

**POVERTY AND THE ECONOMICS OF CHILD AND  
GRANDMOTHER-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS IN SEBOKENG**

**JABULILE LINDIWE MAKHALIMA, HONOURS B.COM (ECONOMICS)**

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Supervisor: Dr. M.B. Sekatane

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*To my mother Nomadhlozi Ellen Makhalima*

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## OPSOMMING

Hierdie verhandeling bestudeer armoede en die ekonomie van kindgeleide en grootouergeleide huishoudings in Sebokeng. Die studie ondersoek vyf hoofgebiede, naamlik armoede, werkloosheid, kind- en grootouergeleide huishoudings, die stand van armoede en werkloosheid in Sebokeng en die lewensomstandighede van kind- en grootouergeleide huishoudings in Sebokeng.

Die benadering in hierdie verhandeling is om armoede en werkloosheid te definieer en te meet en om die omvang en aard van die behoeftige bevolking van Sebokeng te bepaal. Dit was gedoen deur die gebruik van huishouding-peilaanwysers. Armoede is gemeet deur van die volgende aanwysers te gebruik: die Huishoudelike Bestaanspeil (HBP) as armoedsgrens, die koptelindeks, die armoedsgaping en die afhanklikheidsverhouding.

'n Vergelyking is tussen Sebokeng en Bophelong gedoen. Sebokeng het 'n hoër armoedspeil (85%) as dié van Bophelong (67%), terwyl die werkloosheidspeil (27%) laer is as dié van Bophelong (31%). Die meeste aanwysers (die opvoedings-, inkomste-, bestedingspeil) bewys dat Bophelong in vergelyking met Sebokeng beter daaraan toe is.

Hierdie verhandeling tref verder 'n vergelyking tussen kind- en grootouergeleide huishoudings en "normale" huishoudings in Sebokeng. Met die studie is daar gevind dat die hoof inkomstebron vir kindgeleide huishoudings uit pleeg- en kinderonderhoudtoekennings (54%) bestaan, terwyl pensioentoekeennings as die hoof inkomstebron vir beide grootouergeleide huishoudings en "normale" huishoudings dien. Die studie bewys dus dat kindgeleide huishoudings finansiëel en andersins swakker daaraan toe is in vergelyking met grootouergeleide en "normale" huishoudings. Sou maatskaplike werkers meer bystand aan hierdie weeskinders kon bied in die vorm van hulp met die aansoek vir identiteitsdokumente en geboortesertifikate by die Departement van Binnelandse Sake, sal hierdie weeskinders beter daaraan toe wees as wat in hierdie studie gevind word.

Die verhandeling kom tot die slotsom dat die armoedspeil in kindgeleide huishoudings dus hoër is as dié van grootouergeleide en "normale"

huishoudings, en word daar aanbeveel dat die regering verdere stappe moet neem om die werkloosheidspeil te verlaag deur aandag aan die voorkeurvaardighede van Sebokeng se bevolking te skenk deur die aanbieding van opleiding om sodanige vaardighede te verbeter. Voedseltoeinprojekte moet georganiseer word sodat die behoeftiges selfonderhoudend kan wees en in die proses 'n inkomste kan verdien. Hierdie verhandeling beveel ook aan dat die regering meer belangstelling in die opheffing van hierdie kinders se lewens moet toon deur hulle aan te moedig om skool toe te gaan en om identiteitsdokumente te bekom. Dit kan vermag word deur die bystand van maatskaplike werkers aangesien hierdie twee elemente menige deure tot 'n beter lewe vir hierdie weeskinders kan oopmaak.

#### Sleutelwoorde

Armoede, werkloosheid, kindgeleide huishoudings, grootouergeleide huishoudings, "normale" huishoudings, weeskinders, Sebokeng, Bophelong, HBP, gemiddelde inkomste, armoedspeile, werkloos, arm, nie-arm, toekennings, pensioen.

## ABSTRACT

This dissertation studies poverty and the economics of child-headed and grandmother-headed households in Sebokeng. The study takes interest in five main areas, namely, poverty, unemployment, child and grandmother-headed households, the state of poverty and unemployment in Sebokeng as well as the living conditions of child and grandmother-headed households in Sebokeng.

The approach in this dissertation was to define and measure poverty and unemployment and to determine the poor population of Sebokeng. This was done by making use of household level indicators. Poverty was measured by employing the following indicators: the Household Subsistence level (HSL) as poverty line, the head count index, the poverty gap and the dependency ratio.

A comparison was done between Sebokeng and Bophelong. Sebokeng has a higher level of poverty (85%) than that of Bophelong (67%) while the unemployment rates (27%) is lower than that of Bophelong (31%). Most indicators (level of education, income, expenditure) prove that Bophelong is better off compared to Sebokeng.

This dissertation takes further interest in comparing child and grandmother-headed households to “normal” households in Sebokeng. The study found that the main source of income for child-headed households is foster and child support grants (54%) while pension grants serve as the main source of income for both grandmother-headed households and “normal” households (65%). The study therefore proves that child-headed households are worse off financially and otherwise in comparison to grandmother-headed and “normal” households. If more social worker assistance was available to these orphans in the form of assistance with the application for identity documents and birth certificates at the Department of Home Affairs, these orphans would not be as worse-off as was found in this study.

The dissertation concludes that the depth of poverty in child-headed households is thus greater than that of grandmother-headed and “normal” households, and it recommends that government should take further steps to reduce the unemployment rate by paying attention to the preferred skills of the population of

Sebokeng by offering training to enhance those skills. Food gardening projects should be organised so that the poor can sustain themselves and earn an income in the process. The dissertation also recommends that government should take more interest in improving the lives of these orphans by encouraging them to go to school and in obtaining identity documents. This can be possible through the assistance of social workers as these two elements can open many doors to a better life for these orphans.

#### Key terms

Poverty, unemployment, child-headed households, grandmother-headed households, “normal” households, orphans, Sebokeng, Bophelong, HSL, average income, poverty lines, unemployed, poor, non-poor, grants, pension.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS	:	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CRC	:	Children's Rights Centre
CPRC	:	Chronic Poverty Research Centre
DBSA	:	Development Bank of Southern Africa
DPRU	:	Development Policy Research Unit
EAP	:	Economically Active Population
GDP	:	Gross Domestic Product
GHS	:	General Household Survey
HEL	:	Household Effective Level
HIV/AIDS	:	Human Immune Virus
HPI	:	Human Poverty Index
HSL	:	Household Subsistence Level
MDG	:	Millennium Development Goals
MLL	:	Minimum Subsistence Level
PDL	:	Poverty Datum Line
UCT	:	University of Cape Town
UNDP	:	United Nations Development Programme
UN	:	United Nations
UNICEF	:	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
SAWEB	:	South Africa Web

SLL : Supplementary Living Level  
STATS SA : Statistics South Africa  
WDR : World Development Report

# CHAPTER 1

## THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

### 1.1 BACKGROUND

Pervasive poverty and extreme inequality remain the main obstacles in the process of globalisation that has been in progress during the last three decades. Even as governments and economies adjust in order to give a bigger role to the markets and a smaller role to the state in development, the significance of public action to counteract poverty and vulnerability has increased. It is on these grounds that the World Summit for Social Development held in 1995 called upon countries to decrease aggregate poverty substantially and to eliminate excessive poverty. These goals were re-emphasised in a time-bound and measurable framework by the United Nations (UN) as a vital millennium development goal (Sekatane, 2006:1).

Poverty in Africa is more prevalent than in other developing regions. More mysterious is that poverty in Africa is persistent and increasing. The total share of the population living beneath the normal standard of living is greater at present than it was in the 1980s and 1990s regardless of the significant progress in the growth of African Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in recent years (World Development Indicators, 2004). The consequence is that poverty has been indifferent to economic growth. Underpinning this tendency is the fact that the majority of people are unemployed or do not have secure sources of income (World Development Indicators, 2004).

According to Ratcliffe (2007:17) poverty in South Africa results from a complex past and as such cannot be comprehended without referring to the influence of race and racism. Given the South African history, it is by no means surprising that race plays a role in the studies of poverty in the country. Official statistical categories were pooled with racial attitudes and stereotyping in the compilation and presentation of data. Significant research on poverty in South Africa undertaken by researchers since the 1960's, while hugely worth mentioning even in the present day, was disfigured by apartheid, its supposition and intolerance. To the surprise of many, the trouncing of the apartheid political system did not

show a decrease or removal of poverty and resultant social and economic dynamics of exclusion.

In fact, the successive accelerations in the levels of poverty and inequality have motivated some economists to argue about the existence of new dynamics that are affecting the apartheid dynamics of exclusion and impoverishment (Ratcliffe, 2007:17).

Orphans are by far the greatest victims of poverty and deprivation. Despite of the fact that orphanhood is related to various degrees of vulnerability, the living conditions and welfare of children who are at a disadvantage due to poverty in many low-resource communities are equally critical. Many of the hurdles faced by orphans are indeed poverty-related such as lack of access to food, education, medical care and sanitation facilities (Abebe, 2008:5-6).

Children in developing countries are losing parents to Human Immune Virus and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS), wars and other tragedies with potentially dramatic social and economic consequences (Ainsworth & Filmer, 2006). Beegle, De Weerd and Dercon (2006) state that childhood orphanhood is a key risk factor for poverty in adulthood through, among others, shortfalls in human capital investments in children. In Sub-Saharan Africa, the prevalence of orphanhood producing child-headed households has been greatly aggravated by the HIV/AIDS pandemic.

Orphanhood is expected to manipulate health outcomes and schooling although there are numerous potential channels through which this effect may work. Income effects are a strong candidate especially when parental deaths are coupled with cost and income losses due to chronic illnesses. If households are credit constrained, then reduced income can result in lower investment in education. Besides these direct wealth effects, orphanhood can be coupled with an amplified value of the child's time in home production for instance or the child may have to look after the household members, resulting in less schooling (Beegle *et al.*, 2006).

Orphans living in child-headed households within unprivileged communities in South Africa and the world at large are amongst the most vulnerable. Protection

of the rights of such children ought to be the centre of attention of all individuals, governments and agencies dealing with this problem. There is a need to encourage a broad-based discussion, increased alertness of and sensitivity to the plight, special needs and rights of such children (Masondo, 2006).

Households headed by a grandmother caring for a grandchild are becoming more common; this trend is occurring disproportionately among racial and ethnic minority groups (Snyder, McLaughlin & Findeis, 2006:600). According to Fitzgerald (2001:299) contextual factors influencing grandmothers caring for grandchildren are numerous. Illness and death from HIV/AIDS are the major contributing factors resulting in children living with grandmothers.

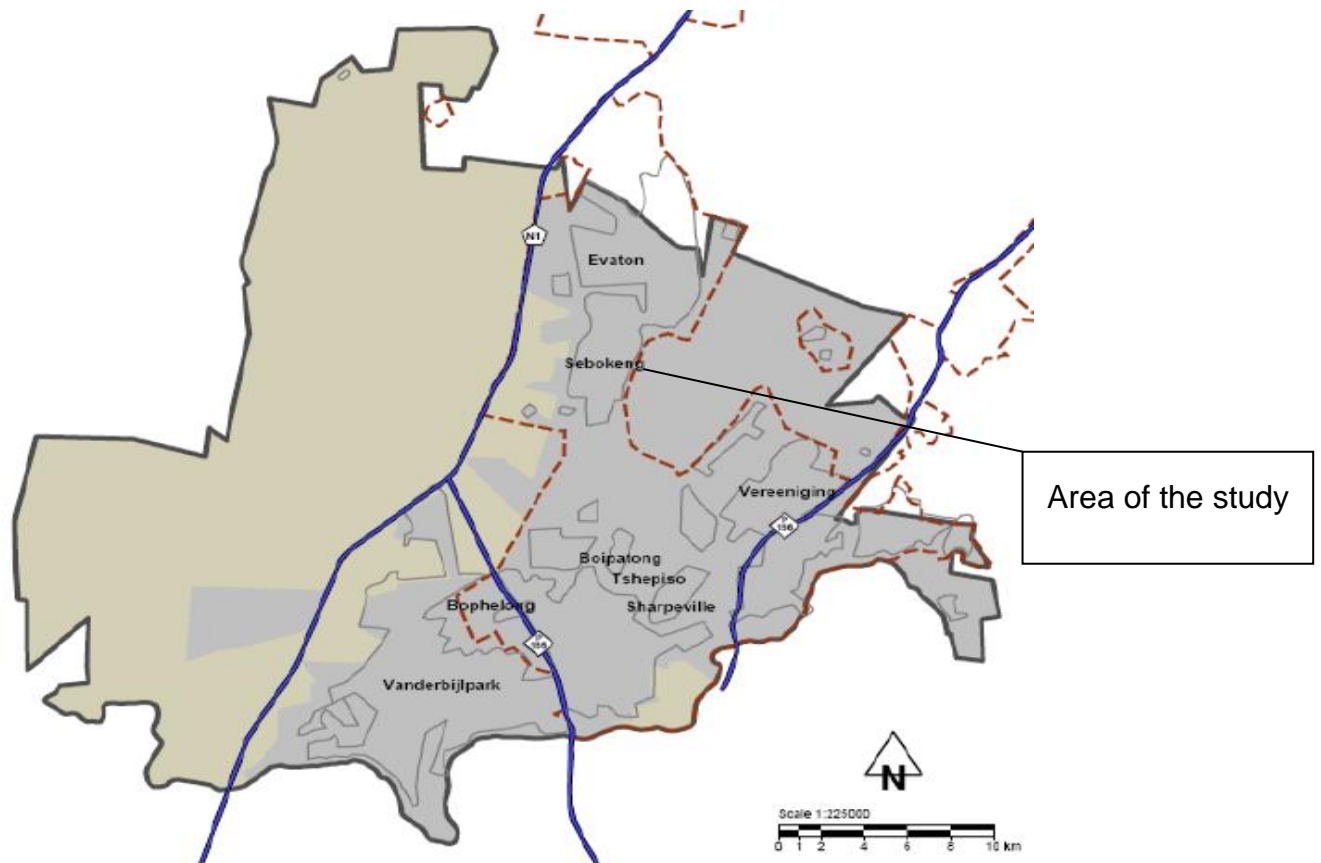
The most compelling crucial factor is financial strain, budding as a major issue faced by grandmothers raising grandchildren. In most cases grandmothers do not benefit economically after taking accountability for grandchildren and many experience a substantial financial downturn. Grandmothers who are employed are sometimes forced to reduce working hours or even quit altogether to look after grandchildren, resulting in financial loss, and in some cases, loss of social connections as well, leading to dire poverty (Fitzgerald, 2001:302).

### **1.1.1. GEOGRAPHICAL AREA OF THE STUDY**

The geographical area of this study is Sebokeng. Figure 1.1 indicates Sebokeng in the municipal and Vaal Triangle's context. Sebokeng is a township situated near Vereeniging.

Sebokeng, together with Sharpeville, Boipatong, Bophelong, Evaton, Loch Vaal and North Vaal rural areas, Tshepiso, Vaal Oewer, Vanderbijlpark, Vereeniging and the surrounding areas form part of the Emfuleni Local Municipality area. Emfuleni together with Lesedi and Midvaal municipalities form the Sedibeng District Municipality in the southern part of the Gauteng Province (Sekatane, 2006:4).

**FIGURE 1.1 SEBOKENG GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS**



Source: Emfuleni local municipality (2007/2008)

Back in the 1950's, the area between Iscor Vanderbijlpark Iron works and Evaton was known as the N3 Dominion. The area was later renamed Sebokeng by the Mentz Commission. The key purpose of the establishment of a new large-scale residential area was to relocate and resettle all the African people out of the White area of the Vaal Triangle. The first houses were built in Sebokeng in 1965 (SAWEB, 2005). Sebokeng is a good area to conduct this research due to the prevalence of orphans resulting in child-headed and grandmother-headed households.

## **1.2 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM AND THE REASON FOR THE STUDY**

The phenomenon of child-headed households is not new in the South African community. Although there is insufficient information about child-headed households, researchers have confirmed that situations do exist where older siblings head up households (Maqoko & Dreyer, 2007:718). Some of the children have close relationships with their neighbours who provide financial assistance

and guidance. There are also children who look after parents with ill health and who do not receive any adult guidance. In 2003 there were approximately 43 million orphans in Sub-Saharan Africa. Approximately 840 000 children in South Africa are without mothers, mostly because of HIV/AIDS (Sloth-Nielsen, 2004:1). By 2015, this number is expected to have grown to 3 million (Maqoko & Dreyer 2007:718).

An analysis of the General Household Survey (GHS) done in 2005 by the Children's Institute of the University of Cape Town (Children's Institute of UCT, 2006) showed that there were about 118 500 children living in a total of 66 500 child-headed households in South Africa at the time the survey was conducted. This is equivalent to an estimated 0.7% of all children (0-17 year olds) and to 0.6% of all households in the country. The percentage of children living in child-headed households relative to those living in households where adults are resident is therefore small.

Looking at the different family structures in South Africa that children are exposed to, researchers have discovered that some children do not live constantly in the same residence with biological parents. This is usually as a result of the presence of poverty, labour migration, educational opportunities or cultural practices among other things. In July 2005, 35% of children (0-17 years) in South Africa were residing with both natal parents. At least 22% of children were living with neither natal parent. Of the remaining children, almost all were residing with maternal mothers in the absence of a father figure (Children's Institute of UCT, 2006).

According to Tucker (2008), some children are exposed to seasonal child-headed households resulting from the migration of care givers and parents from outlying areas to urban areas of work, leaving some of these children to struggle alone during the week with no money and food due to poverty. Once the parents receive income it is sent home so that the children can survive. Tucker (2008) further states that such children should be given automatic exclusion from boarding fees and be given first priority in the entrance to school as they cannot afford to pay for the school and boarding fees.

From a racial perspective, not more than one third of African children were residing with both parents in July 2005, while the great share of White and Indian children were living with both biological parents. (Children's Institute of UCT, 2006). Mokoena (2004:48) states that from a gender perspective, a female-headed household endures more poverty than male-headed households, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa. Women in general are more likely to be poorer than men in most developed nations, even though the cause of this phenomenon remains a subject of disagreement.

A wide range of roles have been identified in which elderly people feature as outstanding role players. Older people are habitually renowned as the source of informal and traditional healthcare and custodians of traditional values. These people are also often child-carers for employed family members with children. About 42% of African households are female-headed and 17% of these were grandmother-headed households in which the maternal mother is absent (Hunter & May, 2003:3).

According to the Children's Rights Centre (CRC) (2008:2), there are countless women aged from late thirties to early fifties who are already grandmothers in South Africa. Grandmotherhood is not only categorised by age but by the increase in financial and caretaking responsibilities that comes with having grandchildren. Younger grandmothers often find it difficult to cope with these responsibilities regardless of their age.

Poverty amongst the widespread population is considered to be very significant in South Africa, with 48% of households living beneath the poverty line in 2005. However, child poverty is estimated to be far more intense than adult poverty, at 66% of the child population versus the 45% of the adult population in 2005. That accounts for more than 11 million children. Another even more unsettling point is that there were an estimated 2 723 000 children (15% of all children) in 2007, who sometimes, often or always went hungry (Stats SA, 2008).

For many households where these children reside, it is not a simple case of surviving on one meal a day, but surviving without one meal a day so that

another sibling can eat. School feeding schemes are often the only food source to children in extremely poor households (Owen, 2009).

According to Grobler, Pelupessy and van Vuren (2008:10) the percentage of households living below the poverty line in Emfuleni in 2003 was estimated at 52%. In the townships of the Vaal region this percentage was much greater, at 62%. As there is no separate data available for Emfuleni for the previous years but only for the Vaal Triangle as a whole, the figures for the region are shown here in order to depict the trend. In 1991, 30% of the townships' households lived below the poverty line. By 1994 the percentage grew to 42%, 53% by 1999 and 62% after 2003.

Moshoeshoe (2009) states that the prevalence of child and grandmother-headed households in Sebokeng is due to the increased number of deaths caused by HIV/AIDS. Many children are left to fend for themselves, going on for days without food. Many children are left behind with no birth certificates after parents die making it difficult for these children to access government grants. Some children resort to illegal activities just to make ends meet. Some of the children end up on the streets with no hope for survival.

### **1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The study has the following objectives:

- To examine the true state of affairs of the inhabitants of the Sebokeng Township;
- To determine whether child-headed and grandmother-headed households are worse-off in comparison to “normal” households;
- To investigate the means of survival of the child-headed and grandmother-headed households; and
- To determine whether government grants make a difference in the daily lives of the children in child-headed and grandmother-headed households, and whether government is paying attention to such households.

## **1.4 METHODOLOGY**

### **1.4.1 Literature study**

For the literature study, the researcher made use of sources such as textbooks, government publications, the internet and published reports as well as unpublished reports like theses. Sources such as newspapers and periodicals are also consulted.

### **1.4.2 Empirical study**

For the purpose of this study, a household survey on child-headed households, grandmother-headed households and normal households was conducted in Sebokeng Township by means of questionnaire-interviews to obtain the necessary data. Interviews were conducted with grandmothers living with orphans in order to make a comparison between the life style of these orphans and those of children coming from “normal” households.

### **1.4.3 Household survey**

The household survey was conducted as follows: Maps were obtained for the Sebokeng Township/Squatter areas and a sample stratification was designed according to the geographical distribution and concentration of people in the area. A questionnaire was designed for attaining the desired information. The area was divided into different segments and questionnaires were distributed evenly among the inhabited sites.

Plots/sites at which the fieldworker was supposed to complete the questionnaires was identified individually from the map before the field workers went out. However, where people could not be found, or where it was impossible to trace a household, a next preselected household was interviewed.

Information was obtained from households with children and grandmothers heading the households, breadwinners or the spouse. A total of 100 households were interviewed.

#### **1.4.4 Interviews with children heading households**

The sample for interviews with children heading households comprised of 17 randomly selected child-headed households in Sebokeng Township. All the interviewed children were those who were left alone to fend for themselves for different reasons. A questionnaire was designed to obtain the necessary information. Information on how to locate these children was obtained from Emfuleni Local municipality in Sebokeng, Mthombolwazi, Buhle, Phamehlo, Iphahlolleng and Katleho Primary Schools and finally, the Sebokeng Technical School. The community development workers residing in the different areas of Sebokeng also assisted in locating these children.

#### **1.4.5 Interviews with grandmothers heading the households**

Interviews were conducted with grandmothers heading households in order to find out about their living conditions with orphans and how they sustain themselves. A total number of 23 grandmothers were randomly selected and interviewed. Information on how to locate these grandmothers was obtained from the Emfuleni Local Municipality in Sebokeng and from the community development workers residing in the different areas of Sebokeng.

#### **1.4.6 Poverty**

For the purpose of this study, poverty is defined as *the inability to attain a minimum material standard of living*. The standard of living is usually expressed in terms of household income and expenditure. Household income and expenditure is an adequate yardstick for the standard of living (Sekatane, 2004:10). The minimal material standard of living is normally referred to as the poverty line. It is determined by the income (or expenditure) necessary to buy a minimum standard of nutrition and other basic necessities. The cost of minimum adequate caloric intake and other necessities can be calculated by looking at the prices of the food and other necessities, necessary to sustain a healthy living. A poverty line can thus be calculated for a specific area (Sekatane, 2004:10).

By comparing the total income and expenditure of a household with the cost of the minimum adequate caloric intake and other necessities of the household,

poor households can be distinguished from non-poor households. The simplest way to measure poverty is to express the number of poor households as a proportion of the population. This is called the headcount index (Sekatane, 2004:10).

## **1.5 DEPLOYMENT OF THE STUDY**

The following is a brief outline of the entire study.

Chapter 1 (*The problem and its setting*) introduces the field of the study and indicates the geographical location of Sebokeng. The chapter further introduces the research problem and the objectives of the study. Lastly, a clear and brief layout is given to show all the relevant topics and aspects of research relevant to chapters' two to five. The chapter uses the research proposal as a base.

Chapter 2 (*Theoretical background to poverty, child and grandmother-headed households*) assesses the theories concerning poverty, child poverty, child and grandmother-headed households. The definitions of poverty, child and grandmother-headed households are given in this chapter as well as the measurement of poverty. This chapter is dedicated to a literature study of these concepts and lays a foundation for the concepts that will be used in subsequent chapters.

Chapter 3 (*Profile of the population of Sebokeng*) constructs the profile of the poor population of Sebokeng. Here an analysis is done on all kinds of households, the means of survival, whether they are employed or self-employed as well as the various sectors they are employed in. The activities that the residents are engaged in, the educational background and the highest qualifications that residents possess are also analysed.

This is done in terms of household structures: the household size, status of different household members, marital status in the case of households headed by adults, age and gender structure of members, employment structures of those in the average households, mean earnings of the employed, age of the employed and qualifications of the employed, income and expenditure patterns of the households, environmental issues and finally the state of crime in the township.

Chapter 4 (*A comparison between child-headed, grandmother-headed and normal households in Sebokeng*) examines the living conditions of child and grandmother-headed households compared to normal households in the area. The chapter compares the results of the interviews conducted in child-headed and grandmother-headed households with the results obtained from interviews conducted in normal households. This chapter will also determine if government grants make a difference in the daily lives of the children in child and grandmother-headed households and whether government is paying attention to such households.

Chapter 5 (*Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations*) presents a summary of the findings of the study as well as a conclusion. The chapter contains recommendations of support needs of both child and grandmother-headed households.

## CHAPTER 2

### THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Poverty has many causes some of which are very basic. In most cases, the causes and effects of poverty interact, so that what makes people poor also creates conditions that keep them poor. Poverty has wide-ranging and often devastating effects on children. Many of its effects such as homelessness and malnutrition result directly from having too little income and too few resources (McMurray & Jansen van Rensburg, 2004:109-110). The pension income from the social system serves as a safety net for many South African households especially those comprising of grandmothers caring for orphans. Therefore the pension received by grandmothers plays a critical role as a poverty-alleviation process. Many adult children reside with pension earning parents due to scarce employment. Unlike other developing countries with large pools of surplus labour, South Africa does not have a large enough informal sector that can absorb those who are unemployed leading to increased reliance on pension income (Burns, Keswell & Leibbrant, 2004:6).

This chapter discusses the theoretical background of poverty, unemployment, child and grandmother-headed households. The focus is on defining poverty and outlining the causes, characteristics and ways of measuring it. Unemployment and its various types is defined, its characteristics and causes are also discussed. Factors contributing to poverty and unemployment are also dealt with. The chapter further outlines the definition of a household as well as that of a child-headed household. The prevalence of child-headed households in terms of the factors leading to the establishment of such households, difficulties they face, consequences of child poverty and the measurement of child poverty are also discussed in this chapter. The final topic discussed in this chapter is that of grandmother-headed-households, their characteristics as well as the role such households play in raising orphaned children.

## 2.2 POVERTY

Although the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) aimed to half the degree of poverty suffered at the time at which the Goals were compiled in the fifteen year period from 1990 to 2015 the number of people in Sub-Saharan Africa suffering from poverty and living below the poverty line during the 1990s increased. It is vital to mention that during the 1990's the number of people in Sub-Saharan Africa who were living below the poverty line of the US \$1 per day had in fact increased. It is expected that the health of the poor could be pessimistically affected by poor dietary intake, inadequate sanitation facilities and lack of effective access to health facilities (Oldewage-Theron & Slabbert, 2010). Schwabe (2004:1) in Oldewage-Theron & Slabbert (2010) reported that the share of people residing in poverty in South Africa has not altered significantly between 1996 and 2001 and that those households living in poverty have sunk deeper into poverty and that the gap between the rich and the poor has grown.

The following subsection defines and discusses the concept of poverty.

### 2.2.1 Definition of Poverty

Disagreements over the definition of poverty are intense and are closely associated with disagreements over both its causes and solutions to it. The rationale for considering a variety of indicators originates from the multifaceted nature of the poverty phenomenon (Sekhampu, 2004:10).

The following factors are important in any attempt to define poverty:

- **Political and cultural influences:** Poverty is not only a social issue but also a highly political one, where power and interest groups have had a noteworthy influence. Definitions of poverty therefore normally differ geographically and territorially depending on the politics of the area. For example, in sharp contrast with economists like Schumpeter, Karl Marx explains poverty as an exploitation of the masses which lies in the phenomenon of surplus value, linked to the institution of private property (Sekatane, 2004:25).

Rampaku (2004:21) says that poverty is a highly sensitive issue, where power and interest groups have had a significant influence on the patterns of distribution. These power and interest groups indirectly have an influence on the subsistence of poverty. The analysis of poverty, therefore, is contested territorially. Social scientists cannot be completely immune to or act neutrally about the factors causing poverty. Social scientists that are accountable for developing the theories should be open to possible critical attacks over such theories.

- **Deprivation and basic needs:** most definitions of poverty are rooted in the idea of a state of deprivation. What the poor are underprivileged from is not often clear. What is seen as basic need or necessities is not clear cut and may differ from one researcher to another and indeed from place to place. What seems to be a basic need in one area may not necessarily be a need in another area. Basic needs include two elements. Firstly, it includes certain minimum prerequisite of a family for private consumption, such as ample food, shelter and clothing, as well as certain household essentials and furniture. Secondly, it includes indispensable public services provided by and for the community, such as safe drinking water, sanitation, public transport, and health and education facilities (Sekatane, 2004:25).

A few illustrative definitions of poverty proposed in some of the prominent works on the subject are presented below:-

The Development Bank of Southern Africa (DBSA) (1998) in Sekhampu (2004:10) defines poverty as a lack of resources to meet basic needs such as adequate food, clothing, shelter and necessities. It also represents the inability to meet higher order needs such as the need for personal fulfilment, recreation, and freedom. The determinants of poverty are often seen as income-related factors. People with sufficient income usually develop strategies to cope with the problem. The inability to implement these strategies is an important indicator of the extent of poverty.

According to Mokoena (2004:14) defining poverty is not an easy task because poverty is a highly contested term. Many works on the subject become so technical that it is very difficult to draw conclusions from them or to employ them in policy-making endeavours. How poverty is defined and measured tends to determine the types and directions of policies aimed at reducing it.

The World Bank (2001:1-2) in Mokoena (2004:14) defines poverty as being a lack of command over commodities in general, deemed essential to constitute a reasonable standard of living in society, or lack of ability to function in society. This definition also emphasises command over resources as well as the lack of participation or “voice” in governance and civil matters.

According to May (2000:5) poverty is defined as the inability of individuals, households or communities to command sufficient resources to satisfy a socially acceptable minimum standard of living.

The World Bank (2008) defines poverty as hunger. Poverty is lack of shelter. Poverty is being sick and not being able to see a doctor. Poverty is not having access to school and not knowing how to read. Poverty is not having a job, is fear for the future, living one day at a time. Poverty is losing a child to illness brought about by unclean water. Poverty is powerlessness, lack of representation and freedom.

Individuals, families and groups in the population can be said to be in poverty when they lack the resources to obtain the type of diet, participate in the activities and have the living conditions which are customary or at least widely encouraged or approved in societies to which they belong. The resources at this society's disposal are so seriously below those commanded by the average family or individual that they are in effect excluded from ordinary living patterns, customs and activities (Townsend, 1979:31).

Table 2.1 below indicates the five key perspectives which need to be considered in poverty studies. Sekhampu (2004:10) emphasises that poverty is more than having insufficient income, but includes other factors that may be overlooked in poverty studies.

**TABLE 2.1 FACTORS TO BE CONSIDERED IN POVERTY STUDIES**

Perspective	Type of indicator
Income perspective: people are categorised as poor if the income earned falls below a certain income measure	Welfare payments, wage levels and poverty datum lines are income measures
Basic needs: this is one of the most influential international perspectives on poverty, especially in the context of the Third World where millions of people live without adequate food shelter or sanitation	There are a number of indicators that come out of a basic needs perspective e.g. access to water, literacy, life expectancy, and nutritional levels
Social exclusion: social exclusion refers to the fact that despite the welfare and general wealth, there remains a group of people who are excluded from the mainstream benefits of society and who are prevented in some way from gaining from the general prosperity	Indicators of social exclusion emphasise political, social and economic components of poverty and inequality and are thus either multi-part or composite indicators. These indicators are often qualitative in measuring e.g. racism or sexism
Locality: Space or geography is seen by some to be an independent variable in the poverty equation	Indicators of poverty used in locality include segregation indices and transport indicators

Source: Sekhampu, 2004:11

Two concepts that are closely related to poverty are chronic poverty (long-term) and temporary poverty (short-term). Chronic poverty which is often difficult to address refers to multi-dimensional deprivation and includes under-nutrition, illiteracy, unsafe drinking water social discrimination, physical insecurity and

political exclusion. An individual or a household is understood to be in poverty when the conditions of poverty endure over time (Woolard & Leibbrandt, 1999:17-18).

Temporary poverty on the other hand may illustrate itself in variation in well-being that result in repeated declines in living standards, for example, external shocks in the form of policy changes or natural disasters may plunge a household into dire poverty (Woolard & Leibbrandt, 1999:17-18). According to the Chronic Poverty Research Centre (CPRC) (2009:1) there are five main traps that underpin chronic poverty:-

- **Insecurity:** The chronically poor are commonly those who live in unsafe environments, and who have few assets or privileges to cope with shock and stresses. The coping strategies used by them often involve trading long-term goals to improve the quality of life for example accumulating assets and educating children for short-term survival (CPRC, 2009:1).
- **Limited citizenship:** chronically poor people have no meaningful political voice and lack effective political representation. The societies in which the poor live in and the governments that practice the authority over them are not aware of the most basic needs and rights of the people (CPRC, 2009:1).
- **Spatial disadvantage:** remoteness, certain types of natural resource base, political exclusion and weak economic integration can all contribute to the creation of intra-country spatial poverty traps (CPRC, 2009:1).
- **Social discrimination:** chronically poor people often have social relations of power, patronage, competition, collaboration and support that can trap them in manipulative relationships or refuse them access to public and private goods. These are based on class, caste systems, gender, religious and ethnic identity age and other factors (CPRC, 2009:1).

- **Poor work opportunities:** where there is limited economic growth or where growth is concentrated in enclaves, work opportunities are very insufficient and people can be exploited. Such work allows day-to-day survival but does not authorise asset build up and children's education. An example of this is the formal labour market of day labourers (CPRC, 2009:1).

## **2.2.2 Causes of poverty**

Bradshaw (2006:6), Shinns and Lynne (2004:2) explain the causes of poverty.

### **2.2.2.1 Individual deficiencies**

This first cause of poverty is a broad and multi-dimensional set of explanations that focus on the individual being the main cause of the poverty situation. Typically, theoreticians blame individuals in poverty for breeding the poverty setbacks themselves and argue that with hard work and better choices the poor could have steered clear of the poverty situation. Other variations of the individual cause of poverty attribute poverty to a lack of genetic qualities such as intelligence that are not so easily reversed (Bradshaw, 2006:6).

The belief that poverty has its roots in individual deficiencies is old. Religious doctrines that associate wealth with the favour of God were central to the Protestant reformation. The blind, crippled, or deformed people were believed to be punished by God for sins committed either by them or the parents who gave birth to them (Bradshaw, 2006:6).

### **2.2.2.2 Cultural belief systems that support sub-cultures of poverty**

The second cause of poverty has its roots in the "Culture of Poverty". This cause suggests that poverty is created by the transmission over generations of a set of beliefs, values and skills that are socially generated but individually held. Individuals are not entirely to blame as the culture or sub-culture to which the individuals belong may be dysfunctional. Culture is socially generated and disseminated, reflecting the interaction of an individual and the community. This makes the cause of "culture of poverty" different from the "individual" cause of poverty that connect poverty explicitly to individual abilities and motivation. Technically, the culture of poverty is a sub-culture of poor people in poor regions

or social contexts where a shared set of beliefs, values and norms for behaviour that are separate from, but embedded in the main culture of society are developed (Bradshaw, 2006:8).

#### **2.2.2.3 Proneness to income shocks**

Income shocks are more severe and frequent where people have poor access to health care and rely on agriculture for livelihoods. Farming is particularly vulnerable to natural disasters such as drought, floods, pests and disease (Shinns & Lynne, 2004:2).

#### **2.2.2.4 Gender discrimination**

Unskilled women usually receive lower incomes than unskilled men who receive higher incomes as a result of their physical strength for manual work and often face transaction costs in credit and other markets due to their lower standard of living. This leads to lower earning capacities for households with high proportion of females and reduced opportunities for female-headed households (Shinns & Lynne, 2004:2).

### **2.2.3 Characteristics of the poor**

In reviewing the literature on poverty, one may point to four characteristics of the poor (Ahmed, Hill, Smith & Frankenberger, 2007:1):

- One of the common characteristics of the poor is the inequality across income groups and regions. Expenditures on food represent the highest share of the household's budget. In general, poorer households and those in rural areas spend a relatively high proportion of the family budget on food than others (Ahmed *et al.*, 2007:1).
- A second characteristic of the poor is the relatively large household size compared with the non-poor. The large size of poor households is accompanied by a high dependency ratio, indicating a bias in the household structure towards lower age groups (Ahmed *et al.*, 2007:1).

- A third characteristic of the poor is the lack of assets, whether material assets or human capital such as education and skills (Ahmed *et al.*, 2007:1).
- Finally, one of the characteristics of the poor rural households is the changing image of women's work. Women's work, which used to be common and acceptable in many African countries, is not so anymore. It is taken as a sign of poverty (Øyen, Miller & Samas, 1996:196-197).

## **2.2.4 The deprivation trap of poverty**

de Beer and Swanepoel (2000:9) are of the opinion that the poor are trapped in a cycle of poverty known as the deprivation trap. To comprehend the deprivation trap one has to understand the types of disadvantages the poor face namely; poverty, physical weakness, isolation, vulnerability and powerlessness. The following subsections explain these disadvantages.

### **2.2.4.1 Poor households**

In some communities there exist a majority of families that are poor whilst rich families are also found to exist in the same community. The poor become poorer because a decent minimum standard of living is unsustainable and the rich are getting richer as this group of people can afford luxury goods. However, money that is distributed back to the community should not be given in a form of handouts, because this promotes dependency (de Beer & Swanepoel, 2000:10).

### **2.2.4.2 Physically weak households**

These types of households could be defined as large families comprising of many children as well as the aged and disabled individuals. Many mouths need a great deal of food and the poor family has too little income to adequately provide for this basic need. In instances where food is made available it is of poor quality and of low nutritional value, resulting in under nourishment and malnutrition. Malnutrition breeds low-birth weight, a disadvantage to start with in life. It also contributes to poor performance in school, and low labour output (de Beer & Swanepoel, 2000:19).

### **2.2.4.3 Isolated households**

Communication is a problem in the rural areas and in peripheral urban squatter settlements. People are far removed from social infrastructure such as schools and medical care. Employment opportunities are scarce and spread over a huge distance. Isolation of poor families contributes to a high rate of illiteracy. Lack of reliable transport further increases isolation (de Beer & Swanepoel, 2000:10).

### **2.2.4.4 Powerless households**

The poor are intimidated by the practices of the rich who in most cases are responsible for the livelihood of the poor. Furthermore, because the poor are remote, there is little access to politicians as well as opinion leaders leaving the poor without any support to influence policies. These people have a low status in the eyes of society (de Beer & Swanepoel, 2000:10).

## **2.2.5 Measuring poverty**

Measuring poverty is not an easy task as it requires accuracy and precision which can be achieved by employing the appropriate tools. The following points outline the different measures of poverty.

### **2.2.5.1 Poverty lines**

A poverty line helps focus attention of governments and civil society on the state of affairs of the poor. In practice there exists more than one poverty line and this reflects two distinctive roles which poverty lines play. One role is to clarify what the minimum level of living is before a person is no longer considered to be poor. The other role is to make interpersonal comparisons such as poverty lines for families of different sizes and compositions, living in different places or for different dates. This will provide the necessary information about what expenditures are required in each set of circumstances to make sure that the minimum level of living needed to break away from poverty is attained (Ravillion, 1998).

According to the National Treasury (2007:5) a distinction can be made between absolute and relative poverty lines. An absolute poverty line is determined by

referring to a fixed basket of goods, and so it does not take into consideration the shifts in the average standard of living in society. It is a fixed money value that is only updated to take account of inflation.

A relative poverty line, on the other hand, is set in line with inconsistent standards of living. It could be calculated as a set percentage of the average or the median level of household incomes and expenditures or it could be defined by a specified share of the income distribution, like the poorest 10%, 20% or 40% of the population. A relative poverty line is comparatively simple to calculate and takes into consideration the standards of “adequate” household welfare shift with rising prosperity over time but if the primary intent is to measure progress in meeting basic needs or reducing poverty and vulnerability, then a relative measure is not suitable (National Treasury, 2007:5).

Poverty lines show the level of income necessary to offer the minimum the subsistence level or the “get-along” amount. They differentiate between a collection of households whose income or consumption is too low in contrast to that of the general population (Sekatane, 2004:32).

Poverty lines are income and price elastic, i.e. they are adaptable to changes in the median or mean income or consumption of the general population as well as to change in the general price level. As technology advances and new products are introduced, they may initially be bought by the upper income households, but generally diffuse to lower income households. This causes the price elasticity of these goods. The goods may initially be perceived as conveniences but ultimately end up as necessities, for example, computers are slowly becoming necessities in modern societies. The price elasticity occurs as a result of inflation. Thus poverty lines are normally adjusted upwards with the passage of time due to technology and inflation (Sekatane, 2004:32).

Until 1973, the term Poverty Datum Line (PDL) was generally used to describe a theoretical minimum cost of living in South Africa. Since 1973, other poverty lines have been introduced. Table 2.2 below shows examples of poverty lines used in South Africa and their composition. The Minimum Subsistence Level (MLL) is the minimum level at which a non-White family would be able to maintain the health

of its members and conform to the Western standard of decency. It includes the cost of items such as tax, medical expenses, education and household equipment, in addition to the items included in the PDL (Slabbert, 1997:43).

The Supplementary Living Level (SLL) includes items such as recreation, personal care, pension, unemployment, insurance fund medical aid and burial contributions plus 30% more of the items included by the (MLL) (Sekatane, 2004:33).

**TABLE 2.2           EXAMPLES OF POVERTY LINES USED IN SOUTH AFRICA**

Poverty lines compared	
PDL	Food, Clothing, Fuel/Lighting, Washing/cleaning, Rent, Transport
MLL	PDL plus: Tax, Medical expenses, Education, Housing equipment and replacement
SLL	MLL plus: more of each item plus recreation, Personal care, Pension, Unemployment, Insurance fund, Medical aid, Burial contributions . Approximately MLL + 30.0%
HSL	As for PDL
HEL	HSL+50

Source: Sekatane, 2004:34

The Household Subsistence Level (HSL) which contains the Household Effective Level (HEL) is defined as an estimate of theoretical income needed by an individual household to maintain a defined minimum level of health and decency in the short-term and is calculated at the lowest retail cost of a basket of necessities of adequate quality. The 'basket' includes: food, clothing, fuel and lighting and washing and cleaning material for each individual in a household and for the whole household and the cost of rent and transport (Masoka, 2005:38).

The HSL is employed in this study because as Slabbert (1997:45) points out, it covers all the major centres in South Africa. Secondly, the HSL is the most frequently used measure in recent years. Thirdly, as the study includes a

comparison between child-headed households and average households, the HSL offers a common measure. The HEL is calculated as the HSL plus 50% and thus gives a high cut-off (Slabbert 1997:45).

### **2.2.5.2 Income poverty and human poverty**

The traditional measures of poverty are based on the income perspective. A person is considered to be poor if and only if his/her income level is below the defined poverty line. Many countries employ income poverty lines to observe the progress in reducing the proportion of people below the poverty line. The cut-off poverty line is generally defined in terms of having sufficient income for a specified amount of food. Whether income inequality has widened or narrowed can be observed from the ratio of the incomes of the 20 richest countries to those of the 20 poorest countries (Pochun, 1999:1).

Human poverty has many dimensions and it is not just poverty of income or not having things necessary for material well-being. Human poverty means the deprivation that people endure throughout. These people do not enjoy the choices and opportunities which are most basic to human development and which make it possible to live a long, healthy, well-nourished and self-fulfilling life, to be educated and to have a reasonable standard of living, be able to live in freedom, self respect and dignity and to participate in the community (Pochun, 1999:1).

### **2.2.5.3 The headcount index and the poverty gap**

According to Masoka (2005:40) the simplest method of measuring poverty is to express the number of the poor as a percentage the population. Sekatane (2004:35) defines the headcount index as a fraction of the population below the poverty line. Meier and Rauch (2005:27) state that this “headcount” measure is by far the most frequently calculated measure of poverty. But the headcount measure fails to depict the heterogeneity of poor people as there may be wide variations in income levels amongst them too, with some located just below the poverty line whilst others could be experiencing far greater shortfalls. Policymakers seeking to make the largest possible impact on the headcount

measure might be persuaded to direct poverty alleviation resources to those closest to the poverty line (Meier and Rauch 2005:27).

Masoka (2005:40) states that the purpose of the headcount index is therefore to determine the number of those persons or households who fall below the poverty line. If the distribution of income is represented by  $y$  and the poverty line is  $z$ , a poverty measure may be expressed by the function  $P(y; z)$ . A population of  $N$  income units with income  $y$ , ( $i=1\dots N$ ) placed in ascending order by subscript,  $M$  units have income less than  $z$ , then the headcount ratio ( $H$ ) may be defined as follows:

$$\text{Headcount index} = H(y; z) = M/N$$

Where

$H$  = fraction of households below the poverty line;

$Y$  = household income;

$Z$  = the poverty line of households; small caps

$M$  = the number of households with income less than  $z$ ;

$N$  = the total number of households.

Rampaku (2004:33) states that the headcount index has been criticised for not measuring the extent of poverty. To make up for this shortcoming, the poverty gap ratio is normally used. The poverty gap measures the average shortfall of the incomes of the poor from the poverty line while the poverty gap index measures the extent of the shortfall of incomes below the poverty line. The poverty gap of an individual household (in monetary terms) can therefore be expressed by the equation:

$$G_i(y, z) = z - y_i$$

Where:

$G_i$  = the income shortfall of the household;

$y_i$  = the income of a specific household;

$z_i$  = the poverty line of a specific household.

The poverty gap index is concerned with the depth of poverty (its magnitude) and therefore measuring the extent of the shortfall of income below the poverty line (Sekatane, 2004:36).

The poverty gap ratio (R) can be described by the following equation (Sekatane, 2004:36):

$$R_i (y, z) = (z_i - y_i) / z_i$$

Where:

$R_i$  = the income shortfall of a household expressed as a proportion of the household's poverty line;

$y_i$  = the income of a specific household; and

$z_i$  = the poverty line of a specific household.

From the three equations above, it is clear that the poverty gap can only be reduced by increasing household income (Sekatane, 2003:36).

#### **2.2.5.4 The Human Poverty Index (HPI)**

According to Allen and Thomas (2000:16) the HPI which was developed by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) is an average of three measures of deprivation which are vulnerability to death at a relatively early age, deprivation in knowledge, and lack of decent living standards. This measure of poverty is limited in that it cannot disclose the full extent of poverty in all its dimensions, although it provides an additional measure of poverty from the human development perspective.

The value of the HPI indicates the proportion of the population affected by the three key deprivations in their life - showing how widespread human poverty is. It is not possible to correlate the occurrence of human poverty with a specific group of people or number of people as can be done in the head count measure. The

HPI is useful to the policy makers in that it points out the causes of poverty in a country and can provide solutions for eradicating poverty (Allen & Thomas, 2000:16).

### **2.2.6 Dimensions of poverty**

According to Perkins Radelet, Lindauer (2006:219) and Malefane (2004:17) poverty is not a state of existence, but a process with many dimensions and complexities. It has social and psychological effects that prevent people's potential from being realised. The different dimensions of poverty are discussed below.

#### **2.2.6.1 Poverty from a gender perspective**

Looking at poverty from the perspective of gender requires consideration of intra-household distribution, the sharing of gender resources within family units. Most studies of gender roles and opportunities in the developing and developed nations conclude that women are disadvantaged relative to men. Women have less access to property rights, including ownership of land and are often denied inheritance. Young females have tended to receive less primary and secondary education than boys, although in many countries and regions, this is no longer the case. Labour markets tend to discriminate against women, paying them less than men for the same work. Domestic violence is all too common. Sex-selective abortion favours the birth of boys than girls in many parts of the world. Given all these disadvantages, the feminisation of poverty seems straight forward but it is not (Perkins *et al.*, 2006:219).

In many parts of the world, widows without male heirs and elderly women on pensions have particularly high poverty rates. But other women-headed households or women with husbands working abroad and sending remittances may experience lower than average poverty rates. Despite the lack of evidence on the feminisation of poverty, it is hard to imagine that reducing gender inequality would not also help reduce the poverty of females (Perkins *et al.*, 2006:219-20).

### **2.2.6.2 Geographical and demographic dimensions of poverty**

Malefane (2004:17-18) states that the relationship between geography and poverty is an interesting one that attempts to answer the question of why some countries exceptionally rich and others awfully poor. Most economists today have downplayed the role that physical geography plays in economic performance. Instead these economists implicitly assume that all areas of the world have the same prospects for economic development. Geography deserves special attention as it plays a vital role in shaping the distribution of World income and economic growth.

The places where poor people live often present multiple disadvantages that include unfavourable geography, vulnerability to environmental shocks and seasonal exposure. These disadvantages combine in ways that endanger or impoverish those who live there. The poor have different priorities based largely on demographic characteristics such as gender, marital status and ethnicity; for example, the needs of widows differ from those of other social groups (Malefane, 2004:19).

### **2.2.6.3 Power dimensions of poverty**

Defining the experiences of the poor people involves taking into account their highly limited choices and their inability to be heard by the rest of society. Powerlessness results from multiple interlocking disadvantages which in turn make it difficult for poor people to escape poverty. Furthermore, poor people lack self-confidence which results in increased powerlessness and isolation from opportunities (Malefane, 2004:20).

### **2.2.7 Poverty reduction strategies**

To alleviate poverty, a profile of information is required. Phiri and Seshamani (2001) state that information is required about are the poor who and where they are located. Although poverty is high in South Africa, it is not evenly distributed. Different socio-economic groups endure different levels of poverty, for instance, small scale farmers who account for over a million households in the country are among the poorest while large-scale farmers are among the most affluent

people. Similarly, differences exist between rural and urban areas, among various provinces and between various districts in each province.

Gender is a very important consideration in creating anti-poverty strategies. Female-headed households, especially households headed by women without any financial support from outside, are conspicuously poorer than male-headed households. Child poverty, reflected by the growing number of orphans, street children and specifically child-headed households constitute yet another prominent face of poverty. Child and gender mainstreaming of anti-poverty programmes is therefore important in the poverty reduction and monitoring process (Phiri & Seshamani, 2001). Rosa and Lehnert (2003:11) stress that 'grants should follow the child' meaning that all grants should be in the name of the child so that the death of parents does not automatically cease the entitlement to a grant.

According to Perkins *et al.* (2006:220) the World Bank's 1990 World Development Report (WDR) not only provided an estimate of the amount of poverty in developing countries, it also outlined a strategy for alleviating poverty. This strategy had two elements: firstly, to promote market-orientated economic growth and secondly, to direct basic health and education services to the poor. Market-orientated economic growth included many of the familiar recommendations of the "Washington Consensus": macroeconomic stability, greater economic openness to trade and investment, increased public investment in infrastructure, improved credit markets, and the like. Combined, these policies would lead to labour-demand growth, which would benefit the poor since the primary asset the poor rely on is labour.

The second element of the strategy called for investing in people. Directing government health and education services to the poor would increase productivity and thereby contribute to poverty reduction. A third but less emphasised part of the strategy was to develop safety nets to assist those unable to take advantage of market opportunities (Perkins *et al.*, 2006:220).

The ability of individuals and groups to maintain sustainable livelihoods is an essential element contributing towards the alleviation of poverty and access to

quality employment. Poor people struggle to get secure jobs, and poor communities are characterised by the widespread absence of the formally employed. Instead, poor people have numerous, small, often dangerous jobs, rather than one job (May, 2000:74- 75).

The majority of families rely on labour market earnings which influences the overall income received by the families so episodes of unemployment may result in large income declines. Unemployment in cyclical downturns is mostly borne by people whose earnings are low to begin with and by those whose incomes are vulnerable to falling below the poverty level (Powers, 1995:4).

## **2.3 UNEMPLOYMENT**

There is little question that unemployment has been and continues to be one of the most serious and pervasive economic problems in the labour market. The fact that unemployment has multiple causes and that it desperately impacts on the workers who experience it, leads to controversy about how serious; social and economic problem unemployment really is (Kaufman & Hotchkiss, 2006:666).

This section looks into the definition of unemployment, the different types of unemployment, characteristics, causes and the measurements of unemployment.

### **2.3.1 Definition of unemployment**

According to Dornbusch, Fischer and Startz (2008:149) an unemployed person is someone who (1) has actively looked for work during the previous two weeks or (2) is waiting to be recalled to a job after having been laid off or (3) is awaiting to report to a new job within four weeks.

According to Mohr, Fourie and associates (2008:498) two definitions are used to generate statistics on unemployment which are the strict definition and the expanded definition.

- The strict definition defines unemployed persons as being those people within the economically active population who: (1) are not paid in employment or self employment (2) were available for paid employment or self employment during the seven days before the interview (3) have taken active steps to look for work or start some form of self-employment in the four weeks prior to the interview (Mohr *et al.*, 2008:498).
- The expanded definition of unemployment excludes criterion (3) and only requires a desire to find employment (Mohr *et al.*, 2008:498).

### **2.3.2 Characteristics of unemployment**

According to Dornbusch *et al.* (2008:149) unemployment has the following five key characteristics:

- There are large disparities in unemployment rates across groups defined by age, race, or experience.
- There is a high turnover in the labour market. Flows into and out of employment are high in relation to the numbers of employed and unemployed.
- A significant part of this turnover is cyclical: layoffs and separations are high during recessions, and voluntary quits are high during booms.
- Most people who become unemployed in any given month remain unemployed for only a short time (for example, the United States of America).
- Most countries with high unemployment consist of people who will remain unemployed for quite a long period (Dornbusch *et al.*, 2008:149).

### **2.3.3 Types of unemployment**

According to Barker (2003:202) in order to address the problem of unemployment successfully, a distinction has to be made between the different types of unemployment. The different types are discussed below.

### **2.3.3.1 Frictional unemployment**

Frictional unemployment arises due to the fact that it takes time to find a job or to move from one job to the next. At any given point in time, there will always be workers who are moving from one job to another. Individuals who leave one job or who are looking for a first job often do not find employment straight away although there are vacancies in the economy. This kind of unemployment is inescapable and is not considered a serious problem (Mohr *et al.*, 2008:564).

### **2.3.3.2 Cyclical unemployment**

Cyclical unemployment arises during periods of recession; when aggregate demand is low and the demand for labour is also low. During recessionary periods few or no jobs are available for new entrants to the labour market, and even present workers might lose jobs through retrenchments. Cyclical unemployment is also known as demand deficient unemployment may have dire effects on an economy (Barker, 2003:202).

### **2.3.3.3 Structural unemployment**

Structural unemployment arises from a basic mismatch between the types of jobs that are available and the types of people who are seeking jobs. This mismatch may be related to skill, education, geographic area or age. Structural unemployment tends to be concentrated among certain groups that have been adversely affected by technological change, the decline of a major industry or the movement of jobs to another part of country (Kaufman & Hotchkiss, 2006:674).

### **2.3.3.4 Seasonal unemployment**

Seasonal unemployment is caused by normal and expected changes in economic activity during the course of a single year. In many situations, persons who working during peak seasons are unemployed in off-peak periods are described as seasonal workers or seasonally unemployed. This type of unemployment occurs on a regular basis and it is very much unpredictable (Barker, 2003:203).

## **2.3.4 Causes of unemployment**

According to Allen and Thomas (2000:112) unemployment is not a single process. It can be caused by a range of different phenomena that affect the nature of unemployment. The following sub-sections discuss some of the causes of unemployment.

### **2.3.4.1 Closing down of socio-economic activity**

The clearest mechanism is the closure of an organisation, whether a factory or a whole company, office, school or hospital. Closure may not necessarily cause unemployment because in principle, employees can be moved from one site to another but it usually does. Unemployment can also be caused by the closure of part of a unit be it a hospital ward or part of a factory (Allen & Thomas, 2000:112).

### **2.3.4.2 Relocating socio-economic activity**

The relocation of activity can cause unemployment. Although there may be an overall global decrease in employment, this is hardly any comfort to those made redundant. Companies can threaten to move from one part of the country to another in search of cheaper costs. Companies can also threaten to move from one country to another in search of cheaper labour, better terms from governments and increased profits (Allen & Thomas, 2000:112).

### **2.3.4.3 Job search**

The process of job search provides a vital explanation for the existence of unemployment. Regardless of whether the person seeking a job is new to the labour force, a victim of a plant closing or a worker who wants to change jobs, imperfect information forces the job seeker to go from firm to firm in search of job openings, information regarding rates of pay, working conditions and the like (Kaufman & Hotchkiss, 2006:680).

#### **2.3.4.4 Outsourcing**

Another increasing process is the outsourcing of work from in-house to another company or individuals. This process is associated with lowering the quantity and quality of employment, by lowering the number of staff and by moving to part-time and to a temporary casual workforce. This phenomenon is happening all over the world but particularly where formal labour regimes give good conditions to employees (Allen & Thomas, 2000:113).

#### **2.3.4.5 Rigid wages**

Another major explanation for unemployment is the existence of downwardly inflexible money wage rates in the labour market. Unemployment caused by rigid wages is fundamentally different in that the basic problem is not imperfect information but an insufficient number of jobs for the number of people who want one. Should consumer spending in the economy decrease then firms will reduce the desired level of employment (Kaufman & Hotchkiss, 2006:686).

#### **2.3.5 Measuring unemployment**

Different sets of information can be used to measure unemployment - the census method, registration method, and the sample survey method (Mohr, Fourie & associates, 2004:562). These methods are further explained below:-

- The census method is concerned with the estimation of the population rather than obtaining information on employment and unemployment. The disadvantage of this method is that the focus of the census is on estimating the population rather than obtaining information about employment and unemployment (Mohr *et al.*, 2004:562).
- The registration method which permits people to register as unemployed hoping to find employment. One outstanding disadvantage with the registration method is that registration is voluntary. Only a small portion of unemployed persons take the trouble to register, especially those who are eligible for unemployment benefits (Mohr *et al.*, 2004:562).

- The sample survey method which is aimed at providing insights into and perspectives on the most imperative elements of a country's unemployment profile. The advantage of the sample survey method is that it provides insight into and perspectives on the most important elements of the country's unemployment profile (Mohr *et al.*, 2004:562).

Barker (2003:202) states that the unemployment rate (Ur) is the number of unemployed persons taken as a percentage of the total Economically Active Population (EAP), which includes both the employed and the unemployed. The unemployment rate is thus:

$$\frac{\text{Number of unemployed persons}}{\text{Total labour force (EAP)}} \times \frac{100}{1} = U_r$$

### **2.3.6 Dimensions of unemployment in South Africa**

The following section looks into the various dimensions of unemployment in South Africa.

#### **2.3.6.1 Unemployment by race and gender**

According to the Development Policy Research Unit (DPRU) (2009) the increasing rate of unemployment amongst the African population has been driving the increase in the aggregate unemployment rate. The broad unemployment rate for this population group has increased from 31.9% to 34.8% between 2008 and 2009. During the two years, the African unemployment rates were higher than the aggregate rates with a difference of more than 5% in 2009. The unemployment rates for the other population groups remained unchanged over the same period

The changes in the broad unemployment rates by gender suggest that males experienced a relatively large increase in the unemployment rate from 23% in 2008 to almost 27% in 2009 while the female employment rate has remained relatively higher at 33% in 2009. The gap between the respective unemployment rates for the genders has declined from 10 percentage points to 6% (DPRU, 2009).

### **2.3.6.2 Unemployment by age**

According to the findings of the DPRU (2009) youth unemployment remains a serious challenge in the South African labour market. The unemployment rate for those between the ages of 15 and 24 has increased by more than 6% to 56% while the unemployment rate for 25 to 34 year olds has increased from 31% to 33% between 2008 and 2009. Labour force participants who are 34 years of age and older did not experience any statistically significant changes in their employment rates (DPRU, 2009).

### **2.3.6.3 Unemployment by educational level**

An individual's level of education has always been a good indicator of his/her ability to find employment. According to the DPRU (2009) a relatively higher level of education did not necessarily shield individuals from job losses during the periods of 2008 and 2009. While those with relatively low levels of education (Grade 0 to 8) experienced a 3.2% increase in the broad unemployment rate, individuals who have completed grade 12 also experienced a statistically significant increase of about 3% in the unemployment rate. Those who have completed grades 9, 10 and 11 have continued to display the highest rate of unemployment at 37% in 2009 followed by those in grade 0 to 8 (33%) and those with a grade 12 qualification (30%), (DPRU, 2009).

Poverty and unemployment have an impact on household structure and composition. Poor households are characterised as being considerably large with large unemployment rates. Members of poor households are often discouraged and no longer make an effort to find employment (Keller, 2004:7-8).

The following section outlines the definition of a household and discusses some distinguishing features of poor households.

## **2.4 HOUSEHOLD**

This section take defines a household, the distinguishing features of poor households, the definition of a child-headed household, factors leading to the establishment of a child-headed household, difficulties face by child-headed households, consequences of child poverty and finally measuring child poverty.

### **2.4.1 Definition of a household**

According to the UN (2008) a household may be either: a one-person household which is defined as an arrangement in which one person makes provision for his or her own food or other essentials for living or a multi-person household that is to say, a group of two or more persons who make common provision for food and other essentials for living. The persons in the group may pool the income earned by each of them and may to a greater or lesser extent have a common budget, these people may be related or unrelated or constitute a combination of both related and unrelated. Foster, Makufa, Drew and Kralovec (1997:4) say a household is one or more people who share cooking and eating arrangements. The household head is the person primarily responsible for the day to day running of the household, including child care, breadwinning and household supervision.

Firstly, a household can be characterised as a unit that must have resources with which satisfaction may be pursued and these resources must be shared among the members. Secondly, the family as a group must have alternative ways of improving its well-being so that the choice exists. Without resources a household is not viable and dissolves, the members perish or joining other households that do have resources (Foster *et al.*, 1997:4).

### **2.4.2 Distinguishing features of poor households**

According to Downes (2010:4-5) poor households can be characterised in the following ways:

- Poor households are usually larger than non-poor households;
- Poor households are primarily female-headed and characterised by a large number of dependents such as children and the elderly;
- Poor households contain different generations of persons thus indicating some degree of inter-generational transfer of poverty;
- Poor households are subject to poor housing conditions with overcrowding being a problem and restricted access to public utilities;

- The unemployment rate is highest among members of poor households; and
- Poor households tend to participate more in the secondary or informal labour market (Downes, 2010:4-5).

The following section discusses child-headed and grandmother-headed households and the reasons for the prevalence of such households

## **2.5 CHILD-HEADED HOUSEHOLD**

According to the United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund (UNICEF) (2008) child-headed households are a growing problem for the reason that children have no one looking out for them and are therefore vulnerable. These children often have to drop out of school to work and have to worry about where their next meal is coming from.

### **2.5.1 Definition of a child-headed household**

This sub-section seeks to define the concept of child-headed households.

According to the Children’s Institute of UCT (2006) a child-headed household is defined as a household wherein everyone who lives there is younger than 18 of age, i.e. a child-headed household is a household consisting only of children who are under the age of 18. According to Maqoko and Dreyer (2007:723) the Constitution of South Africa defines a child as a person younger than 18 which means that the definition of a child-headed household is in line with the Constitution. Foster *et al.* (1997:4) argues that as a child household head reach 18 years of age, the household by definition becomes an adolescent-headed household.

### **2.5.2 Factors leading to the establishment of child-headed households**

According to MacLellan (2005:4-5) the establishment of child-headed households occur due to several factors, one being the lack of extended family members able to care for the children. Whereas there may be relatives able to take one child from the family, the desire for siblings to stay together may be so strong that they would prefer to care for themselves. Otherwise it may be that the relatives may

not be prepared to take in any children at all either because of lack of resources, or due to the stigma of AIDS, if the parents or the children were infected.

Moffett (2007:6) argues there are several other reasons why extended family members may be reluctant: firstly, because of migration to urban settings, families have become more nuclear. Secondly, due to a decrease in the financial resources, extended family members are no longer able to offer as much support. Thirdly, the belief in Christianity has decreased the number of polygamous marriages and therefore decreased the size of the family.

According to MacLellan (2005:4-5) other catalysts might include ethnic group, the children involved being from a mixed marriage or the parents may be in jail. Distance may be a barrier if the extended family lives far away, as the costs and uncertainty of beginning a new life in another province are prohibitive, especially as the family may be suffering from great hardship and will be unable to help.

Some orphaned children are often left with no choice but to live alone. Initially, these children live with relatives after their parents' death and many of them are ill treated during their stay with the relatives. Orphans are generally treated differently from other children in the household and are often denied the chance to play like normal children as they have to engage in household chores (Francis-Chizororo, 2007:14).

A child may assume the role of being the household head due to different circumstances. When one or both parents fall ill and in most cases due to HIV/AIDS related illnesses, children may be recruited to help with the various tasks for the household including caring for the ill parents. A child may be forced to assume a parental role to hide the parents' illness from outsiders. In this respect, because of the potentially secretive nature of such households, it may be difficult to accurately assess the prevalence of child-headed households (Moffett, 2007:4-5).

When parents become ill or die, the responsibility for the orphaned children often falls onto the surviving grandparents. However, these grandparents are sometimes ill or weak due to old age and the caretaking is reversed with the grandchildren caring for the grandparents (Moffett, 2007:4-5).

### **2.5.3 Difficulties faced by child-headed households**

Maqoko and Dreyer (2007:719) say that ill parents devastate children on a psychological level. This is intensified by the stigma and discrimination attached to HIV/AIDS. The following points elaborate on the struggles faced by these children:

- Economic hardships: with parents unable to work due to ill health and previous income spent on health care, children are forced to assume the adult role of supporting the family.
- Pressure to leave school: the pressure of having to care for parents and siblings while trying to earn an income can cause children to drop out of school, even while the parents are still alive. The pressure to abandon schooling increases when one or both parents die. Another factor with regard to this topic is that many children in child-headed households who attend school frequently are unable to pay school fees. It is difficult if not impossible for the children to be exempted from paying fees (Maqoko & Dreyer 2007:719). Rosa and Lehnert (2003:3) say cross-subsidising between government departments is absurd. Social grants from the Department of Social Development should be used for other basic needs and not school fees.
- Malnutrition and ill health: orphans and other affected children are more likely to be malnourished or to fall ill. Such children are also less likely to receive the medical attention and healthcare required. Poverty is the root cause of this vulnerability. But often being neglected and discriminated against by society, in some instances, are also contributing factors (Maqoko & Dreyer, 2007:719).
- Loss of inheritance: when parents die, orphans are often cheated out of property and money that legally belongs to them (Maqoko & Dreyer, 2007:719).

- Increased abuse and the risk of HIV: impoverished and without parents, to educate and protect them, orphans and other affected children encounter every kind of abuse and risk such as becoming infected with HIV themselves. Many are forced into exploitative and dangerous work, including exchanging sex for money, food, protection or shelter (Maqoko & Dreyer, 2007:719).

#### **2.5.4 Consequences of child poverty**

Children living in poverty suffer severe setbacks including low self-esteem and poor health. These children experience such poor health effects as disability and premature death. Children bear no responsibility for living in poverty, but these children are penalised not only in childhood but also later in life due to poor health and educational resources. A child's poverty status has a great impact on the future, for example, those who are poor are less likely to attend college and are more likely to be working in lower-paying jobs (Moore, Redd, Burkhauser, Mbawana & Collins, 2009:4).

Reducing child poverty is essential at all levels. At first glance, many see poor children as the only victims of poverty. However, in the long run the community, state and even the entire nation bear the cost of child poverty. Children in poverty are at higher risk of being unhealthy and uneducated. This may decrease the level of productivity (Moore *et al.*, 2009:4).

#### **2.5.5 Measuring child poverty**

Leatt (2006:21) states that given the fact that a significant number of children have unsatisfied needs of housing, education, safety and health, there is no doubt that an absolute and multidimensional measurement of child poverty is necessary for South Africa.

Leatt (2006:21) further emphasises the need for a model that starts from the perspective of children rather than families or households predominantly because some elements of poverty are child-specific, such as schooling, infant mortality or child development. There are many overlaps in the domains and indicators that are proposed to measure poverty for the general population and for children specifically. However, the child poverty measurements are designed to take into

consideration the child specific experiences or outcomes. Thus, while children may be living in households that are well-equipped materially, the very same children may be deprived of adequate care.

A model for measuring child poverty makes it possible to define 'poor children' as well as the more usual measures of 'children living in poor households'. The model below is multidimensional and includes elements of assets and income, services, care and abuse. Material deprivation includes household income, food and clothing. The human capital deprivation covers education and human capabilities. The human capital deprivation could include indicators of school attendance and the quality of education as well as the availability of early childhood development facilities and programmes. Living environment deprivation includes access to housing, sanitation and the availability of public spaces for children to play or socialise (Leatt, 2006:21-22).

**FIGURE 2.1 A MULTIDIMENSIONAL MODEL OF CHILD POVERTY IN SOUTH AFRICA**



Source: Leatt, 2006:22

## 2.6 GRANDMOTHER-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS

Households headed by a grandmother caring for a grandchild are becoming more common and this trend is occurring excessively amongst racial and ethnic minority groups in the United States. Grandchildren are often living with

grandparents due to the financial constraints and other problems encountered by the parents (Snyder *et al.*, 2006:4).

Households headed by grandmothers encounter a variety of economic hardships. Depending on the age of the grandmother, these households may depend on a variety of income sources, including social security, retirement income and earnings. Poverty among grandmother-headed households relative to other female-headed households with children will depend upon the accessibility of various types of income (Snyder *et al.*, 2006:4).

In addition to the economic hardships, finding or maintaining adequate housing is often a pressing issue for grandmother-headed households. Often grandmothers live in overcrowded housing conditions because they cannot afford a larger living space. Grandmothers may jeopardise the private lease agreements by housing additional people or they may be living in senior housing where children are not permitted (John Snow Incorporated, 2008:10-11).

According to Mudavanhu (2008:27) grandmothers are the most appropriate care givers for children whose parents had died or were unable to provide care. Grandmothers are also described as being experienced in raising children and are believed to share in equal measure the parents' interest and affection for children. Grandmothers are hardly obliged to compete with childrearing as they are described as being at home and available to provide childcare however there are situations where the role of the grandmother is not always freely chosen but is adopted because of familial expectations and cultural norms. Grandmothers also assume the surrogate-parenting role for their grandchildren, often under compulsion.

Mudavanhu (2008:28) further discusses that many African American families are against foster care placement and adoption outside the family as this violates family values and such options are resorted to when other options have been exhausted. Some grandmothers find themselves having to take on the responsibility of caring for their grandchildren although they were not prepared for the parenting role but they have to foster them for their welfare.

Pension income serves as the only means of income in many grandmother-headed households. Pension income is associated with increases in household size and changes in household composition with a larger number of children, especially those aged between 0-6 migrating to pensioner households. In some cases, the grandchildren residing with grandmothers earn child support grants. This enables the grandmothers to meet additional needs, including childcare needs of the household such as food, clothing and educational costs (Burns, Keswell & Leibbrandt, 2004:5).

## **2.6.1 Characteristics of grandmother-headed households**

Erera (2002:191) states that there are two characteristics of grandmother-headed households namely skipped generation families and developmentally off-time families.

### **2.6.1.1 Skipped generation families**

Families consisting of grandparents and grandchildren with parents absent from the home have been characterised as skipped-generation or missing generation families. These families have unique multigenerational patterns and family structures and can be compared with the “sandwich” generation in which middle aged daughters care for both the children and aging parents. Skipped generation families and the sandwich generation have the following common characteristics: the daily care is done almost exclusively by women; the added care-giving responsibility can negatively impact the caregiver’s employment and produce caregiver stress (Erera, 2002:191).

### **2.6.1.2 Developmentally off-time families**

From a developmental perspective, families headed by grandmothers are assuming parental roles off-time which means that grandmothers are unable to perform the expected roles fully due to the fact that the grandmothers may be going through certain developmental and ageing stages. During this period, grandmothers may experience role overload and stress which may hinder personal development. Grandmothers worry about the children’s financial wellbeing due to lack of income but some grandmothers welcome the idea of

parenting, nurturing family legacies through the lives of the grandchildren and receiving the love and companionship of a child (Erera, 2002:191).

## **2.7 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION**

The chapter attempted to cover the theoretical aspects concerning the study such as poverty, unemployment, child poverty and child and grandmother-headed households. These are some of the socioeconomic factors impacting and affecting the development of South Africa.

Poverty has been a part of many lives in South Africa. As previously defined, poverty is the lack of resources to satisfy basic needs. Chronic poverty traps such as insecurity, lack of citizenship, spatial disadvantage, social discrimination and poor work opportunities and a variety of causes of poverty have been discussed. The main characteristics of the poor that have been identified include income inequality, bigger household sizes compared to the non-poor and lack of assets such as human capital, decent housing. Female labour is also considered as poverty in some other countries.

The deprivation trap which is also known as the cycle of poverty was discussed. The different methods which can be used to measure poverty such as the Human Poverty Index, Poverty lines comprising of the PDL, HEL, SLL, MLL and the HSL are being used in South Africa to measure poverty but the main focus is on the HSL for this study. Other measures of poverty that have been discussed include income poverty and human poverty, the head count Index and the Poverty Gap. Poverty dimensions such as poverty from a gender perspective, geographic and demographic dimensions as well as the lack of power by poor people were also discussed and poverty reduction strategies outlined ways in which poverty can be reduced through the introduction of anti-poverty programmes.

An unemployed person is someone who has been actively looking for work for the previous two weeks, is waiting to be recalled to a job after having been laid off or is awaiting to report to a new job within four weeks. The characteristics, of unemployment such as the disparities in the unemployment rate across groups defined by age, race or experience, the high turnover in the labour market, the

cyclical of the turnover and the duration of unemployment were discussed. The causes which include closing down of socioeconomic activity, relocating socioeconomic activity, job search, outsourcing work from in-house to another company or individuals and the presence of rigid wages were discussed. The types of unemployment such as frictional, cyclical, structural and seasonal unemployment were outlined. The different measures of unemployment which include the census method, the registration method and the sample survey method were discussed. Lastly the dimensions of unemployment such as unemployment by race gender, age and education level were also discussed.

Poverty and unemployment have a considerable effect on a household structure. The term household was defined accompanied by the characteristics of poor households. For the purpose of the study, two types of households, namely child-headed and grandmother-headed households were discussed. Child-headed households which are as defined as a household wherein everyone who lives there is younger than 18 of age are a growing problem for the reason that children have no one looking out for them and are therefore vulnerable. These children often have to drop out of school to work and have to worry about where their next meal is coming from. Households headed by a grandmother caring for a grandchild are becoming more common and this trend is occurring excessively amongst racial and ethnic minority groups in the United States. Grandchildren are often living with grandparents due to the financial constraints and other problems encountered by the parents.

Poverty has dire consequences for those who are considered to be vulnerable such as children residing without parents and grandmothers caring for grandchildren. Orphaned or deserted children living in child-headed households can be considered to be poorer than orphans or abandoned children living with grandmothers due to the fact that these children have no adult care whatsoever and struggle to make ends meet where as children living in grandmother-headed households have the care of the grandmother who in most cases receives a pension to sustain a living.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **PROFILE OF THE POOR POPULATION OF SEBOKENG**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter discussed various poverty measurements with an attempt to quantify poverty in Sebokeng. The objective of this chapter is to profile the poor population in Sebokeng in terms of a number of variables. A profile is like a snapshot. It shows the characteristics at a point in time. An essential precondition to keep track of the changes in characteristics over time is a clear profile at a point of departure. It serves as a reference point to monitor the impact of poverty policies. In fact, poverty policies should be updated every given number of years (Sekatane, 2004:47).

This chapter analyses the profile of the poor population of Sebokeng with the use of survey data. A comparison will be made between Sebokeng and Bophelong.

The information for Sebokeng is analysed from household questionnaires administered in the area during July/August 2009 and the information for Bophelong is based on a study conducted in 2009 by Slabbert.

#### **3.2 DEMOGRAPHICS**

This section takes into account an array of indicators to create a profile of Sebokeng as well as to compare these with the Bophelong profile. This comparison is done in order to determine which of the two townships is better off. The population size of Sebokeng is estimated at 222 044 (Slabbert, 2005:16), which is greater than that of Bophelong of 37 779 (Slabbert, 2005:16). The number of households in Sebokeng is estimated at 48627 (Emfuleni Local Municipality, 2006/2007) compared to the number of households in Bophelong which is estimated at 12 352. Only 0,2% of the population of Sebokeng was interviewed due to the small percentage of child and grandmother-headed households.

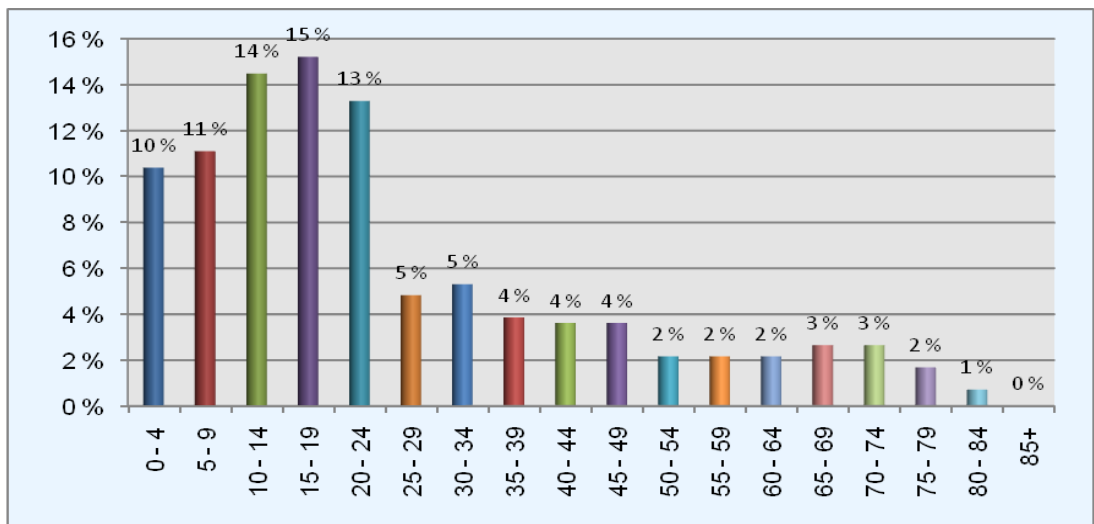
The average household size of Sebokeng is 4.2 members for the year 2009 compared to an average household size of 3.5 members for Bophelong for the year 2009 (Slabbert, 2009).

Dependency ratios are calculated by dividing the total number of non-income earners by the total number of income earners. The dependency ratio for Sebokeng is estimated at 4.2 for the year 2009 which is less than that of Bophelong which is estimated at 5.5 for the year 2009.

The demographics for the Sebokeng and Bophelong communities are analysed and compared in terms of the age groups of the population, the gender distribution, and qualifications of the post-school population and the average length of stay in the Vaal Triangle. The analysis is vital to indicate the similarities and differences between Sebokeng and Bophelong. Figure 3.1 below illustrates the age groups of the population of Sebokeng.

Figure 3.1 below illustrates that 15% of the population lies between 15 and 19 years of age while 35% of the population is 14 years of age and younger. For Bophelong, there seems to be a lower percentage (11%) of people between the ages of 15 and 19 years of age which is the age where people are attending school. From the Figure below it is clear that the population has a higher percentage of young people as opposed to Bophelong.

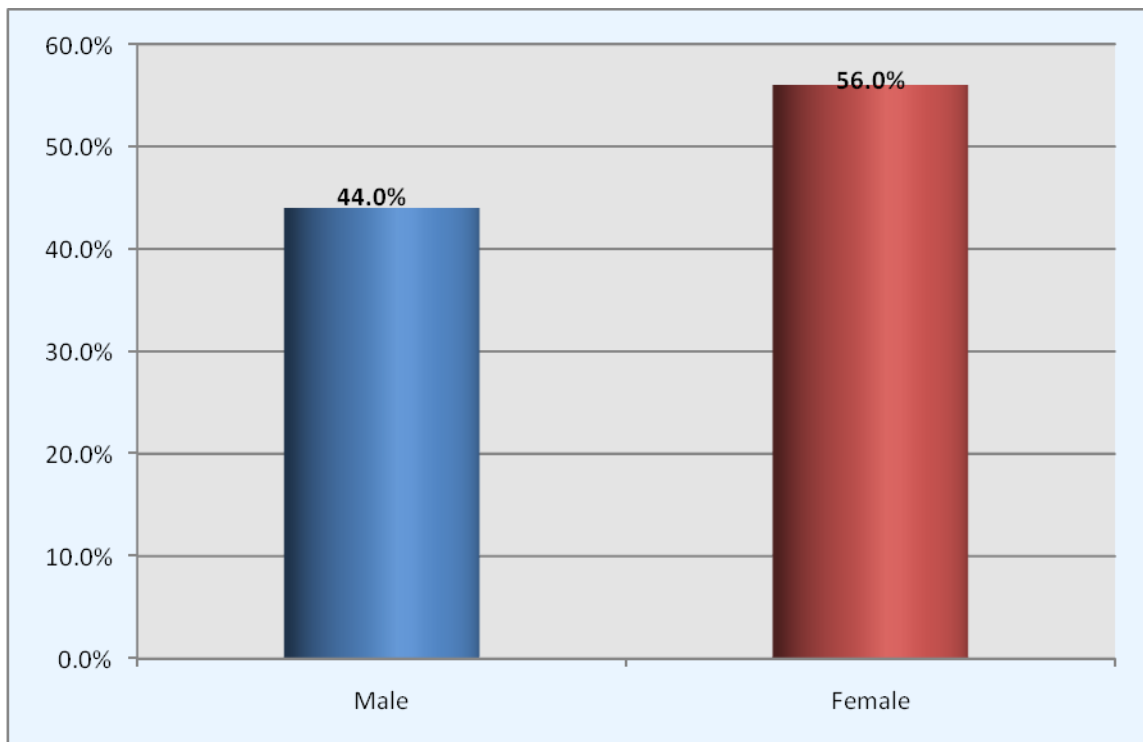
**FIGURE 3.1 AGE GROUPS OF THE POPULATION OF SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 3.2 illustrates the gender distribution of the population of Sebokeng. It illustrates that approximately 44% of the population is male and 56% of the population is female. The figures for Bophelong show that 46.4% of the population is male while 53.6% is female (Slabbert, 2009). The growth rate for females is lower than that of males. The figures for both Sebokeng and Bophelong are reasonably close showing a greater percentage share of females in relation to males.

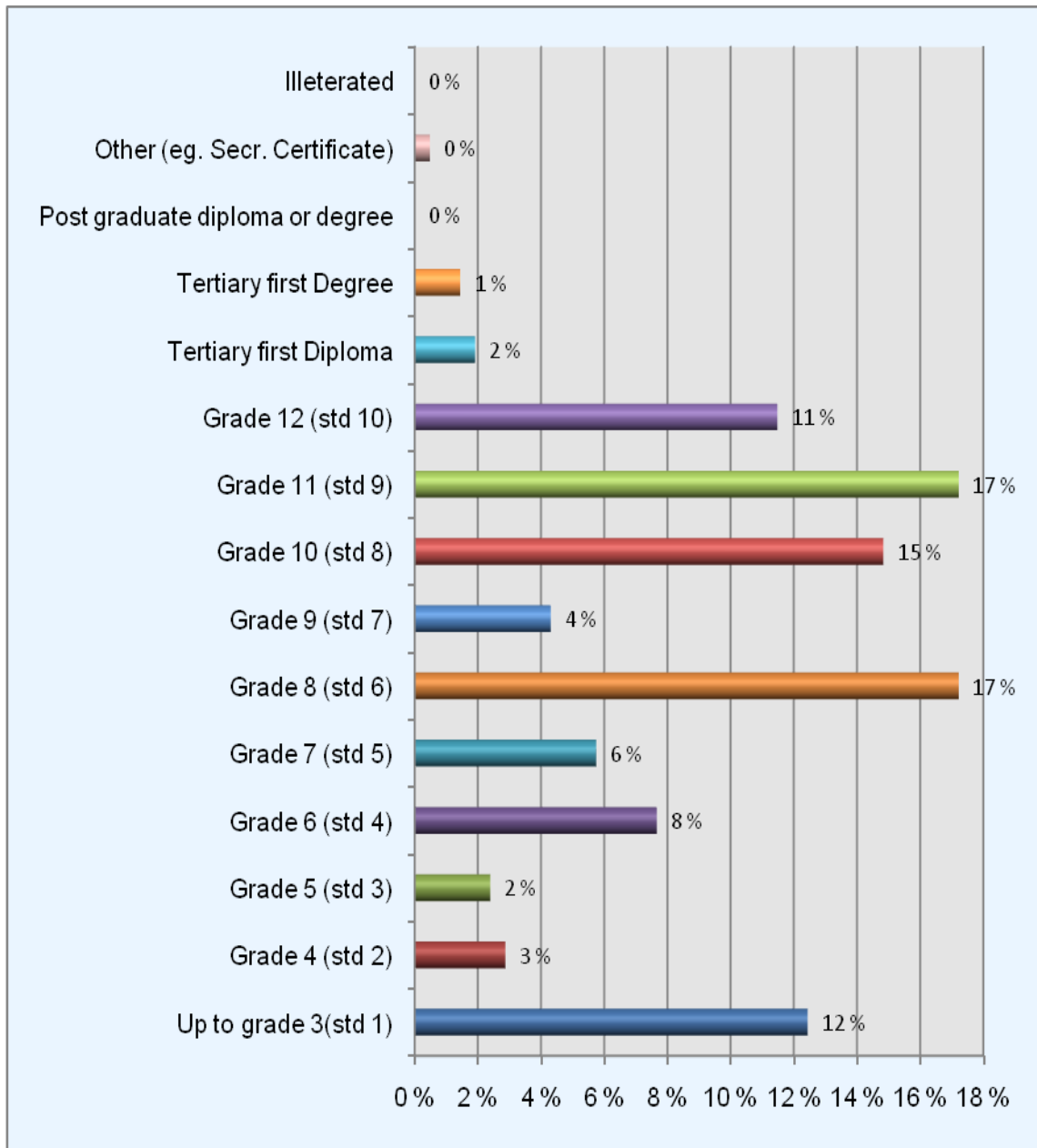
**FIGURE 3.2 GENDER DISTRIBUTION OF THE SEBOKENG POPULATION-2009**



Source: Survey Data, 2009

Figure 3.3 shows the qualifications of the post-school population of Sebokeng. The figure shows that 11% has a grade 12 and higher qualification while 80% of the population of Bophelong has a grade 12 and higher qualification (Slabbert, 2009). These figures indicate that the percentage of people with a grade 12 and higher qualification of Bophelong is 66% higher than that of Sebokeng. The illiterate category indicates a zero percentage for Sebokeng while Bophelong has 1% of illiterate people in the population.

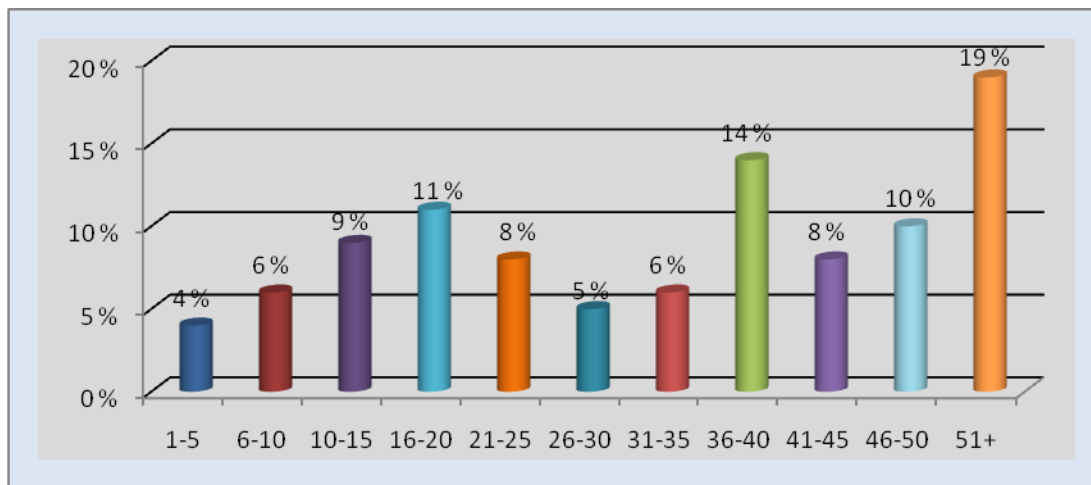
**FIGURE 3.3 QUALIFICATIONS OF POST-SCHOOL POPULATION OF SEBOKENG- 2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 3.4 below illustrates the average length of stay of the interviewees in the Vaal Triangle. An estimated 19% of the total population has been staying in the Vaal Triangle for more than 50; years this indicates that a significant percentage of people in the Sebokeng township have spent most of their lives in the Vaal Triangle. The figures for Bophelong are much lower at 7.8% for residents who have been living in the Vaal Triangle for more than 50 years. Sebokeng is thus more established than Bophelong

**FIGURE 3.4 THE AVERAGE LENGTH OF STAY IN THE VAAL TRIANGLE**



Source: Survey data, 2009

### 3.3 LABOUR FORCE

As discussed in section 2.3.5 above the unemployment rate is calculated using the formula below:

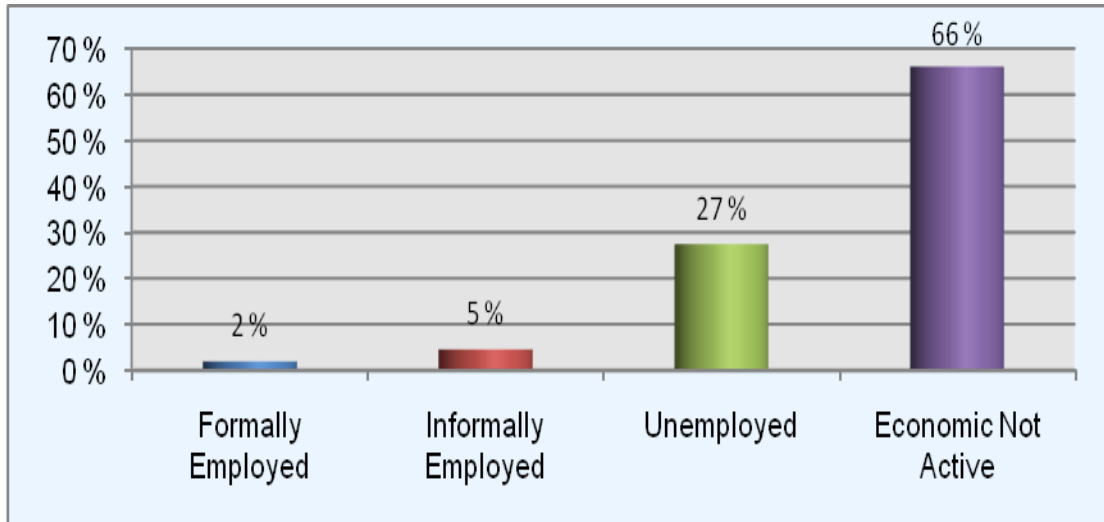
$$\frac{\text{Number of unemployed persons}}{\text{Total labour force (EAP)}} \times \frac{100}{1} = U_r$$

According to the Survey data (2009) the unemployment rate for Sebokeng is estimated at 27% which is less than that of Bophelong at 31% (Slabbert, 2009). The high unemployment rate of Sebokeng is due to the inability to find formal employment by adolescent residents who dropped out of high school and the previously disadvantaged adults who were unable to obtain tertiary education due to lack of funds. Figure 3.5 below depicts the employment status of the population of Sebokeng.

According to Figure 3.5, a total of 66% of the population of Sebokeng is economically inactive. This figure is greater than that of Bophelong which is estimated at 51%. Figure 3.5 also shows that only 2% of the labour force of Sebokeng is formally employed, while 5% of the labour force is informally employed. The labour force of Bophelong is estimated at 16% for those who are formally employed and at 3% for those who are informally employed. These

figures show the extent of unemployment in both townships, especially Sebokeng but Bophelong is somewhat better off with more formally employed residents.

**FIGURE 3.5 EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF THE POPULATION OF SEBOKENG-2009**



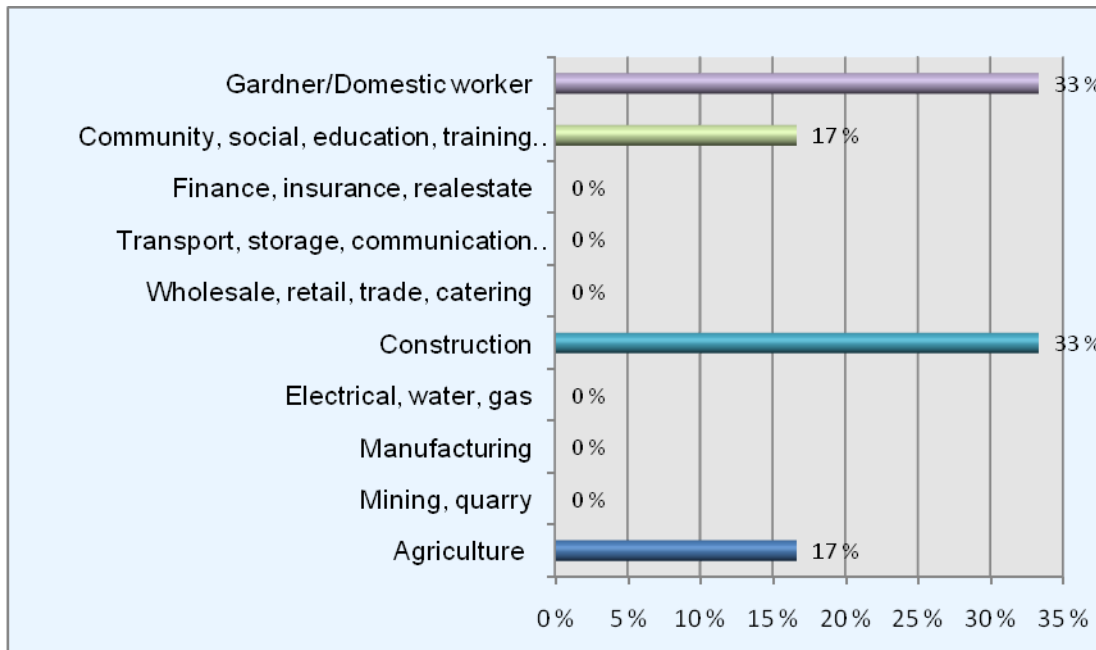
Source: Survey data, 2009

### 3.3.1 Profile of the employed

Figure 3.6 below illustrates the sectors in which the employed respondents of Sebokeng are working. Many of the residents have low paying jobs and this intensifies poverty. About 66% of the employed respondents of Sebokeng are employed as gardeners, domestic workers as well as construction workers. Those employed in community, social, education, training and personal services as well as in agriculture make up 34% of the labour force in these sectors. Residents of Bophelong who are employed in the construction industry account for 9% of the labour force which is far less than that of Sebokeng (Slabbert, 2009).

When taking into account the influence of the labour legislation on the working class in Sebokeng, the following information was obtained: no respondents reported that there was an increase in income as a result of minimum wages. About 57% of the employed population of Sebokeng believe that employers can afford to increase salaries due to minimum wages and 57% of the working population are working for fewer hours as a result of minimum wages (Survey data, 2009).

**FIGURE 3.6 SECTOR OF EMPLOYMENT FOR THE EMPLOYED POPULATION OF SEBOKENG-2009**

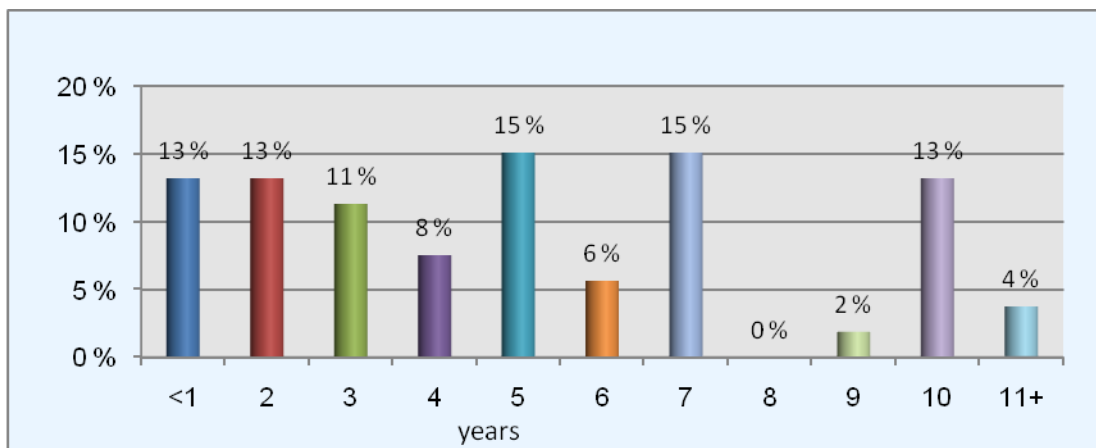


Source: Survey data, 2009

### 3.3.2 Profile of the unemployed

Figure 3.7 below illustrates the duration of unemployment of the unemployed population of Sebokeng. About 36% of the unemployed population reported that they have been unemployed for 5 to 7 years. The data for Bophelong indicates that about 24% of the unemployed population have been unemployed for 5 to 7 years and this is an indication that Sebokeng has a higher unemployment rate in comparison to Bophelong.

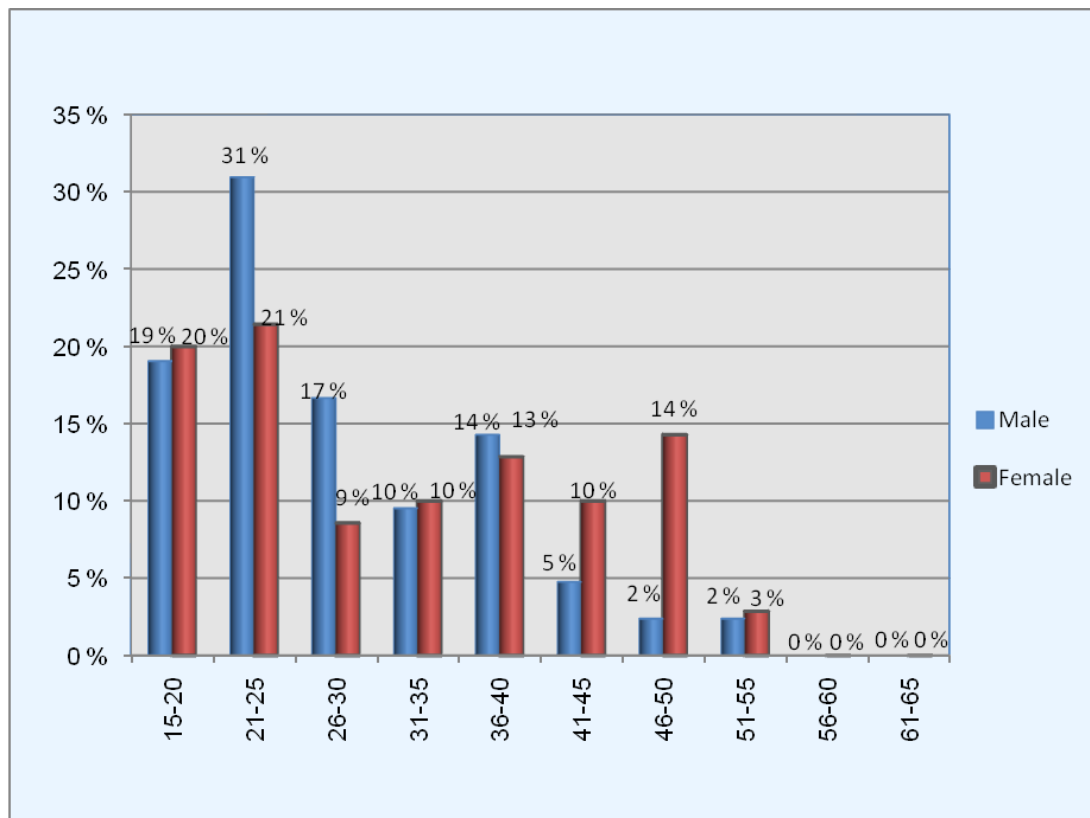
**FIGURE 3.7 DURATION OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 3.8 illustrates that unemployment is rife for both males and females aged between 15 to 30 years of age in Sebokeng. Males between the ages of 21 and 25 account for 31% of the unemployed youth population while females account for 21%. When looking at the data for Bophelong, it is evident that a similar situation of youth unemployment exists. About 30% of males in Bophelong aged between 21 and 25 are unemployed while the unemployed females aged between 21 to 25 years of age account for 23% (Slabbert, 2009).

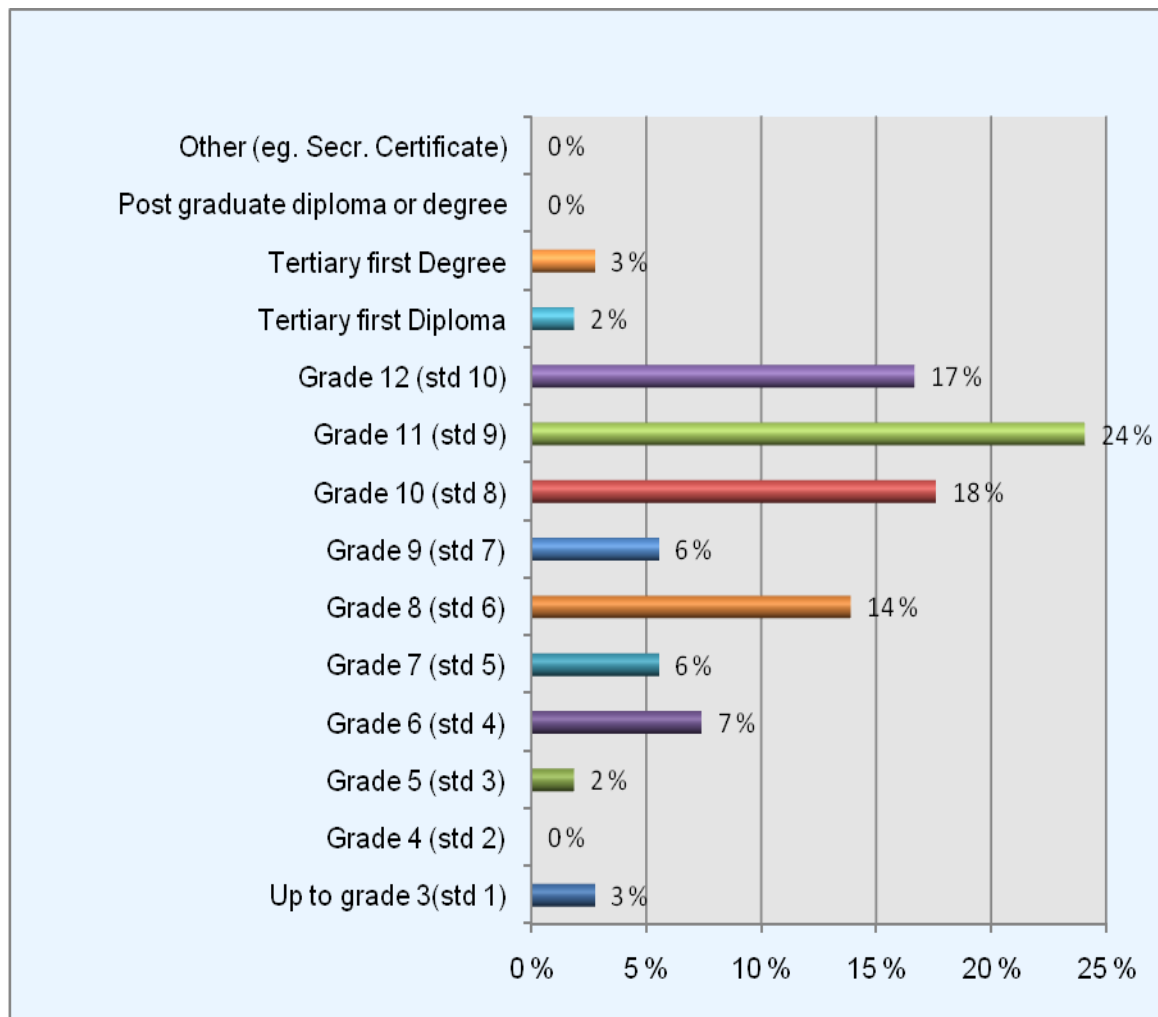
**FIGURE 3.8 THE UNEMPLOYED IN DIFFERENT AGE CATEGORIES IN SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 3.9 illustrates the qualifications of the unemployed. The data for Bophelong indicates that 31% of the unemployed population of Bophelong have a grade 12 qualification and higher (Slabbert, 2009) which is greater than that of Sebokeng (22%). The unemployed population of Bophelong with a diploma or degree accounts for 3% which is less than that of Sebokeng which stands at 5%. This indicates that the unemployed population of Sebokeng stand better chances of being employed unlike the unemployed respondents of Sebokeng.

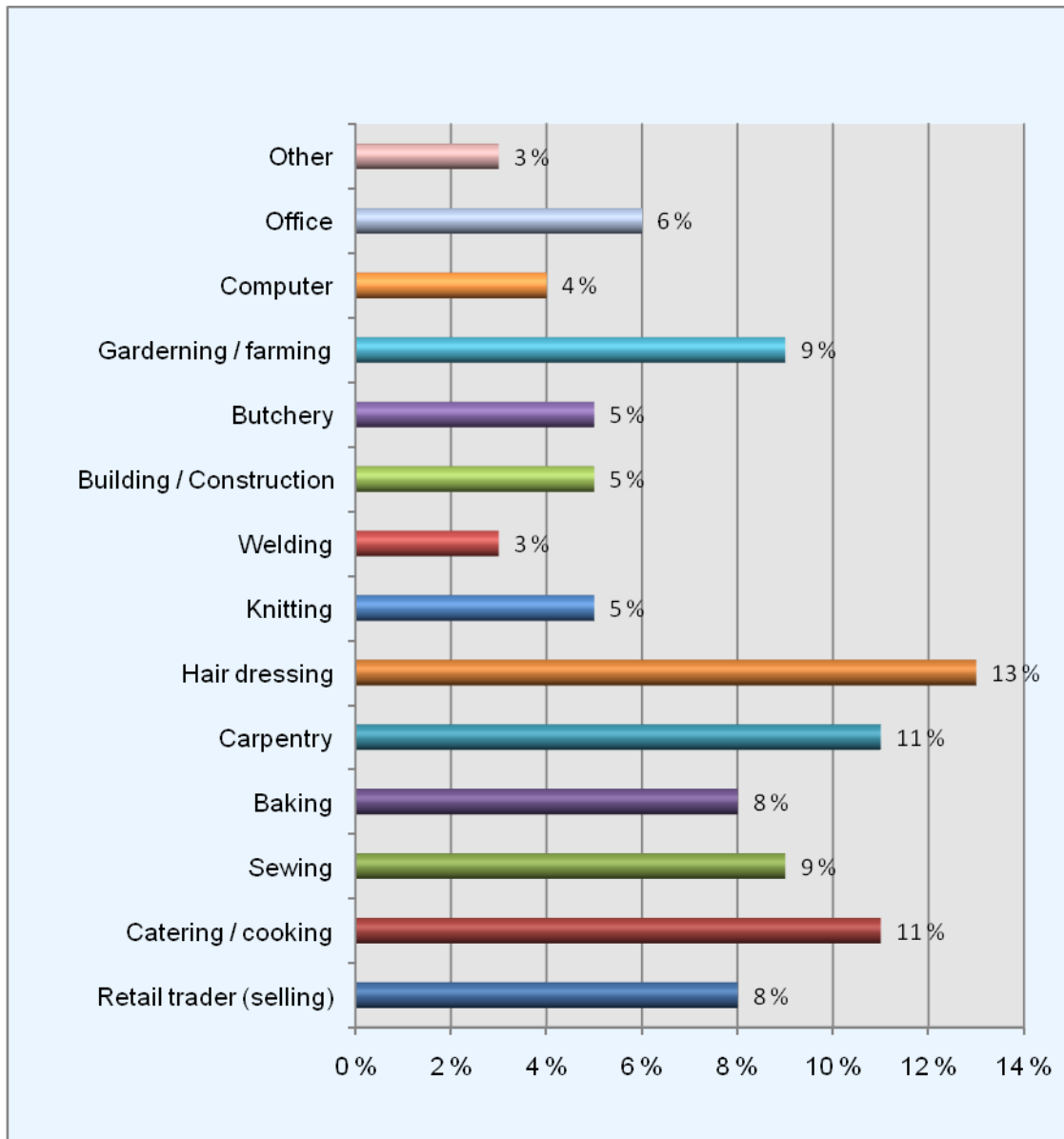
**FIGURE 3.9 QUALIFICATIONS OF THE UNEMPLOYED IN SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 3.10 illustrates the skills of the unemployed in Sebokeng. The highest percentage of the unemployed has skills in hairdressing (13%) while the unemployed population in Bophelong is more skilled in catering/cooking (28%). From a gender perspective, the skills which are mostly possessed by females in Sebokeng namely knitting, hairdressing, sewing and catering/cooking account for 41% (43% for Bophelong) while the skills which are mostly possessed by males in Sebokeng namely gardening/farming, building/construction, welding and carpentry account for 28% (15% for Bophelong). This thus indicates a difference in the skill distribution between the females of Sebokeng and Bophelong as well as the males of Sebokeng and Bophelong.

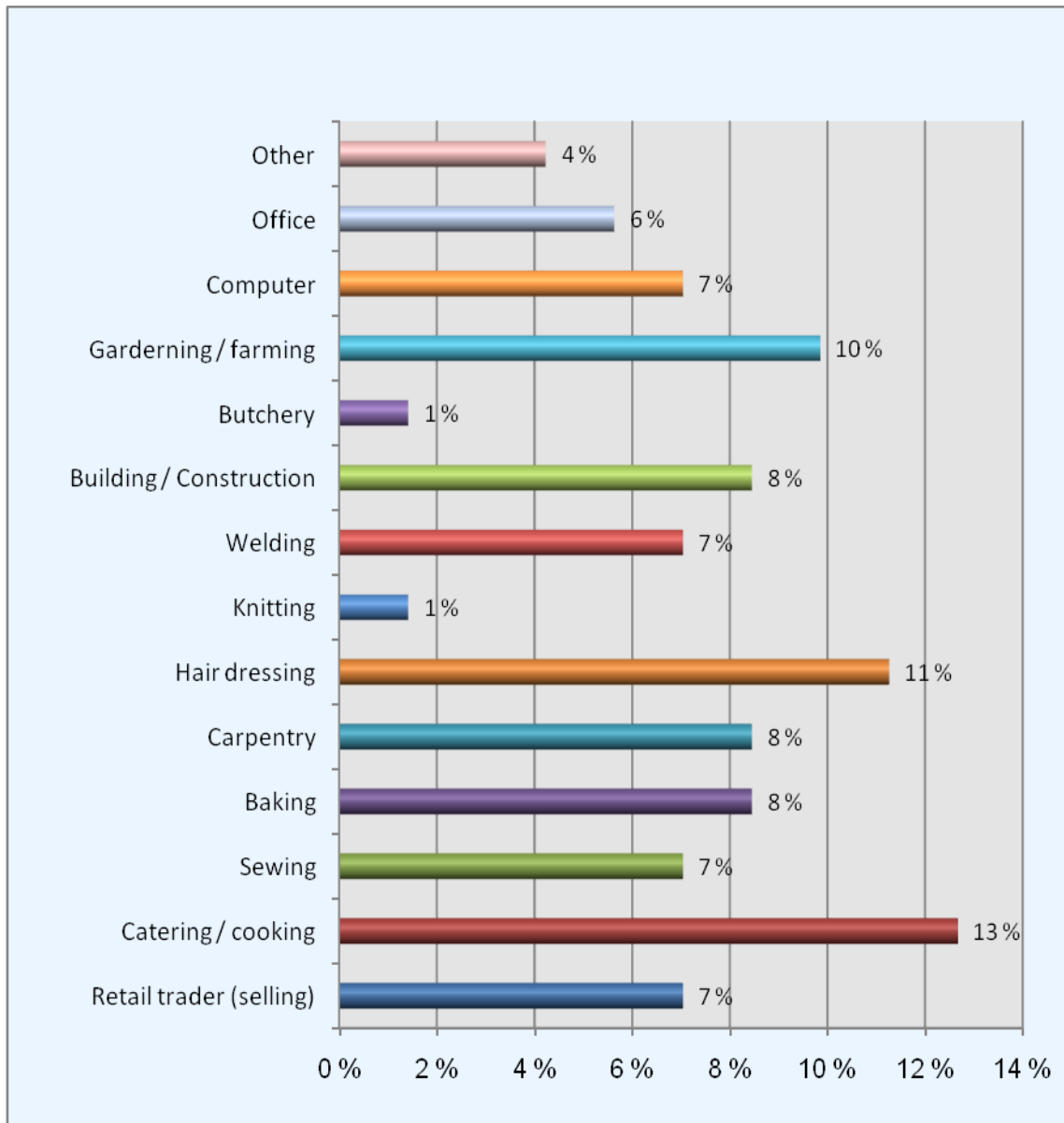
**FIGURE 3.10 SKILLS OF THE UNEMPLOYED IN SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 3.11 illustrates the skills training required by the unemployed which means the skills that the unemployed would like to be trained in. There are great similarities between Figure 3.10 and 3.11, in Figure 3.10 about 13% of the respondents have hair dressing skills while 11% have skills in both catering /cooking and carpentry. These figures are not too far from those of Figure 3.11 wherein 11% is interested in hairdressing, 13% is interested in catering/cooking and 8% in carpentry. In comparison, the population of Bophelong would rather be trained in catering (27%), other activities (17%) and retail trading (9%).

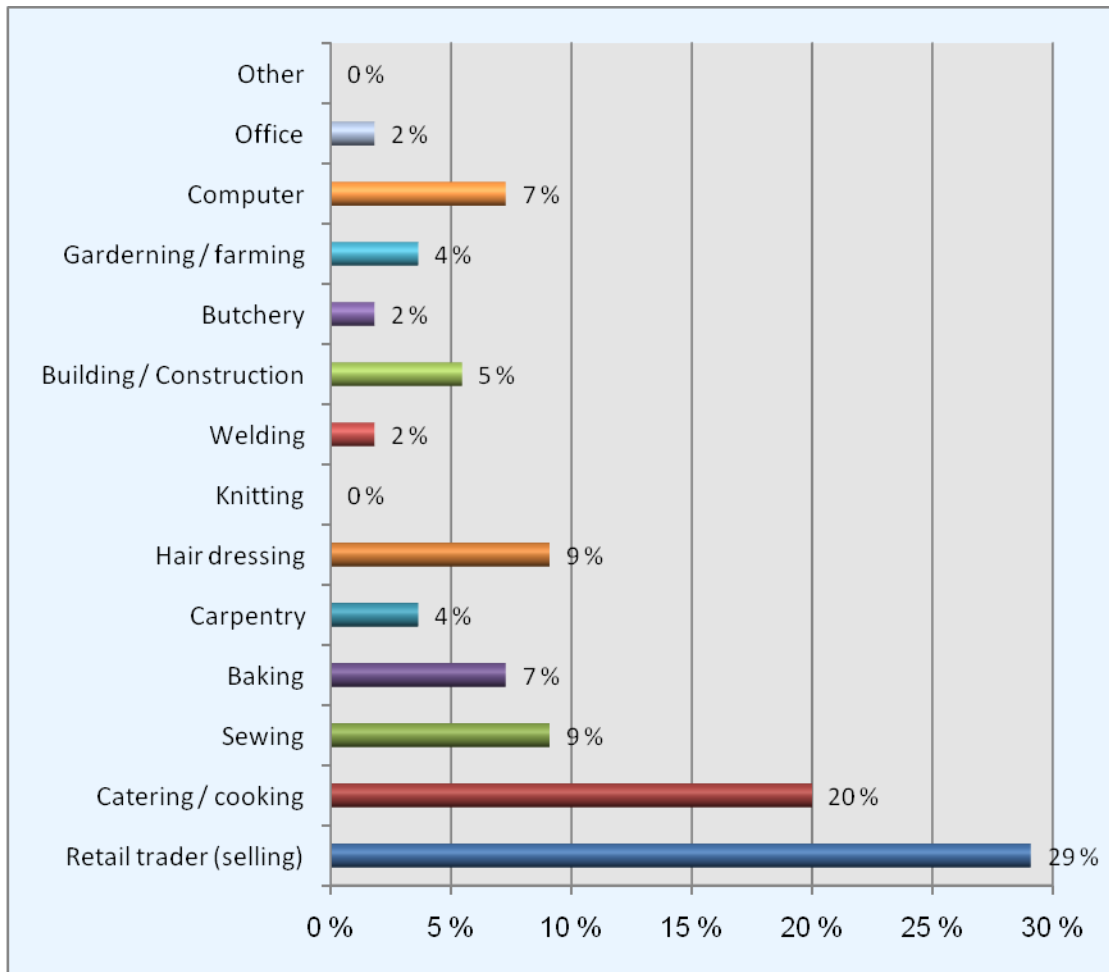
**FIGURE 3.11 SKILLS TRAINING REQUIRED BY THE UNEMPLOYED IN SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 3.12 illustrates the self sustaining activities that the unemployed would like to be occupied with. An estimated 29% of the unemployed respondents reported that they would like to become retail traders or sellers and 20% of the respondents, mainly females reported a keen interest in catering/cooking as a self-sustaining activity. In contrast, only 9% of the respondents of Bophelong reported an interest in retail trading/selling while 27% of the respondents were more interested in catering/cooking as a self-sustaining activity (Slabbert, 2009).

**FIGURE 3.12 SELF-SUSTAINING ACTIVITIES REQUIRED BY THE UNEMPLOYED POPULATION OF SEBOKENG-2009**



Source Survey data, 2009

### 3.4 POVERTY

As discussed in section 1.4.6, Poverty is defined as *the inability to attain a minimum material standard of living*. The standard of living is usually expressed in terms of household income and expenditure.

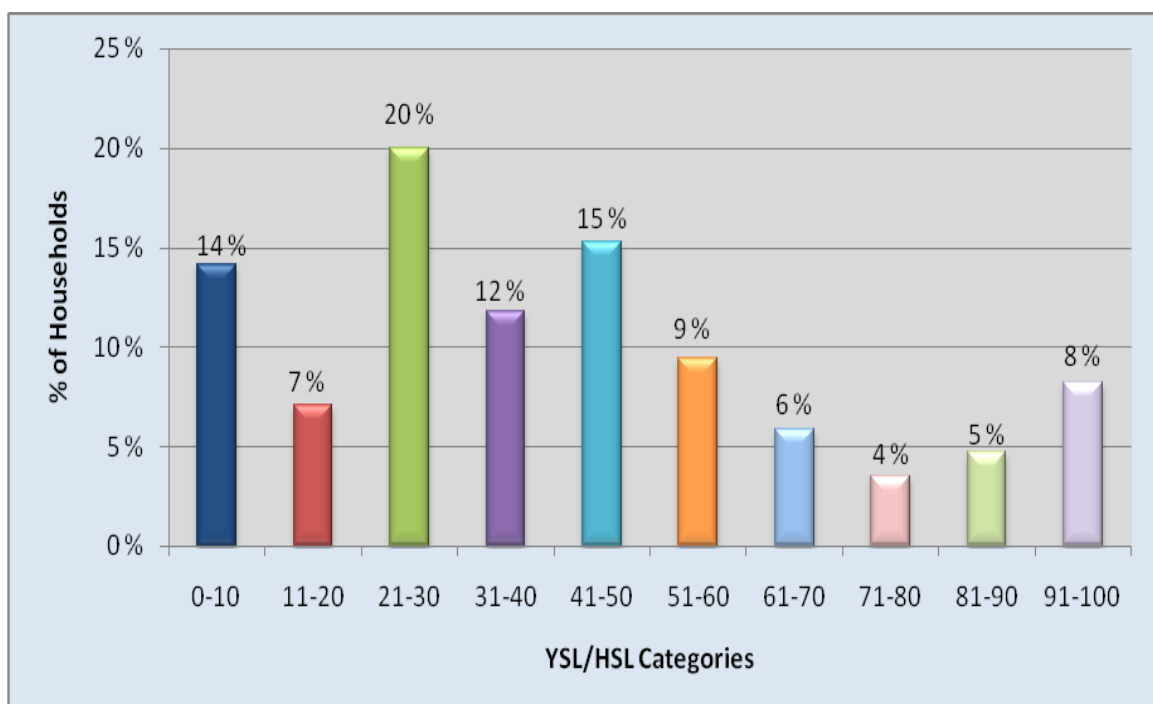
Poverty is measured in terms of the headcount index and the poverty gap index. As was previously mentioned in sub-section 2.2.5.3, the purpose of the headcount index is therefore to quantify the number of those individuals or households who fall below the poverty line. For the purpose of this study, the head count index is employed to indicate the fraction of households that fall below their individual poverty lines.

The poverty gap measures the average shortfall of the incomes of the poor from the poverty line while the poverty gap index measures the extent of the shortfall of incomes below the poverty line.

The headcount index as calculated from the Survey data (2009) for Sebokeng is 0.85. Therefore, 41 333 households out of 48 627 households in Sebokeng live in poverty. This means that 188 737 people live in poverty. The Poverty gap index is estimated at 0.59 which gives an indication that 59% of the poor residents of Sebokeng lack 59% of the total income to acquire their level equal to their poverty line. In comparison, the headcount index for Bophelong is 0.67. Therefore, 8 276 households out of 12 352 live in poverty which means that 25 312 people live in poverty. Poverty in Sebokeng is far worse than in Bophelong.

Figure 3.13 below gives the distribution of the poor households' income and as a percentage of their HSL. If a household income is above the poverty line, the household falls in the income/HSL category above 100%. An increase in the number of households below the poverty line indicates an increase in the proportion of the poor population (Sekatane, 2004:61).

**FIGURE 3.13 POOR HOUSEHOLDS AND THEIR HSL RATIOS IN SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

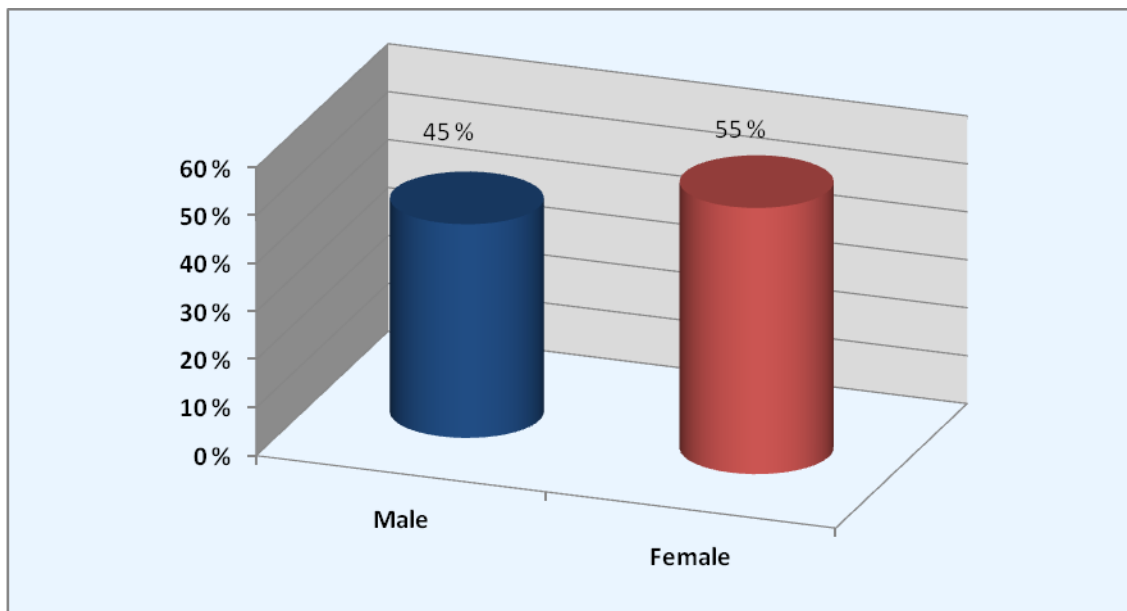
Slabbert (2003:13) points out that “if most households earn 90-100% of their own HSL, this would indicate that the poverty is not very severe”. In line with this assertion, Figure 3.13 shows that 15% of poor households in Sebokeng have an income of less than 50% of their HSL compared to the 14% for Bophelong

The poverty gap ratio is calculated at 0.59 indicating that on average poor households’ lack 59% of the income to attain a level equal to their poverty line. This is greater compared to the figure of Bophelong which stands at 49%, therefore the depth of poverty in Sebokeng is much greater than that of Bophelong.

### 3.4.1 Profile of the poor

The purpose of this section is to analyse that part of the population that has been found to be in poverty and to differentiate the poor from the non-poor in Sebokeng township.

**FIGURE 3.14 GENDER DISTRIBUTION OF THE POOR POPULATION OF SEBOKENG-2009**



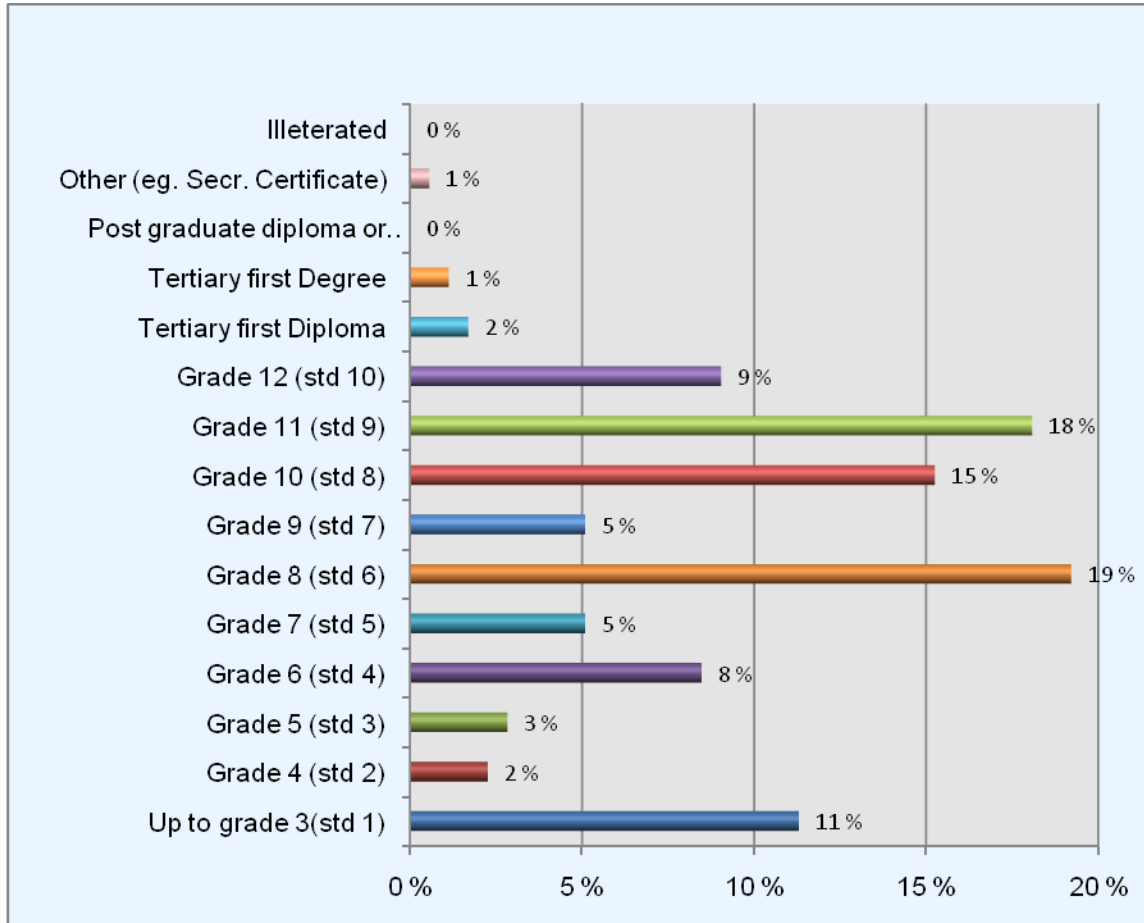
Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 3.14 above illustrates the gender distribution of the poor in Sebokeng. About 45% of the poor population is male and 55% is female while 44% of the total population is male and 56% is female. The information for Bophelong

indicates that 45% of the poor population are male while 55% are female, similar to the Sebokeng data (Slabbert, 2009).

Figure 3.15 below illustrates the qualifications of the post-school poor population of Sebokeng.

**FIGURE 3.15 QUALIFICATIONS OF THE POOR POST- SCHOOL POPULATION OF SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

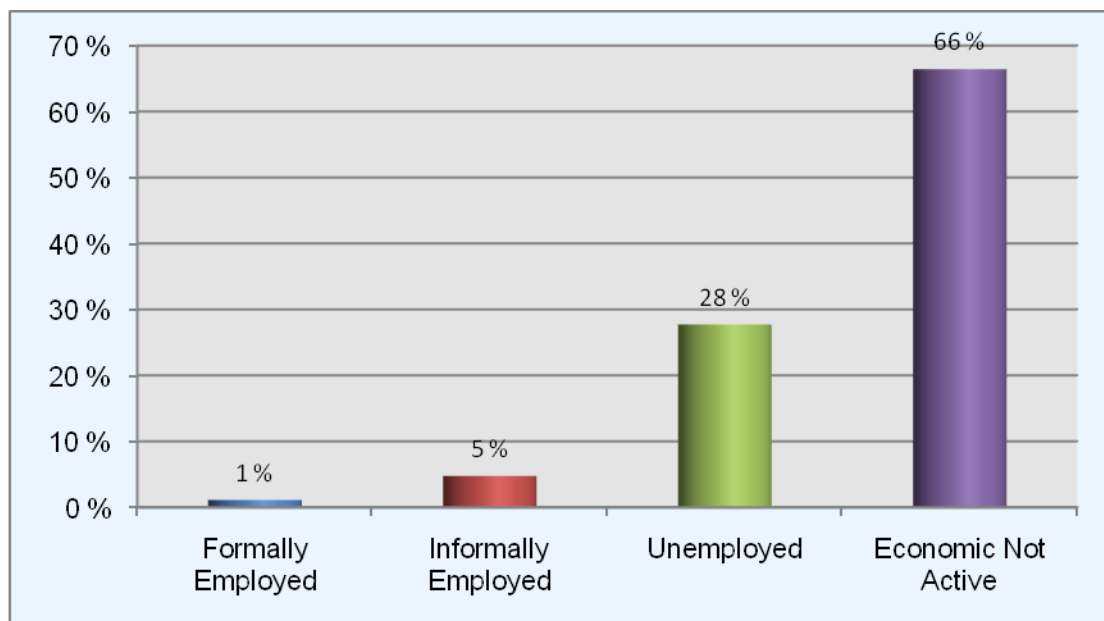
According to the Survey data (2009) the poor respondents who have a grade 12 qualification and higher account for 13% of the total poor population which is far less of that of the total population (estimated at 14%). The data for the poor population of Bophelong show that respondents possessing a grade 12 and higher qualification account for 78% (similar to that of the population as a whole) which is far more than that of Sebokeng. This serves as an indication that the poor respondents of Bophelong have better chances of being employed than

their Sebokeng counterparts. This serves as an indication that lack of further education may be one of the causes of poverty, especially in Sebokeng.

### 3.4.2 Profile of the poor employed

Figure 3.16 below illustrates the employment status of the poor population of Sebokeng. Only 1% of the poor population is formally employed which is close to the percentage of the population as a whole (2%). The poor population of Bophelong is better off with 11% of the poor respondents being formally employed which is slightly less than that of the population as a whole (14%). When comparing the unemployment status of the poor population of the two townships, Sebokeng has a lower percentage of poor unemployed residents (28%) unlike that of Bophelong which stands at 35% (Slabbert, 2009).

**FIGURE 3.16 EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF THE POOR POPULATION OF SEBOKENG-2009**



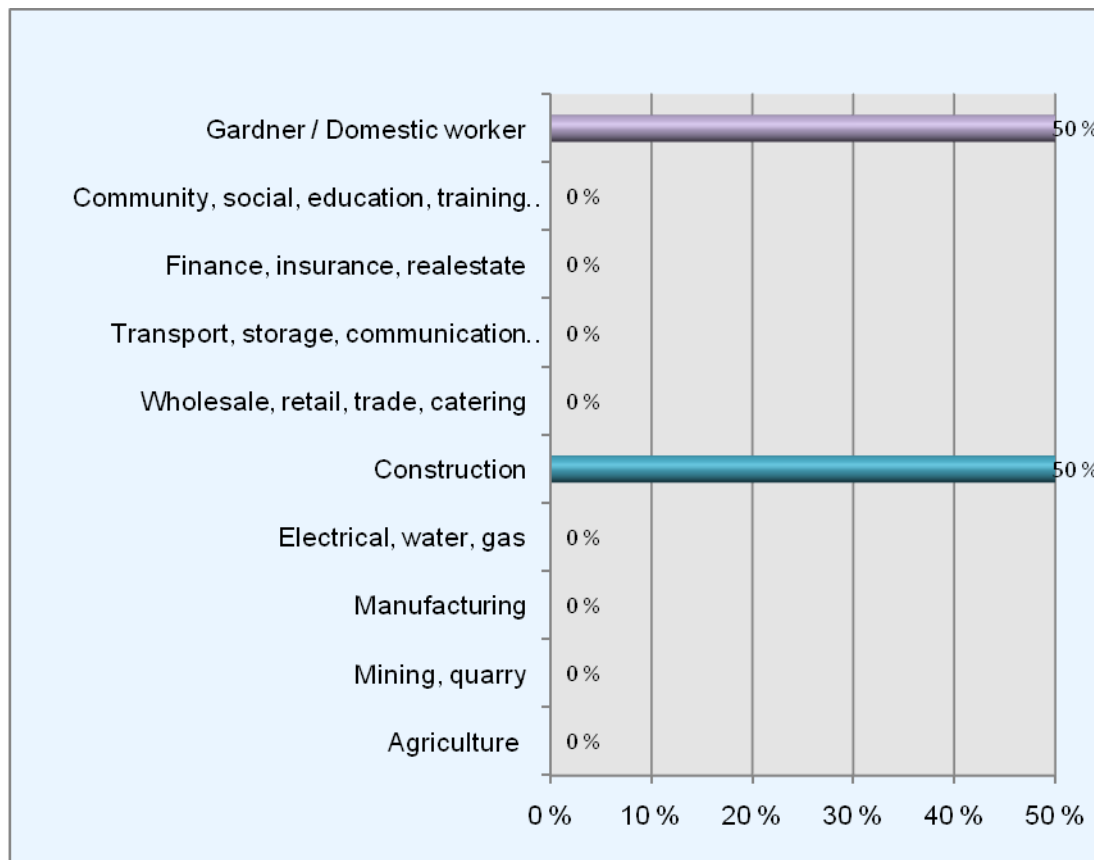
Source: Survey data, 2009

With regards to informal employment, only 5% of the respondents of the poor population of Sebokeng reported to be informally employed and this percentage is similar to that of the total population. Only 3% of the poor population of Bophelong reported to be informally employed with a similar percentage to the population as a whole. About 66% of the residents of Sebokeng are economically not active while the figure for Bophelong is lower at 51%. The higher percentage

of Sebokeng serves as a reflection of the high unemployment rate among the poor.

Figure 3.17 below illustrates the sectors where the poor employed are occupied. The poor employed gardeners/domestic workers account for 50% which is far greater than that of the population as a whole (33%). On the other hand, 50% of the poor employed population reported to be employed in the construction industry and this figure is greater than that of the population as a whole sitting at 33%.

**FIGURE 3.17 SECTORS OF EMPLOYMENT OF THE POOR POPULATION OF SEBOKENG**



Source: Survey data, 2009

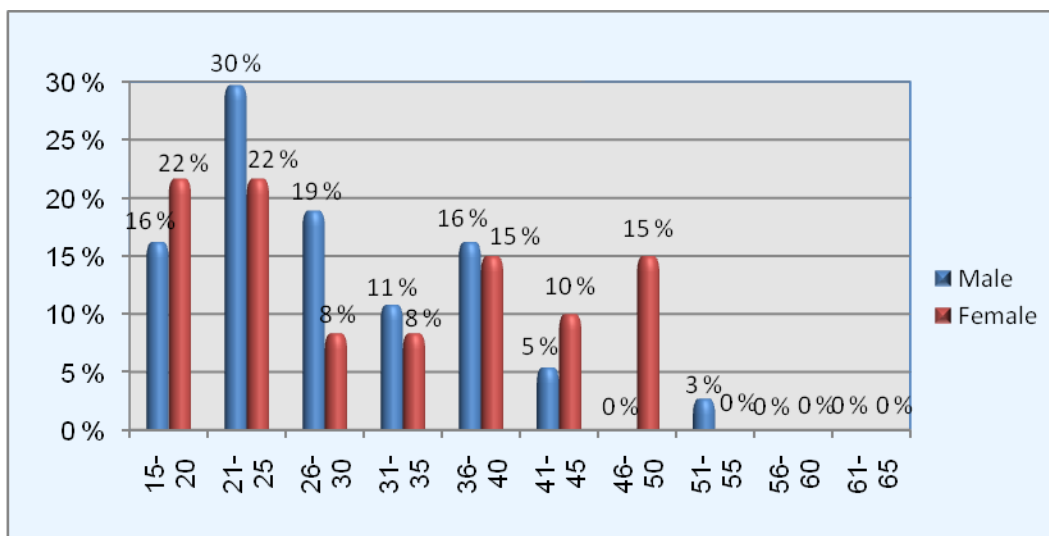
The data for Bophelong indicates that only 9% of the poor population is employed in the construction industry while those employed as gardeners/domestic workers form part of the “other” category of 37% according to Slabbert’s data (2009). With the respondents of Bophelong employed in better sectors which is reflected in the low percentages as already mentioned for

construction and gardener/domestic worker, it shows that respondents of Sebokeng earn far less than those of Bophelong due to being employed in low income sectors.

### 3.4.3 Profile of the poor unemployed

Figure 3.18 below depicts the unemployed poor in terms of age and gender. As shown in the figure, the youth are the ones hardest hit by unemployment. About 38% of poor females aged between 21 and 35 years of age are unemployed (less than that of the population as a whole), while 60% of poor males aged between 21 and 35 years of age are unemployed (less than that of the total population as a whole).

**FIGURE 3.18 AGE AND GENDER PROFILE OF THE UNEMPLOYED POOR**



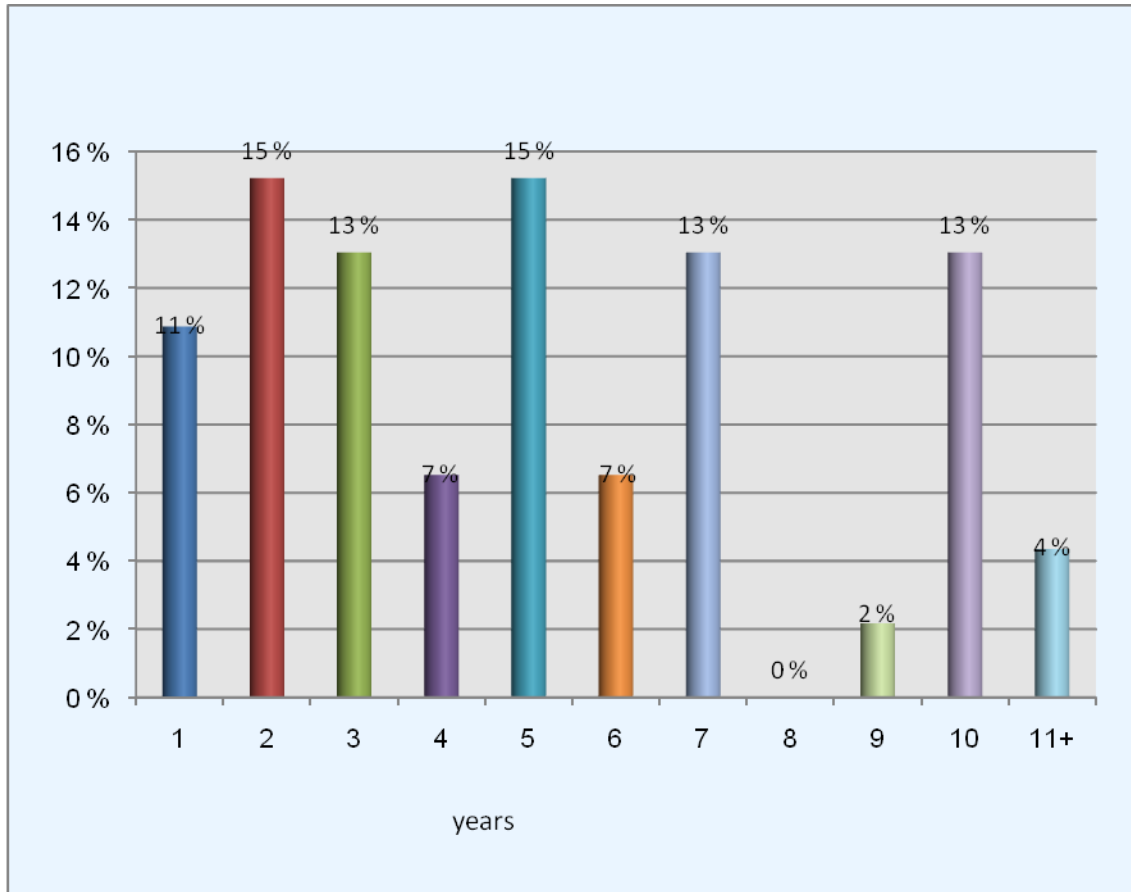
Source: Survey data, 2009

For Bophelong, about 90.9% of poor females aged between 21 and 35 are unemployed while 93.2% of males aged between 21 and 35 years of age are unemployed in Sebokeng. The percentage of unemployed young people in Sebokeng may be due to incomplete schooling as most of the poor young people do not have a grade 12 qualification, to say the least.

Figure 3.19 depicts the duration of unemployment of the poor population. The figures in Figure 3.6 for the duration of unemployment of the population as a whole is closely related to the information on Figure 3.19 where people

unemployed for 5 years account for 61% of the total poor population while the poor population of Bophelong who have been unemployed for 5 years make up 64% of the total population (Slabbert, 2009).

**FIGURE 3.19 DURATION OF UNEMPLOYMENT FOR THE POOR**

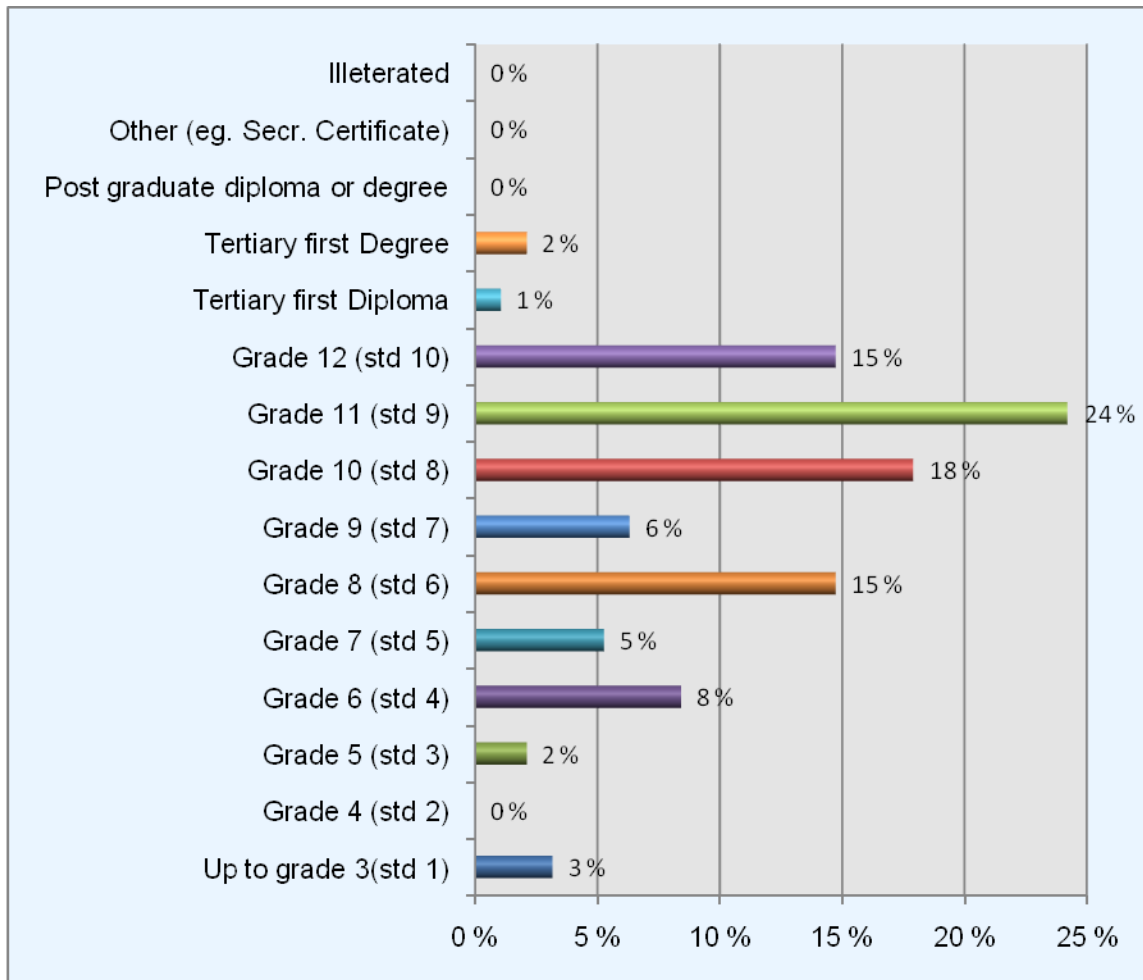


Source: Survey data, 2009

Therefore the residents of Bophelong are unemployed for shorter periods than those of Sebokeng and this may be due to the high percentage (about 83% which is higher than that of Sebokeng sitting at 43%) of those who are actively looking for employment and who eventually find employment.

Figure 3.20 depicts the qualifications of the poor unemployed. Only 18% of the poor unemployed population have a grade 12 qualification and higher while only 4% of the respondents in Bophelong have a grade 12 qualification and higher. Sebokeng has a bigger unemployed qualified poor population than that of Bophelong.

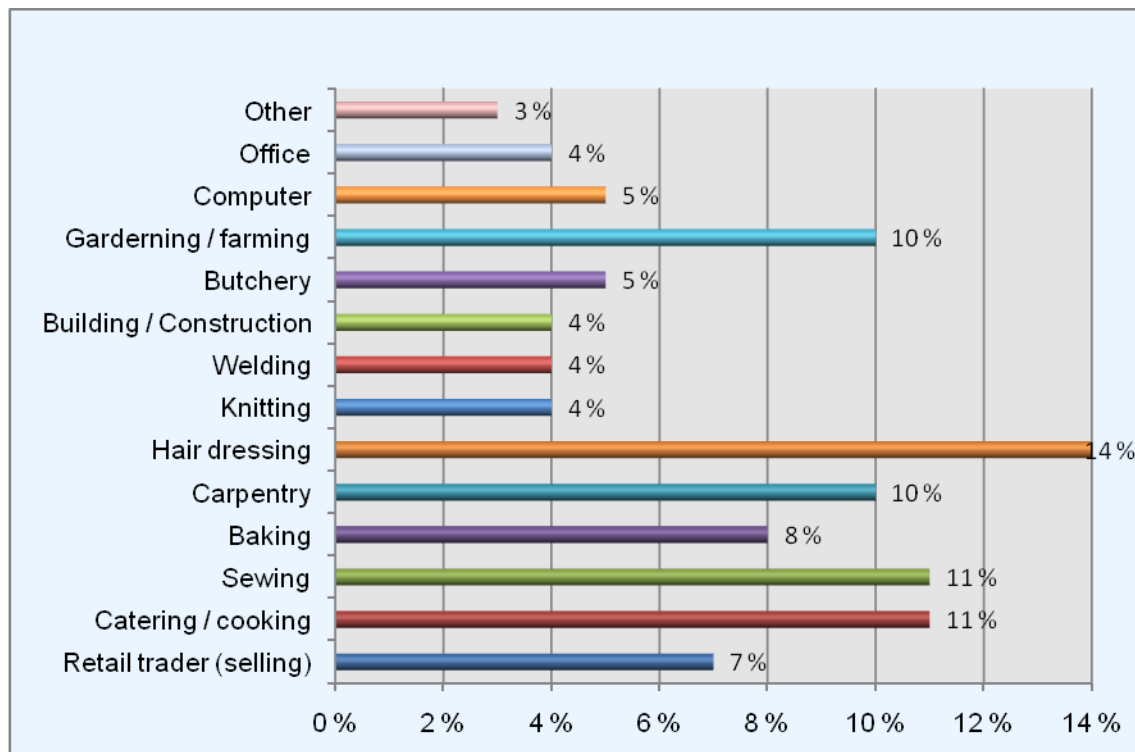
**FIGURE 3.20 QUALIFICATIONS OF THE UNEMPLOYED POOR POPULATION OF SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 3.21 depicts the skills of the unemployed poor. The figures for the non-poor and the poor are similar in that more respondents appear to be more skilled in the hairdressing industry (about 14% as shown in the Figure 3. 21). The female dominant skills with each accounting for 11% of the skills possessed by the poor population, hairdressing appears to be more dominant of these. A need for training in these fields thus exists in order to alleviate poverty. There is also a need to invest in training for those skilled as gardeners and carpenters (both accounting for 10% of the poor population) as a form of poverty alleviation. In comparison, the poor population of Bophelong seem to be more skilled in catering/cooking (accounting for 25%) which is a female dominant skill, while males who possess gardener/farming and carpentry (accounting for 7% and 2% are respectively less than those of Sebokeng.

**FIGURE 3.21 SKILLS OF THE UNEMPLOYED POOR POPULATION OF SEBOKENG-2009**



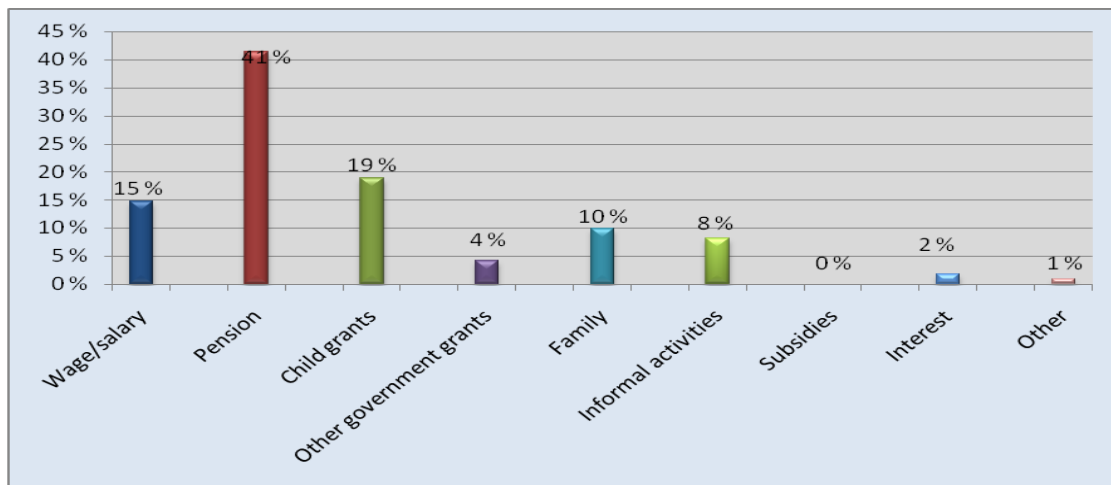
Source: Survey data, 2009

### 3.5 INCOME AND EXPENDITURE

This section examines the state of income and expenditure in Sebokeng. Although much care was taken to solicit as much information as possible on the different incomes and income sources, the income phenomenon of expenditure surplus was observed in the survey for many households. This happens when expenditure exceeds income. The reason for this may lie in the fact that some households tend not to declare some income especially if the source of income is suspect (for example, income gained through illegal means) but will more readily declare expenditures (Sekatane, 2004:71).

The average household income for 2009 in Sebokeng is estimated at R1 187.85 while that of Bophelong was estimated at R2 214.24 (Slabbert, 2009) and this indicates that Bophelong has higher incomes per households in comparison to Sebokeng.

**FIGURE 3.22 PERCENTAGE CONTRIBUTION OF DIFFERENT SOURCES TO HOUSEHOLD INCOME**

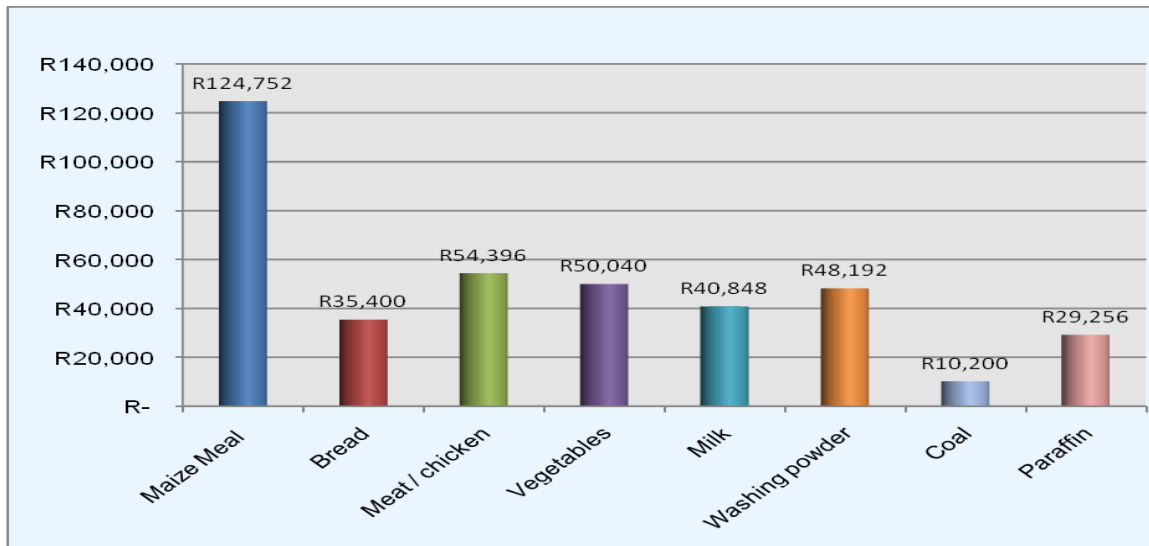


Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 3.22 above illustrates the various sources of income and contribution to the total household income of Sebokeng. The wages/salary category stands at 15% while the percentage of respondents of Bophelong who earn income from the same category stand at 69%. Therefore the respondents of Bophelong have wages and salaries as the most vital source of income while only a small percentage depend on pension income to sustain everyday living. For Sebokeng, pension income is the most prominent source of income accounting for 41% of the total household income of Sebokeng.

Figure 3.23 illustrates the annual expenditure by the respondents of Sebokeng on necessities. The population of Sebokeng spend R124 752 per year on maize meal. An estimated amount of R2 950 is spent on bread on per month (R35 400 per year). About R4 533 is spent on meat per month (R54 396 per year). About R4 170 is spent on vegetables per month (R50 040 per year), R3 404 on milk per month, (R40 848 per year), R4 016 on washing powder per month (R48 192 per year), R850 on coal per month (R10 200 per year) and R2 438 is spent on paraffin (R29 256 per year). The expenditure on these goods in Bophelong is much higher than in Sebokeng, this could be due to the lower unemployment rate in comparison to Sebokeng. The highest items of expenditure are maize meal and meat and this obviously means that these food items can be classified as staple foods for Bophelong.

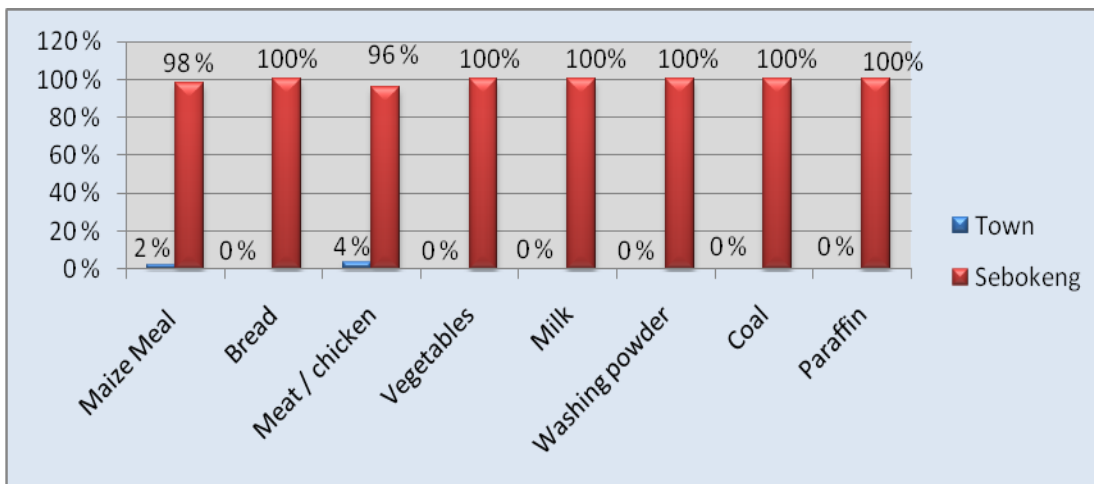
**FIGURE 3.23 ANNUAL EXPENDITURE SPENT BY HOUSEHOLDS ON DIFFERENT ITEMS IN SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 3.24 illustrates the place where the expenditure items discussed in Figure 3.23 are bought. The respondents prefer to buy most of the product in Sebokeng and a small exception can be made for maize meal and chicken where a small percentage of the residents prefer to buy these items in town. These figures are similar to those of Bophelong although 46% of the residents prefer to buy washing powder in town (Slabbert, 2009). Sebokeng boasts two competitive shopping malls which make life easier for the residents and this has enabled the residents to save more on transport costs to town.

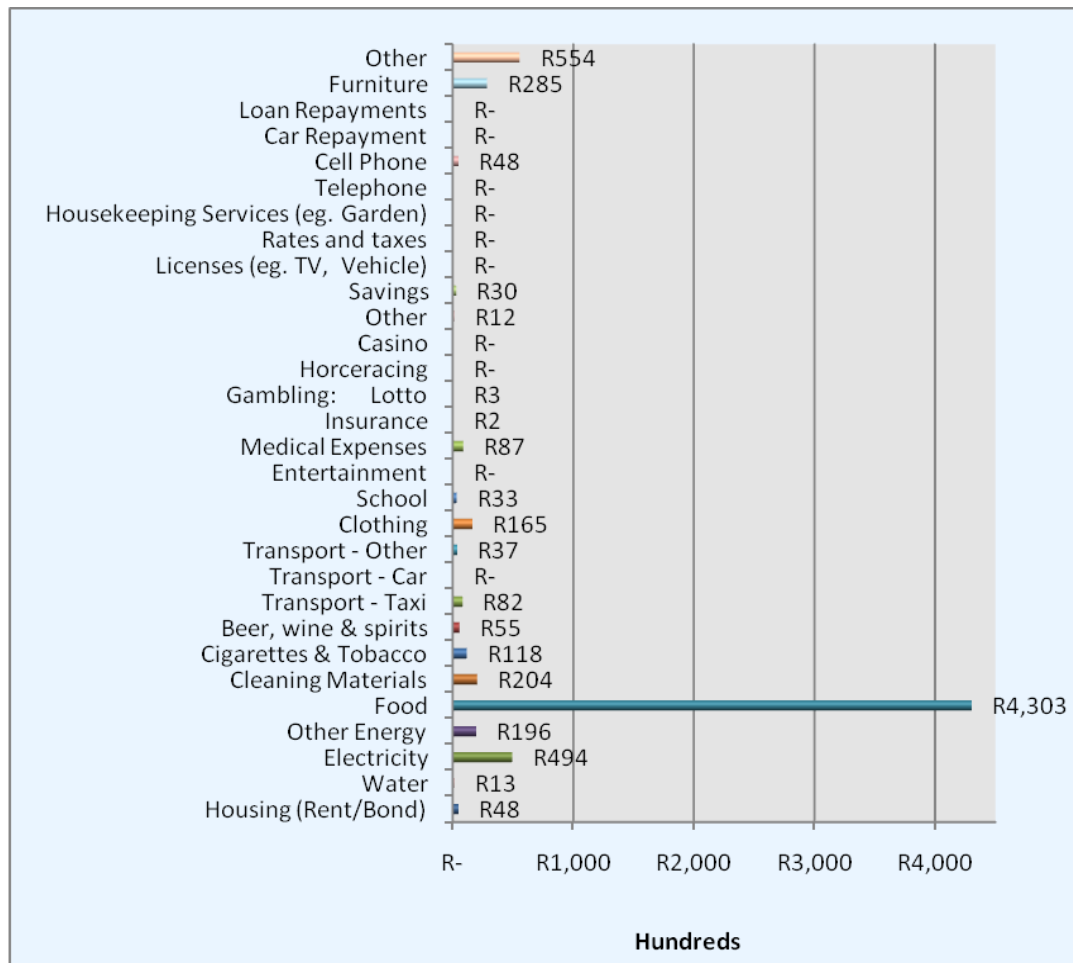
**FIGURE 3.24 PLACE WHERE HOUSEHOLD ITEMS ARE BOUGHT IN SEBOKENG- 2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 3.25 below illustrates the average expenditure of households.

**FIGURE 3.25 HOUSEHOLD EXPENDITURE IN SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

As shown in the Figure, the biggest expenditure item is food (R 4 303 per month). Many of the respondents reported that because of the large household size, the greater proportion of the income is spent on food. The other category comes in second with an expenditure of (R554 per month), with electricity being the third biggest expenditure item (R494 per month). For Bophelong, just like Sebokeng food is also the number one expenditure item (R500 per month) serving as an indication of the prevalence and extent of poverty in both townships with transport (taxi) being the second biggest expenditure item (R104.82) (Slabbert, 2009). However, the poverty gap of Sebokeng which is 0.59 is higher than 0.49 for Bophelong.

### **3.6 ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES**

This section takes interest in the perceptions about pollution in Sebokeng compared to those of Bophelong. The section will analyse three types of pollution namely littering, air, and noise pollution.

About 57% of the residents in Sebokeng (81% for Bophelong) feel that the environment is polluted and dirty. A total of 63% of the interviewed residents of Sebokeng feel that the municipality should take initiative to keep the environment clean (51% for Bophelong).

The main cause of air pollution is dust and smoke in the atmosphere brought about by natural conditions (the case of dust) and household heating in the form of fire, coal and industries. For the Sebokeng population, about 14% reported that they are affected by air pollution (44% from industries close to the Sebokeng residential area and 58% from coal usage). About 6% of the residents of Bophelong reported to be affected by air pollution. The reason for the higher percentage for the Sebokeng population may be due to the high usage of coal.

Noise pollution is brought about by those playing loud music in vehicles and homes. About 28% of the respondents of Sebokeng reported to be affected by noise pollution while only 9% of the population of Bophelong are affected by noise pollution. Some residents of Sebokeng live close to the railway tracks, hence the higher percentage of noise pollution. More people in Sebokeng feel that the police should take control of the noise levels while more residents of Bophelong feel that those responsible for the noise pollution should be fined.

### **3.7 CRIME**

Crime is an unacceptable and destructive phenomenon in any country, community or economy. Therefore this section seeks to show a connection between crime, unemployment and poverty.

According to Gillani, Rehman and Gill (2009:79-80) crime is a major source of insecurity and discomfort in every society. There is no doubt that crime inflicts enormous monetary and psychological costs on society. The act of criminality gives rise to the feeling of insecurity and fear to those who have not been victims

as well. This sense of panic of being victimised generates negative effects on the well being of people.

Ellrich (1973) in Gillani *et al.* (2009:81) sees unemployment as having some effects on crime rates. The unemployment rate can be viewed as a complementary indicator of income opportunities available in the legal labour market. Therefore when the rate of unemployment increases, the opportunities in the legal sector decrease, leading individuals to being involved in criminal activities with the intention to escape poverty.

From the survey data (2009), only 4% of the households that were interviewed in Sebokeng were affected by crime in the last 12 months which is less compared to Bophelong whereby 16% of households were affected by crime in the last 12 months. These figures may seem tame but crime is a matter of concern with poverty and unemployment being the main causes.

### **3.8 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS**

The chapter adopted and utilised a variety of household level indicators to analyse the level of poverty and unemployment in Sebokeng in comparison to Bophelong. The population of Sebokeng has more females than males with adolescents making up a greater percentage of the total population, (aged between 15 to 19 years of age) while the senior members of the population make up the smallest percentage (aged between 80 and 84 years of age).

An indicator of the number of persons who depend on the income of one earner which is known as the dependency ratio measures at 4.2 for Sebokeng which is less than the 5.5 which was measured for Bophelong.

The poor post-school population of Sebokeng was found to be less educated than the total population as a whole. The Bophelong population is more educated than that of Sebokeng with more respondents possessing a grade 12 qualification and higher.

The unemployment rate is incredibly high at 27%, which is greater than that of Bophelong which is estimated at 31%. The high unemployment rate may be due to the low levels of school attendance as there is a high dropout rate amongst the

adolescents of Sebokeng. The majority of the residents in Sebokeng are employed in low income sectors (construction and gardener/domestic worker) while those of Bophelong are employed in formal sectors and have better paying jobs.

The average household size in Sebokeng is 4.2 with 1.14 members of the household unemployed. The average household size of Bophelong is 3.5 with 1.28 members of the household unemployed.

The high percentage of (27%) of the unemployed in Sebokeng were unemployed for more than 5 years and this percentage is lower than that of Bophelong (31%) with residents being unemployed for less than 5 years. This comparison serves as an explanation of the high unemployment rate in Sebokeng. Both townships have high percentages of unemployed adolescents.

Sebokeng has a high percentage of residents who are skilled in hairdressing but the same cannot be said for residents of Bophelong who are more skilled in catering/cooking. Female entrepreneurial empowerment is needed in both townships to boost the females who possess these skills. However, the males in Sebokeng prefer to work as gardeners or own a farm unlike the males in Bophelong who showed less interest in gardening and farming.

The headcount index for Sebokeng derived from the Survey data (2009) is 0.85, meaning, 188 737 people live in poverty in Sebokeng. The poverty gap which stands at 0.59 gives an indication that 59% of the poor residents of Sebokeng lack 59% of the total income to acquire their level equal to their poverty line. In comparison, the headcount index for Bophelong is 0.67, therefore, 8 276 households out of 12 352 live in poverty which means that 25 312 people in Bophelong live in poverty. The population of Bophelong has a poverty gap of 0.49 which means that on average poor households in Bophelong lack 49% of their income to acquire the level equal to their poverty line. The rate of poverty in Sebokeng is thus greater than that of Bophelong.

Sebokeng has an average household income of R1 157.85 which is less than the R2 214.24 of a Bophelong household. On average, Sebokeng spends more on maize meal which means that maize meal is a staple food for the population

while the residents of Bophelong spend more on meat making this food item a staple food for the population. Sebokeng and Bophelong spend a great percentage of income on food and this serves as an indication of the extent of poverty in the two townships.

The residents of Sebokeng reported to be more affected by pollution (air, dust and noise) than the residents of Bophelong. About 4% of the households in Sebokeng reported to be affected by crime which is less than the percentage of households in Bophelong (16%) that have been affected by crime.

It can be concluded that Sebokeng has a higher poverty, unemployment and illiteracy rate especially amongst the young people living in the township. The main contributing factor could be insufficient education. If the residents of Sebokeng (who have a lower percentage of people with a grade 12 qualification than that of Bophelong) were more educated, the unemployment rate would be much lower and more people would be qualified and employed.

Poverty can thus be alleviated if the residents were to have an opportunity to advance themselves in the fields which they are more proficient in, for example women who are skilled hairdressers can receive further training, obtain financial assistance and start their own businesses which will boost the economy of Sebokeng. Pollution and crime pose a danger in the lives of the residents of both Sebokeng and Bophelong. Therefore, more should be done to reduce the impact of these factors.

## CHAPTER 4

### A COMPARISON BETWEEN CHILD-HEADED, GRANDMOTHER-HEADED AND “NORMAL” HOUSEHOLDS IN SEBOKENG

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

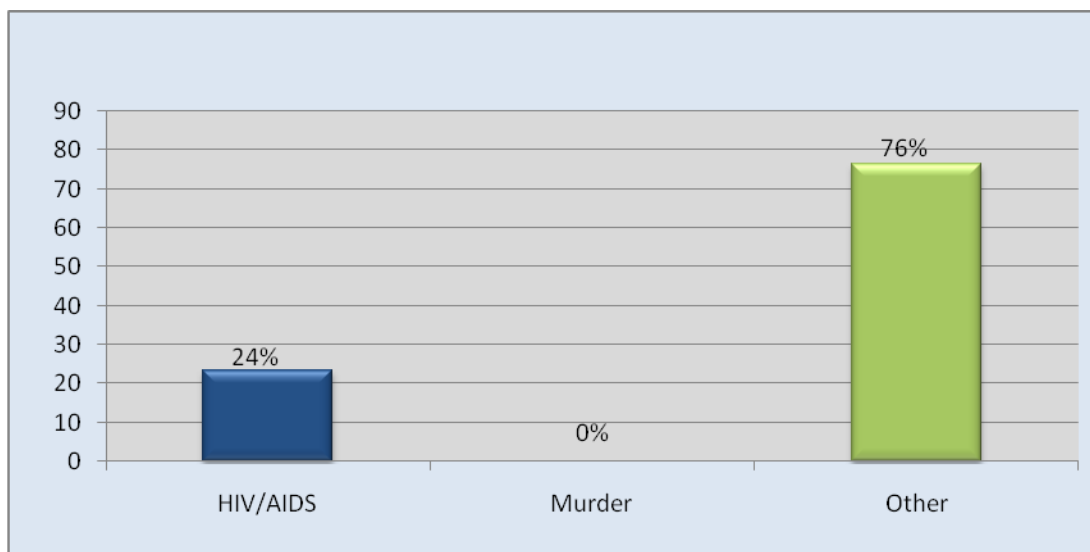
This chapter seeks to make a comparison between child-headed and grandmother-headed and “normal” households which are described as household consisting of both parents in Sebokeng. The chapter examines the living conditions of child-headed households in comparison to grandmother-headed and “normal” households.

The chapter is based on the results obtained from the Survey data (2009) in Sebokeng.

#### 4.2 THE PREVALENCE OF CHILD-HEADED AND GRANDMOTHER-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS IN SEBOKENG

This section examines the causes of orphanhood and its duration. The section also goes on to determine the percentage of orphans with identity documents and birth certificates.

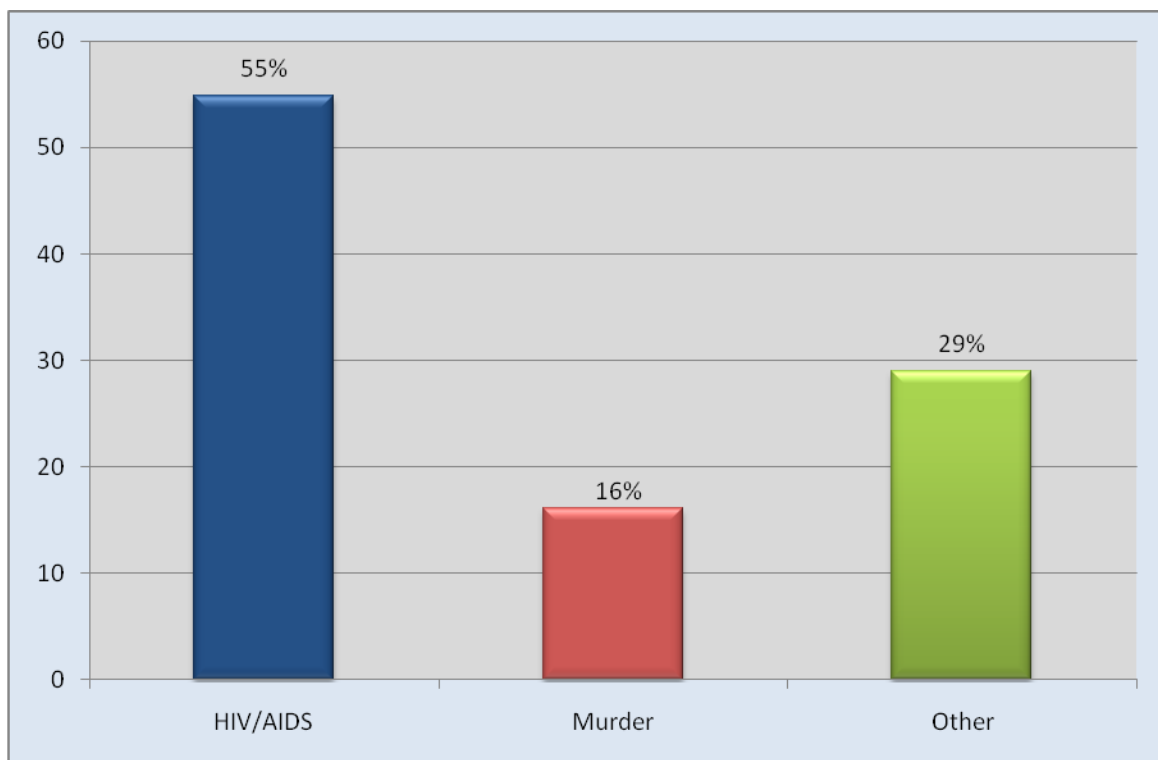
**FIGURE 4.1 CAUSES OF ORPHANHOOD IN CHILD-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS**



Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 4.1 above illustrates the causes of orphanhood for the child-headed households. About 24% of the orphans have lost both parents to HIV/AIDS while none were lost due to murder. About 76% of the orphans are without parents due to other causes (such as tuberculosis, diabetes and cancer). In comparison, 55% of the orphans from grandmother-headed households are without parents due to the HIV/AIDS pandemic while 16% were lost due to murder (Survey data, 2009). About 29% of the orphans are parentless due to other causes (such as cancer, pneumonia and stress-related illnesses). This is illustrated in Figure 4.2. It seems like the orphans from the grandmother-headed households have lost more parents to HIV/AIDS and murder in comparison to those from child-headed households.

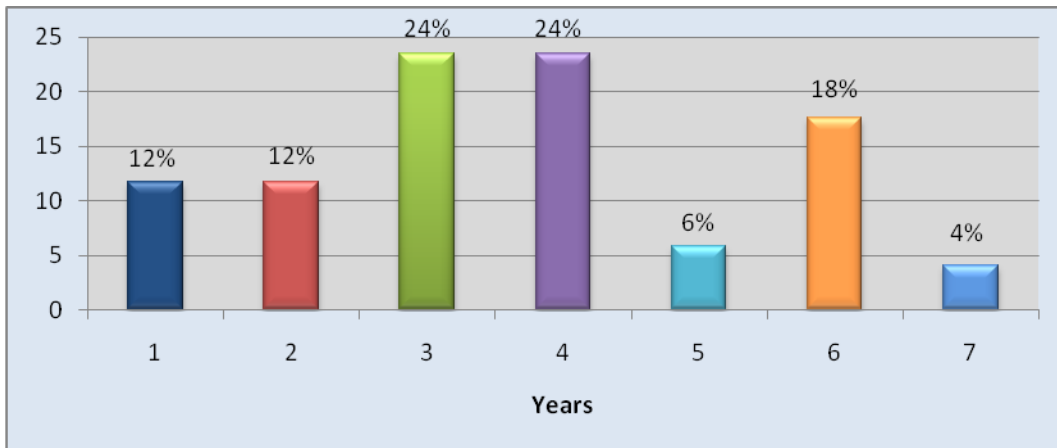
**FIGURE 4.2 THE CAUSES OF ORPHANHOOD IN GRANDMOTHER HEADED HOUSEHOLDS**



Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 4.3 below illustrates the duration of orphanhood in the child-headed households in Sebokeng. According to the Survey data (2009) about 48% of the children have been orphans for 3 to 4 years.

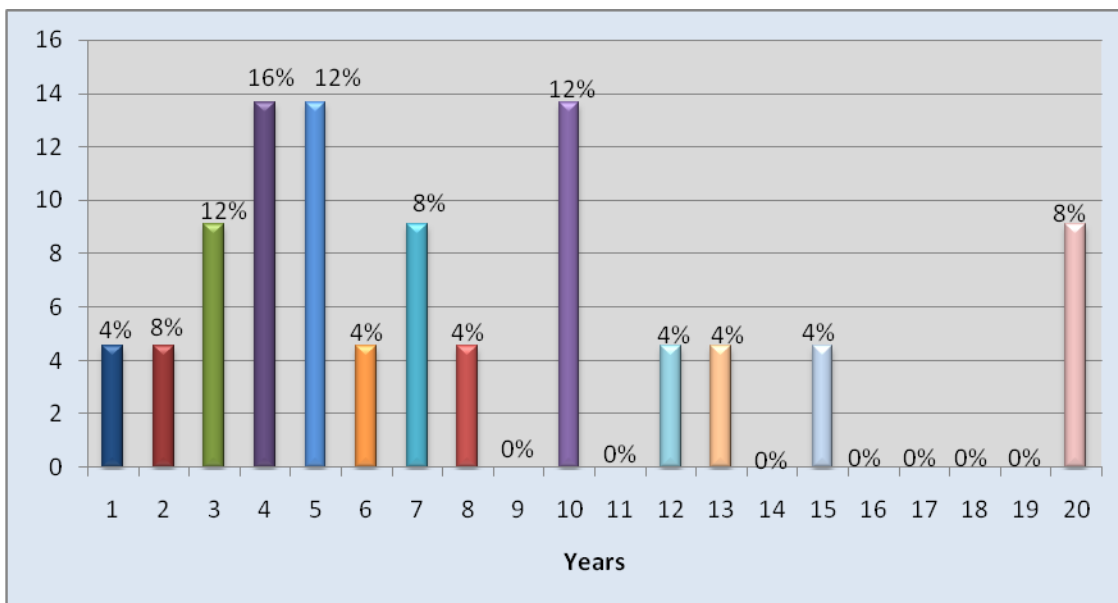
**FIGURE 4.3 THE DURATION OF ORPHANHOOD IN CHILD-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS**



Source: Survey data, 2009

In comparison, Figure 4.4 below shows that about 28% of the orphans from the grandmother-headed households have been orphans for 3-4 years. The figures therefore show that almost half the orphans from child-headed households have been without parents for 3 to 4 years.

**FIGURE 4.4 THE DURATION OF ORPHANHOOD IN GRANDMOTHER-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS**

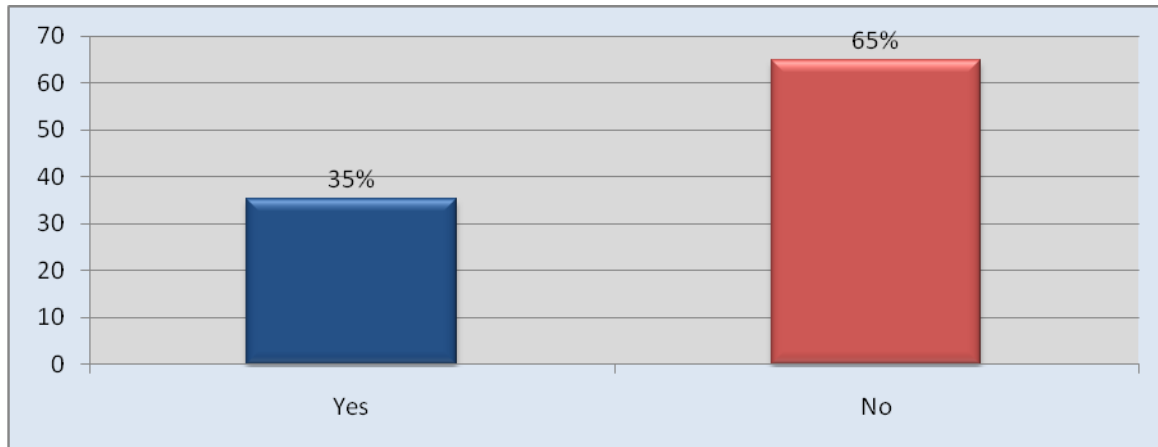


Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 4.5 illustrates the percentage of orphans from child-headed households with identity documents and/or birth certificates. About 35% of the orphans have

identity documents and/or birth certificates while 65% of the orphans are without these documents.

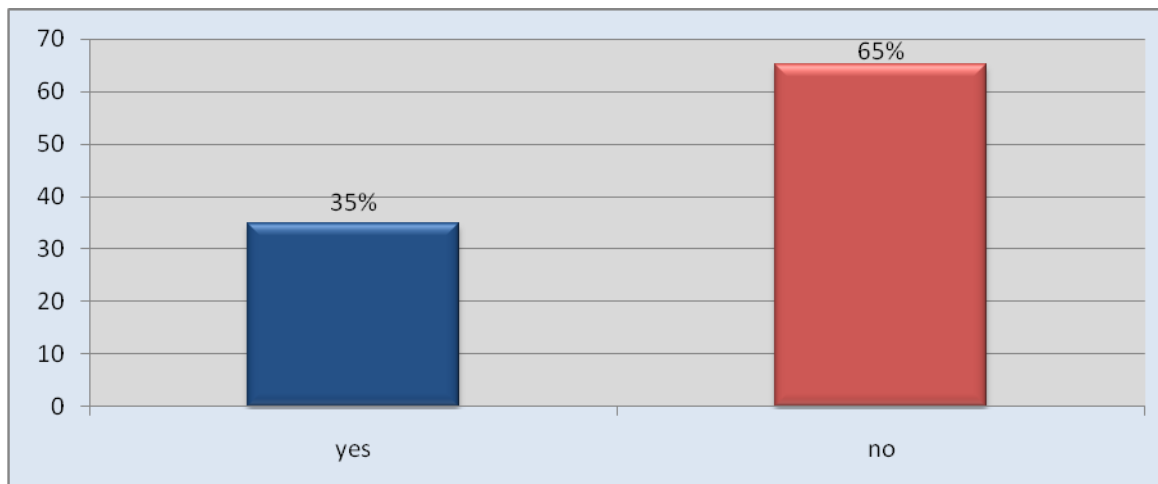
**FIGURE 4.5 PERCENTAGE OF ORPHANS IN CHILD-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS WITH IDENTITY DOCUMENTS/BIRTH CERTIFICATE**



Source: Survey data, 2009

These figures are the same for orphans from grandmother-headed households as shown in Figure 4.6. This means that more orphans from both households have difficulties accessing social security grants provided by government along with other essential services such as education, and employment.

**FIGURE 4.6 PERCENTAGE OF ORPHANS IN GRANDMOTHER-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS WITH IDENTITY DOCUMENTS/BIRTH CERTIFICATE**



Source: Survey data, 2009

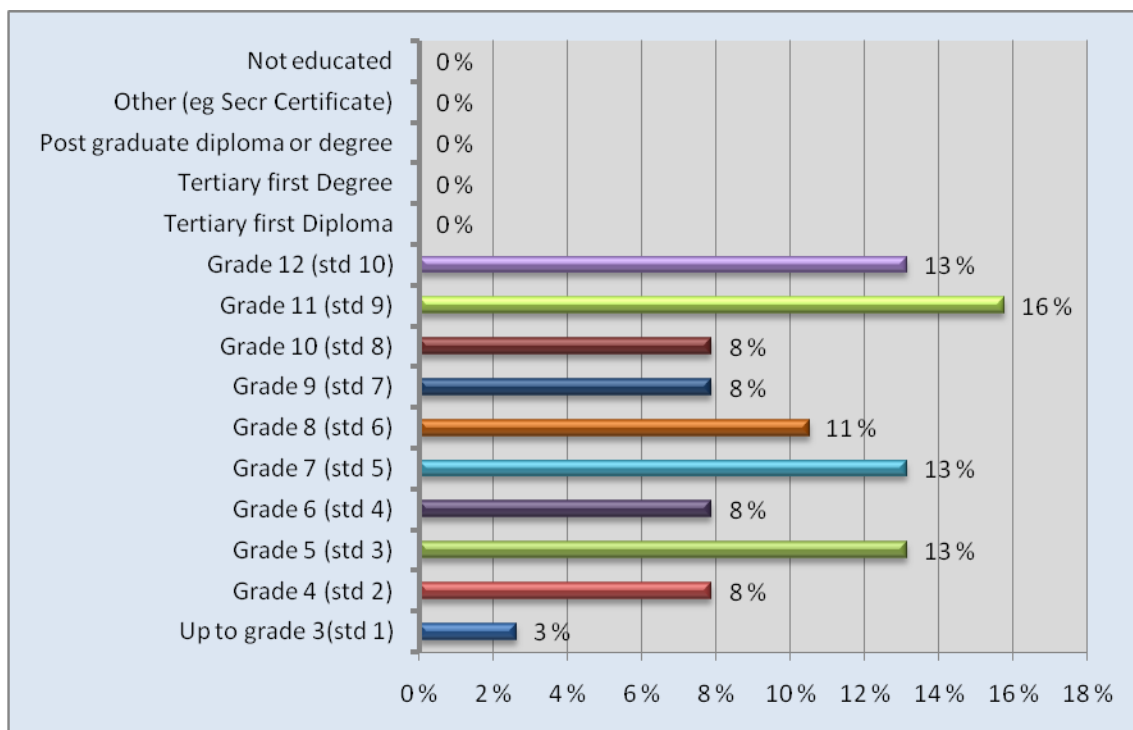
### 4.3 SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

This section discusses the school attendance of orphans from child-headed and grandmother-headed households in comparison to the school attendance of children from “normal” households, percentage of orphans who are no longer in school and the school qualifications obtained. The section further determines the school performance of the orphans from child and grandmother-headed households as well as the performance of children from “normal” households. The determination of school performance was done in the following manner.

- Poor: learner needs constant assistance
- Average: Learner can cope but needs monitoring
- Good: Learner can cope without assistance

Figure 4.7 illustrates the percentage of orphans from child-headed households who are still attending school. About 16% of the orphans are doing grade 11 while 13% of the orphans are in their final year of schooling (grade 12).

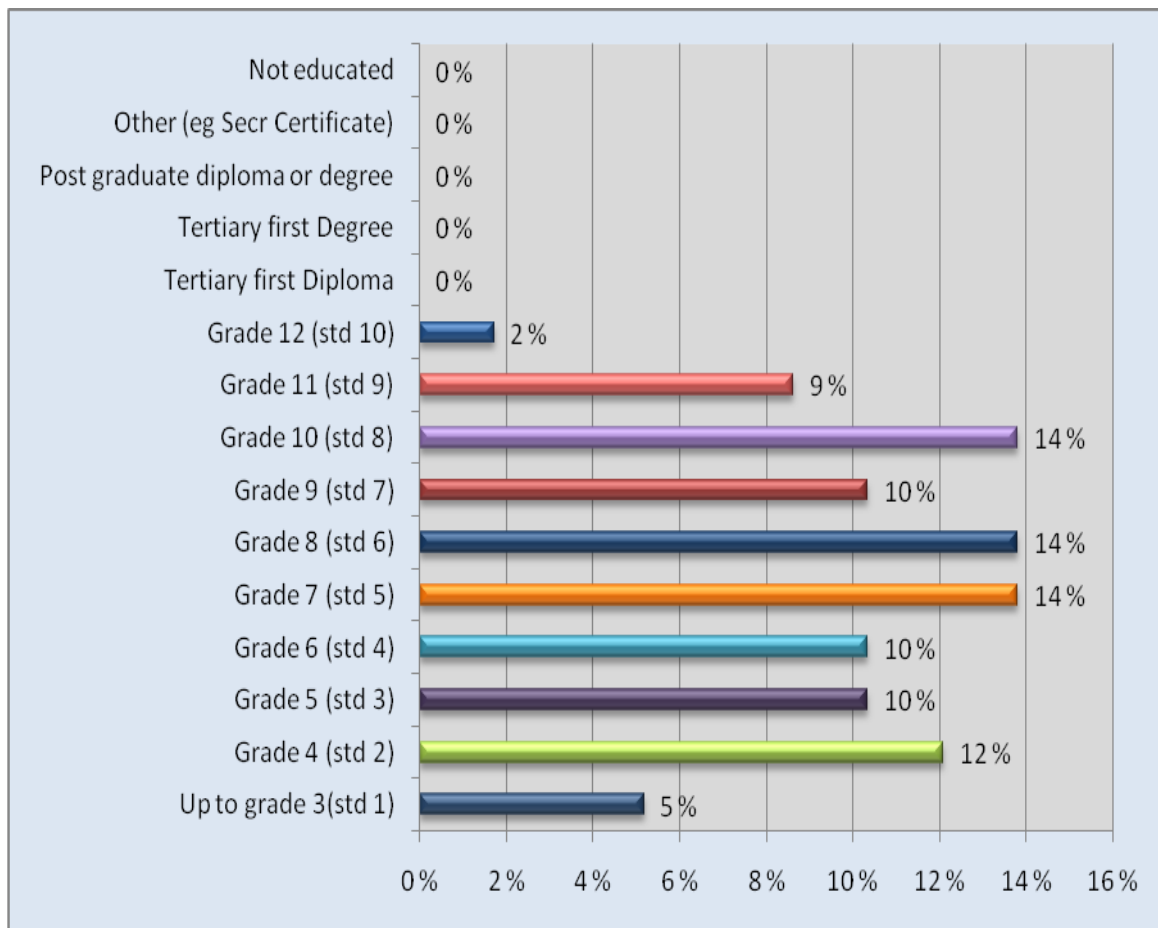
**FIGURE 4.7 PERCENTAGE OF ORPHANS FROM CHILD-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS STILL IN SCHOOL IN SEBOKENG 2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

In comparison, only 9% of the orphans from grandmother-headed households are doing grade 11 while 2% are grade 12 learners as shown in Figure 4.8. The figures for “normal” households are no different from those of the grandmother-headed households and this shows that the orphans from the child-headed households have a better school attendance than those from grandmother-headed households and children from “normal” households.

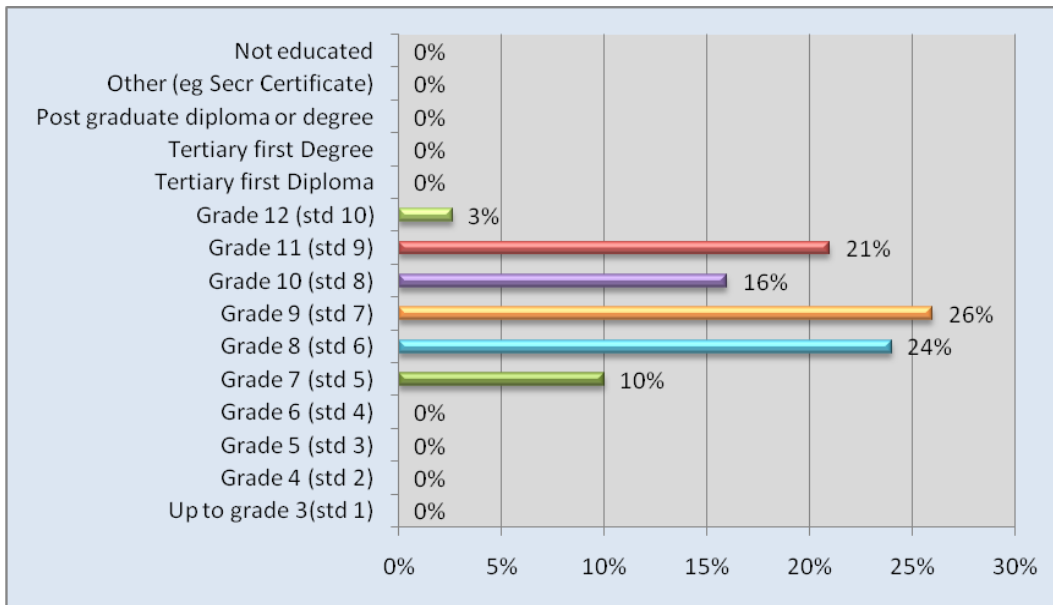
**FIGURE 4.8 PERCENTAGE OF ORPHANS FROM GRANDMOTHER-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS STILL IN SCHOOL IN SEBOKENG 2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

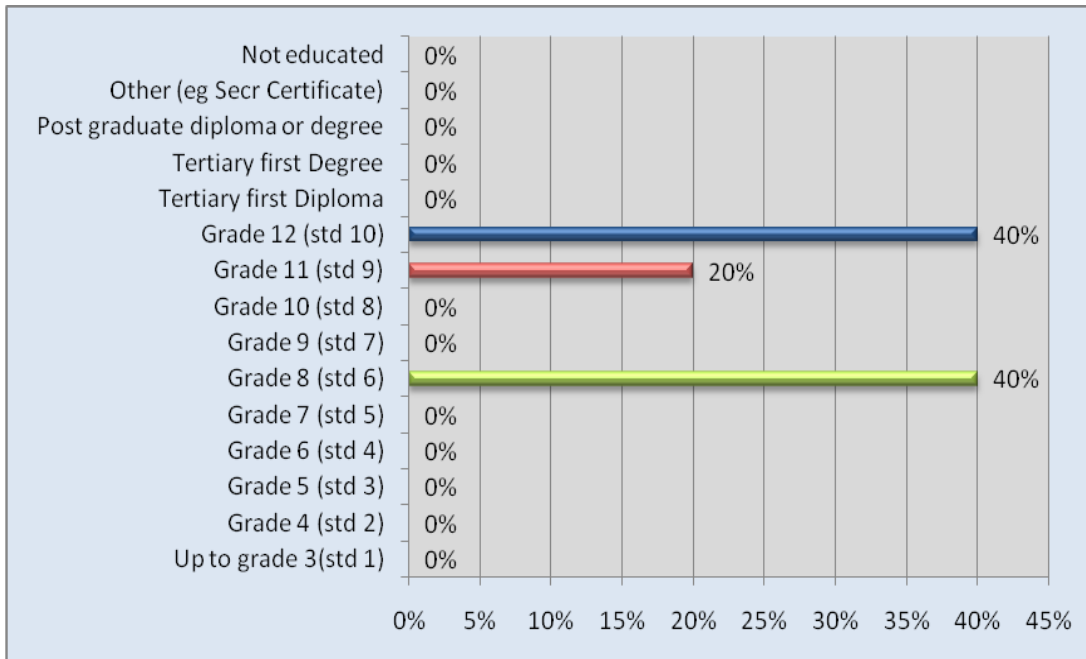
Figure 4.9 illustrates the percentage of orphans from child-headed households who are no longer in school. According to the Survey data (2009) only 3% have a grade 12 qualification while 40% of the orphans from grandmother-headed households have a grade 12 qualification as shown in Figure 4.10. In comparison, 11% of the children from “normal” households have a grade 12 qualification.

**FIGURE 4.9 PERCENTAGE OF POST SCHOOL ORPHANS IN CHILD-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS IN SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

**FIGURE 4.10 PERCENTAGE OF POST-SCHOOL ORPHANS IN GRANDMOTHER-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS IN SEBOKENG-2009**

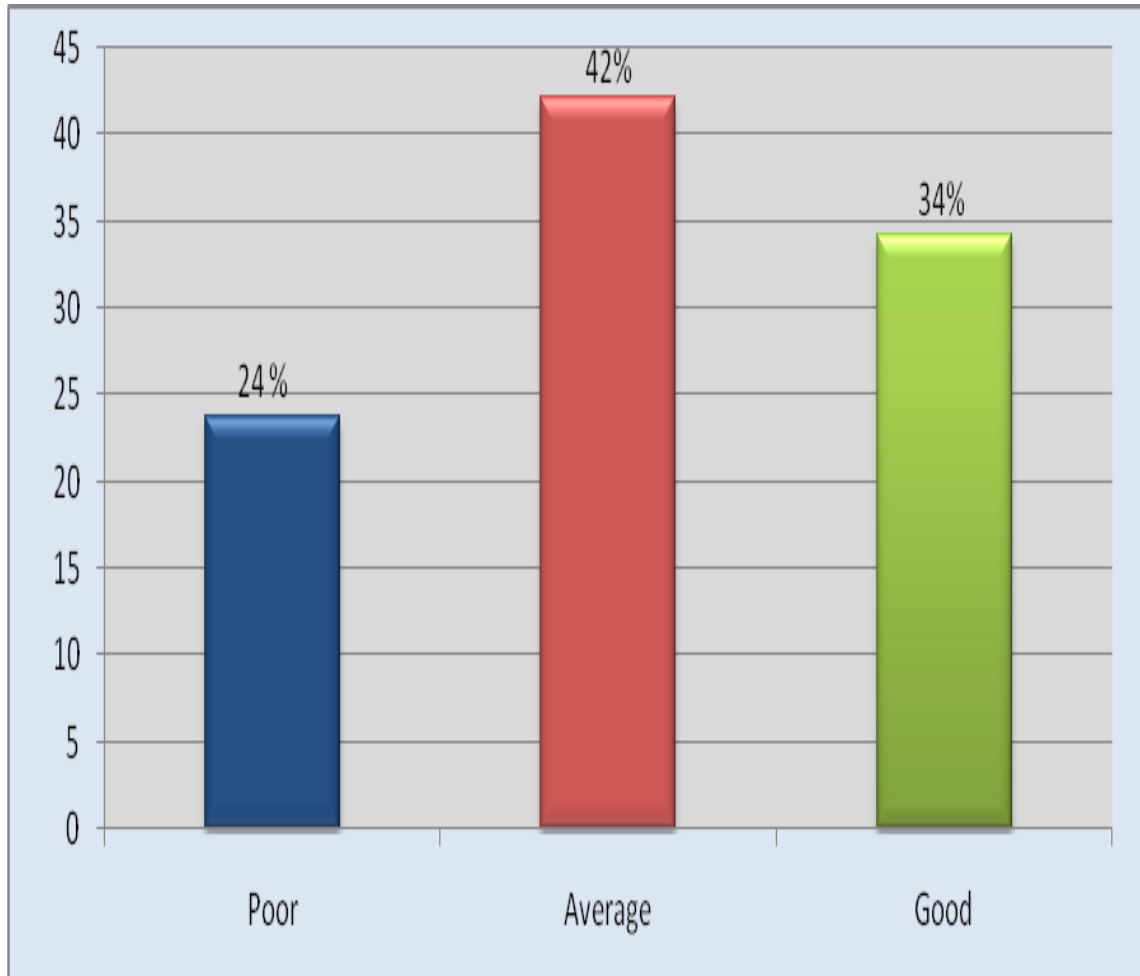


Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 4.11 illustrates the academic performance of orphans from child-headed households. About 24% of the orphans have a poor academic performance compared to the orphans from the grandmother-headed households (19%).

About 42% of the orphans have an average performance which is less than that of orphans from grandmother-headed households (50%).

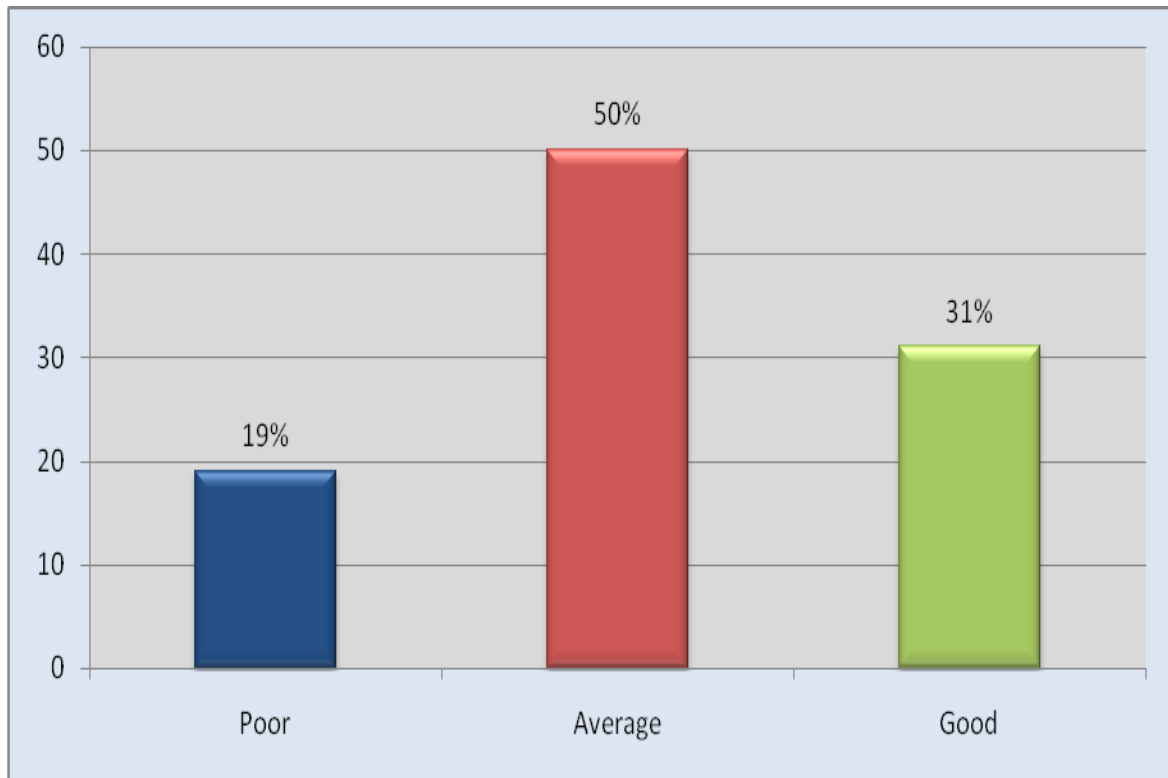
**FIGURE 4.11 ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE FROM ORPHANS IN CHILD-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS IN SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

Learners with a good performance from child-headed households make up 34% which is slightly greater than that of orphans from grandmother-headed households (31%). Therefore, learners from child-headed households have more learners with a better academic performance in comparison to those from grandmother-headed households.

**FIGURE 4.12 ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE FROM ORPHANS IN GRANDMOTHER-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS IN SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

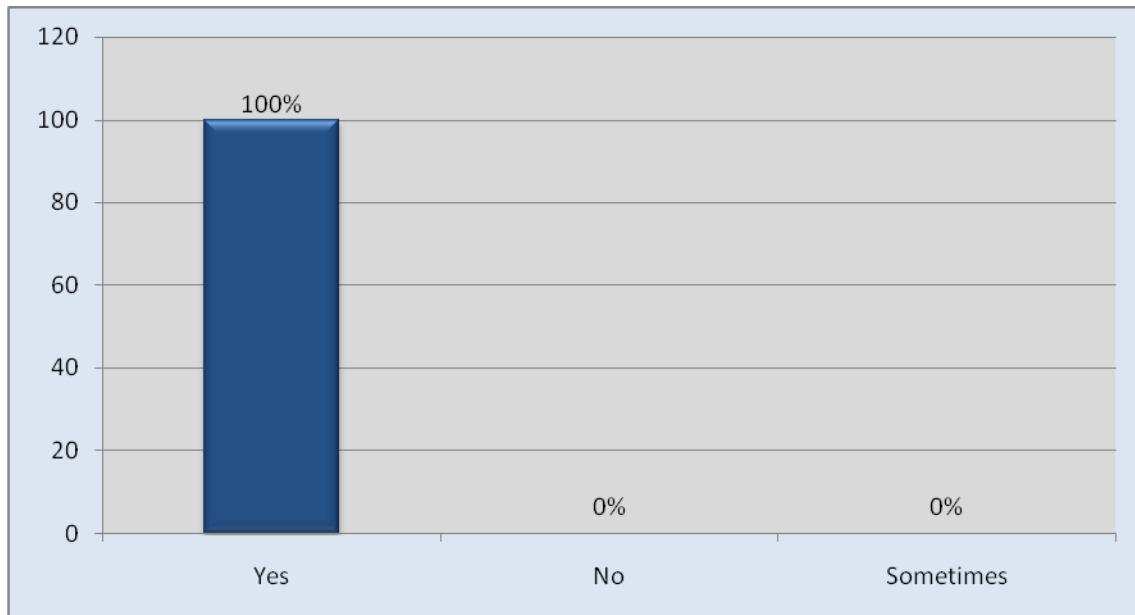
#### **4.4 GOVERNMENT AND SOCIAL ASSISTANCE**

This sub-section discusses the role of government and the community at large in assisting child and grandmother-headed households. The section discusses whether these households have access to health facilities; receive support from schools, social workers, community development workers and churches in Sebokeng township as well as the kind of support they receive.

According to Leatt, Shung-King and Monson (2006:1), children’s rights to health care is expressed in two sections in the Constitution. Section 27 accords “the right to have access to health care services for all South Africans. Section 28 (1) (c), which is that proportion of the Bill of Rights dealing specifically with children’s rights, states that children have “the right to basic health care services.”

Figure 4.13 illustrates the percentage of orphans who have access to basic health services.

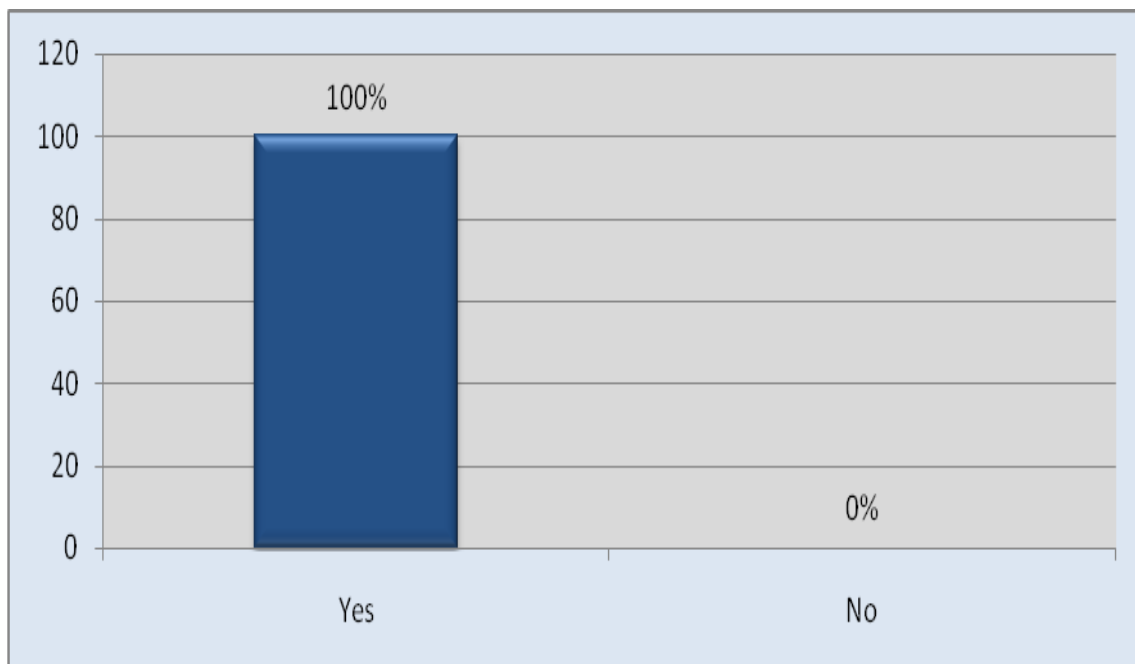
**FIGURE 4.13 ACCESS TO BASIC HEALTH SERVICES**



Source: Survey data, 2009

According to the Survey data, (2009) about 100% of the children from child-headed households have access to basic health care services and this figure is the same for the orphans from grandmother-headed households as shown in Figure 4.14 (100%). These percentages are a good reflection of government intervention as health care is a basic need to society.

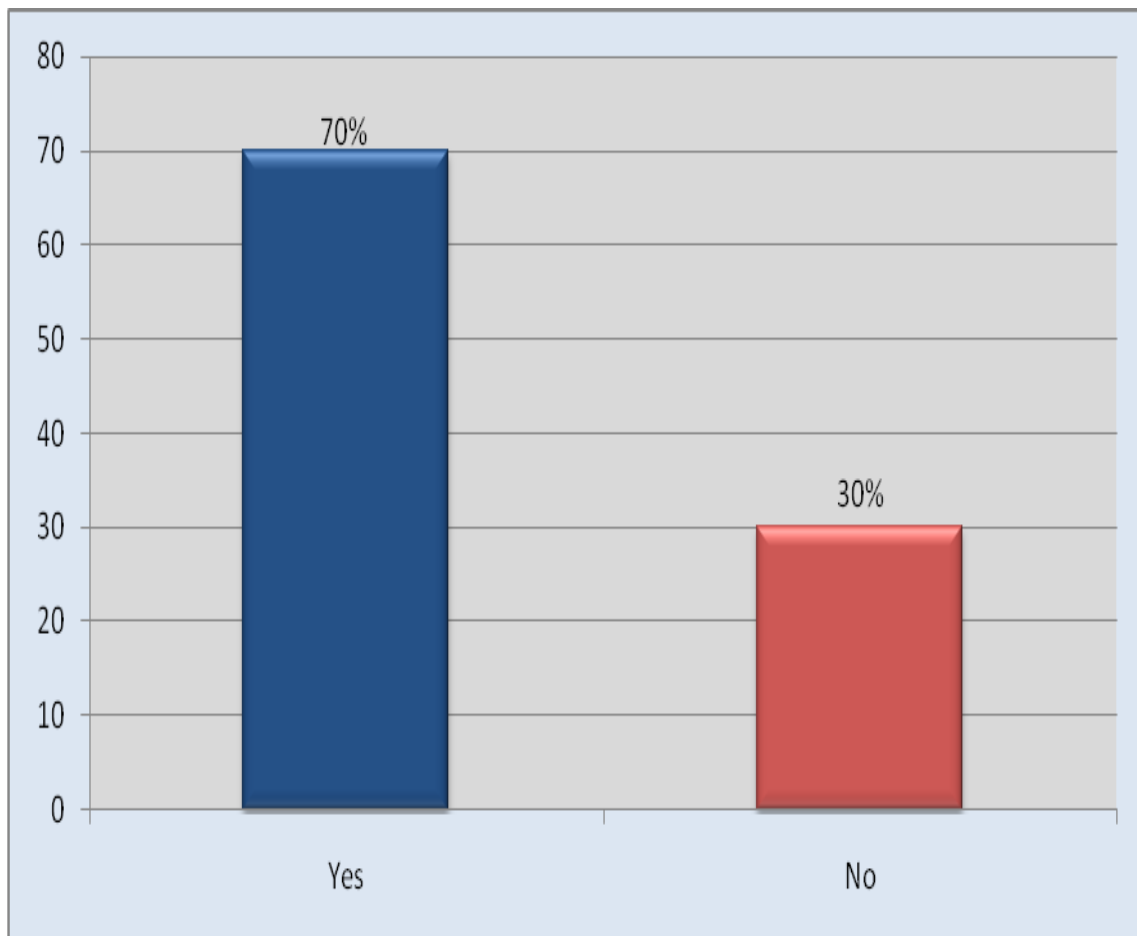
**FIGURE 4.14 ACCESS TO BASIC HEALTH SERVICES**



Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 4.15 illustrates the support received from school by the orphans in Sebokeng. About 70% of the orphans reported that they receive support from their educators. This support is in the form of donated food, clothing, money and guidance. These donations make a difference to them as some of them do not have a school uniform and come to school hungry. About 30% reported that they did not receive any support from school and have to fend for themselves

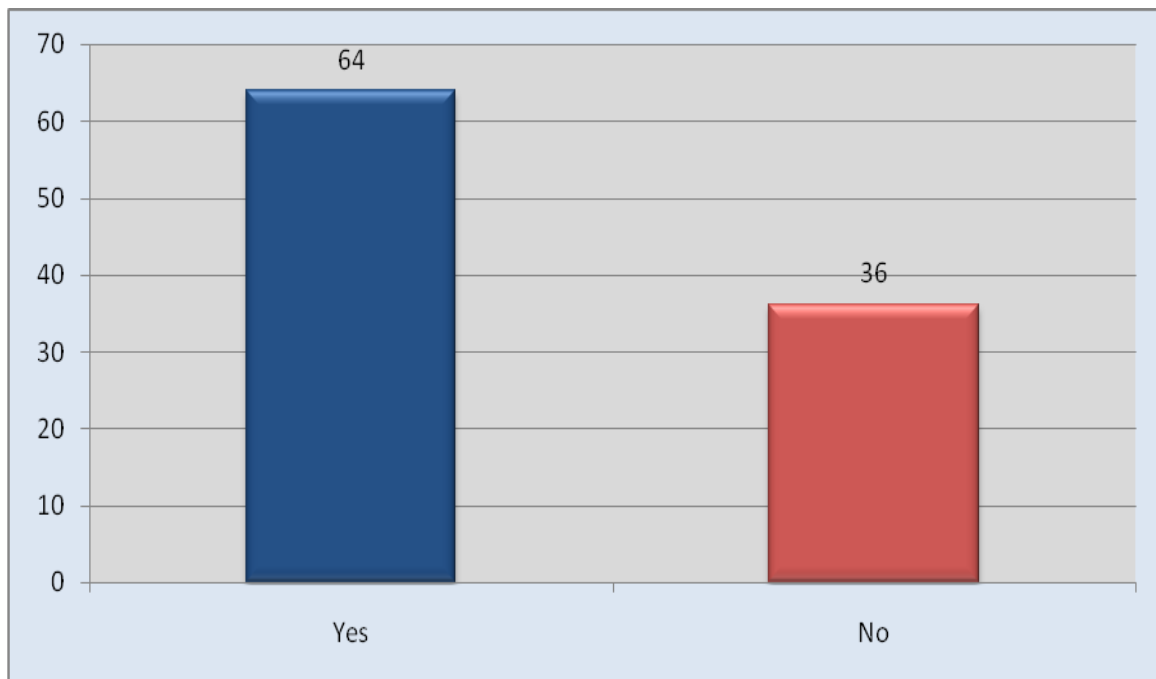
**FIGURE 4.15 SUPPORT RECEIVED FROM SCHOOLS IN SEBOKENG- 2009 FOR CHILD-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS**



Source: Survey data, 2009

In comparison, 64% of the orphans living in grandmother-headed households reported that they receive support from school. This is shown in Figure 4.16. These are some of the children whose grandmothers do not earn pension and cannot afford to buy school uniforms. The educators reported that more support should be given to the children from child-headed and grandmother-headed households as children from normal households do get support from parents.

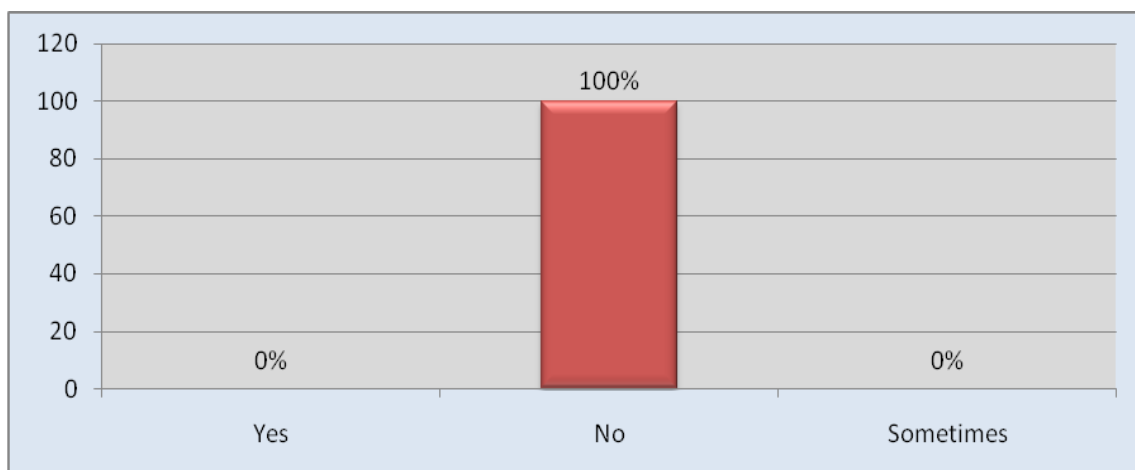
**FIGURE 4.16 SUPPORT RECEIVED FROM SCHOOLS IN SEBOKENG-2009 FOR GRANDMOTHER-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS**



Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 4.17 below illustrates the support received by the children from child-headed households from social workers in Sebokeng. Mkhize (2006:22-23) states that social work as a discipline aims at enhancing the social functioning of individuals to improve the quality of life of everyone. Social workers have to engage in activities that will involve the utilisation and development of resources for the benefit of the orphaned children.

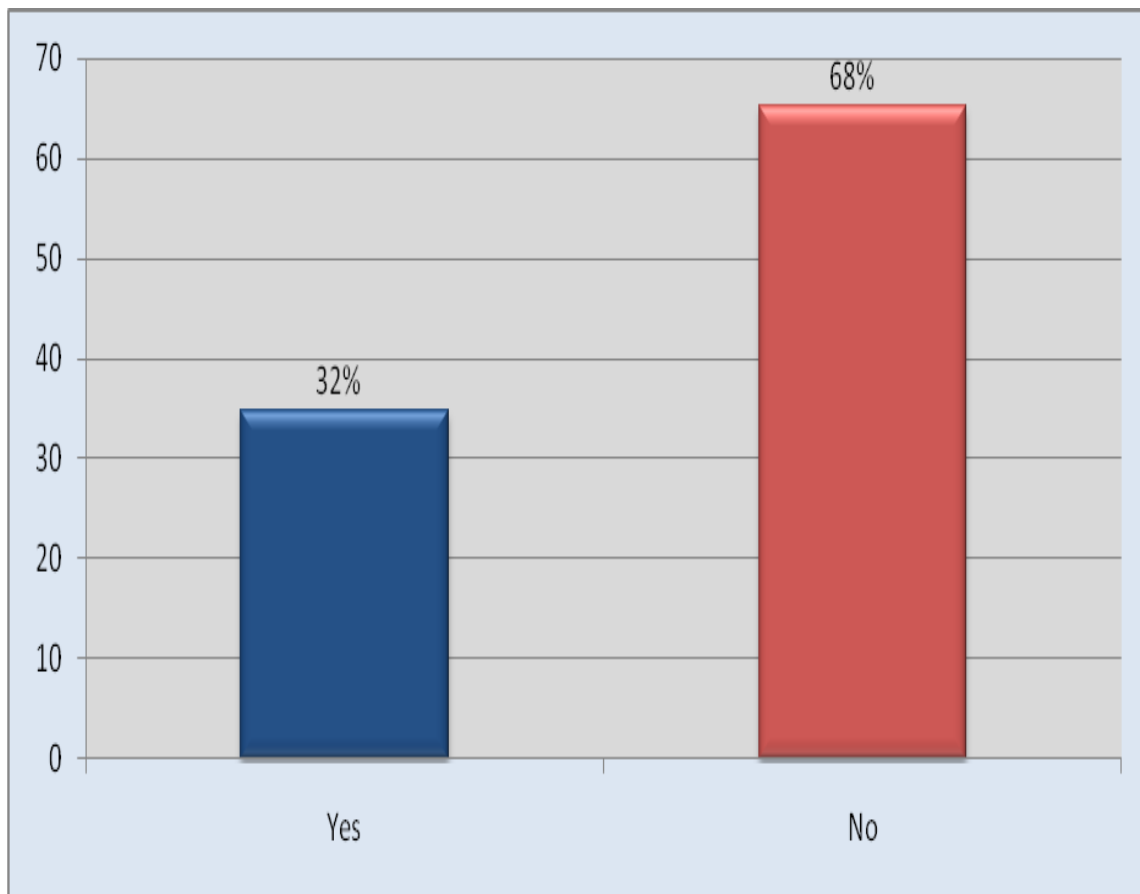
**FIGURE 4.17 SUPPORT FROM SOCIAL WORKERS IN SEBOKENG-2009 FOR CHILD-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS**



Source: Survey data, 2009

According to the Survey data (2009) none of the children that were interviewed receive support from social workers. This is clearly a reflection on the Department of Social Development as not much is being done to help these vulnerable households. In comparison, at least 32% of the grandmothers living with orphans receive assistance from social workers with social grant applications. This is shown in Figure 4.18.

**FIGURE 4.18 SUPPORT FROM SOCIAL WORKERS IN SEBOKENG-2009 FOR GRANDMOTHER-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS**

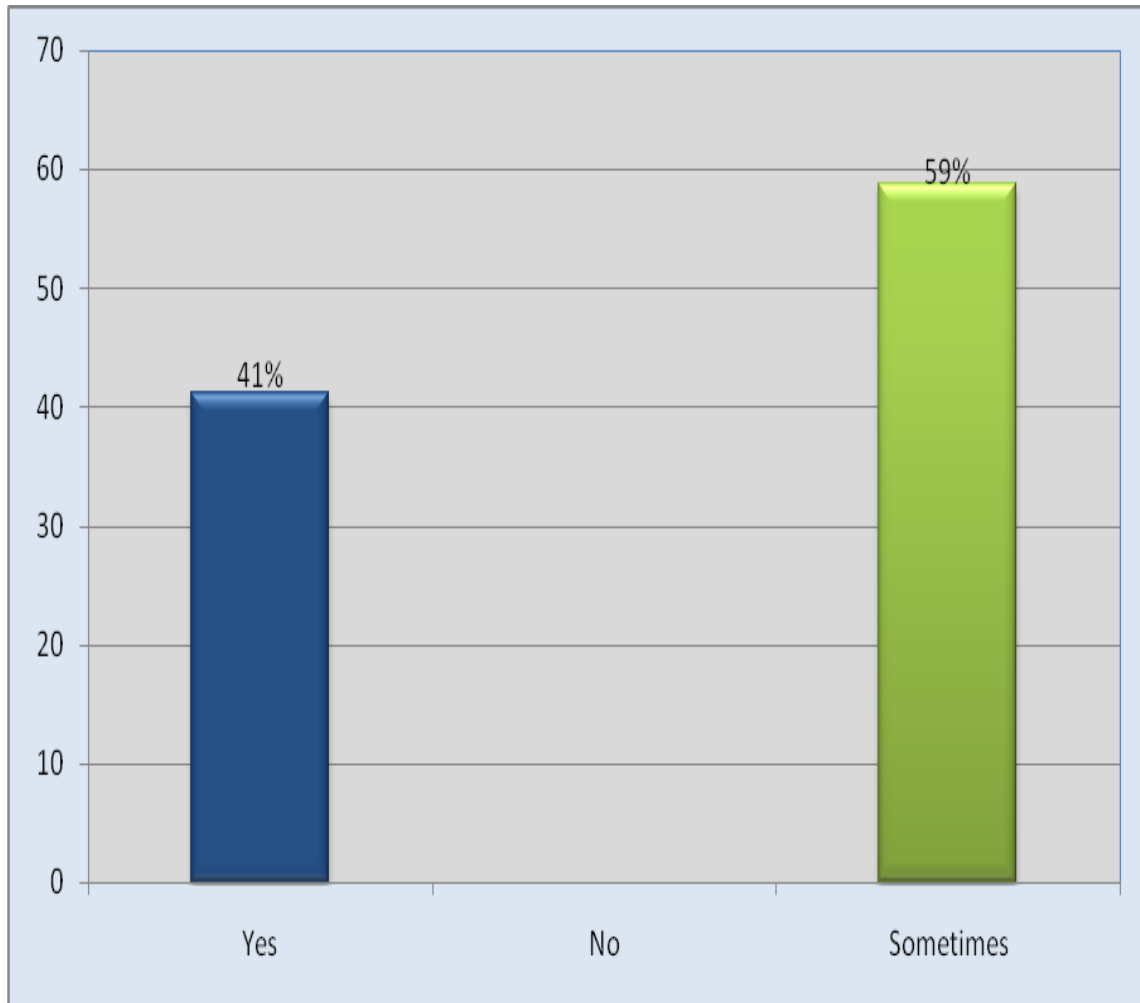


Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 4.19 below depicts the support received by the orphans from community development workers and home-based care workers. According to the Department of Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs (2010) the role of community development workers is to liaise, co-ordinate, mobilise, inform and assist communities with access to services provided by government and to assist communities to identify and communicate their needs to government and to bring government closer to the people.

About 41% of the orphans reported that they received support from the community development workers together with home-based care facilities while 59% of the orphans and grandmothers reported that they get support from these government bodies occasionally.

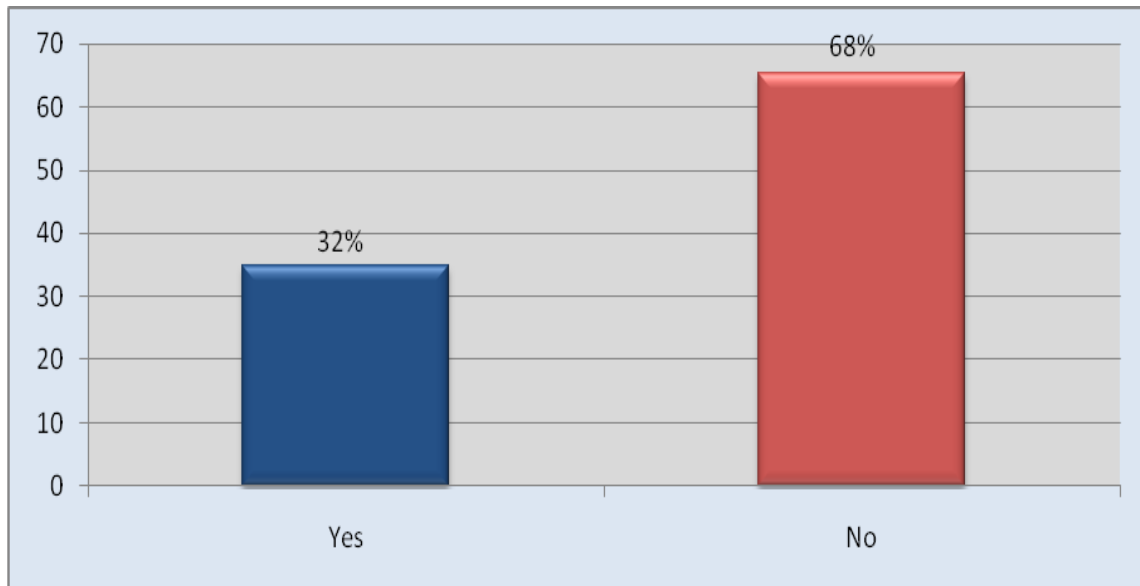
**FIGURE 4.19 SUPPORT FROM COMMUNITY AND HOME-BASED CARE WORKERS FOR CHILD-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS IN SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

In comparison, Figure 4.20 below shows that 32% of the grandmothers responded to be receiving support from the community development workers while 68% reported not to be receiving support from the government bodies. Therefore, government is trying to reach out to the most vulnerable households but more still has to be done.

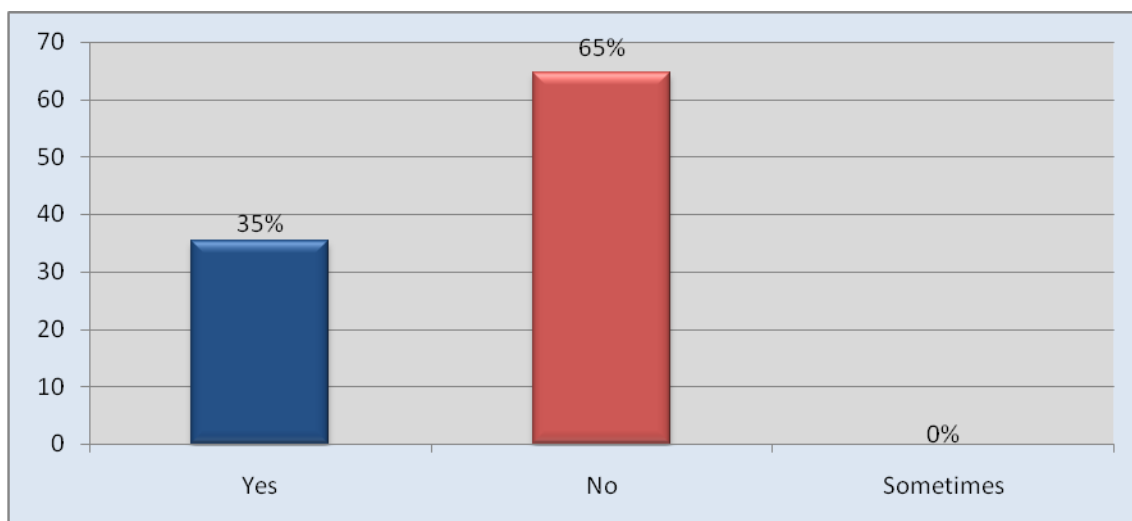
**FIGURE 4.20 SUPPORT FROM COMMUNITY AND HOME-BASED CARE WORKERS FOR GRANDMOTHER-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS IN SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data,2009

Figure 4.21 below illustrates the support received by child-headed households from the churches and community of Sebokeng.

**FIGURE 4.21 SUPPORT FROM CHURCHES AND COMMUNITY FOR CHILD-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS IN SEBOKENG 2009**

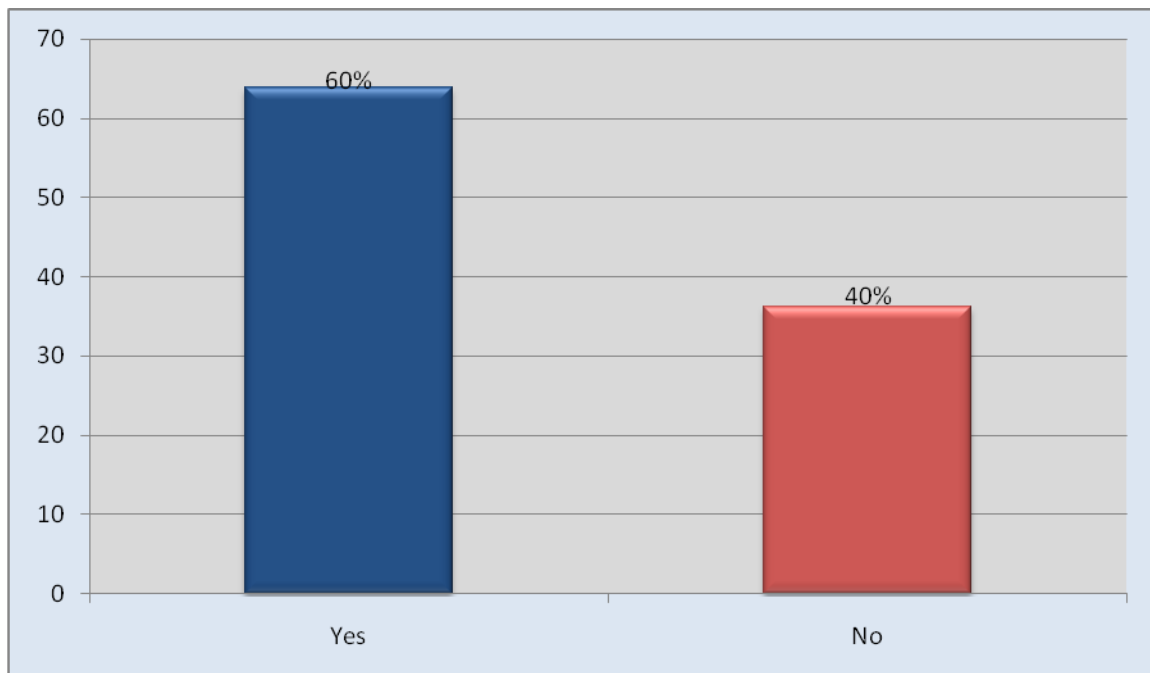


Source: Survey data, 2009

About 35% of the children reported that support is being given by the community and the churches in the form of food, money and clothing, while 65% reported that they did not receive any form of support from the churches and the

community. Figure 4.22 shows that in comparison, 60% of the children from grandmother-headed households reported that they do receive support from the community in the same way as the children from child-headed households but more attention is given to children from child-headed households as they are more needy (Survey data, 2009).

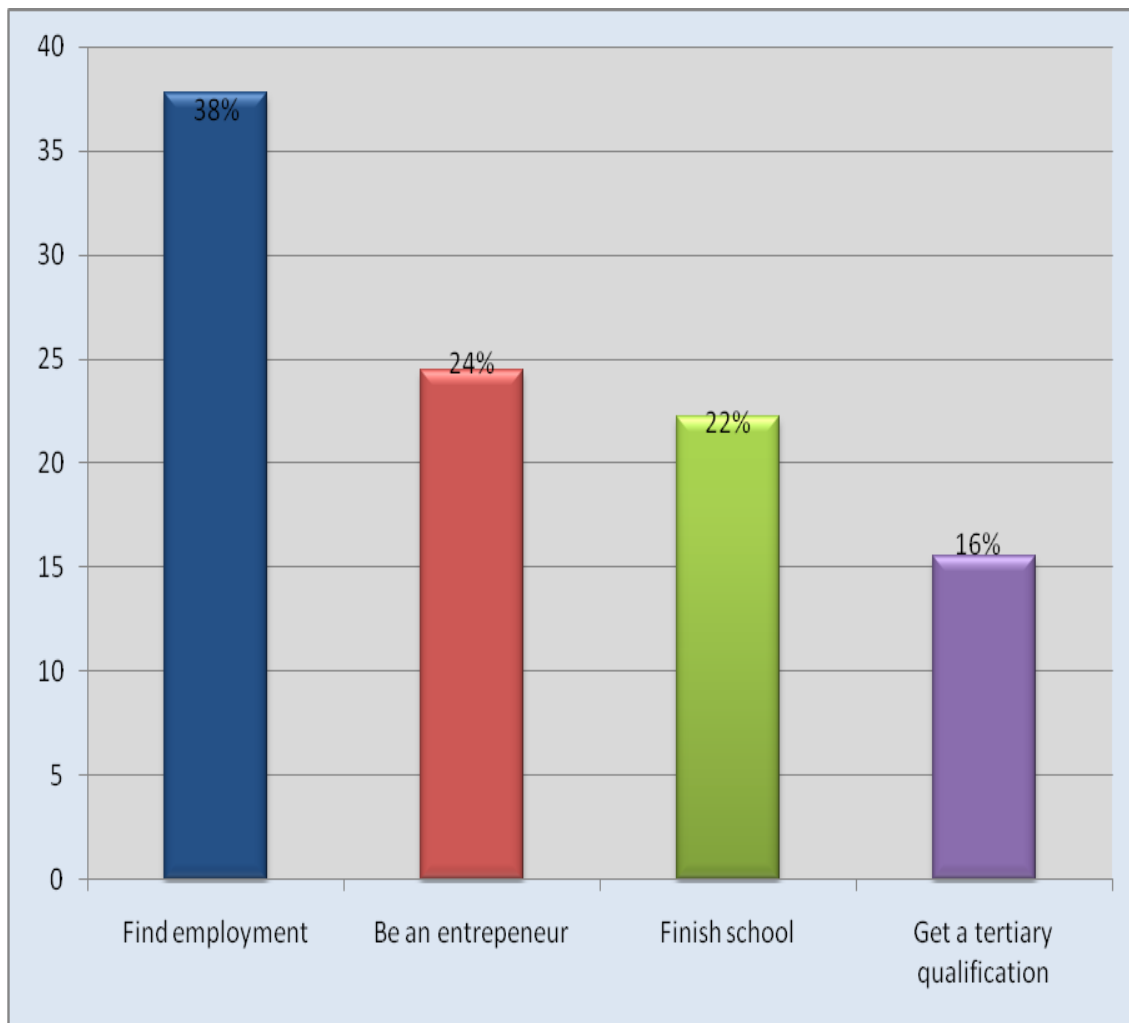
**FIGURE 4.22 SUPPORT FROM CHURCHES AND COMMUNITY FOR GRANDMOTHER-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS IN SEBOKENG 2009**



Source :Survey data, 2009

Despite their unsatisfactory living conditions, children from child-headed households have dreams for the future and this is depicted in Figure 4.23. About 38% of the orphans reported that they would like to find employment to improve their lives; it could even be casual jobs during weekends for those aged 16 and above. About 24% of the orphans would like to be successful entrepreneurs mainly specialising in retail trading. On the other hand, 22% of the children would like to complete their high school education but due to lack of funds, these orphans are hopeless about furthering their studies. Only 16% of the orphans were optimistic that they would get a tertiary education and this could only be achieved through hard work.

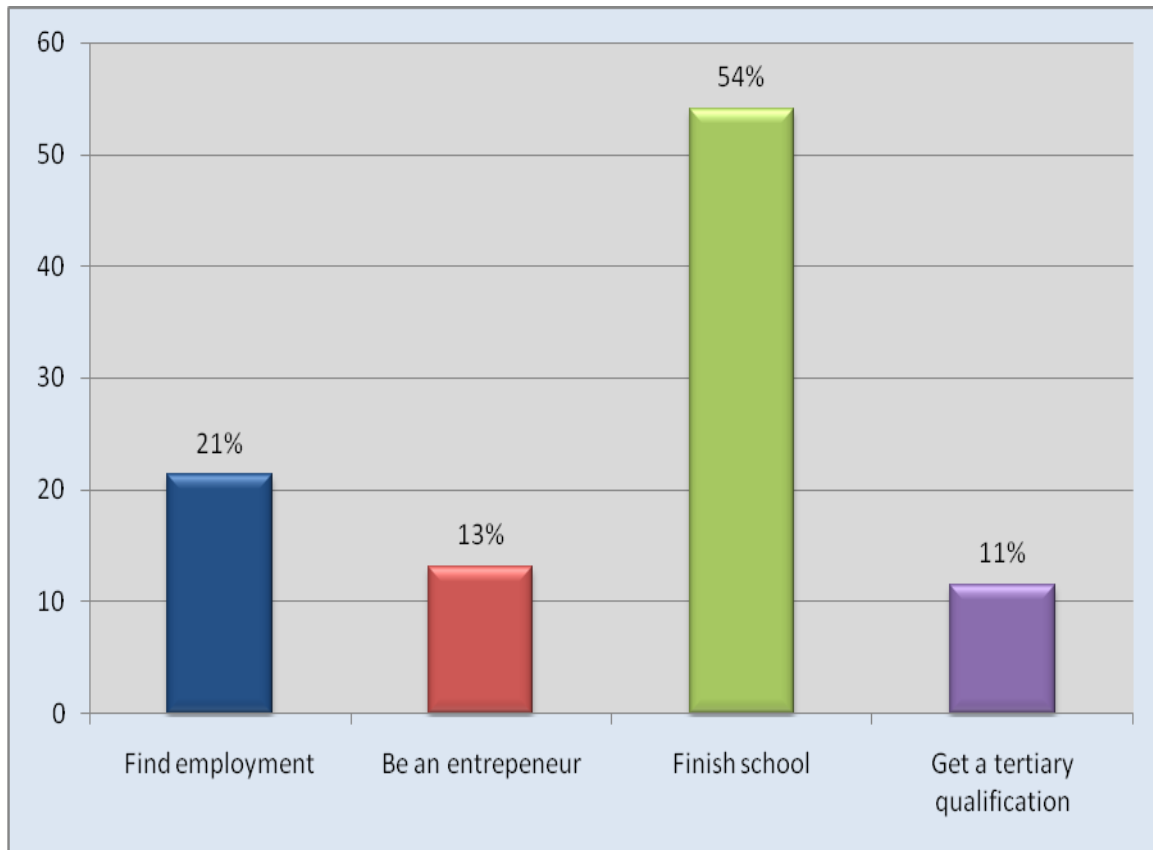
**FIGURE 4.23 FUTURE HOPES AND DREAMS OF THE ORPHANS FROM CHILD-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS IN SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

In comparison, about 21% of the orphans from grandmother-headed households would like to find employment and help their grandmothers financially. This is shown in Figure 4.24. Those who wish to be entrepreneurs account for 13% while those who wish to complete their high school education make up 54%. Only 11% of the orphans from the grandmother-headed households wish to obtain a tertiary qualification which will enable them to get better jobs. These figures therefore show that a higher percentage of orphans from child-headed households are more concerned to find employment in order to improve their living conditions while a higher percentage of orphans from grandmother-headed households are more concerned with completing their high school education.

**FIGURE 4.24 FUTURE HOPES AND DREAMS OF THE ORPHANS IN SEBOKENG-2009 OF GRANDMOTHER-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS**



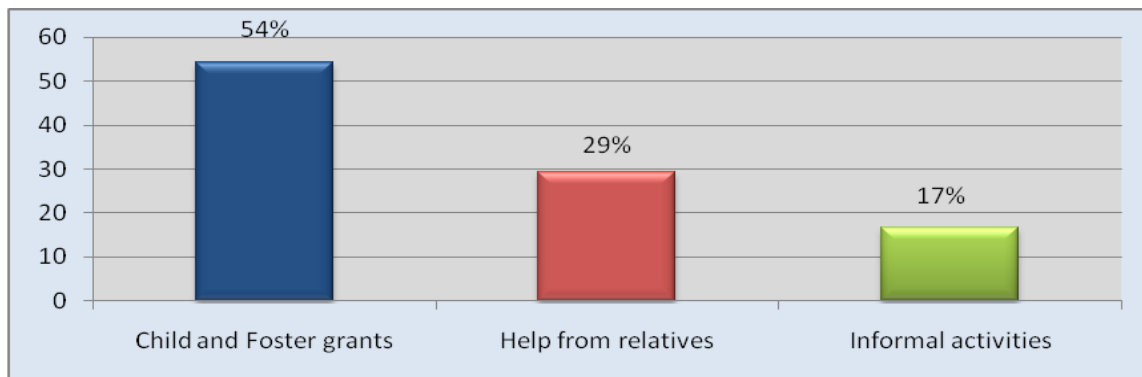
Source: Survey data, 2009

#### **4.5 INCOME AND EXPENDITURE**

This section seeks to determine the sources of income of child and grandmother-headed households in comparison to the sources of income of “normal” households. The sub-section takes further interest in the expenditure patterns of the child and grandmother-headed households in comparison to those of “normal” households.

Figure 4.25 depicts the average income in the child-headed households interviewed during the survey. According to the Survey data (2009) child support grants and foster grants earned by older children on behalf of their younger siblings serve as the main source of income in the child-headed households (54%) followed by financial assistance received from relatives and finally from informal activities.

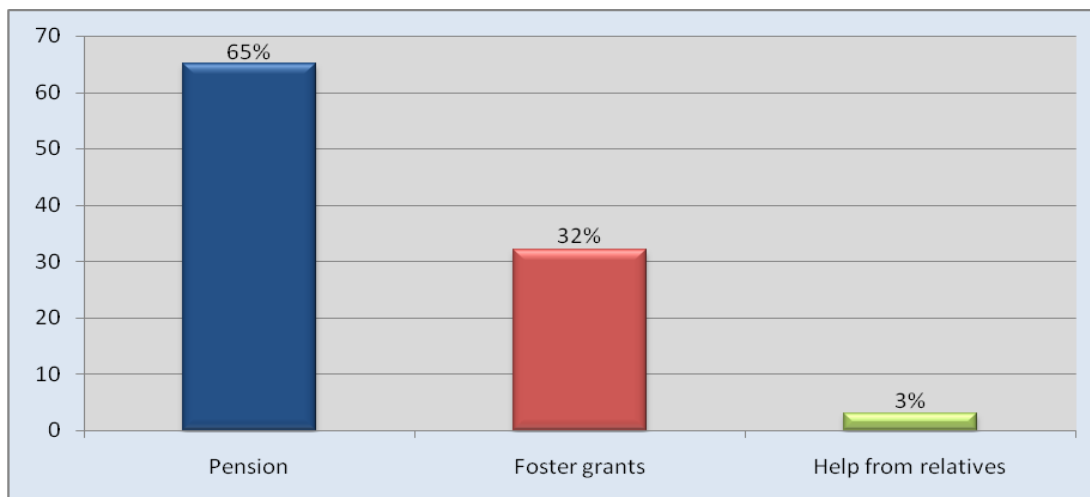
**FIGURE 4.25 CONTRIBUTIONS OF DIFFERENT INCOME SOURCES IN CHILD-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS IN SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

On the other hand, pension grants serve as the main source of income in grandmother-headed households (65%) followed by the foster grants (32%) and lastly financial assistance from relatives (3%). This is shown in Figure 4.26. In comparison, the largest source of income for “normal” households (pension grants at 65%) is similar to that of grandmother-headed households. From these figures it is possible to conclude that grandmother headed households and “normal” households are better off financially in comparison to child-headed households. If the orphans from child-headed households have social workers to assist them in applying for birth certificates then they will be able to access government grants.

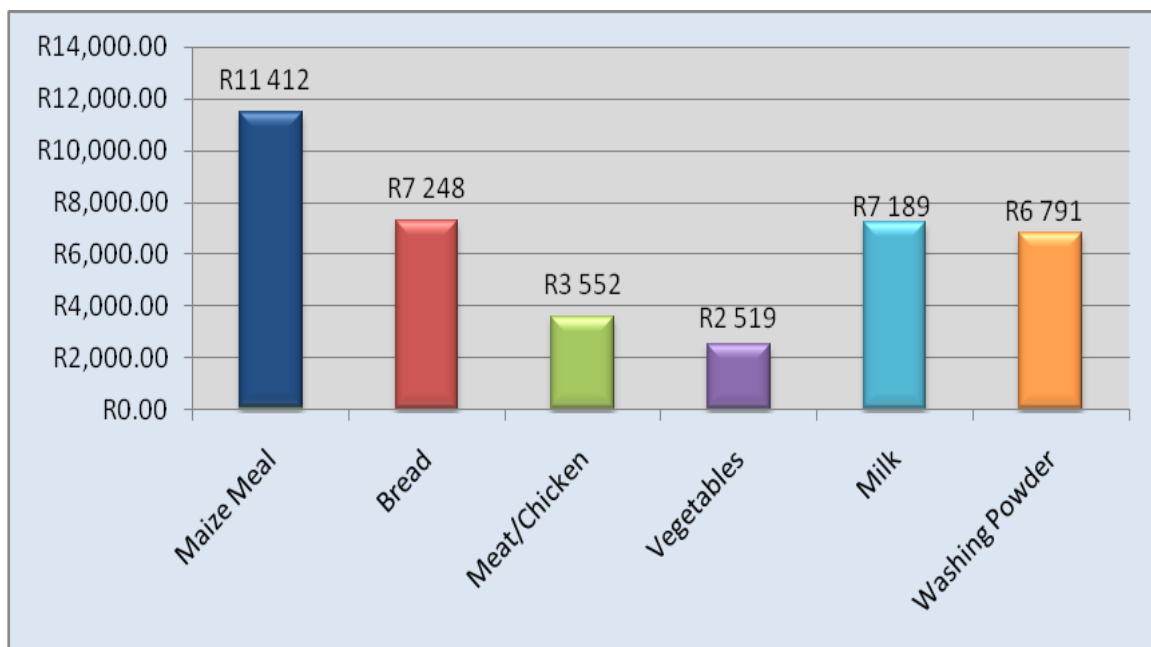
**FIGURE 4.26 CONTRIBUTIONS OF DIFFERENT INCOME SOURCES IN GRANDMOTHER-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS IN SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 4.27 depicts the annual expenditure by orphans from child-headed households in Sebokeng. The biggest expenditure item is maize meal accounting for R11 412 per year. An estimated R604 is spent on bread per month (R7 248 per year). About is R296 spent on meat per month (R3 552 per year), is spent on R209 vegetables (R2 519 per year), R600 is spent on milk (R7 189 per year) and R565 is spent on washing powder per month (R6 791 per year).

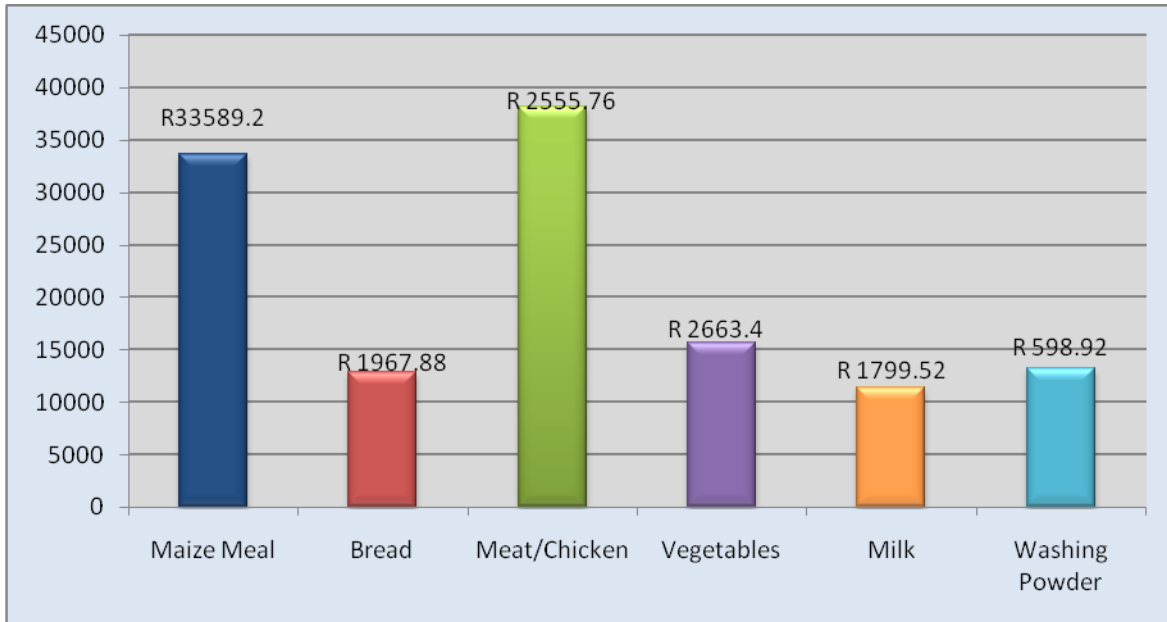
**FIGURE 4.27 ANNUAL EXPENDITURE SPENT BY CHILD-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS ON DIFFERENT ITEMS IN SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

The expenditure on these goods is much higher in grandmother-headed households as shown in Figure 4.28 (R33 589, R12 911, R38 135, R15 624, R11 448, R13 284 per year respectively) and “normal households” (R124 752, R35 400, R54 396, R50 040, R40 848, per year respectively) and this could be due to the lower income received by child-headed households and the absence of adults to supervise the household income and expenditure. However, maize meal, bread and meat serve as the staple food for both child and grandmother-headed households while maize meal, bread and vegetables are the staple foods for “normal” households.

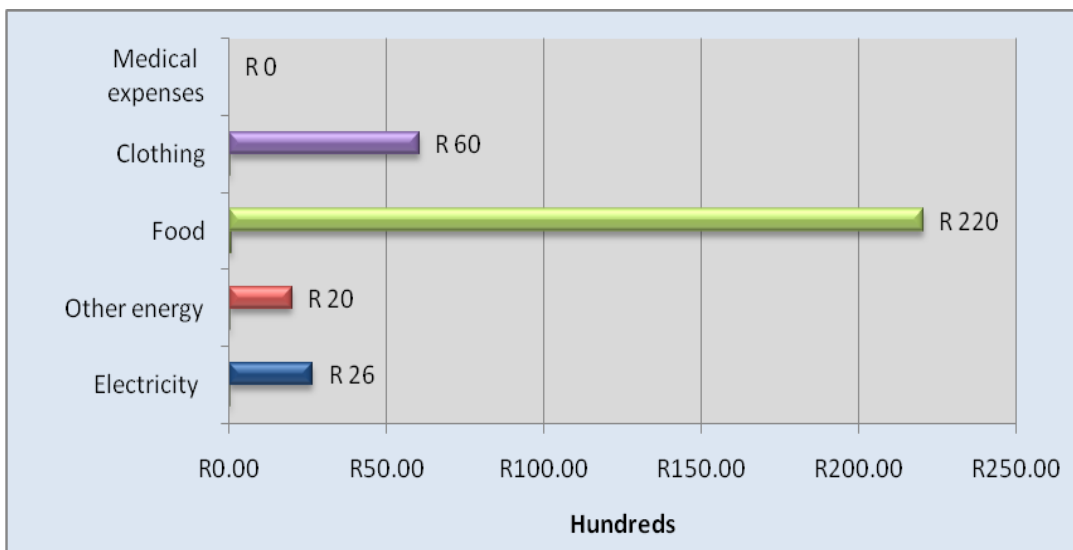
**FIGURE 4.28 ANNUAL EXPENDITURE SPENT BY GRANDMOTHER-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS ON DIFFERENT ITEMS IN SEBOKENG-2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

Figure 4.29 below depicts the average household expenditure of child-headed households in Sebokeng. According to the survey data (2009), the biggest expenditure item is food (R220 per month), while less is spent on clothing (R60), electricity (R26) and other means of energy (R20).

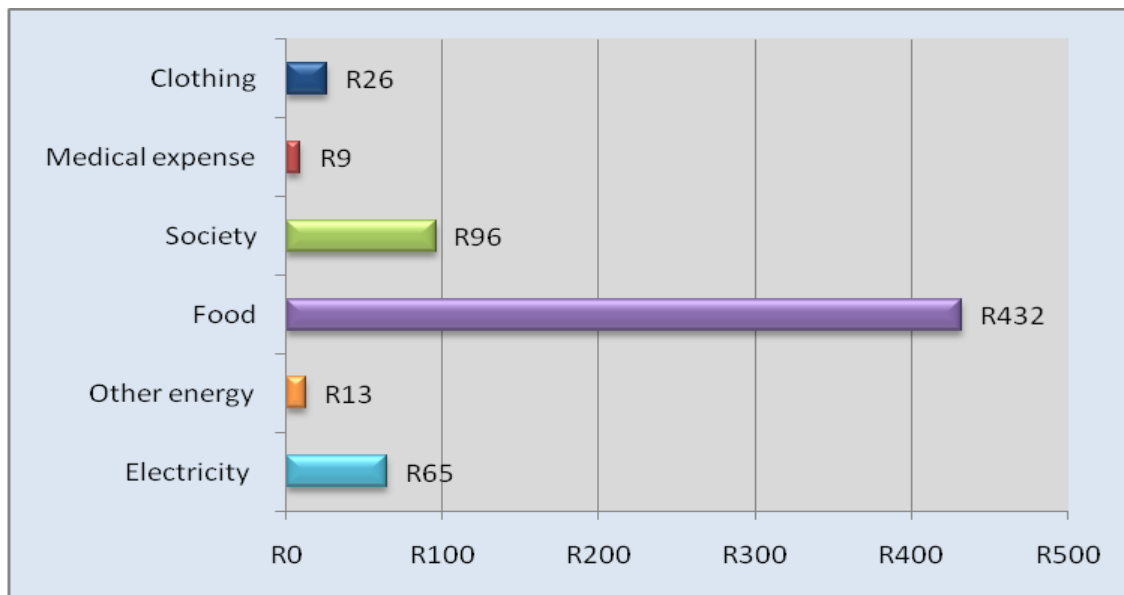
**FIGURE 4.29 AVERAGE EXPENDITURE BY CHILD-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS IN SEBOKENG- 2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

In the grandmother-headed households, food is also the largest expenditure item (R432) and a similar case also exists for “normal” households (R4 303). The high expenditure on food serves as an indication of the prevalence and extent of poverty in all three household types.

**FIGURE 4.30 AVERAGE EXPENDITURE BY GRANDMOTHER-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS IN SEBOKENG- 2009**



Source: Survey data, 2009

#### 4.6 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The chapter made a comparison between child-headed, grandmother-headed and “normal” households in order to determine the living conditions of the three types of household. About 24% of the orphans have lost both parents to HIV/AIDS while none were lost due to murder. About 76% of the orphans are without parents due to other causes. In comparison, 55% of the orphans from grandmother-headed households are without parents due to the HIV/AIDS pandemic while 16% were lost due to murder. About 29% of the orphans are parentless due to other causes. It seems like the orphans from the grandmother-headed households have lost more parents to HIV/AIDS and murder in comparison to those from child-headed households. Some of the deaths may have been caused by the poor living conditions, for instance, the parents may have had difficulties accessing health facilities and/or good nutrition.

About 48% of the children from child-headed households have been orphaned for 3 to 4 years while only 25% of the orphans from grandmother-headed households have been orphans for the same number of years. The orphans from the child-headed households find it difficult to cope and provide for themselves. Some even leave school to find employment. Those living with the grandmothers are better off as they have the care of an elder.

About 35% of the orphans have identity documents while 65% of the orphans are without identity documents or birth certificates meaning that they cannot access any grants from the government. Some of these orphans stated that these were stolen by the relatives who earn grants on their behalf and none of the money is spent on them. These figures are the same for orphans living with grandmothers.

About 13% of the orphans from child-headed households are in their final year of schooling (grade 12) which is greater than the figure for orphans of grandmother-headed households (2%). The figures for normal households are no different from those of the grandmother-headed households and this shows that the orphans from the child-headed households have a better school attendance than those from grandmother-headed households and “normal” households.

According to the Survey data (2009) only 3% have a grade 12 qualification while 40% of the orphans from grandmother-headed households have a grade 12 qualifications. In comparison, 11% of the members from “normal” households have a grade 12 qualification. This indicates that child-headed households have the least percentage of children with a grade 12 in comparison to grandmother-headed households and “normal” households. This may be due to the fact that orphans from grandmother-headed households are more encouraged to complete grade 12 and get employment or further their education.

About 24% of the orphans from the child-headed households have a poor academic performance which is greater than that of orphans from grandmother-headed (19%). About 42% of the orphans from child-headed households have an average performance which is less than that of orphans from grandmother-headed households at 50%. Good performing learners from child-headed households make up 34% which is slightly greater than that of orphans from

grandmother-headed households at 31%. Child-headed households therefore consist of more learners with a better academic performance in comparison to those from grandmother-headed households.

According to the Survey data, (2009) about 100% of the children from child-headed households have access to basic health care facilities. This figure is the same for the orphans from grandmother-headed households (100%). These percentages are a good reflection of government as health care is a basic need to society.

About 70% of the children reported that they receive support from the educators in the form of donated food, clothing, money and guidance. These contributions make a difference to them as some of them do not have school uniform and come to school hungry. About 30% reported that they did not receive any support from school. In comparison, 46% of the orphans living in grandmother-headed households reported that they do receive support from school. Educators spend most of their time with these learners and it is out of sheer compassion that they offer to help these vulnerable children without asking for anything in return.

According to the Survey data (2009) none of the children from child-headed households have social workers looking after their interests while 32% of the grandmothers have access to social worker assistance. About 41% of the orphans reported that they received support from the community development workers and home-based care facilities while 59% of the orphans and grandmothers reported that they get support from these government bodies occasionally. In comparison, 32% of the grandmothers responded to be receiving support from the community development workers while 68% reported not to be receiving support from the government bodies. Government should take more interest in the wellbeing of orphans from both household types especially child-headed households.

With regards to support from the local churches and community, about 35% of the children reported that support is being given by the community and the churches in the form of food, money and clothing while 60% of the children from grandmother-headed households reported that they receive support from the

community in the same way as the children from child-headed households. Some orphans stated that they will be forever indebted to their neighbours and churches for assisting them during their times of need (Survey data, 2009).

Regardless of their unsettling state of affairs, the orphans are hopeful that they are able to change their lives for the better. About 38% of the orphans reported that they would like to find employment to improve their lives. In comparison, about 21% of the orphans from grandmother-headed households would like to find employment and help their grandmothers financially. About 24% of the orphans would like to be successful entrepreneurs mainly specialising in retail trading and this figure is greater than that for orphans living with grandmothers (13%). On the other hand, 22% of the children would like to complete their high school education which is less than the percentage for orphans in grandmother-headed households (54%) Only 16% of the orphans were optimistic that they would get a tertiary education which is greater than the percentage of orphans living with grandmothers (11%). These figures therefore show that a higher percentage of orphans from child-headed households are more concerned with finding employment in order to improve their living conditions while a higher percentage of orphans from grandmother-headed households are more concerned with completing their high school education.

Child support grants and foster care grants serve as the main source of income in the child-headed households making up 54% of their total income. On the other hand, pension grants serve as the main source of income in grandmother-headed households at 65%. In comparison, the largest source of income for “normal” households is similar to that of grandmother-headed households: pension grants. From these figures it is possible to conclude that grandmother headed households and “normal” households are better off financially in comparison to child-headed households. If more orphans had the necessary documents such as identity documents and birth certificates to enable them to access grants then their lives would improved drastically.

Child-headed, and “normal” households spend more on maize meal (R11 412, R124 752 per year respectively) making this food item a common staple food in all for both types of households while meat/chicken is the staple food for

grandmother-headed households (R38 185 per year). Food is also the biggest and most common expenditure item in all three types of households

It can thus be concluded that child-headed and grandmother-headed households are living in poverty but the orphans from the child-headed households are the most affected due to the absence of adult care. If these orphans could have assistance from the social security system then their lives would be better. More should be done to encourage the children from child-headed households to get education as this will open doors for them while alleviating poverty in the process. Government should take further steps and initiatives to help such vulnerable households as they hardly have a stable support system.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The main objective of the study was to analyse the living conditions of child- and grandmother-headed households in comparison to “normal” households in Sebokeng. The profile of the population of Sebokeng was discussed in the previous chapters in which the rate of unemployment and the rate of poverty for Sebokeng were determined. This chapter provides a summary of the key points of the dissertation and draws some conclusions and recommendations from the findings of other chapters

#### **5.2 SUMMARY OF THE DISSERTATION**

Poverty in South Africa results from a complex history and as such cannot be understood without reference to the impact of race and racism. Given the South African history, it is therefore not surprising that race continue to influence studies on poverty in the country.

Poverty amongst the general population is considered to be very significant in South Africa, with 48% of households living below the poverty line in 2005. However, child poverty is estimated to be far more extensive than adult poverty, at 66% of the child population versus the 45% of the adult population in 2005. This accounts for more than 11 million children.

Poverty has many causes some of which are very basic. In many cases, the causes and effects of poverty interrelate so that what makes people poor also creates conditions that keep them poor. Poverty has wide-ranging and often devastating effects on children. Many of its effects such as homelessness and malnutrition result directly from having too little income and too few resources. The pension income and other government interventions from the social security system work as the safety net for many needy households, especially those consisting of grandmothers caring for orphans. Therefore the income received from the social security system does play a vital role in poverty alleviation.

Despite the efforts of the MDGs to reduce the intensity of poverty from 1990 to 2015, the number of people in Sub-Saharan Africa suffering from poverty and living below the poverty line during the 1990s increased whereas the proportion of people living in poverty between 1996 and 2001 did not change. Those households instead fell deeper into poverty.

Disagreements over the definition of poverty are intense and are closely linked with the differences over both its causes and solutions thus making it cumbersome to arrive at an agreeable definition for poverty. Factors such as political and cultural influences, deprivation and basic needs need to be taken into consideration when defining poverty. Chronic poverty and temporary poverty are two concepts that are closely related to that of poverty. A person is said to be chronically poor if he or she lacks access to education, clean water and essential social services. On the other hand, when a person loses a job for a short period of time, he or she is said to be in temporary poverty.

The causes and characteristics of poverty are numerous and diverse. An individual may be responsible for creating the poverty problem; it could have been that the said individual misused the opportunity to make better choices to circumvent the poverty condition. The political and social system may be a hindrance to people making use of the scarce opportunities with which to achieve income and wellbeing. The poor are often characterised as individuals who dwell in large households with a high dependency ratio and lack of assets.

Measuring poverty is not an easy task as it requires accuracy and precision which can only be achieved by employing appropriate tools. The following points outline the different measures of poverty.

Poverty lines show the level of income necessary to offer the minimum subsistence level or the “get-along” amount. They differentiate a group of households whose income or consumption is too low in comparison to that of the general population. Poverty lines are income and price elastic, i.e. they are adjusted for changes in the median or mean income or consumption of the general population as well as for change in the general price level.

Poverty lines comprising of the PDL, HEL, SLL, MLL and the HSL are being used in South Africa to measure poverty but the main focus of this study was on the HSL which is defined as an estimate of theoretical income needed by an individual household to maintain a defined minimum level of health and decency in the short-term and is calculated at the lowest retail cost of a basket of necessities of adequate quality. This 'basket' includes: food, clothing, fuel and lighting and washing and cleaning material for each individual in a household and for the whole household and the cost of rent and transport. Other measures of poverty that have been discussed include income poverty and human poverty, the headcount Index which was also employed in the study to show the fraction of households that live below the poverty line and lastly the poverty gap. Poverty dimensions such as poverty from a gender perspective, geographic and demographic dimensions as well as the lack of power by poor people were also discussed. Poverty reduction strategies, outlining ways in which poverty can be reduced through the introduction of anti-poverty programmes, were also discussed.

An unemployed person is someone who has been actively looking for work for the previous two weeks, is waiting to be recalled to a job after having been laid off or is awaiting to report to a new job within four weeks. The characteristics, of unemployment include disparities in unemployment rates across groups defined by age, race, or experience, a high turnover in the labour market, the cyclicity of the turnover and the duration of unemployment.

The different types of unemployment exist and can be outlined as follows:-

- Frictional unemployment which arises as a result of normal labour turnover that occurs in any dynamic economy.
- Cyclical unemployment arises during recessionary periods, when aggregate demand is low and therefore the demand for labour is also low.
- Structural unemployment could also refer to a skills mismatch between the skills an employer requires and the skills that the employee provides leading to further unemployment because of the mismatch.

Unemployment is multidimensional. It can be caused by a range of different phenomena that affect the nature of unemployment. The different causes of unemployment include the closing down of socio-economic activity, relocating socio economic activity intensifying labour, job search, outsourcing, and rigid wages.

The different measures of unemployment include:

- The census method which is aimed at estimating the population rather than obtaining information on employment and unemployment.
- The registration method which enables people to register as unemployed hoping to find employment.
- The sample survey method which is aimed at providing insights into and perspectives on the most important elements of a country's unemployment profile.

Poverty and unemployment have a considerable effect on a household's structure. A household is one or more people who share cooking and eating arrangements. The household head is the person primarily responsible for child care, breadwinning and household supervision. Poor households can be characterised as mostly being female-headed, consisting of members from different generations, live in poor housing conditions with a high unemployment rate among its members.

A child-headed household is defined as a household where everyone who lives there is younger than 18 years of age, i.e. a child-headed household is a household consisting only of children under the age of 18. Factors that lead to the establishment of child-headed include the lack of extended family members able to care for the children due to distance and lack of financial resources or the parents may be in jail. The difficulties faced by child-headed households include children having to leave school to work, malnutrition, ill health, and loss of assets.

Children living in poverty face severe consequences such as low self-esteem and ill health. Children bear no responsibility for living in poverty, but these children are punished not only in childhood but also later in life due to poor health and

educational resources. A child's poverty status has a great impact on the future as they may, for instance, lack funds for further education and end up working in low income jobs.

A model for measuring child poverty is necessary because some rudiments of poverty are child-specific such as schooling and child development. Such a model would also make it possible to define poor children.

Grandmothers are the most appropriate care givers of children whose parents have died or are unable to provide care. Some grandmothers find themselves obliged to take on the responsibility of caring for their grandchildren although they were not prepared for the parenting role but they have to foster these children for their own welfare. The characteristics of grandmother-headed household comprise of skipped generation families with parents absent from the home. These families have unique multigenerational patterns and family structures and can be compared with the "sandwich" generation in which middle aged daughters care for both the children and aging parents. The second characteristic of grandmother-headed households is that the parental role is assumed off-time which means that grandmothers are unable to perform the expected roles fully due to the fact that they may be going through certain developmental and ageing stages. Grandmothers worry about the children's financial wellbeing due to lack of income but some grandmothers welcome the idea of parenting, nurturing family legacies through the lives of the grandchildren and receiving the affection and companionship of a child.

The study made use of a variety of household level indicators to examine the level of poverty and unemployment in Sebokeng in comparison to Bophelong. The population of Sebokeng is estimated at 222 044 which is greater than that of Bophelong (37 779) both for 2003. The population of Sebokeng has more females than males and a similar case exists for Bophelong, however, the population growth rate for females is lower than that of their male counterparts.

The dependency ratio which is an indicator of the number of persons who depend on the income of one earner was determined to be 4.2 for Sebokeng and 5.5 for Bophelong according to the 2009 Survey data.

The unemployment rate for the interviewed sample population of Sebokeng is estimated at 27% which is less than that of Bophelong of 31% in 2009. The population of Sebokeng is more concentrated in the informal sector (5% for the non poor and 17% for the poor population) while the population of Bophelong is more concentrated in the formal sector (16% and 11% respectively). The average household size for Sebokeng is 4.2 while the figure for Bophelong is 3.5.

For the population of Sebokeng, the greatest percentage of those employed is in the gardener/domestic worker sector as well as in the construction sector (66% for both sectors for the interviewed sample population of Sebokeng which is higher than 50% for both sectors for the poor population). For Sebokeng, a higher percentage (36%) of the unemployed was unemployed for 5 to 7 years while a higher percentage (24%) was unemployed for 5 to 7 years in Bophelong. This explains the higher unemployment in Sebokeng. For both populations unemployment appears to be rife among young people.

For the population of Sebokeng, a higher percentage of the population has skills in hairdressing while the females prefer to be trained in hairdressing, catering and sewing. The males are more skilled in carpentry and prefer to be trained in the carpentry and farming sector. In comparison, the poor populations of the two townships prefer training in catering.

The headcount index for Sebokeng is 0.85 which means that 41 333 households live in poverty. About 20% of the population of Sebokeng have incomes less than 50% of their HSL and the poverty gap ratio is 0.59 which mean that on average, poor households lack 59% of their income to obtain a level equal to their poverty line. The figure for Bophelong is 14% of households below their HSL and a poverty gap ratio of 0.49 indicating that Bophelong has a lower level of poverty compared to Sebokeng.

The average household income for Sebokeng was estimated to be almost half as of Bophelong at R1 187, 85 compared to that of Bophelong at R2 214. 24. Both townships have more or less the same expenditure patterns with maize meal being the highest expenditure item for the population Sebokeng while meat is the

highest expenditure item in Bophelong. However, both townships spend most of their income on food which means that the two townships live in poverty.

The population of Sebokeng reported to be more affected by pollution (air, dust and noise) as opposed to the residents of Bophelong. About 4% of the households in Sebokeng reported to be affected by crime which is less than the percentage of households in Bophelong (16%) that have been affected by crime.

The comparison of child and grandmother-headed households revealed that more orphans from grandmother-headed households lost their parents to the HIV/AIDS pandemic and murder (55% and 16% respectively) in comparison to the orphans from child-headed households (24% and 0% respectively). A total of 48% of the orphans from child-headed households have been orphaned for 3 to 4 years which is more than that of orphans from grandmother-headed households (22%).

The percentage of orphans in both types of households who have identity documents and birth certificates amounts to 35% which is less than the percentage of orphans from both household types without birth certificates (65%). This means that more orphans are struggling to access social grants and other essential services provided by government.

The comparison between child-headed, grandmother-headed and “normal” households in terms of school attendance indication is that there is a higher percentage of orphans in child-headed households who are attending school with 13% doing grade 12. Only 2% of the orphans from grandmother-headed households are doing grade 12 which is similar to that of “normal” households.

Child-headed households have the least percentage of orphans with a grade 12 qualification (3%) followed by “normal” households at 11% while the orphans from grandmother-headed households have the highest percentage (40%) of orphans with a grade 12. Orphans living with a grandmother therefore stand a better chance of finding employment. On the other hand, learners from child-headed households have a better academic performance in comparison to those of from grandmother-headed households. This could be because the orphans from child-headed households are motivated to change their poor situation.

With regards to services provided by government, orphans from both types of households have 100% access to basic health care facilities, while more support is provided by schools to orphans from child headed households (70%) in comparison to those living with grandmothers (64%). This is so because the orphans from child-headed households do not have the adult care and support that the orphans residing with grandmothers have.

Orphans from child-headed households mostly depend on the support provided by community workers and the community as a whole while no support is received from social workers. In comparison, the orphans residing with grandmothers are at an advantage as they receive more support from social workers, community workers and the community at large. The orphans from child-headed households thus lack the support from social services.

With regards to the future, 38% of the orphans from child-headed households wish to find employment in the form of casual and weekend jobs to make ends meet while 54% of the orphans from grandmother-headed households are more concerned with getting an education. This may be so because orphans from child-headed households are more desperate to generate income as opposed to going to school.

Orphan grants serve as the main source of income for child-headed households (54%) while pension grants are the most important sources of income in grandmother-headed and “normal” households (65% and 41% respectively). Therefore, households with pension earners are better off financially as opposed to the child-headed households earning orphan grants.

With regards to expenditure on different items, child-headed, and “normal” households spend more on maize meal (R11 412 per month and R124 752 per year respectively) while grandmother-headed spend more on meat/chicken (R38 185) in comparison to other items. Food is also the largest expenditure item for all three households thus serving as an indication of the depth of poverty in all three household types.

### **5.3 CONCLUSIONS**

From the study it can thus be concluded that Sebokeng, just like any other township in the Vaal Triangle, is a victim of poverty and unemployment. With unemployment rate so extreme in this township (at 27%), poverty (at 85%) has become a part of the lives of the residents. If more people were trained in their preferred sectors then the unemployment rate would not be so high. It can thus be concluded that unemployment causes poverty. The vulnerable, being child and grandmother-headed households are the biggest victims of poverty in the population of Sebokeng with grants from the social system serving as their only means of income. A household which prioritises its expenditure on food is in poverty because no other expenditure item is able to support their need for food except for food itself. With child-headed households lacking the support and guidance from adult care givers, the future often appears to be bleak. If more social worker assistance was available to these orphans (for example they should provide assistance in applying for identity documents to access the necessary grants) then more orphans would be able to satisfy their most basic needs. But with the support from schools, churches and members of the community at large these orphans feel a sense of security and warmth. The study proved that orphans from child-headed households have the lowest income in comparison to grandmother-headed households and “normal” households.

Orphans living with grandmothers have the comfort and care as the grandmother play a vital role in ensuring that they are clothed, fed, educated and raised with morals and values so they can be responsible citizens of this country. The same goes for children residing in “normal” households. It can thus be concluded that orphans from child-headed households are worse off (due to low income, low expenditure, and lack of social worker assistance) in comparison to orphans residing with grandmothers and children living in “normal” households.

### **5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.4.1 The need for skills training in the preferred sectors**

The unemployment rate in Sebokeng can be reduced if more jobs were to be created in the sectors in which the population is more skilled and proficient in

(Hairdressing, Catering/cooking, Carpentry and Gardening/farming). Poor households can also be encouraged to take part in programmes that will enable them to generate income and reduce hunger such as food gardening projects.

#### **5.4.2 The need for further government intervention in the lives of child and grandmother-headed households**

From the study it appears that government should pay more attention to the needs of orphans, especially those residing in child-headed households. Recommendations for government's assistance are as follows:

- The allocation of social workers to each child and grandmother-headed household to ensure that the orphans have access to essential government services such as acquiring identity documents and birth certificates at the Department of Home Affairs. With these documents, all the orphans will have access to government grants and those who want to further their education are able to do so because without identity documents many orphans are unable to complete their high school education;
- Orphans can be placed in foster care homes by the social security system where caring parents are able to ensure that their emotional, economic, social and academic needs are met. Alternatively, orphans can be placed in orphanages where they will receive the care of the people who have dedicated their time to help raise such vulnerable children;
- More support from government should be given to orphans from both child and grandmother-headed households in the form of school uniforms and books as these children can hardly afford to purchase such items.
- The focus should also be on the nutritional needs of the orphans as they sometimes go hungry for days. Government should pay special attention to this specific need by issuing food parcels;
- Schools should also motivate and create awareness to these children about the importance of going to school and getting an education to improve their lives;

- The government should also take the responsibility of creating awareness of the existence of child-headed households to reduce the social exclusion that is suffered by some of these households. The more society becomes aware of such households, the more accepted they will be; and
- Care givers and home-based care workers should give increased support to grandmothers as some of them are very old and have difficulties raising the orphans properly.

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## **ANNEXURE A: SURVEY DESIGN AND APPLICATION**

Three questionnaires were employed in obtaining data from child headed, grand mother-headed and normal households in Sebokeng: the Household Survey Questionnaire, the Questionnaire for the Child-headed households Survey and the Questionnaire for the Grandmother-headed households Survey Questionnaire. The Household Survey Questionnaire was compiled from a number of other questionnaires used in the field such as by Slabbert (2003). In total 100 household questionnaires, 17 child-headed household questionnaires and 23 grandmother-headed household questionnaires were employed.

Maps of Sebokeng were obtained from the Emfuleni Local Municipality. These were used to stratify the area and allocate questionnaires evenly throughout the township. All three Household Questionnaires were completed on site. Details regarding the site were listed but no names were recorded with regard to the head of the household or other persons living on the site. This was done to ensure anonymity, thereby encouraging honest and reliable information.

Samples of all three questionnaires are annexed hereto.

### **Fieldworkers**

Two researchers interviewed a total of 140 households. All the households approached were willing to partake in the survey and 140 questionnaires were completed in July 2009.

## ANNEXURE B: HOUSEHOLD QUESTIONNAIRE JUNE 2009

SEBOKENG	Section: Old / RDP / shack	Date:	Questionnaire no:
Street:	House number:	Interviewer:	

*N.B.: The information in this questionnaire will be treated in strict confidence.*

Please note that the Head of the Household should preferably answer this questionnaire.

### A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. What is the position of the respondent in the Household? Cross \*

Head of household	Spouse or child	Extended family member	Boarder
-------------------	-----------------	------------------------	---------

2. How many housing units are on the site?

3. How many people stay permanently on the site?

4. How long have you (respondent) stayed in the Vaal Triangle (years)?

### B: ENVIRONMENTAL

5. How do you feel about the environment in which you stay? (Mark 2 options) \*

1. It is clean and pleasant	2. It is littered, untidy and dirty	3. Indifferent – No opinion	4. Something should be done to clean it	5. It can be left as it is
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6. If you feel it should be cleaned up, who should take the initiative and responsibility? (\* More)

1. The municipality	2. A street committee	3. Everyone should be made responsible	4. A campaign should be organised	5. Other: explain
---------------------	-----------------------	--	-----------------------------------	-------------------

7. If you would have the money, what would you be prepared to pay monthly to have your environment cleaned up?

8. How do you experience, especially in winter, the smoke levels (air pollution) in your area? \*

1. Not affected	2. Slightly affected	3. Affected	4. Badly affected	5. Unbearable (Severely Affected)
-----------------	----------------------	-------------	-------------------	-----------------------------------

9. If you are making fire for cooking & heating purposes, would you like to be introduced to technologies that will reduce the smoke levels at your house? \*

1. Not making fire: using electricity for cooking and heating	2. Making coal / wood fire: but not interested	3. Making coal / wood fire: And interested	4. Using paraffin: Not interested	5. Using paraffin: Interested
---	--	--	-----------------------------------	-------------------------------

10. What would you be prepared to pay monthly to have your environment smoke-free?

a) What % of the smoke pollution do you think comes from industry?  and coal fires?

b) Number of persons in your household whose health is affected by air pollution?

c) What are most of them suffering from?

11. How do you experience, especially in winter, the dust levels in your area? \*

1. Not affected	2. Slightly affected	3. Affected	4. Badly affected	5. Unbearable (Severely Affected)
-----------------	----------------------	-------------	-------------------	-----------------------------------

12. What would you be prepared to pay monthly to have your environment dust free?

13. Especially in the spring & summer some people are using amplifiers to make loud music. How are you affected by this in your area? \*

1. Not affected (quiet in the area).	2. I hear it but I don't care (accepting it)	3. I hear it and it is affecting me (don't like it)	4. I hear it and I am badly affected	5. I hear it and it is unbearable (severely affected)
--------------------------------------	--	---	--------------------------------------	---

14. If you feel that something should be done in your area to reduce the noise levels, who should be responsible and what should be done? (Mark \* more than one option)

1. The municipality should control & restrict people to play loud music.	2. The police should control & restrict people to play loud music.	3. A street committee should control & restrict people to play loud music.	4. People who disturb the neighbourhood with noise should be fined / punished	5. The instruments of those who disturb the neighbourhood should be confiscated
--	--	--	---	---

15. If you would have the money, what would you be prepared to pay monthly to have your environment quiet?

16. Has any person in your household been a victim of crime in the last 12 months?  Yes/ No

17. What kind of crime? (Can mark \* more than one option)

1. Assault	2. Robbery	3. Rape	4. Murder	5. Abduction	6. Other
------------	------------	---------	-----------	--------------	----------

**C: CONSUMPTION**

**18. How much of the following items does your household buy per week/per month & about how much does your household spend on these items per week/per month?**

<b>Product</b>	<b>Kilograms / litres per week</b>	<b>Kilograms / litres per month</b>	<b>Rand per week</b>	<b>Rand per month</b>	<b>Town ✓</b>	<b>Township ✓</b>
1. Maize Meal						
2. Bread						
3. Meat / chicken						
4. Vegetables						
5. Milk						
6. Washing powder						
7. Coal						
8. Paraffin						

**19 How does your household spend their income monthly?**

Item	Rand per month	Name of shop	Town	T/ship	
Housing (Rent/Bond)					1
Water					2
Electricity					3
Other energy (coal, paraffin etc)					4
Food					5
Cleaning materials					6
Cigarettes & Tobacco					7
Beer, wine & spirits					8
Transport: Taxi..... Car..... Other.....		Total			9
Clothing					10
School					11
Entertainment					12
Medical Expenses					13
Insurance					14
GAMBLING: Lotto.....					15
Horseracing.....					16
Other (casino etc).....					17
Savings					18
Licenses (e.g. TV, Vehicle)					19
Rates and taxes					20
Housekeeping Services (e.g. Garden)					21
Telephone.....					22
Cell.....					23
Car Repayment					24
Loan repayments					25
Furniture					26
Other: Specify					27

## D: EMPLOYMENT & EDUCATION STATUS

### 20 How does your household spend their income monthly?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Number of people in the household								
2. Composition of members (Code list 2)								
3. Age of each member in years								
4. Sex (Male = 1; female = 2)								
5. Marital Status (code list 5)								
6. Qualifications (still at school) (Code list 6)								
7. Qualifications (not at school) (Code list 7)								
8. Employment Status (Code list 8)								
9. Sector of employment (Code list 9)								
10. Has your salary increased as a result of minimum wages? (10)								
11. Can employer afford increases because of minimum wages?								
12. Working hours been reduced because of minimum wages?								
13. <b>(10 – 17 for <u>unemployed</u> only)</b> Skills of the unemployed								
14. Duration of unemployment in years								
15. Dismissed because employer could not afford minimum wage								
16. Willingness & type of Skills Training required (code list 13)								
17. What is the Unemployed doing presently								
18. Do you have matric exemption?								
19. If persons would like to study further: preferences								
20. Preferences to start self-sustaining activities								
21. Minimum wage required to take a job								
22. <b>Income:</b> Wages/salaries per month (Take home pay)								
23. Pension/Remittance								
24. Child Grant from Government								
25. Other Grants from Government								
26. Help (family/relatives/etc) Also help in kind								
27. Informal activities (e.g. SMME)								
28. Subsidies (e.g. Housing)								
29. Interest/dividends								
30. Other (Specify)								

21. Does someone in your household have a vegetable garden?.....

22. Would someone in your household be interested in receiving assistance to start a food garden in your yard?

Yes	No
-----	----

23. Would someone in your household like to be involved in a community food garden project?

Yes	No
-----	----

24. Would someone in your household be interested in farming?

Yes	No
-----	----

25. Do you know small farmers in the area? If so, give the address:

\_\_\_\_\_

26. Has any member of your household operated a SMME / still operating one? If so, what kind of SMME?

Yes	No
-----	----

\_\_\_\_\_

27 Taking into account your skills (or that of your household members), would you or someone in your household (unemployed persons) be interested in starting your own business or would you rather work together with others in a cooperative?

Own business	cooperative
--------------	-------------

28 What kind of business would you like to start?

\_\_\_\_\_

29 If you would like to star your own business, what kind of support do you think you will need?

30 Do you know somebody with a catering business in your township.....

Yes	No
-----	----

31 Do you think you will get a better trained?.....

Yes	No
-----	----

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!**

Source: Adapted from Slabbert

## ANNEXURE C: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR CHILD-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS JUNE 2009

SEBOKENG	Section: Old / RDP / shack	Date:	Questionnaire no:
Street:	House number:	Interviewer:	

***N.B.: The information in this questionnaire will be treated in strict confidence.***

**Please note that the Head of the Household should preferably answer this questionnaire.**

### A.: QUESTIONS FOR CHILD-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS

**1. What caused your orphanhood?**

HIV/AIDS	Murder	Other
----------	--------	-------

**2. For how long have you been orphans?**

--

**3. Do you receive support from school?**

Yes	No	Sometimes
-----	----	-----------

**4. Do you receive support from the church/ community?**

Yes	No	Sometimes
-----	----	-----------

**5. Do you have a social worker looking after your interests?**

Yes	No
-----	----

**6. Do you receive support from home-based care facilities/community development workers?**

Yes	No	Sometimes
-----	----	-----------

**7. Do you have access to healthcare facilities?**

Yes	No
-----	----

**8. Do you have ID's/ Birth Certificates?**

Yes	No
-----	----

**9. What are your dreams and how do you want to change your situation?**

1. Find employment	2. Be an entrepreneur	3. Finish school	4. Get a tertiary education
--------------------	-----------------------	------------------	-----------------------------

**10. Sources of income**

1. Grants	2. Help from relatives	3. income from informal activities
-----------	------------------------	------------------------------------

**11. Consumption**

Product	Kilograms / litres per week	Kilograms / litres per month	Rand per week	Rand per month	Town ✓	Town -ship ✓
1. Maize Meal						
2. Bread						
3. Meat / chicken						
4. Vegetables						
5. Milk						
6. Washing powder						

## 12. EDUCATION AND FINANCIAL STATUS

1 Number of people in the household	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
2. Orphans still in school (codelist 1)								
3. Orphans out of school (codelist 2)								
4. Income								
5. Child Grant from Government (codelist 3)								
6. Help from relatives (codelist 4)								
7. Informal activities (e.g. SMME) (codelist 5)								

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!**

**Source: Own construction**

## ANNEXURE D: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR GRANDMOTHER-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS JUNE 2009

SEBOKENG	Section: Old / RDP / shack	Date:	Questionnaire no:
Street:	House number:	Interviewer:	

***N.B.: The information in this questionnaire will be treated in strict confidence.***

**Please note that the Head of the Household should preferably answer this questionnaire.**

### A: QUESTIONS FOR GRANDMOTHER-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS

**1. What cause the of your grandchildren's orphanhood?**

HIV/AIDS	Murder	Other
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**2. How low have you been staying with the orphans?**

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**3. Do you receive support from schools?**

Yes	No
-----	----

**5. Do you have a social worker looking after your interests?**

Yes	No
-----	----

**6. Do you have community workers/home based care facilities looking after your interests?**

Yes	No
-----	----

**7. Do you have access to healthcare facilities?**

Yes	No
-----	----

**8. Do you have ID's/ Birth Certificates?**

Yes	No
-----	----

**9. What are your dreams and how do you want to change your situation?**

1. Find employment	2. Be an entrepreneur	3. Finish school	4. Get a tertiary education
--------------------	-----------------------	------------------	-----------------------------

**10 Sources of income:**

1. Grants	2. Help from relatives	3. Income from informal activities
-----------	------------------------	------------------------------------

## 11 Consumption

Product	Kilograms / litres per week	Kilograms / litres per month	Rand per week	Rand per month	Town ✓	Town-ship ✓
1. Maize Meal						
2. Bread						
3. Meat / chicken						
4. Vegetables						
5. Milk						
6. Washing powder						

## 12 EDUCATION AND FINANCIAL STATUS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Number of people in the household								
2. Orphans still in school (codelist 1)								
3. Orphans out of school (codelist 2)								
4. Income								
5. Child Grant from Government (codelist 3)								
6. Help from relatives (codelist 4)								
7. Informal activities (e.g. SMME) (codelist 5)								

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!**

**Source: Own construction**

## ANNEXURE E: METHODOLOGY FOR MEASURING POVERTY

Poverty can be defined as being a lack of command over commodities in general deemed essential to constitute a reasonable standard of living in society, or lack of ability to function in society. This definition also emphasises command over resources as well as the lack of participation or “voice” in governance and civil matters.

The simplest method of measuring poverty is to express the number of the poor as a proportion the population. The headcount index can be defined as a fraction of the population below the poverty line the “headcount” measure is by far the most commonly calculated measure of poverty.

The purpose of the headcount index is therefore to quantify the number of those individuals or households who fall below the poverty line. If the distribution of income is represented by  $y$  and the poverty line is  $z$ , a poverty measure may be expressed by the function  $P(y; z)$ . A population of  $N$  income units with income  $y_i$ , ( $i=1 \dots N$ ) ranked in ascending order by subscript,  $M$  units have income less than  $z$ , then the headcount ratio ( $H$ ) may be defined as follows:

$$\text{Headcount index} = H(y; z) = \frac{M}{N}$$

Where

$H$  = fraction of households below the poverty line;

$Y$  = household income;

$Z$  = the poverty line of households;

$M$  = the number of households with income less than  $z$ ;

$N$  = the total number of households.

The headcount index has been criticised for not measuring the extent of poverty. To make up for this shortcoming, the poverty gap ratio is normally used. The poverty gap measures the average shortfall of the incomes of the poor from the poverty line while the poverty gap index measures the extent of the shortfall of

incomes below the poverty line. The poverty gap of an individual household (in monetary terms) can therefore be expressed by the equation:

$$G_i(y,z) = z_i - y_i$$

Where:

$G_i$  = the income shortfall of the household;

$y_i$  = the income of a specific household;

$z_i$  = the poverty line of a specific household.

From the equation above, it is clear that the poverty can only be reduced by an increase in the household income. The poverty gap index is concerned with the depth of poverty (its magnitude) and therefore measuring the extent of the shortfall of income below the poverty line

Source: Sekatane, 2004:36.

## ANNEXURE F: METHODOLOGY FOR MEASURING UNEMPLOYMENT

- Different sets of information can be used to measure unemployment the census method, registration method, and the sample survey method (Mohr *et al.*, 2004:562).
- The census method which is aimed at estimating the population rather than obtaining information on employment and unemployment. The disadvantage of this method is that the focus of the census is on estimating the population rather than obtaining information about employment and unemployment (Mohr *et al.*, 2004:562).
- The registration method which enables people to register as unemployed hoping to find employment. One outstanding disadvantage with the registration method is that registration is voluntary. Only a small portion of unemployed persons take the trouble to register, mainly only those who are eligible for employment benefits ((Mohr *et al.*, 2004:562).
- The sample survey method which is aimed at providing insights into and perspectives on the most important elements of a country's unemployment profile. The advantage of the sample survey method is that it provides insight into and perspectives on the most important elements of the country's unemployment profile (Mohr *et al.*, 2004:562).

Barker (2003:202) states that unemployment rate is the number of unemployed persons taken as a percentage of the total Economically Active Population (EAP), which includes both the employed and the unemployed. The unemployment rate is thus:

$$\frac{\text{Number of unemployed persons}}{\text{Total labour force (EAP)}} \times \frac{100}{1} = U_r$$

