AN ANALYSIS OF RURAL POVERTY IN SOUTH AFRICA SINCE 1994

by

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AN ANALYSIS OF RURAL POVERTY IN SOUTH AFRICA SINCE 1994

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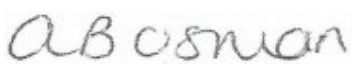

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ABSTRACT

Considerable progress has been made globally with regard to the poverty question. The greatest reduction in poverty has been in China where millions have been moved out of poverty and this has been due to China's impressive economic growth. However, extreme poverty has grown in Sub-Saharan Africa, and it is estimated that over half of those living in extreme poverty live in this region. The main reason for this is the population growth rate of this area which has surpassed the growth in Gross Domestic Product. This pattern is likely to continue into the future especially when the damaging economic effects of the lockdowns following the COVID-19 pandemic are considered.

Poverty rates are not as high in South Africa as they are in the rest of the continent. Considerable progress has been made by the South African Government to address the poverty that is found in the country. Various poverty alleviation policies have been implemented along with the introduction of the social wage. Despite this, a significant number of South Africans still suffer from poverty as they do not have adequate access to services such as healthcare, clean water and sanitation. Poverty has essentially become deeper, more unequal and mostly found in the rural areas of the country. Rural poverty in South Africa was therefore the main focus of this research with an emphasis on how it has changed since 1994. The results of the study will provide greater insight into the rural poverty found in the country. This will allow policymakers to be better informed as to how to address this issue going forward.

A qualitative research methodology which involved a literature review and an investigation using a descriptive-analytical approach was used in the study. Predominantly rural local municipalities (which are those where the rural population represents over 50% of the total) in the provinces of the North West, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, KwaZulu-Natal, and the Eastern Cape were examined. Unidimensional measures of poverty (for example the Gini coefficient) were used in the research. Numerous multidimensional measures of poverty (such as the unemployment rate and life expectancy) were also utilised. The use of these various poverty measures ensured that a more holistic perspective of poverty, and more specifically rural poverty, was provided.

Findings from the research showed that monetary poverty declined throughout the rural areas of these provinces. Some improvements in multidimensional poverty were also seen such as lowering dependency ratios and increased numbers of residents who had access to education, electricity and own or have paid off their houses. Unfortunately, the data did suggest some worrying trends as well. The Gini coefficient had increased in these areas indicating growing levels of income inequality. Unemployment rates had also grown making it more and more difficult for rural dwellers to find employment. This was probably one of the major reasons for the rural/urban migration and civil unrest which has been seen in the country. A third concern was the poor service delivery with extremely low levels of provision of flush toilets, piped water and weekly refuse removal in the rural areas. There was also very uneven access to services across the predominantly rural local municipalities. The percentage of rural residents with access to electricity and a formal dwelling was much higher than those with access to other basic services such as water. This indicates that while some elements of the rural poverty question have been addressed in South Africa, other elements have not. The South African Government needs to start addressing these particular issues if they want to eradicate rural poverty in the country by 2030.

KEY TERMS:
Predominantly rural areas; socio-economic indicators; poverty alleviation; South Africa; rural poverty; poverty; North West; Limpopo; Mpumalanga, KwaZulu-Natal; Eastern Cape.

ABSTRAKTE

Aansienlike vordering is wêreldwyd gemaak met betrekking tot die armoedevraagstuk. Die grootste vermindering in armoede was in China waar miljoene uit armoede geskuif is en dit was as gevolg van China se indrukwekkende ekonomiese groei. Uiterste armoede het egter in Afrika suid van die Sahara toegeneem, en daar word beraam dat meer as die helfte van diegene wat in uiterste armoede leef, in hierdie streek woon. Die hoofrede hiervoor is die bevolkingsgroeikoers van hierdie gebied wat die groei in bruto binnelandse produk oortref het. Hierdie patroon sal waarskynlik in die toekoms voortduur, veral wanneer die skadelike ekonomiese gevolge van die inperkings ná die COVID-19-pandemie oorweeg word.

Armoede is nie so hoog in Suid-Afrika soos in die res van die vasteland nie. Aansienlike vordering is deur die Suid-Afrikaanse regering gemaak om die armoede wat in die land voorkom, die hoof te bied. Verskeie armoedeverligtingsbeleide is geïmplementeer saam met die instelling van die sosiale loon. Ten spyte hiervan ly 'n beduidende aantal Suid-Afrikaners steeds onder armoede omdat hulle nie voldoende toegang tot dienste soos gesondheidsorg, skoon water en sanitasie het nie. Armoede het in wese dieper, meer ongelyk geword en word meestal in die landelike gebiede van die land aangetref. Landelike armoede in Suid-Afrika was dus die hooffokus van hierdie navorsing met die klem op hoe dit sedert 1994 verander het. Die resultate van die studie sal groter insig gee in die landelike armoede wat in die land voorkom. Dit sal beleidmakers in staat stel om beter ingelig te wees oor hoe om hierdie kwessie vorentoe aan te spreek.

'n Kwalitatiewe navorsingsmetodologie wat 'n literatuuroorsig en 'n ondersoek met behulp van 'n beskrywend-analitiese benadering behels het, is in die studie gebruik. Oorwegend landelike plaaslike munisipaliteite (dit is dié waar die landelike bevolking meer as 50% van die totaal verteenwoordig) in die provinsies Noordwes, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, KwaZulu-Natal en die Oos-Kaap is ondersoek. Eendimensionele maatstawwe van armoede (byvoorbeeld die Gini-koëffisiënt) is in die navorsing gebruik. Talle multidimensionele maatreëls van armoede (soos die werkloosheidsyfer en lewensverwagting) is ook toegepas. Die gebruik van hierdie verskillende

armoedemaatreëls het verseker dat 'n meer holistiese perspektief van armoede, en meer spesifiek landelike armoede, verskaf is.

Bevindinge van die navorsing het getoon dat geldelike armoede in die landelike gebiede van hierdie provinsies afgeneem het. Sommige verbeterings in multidimensionele armoede is ook gesien, soos die verlaging van afhanklikheidsverhoudings en 'n groter aantal inwoners wat toegang tot onderwys, elektrisiteit en hul huise besit of afbetaal het. Ongelukkig het die data ook 'n paar kommerwekkende neigings voorgestel. Die Gini-koëffisiënt het in hierdie gebiede toegeneem, wat dui op groeiende vlakke van ongelykheid in inkomste. Werkloosheidsyfers het ook toegeneem, wat dit al hoe moeiliker maak vir landelike inwoners om werk te kry. Dit was waarskynlik een van die belangrikste redes vir die landelike/stedelike migrasie en burgerlike onrus wat in die land gesien is. 'n Derde bekommernis was die swak dienslewering met uiters lae vlakke van voorsiening van spoeltoilette, pypwater en weeklikse vullisverwydering in die landelike gebiede. Daar was ook baie ongelyke toegang tot dienste in die oorwegend landelike plaaslike munisipaliteite. Die persentasie landelike inwoners met toegang tot elektrisiteit en 'n formele woning was baie hoër as dié met toegang tot ander basiese dienste soos water. Dit dui daarop dat hoewel sommige elemente van die landelike armoedevraagstuk in Suid-Afrika aangespreek is, ander elemente dit nie gedoen het nie. Die Suid-Afrikaanse Regering moet hierdie spesifieke kwessies begin aanspreek as hulle landelike armoede in die land teen 2030 wil uitwis.

SLEUTELTERME:
Oorwegend landelike gebiede; sosio-ekonomiese aanwysers; armoedeverligting; Suid-Afrika; landelike armoede; Armoede; Noordwes; Limpopo; Mpumalanga, KwaZulu-Natal; Oos-Kaap.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AsgiSA	Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa
BNA	Basic Needs Approach
COSATU	Congress of South African Trade Unions
COVID-19	Coronavirus disease 2019
CSG	Child Support Grant
CSS	Central Statistical Service
CWP	Community Work Programme
DG	Disability Grant
EPWP	Extended Public Works Programme
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FPL	Food Poverty Line
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEAR	Growth, Employment and Redistribution Strategy
GNI	Gross National Income
HDI	Human Development Index
HPI	Human Poverty Index
IPL	International Poverty Line
ISRDS	Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy
LBPL	Lower-Bound Poverty Line
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MPI	Multidimensional Poverty Index
NDP	National Development Plan
NIC	Newly Industrialised Country
OAG	Old Age Grant
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OHS	October Household Survey
OPHI	Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative
PPA	Poverty-Participation Approach
PSLSD	Project for Statistics on Living Standards and Development
RDF	Rural Development Framework

RDP	Rural Development Programme
SALDRU	Southern Africa Labour and Research Development Unit
SAMPI	South African Multidimensional Poverty Index
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SMG	State Maintenance Grant
UBPL	Upper-Bound Poverty Line
UIF	Unemployment Insurance Fund
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction: Context and Background

In 1937 much of the world was living in poverty. In that same year President Roosevelt, in his second inaugural address, said 'The test of our progress is not whether we add more to the abundance of those who have much: it is whether we provide enough for those who have too little' (Jefferson, 2018: 136). Considerable progress has been made in addressing the scourge of poverty in the world since the time of Roosevelt's inaugural speech. In 1940 world poverty stood at about 58%. By 1960, this figure had dropped to 50%, was just under 36% in 1980 (Ravallion, 2015) and had declined further to 8.2% by 2019. The greatest reduction in poverty has been in East Asia where millions of people have been moved out of extreme poverty by China's economic rise. Average poverty rates in this area have dropped from 62% in 1990 to less than 3% in 2015. However, extreme poverty has increased in Sub-Saharan Africa, and by 2015, approximately half of the world's extreme poor were living in this area. The majority (96%) of the world's poorest countries are also found in Sub-Saharan Africa with all of them suffering from poverty rates in excess of 30%. Forecasts indicate that by 2030, the majority (90%) of the world's extremely poor will be living in Sub-Saharan Africa (Barros & Gupta, 2017; Fosu & Gafa, 2020; Jefferson, 2018; United Nations, 2020; World Bank, 2018a).

During the mid-1990s Africa, as a continent, experienced a dramatic economic turnaround and moved from what Beegle, Christiaensen, Dabalen and Gaddis (2016:1) described as a 'growth tragedy' to one of 'Africa rising'. Following 20 years of economic decline in the 1970s and 1980s, the continent grew economically at 4.5% per annum. This was mainly due to declining civil strife, improved macroeconomic fundamentals and governance, a commodity super-cycle and the exploitation of new natural resources. Despite this economic growth and a decrease in the poverty rate from 57% in 1990 to 43% in 2012, a great deal of the population in Africa still continues to live below the International Poverty Line (IPL) of US$1.90 a day. The absolute

number of people who are poor and living on the continent rose from 288 million in 1990 to 389 million in 2012 and 413 million in 2015. The main reason for this has been that the rate of population growth has outpaced that of Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The GDP growth rate has very rarely surpassed 5% and has actually declined in recent years (in 2018 the annual per capita GDP growth was -0.3%) (Beegle et al., 2016; Christiaensen & Hill, 2019; Montes, Silwal, Newhouse, Chen, Swindle & Tian, 2020; World Bank, 2018a). This pattern is likely to endure into the coming decade especially with the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic and its negative effect on economic growth.

As these forecasts suggest, extreme poverty is becoming a predominantly African phenomenon. In 2002, 25% of the world's extremely poor lived in Sub-Saharan Africa. However, by 2015, this region was home to more extreme poor (some 413 million people) than anywhere else in the world combined (Christiaensen & Hill, 2019; World Bank, 2018a). Poverty in Africa is both transitory and chronic in nature. Some 60% of Africa's poor are considered to be generationally or chronically poor. This means that they have been poor for numerous years in a row and have no hope of exiting this cycle of poverty. This implies that poverty in Africa remains deeply structural and stems from a weak access to public goods as well as a lack of assets and poor income-earning prospects. Transitory poverty affects the remaining 40% of Africa's poor. Transitory poverty is also known as situational poverty and occurs where people or families are poor because of a misfortune like an earthquake, flood, or serious illness (Akhtar, Zafar, Ahmad & Nawaz, 2018; Christiaensen & Hill, 2019).

Poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa can be better understood by looking at those factors associated with poverty. One such factor is the population growth rate. The population of this area has grown at a higher rate than any other region in the world. Africa's total fertility rate is high with 4.8 births per woman being measured. This correlates to one birth per woman higher in Africa compared to their contemporaries living in low- and middle-income countries outside of Africa. Per capita incomes in Africa have also grown more slowly due to a much larger share of GDP growth being eroded by the faster population growth (Christiaensen & Hill, 2019; Christiaensen, Demery & Hill, 2019; World Bank, 2018a).

Another contributing factor to the sluggish decline in extreme poverty across Sub-Saharan Africa is that economic growth in this region has not reached the poor as well as it has in other regions. This can be highlighted by the region's low growth elasticity of poverty. For every percentage increase in GDP per capita, poverty in a typical African country has only fallen by 0.7%, whereas in other typical non-African developing country it has fallen by 2%. Africa has been less capable of converting per capita GDP growth into household income growth (Christiaensen & Hill, 2019; World Bank, 2018a).

In general, extreme poverty continues to be overwhelmingly and disproportionately rural. Some 66% of the world's poor people live in the rural areas of low-income countries. Most of these people rely on subsistence farming and other natural resources for their livelihood (Mishi, Sikhunyana, Ngonyama & Sibanda, 2020). The rural areas account for approximately 79% of the total poor. The rate of poverty in rural areas is more than three times as high as that found in urban areas. Although Africa is urbanising rapidly, 65% to 70% of its population still remain predominantly rural and reside in rural areas (Beegle et al., 2016). Rural poverty is also strongly associated with agriculture, and agricultural workers constitute almost 66% of the extreme poor. Despite this, nonfarm employment does not ensure an escape from poverty. A considerable number of adults who live in both rural and urban areas are employed in nonfarm sectors and are considered poor (Christiaensen & Hill, 2019; World Bank, 2018a). Other determinants of rural poverty are a lack of fuel for cooking and a lack of electricity, housing, land ownership, livestock units, education and savings. Elements such as dependency ratio, distance from market, distance from a road, female-headed households, and sickness of family members are also positively and significantly related to rural poverty (Eshetu, Haji, Ketema & Mehare, 2022).

Monetary poverty in South Africa is not as high as the overall poverty rates found in Africa. Significant progress had been made in addressing monetary poverty in the country, and this is shown by the general decline in poverty numbers being recorded between 1996 and 2011. Approximately 33.8% of South Africans lived below US$1.9 a day in 1996. This declined to 25.5% in 2006, 18.9% in 2014 and 18.8% in 2015. However, many South Africans still remain in the trap of multidimensional poverty as they do not have adequate access to health care facilities, clean water and household

infrastructure. The level of multidimensional poverty has also become deeper, and to a greater extent more unequal, and has continued to be mostly found in the rural areas of the country (KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Government, 2019; World Bank 2018a). Rural poverty is thus the general topic of this research, and more specifically the issue of rural poverty in South Africa in the post 1994 era.

1.2 Investigation of the problem

As a resident of a rural town in a former homeland, the researcher has become increasingly interested in whether the poverty in the town has improved since 1994 when the homelands were integrated back into South Africa. In order to find answers, the researcher consulted various sources (such as the internet, journals and books) regarding the poverty and rural poverty found in South Africa and around the world. Very little research could be found on these topics especially with regard to South Africa and the former homeland areas. As such, the researcher thought that a need existed for such research to be done in this particular area especially as rural poverty is so prevalent in the country.

1.3 Problem Statement

In 2020 the Decade of Action was launched with the aim of achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) by 2030. The first SDG was a very grand goal and read: 'End poverty in all its forms everywhere' (United Nations, 2020: 3). Unfortunately, as the world experiences the economic fallout from the Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), the chances of this objective ever being met are remote. The United Nations (2020) estimated that the pandemic would send tens of millions of people around the world into poverty thus reversing years of work. The economic prospects for the world, more specifically Africa and South Africa, do not look positive in the post COVID-19 era. The Overseas Development Institute (ODI) has calculated that the economic costs for Africa of COVID-19 are likely to be approximately US$100 billion (or 5% of GDP). The downward pressure on Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) flows could range from -30% to -40% during the period 2020 to 2021 (Sidiropoulos, 2020). The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) projected that the global economy in 2020 would contract by 1.5% because of the virus. In Sub-

Saharan Africa GDP per capita is also expected to contract despite a pre-pandemic forecasted growth of 1.7%. Estimates for the South African economy are just as depressing. It was estimated that the economy would contract by a further 7.6% in 2020 following a decline of 0.4% in 2019. This sharp slowdown in growth increased the poverty rate by 2.5% in 2020 and the number of people living in poverty and extreme poverty in the country increased along with unemployment and inequality (Montes et al., 2020; Mubangizi, 2021; Sidiropoulos, 2020). Poverty is therefore high on the agenda as the world grapples with the economic fallout from the pandemic.

For some 25 years poverty, especially rural poverty, has been a problem in South Africa and was expected to grow in the years ahead even before the pandemic appeared. Even though South Africa is predominantly urbanised (57%), a large percentage of the population (43%) live in rural areas. In addition, the majority of the poor households in South Africa reside in these rural areas (also called tribal or traditional areas) (Chetenia, Khamfula & Mah, 2019; Meyer, 2017; World Bank, 2018b). In 2006, it was estimated that 74.9% of the rural population in South Africa were living below the poverty line. By 2015, this figure had decreased to 65.4%. The figures are high when compared to the urban areas. In 2006 it was estimated that 34.3% of the urban population were poor. By 2015 this figure had declined to 25.4% of the population (World Bank, 2018b).

In South Africa rural poverty is mainly concentrated in the areas which used to be identified as the homelands. The poorest provinces are those that include the largest of the former homeland areas namely Limpopo, the Eastern Cape, and KwaZulu-Natal. Some 43% of South Africa's population live in these former homelands (Neves & du Toit, 2013). Poverty is therefore more deeply entrenched in the rural rather than the urban areas and is thus concerning.

In order for the South African Government to alleviate the scourge of poverty in the country, the poverty which exists in the rural areas will need to be addressed and not be allowed to continuously grow especially in post COVID-19 times. It will be important for the Government to try to maintain minimum standards of living amongst the rural people through social grants so as to create an environment conducive to economic growth and prosperity. This is especially true as a considerable number of the South

African population reside in the rural areas, and many of these rural areas are in already impoverished parts of the country. The present study focuses particularly on the levels of deprivation and poverty in these rural areas. The results of such a study (which seeks to analyse rural poverty in South Africa post 1994) will therefore help to increase the understanding of the nature of rural poverty in South Africa.

1.4 Objectives of the study

The overall aim of this study is to analyse rural poverty in South Africa post 1994. To achieve this aim, the following main objectives are formulated for the study: -

- to conduct a literature review on poverty in general with an emphasis on rural poverty, and
- to conduct a literature review on the state of poverty in South Africa post 1994 with particular reference to rural poverty in the country.

In accordance with these two main objectives, the following sub-objectives are formulated: -

- to determine the changes in rural poverty in South Africa since 1994,
- to analyse the reasons for the changes in rural poverty in the country since 1994,
- to predict the trend rural poverty will follow in the country post COVID-19, and
- to discuss different poverty reducing policies that could be implemented to help address the problem of rural poverty in South Africa.

1.5 Research Methodology

The study will employ a qualitative research methodology in order to provide an in-depth insight into rural poverty in South Africa. The research problem will be investigated by means of a literature review and an investigation using a descriptive-analytical approach. The research will start with a literature review which will be undertaken to explore poverty, and more specifically rural poverty in South Africa and across the world. A wide variety of information sources such as scientific periodicals, books and articles from scholarly journals and the internet will be used.

Historical data will be interpreted to attain a greater understanding of the changes that have occurred in rural poverty in South Africa. This range of historic data will also be used to draw comparisons, provide an accurate picture of what has happened regarding poverty, and how it differs between periods of time. These changes over time will be determined using patterns from data series such as income and expenditure data and causation will then be explored.

Unidimensional measures of poverty such as the Gini coefficient and the Food Poverty Line (FPL) will be used in the study. In addition, several multidimensional measures of poverty such as the Human Development Index (HDI) and elements of the Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) will also be utilised. By using different measurements of poverty, a better and more encompassing perspective of poverty, and rural poverty in the country, will be presented. The data will be sourced from Statistics South Africa, World Bank, National Income Dynamics Study, United Nations (UN), Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI), Southern Africa Labour and Research Development Unit (SALDRU) studies and other documents and websites.

1.6 Significance of the study

Poverty in general, and more specifically rural poverty has, and continues to be a problem in South Africa. It is estimated that 46% of the country's population live below the poverty line (Statistics South Africa, 2014). If the cycle of poverty is not broken in the country, those citizens who live in rural areas will never be able to realise improved standards of living and employment opportunities. Globally, rural areas often go unnoticed by governments, and as such, the rural residents often do not receive the same access to jobs and services as their urban counterparts. This makes their plight even more desperate, and the need to highlight and address their poverty even more serious. Poverty can also lead to widespread economic insecurity and negative prospects for individuals and families. It can also be a source of social unrest and political upheaval and is often associated with poor quality healthcare and education. Poverty also drives people to activities like begging, crime, public protests, and terrorism. Widespread and persistent poverty can sow the seeds of discontent because of a loss of dignity and feelings of exclusion from society (Jefferson, 2018).

It is for these reasons that such a study is important to conduct especially in light of the current economic and social conditions in South Africa.

The content of the study will enable various role players such as governments, nongovernmental organisations and policymakers to understand what poverty (and more specifically rural poverty) entail and the nature of rural poverty in South Africa since 1994. The study will give an indication of the progress that has been made so far in addressing the problem of rural poverty in the country since the end of apartheid. The outcome of the analysis of the raw data in Chapter 4 will provide new information on the rural poverty situation found in the different provinces in the country, and this will make a significant contribution to the general body of knowledge. The results of this analysis will also provide guidance to policymakers and government officials who are responsible for the economic and social development of these rural areas. In addition, the study will also support and contribute to the South African Government's priority of addressing the rural poverty found in the country thus ensuring that SDG1 will be addressed by 2030. Lastly, the study will also be of value to the domestic and international investor and donor communities as it will inform them about the South African Government's involvement and progress in addressing the rural poverty found in the country.

1.7 Arrangement of the chapters

This study has the following chapters: -

Chapter One: Introduction

The first chapter introduces the study, outlining the research background, the problem statement, the importance of the study, the research objectives, the research methodology and the chapter layout.

Chapter Two: Theory behind poverty

This chapter presents a review of the literature on poverty with an emphasis on rural poverty. The various definitions of poverty will be discussed in order to better define

and identify who the rural poor are. The various types of poverty and the factors which cause rural poverty will then be examined. The chapter will end with a discussion on the various ways in which poverty is measured and the numerous poverty alleviation strategies used globally to address the scourge of rural poverty.

Chapter Three: Overview of poverty in South Africa

The third chapter will explore poverty, and more specifically rural poverty, in South Africa. The chapter will start with an attempt to define the term 'rural'. The key macroeconomic trends in South Africa as they relate to poverty will then be explored. This will be followed by an overview of poverty in the country and a more detailed analysis of how rural poverty has changed since 1994. The chapter will conclude with an examination of the South African Government's response to rural poverty. The historical context of the poverty found in South Africa and the various studies done on poverty will be referenced.

Chapter Four: Provincial analysis of rural poverty in South Africa

The fourth chapter analyses, on a more micro level, the rural poverty which is found in the different provinces in South Africa. The socio-economic conditions found in these rural areas will be analysed by means of a desktop study. Various unidimensional and multidimensional measurements of poverty will be used in this analysis.

Chapter Five: Summary of the findings, limitations and recommendations

In this last chapter various strategies which can be used to address the problem of rural poverty in South Africa will be proposed. The chapter will also summarise the findings of the study and suggest areas for further study.

1.8 Chapter Summary

The aim of this chapter was to introduce the study. The central theme of the research, namely rural poverty, was introduced. A brief discussion of the problem statement and

the objectives and significance of the study were given. The chapter ended with a brief summary of the research methodology and how the chapters in the study are divided.

The next two chapters involve literature reviews on the theory behind poverty and an overview of poverty in South Africa.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORY BEHIND POVERTY

2.1 Introduction

Acute poverty affects approximately 1.2 billion people (or some 19% of the global population). The greatest number of people (approximately 579 million) live in Sub-Saharan Africa and in South Asia (385 million). Children under the age of 18 account for half of the poor people (593 million). Almost 83% of the poor live in rural areas whilst the balance lives in urban areas (United Nations Development Programme, 2022). While academics generally agree that poverty is global in nature and is especially pervasive in the developing world (particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia), they do not agree on how poverty can be defined or measured (Mawere, 2017).

In this second chapter of the study the various definitions of poverty will be discussed in order to better understand and identify who the poor really are. This will be followed with an examination of the different types of poverty which are found namely extreme, absolute, relative, objective, and subjective. The remainder of the chapter will concentrate on rural poverty. The determinants of rural poverty such as land size, distance to market and educational attainment will be discussed. The different ways of measuring poverty will then be examined with particular emphasis on monetary poverty measurements and multidimensional approaches to poverty measurement. The chapter ends with an exploration of the numerous poverty alleviation strategies used globally to address the scourge of rural poverty. The UN's global response to poverty with the initiation of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and SDGs will be reviewed along with other strategies such as the promotion of agriculture and rural development and development of livelihood diversification strategies.

2.2 Definitions of poverty

In order to be able to understand rural poverty, it is important to firstly understand how poverty is defined. Poverty is a concept which is essentially multidimensional in nature. The concept has evolved over the last couple of decades and as such, there is no single universally accepted definition of the concept. Subsequently, poverty has been defined in many ways over the years and its meaning depends on the country and the context a person finds themselves in (Fombad, 2018). The next section of the literature study will more fully explore these various definitions of poverty and track how these definitions have changed over time.

2.2.1 Historic definitions of poverty

The words 'poverty' and 'poor' have their origins in the Latin word *pauper* meaning poor. The term has its roots in the words *pau* and *pario* which refer to 'giving birth to nothing' (Addae-Korankye, 2014: 147).

Adam Smith, who is known to be the father of modern economics, defined poverty as an inability to buy those necessities which are required by nature or custom (Smith, 1776). He stated that in order to be considered non-poor, one must have those commodities necessary to support life (Davis & Sanchez-Martinez, 2015).

Poverty has been defined in many ways since Adam Smith's time. At the close of the 19th century Charles Booth provided one of the first modern definitions of poverty. Booth defined the poor as 'those who have a fairly regular though bare income, such as 18 shillings to 21 shillings per week for a moderate family' (Booth, 1888: 278). He described the very poor as 'those who from any cause fall much below this standard' (Booth, 1888: 278). According to Nunes (2008) Booth provided this definition following his extensive research into the nature, conditions, and trends in poverty in London between 1886 and 1903.

Joseph Rowntree further developed Booth's definition of poverty after being inspired by his work. Rowntree supported the minority group theory which classified poor people based on certain criteria. According to this theory, a household would be most

likely to suffer from poverty when the household head becomes incapacitated due to an accident or old age, or maybe the household is large in size. He further described poverty as being a generational ill whereby each generation inherits it from its predecessor (Rowntree, 1901).

Rowntree (1901) proposed two types of poverty namely primary and secondary. Primary poverty could be defined as total earnings which were insufficient to purchase the least number of necessities required for the maintenance of what he termed 'physical efficiency' (Rowntree, 1901: 296). He defined secondary poverty as the total amount of earnings which would be needed for the maintenance of such physical efficiency were it not that some part of these earnings would be used to buy other goods (Rowntree, 1901). According to Mawere (2017) and Nunes (2008), Rowntree's study in 1901 marked the first steps towards the development of a poverty standard for individual families.

Both Booth (1888) and Rowntree (1901) defined poverty in absolute terms. They based their definitions on the concept of subsistence which was known to be the least amount required to survive or sustain a life. According to these two authors, those people who live under the subsistence level are considered to be absolutely poor as they do not have sufficient to subsist on and support their own life. Such people will starve if food is not given to them. They will freeze if they reside in a country where the temperatures become cold, and they are not helped with heating or accommodation (dos Santos, 2017). However, these definitions were criticised on the basis that they imply that human needs are primarily physical rather than social, and people are seen to be social beings and not just consumers of physical goods (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2017).

The traditional definitions of poverty which have been discussed in this section have generally focused on poverty as a scarcity of income, money, wealth or material possessions. More contemporary definitions focus on the multidimensional nature of poverty and will be discussed in the following section of this chapter.

2.2.2 Contemporary definitions of poverty

The definition of poverty was further developed by Townsend (1962) in the 1950s and 1960s. He defined poverty as a purely relative measure. He said that poverty was not just simply the absence of money but also referred to not having the resources which are needed to be able to take part in a society and this could ultimately lead to social exclusion. Social exclusion was defined by Knight (2017) and Davis and Sanchez-Martinez (2015) as the denial of freedoms.

Soaring world food prices between 1973 and 1974 resulted in increased inflation, decreased purchasing power of money, and subsequent worldwide hunger. This situation brought to the fore the necessity to address the most basic of needs and led to the Basic Needs Approach (BNA) being developed (Watson, 2014). According to the BNA, poverty occurs when a person cannot meet their basic needs - examples being food, shelter, clothing, education, and health. The definition of poverty had effectively moved beyond just a shortage of income and now included the lack of physical and material needs as well (Lemanski, 2016; United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2017).

In 1979, according to Davis & Sanchez-Martinez (2015), Townsend further developed the notion of poverty by adding the notion of relative deprivation. He stated that poverty occurred because people could not participate in the activities, diets and customs which are commonly accepted in a society because they lacked resources.

During the 1980s and 1990s the BNA suffered significant setbacks brought on by repeated world recessions which had reduced the abilities of governments to fight for the provision of basic needs. In addition to this, new intellectual challenges such as Sen's (1979) Capabilities Approach emerged from within the community of scholars that had been most likely to support the BNA. However, the BNA did have a resurgence in popularity in the year 2000 with the establishment by the UN of the HDI and the MDGs (Watson, 2014).

The Capabilities Approach was developed by Sen between the 1970s and the 1990s. Sen (1979) shifted the understanding of poverty, according to Mawere (2017), away

from a lack of basic necessities to the deprivation of human capabilities. Poverty was therefore defined as the inability to obtain a particular set of minimum capabilities rather than just a lack of income (Singh & Chudasama, 2020). The Capabilities Approach which was proposed by Sen focused on what people effectively do (their functionings), and the ability of individuals to choose freely and realise these functionings (that is their capability). What was envisaged by Sen was a set group of capabilities which every person should be able to use so that they are not deemed to be poor. The capabilities themselves would not change; however, those resources or material needs which are necessary to develop these capabilities may indeed change over a period of time and across different societies. Poverty was therefore interpreted as being capability deprivation which could result in poor education and health, an inadequate income, insecurity, a low self-confidence, or a sense of powerlessness. The concept of functionings referred to the ability to be well-nourished, to be able to read and write, and be healthy, and free from any form of oppression and violence. The concept was seen to be crucial to human development (Beegle et al., 2016; Davis & Sanchez-Martinez, 2015; Kartseva, 2020; Lemanski, 2016; Rohwerder, 2016; Zhou & Liu, 2022).

Sen's (1979) Capability Approach, according to Jansen, Moses, Mujuta and Yu (2015) and Owais (2020), was developed further by Narayan (2000) to include a multidimensional view of poverty. This view moved the definition of poverty beyond a monetary perspective (for example, insufficient income to purchase essential items such as food which are needed for survival) to include issues such as inadequate access to government services, social isolation, poor health and educational attainment, and powerlessness. Sen's (1979) Capability Approach also evolved into the HDI, the Human Poverty Index (HPI) and the MPI - indices which all include education, health and living conditions (Wang, Zhao, Bai, Zhang & Yu, 2020; Xu, Wang, Wu, Liang, Jiao & Nazneen, 2018; Zhou & Liu, 2022).

In the 1990s and 2000s the definition of poverty was transformed yet again to include the perspectives of those who were most affected by poverty. This narrative was driven by the World Bank's 'Voices of the Poor' initiative where in excess of 60 000 poor people from 60 countries were encouraged to express their opinions about poverty. In this project the poor defined poverty as the lack of what is needed for

material well-being, and this could include food, land and housing. Their definitions of poverty also revealed important psychological aspects of poverty such as powerlessness and voicelessness. What emerged from the initiative was that poverty results from many interlocking aspects such as a lack of access to health care, education and infrastructure and not just from one aspect. Moreover, it also depends on factors such as gender, culture, and age. Poverty was therefore seen to be a multidimensional social phenomenon which combined the BNA with more political and social poverty indicators such as fear, vulnerability and voicelessness (Ajuruchukwu & Sanelise, 2016; Dube, 2019; Lemanski, 2016; Narayan, 2000). Following the developments as outlined above, the definition of poverty had taken on a much wider multidimensional perspective by including both monetary and nonmonetary aspects. In this particular study poverty is also defined in a similar way. Both material (monetary) and non-material dimensions (such as social exclusion and inequality) are included in the definition so as to align the study definition with current academic thought. In the next section the different types of poverty will be explored.

2.3 Types of poverty

In this section of the study the different types of poverty will be examined namely extreme, absolute, relative, objective, and subjective poverty.

2.3.1 Extreme poverty

Extreme poverty is defined as being when people have a very low expenditure per capita and a low income. Such people are not consuming enough calories of nutritious food and have no proper access to clothing, food, health, housing and education. (Buheji, 2019). The concern with extreme poverty is that because the world's poorest countries are not growing economically, millions of people will continue to live in extreme poverty. Even before COVID-19 occurred - researchers expected that half a billion people would remain in extreme poverty by 2030. The global recession that followed the pandemic has further exacerbated this (Roser, 2021).

A person who subsists on less than US$1.90 per day is, according to the World Bank, in a state of extreme poverty (Food and Agriculture Organisation, 2019; Revenga,

2016). In 2015 the World Bank estimated that approximately 736 million people (or 10% of the world's population) were living in extreme poverty. Some 400 million of these people were living in the rural areas of many lower middle-income countries. Consequently, the World Bank takes extreme poverty very seriously and has an ambitious goal of eliminating extreme poverty for everyone everywhere and this would be done through the SDGs (Food and Agriculture Organisation, 2019).

2.3.2 Absolute poverty

Absolute poverty has been defined by the World Bank as not being able to afford basic human needs (Smeeding, 2016). This implies that one has less than the objectively defined absolute minimum (Dartanto & Otsubo, 2015), and one lacks sufficient resources with which to meet one's basic needs (Knight, 2017) or maintain human life (Tomescu-Dumitrescu, 2017). Key characteristics of absolute poverty are acute deprivations such as premature death, inadequate food security, illiteracy, poor health, lack of clothing and homelessness. People who are affected by absolute poverty have nothing to rely on and no means by which to move out of the poverty cycle (Hapazari & Loubser, 2021). According to Fombad (2018) it is easy to eradicate absolute poverty.

2.3.3 Relative poverty

The idea of relative poverty has its origins in those who criticised absolute poverty and the post-war welfare state successes in the United Kingdom. Relative poverty focuses more on the conditions which are required for an individual to be able to participate in the customs and activities in a particular society and less on subsistence (dos Santos, 2017). The main way relative poverty is measured is by assessing the income a family would need in order to survive at a given time. Relative poverty therefore occurs when a person is perceived to be socially or financially poor in comparison to the average living standards in a society, or in comparison to other people in their society. Relative poverty thus depends on the level of people's needs and aspirations in their particular society. However, measuring poverty in this way can be deceptive. With this approach, poverty is always perpetuated in some sense or another as a certain proportion of people will always consider themselves to be poor (Ajuruchukwu & Sanelise, 2016; Fombad, 2018; Tomescu-Dumitrescu, 2017).

2.3.4 Objective and subjective poverty

Objective poverty is described as the situation a household finds themselves in when their income or consumption, after adjusting for household composition, is under a specific threshold line. In contrast, subjective poverty is defined as the perception of an individual or household of their economical position in life. By asking individuals themselves whether they are suffering from poverty or not, and basing this on the satisfaction of consumption, one is able to obtain a sense of subjective poverty (Mahmood, Yu & Klasen, 2019; Wang et al., 2020).

The development of a definition of poverty over the last century was explored in this section. The definition has changed from identifying poverty in income terms to expressing it in more multidimensional ways. Various types of poverty were then examined. What can be concluded is that poverty results from the lack of many factors such as not having access to services like education, water and health. How poverty affects the rural population in particular and why it happens will be discussed in the next section of this chapter.

2.4 Rural poverty

About 54% of the world's total population live in the rural areas. Approximately 63% of the world's poverty is in fact rural poverty occurring in the developing world. It is estimated that by 2025 some 60% of the global population who suffer from absolute poverty will be living in the rural areas. Progress has unfortunately been slow in the addressing of rural poverty (Rosida, 2018). In the following section a profile of rural poverty and what determines whether rural poverty occurs or not will be discussed.

2.4.1 A profile of rural poverty

About 66% of the extremely poor living in rural areas are low paid farm workers or small farmers who are heavily reliant on subsistence agriculture. These people essentially depend on agriculture and are involved in fishing, production of crops and livestock, forestry and other related small-scale rural industries and services. The rest

of the rural poor who are not engaged in agriculture are then involved in various non-agricultural activities or are self-employed (Rosida, 2018).

The rural poor can be classified into several categories. The landless (who are the poorest among the rural poor) make up the first category. Land is the most important resource for the rural poor, and a substantial amount of the population living in the rural areas are landless in that they are without any crop land - they are often forced to seek off-farm work in order to earn a living. Other factors like natural disasters, the introduction of new technology, privatisation of communal lands and price shocks can also cause landlessness (Khan, 2000; Okidegbe, 2001).

The second category are those with a low asset base and includes farmers with small plots of two or less hectares of land. Examples of such are small land holders, sharecropping tenants and owner-cum-tenants (collectively known as cultivars). Also in this group are subsistence farmers who rely on the land in order to meet the needs of their household. This group forms the main bulk of the poor living in the rural areas of the developing world. They also provide labour to others who are involved in farm and nonfarm activities. However, they cannot sustain their income or meet their subsistence needs especially when the parcels of land are small, and the soil is poor or not under irrigation. As a result, many are inclined to migrate to towns to earn a living (Khan, 2000; Okidegbe, 2001; Rosida, 2018).

Pastoralists are the third category and include those who earn the majority of their money from pastoral livestock. They often do not live in any particular area and so depend on the mobility of their livestock and their access to dry season grazing areas and water resources. Governments have found it difficult to provide this group with any education and health facilities due to their mobility and dispersal. Furthermore, the pastoralists do not have access to inputs like watering points, dry feed supply for their animals, fodder and other services. Their circumstances are also negatively affected by other issues such as demographic and socio-economic changes, land use changes, and urbanisation (Okidegbe, 2001).

The fourth type of classification is women-headed households who care for their families without any outside support. One of the most important reasons, according to

Khan (2000) and Okidegbe (2001), for the persistent poverty which is found in the developing world is due to the poverty of this particular group and their poor social status. The last category is ethnic minorities and indigenous populations. This group constitutes a large section of the masses suffering from poverty in the developing world. They are generally forced to live in areas which are resource poor and they often do not have access to the types of economic or social infrastructure which they need in order to better their lives (Khan, 2000; Okidegbe, 2001).

2.4.2 Determinants of rural poverty

In order to address the problem of rural poverty, it is necessary to firstly examine the many reasons why it occurs. These reasons will be discussed in the next section.

2.4.2.1 Land holding size and rural poverty

Land is one of the most basic and important economic assets of any household living in the rural areas. It is fundamental to the improvement of rural livelihoods and poverty alleviation. It is here that the rural poor grow their crops and look after their livestock. If their crop and arable land is too small, or if the access to land or concentration of land ownership is unequal, they will be unable to feed their family let alone sell any excess to the market. However, in some areas of the developing world the rural poor own vast areas of land which is often underutilised or sometimes not used at all. This frequently occurs because the rural poor are either not educated on what to do with the land or are stuck in their rudimentary ways of doing things. In addition, many rural farmers also lack the basic hand tools or draught animals like oxen which are needed to develop their land (Addae-Korankye, 2014; Eyasu, 2020; Khurram & Hassan, 2019; Rosida, 2018).

The subdivision of land is also a common practice in the rural areas of the developing world. This practice is widespread due to land inheritance practices, increased housing demand and agricultural land values. Unfortunately, small land areas are not agriculturally productive as the small sizes limit the potential for mechanisation and use of technology. As a result, food security can be threatened and poverty can result (Agayi & Karakayaci, 2022).

2.4.2.2 Agriculture and rural poverty

The primary source of income in the rural areas is agriculture. Agricultural growth often stimulates economic growth in the non-agricultural sectors thus resulting in increased employment and poverty reduction. When there is economic growth and increased income per capita, the poor can improve their living standards. However, when economic growth declines, consumption falls, and even deeper poverty emerges. In short, consumption is closely linked to agricultural income. Factors like land-subdivision, climatic shocks, declining soil qualities, plant diseases, and pest infestations can negatively affect the performance of this sector and can lead to high poverty rates in the rural areas (Agayi & Karakayaci, 2022; McCarthy, Brubaker & de la Fuente, 2016; Okidegbe, 2001).

2.4.2.3 Household head and rural poverty

One of the main determinants of rural poverty in a family is the household head. Households are less likely to become multidimensionally poor when the household head is educated. By being educated, a household head will have the talents and requirements needed to get a job and earn a living. Having an education will also allow the household head to become more occupationally and geographically mobile. On the other hand, a poorly educated household head will not be able to accumulate wealth, and this could lead into a cycle of multidimensional poverty that could become intergenerational in the long term (Eyasu, 2020; Megbowon, 2018).

In many rural households the household head is often male except in the case where he dies or becomes infirmed. The chances of becoming poor increase when the head of the household is a woman. This happens because societal and cultural customs in the rural areas often negatively impact the status of women causing them to become an extremely vulnerable group. Inequalities in some societies can also prevent women from accessing economic resources, controlling decision-making and participating in public life. These gender biases are often reinforced by the legal systems and religious practices in a country. Often a woman's rights in a divorce case and in the inheritance of land or other productive assets is restricted. Females are also often less empowered so their access to important assets like land is limited. They cannot spend enough time

on farm work as they have other domestic duties to attend to. This results in them having to farm smaller pieces of land which is uneconomical and unproductive. What results is a positive link between female-headed households and poverty (Addae-Korankye, 2014; Eyasu, 2020; Okidegbe, 2001).

2.4.2.4 Distance to market and rural poverty

The closer a household is to relatively large towns or markets, the lower the chances are of a household falling into poverty. The reasons for this are that households will be able to access markets more easily along with public services and private service providers. When rural areas are remote and there is a paucity of infrastructure like roads, communication such as telephones and physical assets such as domestic animals, farmers have to pay increased prices for goods like fertiliser and seeds. Rural roads also allow rural communities to easily access urban centres where they can trade. Unfortunately, when rural roads are of poor quality and not always accessible, rural communities become isolated from economic development and poverty often follows (Addae-Korankye, 2014; Eyasu, 2020; Khan, 2000; Okidegbe, 2001).

2.4.2.5 Education and health and rural poverty

A lack of education or low educational attainment inhibits the earning potential of the poor who live in the rural areas. Children and girls living in these areas are generally less educated and less healthy than their urban counterparts. As a result, they lack the relevant skills which are needed to get a job. Hence, the welfare of rural households is positively impacted by access to education (Addae-Korankye, 2014; Dunford, Gao & Li, 2020; Eyasu, 2020; Khurram & Hassan, 2019; Okidegbe, 2001).

Many rural households are also malnourished due to poor nutrition, inadequate health care and food insecurity. The ability of the household members to fight off diseases is reduced thus hurting their ability to earn enough of an income to satisfy their basic needs. This traps them into a never-ending cycle of poverty as illness results in less income being earned, low life expectancy and further poverty (Addae-Korankye, 2014; Dunford et al., 2020; Okidegbe, 2001).

2.4.2.6 Other determinants

Rural poverty is also affected by national economic and social policies. Policy biases that generally work against the rural poor include overvalued exchange rates, import subsidies and export crops being favoured above food crops (Khan, 2000). Another underlying factor is political instability, civil strife and conflict which are detrimental for economic growth and debilitating for the rural poor. In many developing countries the civil service is corrupt, there is rent-seeking and bureaucratic red tape and the services the rural poor need are often not provided. High levels of corruption within the government and the lack of a political will are also considered to cause rural poverty (Dao, 2004; Hapazari & Loubser, 2021; Khan, 2000; Rosida, 2018).

Rural households who are poor often have large extended families which results in high child dependency rates (McCarthy et al., 2016). Having relatively large families is often a survival strategy for the rural poor since they have few assets other than the human labour of their family. Large family sizes often result in high dependency rates which contribute to increased pressure on resources such as land and social services (Dao, 2004; Khan, 2000; Khurram & Hassan, 2019). Rural poverty can also be adversely affected by exogenous shocks due to the nature and conditions in the global economy. Food shortages caused by natural disasters (such as crop pests and diseases and climatic conditions like drought) often force the rural poor to sell their harvests straightaway at a low price. They are then forced to purchase the food back at a higher price thus reinforcing continued rural poverty (Addae-Korankye, 2014; Agayi & Karakayaci, 2022; Khan, 2000).

Having access to services like electricity should decrease the chances of becoming multidimensionally poor - however, it is costly to use electricity. In order to bring down the electricity costs, households often stop using their electrical equipment like stoves, fridges and heaters. This could lead to households suffering from ill health, absenteeism from work, less income being earned and retrenchment. Poverty will shortly follow (Megbowon, 2018).

In conclusion, it can be stated that poverty is essentially a multidimensional phenomenon and is caused by a multitude of factors which the poor often do not have

control over. In order to address the poverty situation, it is necessary for governments and aid agencies to be able to measure poverty in order to detect where the rural poor are located and the breadth of poverty they suffer from. In the section which follows, the different approaches which are used to measure rural poverty world-wide will be investigated.

2.5 Measurements of rural poverty

Several methods are used to measure rural poverty, and each of these specific methods follows a particular theoretical context. The most popular measurements are the income and/or consumption indicators known as monetary poverty measurements (unidimensional). Due to the weaknesses of these particular measurements, additional approaches have appeared like the Capability Approach, Social Inclusion, and the Poverty-Participation Approach (PPA) method. These particular approaches incorporate the perspectives of the poor regarding poverty and are known as multidimensional poverty measurements (Ntsalaze & Ikhide, 2018). In this section of the literature study both unidimensional and multidimensional poverty measurements will be discussed.

2.5.1 Monetary poverty measurements

Monetary poverty measurements are extremely common and widely used. These types of measurements track income or consumption-expenditure. The rationale behind the use of these measurements is that income is needed to ensure that basic human needs are met. These types of measurements are known to be unidimensional as they only follow one particular deprivation or try to calculate many different types of dimensions of deprivation through the use of a single indicator (Ntsalaze & Ikhide, 2018; Wisor, 2012). The Gini coefficient is one such unidimensional measurement and tracks inequality using ranges of numbers from 0 to 1. Total equality is referenced by the use of 0 whereas 1 refers to total inequality. When the coefficient is greater, then the inequality is larger (Fombad, 2018). A more equal income distribution is generally associated with less poverty (de Haan, Pleninger & Sturm, 2021). According to Lakner, Mahler, Negre and Prydz (2022), if the Gini coefficient in each country decreases by 1% per year, the global poverty rate could reduce to around 6.3% in 2030 which would

be equivalent to 89 million fewer people living in extreme poverty. Reducing each country's Gini index by 1% per year has a larger impact on global poverty than increasing each country's annual growth 1 percentage point above forecasts.

Another unidimensional measure of poverty which is often used is the poverty line. The first MDG (to eliminate extreme poverty and hunger by 2015) and the first SDG (to eradicate poverty in all its forms by 2030) use the US$1.25 per day poverty line (Starnes, Di Gravio, Irlmeier, Moore, Okoth & Rogers, 2021). A poverty line shows the level of expenditure or income a person needs in order to buy a minimum basket of consumption goods and services. When an individual's per capita income is under this line, they are deemed to be poor. Other poverty lines such as the Lower-Bound Poverty Line (LBPL) and the Upper-Bound Poverty Line (UBPL) were also created in order to show the intensity of poverty among the poor (Ajuruchukwu & Sanelise, 2016; Oladapo & Olaseni, 2019; United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2016).

There are three basic poverty lines namely absolute, relative and subjective poverty lines. Most countries in the developing world use an absolute as opposed to a relative poverty line (Oladapo & Olaseni, 2019; Statistics South Africa, 2008; United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2016). The income level needed by a household to buy the food and non-food items they need is the poverty threshold in an absolute poverty line. Anything below this line means that a household does not have the defined absolute minimum set level of resources which is needed in order to survive (Allen, 2017; Oladapo & Olaseni, 2019; Rohwerder, 2016; United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2016).

Absolute poverty lines are easy to construct and are therefore well suited for long-term statistical use. However, there are problems which can be encountered when constructing these lines. Firstly, the composition of the basket of necessary goods and services changes over time and from country to country. What could be considered an essential basic need in the early 20th Century may not be deemed necessary nowadays. Absolute poverty lines therefore need to be continually updated (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2016). Other disadvantages of absolute poverty lines are that they fail to encapsulate other crucial elements of poverty and well-being (Statistics South Africa, 2008).

The predominant relative poverty situation in a society is shown by a relative poverty line. In order to determine a relative poverty line, a cut-off point in the welfare distribution is chosen. An example of such is a consumption or income level below which 30% of the population find themselves (Statistics South Africa, 2008). This approach is both simple and transparent, and a population sub-group which needs attention can be easily identified. However, this is not the best method if poverty is to be monitored over time or between regions. Relative poverty lines are most often used in countries where there are higher incomes and there is less concern about being able to achieve a minimum absolute standard of living (Statistics South Africa, 2008; United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2016).

There are two types of monetary poverty indicators namely dynamic and static. Longitudinal data is used in dynamic measurements and poverty over time periods as well as transfers into and out of poverty are considered. Static measurements are helpful in that they provide an indication of the current poverty levels and how the poverty varies across groups, time and place. Dynamic measures are used by policy makers when designing interventions concerning poverty alleviation (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2016).

One example of a commonly used and popular static measure is the headcount index. This index is defined as being the population percentage which lives under the poverty line or more simply put, those who are living in poverty. The index is considered to be simple, useful, easy to use and effective and allows users to easily understand the amount of poverty in different groups. However, the index does not distinguish between a person who is poor and is sitting close to the poverty line and a poor person who is at the lowest point of the income distribution. The index does not indicate how far the poor are below the poverty line and therefore does not show the depth or severity of the poverty in a country. The index also only considers the poverty status of an individual and not that of the household (Danaan, 2018; Kibret, 2020; United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2016; Zheng, 2015).

The formula for the headcount index (*H*) is as follows: -

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

Income allocation is shown by *y*; *z* is the poverty line; and the measure of poverty is therefore expressed by function (*y, z*). The complete sample is denoted by *M* and the number of people living in a household is shown by *N* (Mdluli & Dunga, 2022).

Another static measure is the poverty gap index. This index calculates the extent to which individuals fall below the poverty line (also known as the poverty gap) as a percentage of the poverty line. The degree of income shortfall or the amount of income which is required to move the poor above the poverty line is also shown by the index. Both the depth of poverty and the inequality experienced by the poor is identified. However, neither the redistribution of income within the poor or the severity of the poverty is recognised.

The formula for the poverty gap index (*PG*) is as follows: -

$$PG = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i}^{q} = 1\left[\frac{z - y_i}{z}\right] \tag{2.2}$$

The poverty line is shown by *z*; *n* is the total population; y_i is the income of the poor individual (*i)*; and *q* is the total population of poor who are living at or below the poverty line (Mdluli & Dunga, 2022).

The use of the squared poverty gap resolves the disadvantages of the poverty gap index (Danaan, 2018). The degree of poverty in a specific area is measured by the squared poverty gap index. In this index the poverty gap is squared and the sum of the poverty gap for each household or individual is weighted. Observations that fall under the poverty are assigned a higher weight. One of the main benefits of the index is that it calculates inequality amongst poor households and individuals. However, a major disadvantage is that it is difficult to understand and is therefore not commonly used. The squared poverty gap index is calculated as such: -

$$P_2 = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{q}\left(\frac{z - {y_1}^2}{z}\right) \tag{2.3}$$

The squared poverty gap is shown by P_2 whilst N signifies the total population. Consumption per capita (which is an indicator of wealth) is shown by $y_{1.}$ The poverty line is shown by z and q is the total population living at or below the poverty line (Mdluli & Dunga, 2022).

Persistent poverty is an example of a dynamic measure of poverty. A brief period in poverty is far less detrimental than experiencing poverty over numerous years. The longer an individual remains in poverty, the less the chance is of them escaping poverty. Policy makers therefore use longitudinal data which helps to distinguish those who will probably suffer from prolonged periods of poverty. Entry and exit rates are an example of a dynamic measure. The entry rate into poverty is usually calculated as being the percentage of people not in poverty the previous year but who have now moved into poverty. Alternatively, the exit rate is the percentage of individuals who are now not at-risk-of-poverty but were at-risk-of poverty in the previous year (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2016).

Despite their convenience and widespread use, these monetary indicators of poverty have been criticised for inaccurately measuring true poverty (Starnes et al., 2021). Monetary measures which are based on income or consumption do not always consider the multiple aspects of poverty such as a lack of access to basic services (particularly education, health and water). In addition, a low standard of living does not always result from low levels of consumption or low household incomes. Even if a household has a low income, they may still be able to achieve a high standard of living by using their savings or debt (which is based on the belief that higher income will be earned in the future). Non-monetary constraints and personal choices may cause low levels of consumption. An example of such is older people who may have low levels of consumption (despite having sufficient financial resources) because they have physical disabilities and cannot, for example, move around (Ntsalaze & Ikhide, 2018; United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2016). In short, relying on a single poverty measure such as income and/or consumption has proved to be problematic (Mushongera, Zikhali & Ngwenya, 2017). A better method of measuring poverty is with the multidimensional and subjective approaches which take into account unmet basic needs. These methods are described in the next section of the chapter.

2.5.2 Multidimensional approaches to poverty measurement

Many academics argue that a unidimensional or monetary based poverty measurement may not be reliable as it cannot calculate the total poverty level in a country because of the multidimensional nature of poverty (Workneh, 2020). These academics felt that it was impossible to reduce poverty to just a lack of monetary resources when the facets of a dignified and respectable human life also need to be considered (Alkire & Santos, 2013; Hassine & Sghairi, 2021; United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2017). The recognition of these limitations led to the introduction of multidimensional ways of measuring poverty (Alkire & Santos, 2013). Multidimensional measures of poverty seek to twin with the more traditional income or expenditure-based methods described in Section 2.5.1 and include a more comprehensive list of indicators which could more fully capture the full dimensions of poverty (Ntsalaze & Ikhide, 2018).

One of the more popular multidimensional methods of measuring poverty is the HDI. The HDI was created as a way to emphasise that judging a country's development by way of economic growth alone is not adequate - the development of a country's people should also be included. The HDI is therefore a summary measure of the average achievement in the following three key dimensions of human development: -

- Health which indicates a long and healthy life and is indicated by life expectancy at birth,
- Education which refers to being knowledgeable and is determined by the mean of years of schooling for adults aged 25 years and older, and expected years of schooling for children of school entering age, and
- Standard of living which refers to a decent standard of living and is indicated by the Gross National Income (GNI) per capita (see Figure 2.1).

The HDI is therefore the geometric mean of normalised indices for each of the three dimensions (United Nations Development Programme, 2022).

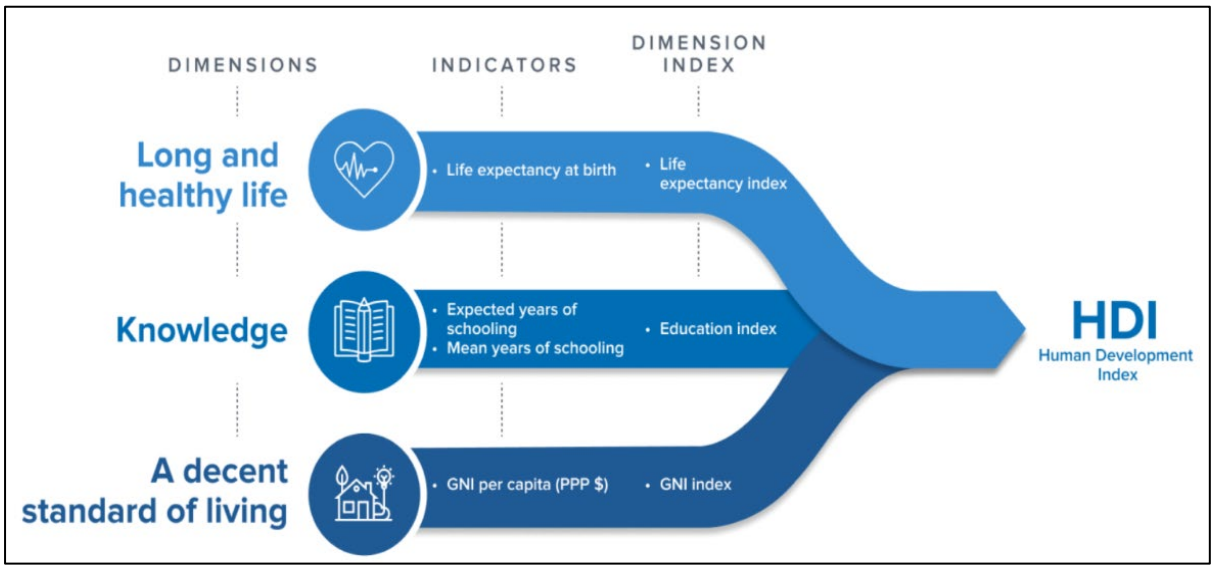


Figure 2.1: Human Development Index (HDI)

Source: United Nations Development Programme (2022)

The HDI can be used to make comparisons between countries with the same level of GNI per capita but with different human development outcomes. However, the HDI does have several limitations. The HDI simplifies and summarises only part of what human development entails. It does not consider other elements such as inequalities, poverty, human security, and empowerment. In order to provide a more complete picture of a country's level of human development, other indicators and information are needed (United Nations Development Programme, 2022).

Another similar method which is used to measure poverty is the HPI which is based on Sen's Capability Approach to understanding poverty. This index concentrates on the various deprivations people suffer from and thus ensures that poverty is rather measured as a capability failure in many different dimensions. The index is comprised of three attributes namely an acceptable standard of living (measured by GDP per capita), a long and healthy life which is measured by life expectancy at birth, and knowledge (measured by the rate of educational attainment). The HPI was later renamed the MPI. Poverty is interpreted by the MPI as being the lack of choices and opportunities which are needed in order to have a long, healthy, and happy life. Since

2010, the OPHI and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) have been computing the Global MPI for over 100 countries. The Global MPI combines 10 indicators and groups them into three equally weighted dimensions namely, health, living standards and education. The number of deprivations faced by an individual determines whether they are poor or non-poor (Alkire & Santos, 2013; Alkire & Housseini, 2014; Lemanski, 2016; World Bank, 2018a).

The MPI, which is based on the Alkire-Foster methodology, is similar to the HPI in that it determines the amount of poverty in the following three dimensions - health, living standards and education in order to produce an aggregate measure of multidimensional poverty. This methodology maintains that poverty measures should emphasise what individuals are able to do, or what they have the capacity to do. It is essentially based on Sen's Capabilities Approach (Ntsalaze & Ikhide, 2018; Starnes et al., 2021). The MPI presents the number of people who suffer deprivations in 33% or more of the weighted indicators and who are therefore considered to be multidimensionally poor. As such, the MPI can be used in the implementation of the SDGs as it helps with the effective allocation of resources whilst still targeting those in greatest poverty. The MPI is therefore one of the most valuable measurement tools in the context of eliminating poverty (Cichos & Salvia, 2018).

A starting point for determining the multidimensionality of poverty is to calculate the level of deprivation in separate dimensions. This would involve applying a standard unidimensional measure to each dimension using a dashboard approach. Such an approach was used with the MDGs where a dashboard of 49 indicators was defined so that 18 targets and eight goals could be monitored. An assessment was then made regarding the improvements in the various aspects of poverty using independent indicators such as the proportion of people living below US$1.25 a day or the proportion of children under five years of age who are underweight. The result is a rich and varied profile of the population's achievements across a range of dimensions (Alkire, Foster, Seth, Santos, Roche & Ballon, 2015).

A poverty measure such as the MPI consists of two phases. The first is the identification stage where the criterion for evaluating people is selected. The second phase is the aggregation stage where the information about individual units is totalled

to provide a complete picture of poverty (Wisor, 2012). These steps are shown in Figure 2.2.

The identification stage for most poverty measures such as an MPI can be completed through a 5-step process. With reference to Figure 2.2, Step 0 involves identifying a unit of analysis such as an individual or a household.

Figure 2.2: Steps for measuring the MPI

Source: United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (2017: 126)

After pinpointing a unit of analysis, dimensions (or certain parts of human life) are selected in order to assess the deprivations. Examples of such dimensions are

healthcare, education, shelter, water and sanitation (see Figure 2.3). Once these dimensions have been selected, one or more indicators that can determine deprivations in the specified dimension are identified (Step 1 in Figure 2.2). Indicators are merely measurable events which provide evidence of the deprivation or lack thereof. An example of an indicator for the education dimension is the number of completed years of schooling (Wisor, 2012).

Poverty dimension	Indicator	Deprived if…	Weight
Education	Years of schooling	No household member aged 10 years or older has completed five years of schooling	1/6
	Child school attendance	Any school-aged child is not attending school up to class 8	1/6
Health	Child mortality	Any child has died in the family in the five-year period preceding the survey	1/6
	Nutrition	Any adult aged 70 or younger or any child for whom there is nutritional information is malnourished	1/6
Living standards	Electricity	The household has no electricity	1/18
	Improved sanitation	The household's sanitation facility is not improved, or it is improved but shared with other households	1/18
	Improved drinking water	The household does not have access to improved drinking water (according to MDG guidelines) or safe drinking water is equal or more than a 30-minute walk from home, roundtrip	1/18
	Flooring	Dirt, sand, dung or "other" type of floor	1/18
	Cooking fuel	The household cooks with dung, wood or charcoal	1/18
	Asset ownership	The household does not own more than one radio, TV, telephone, bike, motorbike or refrigerator and does not own a car or truck	1/18

Figure 2.3: The dimensions, indicators, deprivation cut-offs and weights of the Global MPI

Source: United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (2017: 138)

For every specified indicator, one or more deprivation cut-offs must be pinpointed in order to categorise individuals as either deprived (or not) for that particular indicator (Step 2 and 3 in Figure 2.2). Failing to finish at least five years of education is an example of a deprivation cut-off in education. On the other hand, there could be numerous deprivation cut-offs. If a person did not achieve five years of school, they could be perceived as being very deprived. They would be moderately deprived if they

did not complete eight years of school and only slightly deprived if they did not finish 11 years of school. A person would not be deprived at all if they completed secondary school (Wisor, 2012). Examples of other deprivation cut-offs are shown in Figure 2.3.

The sum of the weighted indicators is then calculated to produce a deprivation score (Steps 4 and 5 in Figure 2.2). In Figure 2.3 a weighting of $1/6^{th}$ is given to education and health indicators, and $1/18^{th}$ to living standard indicators in order to ensure that there are equal weights across all the dimensions. If a person is deprived in at least one third of the weighted indicators, then they would be classified as being multidimensionally poor (Step 6) (Alkire & Housseini, 2014).

The second stage entails the design of a method of aggregation which will provide an overall view of the poverty affecting the population (Steps 7-8 in Figure 2.2). A headcount index is the most common method used in order to detect the magnitude of the poverty (see Section 2.5.1) (Wisor, 2012).

Once the data on the magnitude and depth of poverty has been collected, an MPI can then be calculated (Step 9 in Figure 2.2). The Alkire-Foster methodology which is based on the adjusted headcount ratio (M_0), is used to construct the MPI. This ratio combines two sub-indices namely the poverty incidence (which is the proportion of people who are multidimensionally poor) and the poverty intensity (the average weighted deprivations amongst the poor). The proportion of poor people is given by $H = q/n$ where q is the number of people identified as poor. The poverty intensity is given by:

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i(k)/q \tag{2.4}$$

The poverty cut-off is k and c_i is the weighted sum of deprivations. M_0 (MPI) is the product of these two sub-indices:

$$M_0 = H \times A = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=1}^{d} w_j g_{ij}^0(k) \tag{2.5}$$

M_0 will increase if a person who is poor becomes deprived in an extra indicator (Santos & Villatoro, 2018).

Governments can better plan poverty alleviation strategies when they recognise and identify the dimensions and indicators of a multidimensional poverty estimation such as described above (Workneh, 2020). Examples of poverty alleviation strategies will be discussed in the next section of the chapter.

2.6 Pathways out of rural poverty

Progress towards achieving the first SDG (which aims to end poverty in all its forms everywhere) has achieved mixed results. Over a billion people were raised out of extreme poverty between 1990 and 2015. This indicated that the world had achieved the first MDG target of reducing the poverty rate by a half some five years ahead of schedule. By 2018 the world poverty rate had fallen to approximately 9% further reflecting the world's commitment to poverty alleviation. However, with the appearance of COVID-19 and other associated challenges, an estimated 150 million people have already been forced back into extreme poverty, and poverty has risen globally for the first time since 1990 (Nie, Bi & Apurv, 2021). Poverty alleviation is therefore one of the most problematic challenges facing any country in the developing world at this present time (Oladapo & Olaseni, 2019). In this last section of the chapter, various poverty alleviation strategies will be examined starting with the UN's global response to poverty namely the MDGs and the SDGs.

2.6.1 The UN's global response to poverty alleviation

Since the late 1940s the international development agenda was actively led by the UN and its technical agencies. The approach used by these agencies was seen to be fragmented and disjointed and led to widespread criticism of the UN. To address these issues and the coordination problems which were occurring between the different development agencies, the Millennium Declaration and the MDGs were developed in 2000. This was done at the Millennium Summit where all 189 UN member states agreed to achieve the MDGs on a voluntary basis by the year 2015 (Chopra & Mason, 2014; Koehler, 2017; Kumar, Kumar & Vivekadhish, 2016; Lomazzi, Borisch & Laaser, 2014).

The Millennium Declaration outlined several goals and targets which could be used to fight extreme poverty, disease, lack of education, starvation, environmental degradation, and discrimination against women by the year 2015. The MDGs (which were based on the Millennium Declaration) consisted of eight common goals, the first one being halving the developing world's 1990 '$1-a-day' poverty rate by 2015. Other goals ranged from the reduction of hunger to ensuring environmental sustainability and global partnerships. Along with these eight goals, 21 targets and 48 quantifiable indicators for monitoring the process of achieving these MDGs were also set (Chibba, 2011; Fehling, Nelson & Venkatapuram, 2013; Kaur & Singh, 2014; Ravallion, 2015).

Considerable progress has been made towards the achievement of the MDGs in various countries around the developing world, although progress has been erratic. The first MDG (reducing extreme poverty and hunger by half) was attained in 2010 and this was due to the economic growth experienced in East Asia, the Pacific, and South Asia (mostly in China and India) (Ravallion, 2012; Rohwerder, 2016; Sachs, 2012).

The MDGs, according to Bill Gates, became a type of international report card for the poverty battle during the period 2000 to 2015. As has been experienced with report cards, incentives to improve performance have been generated but not enough to produce a global class of distinctions! (Sachs, 2012).

The SDGs were developed at the UN Conference on Sustainable Development (Rio+20) which was held in Rio de Janeiro in June 2012. However, the SDGs were only formally adopted by world leaders on 25 September 2015 and were seen to be the monitoring framework for the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. The SDGs were developed from the MDGs and were designed to complete what the MDGs did not achieve. The SDGs consisted of 17 goals (the first being the eradication of extreme poverty judged by US$1.25 a day by 2030) and 169 targets aimed at tackling an extensive range of issues ranging from hunger to climate change. These particular goals and targets were devised to be applicable to the entire world and were to be monitored as such (Fukuda-Parr, 2016; Ravallion, 2015; Sobczak, Bartniczak & Raszkowski, 2021).

Central to the SDGs was poverty reduction. The first SDG called for the elimination of poverty in all its manifestations by 2030. This particular SDG included the following five associated objectives which needed to be addressed by 2030: -

1) eliminating extreme poverty (measured by the number of people living on less than US$1.25 a day),
2) halving the numbers of people living in poverty,
3) instituting social protection systems so as to assist the poor and the vulnerable,
4) ensuring that everyone has equal rights to economic resources and can access basic services, and
5) building resilience in the poor so as to lower their risk of exposure and vulnerability to climate-related events and other shocks and disasters.

Poverty dimensions were also present in SDG2 and in SDG10 (Pogge & Sengupta, 2015; United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2017).

The first SDG target of eradicating poverty by 2030 will unfortunately not be met. One of the main reasons for this is the negative effects of the COVID-19 pandemic which destroyed much of the progress which had been made in reducing poverty. Globally, extreme poverty rose in 2020 for the first time since the Asian financial crisis of the late 1990s. Estimates suggest that the number of global poor increased in 2020 from 119 million to 124 million people of whom 60% were in Southern Asia. Based on current projections, the global poverty rate is expected to be around 7% of the world's population (about 600 million people) by 2030 (United Nations, 2021).

2.6.2 Promotion of agriculture and rural development

Some 75% of those who are considered poor live in rural areas and are mainly smallholder farmers, pastoralists, fishermen, or forest users who rely on agriculture for their livelihoods. Over 80% of the farming households found globally are in fact smallholders and as such are considered to be an important element of the rural areas. However, they are often caught in a vicious cycle of poverty and food insecurity. They encounter many challenges which were referenced earlier in the chapter (see Section 2.4.2). As a result, smallholder farmers need access to advisory services, inputs, advanced technology, organisational and business development, market support and

help with credit and finance if they are to be prevented from falling into poverty (Food and Agriculture Organisation, 2017a).

Governments also need to prioritise agriculture as it is often the main economic activity of the rural poor. According to Dao (2004) developing countries with highly productive agricultural sectors experience lower degrees of rural poverty. It is estimated that an increase of US$1 (measured in 1995 terms) in agricultural value-added can result in a decrease of 0.02% of the rural population that could be considered poor in a country. Dao (2004) concludes that growth in agricultural productivity can therefore lead to declining poverty in the rural areas of the developing world. Between the periods 1989 to 1991 and 1996 to 1998, a one percent increase in per capita agricultural production could decrease the portion of the rural poor by almost 0.5% (Dao, 2004).

Another method governments and other rural development agencies can use in order to attend to poverty alleviation, household food insecurity and income inequality is through arranging smallholder farmers into groups. Lack of market access was also recognised earlier in the chapter (see Section 2.4.2.4) as being one of the major problems of smallholder-led agricultural and economic growth, rural development, and poverty reduction. Smallholder farmers often live in out-of-the-way areas which have inadequate infrastructure and no credit markets. These farmers face problems of a shortage of assets and restricted access to government support services in the form of extension information. They also face higher transaction costs which curb their involvement in the markets (Sinyolo & Mudhara, 2018). By improving roads and communication systems, smallholder farmers will be able to access urban centres more easily and will thus be encouraged to become more entrepreneurial and market oriented thus helping to reduce poverty.

The Chinese Government has been particularly successful in attending to rural poverty in their country. They have used a raft of policies to promote agriculture as a way of attending to rural poverty. One such policy was a land management system which gave contractual rights for rural land to the farmers. This greatly improved agricultural productivity and output and increased farmers' incomes. The trade in agricultural goods was also liberalised, paving the way for the emergence of a free market system. The surplus labour in the rural areas also began to be involved in non-agricultural

employment, and the sources of their income became more varied. The rural poor have also benefitted from the increase in the prices of agricultural produce. In short, the structural reform started by the Chinese Government has greatly alleviated the rural poverty in China (Liu, Guo & Zhou, 2018).

Rural development is another poverty alleviation strategy which can be used to tackle rural poverty. Rural development strategies, according to Toufique (2017), need to encompass activities that have rural poverty alleviation at their core. This can be done in a variety of ways namely encouraging employment and income generating activities, using co-operatives, increasing access to finance, increasing access to safe water and sanitation, marketing of agricultural produce, and expanding institutional development and capacity building (Toufique, 2017).

Another rural poverty alleviation strategy is the promotion of community development which has been the foundation of rural development for many years. Community-based rural development can be considered as the participation of people, particularly of the poor, women, and the excluded, in the improvement of their rural livelihoods. It is widely understood that community development can change power relations and give a voice to the poor by making development more inclusive. Governance is improved and more resources are channelled towards the rural poor (Toufique, 2017).

2.6.3 Livelihood diversification strategies

Livelihood diversification, according to Dagunga, Ayamga and Danso-Abbeam (2020), is the practice by which households create a varied portfolio of activities and social support capacities which they can use in order to survive and improve their living standards. Over the past decade, many studies concerning the poverty which is found in Sub-Saharan Africa have highlighted the importance of livelihood strategies as a way of addressing poverty reduction in the rural areas (Adiyia, Vanneste & Van Rompaey, 2017). Such strategies can offer a pathway out of poverty and into economic growth (Dagunga et al., 2020). When a farming household head engages in several activities, they have a much lower chance of becoming poor. This is due to the fact that the farmers' incomes will grow in tandem with the number of livelihood activities they involve themselves in. As such they are protected from events such as

droughts or floods which could cause total crop failure. Livelihood diversification therefore increases the sources of income for the farmers and results in rising purchasing powers. The farming households are therefore able to meet their basic needs such as shelter, clothing, food, schooling, and health care (Oyinbo & Olaleye, 2016).

Livelihood studies have also discovered a positive link between the participation in off-farm income activities and the welfare of the whole household. This indicates that off-farm income activities can provide an exit out of rural poverty. Off-farm activities are referred to as all activities outside the agricultural sector whilst on farm activities are all the activities that occur within the agricultural sector (Adiyia et al., 2017). Studies have shown that if households participate in off-farm activities, employment increases by 10%. The likelihood of a non-poor household falling into poverty will decrease by 0.88%, and the likelihood of a poor household climbing out of poverty will increase by 3.5%. Off-farm employment not only stops rural residents from falling into poverty but also helps those already in poverty climb out of it (Li, Dong, Zhang & Liu, 2021). Governments can create off-farm employment opportunities by providing technical education, training for small businesses, and microfinancing for small enterprises (Khan, Saboor, Hussain, Karim & Hussain, 2015).

2.6.4 Government involvement and good governance

In order to address rural poverty, government-led national planning policies should accurately identify the poorest households. Governments also need to provide infrastructure to the rural poor in the form of good roads, safe drinking water, schools, clinics, electricity, housing, and sanitation. Access to a quality education and vocational training can improve the employability of the rural poor and can break the cycle of intergenerational poverty. In addition, the government should supply subsidised agricultural inputs such as seeds, fertilisers, pesticides, and fuel. This will help to improve the livelihoods of the rural people, as well as their productivity and income. Governments also need to extend access to farming machinery, training programmes and extension services, skill acquisition programmes, credit facilities and microfinancing since most of the people in the rural areas are farmers. The rural poor can also be encouraged to grow commercial crops like cotton, sugarcane, off-season

vegetables and fruits. This will help them move away from subsistence agriculture and towards farm commercialisation (Adiyia et al., 2017; Khan et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2018; Oladapo & Olasen, 2019; Xu et al., 2018).

One method of achieving poverty alleviation which has garnered much support over the past few decades is good governance. Research has indicated that good governance plays a key role in determining the success of poverty alleviation initiatives in the developing world (Nie et al., 2021). Weaknesses in the political and administrative areas of governance have resulted in developing countries having to cope with great challenges related to the provision of social services and security. Many multinational donor agencies insist on a good governance approach from the developing countries before obtaining financial aid. Transparent, accountable and participatory forms of governance are therefore needed if poverty is to be reduced and the lives of the rural poor and vulnerable are to be improved (Singh & Chudasama, 2020).

2.6.5 Economic growth

A powerful path out of poverty is to promote sustained economic growth as higher economic growth often results in lower poverty. High and sustained economic growth also assists in strengthening the fiscal position of governments which means that public resources can be utilised to fund policies and programmes that are pro-poor. Conversely, low economic growth, which is interrupted by crises, weakens the fiscal position of countries. This can cause the spending on public programmes which supports social needs, economic growth and the poor to be cut (Diaz-Bonilla & Constenla-Villoslada, 2021). However, researchers have cautioned that economic growth is not sufficient to bring about poverty reduction. Economic growth can fail the poor if it is not inclusive. As the economy grows, income inequality also increases and this can diminish the impact of economic growth and could lead to further poverty (Li et al., 2021).

2.6.6 Greater access to credit, services, natural resources and other assets

The chances of a household in the rural areas becoming poor can be reduced by improving their access to credit. Access to credit enables farmers to improve their production as they are now able to purchase inputs like fertiliser and seeds. Access to credit can also help households start their own off-farm businesses thus allowing them to diversify their income sources (Oyinbo & Olaleye, 2016).

A predominant poverty alleviation strategy is micro-financing or microcredit. Microcredit is a small loan which is provided to the poor. It has been shown to be an effective intervention in the aim to achieve poverty alleviation. Microcredit is often offered, without collateral, to either groups or individuals. Group lending, which is also known as solidarity lending, is an instrument which allows numerous individuals to provide collateral or guarantee a loan through a group repayment scheme. Peer pressure often provides the incentive to repay - if a person in the group defaults, the other group members will make up the payment amount. In contrast, individual lending focuses on a particular client and therefore other people do not need to arrange for collateral or guarantee a loan (Wahab, Bunyau & Rezaul Islam, 2018). Microfinancing helps the poor (particularly women) whilst still encouraging income-generating activities. For micro-financing to be more effective, financial training needs to be given, technological support needs to be provided along with better education, health, and sanitation (Singh & Chudasama, 2020).

2.6.7 Development of human capital

Poverty can be alleviated with the establishment of awareness and skills acquisition training programmes. Such programmes will help farmers implement proper farming methods and will also allow them to participate in an extensive range of other income generating activities that will enhance their well-being. The acquisition of skills by women and youths in particular can also be instrumental in alleviating rural poverty. This particular group is vulnerable as women are often resource poor, and much of the youth is unemployed. Programmes involving training in the processing of agricultural products, extraction of oil from groundnuts, production of detergents, baking, weaving, poultry and fish farming, ram fattening, upholstery, and shoe

production can also go a long way to decreasing rural poverty (Dao, 2004; Oyinbo & Olaleye, 2016).

2.6.8 Social protection

Social protection is being increasingly recognised as a vital strategy for poverty reduction and inclusive growth. The 2030 Agenda emphasised the significant role social protection can play in the fight against poverty. However, more than 70% of the global population, specifically in rural areas, lack acceptable coverage of social protection. Access to predictable and regular transfers can help rural households manage risks from shocks and stresses, as well as increase liquidity and improve credit constraints. This can, in turn, increase spending and investment, improve access to markets and promote local economies (Food and Agriculture Organisation, 2017b). Social protection can be given to the rural poor in the form of essential social services and government spending on social insurance schemes, cash transfers and social assistance payments (Singh & Chudasama, 2020).

2.6.9 Other interventions

Improving the status of women in rural areas can result in a decrease in poverty. Over 50% of the world's food is produced by women showing the significant role they can play in the socio-economic development of a country (Osei & Zhuang, 2020). High fertility rates are positively connected to the incidences of rural poverty. For every extra birth per woman, the fraction of the rural population living below the national poverty line in a developing country increases by about 7%. Rural poverty can thus be decreased by firstly introducing and encouraging the use of contraception, and secondly by increasing the adult literacy rate amongst females (Dao, 2004). Increasing awareness of the positive aspects of having small families may also be a suitable tool to use in rural poverty alleviation (Khan et al., 2015).

Income from tourism can also play a meaningful role in rural poverty alleviation in the developing world, however, the scale of the impact is quite negligible. Governments in the developing world would need to invest in infrastructure in the rural areas, especially

in areas where tourist attractions are to be developed, whilst still supporting private businesses to provide services to the tourists (Dao, 2004).

2.7 Conclusion

The key aim of this chapter was to scrutinise the theory behind poverty, and more specifically rural poverty. The chapter started with a discussion of the historical and contemporary definitions of poverty. The way poverty has been defined has changed over the years from a focus on lack of income and wealth to a much wider multidimensional perspective involving monetary and nonmonetary aspects of poverty. The chapter then continued with an exploration of the different types of poverty which can be found namely extreme, absolute, relative, objective, and subjective. This was followed with an introduction to the concept of rural poverty and a discussion of the different ways the rural poor can be classified. The reasons why rural poverty occurs around the world were then discussed. It was found that factors such as small land holding size, female headed households, increased distances from markets, and political instability can cause rural poverty. In order to be able to address the problem of rural poverty, the two main ways of measuring rural poverty namely monetary or unidimensional poverty measurements and multidimensional approaches were examined. The chapter concluded with an assessment of the different poverty alleviation strategies which have been used to attend to rural poverty. One of the more well-known of these strategies is the UN's global response to poverty with the introduction of the MDGs and the SDGs. Other strategies which were discussed were the promotion of agriculture and rural development, livelihood diversification, and good governance.

This chapter contributes to the answering of the research question (an analysis of rural poverty in South Africa since 1994) by providing the theory behind poverty in general, and rural poverty more specifically. In the next chapter the poverty found in South Africa (with particular reference to rural poverty) will be explored further.

CHAPTER THREE

OVERVIEW OF POVERTY IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 Introduction

South Africa faces many challenges including low economic growth, high unemployment, inequality, and poverty (Arndt, Davies & Thurlow, 2018). Poverty, particularly the rural poverty found in the country, will be the primary focus of this third chapter of the study. The chapter will start with a discussion of the term 'rural' and how this term is defined in South Africa. An examination of the key macroeconomic indicators as they relate to poverty in South Africa since 1994 will then be discussed. This will be done in order to place in context the rural poverty which can be found in the country. The relationship between these particular socio-economic indicators and poverty will also be explored on a more macro level. The key trends in rural poverty since 1994 will then be analysed. The chapter will conclude with an examination of what the government of South Africa has done to curtail the incidence of poverty (with particular reference to rural poverty). Specific aspects which will be considered are the social wage and the assistance which was offered during the COVID-19 pandemic. The historical context of South Africa's poverty and the various poverty studies done will be referenced throughout the chapter.

3.2 Definitions of the term 'rural'

If the general public were asked to the describe the term 'rural', they would most probably give a very practical definition suggesting that rural is what is outside the cities and towns or what is not urban. They would possibly add that the distinguishing characteristics of rural areas are that they are where agriculture, forestry and landscapes like mountains and deserts are found, and where people work in agriculture, live in isolated households or in fairly small settlements. Sometimes rural is described as a land space with a culturally defined identity, or it is identified in terms of population size and density, demographics, remoteness, accessibility, land use, land cover, or economic activities. However, when comparisons are made between

what is rural in one country and what is rural in another, it becomes apparent that there is no standard international definition for the term (Nelson, Nguyen, Brownstein, Garcia, Walker, Watson & Xin, 2021; Pain & Hansen, 2019).

There are three main reasons for these disparities in how the term 'rural' is defined. The first reason is that there are often culturally diverse perceptions of what makes an area rural rather than urban. There are also often areas that have both rural and urban characteristics. The second reason is that once criteria are used to identify a rural area, data is needed to substantiate the criteria, and this is often not available. Thirdly, it is often the purpose behind an interest in the term 'rural' that determines how the concept is defined. This can lead to different government agencies within the same country defining the term in different ways (Pain & Hansen, 2019).

Many international agencies around the world have also described the term in different ways. Rural areas are described by the OECD as those communities where the population density is less than 150 inhabitants/km². A region would be categorised as predominantly rural if more than 50% of the population are living in rural communities. In the European Union the population density would have to be below 100 inhabitants per km^2 to be considered rural (Kurowska & Kowalczyk, 2022; OECD, 2006).

The Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) do not provide a definition of the term 'rural' but rather state that individual countries should rather define the term themselves. They further add that such a definition could be simple and just involve what is not perceived to be urban; or it could be more complicated and refer to different kinds of rural areas which are distinguished by an activity such as farming or tourism. The FAO do add that the lack of a consistent definition of the term can create much confusion when comparing statistics between and among countries (Food and Agriculture Organisation, 2018).

In South Africa there is also no standardised or legal definition of the term 'rural area' (Ministry of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2009), and as such, Government research institutions, Government departments, academics, and other stakeholders define the term in many different ways (Gaede & Versteeg, 2011). The Government of South Africa (2000) defined rural areas as being areas where agriculture is the main

and often the only economic sector. Rural areas were also defined in the Rural Development Framework (RDF) (which the South African Government adopted in 1997) as areas which are sparsely populated and where people practise farming or rely on natural resources. Also included in the definition are villages, small towns and large settlements which are located in the former homelands, and which depend for their survival on remittances and migratory labour. Rural households generally resort to a range of various strategies to safeguard their survival. As such, their economic activities are described as livelihood strategies and not as employment or jobs (Ministry of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2009).

According to Statistics South Africa (2018) rural refers to both traditional areas and farms which are typified by low population densities, minimum levels of infrastructure and very little economic activity. Communal land which is under the jurisdiction of a traditional leader is referred to as a traditional area. In these particular areas there is very little activity of a formal economic nature and minimal levels of subsistence agriculture take place. Most of the rural households living in these areas rely on social grants or state cash transfers or remittances as their major source of livelihood (Visagie & Turok, 2021). In contrast, urban areas are formal towns and cities which have greater population densities, higher levels of economic activity and better infrastructure (Statistics South Africa, 2003). Figure 3.1 and Figure 3.2 offer further details on what is considered to be rural and urban according to Statistics South Africa (2003). Of particular interest to this study are the tribal settlements (classified under rural tribal areas) and the farms (under the rural formal area classification) (see Figure 3.1).

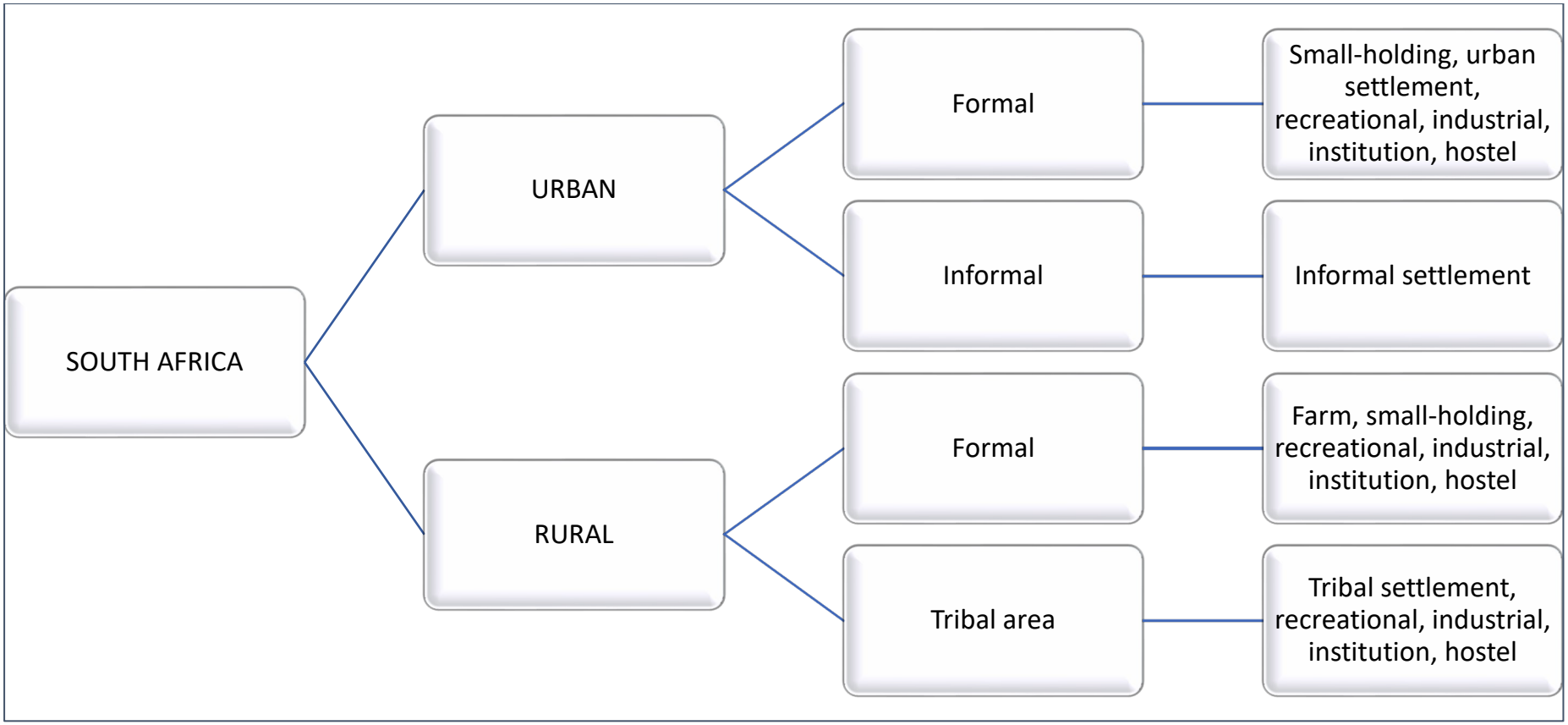


Figure 3.1: Difference between a rural and an urban area

Source: Author's own compilation from Statistics South Africa (2003)

Enumeration Area type			
	Tribal Settlements	Villages	Small vegetable gardens; kraals to keep cattle in at night; huts / houses arranged in square gardens or close together to create a village; communal land extending to the border of the administrative area
	Farms	Commercial farms	Covers extrensive areas where a variety of crops are grown and/or have large fenced grazing areas; livestock like cattle and sheep are reared.
	Small-holdings	Usually located on the outskirts of town; involves small-scale intensive farming such as chicken and pig-rearing/growing of vegetables, floers or fruit	
	Recreational areas	Golf courses, caravan parks, nature reserves	
	Industrial	Ranges from light to heavy industrial	
	Institution	Collective living quarters with large formal buildings	Hospitals, prisons, hotels, schools and army barracks
	Hostel	Places where factory or mine workers live	
	Vacant	Remainder of the tribal land which is not occupied by villages	Made up of significant areas under agriculture or under grazing in river valleys; small areas of natural forests found in river valleys; urban fringe amongst built-up areas and farming areas

Figure 3.2: Different types of rural areas

Source: Author's own compilation from Statistics South Africa (2003)

The key macroeconomic indicators in South Africa since 1994 will be examined in the next section in order to provide insight into the rural poverty found in the country over the last 28 years.

3.3 Key macroeconomic indicators and their relationship to poverty in South Africa post 1994

Even though South Africa is considered to be one of the largest economies in Africa, high levels of unemployment (especially amongst the youth), inequality and low economic growth still persist in the country (Musara, Mabila, Gwaindepi, & Netsai, 2020). Each of these macroeconomic indicators and their relationship to poverty in South Africa will be discussed next.

3.3.1 Economic growth in South Africa since 1994

Economic growth and poverty reduction are two very important concepts which often take the centre stage in global policy debates. Economic growth is defined as the increase in the manufacture and marketing of goods and services in an economy due to advances in technology (Oluwatayo & Ojo, 2018). Statistics on GDP growth rates are important to note as an essential element for poverty reduction is high economic growth - although such growth does not necessarily translate through to greater equality and inclusion. Economic growth is also needed for job creation. Once people have jobs, they will earn an income and will essentially be able to lift themselves out of poverty. Experience has shown that there can be a poverty decline of between 1% and 7% when there are economic growth rates of 2%. Economic growth will cause income to increase, however, the distribution of that income may not be equitable. This may cause income equality to worsen and the rewards from economic growth may diminish especially for the poor (DPME, 2014).

South Africa is an upper middle-income country (World Bank, 2021). In the time leading up to the first democratic elections in 1994, economic growth had slowed down in South Africa with the real GDP per capita growth contracting in each of the five-year periods between 1980 and 1995. The slowdown in the mid-1980s was caused by declining gold exports and the depreciating Rand and followed the end of the

commodity price boom. During this time there was also a growing international opposition to apartheid along with rising political instability in the country. South Africa had become globally isolated from world markets due to economic sanctions. The country was also facing increased competition from the Newly Industrialised Countries (NICs) in Asia. The result of this was decreasing output, a significant increase in debt and a sharp decline in FDI. The manufacturing sector, compared to the rest of the economy, declined along with its share of employment and exports (Bhorat, Lilenstein, Oosthuizen & Thornton, 2020).

In 1994 economic sanctions were removed following the end of apartheid. FDI increased and tariffs, in the late 1990s, were cut in most sectors (Bhorat et al., 2020). From 1994 to 2012 the economy grew at about 3.3% per annum in real terms and this would have helped the government attend to the poverty situation in the country. However, the global economic performance affected the economic growth in the country and made it extremely volatile (Ajuruchukwu & Sanelise, 2016). Figure 3.3 shows that there were three main economic contractions in South Africa between 1993 and 2023 and each of these contractions was linked to external shocks. The first contraction was in 1998 and was due to the East Asian crisis which occurred in mid-1997. The second contraction was in 2008 and was caused by the global financial crisis of 2007/08 and the ensuing Euro debt crisis - both of which severely impacted South Africa. Following this particular crisis, the South African economy in 2008/09 went into recession for the first time in nearly two decades and this resulted in the loss of close to a million jobs in 2009 alone (Rena & Msoni, 2014). The third contraction was in 2020 and has been attributed to the COVID-19 lockdown which hit the South African economy the hardest between April and June 2020 (Mathe, 2020). Figure 3.3 also shows that from 2012 onwards South Africa's real GDP contracted. During the past two decades South Africa has underperformed economically when judged against the emerging markets and the other developing economies.

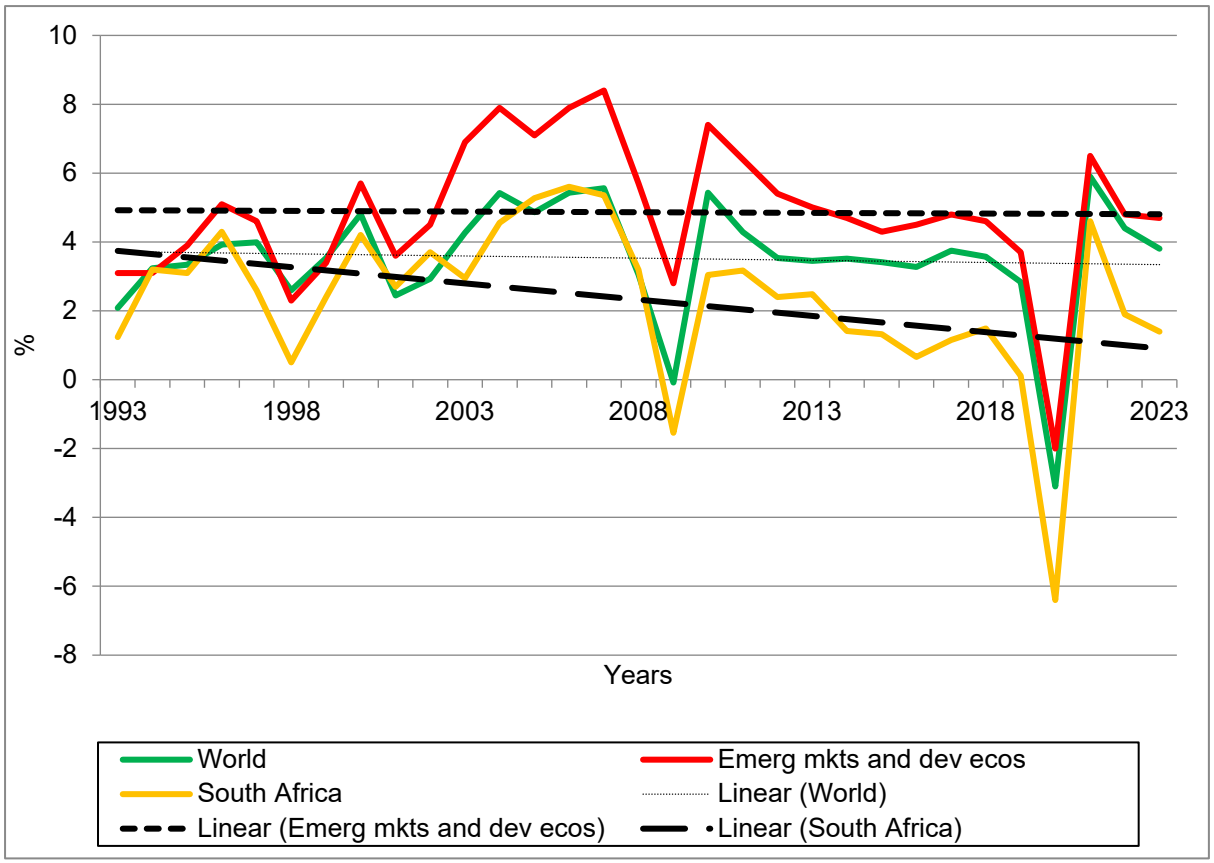


Figure 3.3: Real GDP growth rates (1993-2023)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022a)

The economic hub of South Africa is the Gauteng Province. Even though this province occupies the smallest percentage of land area, it contributes the greatest percentage to the country's GDP (34.6%), and in fact makes up around 5% of the GDP of Africa (see Figure 3.4). The second largest contributor to South Africa's GDP (16%) is KwaZulu-Natal Province followed by Western Cape Province (13.7%). Altogether, these three provinces contribute nearly 66% to the total economy of the country. An interesting point to note is that Gauteng Province only occupies 1.5% of the total land area of South Africa but has the greatest population share (25.3%). On the other hand, the Northern Cape Province, which occupies 30.5% of the land area, only has 2.1% of the population share (Alexander, 2019).

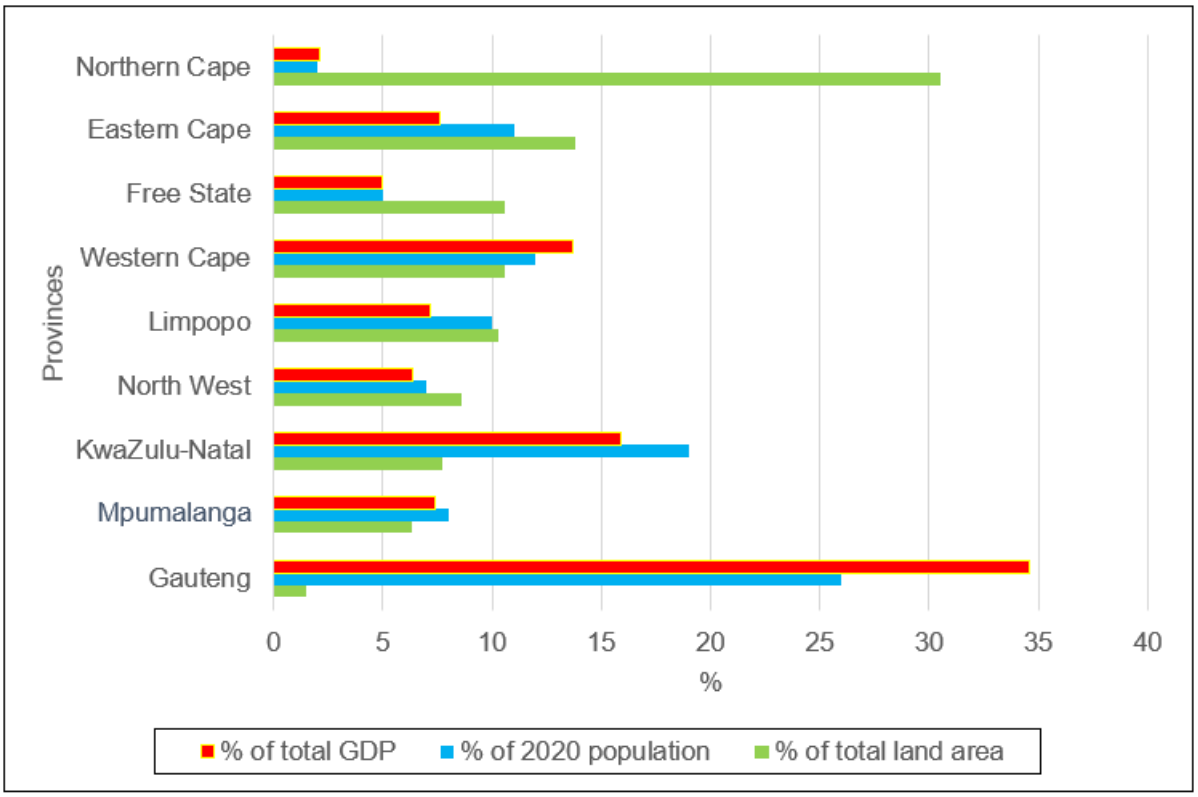


Figure 3.4: GDP, population size and land area (2020)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022c & 2022i)

Another important economic indicator is GNI per capita which shows the economic strengths and the general standard of living of the country. The GNI per capita for South Africa and the various provinces is shown in Figure 3.5. From 1993 until 2015 the GNI per capita improved in all the provinces except Gauteng (despite this province being the economic hub of the country). Following 2015 the GNI per capita showed a downward trend throughout the country and this correlates with the data presented in Figure 3.3.

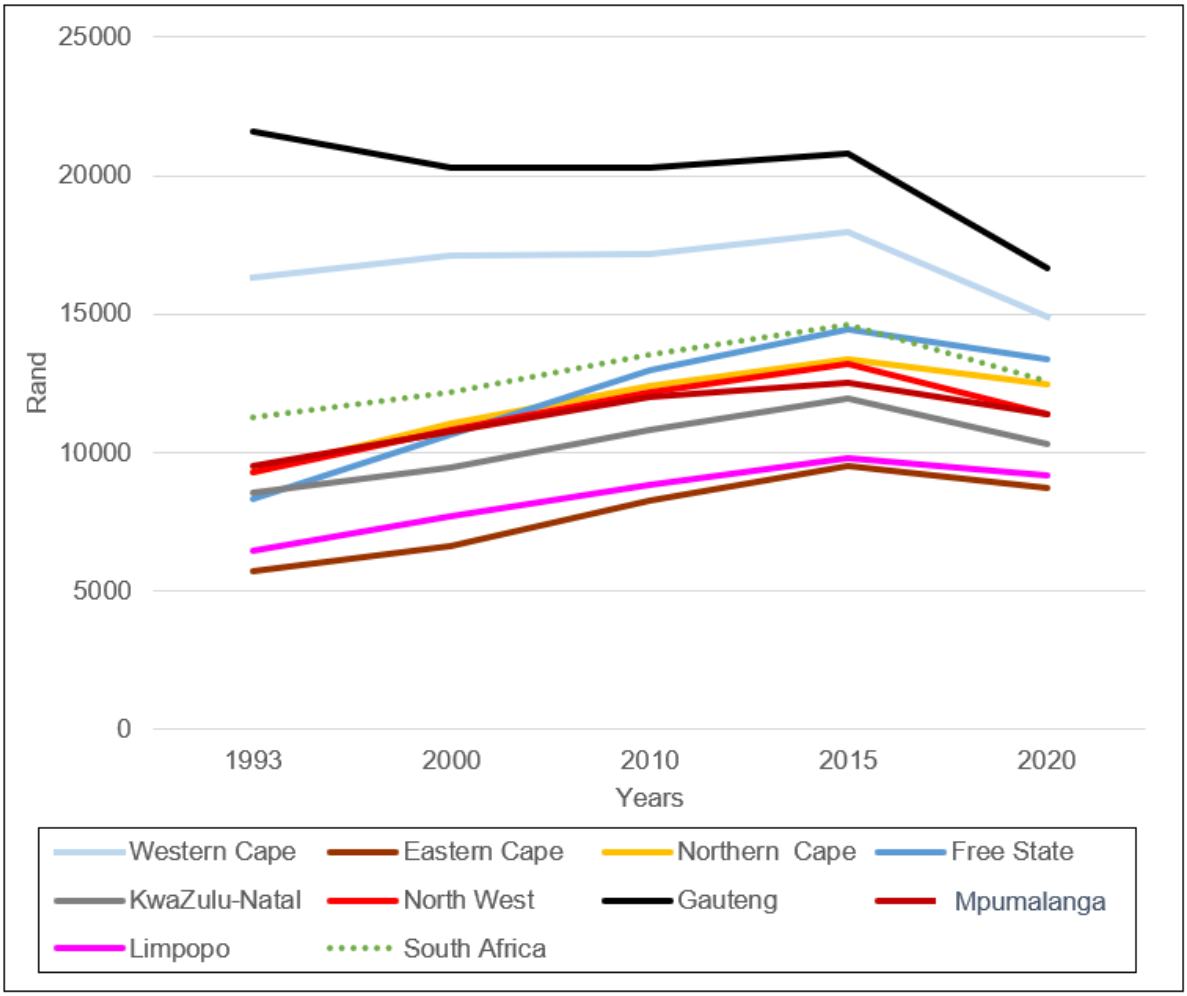


Figure 3.5: GNI per capita for the South African Provinces (1993-2020)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

Many reasons have been given for South Africa's deteriorating growth performance especially in the last decade from 2011 to 2021. The country has struggled with many problems such as policy uncertainty, a deepening energy crisis, political turmoil, worsening business confidence and increasing evidence of deeply entrenched corruption and so-called 'state capture'. While economic growth quickly recovered following the 2009 recession, it became more fragile over time. Share prices and the exchange rate collapsed due to the lack of international capital flows. In the third quarter of 2008 the Johannesburg Stock Exchange devalued by 20% and the Rand depreciated against the US dollar by 37%. Due to the structural weaknesses of the economy, many negative consequences have resulted such as constrained job creation. This in turn has put a great deal of pressure onto the resources available to households to support themselves and invest in their own development. South Africa's

growth potential could be limited in the future due to the long-term damage caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. The pandemic has exposed further inequalities in terms of access to quality healthcare and education, employment and decent living conditions. Additional pressure has been placed on public finances (which have been on a downward trajectory for many years) because of the COVID-19 crisis and has made restoring fiscal sustainability even more urgent (Ajuruchukwu & Sanelise, 2016; World Bank, 2021).

In addition, between 1993 and 2020 South Africa's population increased from just over 40 million people to just under 60 million (Quantec, 2022c) (see Figure 3.6). Population growth was higher than the GDP growth rate in 1998, 2009 and from 2014 onwards, and this would have translated into higher unemployment figures as not enough jobs were being added to the economy in order to keep up with the population growth rate.

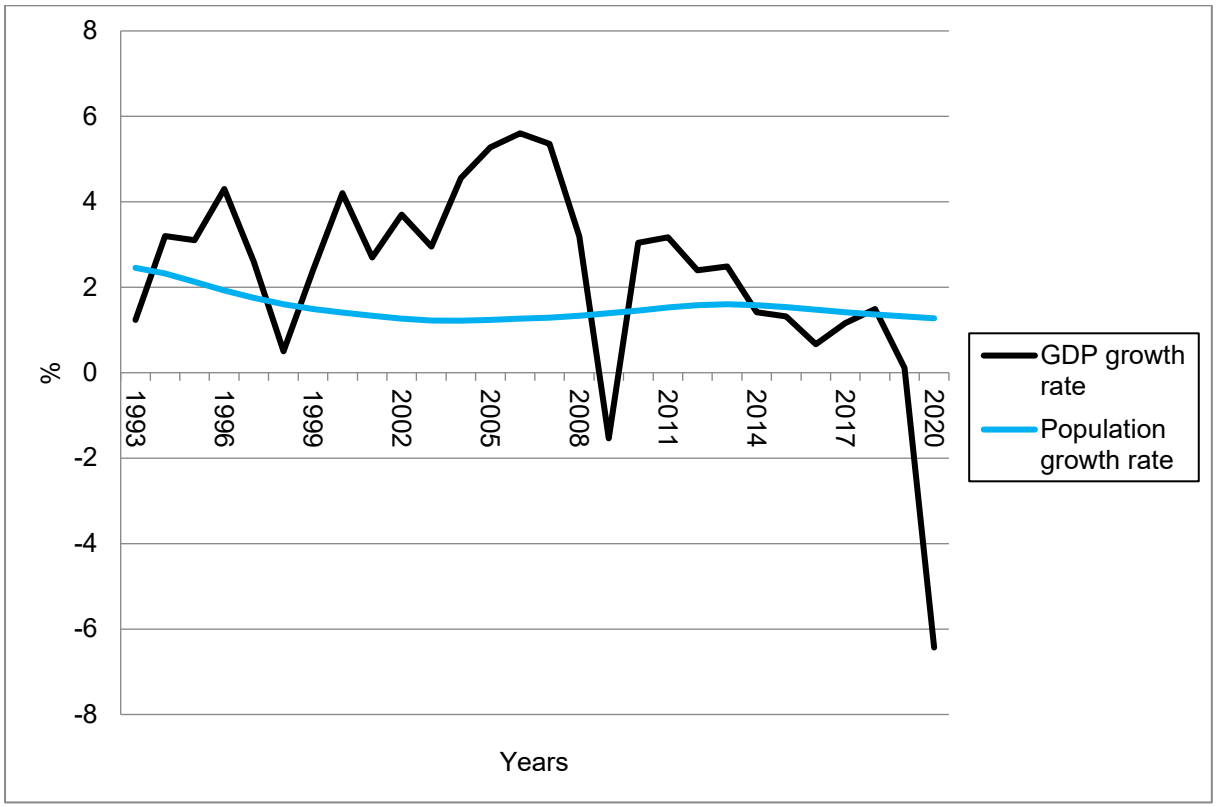


Figure 3.6: GDP and population growth rates (1993-2020)

Source: World Bank (2022a & 2022b)

Another important trend regarding the South African population is the urban population which is reported to be growing at alarming rates whereas the rural population is decreasing. It is estimated that between 1994 and 2004 household sizes in South Africa fell significantly from around five members to four. This was apparently due to rural/urban migration following the end of apartheid (DPME, 2014). It is estimated that 71.3% of the population will be living in an urban area by 2030, and by 2050 this number could increase to 80%. As a result, rural/urban migration could become more prevalent and could cause the rural areas to continue losing skilled people thus prolonging the cycle of poverty in these areas (Mlambo, 2018).

There are many constraints to economic growth in South Africa. One such constraint is a deficit in infrastructure especially with regards to electricity. Such a deficit leads to decreased production and increased unemployment. South Africa has seen unprecedented periods of loadshedding due to these electricity constraints. Another limitation to economic growth is corruption which costs the continent in excess of US$148 billion annually. This corruption results in unquantifiable welfare losses in the form of unemployment, increased costs of doing business and reduced attractiveness of the African economies for investment and trade purposes (Oluwatayo & Ojo, 2018). Corruption in the government sector, referred to as state capture in South Africa, continues to be a problem for the South African Government.

Despite having huge amounts of mineral resources, Africa does not benefit from trade due to its dependence on primary products and this has further constrained economic growth. The economy of Africa is highly dependent on imports as it produces primary products and then exports these raw goods to the developed world. Finished goods are then imported and this causes the balance of trade to move towards the developed world. Primary products, examples of which are primary agricultural commodities, natural resources and minerals, are extremely susceptible to fluctuating prices and environmental tariffs and these products make up the bulk of Africa's exports (Oluwatayo & Ojo, 2018). South Africa is a country which depends greatly on its exports of primary products such as precious metals. During commodity booms, the country grows economically, but when the boom finishes, economic growth tends to decline.

3.3.2 Unemployment in South Africa since 1994

The increasing unemployment rate in the country has proved to be one of the biggest challenges faced by the post-apartheid government. Unemployment remains very high by global standards and has steadily climbed since the end of apartheid, peaking in 2003 before receding and then continuing to grow further (DPME, 2014) (see Figure 3.7). The economy of South Africa has been unable to create sufficient employment opportunities for the growing number of people seeking to enter the work place.

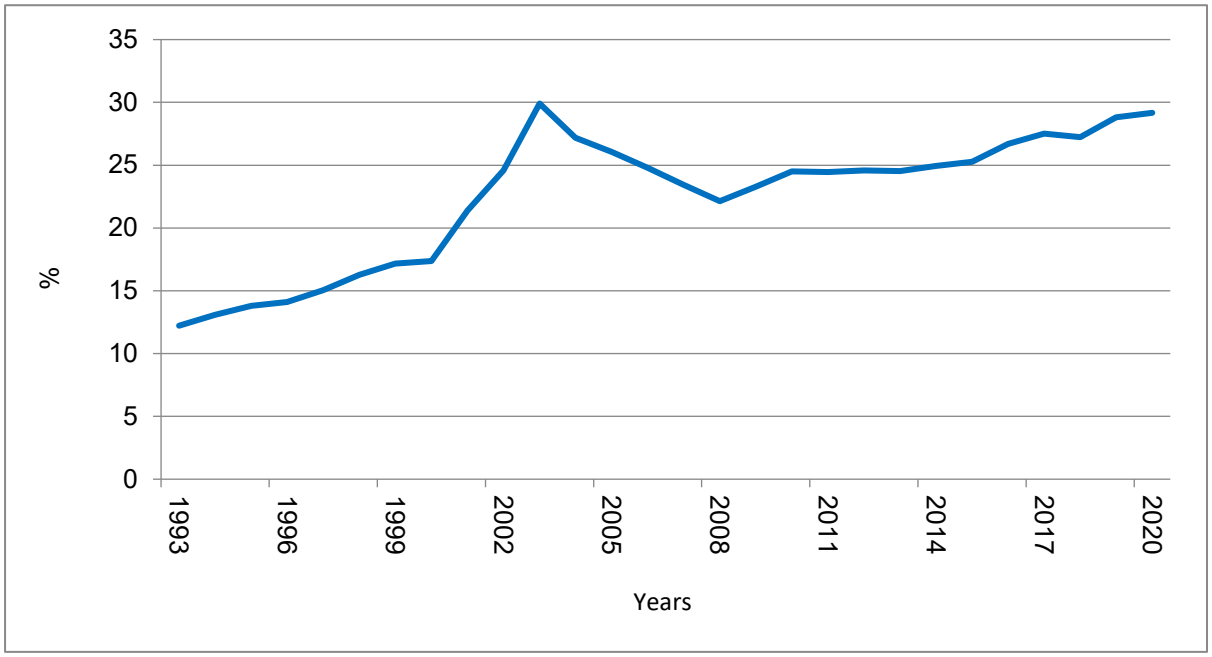


Figure 3.7: South Africa's unemployment rate (1993 to 2020)
Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022e)

Unemployment has also been growing at a faster rate in those provinces which have greater urban populations (see Table 3.1). An example of such is the Western Cape Province which had the lowest unemployment rate in 1994 and again in 2021, but the unemployment rate had grown more on an annualised basis (6.2%) in this province than anywhere else in the country. Another important statistic to note is that Limpopo Province had the highest unemployment rate (42%) in the country in 2021 - up from 19% in 1994. Limpopo is essentially a province dominated by rural areas and former homelands. This statistic correlates with the findings of Francis and Webster (2019)

who stated that in the rural parts of South Africa, unemployment is very high, and this is because of the lack of economic opportunities to be found in the former homelands.

Table 3.1: Summary of unemployment data for South Africa (1994-2021)

South Africa unemployment rate in:		
1994	13%	
2021	34%	
Annualised % change	3.7%	
Highest provincial unemployment rate in:		
1994	Eastern Cape	27%
2021	Limpopo	42%
Lowest provincial unemployment rate in:		
1994	Western Cape	5%
2021	Western Cape	25%
Largest annualised change (%)	Western Cape	6.2%
Smallest annualised change (%)	Eastern Cape	1.3%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022e)

The high levels of unemployment seen in the country have been caused by a variety of factors. In the time following the 1994 elections, the industrial sector in the country struggled to cope with the foreign competition it faced following the decades of isolation. This resulted in both the mining and manufacturing sectors declining whilst the finance and service sectors expanded and along with it their employment share. Employers have also had to grapple with rising labour costs without the accompanying increases in labour productivity. Industry in South Africa has also become increasingly mechanised, and this has resulted in increasing unemployment amongst the skilled and unskilled labour. Employment has only increased amongst the highly skilled who primarily work in the service sector. The result has been a shortage of highly educated, highly skilled workers and not enough demand for the low-skilled workers and the youth (Ajuruchukwu & Sanelise, 2016; Bhorat et al., 2020; World Bank, 2018a). Employment is also much lower in the informal than the formal sector which is the sector usually found in the rural areas (see Figure 3.8).

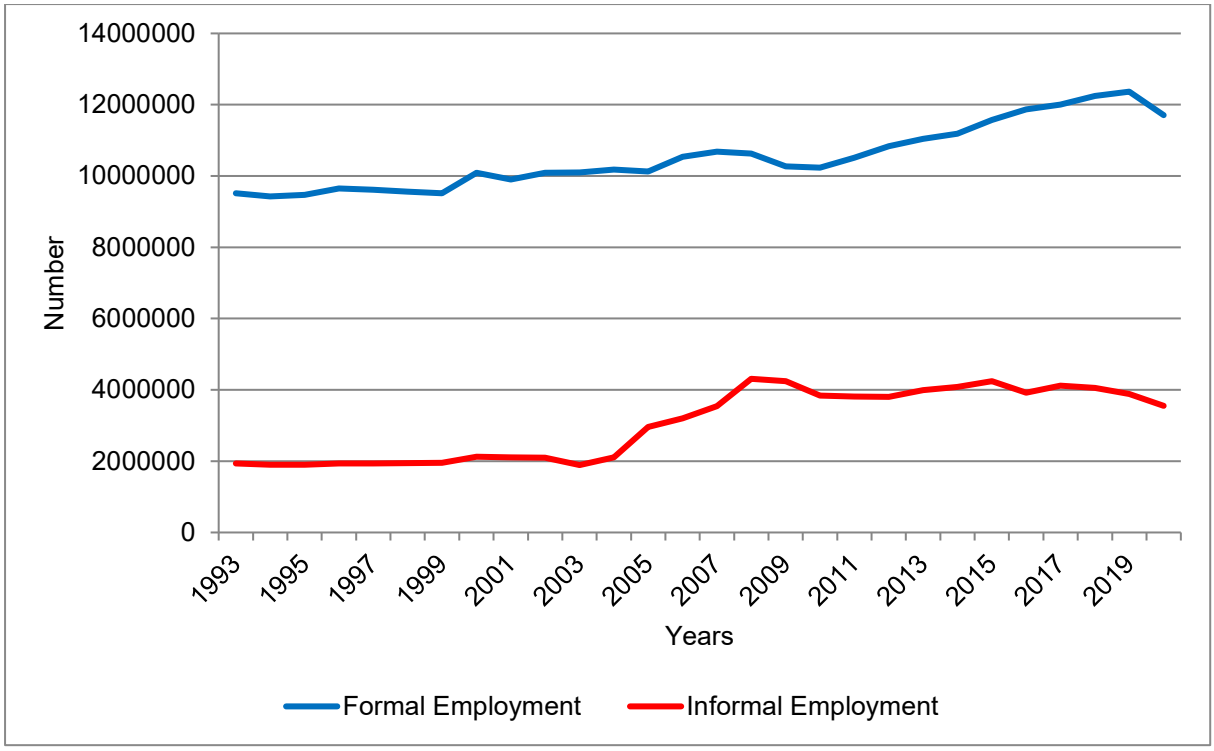


Figure 3.8: Formal and informal employment (1993 to 2020)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022e)

Figure 3.8 also shows that employment in both the formal and the informal sectors started to drop in 2020 and this was probably due to the COVID-19 pandemic. It is anticipated that this downward trend will continue into the future as the country has to grapple with the after effects of the pandemic. Poverty will obviously be negatively affected.

3.3.3 Income inequality in South Africa since 1994

During the 1970s income inequality declined in South Africa. This was mainly due to the decreases in the racial wage gap which occurred because of the rise of the powerful Black trade unions and the changing political landscape. Wages in the mining sector tripled between 1972 and 1980 along with wages in the manufacturing and construction sectors. However, by 1981 income inequality had started to increase again, and these high levels of inequality have continued to persist in the post-apartheid era despite the dismantling of discriminatory legislation. What has since emerged is that inequality in the country is not only a phenomenon between race

groups. Intra-race inequality has grown at a fast rate, and by 2009, it was higher than inter-race inequality. In 1993 48% of overall inequality was due to income inequality within race groups. By 2008 this had increased to 62% (Bhorat et al., 2020; Francis & Webster, 2019).

There is a close link between poverty and inequality, and notwithstanding their differences, it is not practical to consider one without the other (Francis & Webster, 2019). As such the National Development Plan (NDP) prioritises reducing income inequality (measured by the Gini coefficient) from 0,70 to 0,60 by 2030. This is in line with SDG10 which aims to reduce inequalities within and between countries (Statistics South Africa, 2019).

Figure 3.9 shows the progression of the Gini coefficient in South Africa since 1993. The Gini coefficient reached a peak of 0.72 in 2005 but then dropped to 0.68 in 2019. This indicates that the work being done by the Government on reducing income inequality in the country was starting to be effective.

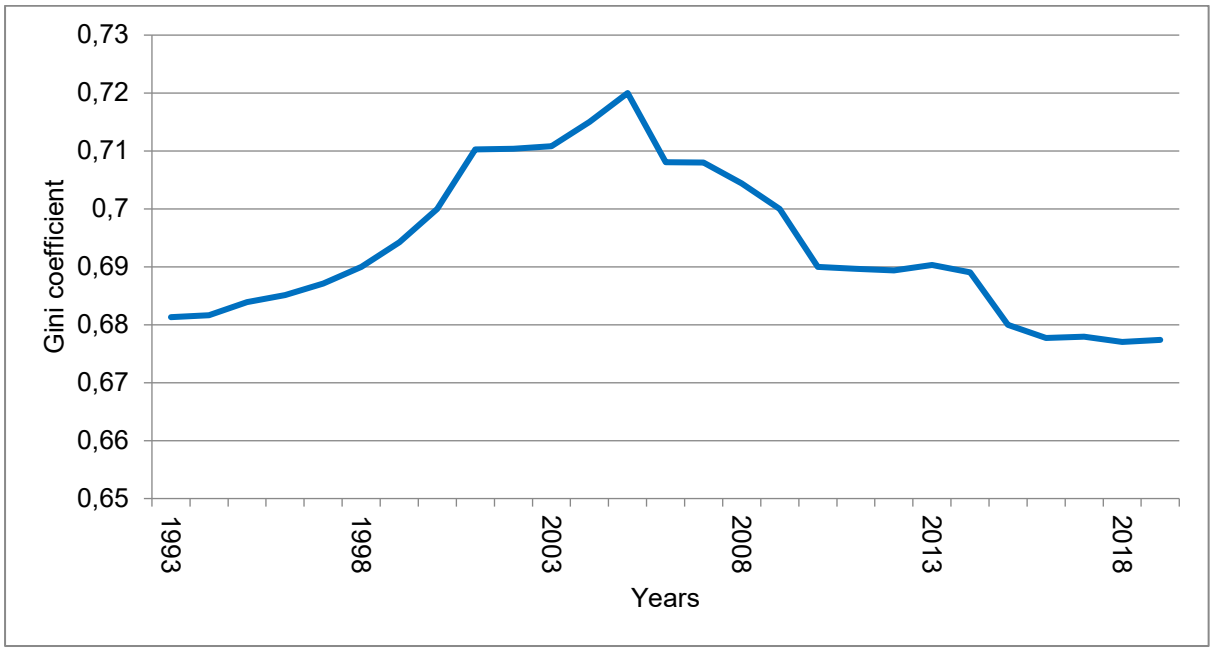


Figure 3.9: Gini coefficient (1993-2020)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022f)

Figure 3.10 specifically shows the Gini coefficients for the urban, rural and for the whole country between 2006 and 2015.

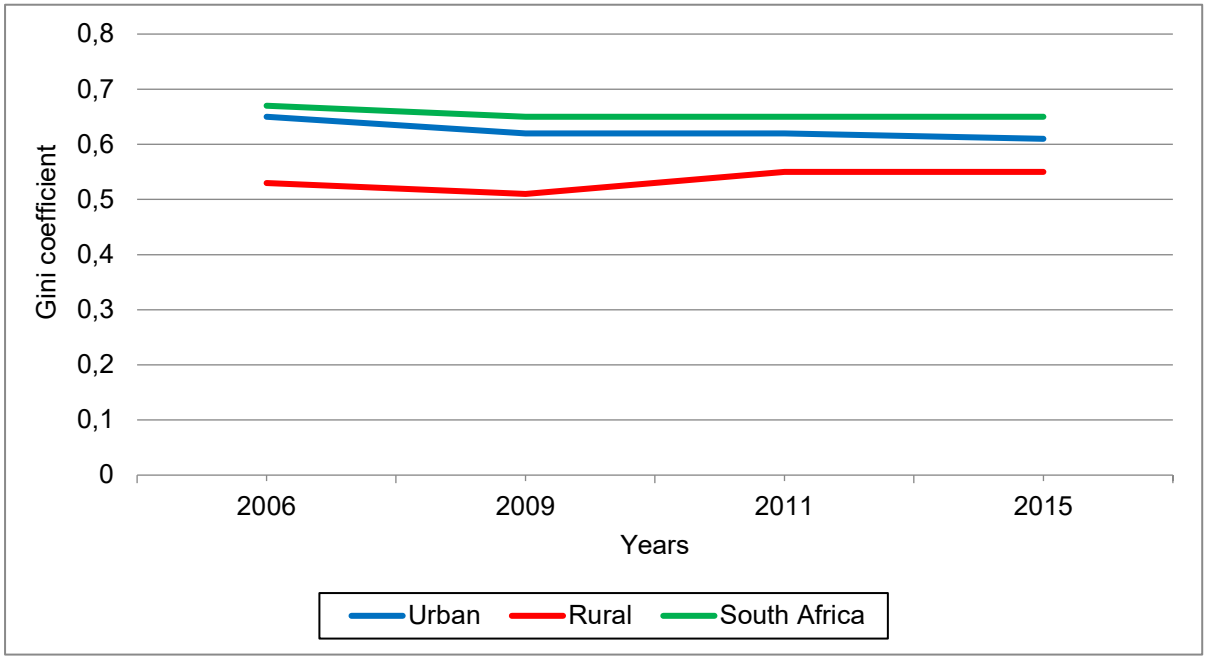


Figure 3.10: Urban and rural Gini coefficient (2006-2015)

Source: Statistics South Africa (2019)

During this time income inequality was higher amongst those people living in the urban rather than the rural areas. However, by 2009, income inequality had started to increase amongst individuals in the rural areas whereas it had slightly improved for urban individuals.

It can be concluded from the above discussion that South Africa is facing many challenges. Economic growth has declined amidst a rising population, and unemployment and intra-race income inequality are increasing. All of these indicators do not bode well for the poverty situation which is found in the country and which will be discussed next.

3.4 An overview of poverty in South Africa

Poverty is defined in South Africa as being a deficiency in an individual's socio-economic capabilities. Poverty is therefore not just a lack of income. It is more

multidimensional in nature and includes non-material dimensions as well such as social exclusion and inequality (Fombad, 2018).

One of the main causes of the poverty which is found in the country is the legacy of apartheid (Carter & May, 1999). The Natives Land Act of 1913 demarcated White farming areas and African reserves. Africans were prohibited from owning or renting land in White areas. This had the effect of severely limiting their economic options and as such they were forced to sell their labour to White farms or to the mines. In 1950 the then Minister of Native Affairs (H.F. Verwoerd) signalled the plans of the National Party to both continue and strengthen the discriminatory system of labour and pass controls. This resulted in many families being separated for long periods of time as the men would be working in the cities or on the mines, and the women had to remain in the African reserves. Conditions in the reserves worsened as more and more people were forcibly settled on them. Between 1955 and 1960 the population density of the reserves increased from 23 to 42 persons per square kilometre. Many of these households were expected to live on small amounts of land or were just left landless (Aliber, 2003) ultimately setting the stage for rural poverty.

During the 1960s and 1970s the status of the African reserves was changed to 10 self-governing homelands each with their own assemblies, government departments and rights to confer citizenship. Only 13% of the country's land area was given across to the reserves. This meant that the reserves were often geographically isolated and lacked natural resources and productive investments. Infrastructure was poor and inadequate and high levels of unemployment and poverty were endemic. Because of the lack of meaningful income-earning prospects within the homelands, the migrant labour system continued to be one of the most important survival strategies for African households (Aliber, 2003; DPME, 2014). Income earners continued to move to the urban areas to look for work whilst the young and the old were left behind in the rural homelands.

One of the more damaging legacies of the apartheid era was the inequitable distribution of agricultural land between race groups. This resulted in many rural people being left landless or having very little access to land or being left with very poor land. The rural households who did have access to the land derived very little

economic benefit from it even in terms of subsistence production. The main problems faced by these smallholders was lack of finance, market access and training (see Section 2.4.2). Those who were forced to live in the rural areas continued to suffer from limited employment opportunities, underdeveloped infrastructure, and scarce amenities (Aliber, 2003) again setting the stage for ever increasing rural poverty.

Monetary poverty levels are overall lower today than they were in 1994. However, these figures are still high and tend to fluctuate from one time period to another (Musakwa & Odhiambo, 2021) (see Figure 3.11).

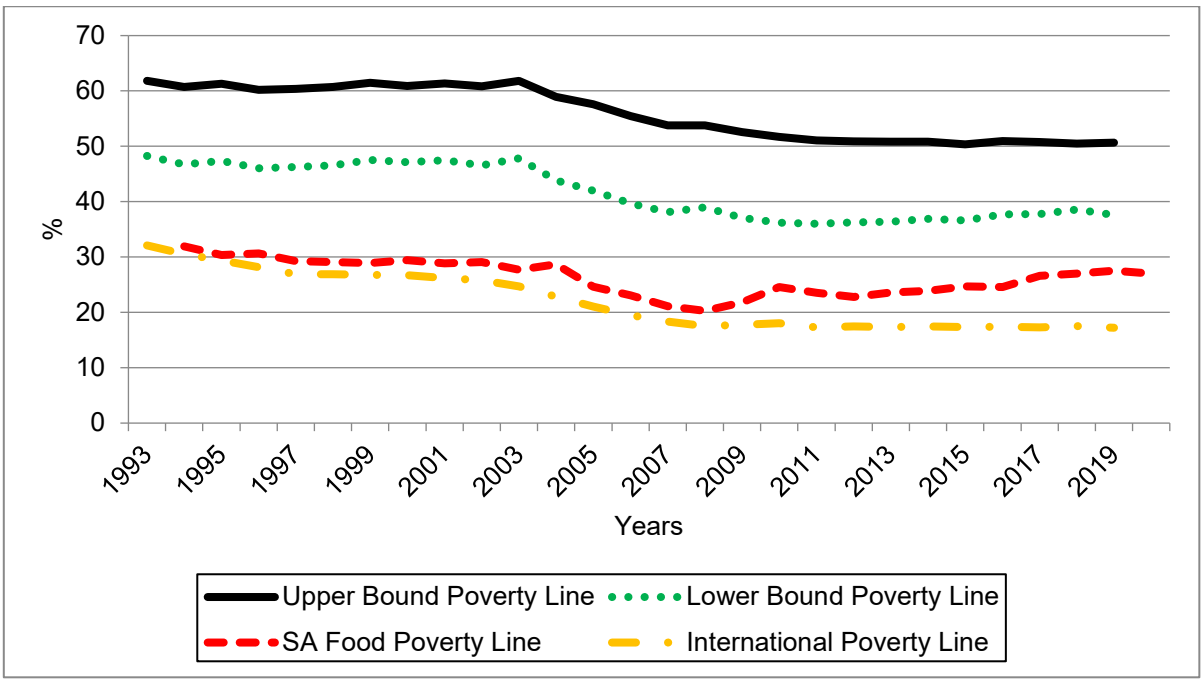


Figure 3.11: Monetary poverty in South Africa (1993-2020)
Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022g)

Statistics South Africa used three poverty lines namely the FPL, the LBPL, and the UBPL which are all shown in Figure 3.11. The FPL indicates the level of consumption below which people are not able to buy enough food to provide themselves with an adequate diet. The LBPL and UBPL are both derived from the FPL; however, they also include a non-food component. The LBPL includes necessary non-food items for which individuals have to sacrifice food in order to obtain such items. According to the UBPL individuals can buy both the food they require and non-food items. The South

African Government's poverty intervention measures (such as the provision of grants, free basic services, and taxes which favour the poor) have positively affected the UBPL (Fombad, 2018). The IPL has also been included in Figure 3.11 for comparison purposes.

All four poverty lines have decreased since 1993. The IPL has been consistently lower than the other three lines indicating that people who are considered poor in terms of the FPL are not considered poor according to the IPL. Also shown in Figure 3.11 is another worrying statistic and that is the upturn in the FPL after 2008. This upturn indicates increasing levels of monetary poverty in the country which will have been further aggravated by the COVID-19 pandemic. Progress on addressing poverty in the country appears to have stalled (Francis & Webster, 2019).

The progress that has been made in reducing poverty in South Africa can also be shown by the Poverty Headcount Index (see Appendix 1 and Table 3.2).

Table 3.2: Summary of Poverty Headcount Index for South Africa (1994-2021)

South Africa Poverty Headcount Index in:		
1994	34%	
2021	28%	
Annualised % change	0.68%	
Highest provincial Poverty Headcount Index in:		
1994	Western Cape & KwaZulu-Natal	43%
2021	Western Cape	34%
Lowest provincial Poverty Headcount Index in:		
1994	Northern Cape	34%
2021	Limpopo	20%
Greatest annualised change (%)	Free State	2.43%
Lowest annualised change (%)	Gauteng	0.64%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022g)

South Africa's Poverty Headcount Index improved from 34% (1994) to 28% (2021) and improved in all nine provinces during the same time period. This indicates that monetary poverty had declined in the country. In 1994 the highest rates of monetary poverty, according to Poverty Headcount Index, were in the Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal Provinces (43%). Interestingly, the Western Cape Province had the highest Poverty Headcount Index again in 2021 (34%) and the second lowest annualised growth in this index (0.90%).

Figure 3.12 shows the Poverty Headcount Index, poverty gap and poverty severity for South Africa between 2006 and 2015. Poverty declined in the country until 2011 and from there started increasing. This correlates with the movement of the FPL shown in Figure 3.11.

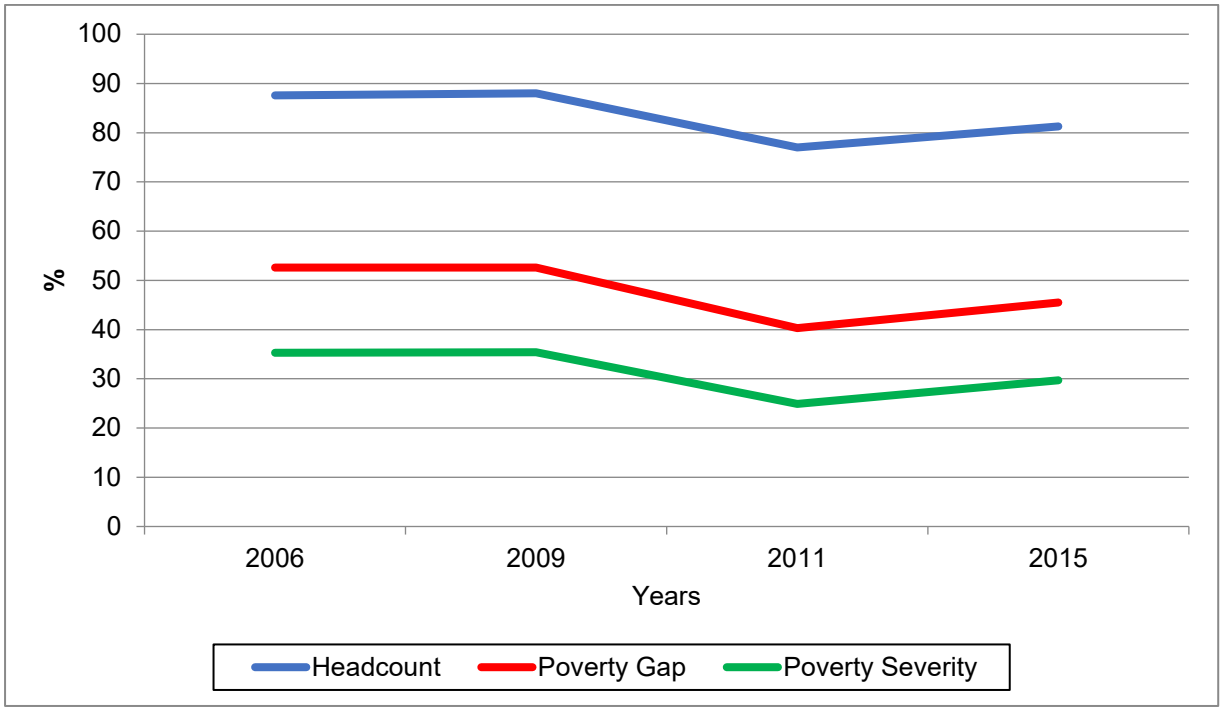


Figure 3.12: Poverty headcount, poverty gap and poverty severity in South Africa (2006-2015)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Statistics South Africa (2017)

The progress which is being made with regard to poverty alleviation is also shown by the country's HDI figures. South Africa's HDI in 1994 was 0.648 and increased to 0.7 in 2020 showing an annualised growth of 0.29%. Positive annualised percentage

changes in HDI figures were observed in the Eastern Cape, Western Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, Mpumalanga, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and North West Provinces. The Eastern Cape Province had the highest annualised percentage growth of 0.35%. The Western Cape, North West and Gauteng Provinces had higher HDIs than the country's HDI in both 1994 and 2020. On the other hand, Limpopo, Northern Cape and Free State Provinces registered negative annualised percentage changes in terms of HDI with the Northern Cape having the greatest annualised decline of 0.15% between 1994 and 2020. Gauteng Province had the highest HDI score in 1994 but by 2020 had dropped to third place. The HDI in Eastern Cape Province improved moving the province from the lowest ranking position in 1994 to sixth in 2020. Free State Province fell from seventh in the ranking in 1994 to the lowest ranking position in 2020 (see Appendix 1 and Table 3.3).

Table 3.3: Summary of HDI data for South Africa (1994-2020)

South Africa HDI in:		
1994	0.648	
2020	0.700	
Annualised % change	0.29%	
Highest provincial HDI in:		
1994	Gauteng	0,702
2020	Western Cape	0,748
Lowest provincial HDI in:		
1994	Eastern Cape	0,598
2020	Free State	0,603
Greatest annualised % change	Eastern Cape	0.35%
Lowest annualised % change	Northern Cape	- 0.15%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

In short, some progress has been made by the South African Government in their efforts to address the poverty situation in the country. However, indications are that poverty is once more starting to increase. In order to investigate this further, the

poverty found in the rural areas of the country will be examined in more detail. The various studies done into poverty and rural poverty will be referenced.

3.4.1 Rural poverty in South Africa (1993-1994)

Prior to 1994 very little was known about the entire South African population. The Central Statistical Service (CSS) focused only on the Whites as a population group and thus data on the rest of the country's population groups was not known (Alenda-Demoutiez, 2022). One of the first studies to collect nationally and racially representative data regarding poverty, more especially rural poverty in South Africa, was conducted in the last quarter of 1993 by the Project for Statistics on Living Standards and Development (PSLSD) and became known as the SALDRU survey. This study collected a wide range of information and covered both former homeland areas and the Natal areas of Kwazulu-Natal Province (Carter & May, 1999). Even though problems were identified with the data and how it was collected (Carter & May, 1999), important information was gathered which presented a profile of the rural poor in South Africa just prior to 1994.

The results of this study concluded that just over half (52.1%) of all African households in the country's rural areas were poor as their scaled per-capita expenditure fell below the poverty line. The majority of these households lived in houses which were made from rustic or temporary roofing such as cardboard or plastic sheeting. They had to drink from unprotected water sources, lacked any kind of toilet facilities, and their main energy source was wood which they personally collected (Carter & May, 1999).

The PSLSD survey data also identified a number of income-generating activities which rural households in South Africa were involved in (see Table 3.4). Of interest is the second ranked activity namely wage labour. In 1993 the wage labour market in South Africa could be split into two main markets namely the primary and the secondary markets. The primary labour market was described as that in which jobs were well paid and secure and workers had prospects of career advancements. The secondary market was comprised of low paid jobs which offered little security and opportunities for improvement (Carter & May, 1999). This secondary market was predominant in the labour market during this time.

According to Table 3.4 the most employed livelihood tactic amongst the rural population was claiming against household members in the form of remittances from migrants. Being involved in the wage labour market brought the highest return to rural households but was not the most employed livelihood tactic. Participation in small and micro enterprises provided the second highest return but was also not the most employed livelihood tactic. Agriculture contributed, on average, very little income and was therefore not the backbone of a rural household's existence (Carter & May, 1999). Claiming against the state in the form of disability grants and pensions was only the fourth most commonly employed livelihood tactic.

The data in the SALDRU study also revealed that only 26.1% of African rural households had access to a piece of land where they could grow crops. The average household land size was 2.2 hectares. Some 24% of these households owned livestock (Carter & May, 1999) and many of them relied on the sale of this livestock to offset financial crises (Aliber, 2003).

According to the SALDRU study, there were severe constraints on the possibility of generating rural nonfarm income because so few (between 8% and 18%) of rural African households owned agricultural and other productive equipment such as ploughs, sewing machines and welding equipment. About a fifth of rural African households had no assets of any kind which could be converted into cash. This meant that these households had no safety nets and were therefore extremely vulnerable to any loss of income. They would not be able to liquidate assets in order to cover any unforeseen expenses or invest in any new opportunities. The households also lacked resources which they could use as collateral in order to qualify for credit (Carter & May, 1999).

Table 3.4: Activities undertaken by the rural people

Activities	Examples of activities	Ranking of most employed livelihood tactics	Highest income return activity
Agriculture and agricultural production	Own consumption and for sale	3	
Small and Micro Enterprise	Hawking, petty commodity production (making clothes and handicrafts), niche markets in the service sector (child minding, money lending)	5	2
Wage labour	Migrant labourers, farm workers and commuter labourers.	2	1
Claiming against the State	Pensions and disability grants	4	
Claiming against household and community members	Claiming remittance from migrants	1	

Source: Carter & May (1999)

3.4.2 Rural poverty in South Africa (1995)

In 1996 the CSS released a report outlining the findings of the 1995 October Household Survey (OHS). This report provided further details regarding the South African population and not just one particular ethnic group. The report stated that just over half of the South African population and the majority of the poor lived in the rural areas (see Table 3.5).

Table 3.5: Poverty and service provision in 1995

	Rural (% of the population)	Urban (% of the population)
Population share	50.4%	49.6%
Poverty share	71.6%	28.4%
Poverty rate	70.9%	28.5%
Running water inside dwelling	16.8%	74.1%
Flush toilet indoors	10.9%	65.5%
Electricity in house	21.1%	82.4%
Telephone in dwelling/cellular	7.5%	48.4%

Source: May (1998)

The disparities in service provision between the rural and urban areas in 1995 are also shown in Table 3.5. The percentage of the population in the rural areas who had access to these services was far lower than that found in the urban areas. Such poor service delivery would have negatively affected those rural residents who needed to find work and earn an income.

Table 3.6 shows that the poor in South Africa during this time were far more reliant on remittances and state transfers than the non-poor. These remittances were made by household members who were employed in other areas of the country. The table also emphasises the importance of wage income. Poor households depended on wage income but not to the extent of the non-poor households. However, according to May (1998), wage income represented a poor and rather unstable source of income for the

rural people. May (1998) further added that while more jobs were important, so were better paid jobs for those that were already employed.

Table 3.6: Sources of income

	Poor households	Ranking	Non-poor households	Ranking
State transfers	26%	2	3%	
Agriculture	4%		4%	
Self-employment	5%		6%	3
Remittances	17%	3	2%	
Wages	40%	1	72%	1
Capital income	8%		13%	2

Source: May (1998)

Regarding the conditions in the South African provinces in 1995, Table 3.7 shows that the most densely inhabited province was KwaZulu-Natal whereas the least populous province was Northern Cape. The table also shows that some provinces were considered largely urban whilst others were primarily non-urban. The greatest proportion of non-urban inhabitants was in Limpopo Province, followed by Mpumalanga Province, whilst the smallest number of non-urban inhabitants was in Gauteng Province followed by the Western Cape Province. The distribution of people between urban and non-urban areas varied according to their race. The largest ethnic group residing in these rural areas was Africans (63%) followed by Coloureds (16%), Indians (5%) and Whites (9%) (Hirschowitz & Orkin, 1996).

Table 3.7: Population of South Africa in urban/non-urban areas by province in 1995

Province	Total population (in millions)	% non-urban by province	% non-urban population which is unemployed	Poverty rates (%)	Poverty Gap (%)
Kwa-Zulu Natal	8.8	61	43	51.9	19.9
Gauteng	7.1	6	27	17.3	4.6
Eastern Cape	6.6	65	49	70.7	24.8
Limpopo	5.6	88	45	59.1	1.9
Western Cape	3.7	14	10	28	3.4
North West	3.3	61	41	62.1	10.5
Mpumalanga	3.0	70	35	57.3	8.4
Free State	2.8	43	18	63.4	9.9
Northern Cape	0.7	29	13	54.9	1.9
TOTAL	41.6	50			

Source: Hirschowitz & Orkin (1996); May (1998)

Table 3.7 also shows that unemployment tended to be greater in the non-urban areas. In these areas, unemployment was highest in Eastern Cape Province (49%) and Limpopo Province (45%), and lowest in Western Cape Province (10%) which was considered to be predominantly urban.

In 1995 the total poverty gap (which is the amount that is needed annually to eradicate poverty through a perfectly targeted transfer to the poor) amounted to R28 billion or 6.5% of GDP. 76% of the total poverty gap was accounted for by poverty in the rural households (May, 1998). Eastern Cape Province (which was predominantly non-urban) had the largest poverty rates and poverty gap whilst Western Cape Province (which was predominantly urban) had the lowest.

3.4.3 Rural poverty in South Africa (2000)

In a report published in 2000 in which the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (ISRDS) was outlined, the South African Government provided details of the state of rural poverty in the country in 2000. Details were also given on the nature of the socio-economic characteristics of rural communities in South Africa. The findings are summarised in Table 3.8.

In addition to the characteristics given in Table 3.8, the following details concerning the rural communities living in the country in 2000 were also presented in the ISRDS report: -

- Women constituted the bulk of the rural population in 2000 and the majority of the households were headed by women. These households were particularly disadvantaged.
- The households in the three lower quintile income groups spent much of their time gathering wood and collecting water. The burden was particularly heavy on women who did 90% of the collection and carrying.
- Three quarters of the children in rural areas lived in households where incomes were beneath the minimum subsistence level. The members of these households were poorly educated and had low levels of literacy. Only 11% of households in the rural areas possessed acceptable sanitation, adequate housing, and piped water. Almost 22% of the population in the rural areas lived in abject poverty with no access to any services whatsoever. These households were typically in the bottom fifth of the income spectrum.
- While over a quarter of the poorest quintile had access to agricultural land, their landholdings were typically less than a third of a hectare in size; however, 85% of them had access to communal land.
- Educational indicators differed vastly across the income spectrum with over 50% of adults in the highest quintile possessing basic literacy skills as opposed to less than 20% in the lowest quintile.
- 4.3% of the households living in the rural areas were completely marginalised with no income whatsoever. 11.4% were totally dependent on pensions. Whilst

26.1% of the rural households were dependent on remittances, over a third of these remittances were unreliable in nature.

- Agricultural sector wages were well below the minimum living standards. Seasonal workers who constituted a significant segment of the agricultural work force earned around 10% less than permanent employees. Moreover, farm workers often received payment in kind instead of a full wage.
- Farmworkers were among the poorest and most vulnerable households. Their vulnerability was heightened by their dependence on their employers not only for wages and employment but for basic services like electricity, housing, water, schooling, access to medical facilities, and transport.
- In addition, farm workers were poorly educated. In a survey conducted amongst Black farm workers in 1997, it was found that roughly half of the farm workers interviewed had no schooling and only 40% had received a Grade 2 to Grade 7 education (The Government of South Africa, 2000).

Table 3.8: Socio-economic characteristics of rural communities (2000)

	Former homelands	Displaced and resettled communities	Commercial farming areas	Mining areas
Population range	500 to 10 000	3000 to 20 000	10 to 150	1000 to 15 000
Average household size	7	7	7	7
Settlement type	• Scattered • Homestead • Dense settlements • Formal & informal dwellings	• Dense settlements • Formal (RDP houses) & Informal dwellings	• Villages • Informal & farm accommodation	• Dense settlements • Formal & hostels
Amenities	• Shops • Distant clinics • Distant schools	• Shops • Distant clinics • Distant schools	• Shops • Distant clinics • Distant schools • Commercial schools	• Shops • Nearby clinics • Nearby schools
Employment	• Subsistence farming (off farm employment negligible) • Significant remittances from urban areas	• Commute to urban areas daily/weekly/monthly • Remittances from urban areas	• Labourers & tenants on commercial farms	• Labourers (from nearby) and artisans (from distant areas)
Unemployment rate	30%	70%		
Average household income	+/- R650	+/- R650	+/- R350 (labourer) +/- R700 (tenant)	+/- R900 to +/- R4000

Source: The Government of South Africa (2000)

3.4.4 Rural poverty in South Africa (2006-2015)

The different poverty measures for this time period based on settlement type are shown in Figure 3.13. Between 2006 and 2015 there was an overall decline in poverty in the country; however, by 2011 poverty had started to increase again. The high poverty gap and poverty severity measures revealed in Figure 3.13 show that the rural poor were not only further away from the poverty line on average, but the poorest of the poor in these areas were considerably worse off than their poor counterparts staying in urban areas. The poverty headcount amongst both the rural and urban populations indicated that the deepest poverty in South Africa was indeed to be found in the rural areas.

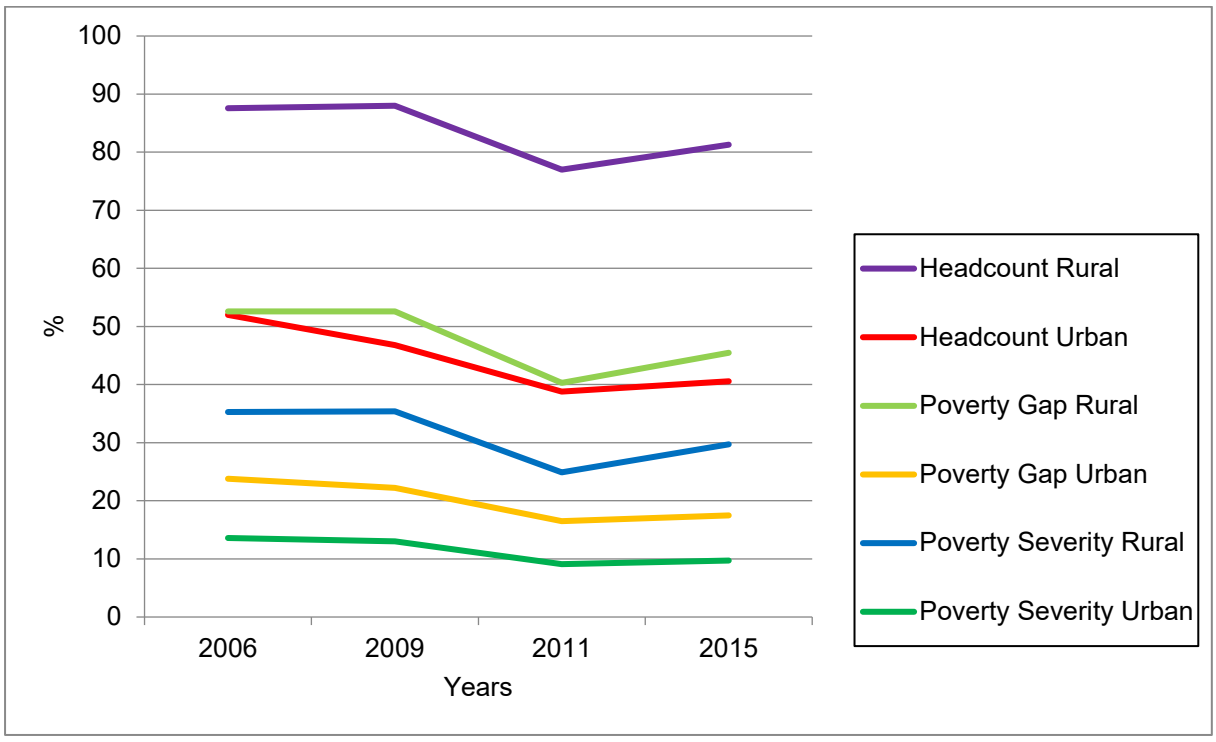


Figure 3.13: Poverty measures by settlement type (UBPL)

Source: Statistics South Africa (2017)

Many of the reasons why poverty had improved in the rural areas up until 2011 is highlighted in Figure 3.14 which shows the sources of income for those living in these areas. The number of people receiving social grants had climbed from 30.77% to 64.25% in 15 years and this had a positive impact on poverty reduction. Interestingly

the percentage of people living in the rural areas whose main source of income was remittances dropped during this time in contrast to the PSLSD survey data from 1993 (see Table 3.4) and from 1995 (see Table 3.6) where remittances were amongst the most prominent sources of income.

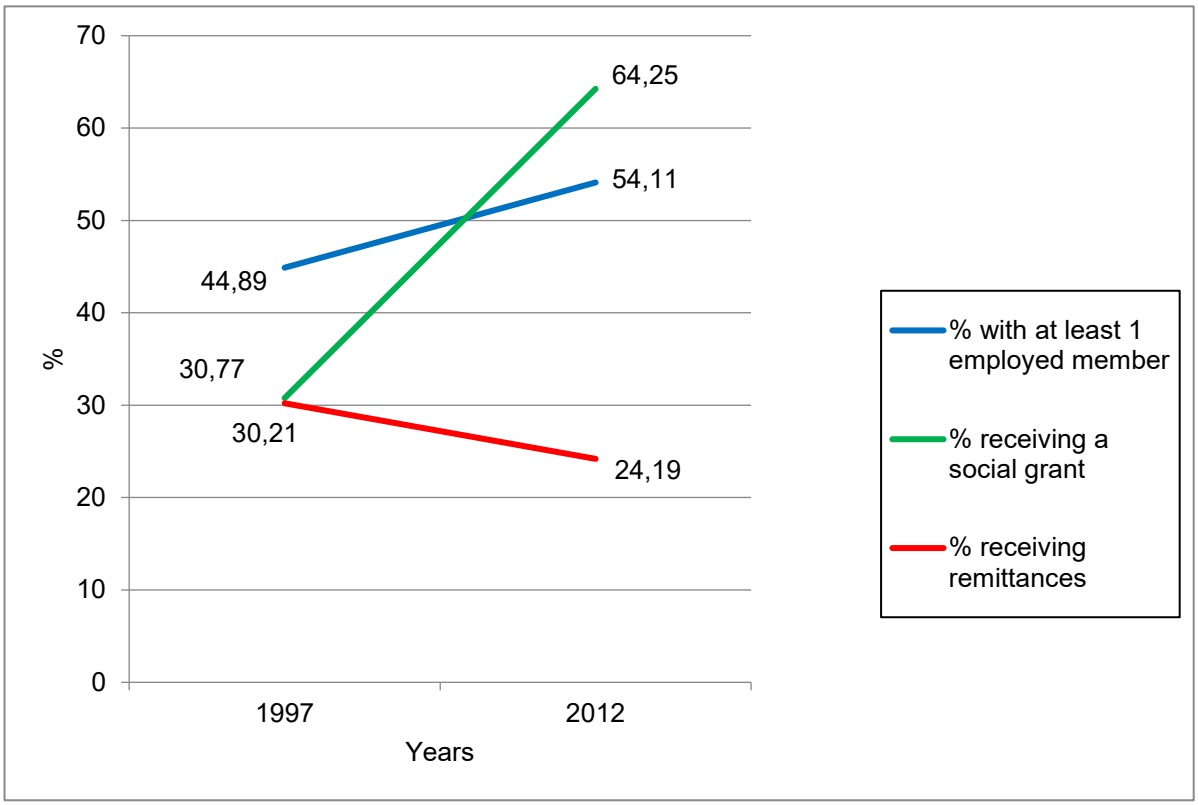


Figure 3.14: Sources of income for the rural household

Source: Zimbalist (2017)

Social grants have proven to be incredibly important to the alleviation of poverty in South Africa. The old-age pension has, and continues to be, an important source of non-labour derived income. This is particularly true in the rural areas where the bulk of the pensioners live. Similarly, the introduction and subsequent expansion of the Child Support Grant (CSG) has played a central role in supporting livelihoods since its introduction. The CSG was launched in April 1998 following the Lund Committee's recommendation for a new child-linked grant. This grant was aimed at children and families in informal settlements and rural areas. Eligibility was extended to children up to the age of 15 in January 2008 and was extended again up to the age of 18 from April 2010. In addition to increasing the age limit, the Government raised the income

means test to 10 times the grant amount in October 2008 thus enabling far more beneficiaries to gain access to the CSG (Zimbalist, 2017).

Figure 3.15 shows that during the period 1997 to 2012 both the rural and urban populations increased in size. However, the increase was far larger in the urban areas, and this was likely due to the phenomenon of rural/urban migration. Figure 3.15 also shows that the rural population is on a downward trajectory and will become smaller in time.

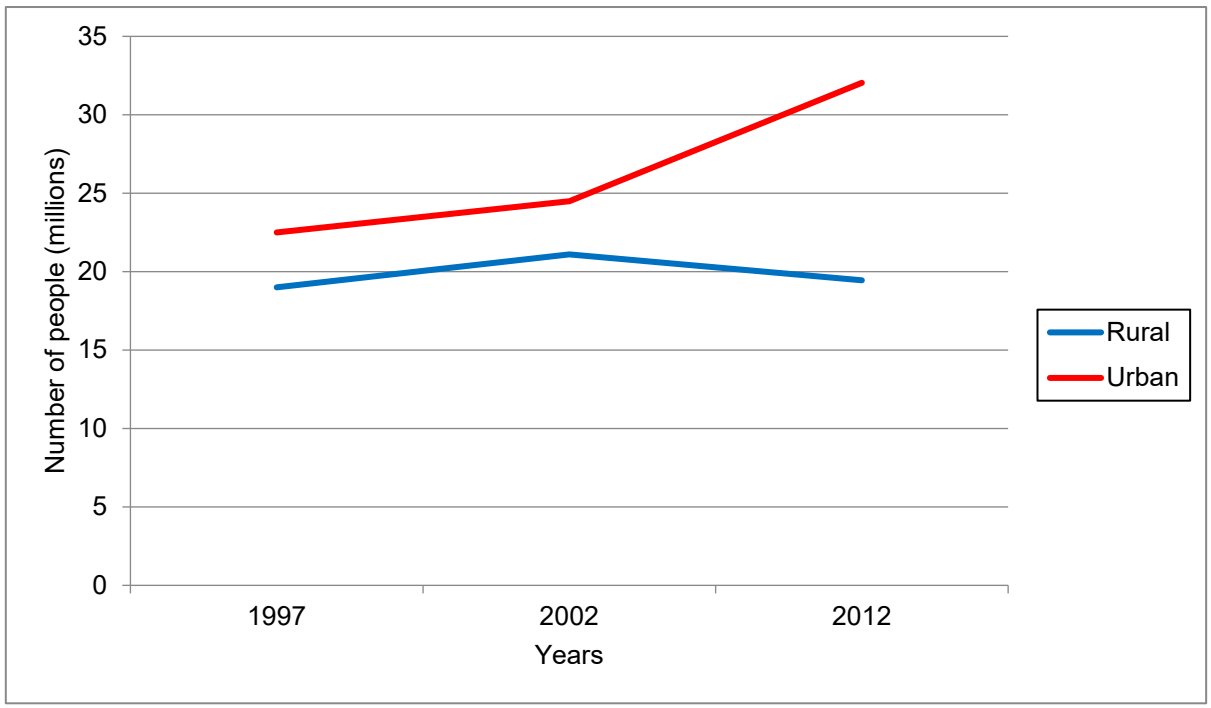


Figure 3.15: Rural and urban population (1997-2012)
Source: Zimbalist (2017)

Regarding employment during the period 1997 to 2012, 44.89% of households living in the rural areas had at least a single family member in employment whereas that number stood at 75% for urban households. This trend was possibly caused by post-apartheid migration patterns which saw the rural unemployed migrating to become the urban unemployed. Another possible reason could be that different government initiatives in this period led to an increasing share of rural households having at least a single family member who was in employment. An example of one such initiative was the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) which commenced in 2004. The

aim of this programme was to link the creation of employment with infrastructural projects in municipalities which suffered from high rates of joblessness and were located in deprived rural areas (Zimbalist, 2017).

Figure 3.16 shows the changes in access to selected services in rural areas between 1997 to 2012. Rural households experienced great improvements especially in their access to cell phones/telephone and electricity. Even though their access to piped water increased, the increase was not as great as the other two elements. Increasing access to services facilitates the development of income-generating activities, enhances the effect of poverty reduction methods and grants greater access to employment opportunities (Zimbalist, 2017).

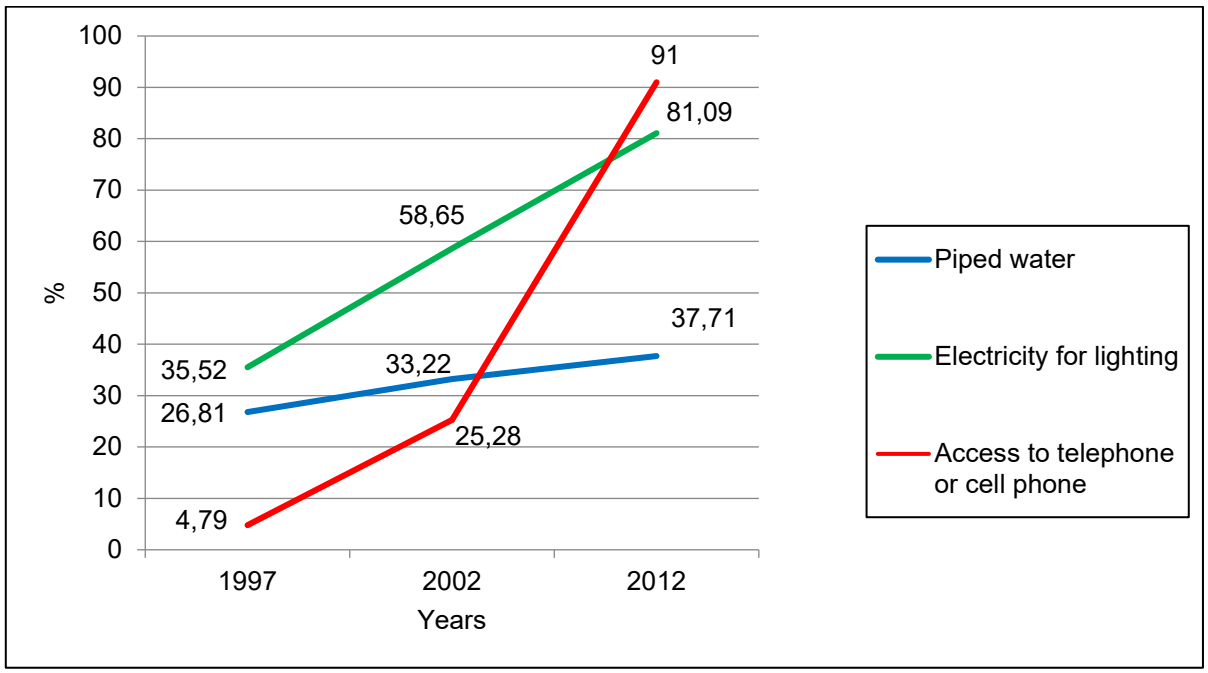


Figure 3.16: Access to services in the rural areas (1997-2012)
Source: Zimbalist (2017)

In summary, the period 1996 to 2015 was a time of decreasing rural poverty up until 2011. There are several possible reasons why rural poverty constantly fell during this period and those are urbanisation, introduction of more extensive social grants and better access to services. Unfortunately, rural poverty started to increase after 2011 and this will be discussed in the next section.

3.4.5 Rural poverty in South Africa (2016-2021)

The last time period to be discussed ranges from 2016 to 2021 and thus includes the period of the COVID-19 pandemic and the subsequent lockdowns. In 2016 multidimensional poverty was measured and found to be greater in the rural areas than in South Africa's urban areas. The majority of the poorest local municipalities (15 out of 20) were found to be rural nodes. The majority of the 20 poorest local municipalities were located in Eastern Cape Province (15 municipalities), Limpopo Province (one municipality), and KwaZulu-Natal Province (four municipalities). 10 of the most impoverished municipalities were in the former homelands of the Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal Provinces thus highlighting the lasting legacy of apartheid. The areas that were disadvantaged under apartheid were still disadvantaged some 22 years later (World Bank, 2018a).

The rural population during this time period continued to decrease in size (see Figure 3.17) and this was probably again due to increased rural/urban migration.

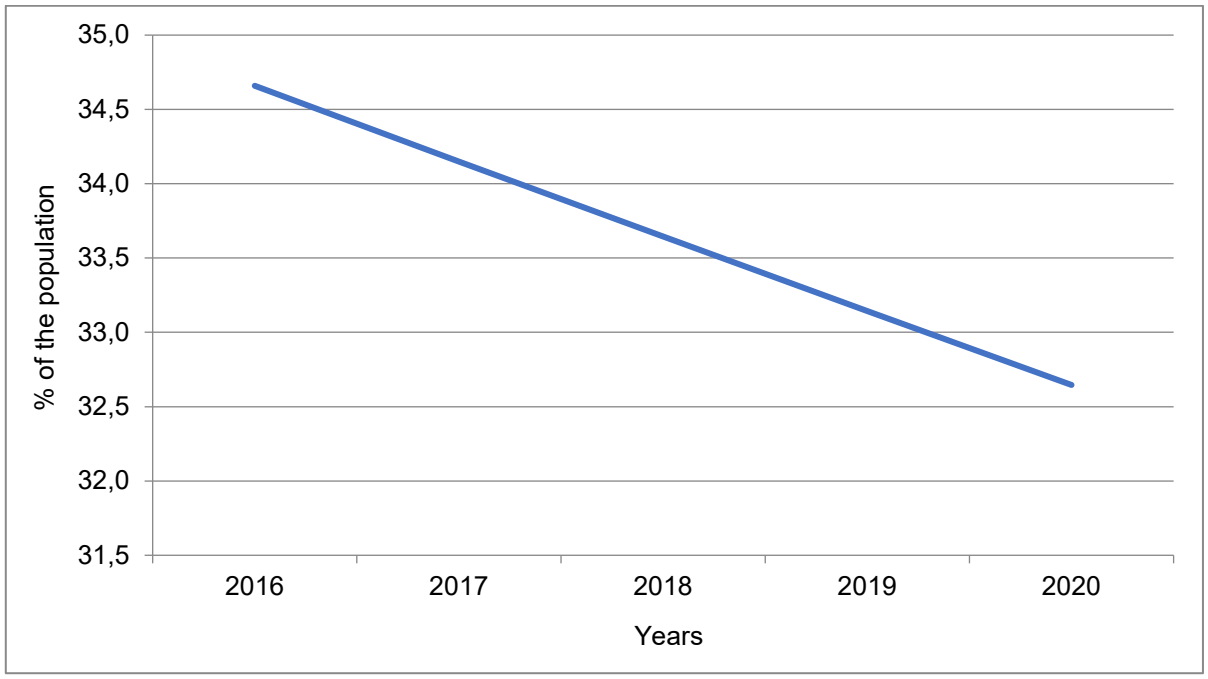


Figure 3.17: Rural population (2016-2020)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from World Bank (2022c)

Figure 3.18 shows the rate of unemployment before and during the hard lockdowns which were associated with the COVID-19 pandemic.

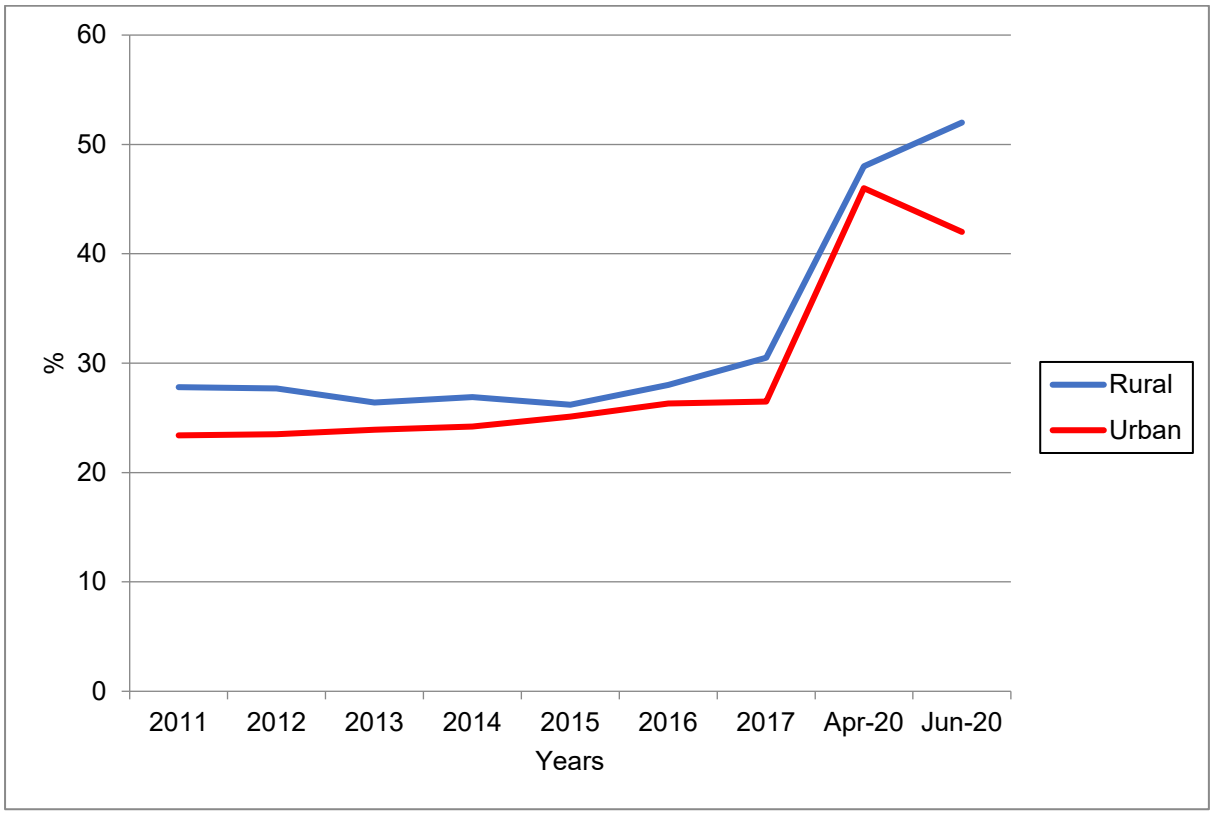


Figure 3.18: Unemployment rate (2011-2020)

Source: Statistics South Africa (2019); Visagie & Turok (2021)

Unemployment during this time was consistently higher in the rural rather than in the urban areas. The percentage of rural dwellers who were unemployed was fairly steady until 2015 and then started to accelerate. By the time the COVID-19 lockdowns started in March 2020, unemployment rates were already rising quite dramatically. Only the metros and cities (essentially the urban areas) showed a recovery between April and June 2020 - however there was no recovery in the rural areas and unemployment continued to climb.

Table 3.9 shows the sources of income of residents in the rural, cities/towns and metros in June 2020 after the first lockdown. The percentage of the population who did not receive any income in June 2020 was higher in the rural areas than in the cities/towns and metros. Social welfare in the form of grants remained the primary

source of livelihood protection amongst those living in all areas except the metros. This is emphasised even more when one looks at the numbers receiving COVID-19 grants. Approximately 48.4% of the adults in the rural areas received grants during this period followed by 35.9% in the towns and 23.2% in the metros. There obviously was an increasing reliance on these grants in the rural areas during June 2020 making the rural dwellers vulnerable if the grant was to be withdrawn (Visagie & Turok, 2021).

Table 3.9: Sources of income (June 2020)

Sources of income	Rural	Cities/towns	Metros
No income	6%	5%	5.5%
Other combination	6.4%	5.8%	7.5%
Earnings & grants	10.2%	11.4%	9.1%
Earnings only	21.3%	32.6%	44.6%
Other only	7.7%	9.4%	10.1%
Grants only	48.4%	35.9%	23.2%

Source: Visagie & Turok (2021)

Poverty amongst the rural population, specifically during the lockdown, is presented in Table 3.10. In all three time periods rural households found it more difficult to buy food than urban households. Problems reached a peak in April 2020 at the height of the first lockdown. The numbers improved in June 2020 probably due to Government support in the form of social grants. However, Table 3.10 does show that the rural areas suffered the most from the economic slump caused by the COVID-19 pandemic despite payments of Government grants.

Table 3.10: % of rural households who ran out of money

	2016	April 2020	June 2020
Rural	29%	52%	40%
Towns	21%	48%	38%
Metros	17%	44%	34%

Source: Visage & Turok (2021)

Further dimensions to the poverty situation in the country were also highlighted during the COVID-19 pandemic. The COVID-19 lockdowns necessitated that people stay at home except if they needed to buy food or seek medical attention. However, this was difficult in a country where staying home to stay safe was not equally easy for everyone. Many rural residents had to leave their houses to access basic services such as toilets or water. In 2018, only two out of three residents in an urban area (67%) had piped water in their homes whilst only one in five rural residents (22%) had access to the same services. Considering these statistics, the greater part of the rural population would have had to leave their house during the pandemic to fetch water (see Table 3.11).

Table 3.11: Access to services (2018)

	Rural (%)	Urban (%)
Access to water:		
• **Inside home**	22	67
• **Inside compound**	32	21
• **Outside compound**	44	12
Computer owned by self or someone in household	32	52
Never access internet	49	30

Source: Isbell (2020)

In addition, the rural population in the country faced many problems when trying to access key public services and infrastructure such as banks, markets, and cell phone services during this time. This made it more challenging for them to quarantine at home (Isbell, 2020). During the pandemic people were also encouraged to work from home

or to find employment that was compatible with working from home. In 2018 fewer than half of the rural population owned a computer or lived in a household where someone else owned one (see Table 3.11). This would have made working from home very difficult. In 2018 living completely offline was especially common among rural residents placing them at higher risk of lacking the tools to seek remote employment and keeping informed about the current situation (Isbell, 2020).

The COVID-19 pandemic and the associated lockdowns have had a detrimental impact on both South Africa's economy and its people. When reviewing the macroeconomic indicators, the negative effects of the pandemic are clear. As a result of the pandemic, the budget deficit for 2020/21 moved from 6.8% of GDP to 14.6%. In the initial 2020/21 budget, Government revenues for the fiscal year had been projected to be R1.398 trillion. Due to the lockdowns and subsequent contractions in the economy, expected Government revenues dropped to R1.099 trillion which led to a shortfall of almost R300 billion. On the other hand, expenditure which was initially projected to be R1.766 trillion, then increased by approximately R44 billion to R1.809 trillion. This caused an increased deficit of R709 billion which was up from R368 billion (Francis, Valodia & Webster, 2020).

Income inequalities in the country were also exacerbated by the COVID-19 pandemic. Microeconomic data indicates that almost 18 million South Africans live in the poorest 20% of households, with nearly half of these households living in the rural areas. The poorest households typically consist of five members with a total monthly household income of R2 600 (equating to R567 per person). A mere 45% of these households had a family member in employment. Research shows that the poorest 10% of these households would have likely lost up to 45% of their income as a result of the lockdowns. Conversely, seven million people live in the richest 20% of households with an average household size of 1.93 and an average household income of roughly R38 000 per month (or R21 000 per person). Almost 80% of these households had at least one member who was employed and was able to work more hours at far higher wages than those in the poorest 20% of households. Many of these people were able to still earn an income during the lockdowns as they could work from home. Many households in the top income bracket would have saved money due to their decreased spending on entertainment and holidays which had both been curtailed due to the

pandemic. Although some temporary relief in the form of Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF) payments was provided to those in lower-paid formal employment who were at risk of losing their jobs, both income inequality and poverty continued to deteriorate during the pandemic (Francis et al., 2020).

After examining the progression of rural poverty in South Africa since 1994, it is possible to conclude that rural poverty is on the rise in the country. It will be difficult for the Government to address this problem as economic growth is on a downward trajectory. Population growth will probably outpace economic growth into the future resulting in increased unemployment. Income inequality in the country continues to be high but is showing a downward movement. Even though rural poverty is on the rise, much has been done in the country since 1994 to alleviate poverty. A raft of policies has been implemented by the Government and these will be discussed in the next section.

3.5 The South African Government's response to poverty

Poverty alleviation has been at the heart of many of the development policies and programmes introduced by the South African Government since 1994. One of the first programmes to be introduced in 1994 was the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP). The aim of the RDP was to address land restitution and improve access to housing, healthcare, sanitation and water in order to produce a better life for all South Africans. The RDP consisted of poverty-related objectives which were combined with a welfarist, supply-driven approach to development. The RDP, in 2007, was replaced with the Growth, Employment and Redistribution Strategy (GEAR) (Perret, Anseeuw & Mathebula, 2005). The GEAR strategy was a macro-economic initiative which was focused on increasing foreign investment, job creation and economic growth. Also included in the strategy were anti-inflationary policies which involved fiscal restraint. In the years following the introduction of the GEAR strategy, GDP per capita grew at a sluggish annual average rate of only 0.6% and unemployment rates soared - the GEAR strategy had clearly not achieved its aims. As a result, it was replaced by the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA) (Francis & Webster, 2019).

AsgiSA was launched in February 2006. Six particular economic growth constraints were outlined in the policy. Addressing these constraints was necessary in order to firstly achieve economic growth, and secondly halve poverty and unemployment between the years of 2004 and 2014. Government planners felt that these targets could be met if economic growth averaged a minimum of 4.5% in the period leading up to 2009, and by an average of 6% in the period between 2010 and 2014. The particular constraints on economic growth were identified as follows: -

- poor government capacity,
- currency volatility,
- low levels of investment in infrastructure and infrastructure services,
- scarcity of adequately qualified skilled graduates, artisans and technicians,
- uncompetitive service and industrial sectors and weak sectoral strategies, and
- marginalisation and inequality resulting in much of the population being unable to share in the benefits of economic growth and development (the Second Economy) (The Presidency, 2008).

A further poverty alleviation strategy was introduced by the Government in 2011 and was known as the National Development Plan 2030 (NDP). The reason for the introduction of the NDP was to provide a long-term economic policy and strategic blueprint for South Africa from which to base all economic policy in South Africa up until 2030. Contained within the NDP were bold targets for economic, spatial, and social transformation (World Bank, 2018b). However, there has been little progress in the implementation of the NDP as evidenced by the fact that unemployment was not reduced to the targeted 20% by 2015. Moreover, the goal of attaining a GDP growth target of 5% per annum was never met. One of the main reasons for this was the fallout from the global financial crisis of 2008-2009 which was responsible for the low economic growth in the country in the following years. In addition, the lack of support from key constituents like the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU) limited the success of the strategy (Francis & Webster, 2019).

In 2014, as part of its poverty alleviation strategy, South Africa started to investigate the possibility of adopting a national minimum wage. From 1 January 2019 the policy

came into force setting the national minimum wage at R20 per hour, or R3 500 for a 40-hour work week. The main aim of the policy was to increase the incomes of a significant segment of the workforce. In addition to concerns that the minimum wage would further exacerbate unemployment in the country, there has also been significant non-compliance with existing sectoral minimum wages. It remains to be seen whether this policy intervention will have any impact on inequality and poverty in South Africa (Francis & Webster, 2019).

Public employment programmes have become an essential part of a suite of policy interventions to reduce poverty and encourage the growth of employment in the country. Between 2009 and the end of March 2013, public employment programmes like the EPWP and the Community Work Programme (CWP) provided over three million work opportunities. Together these two programmes formed the bedrock of a crucial income-supporting initiative to try to combat the high levels of unemployment seen in the country (DPME, 2014).

The social protection programme which involved the payment of social grants was another major poverty alleviation strategy implemented by the Government. The goal of this programme was to decrease poverty and improve the socio-economic welfare of individuals and households (Mokhutso, 2022). Initially social grants were a short-term measure to address poverty but have now become a staple source of income for many South African households. Before 1994, the social protection programme helped fewer than 2.4 million South Africans and was limited to the Old Age Grant (OAG), the Disability Grant (DG) and the State Maintenance Grant (SMG). The allocation of social grants was racially and geographical skewed towards urban dwellers and White South Africans (DPME, 2014). However, with the extension of the pension to all South Africans who are eligible and further non-discriminatory legislation being passed since 1994, parity in payments to all race groups has occurred (Zimbalist, 2017).

Social wages have extended beyond the initial grants and are now delivered through a wide range of systems such as free primary health care, education and basic services, RDP housing, and a raft of new grants (such as care dependency, foster child and child support grants) (Mokhutso, 2022). Table 3.12 highlights the large

increase in money being spent on welfare and social assistance between 2000 and 2014.

Table 3.12: Information on welfare and social assistance

Year	Amount of consolidated expenditure on welfare and social assistance	% of GDP
January 2000	R30.1 billion	3.2
September 2008	R101.4 billion	4.4
2014	R120 billion	3.4

Source: DPME (2014); Leibbrandt, Woolard, Finn & Argent (2010); Statistics South Africa (2017)

The amount of social grant recipients has also risen since 1996/97 when only 7% (or 3 018 909) of the total population received a grant (see Figure 3.19). This number had increased to 31% or 18 290 592 people by the financial year 2019/20.

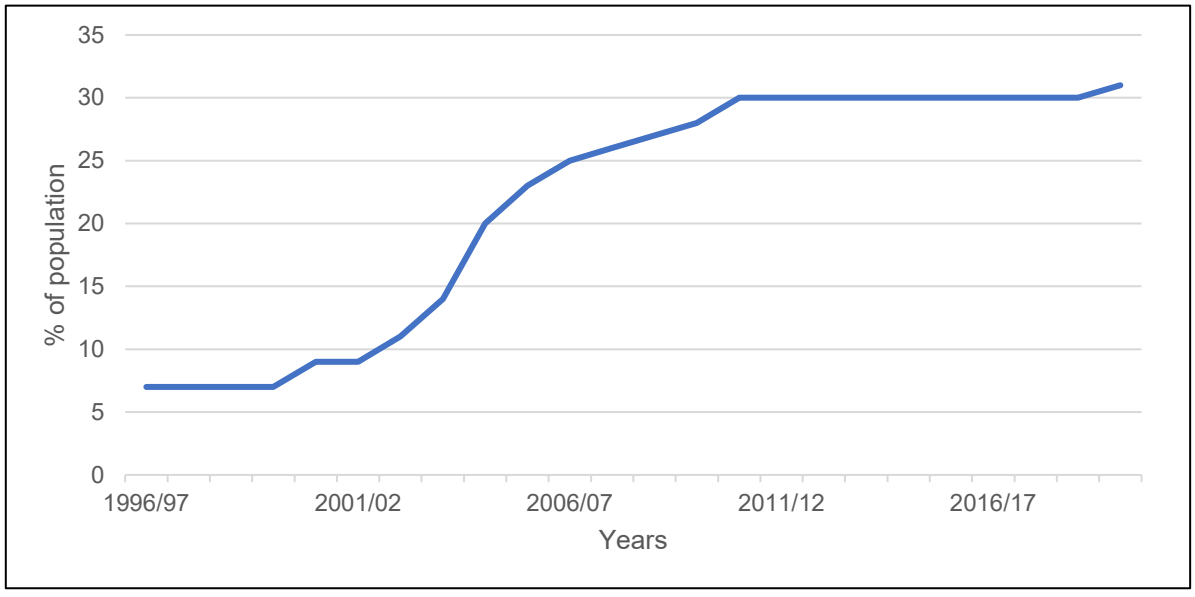


Figure 3.19: Number of social grant recipients

Source: BusinessTech (2021)

The CSGs have seen the largest growth and have increased from just under 22 000 in 1998 to more than 11.3 million in 2013 (Leibbrandt et al., 2010). For the 2021/2022 financial year, the South African Government budgeted R195.5 billion for social grants and it is estimated that this will increase to R205.3 billion in the 2022/2023 financial year (Mokhutso, 2022).

The expansion of the social grant system has definitely slowed down the increasing poverty levels seen in the country. This is especially true in the rural areas where proportionately more households have benefited. Both the OAGs and CSGs have been widely cited as crucial policy successes. The OAG has constituted a major fraction of the non-labour derived income in post-apartheid South Africa. This has been particularly seen in the rural areas where the majority of the pensioners live (Zimbalist, 2017). The success of the social wage can also be seen in the South African Multidimensional Poverty Index (SAMPI). According to SAMPI, household multidimensional poverty fell following the introduction of the social wage from 17.9% in 2001 to 8% in 2011 and then to 7% in 2016 (Statistics South Africa, 2017). The success of the social wage can also be seen in Table 3.13. Poverty in the country has therefore been greatly reduced with the inclusion of these social grants.

A World Bank report in 2014 reported that the incomes of about 3.6 million South Africans had been lifted above US$2.50 per day (purchasing power parity) through the payment of social grants and the provision of free basic services such as electricity and water. As a result of this, the rate of extreme poverty has been halved, dropping from 34.4% to 16.5%. Thus, access to the social wage has been the primary reason for individuals being able to exit extreme poverty (Francis & Webster, 2019).

Table 3.13: Impact of the social grants

	1993	Poverty gap reduction as a % of GNI (1993)	2013	Poverty change (1993-2013)	Poverty gap reduction as a % of GNI (2013)
without social grants	41%	0.95%	43%	2%	1.48%
with social grants	33%		25%	-8%	
without social grants	50%	1.29%	50%	0%	1.99%
with social grant	45%		38%	-7%	
without social grants	60%	1.59%	58%	-2%	2.44%
with social grants	57%		52%	-5%	

Source: DPME (2014); World Bank (2021)

3.6 Conclusion

The primary aim of this chapter was to present a synopsis of the situation regarding poverty in South Africa since 1994. In order to do this, key macroeconomic indicators and their relationships to poverty were explored. The findings do not reveal many positives for South Africa and some worrying features have been highlighted. The GDP growth rate has declined over the years and South Africa has performed poorly when compared to the emerging/developing markets and the rest of the world. Since 2014 the South African population has also been growing at a faster rate than GDP, and this has probably manifested itself in decreasing employment opportunities and increasing poverty. The government in South Africa has put in place a raft of strategies in order to address the poverty situation. The most successful of them being the social grant system.

The chapter contributes to the answering of the research question (an analysis of rural poverty in South Africa since 1994) by providing a macro perspective of how rural poverty has changed in the country since 1994 and possible reasons for these changes. In the next chapter rural poverty will be analysed on a more micro level with an analysis of the poverty situation in the different provinces of the country.

CHAPTER FOUR

PROVINCIAL ANALYSIS OF RURAL POVERTY IN SOUTH AFRICA

4.1 Introduction

The fourth chapter of the study analyses, on a more micro level, the poverty which is found in the numerous rural areas of South Africa. The chapter starts with an explanation of the different indicators which will be used to analyse rural poverty in the country. This will be followed by a description of the various provinces in the country in order to provide the background to the analysis of rural poverty. The analysis will constitute the main part of the chapter. The overall changes in rural poverty and the reasons for such will then be addressed at the end of the chapter.

4.2 Poverty indicators used in the study

Measuring poverty can be difficult because many of the indicators that are used have several shortcomings. In order to address this problem and to present a comprehensive picture of poverty, it is necessary to use both unidimensional and multidimensional approaches to poverty measurement (World Bank, UNDP & UNICEF, 2021). As such an array of poverty measurements will be used in this study and these will be discussed in the next section. These poverty measurements range from assessing income (unidimensional) through to the satisfaction of basic needs such as water and shelter (multidimensional), and as such should provide a comprehensive view of the state of rural poverty in South Africa post 1994.

4.2.1 Food Poverty Line (FPL)

Poverty lines are a unidimensional method of measuring poverty (see Section 2.5.1). One such poverty line is the FPL which was developed by Statistics South Africa who used a cost-of-basic-needs approach. The FPL is essentially the Rand value below which individuals are not able to buy or consume enough food to supply themselves with the minimum per-capita-per-day energy requirement for adequate health. The percentage of the population living below the FPL is known as the Poverty Headcount

Index. The FPL in South Africa in 1994 was R107 and in 2021 had increased to R624 (Quantec, 2022g).

4.2.2 Human Development Index (HDI)

The HDI is a multidimensional measure of poverty and provides a summary measurement of achievements in the health, education, and standards of living dimensions (see Section 2.5.2). The higher a country's human development, the higher its HDI value (World Health Organisation, 2022).

4.2.3 Dependency Ratio

The dependency ratio is directly related to poverty dynamics and can provide another dimension to explaining rural poverty. The dependency ratio is defined as the ratio of the dependent age (child and aged) population as a percentage of the working age population. The dependency ratio has a negative and significant effect on economic growth. The higher the dependency ratio, the greater the number of dependents relying on a smaller part of the productive population. This could result in decreasing economic growth and increasing numbers of poor people (Ginting, Sudibia, Dewi, Marhaeni, 2020).

4.2.4 Gini coefficient

The Gini coefficient is a unidimensional or monetary measure of poverty (see Section 2.5.1). The Gini coefficient shows the degree of difference in incomes and thus provides a measure of inequality between the income of the rich and the poor (Bowles & Carlin, 2020). Values range from 0 (indicating 'perfect equality') to the maximum value of 1 (which indicates a complete unequal society). Therefore, the lower the Gini coefficient value, the more equal a society is. Although moderate levels of inequality are acceptable as they encourage people to work harder, high levels of inequality can suppress the impact of economic growth. Economies with Gini coefficients above 0.5 are considered very unequal. A Gini coefficient below 0.3 is considered low. In most countries the Gini coefficient lies between 0.3 and 0.5 (Ajuruchukwu & Sanelise, 2016; Trapeznikova, 2019).

4.2.5 South African Multidimensional Poverty Index (SAMPI)

The SAMPI is a multidimensional measure of poverty and was created by Statistics South Africa in the post-2015 MDG era. The purpose of the index was twofold - firstly to improve the poverty measurement for the country, and secondly to align the country with the growing international trend towards measuring poverty beyond the traditional money-metric methods (Statistics South Africa, 2014). Table 4.1 shows the dimensions, indicators and deprivation cut-offs which Statistics South Africa used when compiling the SAMPI.

Table 4.1: SAMPI

Dimension	Indicator	Deprivation cut-off
Health	Child mortality	If any child under the age of 5 has died in the past 12 months
Education	Years of schooling	If no household member aged 15 or older has completed 5 years of schooling
	School attendance	If any school-aged child (aged 7 to 15) is out of school
Standard of living	Fuel for lighting	If household is using paraffin/candles/nothing/other
	Fuel for heating	If household is using paraffin/wood/coal/dung/other/none
	Fuel for cooking	If household is using paraffin/wood/coal/dung/other/none
	Water access	If no piped water in dwelling or on stand
	Sanitation type	If not a flush toilet
	Dwelling type	If an informal shack/traditional dwelling/caravan/tent/other
	Asset ownership	If household does not own more than one of radio, television, telephone or refrigerator and does not own a car
Economic activity	Unemployment	If all adults (aged 15 to 64) in the household are unemployed

Source: Statistics South Africa (2014: 6)

Some of these indicators and deprivation cut-offs would seem confusing at first. One of these is the water indicator which uses a much narrower deprivation cut-off than what would be expected. When compiling SAMPI, Statistics South Africa's focus was only on those households with no access to piped water and flush toilets in their dwelling or on their stand. This view was taken by Statistics South Africa despite the minimum standards (as articulated by the RDP) being piped water within 200 metres. Statistics South Africa stated that such distances of 200 metres were short-term aims of the RDP, and a longer-term vision is to provide South Africans with accessible water and sanitation. This is the reason why piped water and flush toilets in the dwelling or on the stand were included (Statistics South Africa, 2014).

The SAMPI score is derived from the product of the headcount (the proportion of households defined as multidimensionally poor using the poverty cut-off) and the intensity of the poverty experienced (defined as the average proportion of indicators in which poor households are deprived) (Statistics South Africa, 2014).

4.2.6 Unemployment rate

Another dimension to the poverty problem is unemployment. High unemployment is a problem faced by many countries in the world. With ever expanding populations, more and more people are being added to the labour force on a yearly basis. Unfortunately, employment opportunities are not keeping up with the increasing population and this has resulted in an ever-increasing unemployment rate, reduced incomes and increased poverty (Quyen, 2019). In the study the unemployment rate in people aged 15-64 years old will be examined.

4.2.7 Living conditions

The poverty situation in many developing countries is exacerbated by a lack of access to basic services such as water, sanitation, and electricity (Durojaye & Mirugi-Mukundi, 2020). The provision of such basic services can be an important agent in the reduction of poverty (National Treasury, 2011) and are the last set of indicators to be examined in the study.

Water is essential for life and is therefore at the centre of socio-economic development. The importance of water is highlighted in SDG6 which states, as one of its key goals, the availability and sustainability of water and sanitation for all. Proponents of the SDGs argue that by achieving SDG6, other SDG goals such as SDG1 (no poverty) will be addressed (Nkiaka, Bryant, Okumah & Gomo, 2021). Therefore, the provision of piped water to and flush toilets in the dwelling will be investigated in the study.

Access to electricity is also essential to achieving a better life and well-being. It is one of the primary drivers of economic growth, poverty reduction, reduction of income inequality and realisation of the SDGs. Electricity extends working hours and enables

people to earn an extra income (Sarkodie & Adams, 2020). In the study the provision of electricity for lighting will be considered.

Access to adequate housing and shelter is a fundamental human right and is considered to be central to the health and well-being of low-income households. The importance of housing is highlighted in SDG11 but is also a key component of sustainable development across all the SDG goals. SDG11 aims for universal access to adequate, safe, and affordable housing, and to upgrade slums by 2030. It builds on MDG7 which aimed for a substantial improvement, by 2020, in the lives of 100 million slum dwellers (Centre for Affordable Housing Finance in Africa, 2022; Tusting, Bisanzio, Alabaster, Cameron, Cibulskis, Davies, Flaxman, Gibson, Knudsen, Mbogo & Okumu, 2019). Therefore, access to formal dwellings will be examined in the study.

The accumulation of assets is an important means by which people can move out of poverty and improve their livelihoods. Asset ownership provides a better picture of the population and how they can manage their vulnerability to poverty. Assets can generate income and increase consumption, provide a buffer during emergencies, and serve as collateral for loans and store of wealth (Etim & Edet, 2014). In the study the level of asset ownership will be investigated by examining the number of residents living in the rural areas who own or are paying off their house.

Waste management impacts all of the SDGs. When people have no waste management services, they dump waste in the open or burn it and this waste can then become a transmitter of diseases. Sustainable waste management feeds into SDG3 (less disease caused by open dumping or burning), SDG11 (creating a healthy and resilient community), and SDG15 (healthier environment) (Wasteaid, 2022). The topic of waste management will be investigated in the study by examining the numbers of rural residents who have their refuse removed weekly.

In this section the different poverty indicators that will be used in the analysis of rural poverty in South Africa were presented. In the next section a general overview of the different provinces in South Africa will be given in order to contextualise the analysis which will follow regarding the poverty to be found in the rural areas of these provinces.

4.3 A general overview of the provinces in South Africa

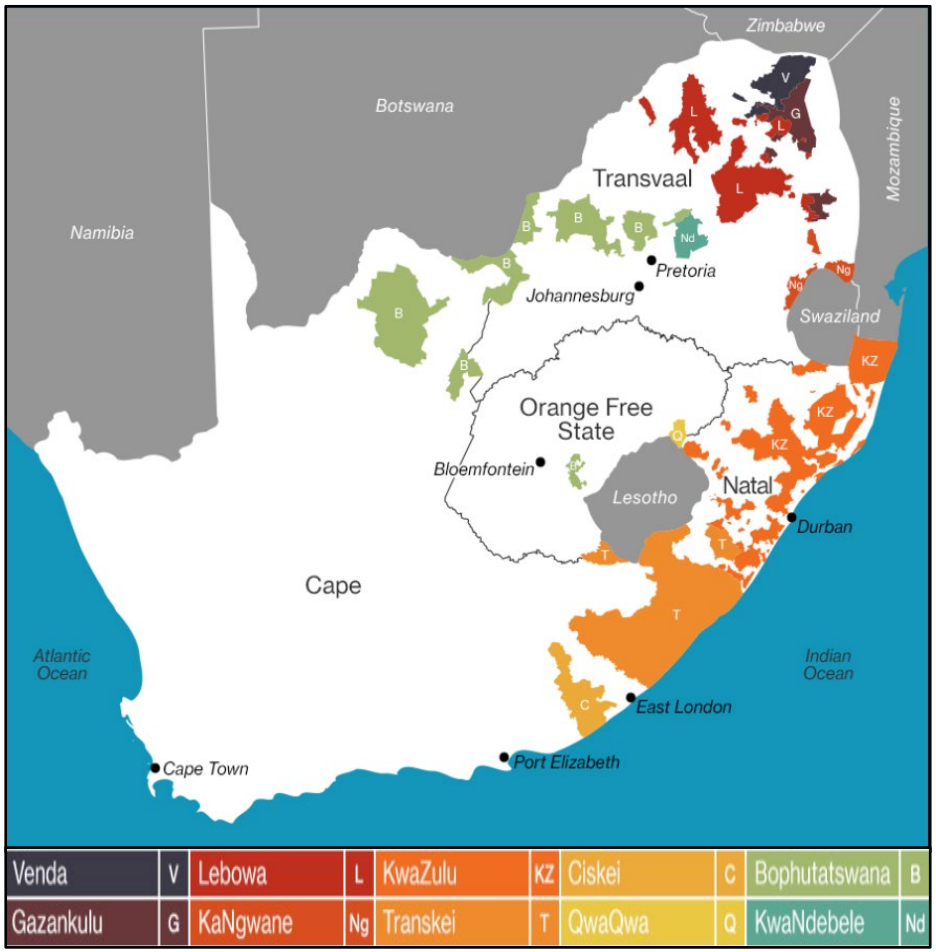
Prior to 1994 there were only four provinces in South Africa namely Natal, Orange Free State, Transvaal and the Cape plus various homelands which were created under the apartheid policy of 'separate development' (see Map 4.1). Following elections in 1994, the following nine provinces were created - Western Cape, Northern Cape, Eastern Cape, North West, Mpumalanga, Free State, Gauteng, Limpopo and KwaZulu-Natal. The homelands were incorporated into these provinces (see Map 4.2).

The nine provinces in the country are further subdivided into metros (Category A), local municipalities (Category B) and districts (Category C) - details of which are given below and shown in Map 4.3: -

- 2 Metros (Category A1 - Gauteng and Cape Town),
- 4 Metros (Category A1 - other metros),
- 21 Secondary Cities (Category B1),
- 29 Large Towns (Category B2),
- 111 Small Towns (Category B3),
- 70 Mostly Rural (Category B4),
- 25 District (Category C1), and
- 21 District (Category C2) (National Treasury, 2011).

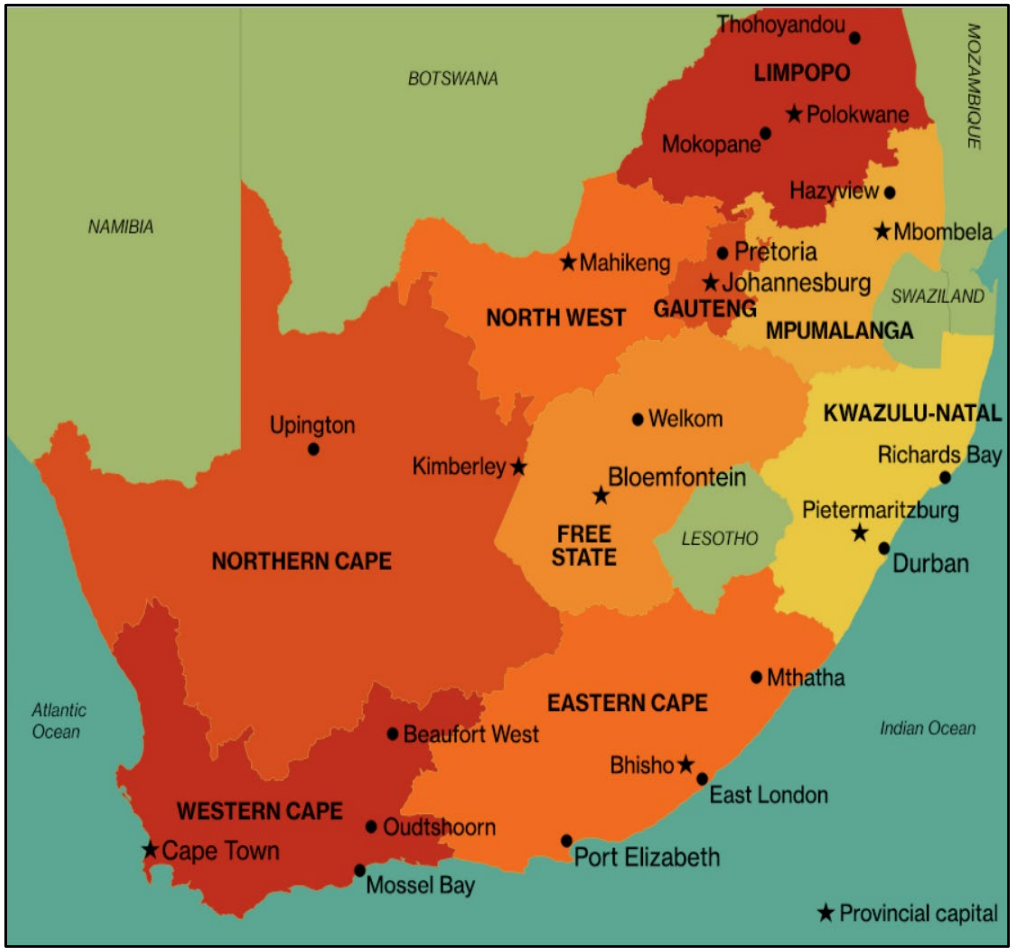
In this study the focus will be on people living in the B3 (small towns) and B4 (mostly rural) local municipalities. B3 municipalities refer to small towns which have small populations with a sizeable urban proportion based in these small towns. The rural areas in the B3 category are characterised by the existence of commercial farms and the local economies are agriculturally based. B4 municipalities are mostly rural municipalities which are characterised by small towns, villages and communal land tenure and are usually found in the former homelands (National Treasury, 2011).

Map 4.1: South Africa pre-1994



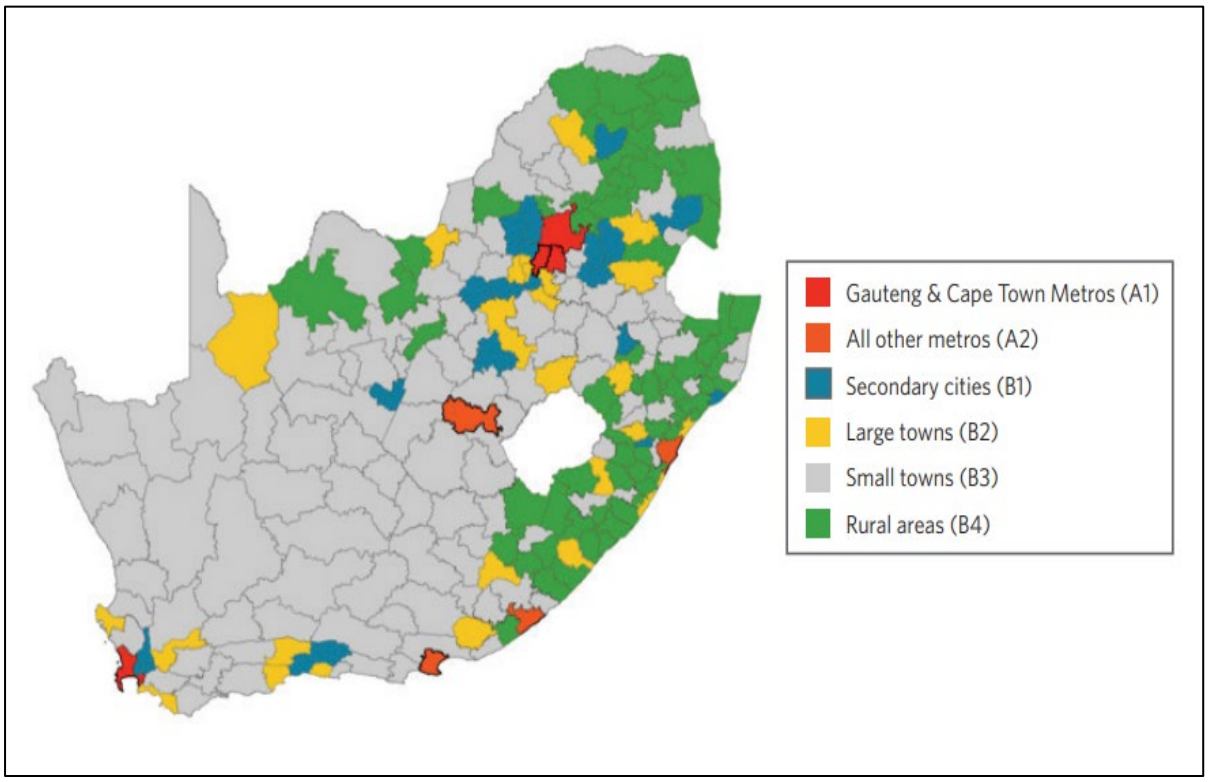
Source: Alexander (2019)

Map 4.2: South Africa post-1994



Source: Alexander (2019)

Map 4.3: Classification of municipalities



Source: Arndt et al. (2018)

Table 4.2 shows that almost 40% of the country's population lived in the Category B3 and B4 local municipalities in 2016. These areas had the lowest GDP per capita figures and the highest unemployment rates in the country. However, the gap in GDP per worker was less pronounced and closer to those of the urban groups.

Table 4.2: Summary statistics on the different types of local municipalities (2016)

	South Africa	A1 Metros	A2 Metros	B1 Secondary cities	B2 Large towns	B3 Small towns	B4 Rural areas
Population (millions)	55.6	16	6.3	7.9	4.5	7.5	13.4
• **Share %**	100	28.7	11.4	14.2	8	13.5	24.2
Population density (people/sq. km)	4.71	1.155	466	137	43	9	52
Total GDP (R billions)	2733	1118	408	485	201	292	229
• **Share %**	100	40.9	14.9	17.7	7.4	10.7	8.4
Employment (mill.)	15.9	6.2	2	2.6	1.3	2	1.7
• **Share %**	100	39	12.8	16.3	8.2	12.8	10.8
Unemployment rate (%)	26.6	22.8	27.2	25.7	25	23.5	40.9
GDP per capita (R1000)	49.1	70	64.5	61.2	45.1	38.9	17
GDP per worker (R1000)	171.7	180	200.6	186.3	153.7	143.2	133.2

Source: Arndt et al. (2018)

Information on household assets and services found in these local municipal areas is summarised in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Household assets and services in the different types of municipalities

Household assets and services	Share of households with owned assets or characteristics (%)						
	South Africa	A1 Metros	A2 Metros	B1 Secondary cities	B2 Large towns	B3 Small towns	B4 Rural areas
Brick house	73.9	73.7	77.9	75.8	75.8	76.5	68.3
Piped water	73.4	89	82	84.1	71.3	75.9	37.5
Flush / chemical toilet	62.6	87.8	76.2	68.7	63.6	61	14.8
Electricity	85.1	89.4	89.3	87.9	85	83.2	76
Weekly refuse removal collection by municipality	62.1	90.5	82.5	66.7	63.5	53.6	10.9
Washing machine	67.5	69.9	71.7	69.7	67.2	65.8	61.1
Electric / gas stove	77	85.1	84	81.6	77.7	75.4	59
Fridge	68.5	75.4	74.5	72.1	67.3	63.5	56
Motor vehicle	29.6	40.7	32.3	31.3	28.6	24	14.7
Landline / mobile phone	90	94.7	90.7	91.8	88.7	84.5	85.3
Television	75.1	83.2	80	78.1	74.6	70.5	61.3
Radio	67.5	69.9	71.7	69.7	67.2	65.8	61.1
Internet access	35.4	48.5	38.8	35.9	31.7	25.8	21.7
Computer	21.4	33.7	24.3	22.3	18.5	13.9	7.1

Source: Arndt et al. (2018)

In the metro areas and secondary cities (A1, A2 and B1) most of the households lived in houses or apartments made of brick. They had access to a flush toilet, electricity, and piped water within the house or yard. On the other hand, only a third of the households in the rural areas (B4) had access to piped water and less than one sixth had a flush toilet in the house. Access to electricity in the rural areas (B4) was high, although, unlike urban households in the metros and secondary cities, very few had their refuse collected by local authorities. Rural households also tended to have fewer

assets like computers, although a large majority possessed cell phones, televisions, and radios (see Table 4.3).

The data in Tables 4.2 and 4.3 clearly shows the rural/urban divide in the country. GDP per capita and per worker is higher in the urban areas (A1, A2, B1, B2) than in the rural areas (B3 and B4). Metros (A1) account for 41% of national GDP but only 29% of the population. On the other hand, rural areas (B4) account for only 8% of the GDP but 24% of the population. This statistic explains the rapid rural/urban migration to the metros which has happened since 1994. Rural residents are essentially moving into the urban areas in search of employment and better living conditions.

Table 4.4 explores the rural/urban migration in more depth by showing the average annual growth rates for GDP, employment, and populations in the urban and rural areas between 1993 and 2016.

Table 4.4: Population and economic growth dynamics (1993-2016)

	South Africa	A1 Metros	A2 Metros	B1 Secondary cities	B2 Large towns	B3 Small towns	B4 Rural areas
Annual GDP growth	2.7%	3.5%	2.8%	1.9%	1.8%	2.3%	2.5%
Employment growth	1.4%	1.7%	1.2%	1.2%	0.9%	0.9%	1.4%
GDP per worker growth	1.3%	1.7%	1.5%	0.7%	0.9%	1.4%	1.1%
Population growth	1.6%	2.6%	1.2%	1.7%	1.4%	1.1%	0.8%
GDP per capita growth	1.1%	0.8%	1.6%	0.3%	0.4%	1.1%	1.6%

Source: Arndt et al. (2018)

The metros (A1 and A2) have, in absolute terms, dominated the national GDP growth process. Despite this, the population growth in the A1 metro areas is much greater than that found in the A2 metro areas, and a great deal higher than the rural areas (B4). This is probably due to rural/urban migration. This has resulted in the per capita GDP growth in the A1 metros being lower than in the B4 rural areas (see Table 4.4).

In this section of the chapter a snapshot view of South Africa and the various provinces was presented. In the next section the rural poverty picture in the different provinces will be examined in more detail in order to track how rural poverty has changed since 1994 and the possible reasons for such changes.

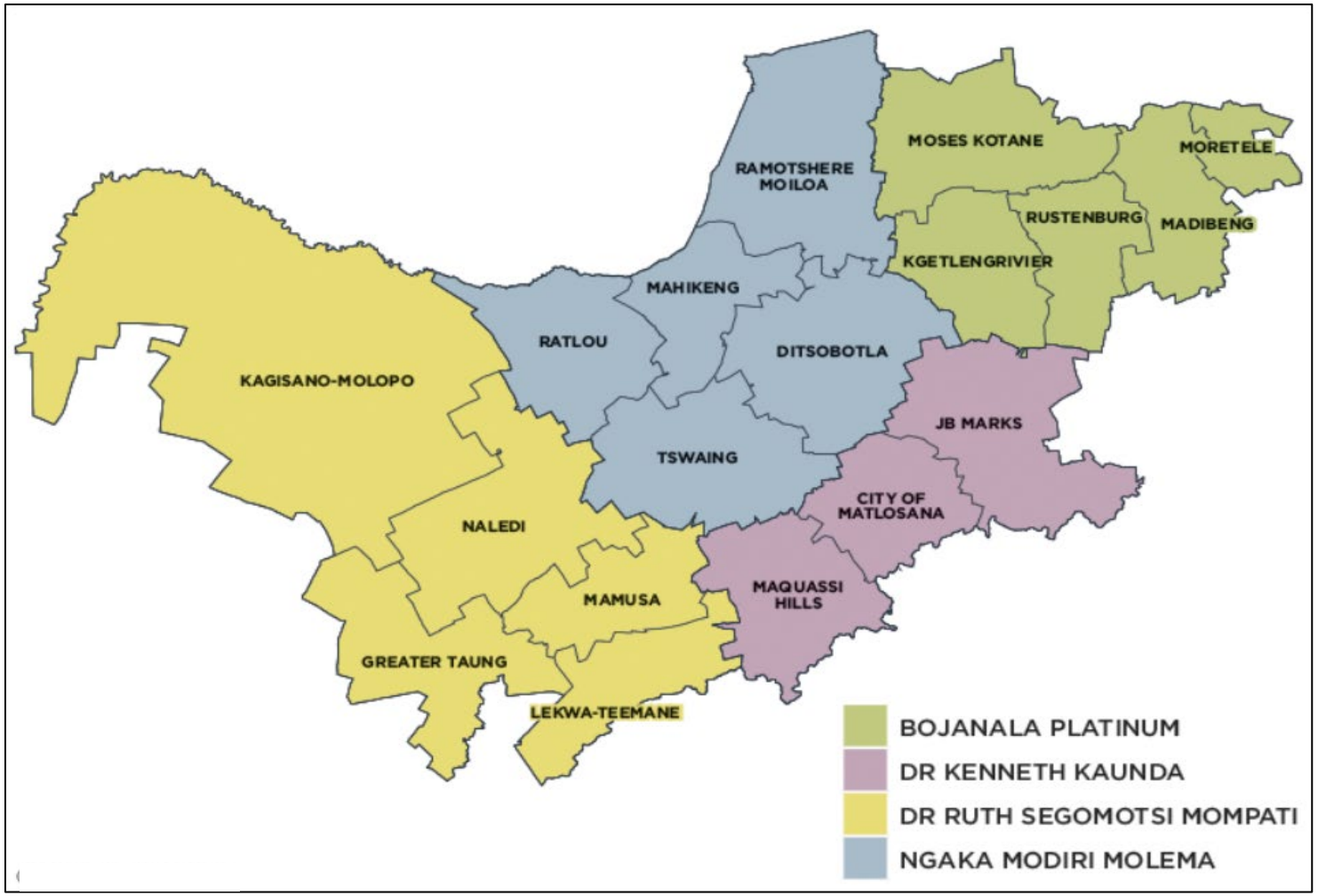
4.4 An analysis of the rural poverty found in the different provinces of South Africa

The rural poverty picture in each of the provinces will be further explored in this section starting with the North West Province. Emphasis in the analysis which follows will be placed on *predominantly* rural local municipalities which are defined as having a share of the rural population in the local area higher than 50% (Brezzi, Dijkstra & Ruiz, 2011; OECD, 2006). In order to assess whether a local municipality is more than 50% rural (therefore considered to be predominantly rural), 2021 population data from Quantec will be examined. Only predominantly rural local municipalities will form part of the investigation. Gauteng Province and Western Cape Province do not have any predominantly rural local municipalities and as such will be excluded from the analysis. Free State and Northern Cape will also be excluded from the analysis as there are only one and two rural local municipalities in each of these provinces respectively.

4.4.1 The rural poverty picture in North West Province

The North West Province is an inland province in South Africa. The province shares an international border with Botswana and provincial borders with Limpopo, Gauteng, Free State, and Northern Cape Provinces. Before 1994, the North West Province was part of the old Transvaal Province and the homeland state of Bophuthatswana (see Map 4.1 and 4.2). The province is now divided into four districts and 18 local municipalities (see Map 4.4).

Map 4.4: North West Province



Source: National Government of South Africa (2022)

Nine (or 50%) of the local municipalities in the province in 1994 and 2021 were considered to be predominantly rural (see Table 4.5). Ratlou and Kagisano-Molopo Local Municipalities were the most rural (100%) in 1994. In 2021 Ratlou Local Municipality was still the most rural (100%). Tswaing Local Municipality was the least rural in 1994 (71%) and again in 2021 (69%). Ratlou Local Municipality is mostly comprised of tribally administered areas which used to be part of the former homeland of Bophuthatswana. Since 1994 the degree of rurality has decreased in four (44%) of the rural local municipalities, stayed the same in two (22%) and increased in three (33%) of the rural local municipalities.

In both 1994 and 2021 Ngaka Modiri Molema District had the greatest number of rural local municipalities (four out of five) followed by Bojanala District (three out of five) (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.5: Predominantly rural local municipalities (North West Province)

	% Rural	
	1994	**2021**
BOJANALA DISTRICT	72%	63%
Moretele	99%	96%
Madibeng	75%	75%
Moses Kotane	90%	93%
NGAKA MODIRI MOLEMA DISTRICT	74%	74%
Ratlou	100%	100%
Tswaing	71%	69%
Mahikeng	76%	77%
Ramotshere Moiloa	84%	82%
DR RUTH SEGOMOTSI MOMPATI DISTRICT	73%	67%
Greater Taung	95%	98%
Kagisano-Molopo	100%	95%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022j)

4.4.1.1 FPL - Poverty Headcount Index (North West Province)

The FPL Poverty Headcount Index has improved in all the rural local municipalities and in the province since 1994 (see Appendix 2). This indicates that monetary poverty has declined in these areas. Table 4.6 shows that since 1994, the number of rural local municipalities with Poverty Headcount Indexes lower than the province and the country has increased. This suggests that monetary poverty in the rural local municipalities has decreased more than in the province and the country. This could be due to the increase in the amount of social grants being paid out to rural residents, or it could be due to rural/urban migration. The rural poor who do not qualify for grants may have migrated to the urban areas to look for work and have now become the urban poor.

Table 4.6: Comparison of Poverty Headcount Index (North West Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with Poverty Headcount Indexes less than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	4 (44%)	2 (22%)
2021	7 (78%)	8 (89%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022g)

Table 4.7 highlights the rural local municipalities with the highest and lowest levels of monetary poverty. In 1994 and 2021 relatively higher levels of monetary poverty were found in the least predominantly rural of the local municipalities namely Tswaing and Mahikeng. Both of these local municipalities were only 69% and 77% rural in 2021 (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.7: FPL - Poverty Headcount Index (North West Province)

Year	Local Municipality	Poverty Headcount Index	
1994	Tswaing	55%	Highest levels of poverty
2021	Mahikeng	28%	
1994	Moretele	30%	Lowest levels of poverty
2021	Moses Kotane	13%	
	Local Municipality	**Annualised change (%)**	
Best annualised change (%)	Ratlou	-3,8%	
Worst annualised change (%)	Moretele	1,6%	

Source**:** Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022g)

4.4.1.2 HDI (North West Province)

Even though the HDI in the province and in the country at large has improved, the HDI in all the rural local municipalities in this province has declined (see Appendix 3 and Table 4.8).

Table 4.8: Comparison of HDI (North West Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities HDI greater than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	0 (0%)	9 (100%)
2020	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The highest HDI in 1994 and 2021 was in Ramotshere Moiloa Local Municipality (0.664) and Madibeng Local Municipality (0.650). The lowest HDI in 1994 and in 2021 was in Moretele Local Municipality (see Table 4.10). More detailed data regarding the HDI is provided in Appendix 3.

One of the main reasons for the decline in the HDI in the rural local municipalities was the health dimension part of the HDI. Since 1994 life expectancy (measured in years) declined in all the rural local municipalities with annualised decreases of between 0.04% and 0.13%. This implies that the health dimension has worsened in these rural areas since 1994 despite the province and the country showing a positive annualised percent growth in this dimension (see Appendix 3).

Table 4.9 shows a comparison of the life expectancy rates for the rural local municipalities, the province and the country in 1994 and 2020. Life expectancy rates (and therefore the health dimension) in the rural local municipalities have been consistently lower than the provincial and national figures since 1994.

Table 4.9: Comparison of life expectancy (North West Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with life expectancy greater than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	0 (0%)	9 (100%)
2020	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The highest and lowest life expectancy figures amongst the rural local municipalities are shown in Table 4.10. Interestingly, Moretele Local Municipality had the lowest figures in 1994 (62.7 years) and 2020 (60.7 years) indicating that the poorest health dimensions were to be found in this relatively more rural local municipality.

The education dimension has improved in all the rural local municipalities since 1994. However, the mean years of schooling has been far lower than the expected years of schooling. 78% (or seven) of the rural local municipalities had a better annualised growth in the mean years of schooling dimension than the province. 67% (or six) of the rural local municipalities had a better annualised growth in the mean years of schooling dimension than the country. This implies that the education dimension has been addressed at a faster rate in the majority of the rural local municipalities than in the province and the country (see Appendix 3).

Table 4.10: HDI (North West Province)

	HDI		HEALTH DIMENSION		EDUCATION DIMENSION				STANDARD OF LIVING DIMENSION	
			Life Expectancy		Expected years of schooling		Mean years of schooling		GNI per capita (Rand)	
	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value
Highest value										
1994	Ramotshere Moiloa	0,664	Ramotshere Moiloa	63,2 yrs	Moretele, Moses Kotane	12,5 yrs	Madibeng, Mahikeng	6,6 yrs	Madibeng	R14 039
2020	Madibeng	0,650	Madibeng	62,3 yrs	Moretele, Greater Taung	13,8 yrs	Mahikeng	8,5 yrs	Madibeng	R12 552
Lowest value										
1994	Moretele	0,657	Moretele	62,7 yrs	Kagisano-Molopo	10,2 yrs	Kagisano-Molopo	3,4 yrs	Ratlou	R1 698
2020	Moretele	0,626	Moretele	60,7 yrs	Kagisano-Molopo	12,9 yrs	Ratlou	5,1 yrs	Ratlou	R2 301
Best annualised change (%)	Madibeng	-0,07%	Madibeng	-0,04%	Kagisano-Molopo	0,91%	Kagisano-Molopo	1,80%	Kagisano-Molopo	1,89%
Worst annualised change (%)	Moretele	-0,19%	Moses Kotane	-0,13%	Moses Kotane	0,27%	Madibeng	0,93%	Madibeng	-0,43%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

Table 4.11 shows a comparison of the mean years of schooling for the rural local municipalities, the province and the country in 1994 and 2020. The mean years of schooling dimension for the rural local municipalities has not performed as well against the national as it has against the provincial figures.

Table 4.11: Comparison of mean years of schooling (North West Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with mean years of schooling greater than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	2 (22%)	0 (0%)
2020	4 (44%)	0 (0%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The highest mean years of schooling in 1994 and in 2020 was in Mahikeng Local Municipality (Mahikeng being the capital of the province) and Madibeng Local Municipality. The lowest was in Kagisano-Molopo Local Municipality - a local municipality which was 100% rural in 1994 and 95% rural in 2020 (see Table 4.10).

The standard of living dimension (measured by GNI per capita) improved in all the rural local municipalities except in Moretele and Madibeng (both in the Bojanala District) where it declined annually by 0.13% and 0.43% respectively. 67% (or six) of the rural local municipalities had a better annualised GNI per capita growth than the province and the country. This implies that the standard of living dimension has also improved at a faster rate in the majority of the rural local municipalities than in the province (see Appendix 3).

Table 4.12 shows that there were a minimum number of rural local municipalities which had GNI per capita figures greater than the province, and none were greater than the national figure. This indicates that the standard of living in the rural local municipalities was lower than the province and the country. The highest GNI per capita in 1994 (R14 039) and 2020 (R12 552) was in Madibeng Local Municipality, whereas the

lowest in 1994 (R1 698) and 2020 (R2 301) was in Ratlou Local Municipality (see Table 4.10).

Table 4.12: Comparison of GNI per capita (North West Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with GNI per capita greater than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	1 (11%)	0 (0%)
2020	2 (22%)	0 (0%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

4.4.1.3 Other socio-economic indicators (North West Province)

The dependency ratio for the province and the country has improved since 2001. The dependency ratio also improved in 66% (or six) of the rural local municipalities. The only rural municipalities where the dependency ratio worsened was in Moretele, Madibeng and Moses Kotane which are all in the Bojanala District (see Appendix 4) and this could possibly be due to rural/urban migration.

Table 4.13 shows that the number of rural local municipalities with higher dependency ratios than the province and the country has declined over time.

Table 4.13: Comparison of dependency ratios (North West Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with higher dependency ratios than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
2001	7 (78%)	7 (78%)
2016	5 (56%)	5 (56%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The highest dependency ratios in 2001 and 2016 were in Ratlou and Moretele Local Municipalities respectively. Both of these local municipalities are very rural (see Table 4.5). The lowest dependency ratios were in Madibeng Local Municipality (2001) and Mahikeng Local Municipality (2016) which are both far less rural (see Table 4.14).

The SAMPI values show that multidimensional poverty has declined in the rural local municipalities and in the province since 2001. This data correlates with the Poverty Headcount Index data (see Section 4.4.1.1). Only 11% (or one) of the rural local municipalities had a better SAMPI value than the province in 2001 (and that was Moses Kotane Local Municipality) and again in 2016 (Mahikeng Local Municipality) (see Appendix 4).

The lowest (and therefore the best) levels of multidimensional poverty (according to the SAMPI value) in 2001 and 2016 were in Moses Kotane Local Municipality (0.07) and Mahikeng Local Municipality (0.03) respectively. The highest levels in 2001 were in Ratlou and Greater Taung Local Municipalities (0.14) which are two very rural areas, and in 2016 was again in Ratlou Local Municipality (see Table 4.14).

There was a deterioration in the Gini coefficient for the province and for all the rural local municipalities between 1994 and 2019. This indicates growing levels of income inequality. In addition, 89% of the rural local municipalities had Gini coefficients in 2019 which were greater than 0.5 showing again the great income inequality (see Appendix 4). The highest Gini coefficient (and therefore showing the greatest income inequality) in 1994 and again in 2019 was in Mahikeng Local Municipality which is one of the least rural municipalities and as stated earlier is the capital of the province. The Gini coefficient of this particular local municipality was higher than the province in both 1994 and 2019, and higher than the country in 2019. The Gini coefficients were lower in the more rural local municipalities of Ratlou and Moretele (see Table 4.14).

The rate of unemployment between 1994 and 2020 increased in the country, the province and in all the rural local municipalities. There were annualised percentage increases in unemployment of between 0.9% (Greater Taung Local Municipality) and 3.7% (Madibeng Local Municipality). Madibeng Local Municipality was the only local municipality which had a greater annualised growth in unemployment than the

province and the country. In addition, seven out of nine (78%) of the rural local municipalities in 1994 and 2020 had unemployment rates greater than the province and the country (see Appendix 4).

The highest unemployment rate in 1994 was in Greater Taung (35%) and in 2020 was in Moretele Local Municipalities (50%) - both being very predominantly rural local municipalities. The lowest unemployment rate in 1994 was in Tswaing Local Municipality (12%) and in 2020 was in Tswaing and Kagisano-Molopo Local Municipalities (25%). However, unemployment had grown at a faster annualised rate in Madibeng Local Municipality which was less rural (see Table 4.14).

Table 4.14: Other socio-economic indicators (North West Province)

	Dependency ratio		SAMPI			GINI coefficient		Unemployment	
	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value		Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value
Highest value					**Highest value**				
2001	Ratlou	86	Greater Taung, Kagisano-Molopo	0,14	**1994**	Mahikeng	0,669	Greater Taung	35%
2016	Moretele	77	Greater Taung, Ratlou	0,07	**2019**	Mahikeng	0,748		
					2020			Moretele	50%
Lowest value					**Lowest value**				
2001	Madibeng	50	Moses Kotane	0,07	**1994**	Ratlou	0,458	Madibeng, Tswaing	12%
2016	Mahikeng	40	Mahikeng	0,03	**2019**	Moretele	0,488		
					2020			Tswaing, Kagisano-Molopo	25%
Greatest/best annualised change (%)	Mahikeng	-2,4%	Kagisano-Molopo	5,5%	**Greatest/best annualised change (%)**	Moretele	0,1%	Greater Taung	0,9%
Lowest/worst annualised change (%)	Moretele	0,9%	Moses Kotane	2,2%	**Lowest/worst annualised change (%)**	Ramotshere Moiloa	0,7%	Madibeng	3,7%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

4.4.1.4 Living conditions (North West Province)

Since 2001 the percentage of residents with access to electricity for lighting has increased in all the rural local municipalities. Annualised improvements of between 0.1% and 4.3% were noted. In 2001 between 49% and 91% of the residents in all the rural local municipalities had access to electricity. By 2016 these values had increased to between 83% and 97%. However, the figures were not so high for the provision of flush toilets, piped water to houses and weekly refuse removal. In 33% (or three) of the local municipalities, the provision of flush toilets decreased between 2001 and 2016. In 56% (or five) of the local municipalities the provision of piped water decreased during the same period. There were several rural local municipalities in 2001 and 2016 where less than 10% of the population had access to flush toilets, piped water, and weekly refuse removal (see Appendix 5). The more rural municipalities such as Ratlou and Moretele consistently had the lowest access to these services (see Table 4.15).

The uneven provision of services is also very apparent in the data. In the Moretele Local Municipality 97% of the residents had access to electricity for lighting in 2016, yet only 2% had a flush toilet and piped water in their houses and 1% weekly refuse removal. In short, the provision of electricity for lighting to the residents of rural local municipalities has far outstripped the provision of water to the same residents (see Appendix 5).

Residents paying off or owning their own houses has also continued to increase in all but one of the rural local municipalities during the time period. The number of residents living in formal dwellings also increased in 66% of the rural local municipalities. In many of the rural local municipalities the percentage of residents owning/paying off their houses and living in formal dwellings was much higher than the percentage having their refuse removed weekly. An example is Kagisano-Molopo Local Municipality where in 2016, 76% of the residents owned/paying off their house and an even greater number lived in formal dwellings (94%) but 0% had weekly refuse removal (see Appendix 5).

Table 4.15: Living conditions (North West Province)

	Electricity for lighting		Paying off/own house		Formal dwelling		Flush toilet		Piped water		Refuse removal	
	Local Municipality	**Value**	**Local Municipality**	**Value**	**Local Municipality**	**Value**	**Local Municipality**	**Value**	**Local Municipality**	**Value**	**Local Municipality**	**Value**
Highest value												
2001	Moses Kotane	91,0%	Ratlou	76,0%	Mahikeng	87,0%	Tswaing	26,4%	Mahikeng	24,0%	Mahikeng	27,0%
2016	Moretele	97,0%	Moretele	88,0%	Kagisano-Molopo	94,0%	Tswaing	38,0%	Mahikeng	31,0%	Moses Kotane	76,0%
Lowest value												
2001	Greater Taung	49,0%	Tswaing	45,0%	Madibeng	61,0%	Ratlou, Moretele	1,0%	Ratlou	2,0%	Moretele, Ratlou	0,0%
2016	Kagisano-Molopo	83,0%	Mahikeng	52,0%	Mahikeng	73,0%	Ratlou	0,0%	Ratlou	1,0%	Ratlou, Kagisano-Molopo	0,0%
Best annualised change (%)	Greater Taung	4,3%	Tswaing, Kagisano-Molopo	2,7%	Kagisano-Molopo	0,9%	Moretele	5,9%	Ramotshere-Moiloa	2,9%	Moses Kotane	16,0%
Worst annualised change (%)	Moses Kotane	0,1%	Mahikeng	-1,4%	Mahikeng	-1,2%	Ratlou	-5,9%	Moretele	-7,2%	Kagisano-Molopo	-100,0%

Source: National Government of South Africa (2022); Statistics South Africa (2001 & 2022)

4.4.1.5 Summary (North West Province)

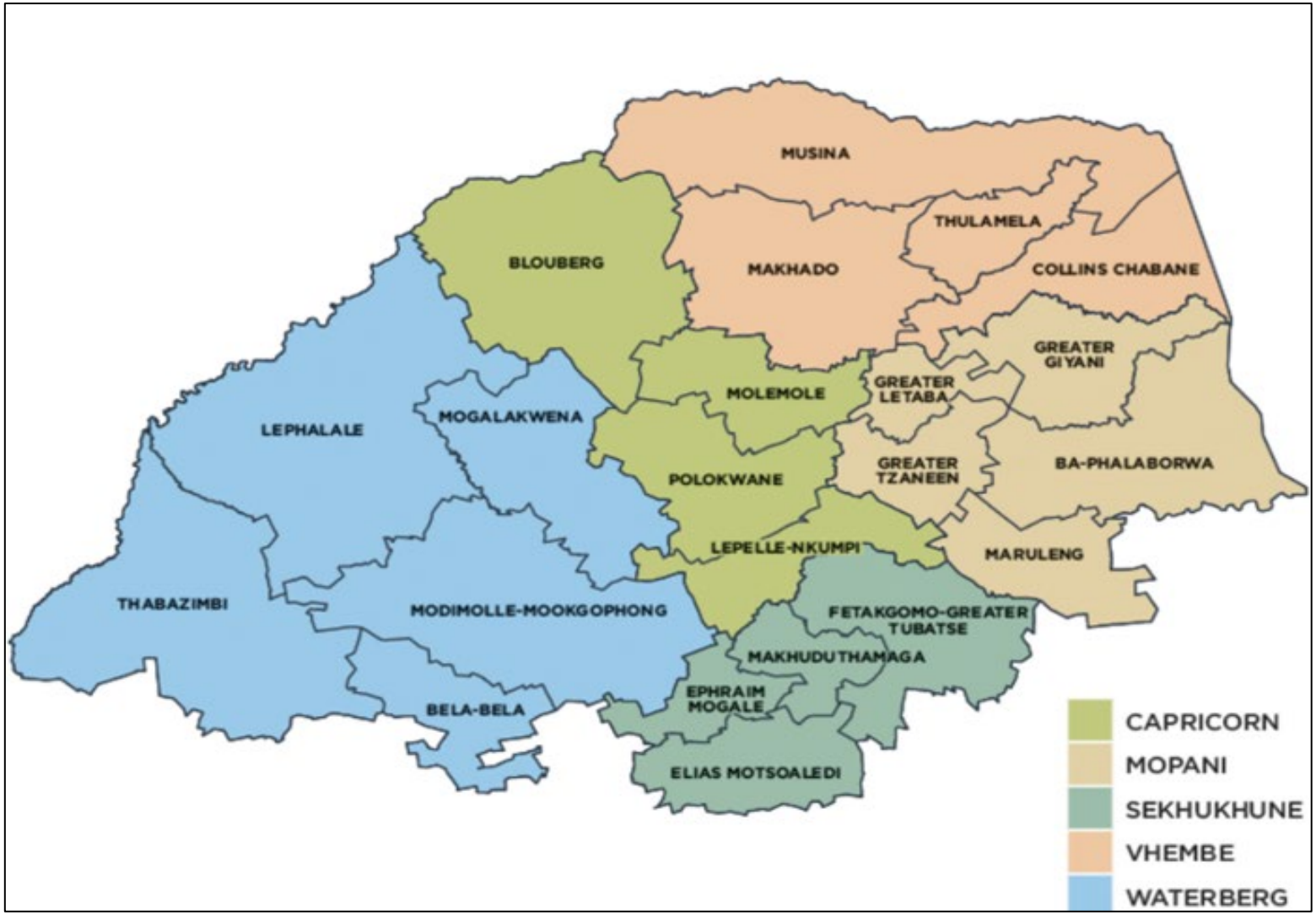
Both money metric poverty and multidimensional poverty (SAMPI) have declined since 1994 in all the rural local municipalities. However, multidimensional poverty (according to the HDI) has increased. The rural local municipalities which showed the greatest levels of poverty (as highlighted by the data examined in this section of the chapter) in 1994 and again in 2021 were Moretele and Ratlou (two of the most rural local municipalities), whilst Mahikeng and Madibeng showed the least levels of poverty during this time period.

4.4.2 The rural poverty picture in Limpopo Province

The province of Limpopo is located in the north-eastern corner of South Africa and shares international borders with Botswana, Zimbabwe, and Mozambique. Provincially it shares borders with Mpumalanga, Gauteng, and North West Provinces. Before 1994, Limpopo Province was part of the old Transvaal Province and the homeland states of Lebowa, Gazankulu and Venda (see Map 4.1 and 4.2). The province is now divided into five districts and 22 local municipalities following the 2016 demarcation (see Map 4.5).

Out of 22 local municipalities in the province, 16 (or 73%) were considered to be predominantly rural in 1994 and this increased to 17 (or 77%) by 2021 with the addition of Ba-Phalaborwa Local Municipality (see Table 4.16). In August 2016 several of the local municipalities were de-established and amalgamated to form new local municipalities. Data on these new local municipalities was not available post 2016 and has therefore been excluded from the analysis.

Map 4.5: Limpopo Province



Source: National Government of South Africa (2022)

Table 4.16: Predominantly rural local municipalities (Limpopo Province)

	Rural %	
	1994	**2021**
MOPANI DISTRICT	84%	91%
Greater Giyani	86%	86%
Greater Letaba	94%	97%
Greater Tzaneen	88%	89%
Ba-Phalaborwa	44%	92%
Maruleng	99%	97%
VHEMBE DISTRICT	90%	86%
Thulamela	90%	86%
Makhado	94%	92%
CAPRICORN DISTRICT	83%	72%
Blouberg	100%	92%
Molemole	96%	92%
Polokwane	69%	55%
Lepele-Nkumpi	86%	82%
WATERBERG DISTRICT	71%	49%
Lephalale	79%	57%
Mogalakwena	80%	72%
GREATER SEKHUKHUNE DISTRICT	94%	95%
Makhuduthamaga	96%	100%
Ephraim Mogale	86%	93%
Elias Motsoaledi	90%	93%
Greater Tubatse	99%	91%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022j)

In 1994 and in 2021 Mopani was the only District Council which consisted of only rural local municipalities. The most predominantly rural local municipality in 1994 was Blouberg Local Municipality (100%) and by 2021 Makhuduthamaga Local Municipality was the most rural (100%). The least predominantly rural in both 1994 and 2021 was Polokwane Local Municipality. The degree of rurality has decreased since 1994 in 10 (59%) of the rural local municipalities, stayed the same in one (5%) and increased in six (35%) (see Table 4.16).

4.4.2.1 FPL - Poverty Headcount Index (Limpopo Province)

The FPL Poverty Headcount Index has improved in all the rural local municipalities, the province, and in the country since 1994 (see Appendix 6). This indicates that monetary poverty has declined in these areas. Table 4.17 shows that since 1994, the number of rural local municipalities with Poverty Headcount Indexes lower than the province and the country has increased. This suggests that monetary poverty in the rural local municipalities has decreased more than in the province and the country. Such findings are similar to that highlighted for the North West Province (see Section 4.4.1.1).

Table 4.17: Comparison of Poverty Headcount Index (Limpopo Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with Poverty Headcount Indexes less than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	10 (59%)	3 (18%)
2021	15 (88%)	16 (94%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022g)

Table 4.18 highlights the rural local municipalities with the highest and lowest levels of monetary poverty. Interestingly the highest level of monetary poverty in 2021 was in Lephalale Local Municipality (according to Table 4.16 this local municipality was the least rural in 2021). However, there are a great deal of employment opportunities in Lephalale with the mines and power stations and maybe this is attracting migrants from the more rural areas of the province who are looking for work and better access to services. The lowest levels of monetary poverty in 1994 and 2021 were in the Thulamela Local Municipality. The seat of this local municipality is Thohoyandou which used to be the capital of the former homeland of Venda. More detailed data regarding the Poverty Headcount Index is provided in Appendix 6.

Table 4.18: FPL - Poverty Headcount Index (Limpopo Province)

	Year	Local Municipality	Poverty Headcount Index
Highest levels of poverty	1994	Maruleng	59%
	2021	Lephalale	34%
Lowest levels of poverty	1994	Thulamela	27%
	2021	Thulamela, Molemole	13%
		Local Municipality	**Annualised change (%)**
Best annualised change (%)		Blouberg	-4,30%
Worst annualised change (%)		Lephalale	0.0%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

4.4.2.2 HDI (Limpopo Province)

The HDI declined in 82% (or 14) of the rural local municipalities indicating that multidimensional poverty has increased in the majority of the rural areas since 1994. The annualised decline was between 0.01% and 0.04%. Lephalale Local Municipality was the only local municipality to show an improvement in their HDI. The HDI for the province also declined by 0.01% during the same time period despite the HDI for the country improving by 0.3% (see Appendix 7).

Table 4.19 shows that since 1994 all the rural local municipalities had HDI values greater than the province, but not greater than the country. This implies that

multidimensional poverty (measured by HDI) has been consistently lower in these rural municipalities when compared to the province, but not when compared to the country.

Table 4.19: Comparison of HDI (Limpopo Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with HDI greater than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	17 (100%)	8 (47%)
2021	17 (100%)	0 (0%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The highest HDI in 1994 was in Greater Giyani, Greater Letaba, Maruleng, Makhado and Polokwane Local Municipalities. By 2021 the highest HDI was only in Polokwane and Lephalale Local Municipalities. The lowest HDI in 1994 was in Blouberg, Molemole, Ephraim Mogale and Greater Tubatse Local Municipalities. By 2021 the lowest HDI was only in Greater Tubatse Local Municipality (see Table 4.20). More detailed data regarding the HDI is provided in Appendix 7.

One of the main reasons for the decline in the HDI in the rural local municipalities was the health dimension part of the HDI. Since 1994 life expectancy has declined in 82% of the rural local municipalities with annualised decreases of between 0.01% and 0.03%. Life expectancy also declined for the province. This implies that the health dimension of the HDI has worsened in the majority of these rural areas and in the province since 1994 (see Appendix 7).

Table 4.21 shows a comparison of the life expectancy rates for the rural local municipalities, the province and the country in 1994 and 2020. Life expectancy rates (and therefore the health dimension) in the rural local municipalities has declined over the years when compared to the province and the national figures.

Table 4.21: Comparison of life expectancy (Limpopo Province)

Number and percentage of rural municipalities with life expectancy greater than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	17 (100%)	17 (100%)
2020	6 (35%)	0 (0%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The highest and lowest life expectancy figures amongst the rural local municipalities are shown in Table 4.20. Interestingly, Greater Tubatse Local Municipality had the lowest figures in 1994 (65 years) and 2020 (64.5 years) indicating that the poorest health dimensions were to be found in this relatively more rural local municipality.

The education dimension has improved in all the rural local municipalities since 1994. However, the mean years of schooling has been far lower than the expected years of schooling. Overall, 59% (or 10) of the rural local municipalities had a better annualised growth in the mean years of schooling dimension than the province. In total 100% (or 17) of the rural local municipalities had a better annualised growth in the mean years of schooling dimension than the country. This implies that the education dimension has been addressed at a faster rate in the majority of the rural local municipalities than in the province and the country (see Appendix 7).

Table 4.22 shows a comparison of the mean years of schooling for the rural local municipalities, the province and the country in 1994 and 2020. The mean years of schooling dimension for the rural local municipalities has not performed as well against the national as it has against the provincial figures. Polokwane was the only rural local municipality which performed better than the provincial and national statistics. Polokwane Local Municipality was the least rural local municipality in 2021 (55%) (see Table 4.16).

Table 4.22: Comparison of mean years of schooling (Limpopo Province)

Number and percentage of rural municipalities with mean years of schooling greater than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	5 (29%)	1 (5%)
2020	4 (24%)	1 (5%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The highest mean years of schooling in 1994 and in 2020 was in Polokwane Local Municipality (Polokwane is the capital of the province). The lowest was in Blouberg and Greater Letaba Local Municipalities in 1994 and again in Blouberg Local Municipality in 2020 (see Table 4.20). In 2021 both Blouberg and Greater Letaba Local Municipalities were amongst the most rural of the local municipalities in the province.

The standard of living dimension (measured by GNI per capita) improved in all the rural local municipalities and in the province. In total 26% (or four) of the rural local municipalities had a better annualised GNI per capita growth than the province and 100% (or 17) had better than the country. This implies that the standard of living dimension has also improved at a faster rate in all the rural local municipalities than in the country but not in the province (see Appendix 7).

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Table 4.20: HDI (Limpopo Province)

	HDI		HEALTH DIMENSION		EDUCATION DIMENSION				STANDARD OF LIVING DIMENSION	
			Life expectancy		Expected years of schooling		Mean years of schooling		GNI per capita (Rand)	
	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value
Highest value										
1994	Greater Giyani, Greater Letaba, Maruleng, Makhado, Polokwane	0,695	Greater Giyani, Greater Letaba, Makhado, Polokwane	65,2 yrs	Thulamela	12,8 yrs	Polokwane	6,8 yrs	Ba-Phalaborwa	R16 264
2020	Polokwane, Lephalale	0,695	Polokwane	65,2 yrs	Greater Giyani, Blouberg, Makhuduthamaga	14,5 yrs	Polokwane	9,4 yrs	Ba-Phalaborwa	R24 700
Lowest value										
1994	Blouberg, Molemole, Ephraim Mogale, Greater Tubatse	0,693	Blouberg, Molemole, Ephraim Mogale, Elias Motsoaledi, Greater Tubatse	65 yrs	Maruleng	10,9 yrs	Greater Letaba, Blouberg	3,3 yrs	Makhuduthamaga	R2 187
2020	Greater Tubatse	0,685	Greater Tubatse	64.5 yrs	Lephalale	13,7 yrs	Blouberg	5,8 yrs	Makhuduthamaga	R2 958
Best annualised change (%)	Lephalale	0,01%	Ba-Phalaborwa, Polokwane, Lephalale	0%	Maruleng	0,44%	Greater Tubatse	3,10%	Lepele-Nkumpi	1,85%
Worst annualised change (%)	Greater Giyani, Greater Letaba, Thulamela, Makhuduthamaga, Greater Tubatse	-0,04%	Greater Giyani, Greater Letaba, Thulamela, Greater Tubatse	-0,03%	Molemole	0,44%	Ba-Phalaborwa	1,20%	Thulamela	0,75%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

Table 4.23 shows that there were a small number of rural local municipalities which had GNI per capita figures greater than the province and the country. This indicates that the standard of living in most of the rural local municipalities was lower than the province and the country. The highest GNI per capita in 1994 and 2020 was in Ba-Phalaborwa Local Municipality, whereas the lowest in both years was in Makhuduthamaga Local Municipality (see Appendix 7).

Table 4.23: Comparison of GNI per capita (Limpopo Province)

Number and percentage of rural municipalities with GNI per capita greater than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	4 (24%)	1 (5%)
2020	4 (24%)	3 (18%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

4.4.2.3 Other socio-economic indicators (Limpopo Province)

The dependency ratio for the province improved from 84 in 2001 to 67 in 2016. The ratio also improved in 94% (or 16) of the rural local municipalities. The only rural local municipality where it did not improve was in Mogalakwena (see Appendix 8). The highest dependency ratio in 2001 and 2016 was in Blouberg Local Municipality. The lowest dependency ratios in 2001 and 2016 were Ba-Phalaborwa and Lephalale Local Municipalities respectively (see Table 4.25).

Table 4.24 shows that the number of rural local municipalities with higher dependency ratios than the province and the country has declined over time.

Table 4.24: Comparison of dependency ratios (Limpopo Province)

Number and percentage of rural municipalities with higher dependency ratios than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	8 (47%)	16 (94%)
2020	5 (29%)	13 (76%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The SAMPI scores show that multidimensional poverty has decreased in all the rural local municipalities and in the province since 2001. This data correlates with the FPL Poverty Headcount Index data (see Section 4.4.2.1). Overall, 47% (or eight) of the rural local municipalities had a better SAMPI value than the province in 2001, and by 2016 this number had dropped to 24% (or four). The only three rural local municipalities that had better SAMPI values than the province in both 2001 and 2016 were Polokwane, Molemole, and Lephalale (see Appendix 8). The lowest levels of multidimensional poverty in 2001 were in Molemole and Lephalale Local Municipalities (0.06) and in 2016 was in Polokwane Local Municipality (0.02). The highest levels in 2001 were in Greater Giyani (0.14) and in 2016 were in Greater Giyani again and Makhuduthamaga Local Municipalities (0.07) (see Table 4.25).

The Gini coefficient for the province and for 88% (or 15) of the rural local municipalities deteriorated over the period 1994-2019 indicating growing levels of income inequality. In addition, all the rural local municipalities in 2019 had Gini coefficients which were greater than 0.5 showing great income inequality (see Appendix 8). The highest Gini coefficient (and therefore showing the greatest income inequality) in 1994 was in Ba-Phalaborwa Local Municipality (0.76) and in 2016 was in Lephalale Local Municipality (0.82). The Gini coefficients were lowest in the more rural local municipalities of Makhuduthamaga (1994) and Greater Letaba (2019) (see Table 4.25).

The rate of unemployment between 1994 and 2020 increased in the province and in all the rural local municipalities. There were annualised percentage increases in unemployment of between 1.2% (Makhuduthamaga Local Municipality) and 3.8% (Lephalale Local Municipality). Seven (or 41%) of the local municipalities had greater annualised growth in unemployment than the province. Five (or 29%) of the local municipalities had greater annualised growth in unemployment than the country (see Appendix 8). In 2019 unemployment rates ranged between 22% in Lephalale Local Municipality to 62% in Makhuduthamaga Local Municipality (the most rural municipality in 2019). However, unemployment grew at a faster rate in Lephalale Local Municipality which was one of the least rural of the local municipalities (see Table 4.25).

Table 4.25: Other socio-economic indicators (Limpopo Province)

	Dependency ratio		SAMPI			Gini coefficient		Unemployment	
	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value		Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value
Highest value					**Highest value**				
2001	Blouberg	99	Greater Giyani	0,14	**1994**	Ba-Phalaborwa	0,760	Makhuduthamaga	45%
2016	Blouberg	89	Greater Giyani, Makhuduthamaga	0,07	**2019**	Lephalale	0,820		
					2020			Makhuduthamaga	62%
Lowest value					**Lowest value**				
2001	Ba-Phalaborwa	58	Molemole, Lephalale	0,06	**1994**	Makhuduthamaga	0,510	Lephalale	8%
2016	Lephalale	48	Polokwane	0,02	**2019**	Greater Letaba	0,570		
					2020			Lephalale	22%
Greatest/best annualised change (%)	Greater Tubatse	-3,4%	Polokwane	-7,5%	**Greatest/best annualised change (%)**	Ba-Phalaborwa, Blouberg	-0,1%	Makhuduthamaga	1,2%
Lowest/worst annualised change (%)	Mogalakwena	0,4%	Makhuduthamaga	0,70%	**Lowest/worst annualised change (%)**	Greater Tubatse	1,30%	Lephalale	3,8%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

4.4.2.4 Living conditions (Limpopo Province)

The provision of electricity for lighting has improved in all the rural local municipalities since 2001. Annualised improvements of between 0.7% and 5.7% were noted. In 2001 between 47.1% and 74.7% of the residents in the rural local municipalities had access to electricity. By 2016 these values had increased to between 83.2% and 98.2%. However, the figures were not so high for the provision of flush toilets or piped water in houses. The provision of flush toilets decreased in 41% (or seven) of the rural local municipalities and the provision of piped water decreased in 29% (or five) of the rural local municipalities between 2001 and 2016 (see Appendix 9). The highest percentage of rural residents with a flush toilet in 2001 was Ba-Phalaborwa Local Municipality (40.2%) and in 2016 was Polokwane and Lephalale Local Municipalities (40.4%). The lowest percentage in 2001 (2%) and 2016 (2.9%) was in Makhuduthamaga Local Municipality. The highest percentage of rural residents with piped water in 2001 and 2016 was in Ba-Phalaborwa Local Municipality whilst the lowest in 2001 was in Makhuduthamaga Local Municipality and in 2016 was in Blouberg Local Municipality (see Table 4.26).

Residents paying off/owning their own houses has also continued to increase in all but one of the rural local municipalities and the number of residents living in formal dwellings increased in all the rural local municipalities. However, the provision of weekly refuse removal decreased in 18% (or three) of the rural local municipalities during the same time. The highest percentage of rural residents with weekly refuse removal in 2001 was Ba-Phalaborwa Local Municipality and in 2016 was in Lephalale Local Municipality whilst the lowest in both years was in Makhuduthamaga Local Municipality (see Table 4.26). Again, there are examples of unequal service provision. An example of such was in Makhuduthamaga Local Municipality where in 2016, 77.7% of the residents owned/paying off their house and an even greater number lived in formal dwellings (88.8%) but only 1.3% had weekly refuse removal, 2.9% had flush toilets and 3.4% had piped water (see Appendix 9).

Table 4.26: Living conditions (Limpopo Province)

	Electricity for lighting		Paying off/own house		Formal dwelling		Flush toilet		Piped water		Refuse removal	
	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value
Highest value												
2001	Ephraim Mogale	80,3%	Lepele-Nkumpi	71,9%	Molemole	92,2%	Ba-Phalaborwa	40,2%	Ba-Phalaborwa	29,5%	Ba-Phalaborwa	41,6%
2016	Ba-Phalaborwa	98,2%	Thulamela	87,0%	Ba-Phalaborwa	96,7%	Polokwane, Lephalale	40,4%	Ba-Phalaborwa	30,6%	Lephalale	44,5%
Lowest value												
2001	Greater Tubatse	47,1%	Lephalale	41,1%	Greater Giyani	44,6%	Makhuduthamaga	2,0%	Makhuduthamaga	1,2%	Makhuduthamaga	0,6%
2016	Lephalale	83,2%	Lephalale	41,6%	Lephalale	76,3%	Makhuduthamaga	2,9%	Blouberg	1,4%	Makhuduthamaga	1,3%
Best annualised change (%)	Blouberg	5,7%	Mogalakwena	4,1%	Greater Giyani	4,6%	Molemole	3,7%	Makhuduthamaga	7,2%	Blouberg	17,4%
Worst annualised change (%)	Elias Motsoaledi	0,7%	Ephraim Mogale	-0,1%	Lephalale	0,0%	Maruleng	-7,8%	Blouberg	-5,7%	Molemole	-3,0%

Source: National Government of South Africa (2022); Statistics South Africa (2001 & 2022)

4.4.2.5 Summary (Limpopo Province)

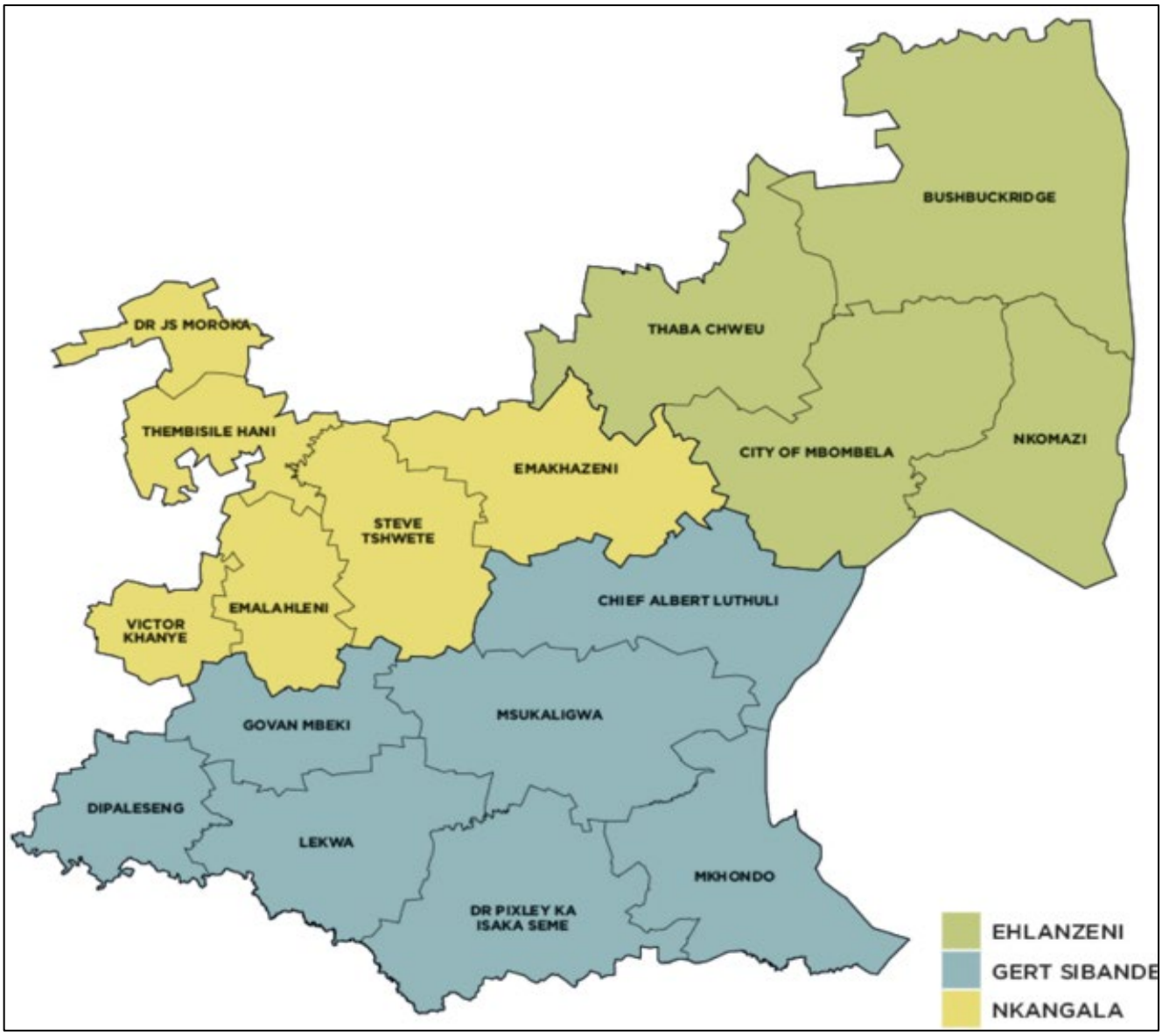
Both money metric poverty (FPL) and multidimensional poverty (measured by SAMPI) have declined since 1994 in all the rural local municipalities in the province. However, multidimensional poverty (according to HDI) has increased. The rural local municipalities which showed the greatest levels of poverty (as highlighted by the data examined in this section of the chapter) in 1994 and again in 2021 were Blouberg and Makhuduthamaga, whilst Lephalale, Polokwane, and Ba-Phalaborwa Local Municipalities showed the least levels of poverty.

4.4.3 The rural poverty picture in Mpumalanga Province

Mpumalanga is the second-smallest province in South Africa after Gauteng. It is located in the north-eastern part of the country and shares international borders with Swaziland and Mozambique. It shares provincial borders with Limpopo, Gauteng, Free State, and KwaZulu-Natal Provinces. It is the sixth most populous province in the country and includes parts of the old Transvaal and the former homelands of KaNgwane, Gazankulu and Lebowa (National Government of South Africa, 2022). The province is now divided into three district municipalities and 17 local municipalities (refer to Map 4.6).

Out of 17 local municipalities in the province, seven (or 41%) were considered to be predominantly rural in 1994 and 2021. Ehlanzani District has the greatest number of rural local municipalities (three out of four) in both time periods. The most predominantly rural local municipality in the province in 1994 was Thembisile Hani (94%) whilst the least rural was Mkhondo (59%). In 2021 Dr JS Moroka Local Municipality was the most rural (95%); the least rural was Mkhondo Local Municipality (53%). The degree of rurality has decreased since 1994 in two (29%) of the rural local municipalities and increased in five (71%) of the rural local municipalities (see Table 4.27).

Map 4.6: Mpumalanga Province



Source: National Government of South Africa (2022)

Table 4.27: Predominantly rural local municipalities (Mpumalanga Province)

	Rural %	
	1994	**2021**
GERT SIBANDE DISTRICT	36%	30%
Albert Luthuli	80%	84%
Mkhondo	59%	53%
NKANGALA DISTRICT	47%	39%
Thembisile Hani	94%	74%
Dr JS Moroka	84%	95%
EHLANZENI DISTRICT	78%	84%
Mbombela	67%	83%
Nkomazi	91%	94%
Bushbuckridge	91%	94%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022j)

4.4.3.1 FPL - Poverty Headcount Index (Mpumalanga Province)

The FPL Poverty Headcount Index has improved in 71% (or five) of the rural local municipalities since 1994. This indicates that monetary poverty has declined in these areas. The only local municipalities which did not show any improvement were Albert Luthuli and Dr JS Moroka (see Appendix 10). Table 4.28 shows that since 1994, the number of rural local municipalities with Poverty Headcount Indexes lower than the province and the country has not changed.

Table 4.28: Comparison of Poverty Headcount Index (Mpumalanga Province)

Number and percentage of rural municipalities with Poverty Headcount Indexes less than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	4 (57%)	4 (57%)
2020	4 (57%)	4 (57%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022g)

Table 4.29 highlights the rural local municipalities with the highest and lowest levels of monetary poverty. In 1994 and 2021 relatively higher levels of monetary poverty were found in the least predominantly rural of the local municipalities namely Mbombela and Mkhondo. Both of these local municipalities were only 83% and 53% rural in 2021 (see Table 4.27).

Table 4.29: FPL - Poverty Headcount Index (Mpumalanga Province)

	Year	Local Municipality	Poverty Headcount Index	
Highest levels of poverty	**1994**	Mbombela	41%	
	2021	Mkhondo	34%	
Lowest levels of poverty	**1994**	Dr JS Moroka	26%	
	2021	Bushbuckridge	16%	
		Local Municipality	**Annualised change (%)**	
Best annualised change (%)		Nkomazi	-2,90%	
Worst annualised change (%)		Dr JS Moroka	0,20%	

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022g)

On the other hand, relatively lower levels of poverty were found in the more predominantly rural municipalities of Dr JS Moroka and Bushbuckridge. Both of these local municipalities were 95% and 94% rural in 2021 (see Table 4.27). More detailed data regarding the Poverty Headcount Index is provided in Appendix 10.

4.4.3.2 HDI (Mpumalanga Province)

The HDI improved in all the rural local municipalities and in the province indicating that multidimensional poverty has decreased since 1994. The annualised increase in the HDI figures was between 0.23% (Thembisile Hani Local Municipality) and 0.35% (Mbombela Local Municipality) (see Appendix 11).

Table 4.30 shows that since 1994 there has only been one rural local municipality with an HDI value greater than the province and none greater than the country. This local municipality is Mbombela which is the capital of the province.

Table 4.30: Comparison of HDI (Mpumalanga Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with HDI greater than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	2 (29%)	0 (0%)
2020	1 (14%)	0 (0%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The highest HDI in 1994 and 2020 was in Mbombela Local Municipality whilst the lowest was in Thembisile Hani Local Municipality (1994 and 2020) and Dr JS Moroka Local Municipality (1994) (see Table 4.31).

Table 4.31: HDI (Mpumalanga Province)

	HDI		HEALTH DIMENSION		EDUCATION DIMENSION				STANDARD OF LIVING DIMENSION	
			Life expectancy		Expected years of schooling		Mean years of schooling		GNI per capita (Rand)	
	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value
Highest value										
1994	Mbombela	0,639	Mbombela	61,5 yrs	Thembisile Hani	12,8 yrs	Mbombela	6 yrs	Mbombela	R11 461
2020	Mbombela	0,699	Mbombela	65,4 yrs	Bushbuckridge	14,4 yrs	Mbombela	8,6 yrs	Mbombela	R13 132
Lowest value										
1994	Thembisile Hani, Dr JS Moroka	0,623	Thembisile Hani, Dr JS Moroka	60,5 yrs	Mkhondo	11,5 yrs	Nkomazi	3,7 yrs	Bushbuckridge	R3 150
2020	Thembisile Hani	0,662	Thembisile Hani, Dr JS Moroka	63,1 yrs	Mkhondo	12,9 yrs	Nkomazi	6,4 yrs	Bushbuckridge	R4 165
Best annualised change (%)	Mbombela	0,35%	Mbombela	0,24%	Bushbuckridge	0,58%	Nkomazi	2,13%	Nkomazi	1.17%
Worst annualised change (%)	Thembisile Hani	0,23%	Thembisile Hani, Dr JS Moroka	0,16%	Thembisile Hani	0,35%	Mbombela	1,39%	Mkhondo	-0,74%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The health dimension has improved in all the rural local municipalities and in the province since 1994. Table 4.32 shows a comparison of the life expectancy rates for the rural local municipalities, the province and the country in 1994 and 2020. Life expectancy rates (and therefore the health dimension) in the rural local municipalities has been consistently lower than the provincial and national figures since 1994.

Table 4.32: Comparison of life expectancy (Mpumalanga Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with life expectancy greater than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	1 (14%)	0 (0%)
2020	1 (14%)	0 (0%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

Mbombela Local Municipality had the highest life expectancy in both 1994 and 2020 whilst Thembisile Hani and Dr JS Moraka Local Municipalities had the lowest life expectancy during the same time period (see Table 4.31).

The education dimension has also improved in all the rural local municipalities since 1994. However, the mean years of schooling has been far lower than the expected years of schooling. All of the rural local municipalities had a better annualised growth in the mean years of schooling dimension than the province and the country. This implies that the education dimension has been addressed at a faster rate in the majority of the rural local municipalities than in the province and the country (see Appendix 11).

Table 4.33 shows a comparison of the mean years of schooling for the rural local municipalities, the province and the country in 1994 and 2020. The mean years of schooling dimension for the rural local municipalities has not performed as well against the provincial and the national figures.

Table 4.33: Comparison of mean years of schooling (Mpumalanga Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with mean years of schooling greater than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	1 (14%)	0 (0%)
2020	1 (14%)	0 (0%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The highest mean years of schooling in 1994 and 2020 was in Mbombela Local Municipality and the lowest was in Nkomazi Local Municipality (see Table 4.31).

The standard of living dimension (measured by GNI per capita) improved in all the rural local municipalities except in Mkhondo and Thembisile Hani where it declined annually by 0.74% and 0.67% respectively. Three (or 43%) of the rural local municipalities had a better annualised GNI per capita growth than the province and the country. This implies that the standard of living dimension has also improved at a faster rate in the majority of the rural local municipalities than in the province and the country (see Appendix 11 and Table 4.31). The highest GNI per capita in both 1994 and 2020 was in Mbombela Local Municipality whilst the lowest was in Bushbuckridge Local Municipality.

Table 4.34 shows that there was only one rural local municipality (Mbombela Local Municipality) which had GNI per capita figures greater than the province and the country. This indicates that the standard of living in the rural local municipalities was generally lower than the province and the country. The highest GNI per capita in 1994 (R11 461) and 2020 (R13 232) was in Mbombela Local Municipality, whereas the lowest in 1994 (R3 150) and 2020 (R4 165) was in Bushbuckridge Local Municipality (see Appendix 11).

Table 4.34: Comparison of GNI per capita (Mpumalanga Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with GNI per capita greater than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	1 (14%)	0 (0%)
2020	1 (14%)	1 (14%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The standard of living dimension improved in all the rural local municipalities except Mkhondo and Thembisile Hani where it declined annually by 0.74% and 0.67% respectively. The highest GNI per capita in both 1994 and 2020 was in Mbombela Local Municipality whilst the lowest was in Bushbuckridge Local Municipality (see Table 4.31).

4.4.3.3 Other socio-economic indicators (Mpumalanga Province)

The dependency ratio for the province improved from 69 in 2001 to 53 in 2016. The ratio also improved in all of the rural local municipalities (see Appendix 12). The highest dependency ratio in 2001 and 2016 was in Bushbuckridge Local Municipality which is very rural, whilst the lowest was in Mbombela Local Municipality in 2001 and Thembisile Hani Local Municipality in 2016 - both of which are less rural (see Table 4.35).

Table 4.36 shows that the majority of the rural local municipalities had higher dependency ratios than the province and the country in both 2001 and 2016.

Table 4.36: Comparison of dependency ratios (Mpumalanga Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with higher dependency ratios than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
2001	6 (86%)	7 (100%)
2016	6 (86%)	6 (86%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The SAMPI values show that multidimensional poverty has declined in all the rural local municipalities and in the province since 2001. This data correlates with the Poverty Headcount Index data (see Section 4.4.3.1). Only 29% (or two) of the rural local municipalities had a better SAMPI value than the province in 2001 and in 2016 and they were Thembisile Hani and Mbombela Local Municipalities (see Appendix 12).

The lowest levels of multidimensional poverty (according to the SAMPI value) in 2001 and 2016 were in Thembisile Hani and Mbombela Local Municipalities. The highest level of multidimensional poverty in 2001 and 2016 was in Mkhondo Local Municipality (see Table 4.35).

There was a deterioration in the Gini coefficient for the province and for all the rural local municipalities between 1994 and 2019. This indicates growing levels of income inequality. In addition, 57% (or four) of the rural local municipalities had Gini coefficients in 2019 which were greater than 0.5 showing again the great income inequality (see Appendix 12). The highest Gini coefficient (and therefore showing the greatest income inequality) in 1994 and again in 2019 was in Mbombela Local Municipality which as stated earlier is the capital of the province. The Gini coefficient of this particular local municipality was higher than the province in both 1994 and 2019, and higher than the country in 2019. The Gini coefficients were lower in the more rural local municipalities of Thembisile Hani, Dr JS Moroka and Bushbuckridge (see Table 4.35).

The rate of unemployment between 1994 and 2020 increased in the country, the province, and in all the rural local municipalities. There were annualised percentage increases in unemployment of between 2.9% (Bushbuckridge Local Municipality) and 5.0% (Mkhondo Local Municipality) (see Appendix 12). Table 4.37 shows that the majority of the rural local municipalities had unemployment rates which were greater than the province and the country in both 2001 and 2016.

Table 4.37: Comparison of unemployment rates (Mpumalanga Province)

	Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with higher unemployment rates than:	
Year	**Province**	**National**
2001	4 (57%)	4 (57%)
2016	5 (71%)	6 (86%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The highest unemployment rate in 1994 was in Bushbuckridge (26.67%) and in 2020 was in Dr JS Moroka Local Municipalities (49.4%). The lowest unemployment rate in 1994 was in Mkohondo Local Municipality (9.69%) and in 2020 was in Mbombela Local Municipality (24.29%) (see Table 4.35).

Table 4.35: Other socio-economic indicators (Mpumalanga Province)

	Dependency ratio		SAMPI			Gini coefficient		Unemployment	
	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value		Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value
Highest value					**Highest value**				
2001	Bushbuckridge	88	Mkhondo	0,14	**1994**	Mbombela	0,630	Bushbuckridge	27%
2016	Bushbuckridge	81	Mkhondo	0,05	**2019**	Mbombela	0,700		
					2020			Dr JS Moroka	49%
Lowest value					**Lowest value**				
2001	Mbombela	63	Dr JS Moroka	0,06	**1994**	Dr JS Moroka	0,420	Mkhondo	10%
2016	Thembisile Hani	53	Thembisile Hani, Mbombela	0,02	**2019**	Thembisile Hani, Dr JS Moroka	0,500		
					2020			Mbombela	24%
Greatest/best annualised change (%)	Thembisile Hani	-2,0%	Nkomazi	8,8%	**Greatest/best annualised change (%)**	Mkhondo, Mbombela	0,4%	Bushbuckridge	2,2%
Lowest/worst annualised change (%)	Bushbuckridge	-0,6%	Dr JS Moroka	2,70%	**Lowest/worst annualised change (%)**	Dr JS Moroka	0,70%	Mkhondo	5,0%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

4.4.3.4 Living conditions (Mpumalanga Province)

The provision of electricity for lighting has improved in all the rural local municipalities since 2001. Annualised improvements of between 1.2% and 6.8% were noted (see Appendix 13). Between 25.6% and 84.1% of the residents in the rural local municipalities had access to electricity for lighting in 2001. By 2016 these values had increased to between 77.1% and 96.5%. Similar statistics are noted regarding progress made in the access to a formal dwelling and owning/paying off a house (see Table 4.38).

Progress has also been made in all but one of the rural local municipalities (Nkomazi Local Municipality) regarding the provision of a flush toilet in the house. The highest percentage of rural residents with a flush toilet in 2001 and 2016 was in Mkhondo Local Municipality whilst the lowest in 2001 was in Bushbuckridge Local Municipality and in 2016 was in Nkomazi Local Municipality. However, the provision of piped water to houses has deteriorated in all the rural local municipalities since 1996 with the worst deterioration being seen in Nkomazi Local Municipality. Weekly refuse removal has also decreased in 29% of the rural local municipalities since 1996. The highest percentage of rural residents with refuse removal in 2001 and 2016 was in Mkhondo Local Municipality whilst the lowest in the same time period was in Bushbuckridge Local Municipality (see Table 4.38).

Despite some progress being made in extending access to various services, the percentage of rural residents who have access to flush toilets, piped water and refuse removal is still very low and out of sync with the access to electricity and housing. An example of such is Bushbuckridge Local Municipality which was 94% rural in 2021. In 2016, 96.5% of the residents in this rural local municipality had access to electricity but only 6% to flush toilets, 7% to piped water, and 4% to weekly refuse removal (see Appendix 13).

Table 4.38: Living conditions (Mpumalanga Province)

	Electricity for lighting		Paying off/own house		Formal dwelling		Flush toilet		Piped water		Refuse removal	
	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value
Highest value												
2001	Thembisile Hani	84,1%	Dr JS Moroka	72,1%	Dr JS Moroka	81,0%	Mkhondo	27,7%	Thembisile Hani	67,0%	Mkhondo	29,6%
2016	Bushbuckridge	96,5%	Dr JS Moroka	88,8%	Bushbuckridge	96,0%	Mkhondo	42,8%	Mbombela	25,2%	Mkhondo	38,0%
Lowest value												
2001	Albert Luthuli	25,0%	Mkhondo	39,1%	Mkhondo	37,1%	Bushbuckridge	4,3%	Bushbuckridge	30,0%	Bushbuckridge	5,0%
2016	Mkhondo	77,1%	Mkhondo	55,7%	Mkhondo	75,0%	Nkomazi	4,0%	Nkomazi	6,0%	Bushbuckridge	4,0%
Best annualised change (%)	Albert Luthuli	6,9%	Nkomazi	2,0%	Mkhondo	3,6%	Mkhondo	2,2%	Mkhondo	-3,8%	Nkomazi	2,6%
Worst annualised change (%)	Thembisile Hani	0,7%	Thembisile Hani, Bushbuckridge	0,5%	Dr JS Moroka	0,6%	Nkomazi	-3,2%	Nkomazi	-10,1%	Dr JS Moroka	-3,8%

Source: National Government of South Africa (2022); Statistics South Africa (2001 & 2022)

4.4.3.5 Summary (Mpumalanga Province)

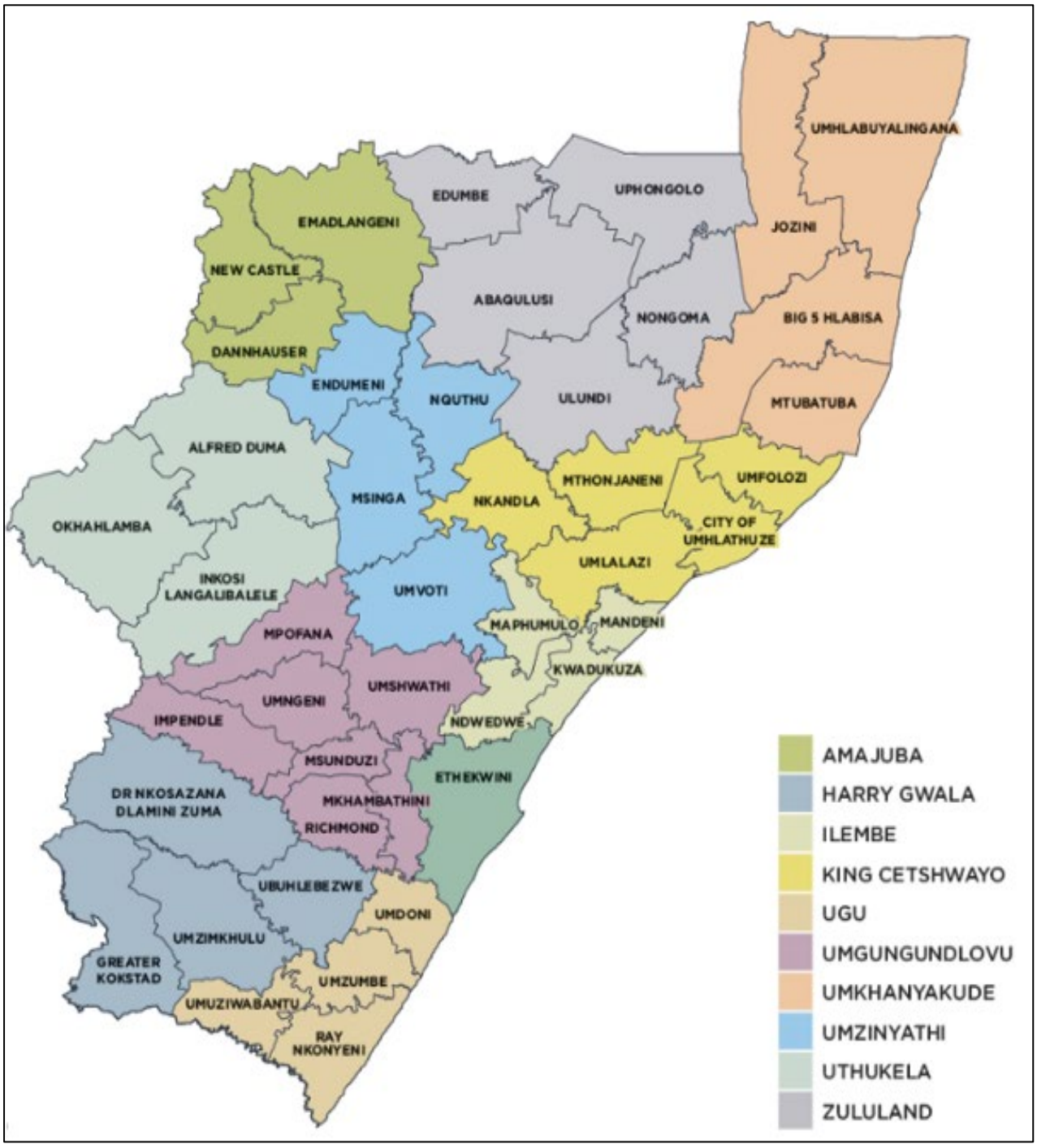
Money metric poverty (FPL) measurements indicate that poverty has not decreased in all the rural municipalities with Albert Luthuli and Dr JS Moroka Local Municipalities showing an increase in the Poverty Headcount Index in 2021. However, according to other multidimensional measurements of poverty namely the HDI and SAMPI, multidimensional poverty has declined throughout the rural local municipalities. The local municipality which showed the greatest levels of poverty was Dr JS Moroka in 1994 and again in 2021, whilst Mkhondo and Mbombela Local Municipalities showed the least levels of poverty.

4.4.4 The rural poverty picture in KwaZulu-Natal Province

KwaZulu-Natal Province is located in the south-east of South Africa. It shares provincial borders with the Eastern Cape, Free State and Mpumalanga Provinces, and international borders with Lesotho, Swaziland, and Mozambique. It is the third smallest province in terms of land size but is the second most populous province (National Government of South Africa, 2022). Before 1994 the province was part of the old Natal Province and the homeland state of KwaZulu. The province is now divided into one metropolitan municipality (eThekwini Metropolitan Municipality), 10 district municipalities and 43 local municipalities (see Map 4.7).

Out of 42 local municipalities in the province, 76% were predominantly rural in 1994 and this increased to 79% by 2021. Several District Councils namely Ugu, Zululand, uMkhanyakude, and uThungulu are comprised of only predominantly rural local municipalities (see Table 4.39).

Map 4.7: KwaZulu-Natal Province



Source: National Government of South Africa (2022)

Table 4.39: Predominantly rural local municipalities (KwaZulu-Natal Province)

	Rural %	
	1994	**2021**
UGU DISTRICT	50%	44%
Umdoni	79%	78%
Umzumbe	100%	100%
UMuziwabantu	94%	86%
Ray Nkonyeni	56%	62%
UMGUNGUNDLOVU DISTRICT	42%	37%
uMshwathi	93%	85%
Impendle	100%	94%
Mkhambathini	97%	96%
Richmond	85%	71%
UTHUKELA DISTRICT	68%	62%
Okhahlamba	93%	91%
UMZINYATHI DISTRICT	83%	78%
Nqutu	100%	99%
Msinga	100%	99%
Umvoti	81%	73%
AMAJUBA DISTRICT	38%	40%
Emadlangeni	82%	67%
Dannhauser	92%	86%
ZULULAND DISTRICT	82%	74%
eDumbe	87%	65%
UPhongolo	85%	81%
Abaqulusi	61%	53%
Nongoma	99%	93%
Ulundi	84%	79%
UMKHANYAKUDE DISTRICT	95%	90%
Umhlabuyalingana	100%	100%
Jozini	98%	89%
The Big 5 False Bay	95%	82%
Mtubatuba	86%	84%
KING CETSHWAYO DISTRICT	77%	76%
Mfolozi	97%	95%
uMhlathuze	46%	56%
uMlalazi	91%	86%
Mthonjaneni	87%	73%
Nkandla	100%	93%
ILEMBE DISTRICT	72%	57%
Mandeni	61%	75%
Ndwedwe	100%	98%
Maphumulo	100%	100%
HARRY GWALA DISTRICT	85%	72%
Ubuhlebezwe	93%	79%
Umzimkhulu	92%	85%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022j)

The most predominantly rural local municipalities in 1994 were Umzumbe, Impendle, Nqutu, Msinga, Umhlabuyalingana, Nkandla, Ndwedwe and Maphumulo (100%). The least rural local municipality was uMhlathuze (46%) - however, by 2021 this specific local municipality was 56% rural. In 2021 the most rural local municipalities were Umzumbe, Umhlabuyalingana, and Maphumulo (100%); the least predominantly rural was Abaqulusi Local Municipality (53%). Since 1994 the degree of rurality has decreased in 27 (or 82%), stayed the same in three (or 9%) and increased in three (or 9%) rural local municipalities (see Table 4.39).

4.4.4.1 FPL - Poverty Headcount Index (KwaZulu-Natal Province)

The FPL Poverty Headcount Index has improved in all the rural local municipalities, the province, and in the country since 1994 (see Appendix 14). This indicates that monetary poverty has declined in these areas. Table 4.40 shows that since 1994, the number of rural local municipalities with Poverty Headcount Indexes lower than the province and the country has increased.

Table 4.40: Comparison of Poverty Headcount Index (KwaZulu-Natal Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with Poverty Headcount Indexes less than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	12 (38%)	2 (6%)
2021	18 (55%)	22 (67%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022g)

Table 4.41 highlights the rural local municipalities with the highest and lowest levels of monetary poverty. Interestingly, Mandini Local Municipality had the lowest levels of monetary poverty in 1994 and 2021. This local municipality is strategically located midway between Durban and Richards Bay and lies on a development corridor between these two major port cities. The biggest employer in the area is Sappi - the largest paper manufacturer in South Africa. Other areas of employment are

commercial agriculture (sugar cane), manufacturing and plant and machine work (National Government of South Africa, 2022).

Table 4.41: FPL - Poverty Headcount Index (KwaZulu-Natal Province)

	Year	Local Municipality	Poverty Headcount Index
Highest levels of poverty	**1994**	Okhahlamba	62%
	2021	Emadlangeni	41%
Lowest levels of poverty	**1994**	Mandini	27%
	2021	Mandini	17%
		Local Municipality	**Annualised change (%)**
Best annualised change (%)		Impendle	-3,80%
Worst annualised change (%)		Nkandla	0,30%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022g)

More detailed data regarding the Poverty Headcount Index is provided in Appendix 14.

4.4.4.2 HDI (KwaZulu-Natal Province)

The HDI improved in all of the rural local municipalities and in the province indicating that multidimensional poverty has declined since 1994 (see Appendix 15). The highest HDI in 1994 and 2021 was in Umdoni Local Municipality. The lowest HDI in 1994 was in Mfolozi, Ndwedwe, and Maphumulo Local Municipalities and in 2020 was in Umzumbe Local Municipality (see Table 4.42). All these local municipalities had high rates of rurality in 2021 (see Table 4.39).

Table 4.43 shows that since 1994 there have been very few rural local municipalities with HDI values greater than the province and none greater than the country. Those local municipalities where the HDI was higher than the province were Umdoni, Ray Nkonyeni, and uMhlathuze. More detailed data regarding the HDI is provided in Appendix 15.

Table 4.43: Comparison of HDI (KwaZulu-Natal Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with HDI greater than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	3 (6%)	0 (0%)
2020	3 (9%)	0 (0%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The life expectancy (the health dimension) has improved in all the rural local municipalities and in the province since 1994. The annualised improvement in the life expectancy was between 0.03% and 0.22%, whereas the life expectancy for the country and for the province improved by 0.21% and 0.13% respectively (see Appendix 15).

Table 4.44 shows a comparison of the life expectancy rates for the rural local municipalities, the province, and the country in 1994 and 2020. Life expectancy rates (and therefore the health dimension) in the rural local municipalities has been consistently lower than the provincial and national figures since 1994.

Table 4.44: Comparison of life expectancy (KwaZulu-Natal Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with life expectancy greater than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	3 (6%)	0 (0%)
2020	3 (9%)	0 (0%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The highest and lowest life expectancy figures amongst the rural local municipalities are shown in Table 4.42. Interestingly, those local municipalities which had the lowest life expectancy (thus indicating the poorest health dimensions) were to be found in the relatively more rural areas.

The education dimension has improved in all the rural local municipalities and the province since 1994. However, the mean years of schooling has been far lower than the expected years of schooling (see Appendix 15). The mean years of schooling annualised improvement was between 0.9% and 4.07% whereas for the country and the province was 1.11% and 1.36% respectively (see Table 4.42).

The highest mean years of schooling in 1994 and in 2020 was in uMhlathuze Local Municipality (see Table 4.42). The mean years of schooling in this particular local municipality was also greater than provincial and national figures. The lowest mean years of schooling in 1994 and 2020 was in Msinga Local Municipality - a local municipality which was 100% rural in 1994 and 99% rural in 2020 (see Table 4.39).

Table 4.42: HDI (KwaZulu-Natal Province)

	HDI		HEALTH DIMENSION		EDUCATION DIMENSION				STANDARD OF LIVING DIMENSION	
			Life expectancy		Expected years of schooling		Mean years of schooling		GNI per capita (Rand)	
	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value
Highest value										
1994	Umdoni	0,628	Umdoni	60,8 yrs	Dannhauser	12,7 yrs	uMhlathuze	7,2 yrs	uMhlathuze	R15 061
2020	Umdoni	0,682	Umdoni	64,3 yrs	Dannhauser, Umhlabuyalingana	13,8 yrs	uMhlathuze	9,2 yrs	uMhlathuze	R17 957
Lowest value										
1994	Mfolozi, Ndwedwe, Maphumulo	0,583	Dannhauser, Jozini, Mfolozi, Ndwedwe	57,9 yrs	Umhlabuyalingana	10,4 yrs	Msinga	1,7 yrs	Msinga	R979
2020	Umzumbe	0,590	Nqutu, Umzumbe	58,4 yrs	The Big 5 False Bay	12,1 yrs	Msinga	4.8 yrs	Msinga	R1 474
Best annualised change (%)	Umdoni	0,32%	Umdoni	0,22%	Msinga	1,28%	Msinga	4,07%	Nkandla	2.43%
Worst annualised change (%)	Umzumbe, Msinga	0,04%	Umzumbe, Umuziwabantu, Nqutu, Msinga, Nongoma, Ulundi, Nkandla, Mapumulo	0,03%	Impendle	0,00%	Umdoni	0,90%	Mandeni	0.05%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

Table 4.45 shows a comparison of the mean years of schooling for the rural local municipalities, the province and the country in 1994 and 2020. The mean years of schooling dimension for the rural local municipalities has performed poorly against the national and the provincial figures.

Table 4.45: Comparison of mean years of schooling (KwaZulu-Natal Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with mean years of schooling greater than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	1 (3%)	1 (3%)
2020	3 (9%)	1 (3%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The standard of living dimension (measured by GNI per capita) improved in all the rural local municipalities and in the province. The annualised growth in this indicator for the local municipalities was between 0.05% and 2.43% whereas it was 0.59% for the province and 0.24% for the country (see Appendix 15).

Table 4.46 shows that there were a small number of rural local municipalities which had GNI per capita figures greater than the province, and only one (uMhlathuze Local Municipality) which was greater than the national figure. This indicates that the standard of living in the rural local municipalities was generally lower than the province and the country. The highest GNI per capita in 1994 (R15 061) and 2020 (R17 957) was in uMhlathuze Local Municipality, whereas the lowest in 1994 (R979) and 2020 (R1 474) was in Msinga Local Municipality which was 99% rural in 2021 (see Table 4.39).

Table 4.46: Comparison of GNI per capita (KwaZulu-Natal Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with GNI per capita greater than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	3 (9%)	1 (3%)
2020	2 (6%)	1 (3%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

4.4.4.3 Other socio-economic indicators (KwaZulu-Natal Province)

The dependency ratio has improved in the province and in 64% (or 12) of the rural local municipalities since 1994 (see Appendix 16). The highest dependency ratios in 2001 and in 2016 were in Msinga and Nkandla Local Municipalities respectively - two very rural municipalities. The lowest dependency ratios were in uMhlathuze (2001) and Mandeni Local Municipalities (2016) which are both far less rural (see Table 4.48).

Table 4.47 shows that the number of rural local municipalities with higher dependency ratios than the province and the country has increased over time.

Table 4.47: Comparison of dependency ratios (KwaZulu-Natal Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with higher dependency ratios than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
2001	25 (78%)	31 (97%)
2016	33 (100%)	33 (100%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The SAMPI values showed lower levels of multidimensional poverty in all the rural local municipalities and the province between 2001 and 2016. This data correlates with the Poverty Headcount Index data (see Section 4.4.4.1). None of the rural local municipalities had a better SAMPI value than the province in 2001 and only 3% (or one) in 2016 (see Appendix 16).

The lowest levels of multidimensional poverty (according to the SAMPI value) in 2001 and 2016 were in uMhlathuze Local Municipality. The highest levels in 2001 and 2016 were in Msinga Local Municipality (see Table 4.48).

The Gini coefficient has increased in 76% (or 25) of the rural local municipalities since 1994. In addition, 48% (or 16) of the rural local municipalities had Gini coefficients greater than 0.5 in 1994 indicating great inequality - this had increased to 88% (or 29 local municipalities) by 2019 (see Appendix 16). This again shows increased income inequality. In 1994 and again in 2019 only 3% (or one) of the rural local municipalities had a Gini coefficient greater than the province and that was in uMhlathuze Local Municipality (see Table 4.48).

The rate of unemployment has increased in 88% (or 29) of the rural local municipalities since 1994. The annualised increase in the unemployment rate was between 0.6% and 3.8% whereas for the province it was 2%. In 1994, 64% (or 21) of all the rural local municipalities had unemployment rates greater than the province. By 2020 this figure had increased to 73% (or 24 local municipalities) (see Appendix 16). The highest unemployment rates in 1994 were in Nqutu and Msinga Local Municipalities (54.4%) whilst the lowest was in Mkhambathini Local Municipality (11.8%). By 2020 the highest unemployment rates were in Umzumbe Local Municipality (52.3%) and the lowest in uMshwathi Local Municipality (24.2%) (see Table 4.48).

Table 4.48: Other socio-economic indicators (KwaZulu-Natal Province)

	Dependency ratio		SAMPI			Gini coefficient		Unemployment	
	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value		Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value
Highest value					**Highest value**				
2001	Msinga	112	Msinga	0,26	**1994**	uMhlathuze	0,790	Nqutu, Msinga	54%
2016	Nkandla	106	Msinga	0,11	**2019**	uMhlathuze	0,740		
					2020			Msinga	52%
Lowest value					**Lowest value**				
2001	uMhlathuze	48	uMhlathuze	0,06	**1994**	Ndwedwe, Maphumulo	0,41	Mkhambathini	12%
2016	Mandeni	58	uMhlathuze	0,01	**2019**	Ndwedwe	0,470		
					2020			uMshwathi	24%
Greatest/best annualised change (%)	Msinga	-1,6%	uMhlathuze	-11,8%	**Greatest/best annualised change (%)**	Impendle	-0,4%	Nkandla	-0,6%
Lowest/worst annualised change (%)	Mthonjaneni	2,2%	Umzumbe	-4,00%	**Lowest/worst annualised change (%)**	Nkandla	1,30%	Umdoni	3,8%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

4.4.4.4 Living conditions (KwaZulu-Natal Province)

Much progress has been made in the provision of electricity for lighting with all the rural local municipalities showing a positive annualised increase of between 0.6% and 19.5% between 2001 and 2016. The provision of formal dwellings and residents paying off/owning their own houses has also increased in 100% and 91% (or 30) of all the rural local municipalities respectively (see Appendix 17).

The data showing the provision of flush toilets in houses was not so positive. In 79% (or 26) of the rural local municipalities, the provision of flush toilets decreased over the period 2001 to 2016 with annualised declines of between 0.2% and 9.5%. In 36% (or 12) of the rural local municipalities, the provision of piped water also diminished over the same time period with annualised declines of between 0.3% and 4.7%. Weekly refuse removal also decreased over the same time period in 67% (or 22) of the rural local municipalities with annualised declines of between 0.5% to 100% (see Appendix 17).

Despite some progress being made with regard to access to services, the percentage of rural residents who have access to flush toilets, piped water and refuse removal is still exceptionally low and out of sync with the access to electricity and housing. An example of such is Mfolozi Local Municipality which is 95% rural. In 2016, 95.9% of the residents had access to electricity but only 3.7% to flush toilets, 6.9% to piped water, and 12% to weekly refuse removal. The unemployment rate in 2020 was 38.7% which implies that a great many of the residents in this local municipality are not earning an income and therefore would not be able to buy electricity (see Appendix 17).

Table 4.49 shows that uMhlathuze Local Municipality has continued to have the best access to services over the time period, whereas Maphumulo Local Municipality has continued to have the lowest access to services especially with regards to flush toilets, piped water, and refuse removal.

Table 4.49: Living conditions (KwaZulu-Natal Province)

	Electricity for lighting		Paying off/own house		Formal dwelling		Flush toilet		Piped water		Refuse removal	
	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value
Highest value												
2001	uMhlathuze	86,0%	Msinga	75,5%	uMhlathuze	56,3%	uMhlathuze	42,5%	Umdoni	38,5%	Umdoni	43,3%
2016	uMhlathuze	98,8%	Impendle	93,0%	uMhlathuze	88,3%	uMhlathuze	45,7%	uMhlathuze	43,0%	uMhlathuze	43,1%
Lowest value												
2001	Nkandla	5,3%	Mthonjaneni	23,7%	Umzimkhulu	11,3%	Maphumulo	1,9%	Maphumulo	0,5%	Maphumulo	1,1%
2016	Umhlabuyalingana	19,1%	Richmond	61,0%	Nkandla	17,0%	Maphumulo	0,8%	Maphumulo	1,2%	Maphumulo	0,0%
Best annualised change (%)	Nkandla	19,5%	Mthonjaneni	8,2%	Umhlabuyalingana	9,6%	Umzimkhulu	7,0%	Umzimkhulu	6,8%	Umzimkhulu	6,4%
Worst annualised change (%)	Mtubatuba	0,6%	Richmond	-0,4%	Ray Nkonyeni	1,0%	Mkhambathini	-9,5%	Mtubatuba	-4,7%	Maphumulo	-100,0%

Source: National Government of South Africa (2022); Statistics South Africa (2001 & 2022)

4.4.4.5 Summary (KwaZulu-Natal Province)

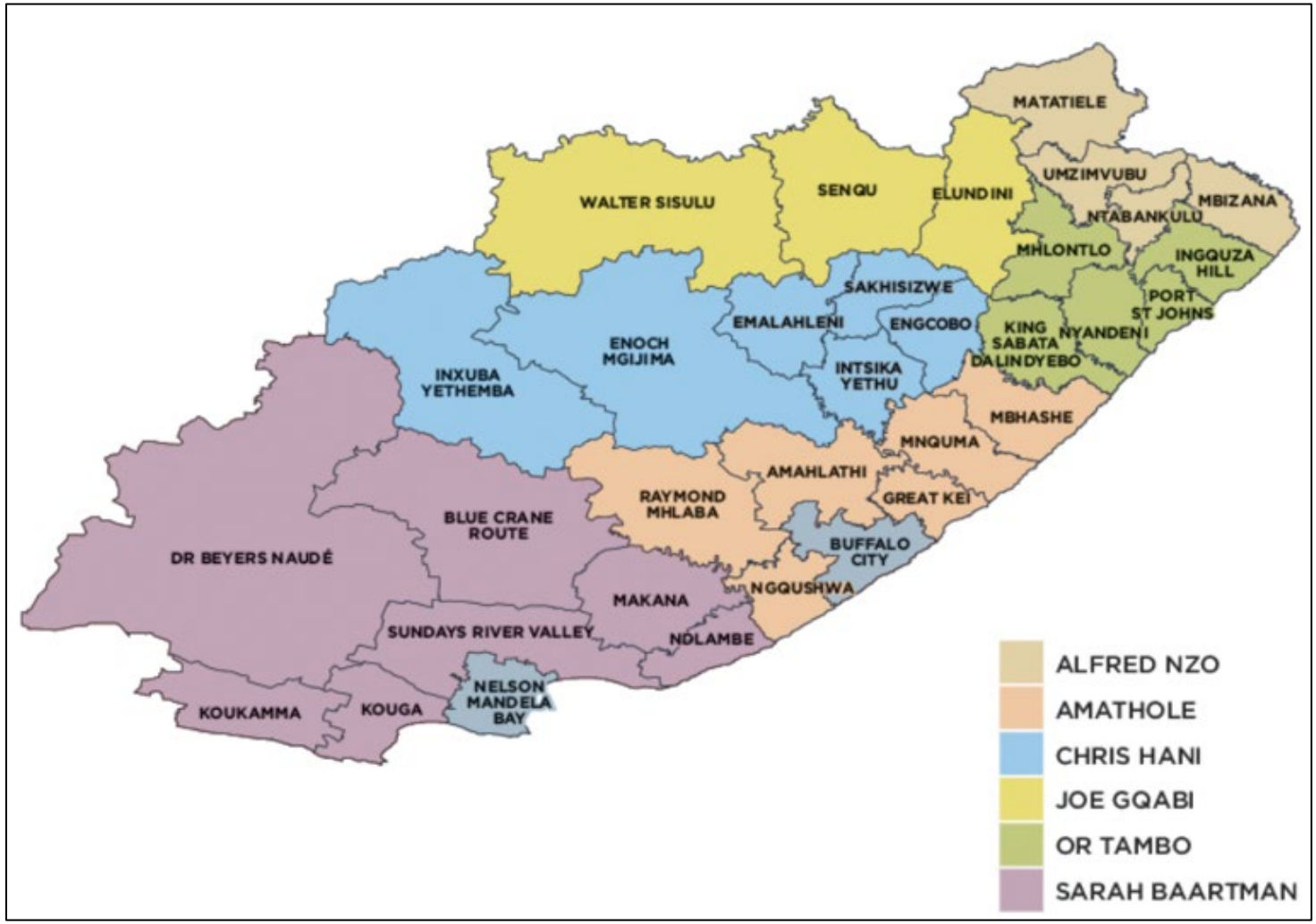
SAMPI and HDI have improved in all the rural local municipalities since 1994. However, Maphumulo, Msinga, and Umzumbe Local Municipalities have shown higher levels of poverty than other local municipalities. The lowest levels of poverty were found in uMhlathuze, Umdoni, and Mandeni Local Municipalities.

4.4.5 The rural poverty picture in Eastern Cape Province

The Eastern Cape Province is located on the east coast of South Africa between the provinces of Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. It shares provincial borders with the Northern Cape and Free State Provinces, and international borders with Lesotho. It is the second-largest province in South Africa by surface area and has the third-largest population (National Government of South Africa, 2022). Before 1994 the Eastern Cape Province was part of the old Cape Province and the homeland states of Transkei and Ciskei. The province is now divided into two metropolitan municipalities (Buffalo City and Nelson Mandela Bay Metropolitan Municipality), six district municipalities, and 31 local municipalities (National Government of South Africa, 2022) (see Map 4.8).

Out of 31 local municipalities, 20 or 65% are predominantly rural (see Table 4.50). Two District Councils namely O.R. Tambo and Alfred Nzo are comprised of only predominantly rural local municipalities.

Map 4.8: Eastern Cape Province



Source: National Government of South Africa (2022)

Table 4.50: Predominantly rural local municipalities (Eastern Cape Province)

	Rural %	
	1994	**2021**
AMATHOLE DISTRICT	84%	73%
Mbhashe	96%	91%
Mnquma	82%	76%
Great Kei	82%	76%
Amahlathi	82%	63%
Ngqushwa	95%	85%
CHRIS HANI DISTRICT	67%	59%
Intsika Yethu	96%	87%
Emalahleni	84%	78%
Engcobo	96%	90%
Sakhisizwe	66%	50%
JOE GQABI DISTRICT	74%	61%
Elundini	85%	67%
Senqu	89%	82%
O.R. TAMBO DISTRICT	87%	79%
Ngquza Hill	96%	91%
Port St Johns	96%	98%
Nyandeni	98%	96%
Mhlonto	93%	91%
King Sabata Dalindyebo	69%	53%
ALFRED NZO DISTRICT	96%	89%
Umzimvubu	95%	87%
Matatiele	93%	85%
Mbinzana	99%	94%
Ntabankulu	97%	94%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022j)

4.4.5.1 FPL - Poverty Headcount Index (Eastern Cape Province)

The FPL Poverty Headcount Index has improved in the province and in all the rural local municipalities since 1994 (see Appendix 18). This indicates that monetary poverty has declined in these areas. Table 4.51 shows that since 1994 the number of local municipalities with Poverty Headcount Indexes lower than the province and the country has increased. This suggests that monetary poverty in the rural local municipalities has decreased more than in the province and in the country.

Table 4.51: Comparison of Poverty Headcount Index (Eastern Cape Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with Poverty Headcount Indexes less than: ↓ Province ↘ National		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	11 (55%)	3 (15%)
2021	12 (60%)	18 (90%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022g)

Table 4.52 highlights the rural local municipalities with the greatest and lowest levels of monetary poverty. The annualised improvement in monetary poverty was between 0.8% and 5.9% compared to the annualised improvement for the country and the province of 0.7% and 2.5% respectively. The annualised improvement in 60% of the rural local municipalities was higher than that noted for the province, and 100% than that noted for the country. More detailed data regarding the Poverty Headcount Index is provided in Appendix 18.

Table 4.52: FPL - Poverty Headcount Index (Eastern Cape Province)

	Year	Local Municipality	Poverty Headcount Index
Highest levels of poverty	**1994**	Great Kei	51%
	2021	King Sabata Dalindyebo	30%
Lowest levels of poverty	**1994**	Umzimvubu	31%
	2021	Great Kei, Amahlathi, Ngqushwa, Intsika Yethu	11%
		Local Municipality	**Annualised change (%)**
	Best annualised change (%)	Great Kei	-5.9%
	Worst annualised change (%)	Mbhashe	-0.8%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022g)

4.4.5.2 HDI (Eastern Cape Province)

The HDI improved in the province and in all of the rural local municipalities indicating that multidimensional poverty has decreased since 1994. However, only 5% (or one) of the rural local municipalities had an annualised improvement greater than the province and 15% (or 3) greater than the country (see Appendix 19).

In both 1994 and 2020 only 5% (or one) of the rural local municipalities had HDI figures greater than the province, and none were greater than the country (see Table 4.53). The rural local municipality in question was Great Kei.

Table 4.53: Comparison of HDI (Eastern Cape Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with HDI greater than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	1 (5%)	0 (0%)
2020	1 (5%)	0 (0%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022g)

The highest HDI in 1994 and 2020 was in Great Kei Local Municipality whilst the lowest in 1994 was in Ntabankulu Local Municipality and in 2020 was in Intsika Yethu Local Municipality (see Table 4.54). Both of these local municipalities were 94% and 87% rural in 2021 whereas Great Kei was only 76% rural (see Table 4.50).

Life expectancy has improved in all the rural local municipalities since 1994 indicating an improved health dimension. However, only 5% of the rural local municipalities had an annualised improvement greater than the province and 10% greater than the country (see Appendix 19).

The highest and lowest life expectancy figures amongst the rural local municipalities are shown in Table 4.54. Interestingly, Great Kei Local Municipality had the highest levels of life expectancy in both 1994 and 2020. The lowest figures were found in the more rural of the local municipalities.

Table 4.55 shows a comparison of the life expectancy rates for the rural local municipalities, the province and the country in 1994 and 2020. Life expectancy rates have been consistently lower than the provincial and national figures since 1994.

Table 4.55: Comparison of life expectancy (Eastern Cape Province)

Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with life expectancy greater than:		
Year	**Province**	**National**
1994	1 (5%)	0 (0%)
2020	1 (5%)	0 (0%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022g)

The education dimension has improved across the province and in all of the rural local municipalities since 1994. However, the mean years of schooling has been far lower than the expected years of schooling. Some 80% (or 16) of the rural local municipalities had an annualised improvement greater than the province and 65% (or 13) greater than the country. This implies that the education dimension has been addressed at a faster rate in the majority of the rural local municipalities than in the province and the country (see Appendix 19).

In both 1994 and 2020 no rural local municipalities had mean years of schooling figures greater than the province or the country (see Appendix 19). The highest mean years of schooling in 1994 were in Mnquma and King Sabata Dalindyebo Local Municipalities (5.7 years), and in 2020 was in King Sabata Dalindyebo Local Municipality (7.9 years). The lowest years of schooling in 1994 was in Port St Johns Local Municipality (3.3 years) and in 2020 was in Emalahleni Local Municipality (5.7 years) (see Table 4.54).

The standard of living dimension (measured by GNI per capita) has improved in the province and in all the rural local municipalities since 1994. In 85% (or 17) of the rural local municipalities the annualised improvement was greater than that for the province and 100% greater than for the country. In both 1994 and 2020 no rural local municipalities had GNI per capita figures greater than the province or the country (see Appendix 19).

Table 4.54: HDI (Eastern Cape Province)

	HDI		HEALTH DIMENSION		EDUCATION DIMENSION				STANDARD OF LIVING DIMENSION	
			Life expectancy		Expected years of schooling		Mean years of schooling		GNI per capita (Rand)	
	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value
Highest value										
1994	Great Kei	0,601	Great Kei	59 yrs	Ngqushwa	13,2 yrs	Mnquma, King Sabata Dalindyebo	5,7 yrs	King Sabata Dalindyebo	R5 075
2020	Great Kei	0,668	Great Kei	63,4 yrs	Mnquma, Nyandeni	13,9 yrs	King Sabata Dalindyebo	7,9 yrs	Great Kei	R7131
Lowest value										
1994	Ntabankulu	0,587	Ngqushwa, Engcobo, Nyandeni, Mhlonto,Umzimvubu, Mbinzana, Ntabankulu, Intsika Yethu	58,2 yrs	Mbinzana	11 yrs	Port St Johns	3,3 yrs	Ntabankulu	R1 159
2020	Intsika Yethu	0,631	Engcobo, Intsika Yethu	61 yrs	Great Kei, Nquza Hill	13,2 yrs	Emalahleni	5,7 yrs	Port St Johns	R1 891
Best annualised change (%)	Great Kei	0,41%	Great Kei	0,28%	Port St Johns	1,07%	Port St Johns	2,12%	Intsika Yethu	2,79%
Worst annualised change (%)	Mbhashe, Mnquma, Ngquza Hill	0,26%	Mbhashe	0,17%	Ngqushwa	0,17%	Umzimvubu	0,91%	Ngquza Hill	1,14%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

4.4.5.3 Other socio-economic indicators (Eastern Cape Province)

The dependency ratio has improved in the province and in all the rural local municipalities since 1994. In 75% of the rural local municipalities the annualised improvement was greater than that for the province and for the country (see Appendix 20).

Table 4.56 shows that the number of rural local municipalities with higher dependency ratios than the province has remained constant over the time period.

Table 4.56: Comparison of dependency ratios (Eastern Cape Province)

	Number and percentage of rural local municipalities with higher dependency ratios than:	
Year	**Province**	**National**
2001	16 (80%)	20 (100%)
2016	15 (75%)	19 (95%)

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The highest dependency ratio in 2001 was in Ngquza Hills Local Municipality (107.9) and in 2016 was in Engcobo Local Municipality (98.6). The lowest dependency ratio in 2001 and again in 2016 was in Great Kei Local Municipality (see Appendix 20).

The Gini coefficient has increased in the province and in all the rural local municipalities since 1994 indicating increased income inequality. In addition, 70% (or 14) of the rural local municipalities had Gini coefficients greater than 0.5 in 1994 - this had increased to 100% by 2019 (see Appendix 20). The annualised growth of the Gini coefficient in 90% of the rural local municipalities was greater than the growth in the province and the country. In 1994 all the rural local municipalities had a Gini coefficient which was less than both the province and the country indicating less income inequality in the rural local municipalities. By 2019 only King Sabata Dalindyebo Local

Municipality (0.70) had a Gini coefficient greater than the province (0.68) and the country (0.677).

The highest Gini coefficient (and therefore showing the greatest income inequality) in 1994 and again in 2019 was in King Sabata Dalindyebo Local Municipality which was one of the least rural municipalities and also contains Mthatha (former homeland capital of Transkei). The Gini coefficients were lower in the more rural local municipalities of Nyandeni (1994) and Emalahleni (2019) (see Table 4.57).

SAMPI values showed lower levels of multidimensional poverty in the province and in all the rural local municipalities since 2001. None of the rural local municipalities had annualised SAMPI growth greater than that found for the province. In 2001 15% (or three) of the rural local municipalities had better SAMPI figures than the province and by 2016 this had dropped to 0%. The best SAMPI values (therefore showing the lowest levels of poverty) in 2001 were in Great Kei and Engcobo Local Municipalities. By 2016 the lowest SAMPI values were in Great Kei and Sakhisizwe Local Municipalities. On the other hand, the worst SAMPI values (therefore showing the highest levels of poverty) were in Port St Johns (2001) and Intsika Yethu Local Municipalities (2016) (see Table 4.57).

Since 1994 the rate of unemployment has increased in the province and in 55% (or 11) of the rural local municipalities. The annualised increase in the unemployment rate was between 0.1% and 1.2%. In 1994, 95% (or 19) of the rural local municipalities had unemployment rates greater than that of the province, and 100% (or 20) greater than the country. By 2020, 85% of the rural local municipalities had unemployment rates greater than the province and 90% were greater than the country (see Appendix 20). The highest unemployment rate in 1994 and 2020 was in Ntabankulu Local Municipality whilst the lowest in 1994 and 2020 was in Great Kei Local Municipality (see Table 4.57).

Table 4.57: Other socio-economic indicators (Eastern Cape Province)

	Dependency ratio		SAMPI			Gini coefficient		Unemployment	
	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value		Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value
Highest value					**Highest value**				
2001	Ngquza Hill	107,9	Port St Johns	0,25	**1994**	King Sabata Dalindyebo	0,630	Ntabankulu	56%
2016	Engcobo	98,6	Intsika Yethu	0,12	**2019**	King Sabata Dalindyebo	0,700		
					2020			Ntabankulu	51%
Lowest value					**Lowest value**				
2001	Great Kei	67,2	Great Kei, Engcobo, Umzimvubu	0,11	**1994**	Nyandeni	0,470	Great Kei	22%
2016	Great Kei	50,6	Great Kei, Sakhisizwe	0,05	**2019**	Emalahleni	0,520		
					2020			Great Kei	24%
Greatest/best annualised change (%)	Mbhashe	-2,7%	Sakhisizwe	6,1%	**Greatest/best annualised change (%)**	Ngquza Hill	0,9%	Engcobo	0,8%
Lowest/worst annualised change (%)	Emalaheni, Engcobo	-0,4%	Umzimvubu	0,11%	**Lowest/worst annualised change (%)**	Port St Johns	0,00%	King Sabata Dalindyebo	1,2%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

4.4.5.4 Living conditions (Eastern Cape Province)

The provision of electricity for lighting improved in all the rural local municipalities with annualised increases of between 0.4% and 12.9% between 2001 and 2016. In 2016, 65% (or 13) of the rural local municipalities indicated that at least 80% of their residents had electricity for lighting (Appendix 21). The highest percentage of rural residents with electricity for lighting in 2016 was in Emalahleni Local Municipality (94%), whilst the lowest was in Elundini Local Municipality (62%) (see Table 4.58).

The provision of formal dwellings also increased in 85% (or 17) of the rural local municipalities with an annualised increase of between 0.7% and 6.4% between 2001 and 2016. The highest percentage of rural residents with formal dwellings in 2016 was in Senqu Local Municipality (78.5%) whilst the lowest was in Engcobo Local Municipality (17%). Residents paying off or owning their own house has also increased in 80% of the rural local municipalities with an annualised increase of between 0.1% and 4.1% between 2001 and 2016. The highest percentage of rural residents paying off or owning their own house in 2016 was in Ntabankulu Local Municipality (92.7%) whilst the lowest was in Ngqushwa Local Municipality (8.8%) (see Appendix 21 and Table 4.58).

The provision of flush toilets decreased between 2001-2016 in 45% (or 9) of the rural local municipalities. The highest percentage of rural residents with flush toilets in 2016 was in King Sabata Dalindyebo Local Municipality (23.5%) whilst the lowest was in Ntabankulu Local Municipality (0.5%). However, the provision of piped water increased in 80% (or 16) of the rural local municipalities during the same time with the highest in 2016 being in King Sabata Dalindyebo Local Municipality (15.8%) whilst the lowest was in Nyandeni Local Municipality (0.4%) (see Appendix 21 and Table 4.58). Access to weekly refuse removal services had decreased in 60% of the rural local municipalities between 2001 and 2016. The highest percentage of rural residents with weekly refuse removal in 2016 was in Great Kei Local Municipality (26.7%) whilst the lowest was in Engcobo Local Municipality (0%) (see Table 4.58).

Table 4.58: Living conditions (Eastern Cape Province)

	Electricity for lighting		Paying off/own house		Formal dwelling		Flush toilet		Piped water		Refuse removal	
	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value	Local Municipality	Value
Highest value												
2001	Great Kei	71,5%	Nyandeni	79,2%	Senqu	70,9%	King Sabata Dalindyebo	22,6%	King Sabata Dalindyebo	9,4%	Sakhisizwe	24,3%
2016	Emalahleni	94,0%	Ntabankulu	92,7%	Senqu	78,6%	King Sabata Dalindyebo	23,5%	King Sabata Dalindyebo	15,8%	Great Kei	26,7%
Lowest value												
2001	Elundini	11,4%	Great Kei	27,4%	Ntabankulu	12,7%	Ntabankulu	1,3%	Mbizana	0,4%	Nyandeni	1,1%
2016	Elundini	62,0%	Ngqushwa	8,8%	Engcobo	17,0%	Ntabankulu	0,5%	Mbizana	0,6%	Engcobo	0,0%
Best annualised change (%)	Ngquza Hill	12,9%	Ntabankulu	4,1%	Ntabankulu	6,4%	Emalahleni	9,4%	Ngqushwa	14,9%	Ngqushwa	9,0%
Worst annualised change (%)	Great Kei	0,4%	Ngqushwa	-12,7%	Emalahleni	-2,3%	Port St Johns, Ntabankulu	-6,2%	Nyandeni	-1,5%	Engcobo	-12,6%

Source: National Government of South Africa (2022); Statistics South Africa (2001 & 2022)

The uneven provision of services is also very apparent in the data - an example being Nyandeni Local Municipality. In 2016, 81.4% of the residents in this rural local municipality had access to electricity for lighting, 90% were paying off/owned their houses and 36.8% had formal housing. However, only 0.9% had access to a flush toilet, 0.4% to piped water, and 1% to weekly refuse removal (see Table 4.58).

4.4.5.5 Summary (Eastern Cape Province)

Both monetary (FPL Poverty Headcount Index) and multidimensional (HDI and SAMPI) poverty have declined in the rural local municipalities since 1994. Despite this, Intsika Yethu and Port St Johns Local Municipalities have shown higher levels of poverty than others. Great Kei, King Sabata Dalindyebo, and Sakhisizwe Local Municipalities have shown the lowest levels of poverty.

4.5 Summary of the findings

This section summarises the findings of the study in order to establish how rural poverty has changed in the country since 1994. The first data which will be analysed is the statistics on the numbers of rural municipalities in the country. This will be followed by an analysis of the socio-economic indicators, education and unemployment values and information on living conditions.

4.5.1 Summary of Municipal data

The total number of municipalities which are considered predominantly rural is presented in Table 4.59. KwaZulu-Natal Province has the greatest percentage of predominantly rural municipalities (79%) followed by Limpopo Province (77%) and the Eastern Cape Province (65%).

In the majority of the provinces, the local municipalities are becoming less rural except in the case of Mpumalanga Province. There are also very few local municipalities which were 100% rural in 2021.

Table 4.59: Summary of Municipality data (2021)

	North West	Limpopo	Mpumalanga	KwaZulu-Natal	Eastern Cape
Total no. of municipalities	18	22	17	43	31
No. of predominantly rural municipalities	9	17	7	33	20
% predominantly rural municipalities	50%	77%	41%	79%	65%
Predominantly rural municipalities which are:					
• **more rural since 1994**	33%	35%	71%	9%	5%
• **less rural since 1994**	44%	59%	29%	82%	95%
• **stayed same since 1994**	22%	5%	0%	9%	0%
• **completely rural in 2021**	11%	6%	0%	9%	0%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022g)

4.5.2 Summary of FPL - Poverty Headcount Index data

Table 4.60 shows a summary of the FPL (Poverty Headcount Index) data. Monetary poverty has declined in the country, in all the provinces, and in 98% (or 84) of the rural local municipalities. This overall decline in monetary poverty is probably due to the payment of the various social grants.

Table 4.60: Summary - FPL (Poverty Headcount Index) data

	Poverty Headcount Index		Rural local municipalities showing improved Poverty Headcount Index (1994-2021)		Range of Poverty Headcount Index in rural municipalities (2021)
	1994	2021	%	Numbers	
North West	37%	21%	100%	9	13% - 28%
Limpopo	37%	20%	100%	17	13% - 34%
Mpumalanga	36%	27%	71%	5	16% - 34%
KwaZulu-Natal	43%	27%	100%	33	17% - 41%
Eastern Cape	40%	21%	100%	20	11% - 30%
TOTAL			98%	84	

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022g)

4.5.3 Summary of HDI data

Table 4.61 shows a summary of the HDI data. Multidimensional poverty (according to the HDI) has improved in 71% of all the rural local municipalities. The North West and Limpopo Provinces were the only provinces where there was not a 100% improvement in the HDI figure. The declining life expectancy figures in these two provinces have negatively affected their HDI figures. However, these two provinces had the highest provincial HDI figures in 2020, and in the case of the North West Province, the HDI figure was greater than the national figure.

Table 4.61: Summary - HDI data

	HDI (2020)	Rural municipalities showing improved HDI (1994-2020)		Range of HDI for rural municipalities (2020)
		%	Numbers	
South Africa	0.700			
North West	0.719	0%	0	0.626 – 0.650
Limpopo	0.688	6%	1	0.685 – 0.695
Mpumalanga	0.680	100%	7	0.662 - 0.699
KwaZulu-Natal	0.635	100%	33	0.590 – 0.682
Eastern Cape	0.657	100%	20	0.631 – 0.668
TOTAL		71%	61	

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

4.5.4 Summary of life expectancy data

Table 4.62 shows a summary of the life expectancy data. Life expectancy (the health dimension) has improved in 70% of the rural local municipalities. The only provinces where there was no improvement was in North West and Limpopo. Interestingly, the North West Province had the highest provincial life expectancy figure (66.7 years) followed by Limpopo Province (64.7 years) and North West's provincial figure was greater than the national figure. However, the range of life expectancy figures was much lower than the provincial life expectancy figure for North West Province in 2020.

Table 4.62: Summary - Life Expectancy data

	Life expectancy (2020)	Rural municipalities showing improved life expectancy (1994-2020)		Range of life expectancy for rural municipalities (2020)
		%	Numbers	
South Africa	65.5 yrs			
North West	66.7 yrs	0%	0	60.7 yrs - 62.3 yrs
Limpopo	64.7 yrs	0%	0	64.5 yrs – 65.2 yrs
Mpumalanga	64.3 yrs	100%	7	63.1 yrs – 65.4 yrs
KwaZulu-Natal	61.3 yrs	100%	33	58.4 yrs – 64.3 yrs
Eastern Cape	62.7 yrs	100%	20	61 yrs – 63.4 yrs
TOTAL		70%	60	

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

4.5.5 Summary of mean years of schooling data

Table 4.63 shows a summary of the mean years of schooling data. The mean years of schooling has improved in all of the rural local municipalities. However, the education dimension of the HDI is comprised of two indicators namely the expected years of schooling and the mean years of schooling. In all the rural local municipalities the mean years of schooling was always less than the expected years of schooling.

Table 4.63: Summary - Mean Years of Schooling data

	Mean yrs of schooling (2020)	Rural municipalities showing improved mean yrs of schooling (1994-2020)		Range of mean yrs of schooling for rural municipalities (2020)
		%	Numbers	
South Africa	8.8 yrs			
North West	7.9 yrs	100%	9	5.4 yrs - 8.5 yrs
Limpopo	7.7 yrs	100%	17	5.8 yrs – 9.4 yrs
Mpumalanga	8.1 yrs	100%	7	6.4 yrs – 8.6 yrs
KwaZulu-Natal	8.1 yrs	100%	33	4.8 yrs – 9.2 yrs
Eastern Cape	7.9 yrs	100%	20	5.7 yrs – 7.9 yrs
TOTAL		100%	86	

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

4.5.6 Summary of GNI per capita data

Table 4.64 shows a summary of the GNI per capita data. The GNI per capita improved in 95% of the rural local municipalities. The rural local municipalities where there was no improvement in the GNI per capita were located in North West and Mpumalanga Provinces. The wide range of GNI per capita shown in Table 4.64 is also very noticeable. An example of such is in KwaZulu-Natal Province where the lowest GNI per capita was R1 474 whilst the highest was R17 957 (some 12 times larger). This can be seen throughout all the rural local municipalities.

Table 4.64: Summary - GNI per capita data

	GNI per capita (Rand) (2020)	Rural municipalities showing improved GNI per capita (1994-2020)		Range of GNI per capita for rural municipalities (2020)
		%	Numbers	
South Africa	R12 556			
North West	R11 400	78%	7	R2301 – R12 552
Limpopo	R9 190	100%	17	R2 958 – R24 700
Mpumalanga	R11 378	71%	5	R4 165 – R13 132
KwaZulu-Natal	R10 277	100%	33	R1 474 – R17 957
Eastern Cape	R8 726	100%	20	R1 891 – R7 131
TOTAL		95%	82	

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

4.5.7 Summary of dependency ratio data

The data in Table 4.65 shows that the dependency ratio improved between 2001-2016 in 70 out of 86 (81%) of the predominantly rural local municipalities in the country. The greatest improvement can be seen in the rural local municipalities in Limpopo, Eastern Cape, and Mpumalanga Provinces. However, in KwaZulu-Natal and the North West Provinces the dependency ratio only improved in 64% and 67% of the rural local municipalities respectively. This is cause for concern as it indicates that families are becoming larger with more dependents, and thus putting more pressure on to the working population in the rural municipalities in these particular provinces.

Table 4.65: Summary - Dependency ratio data

	Dependency ratio (2016)	Rural municipalities showing improved dependency ratios (2001-2016)		Range of dependency ratios for rural municipalities (2016)
		%	Numbers	
South Africa	53			
North West	55	67%	6	40-77
Limpopo	67	94%	16	48-89
Mpumalanga	53	100%	7	53-81
KwaZulu-Natal	58	64%	21	58-105.8
Eastern Cape	68	100%	20	51-99
TOTAL		81%	70	

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The range of dependency ratios in 2016 is also shown in Table 4.65. The lowest (and therefore the best) dependency ratio of 40 was found in the Mafikeng Local Municipality which is the capital of the North West Province. The highest dependency ratio of 105.8 (and therefore the worst) was found in Nkandla Local Municipality in KwaZulu-Natal Province.

4.5.8 Summary of Gini coefficient data

Table 4.66 shows the Gini coefficients for the various provinces and for the country. In 2019 North West, Limpopo, Eastern Cape, and Mpumalanga Provinces had higher mean Gini coefficients than South Africa, whereas KwaZulu-Natal Province was the only province with a mean Gini coefficient lower than South Africa's. The data in Table 4.66 also shows that in 2019, 80 out of 86 (93%) rural local municipalities had Gini coefficient figures larger than 0.5 revealing great inequality in these rural areas. This was especially evident in Limpopo and Eastern Cape Provinces where the Gini coefficient in all the rural local municipalities in these two provinces was greater than 0.5.

Table 4.66: Summary - Gini coefficient data

	Gini coefficient (2019)	Rural local municipalities with Gini coefficient >0.5 (2019)		Rural local municipalities showing improved Gini coefficient (1994-2019)		Range of Gini coefficient for rural municipalities (2019)
		%	Number	%	Number	
South Africa	0,677					
North West	0,722	89%	8	0%	0	0,488-0,748
Limpopo	0,7	100%	17	12%	2	0,57-0,82
Mpumalanga	0,68	57%	4	0%	0	0,5-0,7
KwaZulu-Natal	0,671	94%	31	21%	7	0,47-0,74
Eastern Cape	0,68	100%	20	0%	0	0,52-0,7
TOTAL		93%	80	10%	9	

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

In addition, the data in Table 4.66 shows that the Gini coefficient only improved in nine (or 10%) rural local municipalities between 1994 and 2019, and those rural local municipalities were in Limpopo and KwaZulu-Natal Provinces. This is a very worrying statistic as it indicates that inequality has grown, and will probably continue to grow, in the rural areas of South Africa.

The range of Gini coefficients in 2019 is also shown in Table 4.66. The lowest (and therefore the best) Gini coefficient was found in Ndwedwe Local Municipality (KwaZulu-Natal Province). Interestingly the Gini coefficient in this particular rural local municipality increased over the time period from 0.41 to 0.47 despite being registered as having the best Gini coefficient. The highest Gini coefficient of 0.82 (and therefore the worst) was found in Lephalale Local Municipality (Limpopo Province) and had increased over the time period from 0.68 to 0.82 (annualised growth of 1.2%).

4.5.9 Summary of SAMPI data

The data in Table 4.67 shows that the SAMPI values in all the rural local municipalities improved between 2001-2016 which is a positive statistic. However, the data does reveal that in 2016 North West, Limpopo, and Eastern Cape Provinces had mean SAMPI values greater than South Africa's which does indicate worse multidimensional poverty than that found in the country as a whole.

Table 4.67: Summary - SAMPI data

	SAMPI (2016)	Rural municipalities showing improved SAMPI scores (2001-2016)		Range of SAMPI data for rural municipalities (2016)
		%	Numbers	
South Africa	0,03			
North West	0,04	100%	9	0,03-0,07
Limpopo	0,05	100%	17	0,03-0,07
Mpumalanga	0,03	100%	7	0,02-0,05
KwaZulu-Natal	0,03	100%	33	0,01-0,11
Eastern Cape	0,05	100%	20	0,05-0,12
TOTAL		100%	86	

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The range of SAMPI values in 2016 is also shown in Table 4.67. The lowest (and therefore the best) SAMPI score (0.01) was found in uMhlathuze Local Municipality (KwaZulu-Natal Province) and had improved by 11.8% (annualised growth) in the time

period. The highest SAMPI value of 0.12 (and therefore the worst) was found in Intsika Yethu Local Municipality (Eastern Cape Province).

4.5.10 Summary of Unemployment data

Table 4.68 summarises the unemployment data from the study. In 2020 all the provinces had average unemployment rates greater than South Africa's. Between 1994 and 2020 only 11 (or 13%) of the rural local municipalities showed any improvements in their unemployment rates and these were in rural local municipalities of the Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal Provinces (and even then, the improvements were marginal).

Table 4.68: Summary - Unemployment data

	Unemployment rates (2020)	Rural municipalities showing improved unemployment rates (1994-2020)		Range of unemployment rates for rural municipalities (2020)
		%	Number	
South Africa	29%			
North West	30%	0%	0	25-30%
Limpopo	36%	0%	0	22-62%
Mpumalanga	31%	0%	0	24-49%
KwaZulu-Natal	32%	9%	3	24-52%
Eastern Cape	33%	40%	8	24-51%
TOTAL		13%	11	

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b)

The range of unemployment rates in 2020 is also shown in Table 4.68. The lowest and highest rates were both found in rural local municipalities in Limpopo Province. The lowest rate (22%) was in Lephalale Local Municipality and the highest rate (62%) was in Makhuduthamaga Local Municipality. Overall, the data does show high and increasing rates of unemployment amongst the rural population (aged between 15 and 64 years old) and this is a cause for concern.

4.5.11 Summary of Living Conditions data

Figure 4.1 summarises the overall improvement in the provision of various services in rural local municipalities between 2001-2016. The greatest improvement can be seen in the provision of electricity for lighting followed by provision of formal dwellings and paying off/owning a house. However, improvement in the provision of weekly refuse removal was noted in only 52% of the rural local municipalities. In addition, improvements in the provision of flush toilets and piped water were equally as low during the same time period. Only 47% and 63% of the rural local municipalities showed any improvements in the provision of flush toilets and piped water to the house respectively.

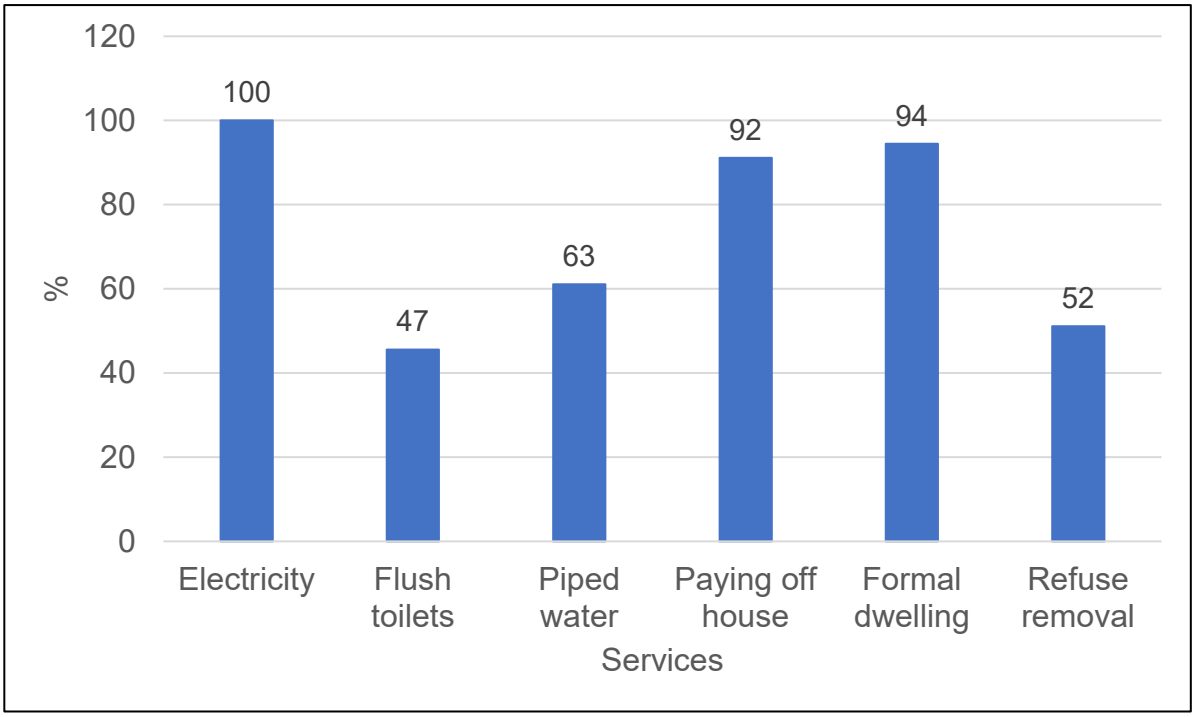


Figure 4.1: Overall improvement in various living conditions in rural local municipalities (2001-2016)

Source: National Government of South Africa (2022); Statistics South Africa (2001 & 2022)

Table 4.69 summarises the data regarding the living conditions found in the rural local municipalities between 2001-2016 in terms of some of the services offered to the residents. As was shown in Fig 4.1 there was an improvement in the provision of

electricity for lighting in all the rural local municipalities. The range of provision of electricity for lighting in 2016 is also shown in Table 4.69. Interestingly the lowest and the highest rates were both found in rural local municipalities in KwaZulu-Natal Province. The lowest rate (19.1%) was in Umhlabuyalingana Local Municipality and the highest rate (98.8%) was in uMhlathuze Local Municipality.

The data for the provision of flush toilets is not as positive as was found with electricity. Only 47% of the rural local municipalities showed any improvement in the provision of this service during 2001-2016. The greatest improvement was seen in the rural local municipalities in Mpumalanga Province whilst the worst levels of improvement were in the KwaZulu-Natal Province. The range of residents in the rural local municipalities having access to flush toilets in 2016 ranges from a low of 0% in Ratlou Local Municipality (North West Province) to 45.7% in uMhlathuze Local Municipality (KwaZulu-Natal Province) (see Table 4.69).

The data for the access to piped water in the house is also not as positive as was found with electricity. Only 63% of the rural local municipalities showed any improvement in this service during 2001-2016. The greatest improvement was seen in the rural local municipalities in Eastern Cape Province followed by Limpopo Province. In Mpumalanga Province there has been no improvement in this service during this time.

The range of provision of piped water to the house in 2016 is also shown in Table 4.69 and ranges from 1% in Ratlou Local Municipality (North West Province), Blouberg Local Municipality (Limpopo Province), Maphumulo Local Municipality (KwaZulu-Natal Province) and Ngquza Hill Local Municipality (Eastern Cape Province) to 43% in uMhlathuze Local Municipality (KwaZulu-Natal Province) in 2016.

Table 4.69: Summary - Living Conditions data

	Electricity for lighting			Flush toilets in house			Piped water to house			Paying off house/owning			Formal dwelling			Refuse removal		
	Rural municipalities showing improved rates (2001-2016)		Range 2016	Rural municipalities showing improved rates (2001-2016)		Range 2016	Rural municipalities showing improved rates (2001-2016)		Range 2016	Rural municipalities showing improved rates (2001-2016)		Range 2016	Rural municipalities showing improved rates (2001-2016)		Range 2016	Rural municipalities showing improved rates (2001-2016)		Range 2016
	%	Number		%	Number		%	Number		%	Number		%	Number		%	Number	
North West	100	9	83-97%	67	6	0-38%	44	4	1-31%	89	8	52-88%	67	6	63-94%	67	6	1-76%
Limpopo	100	17	83,2-98%	59	10	3,4-40%	71	12	1-31%	100	17	42-87%	100	17	76-97%	82	14	1,3-44,5%
Mpumalanga	100	7	77-97%	86	6	4-43%	0	0	6-18%	100	7	56-89%	100	7	75-96%	71	5	4-38%
KwaZulu-Natal	100	34	19-99%	21	7	0,8-46%	67	22	1-43%	94	31	56-92%	100	33	17-84%	36	12	0-60%
Eastern Cape	100	20	51-96%	55	11	0,5-24%	80	16	1-15%	80	16	14-93%	90	18	17-79%	40	8	0-27%
Total	100%	86		47%	40		63%	54		92%	79		94%	81		52%	45	

Source: National Government of South Africa (2022); Statistics South Africa (2001 & 2022)

In 92% of the rural local municipalities, residents indicated an increase in the ownership or paying off of a house which is a positive statistic. The greatest percentage was seen in Limpopo and Mpumalanga Provinces. The range of ownership/paying off of a house varies between 14% in Amahlathi Local Municipality (Eastern Cape Province) to a high of 93% in Ntabankulu Local Municipality (also in Eastern Cape Province). The data is very similar for formal dwellings. Between 2001-2016 access to a formal dwelling increased in 94% of the rural local municipalities. The greatest increases were seen in Limpopo, Eastern Cape, and KwaZulu-Natal Provinces. The range of access to a formal dwelling varies between 17% in Engcobo Local Municipality (Eastern Cape Province) and Nkandla Local Municipality (KwaZulu-Natal Province) to a high of 97% in Ba-Phalaborwa Local Municipality (Limpopo Province).

The final indicator of living conditions which was examined was weekly refuse removal. Only 52% of the rural local municipalities indicated that access to this service had improved between 2001-2016. The greatest percentage was in Limpopo Province where 82% of the rural local municipalities indicated an improvement in this service, whereas in Eastern Cape Province only 40% of the rural local municipalities indicated such an increase. The range of access to weekly refuse removal ranged from 0% of the population in Maphumulo Local Municipality (KwaZulu-Natal Province) to a high of 76% of the residents of Moses Kotane Local Municipality (North West Province) in 2016.

The progress with regard to the poverty indicators which were discussed in this chapter is summarised in Table 4.70. Both monetary poverty and multidimensional poverty have generally improved since 1994. However, little progress has been made with regard to income inequality (measured by the Gini coefficient), the unemployment rate, and living conditions (measured by the percentage with access to flush toilets, piped water, and weekly refuse removal).

Table 4.70: Summary of Poverty Indicators for rural local municipalities

	North West	Limpopo	Mpumalanga	KwaZulu-Natal	Eastern Cape	Overall
% Improvement in:						
FPL - Poverty Headcount Index	100%	100%	71%	100%	100%	98%
HDI	0%	6%	100%	100%	100%	71%
Life Expectancy	0%	0%	100%	100%	100%	70%
Expected years of schooling	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Mean years of schooling	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
GNI per capita	78%	100%	71%	100%	100%	95%
Dependency ratio	67%	94%	100%	64%	100%	81%
Gini coefficient	0%	12%	0%	21%	0%	10%
SAMPI	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Unemployment rate	0%	0%	0%	9%	40%	13%
Electricity for lighting	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Flush toilets	67%	59%	86%	21%	55%	47%
Piped water to house	44%	71%	0%	67%	80%	63%
Paying off/owning house	89%	100%	100%	94%	80%	92%
Formal dwelling	67%	100%	100%	100%	90%	94%
Weekly refuse removal	67%	82%	71%	36%	40%	52%

4.6 Conclusion

The data collected on the socio-economic conditions, unemployment, education, and living conditions in the rural local municipal areas of South Africa does give some indication of the poverty situation amongst the residents in these areas. Even though the data is collected from different time periods, it is possible to identify trends. On a more positive note, FPL (Poverty Headcount Index) indicates declining levels of monetary poverty. The dependency ratio has generally improved in the rural areas during 2001-2016. This means that the ratio of the dependent age (child and aged) population as a percentage of the working age population has decreased. This should have a significant, positive effect on economic growth and poverty reduction. The improved SAMPI values between 2001-2016 also point to lower levels of multidimensional poverty in the rural areas in 2016. However, even though there is an improvement, the SAMPI values in some of the rural areas in 2016 are still elevated indicating that a great deal more work needs to be done to alleviate the elements which are driving the SAMPI scores to highs of 0.7 and 0.12.

A further indicator which has shown a great positive improvement in the period 2001-2016 is the rising numbers of rural residents who have increased mean years of education. Such statistics do point to the fact that more rural residents are receiving an education which will help them enter the job market and earn an income which will decrease the incidences of poverty.

One of the most positive indicators of an attempt being made to address the poverty situation in the rural areas is the large numbers of rural residents who have access to electricity for lighting. Nevertheless, there are still rural areas where only 19% of the rural population in 2016 had electricity for lighting, but generally this is an exception. Electricity for lighting extends the work day and helps people earn extra income thus contributing towards poverty reduction.

There has also been tremendous growth in the rural areas regarding rural residents owning or paying off their house and living in formal dwellings. Living in a formal dwelling ensures that rural residents are able to keep warm and dry which will have health benefits as these residents will be able to go to work and earn a living.

Nonetheless, there are some exceptions where only 14% and 17% of the rural residents in some local rural municipalities own/pay off and/or live in a formal dwelling which is also alarming.

On the other hand, the data which has been collected and analysed does point to some concerning trends in the rural areas of South Africa. Since 1994 the Gini coefficient has increased in these rural areas. This indicates that income inequality is growing which is worrying and does not reflect well on the state of rural poverty. Also of concern is that in many rural municipalities, the Gini coefficient was greater than 0.5 which is high when compared to Gini coefficients in most countries being between 0.3 and 0.5.

Another area of concern is the growing unemployment rates amongst the residents of the rural areas aged 15 to 64 years old. In 2020 unemployment rates varied between 22% and 62% in the rural areas which is alarming. It is estimated that unemployment has and will continue to grow in the country post-Covid (Odeku, 2021). Without a job, rural residents will not be able to move themselves out of poverty. In addition, the data also indicated that the number of residents receiving an education has increased over the years; however, this has not been matched with increasing employment opportunities. The trends in the data show that rural residents will find it more and more difficult to find a job thus perpetuating the poverty situation in these areas. What could result is increased rural/urban migration adding to the ever-growing urban informal settlements, people turning towards crime as a way of making money and possibly more civil unrest similar to what was seen in the country in 2021 (Vhumbunu, 2021). In addition, increasing unemployment amongst the rural residents will most possibly result in decreased incomes. As a result, rural residents will cut down their spending on electricity (even though many rural residents have access to it) and they may be unable to pay for other services such as water.

A further area of concern which was highlighted in the analysis was the generally low levels of provision of flush toilets, piped water, and weekly refuse removal in the rural areas. Lack of access to water was highlighted continuously during the COVID-19 pandemic when the South African Government was encouraging the population to wash their hands (Nyashanu, Simbanegavi, & Gibson, 2020). Poor levels of water,

sanitation, and refuse removal will encourage diseases to spread which will further exacerbate the situation of the rural poor. It was also observed in the data that the rural poor had uneven access to services in their municipalities. The percentage of residents with access to electricity for lighting and a formal dwelling could be in excess of 80%, yet their access to piped water, flush toilets, and weekly refuse removal could be as low as 1%. This means that some elements of the poverty question in South African rural areas have been addressed, whilst other elements are being left behind or forgotten about. In one sense rural poverty has improved, in another sense it has deteriorated since 1994.

The chapter contributes to the answering of the research question (an analysis of rural poverty in South Africa since 1994) by providing a more micro perspective of poverty in the predominantly rural areas of South Africa. In the next chapter recommendations will be made as to how rural poverty can be addressed considering the data which was uncovered in this chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter concludes the study on the analysis of rural poverty in South Africa since 1994. South Africa has been and is still confronted by three major evils namely poverty, unemployment, and inequality (Mdluli & Dunga, 2022). Although South Africa is regarded as an upper middle-income economy and Africa's second largest economy, the prevalence of poverty (especially in the traditional rural areas) remains persistently high compared to other similar countries (Biyase & Zwane, 2018). Rising levels of unemployment in the country have further exacerbated the poverty situation. Jobs have continued to be shed especially after the global economic crisis of 2008/9; and the impact of this has been felt more in the low-income settlements where levels of education and occupational skills are minimal. Unfortunately, the earning potential of the poor is greatly reduced when they lack an education and they are thus forced further into poverty. The poor also often experience a greater range of social, economic, and environmental hazards such as inadequate water supply and poor sanitation (Maloma, 2016).

The poverty problem has been on the South African Government's agenda for numerous years and will continue to be a point of discussion following the COVID-19 pandemic. In 2004, AsgiSA acknowledged that there were challenges of prolonged poverty, unemployment, poor earnings, and the jobless nature of economic growth. The New Growth Path policy which was revealed in 2010 also highlighted the same types of issues namely the high rate of unemployment and poverty. The current government policy - the NDP - which was presented in 2013 as a long-term socio-economic development roadmap for South Africa, also targeted similar issues. The NDP is viewed as being a blueprint for the eradication of poverty and the reduction of inequality in South Africa by 2030 (Biyase & Zwane, 2018).

Poverty, and more specifically rural poverty, has been the focus of the previous three chapters. So as to answer the main research objectives and the sub-objectives which were identified in Chapter One (see Section 1.3), a literature study and an investigation using a descriptive-analytical approach were completed. The rationale of using these two research methods was to firstly explore rural poverty on a global scale, and secondly to explore rural poverty in South Africa since 1994. A set of recommendations could then be proposed which would address the challenges caused by rural poverty in the country.

In this chapter an outline of the findings of the study will be presented along with policy recommendations based on the results of the study. The chapter will conclude with a discussion concerning the limitations of the study and areas where further research can be conducted. The outline of this particular chapter is as follows: - a summary of the study will be given in Section 5.2; a discussion of the conclusions and main findings will be presented in Section 5.3; the policy recommendations stemming from the study will be introduced in Section 5.4; and in Section 5.5 the limitations of the study and further areas for research will be discussed.

5.2 Realisation of research objectives and summary of the study

Poverty is currently high on the agenda around the world as well as in South Africa, more especially following the COVID-19 pandemic and the subsequent economic fallout. Much research has been done on poverty in South Africa; however, very little could be found on rural poverty in the different provinces of South Africa. Even though South Africa is predominantly urbanised, there is a considerable percentage of the population living in rural areas and poverty was found to be more concentrated in these areas. Therefore, the need for the research translated into the following overall aim (see Section 1.3) and which will be recapped: -

To analyse rural poverty in South Africa post 1994.

This aim led to the development of the following main objectives: -

Objective 1: *to conduct a literature review on poverty in general with an emphasis on rural poverty*, and

Objective 2: *to conduct a literature review on the state of poverty in South Africa post 1994 with particular reference to rural poverty in the country*,

And the sub-objectives: -
Sub-objective 1: *to determine the changes in rural poverty in South Africa since 1994,*
Sub-objective 2: *to analyse the reasons for the changes in rural poverty in the country since 1994,*
Sub-objective 3: *to predict the trend rural poverty will follow in the country post COVID-19*, and
Sub-objective 4: *to discuss different poverty reducing policies that could be implemented to help address the problem of rural poverty in South Africa*.

Before moving to the next section where the summary of the research findings will be discussed, a short review of the contents of each chapter as they relate to the above-mentioned research questions will be presented.

In Chapter One the background to the study was presented namely poverty and the problem of rural poverty in South Africa (see Section 1.1). A brief outline of the objectives of the study (see Section 1.3), the research methodology used (see Section 1.4), and the importance of the study (see Section 1.5) was then discussed. At the end of the chapter a summary of the whole study was given (see Section 1.6).

The aim of the second chapter was to embark on a literature study into the theory behind poverty with the focus being on rural poverty (thus addressing Objective 1). The various definitions of the term 'poverty' were investigated starting with the origins of the term through to contemporary definitions (see Section 2.2). The different types of poverty experienced around the world (see Section 2.3) along with a profile of rural poverty and the determinants of such poverty were presented (see Section 2.4). The two methods of measuring poverty namely the unidimensional and multidimensional methods were then examined (see Section 2.5). The chapter finished with an in-depth analysis of how the world has responded to the problem of poverty with the introduction of the MDGs, SDGs, and other poverty alleviation strategies (see Section 2.6). The emphasis throughout the chapter was on the theory behind poverty in general, and rural poverty more specifically, in order to address Objective 1.

The third chapter focused on examining poverty in South Africa with particular reference to rural poverty (thus partly addressing Objective 2). The numerous

definitions of the term ‘rural’ were examined in order to better distinguish what is meant by the term in South Africa (see Section 3.2). The macro-economic trends in South Africa since 1994 were then explored (see Section 3.3) in order to better contextualise the rural poverty found in the country since 1994 (see Section 3.4). The chapter concluded with an in-depth examination of the South Africa Government’s response to poverty in general and the importance of the social wage (see Section 3.5). Evidence in the literature suggests that the population in the country has been growing at a faster rate than GDP leading to decreasing employment opportunities and increasing poverty. Inequality as measured by the Gini coefficient has also increased thus giving a further indication of the growing poverty problem.

In Chapter Four the results of the investigation into the poverty found in the different rural areas of South Africa was presented (thus fully addressing Objective 2). The different indicators which were used to measure the poverty found in these rural areas was discussed (see Section 4.2). An overview of the different provinces in the country was then given (see Section 4.3) in order to put into context the discussion which followed regarding the rural poverty which was found in these provinces (see Section 4.4). A descriptive analysis was used to explore trends in these poverty indicators in order to describe the poverty situation in these rural areas. A summary of the findings of the desktop study was given at the end of the chapter (see Section 4.5).

5.3 Summary of the findings

The findings of the study will be considered in accordance with the aims and objectives as stated in the first chapter (see Section 1.3).

5.3.1 Summary of the literature review on poverty

The first objective of the study was to conduct a literature study which would examine the theory behind poverty. In order to address this objective, the following aspects were investigated.

5.3.1.1 Definition and types of poverty

The definition of poverty has evolved over many years. Initially the term referred to the inability to purchase the minimum necessities required for survival (see Section 2.2.1). This definition later progressed to include not just a lack of income but also a lack of physical and material needs and a deprivation of human capabilities. The definition of poverty had taken on a greater multidimensional perspective with the inclusion of both monetary and nonmonetary aspects (see Section 2.2.2). There are many different types of poverty ranging from extreme and absolute to relative poverty. The type of poverty which was most often referred to in the study was extreme poverty which was defined as people not being able to meet their basic needs for survival (see Section 2.3).

5.3.1.2 Rural poverty and its determinants

The rural poor are mostly low paid farm labourers, small farmers who rely on subsistence agriculture, and those who engage in non-farm activities. In order to further understand the rural poor and where they come from, several classifications of the rural poor were examined, namely the landless (who are amongst the poorest of the rural poor), those who have a low asset base who are often subsistence farmers, pastoralists, and women-headed households (see Section 2.4.1).

The reasons why the rural poor suffer from poverty is usually a result of multi-dimensional factors which the poor often do not have control over. These factors can range from income inequality and lack of economic assets like land (which the rural poor depend greatly on) to food insecurity. Other aspects which negatively affect rural poverty are the lack of access to adequate roads in order to move goods to market and communication problems such as poor cell phone coverage. Another constraint is poor education which obviously limits the earning potential of the rural poor and often perpetuates their poverty situation. Further underlying factors which contribute to rural poverty are government policies which do not favour subsistence farmers, as well as female-headed households, political instability, and high dependency ratios (see 2.4.2).

5.3.1.3 Poverty measurements

In order to assess whether poverty has improved in a country or not, monetary and nonmonetary indicators of income are used to measure poverty. The most common monetary measurement is a poverty line which is a level of income needed by an individual to purchase a minimum amount of consumption goods and services in order to be considered not poor (see Section 2.5.1). However, monetary measurements of poverty are limited and often do not correctly measure true poverty. In order to overcome these difficulties, multidimensional measurements of poverty such as the HPI and MPI have been developed. In the case of these two indexes, multiple dimensions such as health, education, and living standards are assessed in order to provide a measurement of multidimensional poverty (see Section 2.5.2).

5.3.1.4 Pathways out of poverty

International development frameworks in the form of the MDGs and the SDGs have been drawn up and presented as the global response to poverty. The first MDG goal was aimed at reducing extreme poverty and hunger by half and was reached in 2010 (see Section 2.6.1). The SDGs which followed the MDGs also had the eradication of extreme poverty as their first target. Up until the start of the COVID-19 pandemic, some positive developments had been made with regard to addressing extreme poverty and SDG1. However, the pandemic has reversed this progress and extreme poverty has started to increase again around the world (see Section 2.6.1).

Other poverty alleviation strategies have also been implemented around the world to address the scourge of poverty. Due to the prevalence of rural poverty, the promotion of agriculture and rural development has been seen as a way to help reduce this problem and improve food security (see Section 2.6.2). Such a policy goes hand in hand with livelihood diversification strategies which involve rural households participating in both on-farm and off-farm activities (see Section 2.6.3) as a way to increase their income. Government involvement and assistance in the lives of the rural poor can also help in rural poverty reduction. Such assistance could be in the form of subsidised agricultural inputs such as seeds, farm machinery, and credit facilities (see Section 2.6.4). Other poverty alleviation strategies which have been suggested are the

increase in economic growth in order to provide more employment and aggregate demand in the economy (see Section 2.6.5), greater access to credit and services to help the poor farm in rural areas (see Section 2.6.6), training of the rural poor to assist them to gain skills specifically in the agricultural field (see Section 2.6.7), extension of social protection to the rural poor in the form of increased access to social services and the social wage (see Section 2.6.8), and improving the lot of women in the rural areas (see Section 2.6.9).

The purpose of examining the above aspects was to enquire from the literature what was the theory concerning poverty, in general, and rural poverty in particular. Once completed, Objective 1 was answered, and the research question could then be partly answered.

In the next section the second objective of the study will be discussed.

5.3.2 Summary of the literature review on poverty in South Africa since 1994

The second objective of the research was to do a literature review on the state of poverty, with an emphasis on rural poverty, in South Africa since 1994 (see Section 1.3). In order to partly answer Objective 2 and Sub-objectives 1 to 3, the following aspects were investigated.

5.3.2.1 Poverty in South Africa

The changes that have been seen in rural poverty in South Africa can be put into perspective by examining the macro-economic trends post 1994. By the time of the first democratic elections in 1994, South Africa had started to recover from a deep recession. The economy grew at about 3.3% per annum until 2012 and then started to contract (there were, however, two economic downturns in 1998 and 2008, but the country did recover fairly rapidly from each of these declines). The reasons for the contraction in 2012 are numerous and include structural weakness in the economy leading to constrained job creation, policy uncertainty, political turmoil, corruption, and a deepening energy crisis. The COVID-19 pandemic will possibly limit the country's potential to grow in the years ahead. In addition, South Africa's population has

continued to grow since 1993 whilst the GDP growth rate has shown a downward trajectory during the same time. This has in fact led to jobless growth (see Section 3.3.1), increasing unemployment figures, especially amongst the youth and the unskilled (see Section 3.3.2), and increasing inequality amongst the rural population (see Section 3.3.3).

One of the main reasons for the poverty in South Africa has been the legacy of apartheid and the subsequent discriminatory system of land ownership. The apartheid government used the Natives Land Act of 1913 to create the African reserves which were later changed into self-governing homelands. These homelands were often located in isolated rural areas where job prospects were poor, natural resources were limited, and infrastructure inadequate thus setting the stage for rural poverty. Studies conducted just prior to and just after 1994 concluded that just over half of the South African population and most of the poor lived in these rural areas of the country. Remittances, which were sent back to the rural poor by family members working in the urban centres, were the mainstay of these rural household's existence along with the payment of social transfers (or social wage). Unemployment was higher in the rural areas and jobs which could be found in these areas were low paid. The provision of services such as running water and flush toilets inside the house in rural areas was very low and substantially inferior to what was provided to the urban population (see Section 3.4).

Despite the situation seeming quite dire in the rural areas of the country, progress has been made by the South African Government since 1994 in reducing rural poverty. The Government has extended the social grant system with multiple types of grants being paid to the rural population, and various other government initiatives have been utilised to create employment in the rural areas. The rural poor's access to services such as electricity had also improved. However, by 2011 the number of rural poor once again started to rise along with the poverty gap and the severity of poverty. Unfortunately, in April 2020, the rural poor were again hit by a calamity with the COVID-19 pandemic. The consequences of the pandemic have further exacerbated the poverty situation in the rural areas (see Section 3.4).

In order to combat poverty, the South African Government has implemented a raft of policies ranging from the RDP programme, to AsgiSA and more recently the NDP. However, none of these policies have been as effective in decreasing poverty levels as the introduction of the social wage. This has resulted in the number of grant recipients increasing exponentially since 1994 thus decreasing the number of poor in the country (see Section 3.5).

5.3.2.2 Rural poverty in the different provinces of South Africa

The prevalence of rural poverty in the provinces was investigated through an analysis of particular poverty indicators (see Section 4.2). KwaZulu-Natal Province had the greatest percentage of rural local municipalities followed by Limpopo Province and Eastern Cape Province. In the majority of the provinces, the local municipalities are becoming less rural except in the case of Mpumalanga. There are also very few local municipalities which were 100% rural in 2021 (see Section 4.5.1).

The first indicator to be examined was the *FPL*. The Poverty Headcount Index decreased in 98% (or 84) of the rural local municipalities indicating declining monetary poverty. The reason for this was probably due to the payment of social grants. Mpumalanga Province was the only province which had rural local municipalities that showed no improvement in the Poverty Headcount Index (see Section 4.5.2).

The next indicator to be examined was the *HDI*. The HDI improved in 71% (or 61) of the rural local municipalities indicating decreasing multidimensional poverty. North West and Limpopo were the only provinces where there was not a 100% improvement in the HDI figures of their rural local municipalities (see Section 4.5.3).

The third indicator to be investigated was *Life Expectancy*. Life expectancy (and therefore the health dimension) improved in 70% (or 60) of the rural local municipalities. The only provinces where there was no improvement was the North West and Limpopo. This indicates that the health dimension has declined in the rural local municipalities in these particular provinces (see Section 4.5.4).

The fourth and fifth indicators to be examined were the *Expected years of schooling* and *Mean years of schooling*. These two indicators represent the education dimension. There was a 100% improvement across all the rural local municipalities with regard to this dimension. However, there was some disparity between the two indicators in that the mean years of schooling indicator was never greater than the expected years of schooling in any rural local municipality (see Section 4.5.5).

The sixth indicator to be examined was *GNI per capita*. GNI per capita improved in 95% (or 82) of rural local municipalities. This indicates that the standard of living dimension has improved in most of the rural local municipalities (see Section 4.5.6).
The seventh indicator to be examined was the *Dependency Ratio*. In 2016 the highest dependency ratios were found in Limpopo Province and Eastern Cape Province and these ratios were higher than the national average. Even though the dependency ratios had improved between 2001-2016 in most of the rural local municipalities (probably due to rural/urban migration), KwaZulu-Natal Province registered the lowest level of improvement (see Section 4.5.7).

The eighth indicator to be examined was the *Gini coefficient*. The data collected and analysed with regard to this indicator underscored the high levels of income inequality in the rural areas of the country, especially in Limpopo Province and Eastern Cape Province. In addition, the Gini coefficient had only improved in 10% of the rural local municipalities between 1994 and 2019 (see Section 4.5.8), and it is expected that the levels of inequality will continue to grow in the post-COVID era.

The ninth indicator to be examined was the *SAMPI*. The data from this indicator was included as it provides another dimension to the question of rural poverty in the country as it examines multidimensional poverty. In 2016, SAMPI scores showed that multidimensional poverty was worse in North West Province, Limpopo Province and Eastern Cape Province than nationally. Despite this, SAMPI scores for the period 2001-2016 revealed that multidimensional poverty had generally improved in the rural local municipalities (see Section 4.5.9).

The tenth indicator to be examined was *Unemployment.* In 2020 most of the provinces had unemployment rates higher than the national average with the highest rates being

in Limpopo Province and Eastern Cape Province. Unemployment rates did not improve in most of the rural local municipalities between 1994-2020. In 2020 unemployment rates of up to 62% of the rural population were also noted (see Section 4.5.10).

The last indicator to be examined was *Living Conditions*. The greatest improvement in the various services between 2001-2016 was the provision of electricity for lighting. However, the provision of weekly refuse removal, piped water to the house, and flush toilets during this time period was much lower and, in some cases, showed negligible improvement (see Section 4.5.11).

The purpose of examining the above aspects was to answer Sub-objectives 1 to 3 and therefore partly answer the second objective of the study. The first sub-objective involved determining the changes in rural poverty in South Africa since 1994. The study concluded that both monetary (shown by the Poverty Headcount Index) and multidimensional poverty (shown by HDI and SAMPI) have generally declined in the rural areas of South Africa since 1994. However, there was no improvement in monetary poverty in Mpumalanga Province, and there were rural areas in the North West Province, Eastern Cape and Limpopo Province which also showed no improvement regarding multidimensional poverty. In addition, other poverty indicators such as the Gini coefficient, unemployment and access to services other than electricity also indicated that the life of rural inhabitants has not improved since 1994. This indicates that even though multidimensional poverty measurements such as HDI and SAMPI reveal declining rural poverty, poverty when viewed from a wider perspective using multiple poverty indicators, has certainly not improved in the rural areas of the country.

The second sub-objective involved analysing the reasons for the changes seen in rural poverty in the country since 1994. The overriding conclusion for the improvement in monetary poverty amongst the rural population is the social grant system. The numbers of people specifically receiving OAGs and CSGs has dramatically increased since 1994. Considering that the rural areas are often populated with the aged and the very young, such grants can go a long way in alleviating the monetary poverty found in these areas.

The South African Government has also introduced a raft of other social welfare policies such as free primary health care and education, RDP housing and free basic water and electricity. These measures have most probably been responsible for the generally improved multidimensional poverty which was indicated by the data.

The data, when analysed, did indicate that the rural population has been decreasing in South Africa since 1994. One reason for this maybe increased rural/urban migration. Rural dwellers are most probably moving from the rural areas to the urban areas in search of better jobs, infrastructure, and public services. This could be a reason for declining rural monetary and multidimensional poverty seen in the country since 1994. Poverty is probably becoming a more urban phenomenon.

The third sub-objective involved predicting the trend rural poverty will follow in the country post COVID-19. As indicated above, the South African Government has made some progress in addressing the rural poverty problem in the country. Unfortunately, the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic will most probably have a negative effect on the poverty situation in the rural areas going forward. Unemployment in the rural areas had started to grow after 2015 and grew even further after the first lockdown in April 2020 and has not slowed down. Such a situation will probably increase the rate of poverty in the rural areas going forward as rural dwellers will have less income to buy food and to access services. Increased unemployment in the rural areas could also lead to increased rural/urban migration and an 'urbanisation of poverty' which the South African Government will have to also deal with. It will probably be difficult for the Government to address the rural poverty problem in the future as economic growth is on a downward trajectory in the country.

In the next section the fourth sub-objective of the study will be considered namely the different poverty reducing policies that could be implemented to help address the problem of rural poverty in South Africa.

5.4 Recommendations

There is a need to rethink how to approach the problem of poverty in the rural areas of South Africa. The data in the literature study suggests that past efforts have had

limited successes, and with the lingering negative effects of COVID-19, it appears that rural poverty will continue to grow in the country if not adequately addressed. It is therefore imperative that attention be turned to the SDGs and especially SDG1 which has as its goal the ending of poverty all over the world. SDG1 also outlines seven related targets, one of them being the implementation of country-wide social protection systems. In the Rio+20 outcome document, several proposals were made as to how poverty could be eradicated (United Nations, 2022). Some of these proposals will be discussed next as possible solutions to the high and increasing levels of rural poverty, inequality, unemployment, and poor access to services.

5.4.1 Improving access to sustainable livelihoods, entrepreneurial opportunities and productive resources

Improving access to sustainable livelihoods in the rural areas of South Africa would involve promoting agriculture and investing in rural development. Agriculture can provide rural families with food (thus ensuring food security), and income from either selling goods or from employment. Unfortunately, rural farmers are often located in far-flung areas where there is poor or inadequate infrastructure, lack of information and assets, not enough access to government support services, and non-existent credit markets. The result is reduced participation in the markets. By promoting smallholder farming in these rural areas of the country, the rural farmer will be able to exit the subsistence trap and become more business and market oriented (Sinyolo & Mudhara, 2018).

Rural development strategies also need to be used to promote agriculture in order to provide more sustainable livelihoods for the rural poor. Co-operatives and land banks should be established in these areas along with the provision of ‘soft’ loans from the government. Government could also extend access to farm machinery and extension services and encourage the rural poor to grow commercial crops. This would encourage them to move away from subsistence agriculture and move towards more commercial agriculture where there are more entrepreneurial opportunities.

The study highlighted the problem of increasing levels of unemployment in the rural areas of South Africa. High unemployment in the rural areas can lead to an

‘urbanisation of poverty’ (Arndt et al., 2018: 1) as migrants will move from these rural areas to the urban areas in search of better jobs, infrastructure, and public services. Investing in rural areas with small town development can help to reduce this internal migration and provide better income and employment opportunities for those remaining in the rural areas of the country. Rural residents and their families would be able to diversify their incomes either through seasonal and circular migration. They would also have access to product markets where they could sell their crops or livestock and thus earn an income (Arndt et al., 2018). This would reduce rural and national poverty and narrow the rural/urban divide.

5.4.2 Providing universal access to basic social services

Another way of alleviating rural poverty is through the provision of basic social services such as education, health care, shelter, sanitation, and clean water. The results of the study showed that huge strides have been made in rural areas with regard to access to electricity for lighting and the provision of shelter and education. Sadly, this was not evident when data regarding sanitation, clean water, and refuse removal was examined. In many of the rural local municipalities, the provision of piped water to the house and flush toilets was very low and weekly refuse removal was even lower. The rural local and district municipalities in these areas need to be enhanced in terms of capabilities and access to finance in order to assist in this regard.

5.4.3 Developing social protection systems to support those who cannot support themselves

Social protection is seen to be a vital strategy in the fight against rural poverty. Some years ago, the South African government introduced and has subsequently expanded the social protection programme or social wage. Evidence of this was shown during the pandemic when the government introduced the COVID-19 Social Relief of Distress grant. Access to such grants helps the rural poor manage shocks and stresses like pandemics, and also encourages spending and the promotion of local economies. Unfortunately, provision of such social protection is extremely expensive and obviously comes with an opportunity cost. Despite the cost, the overall benefit of this programme is considerable and needs to be developed further.

5.4.4 Addressing the disproportionate impact of poverty on women

The status of women in the rural areas of South Africa needs to be improved. This can be done by including women in rural and agricultural development projects. This can involve programmes to help women acquire skills so that they can become involved in cottage industries like weaving, baking, or dress making. Such employment in off-farm activities will enable them to earn an income and thus create a possible pathway out of poverty.

To conclude, the summaries of the literature review and the desktop study which have been outlined above firstly show the changes in rural poverty in the country since 1994 thus answering Sub-objective 1; the reasons why these changes have happened thus answering Sub-objective 2; the trend rural poverty has followed in the country post COVID-19 thus answering Sub-objective 3, and the different poverty reducing policies which could be implemented in the country to alleviate rural poverty thus answering Sub-objective 4. It is therefore possible to declare that the research question has been answered.

Certain limitations to this study were identified and will be discussed next.

5.5 Limitations of the Study

The most obvious limitation of the study was the lack of up-to-date socio-economic data which would have been provided by the recent Census. Unfortunately, with the delay in the Census rollout due to COVID-19, older sources of information from Statistics South Africa had to be used.

Another limitation was the changes made to the provincial boundaries, the collapsing of municipalities and creation of others. This meant that there were gaps in the information about these rural local municipalities. In addition, some of the predominantly rural local municipalities changed into urban local municipalities resulting in altered municipal boundaries.

It was also difficult to find consistent information as some of the older sources of data from Statistics South Africa did not split the information along municipal lines or into rural/urban.

5.6 Possibilities for further research

After completing the desktop study, it was felt that further research could be conducted into the following areas: -

5.6.1 The effect of COVID-19 on rural poverty in South Africa

The effect of the COVID-19 pandemic on rural poverty in South Africa could be an interesting area to do further research on. Some research has already been done on this topic (see Section 3.4.4), but the full-blown economic effect of this pandemic will probably only be seen now and in the coming years. It would also be interesting to examine how rural people coped with the effects of the pandemic in terms of employment and income, as well as in terms of access to health facilities when they fell sick or when they needed to access vaccinations.

5.6.2 The link between rural and urban poverty in South Africa

Another interesting area which could be further investigated is the link between rural and urban poverty in the country since 1994. There were indications in this study that rural poverty might have been exported to the urban areas to become urban poverty following rural/urban migration. It would also be interesting to investigate whether urban poverty has followed the same path as rural poverty or whether the urban poor are more resilient to shocks than the rural poor.

5.6.3 The relevance of the social wage to rural poverty alleviation

A very relevant topic which was identified in the study as one of the main ways the government has tried to address rural poverty is the payment of the social wage in the form of various grants. The relevance of this social wage needs to be investigated further and the impact of such on rural poverty should be quantified. There is an

opportunity cost attached to the payment of this social wage and this could be examined in more depth.

5.7 Conclusion

The year 2020 marked the start of the Decade of Action to deliver the SDGs by 2030. The first SDG was a very grand goal and aimed to end poverty all over the world. However, the year 2020 will also be known as the year when the COVID-19 pandemic arrived and affected and disrupted most of the world. The pandemic plunged millions of people around the world back into poverty thus undoing years of work. South Africa was not spared from this disruption. There has been an increase in unemployment, inequality, and poverty in the country as a whole, and in the rural areas of the country. In order to address poverty, rural poverty needs to be recognised as a problem and dealt with accordingly. The aim of this study was to highlight the plight of these rural areas and the hope is that they will not be forgotten as the country tries to address the wider problem of poverty.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Various poverty indicators for South Africa (1994-2021)

HDI				FPL - Poverty Headcount Index			Unemployment rate		
	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2021	% Annualised change	1994	2021	% Annualised change
SOUTH AFRICA	0,648	0,7	0,29%	34%	28%	-0,68%	13%	34%	3,7%
WESTERN CAPE	0,697	0,748	0,26%	43%	34%	-0,90%	5%	25%	6,2%
EASTERN CAPE	0,598	0,657	0,35%	40%	21%	-2,41%	27%	38%	1,3%
NORTHERN CAPE	0,67	0,643	-0,15%	34%	25%	-1,20%	12%	32%	3,7%
FREE STATE	0,624	0,603	-0,13%	39%	20%	-2,43%	13%	32%	3,3%
KWAZULU-NATAL	0,605	0,635	0,18%	43%	27%	-1,67%	19%	37%	2,5%
NORTH WEST	0,665	0,719	0,29%	37%	21%	-2,11%	12%	35%	3,9%
GAUTENG	0,702	0,712	0,05%	37%	31%	-0,64%	8%	34%	5,6%
MPUMALANGA	0,647	0,68	0,18%	36%	27%	-1,05%	13%	37%	4,1%
LIMPOPO	0,689	0,688	-0,01%	37%	20%	-2,28%	19%	42%	2,9%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from Quantec (2022b, 2022e & 2022g)

Appendix 2: FPL - Poverty Headcount Index (North West Province)

	Poverty Headcount Index		
	1994	**2021**	**% Annualised change**
SOUTH AFRICA	34%	28%	-0,7%
NORTH WEST PROVINCE	37%	21%	-2.11%
BOJANALA DISTRICT	31%	18%	-2,2%
Moretele	30%	20%	-1,6%
Madibeng	31%	19%	-1,9%
Moses Kotane	34%	13%	-3,7%
NGAKA MODIRI MOLEMA DISTRICT	47%	24%	-2,4%
Ratlou	45%	17%	-3,8%
Tswaing	55%	21%	-3,6%
Mahikeng	44%	28%	-1,8%
Ramotshere Moiloa	49%	18%	-3,7%
DR RUTH SEGOMOTSI MOMPATI DISTRICT	41%	18%	-3,1%
Greater Taung	34%	14%	-3,4%
Kagisano-Molopo	49%	18%	-3,7%

Source: Author's own compilation from Quantec (2022g)

Appendix 3: HDI (North West Province)

				Health Dimension			Education Dimension			Education Dimension			Standard of Living Dimension		
	HDI			Life expectancy (yrs)			Expected years of schooling (yrs)			Mean years of schooling (yrs)			GNI per capita (Rand)		
	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change
SOUTH AFRICA	0,648	0,700	0,30%	62,1	65,5	0,21%	12,0	13,3	0,40%	6,6	8,8	1,11%	11789	12556	0,24%
NORTH WEST PROVINCE	0,665	0,719	0,30%	63,2	66,7	0,21%	11,7	13,1	0,44%	6,0	7,9	1,06%	10107	11400	0,46%
BOJANALA DISTRICT	0,661	0,643	-0,11%	67,9	61,8	-0,36%	12,1	13,0	0,28%	6,5	8,4	0,99%	14920	14166	-0,20%
Moretele	0,657	0,626	-0,19%	62,7	60,7	-0,12%	12,5	13,8	0,38%	5,9	8,0	1,18%	4819	4660	-0,13%
Madibeng	0,662	0,650	-0,07%	63,0	62,3	-0,04%	12,0	13,0	0,31%	6,6	8,4	0,93%	14039	12552	-0,43%
Moses Kotane	0,658	0,627	-0,19%	62,8	60,7	-0,13%	12,5	13,4	0,27%	6,0	8,0	1,11%	9183	9746	0,23%
NGAKA MODIRI MOLEMA DISTRICT	0,663	0,641	-0,13%	63,1	61,6	-0,09%	11,5	13,2	0,53%	5,4	7,2	1,11%	6450	7815	0,74%
Ratlou	0,660	0,630	-0,18%	62,9	60,9	-0,12%	11,1	13,0	0,61%	3,5	5,1	1,46%	1698	2301	1,18%
Tswaing	0,663	0,645	-0,11%	63,1	62,0	-0,07%	11,7	13,0	0,41%	4,3	6,0	1,29%	4028	5139	0,94%
Mahikeng	0,661	0,635	-0,15%	63,0	61,3	-0,11%	11,6	13,5	0,59%	6,6	8,5	0,98%	10059	11894	0,65%
Ramotshere Moiloa	0,664	0,641	-0,14%	63,2	61,7	-0,09%	11,8	13,2	0,43%	4,8	6,8	1,35%	4400	5558	0,90%
DR RUTH SEGOMOTSI MOMPATI DISTRICT	0,663	0,646	-0,10%	63,1	62,0	-0,07%	11,0	13,2	0,70%	4,3	6,3	1,48%	4248	6034	1,36%
Greater Taung	0,660	0,631	-0,17%	62,9	61,0	-0,12%	11,5	13,8	0,70%	4,2	6,3	1,57%	2741	4217	1,67%
Kagisano-Molopo	0,661	0,636	-0,15%	63,0	61,3	-0,11%	10,2	12,9	0,91%	3,4	5,4	1,80%	2686	4368	1,89%

Source: Author's own compilation from Quantec (2022b)

Appendix 4: Other socio-economic indicators (North West Province)

	Dependency ratio			Gini Coefficient			SAMPI			Unemployment rate (%)		
	2001	2016	% Annualised change	1994	2019	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change
SOUTH AFRICA	61	53	-0,9%	0,680	0,677	0,0%				13	29	3,1%
NORTH WEST PROVINCE	59	55	-0,5%	0,642	0,722	0,5%	0,08	0,04	-4,5%	13	30	3,4%
BOJANALA DISTRICT										12	30	3,6%
Moretele	67	77	0,9%	0,481	0,488	0,1%	0,09	0,05	-3,8%	22	50	3,2%
Madibeng	50	52	0,3%	0,590	0,690	0,6%	0,09	0,04	-5,3%	12	32	3,7%
Moses Kotane	65	68	0,3%	0,565	0,629	0,4%	0,07	0,05	-2,2%	19	37	2,5%
NGAKA MODIRI MOLEMA DISTRICT				0,635	0,703	0,4%				19	32	2,0%
Ratlou	86	64	-1,9%	0,458	0,515	0,5%	0,13	0,07	-4,0%	32	43	1,2%
Tswaing	75	53	-2,3%	0,589	0,666	0,5%	0,08	0,05	-3,1%	12	25	2,8%
Mahikeng	58	40	-2,4%	0,669	0,748	0,4%	0,08	0,03	-6,3%	20	34	2,2%
Ramotshere Moiloa	70	50	-2,2%	0,560	0,661	0,7%	0,09	0,05	-3,8%	24	35	1,4%
DR RUTH SEGOMOTSI MOMPATI DISTRICT				0,557	0,648	0,6%				20	30	1,6%
Greater Taung	82	71	-0,9%	0,485	0,557	0,6%	0,14	0,07	-4,5%	35	44	0,9%
Kagisano-Molopo	81	71	-0,9%	0,538	0,637	0,7%	0,14	0,06	-5,5%	16	25	1,7%

Source: Author's own compilation using data from National Government of South Africa (2022); Quantec (2022b); Statistics South Africa (2014, 2016 & 2022);

Appendix 5: Living conditions (North West Province)

	Electricity for lighting (%)			Flush toilet (%)			Piped water (%)			Paying off/own house (%)			Formal dwelling (%)			Refuse removal (%)		
	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change
SOUTH AFRICA	70	90,3	1,7%	51,9	60,6	1,0%	32,3	44,4	2,1%	41,3	54,7	1,9%	63,8	79,2	1,5%	55,4	61	0,6%
BOJANALA DISTRICT	75	88	1,0%	24,2	35	2,5%	14	20	2,3%	57	61	0,5%	66	71	0,5%	26	57	5,4%
Moretele	72	97	2,1%	1	2	5,9%	5	2	-7,2%	70	88	1,5%	79	87	0,7%	0	1	8,4%
Madibeng	70	88	1,6%	22,5	27	1,3%	14	16	0,8%	49	68	2,2%	61	63	0,2%	26	36	2,2%
Moses Kotane	91	93	0,1%	10	11	0,3%	8	9	0,5%	69	80	1,0%	78	86	0,6%	8	76	16,0%
NGAKA MODIRI MOLEMA DISTRICT	71	89	1,6%	25,7	30	1,0%	18	20	0,6%	59	73	1,4%	83	83	0,0%	25	37	2,9%
Ratlou	76	84	0,6%	1	0	-5,9%	2	1	-6,4%	76	81	0,4%	86	82	-0,3%	0	0	0%
Tswaing	69	88	1,6%	26,4	38	2,5%	13	9	-2,3%	45	67	2,7%	75	81	0,5%	24	29	1,4%
Mahikeng	71	85	1,2%	28	25	-0,9%	24	31	1,6%	64	52	-1,4%	87	73	-1,2%	27	60	5,6%
Ramotshere Moiloa	70	89	1,6%	18,8	26	2,2%	11	17	2,9%	56	82	2,6%	81	78	-0,3%	17	21	1,4%
DR RUTH SEGOMOTSI MOMPATI DISTRICT	60	88	2,6%	23,2	35	2,7%	12	14	1,5%	59	73	1,4%	79	90	0,8%	27	33	1,2%
Greater Taung	49	93	4,3%	7	8	0,4%	5	5	-0,9%	71	84	1,1%	84	90	0,5%	6	5	-0,8%
Kagisano-Molopo	64	83	1,8%	7	4	-3,2%	8	3	-5,8%	50	76	2,7%	83	94	0,9%	2	0	-100,0%

Source: Author's own compilation using data from National Government of South Africa (2022); Statistics South Africa (2001, 2022)

Appendix 6: FPL - Poverty Headcount Index (Limpopo Province)

	1994	2021	% Annualised change
SOUTH AFRICA	34%	28%	-0,7%
LIMPOPO	41%	24%	-2,0%
MOPANI DISTRICT	36%	19%	-2,5%
Greater Giyani	34%	23%	-1,5%
Greater Letaba	32%	16%	-2,6%
Greater Tzaneen	33%	17%	-2,5%
Ba-Phalaborwa	41%	21%	-2,5%
Maruleng	59%	22%	-3,7%
VHEMBE DISTRICT	31%	15%	-2,7%
Thulamela	27%	13%	-2,7%
Makhado	35%	17%	-2,8%
CAPRICORN DISTRICT	42%	20%	-2,7%
Blouberg	56%	18%	-4,3%
Molemole	39%	13%	-4,1%
Polokwane	43%	22%	-2,5%
Lepele-Nkumpi	37%	22%	-2,1%
WATERBERG DISTRICT	39%	25%	-1,7%
Lephalale	34%	34%	0,0%
Mogalakwena	45%	27%	-2,0%
GREATER SEKHUKHUNE DISTRICT	39%	23%	-2,0%
Makhuduthamaga	35%	22%	-1,8%
Ephraim Mogale	44%	22%	-2,7%
Elias Motsoaledi	41%	22%	-2,3%
Greater Tubatse	38%	21%	-2,2%

Source: Author's own compilation using data from Quantec (2022g)

Appendix 7: HDI (Limpopo Province)

	HDI			Life expectancy (yrs)			Expected schooling years (yrs)			Mean years of schooling (yrs)			GNI per capita (Rand)		
	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change
SOUTH AFRICA	0,648	0,700	0,30%	62,1	65,5	0,21%	12,0	13,3	0,40%	6,6	8,8	1,11%	11789	12556	0,24%
LIMPOPO	0,689	0,688	-0,01%	64,8	64,7	-0,01%	12,1	14,2	0,62%	4,8	7,7	1,83%	6425	9190	1,39%
MOPANI DISTRICT	0,694	0,690	-0,02%	65,2	64,8	-0,02%	11,9	14,3	0,71%	4,2	7,1	2,04%	5962	8764	1,49%
Greater Giyani	0,695	0,688	-0,04%	65,2	64,7	-0,03%	12,4	14,5	0,60%	3,6	6,6	2,36%	3726	4977	1,12%
Greater Letaba	0,695	0,688	-0,04%	65,2	64,7	-0,03%	12,1	14,4	0,67%	3,3	6,4	2,58%	3869	5398	1,29%
Greater Tzaneen	0,694	0,690	-0,02%	65,1	64,8	-0,02%	11,9	14,2	0,68%	4,6	7,5	1,90%	5725	7605	1,10%
Ba-Phalaborwa	0,694	0,694	0,00%	65,1	65,1	0,00%	11,5	14,1	0,79%	5,8	7,9	1,20%	16264	24700	1,62%
Maruleng	0,695	0,692	-0,02%	65,1	65,0	-0,01%	10,9	14,3	1,05%	4,1	6,8	1,96%	4154	5465	1,06%
VHEMBE DISTRICT	0,695	0,688	-0,04%	65,2	64,7	-0,03%	12,6	14,3	0,49%	4,8	7,2	1,57%	4907	6065	0,82%
Thulamela	0,694	0,687	-0,04%	65,1	64,6	-0,03%	12,8	14,4	0,45%	5,0	7,8	1,73%	4661	5665	0,75%
Makhado	0,695	0,690	-0,03%	65,2	64,8	-0,02%	12,7	14,3	0,46%	4,8	7,6	1,78%	5224	6454	0,82%
CAPRICORN DISTRICT	0,694	0,691	-0,02%	65,1	64,9	-0,01%	12,2	14,2	0,59%	5,5	8,3	1,60%	6787	9818	1,43%
Blouberg	0,693	0,688	-0,03%	65,0	64,7	-0,02%	11,7	14,5	0,83%	3,3	5,8	2,19%	2439	3876	1,80%
Molemole	0,693	0,689	-0,02%	65,0	64,8	-0,01%	12,5	14,0	0,44%	4,4	7,2	1,91%	3525	5654	1,83%
Polokwane	0,695	0,695	0,00%	65,2	65,2	0,00%	12,1	14,1	0,59%	6,8	9,4	1,25%	11579	14574	0,89%
Lepele-Nkumpi	0,693	0,687	-0,03%	65,0	64,6	-0,02%	12,4	14,4	0,58%	5,0	7,6	1,62%	4334	6977	1,85%
WATERBERG DISTRICT	0,694	0,697	0,02%	65,1	65,3	0,01%	11,5	13,6	0,65%	5,3	7,6	1,40%	12384	18894	1,64%
Lephalale	0,694	0,695	0,01%	65,1	65,1	0,00%	11,4	13,7	0,71%	5,4	7,5	1,27%	11666	14856	0,93%
Mogalakwena	0,694	0,693	-0,01%	65,1	65,0	-0,01%	12,3	14,4	0,61%	4,7	7,5	1,81%	4979	7041	1,34%
GREATER SEKHUKHUNE DISTRICT	0,694	0,687	-0,04%	65,1	64,6	-0,03%	11,9	14,3	0,71%	3,7	7,7	2,86%	4381	6515	1,54%
Makhuduthamaga	0,694	0,687	-0,04%	65,1	64,7	-0,02%	12,3	14,5	0,63%	3,7	7,5	2,75%	2187	2958	1,17%
Ephraim Mogale	0,693	0,687	-0,03%	65,0	64,7	-0,02%	12,2	14,0	0,53%	3,9	7,2	2,39%	3485	4599	1,07%
Elias Motsoaledi	0,694	0,688	-0,03%	65,0	64,7	-0,02%	12,4	14,1	0,50%	3,8	7,2	2,49%	3580	4702	1,05%
Greater Tubatse	0,693	0,685	-0,04%	65,0	64,5	-0,03%	11,2	14,3	0,94%	3,8	8,4	3,10%	7799	12181	1,73%

Source: Author's own compilation from Quantec (2022b)

Appendix 8: Other socio-economic indicators (Limpopo Province)

	Dependency Ratio			Gini Coefficient			SAMPI			Unemployment rate (%)		
	2001	**2016**	**% Annualised change**	**1994**	**2019**	**% Annualised change**	**2001**	**2016**	**% Annualised change**	**1994**	**2020**	**% Annualised change**
SOUTH AFRICA	61	53	-0,9%	0,680	0,677	0,0%				13	29	3,1%
LIMPOPO PROVINCE	84	67	-1,4%	0,62	0,70	0,5%	**0,09**	0,05	-4,4%	19	36	2,5%
MOPANI DISTRICT				0,62	0,67	0,3%				15	35	3,2%
Greater Giyani	87	64	-2,0%	0,58	0,60	0,1%	0,14	0,07	-4,4%	27	45	2,0%
Greater Letaba	84	61	-2,1%	0,52	0,57	0,3%	0,10	0,06	-3,3%	15	32	3,1%
Greater Tzaneen	70	52	-2,0%	0,59	0,64	0,4%	0,10	0,05	-3,7%	13	32	3,6%
Ba-Phalaborwa	58	53	-0,6%	0,76	0,74	-0,1%	0,09	0,03	-6,6%	13	34	3,7%
Maruleng	78	56	-2,2%	0,66	0,67	0,0%	0,11	0,05	-4,8%	14	33	3,4%
VHEMBE DISTRICT				0,56	0,61	0,3%				20	37	2,3%
Thulamela	87	63	-2,2%	0,53	0,59	0,4%	0,12	0,06	-4,6%	25	41	2,0%
Makhado	85	65	-1,8%	0,59	0,62	0,2%	0,09	0,05	-4,1%	19	35	2,4%
CAPRICORN DISTRICT				0,56	0,61	0,3%				20	32	1,8%
Blouberg	99	89	-0,7%	0,59	0,58	-0,1%	0,11	0,05	-4,7%	18	31	2,1%
Molemole	84	81	-0,3%	0,54	0,58	0,3%	0,06	0,04	-2,9%	15	33	3,2%
Polokwane	69	55	-1,5%	0,73	0,79	0,4%	0,07	0,02	-7,5%	17	28	1,8%
Lepele-Nkumpi	92	78	-1,1%	0,57	0,68	0,7%	0,08	0,06	-2,6%	29	43	1,4%
WATERBERG DISTRICT				0,69	0,77	0,4%				11	24	3,1%
Lephalale	68	48	-2,4%	0,68	0,82	0,7%	0,06	0,04	-2,5%	8	22	3,8%
Mogalakwena	83	87	0,4%	0,64	0,68	0,3%	0,07	0,05	-3,0%	22	36	1,9%
GREATER SEKHUKHUNE DISTRICT				0,52	0,66	0,9%				32	52	2,0%
Makhuduthamaga	95	74	-1,7%	0,51	0,58	0,5%	0,07	0,07	-0,7%	45	62	1,2%
Ephraim Mogale	83	63	-1,8%	0,56	0,61	0,3%	0,07	0,05	-1,7%	20	43	3,0%
Elias Motsoaledi	87	64	-2,0%	0,56	0,62	0,4%	0,08	0,05	-3,3%	25	44	2,1%
Greater Tubatse	89	52	-3,4%	0,49	0,69	1,3%	0,11	0,06	-4,0%	32	53	2,0%

Source: Author's own compilation using data from National Government of South Africa (2022); Quantec (2022b); Statistics South Africa (2014, 2016 & 2022)

Appendix 9: Living conditions (Limpopo Province)

	Electricity for lighting (%)			Flush toilet (%)			Piped water (%)			Paying off/own house (%)			Formal dwelling (%)			Refuse removal (%)		
	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change
SOUTH AFRICA	70	90,3	1,70%	51,9	60,6	1,00%	32,3	44,4	2,10%	41,3	54,7	1,90%	63,8	79,2	1,50%	55,4	61	0,60%
MOPANI DISTRICT																		
Greater Giyani	67,3	92,5	2,1%	13,7	11,4	-1,2%	11,3	10,3	-0,6%	58	83,6	2,5%	44,6	87	4,6%	10,4	11,5	0,7%
Greater Letaba	65,7	95,6	2,5%	7,5	7,2	-0,3%	5,4	4,9	-0,6%	68,9	75,4	0,6%	68	91,6	2,0%	7	8,6	1,4%
Greater Tzaneen	69,1	93,6	2,0%	16,1	12,8	-1,5%	8,1	11,9	2,6%	50,3	64,9	1,7%	68,8	88,8	1,7%	15	13,5	-0,7%
Ba-Phalaborwa	76,8	98,2	1,7%	40,2	36,8	-0,6%	29,5	30,6	0,2%	58,4	77	1,9%	80,2	96,7	1,3%	41,6	42,2	0,1%
Maruleng	58,7	95,3	3,3%	11,5	3,4	-7,8%	5,9	10,8	4,1%	42,1	51,2	1,3%	80,9	95,2	1,1%	7,7	5,2	-2,6%
VHEMBE DISTRICT																		
Thulamela	59,7	96,6	3,3%	10,4	11,8	0,8%	8,1	9,1	0,8%	68,7	87	1,6%	57,2	91,2	3,2%	9,5	17,6	4,2%
Makhado	66,6	95,7	2,4%	9,9	12,7	1,7%	7,1	7,3	0,2%	54,6	76	2,2%	71,4	87,2	1,3%	9,6	10,2	0,4%
CAPRICORN DISTRICT																		
Blouberg	41,6	95,3	5,7%	4,3	5,5	1,7%	3,4	1,4	-5,7%	62,1	65,4	0,3%	72,5	95,7	1,9%	1,5	16,6	17,4%
Molemole	74,7	97,4	1,8%	6,8	11,7	3,7%	4,1	5,6	2,1%	67	77,7	1,0%	92,2	96,1	0,3%	7	4,4	-3,0%
Polokwane	64,6	94,5	2,6%	32,6	40,4	1,4%	21,1	26,3	1,5%	60,2	67,3	0,7%	79,3	93,4	1,1%	33,4	38,8	1,0%
Lepele-Nkumpi	61,1	97,4	3,2%	16,8	18,1	0,5%	12,6	13,9	0,7%	71,9	78,4	0,6%	88,8	89,3	0,0%	16,6	21,8	1,8%
WATERBERG DISTRICT																		
Lephalale	69,3	83,2	1,2%	30,1	40,4	2,0%	22,4	25,1	0,8%	41,1	41,6	0,1%	76,8	76,3	0,0%	24	44,5	4,2%
Mogalakwena	70,4	92,7	1,9%	20,5	25,6	1,5%	8,7	14,5	3,5%	44,9	81,5	4,1%	85,4	95,3	0,7%	16,7	32,9	4,6%
GREATER SEKHUKHUNE DISTRICT																		
Makhuduthamaga	62,4	93,3	2,7%	2	2,9	2,5%	1,2	3,4	7,2%	62,6	77,7	1,5%	78,7	88,8	0,8%	0,6	1,3	5,3%
Ephraim Mogale	80,3	95,2	1,1%	11	8,2	-1,9%	6	5,3	-0,8%	62,9	62,3	-0,1%	78,9	90,5	0,9%	12,4	17,3	2,2%
Elias Motsoaledi	84,1	93,4	0,7%	5,9	9,8	3,4%	3,2	6,8	5,2%	57,3	64,2	0,8%	79,5	88,5	0,7%	6,6	11,1	3,5%
Greater Tubatse	47,1	84,2	3,9%	5,3	4,7	-0,8%	3,9	3,8	-0,2%	63,1	82,4	1,8%	72,3	85,7	1,1%	7,1	9,6	2,0%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from National Government of South Africa (2022); Statistics South Africa (2001, 2022)

Appendix 10: FPL - Poverty Headcount Index (Mpumalanga Province)

	1994	2021	% Annualised change
SOUTH AFRICA	34%	28%	-0,7%
MPUMALANGA	36%	27%	-1,1%
GERT SIBANDE DISTRICT	37%	33%	-0,4%
Albert Luthuli	31%	32%	0,1%
Mkhondo	39%	34%	-0,5%
NKANGALA DISTRICT	34%	29%	-0,6%
Thembisile Hani	27%	26%	-0,2%
Dr JS Moroka	26%	28%	0,2%
EHLANZENI DISTRICT	36%	20%	-2,2%
Mbombela	41%	25%	-1,9%
Nkomazi	38%	18%	-2,9%
Bushbuckridge	31%	16%	-2,4%

Source: Author's own compilation using data from Quantec (2022j)

Appendix 11: HDI (Mpumalanga Province)

	HDI			Life expectancy (yrs)			Expected years of schooling (yrs)			Mean years of schooling (yrs)			GNI per capita (Rand)		
	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change
SOUTH AFRICA	0,648	0,700	0,30%	62,1	65,5	0,21%	12,0	13,3	0,40%	6,6	8,8	1,11%	11789	12556	0,24%
MPUMALANGA	0,633	0,680	0,28%	61,2	64,3	0,19%	12,2	13,7	0,45%	5,7	8,1	1,36%	10058	11378	0,48%
GERT SIBANDE DISTRICT	0,644	0,696	0,30%	61,8	65,2	0,21%	11,9	13,4	0,46%	5,8	8,0	1,24%	11250	11889	0,21%
Albert Luthuli	0,628	0,670	0,25%	60,8	63,5	0,17%	12,6	14,0	0,41%	4,1	7,2	2,19%	4930	5529	0,44%
Mkhondo	0,635	0,677	0,25%	61,2	64,0	0,17%	11,5	12,9	0,44%	4,8	7,0	1,46%	7442	6133	-0,74%
NKANGALA DISTRICT	0,643	0,697	0,31%	61,8	65,3	0,21%	12,8	13,7	0,26%	6,4	8,6	1,14%	13542	13336	-0,06%
Thembisile Hani	0,623	0,662	0,23%	60,5	63,1	0,16%	12,8	14,0	0,35%	4,4	7,7	2,18%	5250	4410	-0,67%
Dr JS Moroka	0,623	0,663	0,24%	60,5	63,1	0,16%	12,7	14,2	0,43%	4,7	7,8	1,97%	3867	3894	0,03%
EHLANZENI DISTRICT	0,631	0,682	0,30%	61,0	64,3	0,20%	12,2	13,9	0,50%	5,1	7,7	1,60%	7064	9306	1,07%
Mbombela	0,639	0,699	0,35%	61,5	65,4	0,24%	12,2	13,8	0,48%	6,0	8,6	1,39%	11461	13132	0,52%
Nkomazi	0,625	0,669	0,26%	60,6	63,5	0,18%	11,9	13,5	0,49%	3,7	6,4	2,13%	4259	5756	1,17%
Bushbuckridge	0,625	0,665	0,24%	60,6	63,2	0,16%	12,4	14,4	0,58%	4,2	7,3	2,15%	3150	4165	1,08%

Source: Author's own compilation using data from Quantec (2022b)

Appendix 12: Other socio-economic indicators (Mpumalanga Province)

	Dependency ratio			Gini Coefficient			SAMPI			Unemployment rate (%)		
	2001	2016	% Annualised change	1994	2019	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change
SOUTH AFRICA	61	53	-0,9%	0,68	0,677	0,0%				13%	29%	3,1%
MPUMALANGA	69	53	-1,7%	0,60	0,68	0,5%	0,08	0,03	-6,3%	12,75%	31,69%	3,6%
GERT SIBANDE DISTRICT		52		0,62	0,71	0,5%				10,68%	30,96%	4,2%
Albert Luthuli	83	66	-1,5%	0,49	0,61	0,8%	0,11	0,04	-6,5%	17,01%	36,10%	2,9%
Mkhondo	77	64	-1,2%	0,57	0,62	0,4%	0,14	0,05	-6,6%	9,69%	34,46%	5,0%
NKANGALA DISTRICT		46		0,62	0,70	0,5%				14,00%	34,24%	3,5%
Thembisile Hani	72	53	-2,0%	0,45	0,50	0,5%	0,07	0,02	-8,0%	18,32%	42,29%	3,3%
Dr JS Moroka	80	62	-1,6%	0,42	0,50	0,7%	0,06	0,04	-2,7%	23,90%	49,40%	2,8%
EHLANZENI DISTRICT		66		0,55	0,64	0,6%				13,20%	29,68%	3,2%
Mbombela	63	57	-0,7%	0,63	0,70	0,4%	0,07	0,02	-8,0%	11,20%	24,29%	3,0%
Nkomazi	81	71	-0,9%	0,49	0,55	0,5%	0,12	0,03	-8,8%	10,76%	29,02%	3,9%
Bushbuckridge	88	81	-0,6%	0,44	0,50	0,5%	0,11	0,04	-6,5%	26,67%	46,63%	2,2%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from National Government of South Africa (2022); Quantec (2022b); Statistics South Africa (2014, 2016 & 2022)

Appendix 13: Living conditions (Mpumalanga Province)

	Electricity for lighting (%)			Flush toilet (%)			Piped water (%)			Paying off house (%)			Formal dwelling (%)			Refuse removal (%)		
			% Annualised change			% Annualised change			% Annualised change			% Annualised change			% Annualised change			% Annualised change
	1996	2016		1996	2016		1996	2016		2001	2016		1996	2016		1996	2016	
SOUTH AFRICA	70	90,3	1,3%	51,9	60,6	0,8%	32,3	44,4	1,6%	41,3	54,7	1,4%	63,8	79,2	1,1%	55,4	61	0,5%
GERT SIBANDE DISTRICT																		
Albert Luthuli	25	95	6,9%	12,7	19,2	2,1%	40,3	11,6	-6,0%	62,9	77,8	1,1%	49,8	80,2	2,4%	12,2	15	1,0%
Mkhondo	36,9	77,1	3,8%	27,7	42,8	2,2%	38,2	17,7	-3,8%	39,1	55,7	1,8%	37,1	75	3,6%	29,6	38	1,3%
NKANGALA DISTRICT	**73,6**	85,4	0,7%															
Thembisile Hani	84,1	96	0,7%	5,2	6	0,5%	67	8	-9,9%	70	78	0,5%	63,6	87	1,5%	7	10	1,7%
Dr JS Moroka	74,6	95,1	1,2%	9,5	14,3	2,1%	54,9	9,5	-8,4%	72,1	88,8	1,0%	81	91,5	0,6%	13,8	6,4	-3,8%
EHLANZENI DISTRICT	**40,5**	95	4,4%															
Mbombela	49,4	95	3,3%	26,8	27,6	0,1%	65,4	25,2	-4,7%	71,5	80,9	0,6%	76,1	90,6	0,9%	24,7	29	0,8%
Nkomazi	25,6	95	6,8%	7,6	4	-3,2%	47	6	-10,1%	56	84	2,0%	61,1	92	2,1%	11	18	2,6%
Bushbuckridge	34,2	96,5	5,3%	4,3	6	1,8%	30	7	-6,8%	74	82	0,5%	69,7	96	1,6%	5	4	-0,5%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from National Government of South Africa (2022); Statistics South Africa (2001 & 2022)

Appendix 14: FPL - Poverty Headcount Index (KwaZulu-Natal Province)

	1994	2021	% Annualised change
SOUTH AFRICA	34%	28%	-0,7%
KWAZULU-NATAL	43%	27%	-1,7%
UGU DISTRICT	39%	25%	-1,8%
Umdoni	37%	23%	-1,8%
Umzumbe	37%	25%	-1,5%
Umuziwabantu	41%	25%	-1,9%
Ray Nkonyeni	41%	26%	-1,6%
UMGUNGUNDLOVU DISTRICT	44%	27%	-1,8%
uMshwathi	38%	20%	-2,5%
Impendle	59%	22%	-3,8%
Mkhambathini	51%	21%	-3,4%
Richmond	46%	20%	-3,2%
UTHUKELA DISTRICT	46%	26%	-2,2%
Okhahlamba	62%	24%	-3,6%
UMZINYATHI DISTRICT	41%	29%	-1,4%
Nqutu	38%	34%	-0,4%
Msinga	43%	28%	-1,6%
Umvoti	44%	19%	-3,1%
AMAJUBA DISTRICT	44%	19%	-3,1%
Emadlangeni	58%	41%	-1,4%
Dannhauser	34%	24%	-1,4%
ZULULAND DISTRICT	46%	32%	-1,4%
eDumbe	49%	26%	-2,5%
UPhongolo	51%	26%	-2,6%
Abaqulusi	49%	33%	-1,5%
Nongoma	41%	33%	-0,8%
Ulundi	45%	36%	-0,8%
UMKHANYAKUDE DISTRICT	48%	32%	-1,5%
Umhlabuyalingana	49%	27%	-2,3%
Jozini	50%	37%	-1,1%
The Big 5 False Bay	48%	37%	-1,0%
Mtubatuba	43%	31%	-1,3%
KING CETSHWAYO DISTRICT	48%	29%	-1,9%
Mfolozi	38%	22%	-2,1%
uMhlathuze	54%	36%	-1,5%
uMlalazi	56%	25%	-3,1%
Mthonjaneni	44%	27%	-1,8%
Nkandla	36%	34%	-0,3%
ILEMBE DISTRICT	35%	21%	-2,0%
Mandeni	27%	17%	-1,7%
Ndwedwe		22%	-2,5%
Maphumulo	33%	27%	-0,8%
HARRY GWALA DISTRICT	42%	23%	-2,3%
Ubuhlebezwe	41%	24%	-2,0%
Umzimkhulu	36%	23%	-1,7%

Source: Author's own compilation using data from Quantec (2022g)

Appendix 15: HDI (KwaZulu-Natal Province)

	HDI			Life expectancy (yrs)			Expected years of schooling (yrs)			Mean years of schooling (yrs)			GNI per capita (Rand)		
	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change
SOUTH AFRICA	0,648	0,700	0,30%	62,1	65,5	0,21%	12,0	13,3	0,40%	6,6	8,8	1,11%	11789	12556	0,24%
KWAZULU-NATAL	0,605	0,635	0,19%	59,3	61,3	0,13%	12,2	13,7	0,45%	5,7	8,1	1,36%	8817	10277	0,59%
UGU DISTRICT	0,598	0,622	0,15%	58,8	60,5	0,11%	11,7	13,2	0,47%	4,9	7,8	1,80%	4933	6390	1,00%
Umdoni	0,628	0,682	0,32%	60,8	64,3	0,22%	11,8	12,5	0,22%	6,5	8,2	0,90%	9673	10071	0,16%
Umzumbe	0,584	0,590	0,04%	58,0	58,4	0,03%	11,9	13,6	0,51%	4,0	7,1	2,23%	1638	2518	1,67%
UMuziwabantu	0,589	0,596	0,05%	58,2	58,7	0,03%	11,1	12,9	0,58%	4,1	6,8	1,96%	3017	3812	0,90%
Ray Nkonyeni	0,612	0,651	0,24%	59,8	62,3	0,16%	11,6	13,2	0,50%	6,1	8,8	1,42%	9264	10727	0,57%
UMGUNGUNDLOVU DISTRICT	0,609	0,651	0,26%	59,6	63,3	0,23%	11,9	12,8	0,28%	6,5	8,7	1,13%	9787	12124	0,83%
uMshwathi	0,588	0,607	0,12%	58,2	59,4	0,08%	11,6	13,1	0,47%	4,3	6,9	1,84%	4588	7088	1,69%
Impendle	0,584	0,593	0,06%	58,0	58,6	0,04%	12,2	12,2	0,00%	4,8	7,1	1,52%	1494	2372	1,79%
Mkhambathini	0,586	0,606	0,13%	58,1	59,4	0,09%	11,7	12,8	0,35%	3,9	6,7	2,10%	4678	6860	1,48%
Richmond	0,589	0,605	0,10%	58,3	59,3	0,07%	11,6	12,4	0,26%	4,4	6,8	1,69%	4815	6858	1,37%
UTHUKELA DISTRICT	0,592	0,609	0,11%	58,5	59,6	0,07%	12,1	13,4	0,39%	5,0	7,5	1,57%	4197	5645	1,15%
Okhahlamba	0,586	0,600	0,09%	58,1	59,0	0,06%	12,0	13,6	0,48%	3,9	6,6	2,04%	2568	4349	2,05%
UMZINYATHI DISTRICT	0,591	0,605	0,09%	58,4	59,3	0,06%	11,0	13,3	0,73%	3,5	6,5	2,41%	2734	3788	1,26%
Nqutu	0,585	0,592	0,05%	58,0	58,4	0,03%	12,1	13,7	0,48%	3,5	7,0	2,70%	1217	1803	1,52%
Msinga	0,588	0,594	0,04%	58,2	58,6	0,03%	9,7	13,5	1,28%	1,7	4,8	4,07%	979	1474	1,59%
Umvoti	0,596	0,614	0,11%	58,7	59,9	0,08%	11,0	13,0	0,64%	4,0	6,5	1,88%	4730	6321	1,12%
AMAJUBA DISTRICT	0,594	0,616	0,14%	58,6	60,1	0,10%	12,6	13,7	0,32%	6,4	8,6	1,14%	6964	8166	0,61%
Emadlangeni	0,584	0,613	0,19%	58,0	59,8	0,12%	11,4	13,2	0,57%	4,5	6,2	1,24%	5616	7502	1,12%
Dannhauser	0,584	0,599	0,10%	57,9	58,9	0,07%	12,7	13,8	0,32%	5,4	7,8	1,42%	5117	6439	0,89%

	HDI			Life expectancy (yrs)			Expected years of schooling (yrs)			Mean years of schooling (yrs)			GNI per capita (Rand)		
	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change
ZULULAND DISTRICT	0,586	0,599	0,08%	58,1	58,9	0,05%	11,9	13,2	0,40%	4,1	7,0	2,08%	3189	4636	1,45%
eDumbe	0,585	0,602	0,11%	58,0	59,1	0,07%	12,2	13,2	0,30%	3,8	6,7	2,21%	2968	4100	1,25%
UPhongolo	0,585	0,597	0,08%	58,0	58,8	0,05%	12,1	12,8	0,22%	4,1	6,9	2,02%	3178	5594	2,20%
Abaqulusi	0,591	0,611	0,13%	58,4	59,7	0,08%	12,4	12,8	0,12%	5,0	7,3	1,47%	5779	6946	0,71%
Nongoma	0,584	0,592	0,05%	58,0	58,5	0,03%	11,8	13,7	0,58%	3,3	6,7	2,76%	1371	2133	1,71%
Ulundi	0,584	0,592	0,05%	58,0	58,5	0,03%	11,5	13,4	0,59%	4,0	7,0	2,18%	2764	4142	1,57%
UMKHANYAKUDE DISTRICT	0,585	0,595	0,07%	58,0	58,7	0,05%	11,1	13,4	0,73%	3,1	6,4	2,83%	2465	3295	1,12%
Umhlabuyalingana	0,585	0,594	0,06%	58,0	58,6	0,04%	10,4	13,8	1,09%	2,5	5,8	3,29%	1860	2451	1,07%
Jozini	0,584	0,593	0,06%	57,9	58,6	0,05%	10,5	13,4	0,94%	2,8	6,3	3,17%	1978	2873	1,45%
The Big 5 False Bay	0,588	0,604	0,10%	58,2	59,3	0,07%	10,5	12,1	0,55%	3,4	6,2	2,34%	4474	5386	0,72%
Mtubatuba	0,586	0,598	0,08%	58,1	58,8	0,05%	12,1	13,3	0,36%	3,9	7,2	2,39%	3667	4533	0,82%
KING CETSHWAYO DISTRICT	0,592	0,611	0,12%	58,5	59,7	0,08%	11,7	13,1	0,44%	4,9	7,5	1,65%	6498	9243	1,36%
Mfolozi	0,583	0,593	0,07%	57,9	58,6	0,05%	12,0	13,0	0,31%	4,3	7,4	2,11%	3985	5077	0,94%
uMhlathuze	0,606	0,637	0,19%	59,4	61,4	0,13%	12,1	13,2	0,34%	7,2	9,2	0,95%	15061	17957	0,68%
uMlalazi	0,587	0,602	0,10%	58,2	59,1	0,06%	11,4	13,2	0,57%	4,0	6,4	1,82%	3088	5087	1,94%
Mthonjaneni	0,586	0,596	0,07%	58,1	58,7	0,04%	10,9	13,0	0,68%	3,4	6,2	2,34%	3668	5473	1,55%
Nkandla	0,586	0,594	0,05%	58,1	58,6	0,03%	11,8	12,7	0,28%	2,9	5,5	2,49%	1211	2260	2,43%
ILEMBE DISTRICT	0,595	0,632	0,23%	58,7	61,1	0,15%	11,7	13,1	0,44%	4,8	7,4	1,68%	6180	7445	0,72%
Mandeni	0,589	0,603	0,09%	58,3	59,2	0,06%	12,1	13,1	0,31%	5,7	8,2	1,41%	7831	7929	0,05%
Ndwedwe	0,583	0,595	0,08%	57,9	58,6	0,05%	11,7	13,3	0,49%	3,8	6,1	1,84%	1667	2547	1,64%
Maphumulo	0,583	0,593	0,07%	58,1	58,6	0,03%	11,7	13,5	0,55%	3,2	5,3	1,96%	1183	1981	2,00%
HARRY GWALA DISTRICT	0,586	0,602	0,10%	58,1	59,1	0,07%	11,9	13,2	0,40%	5,0	7,5	1,57%	3175	4507	1,36%
Ubuhlebezwe	0,586	0,600	0,09%	58,1	59,0	0,06%	11,4	13,1	0,54%	4,3	6,8	1,78%	2919	3956	1,18%
Umzimkhulu	0,584	0,593	0,06%	58,0	58,6	0,04%	12,4	13,6	0,36%	5,5	7,5	1,20%	1819	2542	1,30%

Source: Author's own compilation using data from Quantec (2022b)

Appendix 16: Other socio-economic indicators (Kwazulu-Natal Province)

	Dependency ratio			Gini coefficient			SAMPI			Unemployment rate (%)		
	2001	2016	% Annualised change	1994	2019	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change
KWAZULU NATAL	68	58	-1,1%	0,68	0,671	-0,1%	0,05	0,03	-3,3%	19	32	2,0%
UGU DISTRICT				0,59	0,60	0,0%				20,0	36,3	2,3%
Umdoni	54,7	70,2	1,7%	0,65	0,61	-0,3%	0,09	0,04	-5,4%	12,9	33,5	3,8%
Umzumbe	90,0	87,5	-0,2%	0,44	0,48	0,4%	0,15	0,08	-4,0%	39,7	52,3	1,1%
UMuziwabantu	93,5	97,3	0,3%	0,47	0,53	0,5%	0,16	0,08	-4,9%	22,3	33,1	1,5%
Hibiscus Coast/Ray Nkonyeni	62,6	64,0	0,1%	0,66	0,64	-0,1%	0,07	0,03	-5,2%	13,0	29,4	3,2%
UMGUNGUNDLOVU DISTRICT				0,68	0,69	0,0%				16,1	28,8	2,3%
uMshwathi	70,1	72,6	0,2%	0,49	0,53	0,3%	0,1	0,04	-5,2%	13,7	24,2	2,2%
Impendle	92,1	93,9	0,1%	0,53	0,48	-0,4%	0,12	0,05	-5,2%	34,9	46,0	1,1%
Mkhambathini	68,8	61,6	-0,7%	0,54	0,55	0,0%	0,1	0,04	-5,2%	11,8	26,1	3,1%
Richmond	65,9	76,0	1,0%	0,54	0,53	-0,1%	0,11	0,05	-5,2%	13,2	24,9	2,5%
UTHUKELA DISTRICT				0,59	0,60	0,0%				27,9	38,8	1,3%
Okhahlamba	84,7	78,9	-0,5%	0,50	0,55	0,4%	0,15	0,06	-6,4%	31,0	41,6	1,1%
UMZINYATHI DISTRICT				0,52	0,58	0,5%				30,5	38,0	0,8%
Nqutu	97,8	82,5	-1,1%	0,44	0,54	0,8%	0,17	0,06	-6,8%	54,4	50,3	-0,3%
Msinga	111,7	87,5	-1,6%	0,46	0,54	0,7%	0,26	0,11	-5,7%	54,4	51,6	-0,2%
Umvoti	78,3	63,4	-1,4%	0,53	0,55	0,2%	0,14	0,06	-5,7%	13,9	28,0	2,7%
AMAJUBA DISTRICT				0,63	0,64	0,0%				23,6	37,6	1,8%
Emadlangeni	66,7	73,6	0,7%	0,68	0,66	-0,1%	0,14	0,03	-10,0%	16,3	33,7	2,8%
Dannhauser	82,6	78,5	-0,3%	0,52	0,51	0,0%	0,12	0,03	-8,4%	28,5	41,6	1,5%
ZULULAND DISTRICT				0,56	0,61	0,3%				29,4	38,7	1,1%
eDumbe	87,0	84,4	-0,2%	0,53	0,58	0,4%	0,13	0,04	-7,5%	24,4	34,9	1,4%
UPhongolo	82,0	79,6	-0,2%	0,56	0,59	0,2%	0,11	0,04	-5,9%	17,4	32,1	2,4%
Abaqulusi	73,9	72,9	-0,1%	0,63	0,64	0,1%	0,12	0,05	-5,8%	25,6	33,2	1,0%
Nongoma	100,8	87,8	-0,9%	0,48	0,58	0,8%	0,15	0,04	-8,4%	48,7	48,1	0,0%
Ulundi	91,9	82,0	-0,8%	0,56	0,62	0,4%	0,14	0,04	-7,4%	40,1	48,1	0,7%

	Dependency ratio			Gini Coefficient			SAMPI			Unemployment rate (%)		
	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change
UMKHANYAKUDE DISTRICT				0,50	0,59	0,7%				30,7	43,4	1,3%
Umhlabuyalingana	96,4	82,0	-1,1%	0,46	0,55	0,7%	0,22	0,10	-4,9%	37,5	48,3	1,0%
Jozini	96,9	81,8	-1,1%	0,49	0,62	0,9%	0,19	0,07	-6,3%	32,1	43,5	1,2%
The Big 5 False Bay	86,7	79,9	-0,5%	0,49	0,62	1,0%	0,16	0,07	-5,3%	15,1	26,8	2,2%
Mtubatuba	82,1	80,9	-0,1%	0,53	0,59	0,4%	0,12	0,04	-6,8%	25,8	40,1	1,7%
UTHUNGULU DISTRICT				0,68	0,67	-0,1%				21,7	31,5	1,4%
Mfolozi	80,2	82,2	0,2%	0,49	0,52	0,2%	0,1	0,03	-7,6%	26,4	38,7	1,5%
uMhlathuze	48,2	61,3	1,6%	0,79	0,74	-0,3%	0,06	0,01	-11,8%	15,5	27,7	2,3%
uMlalazi	74,9	93,8	1,5%	0,59	0,60	0,1%	0,12	0,05	-5,8%	22,7	31,1	1,2%
Mthonjaneni	75,5	104,0	2,2%	0,50	0,59	0,7%	0,11	0,05	-5,2%	17,3	25,6	1,5%
Nkandla	99,2	105,8	0,4%	0,44	0,60	1,3%	0,19	0,08	-5,7%	52,1	45,1	-0,6%
ILEMBE DISTRICT				0,57	0,59	0,2%				17,3	29,8	2,1%
Mandeni	63,5	57,6	-0,6%	0,54	0,53	0,0%	0,08	0,03	-6,4%	15,7	28,6	2,3%
Ndwedwe	81,8	74,0	-0,7%	0,41	0,47	0,5%	0,15	0,06	-5,7%	31,6	47,1	1,5%
Maphumulo	101,4	85,3	-1,1%	0,41	0,52	1,0%	0,19	0,09	-5,0%	46,5	51,5	0,4%
SISONKE/HARRY GWALA DISTRICT				0,49	0,57	0,5%				25,1	36,2	1,4%
Ubuhlebezwe	84,6	81,3	-0,3%	0,48	0,55	0,5%	0,15	0,07	-5,3%	26,5	34,6	1,0%
Umzimkhulu	103,4	90,0	-0,9%	0,44	0,50	0,5%	0,17	0,08	-5,2%	37,8	46,4	0,8%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from National Government of South Africa (2022); Quantec (2022b); Statistics South Africa (2014, 2016 & 2022)

Appendix 17: Living conditions (KwaZulu-Natal Province)

	Electricity for lighting (%)			Flush toilets (%)			Piped water (%)			Paying off/own house (%)			Formal dwelling (%)			Refuse removal (%)		
	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change
UGU DISTRICT																		
Umdoni	66,1	80,2	1,3%	38,1	23,5	-3,2%	38,5	23,5	-3,2%	60	69,4	1,0%	45,3	63	2,2%	43,3	20,8	-4,8%
Umzumbe	29	70	6,1%	3	1,2	-5,9%	0,9	1,6	3,9%	61,5	76,2	1,4%	31,9	44,5	2,2%	1,4	0,1	-16,1%
UMuziwabantu	26,6	89,9	8,5%	11	8,2	-1,9%	5,9	6,5	0,6%	56,2	84,2	2,7%	29,9	39,5	1,9%	12,9	14,2	0,6%
Hibiscus Coast/Ray Nkonyeni	75,7	88,6	1,1%	30,9	28,7	-0,5%	31,3	29,9	-0,3%	65,5	70,3	0,5%	56	65,3	1,0%	37,1	26,6	-2,2%
UMGUNGUNDLOVU DISTRICT																		
uMshwathi	53,2	80	2,8%	13,5	12	-0,8%	13,4	11	-1,3%	43	70,2	3,3%	43,9	56,3	1,7%	12,4	8,2	-2,7%
Impendle	61,1	95,4	3,0%	4	2	-4,5%	6	3	-3,4%	63	93	2,7%	35	58	3,4%	2	1	-4,8%
Mkhambathini	42,5	89,6	5,1%	13	2,9	-9,5%	10,4	9,2	-0,8%	52,6	82,7	3,1%	30,9	62,4	4,8%	4,3	8,4	4,6%
Richmond	53,9	89,7	3,5%	12,1	12,3	0,1%	16,2	18,9	1,0%	64,6	61	-0,4%	36	69,3	4,5%	10,7	14,6	2,1%
UTHUKELA DISTRICT																		
Okhahlamba	38,8	88,7	5,7%	4,3	7,8	4,0%	4,6	5,9	1,7%	41,8	67,3	3,2%	32,7	59	4,0%	4,2	9,1	5,3%
UMZINYATHI DISTRICT																		
Nqutu	16,5	81,8	11,3%	5,6	4,4	-1,6%	3,1	4,3	2,2%	52	81,3	3,0%	27,2	55,4	4,9%	7,3	5,7	-1,6%
Msinga	8,3	47,9	12,4%	2,6	0,9	-6,8%	0,9	1,7	4,3%	75,5	86	0,9%	12,8	25,9	4,8%	1,4	0,3	-9,8%
Umvoti	34,3	71,4	5,0%	25,3	21,8	-1,0%	15,9	12,7	-1,5%	36,5	70	4,4%	28,2	43,2	2,9%	23,3	17,8	-1,8%
AMAJUBA DISTRICT																		
Emadlangeni	29,1	57,2	4,6%	18,2	32,7	4,0%	21,1	25	1,1%	36,7	79,5	5,3%	31,4	62,4	4,7%	17	29,4	3,7%
Dannhauser	43,5	91,2	5,1%	10,7	10,4	-0,2%	8	13,8	3,7%	35,1	55,6	3,1%	55,9	69,3	1,4%	10,1	9,6	-0,3%

	Electricity for lighting (%)			Flush toilet (%)			Piped water (%)			Paying off/own house (%)			Formal dwelling (%)			Refuse removal (%)		
	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change
ZULULAND DISTRICT																		
eDumbe	31,3	75,5	6,0%	4,8	1,8	-6,3%	4,6	11,9	6,5%	46,9	62,6	1,9%	42,6	72,7	3,6%	27	24,9	-0,5%
UPhongolo	53,5	90,1	3,5%	36	15	-5,7%	5,4	14	6,6%	52	56,1	0,5%	48,6	78,9	3,3%	17,3	25,8	2,7%
Abaqulusi	43,2	82,3	4,4%	36,4	39,1	0,5%	19,1	24,3	1,6%	52,8	63,3	1,2%	42	72,7	3,7%	36,2	38,5	0,4%
Nongoma	24,6	86,4	8,7%	5	1,9	-6,2%	1,9	1,4	-2,0%	69,9	69,1	-0,1%	27,4	35,7	1,8%	3,2	1,1	-6,9%
Ulundi	40,2	85,7	5,2%	19,4	18,1	-0,5%	12,2	15,7	1,7%	52,5	88,7	3,6%	30,8	53,2	3,7%	18,4	16,2	-0,8%
UMKHANYAKUDE DISTRICT																		
Umhlabuyalingana	6,4	19,1	7,6%	3,9	1	-8,7%	1,6	1,6	0,0%	48,2	75,1	3,0%	17,7	70	9,6%	1,5	0,4	-8,4%
Jozini	10,3	42,1	9,8%	8,2	6,6	-1,4%	2,7	5	4,2%	40,4	71,6	3,9%	19,4	65,5	8,4%	5,8	5	-1,0%
The Big 5 False Bay	18,4	70,1	9,3%	21,9	9,5	-5,4%	13,5	11	-1,4%	49,6	85,6	3,7%	35,3	70,2	4,7%	15,4	1,6	-14,0%
Mtubatuba	78,6	85,7	0,6%	36,3	13,6	-6,3%	23,5	11,5	-4,7%	52,9	79,4	2,7%	52,8	75,2	2,4%	31,8	7,8	-8,9%
UTHUNGULU DISTRICT																		
Mfolozi	51,9	95,9	4,2%	11,9	3,7	-7,5%	7,3	6,9	-0,4%	66,1	91,8	2,2%	53,6	66,3	1,4%	8,5	12	2,3%
uMhlathuze	86	98,8	0,9%	42,5	45,7	0,5%	32,6	43	1,9%	54	74,9	2,2%	56,3	88,3	3,0%	42,7	43,1	0,1%
uMlalazi	39	81,3	5,0%	13,6	12,3	-0,7%	7,6	15,2	4,7%	51,7	80,7	3,0%	30,6	62,4	4,9%	11,3	13,2	1,0%
Mthonjaneni	29,9	84,1	7,1%	18,7	19,6	0,3%	15,5	17,6	0,9%	23,7	76,9	8,2%	29,7	53,5	4,0%	23	20,4	-0,8%
Nkandla	5,3	76,9	19,5%	6,5	5,5	-1,1%	4,6	5	0,6%	35,6	87,3	6,2%	11,9	17	2,4%	5,8	4	-2,4%
ILEMBE DISTRICT																		
Mandeni	62,6	90,6	2,5%	30,3	21,9	-2,1%	21,7	16,1	-2,0%	41,5	68	3,3%	38,2	84,3	5,4%	29,3	24,3	-1,2%
Ndwedwe	21,5	68	8,0%	4,8	3,4	-2,3%	2,7	4,1	2,8%	58,6	85,7	2,6%	23,4	68	7,4%	2,3	0,9	-6,1%
Maphumulo	17	56,5	8,3%	1,9	0,8	-5,6%	0,5	1,2	6,0%	53,2	76,3	2,4%	17,7	43,8	6,2%	1,1	0	-100,0%
HARRY GWALA DISTRICT																		
Ubuhlebezwe	26,1	73	7,1%	8,8	7,5	-1,1%	8	7,5	-0,4%	64	69,1	0,5%	17,6	30,8	3,8%	10,2	9,6	-0,4%
Umzimkhulu	31	80	6,5%	2,1	5,8	7,0%	2,4	6,4	6,8%	75	72,1	-0,3%	11,3	25,7	5,6%	3,2	8,1	6,4%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from National Government of South Africa (2022); Statistics South Africa (2001, 2022)

Appendix 18: FPL - Poverty Headcount Index (Eastern Cape Province)

	1994	2021	% Annualised change
SOUTH AFRICA	34,25%	28,46%	-0,7%
EASTERN CAPE	40%	21%	-2,5%
AMATHOLE DISTRICT	34%	15%	-3,3%
Mbhashe	34%	28%	-0,8%
Mnquma	34%	15%	-3,2%
Great Kei	51%	11%	-5,9%
Amahlathi	32%	11%	-4,0%
Ngqushwa	32%	11%	-4,1%
CHRIS HANI DISTRICT	42%	14%	-4,1%
Intsika Yethu	39%	11%	-4,6%
Emalahleni	37%	12%	-4,3%
Engcobo	47%	16%	-4,1%
Sakhisizwe	44%	15%	-4,1%
JOE GQABI DISTRICT	66%	15%	-5,5%
Elundini	41%	12%	-4,6%
Senqu	40%	12%	-4,6%
O.R. TAMBO DISTRICT	41%	25%	-1,8%
Ngquza Hill	40%	26%	-1,7%
Port St Johns	47%	24%	-2,6%
Nyandeni	32%	21%	-1,6%
Mhlonto	32%	21%	-1,6%
King Sabata Dalindyebo	44%	30%	-1,5%
ALFRED NZO DISTRICT	38%	19%	-2,6%
Umzimvubu	31%	16%	-2,4%
Matatiele	39%	12%	-4,3%
Mbinzana	39%	22%	-2,3%
Ntabankulu	42%	27%	-1,7%

Source: Author's own compilation using data from Quantec (2022g)

Appendix 19: HDI (Eastern Cape Province)

	HDI			Life expectancy (yrs)			Expected years of schooling (yrs)			Mean years of schooling (yrs)			GNI per capita (Rand)		
	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change
SOUTH AFRICA	0,648	0,700	0,30%	62,1	65,5	0,21%	12,0	13,3	0,40%	6,6	8,8	1,11%	11789	12556	0,24%
EASTERN CAPE	0,598	0,657	0,36%	58,9	62,7	0,24%	11,9	13,4	0,46%	6,1	7,9	1,00%	6183	8726	1,33%
AMATHOLE DISTRICT	0,591	0,638	0,29%	58,4	61,5	0,20%	12,3	13,6	0,39%	5,2	7,0	1,15%	2743	5145	2,45%
Mbhashe	0,590	0,632	0,26%	58,4	61,1	0,17%	11,9	13,6	0,51%	3,9	5,9	1,60%	1797	3270	2,33%
Mnquma	0,590	0,632	0,26%	58,3	61,1	0,18%	12,5	13,9	0,41%	5,7	7,3	0,96%	3043	5787	2,50%
Great Kei	0,601	0,668	0,41%	59,0	63,4	0,28%	12,6	13,2	0,18%	4,1	6,8	1,96%	3896	7131	2,35%
Amahlathi	0,591	0,643	0,32%	58,4	61,8	0,22%	12,4	13,6	0,36%	5,4	7,3	1,17%	3249	6169	2,50%
Ngqushwa	0,588	0,632	0,28%	58,2	61,1	0,19%	13,2	13,8	0,17%	4,7	7,0	1,54%	1900	3837	2,74%
CHRIS HANI DISTRICT	0,595	0,650	0,34%	58,7	62,2	0,22%	12,0	13,6	0,48%	5,2	6,8	1,04%	3202	6085	2,50%
Intsika Yethu	0,589	0,631	0,27%	58,2	61,0	0,18%	12,4	13,8	0,41%	4,8	6,3	1,05%	1563	3197	2,79%
Emalahleni	0,589	0,635	0,29%	58,3	61,3	0,19%	12,2	13,7	0,45%	4,2	5,7	1,18%	1561	3050	2,61%
Engcobo	0,588	0,632	0,28%	58,2	61,0	0,18%	11,2	13,4	0,69%	4,1	5,9	1,41%	1595	3160	2,66%
Sakhisizwe	0,590	0,637	0,30%	58,4	61,4	0,19%	12,5	13,6	0,32%	5,5	7,0	0,93%	2789	5615	2,73%
JOE GQABI DISTRICT	0,596	0,650	0,33%	58,8	62,3	0,22%	12,1	13,6	0,45%	4,9	6,8	1,27%	3165	5340	2,03%
Elundini	0,592	0,634	0,26%	58,4	61,2	0,18%	12,2	13,7	0,45%	5,1	6,5	0,94%	2203	3800	2,12%
Senqu	0,591	0,638	0,29%	58,4	61,5	0,20%	12,2	13,8	0,48%	5,0	6,7	1,13%	2549	4506	2,22%
O.R. TAMBO DISTRICT	0,589	0,633	0,28%	58,3	61,1	0,18%	11,2	13,6	0,75%	4,7	7,0	1,54%	2845	3758	1,08%
Ngquza Hill	0,590	0,632	0,26%	58,3	61,1	0,18%	10,5	13,2	0,88%	4,0	6,4	1,82%	2016	2710	1,14%
Port St Johns	0,590	0,633	0,27%	58,3	61,1	0,18%	10,3	13,6	1,07%	3,3	5,7	2,12%	1311	1891	1,42%
Nyandeni	0,588	0,632	0,28%	58,2	61,1	0,19%	11,6	13,9	0,70%	4,3	6,7	1,72%	1775	2401	1,17%
Mhlonto	0,588	0,632	0,28%	58,2	61,1	0,19%	12,3	13,8	0,44%	5,0	7,0	1,30%	1879	2910	1,70%
King Sabata Dalindyebo	0,590	0,634	0,28%	58,3	61,2	0,19%	11,2	13,5	0,72%	5,7	7,9	1,26%	5075	6221	0,79%
ALFRED NZO DISTRICT	0,588	0,636	0,30%	58,2	61,4	0,21%	11,6	13,6	0,61%	5,0	6,9	1,25%	2059	2142	0,15%
Umzimvubu	0,588	0,635	0,30%	58,2	61,3	0,20%	12,1	13,7	0,48%	6,0	7,6	0,91%	2241	3636	1,88%
Matatiele	0,589	0,640	0,32%	58,3	61,6	0,21%	12,0	13,5	0,45%	5,6	7,3	1,02%	2747	4250	1,69%
Mbinzana	0,588	0,635	0,30%	58,2	61,3	0,20%	11,0	13,5	0,79%	4,2	6,3	1,57%	1811	2529	1,29%
Ntabankulu	0,587	0,635	0,30%	58,2	61,3	0,20%	11,5	13,8	0,70%	3,8	6,0	1,77%	1159	1916	1,95%

Source: Author's own compilation using data from Quantec (2022b)

Appendix 20: Other socio-economic indicators (Eastern Cape Province)

	Dependency ratio			Gini Coefficient			SAMPI			Unemployment rate (%)		
	2001	2016	% Annualised change	1994	2019	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	1994	2020	% Annualised change
SOUTH AFRICA	61	53	-0,9%	0,68	0,677	0,0%				13,08	29,17	3,10%
EASTERN CAPE	78	68	-0,9%	0,68	0,68	0,0%	0,13	0,05	-6,2%	26,60	33,21	0,9%
AMATHOLE DISTRICT				0,53	0,59	0,4%				36,00	35,35	-0,1%
Mbhashe	105,5	69,6	-2,7%	0,51	0,60	0,7%	0,20	0,10	-4,7%	42,07	35,07	-0,7%
Mnquma	89,2	63,8	-2,2%	0,52	0,58	0,5%	0,16	0,09	-3,9%	34,88	35,62	0,1%
Great Kei	67,2	50,6	-1,9%	0,62	0,64	0,1%	0,11	0,05	-4,7%	21,67	24,06	0,4%
Amahlathi	72,6	58,0	-1,5%	0,53	0,57	0,3%	0,13	0,07	-4,0%	30,58	28,63	-0,3%
Ngqushwa	75,2	64,6	-1,0%	0,50	0,52	0,2%	0,13	0,09	-2,6%	49,84	48,18	-0,1%
CHRIS HANI DISTRICT				0,58	0,64	0,4%				33,59	31,54	-0,2%
Intsika Yethu	103,8	91,1	-0,9%	0,49	0,53	0,3%	0,17	0,12	-2,3%	41,59	39,28	-0,2%
Emalahleni	95,5	90,5	-0,4%	0,50	0,52	0,1%	0,15	0,10	-2,9%	42,42	41,65	-0,1%
Engcobo	105,1	98,6	-0,4%	0,53	0,58	0,4%	0,11	0,10	-0,5%	48,12	39,40	-0,8%
Sakhisizwe	89,8	78,0	-0,9%	0,53	0,64	0,8%	0,14	0,05	-6,1%	31,20	31,99	0,1%
JOE GQABI DISTRICT				0,58	0,61	0,2%				27,59	31,01	0,5%
Elundini	98,8	75,6	-1,8%	0,54	0,54	0,0%	0,20	0,09	-5,3%	35,78	39,42	0,4%
Senqu	83,5	72,4	-0,9%	0,54	0,56	0,2%	0,13	0,06	-5,4%	30,28	32,58	0,3%
OR TAMBO DISTRICT				0,56	0,62	0,5%				37,18	45,21	0,8%
Ngquza Hill	107,9	89,4	-1,2%	0,48	0,60	0,9%	0,22	0,10	-5,3%	40,25	51,13	0,9%
Port St Johns	115,1	90,1	-1,6%	0,53	0,53	0,0%	0,25	0,10	-5,7%	48,42	52,39	0,3%
Nyandeni	104,3	82,4	-1,6%	0,47	0,53	0,5%	0,20	0,09	-5,0%	47,21	48,33	0,1%
Mhlontlo	102,9	81,6	-1,5%	0,52	0,56	0,3%	0,17	0,09	-4,1%	39,15	47,51	0,7%
King Sabata Dalindyebo	86,7	61,8	-2,2%	0,63	0,70	0,4%	0,16	0,06	-6,0%	29,56	39,92	1,2%
ALFRED NZO DISTRICT				0,50	0,58	0,5%				42,97	42,04	-0,1%
Umzimvubu	99,6	75,4	-1,8%	0,48	0,58	0,8%	0,11	0,11	0,0%	42,20	43,89	0,2%
Matatiele	96,2	78,3	-1,4%	0,47	0,56	0,7%	0,17	0,08	-4,7%	36,92	37,00	0,0%
Mbizana	110,3	92,5	-1,2%	0,51	0,57	0,4%	0,18	0,10	-3,8%	44,76	42,49	-0,2%
Ntabankulu	106,3	86,4	-1,4%	0,56	0,60	0,2%	0,23	0,11	-5,0%	56,08	50,89	-0,4%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from National Government of South Africa (2022); Quantec (2022b); Statistics South Africa (2014, 2016 & 2022)

Appendix 21: Living conditions (Eastern Cape Province)

	Electricity for lighting (%)			Flush toilet (%)			Piped water (%)			Paying off/own house (%)			Formal dwelling (%)			Refuse removal (%)		
	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change	2001	2016	% Annualised change
AMATHOLE DISTRICT																		
Mbhashe	15,3	66,8	10,3%	3,6	3	-1,2%	0,6	3,3	12,0%	55,4	68,3	1,4%	18,7	41,1	5,4%	3,3	10,9	8,3%
Mnquma	34	81,4	6,0%	12,5	14,2	0,9%	8,3	14,8	3,9%	61,8	75,6	1,4%	34,3	52,7	2,9%	18,4	18,1	-0,1%
Great Kei	71,5	75,8	0,4%	8,9	19,5	5,4%	8,4	8,1	-0,2%	27,4	26,7	-0,2%	46,8	66,6	2,4%	20,8	26,7	1,7%
Amahlathi	67,2	92	2,1%	15,8	21,6	2,1%	8,4	13,7	3,3%	49,4	14	-8,1%	40,2	53,1	1,9%	16	14	-0,9%
Ngqushwa	69	96	2,2%	2,8	8	7,2%	0,9	7,2	14,9%	67,7	8,8	-12,7%	62,1	72,9	1,1%	2,4	8,8	9,0%
CHRIS HANI DISTRICT																		
Intsika Yethu	35,8	86,6	6,1%	1,7	0,8	-4,9%	1,3	2,4	4,2%	74,1	92,1	1,5%	27,6	27,4	0,0%	2,3	0,5	-9,7%
Emalahleni	45	94	5,0%	3	13	9,4%	3	5	3,6%	52	76	2,6%	54	38	-2,3%	10	19	4,0%
Engcobo	18,6	80,2	10,2%	4	4	0,0%	1	5	8,9%	57	78	2,2%	19	17	-0,9%	3	0	-12,6%
Sakhisizwe	50,7	93,9	4,2%	17,3	16,3	-0,4%	5,6	14,7	6,6%	71,2	60,4	-1,1%	46,7	67,6	2,5%	24,3	7,1	-7,9%
JOE GQABI DISTRICT																		
Elundini	11,4	62	12,0%	3,1	6,9	5,5%	3,1	11,1	8,9%	55,9	67,2	1,2%	40,1	47,8	1,2%	10,3	22,4	5,3%
Senqu	62	93,1	2,7%	3,7	13,2	8,8%	4,1	8,1	4,6%	68,2	83,4	1,4%	70,9	78,5	0,7%	10,8	13	1,2%
OR TAMBO DISTRICT																		
Ngquza Hill	14	85	12,9%	3	1	-5,0%	1	1	-1,2%	55	87	3,1%	32	40	1,6%	2	3	1,9%
Port St Johns	17	82	11,0%	3	1	-6,2%	1	2	5,6%	60	84	2,2%	17	37	5,5%	3	1	-11,3%
Nyandeni	33,2	81,4	6,2%	1,9	0,9	-4,9%	0,5	0,4	-1,5%	79,2	90	0,9%	19,9	36,8	4,2%	1,1	1	-0,6%
Mhlontlo	29,1	83,9	7,3%	2,2	2	-0,6%	0,8	1	1,5%	55,8	83,9	2,8%	21,9	41,5	4,4%	3,6	1,8	-4,5%
King Sabata Dalindyebo	41,8	84,4	4,8%	22,6	23,5	0,3%	9,4	15,8	3,5%	64,6	65,4	0,1%	46,2	51,8	0,8%	22,3	21,5	-0,2%
ALFRED NZO DISTRICT																		
Umzimvubu	24,1	64,5	6,8%	2,9	5,1	3,8%	1	3,3	8,3%	59,1	78,4	1,9%	26,2	45,2	3,7%	6,2	4,3	-2,4%
Matatiele	18,9	58,2	7,8%	8,5	9	0,4%	6,7	5,8	-1,0%	51,9	78,6	2,8%	37,6	47,3	1,5%	8,2	12,5	2,9%
Mbizana	24,9	71,8	7,3%	1,5	0,6	-5,9%	0,4	0,6	2,7%	74,2	83,1	0,8%	26,6	40,5	2,8%	1,9	1,4	-2,0%
Ntabankulu	15	51	8,5%	1,3	0,5	-6,2%	0,6	1,1	4,1%	50,8	92,7	4,1%	12,7	32,3	6,4%	2,4	1	-5,7%

Source: Author's own formulation using data from National Government of South Africa (2022); Statistics South Africa (2001, 2022)