend to attribute poverty to structural factors over individualistic factors and fatalistic factors.

In a study about the perceptions of poverty amongst social work and non-social work students done by Ljubotina and Ljubotina (2007:741-749) it was found that social work and non-social work students attribute poverty to structural factors. However, this study made use of a scale that, at the time, had been recently created (the Attribution of Poverty Scale) which is made up of four factors: Individual causes (e.g. lacking skill), micro-environmental causes (e.g. financial situation of the family),

structural/societal causes (e.g. uneven distribution of income) as well as fatalistic causes (e.g. bad luck).

Figure 4.3: Perceptions and Gender (2013)



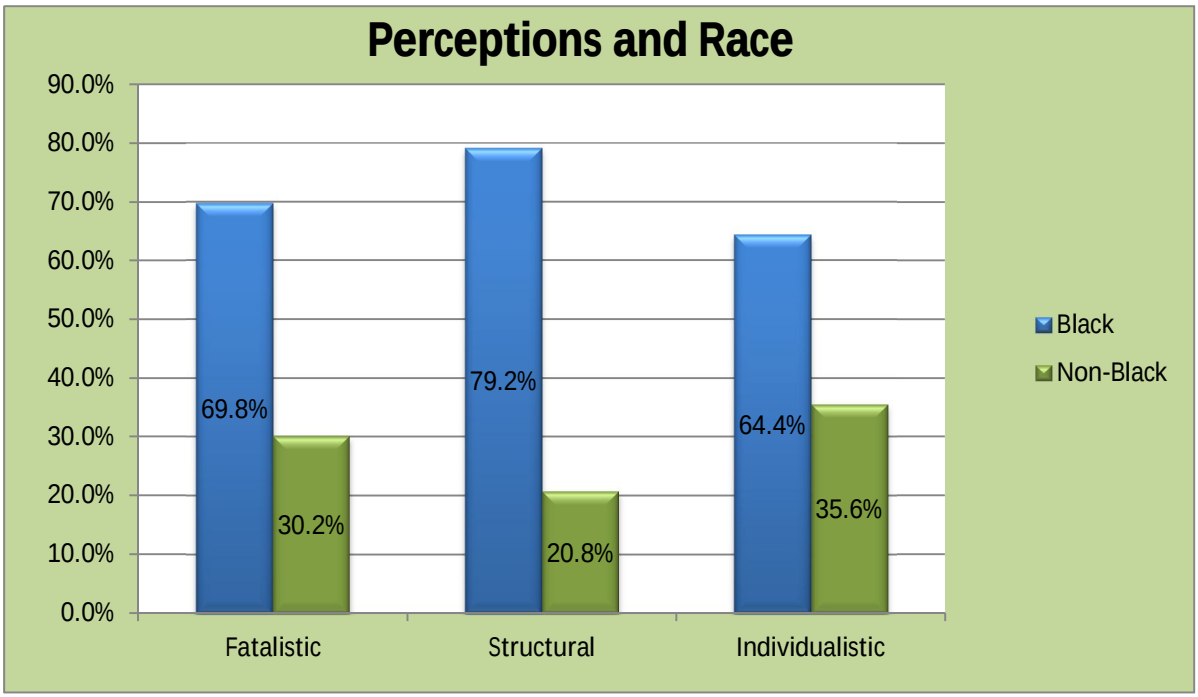
Source: Survey data (2013)

Figure 4.3 shows the results of the perceptions of the causes of poverty according to gender. These results revealed that of the 106 respondents who perceive poverty as the result of fatalistic factors, 50% were female, and the other 50% were males. On the other hand, 61.3% of the 106 respondents who perceive poverty as the result of structural factors were female, and only 38.7% were male. Females made up 60.6% of the 104 respondents who perceive poverty as the result of individualistic factors, and only 39.4% were male. The results also revealed that 69.8% of the respondents who perceive poverty to be the consequence of fatalistic factors were black, as compared with 30.2% of white respondents who shared this perception. The results of this analysis are contrary to the study done by Nasser, Singhal and Abouchedid (2005:1-13), which found no differences in the perceived causes of poverty between male and female respondents.

Figure 4.4 illustrates the percentage of respondents according to perceived causes of poverty. This figure shows that there was a high percentage of black respondents who perceived poverty as a consequence of structural factors (79.2%), as compared to 20.8% of non-black respondents. Although the percentage of black respondents whose perceptions of the causes of poverty leaned towards individualistic factors was still higher than the percentage of non-black respondents who shared this view; this percentage is lower than in the two other factors (64.4%). On the other hand, the percentage of non-black respondents who perceived poverty as the result of individualistic factors was much higher than in the two other factors (35.6%).

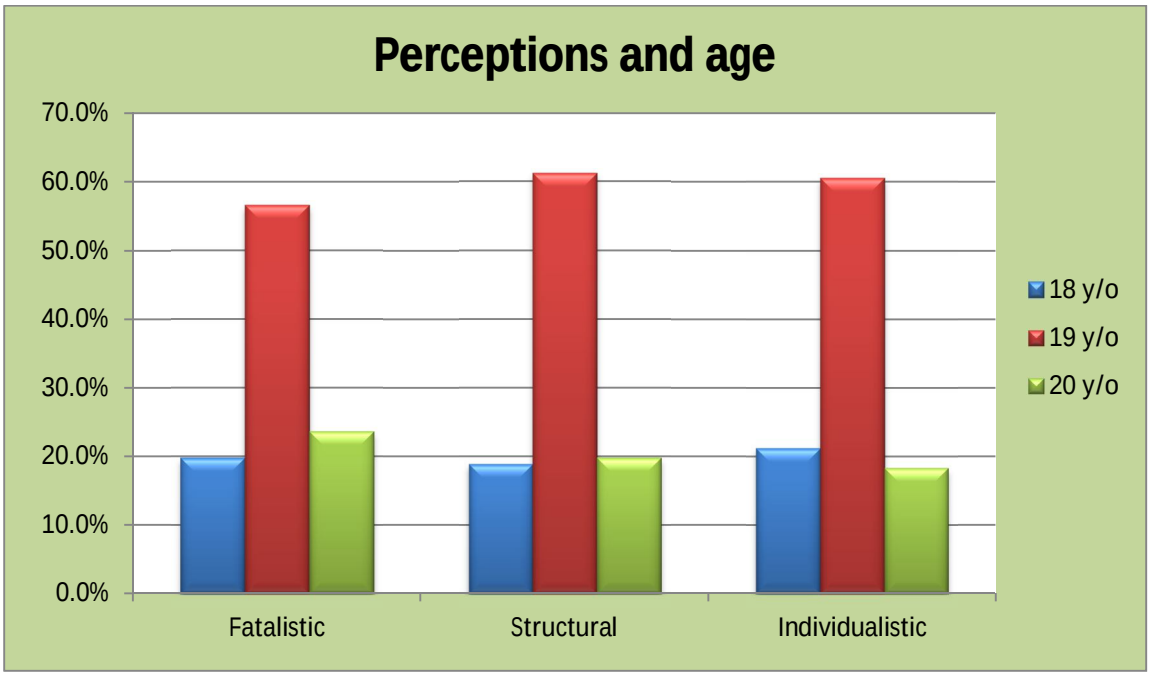
This makes suggests that non-black respondents viewed poverty as mainly the result of individualistic factors, while black respondents tended to attribute poverty to structural factors. A study by Davids (2010:158) found that, compared to black respondents, Coloured and Indian respondents were more likely to attribute poverty to structural factors. This is contrary to finding in a study by Hunt (1996:312) measuring the perceived causes of poverty amongst Americans. Hunt (1996:312) found that African-Americans were more likely than other races to attribute poverty to structural factors.

Figure 4.4: Perceptions and race (2013)



Source: Survey data (2013)

Figure 4.5: Perceptions and age (2013)



Source: Survey data (2013)

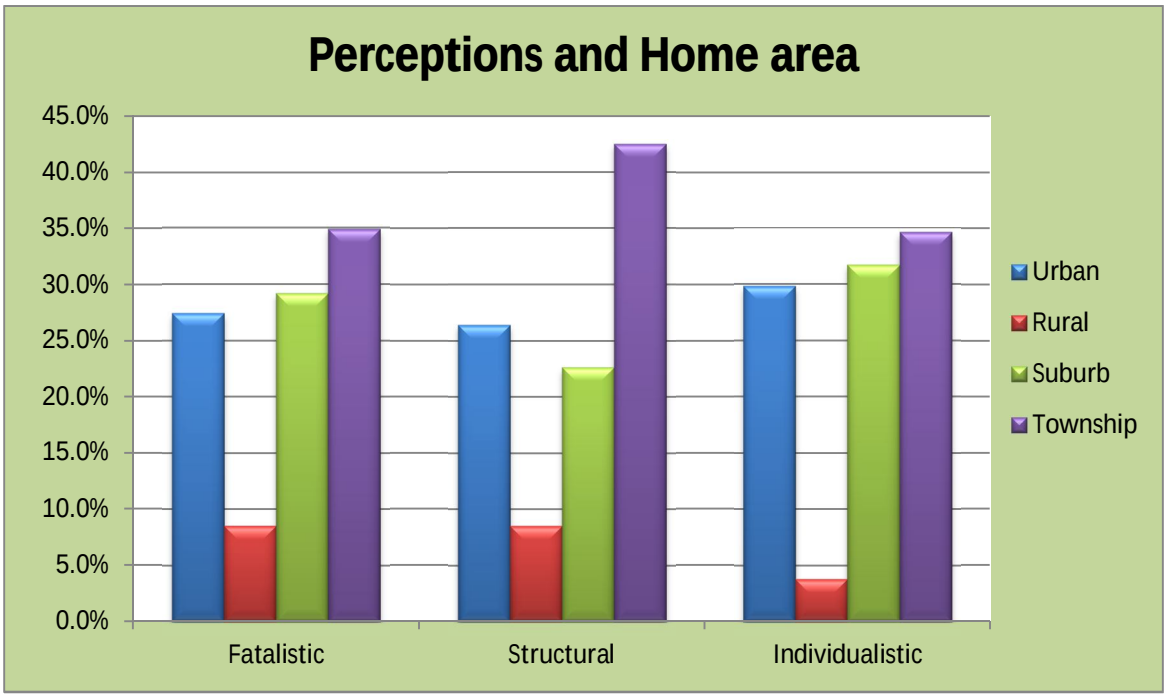
Figure 4.5 is an illustration of the perceived causes of poverty according to the age of the respondents. The data revealed that amongst the respondents aged 18 years, 19.8% perceived poverty as the result of fatalistic factors, while 56.6% of the 19 year old respondents attributed poverty to fatalistic factors, and 23.6% of the 20 year old respondents attributed poverty to fatalistic factors. When it comes to poverty as the result of structural factors, 61.3% of 19 year old respondents indicated agreement with this view; while 18.9% of 18 year old respondents indicated an agreement with this view, and only 19.8% of respondents aged 20 years viewed poverty as a result of individualistic factors.

Compared with the fatalistic index, fewer 18 and 20 year old respondents perceive poverty as a consequence of structural factors, while a higher percentage of 19 year old respondents perceive poverty as the result of structural factors. According to the results, 4.7% more of 19 year old respondents attributed poverty to structural factors, compared with the fatalistic factor. While the percentage is still high, the data shows that 60.6% of 19 year old respondents perceive poverty as a result of individualistic factors. This is 0.7% less than the percentage of 19 year old respondents who

attributed poverty to structural factors. The percentage of 18 year old respondents who perceive poverty as the consequence of individualistic factors (21.2%) is higher than the percentage of 18 year old respondents who perceive poverty as the result of structural factors. On the other hand, fewer 20 year old respondents attributed poverty to individualistic factors (18.3%), as compared to those who attributed poverty to structural factors.

However, part of the reason for the high percentages of 19 year old respondents who attribute poverty to the three indices might be that the sample contained a higher percentage of 19 year old respondents, than it did 18 and 20 year old respondents. Otherwise, these results reveal a degree of similarity with studies by Feagin (1972:101-129) and Wollie (2009:251-272), where it was found that there were no major differences in perceptions of the causes of poverty among young people. This was viewed as the result of the respondents' developmental age category.

Figure 4.6: Perceptions and the home area (2013)



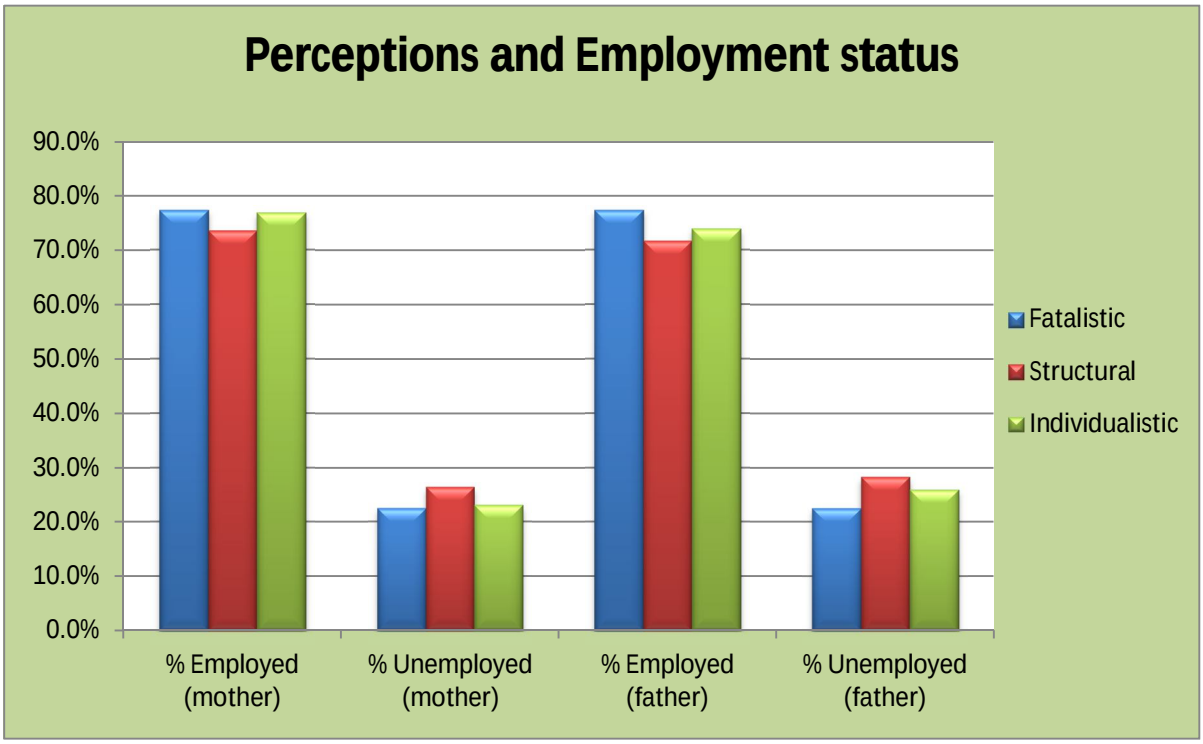
Source: Survey data (2013)

Figure 4.6 is an illustration of the perceptions of the causes of poverty based on the home area (geographic location) of the respondents. The results show that there are as many respondents whose home area is in a rural area, who perceive poverty as a result of fatalistic factors, as there are respondents who perceive poverty as a result of structural factors (8.5% for both). Only 3.8% of respondents with homes in a rural area attributed poverty to individualistic factors.

The percentages of respondents who perceive poverty as a result of fatalistic, structural or individualistic factors are almost similar (27.4% for fatalistic, 26.4% for structural and 29.8% for individualistic). Fewer respondents whose home area is in the suburbs blamed poverty on structural factors (22.6%), compared with 29.2% of those who attributed poverty to fatalistic factors, and 31.7% who attributed poverty to individualistic factors. This is in line data that revealed that non-black respondents attributed poverty to individualistic factors, and majority of non-black respondents reside in the suburbs.

The difference in the percentage of respondents whose home area is in the township, and who perceive poverty as result of fatalistic factors or individualistic factors is not too great (34.9% and 34.6%, respectively). On the other hand, the results reveal a high percentage of respondents who perceive poverty as a result of structural factors, and whose home area is in the township (42.5%). As with the respondents who reside in the suburb, this result is in line with the results of the perceptions of the causes of poverty and race, where it was found that black respondents tend to attribute poverty to structural factors, and in this case, all the respondents who reside in the township and perceive poverty as a result of structural factors are black. These findings are similar to those of Davids (2010:159), and Mattes *et al*. (2002).

Figure 4.7: Perceptions and employment status of parents (2013)



Source: Survey data (2013)

Employment is an essential source of income. Income levels impact the way in which people view poverty. Kornblum *et al*. (cited by Wollie, 2009:367), explain that income levels are often an indicator of people's social class; as such, it is an important socio-economic variable. The results reveal that 77.4% of respondents with an employed mother perceive poverty as a consequence of fatalistic factors, while 73.6% view poverty as a consequence of structural factors and 76.9% perceive poverty as a result of individualistic factors.

Surprisingly, a high percentage of respondents with unemployed mothers attributed poverty to structural factors (26.4%), while 22.6% attributed poverty to fatalistic factors, and 23.1% attributed poverty to individualistic factors. The percentages of respondents with employed fathers mirror those of the respondents with employed mothers, with 77.4% attributing poverty to fatalistic factors, 71.7% attributing poverty to structural factors, and 74.0% to individualistic factors. Once again, the percentage of respondents with unemployed fathers, and who attribute poverty to structural factors is higher than with the other indices (28.3% for structural, 22.6% for fatalistic and 26.0% for individualistic). These results are similar to the findings of Bullock

(2006), who found that poor people, or those with low incomes, tend to attribute poverty to structural factors.

All in all, the results have revealed that often, people are likely to attribute poverty to structural factors, regardless of age, gender or income levels. However, this does not mean this will always be the case for everyone. Further analysis might lead to results that are different. Section 4.2.4.2 focuses on the correlation of the three indices with demographic variables, as well as socio-economic variables.

4.2.4.2. Correlation of indices and independent variables

A correlation matrix provides an overview of the statistically significant variables. A correlation matrix affords the researcher a deeper understanding of the relationship between variables. For instance, by correlating variables, the research learns about the degree of the impact that variables have on each other. Such an impact might be positive or negative. Regardless of the direction of the relationship (whether negative or positive), the researcher learns the level at which each relationship is statistically significant, For instance, the relationship/correlation between the structural index and the respondents' gender is negative, and significant at the 1% level of significance. The correlation is significant at a 1%, 5% or 10% level of significance.

Table 4.7: Correlation of indices and demographics

	Faculty	Age	Gender	Race	Home language	Current area of residence
Fatalistic index	**(r)**	.075	.030	-.183**	-.037	-.029	.081
	Sig	.285	.674	.009	.596	.680	.251
Structural index	**(r)**	.106	-.017	.057	.181**	.172*	-.013
	Sig	.133	.811	.417	.010	.014	.858
Individualistic index	**(r)**	.022	-.078	.041	-.159*	-.222**	.162*
	Sig	.761	.267	.564	.024	.001	.021

*.Correlation is significant at 0.05 level; **.Correlation is significant at 0.01 level

Source: Survey data (2013)

Table 4.7 displays the correlation between the structural index, individualistic index, fatalistic index and the respondents' demographic information. These demographics include the faculty, age, gender, race and home language of the respondents. The bivariate correlation revealed a significant, but negative relationship between the fatalistic index and the respondents' gender (-.183). This means that being a female respondent decreased the likelihood of viewing poverty as the result of fatalistic factors. This relationship is significant at 0.01 level of significance.

The output also revealed that the fatalistic index has no statistically significant correlation with other demographic variables like faculty and age. There are two significant correlations between the structural index and demographics. Table 4.7 reveals a positive and significant relationship between the structural index and the respondents' race (.181). Being a black respondent, as compared to being a non-black, increased the likelihood of perceiving poverty as the result of structural factors. This relationship is significant at 0.01 level of significance.

Another significant relationship is between the structural index and the respondents' home language. This relationship is positive (.172), and significant at 0.05 level. The relationship between the individualistic index and the respondents' race is negative (-.159), as is the relationship between the individualistic index and the respondents' home language (-.222). These relationships are significant at 0.05 and 0.01 levels of significance, respectively.

These results reveal that being a SeSotho speaker residing in the township decreases the likelihood of perceiving poverty as the result of individualistic factors. This is in line with Figure 4.3, which revealed that non-black respondents were more likely than black respondents to view poverty as the result of individualistic factors. The results also revealed a positive and significant relationship between the individualistic index and the respondents' current area of residence (.162), significant at 0.05 level. Non-blacks form a large percentage of respondents who perceive poverty as a result of individualistic factors, and whose current area of residence was the suburbs; therefore the correlation is in line with the data.

Table 4.8: Correlation of indices and demographics

		Home area	Area of high school attended	Number of family members	Solely dependent on parents?	Transport to campus
Individualistic Index	**(r)**	-.023	-.061	-.040	-.138*	-.095
	Sig	.745	.387	.569	.049	.175
Structural Index	**(r)**	.141*	.048	.027	-.047	.068
	Sig	.044	.500	.705	.507	.338
Fatalistic Index	**(r)**	-.029	-.027	.037	.022	-.039
	Sig	.684	.706	.599	.761	.577

*.Correlation is significant at 0.05 level

Source: Survey data (2013)

Table 4.8 displays the correlation between the three perceptions as well as some additional demographic variables. According to this output, there is a negative but significant correlation between the individualistic index and the number of people that the respondents are dependent on (-.138), significant at 0.05 level. There is no significant correlation between the structural index and the respondents' home area, or area of the high school attended. Nor is there any significant relationship between the structural index and the number of family members that the respondents have, or the form of transportation used to get to campus. This is also the case with the relationship between the fatalistic index and any of the demographic variables listed in Table 4.8.

Table 4.9: Correlation of socio-economic variables and perceptions

	Food	Toiletries	Transport	Clothing	Stationery	Entertainment
Individualistic index (r)	.016	.050	.030	.009	.018	.160*
Sig	.825	.475	.668	.898	.797	.023
Structural index (r)	-.016	-.131***	-.154*	.010	.053	-.150*
Sig	.388	.063	.028	.884	.450	.033
Fatalistic index (r)	-.040	.033	.018	.121	.164*	.200**
Sig	.566	.642	.801	.087***	.019	.004

*. Correlation significant at 0.05 level ***. Correlation significant at 0.1 level

**. Correlation significant at 0.01 level

Table 4.9 shows the correlation between the individualistic index, the structural index, the fatalistic index and the monthly expenses for the respondents. According to this correlation matrix, the most significant relationships are between the fatalistic index, the structural index and the expenses. For instance, there is a negative relationship between the structural index and the amount spent on toiletries (-.131), significant at 10% level. In fact, the relationship between the structural index and the expenses is negative and significant at levels above 5% (-.154, significant at 5% for transport and -.150, significant at 5% for amount spent on entertainment monthly).

The significant relationship between the fatalistic index and the expenses is positive, and significant a 1%, 5% and 10% levels. For instance, the relationship between the fatalistic index and the amount spent on clothing is positive (.121, significant at 10% level), the relationship between the fatalistic index and the monthly amount spent on stationery is positive (.164, significant at 5% level). Significant at 1%, the relationship

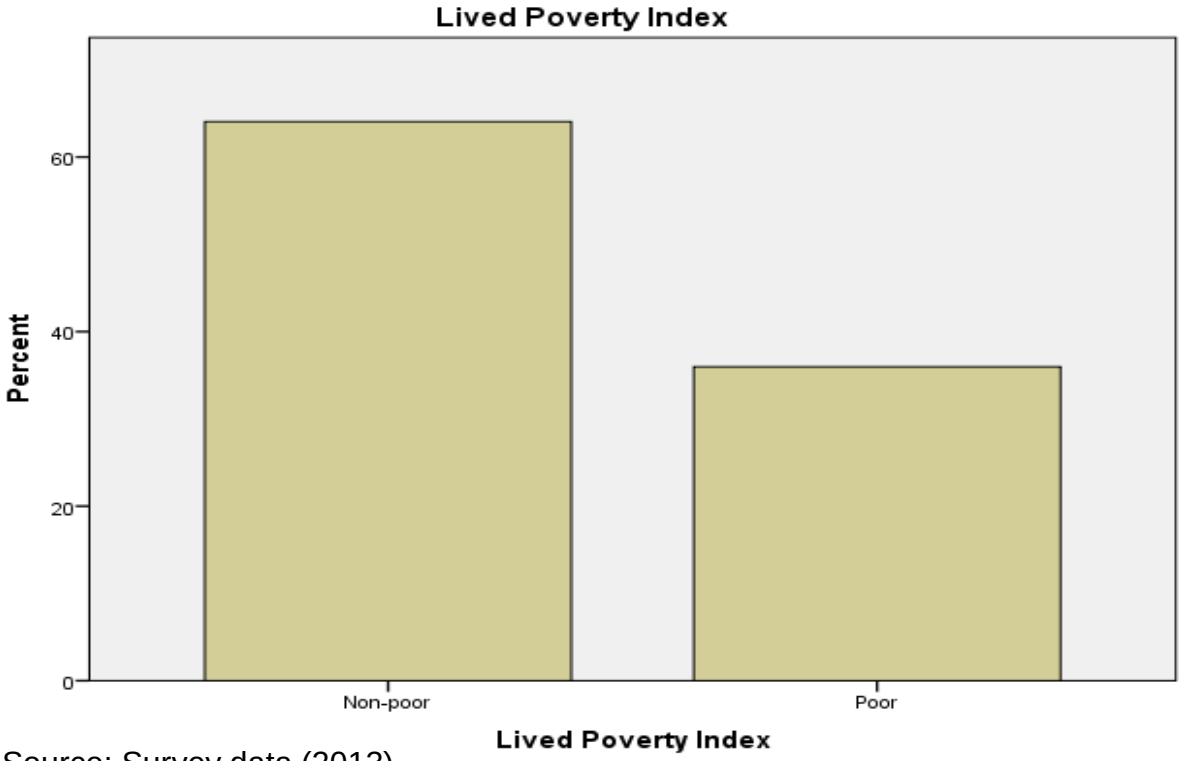
the fatalistic index and the amount spent on entertainment monthly is also positive (.200).

4.3. THE LIVED POVERTY INDEX AND PERCEIVED CAUSES OF POVERTY

4.3.1. The lived poverty index as the poverty line

Maximum likelihood and direct oblimin rotation were used for analysing the data from the LPI. At 0.93, Cronbach's alpha is a bit too high, and might indicate a redundancy in some of the six items. This does not mean that the results should be discarded however, it merely suggest that caution during interpretation is necessary.

Figure 4.8: The lived poverty index (2013)



Source: Survey data (2013)

A descriptive analysis of the LPI revealed that the grand mean was 1.81. This mean was used as the poverty line, which helped with classifying respondents as either poor, or non-poor. As such, any respondent with a mean below or equal to1.81 was classified as non-poor, while any respondent with a mean greater than 1.81 was classified as poor. Of the 203 respondents, 73 respondents had a mean above 1.81, which is above 1.81, thus leading to the conclusion that these respondents are poor.

The remaining 130 respondents had a mean below 1.81, and were thus classified as non-poor.

Figure 4.8 shows the lived poverty index. This index is a reflection of the percentage of respondents who are considered either poor or non-poor. According to this figure, over 60 % of the respondents were considered non-poor, using a poverty line of 1.81. The remaining percentage of respondents was considered poor. Perceptions of the causes of poverty seem to be influenced by the respondent's lived poverty index. The results also revealed that 47.9% of the respondents classified as poor were female; the remaining 52.1% were males. Table 4.9 shows the mean scores for each item of the LPI.

Table 4.10: Mean scores

Item	**Mean**	**Std dev.**
Enough food to eat	1.81	1.249
Enough clean water for home	1.64	1.260
Medicines or medical treatment	1.74	1.084
Electricity in your home	2.07	1.280
Enough fuel to cook your food	1.68	1.164
A cash income	1.90	1.192
	1.81	**1.043**

Source: Survey data (2013)

Table 4.10 shows the mean scores for the six items that make up the LPI. Two of the items display mean-scores above the grand mean. The mean score for electricity in the home is 2.07, while that of cash income is 1.90. This suggests that most, if not all the respondents can be considered food poor, as well as electricity poor. It should be noted however that South Africa's power company, Eskom introduced mandatory power cuts in order to keep electricity usage below a certain level. This might be one

of the main reasons why some respondents did not have power sometimes. Other reasons might include not being able to pay the electricity bill, or living in an area where Eskom has not connected the electricity. The last reason is most likely for those respondents whose homes are in a rural area.

However, before definitely defining people as poor based solely on the 1.81 poverty line, it is important to consider other data. For instance, using the mean-scores, the data shows that the respondents are income and electricity poor. Looking at the responses for electricity availability in the home, the data shows that 47.3 % of the respondents replied “never” when it comes to the number of times there has not been electricity in the home. Only 6.9 % of the respondents stated that during the past year, there was no access at all, to electricity in the home.

These are the respondents who can be classified as electricity poor. On the other hand, only 10.3 % of the respondents have gone without electricity many times. Still, this kind of access does not mean that the respondent can be classified as electricity poor. A combination of the percentage of respondents who replied “many times” with the respondents who replied “always” increases the percentage of respondents who can be classified as electricity poor to 17.2 %.

Table 4.11: Electricity in the home

	Frequency	Percentage
Never	96	47.3
Once or twice	46	22.7
Several times	26	12.8
Many times	21	10.3
Always	14	6.9
Total	**203**	**100.0**

Source: Survey data (2013)

The same could be said about cash income and respondents being income poor. According to Table 4.11, 54.7 % of respondents replied “never” when it comes to the number of times there had not been enough cash income. Only 4.9 % replied

“always”, while 6.9 % replied “many times”. Based on this information, only 4.9 % of the respondents can be classified as income poor due to not always having a cash income. However, combining the number of respondents who replied “many times” with those who replied “always” increases the percentage of the respondents who can be classified as income poor to 17.2 %.

Table 4.12: A cash income

	Frequency	Valid Percentage
Never	111	54.7
Once or twice	36	17.7
Several times	32	15.8
Many times	14	6.9
Always	10	4.9
Total	**203**	**100.0**

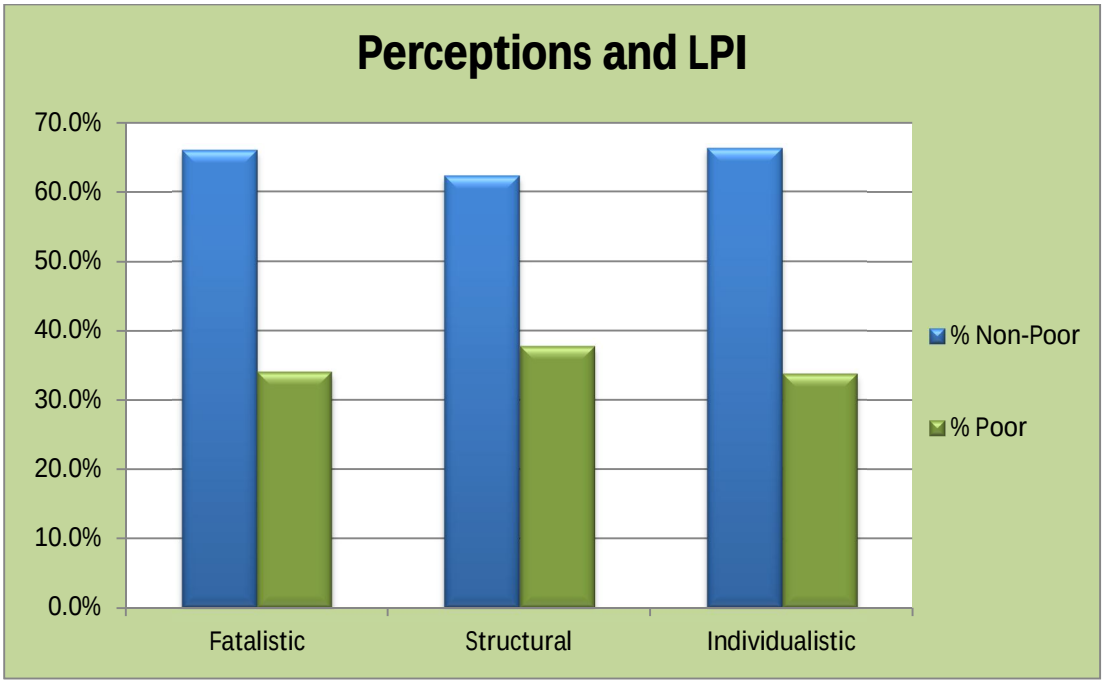
Source: Survey data (2013)

Figure 4.9 illustrates the perceptions of the causes of poverty according to the LPI. This figure reveals that 66.0% of non-poor respondents perceive poverty to be the result of fatalistic factors, while only 34.0% of the poor respondents perceive poverty to be the consequence of fatalistic factors. The figure also reveals that 62.3% of non-poor respondents perceive poverty to be the result of structural factors, and only 37.7% of the poor respondents perceive poverty to be the consequence of structural factors. On the other hand, 66.3% of the non-poor respondents attribute poverty to individualistic factors, and only 33.7% of the poor respondents attribute poverty to individualistic factors.

Based on this figure, non-poor respondents tend to attribute poverty to individualistic factors, followed by fatalistic factors, then structural factors. On the other hand, poor respondents tend to attribute poverty to structural factors, followed by fatalistic factors, and individualistic factors. These finding are in line with the findings of Bullock (2006), who found that poor people are more likely to attribute poverty to structural factors. The findings of Wollie (2009:267) were contrary to the findings of this study. Wollie (2009:267) found that non-poor respondents were more likely than

poor respondents to attribute poverty to structural factors. The findings of Wollie (2009:251-272) were similar to the findings of Nasser and Abouchedid (2001:1-11).

Figure 4.9: Perceptions and the lived poverty index (2013)



Source: Survey data (2013)

4.4. DEMOGRAPHICS, SOCIO-ECONOMIC VARIABLES AND PERCEPTIONS OF THE CAUSES OF POVERTY

Descriptive analysis showed that there appear to be some level of association between socio-economic variables and demographics, and the perceptions of the causes of poverty. However, the effect of these variables on these perceptions of the causes of poverty has to be tested. This sub-section of the analysis concentrates on use of regression analysis to determine the effect of socio-economic variables and demographics on the perceptions of the causes of poverty of the post-apartheid generation.

These socio-economic variables include the lived poverty index, the employment status of the respondent's parents, and the respondent's monthly expenses. Demographics include factors such as faculty, gender, age, home area, whether or not the respondent is solely dependent on parents, as well as the number of family members. With the aid of Stata 11, a linear regression model was used to analyse

the data. Due to the fact that there are three dependent variables (fatalistic index, structural index along with the individualistic index), three different regressions were run.

Initially, respondents were required to choose from a list of four options regarding the amount of money spent on certain items on a monthly basis. These items included food, toiletries, transport, clothing, stationery as well as entertainment. The amount of money spent on each of these items was indicated within ranges. For instance, the choice for food was (1) 200-300, (2) 300-400, (3) 400-500 and (4) 500-1000. However, since linear regression can only result in the right output when the input makes sense, the input was altered. For each choice, the average amount was utilised. This means that the new options were a reflection of the average amount the respondent selected, e.g. (1) 250, (2) 350, (3) 450 and (4) 750. So, if the initial choice the respondent had indicated was option two, the new amount entered as the input for analysis would be 350, indicating the average amount the respondents spends on food per month.

4.4.1. The regression analysis

4.4.1.1. Demographic variables and perceptions of the causes of poverty

To avoid multicollinearity some variables were not included in the regression. For instance, the data revealed that those respondents who resided in the township were black, and the majority of those spoke SeSotho. White respondents were more likely to speak Afrikaans, and reside in the suburbs. As such, the regression was done with the assumption that the respondents' home area provided some indication of the race of the respondents, as well as the language spoken at home. The same was done with the employment status of the respondents' parents.

Based on the data, there were more respondents with deceased or unemployed fathers, than there were respondents with deceased or unemployed mothers. As such, more focus was given to the employment status of the respondents' mother. Since the majority of the respondents were South African (99.0%), as such; this was not considered an important variable for the regression.

The fatalistic index was the first to be regressed. This is reflected as the dependent variable and its results are in Table 4.13. Factors such as, gender, whether or not the respondent was solely dependent on parents, as well as the mode of transport used to get to campus had a significant effect on the fatalistic perception of the causes of poverty. The coefficient for age category is .1160493 and is significant at 1% level of significance. This implies that for each increase in age (from 18 years to 19 years, for instance), there tend to be a .1160493 rise fatalistic index, ceteris paribus. On the other hand, gender had a negative effect (significant at the 1% level of significance) on the fatalistic index. This means that being a female respondent, as compared to being a male respondent, decreases the fatalistic index by .3334011, ceteris paribus.

The relationship between the dependent variable and the respondent's dependence on parents, as the transport used to get to get campus also proved to be significant. The regression revealed that being dependent on other people other than parents, as compared to depending solely on parents, led to a .506271 decline in the fatalistic index, ceteris paribus. The effect of this decline was significant at the 1% level of significance. Using taxis as the mode of transport, as compared other forms of transportation, led to a.148627 increase in the fatalistic index, ceteris paribus. The effect of this increase was significant at the 5% level of significance.

Table 4.13: Fatalistic index regression results

Fatalistic index	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P>|t|
Faculty	.2234809	.1758297	1.27	0.205
Age	.1160493	.0136926	8.48	0.000
Gender	-.3334011	.1142478	-2.92	0.004
Home area	.0446681	.0479884	0.93	0.353
Number of family members	-.0025703	.1018765	-0.03	0.980
Solely dependent on parents?	-.506271	.1715781	-2.95	0.004
Transport to campus	.148627	.0657418	2.26	0.025

Source: Survey data (2013)

Regressing the structural index and demographics revealed only one statistically significant relationship between the dependent variable (structural index) and the independent variables. This significant relationship was between the structural index and the respondents' age. According to the data, an increase in the respondent's age (from 18 years to 19 years, for example) resulted in an increase of.1716445 in the structural index, ceteris paribus. The relationship between the dependent variable and the respondent's age was significant at the 1% level of significance. This regression revealed no other statistically significant relationships between the structural index and the independent variables. Table 4.14 shows the regression between the structural index and the independent variables.

Table 4.14: Structural index regression results

Structural index	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P>|t|
Faculty	.170865	.2047857	0.83	0.405
Age	.1716445	.0159476	10.76	0.000
Gender	-.0457429	.1330624	-0.34	0.731
Home area	.053473	.0558913	0.96	0.340
Number of family members	-.0758899	.1186537	-0.64	0.523
Solely dependent on parents?	-.2593451	.1998339	-1.30	0.196
Transport to campus	-.0506707	.0765682	-0.66	0.509

Source: Survey data (2013)

The regression for the individualistic index revealed two significant relationships between the dependent and the independent variables. As with the previous two regressions, age has also proven to be statistically significant in the regression with the individualistic index. In this regression, a one unit increase in the age of the respondent (from 18 years to 19 years, for instance) led to a .1417553 rise in the individualistic index, ceteris paribus. This relationship was significant at the 1% level of significance.

The other significant relationship in the regression was between the dependent variable and the mode of transportation the respondents used to get to campus. According to the data, using taxis as the mode of transport, as compared other forms

of transportation led to a .1792622 rise in the individualistic index, ceteris paribus. As with the case of the relationship between the dependent variable and the respondents' age, the relationship between the dependent variable and the mode of transportation the respondents use to get to campus was significant at the 1% level of significance.

Table 4.15 Individualistic index regression results

Individualistic index	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P>|t|
Faculty	.101942	.2461505	0.41	0.679
Age	.1417553	.0191688	7.40	0.000
Gender	-.0360459	.1599397	-0.23	0.822
Home area	.0054946	.0671808	0.08	0.935
Number of family members	.13058	.1426207	0.92	0.361
Solely dependent on parents?	.0642826	.2401986	0.27	0.789
Transport to campus	.1792622	.0920343	1.95	0.053

Source: Survey data (2013)

It should be noted however that the rest of the independent variables in the three regressions are not significant. For instance, the number of family members, the respondents' home area, and the transport expense (in the case of socio-economic variables). While the number of family members might contribute to the degree of poverty (too many family members in a low income household might limit resources, for instance), this would not necessarily affect the perceived causes of poverty.

In some cases, the respondents' geographic location might impact perceptions of the causes of poverty, as in the study by Mattes *et al*. (2002), this will not necessarily always be the case. One reason for this might be that a respondent in the township might have the same access to basic necessities as a respondent in the suburbs. As such, perceptions might not be informed by lived experience of poverty, unlike if the respondent in the township was below the poverty line while the respondent in the suburbs was economically better off. The same could be said about the transport expense.

4.4.1.2. Socio-economic variables and perceived causes of poverty

Table 4.16 Structural index and the socio-economic variables

Structural index	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P>|t|
LPI	.8771455	.0824185	10.64	0.000
Food expense	.0010282	.0003211	3.20	0.002
Transport expense	.0000711	.0007585	0.09	0.925
Clothing expense	.000637	.0003313	1.92	0.056
Employment status [mother]	-.0382638	.0865824	-0.44	0.659
Average annual income [mother]	-.0304431	.0899727	-0.34	0.735

Source: Survey data (2013)

A regression with the structural index as the dependent variable revealed a few statistically significant relationships. The first one is the relationship between the dependent variable and the LPI. For every one unit increase in the LPI (from poor to non-poor, for instance), there was a .8771455 increase in the structural index, ceteris paribus. This relationship between the two variables was significant at the 1% level of significance. The regression also revealed a significant relationship between the structural index and the respondents' monthly expenditure on food.

According to the data, a one unit increase in food expenditure (from R250 to R350) for instance, led to an increase of .0010282 in the structural index, ceteris paribus. This relationship was significant at the 1% level of significance. Significant at the 10% level of significance, the relationship between the respondents' monthly clothing expenditure was positive. This means that a unit increase in the monthly expenditure on clothing (from R250 to R450, for instance), resulted in a .000637 increase in the structural index. This is shown on Table 4.16.

Table 4.17 Individualistic index and socio-economic variables

Individualistic index	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P>|t|
LPI	1.589994	.0422526	37.63	0.000
Food expense	-2.53e-07	.0001646	-0.00	0.999
Transport expense	-.0001923	.0003889	-0.49	0.621
Clothing expense	-.0002169	.0001698	-1.28	0.203
Employment status [mother]	-.360408	.0443873	-8.12	0.000
Average annual income [mother]	-.1605243	.0461253	-3.48	0.001

Source: Survey data (2013)

As with the regression between the structural index and the LPI, the regression between the individualistic index and the LPI revealed a significant and positive relationship between the variables. The regression revealed that a one unit increase in the LPI (from poor to non-poor), there was a 1.589994 rise in the individualistic index. This relationship was significant at the 1% level of significance. The mother's employment status also proved to be significant.

Also significant at the 1% level of significance, an increase in the respondents' mother's employment status (from employed to unemployed, for instance) led to a .360408 decline in the individualistic index, ceteris paribus. The average annual income also proved important. The data revealed that a rise in the respondents' mother's average income (from between R1000 and R5000 to between R5500 and R10000, for instance), led to a .1605243 decline in the individualistic index, ceteris paribus.

Unlike the results of the individualistic index and the structural index, the results of the fatalistic index revealed four significant relationships between the dependent variable and the independent variables. As with the previous two regressions between the structural and individualistic indices and the respondents' LPI, the relationship between the fatalistic index and the LPI is significant at the 1% level of significance. Based on the data, a unit increase in the LPI (from non-poor to poor) led to a .5787723 increase in the fatalistic index, ceteris paribus. The relationship between the dependent variable and the respondents' monthly food expenditure also

proved to be important. A unit increase in the food expenditure (from R250 to R350, for instance), there was a .0008246 increase in the fatalistic index, ceteris paribus.

The respondents' monthly clothing expenditure is another significant variable in this regression. According to the data, a unit increase in the monthly clothing expenditure (from R250 to R450, for instance) led to a .0009959 increase in the individualistic index, ceteris paribus. This relationship was also significant at the 1% level of significance. Another new significant relationship in this regression was between the dependent variable and the average annual income of the respondents' mother. For every unit rise in the average annual income (from between R1000 and R5000 to between R5500 and R10000, for instance), there was a .2073964 decline in the fatalistic index. This relationship was also significant at the 1% level of significance. These results are displayed in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18 Fatalistic index and socio-economic variables

Fatalistic index	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P>|t|
LPI	.5787723	.0754054	7.68	0.000
Food expense	.0008246	.0002938	2.81	0.006
Transport expense	.00003617	.000694	0.52	0.603
Clothing expense	.0009959	.0003031	3.29	0.001
Employment status [mother]	.0911003	.079215	1.15	0.252
Average annual income [mother]	-.2073964	.0823168	-2.52	0.013

Source: Survey data (2013)

The results of the different regressions reveal results that are more or less similar. Age proved to be an important variable in the regression between the three indices and demographics. On the other hand, the lived poverty index proved to be an important variable in the relationship between the three indices and the socio-economic variables.

4.5. CONCLUSION

As with previous studies, this study has shown that poverty respondents attributed poverty to three different factors (structural, fatalistic and individualistic factors).

These three factors together explained 57.594% of common variance. These three perceived causes of poverty were also confirmed by a scree plot, which serves to rectify any mistakes that might have occurred on the total variance. The scree plot retains only the values above the point at which a change in direction occurs. This means that the scree plot will retain only those components with an eigenvalue of one or above, as this is the acceptable eigenvalue. This is not where the screening of the results stops however. To ensure that there is internal consistency with the results, Cronbach's alpha is used

According to the analysis done in this chapter, the perceptions of the causes of poverty of the post-apartheid generation are similar to results of previous studies done on different respondents. This study has shown that overall; the post-apartheid generation attributes poverty to individualistic factors, followed by structural factors (according to mean scores). However, using a different method revealed that the post-apartheid generation tended to attribute poverty to fatalistic and structural factors, followed by individualistic factors.

However, to be able to determine the exact perceived cause of poverty, both methods were used. This meant that the indices with the most respondents were selected. In this case, it was the fatalistic and structural indices. Once this was done, the mean scores of both indices were checked. The structural index had the higher mean score. As such, it was concluded that the post-apartheid generation tended to attribute poverty to structural factors, followed by fatalistic and individualistic factors, respectively.

When explained in terms of race, the results of the analysis revealed that black respondents were more likely to attribute poverty to structural factors, followed by fatalistic factors. Non-black respondents were more likely to attribute poverty to individualistic factors, followed by fatalistic factors. The results were rather different when explained in terms of gender. These results revealed that female respondents were more likely than male respondents to attribute poverty to structural factors, followed by individualistic factors. Male respondents on the other hand were more likely to blame fatalistic factors for poverty, followed by individualistic factors.

A correlation of the three indices with some demographic variables, as well as socio-economic variables revealed some statistically significant relationships. A regression of the three indices with some demographic variables and socio-economic variables also revealed some statistically significant relationships. The most consisted variable in the regression between the three indices and demographics revealed that age was the most consistent significant variable, while the respondents' LPI proved to be an important socio-economic variable in the regression between the three indices and socio-economic variables. Other socio-economic variables such as monthly expenditure on food and clothing were also important.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

5.1. INTRODUCTION

Poverty is a broad and difficult concept to define. As a result, multiple approaches for defining poverty have been created. The most frequently used two approaches for defining poverty are the relative approach, and the absolute approach. The relative approach to poverty is based on the perception that people are poor, or non-poor in relation to the conditions of people residing in the same community. Absolute poverty on the other hand is based on the idea of deprivation, or the lack of certain resources (like income) necessary to satisfy basic needs. Absolute poverty has been attributed to society's uneven distribution of income and wealth.

After decades of economic inequality and political violence, the end of apartheid in 1994 signalled a transformation in South Africa's political and economic atmosphere. Millions of South Africans had expectations of improved political as well as economic conditions; which included more employment opportunities, better wages, access to better education and housing, for instance. However, almost twenty years after the end of apartheid, over 60% of the country's black children live in conditions of dire poverty. On the other hand, the gap between poor and non-poor has increased instead of declined.

South Africa's apartheid laws contributed to the high levels of inequality and poverty that plagued the country pre-democracy. However, the elevated levels of inequality and poverty did not disappear with the end of apartheid in 1994. Instead, millions of South Africans have continued to suffer through high levels of poverty and inequality post-apartheid. While South Africa's high poverty levels can be seen as the result of decades of discriminative laws that catered to the country's white minority, there are other factors that have contributed to poverty over the years. Each individual, as well as each generation has certain views about what causes poverty.

The Feagin scale, a scale developed for measuring the perceptions of the causes of poverty has become the most common technique for measuring people's perceived causes of poverty. This scale divides the causes of poverty into three components

(fatalistic, structural as well as individualistic component). Each of these components is made up of numerous statements that respondents have to answer using a Likert scale, which ranges from 1 to 5. In order to measure the post-apartheid generation's perceptions of the causes of poverty, the Feagin scale was used. The post-apartheid generation is the group of individuals born in 1994, the year South Africa became a democratic country.

5.2. THEORETICAL OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The available definitions and data on poverty tend to influence the way in which one perceives poverty and its causes, and the data being interpreted. In South Africa, the perceptions of the causes of poverty have been influenced by a history of inequality and discriminative policies. As a result of these policies, economic opportunities and benefits were enjoyed based on the race of the people. As a result, black South Africans had access to fewer economic opportunities that did not involve being a maid or a gardener.

In an effort to limit economic and labour opportunities to white people, the apartheid government enacted some laws that made it illegal for non-white people to access certain resources. Some of the laws put into place were the Natives land act of 1913, which limited black people's access to land to only 13% of the land in the country. This act placed black people in parts of the country where it was difficult to grow food for consumption, and as a consequence, some black people moved to parts of the city were it would be easier to find work, either as maids, or gardeners.

One other law was the Bantu education act of 1953, which stripped missionaries of the control of the education of young black people, and instead attempted to educate those young people in Afrikaans. This act attempted to provide black students with an inferior education system, while limiting black people's access to higher education in an attempt to limit labour and economic opportunities. As a result of the inferior education it became difficult to get access to higher education, especially within South Africa. Black people who had obtained an education were limited to being maids, gardeners, teachers or social workers. The limited access to education led to limited economic opportunities, and high poverty rates amongst black people.

Although apartheid came to an end in 1994, decades of discriminative policies left the country with high levels of inequality. When looking at the gini coefficient by race, it is clear that the impact of inequality is felt the most by black people. Data revealed that the gini coefficient for black people was 0.54 in 2009. This high number was followed by the country's Coloured population, with a gini coefficient of 0.52, and 0.49 for Indians/Asians, while the gini coefficient for white people in 2009 was 0.39.

The end of apartheid signalled change for the better for most people, both politically and economically. South Africans expected better living conditions, accompanied by increased employment opportunities, better housing, improved service delivery, as well as access to good education for their children. Instead, the end of apartheid has brought with it little change in terms of the quality of education, housing, In fact, the level of economic inequality seems to have risen in the years following the end of apartheid.

In an attempt to address the inequalities and lack of economic opportunities, the government introduced some strategies aimed at combating poverty and addressing the rising inequality in the country. These strategies came in the form of support grants for children, old people and disabled people, for instance. These grants are supposed to provide extra income to households with children below the age of 18, households with disabled members, as well as households with people above the age of 65. These are the people most likely not to be employed, and as such, the people most in need of financial assistance.

The government also introduced free education for students in public schools. By providing free education, the government removed the financial burden from parents and placed it on the state. As such, parents no longer have to worry about school fees and children not getting access to education as a result of financial constraints. However, access to free education does not mean every young person will attend school. Data has shown that, while the enrolment rates are high, male students are more likely to drop out of school before completing secondary school. What has been good to note has been the high rate of female students enrolled in primary school.

Although this number has been lower than the number of male students enrolled in primary school, this changes in secondary school. However, part of the reason for this increase might not be the result of more female students enrolling in primary school, but because of the high number of male students who drop out in secondary school. To fully address, and solve the problem of students who drop out of school, regardless of gender, it is important to address the economic conditions that lead to these students dropping out.

To address the problem of inequality in the South African economy, the government introduced Black Economic Empowerment (BEE), which was changed and renamed Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE). BBBEE is a strategy that was created with the main objective of addressing inequality by providing economic and labour opportunities to black people, women, the youth, people in rural areas, as well as disabled people. This would be achieved by increasing opportunities for increased ownership, management or control of businesses, amongst other things.

Over the years, the percentage of black people in top and senior managerial posts has increased, so has the percentage of women in senior managerial positions. However, when it comes to women in top positions, it is not clear how many are white, and how many are non-white. To improve economic conditions, it is important that black women also have access to opportunities that could pave the way for promotion to top positions.

5.3. METHODOLOGY

Research design and methodology form an important part of the research process. To understand how the research question is answered, it is significant that one first understand the methodology involved in answering the research question. The first step in designing the research methodology is determining the aims of the research. By understanding what the research aims to answer, the appropriate methodology is determined. This ensures that the correct methodology is used, instead of applying different methodologies and accepting the results that look good.

More than anything else, this study aims to determine the perceptions of the causes of poverty of the post-apartheid generation. These perceived causes can either be

individualistic, fatalistic or structural. Knowing the perceived causes of poverty is vital for policymaking, especially since the post-apartheid generation will soon be making the most important economic decisions for the country. Determining the lived poverty index is a way of determining who is classified as poor and who is classified as non-poor. Since circumstances play a role in how one perceives a particular subject, the perceived causes of poverty of the post-apartheid generation were regressed against the respondents' lived poverty index in order to determine the extent, and statistical significance of the relationship between the variables. The same was done with the demographic variables.

This study made use of primary data, or data that was collected for the purposes of this particular study. Questionnaires were used as a data collection tool. However, before the data was collected, the sampling design process was undertaken. The first step in sampling design was defining the target population. This is the group from which the sample for the study will be selected. For this research, the target population was defined as all students aged 20 years or below. The sampling units as well as sampling elements were also part of this age group. The time period for this research was 2013.

Once the target population was defined, the sampling frame was identified. The sampling frame is made up of the elements and units in the target population from which the sample was then selected. The identification of the sampling frame is done in order to ensure equal opportunity for selection as part of the sample. By making certain that each unit has an equal opportunity of being selected for the sample, the representativeness of the sample is guaranteed.

After the sampling frame has been identified, the next step is determining the size of the sample. The size of the sample is influenced by the characteristics of the target population, as well as the type of information that required from the respondents. It is important that the sample size not be too small or too large. A large sample size has the benefit of increasing the degree of accuracy of the results, while a small sample size might not truly reflect the views of the population. As already stated, the sample size for this research was 203.

The sampling procedure also forms a significant part of the sampling design process. In selecting the sample, one can do so by either applying probability sampling, or non-probability sampling. In probability sampling, each unit has equal opportunity for selection to form part of the sample. This is helping in selecting an unbiased sample. In non-probability sampling on the other hand, not every unit has the opportunity for selection. Since there is no sampling frame, the parameters of the target population might be unknown. While this type of sampling procedure might result in a biased sample, the cost of this procedure is less than that of probability sampling. After the type of sampling procedure is decided on, the sampling process begins. The sample for this research is made up of 203 respondents aged 20 years or younger. These respondents all attend NWU-VTC, and are in the first year of study.

A questionnaire was used as the research instrument. This questionnaire was made up of three sections. The first section concentrated on demographics, and the socio-economic variables of the respondents. The demographics included race, gender, age, and field of study, amongst other things. The socio-economic variables included the respondents' monthly expenses, the employment status of the respondents' parents, the employment sector and average annual income. The second part of the questionnaire focused on the perceptions of the causes of poverty.

The perceptions are divided into three components: the structural, individualistic and fatalistic causes of poverty. Each component comprises numerous statements that the respondents had to answer using a Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5. This scale measured the level of agreement or disagreement with each statement. The third section of the questionnaire covered the lived poverty index (LPI). This index was created in order to assist with determining whether people are poor or non-poor based on the level of access, or lack thereof, to certain necessities over a specified period. Access is measured using a scale ranging from 1 to 5, where 1 indicates never and 5 indicates always.

5.4. THE DEMOGRAPHICS OF THE RESPONDENTS

Out of the 203 respondents, 58.6% were female, while only 41.4% were male. These respondents were selected from two faculties within NWU-VTC (Economic sciences and IT, as well as Humanities. In terms of age, the respondents were aged between

20 and 18 years. The data revealed that 19.2% of the respondents were aged 18, 59.6% were 19 years and 21.2% were 20 years old. Surprisingly, only 1% of the respondents were not South African nationals. As such, the perceptions of poverty of non-South Africans could not be applied to all non-South Africans.

Although the racial distribution for this sample was uneven, it was reflective of NWU-VTC's racial distribution. Of the 203 respondents, 71.4% were black, 28.1% were white, while only 0.5% were any race other than black or white. Geographically, the respondents reside in different areas of the country. The data revealed that 27.1% of the respondents were from an urban area, 7.4% were from a rural area, 29.6% were from a suburb, and 36.0% were from a township.

On the other hand, 33.5% of respondents attended high school in an urban area, 9.4% attended high school in a rural area, 28.1% attended high school in a suburb, and 29.1% attended high school in a township. The majority of respondents revealed that in the home of residence, there were between 3 and 5 family members (73.4%), while 22.2% revealed that there were 6 to 8 family members in the home. Only 4.4% of the respondents revealed that there were either less than 3 family members in the home, or more than 8 members. The majority (88.2%) of respondents also revealed that parents were the main source of financial aid and other needs, while 11.8% revealed a dependence on other sources of financial aid.

5.5. EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

Understanding the perceptions of the causes of poverty has the potential to help with understanding the stigma attached to poverty itself, as well as the stigma attached to people living in poverty. Through the understanding of people's perceptions about what causes poverty, policymakers can better design and implement policies that are helpful to the poor, instead of the already privileged. To determine the perceived the perceived causes of poverty, the Feagin scale was used.

A test for sampling adequacy revealed that the KMO for the data was .704, which was above the required 0.6. Bartlett's test of Sphericity revealed a significant value of .000, which was below the mandatory 0.05 or below. These results indicated that factor analysis could be used for analysis, with PCA used as the extraction method.

Only those components with eigenvalues equal to or above one were extracted. The PCA confirmed that these perceived causes of poverty could be divided into three components (the structural, fatalistic and individualistic). The extracted components combined explained 57.594% of total variance.

Each of the twelve items correlated with the underlying factor, as indicated in the theory. Five of the twelve items correlated with the fatalistic factor. These items were “they lack luck” (.746), “they have bad fate” (.815), “they are not motivated because of welfare” (.413), “they are born inferior” (.719), as well as “they have encountered misfortunes” (.613). Four of the loadings correlated with the structural factor. These items were “the society lacks social justice” (.767), “distribution of wealth in society is uneven” (.818), “they lack opportunities due to the fact that they live in poor families” (.593), and lastly, “they are exploited by the rich” (.705). The remaining three items correlated with the individualistic factor. Based on the factor loadings, these items were as follows, “they lack the ability to manage money” (.889), “they do not actively seek to improve their lives” (.813), and “they waste their money on inappropriate items” (.847).

To interpret the outcomes of the loadings, different methods were used. One method involved determining the mean scores and standard deviation of the three indices. To obtain the total mean score for each index, the mean scores of the different items under each index were calculated. Once this was done, the total mean score was calculated. The mean score for the fatalistic index was 2.40, while that of the structural index was 3.18, and that of the individualistic index was 3.24. This means that a respondent with a mean score equal to, or above 3.24 was considered to lean towards the individualistic factor, while a mean score equal to, or above 3.18 was considered to mean the respondent leaned towards the structural factor.

A mean score equal to, or above 2.40 meant the respondent leaned towards the fatalistic factor. An interpretation of the outcomes based on the mean scores and standard deviation revealed that respondents perceived poverty as the result of individualistic factors. This was confirmed by a high mean score of 3.24, coupled with a standard deviation of 1.09.

Further analysis revealed that, based on the number of respondents who attributed poverty to certain factors, the majority of respondents attributed poverty to fatalistic and structural factors. The data revealed that 106 respondents attributed poverty to fatalistic factors, and another 106 respondents attributed poverty to structural factors. This, coupled with the mean scores, revealed that the post-apartheid generation attributed poverty to structural factors. Of course, the perceived causes of poverty tended to differ based on the gender and race of the respondents.

A correlation matrix revealed a significant relationship between the fatalistic index and the respondents' gender. This relationship was negative, and significant at the 1% level of significance. The structural index on the other hand had a significant relationship with the respondents' race and home language. Both these relationships were positive, and significant at the 1% level of significance. Unlike the fatalistic and structural indices, the individualistic index had a significant relationship with three demographic variables (race, home language and current area of residence). The relationships between the individualistic index and the respondents' race and current area of residence were significant at the 5% level of significance, while that between the individualistic index and the respondents' home language was significant at the 1% level of significance.

A correlation of the three indices with monthly expenses revealed a few significant relationships. For instance, there was a positive and significant relationship between the individualistic index and monthly expenditure on entertainment. This relationship was significant at the 5% level of significance. The correlation also revealed three significant relationships between the structural index and monthly expenditure. The first significant relationship was between the structural index and expenditure on toiletries. This relationship was significant at the 10% level. The other two significant relationships were between the structural index and expenditure on clothing and entertainment. These relationships were significant at the 5% level of significance.

The same method for determining the perceptions of the causes of poverty was used to determine the respondents' LPI. Based on the number of times a respondent had gone without a particular necessity (food or water, for instance), the mean scores were calculated. Once this was done, a total mean score was determined. It is the

total mean score (1.81) that was used as the poverty line. Every respondent with a mean score above 1.81 was classified as poor, and every respondent below the 1.81 was classified as non-poor. The results revealed that less than 40% of respondents were classified as poor, while above 60% were classified as non-poor.

A regression of the results revealed that age was consistently the one demographic that significantly impacted the three indices. In this case, a one unit increase in the respondents' age increased the fatalistic index by .1160493. The mode of transport used to get to campus, and the respondents' dependents on parents were also significant. On the other hand, only the respondents' age impacted the structural index. Age also proved to be important in the regression between the individualistic index and demographics. However, in this case, the mode of transportation used to get to campus was also important. An increase in age (from 18 year to 19 years, for instance) led to a .1417553 increase in the structural index, while an increase in the mode of transportation (from a bus to a taxi, for instance) led to a .1792622 increase in the individualistic index.

Socio-economic variables such as whether the respondent is poor or non-poor (LPI), the parents' employment status, average annual income and transport expenses, for instance, have a great impact on the three indices. An increase in the LPI increased the individualistic index by 1.589994, while it caused an increase of .5787723 in the fatalistic index, for instance. Significant at 1% level of significance, the respondents' monthly food expense increased the fatalistic index by .0008246. While there was no significant relationship between the fatalistic index and the respondent's mother's employment status, the average annual income proved to be significant (1% level of significance), and led to a .2073964 decline in the fatalistic index. These results prove that there are certain factors that impact respondents' perceptions, be it socio-economic variables or demographics.

5.6. CONCLUSION

Poverty status differs amongst different people, and so do the perceptions of the causes of poverty. The results of the study have revealed that the post-apartheid generation attributes poverty first to structural factors, followed by fatalistic factors, as well as individualistic factors. This means that the post-apartheid generation

views poverty as the result of external factors such as uneven distribution of income, and being exploited by the privileged. South Africa's history of apartheid, coupled with discriminative policies (economic and political), provide a background for why the post-apartheid generation might attribute poverty to structural factors. Apartheid's legacy of inequality is a problem that is still plaguing the country. As a consequence, the government instituted some policies to address these inequalities. Through the understanding of the perceived causes of poverty, the government can better institute policies that will help make South Africans self-reliant.

It is not just important to understand the perceived cause of poverty. It is also vital to understand those factors that might impact the perceptions. In this case, the post-apartheid generation's perceptions were largely influenced by gender, race, as well as the LPI. Women are seen as more likely than men to be poor, as such, women's perceptions of poverty might be informed by lived experiences with poverty. This is the same with race, where black people are more likely to live in poverty than white people. In each case, the perceptions of the causes of poverty are informed by more than demographics. By working to understand this, policymaking could then be done from a place of practicality, and not just theory.

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APPENDIX A – QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Demographics

Field of study: _____ Faculty: _____

Age: _____ Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

Marital status: Married ☐ Single ☐ Other ☐ If other: _____

Race: Black ☐ White ☐ Coloured ☐ Other ☐

If other: _____

Nationality: South African ☐ Other ☐ If other: _____

Home language: _____

Current area of residence: Urban ☐ Rural ☐ Suburb ☐ Township ☐

Home area: Urban ☐ Rural ☐ Suburb ☐ Township ☐

Area of high school attended: Urban ☐ Rural ☐ Suburb ☐ Township ☐

Number of family members: 3-5 ☐ 6-8 ☐ Other ☐ If other: _____

Are you dependent solely on your parents: Yes ☐ No ☐

If no, who else: _____

Transport to campus: Taxi ☐ Bus ☐ Private Transport ☐

Amount spent on monthly expenses:

Food: R200 - R300 ☐ R300 – R400 ☐ R400 – R500 ☐ R500 – R1000 ☐

Toiletries: R50 – R90 ☐ R90 – R110 ☐ R110 – R120 ☐ R120 – R200 ☐

Transport: R50 – R90 ☐ R100 – R200 ☐ R200 – R250 ☐ R250 – R300 ☐

Clothing: R200 - R300 ☐ R300 – R400 ☐ R400 – R500 ☐ R500 – R1000 ☐

Stationery: R50 – R90 ☐ R100 – R200 ☐ R200 – R250 ☐ R250 – R300 ☐

Entertainment: R100 – R150 ☐ R150 – R200 ☐ R200 – R250 ☐ R250 – R300 ☐

Parent's employment status

Mother: Employed ☐ Unemployed ☐ Father: Employed ☐ Unemployed ☐

Sector

Mother: Primary ☐ Secondary ☐ Tertiary ☐ Informal ☐

Father: Primary ☐ Secondary ☐ Tertiary ☐ Informal ☐

Average annual income

Mother: R0–R999 ☐ R1000-R5000 ☐ R5500-R10000 ☐ R11000-R20000 ☐ Other ☐

If other: _____

Father: R0-R999 ☐ R1000-R5000 ☐ R5500-R10000 ☐ R11000-R20000 ☐ Other ☐

If other: _____

2. Questions

Perceptions of the causes of poverty

Why people are poor	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
They lack luck					
They have bad fate					
They have encountered misfortunes					
They are born inferior					
They are not motivated because of welfare					
Distribution of wealth in the society is uneven					
The society lacks social justice					
They are exploited by the rich					
They lack opportunities due to the fact that they live in poor families					
They waste their money on inappropriate items					
They lack the ability to manage money					
They do not actively seek to improve their lives					

The lived poverty index

Over the past year, how often have you and your family gone without:

		Never	Once or twice	Several times	Many times	Always
1	Enough food to eat?					
2	Enough clean water for home?					
3	Medicines or medical treatment?					
4	Electricity in your home?					
5	Enough fuel to cook your food?					
6	A cash income?					