THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HOUSEHOLD POVERTY AND CHILD DEPRIVATION IN JABULANI TOWNSHIP

PHINDILE GCINA MDLULI, BCom Honours (Economics)

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Supervisor: Ms J L Makhalima

Co-supervisor: Dr D Viljoen

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DEDICATION

To my Lord and Saviour Jesus!

DECLARATION

I declare that

The relationship between household poverty and child deprivation in Jabulani Township is my own work and that all the resources used or quoted have been duly acknowledged by means of complete references and that I have not previously in its entirety, or in part, submitted it for obtaining any qualification at any university.

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Phindile Gcina Mdluli

OPSOMMING

Armoede bly een van die kritieste uitdagings in Suid-Afrika, oorwegend omdat dit ingebore word. Tans woon die meerderheid kinders in Suid-Afrika in huishoudings wat nie in staat is om aan basiese behoeftes te voorsien nie. Kinders wat in minderbevoorregte huishoudings gebore is, het ’n hoër kans om in die bose kringloop van armoede te verval. Dus beïnvloed armoede die kind anders as volwassenes; kinders is geneig om meer kwetsbaar te wees vir verwaarlosing en armoede. Die doel van hierdie studie was om die verhouding tussen huishoudelike armoede en kinderverwaarlosing in Jabulani, ’n Suid-Afrikaanse township, te analiseer. Die studie het gebruik gemaak van ’n bate-indeks en ’n kinderverwaarlosingsindeks van huishoudelike armoede en kinderverwaarlosing in die Jabulani Township. Die hooffokus van die studie was om te bepaal of huishoudelike armoede ’n uitwerking het op die verwaarlosingstatus van ’n kind wat in ’n bepaalde huishouding leef. Daarom is die analisering van demografiese agtergrond en armoede status van die houshouding ook belangrik.

Die empiriese gedeelte van die studie het gefokus op die insameling van data van Jabulani Township in Mei 2015 deur middel van ’n opnamevraelys met ’n steekproef van 178 ewekansig uitgesoekte huishoudings. Verskeie statistiese metodes is gebruik soos beskrywende statistiek, korrelasie- en regressie-analise om oorvluelings tussen huishoudelike armoede en kinderverwaarlosing te identifiseer. Die bate-indeks is gebruik om die armoede status van die huishouding te bepaal deur die welstand te meet, dus te identifiseer of ’n kind van ’n arm huishouding van sekere voorregte ontneem word deur dit met die kinderverwaarlosingsindeks te vergelyk. Die kindverwaarlosingsindeks is gebaseer op spesifieke items wat ’n kind mag tekortkom.

Die verhouding tussen huishoudelike armoede en kinderverwaarlosing is bepaal en daar is gevind dat meeste van die kinders van arm huishoudings nie geweldig verwaarloos word nie; hulle is of minder verwaarloos of redelik verwaarloos op die meeste. Só ook is daar kinders van welgestelde huishoudings wat redelik verwaarloos tot geweldig verwaarloos is. Alhoewel die meerderheid kinders wat in arm huishoudings woon ook minder verwaarloos is. Die gevolgtrekking kan dus gemaak word dat houshoudingsbehoeftes anders is as die behoeftes van kinders,

gevolglik kry ons kinders wat nie verwaarloos is nie in arm huishoudings en ook andersom.

Die mate van huishoudelike armoede is bepaal en soos deur die bate-indeks in die studie geïdentifiseer het die studie gevind dat 59 persent van die huishoudings in die Jabulani Township nie arm is nie, 31,5 persent het armoede vlakke van net onder die gemiddelde (gebaseer op die bate-indeks wat langtermyn welvaart bepaal) en 9,6 is arm. Verder is ook gevind dat die meerderheid van die steekproefpopulasie van Jabulani Township lae inkomstes verdien, meeste van die bate armoedige huishoudings is ook gevind om ’n lae inkomste te verdien en ook andersom. Die studie onthul dat vrouens in die Jabulani Township meestal die hoof van die huishouding is; vroulike huishoudingshoofde het ’n laer vlak van armoede gedui in vergelyking met manlike huishoudingshoofde. Daar is gevind dat die meerderheid van die houshoudingshoofde geen skoolopleiding het nie en heelwat van hulle tersiêre onderrig het. Die grootste bron van inkomste in die Jabulani Township is kinderonderhoudstoelaes (87,1 persent) en lone en salarisse dra tot 77 persent van die huishoudelike inkomste by.

Die allerdaagsheid van kinderverwaarlosing is gebaseer op die kinderverwaarlosingsindeks. Daar is gevind dat 62,9 persent van die kinders in die Jabulani Township minder verwaarloos is, 29,2 persent is redelik verwaarloos en slegs 9,9 persent is geweldig verwaarloos. Dus is die meerderheid kinders in die Jabulani Township nie geweldig verwaarloos nie. Die regressie-analise resultate het gedui dat die totale inkomste van die houshouding ’n beduidende faktor is van die bate-indeks en die kinderverwaarlosingsindeks. Gabaseer op hierdie bevindinge word aanbeveel dat daar meer ondersoek ingestel word op onderrig in die Jabulani Township, aangesien dit ’n groot treë is tot die verligting van huishoudelike armoede en só ook kinderverwaarlosing. Daar is ’n groot behoefte aan vaardigheidsbemagtiging, veral in basiese vaardighede soos spyseniering, konstruksie en naalwerk, onder andere. Dit sal afhanklikheid van die regering beperk en meer werksgeleenthede skep sodat ouers aan die behoeftes van hulle kinders kan voorsien.

ABSTRACT

Poverty persists as one of the critical challenges in South Africa, predominantly because it is inbred. Currently, the majority of South Africa's children live in households that are incapable of providing basic needs. Children born from deprived households have a high chance of being trapped into the cycle of poverty. Thus, household poverty affects child differently from adults; children tend to be more vulnerable to deprivation and poverty. The purpose of this study was to analyse the relationship between household poverty and child deprivation in Jabulani, a South African township. The study used an asset index and a child deprivation index to measure the scope of household poverty and child deprivation in Jabulani Township. The main focus of the study was to determine if household poverty has an impact on the deprivation status of a child living in a particular household. Therefore, analysing demographics of the household and its poverty status was also important.

The empirical analysis of the study was centred on data collected from Jabulani Township in May 2015 by means of a survey questionnaire with a sample of 178 randomly selected households. Several statistical methods were used such as descriptive statistics, correlations and regression analysis to identify the overlaps between household poverty and child deprivation. The asset index was used to determine the poverty status of the household by measuring its wealth, thus identifying if a child from a poor household will be deprived of certain items by comparing it to the child deprivation index. The child deprivation index was constructed based on specific items a child may lack.

The relationship between household poverty and child deprivation was determined and it was found that most of the children from poor households are not severely deprived; they are either less deprived or moderately deprived at most. Similarly, there are children from the well-off households who are deprived moderately and severely. However, the majority of the children living in less poor households are also less deprived. Thus, it was concluded that household needs are different from child needs, hence we find children who are not deprived in poor households and vice versa.

The extent of household poverty was determined and as defined by the asset index the study found that 59 percent of the households in Jabulani Township are not poor, 31.5 percent have poverty levels just below average (based on the asset index measuring long-term wealth) and 9.6 percent are poor. Furthermore, it was found that the majority of the sampled population of Jabulani Township has low income levels, most of the asset poor households were also found to be income poor and vice versa. The study revealed that females head most households in Jabulani Township; female heads of household were found to have lower poverty levels compared to male heads of household. It was found that the majority of the heads of household have no schooling and quite a few of them have tertiary level education. The largest source of income in Jabulani Township is child support grant (87.1 percent) and wages or salaries contribute 77 percent to household income.

The prevalence of child deprivation was determined based on the child deprivation index. It was found that 62.9 percent of the children in Jabulani Township are less deprived, 29.2 percent are moderately deprived and only 9.9 percent of the children are severely deprived. Therefore, the majority of the children in Jabulani Township are not severely deprived. The regression analysis results revealed that the total income of the household is a significant determinant of the asset index and the child deprivation index. Based on these findings it is recommended that more investments should be made towards education in Jabulani Township, as this could be a great move towards the alleviation of household poverty and, in turn, child deprivation. There is a need for skills empowerment especially in baking and sewing as most of the unemployed heads of households are skilled in those areas, this will curb dependence on the government and create more job opportunities so that the parents can provide for the needs of their children.

Key words: poverty, household poverty, child poverty, child deprivation, children, asset index, child deprivation index, Jabulani Township

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AIDS:	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
EU:	European Union
HDI:	Human development index
HEL:	Household effective level
HIV:	Human Immune Virus
HPI:	Human poverty index
HSL:	Household subsistence level
MDG:	Millennium Development Goals
MICS:	Multiple indicator cluster survey
MLL:	Minimum subsistence level
MPI:	Multidimensional poverty index
PDL:	Poverty datum line
PGI:	Poverty gap index
SAHRC:	South African Human Rights Commission
SAIMDC:	South African Index of Multiple Deprivation
SDGs:	Sustainable development Goals
SLL:	Supplementary living level
SPGI:	Squared poverty gap index
SPSS:	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
Stats SA:	Statistics South Africa

UK:	United Kingdom
UN:	United Nations
UNAIDS:	United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNDP:	United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF:	United Nations International Children's Fund

CHAPTER ONE: BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In the past years, international organisations, governments and societies have taken massive measures to uplift humankind out of poverty. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP, 2008:11) maintains that the global arena has taken part in several assemblies in a bid to acknowledge economic involvement of the deprived. Over the last 20 years, in rural areas poverty rates have been high among Africans; particularly children and among the youth and females who have never worked before (Stats SA, 2013; Turner *et al*., 2015:6). South Africa in per capita terms is an upper-middle income country, despite the fact that the majority of South African households are experiencing absolute poverty (Stats SA, 2013).

Poverty endangers success; it is perceived in all its manifestations as a refusal of the prospects that strengthen improved standards of living and human development. Nonetheless, there is no coherent, commonly acknowledged poverty definition (UNDP, 2007). For the reason that poverty is a notion that comprises complex concepts/issues, for example it does not only involve the economic aspect of the sufferers but also the psychological development (Patel & Kleinman, 2003:609). In Africa poverty is considerably greater compared to other developing countries. It is puzzling that poverty is increasing and chronic in Africa. In spite of the substantial progress in the growth of African GDP most recently, as of 2012 the total number of people living below the poverty line is higher than in the 1980s and 1990s (Dulani *et al*., 2013:4). It is insinuated that poverty has not been sensitive to the growth of the economy. The reality is that fundamental to this trend, the majority of people are unemployed and their sources of income are not secure, especially in townships and former homelands, thus poverty significantly contributes to deprivation (Department of Labour, 2011:3; Sekhampu & Nishimwe-Niyimbanira, 2013:49).

The United Nations International Children's Fund (UNICEF, 2014c) states that poverty is a persistent and critical challenge in South Africa, mainly because it is inbred. The majority of South Africa's children live in households that are not capable of buying basic necessities. Children are likely to be trapped in poverty when they are born into underprivileged and socially excluded families. Most poor people have

a poor school system; as a result, poor children are less likely to attain a good education (UNICEF, 2011). When disadvantaged children leave school, the sluggish need for inexperienced employees shows that only a few will get, or even hold a job and those who find jobs will not find secured employment or be well remunerated (Bastos *et al.,* 2004; Griggs & Walker 2008:4). The South African Human Rights Commission and UNICEF (SAHRC & UNICEF, 2011:3) explain that most of the poor South African children are Coloured or Black and are trapped in the conventionally disadvantaged segment of the elementary education system, putting them at risk of worsening the cycle of poverty into which they were born.

In 2011, only 46 percent of children below the age of 15 years in South Africa lived with both birth parents, and above 11 percent lived with neither birth parent. Therefore, it is apparent that there are weak household structures (UNICEF, 2014b:18). Over time there are numerous households moving in and out of poverty, while others remain in poverty for several years. The escalating effect of poverty could result to fundamentally harmful results and limited opportunities, for such reasons the persistence of poverty among children is a concern (McKernan & Ratcliffe, 2010:4). Moore *et al*. (2009:5) contends that the study of child poverty is important, since wide range of research connects poverty with lower levels of child well-being. Contrary to children from affluent families, deprived children are likely to leave school for different reasons, perform poorly academically, and have health, behavioural and emotional problems. These associations are mostly strong for children from households experiencing extreme poverty, children who are deprived early in childhood, and who are caught in a cycle of deprivation and poverty for a long time.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

While existing research strongly projects children who suffer from deprivation as likely to be those residing in poor households (Singh & Sarkar, 2014), more investigation is necessary to ascertain the implied correlation between household poverty and child deprivation. The preceding assertion is embedded in the fact that the source of most forms of severe deprivation is invariably a consequence of household asset deficiencies (Brooks-Gunn & Duncan, 1997; Cooper & Stewart, 2013). Nonetheless, there might similarly be certain households that are not

necessarily well-off but could still sacrifice their needs for the sake of their children (Gordon & Nandy, 2012). In addition, child deprivation is not only measured in monetary terms or asset deficiencies, but rather inclusive of non-monetary household, social and parental needs. For this reason, it cannot be concluded that a child is deprived because they live in a poor household, because child needs differ from household needs. Hence, the need for the current study, which sought to compare a child deprivation index with an asset index, determined by the assets that the households in a township setting individually own. The two indices helped determine if household poverty means the child in the poor household is deprived or not.

Despite the wealth of some nations, a large number of children are deprived and households are similarly poor. Although research has been done with regards to household poverty and child deprivation (Bárcena *et al*., 2014; Grødem, 2008), very little has been researched within the South African context particularly in township settings. It follows, therefore, that there is a research gap; making the analysis of the relationship between household poverty and child deprivation in South Africa's Jabulani Township necessary.

Exploring poverty on a general level does not capture the full picture of child deprivation, this is because the notion of child deprivation cannot assume the classic form of the notion of household poverty, which is based on the general needs of the household, child deprivation should be centred on the needs and living conditions of the child (Singh & Sarkar, 2014). The study seeks to contribute to socio-economic domains of household poverty, child poverty and child deprivation by filtering some policy recommendations. Therefore studying the relationship between the two concepts, helps highlight the overlaps between child needs and the needs of the household. It assists in establishing if a general lack of certain items in the household affect the living conditions of a child.

1.3 GEOGRAPHICAL AREA OF THE STUDY

Even though household poverty and child deprivation affect quite a number of townships in South Africa, the study will focus on Jabulani. Figure 1.1 designates Jabulani, located in Soweto. It is part of a municipality known as Region D, wherein

Jabulani is found in Ward 46 (City of Johannesburg, 2011). Soweto, which originally stands for South-Western Townships, is located in the southwest of the urban region. Region D is found in the north of Soweto in the City of Johannesburg. Region D has several suburbs, the likes of Protea Glen, Orlando East, Christ Hani and Jabulani.

Figure 1.1 Geographical area of the study

Adapted from Map data, 2015

According to City of Johannesburg (2011), between 600 000 and a million of the population of Soweto live in poverty. Jabulani is amongst the disadvantaged townships of Soweto, thus the households of Jabulani Township are likely to form part of the 600 000 and a million living in poverty. For this reason the study takes interest in exploring the livelihoods of the households of Jabulani Township.

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

In order to carry out this study, the following objectives have been formulated:

1.4.1 Primary objectives

The main purpose of the study is to examine the relationship between household poverty and child deprivation in Jabulani Township, situated in South Africa's populous Johannesburg metropolitan city.

1.4.2 Theoretical objectives

The following objectives were devised for a study in Jabulani Township:

- To review the theories on poverty
- To review theories on child poverty and child deprivation
- To review the deprivation index as a measure of poverty
- To review the literature on any linkages between household poverty and child deprivation.

1.4.3 Empirical objectives

In line with the devised primary objective of the study, the next objectives were set up for a study in Jabulani Township:

- To determine the prevalence of child deprivation in Jabulani Township
- To determine the extent of household poverty in Jabulani Township
- Determine the relationship between household poverty (asset index) and the child deprivation index.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

According to Curwin and Slater (2008:183), research design is described as a principal map that denotes the processes as well as approaches for the collection and analysis of required research information. The research methods that were carried out are an empirical study and a literature review. A quantitative research method was used to analyse determinants of poverty and child deprivation. A questionnaire survey method was used to obtain the required information.

1.5.1 Literature review

The researcher made use of sources such as government publications, books, online publications, electronic journals, and articles, unpublished and published reports for the literature study.

1.5.2 Empirical study

The empirical design for this study followed a quantitative approach. Du Plessis and Rousseau (2007:21) state that this method is preferred since it enriches the precision of outcomes by means of comprehensive data analysis, thus avoiding the element of biasness. The subsequent steps, as endorsed by Gupta (2011:231), were followed in undertaking the empirical study.

1.5.2.1 Target population

The population targeted is limited to the households that have children, both poor and non-poor. However, the questionnaire that was conducted was answered strictly by the head of the household, that is individuals 19 years and above, both male and female.

1.5.2.2 Sampling frame

The sampling frame of the study comprises of households and children residing in Jabulani Township. The master list was obtained from the City of Johannesburg municipal offices in Soweto.

1.5.2.3 Sampling methods

Stratified random sampling has been used to identify households that have children, in order to determine the likely determinants of child deprivation. Therefore, the study randomly selected households that have children.

1.5.2.4 Sample size

For normal distribution purposes, a sample size greater than 30 is statistically significant (Swanepoel *et al*., 2010:200). For this study, the sample size is 178 households. To establish the sample size, the historic evidence method was

employed in line with previous research studies on the subject of household poverty and child deprivation. Sekatane (2004:8) used a sample size of 250 households, Sekhampu and Niyimbanira (2013) used a sample size of 209 households, while Dubihlela (2012) used a sample size of 313 households. Although the sample size of 178 would be relatively small, it was deemed appropriate as it was consistent with previous similar studies.

1.6 HOUSEHOLD SURVEY

Sample stratification was designed after maps had been attained for Jabulani Township; this was done according to the geographical distribution and awareness of people in the township. To collect the preferred data, a questionnaire was designed. To ensure an even allocation of the questionnaires, the area was divided into distinct sections. Before the fieldworkers went out, sections at which they were intended to complete the questionnaires were independently identified from the map. Nonetheless, where it was not possible to find people or if a household could not be traced, the fieldworkers interviewed a different or subsequent household.

1.7 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The data collected will be analysed by means of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 22 for Windows. The subsequent statistical methods will be utilised on the empirical data sets:

- Descriptive analysis
- Significance tests
- Correlation
- Regression

1.7.1 Linear regression model

The relationship between variables is examined in regression analysis (two or more variables). A regression consists of a dependent and independent variables. Kramarz and Visser (2012) allude that a simple linear regression model is described as a model where the explained variable shows linearity in parameters, is continuous, and defined by a single exogenous variable. In theory, a linear

relationship between binary variables is presented as such: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$: where the specified model is linear in the limits β_0 and β_1 with the independent variable being either continuous or discrete. This study, thus, uses a linear regression model to determine the causes and find the correlation between household needs by creating an asset index using the assets a household owns, and child needs by means of a child deprivation index, created from the material things deemed important in childhood. The dependent variables comprise of the child deprivation index and the asset index. The study makes use of two linear regression models to make the comparison and determine if household poverty does really mean that a child in that household will be deprived. The models are depicted as follows:

$$AI = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D_1 + \beta_2 D_2 + \beta_3 D_3 + \beta_4 D_4 + \beta_5 D_5 + \beta_6 D_6 + \beta_7 D_7 + \epsilon \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (3.1)$$

$$CDI = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D_1 + \beta_2 D_2 + \beta_3 D_3 + \beta_4 D_4 + \beta_5 D_5 + \beta_6 D_6 + \beta_7 D_7 + \epsilon \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (3.2)$$

Where equation *AI* represents the asset index and *CDI* represents the child deprivation index. The explanatory variables of this study are age, gender, qualification level, employment status, income, marital status and the number of people in the household. The SPSS software package was used to run the ordinary least squares (OLS) regression model. The following are the explanatory variables for the study:

$D_1 =$ Total income of the head of household

$D_2 =$ Age of the head of household

$D_3 =$ Gender of household head

$D_4 =$ Employment status

$D_5 =$ Qualification level of the head of household

$D_6 =$ Number of people in the household

$D_7 =$ Marital status of the head of household

α = Intercept

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5, \beta_6 \beta_7 =$ coefficients

1.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to Nueman (2011:143), ethical issues comprise of the conflicts, concerns and dilemmas that happen in conducting research properly. Ethics generally involve the act of doing what is legitimate or illegitimate, or perhaps what is entailed in a moral procedure of research. When undertaking research it is important to have a balance between pursuing knowledge and the rights of your respondents. Creswell (1994:165) concludes that in conducting the study, the researcher is obligated to respect the values, needs, rights and even the desires of the respondents. This study adhered to the ethical standards of academic research. The following steps were taken: The questionnaire went through the ethical clearance process, which was conducted by the ethical committee at North-West University Vaal Triangle Campus. The ethical committee prevents litigation; they are the defenders of reputation (Somekh & Lewin, 2011:27). In other words, the committee ensures that the researcher has considered ethics and makes certain that there are procedures taken towards preventing the partakers from harm (Somekh & Lewin, 2011:27). Permission to conduct the household survey in Jabulani Township was granted by the councillor of Jabulani Township, City of Johannesburg. The head of the household was required to respond to the questions; however, if the head of the household was below 18 years old then the information was not obtained from them. The respondents were not expected to indicate their names or respond to questions they were not comfortable to respond to and the information obtained from them was strictly kept confidential.

1.9 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

The following outlines the study.

Chapter 1 The problem and its setting

This segment introduces the field of the study, gives an understanding of the research problem and formulates the study objectives

Chapter 2 Literature review on household poverty and child deprivation

This chapter of the study provides the literature on poverty, child poverty and child deprivation. The measurement of poverty as well as child deprivation is discussed.

Chapter 3 Research design and methodology

The chapter concentrates on the design and research methodology pertaining to child deprivation and a household profile of the sample.

Chapter 4 Data analysis of household poverty and child deprivation

The chapter examines data of household poverty and deprivation levels experienced by children in poor and non-poor families. The intention is to give an understanding of the trends of household poverty and child deprivation and draw their relationship.

Chapter 5 Summary, conclusion and recommendations

The last chapter summarises the results of the study and concludes on them. Furthermore, the chapter gives recommendations on what could be done to reduce poverty and help poor children.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW ON HOUSEHOLD POVERTY AND CHILD DEPRIVATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Poverty is a complex phenomenon, impelled by many factors, affecting people in various aspects and can be examined from many different perspectives (Instituto Nacional De Estadistica, 2007). This suggests that the fluctuation of poverty goes from one place to the other; many reasons are assigned to what really causes the incidence of poverty (Harkness *et al.,* 2012:23). According to Cosatu (2000), for survival several households in South Africa rely on money from a member of the family who is employed. Since there is inadequacy in public welfare in South Africa, the community and the entire family is affected when a worker loses his or her employment. The United Nations (UN, 2010) argue that poverty has massive and commonly harmful outcomes on children. Childhood poverty is different from adulthood poverty, hence children are referred to as the most susceptible in society, especially those who are below the age of 18 (Bárcena *et al*., 2014). Child poverty entails children who go through privation of the physical means required for survival, development and prosperity, preventing the children from relishing in their rights and privileges, realising their full aptitude, or participating as equal society members. A study conducted by Adetola & Olufemi, (2012:39) in Nigeria in 2008 indicates that one in every three children living in the developing world do not have access to basic sanitation, and one of every five has no access to safe drinking water).

This chapter outlines the theoretical background to poverty, household poverty, child deprivation and child poverty. It deals with the definitions, types, causes and measurements of poverty.

2.2 POVERTY

Even though poverty is deemed a worldwide problem, it is particularly prominent in Africa; a large number of the deprived states are situated in Sub-Saharan Africa (Oldewage-Theron & Slabbert, 2010). Several countries have been categorised as countries with low human development (Todaro, 1994), based on the human development index ranked on the scale of 0 to 0.5 in order to measure the life expectancy, adult literacy and income in Southern Africa. South Africa is a middle-

income country, though it has an enormous number of its inhabitants living below the poverty line (Davids, 2010; Frye, 2006). In South Africa, the poor perceive poverty as being isolated from the society, not having enough food, living in overcrowded households, using unstable and feeble forms of energy, being deprived of employments, which are satisfactorily compensated, and household disintegration (Wright *et al.,* 2008). The following sub-sections describe poverty.

2.2.1 Definitions of poverty

Poverty research employs a broad range of poverty definitions. Ultimately, all definitions can be grouped among the following types: (i) Poverty is when one has less than a predetermined absolute minimum, (ii) Poverty is when one has less in comparison to other people in the society, (iii) Poverty is when one believes they have less for survival (Hagenaars & De Vos, 1988:212). The first category defines poverty as absolute, in the second category, poverty is relative, and in the third category, poverty could be absolute or relative, or even intermediate. There are a number of theories and approaches to defining poverty, however, in this study, poverty will be described in accordance to the above categories of poverty. The following sub-sections define poverty.

2.2.1.1 Absolute poverty

Absolute poverty is a situation epitomised by grave privation of basic human necessities comprising clean water, food, public health facilities, shelter, information and education. It also depends on access to services not only income (Gordon, 2005). According to Instituto Nacional de Estadística (2007), it is a condition in which the persons' basic needs are not taken care of; there is a deprivation of basic goods and services. An individual who is deemed poor under this criterion is categorised in a similar way all over the world. In absolute terms, poverty generally is measured by the value (actual terms) of a specified level of goods ascertaining some kind of minimum sustenance, for example, the minimum income needed to have satisfactory lives or value of basic foods. The principal efforts in defining poverty as an absolute notion have taken into consideration the minimum costs of a basket of goods, for example, the lowest cost for each household to attain an essential calorific standard. However, this approach of defining poverty has two major inadequacies: first,

minimum diet costs could vary between households because they do not all share similar preferences of nutrition patterns; secondly, only food items are taken into consideration (Bellù & Liberati, 2005:4).

2.2.1.2 Relative poverty

From a relative viewpoint, an individual is deemed poor when they are in a visibly disadvantaged state, either socially or financially, taking other people in their environment into consideration. This notion of poverty is linked strongly to the concept of inequality (Instituto Nacional de Estadística, 2007). According to European Anti-Poverty Network (EAPN, 2009), an individual is said to be experiencing relative poverty when their income levels are lower than the specified percentage of mean domestic income and their life-style is poor compared to the common living standard in the area in which they reside. The meaning of this will differ from country to country, subject to the living standards desired by most people. Though not as severe as absolute poverty, relative poverty is still quite serious and detrimental. Moreover, relative poverty signifies a living standard expressed in connection to the situation of different individuals in the expenditure/revenue allocation. With regards to this, poverty is essentially a spectacle of inequality. For instance, one could describe the disadvantaged as those persons who have revenues less than 50 percent of the average returns of the society. Thus, if there is growth in average income for the reason that wealthier individuals gain more, individuals in relative poverty could be more. This concept automatically seems to signal changing economic and social circumstances in a given country. The focal drawback of this approach is, if poverty is described as a fixed percentage of some synthetic indicator of the distribution of income, there will be no prospect to eradicate it, unless the income distribution becomes perfectly egalitarian (Bellù & Liberati, 2005:4).

2.2.1.3 Absolute and relative poverty definitions

With reference to the third category of defining poverty as mentioned above, different studies define poverty in both relative and/or absolute terms as follows:

According to Mokoena (2004:14), the concept of poverty can be described theoretically as absence of management over goods generally viewed as vital to

ascertain a sensible standard of living, or possibly the inability to serve in the society. This explanation stresses management over possessions and the absence of partaking in municipal and government matters.

The European Union (EU, 2007:3) states that poverty uncovers itself in several practices: scarcity of income, deficiency of resources and possessions essential for efficiency. When people are experiencing food shortage and malnutrition, in need of sufficient health care, restraints to basic facilities, need of education, proper households and adequate accommodation, harmless and fit surrounds as well as supplementary services that allow individuals to live up to their duties.

Poverty is neediness of accommodation, food shortage, being in poor health and not able to get assistance from a doctor. It is not being able to read as a result of poor or no education. It is being without a job, anxiety about future endeavours and living off the little that one has. Moreover, poverty is living with the sadness of child mortality due to contaminated water; it is lack of freedom (World Bank, 2008). Lastly, poverty is a state in which the set of an individuals' consumption is harshly confined; it is a situation where command over resources falls below a certain level (Goedhart *et al.,* 2005; Lister, 2004:13).

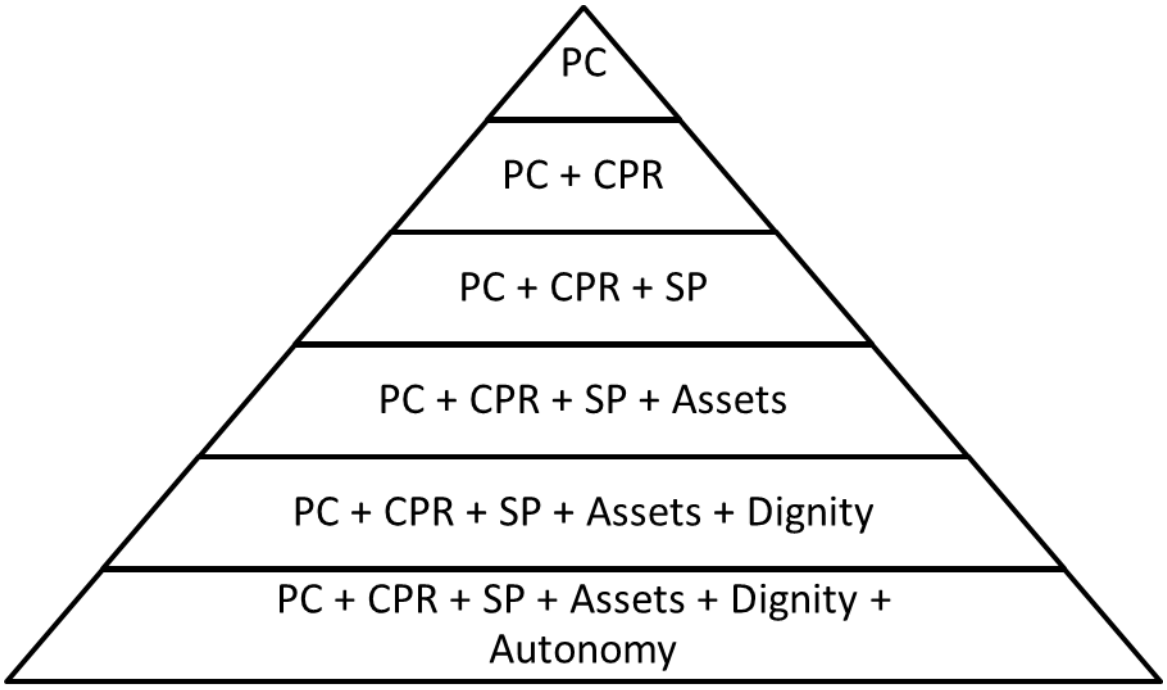
Chellakan (2007:173) defines poverty as not having what is essential for physical wellness, particularly nutrients and accommodation, land and other possessions. It is the deficiency of several resources, and as result, individuals are deprived physically. Deprived people's descriptions divulge significant psychological facets of poverty. Underprivileged people are deeply mindful of their lack of power, voice and individuality, which makes them vulnerable to exploitation.

Gordon (2005) concludes that poverty is a refusal of opportunities and choices, a desecration of human pride. It signifies absence of basic capability to partake efficiently in society. It implies having less to clothe and feed a household, not having access to a clinic or school, having no land whereby one can produce food or employment to make a living, having no access to credit. Poverty signifies insecurity, lack of power and segregation of persons, households and societies. It implies defencelessness to violence, and it regularly means living in minimal or delicate surroundings, with no access to unpolluted water or hygiene.

Poverty has a different meaning to different people and groups. In light of the above definitions of poverty, it is vital to describe a pyramid of poverty concepts.

Falkingham and Namazie (2001:3) describe an advanced expansion of what is believed to establish poverty by means of a “pyramid of concepts”. An element of well-being is represented by each concept, and every conceptualisation establishes a diverse grouping of elements; with the groupings becoming wider and even more multifaceted when shifting down the pyramid (Gunewardena, 2004:15). In Figure 2.1, PC represents private consumption, CPR is common property resources, and SPC stands for state provided commodities. Poverty is regarded as a procedure, instead of a stationary concept, in these multidimensional conceptualisations. For instance, instead of viewing the deprived as inactive preys waiting for handouts, the poor are perceived as agents finding it hard to deal with poverty with any kind of assets in their possession. The emphasis is on the resources they have access to and the assets they possess, instead of what they lack (Cagatay, 1998:6).

Figure 2.1 Pyramid of poverty concepts



Source: Baulch, 1996

Given the above definitions of poverty, the following section will explore the causes of poverty.

2.2.2 Causes of poverty

Poverty is caused by numerous factors, more often there is an interrelation between the triggers and outcomes of poverty. In such a way that the circumstances that cause poverty similarly formulate situations sustaining the conditions of being deprived. The subsequent sub-section discusses poverty causes.

2.2.2.1 Corruption and social inequality

When leaders do not take responsibility or accountability as servants of the society, then repeatedly corruption complements centralism of power. Corruption hinders development directly, once leaders use money for their own benefits instead of using it for development projects. Social inequality is one more root of poverty that results from cultural philosophies concerning the comparative value of diverse races, social ranks, genders and ethnic groups. Inequality manifests by grouping individuals by means of social categories, frequently based on ethnic characteristics or religion (Phillip & Rayhan, 2004).

2.2.2.2 Pervasive illiteracy and wide-spread diseases

There is a considerably high level of illiteracy in least developed countries. This is an incredibly great problem in the improvement of the people's livelihoods. The deprived, who are also illiterate, have a restricted opportunity of using enhanced production technologies and preventative health services. That is the reason viruses such as malaria and human immune virus (HIV) have aggravated the extreme circumstances of the deprived. Viruses escalate expenses on health, while reducing effective working time, hence diminishing the productivity of labour and availability in the households (Phillip & Rayhan, 2004:10).

2.2.2.3 Proneness to income shocks, agricultural cycles and natural disasters

According to Shinns and Lyne (2005), to alleviate poverty and sustain their economy, most Sub-Saharan countries rely on agricultural products. Due to unanticipated

events like wind, drought and floods and the scarcity of resources, agriculture cannot hold up the economy. Developing countries go through severe crises because of natural disasters, since inadequate resources constrain the construction of suitable housing, substructure and instruments for responding to crises. This is an indication that the individuals who depend on agriculture acquire a smaller amount of income; as a result, there is no assurance of essential goods and services. For the mere reason that citizens are unable to provide basic needs because of fluctuations in income, they are susceptible to poverty. For instance, in Malawi, approximately three quarters of its citizens are poor as they are reliant on agriculture (Phillip & Rayhan, 2004:10).

2.2.2.4 Institutional failures

A number of substantial aspects of institutional miscarriages are in governance, education, property rights, employment and labour markets. Stats SA (2014) states that during the period 1994 and 2014, employment in South Africa increased by 6.2 million, however, the labour force also increased by 8.7 million, leading to 2.6 million jobless, for example occupation in the manufacturing sector declined by 34 percent from 1 838 (employed people) in 2013 to 1 804 (employed people) in 2014. This suggests that South Africa is experiencing low levels of employment, which worsens the state of poverty. Thus, this could be attributed to poor service delivery resulting to vulnerability to poverty (National Treasury, 2013; Breckenridge, 2014).

2.2.3 A brief overview of the causes of poverty in South Africa

According to Francis (2006) and Woolard (2002), South Africa is still suffering from the after-effects of the apartheid regime, which left a high level of inequality especially to the previously disadvantaged. There is a skewed allocation of income and wealth in South Africa; this can be attributed to apartheid which impelled social inclusion of the minority and social exclusion of the majority leaving the majority poverty stricken. At the time people were grouped according to race and it was decided where they fit in the economic and social system. Black South Africans received an inferior education, were unable to own land or work in well-paying jobs. After democracy the government attempted to remedy the situation, this moved a number of people out of poverty, as the restrictions on employment and education

were broken. However, there are still constraints and challenges; the policies implemented in South Africa have a tendency of making the poor poorer and the rich richer. The crucial factor is that economic assets and income distribution is skewed, which results in vulnerability to poverty and further causes dependency on the state.

There is a strong relationship between education and poverty. Poverty stricken people are usually unlikely to attain quality education or any education at all and without an education, they are likely to be trapped in poverty for a long time. The majority of the illiterate population in South Africa live in poverty − they are unable to get well-compensated jobs and at times they cannot even get jobs (Stats SA, 2014). Certain jobs require certain skills and a specific level of education, as a result the poor remain illiterate and jobless, thus a better educated household is less likely to be poor (Van der Berg, 2008). However, a great predicament that leads to poverty is the lack of jobs in South Africa, even for the educated population. It is known that as the country develops, the demand for more educated labour rises, however, economic development and growth has been sluggish. In 2014, the annual gross domestic product (GDP) dropped 1.5 percent, the weakest performance since the global financial crisis. As a result, the phenomenon of unemployment poses substantial challenges because at the end of 2014 it reached 24.3 percent (Kumo *et al.,* 2015).

According to Mubangizi (2009), the South African government has focused less attention on the process of service delivery to alleviate poverty. The impact of the structure of poverty alleviation programmes influences the wellbeing of the poor. As a result, poverty can be attributed to poor service delivery, there is less emphasis on accountability, and administrative and budget management in the public sector for poverty alleviation predominantly. Consequently, the poor have resorted to strikes and mass demonstration to voice their frustrations, which often has a negative effect on the economy of the country.

Subsequent to the causes of poverty discussed above, the following sub-section outlines four types of poverty.

2.2.4 Types of poverty

According to Jensen (2009), the following are the types of poverty:

- **Situational poverty**: Situational poverty is caused commonly by an unexpected loss or crisis and usually is provisional. Incidences causing situational poverty comprise divorce, extreme health problems and environmental disasters.

- **Generational poverty**: When no less than two generations in households have been born into poverty, generational poverty transpires. Households that experience this nature of poverty are not prepared with the means to escape the situations.
- **Urban poverty**: This type of poverty takes place in metropolitan neighbourhoods with populations of no less than 50 000 individuals. The urban deprived put up with an intricate aggregate of long-lasting and severe stressors (comprising overcrowding, noise and violence) and are reliant on regularly insufficient large-city services.
- **Rural poverty**: Rural poverty happens in non-metropolitan areas with inhabitants lower than 50,000 individuals. There are more single-headed households in rural areas and families usually have limited access to services, quality education prospects and assistance for disabilities. Programs to inspire a shift from welfare to employment are challenging in isolated rural areas, where work prospects are scarce.

As there are different types of poverty, the poor are also characterised by different elements. The following sub-section briefly discusses the characteristics of the poor.

2.2.5 Characteristics of the poor

According to Krishna (2011:12), poor people are known as those that are unable to progress or live beyond the poverty line. It is those people who do not have food regularly, and in some instances are incapable of sending their children to school. They are incapable of acquiring additional clothing (as a result they feel ashamed of the clothes they wear). Similarly, they are not able to pay off the debts they owe to others, and they are unable to keep dry, even in their own homes, when it rains.

People perceive poverty differently. Based on their environment, food affordability, the jobs they occupy and many other aspects. As a result, poverty is measured in different ways. Thus, the sub-section that follows describes the measures of poverty.

2.3 MEASURES OF POVERTY

Poverty measurement is not a straightforward task because it should be done accurately and could be carried out by utilising appropriate instruments. Thus, there are qualitative and quantitative measures of poverty. In qualitative terms, the experiences of poverty sufferers are taken into consideration while the quantitative approach uses the collected data and disregards feelings and encounters of poor individuals (Clert *et al*., 2001:1). Different poverty measures are discussed as follows:

2.3.1 Poverty lines

The World Bank (2011) defines poverty lines as cut-off points separating the advantaged from the disadvantaged. The poverty lines may be monetary or non-monetary. In differentiating poverty levels, several poverty lines could be utilised. Gumede (2008:8) argues that a poverty line is described as the capital vital to get the minimal level of welfare that is favoured; with the goal, that one is not deemed as deprived. It numerically depicts the value of the goods and services deemed essential for a person or a household. Poverty lines can be utilised to examine resource allocation in a country, for this reason it helps in establishing the population living above or below the poverty line.

The Department of Census and Statistics in Sri Lanka (2004:1) adds that poverty lines can be estimated in two wide categories, in relative and absolute terms. A relative poverty line is described by making use of a certain percentage cut-off point in welfare allocation. The absolute poverty line is openly set at a particular welfare level. Given that the relative poverty line is straightforward and transparent, it is found to be appealing. In South Africa, the following poverty lines are used, namely poverty datum line (PDL) (food, clothing, fuel/lighting, washing/cleaning, rent, transport), minimum subsistence level (MLL) (PDL plus tax, medical expenses, education, housing equipment and replacement), supplementary living level (SLL) (MLL plus more of each item, plus recreation, personal care, pension,

unemployment, insurance fund, medical aid, burial contributions, which is approximately MLL plus 30 percent), household subsistence level (HSL) (as for PDL) and household effective level (HEL) (HSL plus 50 percent).

Sabry (2009:2) describes poverty lines as a one-dimensional indicator described by either consumption or spending, thus they fail to contain the expansion of the definition of poverty. The money-metric method utilised, concentrated on the income poverty aspect and disregarded all other scopes of well-being. Poverty lines have been critiqued at national as well as international level for being arbitrary, not built on the actual requirements of people and set too low. The approaches utilised to determine the cut-off points defining the poor (below a specific line) and non-poor (above a specific line) are mutually challenging and arbitrary. Sabry (2009:3) further explains that the problems below have a substantial influence on the ultimate results, because a minor change can lead to a drastically different poverty line.

- Numerous poverty lines are not able to cope with economies of scale of various household sizes along with other elements such as the compositions of households (an assumption is made that individuals require the same things irrespective of their gender, age and employment).

- Similarly, poverty lines are unable to manage gender scopes of poverty as well as inequality within households, since the household is utilised as an element of study.

- Poverty lines do not deal with variations in price, sufficiently.

- It is impossible to compare trends of poverty within and across countries, for the reason that different studies use different approaches. As a result, the data cannot be compared.

2.3.2 The headcount index

The headcount index is a common measure of the occurrence of poverty in a specific area. This measure of poverty is established by dividing the total of the population in a country living below a certain income level by the total population. In different terms, the headcount index is simply the percentage of the population living

below an established poverty line. Thus, the headcount index is represented as the poverty ratio. The headcount index is a straightforward poverty measure; however, in practice various aspects of the index hamper its effectiveness (Matheson, 2006).

Borooah and McGregor (1991:359) state that if income allocation is symbolised by y and similarly the poverty line is represented by z, a measure of poverty can be formulated by the function $P(y;z)$. A population of income (N) units with income y,$(i = 1 \ldots N)$ placed in increasing order by sub-script, M units comprise of income less than Z, so the headcount ratio (H) can be defined as follows:

$$H\ (y,z) = \frac{M}{N} \qquad (2.1)$$

2.3.3 Human poverty index (HPI)

The human poverty index (HPI) is a composite poverty index that takes into consideration the deprivations experienced by the population. Its intention is to measure poverty as a hindrance in human capability in numerous dimensions, contrary to the headcount measure that only looks at minimal incomes. The HPI is a combined measure that uses the dimensions of human lifespan comprised in the human development index (HDI): length of life, education, and a reasonable standard. Based on the availability of statistical data, this index is implemented every year. Two approaches are taken into account when calculating the index; the planning is dependent on whether the economy is developed (HPI-2) or developing (HPI-1) (Chakravarty & Majumder, 2005:275; Pochun, 1999).

According to Makoka and Kaplan (2005:21), the HPI is calculated as follows:

$$HPI = \left[\frac{1}{3}(P_1^{\propto} + P_2^{\propto} + P_3^{\propto})\right]^{\frac{1}{\propto}} \qquad (2.2)$$

where: $P_{1=}$ the probability at birth of not surviving to age 40 (times 100)

$P_{2\ =}$ Adult illiteracy rate

$P_{3\ =}$ Unweighted average of population without sustainable access to an improved water source and children under weight for age

$\propto = 3$

The HPI is advantageous in the sense that it reminds one that poverty cannot be alleviated by economic growth only. It has a straightforward methodology and can be accessed by both experts and non-experts. Unlike other measures of poverty, the HPI is less vulnerable to extensive market fluctuations that could be problematic when utilising income-based measures (Mowafi, 2004).

2.3.4 Poverty gap index (PGI)

According to Vecchi (2007) and Makoka and Kaplan (2005), the PGI is described as the average poverty gap of the population at large, on average it takes into consideration how far the deprived population is from the poverty line. PGI measures the intensity of poverty to which the average revenue of the deprived varies from the established poverty line. The benefit of the PGI is that it mirrors the mean shortfall of people; as a result, it gives a better grasp of the complexity of poverty.

The poverty gap index can be represented by means of:

$$P_{1=\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\left(\frac{z-y_i}{z}\right)I\,(z-y_i)=\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{q}\left(\frac{z-y_i}{z}\right)} \quad (2.3)$$

Where: $N =$ total population

y_i=Welfare indicator, for example consumption per capita

$z =$Poverty line

$N_P =$Total number of the poor

Another benefit of the PGI is that it mirrors the complexity or rather deepness of poverty, however, the PGI is rather insensitive to allocation of income amongst the deprived (Vecchi, 2007).

2.3.5 Squared poverty gap index (SPGI)

Tinonin (2012) defines the squared poverty gap index (SPGI) as the mean of the square relative poverty gap of the deprived. The SPGI establishes the extent of poverty for a specific area. This approach gives weight to the poor according to their poverty status; it is a proportion of the poverty gap. A conveyance from a needy home to a needier home could reduce the index. However, the measure is difficult to

read and interpret because it lacks instinctive appeal and as a result, it is not widely used (World Bank Institute, 2005:73).

The SPGI could be calculated as such:

$$P_2 = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{q}\left(\frac{z-y_1}{z}\right)^2 \quad (2.4)$$

Where: $N =$ Total population

y_i= Welfare indicator, for example consumption per capita

$z =$ Poverty line

$N_P =$ Total number of the poor

Poverty is viewed mostly from the perspective of the household; by looking at not only the total income of the household but other aspects as well that could lead to poverty (Gordon *et al.,* 2000:10). The following section discusses household poverty.

2.3.6 Multidimensional poverty Index

According to Alkire and Santos (2010), the multidimensional poverty index (MPI) assesses the nature and intensity of poverty at the individual level. The poor are considered those who are multiply deprived and the extent of their poverty is measured by the extent of their deprivations such as deprivation of education, health care, and not being fulfilled spiritually. The MPI creates a vivid picture of people living in poverty within and across countries, regions and the world. The multidimensional poverty index is the first international measure of its kind and offers an essential complement to income poverty measures because it measures deprivations directly (Dotter & Klasen, 2014).

2.4 HOUSEHOLD POVERTY

The poverty status of the household is accepted broadly as a significant measure of the household's well-being (Chaudhuri *et al*., 2002:2). In comparison to other households, low-income households are more at risk of going through poverty. However, some low-income households seem to have tolerable conditions of living and certain households with poor living levels have incomes that are greater than the

poverty line (Grødem, 2008:107). The following section discusses household poverty.

2.4.1 Definition of a household

Different individuals perceive a household in different ways. This sub-section hence provides definitions of a household.

This study identifies three definitions of a household. According to Coast *et al*. (2011), a household is a collection of individuals who generally live together in the household. Members as head of household must acknowledge the authority of one person (a man or woman) and that particular individual may reside with the rest of the household members.

Beaman and Dillon (2010:5) define a household as a group of people residing in the same household, related or not, under the accountability of a head of household whose authority is recognised by all the members. The regular household comprises of a household head, his spouse, his single children, and probably his relatives or other people to whom he is not related. The household can be restricted to only one individual or an individual with children.

Jenkinson (1998) concludes that a household consists of either one individual living alone or a number of individuals, who could be related or unrelated, residing at the same address, with mutual housework, who share at minimum a meal daily or share joint living space (for instance a sitting room). This includes household domestic help. Members of household are not really interrelated by marriage or blood.

2.4.2 Characteristics of a poor household

According to Ahmed *et al*. (2007), the poor are those who spend a lot on food, fuel and other household necessities, those living in remote areas with little to no education and limited assets, and in some countries the landless. The following points highlight several characteristics of a poor household.

2.4.2.1 Spending on fuel, food, health care and housing

Through regions and income groups, food expenses embody the main portion of household budgets. Generally, those in rural areas and deprived households use a

fairly greater percentage of the household income on foodstuff compared to others; nonetheless, the variances are not big. Fuel expenses signify the second greatest portion in India, Pakistan and Bangladesh, although household expenses epitomise the second highest portion in Tajikistan. In contrast to food, poor households spend less on health care per need than better-off households do (Ahmed *et al*., 2007).

2.4.2.2 Remoteness

The poor households and those that are food-insecure are situated farthest from streets, marketplaces, health services and schools. For instance in Nicaragua, the pervasiveness of poverty is greater in the central rural region; whereby individuals travel long distances to get to a nearby primary school and health care service. In Zambia, poor individuals probably are situated more than 20 kilometers from the closest marketplace than the non-poor. Additionally, when households have an electricity connection to a certain degree it shows that the households are connected to markets, sources of communication, roads and income-earning prospects as well as municipal services (Ahmed *et al*., 2007).

2.4.2.3 Assets

The control or ownership of productive assets is a significant determinant of livelihood; for the reason that assets generate revenue (Ahmed *et al.,* 2007). One of the significant purposes of accumulating assets is that they enable households to attain some degree of security when economic downturns take place. This, according to economists, is the capability of savings and assets to shield consumption against unanticipated shocks. However, a poor household lacks adequate net worth to keep itself over the poverty line; therefore, it is considered asset poor (Hirschl & Rank, 2010).

2.4.2.4 Education

It has been made known that education has vital assenting outcomes on employment, child and adult health, access to credit, agricultural productivity, outcomes of education and use of government services. There is a general expectation that illiterate women and men will experience poverty (Ahmed *et al.*, 2007). Education can diminish poverty in various ways; first, persons that are more

educated are very likely to get jobs, to be more productive and be paid more. Poverty as a restriction to educational accomplishment, both at the micro-level (children of deprived households obtain less education) and macro-level (deprived countries commonly have lower enrolment levels). Education brings about social benefits that advance the state of the poor, for instance, lower fertility, better health care of children, and better involvement of females in the labour market (Van der Berg, 2008).

2.4.3 Determinants of household poverty

This sub-section briefly highlights the determinants of household poverty as depicted by Table 2.1. According to EAPN (2009), the determinants of household poverty such as regional characteristics (living in very disadvantaged or remote community, where there is poor access to services leads to vulnerability to household poverty), community characteristics (a number of people live in communities whereby the infrastructure is not up to standard for example, they do not have clean water, toilets and sanitation. Similarly land is not allocated evenly and access to goods and services is a challenge, household characteristics (type and size of the household) larger families and families headed by one guardian are likely to be at higher risk of poverty since they have more expenditures, lesser income and are unable to secure employment.

When looking at gender as a household characteristic, it can be argued that females have a higher probability of falling into poverty compared to males. They are less likely to have compensated employment and receive lesser pensions, are more engaged in voluntary supervision and household tasks, and when employed, often are compensated less. Individual characteristics such as unemployment and ill-health or disability (unemployment: as this stands in the way of secured employment, that will not only develop one but will advance the society as well, ill-health or disability: this bounds capability to have an occupation and results to augmented daily costs).

Table 2.1 Determinants of poverty

Regional characteristic	• Living in secluded areas, where infrastructure and access to markets is poor • Availability of quality land • Weather and environmental conditions (for instance occurrence of earthquakes) • State of governance
Community characteristics	• Infrastructure (for instance, housing , clean water and sanitation) • Allocation of land • Accessibility to public goods and services (for instance schooling, health services) • Social structure and social capital
Household characteristics	• Number of people in the household • Dependency ratio • Sex of household head • Assets (generally including fridge, housing, livestock etc.) • Employment status of adults in the household and income levels • Average health and educational level of members of the household
Individual characteristics	• Age • Educational level • Employment status • Health status • Ethnicity

Source: Adapted from Haughton & Khandker, 2009

2.4.4 Dimensions of household poverty

Woolard and Leibbrandt (1999:3) describe five household poverty dimensions:

- Poverty being a privation of sufficient means to make income
- Susceptibility to crisis and the likelihood of being poorer
- Being physically weak because of malnutrition, illness or incapacity
- Ineffectiveness within present political, economic, social and cultural structures
- Having to be physically or socially isolated because of marginal location, inability to access services and goods, lack of knowledge or illiteracy.

In most developing countries over the last few decades, child poverty and child deprivation have been a prevalent and consistent occurrence. In the EU, more than one in four children is at risk of deprivation and poverty (López Vilaplana, 2011). The phenomenon of child deprivation and poverty leads to a greater risk of adulthood poverty; leading to negative consequences on full participation in social activities (Bárcena *et al*., 2014). The next section outlines child deprivation and child poverty.

2.5 CHILD DEPRIVATION

According to Gordon and Nandy (2012:7), there is a great relation between the notion of poverty and deprivation. On the other hand, it has been agreed universally that the concept of deprivation consists of several conditions that are independent of income experienced by the poor (Bastos *et al.,* 2004). While the concept of poverty takes into consideration income deprivation (Spéder & Kapitány, 2005).

This section discusses the definition of deprivation; however, for the sake of this study, deprivation will be examined with special reference to the child. Furthermore, the study will not only examine child deprivation but will also look into child poverty, as the two are somewhat used interchangeably in child deprivation studies.

With reference to the above, the following sub-section defines deprivation in a general perspective.

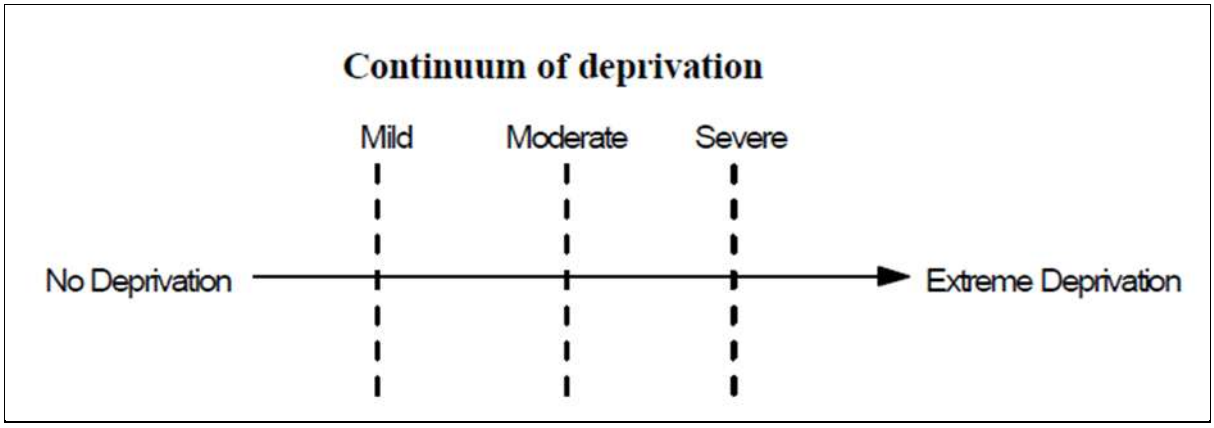
2.5.1 Definitions of deprivation

Deprivation takes place when people are unable to attain nutrition, facilities, services and standards, which give them the opportunity to function. If people are unable to take part in society matters and do everything that is expected of them as citizens they are considered deprived (Maré *et al.,* 2001; Lister, 2004:21) The concept of

deprivation is thus multidimensional as it takes into consideration numerous aspects of a person's life (Lister, 2004:21).

Gordon (2005) alludes that deprivation could be described as a scale, which varies from no deprivation, mild, moderate, severe up to extreme deprivation. Thus, Figure 2.2 illustrates deprivation by means of a continuum of deprivation scale. The scale ranges from no deprivation to extreme deprivation. If an individual is not experiencing any sort of deprivation then on the scale the individual falls under no deprivation. However, if one is mildly deprived then the person is classified under mild on the scale. Similarly, those with moderate and severe deprivation levels are also accounted for, with moderate being the average level of deprivation. The people who are highly deprived, that is, much more than the rest, fall under the last dimension of the scale categorised as extreme deprivation. This figure suggests that people experience different kinds of deprivations, in different measures.

Figure 2.2 Continuum of deprivation



Source: Gordon, 2005

According to Townsend (1987), the phenomenon of deprivation could be described as a situation of obvious and apparent difficulty, in relation to the nation or broader society or local community wherein a family or an individual belongs. There are several diverse types of deprivations in each identified society. Individuals are considered deprived when they lack proper nutrition, clothing, accommodation, decent household facilities, employment and a decent environment; all of which are considered important in the societies they live in. Deprivation includes numerous misfortunes that individuals can experience in a society.

Deprivation can be defined as circumstance of demonstrable disadvantage, taking into consideration the community or society to which a household or an individual belongs. Deprivation takes into account emotions and physical and social circumstances, instead of just income and particular circumstances (Gordon *et al.,* 2003:6).

2.5.2 Definitions of child deprivation and child poverty

According to the Children's Act South Africa (2005), a person below the age of 18 years is considered a child. When a child is not receiving satisfactory education, health care or possibly the essential resources necessary for physical and emotional well-being, the child is considered deprived. The notion of deprivation could similarly apply to an abandoned, homeless or poor child, a child with no parent or guardian, or perhaps a child whose home is an unfit place with limited to no resources necessary for the growth of such a child (US Legal, 2014).

Leatt (2006b) alludes that child poverty is a circumstance whereby children do not have sufficient resources to grow healthy and strong, to be able to go to school, to live in a sufficiently good environment and, mainly, to fulfill their capabilities. Children are said to experience poverty when they are deprived of the resources necessary for their growth and development. More often children affected by child poverty are those living in homes that lack material resources. Townsend (1979) defined this as the lack of goods and services required to obtain the essential nutrition, partake in activities and have conditions of living that are socially acceptable. Such resources could consist of money; nonetheless, they might also include other sorts of physical resources such as access to clean water, a decent home and quality free education (Children Society, 2013).

Poverty is an unreasonably low standard of living. Children are described as poor when they live in households with low levels of income. As a result, income can indirectly give an indication of children's consumption level (Bradbury, 2003).

According to UNICEF (2006), child deprivation suggests that growing up lacking the following factors can cause childhood deprivation:

- A decent livelihood, for instance a lack of basic necessities

- Access to good education and quality health care
- A satisfactory environment and social security structures that protect them
- Prospects for expression – political resources, power and absence of voice, often adds force to the escalation of poverty.

More than half of the children in the emerging world reside in poor societies. Child deprivation is a disturbing phenomenon for numerous children, it differs from overall deprivation and if not tackled could impact future generations negatively (Minujin *et al.,* 2005:3; UNICEF, 2014a). Trani *et al.* (2013:394) states that children experiencing poverty are deprived of many elements required for survival, for example spiritual, psychological and material resources. They are unable to flourish; as a result, it hinders them from relishing their rights as children, reaching their utmost ability or, better yet, taking part in the society as equal members. Thus, there is an interrelation in the deprivations that children experience in various dimensions.

Child poverty is measured mostly by deprivation in income, such that the poverty measure is the proportion of children living in households with income levels under the poverty line. This approach is dependent on the idea of a great association between the health of the child and the income of the family. Although this one-dimensional measure is pleasingly simple, it does not capture the multifaceted pattern of deprivation that may be experienced by children. Indicators of deprivation offer information on the scope to which several necessities are met, whereas money-metric indicators of poverty offer an indication of the monetary measures of the household to fulfill its requirements. The former is a result of variables that have been combined, comprising the income and resources available to the households, choices of expenditure by the household, the availability of public services and goods and the general economic status (De Neubourg *et al.*, 2012:1).

2.5.3 A brief overview of the causes of child poverty in South Africa

There are several basic causes of child poverty, most of the time the causes and effects of child poverty interconnect, in ways that the factors that cause child poverty also create conditions that sustain the state of being poor. The following section outlines some causes of child poverty in South Africa.

The effect of HIV/AIDS on children and households is increasing, poor households residing in communities with insufficient infrastructure and partial access to basic goods and services are usually in the worst position. Changes related to the illness or death of a breadwinner or guardian are likely to put children through circumstances of hardship, children tend to experience severe poverty in such circumstances. They are forced sometimes by their circumstances to drop out of school in order to head households. As a result of HIV/AIDS, children go through hardships such as food insecurity, limited access to health services, worsening material conditions, and loss of productive assets (Richter, 2004). According to UNAIDS (2015), in South Africa 15.8 million people access antiretroviral therapy yet there are still many children who are left orphaned because of HIV/AIDS (orphans due to AIDS aged 0–17: 2,300,000) (The Stephen Lewis Foundation, 2015). These children are taken care of by relatives, children homes and in the worst cases, they live in poverty as they head households.

Child support grants are lower than the rates that may be required to lift some children in workless homes out of the situation of poverty in South Africa. Child support grants may be reaching their target, which is the poorest households, although they have had slight influence on overall inequality in South Africa (Ferreira, 2015). Furthermore, child support grants could be regarded as inadequate in some poor households because heads of households could be poor due to unemployment. In households where the guardian is employed, the salaries could assist in ensuring that households are lifted out of the cycle of poverty (Children Society, 2013).

The economy of South Africa has fallen short in improving the rate at which employment is created in order to absorb the gaps of child poverty. This means that many children live in households where there is no working adult and/or those who do work earn low wages (Hall & Sambu, 2014b). Lack of employment is indisputably an important trigger of child poverty (Leatt, 2006a). When compared to the employed population, the unemployed heads of households face a great risk of poverty. As a result, they are unable to provide for their children, this exposes children to poverty and in the worst cases, severe poverty (Hall & Sambu, 2014b).

Education attainment is one of the most important correlates of poverty; it is a good human capital indicator. Good education enables people to attain well-compensated

jobs and contributes towards the state of the economy. In South Africa, households with lower levels of education are often poor resulting in an even longer cycle of poverty from one generation to the next (National Development Agency, 2014). Minimal levels of skills and qualifications of education principally are related with great trends of worklessness, thus children brought up in deprived communities commonly have low quality education and are similarly deprived of many items their peers have (Children Society, 2013).

2.5.4 Overview of deprivation and poverty among children in the world

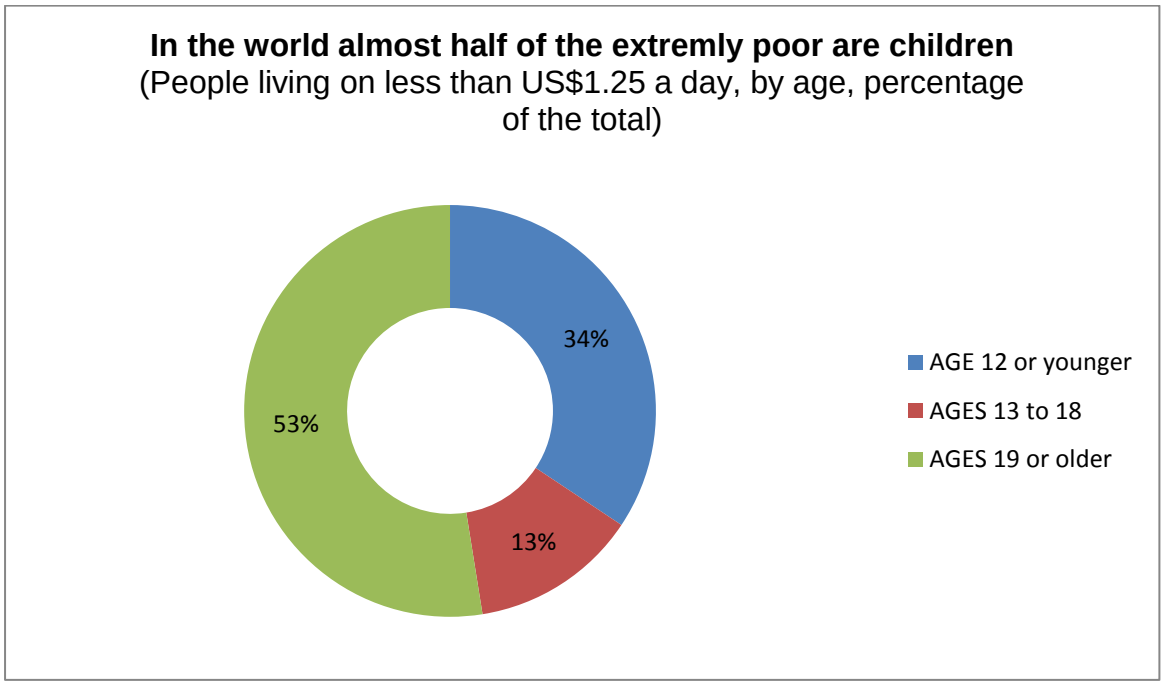
According to UNICEF (2014a:28), the world has made exceptional improvement over the past 25 years in poverty alleviation and making the conditions in which masses of households live better. Internationally, the percentage of persons who live in severe poverty in emerging regions has been reduced to 18 percent in 2010, from 47 percent in 1990 (UN, 2013). Nonetheless, many ordeals persist in the endeavor to accelerate and consolidate such improvement and ascertain that children's' rights, especially those from the deprived families, can be satisfied. Furthermore, facts indicate that a disproportionate number of children still experience severe poverty: of the severely poor, more than one third are under 13 years of age and in countries with low-income, a fraction of all children go through severe deprivation (Olinto *et al*., 2013).

UNICEF (2014a) argues that in the wealthiest countries of the world, one in eight children is brought up in relative poverty. The rise in child poverty rates is said to be an outcome of the economic crisis as indicated by several countries. Child deprivation is an international phenomenon. The inter-generational cycle of poverty is created and prolonged when children live in poverty; chances are they will grow up to be poor adults. Although children endure the main damages of child deprivation, society suffers due to lessened productivity, unused ability and the expense of taking action against long-lasting poverty.

Child deprivation harms children's opportunities in life and leads to the destruction of society general. Although there has been substantial improvement in identifying, determining and tackling child poverty, there is still much to be accomplished. Since child poverty is inconsistently measured, it continues to be missing from some

analyses of poverty; and it is not acknowledged continuously in state plans and policies (UNICEF, 2014a). Indeed, almost half of the worlds tremendously deprived are children. Figure 2.3 indicates that 34 percent of the poor are children aged 12 and younger, 13 percent of the poor are children aged 13 to 18 years old and the remaining 53 percent are those aged 19 and older, which are referred to as young adults.

Figure 2.3 The world's poor children



Source: Adapted from UNICEF, 2014a

2.5.5 Domains of child deprivation

The following are domains of child deprivation:

2.5.5.1 Material and income deprivation domain

The aim of the material and income domain is to summarise the number of children suffering from lack of physical goods and income in a specific area (Lad, 2011:13). Children living in income poor households could further experience deprivations related to insufficiency of resources, thus the inclusion of such an indicator comprised of two other material deprivation measures. For instance, a child could

lack a book for studying and a cell phone for communication purposes (Barnes *et al*., 2008:185).

2.5.5.2. Employment deprivation domain

Barnes *et al.* (2008:186) explains that this domain is aimed at determining the number of children living in households with no working adult in a particular area. It is expected that when a guardian or parent is employed, the chances of children going through deprivation will be less or better, thus experiencing poverty and deprivation challenges is linked with worklessness (Lad, 2011:13).

2.5.5.3 Education deprivation domain

This domain is aimed at determining the extent to which children are deprived of education in an area, for example children who are a grade behind or are not enrolled in school or even those who have dropped out of school (Barnes *et al.,* 2008:186; Qi & Wu, 2013:98).

2.5.5.4 Living environment deprivation domain

According to Barnes *et al*. (2008:186), this domain is aimed particularly at identifying children who live in poor surroundings. The domain thus included different sets of indicators, which have an impact on the daily survival of a child. Qi and Wu (2013) state that when a household is overcrowded it is deemed as an indication of shelter deprivation. Internationally, when three or more people live in one room it is considered overcrowding.

2.5.5.5 Adequate care deprivation domain

The intention of this domain is to find children who are at a risk of not attaining adequate care. Thus by means of the domain, children who are vulnerable to attaining inadequate care can be identified. The majority of these, are children living in households where there is no adult to provide any form of support and assistance (child-headed household), as well as children not residing with their biological parents. In some instances, there is a high degree of parental loss as a result of HIV/AIDS. Such children are at risk of not receiving adequate care even though it is common that when they lose their parents foster or adoptive parents and at times

relatives raise them (Barnes et al., 2008:186). Children do not only need to be cared for but similarly, it is important that they acquire knowledge; the following sub-section discusses child deprivation and education.

2.5.6 Child deprivation and education

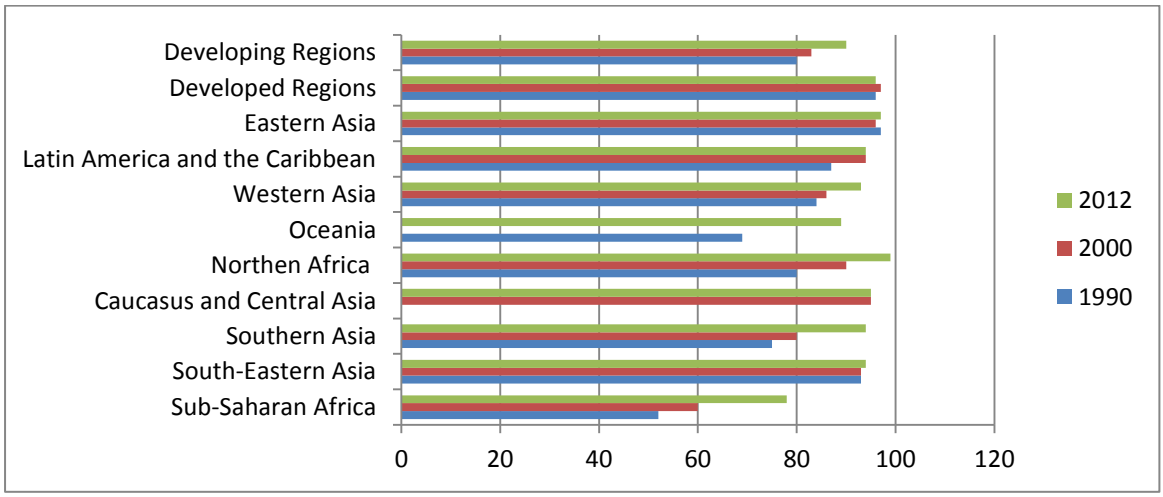
Department for Children, Schools and Families in England (2009:6) argue that poverty effects are continually felt by children from low-income households. As a result, children experience deprivation and are trapped in a cycle of deprivation over and over again, especially in necessities like education. Furthermore, the educational gap among children from well-off households and children from poor households is evident from early stages and needs timely intervention.

According to Women's Budget Group (2010), in many circumstances in life, young female children occupy unwarranted positions. A study undertaken by the University of Bristol revealed that many children go through poverty and quite a number of them are not schooling; most of those children are girls. In most circumstances, female children are usually deprived of basic necessities like education. The delicate susceptibility of female children to both poverty and deprivation could be a result of cultural biases. For this reason, it is imperative that issues on gender are taken into consideration. The study mentions that in countries where women are highly employed compared to men, child deprivation is low (Jones *et al*., 2010). Education is an essential right of all children. When people invest in education, it is highly likely that they will have good health, a rise in economic growth and the ability to put the cycle of intergenerational poverty to an abrupt end. UNICEF (2011) stressed the education of young females towards achieving the millennium development goal (MDGs) targets.

Evidence from UNICEF (2011) indicates that educated young females are more productive, paid better and well prepared to partake in decision making politically, socially and economically. Educated girls tend to get married later, have fewer, well-nurtured children who receive quality schooling. Educated mothers are less likely to have deprived children, especially in terms of education. According to the UN (2014), the second millennium development goal was to achieve primary education by 2015; the 2014 MDGs report states that, in the developing regions, approximately 90

percent of the children are enrolled for primary education compared to 83 percent in the period 2000 to 2012. However, 58 million children dropped out in 2012, these rates continue to be a key obstacle towards the achievement of universal primary education. Figure 2.4 illustrates the adjusted net enrolment rate for primary education for the years 1990, 2000 to 2012 globally.

Figure 2.4 adjusted net enrolment rates for primary education, 1990, 2000 and 2012 (percentage)



Source: UN, 2014

According to the UN (2014), during the period 1990 to 2000 there was remarkable progress in developing regions towards the achievement of primary education. However, from 2000 until 2012 there has only been slight progress. The gap towards achieving universal primary education has been closed since 2000 by regions such as Southern Asia and Western Asia. With an increase of 89 percent from 69 percent in enrolment percentages between 1990 and 2012, Oceania has made considerable improvement. Sub-Saharan Africa, where the enrolment rate went up by 18 percent in 2012, made the most progress. Nonetheless, the biggest obstacle Sub-Saharan Africa is facing regardless of its remarkable accomplishment is the rapid growth of the population. The number of children who had to be enrolled in 2012 was higher compared to the year 2000 in Sub Saharan Africa. As much as the percentage of children who were schooling had increased between 2000 and 2012, there were still about 33 million children not enrolled for primary education, 56 percent of them were young females.

As mentioned above the second MDG target was to achieve universal primary education by 2015, however based on the information provided it is clear that the goal was not achieved though progress was made. According to the UN (2015), the newly introduced sustainable development goals (SDGs) aim to promote lifelong learning, while ensuring quality and inclusive education for all based on the specified targets by 2030. The SDGs acknowledge that to date approximately 57 million of the children in developing countries are out of school, thus deprived of education.

Education deprivation could have long-term effects on the growth of the child. However, other household aspects could determine if a child is deprived, because children are vulnerable in many aspects, compared to adults (Lewin, 2012). The following sub-section briefly discusses the effects of a bigger household size on child deprivation and poverty.

2.5.7 Poverty and child deprivation in South African households

Household poverty and child poverty levels are high in spite of South Africa's rank as an upper-middle-income country (Makiwane & Berry, 2013). In nature, household poverty and child deprivation are structural instead of cyclical. It is challenging to address persistent structural materialisation of poverty by means of policy interventions (UNDP, 2007). For that reason, Swartz (2004) argues that a greater comprehension of this socio-economic predicament on families remains essential.

SAHRC and UNICEF (2014) states that, despite democracy in South Africa; deprivation is still greatly predicted by race. In 2012, 63 percent of African children lived in poverty-stricken households, while only 1 percent of White children lived in poor households, while the rates of poverty for Indian and Coloured children were 7 percent and 28 percent respectively (Hall & Sambu, 2014a). Regardless of the number of approaches the government has applied as an intervention in previous years, numerous children still go through the challenges of poverty, especially children born to deprived households. More often, this comprises lack of access to hygienic water, sufficient nutrition and sufficient sanitation. Poor schooling and poor long-term health combined is a reinforcement of the deprivation cycle that is difficult for present and future generations to break out of (Delamonica *et al*., 2006:485).

What could eventually enable households to escape poverty is the accumulation of assets. The poor have less to save and their collateral to borrow is inadequate, thus they are unable to accumulate assets. The deprived are thus not able to invest, which could release them from the trap of poverty. It is unlikely to find households that experience and live through poverty being able to make investments towards excellent education for their children, quality child minding or other activities children need for development (Frye, 2006:2). Fluctuations in the economy could drive persons into a poverty situation that is difficult to recover from (SAHRC & UNICEF, 2014). In former homeland areas, there are considerably higher levels of household poverty and deprivation than the rest of South Africa. The rates of deprivation for South Africa between 2001 and 2011 are intensely lower than the average for the former homelands, with only 28 percent (compared to 74 percent) of the population being deprived in the living environment domain, 18 percent (compared to 28 percent) in the education domain, 30 percent (compared to 54 percent) in the employment domain and 33 percent (compared to 46 percent) being materially deprived. Former homelands, therefore, continue to carry a heavier burden of multiple deprivations than the rest of South Africa (Noble *et al.*, 2014).

According to Minujin *et al*. (2006:484), child deprivation is likely to spread from one generation to the next, leading to and even exacerbating imbalance in society, thus it is not only a threat to a single child. Household poverty consequences are extensive for children. Children have specific and different necessities; therefore, they experience poverty in a different way from adults. Although an adult could go through poverty briefly, a child could fall into poverty for a lifetime (Watson *et al.,* 2012:2). A child's lifelong growth could easily be influenced by short-term periods of food deprivation. Lack of adequate nutrition makes children smaller in size and intellectual capability. This leads to vulnerability to illnesses, poor performance in school and ultimately a slight chance of becoming prolific adults. Therefore the cycle of poverty not only hinders children's well-being and growth, it similarly harms any chance of becoming proactive citizens (Hirsch, 2007:1; UNICEF, 2014c:5).

Evidence indicates that children from households with lower income do less satisfactorily in many aspects, such as school, in comparison to their peers from well-off households (Brooks-Gunn & Duncan, 1997; Cooper & Stewart, 2013).

However, is money itself significant, or do these associations reflect other household differences, for instance the education levels of the parents or a household's assets? There is lack of clarity with regards to the extent to which child deprivation is attributable to variations in monetary assets and how other household aspects can possibly affect a child (Mayer, 2002). The development of children and their future achievements lies with the choices made by parents. In making choices, families decide on the size of the household and its structure, saving and consumption levels, leisure and work, time and income allocation (Cooper & Stewart, 2013). All these choices determine the investments that parents make for their children as well as the extent of deprivation children may experience (Blakeslee, 1997).

2.5.8 The effects of household size on child deprivation and child poverty

According to Bradshaw *et al*. (2006), historical evidence indicates that there are widely parallel poverty rates for households with one or two children; however, households that are evidently at higher risk of poverty are those with three or more children. The Department of Work and Pensions of the United Kingdom (UK) (2014) argues that in 2011/2012 15 percent of households with either one or two children had less poverty level in contrast to 25 percent of those who have three children or more. Bigger households have a larger threat of poverty and consequently the children in that particular household are at risk of experiencing child deprivation. According to the Department of Work and Pensions (2014), single parents with more than three children are highly likely to go through poverty than a single parent with two or less children.

UN (2014) further alludes to the fact that the phenomenon of poverty becomes more intense, the bigger the family is. Households with one child have a risk of 12 percent and the risk rises to 18 percent when a household has three children, and it goes up to 22 percent when there are four children or more. On average, the expenditure of families with two children is 40 percent greater than that of households with no children. Consequently, there are high chances of poverty for households with children. Least-developed countries are affected the most, thus on average the percentage of households that are not able to tackle financial expenditures has gone up by nearly 60 percent. The following section discusses the measurement of child deprivation and child poverty

2.6 MEASUREMENT OF CHILD DEPRIVATION AND CHILD POVERTY

As previously mentioned, a measure that is commonly used when measuring poverty is income; this implies that an individual who has a particular amount of purchasing power is capable of fulfilling their basic needs. These kinds of measures put forward a rather broad comprehension of populations experiencing poverty; they, however, portray an incomplete image of child deprivation. For the reason that child deprivation is not only measured using monetary indicators, since children are not only considered deprived or poor based on only the households' lack of income (UNICEF, 2011). It cannot be assumed that all elements for the realisation of basic needs can be bought or rather articulated monetarily (Tran *et al.,* 2014). Even though money metric measures are fundamental in portraying most of the basic needs, children often need simple things like help with homework, and that cannot necessarily be bought.

According to UNICEF (2008), Joseph Rowntree Foundation (2013) and Minujin *et al.* (2005), numerous explanations can be set forth for the significance of an approach focused on children.

- Children are affected by poverty differently from adults; therefore, children stand a greater chance of experiencing the threat of poverty. For example, children have different nutritional necessities and the role of education is essential during their stage of life. A child-focused approach can stress and highlight those requirements particularly vital for children and their development

- Children are mostly reliant on their direct environment to make available their basic needs and depend on the allocation of resources by their household, parents or society members. Child-specific poverty measures are vital to avail information about this allocation and accordingly about poverty at the child-focused level

- It is highly likely that children who experience poverty from an early age become deprived adults. Poverty regularly reveals itself as a brutal cycle that traps children from birth going forward

- Lastly, a commonly recognised and feasible description and measurement approach of child deprivation is a significant instrument for policy makers and academics. Not only does it offer the prospect to get a perception of children's poverty status but also gives the opportunity to monitor and formulate thorough poverty reduction strategies, objectives and policies.

There are several approaches to measuring child deprivation and child poverty; however, this study will only explore three; the deprivation index, the monetary and capability approaches. The following sub-section discusses the deprivation index

2.6.1 THE DEPRIVATION INDEX

The deprivation index goes beyond money-metric measurements of poverty, unlike the poverty line, which gives a rather incomplete measurement of poverty by only focusing on income levels as previously discussed. The following sub-section discusses the deprivation index and briefly compares it to the poverty line. Furthermore, it gives a review of different measures of child deprivation, particularly studies that have implemented the deprivation index with respect to the child.

2.6.1.1 Definition of a deprivation index

Nueman (2011:222) explains that when scholars totalise numerous different indicators with the aim of arriving at an individual score, this kind of measure is known as an index. Thus, the compound score is regularly a straightforward total of multiple indicators. A deprivation index will normally have a number of dimensions including topics such as health, housing and income. Within each of these domains there could be numerous indicators, these indicators are pooled to produce domain scores, and then the domain scores are summed to give a total index score (Chalmers-Dixon & Carr-Hill, 2005). Deprivation indices attempt to measure a wider notion of multiple deprivations, created from several distinct factors of deprivation. For example, a household could lack a number of assets and depending on the number of deprivations, the household is suffering, they could be considered deprived or not deprived based on the total score of the deprivation index (Cornwall Council, 2010).

2.6.1.2 Differences between an index and a poverty line

The Rio Group (2006) proposes that a poverty line is probably the most commonly applied approach and one implemented in the principal efforts to accomplish quantitative poverty assessments. In accordance to this method of measuring poverty, a family is categorised as underprivileged if the value of a specified poverty line is higher than the household's expenditure or income. This approach of measuring poverty is a normative concept, since it signifies the total cost of all the services and goods deemed essential to fulfill the unit's basic needs. Thus, this method entails first establishing the poverty line, then acquiring data on the allocation of domestic resources (expenditure or income). Subsequently, one or more factors of poverty can be synthesised using substitute indices. Contrary to the monetary poverty line approach of measuring poverty, in which expenditure or income represents a welfare indicator, a deprivation index is deemed multidimensional because it uses diverse domains to characterise specific elements of welfare. The deprivation index approach has been utilised widely by national and international official institutions in both developed and developing countries.

Different studies have examined child deprivation in different ways, by means of indices and income measures of child poverty. The deprivation index is thus a good measure of child deprivation because it examines different aspects of deprivation a child could possibly experience. This study takes interest in the application of the child deprivation index in different ways and areas. The review of the implementation of the child deprivation index renders awareness of the versatility of the deprivation index and its reliability. Therefore, the following section gives a brief explanation of the application of the deprivation index and income (briefly) as child deprivation measures in different areas.

2.6.1.3 Review of the application of the deprivation index as a child deprivation measure

A deprivation index was applied to measure the deprivations children experience. As previously mentioned, the deprivation index uses different indicators to evaluate the deprivation and poverty status of a child. Bastos *et al*. (2004) used the deprivation index in primary schools of Lisbon and a random sample was applied to about 2000

children between the ages of five to 14. A number of deprivation aspects were used that are related with child poverty. The five sets of variables were family living conditions, education, housing, social integration and health. The study used a deprivation index to measure child deprivation established from the results of the survey. Children's lifestyles were evaluated to make the child deprivation analysis possible. In constructing the index, the median and mode of the children's answers to all of the items taken into consideration were first calculated. Furthermore, binary variables were created, taking values 0/1, depending on whether the answer is under/above median/mode. The value of one signifies that the child is deemed deprived in a specific indicator. A total of all the disadvantages gave them a deprivation score for every child that is greater the more the child is deprived (child deprivation index); the child is deemed deprived the closer the child deprivation index is to the value of one.

A measure of child deprivation known as the South African Index of Multiple Deprivation (SAIMDC) was applied to measure the deprivation status of children in South Africa. This measure of child deprivation also uses a deprivation index; however, it uses different elements and indicators compared to those used by Bastos *et al*. (2004). Barnes *et al.* (2008) used a multiple deprivation for child deprivation that was developed initially in the UK. The methodology has been implemented in South Africa for the whole population, not just children. The index used in the paper studies deprivation domains, which can be identified and measured distinctly; the index is applied to the nine provinces of South Africa. Children residing in certain areas experience these deprivations (e.g. municipality). Subject to the number of kinds of deprivation children go through, they could be considered deprived on a number of domains.

To construct the SAIMDC for children, the data source used was the 2001 census. The domains used are child education, adequate care, income and material, living environment and employment deprivation. In accordance to the SAIMDC, a child is deemed deprived when they are experiencing deprivation in more than one of the domains. Each of the domains comprised of different indicators, for example, the income and material domain had indicators such as number of children residing in a home that has no refrigerator, or television or radio. After constructing the domain

indices, they were summed up to create an index. To accomplish this, the indices of the domain were standardised by rank, thus transformation to an exponential allocation.

Lastly, this study reviews the deprivation index as a measure of child deprivation, and household income as a measure of child poverty. A study done by Qi and Wu (2013) applied the income measure by using indicators of deprivation that are mostly centered on preceding research on child poverty in China to determine the change in child poverty over the period of 1989 to 2009. To establish the domains, several deprivation indicators were developed by employing related MDGs. Studies on international child deprivation/poverty were also taken into consideration as well as child poverty research that has previously been used in China. The study used the following indicators under the dimension of material deprivation: food/nutrition (e.g. three meals a day), water (e.g. improved water source), sanitation facilities (e.g. toilet facilities in or near home), shelter (e.g. overcrowding), education (e.g. attendance), health (e.g. immunisation), information (e.g. computer), consumer durables (e.g. bicycle) and leisure activities (e.g. outdoor activities).

Furthermore, the study used household income as an exterior test of validity for a child deprivation indicator, in accordance to this; children who are deprived should reside in households with lower income compared to the children who are not deprived. The statistical model used was ordinary least squares regression; this was utilised to run the test using the material deprivation indicator separately as independent variables (dummies) and income as the dependent variable. It is likely *ceteris paribus* for a household with children experiencing deprivation to have, on average, lower levels of income compared to those who are not deprived. Moreover, a deprivation index was used, the deprivation indicators were summed up to highlight that a child experiencing two deprivations is considered more deprived than a child experiencing one deprivation. The measure used by Qi and Wu (2013) thus differs from the two previous measures of child deprivation that have been reviewed because it uses household income as an exterior test of validity for a child deprivation indicator. It can be classified as a monetary measure because it uses the income of the household to measure child deprivation but also takes into consideration the deprivations that a child could experience; hence, it also takes into

account the deprivation index. The following sub-section discusses the monetary approach of measuring child poverty.

2.6.2 The monetary approach

The utmost commonly used approach for measuring poverty is centered on consumption or income levels. This shows that an individual is deemed poor if their income or consumption levels are under a specific minimum considered vital to sustain his/her elementary requirements. Even though such measures signify a broad awareness of people living in poverty, the measures also present a partial child poverty picture together with the actual deprivations encountered by children. In terms of the particular child poverty measurement, monetary measures similarly have shortcomings (UNICEF, 2011:1).

Consumption or income is calculated mainly at the household level, not seizing intra-household distribution and making one depend on equivalence scale methods to infer conclusions for members within the households, including children. Moreover, monetary indicators are unable to provide a sufficient image of children's poverty condition since children are not economic actors and thus unable to yield revenue to uphold their own living (Roelen, 2010). Furthermore, monetary indicators do not show the differences likely to persist in countries; inequality adjustments are done rarely in money-metric approaches of poverty. In Nigeria, the study by UNICEF using the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) 2007 data, utilised both the income and the deprivation approach to estimate deprivations and child poverty. The usage of the income approach is instituted on the basis that household poverty affects children because they are the most susceptible; nonetheless, since not all poverty indicators can be attained based on money-metric measures, they also adopted the deprivation approach (Adetola & Olufemi, 2012).

According to Plavgo and De Milliano (2014), monetary poverty measures the inability of a household to provide its members with the goods and services they need to be able to survive and develop, because the household lacks financial means to be able to do so. Deprivations measure the individual status in each of the various sectors considered as crucial for individuals' survival and development. When measuring child deprivation, this study will use both concepts of poverty as complementary

poverty measures, with the monetary approach to measuring poverty concentrating on the availability of monetary means in the households that have children, and the deprivation approach determining the satisfaction of children's basic needs. Measuring both types of poverty simultaneously for each child allows identifying the different groups of children that may require different policy responses depending on what type of poverty they experience.

The monetary approach also is referred to as the income approach and falls under the utilitarian approach. Practically, the utilitarian or welfarist approach usually results in measures centred only on the services and goods households consume, household size, and its composition (Gunewardena, 2004:28). Minujin *et al*. (2006) explains that this approach gives an outline of poverty by taking into account monetary factors only, in other words the income of the household is taken into consideration based on a predefined poverty line (Roelen *et al*., 2009).

In general, the estimation of individual consumption mostly is centred on specific market place cost. When poverty is estimated by using financial measures only, child poverty is similarly measured by utilising revenue and expenditure (Laderchi, 2000). Dinbabo (2011:76) proposes that, on condition that after having obtained information, which is comprehensive enough on consumption from a household survey, making use of expenditure will, to some extent, be an accurate indication; given that it is very much related to an individual's welfare and could disclose the living standard of a household and its capability to meet basic needs compared to other methods. However, the money-metric approach concentrates more on material factors; it falls short of indicating certain interests of children in contrast to adults. The monetary approach is important because material factors are as important to children as are the non-monetary factors. In most cases, multidimensionally poor children are also monetary poor. Thus, it is imperative to identify the distinction between the outcomes that money can possibly achieve towards the growth of the child and the outcomes monetary factors can achieve in a household generally.

2.6.3 The capability approach

The capability approach has been used in identifying child poverty, according to Sen (1989), the capability approach takes interest in the development of human

capability, contrary to maximisation of a household or particular individual‘s income (Hick, 2012). Dinbabo (2011:79) argues that this approach avoids financial indicators as measures of well-being; it is centred on enhancing and expanding the quality of individuals. As a result, it emphasises the non-financial factors of well-being indicators. Philosophers who advocate the capability approach are of the opinion that when resources have been detached from promotion of human functioning, they have no value. The approach comprises requesting social planners to enquire about children’s needs for resources and their different capabilities to transform resources into functioning. Thus, rather than using the income level to measure poverty, Dinbabo (2011:79-80) proposes it should be calculated by how much a person could accomplish using that income, considering that such accomplishments differ from person to person and from one place to the other. In his work, Sen (2005) portrayed a state where it would be wondered how one could explain the manifestations of poverty in affluent countries amongst middle-income individuals.

Whatever the understanding of human progress may be, it comprises of multiple life facets; and this is exemplified by employment, education and nutrition. Consumption and income indicators are a reflection of physical resources that are significant for an individual’s employment of various capabilities (Chile, 2013). Income indicators alone are a reflection of a presumption that such indicators are suitable substitutes for multidimensional poverty: the assumption is that there are similarities between children who are poor in terms of income-consumption and those suffering malnutrition, are illiterate or disempowered. However, income poverty usually offers inadequate policy guidance with regards to privations in other aspects (UNICEF, 2011). The capability approach to measuring poverty is the multidimensional approach, but there are a lot of multidimensional approaches to measuring child poverty; however, this sub-section will only discuss the multidimensional poverty index that is being used and applied worldwide and has thus been applied to South Africa (Alkire & Santos, 2010). Thus, the following sub-section briefly discusses the multidimensional approach used in South Africa to measure child deprivation and child poverty.

2.6.3.1 A multidimensional approach to measuring South African child poverty

According to SAHRC and UNICEF (2014), even though monetary child poverty measures are extensively utilised to examine the welfare of children, their capability to take into consideration the overall welfare of the child is limited. The multidimensional poverty index (MPI) can be used to supplement the monetary approaches because it does not only consider incomes but takes into account other dimensions of welfare, as well as nonmaterial facets like positivity. It, therefore, can offer a broad measurement of child deprivation. The MPI could also be an indication of how intense poverty is.

SAHRC and UNICEF (2014) report that the three multidimensional poverty indices (MPIs), drawn in the analysis, indicate a slight decrease in child poverty during the period 2008 and 2012. With the use of various indices and weighting schemes, highly significant deprivation indicators are discovered. The first two indices (including life satisfaction indicators and labor market access) indicate that less than 6 percent of children in South Africa sternly are deprived because in more than half of the identified indicators in the MPI, they are deprived. For these children the main cause of deprivation is the deficiency of basic facilities, for instance, water, sanitation and electricity. In accordance to the third index, a bigger share of South Africa's children are found to be gravely poor, about 23 percent (this index comprises life satisfaction, labour market and quality of education indicators). The index draws attention to decent education and entrance to the labor market for those who have left school, as dimensions wherein children are severely deprived. A geographical poverty analysis uncovers that, contrary to rural poverty, urban MPI poverty is less, thus the prevalence of MPI poverty is high in provinces that have children with high money-metric poverty levels. Ill health, low schooling, unpleasant locale and absence of hopefulness are significant factors to the intensity of deprivation in general.

2.7 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The theoretic overview of this paper was depicted in this chapter. Poverty, household poverty and child deprivation was explored as set out in the objectives of the study.

This chapter presented poverty as a complex phenomenon that affects households and children respectively, and as a result has an impact on the future of children because poverty turns to be an intergenerational cycle.

Poverty is a vastly extensive notion; studies have described and employed diverse measures in an effort to better comprehend the notion. In this chapter, poverty was defined in two different ways; relative poverty, absolute poverty and in both relative and absolute terms. Amongst other definitions, poverty was defined as neediness of accommodation, food shortage, being in poor health and not able to get assistance from a doctor. It is not being able to read as a result of poor or no education. It is being without a job, anxiety about future endeavours and living off the little that one has. Moreover, poverty is living with the sadness of child mortality due to contaminated water; it is lack of freedom. A pyramid of poverty concepts was discussed, it conceptualises dimensions of poverty and an element of well-being is represented by each concept; the conceptualisation establishes a diverse grouping of elements.

The basic poverty causes were identified; they comprise of corruption and social inequality, pervasive illiteracy and wide spread diseases, proneness to income shocks, agricultural cycles, natural disasters and institutional failures. There are many causes of poverty in South Africa, however the study identified that South Africa is still undergoing the consequences of the apartheid regime, which left inequality especially to the poor. Furthermore poor service delivery to the poor in South Africa has been found to be a significant influence of poverty. The strong relationship between education and poverty has proven to be a great factor as the majority of the poor are not educated and thus are caught in the trap from generation to generation. Different types of poverty were outlined, namely generational, urban, rural and situational poverty. Poverty can be measured in many different methods, amongst others the study discussed the following; poverty lines divide the deprived from those who are not, as they are cut-off points. Poverty lines may well be monetary, thus there are different poverty lines for instance HEL, MLL, HSL and PDL. Four other methods of measuring poverty were used, such as human poverty index, squared poverty gap index, head count index and the poverty gap Index and the multidimensional poverty index.

A households well-being is somewhat defined by its poverty status. A household was described as a collection of individuals who generally live and eat their meals together. Members as head of household must acknowledge the authority of one person and that particular individual must reside with the rest of the household members. There are different characteristics of a poor household; four were identified as spending on fuel, food, health care and housing, remoteness, assets and education. There are countless aspects that determine household poverty, for example regional characteristics (management inequality and regional governance), community characteristics (substructure), household characteristics (size of household) and individual characteristics (employment status); quite a number of these affect some households. Different dimensions of household poverty were also identified and other socioeconomic factors affecting household poverty. The study discussed a few, but rather important factors such as unemployment or having poor quality, low levels of skills and education, the kind and size of the household, gender of the household head, ill-health or disability, undocumented migrants/immigrants and residing in a remote or very deprived community.

The concepts of poverty and deprivation are intensely interconnected, nonetheless, there is a worldwide agreement that deprivation goes beyond income poverty; it tackles several dimensions that are not dependent on income. According to the South African definition, a child is an individual below 18 years of age and a child living in deprivation is one who is below the age of 18 years and does not attain adequate education, health care, or perhaps the necessary resources essential for the emotional and physical well-being of the child. Several aspects establish child deprivation, comprising the lack of a satisfactory livelihood, lack of prospects for human development, being homeless, lack of public structures that support and keep them safe, and the absence of expression prospects. Amongst the causes of child poverty in South Africa, the study acknowledges that a number of children are left orphaned as a result of HIV/AIDS. In such cases, children are forced to drop out of school to head households and in most cases, they live in poverty. Child support grants are lower than the rates that may be required to pull some children in workless homes out of the situation of poverty in South Africa. These grants thus are considered inadequate in some households. Child poverty can also be attributed to unemployment in South African households. Similarly low education attainment is

also a factor that leads to child poverty as good education enables people to attain proper well-compensated jobs.

Child deprivation is quite a disturbing issue for many children, especially in the emerging world; it could thus have dire outcomes on future generations. Children experience different kinds of deprivation, especially materially based and could consequently feel isolated from their peers. Countless children carry on living in intense poverty and deprivation; it is unfortunate that in low-income countries more than a third of the young ones are under the age of 13 years. There are a number of domains used to measure child deprivation such as material and income, education, adequate care, living environment and employment deprivation domain.

In spite of South Africa's rank as an upper-middle income country household poverty and child poverty levels are high. Race is still a great predictor of poverty as a high percentage of African children are poverty stricken, compared to only a few white children. Child deprivation could thus spread from one generation to the next. It was established that accumulation of assets could enable households to escape poverty, however the poor have less to save as a result they are unable to accumulate assets. The effects of a bigger household size on children also were discussed in the chapter; children who live in large households supposedly are poorer than those in households with fewer members are. Different measures of child deprivation and child poverty were identified including the deprivation index, monetary approach and the capability approach. The deprivation index was discussed and a distinction between a poverty line (which measures poverty in terms of income) and a deprivation index (which focuses on other dimensions affecting human beings) was made.

A number of studies have evaluated and measured the deprivations that children experience as a result of poverty. Certain studies have utilised the revenue of the household to determine the poverty status of the child, and some have used a deprivation index, which is employed by summing up the number of deprivations children experience based on specific indicators. The monetary approach is one that only measures child poverty or child deprivation by means of income, whereas the capability approach puts unusual importance on the non-financial features of well-being. A multidimensional approach to measuring child poverty in South Africa was

discussed, as well as the overlaps amongst those who are monetarily poor, the poor in terms of structure and MPI deprived children. The three MPIs drawn in the analysis indicate a slight decrease in child poverty during the period 2008 and 2012.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter presents the methodology that was used to collect the data utilised for the analysis carried out in Chapter 4. The study collected primary data from a township and this was utilised to determine the relationship between household poverty and child deprivation in Jabulani Township. The chapter presents the sample used and how it was determined, including the ordinary least squares model (OLS). A broad variety of household independent variables was collected; for instance the highest qualification of the head of the household, the employment status, the total income and assets of the household. The study derives a child deprivation index and an asset index; descriptive statistics are used to describe the variables that are taken into account in the analysis. The following section gives a brief outline of the data collection procedure.

3.2 DATA COLLECTION

This study used the quantitative research design; this method is dependent on the collection of numerical (quantitative) data. It makes use of hypotheses and variables and is dependent on positivist principles (Johnson & Christensen, 2010:33; Neuman, 2011:165). Numerical data were collected from Jabulani Township. The township is located in South-Western Townships mostly known as Soweto, a city rich with the history of the battle opposing apartheid (South Africa.info, 2015). The South Western Townships was established in the 1930s when the Black people were separated from the Whites by the White government ruling at the time. Black people were shifted from Johannesburg, to a region parted from White suburbs using a ‘sanitary corridor’, for instance a freeway, railway track or stream. All this was done in 1923 utilising the notorious Urban Areas Act. Statistics South Africa (Stats SA, 2011) indicates that the population of the City of Johannesburg is 4,434,827 as of 2011. Jabulani Township is located in Region D, Ward 46, City of Johannesburg municipality, wherein the population of the ward is 54185 (City of Johannesburg, 2015) and the population of Jabulani Township is 23527, based on Census 2011 Community Profile Databases in Frith (2011). The following sub-section will give a

description of the sampling process. It discusses the sample size and the sampling method used in this study.

3.3 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

There are a number of sampling processes that have been created to ensure adequacy in research. This section discusses a few of these sampling processes that have been implemented in this study.

3.3.1 Sample size

According to Gerber-Nel *et al*. (2003:48), the number of population members encompassed in a study is considered as a sample size. A large sample size is costly; however, when the size of a sample is large the chance of an error in estimation of the population's characteristics will be small. For normal distribution purposes, a sample size greater than 30 is statistically significant (Swanepoel *et al*., 2010:200). For this study, the sample size is 178 households. To establish the sample size the historic evidence method was employed, centred on a former research study by Sekatane (2004:8) that used the same sampling method.

3.3.2 Sampling methods

When selecting a sample, a study can use various categories of procedures. According to Kothari (2004:57), two common methods can be used, namely non-probability and probability sampling. In non-probability sampling the findings of the study are not allowed to be generalised from the sample to the population, essentially there is a deliberate selection of the elements for the sample by the study (there is an unequal chance of selection). In discussion of the non-probability sampling results, the findings must be limited to the individuals or elements sampled. The benefit of this procedure is that it is easy to administer and does not consume a lot of time in contrast to probability samples (Battaglia, 2011:523).

The three types of non-probability sampling are quota, judgmental and convenience sampling. In a probability sampling procedure, the chance of inclusion in the sample is equal for each element. However, probability sampling is complex and expensive to conduct. This method of sampling is referred to as the random sampling method

as the latter affords the foundation to derive the other intricate sampling methodologies. This study used the probability sampling method. The types of probability sampling methods include stratified sampling, simple random, systematic and cluster sampling. With these types of methodologies, a generalisation of the results from the sample to the population can be made (Doherty, 1994:21). The following sub-section discusses the stratified random sampling.

3.3.2.1 Stratified random sampling

Dadonienė *et al.* (2013:38) and Scheaffer (1999:2) describe stratified random sampling as a type of probability sampling technique, which attempts to restrict the possible samples to those which are less extreme by ensuring that all parts of the population are represented in the sample in order to increase the efficiency. Unlike the simple random sample and the systematic random sample, sometimes a study is interested in particular strata (meaning groups) within the population. With the stratified random sample, there is an equal chance (probability) of selecting each unit from within a particular stratum (group) of the population when creating the sample.

Therefore, the sample size of the study was 178. This study used the stratified random sampling to select households that have children in Jabulani Township. Where there were no children in the household, the fieldworkers moved to a different household.

3.4 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

Questionnaires offer a method of collecting data in a structured and unstructured way from respondents. The collected data are often numerical and, therefore, can be analysed by means of statistical methods. The objectives and aims of a questionnaire should be clear and organised in a logical way, to make sure that respondents understand what they are required to do (Somekh & Lewin, 2011:224). The questionnaire of this study was designed as illustrated by Table 3.1. Two trained field workers used this questionnaire to collect data in Jabulani Township. The field workers were familiar with the township because they live there, thus it was easy for them to communicate with the respondents. The language used in the questionnaire was English; however, the fieldworkers interpreted the questionnaire in Zulu, as it is

the most spoken language in Jabulani Township, if the respondents could not understand.

Table 3.1 Questionnaire design

Section A	Background Information (e.g. position of the respondent, language and gender)
Section B	1. Household composition 2. Income
Section C	Household expenditure
Section D	Assets
Section E	Child poverty perceptions
Section F	Child deprivation index

Source: Authors own construction, 2015

3.5 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

When analysing data or the outcomes of a study, the methods of analysis play a significant role and must be detailed. To avoid biasness, it is important for the study to specify these methods prior to conducting the study (Adams-Hue & Ahn, 2009:821). The following section briefly discusses the statistical analysis of the study.

3.5.1 Descriptive analysis

Descriptive statistics are used for data description and summarization. This type of data analysis includes measurements of central tendency (mean, mode, median, quartiles) as well as dispersion (spread and distribution of data). Descriptive statistics play a significant role in making it possible to explore data before undertaking further analysis, similarly as key methods to describe how things are instead of attempting to explain an occurrence of phenomena. These procedures comprise of charts, numbers, tables, and so on (Somekh & Lewin, 2011:221). The current study makes use of descriptive statistics to analyse the data that have been collected.

3.5.2 Significance tests

In statistical testing, significance level is determined; this describes, or rather explains the likelihood of attaining the outcome of the test, presuming that no difference or relationship exists in the population. It is less likely that the outcome has occurred by chance if the probability is very small (variance in scores); therefore, this can give a study confidence regarding the results (Somekh & Lewin, 2011:221). This study will use significance tests in data analysis.

3.5.3 Correlation

According to Somekh and Lewin (2011:221), correlation explores and measures the relationship amongst variables. It can be used to make a comparison among groups of people by dissimilar traits; by so doing, a relation between the variables in question is identified. The strength of the linear (if they form a straight line) relation between two variables is measured. The study will use correlation to determine the strength of direct relation amongst variables.

3.5.4 Regression

When analysing a regression, it is an examination of the relationship between variables. The dependent variable is stated as the linear function of the explanatory variables. One of the objectives of regression analysis is to make an estimation of the average of the explained variable, taking into consideration the values of the explanatory variables. Thus by definition a simple linear regression model is a regression model that is “linear in parameters” (Gujarati & Porter, 2010:32). The model can be defined as such: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$: where the model shows linearity in the limits β_0 and β_1 with a discrete or continuous distinct independent variable. The current study makes use of an OLS regression model defined as a generalised linear modelling technique that may be used to model a single response variable which has been recorded on at least an interval scale. The technique may be applied to single or multiple explanatory variables and also categorical explanatory variables that have been appropriately coded (Kramarz & Visser, 2012). The aim of running a regression in the current study is to determine if demographic characteristics, which will be used as the independent variables have an impact on household poverty and child deprivation. Thus, the asset index and the child deprivation index will be used

as the independent variables of the two linear regressions. The models are represented as such:

$$AI = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D_1 + \beta_2 D_2 + \beta_3 D_3 + \beta_4 D_4 + \beta_5 D_5 + \beta_6 D_6 + \beta_7 D_7 + \epsilon \dots\dots\dots\dots (3.1)$$

$$CDI = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D_1 + \beta_2 D_2 + \beta_3 D_3 + \beta_4 D_4 + \beta_5 D_5 + \beta_6 D_6 + \beta_7 D_7 + \epsilon \dots\dots\dots.. (3.2)$$

Where equation *AI* represents the asset index and *CDI* represents the child deprivation index. The independent variables of this study are age, gender, qualification level, employment status, income, marital status and the number of people in the household. For the categorical variables, dummy variables were created such as gender, marital status, employment status and highest qualification. The following points explain the dummy variables.

- **Gender**

DG is the dummy for gender, where the dummies for gender are defined as:
Male= 0 Female=1.

- **Employment status**

DE is the dummy for employment status where the dummies are defined as follows:
Formally employed: 1= formally employed 0= otherwise
Unemployed: 1=unemployed 0=otherwise
Not economically active: 1=not economically active 0=otherwise

- **Marital status**

DM is the dummy for marital status where the dummy variables are defined as such:
1=Never Married (adult) 0= otherwise
1 =Married 0=otherwise
1=Divorced 0=otherwise
1= Separated 0=otherwise
1= Living together 0= otherwise
1= Widow/er 0=otherwise
1= Child (not married) 0=otherwise

- **Highest Qualification**

DH is the dummy for highest qualification where the dummies are defined as follows:
1= up to grade 3 0=otherwise; 1= grade 4 0=otherwise; 1= grade 5 0=other; 1= grade 6 0=other; 1= grade 7 0=other; 1= grade 8 0=other; 1=grade 9 0=other;

1=grade 10 0=other; 1=grade 11 0=other; 1=grade 12 0=other; 1=tertiary first degree/diploma 0=other; 1=post graduate diploma or degree 0=other; 1=other qualification (e.g. Certificate) 0=other; 1=no schooling 0=other

The subsequent dummies are the explanatory variables for the study, for both of the linear regressions:

$D_1 =$ Total income of the head of household

$D_2 =$ Age of the head of household

$D_3 =$ Gender of household head

$D_4 =$ Employment status

$D_5 =$ Qualification level of the head of household

$D_6 =$ Number of people in the household

$D_7 =$ Marital status of the head of household

α = Intercept

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5, \beta_6 \beta_7 =$ Coefficients

3.6 THE MEASUREMENT OF CHILD DEPRIVATION AND THE ASSET INDEX

The measurement of deprivation and poverty is not merely a procedural exercise. What is usually measured is centered on the understanding of both deprivation and poverty and deprivation. As a result, the precise policy responses in an effort to end these socio economic challenges are determined. The following sub-sections discuss the child deprivation index and the asset index.

3.6.1 The child deprivation index

A child deprivation index takes into account a broad range of necessities of the child in question; it measures poverty of the child in a multidimensional way. Unlike poverty, which is usually measured using the total income of the household (Grødem, 2008). It is not enough to measure the extent to which a child is in need or rather deprived based solely on monetary measures as there are many indicators that are essential to the growth of a child. Furthermore, as indicated before, child needs differ from household needs, hence looking at the total income of the household as a general measure of child deprivation and poverty is inadequate

(Bárcena *et al*., 2014; Singh & Sarkar, 2014). Hence, a child deprivation index tries to measure a wider concept of multiple deprivations, made up of numerous different dimensions of deprivation that directly affect the child (Lad, 2011; Singh & Sarkar, 2014).

The child deprivation index used in this study was adapted from De Neubourg *et al.* (2012:4-5). This study is different from other studies that have implemented the child deprivation index because it does not only take the indicators that directly affect the child into consideration, but it also examines the asset index (see Section 3.6.2), which analyses assets that do not necessarily affect the child directly but could have an impact on the deprivation status of the child. For the purpose of the study, a child deprivation index was created using 11 sets of indicators. The study examined if children in Jabulani Township lack the following, a balanced meal (e.g. meat, fruits, snacks), clothing and shoes (fashionable), reading books (suitable for their age), educational material (e.g. textbooks, stationery), assistance with homework, leisure and leisure equipment (e.g. swimming, bicycle), cellphone/tablet, toys (dolls, cars), birthday celebration, school trips and holiday (at least once a year).

Almost all of these indicators are monetary, thus examination of assistance with homework, which in a way is both a non-monetary and monetary indicator of child deprivation, as it takes the time given to a child in terms of assistance into consideration. A parent or guardian could make time to assist their children (non-monetary), however, if the household is well off then the child could get extra classes that could be financed (monetary). The indicators used by De Neubourg *et al.* (2012:4-5) to construct the child deprivation index are considered significant for the growth and lifestyle of a child. For example in order for a child to be healthy and to ensure that the child is not undernourished, it is important that the child eat a balanced meal. Hence, deprivation of this basic necessity could affect the growth of the child. The study applied the Likert-type scale with anchors ranging from (1) Never to (5) Always. All statements were rephrased to fit the context of the present study. A sum of the child deprivation index was calculated by adding the scores for each child (household). The study considers a child deprived or non-deprived based on the score, the higher the deprivation score the more deprived is the child, the

lower the deprivation score the less deprived the child is. The highest score a child could have is 55 and the lowest is 11.

Table 3.2 Child deprivation index

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Child deprivation index	178	11.00	44.00	20.1629	7.40067
Valid	178				

Source: Survey data, 2015

The child deprivation index is presented in Table 3.3 based on the survey data. The minimum child deprivation index is 11, which represent the lowest score that a child could have, and the maximum is 44. This means that in Jabulani Township the maximum score a child had was 44 though it could have been 55. The mean represents the average of the child deprivation index, which is 20.1629 and the standard deviation is 7.40067.

3.6.2 The asset index

According to Prakongsai (2006:4) and Filmer and Pritchett (1998), an asset index uses data of assets owned by the household as a description of the welfare of the household, as a substitute to using data on the income of the household or expenditure. The concept of an asset index is centered on evidence that describing the welfare of household using a money-metric measure is not enough and the asset index has consistency when it comes to financial means. Moreover, the index entails minimal data; it leads to a minor error in measurement and suitability for technical competences of statistical offices of the government. The asset index, therefore, would be a valuable instrument when data collection of income and expenses are difficult to find or perhaps not reliable.

The asset index used in this study was adapted from Prakongsai (2005) and Córdova (2008). The aim of using the asset index is first, to determine the extent of household poverty and secondly, to determine if household poverty has any impact on whether a child will be deprived of certain items. It examines if the lack or ownership of assets, which could be referred to as long-term wealth of the household

affects the deprivation of the child in question. This is drawn from the notion that household needs differ from child needs; hence it cannot be concluded without evidence that households which lack a number of assets automatically have deprived children. More often parents sacrifice their own needs and households needs for those of their children, similarly it does not mean that if a household has certain assets or is well off the child in that household is not deprived (Bárcena *et al*., 2014; Gordon & Nandy, 2012).

Table 3.3 Assets and assigned weights

Assets	**Assigned weights**	**Livestock**	**Assigned Weights**
Cellphone	8.5	Cow	35
Landline	3	Sheep	15
Television	5.5	Goat	13
Radio	2	Chicken	5
Refrigerator	30	No livestock	0
Microwave	12		
Washing machine	14		
Air conditioner/heater	2		
Computer	28		
Car	80		
Motorcycle	60		
Bicycle	7		
Bath	20		
Dishwasher	15		
Own house/land	100		
Total score	387	**Total score**	68

Source: Authors own construction, 2015

In construction of the asset index, households were asked to record if they have the following assets (fifteen assets were used), a cellphone, refrigerator, microwave, landline telephone, radio, television, washing machine, bicycle, motorcycle (scooter), computer (laptop/desktop), a car in working condition, air conditioner, dishwasher, bath/shower inside the house and own a house/land (other than the one they live in) and livestock. In recording, the respondents were required to state whether they have the selected assets or not by responding yes or no, which for the sake of the study were coded as 1=yes and 0=no. The study argues that assets have different values, thus it would create a measurement error if assets were just counted.

Therefore, it cannot be assumed that a household is well off or worse off by only summing up the number of assets a household has, for this reason the study assigned different weights to the assets (see Table 3.3).

The weights were assigned out of 100 depending on the value and relevance of the asset in question. For example, a television is a common asset that almost all households own but yet it is still valuable to households; however, the value of a television is not the same as the value of a microwave because not all households have a microwave, thus a microwave weighs more than a television in this study. The assets selected for the index are assets that an average household needs. These assets are used on daily basis and, therefore, could be referred to as basic household assets. For that reason, this study regards the selected assets as valuable and appropriate to be used as a measure of wealth. On the other hand, livestock was included in these analyses as one of the assets; however, not every household has livestock; thus, those who do are likely to be well off. The following table depicts the weights assigned to the assets.

Table 3.4 presents the assets and the weights assigned to them. The highest score of the asset index is 455 (387+68) and the lowest score is zero. The responses are summed up and each household has a different score. Based on the score a household is considered poor or well off. Thus, a higher asset index implies that the household is either less poor or not poor at all and a lower asset index suggests that a household is poor. Based on the survey data, Table 3.5 gives the descriptive of the asset index. The minimum of the asset index is 12.5 and 383.5 is the maximum score. The average of the asset index is 122.7416 and the standard deviation is 68.10756.

Table 3.4 Asset index

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Asset Index	178	12.5	383.5	122.7416	68.10756
Valid N	178				

Source: Survey data, 2015

3.7 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Data collection denotes the procedures and methods used when collecting the required research information. The quantitative approach is dependent on numerical data. This study used a quantitative method of research; numerical data were collected from Jabulani, a South African Township. To ensure sufficiency in research, several processes are undergone; one in particular is establishing the sample size of the study; that is the population included in the study. The study used a sample size of 178 households; historical evidence was used centered on a study done by Sekatane (2004). Lastly, the stratified random sampling falls under the probability sampling technique, this type of sampling attempts to make a restriction of the samples to the ones that are not extreme by ascertaining that in order to increase efficiency, all portions of the populace form part of the sample.

To analyse the data that have been collected, the study will use different methods of statistical analysis comprising of descriptive statistics, significance tests and correlation. Descriptive statistics are used when one desires to give a description and summarisation of data; it includes measurements of central tendency. Significance tests explain the likelihood of attaining the outcome of the test presuming that no difference or relationship exists in the population. Correlation explores and measures the relationship amongst variables (it measures the strength of the relationship among those variables). Finally, a regression examines the correlation between two variables or more, a dependent and an independent variable; the present study used an OLS regression model. The aim of the two linear regression models is to make the comparison to determine if household poverty does really mean that a child in a household will be deprived. The dependent variables comprise of the child deprivation index and the asset index. The independent variables of this study are age, gender, qualification level, employment status, income, marital status and the number of people in the household.

A child deprivation index takes into account a broad range of necessities of the child in question; it measures poverty of the child in a multidimensional way. For the sake of this study, a child deprivation index was created using 11 sets of indicators; the study investigated if children in Jabulani Township lack the following, a balanced meal (e.g. meat, fruits, snacks), clothing and shoes (fashionable), reading books

(suitable for their age), educational material (e.g. textbooks, stationery), assistance with homework, leisure and leisure equipment (e.g. swimming, bicycle), cellphone/tablet, toys (dolls, cars), birthday celebration, school trips and holiday (at least once a year. The study applied the Likert-type scale with anchors ranging from (1) Never to (5) Always. All statements were rephrased to fit the context of the present study. A sum of the child deprivation index was calculated by adding the scores for each child (household). An asset index takes into consideration the assets owned by the household, it uses these assets as a measure of the household's welfare instead of measuring the welfare by the income of the household. The current study assigns weights to different assets, it argues that assets have different values, and as such cannot be counted equally. The purpose of using the asset index is to determine if household poverty has any impact on child deprivation. It examines if the lack of assets, which could be referred to as long-term wealth of the household, contributes to child deprivation.

CHAPTER FOUR: ANALYSIS OF HOUSEHOLD POVERTY AND CHILD DEPRIVATION IN JABULANI TOWNSHIP

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results and findings of the study. The demographic characteristics of the head of the household (age, gender, marital status, education attainment level, employment status and total income per month) are analysed in order to determine their impact on the poverty status of the household and how they could possibly impact the child. As per the main objective of the study, the chapter focuses on analysing the relationship between household poverty and child deprivation by identifying the poor and non-poor households, in turn identifying the deprived and non-deprived children. It uses the asset index to measure the poverty status of the household and further uses a child deprivation index to identify the deprivations children go through. The asset index is compared to the child deprivation index, to draw conclusions. Two ordinary least squares (OLS) regressions are ran to establish the relationship between household poverty and child deprivation further. The subsequent section discusses the demographics of the head of households.

4.2 DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

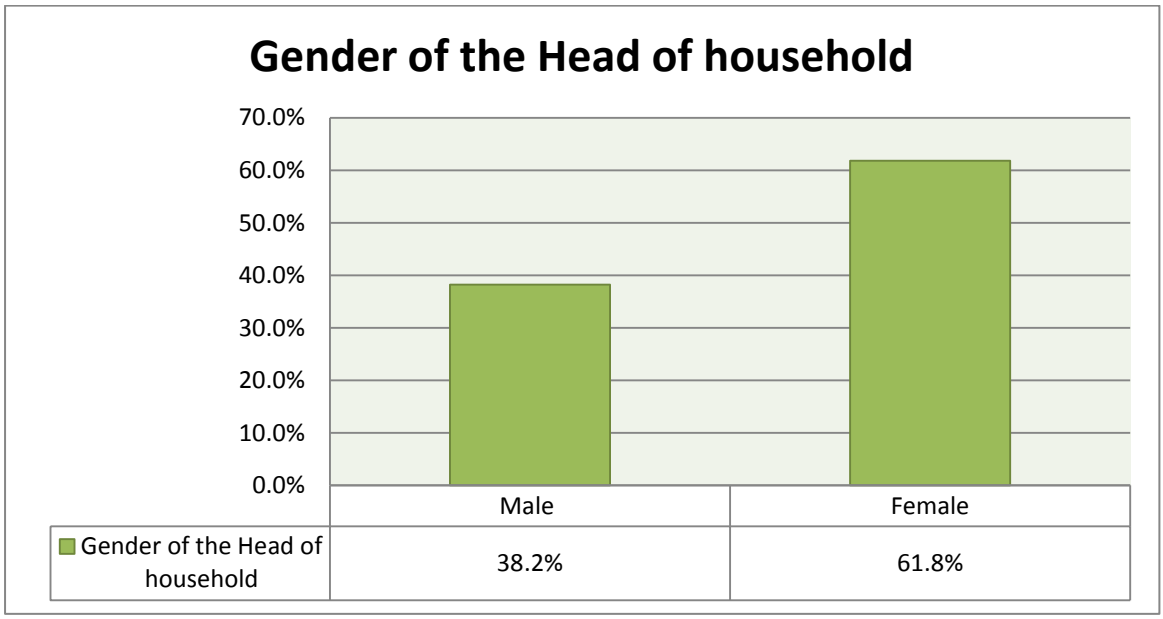
This section gives a description of the profiles of the household by discussing the demographic characteristics of the head of the household. Predominantly the head of the household is likely to have the potential to curb poverty in the household. Thus the current section analyses the gender of the head of household, the size of the household, the marital status of the head, educational attainment, total income of the household and other variables.

4.2.1 Distribution of the sampled population by gender of the head of household

Figure 4.1 illustrates the distribution of the sampled population by gender of the household head in Jabulani Township. The figure shows that 61.8 percent of the household heads in Jabulani Township are females and only 38.2 percent are males.

This shows that females head more than half of the sampled households. Mather (2010) suggests that in most female-headed households financial resources are inadequate to finance the necessities of the child; such as education, the health of the child and other child-care costs. If this were true, this would suggest that many children in Jabulani Township are deprived of the above-mentioned necessities because they live in female-headed households.

Figure 4.1 Gender of the head of household



Source: Survey data, 2015

4.2.2 Age of the head of household by gender

The age of the head of household is illustrated by gender in Table 4.1. Age was categorised as follows 1=23-33 years, 2=34-44 years, 3=45-55 years, 4=56-66 years and 5=67-93 years. The survey data shows that 2.90 percent of heads of household who are between the ages of 23-33 years are male and 2.70 percent are female. Of those who are between the ages of 34-44, 10.30 percent are male and 8.20 percent are female. In the third category (44-55 years) 41.20 percent of the heads of household are males and only 17.30 percent are females, this shows that a large percentage of males are between the ages of 44-55. The fourth category accounts for the heads of household between the ages of 56-66 years, the results reveal that 19.10 percent are male and 23.60 percent are female.

Table 4.1 Gender of the head of household by age

			Gender Head		Total
			Male	Female	
Age	1 (23-33)	Count	2	3	5
		% within age	40.00%	60.00%	100%
		% within gender head	2.90%	2.70%	2.80%
	2 (34-44)	Count	7	9	16
		% within age	43.80%	56.30%	100%
		% within gender head	10.30%	8.20%	9.00%
	3 (45-55)	Count	28	19	47
		% within age	59.60%	40.40%	100%
		% within gender head	41.20%	17.30%	26.40%
	4 (56-66)	Count	13	26	39
		% within age	33.30%	66.70%	100%
		% within gender head	19.10%	23.60%	21.90%
	5 (67-93)	Count	18	53	71
		% within Age	25.40%	74.60%	100%
		% within gender head	26.50%	48.20%	39.90%
Total		Count	68	110	178
		% within age	38.20%	61.80%	100%
		% within gender head	100%	100%	100%

Source: Survey data, 2015

The last category which accounts for the heads of households who are above the age of 66 (67-93) and can thus be referred to as senior citizens, shows that 26.50 percent are male and 48.20 percent are female. This indicates that most of the female heads of households are between the ages of 67-93. Based on this information it, therefore, can be concluded that the sampled population has more females than males. As a result, females between the ages of 67-93 years head most households; most households in Jabulani Township are headed by females who are not economically active, possibly retired or pensioners, or perhaps in informal activities. Generally, it can be argued that most of the children in Jabulani

Township live with female breadwinners such as mothers, grandmothers, aunts and sisters.

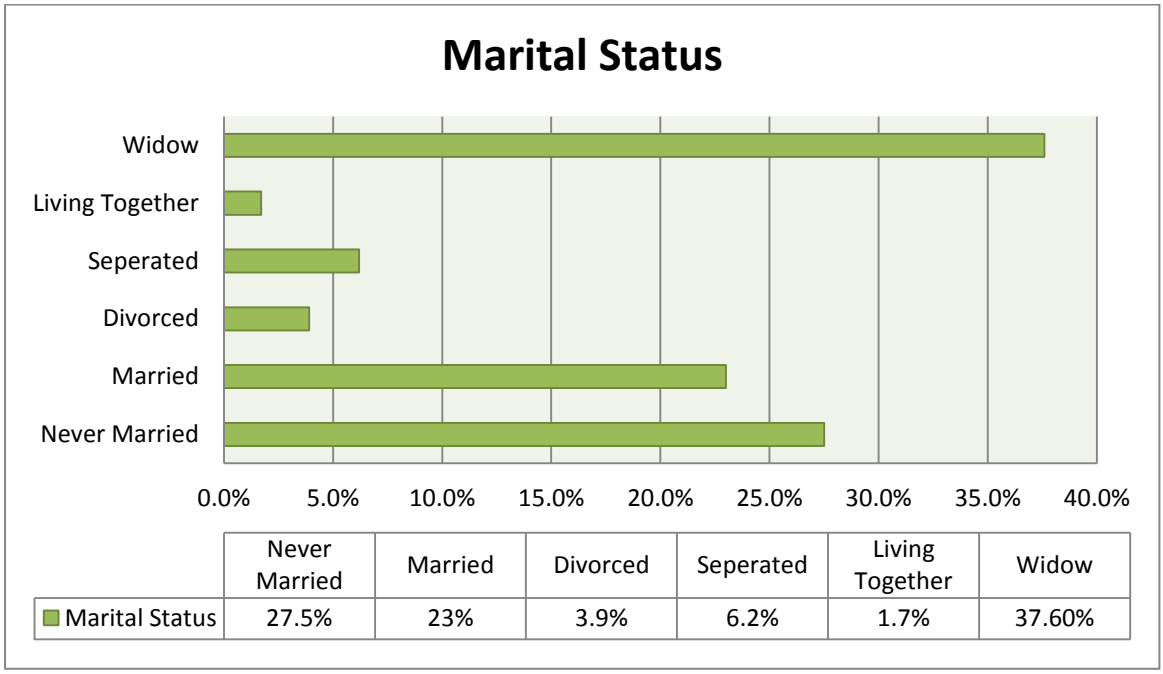
The fact that most of the households are grandmother-headed implies that children could be deprived easily of many items because most of them survive on the grandmother's social grant and the child support grant, which is not enough to take care of all the household and child needs, especially in a household that has more than one child.

4.2.3 Marital status of the head of the household

The marital status of the household heads is shown in Figure 4.2. The survey data reveals that most of the household heads are widows (37.6%). The percentage of those who never married is calculated at 27.5 percent. The proportion of household heads that are married is 23 percent. The percentage of those who are divorced and those who are separated is 3.9 percent and 6.2 percent respectively, and finally, those that are living together account for 1.7 percent. This reveals that household structures in Jabulani Township are weak as only 23 percent of the household heads are married and they live with their spouses, thus most of the children in this township are either raised by grandmothers, a single parent and/or aunts, uncles and other relatives.

According to Vespa *et al.* (2013), married couple households have declined over time, nowadays married couples are older and households are headed by single parents both male and female. The study maintains that the decline in married couples and the trend of single-headed families has reduced the support system, from one spouse to the next. The study argues that when a female is married they tend to get financial support from their husbands and so do the children (from their fathers); however, nowadays women and children are supported by the government more than the fathers are.

Figure 4.2 Distribution of the population by marital status of the head of household



Source: Survey data, 2015

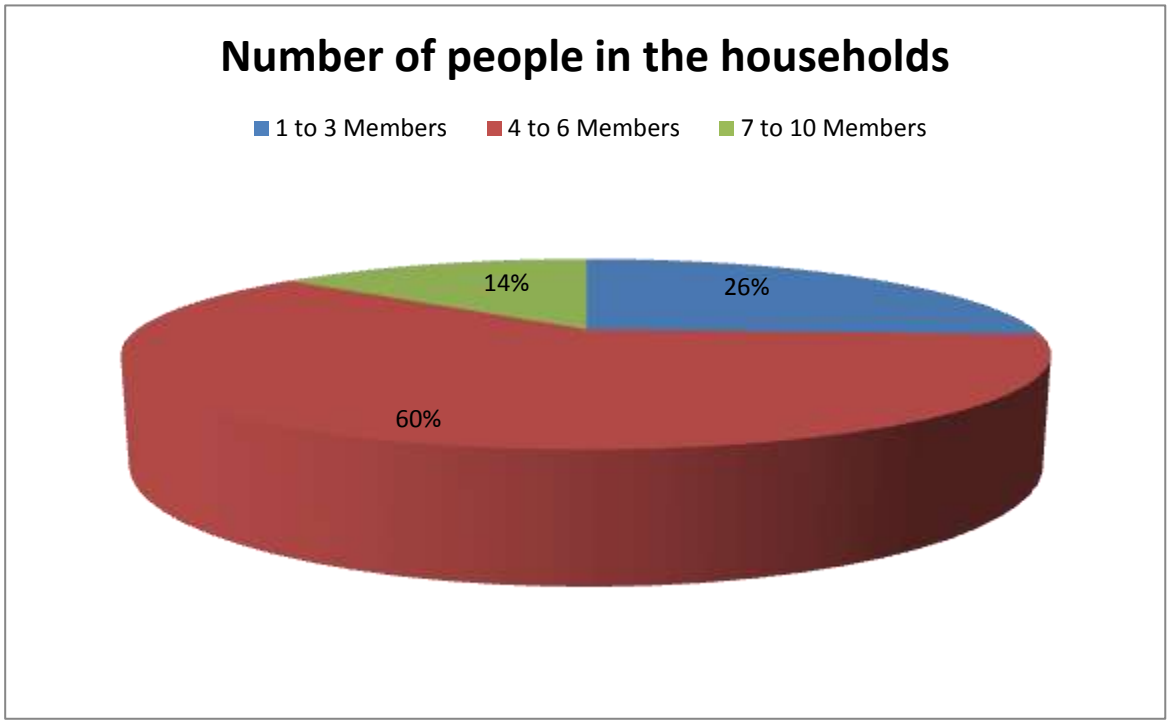
4.2.4 The size of the household

Figure 4.3 depicts the household sizes in Jabulani Township. The minimum number of people in a household is two members and the maximum is 10. The survey data shows that more than half (60%) of the sampled households have four to six household members. Only 14 percent of the households have between 7 to 10 members and 26 percent of the households have between one to three members. Anyanwu (2013) argues that the size of the household and poverty levels are correlated. Households with less members display less levels of poverty and those with many people (seven and more) show the highest occurrence of poverty.

Bradshaw *et al.* (2006) proposes that households with more than three children are at a higher risk of being caught in poverty. Therefore, it is evident that a big household size has negative consequences for a child because if a household has one child, all the available resources are likely to be dedicated to that child. However, when a household has more children, then everything has to be divided

amongst the children; thus, children from such households experience a high incidence of deprivation.

Figure 4.3 Size of the household



Source: Survey data, 2015

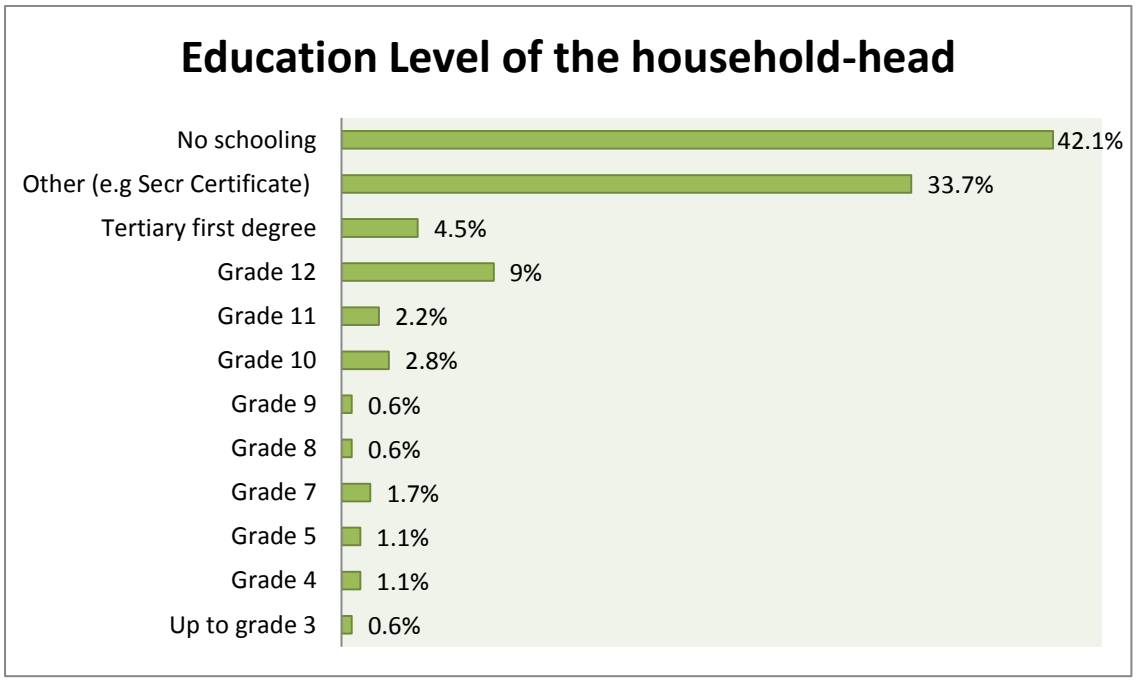
4.2.5 Educational attainment of the head of household

A study undertaken in South Africa by Botha (2010) argues that when a head of household attains higher education it could result to reduced poverty levels because it increases employment prospects and income. The study further revealed that where heads of household have lower education levels, the household is likely to be poor in comparison to one where the heads of household have higher education levels. The literateness of the head of the household is inversely associated to household poverty. Figure 4.4 depicts the educational attainment of heads of household; it indicates that 42.1 percent of the heads of household in Jabulani Township have no schooling. The survey data shows that the highest percentage of those who went to school is 33.7 percent, this percentage accounts for those who have obtained qualifications falling under the category of other (e.g. certificates).

The lowest percentage of qualification is 0.6 percent and is accounted for by those who have completed grade three, eight and nine (0.6% in each category). It is thus

unfortunate that in this township the education levels of the heads of household are low, as the percentage of those who have completed grade 12 is only 9 percent while tertiary education is only 4.5 percent. As mentioned above, there is an inverse relationship between education attainment and household poverty; this could have bad outcomes for the child because in some cases children from poor families are forced to drop out of school because their families cannot afford to keep them there. Furthermore, a study by De Neubourg *et al*. (2012) argued that children who come from families with low education levels are highly likely to be deprived compared to those with educated parents. As a result, they become uneducated adults aggravating the phenomenon of poverty. Those children tend to have deprived children when they are older because it becomes difficult to break the cycle of poverty, especially without even basic education.

Figure 4.4 Education attainment of the head



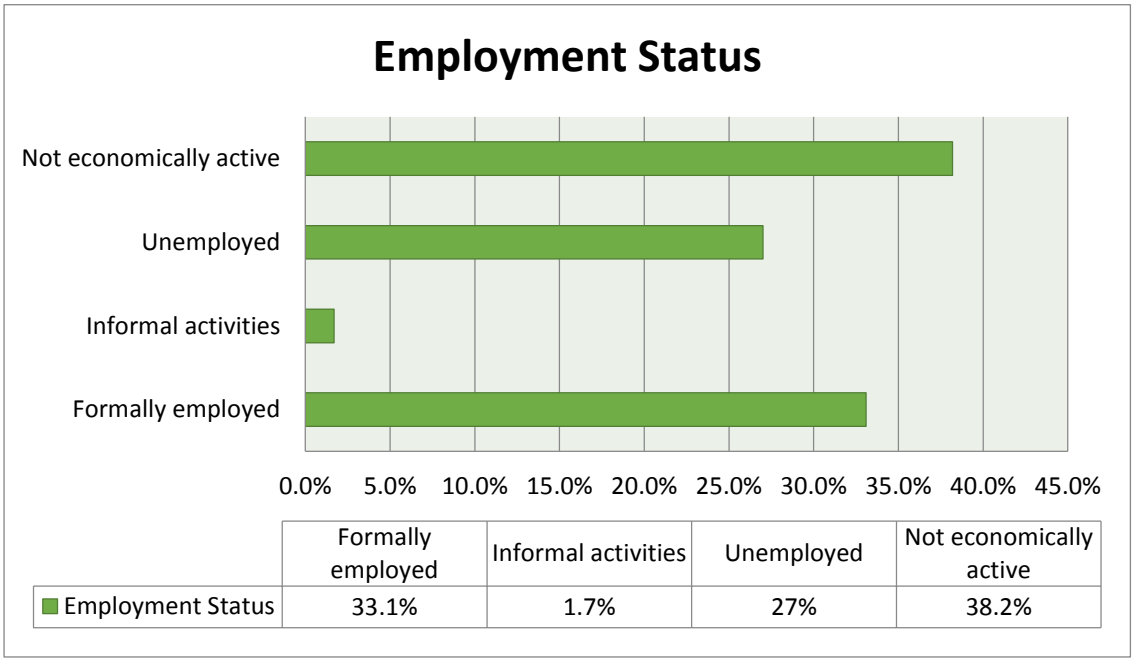
Source: Survey data, 2015

4.2.6 Employment status of the heads of household

Figure 4.5 illustrates the employment status of the heads of household. In this study, a person is described as unemployed if they are not receiving any form of income from working and is available and actively seeking employment. The percentage of

the unemployed heads of household is calculated at 27 percent. The economically inactive population accounts for people who before the week of the household survey did not meet the criteria to be categorised as unemployed but were also not in employment. This comprises of an individual not available to start working within two weeks but who is looking for work, those who are not actively looking for employment and those who are not able to find work. For example those who have retired, are disabled, full time students etcetera. From the survey data, 38.2 percent of the heads of household are not economically active; this could refer to the grandmothers who are heading households (58% of the sampled population between ages 65 to 93). Only 1.7 percent of the heads of household are involved in informal activities such as selling and gardening.

Figure 4.5 Employment and unemployment



Source: Survey data, 2015

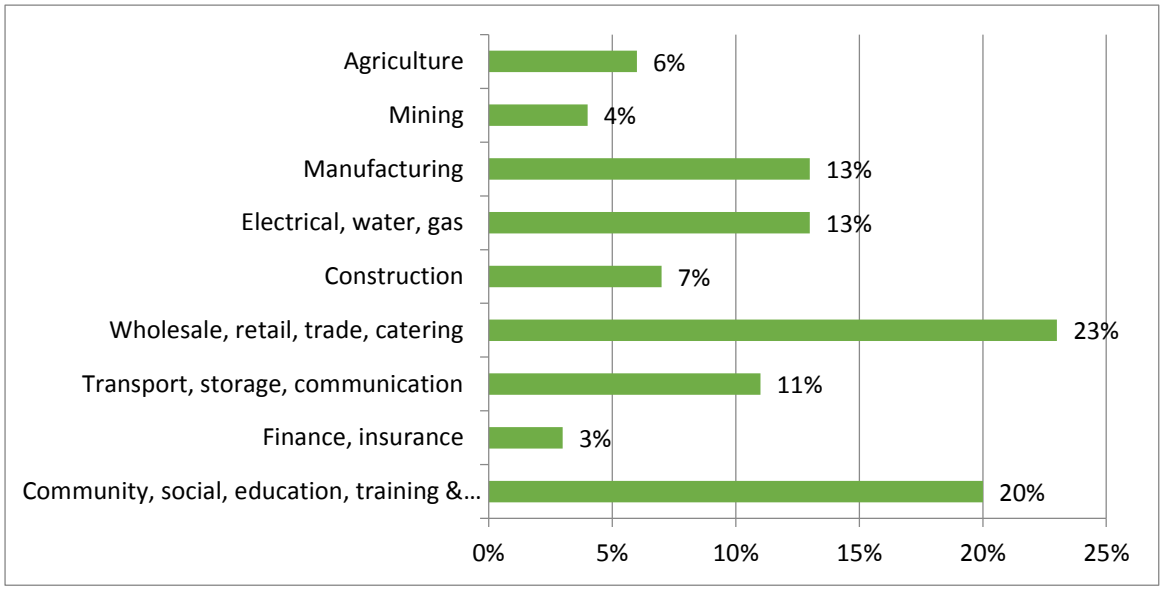
Furthermore, formal employment is where persons work to obtain a salary or wage regularly and rights of employment are assured. The percentage of the formally employed heads of household is calculated at 33.1 percent. The prevalence of unemployment in South Africa seems to be a puzzling circumstance, consequently the current unemployment rate is +26 percent (Stats SA, 2014). Therefore, the survey data indicates that the unemployment rate in Jabulani Township is approximately the same as the unemployment rate in the whole of South Africa. This

could affect the children in those households negatively because there is a correlation between employment status and poverty. It is highly likely that a child that resides in a household that has no salary or wage will be deprived of certain monetary items.

4.2.7 Distribution of the sampled population by sectors of employment of the head of household

The sector of employment of the heads of the household is shown in Figure 4.6. The survey data shows that 23 percent of the employed sampled population in Jabulani Township work in the wholesale, retail, trade and catering sector. The community, social, education and training sector; accounts for 20 percent of the formally employed heads of household. While the transport, communication and IT sector is calculated at 11 percent. Only 3 percent of the employed heads of household work in the finance, insurance and real estate sector.

Figure 4.6 Sector of employment of the formally employed heads of household



Source: Survey data, 2015

The percentage for employment in the construction and agricultural sector was calculated at 7 percent and 6 percent respectively. The electrical, water and gas sector accounts for 13 percent of the sampled heads of households. Similarly, 13

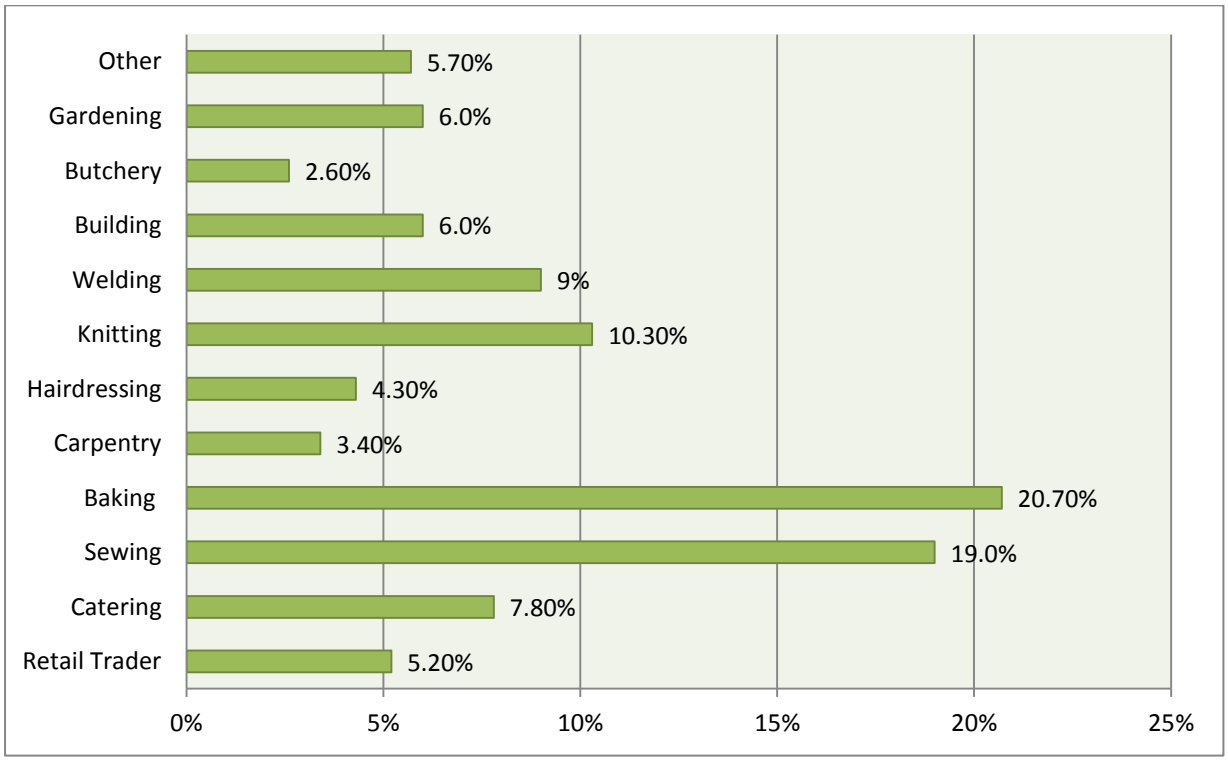
percent of the heads of household work in the manufacturing sector. The mining sector accounts for only 4 percent of the sampled population. In some cases, the sector of employment is influenced by the education attainment of a person. In Jabulani Township, a high percentage of the heads of household work in retail as cashiers, stock takers and cleaners. According to Ray et al. (2014), occupations in sectors such as retail, catering and hospitality, personal services and residential care are correlated strongly with persistent low earnings. For that reason it is possible that a number children living in households whereby parents work in the above mentioned sectors are deprived of some of the things that children require so that they are less excluded from their peers, for example a school trip

4.2.8 Distribution of the sampled population by the skills of the unemployed in Jabulani Township

Figure 4.7 shows the skills of the unemployed heads of household. Most respondents appear to be more skilled in baking (20.7%) and sewing (19%); these skills are female dominant. Only 9 percent of the sampled heads of household are skilled in welding. Catering accounts for 7.8 percent, in comparison a study done by Makhalima (2010) shows that 25 percent of the respondents in Sebokeng Township are skilled in catering, which is definitely higher than the calculated percentage in this field for Jabulani Township.

Construction (building) is a male dominated industry, the survey data displays that 6.0 percent of the heads of household are skilled in this field. Only 5.2 percent of the unemployed heads of household are skilled in retail trading and carpentry accounts for only 3.4 percent. Hairdressing accounts for 4.3 percent; this is yet another female dominant skill; however, it seems as though not many of the unemployed are skilled in this field. Other heads of households are skilled in gardening (6.0%), butchery (2.6%) and other skills (5.7%).

Figure 4.7 Skills of the unemployed



Source: Survey data, 2015

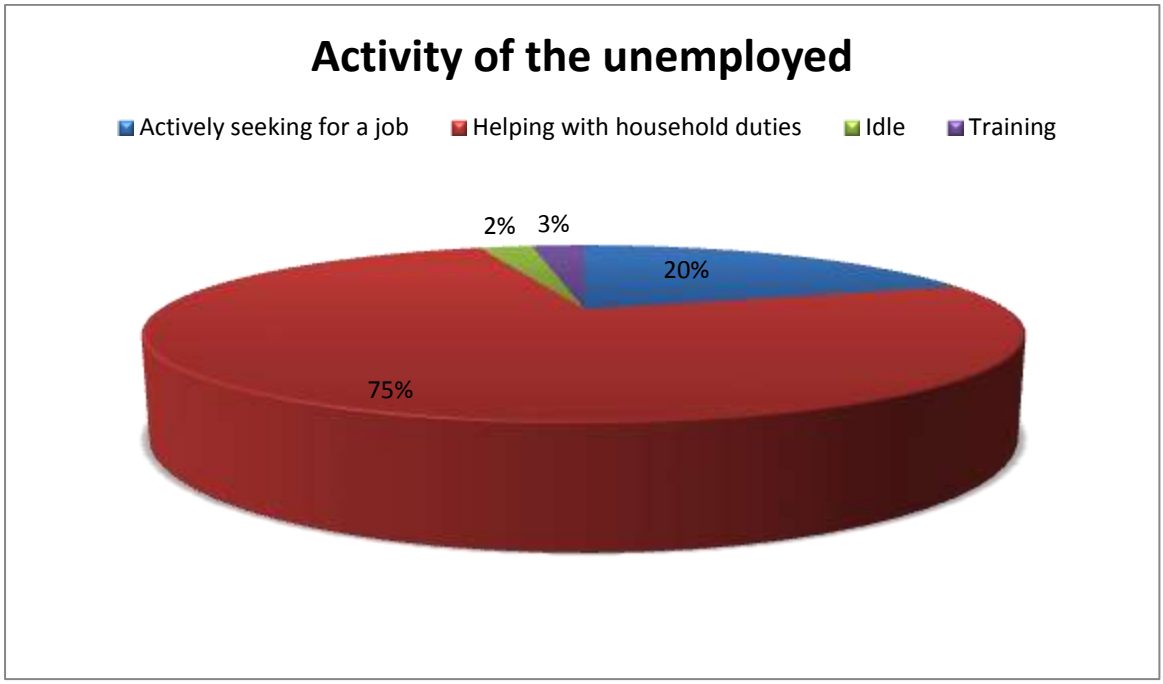
4.2.9 Activities of the unemployed

In Figure 4.8, the activities of the unemployed in Jabulani Township are depicted. The vertical axis indicates the activities of the unemployed and the horizontal axis shows the percentage of the sampled population in each category. The findings indicate that 75 percent of the sampled unemployed population are helping with household duties, this is because most of the heads of household in this township are grandmothers, as a result they are pensioners and not economically active. Only 2 percent are idle, this percentage could refer to the discouraged job seekers, who might have lost any hope of ever finding employment. It could also refer to those who for different reasons have resorted to illegal measures as a survival strategy.

Similarly, only 3 percent of the sampled population are being trained for jobs and only 20 percent of the heads of household are actively job seeking. The activities of the unemployed may have an impact on whether the household will get out of the poverty trap or not and thus, on the child in the household. A person who is actively seeking a job has a probability of finding one; however, an idle person is bound to be

caught up in their current situation for years. Such situations could be harmful to children because they might grow up to be poor and deprived children, and even become idle adults themselves. According to the National Treasury (2011), skills play a big role in employment levels, especially in formal employment because companies usually look for workers with certain skills and experience. The activities of the unemployed are, therefore, important as they have an impact on the poverty status of the unemployed; being trained for a skill is better than being idle.

Figure 4.8 Activity of the unemployed



Source: Survey data, 2015

4.2.10 Total Income of the household

Total income was calculated based on the monthly income of the head of household and is discussed as a demographic characteristic. The survey data as presented by Table 4.2 shows that the minimum total income of the sampled heads of household is R330, the data shows that almost all the households with a total income of R330 are those who are surviving on the monthly child support grant. The maximum total income is R25000. The average income of the sampled households is R4804. Sekhampu (2004:84) reported that the average total income of the sampled households in Bophelong Township is R771.53. This amount is very much less than

the findings of the current study; this could be due to the differences between Jabulani Township and Bophelong Township and also the state of the current economy contrary to the state of the economy in 2004.

Table 4.2 Total income of the households

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Total Income	178	330.00	25000.00	4803.92	3493.25
Valid N	178				

Survey data, 2015

4.2.10.1 Distribution of total income of the sampled households

Table 4.3 presents the total income of the sampled population in each household. According to the Table 4.2, 40.4 percent of the households in Jabulani Township have a total income ranging between R2010-R4000 monthly. Those in category five with total incomes between R4010-R6000 are calculated at 19.1 percent. The percentage of the sampled population who have income levels ranging from R6010-R10000 is 15.7 percent, while only 14 percent of the sampled households have total incomes that fall into category three (R910-R2000).

Table 4.3 Categorised total incomes of the sampled households

Categorised Total Income R	Frequency	Percentage
1.00 (330-600)	2	1.1
2.00 (610-900)	3	1.7
3.00 (910-2000)	25	14.0
4.00 (2010-4000)	72	40.4
5.00 (4010-6000)	34	19.1
6.00 (6010-10000)	28	15.7
7.00 (10010-20000)	13	7.3
8.00 (20010-25000)	1	.6
Total	178	100.0

Source: Survey data, 2015

The heads of household who make the least total income fall into category one (R330-R600) and two (R610-900) and the percentages are calculated at 1.1 percent and 1.7 percent respectively. The highest earners are in category eight (R20010-R25000) and only account for 0.6 percent. Heads of household with total incomes between R10010-R20000 account for 7.3 percent. The current study regards a household as income poor if the household's income levels are below the average total income (R4804) established in this study. The distribution of income indicates that the majority of the sampled households have income levels that are below average (R4804); for this reason, a large number of the sampled Jabulani Township population can be regarded as income poor.

4.2.10.2 The distribution of total income by gender of the head of the household

Table 4.3 presents the distribution of total income by gender. The survey data shows that 50 percent of males and 50 percent of females have total income levels that fall between R330 and R600 that is the lowest income bracket according to this study. Only 33.30 percent male heads of household have a total income of R610-R900 compared to 66.70 percent females. The female heads of household who have total income between R910-R2000 are calculated at 76 percent, while only 24 percent of the male heads of household have a total income in that range. Category four (R2010-R4000) is below the average total income of the sampled households, only 33.3 percent males and 66.70 percent females fall into that category. A higher percentage of male (55.90%) heads of household have a total income of R4010-R6000 and 44.10 percent of female heads of household fall in that income bracket. More than half of the sampled female heads of household (60.70%) have total incomes that fall between R6010 and R10000 while male heads of household only account for 39.30 percent in this category.

The second highest income earners in Jabulani Township are in category seven where the total income ranges from R10010-R20000. As a result, female heads of household account for 53.80 percent and male heads of household account for only 46.20 percent. Category eight accounts for the highest income earners; the percentage for female heads of household is calculated at 0.90 percent and for male heads of household it is calculated at 0.00 percent. Based on these results, it is

evident that female heads of the households earn more than male heads of the households, this could be because there are more female-headed households than male headed households in the township. This is implies that children living in female-headed households are likely to be at an advantage (better state of living) compared to those living in male headed households.

Table 4.4 Total income by gender

Categorised Total Income	Gender of the Head		Total
	Male	Female	
1.00 (330-600)	50.00%	50.00%	100%
2.00 (610-900)	33.30%	66.70%	100%
3.00 (910-2000)	24.00%	76.00%	100%
4.00 (2010-4000)	33.30%	66.70%	100%
5.00 (4010-6000)	55.90%	44.10%	100%
6.00 (6010-10000)	39.30%	60.70%	100%
7.00 (10010-20000)	46.20%	53.80%	100%
8.00 (20010-25000)	0.00%	0.90%	100%

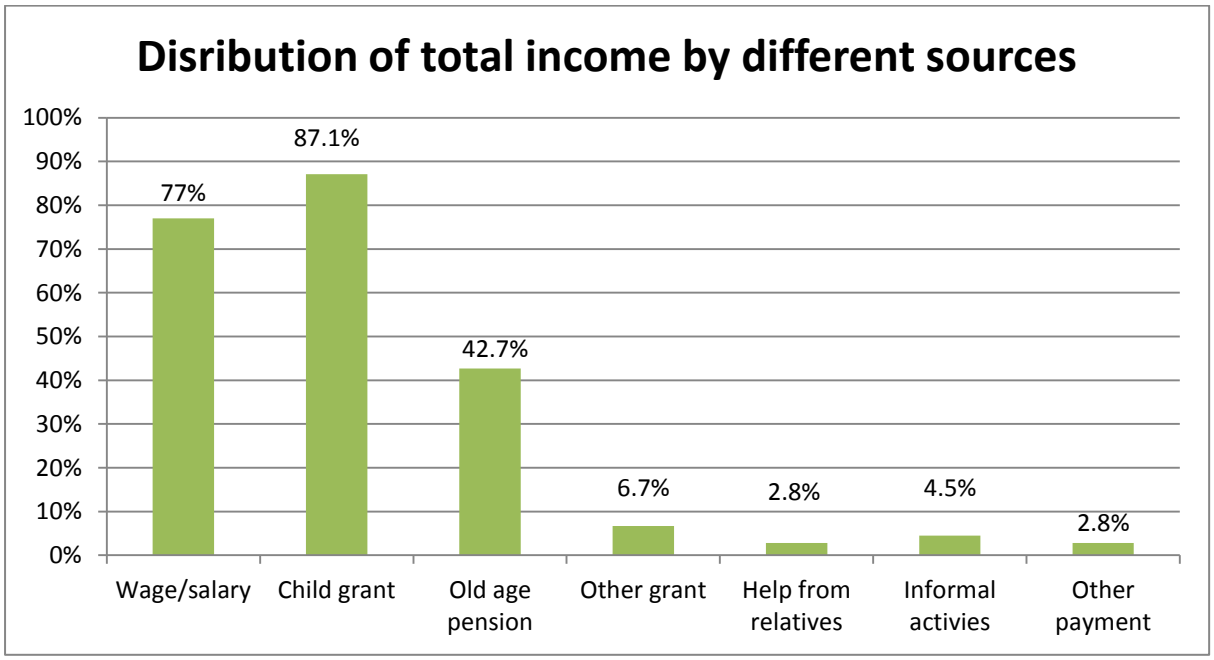
Source: Survey data, 2015

4.2.10.3 Distribution of total income by different sources of income

Figure 4.9 illustrates the income that households receive from different sources. Child support grants (87.1%) are the highest contributor to the sources of income. The second highest contributor is wages/salaries, which are calculated at 77 percent. Those who receive old age pension account for 42.7 percent. The category of other grants, which is calculated at 6.7 percent comprises of other grants from the government, for example disability grant. Only 2.8 percent of the sampled households receive help from relatives. Informal activities (4.5%) and other payments (2.8%) contribute 7.3 percent to the total income of the household. A study done by Nishimwe-Niyimbanira (2013:84) found that wages/salaries (66.74%) are the highest contributors to household total income in Kwakwatsi Township and child grant only contributes 5.30 percent. Hatla (2010:60) reported that wages contribute 31.18 percent to the total income of the household and child grant only contributes 2.86 percent.

Based on these findings it can be concluded that most households in Jabulani Township are dependent on a child support grant from the government than they are on other sources of income. However, Figure 4.9 further shows that there are overlaps between the distributions made by the sources of income towards the total income of the household, as there are households who receive child grant and old age pension simultaneously.

Figure 4.9 Different sources of income



Source: Survey data, 2015

4.3 AN ANALYSIS OF CHILD DEPRIVATION AND HOUSEHOLD POVERTY

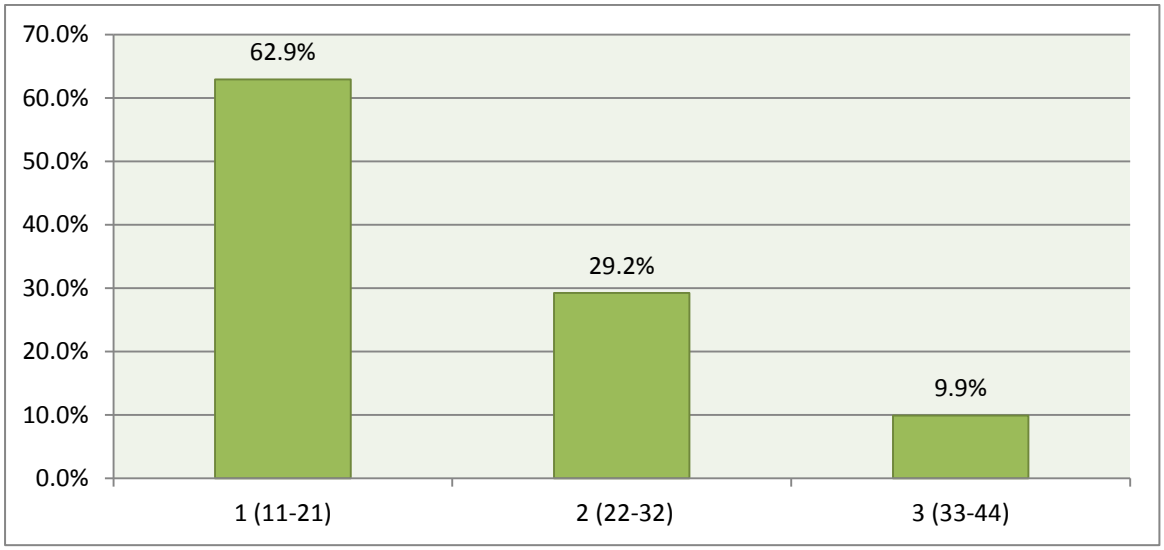
The child deprivation index was divided into three categories, ranging from the lowest score to the highest. A child is considered deprived the higher the deprivation score and less deprived the lower the deprivation score. Based on the results the minimum deprivation score is 11 and the maximum is 44. The categories were classified as follows: 1 (11-21); 2 (22-32) and 3 (33-44). Children in category one are less deprived, those in category two are moderately deprived and those in the third category are severely deprived. Similarly, the asset index was divided into five categories, where the lower the asset index score the poorer is the household and the higher the asset index score the less poor is the household. The asset index categories were defined as follows 1 (12.5-30.5); 2 (31.5-60.5); 3 (61.5-90.5); 4

(91.5-123.5) and 5 (124.5-383.5). The following sub-section discusses the results of the child deprivation index and the asset index.

4.3.1 Child deprivation index

Children often are deprived of a number of factors, more especially in comparison to their friends. Figure 4.9 illustrates the extent of child deprivation in Jabulani Township. The findings indicate that 62.9 percent of the children in Jabulani Township are not deprived. These children fall into the first category of the child deprivation index and thus have the lowest deprivation index. The children in the second category of the child deprivation index are calculated at 29.2 percent and are considered moderately deprived. These children are not as well off as the children in the first category of the index but they are also not as deprived as the children are in the third category of the child deprivation index.

Figure 4.10 Categorised child deprivation index



Source: Survey data, 2015

The third category accounts for the severely deprived children in Jabulani Township. The results indicate that only 9.9 percent of the children in Jabulani Township are severely deprived. These children have a deprivation index that ranges between the score of 33-44. This is inconsistent with a study done by Notten (2013:10) who reported that 11.7 percent children in Ontario are deprived based on a similar deprivation index scale, compared to only 9.9 percent of the whole Ontarian

population. Moreover, a study by De Neubourg *et al.* (2012) reported a 10 percent degree of deprivation among children in European Countries and 25 percent rate of child deprivation in Greece and Italy. In this study, a child is regarded as severely deprived if they lack almost all the items listed on the child deprivation index. This implies that the 9.9 percent severely deprived children lack a balanced meal (e.g. meat, fruits, snacks), clothing and shoes (fashionable), reading books (suitable for their age), educational material (e.g. textbooks, stationery), assistance with homework, leisure and leisure equipment (e.g. swimming, playing instrument, roller skates, bicycle etc.), cell phone/ I pad/ tablet, toys (dolls, cars), birthday celebrations, school trips and a holiday (at least once a year). Therefore, it can be concluded that 9.9% of the children in Jabulani Township do not have access to these items and activities. It is likely that these children are severely deprived because their parents/guardians are unemployed, they live in grandmother-headed households and the children do not receive child support grant and live in poverty-stricken households.

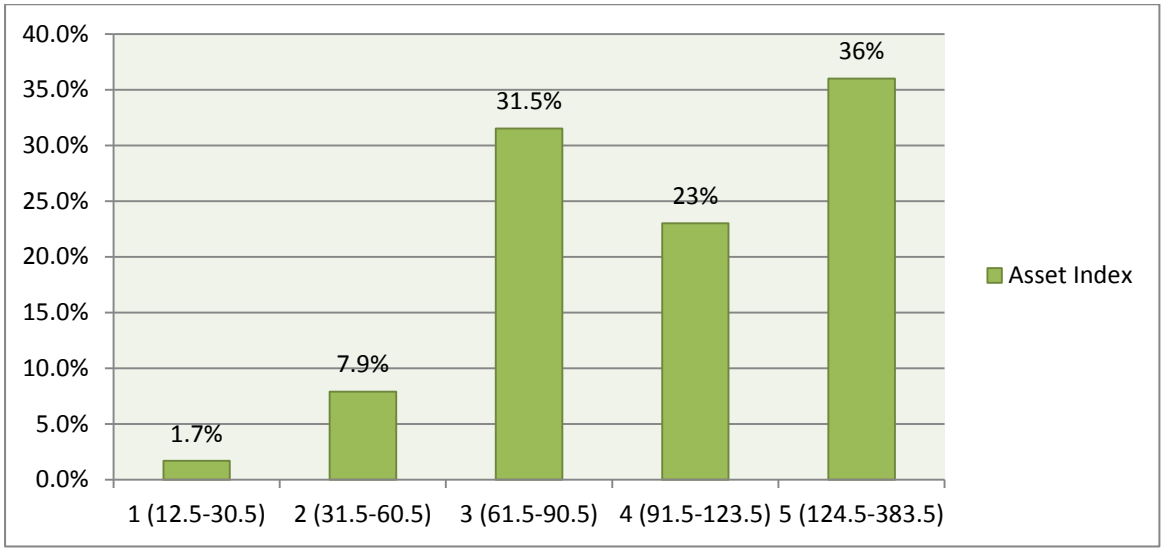
4.3.2 Asset Index

Numerous households in South Africa have low-income levels; this does not only affect the household but has a tendency of affecting the children in that particular household (Stats SA, 2014). Figure 4.10 illustrates the asset index, which establishes the poverty status in the household. The findings denote that 36 percent of the sampled households in Jabulani Township are less poor, these households have an asset index score ranging from 124.5-383.5 (representing the highest score of the asset index). The second highest percentage is found in the third category of the asset index and accounts for 31.5 percent of the sampled population of Jabulani Township. The average of the asset index is 122.7416, thus this implies that the households in the third category are below the average asset index.

The fourth category of the asset index accounts for 23 percent of the sampled population of Jabulani Township, these are the individuals who have scored close to the average total score of the asset index and those who have an average asset index score. The poorest of the population are found in the first and second category of the asset index. The results signify that 1.7 percent of the sampled population in Jabulani Township are poor, followed by those in the second category of the asset

index (7.9%) with scores between the range of 31.5-60.5. Based on these findings it therefore can be reasoned that the majority of the sampled population in Jabulani Township are not poor, they either live an average (middle-class) life or they are well off. These findings do not coincide with a study done by Fotso *et al.* (2012) who used an asset index to determine if household poverty matters for child development in Nairobi. The study found the least poor to be calculated at 25 percent; the middle-class to be 33 percent and the poorest accounted for 42 percent thus the majority. These results are different from the findings of this study because the majority in the current study are the least poor.

Figure 4.11 Categorised asset index



Source: Survey data, 2015

4.3.3 Correlations of the asset index and the child deprivation index

Table 4.4 illustrates the correlation between the asset index and the child deprivation index. Coefficient 1 indicates a perfectly positive correlation of the asset index. Coefficient -.336 signifies the strength of the linear relationship between the asset index and the child deprivation index. There is a negative correlation between the asset index and the child deprivation index thus the higher the asset index, the lower the child deprivation index and the lower the asset index the higher the child deprivation index. The p-value is 0.000 indicating that the correlation is statistically significant at 0.01. This suggests that the correlation between the child deprivation

index and the asset index does exist. However it can be argued that the weakness of the correlation indicates that a poor household does not necessarily have deprived children and *vice versa*. The correlation is low because of the difference in household needs and child needs. Thus, even though a household lacks certain assets; it can still be able to provide some of the basic things a child could possibly need. However, because of the negative correlation between the two indices one can also argue that the wealth of the household has a great impact on the deprivation status of the child because the data indicates that a lower asset index leads to a high child deprivation index *vice versa*. This indicates that a child that lives in a household with more assets (long-term wealth), is likely to be less deprived compared to one living in a household with less assets.

Table 4.5 Correlations between the asset index and the child deprivation index

		Child deprivation index	**Asset index**
Child deprivation index	Pearson correlation	1	-.336
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0
	N	178	178
Asset index	Pearson correlation	-.336	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	
	N	178	178

Source: Survey data, 2015

4.3.4 The asset index and total incomes of the sampled households

A cross-tabulation between the asset index and total income of the household was estimated (see annexure B). The total income of the household was divided into eight categories, ranging from the most income poor to the least income poor 1-(R330-R600); 2-(R610-R900); 3-(R910-R2000); 4-(R2010-R4000); 5-(R4010-R6000); 6-(R6010-R10000); 7-(R10010-R20000); 8-(R20010-R25000). The study regards someone as income poor if their income levels are below average, which in

this study is category 5 (R4010-R6000) and the average total income in Jabulani Township is R4804 as previously discussed.

Similarly the asset index was divided according to the wealth of the household which is determined by the value of the assets in the households as formerly mentioned. The asset index was categorised as follows: 1 (12.5-30.5); 2 (31.5-60.5); 3 (61.5-90.5); 4 (91.5-123.5); 5 (124.5-383.5). The table attempts to establish if the households who are asset poor are also income poor. The study regards assets more valuable than income, because accumulation of assets determines long-term wealth and income varies over time and can thus be consumed at any point, thus there was no poverty line created.

Households are regarded as poor or well off based on the total score they get from the value of the assets they have accumulated. Searle and Köppe (2014) stress that according to the JRF, the description of poverty consists of an individual's minimum requirements and the availability of physical resources. This study adopts this definition and regards the physical resources as the assets of the household. The categories of total income thus were compared to the categories of the asset index.

The first category of the asset index that is the poorest of the sampled population indicates that 33.3 percent of the households in this category are also in the first category (R330-R600) of total income, which accounts for the sampled population with the lowest income levels. Within this category 66.7 percent of the sampled households fall into the range of R910-R2000 of total income, this category still accounts for those households with total incomes below average, wherein the average total income is between R4010-R6000 (category five). Category two of the asset index indicates that majority of the sampled households (78.6%) have total incomes falling in the range of 2010-4000 that is category four of total income. Within the same category of the asset index 14.3 percent of the sampled households have total incomes ranging between R910-R2000 and 7.1 percent have average total (R4010-R6000) incomes.

Category three of the asset index reveals that the majority of the sampled population has incomes in the range of R2010-R4000 (category four of total income). The rest of the households are accounted for in the rest of the categories of income. In

category four of the asset index, that is the sampled households considered well off in Jabulani Township. The majority of the households (35.10%) have below average total incomes R2010-R4000 and the second highest (21.60%) have average total incomes within the bracket of R4010-R6000. The rest of the households in this category of the asset index are accounted for in categories two, three, six and seven of the total income. This indicates that of those who are considered the second highest in terms of asset wealth, none of them have the highest score of total income that ranges from R20010-R25000.

The last and highest category (124.5-383.5) of the asset index indicates that none of the wealthy households has total incomes ranging between (R330-R600) and (R610-R900) which represents the lowest income categories in the sample. Furthermore, 36.8 percent of the asset wealthy households in Jabulani Township have below average total incomes (R2010-R4000). While 23.5 percent have average total incomes of R4010-R6000, 20.6 percent have above average total incomes between R6010-R10000. The households who are considered both income and asset wealthy as they fall into category four (91.5-123.5) of the asset index as well as category seven (R10010-R20000) of total income are calculated at 10.80 percent. Only 1.5 percent of the sampled households have the highest total income of R20010-R25000 as well as the highest asset index score (124.5-383.5).

These results indicate that that majority of the sampled households in Jabulani Township have low-income levels. The households with the least assets also have the lowest income levels, however in general Jabulani Township has income levels below average as defined by the study. The less poor households (based on their assets) also have high-income levels even though some still have just above average income levels. It can be argued based on these findings that when you are asset poor then there is a high probability that you will be income poor. Similarly, asset wealth does not necessarily mean a household has high-income levels, because it is likely that these households are focused more on accumulating long-term wealth rather than merely having income or consumption spending. There is a possibility that some people buy assets on credit as a result they have to pay off their debts hence the low-income levels. According to Searle and Köppe (2014), ownership of assets can help towards the alleviation of poverty. The study maintains

that ownership of assets provides a household with supplementary benefits above those provided by mere incomes levels or value of finances. Their study further argues that low wealth will lead to low-income levels thus failure to combat the phenomenon of poverty. This study coincides with the findings of the current study.

A correlation analysis between the asset index and total income was done (see annexure C). The results show a perfectly positive correlation with a coefficient of one. Coefficient 0.289 signifies the strength of the linear relationship between the asset index and total income. There is a positive correlation between total income and the asset index, thus the higher the total income of the household then the higher the asset index and the lower the total income the lower will be the asset index. The p-value (0.00) shows statistical significance at 1 percent significance level, indicating that there exists a relationship between the total income of the household and the asset index. It can be concluded that if a household has high-income levels then the probability is that it will similarly have a high asset index.

4.3.5 An analysis between the child deprivation index and child grant

The child deprivation index was divided into three categories, children in category one are less deprived, children in category two are moderately deprived and those in the third category are severely deprived. The table attempts to identify which children receive grant in the three categories and which do not. According Table 4.6 of those who do not receive child grant 60.9 percent fall into the first category of the deprivation index and are thus not deprived. In the second category, only 13 percent do not receive child grant and are moderately deprived. In the last category, 26.1 percent of the children do not receive child grant yet they are deprived. Furthermore, the findings reveal that in the first category of the deprivation index 63.2 percent of the children are sustained by child grant and are less deprived. This indicates that most of the children receiving child grant are not deprived because the second highest percentage of the children receiving grants is category two (31.6%) and those that receive grant in the third category only account for 5.2 percent. These findings are predominantly unique since deprived children are expected to be receiving grant more than those falling into category one and two are. However the results show the opposite, thus it can be maintained that the children in category

three are likely to be deprived because they do not receive child support grant since the children who do seem to be less deprived.

Table 4.6 Child grant and child deprivation index

			Child deprivation index			Total
			1 (11-21)	2 (22-32)	3 (33-44)	
Child grant	**no child grant**	Count	14	3	6	23
		% within child grant	60.90%	13.00%	26.10%	100%
		% within child deprivation index	12.50%	5.80%	42.90%	12.90%
	receives child grant	Count	98	49	8	155
		% within child grant	63.20%	31.60%	5.20%	100%
		% within child deprivation index	87.50%	94.20%	57.10%	87.10%
Total		Count	112	52	14	178
		% within child grant	62.90%	29.20%	7.90%	100%
		% within child deprivation index	100%	100%	100%	100%
Chi-square: Pearson chi-square- Value = 13.532, P-value= 0.001						

Source: Survey data, 2015

The results of the chi-square indicate an observed value of 13.532. The p-value (0.001) is statistically significant at 1 percent significance level. This means that there is a significant relationship between child grant and the child deprivation index. Therefore, it can be contended that the child deprivation index is dependent on child grant.

4.3.6 Gender of the head of household and the child deprivation index

Table 4.7 attempts to determine if the gender of the head of household affects the deprivation status of the child. According to the results, only 7.30 percent of the children living in female-headed household are severely deprived, and 8.80 percent of the children living in male-headed households are severely deprived. There is a small difference (1.5%) between the female-headed households and the male-headed households who have deprived children.

Table 4.7 Gender of the head and child deprivation

Gender head and child deprivation index cross tabulation						
			Child deprivation index			**Total**
			1(11-21)	2 (22-32)	3(33-44)	
Gender Head	**Male**	Count	45	17	6	68
		% within gender head	66.20%	25.00%	8.80%	100%
		% within Child Deprivation Index	40.20%	32.70%	42.90%	38.20%
	Female	Count	67	35	8	110
		% within Gender Head	60.90%	31.80%	7.30%	100%
		% within Child Deprivation Index	59.80%	67.30%	57.10%	61.80%
Total		Count	112	52	14	178
		% within Gender Head	62.90%	29.20%	7.90%	100%
		% within Child Deprivation Index	100%	100%	100%	100%

Survey data, 2015

The table indicates that 66.2 percent of the children who are less deprived live in male-headed households, and 60.9 percent live in female-headed households thus the difference between the two is minor (5.3%). Category two of the child deprivation

index indicates that 25 percent of the children are raised in male-headed households and 31.8 percent in female-headed households. Based on the table above it can be concluded that there are minor differences between the child deprivation index and the gender of the head of the household.

4.3.7 Gender of the head of the household and the asset index

It has already been established and discussed that based on the asset index categories the heads of household falling into category one are the poorest and those in category five are the least poor. According to the results, 66.7 percent of the sampled males fall into the first category of the asset index and are thus poor compared to only 33.3 percent of the female heads of households.

However, the second category reveals the opposite, 71.4 percent of the sampled female-headed households are accounted for in this category and only 28.6 percent of the male-headed households are in category two. In the third category (which is deemed in this study as those households who are in the middle-class) shows that more female heads of household (66.1%) have an asset index within the range of 61.5-90.5, contrary to the few male heads of household (33.9%). Category four (91.5-123.5) indicates that more than half of the female heads of household are accounted for on this category (58.5%) and only 41.50 percent of the male heads of household fall into the category. Category five (124.5-383.5) which accounts for the households who are well off or rather less poor indicates that 59.40 percent of the sampled population in this category are females and only 40.60 percent are males.

Therefore, it can be deduced, based on these results, that female-headed households are less poor compared to male-headed households. These results are inconsistent with a study done by Rajaram (2009), which suggests that male-headed households are better equipped with resources than female-headed households are. However, the results concur with a study conducted by Snyder et al. (2006) who believes that there are always misconceptions about female-headed households, thus arguing that female heads of households have the same capabilities to take care of their families.

Table 4.8 Asset index and gender head

			Gender head		Total
			Male	**Female**	
Categorised Asset Index	1(12.5-30.5)	Count	2	1	3
		% within asset index	66.70%	33.30%	100%
		% within gender head	2.90%	0.90%	1.70%
	2(31.5-60.5)	Count	4	10	14
		% within asset index	28.60%	71.40%	100%
		% within gender head	5.90%	9.10%	7.90%
	3(61.5-90.5)	Count	19	37	56
		% within asset index	33.90%	66.10%	100%
		% within gender head	27.90%	33.60%	31.50%
	4 (91.5-123.5)	Count	17	24	41
		% within asset index	41.50%	58.50%	100%
		% within gender head	25.00%	21.80%	23.00%
	5 (124.5-383.5)	Count	26	38	64
		% within asset index	40.60%	59.40%	100%
		% within gender head	38.20%	34.50%	36.00%
Total		Count	68	110	178
		% within asset index	38.20%	61.80%	100%
		% within gender head	100%	100%	100%

Source: Survey data, 2015

4.3.8 The asset index and child deprivation index cross tabulation analysis

Table 4.9 illustrates the relationship between the asset index and the child deprivation index, thus it seeks to establish the relationship between household

poverty and child deprivation. This will determine if there are any overlaps between household poverty and child deprivation. Does the poverty status of the household really have an impact on the deprivation status of the child? A study done by Grødem (2008) found that when a household has low-income levels then the child would respectively be highly deprived. Hence, this study seeks to find out if the same is true with regards to asset poverty.

There are three categories in the child deprivation index and five in the asset index, this discussion will indicate in which category of the asset index the deprived or not deprived children falls into also taking into consideration the child deprivation index categories. Within the first category of the asset index (representing the poorest) 66.7 percent of the children are neither deprived nor well off, in this study they are defined as moderately deprived. Only 33.3 percent of the children from the poor households are not deprived (category one of the asset index).

The second category of the asset index also accounts for the poor households, those who have the least wealth in the sampled population. In category two of the asset index only 7.1 percent of the children are severely deprived (those in category three of the child deprivation index) and 64.3 percent of the children are moderately deprived (category two of the deprivation index). Within the second category of the asset index 28.6 percent of the children fall into the first category of the child deprivation index and are thus less deprived.

The third category of the asset index represents those households that are neither poor nor wealthy; they are the middle-class possibly the working class in the sampled population. The results indicate that 53.6 percent of the children in this category are less deprived, which means that they are in the first category of the deprivation index. Furthermore, 33.9 percent of the children are moderately deprived and only 12.5 percent are severely deprived. This is a rather unique finding because in the first category of the asset index there are 0.0 percent children who are deprived.

Table 4.9 Asset index versus child deprivation index

Asset index child deprivation index cross-tabulation						
			Child deprivation index			Total
			1 (11-21)	2 (22-32)	3(33-44)	
Asset index * child deprivation index cross-tabulation	1 (12.5-30.5)	Count	1	2	0	3
		% within asset index	33.30%	66.70%	0.00%	100%
	2(31.5-60.5)	Count	4	9	1	14
		% within asset index	28.60%	64.30%	7.10%	100%
	3(61.5-90.5)	Count	30	19	7	56
		% within asset index	53.60%	33.90%	12.50%	100%
	4(91.5-123.5)	Count	32	8	1	41
		% within asset index	78.00%	19.50%	2.40%	100**%**
	5(124.5-383.5)	Count	45	14	5	64
		% within asset index	70.30%	21.90%	7.80%	100%
Total		Count	112	52	14	178
		% within asset index	62.90%	29.20%	7.90%	100%

Source: Survey data, 2015

In the fourth category of the asset index (less poor), 2.4 percent of the children are severely deprived as they fall into the third category of the deprivation index. While 19.50 percent of the children are moderately deprived and more than half (78%) of the children in the sampled population are less deprived.

Category five of the asset index which calculates the sampled households who are not poor in Jabulani Township and are thus regarded as wealthy, 70.3 percent of the children in this category are not deprived (category one of the child deprivation index). Table 4.9 also indicates that 21.9 percent of the children, which fall into the fifth category of the asset index, are moderately deprived as they also fall into the second category of the deprivation index and 7.8 percent of the children from wealthy households are deprived, falling into the third category of the deprivation index. These findings are consistent with a study done in India by Dehury (2013) which found a weak correlation between the asset index and the deprivation index. In the current study the correlation between the two indices is -0.336 and is statistically significant at 0.01 (p=0) as previously mentioned.

As a result, it can be contended that whether a household is poor or not it does not necessarily mean a child will be deprived. There are poor households as established by the asset index but the children in those households are not deprived. This can be supported by a study conducted by Gordon and Nandy (2012) who reasoned that parents/guardians often sacrifice household needs for children's needs. Hence, you could find a poor household with a very low asset index, which has a child with a low child deprivation index *vice versa*. Additionally, a study done by Singh and Sarkar (2014) argued that child deprivation is not limited to poor households, the study found children who lived in poor households to have experienced a few deprivations.

4.4 DETERMINANTS OF CHILD DEPRIVATION AND HOUSEHOLD POVERTY

To analyse the link between child deprivation and household poverty, it is vital to use a regression analysis. This will explain how and to what extent household characteristics can impact household poverty and child deprivation. As indicated in section 3.5.4 two linear regressions are projected. Table 4.10 shows the first regression and Table 4.11 shows the second regression. Both models were estimated using the explanatory variables: age of the head of household, gender of the head of household, employment status of the head of household, marital status of the head of household, and education level of the head of household, number of people in the household and total income. According to Huang *et al.* (2011) the accumulation of assets and thus household poverty is highly associated with demographic characteristics of the head of the household for example age,

education level, and gender. The asset index and the child deprivation index were used as the dependent variables respectively.

4.4.1 Analysis of the determinants of the for the asset index

The R^2 indicates that approximately 0.204 percent of the changes in the asset index thus household poverty can be ascribed to explanatory variables included in this study. This value shows a rather low prediction thus it can be argued that there are various apparent and unapparent factors that explain household poverty either than the factors comprised in this study. As far as R^2 is concerned, there is no scale used to determine if the R^2 is high or low. Therefore, in some applications a value of 0.2 might be low but high in other applications; likewise 0.95 could be considered low in particular situations (Nishimwe-Niyimbanira, 2014:119). The adjusted R^2 is 0.151 and the t-test (see annexure D) indicates that jointly the explanatory variables of the study have a statistically significant impact on the asset index.

Table 4.10 illustrates the asset index regression, as mentioned above the demographic characteristics of the head of the household are used as the independent variables while the asset index is used as the dependent variable. The age of the head of household is statistically insignificant (p= 0.148). The model predicts that if a head of household gets older by a year the asset index will increase by 9.858 ceteris paribus. However it is important to note that age is not a significant predictor of the asset index, this therefore indicates that the age of the head of household does not determine if the household will be poor or not.

The income of the household is one if not the main determinant of household poverty in many Townships. The total income of the household is statistically significant at 1 percent significance level (p= 0.002) with a positive coefficient (0.005), this means that a 1 percent unit increase in total income will lead to an increase of 0.005 in the asset index holding other factors constant. Total income is therefore a significant predictor of the asset index. In other words, the higher the total income of the household, the more assets (wealth) the household will have thus decreasing the probability of being poor in the household. However, the correlation between the asset index and total income is weak (0.289). This result is aligned with a previous

study done by Prakongsai (2005), which found that there is a correlation between the income of the household and the asset index

Table 4.10 Linear regression on the determinants of household poverty

Model	**Unstandardised Coefficients**		**Standardised Coefficients**	**T**	**Sig.**
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	110.985	31.17		3.561	0.00
Not Economically Active	-12.241	17.452	-0.088	-0.701	0.484
Unemployed	-13.636	12.859	-0.089	-1.06	0.29
Age	9.858	6.79	0.163	1.452	0.148
Gender Head	7.951	12.323	0.057	0.645	0.52
Total Income	0.005	0.001	0.235	3.098	0.002
Number of people in the household	-1.429	2.805	-0.039	-0.509	0.611
Grade one to grade seven	42.917	23.92	0.131	1.794	0.075
Grade eight to grade twelve	5.555	16.942	0.029	0.328	0.743
Tertiary Level	22.067	12.07	0.158	1.828	0.069
Never married widow	-61.205	16.334	-0.429	-3.747	0.00
Married living together	-38.724	19.379	-0.246	-1.998	0.047
$R=0.452$; $R^2= 0.204$; Adjusted $R^2= 0.151$					

Source: Survey Data, 2015

Dummy variables were created for education level; no schooling was used as the benchmark variable. The results show that tertiary level is statistically significant at 0.1 significance level (p=0.069) and it is positive. Compared to the benchmark an additional year of study (tertiary level) is likely to increase the asset index by 22.067 holding other factors constant. Garidzirai (2013) found a similar result thus concluding *ceteris paribus*; being more educated increases the asset index as a result it can be argued that individuals with higher education levels are better-off compared to those with lower levels of education (Hotchkiss & Kaufman, 2006:337). Likewise grade one to grade seven education level (p=0.075) is statistically significant, with a positive coefficient of 42.917.

However grade eight to twelve education level shows statistical insignificance (p=0.743) though it is positive 5.555. These findings are unique because this implies

that households with less educated heads of household (grade one to seven) increase the asset index compared to those with a higher education level (grade eight to twelve). It is possible that the heads of households with lower education levels have other means of accumulating wealth, for example small informal businesses. It can still be argued that for every additional grade the head of household may attain, the asset index will increase (Hotchkiss & Kaufman, 2006:337).

The category of divorced and separated heads of household was used as the reference point; it is statically significant at 0.1 per cent (p=0.000) and is positive 110.985. This implies that if there is one more head of household getting divorced or separated, the asset index will increase by 110.985 holding everything else constant. Theoretically, it seems unrealistic that the asset index would increase rather than decrease if married couples divorce or separate. The findings also reveal statistical significance for those who are married and living together (p= 0.047) however the coefficient is negative, suggesting that heads of household who are either married or living together decrease the asset index by 38.724 compared to the benchmark.

Similarly the category of those who have never married and the widows (p=0.000) shows statistical significance at 0.01 and a negative coefficient of 61.205. This thus implies that heads of household who have never been married and those who have lost their spouses decrease the asset index by 61.205 compared to those who are divorced and separated. A study done by Cancian and Reed (2009:25) argued that changes in occupations, household size and cohabitation have brought a reduction in the growth of poverty that is related with the deteriorating percentage of married couple households. This justifies why the separated and divorced have an increased index, and explains the probability of having a lower asset index for those who are married and living together as well as those who never married and the widows.

The results indicate that the number of people in a household or the size of the household is statistically insignificant (p=0.611), the coefficient is however negative. The model predicts that if there is an additional person in the household the asset index will decrease by 1.429 *ceteris paribus*. Similar studies also found no significance between the household size and household poverty Verner (2004:49), Garidzirai (2013:91) and Nishimwe-Niyimbanira (2013:121).

Employment status has three categories (employed, unemployed and not economically active). Employed was used as a benchmark it is therefore statistically significant (p=0.000) and is positive 110.985. This coefficient indicates that holding everything else constant, if the head of the household is employed the asset index increases by 110.985. The coefficient for not economically active is negative (12.241) and statistically insignificant (p=0.484). This indicates that the asset index decreases by 12.241 compared to the employed if the head of the household is not economically active.

This could be the result of the fact that most individuals who are not economically active are grandmothers and thus survive by the government old pension grant and child grant (58% of the sampled households are grandmothers, 87.1% of the households receive child grants and 42.7% receive the old age pension grant). This is aligned with a study analysing poverty and the economics of child and grandmother-headed households in Sebokeng Township conducted by Makhalima (2010) who reported that 66 percent of the sampled head of households are not economically active. Makhalima (2010) further reported that the old age grant (41%) and the child grant (19%) are the most pronounced sources of income in Sebokeng Township.

The findings for the unemployed indicate that in comparison to the employed the asset index decreases by 13.636, however this category shows statistical insignificance (p=0.29). It is assumed that when a head of the household is unemployed then there is a high probability that the household will be poor. This consequently means the household does not have enough capacity to invest in assets or accumulate wealth (May, 1998). The gender of the head of household is statistically insignificant (p=0.520) however it has a positive coefficient (7.951), the probability of female-headed households increasing the asset index are higher than those of male headed households are. Thus, it can be concluded that Jabulani Township is unique because female-headed households are often deemed less affluent compared to male-headed households.

4.4.2 Analysis of the determinants of the child deprivation index

The R^2 indicates that approximately 0.168 percent of the changes in the child deprivation index can be attributed to explanatory variables included in this study. This value shows a rather low prediction especially compared to the R^2 of the first model (0.204) thus it can be contended that there are numerous apparent and unapparent factors that explain child deprivation either than the factors comprised in this study. Table 4.11 presents the child deprivation index regression; the model uses the child deprivation index as a dependent variable and the demographic characteristics of the head of the household (for example gender, age, number of people in the household) are the independent variables.

The model predicts that when total income increases by one unit then the child deprivation index will go down by 0.001, *ceteris paribus.* Total income is statistically significant (p=0.00) at 0.01 which means that total income is a significant predictor of the child deprivation index. Thus it can be argued that when the total income of the household increases then the household has more capacity to provide for the child(ren).This finding is aligned with studies done by Singh and Sarkar (2014), Williams (2004) these studies maintain that when it comes to income children are quite sensitive to its effects thus children from wealthy households with adequate income and resources usually perform better in a lot of outcomes compared those from poor families. Williams (2004) therefore concluded that total income is a significant predictor of child deprivation. While McEwen and Stewart (2014:5) argue that it is highly expected that a child will be less deprived when a household has high levels or rather increasing income levels, furthermore the opposite is true for children from low income families.

The gender of the head of household is statistically insignificant (p=0.497) however the variable has a negative coefficient (-0.859) which suggest that children living in female-headed households are less deprived compared to those in male-headed households. This implies that when a child is living with a male head of household there is a high probability that the child in question will be deprived. This finding contradicts a study done by Rajaram (2009) which maintains that female-headed households are poorer than male-headed households because female heads of

household have limited access to assets and other resources that could pull their families out of poverty; the study argues that this is based mainly on gender biases.

Table 4.11 Linear regression on the determinants of child deprivation

	Unstandardised Coefficients		**Standardised Coefficients**	**T**	**Sig.**
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	25.817	3.446		7.493	0.000
Gender Head	-0.859	1.263	-0.058	-0.68	0.497
Number of people in a household	0.1	0.305	0.025	0.327	0.744
Age	-0.04	0.055	-0.09	-0.718	0.474
Not Economically active	-0.011	2.104	-0.001	-0.005	0.996
Unemployed	0.068	1.415	0.004	0.048	0.962
Total Income	-0.001	0	-0.352	-4.574	0.000
Grade one to grade seven	-3.911	2.582	-0.112	-1.515	0.132
Grade eight to grade twelve	1.488	1.804	0.074	0.825	0.411
Tertiary Level	-1.201	1.311	-0.081	-0.916	0.361
Divorced	1.138	2.843	0.031	0.4	0.689
Never married widow	0.610	1.426	0.04	0.428	0.67
R= 410; R^2= 0.168; Adjusted R^2= 0.113					

Source: Survey data, 2015

The number of people in household has a positive coefficient; this means that an additional person in the household increases the child deprivation index by 0.1, holding other factors constant. However, the results also show that the number of people in a household is not a significant predictor of child deprivation. Therefore, the correlation between the child deprivation index and the number of people in a household is weak. UNICEF (2014b) maintains that bigger household sizes are more at risk to have deprived and poor children than households are with less people. Age has a negative coefficient (-0.04) predicting that the older the head of the household the less deprived will be the child, however age is statistically insignificant (p=0.474). A study by Nishimwe-Niyimbanira (2013:121) confirms this finding; it reported that there is a negative and statistically insignificant relationship between the age of the head of the household and poverty in this instance child deprivation. However, this

finding is inconsistent with a study conducted by Sekhampu (2013:151), who stated that there is a positive but significant relationship between the age of the head of the household and household poverty thus child deprivation. Assuming that a child lives in a child-headed household this could be true because an adult is in a better position to find a job than a child who possibly has to go to school.

The category of employed was used as the benchmark, the model estimates that if the head of the household is not economically active then compared to the reference point the child deprivation index will decrease by 0.011 *ceteris paribus.* However, this category of employment status is statistically insignificant. This is a rather unique finding because the model further predicts that when the head of the household is employed (used as a reference point in the model) then the child deprivation index will increase by 25.817, holding other factors constant. The variable is statistically significant at 0.01 (p=0.00).

Moreover the category of unemployed has a positive coefficient (0.068) but is statistically insignificant (p=0.962). This means that compared to the employed, when the head of the household is unemployed then the child deprivation index will increase by 0.068 holding other factors constant. This finding on the employment status of the household suggests that the children residing in households with unemployed heads of household are worse off compared to those households where the head of household is not economically active. The probability could be that the sampled heads of household who are not economically active have informal businesses, are maintained by government grants or are perhaps getting help from relatives and are thus able to provide their children with all the necessities they need to not be deemed deprived. It could also be argued that heads of household who are formally employed are more focused on household assets than on child related resources. Employed heads of household could be investing more on what they presume is important for example saving money for tertiary education rather than buying toys for the child or taking the child on holiday.

The category of no schooling (educational level) was used as the reference point; it therefore takes the value of the constant. For the category of grade one to seven education level the p-value (0.132) it is statistically insignificant. Thus, it is estimated that compared to those with no schooling, when the head of the household has an

education level ranging between grades one and grade seven then the child deprivation index will decrease by 3.911 *ceteris paribus.* However Hotchkiss and Kaufman (2006:337) argue that the notion of human capital deduces that average earnings per annum and wages/salaries should be higher the more educated an individual gets; furthermore, the theory maintains that the higher an individual's education level is the greater should their earnings be in their peak working years.

Based on this it is important to note that this study found that those with an education level between grade eight and twelve have a positive coefficient (1.488), but insignificant (p=0.411). This suggests that if a head of household has an education level between grade eight and twelve then the child deprivation index will increase by 1.488 in comparison to those with no schooling. This implies that children living in households with heads of household with primary level education are better off in terms of deprivation than those living in households with heads of household with high school level education. This finding does not concur with a study done by National Career Center for Children in Poverty (NCCP) (2007) which contends that a head of household with low education attainment will have low-income levels leading to child deprivation and poverty.

The finding for tertiary level in the model coincides with theory; it has a negative coefficient (-1.201) though it is statistically insignificant (p=0.689). This can be interpreted by saying that in comparison to the reference point, if a household head has tertiary education or rather one more year of tertiary education, the child deprivation index will decrease by 1.201 holding other factors constant. Based on the above information it therefore can be concluded that higher education levels of the head of household are likely to lead to lower levels of child deprivation, *ceteris paribus.*

4.5 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Household poverty affects the lives of people in numerous ways. Children living in African townships particularly are faced with levels of poverty and deprivation, where a child lacks the basic things that their peers consider significant daily and a household has a shortage of the basic assets it needs for a decent living standard. Due to lack of access to all these physical materials households and children face

daily struggles and are thus considered poor and deprived. Access to studying materials, toys, or a balanced meal etcetera, has an impact on children's lives as much as access to certain assets has an effect on the lifestyle and dynamics of the household in Jabulani Township.

Females head the majority of the households in Jabulani Township and most of the heads of household are between the ages of 67-93 years. The youngest heads of household in the sampled population are those between the ages of 23-33 years. Grandmothers mostly head Jabulani Township and thus most of the heads of household are widows (37.6%). Household structures were found to be weak because only 23 percent of the heads of household are married; the rest of the sampled population consists of people who have never been married, divorced, separated and those who are living together. The average size of a household was calculated at five members, the minimum number of people in households is two and the maximum ten. At most, households in Jabulani Township have 4-6 members. It was found that most of the heads of household have no schooling; the majority of those who went to school have qualifications classified as "other" in the study, which consist of certificates. The results showed that 38.2 percent of the population falls under the category of not economically active as their employment status. Although 33.1 percent of the sampled population are formally employed those who are unemployed still account for quite a big percentage of 27 percent and only 1.7 percent are involved in informal activities.

The heads of household of Jabulani Township work in different sectors, however most of them are employed by the wholesale, retail, trade and catering sectors. It was found that only 3 percent work in finance, insurance and real estate. The rest of the sampled population work in manufacturing, agriculture, communication, social and education, construction, others have informal jobs as gardeners, domestic workers etc. The study found that the unemployed have quite a number of skills and if the skills are put to good use then Jabulani Township could move towards household poverty alleviation. It was also reported that the unemployed heads of household that are helping out with household duties are calculated at 75 percent, the rest of the unemployed sampled heads of household are either actively seeking jobs, idle or training for a job. The average total income of the households is R4804,

where minimum income is R330 and maximum is R25000. The sampled population with total incomes ranging from R2010-R4000 was calculated at 40 percent. The rest of the households either have total incomes below or above this range. Female heads of household were found to have higher incomes compared to male heads of household. The main source of income in Jabulani Township is child grant followed by wages, old age income and other sources of income.

Based on the child deprivation index it was found that generally children in Jabulani Township are less deprived (62.9%), of all the sampled households only 9.9 percent of the children are severely deprived; 29.9 percent have moderate levels of deprivation. Likewise the majority of the sampled population scored high on the asset index, however close enough to those who are classified as below average. It was thus found that most of the individuals who are very poor are calculated at 1.7 percent and 7.9 percent respectively. The incidence of household poverty is more severe than the phenomenon of child deprivation in Jabulani Township. There is a negative correlation between the asset index and the child deprivation index, thus it was concluded that the higher the asset index the lower the child deprivation index *vice versa*; the correlation showed statistical significance.

Unique findings were gathered on child grant, the study discovered that 60.9 percent of the children who do not receive child grant are less deprived and only 26.1 percent are severely deprived. Furthermore, 63.2 percent of the children who receive child grant are less deprived and only 5.2 percent are severely deprived. Moreover based on the chi-square results it was found that there is a statistically significant relationship between the child deprivation index and child grant. The study further found that most of the deprived children live with male heads of household, though the differences between the two are minor. Based on the asset index it was established that male-headed households are poorer compared to female-headed households. The study found that a poor household does not necessarily mean that a child will be deprived because the results show that there are poor households with children who are not deprived. The results indicate that the majority of the households who are income poor are also asset poor, a statistically significant correlation was found between total income and the asset index.

Two OLS regressions were ran and the results show that both the asset index regression and the child deprivation index regression found total income to be a significant predictor. This means that the higher the total income the less child deprivation will be and the higher total income is then the higher the asset index. The asset index regression found tertiary level education and the lowest education level (grade one to seven) to be statistically significant predictors of the asset index. These findings indicate that there is a probability that the education level of the head of the household does have an impact on the poverty status of the household. The category of those who are married and living together and the category of those who have never been married and the widowed were also proven significant predictors of the asset index. These findings are regarded as unique because they suggest that whether the head of the household is married or not the asset index will decrease

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The focal purpose of this study was to analyse the relationship between household poverty and child deprivation in Jabulani, a South African Township. To accomplish this, a household survey was carried out in May 2015. Household poverty and child deprivation are predominant phenomena affecting many households and children all over the world. The study on the relationship between household poverty and child deprivation was inspired by the notion that household poverty does not necessarily mean that the child in that particular household will be deprived. In addition, a well-off household does not mean that the child will not be deprived, because household needs are different from child needs. This research attempted to provide empirical results about child deprivation, household poverty and establish if there is a relationship between the two. The current chapter summarises the study, it re-underlines the main empirical results of the study and makes recommendations.

5.2 SUMMARY

Poverty does not have a strict definition, it has been defined differently according to how individuals perceive and experience it. It is thus not an easy phenomenon to define and describe because of its various concepts and theories, it consequently tends to be an intergenerational cycle to most of its sufferers. Therefore, in line with the objective of the study, which aimed to review theories of poverty; generally poverty is defined as the scarcity of income, a lack of physical resources deemed essential for the well-being of individuals, lack of water, sanitation, food, shelter and other basic necessities. Although there is no generally accepted strict definition of poverty, the phenomenon still remains a vital objective in policy development.

This study defined poverty in relative and absolute terms. In absolute terms, poverty was defined as a lack of goods and services, that is the population living below a pre-set poverty line and in relative terms, it was described as scarcity of financial means to survive and to live a comfortable life in comparison to other members of the society. There are many causes of poverty, it can be caused by corruption and

social inequality this takes place when leaders use government resources for their own benefits instead of empowering the society. Pervasive illiteracy and wide spread diseases is another cause of poverty. Similarly, poverty can also be caused by proneness to income shocks, agricultural cycles and natural disasters. Lastly, institutional failures, which result from a number of the substantial aspects of institutional miscarriages in governance, education and other sectors also cause poverty.

The study identified the consequences of apartheid, poor service delivery and poor education attainment as causes of poverty in South Africa There are different types of poverty, suggesting that individuals experience poverty differently. Four were identified, namely situational poverty, generational, urban and rural poverty. Situational poverty takes place as a result of situations or rather circumstances for example divorce, disasters in the environment and health problems. As mentioned prior poverty tends to be an intergenerational cycle, hence there is generational poverty this result from poverty moving from two or more generations in the household. Urban poverty takes place when a society experiences stressors such as congestion, noise pollution and even acts of violence. The last type of poverty is rural poverty, which takes place in rural communities where there is scarcity of work opportunities and most households are headed by single parents mostly females. The following are some of the characteristics of the poor: frequently not having food, being unable to take responsibility for the debts one makes, basically that portion of the population who lack the most basic things like clothing and in worse cases are unable to send their children to school.

Poverty is measured in different ways and approaches; one of the objectives of the study was to review poverty measures. Amongst other measurements, the subsequent were found to be some of the main important approaches to measuring poverty: poverty lines, the poverty gap, headcount index, squared poverty gap and human poverty index. Poverty lines divide the poor from those who are not; these poverty measures are cut-off points. They can be referred to as a numerical representation of the value of all the services and goods deemed crucial for individuals. Whereas the headcount index merely measures the population that falls below the poverty line. The human poverty index intends to measure poverty as a

hindrance in capacities in numerous dimensions. While the poverty gap measures the scope of poverty to which the average levels of income of those living in poverty differs from the pre-established poverty line. On the other hand, the squared poverty gap is a proportion of poverty gaps.

Generally, a household is defined as a group of individuals who live in the same household, eat their meals together with the authority of one person whether male or female as the head of household. The study identified number of characteristics of household poverty. Households that spend a great percentage of their incomes on fuel, food, health care and housing compared to others are considered poor. Remoteness was also identified as a characteristic of household poverty in the sense that poor households and those who have insecurity of food are usually found further from marketplaces, streets, schools as well as health services. Lack of assets was also identified as a characteristic of poor households. Similarly, illiteracy is a characteristic of household poverty, lack of education signifies lack of knowledge and job prospects. Household poverty is defined by a number of factors the following are some of the determinants of household poverty: regional characteristics, community characteristics, household characteristics and individual characteristics.

The study found that there are dimensions of household poverty; five were described as deprivation of income, being vulnerable to crisis, physical weakness due to malnutrition, ineffectiveness in the society and being isolated from the society because of poverty. Other socioeconomic factors affecting household poverty are unemployment or having poor quality, low education levels, the type and size of the household, gender since females mostly are considered poor as heads of households. Ill health or disability as it binds the capability to work for some people, undocumented immigrants as they experience discrimination and living in a poor or remote community with lack of services.

Household poverty is bound to affect children in some way; the study aimed to review theories of child deprivation and child poverty thus generally deprivation was defined as the inability to attain the life condition (for instance nutrition, facilities, services and standards enabling the people concerned to function). A scale of deprivation was illustrated, which ranges from no deprivation, mildly deprived, moderate and severe deprivation levels as well as extreme deprivation. In this study,

a child was defined as anyone below the age of 18. However, a deprived child is one who does not have adequate food, education, health care or any essential resource children need for their well-being. Such conditions were identified as deprivation; on the other hand, a child is not only deprived if they lack physical resources. Deprivation goes beyond that as children who have no means to develop and reach their full potential also are considered deprived. It was discovered that numerous children in the developing world experience deprivations because they live in poverty-stricken societies.

Over the years, the world has made progress towards poverty alleviation, as a result globally poverty levels have been halved to 18 percent. However children still go through poverty and deprivation regardless of the efforts to halve poverty in the world. Children endure many challenges because of poverty and the challenges harm their opportunities in life as a result they grow up to be unproductive citizens. As a result, 34 percent of children below the age of 12 in the world are deprived, only 13 percent of the deprived children are between the ages of 13 to 18 and the most deprived are those who are 19 years and older (53%). There are several domains of child deprivation, the aim of the material and income domain is to identify the children who experience material and income lack. Employment domain determines the number of children residing in households with jobless heads of household. Similarly, the education deprivation domain is the domain that takes interest in the degree of educational deprivation in an identified region. The living environment domain recognises the children who live in deprived surroundings and the last domain identifies children who face the risk of not getting adequate care because of certain challenges.

Children from low-income families are at risk of not attaining proper education compared to those from well-off households, there is thus an education gap between the deprived and the children not deprived. In some circumstances, young girls are deprived of education because of religion, cultural biases and for other reasons. Education is thus essential not only for the children but for the parents and guardians as well because children with educated parents are less likely to be deprived. The MDG report revealed that remarkable progress has been made towards achieving universal primary education, although there are still high levels of children who are

not enrolled in some regions. There are several causes of child poverty in South Africa, amongst others the study identified HIV/AIDS as one of the major causes leading to child poverty, inadequate child support grants, unemployment and low education attainment. Children are affected by a lot of things because they depend on the older generation to take care of them, thus a bigger household size suggests that there is a high poverty risk in that household than in a small household size. When a household is bigger more people require care especially if the household has more than one child, for that reason it is evident that everything in the household has to be shared amongst everyone.

There are quite a number of approaches that have been used to measure child deprivation. The current study found interest in three approaches, the deprivation index, the monetary and the capability approaches. The deprivation index was set out as one of the theoretical objectives of the study; it measures child deprivation and child poverty based on different indicators, the so-called domains of deprivations. This approach attempts to measure child deprivation on a broader scale, by looking at multiple dimensions instead of just income. It is thus a useful and reliable approach because it is incomplete to measure the extent to which a child is deprived or poor by just looking at the income levels of the household. The deprivation index was also distinguished form the poverty line; the distinction made showed that the poverty line focuses on monetary elements whereas the deprivation approach is deemed to be multidimensional. Several studies have implemented the deprivation index; these studies used different indicators and elements to measure child deprivation in different areas.

The monetary approach measures child deprivation and child poverty by using the income levels of the household. This approach has many drawbacks because child poverty is different from adult and household poverty, thus measuring child deprivation at a household level gives an insufficient image of child deprivations since children are not economic actors. This approach is relevant for measuring the inability of the household to provide its members with sufficient goods and services. The capability approach, which is multidimensional avoids financial indicators and focuses on the non-financial features of the child's well-being. It was advocated that human progress comprises of different aspects hence it was argued that monetary

indicators are not enough to establish if a child is deprived or not. The multidimensional poverty index has been applied in South Africa to measure child deprivation and child poverty. The index established that most of the children who are deprived in South Africa lack water, sanitation and electricity.

5.3 METHODOLOGY

Child deprivation was found to be different from household poverty and cannot be determined by only looking at household variables exclusive of the elements that affect a child directly. The child deprivation index measures the deprivations a child experiences by looking at certain indicators. Likert scales were used to create a child deprivation index; the heads of the household were asked if their children lacked certain items. The responses were summed up into a score and children were classified as deprived or not deprived based on their deprivation score. Similarly an asset index was created with the aim of measuring the long-term wealth of the household using the assets the household owns, the household was identified as poor or non-poor based on their score (weights were assigned to the assets and summed up). The two indices were used as dependent variables to run OLS regressions and demographic variables for instance gender of the head of the household, marital status of the head of the household, employment status of the head of the household, education attainment of the head of household, number of people in the household, income of the household and age of the head of the household were used as the independent variables and were also used for further analysis to compare the variables with household poverty. These variables were used to establish their impact on both household poverty and child deprivation.

5.4 THE EMPIRICAL FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

A household survey was conducted with the aim of collecting data by means of a questionnaire; participants were interviewed in their residential place. About 178 households were visited. Centered on the gender of the head of household it was found that the households of Jabulani Township are mostly headed by females (61.8%) than males (38.2%). The data revealed that the majority of the heads of household are between the ages of 67 to 93 and the second largest group are those between the ages of 45 to 55 years. Only a few households in Jabulani Township

are headed by individuals aged 23-33, the rest of the sampled heads are either 34-44 years or 55-66 years old. The reason for the large percentage of those between the ages 67 to 93 is that grandmothers head most households.

About 37.60 percent of the heads of household in Jabulani Township are widowed, whereas the study found that 27.5 percent never married. Only 23 percent of the heads of household are married and those who are divorced and separated together are calculated at 10.1 percent while those who live together accounted for only 1.7 percent. These results show weak household structures. Most of the households in Jabulani Township have between 4 to 6 members (60%) in the household, 14 percent of the households have seven to ten members and those with the least number of members were calculated at 26 percent. Almost half of the heads of household have no schooling (42.1%). Those with certificates as qualifications accounted for 33.7 percent, 9 percent completed grade 12 and only 4.5 percent have a tertiary first degree. The rest of the heads of household have a low education level that is both high school and primary school level.

The study found that 38.2 percent of the sampled heads of household are not economically active, 27 percent are unemployed and the formally employed only accounted for 33.1 percent and those with informal activities were calculated at 1.7 percent. The employment sector that is common in this study is the wholesale, retail, trade and catering sector as most of the sampled households were found to be working there (23%). The community, social, education, training and personal service sector was calculated at 20 percent, while transport, storage and information technology accounted for 11 percent. The rest of the formally employed heads of household were accounted for in sectors such as agriculture (6%), mining (4%), electrical, water, gas (13%), manufacturing (13%) and construction (7%). The unemployed are mostly skilled in baking (20.7%) and sewing (19.0%) these are mostly female dominant skills. Only 10.3 percent of the sampled heads of household have knitting as a skill, whereas 7.8 percent are skilled in catering. In the male dominant skills, 6.0 percent were calculated under construction (building) and only 9 percent under welding and 3.4 percent in carpentry. No more than 6 percent have retail skills and 4.3 percent are skilled in hairdressing.

Generally it was found that 75 percent of the sampled unemployed are helping with household duties, 20 percent are job seeking, 3 percent are in training and 2 percent are idle. Thus this suggests that only a few of the sampled unemployed heads of household are actively seeking for jobs. The distribution of income showed that the minimum income in Jabulani Township is R330, the average income is R4804 and the maximum income is R25000. Income was also distributed by gender; the results showed that majority of the female heads of the household have high income levels compared to the male heads of household. The largest source of income was found to be child grants (87.1%) followed by wages/salaries which were calculated at 77 percent and only 42.7 percent depend on old age grant as a source of income. The rest of the households get help from families, informal activities and other payment.

The child deprivation index was categorised as follows: 1 (11-21); 2 (22-32) and 3 (33-44). The higher the deprivation index the more deprived was the child classified and the lower the deprivation index then the less deprived was the child described. The results indicate that only 9.9 percent of the children in Jabulani Township are severely deprived, 29.2 percent of the children are moderately deprived and more than half of the children are less deprived (62.9%). These results generally indicate that there are low child deprivation levels in Jabulani Township. The study adopted an asset index to determine the poverty status of the household. Weights were assigned to the assets and summed up, such that each household would have a score based on the assets in its possession. The findings on the asset index indicate that only 1.7 percent of the households in Jabulani Township are extremely poor, 7.9 percent are poor and 31.5 percent are below average (as defined by the asset index). Whereas 23 percent have either average or just above average levels of poverty and 36 percent (accounting for the majority) are not poor. These findings indicate that most of the households are not poor; they either are in middle class or well off, even though a certain percentage has below average poverty levels.

The correlation between the asset index and the child deprivation index had a coefficient of -0.336. It was interpreted that there is a negative correlation between the asset index and the child deprivation index, this means that the higher the asset index then the lower will the deprivation index be *vice versa*. The study attempted to determine if there is relationship between the asset poor households and those who

income poor. The results revealed low-income levels in Jabulani Township thus the households who are asset poor were found to have low income levels as well. The correlation results reveal that there is a statistically significant relationship between the total income of the household and the asset index. Generally the sampled households in the Township were found to have income levels below average as defined by the study. Therefore, the study argued that low-income households are likely to have less assets, however those who are asset wealthy do not necessarily have high income levels this could be the result of accumulating assets on credit.

The study found that most of the children who do not receive child grant are less deprived (60.90%). Whereas 13 percent of the children who receive child grant are moderately deprived and only 26.10 percent of them are severely deprived. Furthermore, the results indicate that of those who receive child grant 63.20 percent are less deprived, 31.60 percent are moderately deprived and 5.20 percent are severely deprived. There is a statistically significant relationship between child deprivation index and child grant. Based on the child deprivation index and the gender of the head of household it was found that there is a minor difference (1.5%) between the households headed by male and those headed by females in terms of child deprivation because only 7.30 percent of the children in female-headed households are deprived and only 8.80 percent of the children living in male-headed households are deprived. When analysing the gender of the head of household in relation to the asset index, the results showed that female-headed households (59.40%) are less poor compared to male-headed households (40.60%).

The study attempted to find the relationship between the child deprivation index and the asset index. The results revealed that in the poorer households 66.70 percent of the children are moderately deprived, 33.30 percent are less deprived and none of the children are severely deprived. In the second category of the asset index, which also accounts for the poor households, it was found that 28.60 percent of the children are less deprived, 64.30 percent are moderately deprived and only 7.10 percent are severely deprived. In the households that have just below average wealth levels it was found that 53.60 percent of the children are less deprived, 33.90 percent of the children have moderate deprivation levels and 12.50 percent are severely deprived. In the non-poor households, it was found that 78 percent of the

children are less deprived, 19.50 percent are moderately deprived and only 2.40 percent are severely deprived. The last category of the asset index representing the households who are well-off revealed that 70.30 percent of the children are less deprived, 21.90 percent have moderate deprivation levels and 7.80 percent of the children are severely deprived.

The study ran two OLS regressions the first one using the asset index as a dependent variable and second one using the child deprivation index as a dependent variable. Both regressions used the demographic characteristics of the head of the household as previously mentioned. Total income of the household was found to be a significant predictor of both the regressions, which means when income increases the asset index also increases and when income increases, the child deprivation index decreases (negatively related). The categories of those who are married and living together as well as those who have never married and the widows, were also found to be significant predictors of the asset index regression; however, the coefficients were perfectly negative indicating that whether the head of the household is married, living together, never been married or widowed the asset index will decrease. It was found that for the divorced heads of the household the asset index is likely to increase. Tertiary level and education level between grades one to seven were found to be significant predictors of the asset index. Indicating that the higher the education levels the more assets the household is likely to own. Overall, the findings indicate that the demographic characteristics of the head do not necessarily predict the deprivation status of the child as much as they predict the poverty status of the household.

5.5 CONCLUSION

The main purpose of the study was to establish the relationship between household poverty and child deprivation. The study found that there are poor households who have children that are not deprived; furthermore, there are well-off households who have deprived children. However, in most of the well-off households it was found that the children are not deprived, even though in some of those households children were found to be deprived. As expected some of the poor households similarly have deprived children. The study has indeed established that households needs are different from child needs, the poor households with children who are not deprived

support this conclusion. It can therefore be concluded that most of the households in Jabulani Township put the needs of their children before their own, especially the poor households. It is evident that most parents or guardians would rather buy toys for their children than buy a washing machine or any other household asset.

The study had an objective to determine the extent of household poverty; it was found that most households in Jabulani Township have below average poverty levels as defined by the asset index; however, the majority is not necessarily poor. In meeting the set objective, which was to determine the prevalence of child deprivation, a child deprivation index was adopted. The results revealed that the majority of the children in Jabulani Township are not severely deprived. Those who are deprived are only experiencing deprivations in certain items hence they are considered moderately deprived. Only a few children have severe deprivation levels. Every child is important and their well-being matters. It thus can be concluded that child deprivation is prevalent and very grave in certain households in Jabulani Township and the children experiencing it are harshly affected especially in comparison to their peers.

5.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

A comprehension of the relationship between household poverty and child deprivation could be useful in the development of policies. Poverty is measured mostly at household level and by only looking at the income and consumption levels of the household. It could be advantageous to take children into consideration when household surveys are conducted. It is necessary to look at the things that affect a child directly because if poverty measurements are generalised then it is not easy to establish if a child is poor, deprived or not. The following sub-section attempts to offer recommendations that could assist towards alleviation of household poverty and combating child deprivation in particular.

South Africa has attempted to eradicate the phenomena of household poverty and in some instances child poverty and child deprivation. However, to move towards an anti-poverty nation it is important maintain the growth of the economy through transformation of infrastructure and investment in proper monetary and fiscal policies. Upon achievement of the above, the study recommends the following:

5.6.1 Creation of economic opportunities

The government has implemented a number of strategies and policies towards creation of economic policies; however, it is important to put emphasis on the establishment of prospects for poverty stricken households to earn an improved standard of living through secure, well-paying jobs and even self-employment. It is highly likely that in Jabulani Township the 9.9 severely deprived children are those who reside in households where the head of the household is unemployed (27%), therefore, more investments should be made towards changing this. Employment has to grow more than it has before the 2008 global financial crisis; this could have a great impact on poor households as well as deprived children. This suggests that changes should be made towards economic growth and development in South Africa, which will improve the lives of many people and will similarly pave a better future and experience for children.

5.6.2 Investment in human capital

In the struggle against household poverty and child deprivation, education and training are critical. The government has implemented a number of strategies to improve the level of education attainment in South Africa. This will have a great impact on many households who cannot afford to put their children through school. Individuals are able to take advantage of economic opportunities when they are educated. With the number of strategies towards better levels of education in place, it is still recommended that more investments be made towards education. This means that education should be a priority, especially in townships where the education system tends to be weak. More emphasis should be directed towards the foundation phase (primary education). Policies should be steered more towards educating children because illiterate children grow up to be uneducated and poor adults and this trend is passed from one generation to the next. There are families who do not value education; as a result, they do not see the necessity of school attendance for their children. It is within a child's right to receive proper education and the necessary resources to acquire knowledge. It is therefore important that the universal goal to achieve primary education is driven and prioritised more because it all begins at foundation phase. Furthermore training should be encouraged, especially for young parents who have dropped out of school and those who have no

qualifications, thus economic policies should reassure lower-level employment creation, which matches the current labour force.

5.6.3 Access to assets

In order to develop economic and social security, it is important that households have access to assets, as this will give the premise to economic engagement in the future. While some nations value the importance of asset accumulation, others are still lagging behind − South Africa is one of those countries. It is vital that this is addressed because a number of people do not have houses, let alone household assets such as a fridge; therefore, a basic issue is to guarantee that poor people are able to access assets and accumulate them.

5.6.4 Addressing child deprivation

It has been established that children who are deprived and suffering the indignities of poverty are exposed to hostile experiences. To address child deprivation anti-deprivation programmes should be geared towards child needs. Deprived children should be identified and their individual needs and wants be taken into consideration. Social responsibility should not only take place during the festive season, as most people donate toys, clothes and other items to children during this time. It should be a culture that will change the growing experiences of children in townships and other places. Furthermore, emphasis should be placed on child maintenance because most single parents are left with the majority of the responsibility of maintaining the child's needs on their own, even when the other parent also assists. This could make a significant change in the levels of child deprivation. Child grants are playing a significant role in improving the lives of children; however, tenacious child deprivation in both poor and non-poor households ought to be stressed. Grandmothers are raising the majority of the children in Jabulani Township, it is thus important that social policies focus on these households. The MDGs have played a major role in child development even though there is still a long way to go. Moving forward, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) discussions need to make certain that household poverty examining structures acquire the numerous deprivations children face and offer proposals so that countries can assume evaluations that relate changes in the lives of children with the programme supporting those changes.

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ANNEXURE

Annexure A: Questionnaire: MAY 2015

Questionnaire #:		**Date:**	
House Number:		**Interviewer:**	

Please note that the head of the household should preferably answer the questionnaire.

A	**BACKGROUND INFORMATION**						
1	**What is the position of the respondent in the Household?**	Head (1)	Spouse (2)	Child (3)	Extended family member (4)	Boarder (5)	
2	**Gender of the head of the household**			Male (0)	Female (1)		
3	**What language do you mostly speak at home?**						
	Sesotho	IsiZulu	Sepedi	Tshivenda	IsiNdebele		
	English	IsiXhosa	Siswati	Afrikaans	Other:_____		
4	**How long have you (respondent) stayed in Jabulani (years)**	_____					

B	**HOUSEHOLD COMPOSITION**										
Please provide the following information about your household.											
1	Number of people living in the household	_____									
2	Composition of members (Code list 2)										
3	Age of each member in years										
4	Sex (Male = 0; female = 1)										
5	Marital status (code list 5)										
6.a	Highest qualifications (still at school) (Code list 6)										
6.b	Distance to the school										
6.c	Type of transport used to get to school (Code list 14)										
6.d	Length of time to get to school										
7	Qualifications (not at school) (Code list 7)										
8	Employment Status (Code list 8)										
9	Sector of employment (Code list 9)										
10	**(10 – 13 for <u>unemployed</u> only)** Skills of unemployed (list 10)										
11	Duration of unemployment in years										
12	What is the Unemployed doing presently										
	INCOME (Take home pay per month in Rand)										
13	Wages/salaries (Formal)										
14	Old Age Pension										
15	Child Grant from Government										

16	Other Grants from Government										
17	Help (family/relatives/help in kind)										
18	Informal activities										
19	Other (Specify)										

C	**HOUSEHOLD EXPENDITURE**	
How does your household spend their income per month?		
	ITEM	**AMOUNT**
1	Housing	
2	Water, electricity, coal, etc	
3	Food	
4	Cleaning material	
5	Cigarettes & tobacco	
6	Beer, wine & spirits	
7	Transport	
8	Clothing	
9	Furniture	
10	School	
11	Entertainment (movies,...)	
12	Medical expenses	
13	Insurance (e. funeral scheme)	
14	Gambling	
15	Savings	
16	Licenses (e.g. TV, vehicle)	
17	Housekeeping services (e.g. garden)	
18	Communication (cell and telephone)	
19	Car repayment	
20	Loan repayments	
21	Other (specify):	
	Total expenses:	

D	**ASSETS**					
1	**Does the household own the following livestock?**					
	Cow(s)	Sheep		Goat(s)		
	Chickens(s)	No livestock		Other livestock (specify):		
2	**Record whether the household has the following assets**					
		Ye	No		Yes	No
	Cellphone			Washing machine		
	Landline telephone			Air conditioner / Heater (at least 1)		
	Television			Computer (desktop / laptop)		

	Radio			Car in working condition		
	Refrigerator			Motorcycle / scooter		
	Microwave			Bicycle		
	Bath / shower inside the house			Own a house / land (other than the one you live in)		
	Dishwasher					

E	**CHILD POVERTY PERCEPTIONS: children are poor because [probe for strength of opinion]**						
		Strongly Agree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't Know
1	Their parents lack the ability to manage money.						
2	Their parents waste their money on inappropriate items.						
3	Their parents do not actively seek to improve their lives.						
4	Their parents are exploited by rich people.						
5	The society lacks social justice.						
6	Distribution of wealth in the society is uneven.						
7	Their parents lack opportunities due to the fact that they live in poor families.						
8	They live in places where there are not many opportunities.						
9	They have bad fate. (like father died or mother died or both parents died)						
10	They lack luck.						
11	They have encountered misfortunes.						
12	Their parents are not motivated because of welfare.						
13	They are born inferior.						

F	**CHILD DEPRIVATION INDEX**					
	Does your child lack the following:	Never	Just once or twice	Several times	Many times	Always
1	Balanced meal (e.g. meat, fruits, snacks)					
2	Clothing and shoes (Fashionable)					
3	Reading books (suitable for their age)					
4	Educational material (e.g. textbooks, stationery)					
5	Assistance with homework					
6	Leisure and leisure equipment (e.g. swimming, playing instrument, roller skates, bicycle etc.)					
7	Cell phone/ I pad/ Tablet					
8	Toys (dolls, cars)					
9	Birthday celebrations					
10	School trips					
11	Holiday (at least once a year)					

Annexure B: Asset index and total income cross-tabulation

Categorised Asset Index * Categorised Income Cross-tabulation											
			Categorised Income								Total
			1 (R330-R600)	2 (R610-R900)	3 (R910-R2000)	4 (R2010-R4000)	5(R4010-R6000)	6-(R6010-R10000)	7 (R10010-R20000)	8(R20010-R25000)	
Categorised Asset Index	1 (12.5-30.5)	Count	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	3
		% within Categorised Asset Index	33.30%	0.00%	66.70%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%
		% within Categorised Income	50.00%	0.00%	8.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	1.70%
	2 (31.5-60.5)	Count	0	0	2	11	1	0	0	0	14
		% within Categorised Asset Index	0.00%	0.00%	14.30%	78.60%	7.10%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%
		% within Categorised Income	0.00%	0.00%	8.00%	15.30%	2.90%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	7.90%
	3 (61.5-90.5)	Count	1	2	12	23	9	8	1	0	56
		% within Categorised Asset Index	1.80%	3.60%	21.40%	41.10%	16.10%	14.30%	1.80%	0.00%	100.00%
		% within Categorised Income	50.00%	66.70%	48.00%	31.90%	26.50%	28.60%	7.70%	0.00%	31.50%
	4 (91.5-123.5)	Count	0	1	5	13	8	6	4	0	37
		% within Categorised Asset Index	0.00%	2.70%	13.50%	35.10%	21.60%	16.20%	10.80%	0.00%	100.00%
		% within Categorised Income	0.00%	33.30%	20.00%	18.10%	23.50%	21.40%	30.80%	0.00%	20.80%
	5 (124.5-383.5)	Count	0	0	4	25	16	14	8	1	68
		% within Categorised Asset Index	0.00%	0.00%	5.90%	36.80%	23.50%	20.60%	11.80%	1.50%	100.00%
		% within Categorised Income	0.00%	0.00%	16.00%	34.70%	47.10%	50.00%	61.50%	100.00%	38.20%
Total		Count	2	3	25	72	34	28	13	1	178
		% within Categorised Asset Index	1.10%	1.70%	14.00%	40.40%	19.10%	15.70%	7.30%	0.60%	100.00%
		% within Categorised Income	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

Annexure C: Total income and asset index correlation

Correlations				
		Total income	Asset index	
Total income	Pearson Correlation	1	.289**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0	
	N	178	178	
Asset Index	Pearson Correlation	.289**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0		
	N	178	178	

Annexure D: Household characteristics simple test

One-Sample Test						
	Test Value = 0					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Gender of the head	16.921	177	0	0.61798	0.5459	0.6901
Age	50.536	177	0	62.39888	59.9622	64.8356
Total Income	18.347	177	0	4803.916	4287.206	5320.626
Grade one to grade seven	2.886	177	0.004	0.04494	0.0142	0.0757
Grade eight to grade twelve	5.626	177	0	0.15169	0.0985	0.2049
Tertiary level	10.46	177	0	0.38202	0.3099	0.4541
Divorced and seperated	4.462	177	0	0.10112	0.0564	0.1458
Never married widow	18.198	177	0	0.65169	0.581	0.7224
Married living together	7.624	177	0	0.24719	0.1832	0.3112
Formally employed	9.726	177	0	0.34831	0.2776	0.419
Not economically active	10.46	177	0	0.38202	0.3099	0.4541
Unemployed	8.084	177	0	0.26966	0.2038	0.3355