

**A sustainable framework for poverty alleviation in low-
income urban communities of South Africa**

by

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DECLARATION

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ABSTRACT

The prevalence of poverty in South Africa is alarming, with over 55% of the populace experiencing impoverished conditions. Factors such as the inequitable allocation of resources, increasing joblessness, and socio-economic inequalities hinder the country's economic progress. The research aims to address poverty alleviation in low-income communities (LICs) in Gauteng province, South Africa. The study is underpinned by social exclusion theory. It adopted the positivist philosophy and focused on the evolution of poverty levels from a static point of view. The study was conducted in the low-income communities in the urban areas of the province of Gauteng, South Africa. The study adopted a cross-sectional survey design; and cluster sampling and a stratified random sampling technique were used to select three study areas (that is, Alexandra, Diepsloot and Ivory Park townships). A representative stratified sample of 400 households was selected and used from the target population. The allocation of the sample sizes to the respective strata was done using the probability proportional to size (PPS) procedure. A structured questionnaire was administered through a face-to-face intervention to collect data, and multiple regression modelling was used to analyse the data. According to the findings of the study, urban poverty in low-income communities is influenced by several factors such as household size, joblessness, economic circumstances, political issues, available resources, and educational attainment. Furthermore, social exclusion influences how these elements affect poverty by reducing their overall significance. Poverty results from social exclusion, which is brought on by discrimination that keeps individuals or groups from participating in political, social, cultural or economic activities. Economic inefficiencies are exacerbated by social isolation, which leads to poverty. It has also been found that existing government strategies for poverty alleviation are ineffective, and the gap between the rich and the poor is widening. As a result, the study proposes a poverty alleviation approach that is people-centred and community-oriented. It recommends the development of a sustainable framework for poverty alleviation for use in the low-income communities of urban areas of South Africa.

KEY WORDS: Low-Income Communities, Poverty in urban South Africa, Social exclusion, Sustainable Framework for Poverty alleviation, South Africa, Urban Areas of Gauteng Province

LIST OF ACRONYMS

ANC	African National Congress
ASGISA	Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiatives of South Africa
BEE	Black Economic Empowerment
CBO	Community Based Organisations
CCG	Concerned Citizens Group
CDG	Care Dependency Grant
CDWP	Community Development Worker's Programme
CPI	Corruption Perception Index
CPI	Consumer Price Index
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
CSG	Child Support Grant
CWP	Community Works Programme
DG	Disability Grant
DTI	Department of Trade and Industry
ECLAC	Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean
EPWP	Expanded Public Works Programme
EU	European Union
FCG	Foster Care Grant
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FPL	Food Poverty Line
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEAR	Growth, Employment and Redistribution
GIA	Grant in Aid
GIFR	Global Islamic Finance Report
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IDC	Independent Development Corporation
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IPAP	Industrial Policy Action Plan
IPL	International Poverty Line
LBPL	Lower-Bound Poverty Line
LIC	Low Income Communities
LMIC	Low-Middle Income Country
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
NCASA	National Co-operative Association of South Africa
NDP	National Development Plan
NGP	New Growth Path
NSM	New Social Movement
NSNP	National School Nutrition Programme
OAG	Old Age Grant
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

ODI	Outbound Direct Investment
PIR	Poverty and Inequality Report
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
PWP	Public Works Programmes
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SAHRC	South African Human Rights Commission
SARPN	Southern African Regional Poverty Network
SASSA	South African Social Security Agency
SE	Social Exclusion
SECC	Soweto Electricity Crisis Committee
SIDA	The Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
SMEs	Small Medium Enterprises
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UBPL	Upper-Bound Poverty Line
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNSDG	United Nations Sustainable Development Goals
USA	United States of America
WB	World Bank
WHO	World Health Organisation
WTO	World Trade Organisation
WVG	War Veterans Grant

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

“As long as poverty, injustice and gross inequality exist in our world, none of us can truly rest” (Nelson Mandela).

1.1 INTRODUCTION

With nearly half of the population in emerging nations living below the poverty line, global poverty has been a serious problem. An increase in global population during the first half of the last century subjected more people to extreme poverty (Pérez-Peña, Jimenez-Garcia, Ruiz-Chico & Peña-Sánchez, 2021). Nevertheless, some of the regions have made considerable progress in terms of reducing poverty. With the exception of Sub-Saharan Africa, where the number has risen and more than half of the population lives in extreme poverty, the number of people living below the poverty line has been gradually declining over time. In addition, the gap between the poor and the rich has widened (Wahyuningsih et al., 2020). The African continent's poverty and poverty-related challenges are largely due to governments' failure to find an appropriate solution for poverty alleviation. In addition, economic conditions such as rising unemployment rate, change in the environment due to global warming, corruption and the increasing urban migration rate, as well as the global financial crisis, have also contributed to this phenomenon (Arimoro, 2023).

In recent years, governments, civil society organisations (CSOs), and other poverty groups including community-based organisations (CBOs) have shown a great deal of interest in finding a way to improve people's lives and lessen poverty. As a result, changes have occurred in recent years when governments, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and global institutions have instituted programmes and policies for poverty alleviation in response to global poverty (Matteucci, 2020).

Jyotsna, Sinha and Bisaria (2024) state that poverty can be alleviated through a multi-pronged approach where governments, civil society organisations and other poverty groups come together to address the country's socio-economic problems. Globally, the United Nations (UN), the World Bank (WB) and other international organisations,

through various programmes and projects, have shown a growing interest in a collaborative effort to alleviate poverty in society.

In 2000, UN member states developed the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as strategic objectives, which were adopted to reduce extreme poverty by half by 2015 (Juju et al., 2020). So far, this has not been achieved and even though the poverty rate is said to have declined, more people are still living in extreme poverty (UN, 2015).

Despite their differences, there are certain similarities between South African and global poverty that are indicative of broader political, social, and economic causes. Being a component of the global economy, South Africa's economic stability may be impacted by changes in worldwide markets. For instance, commodity prices, international trade policies, and foreign direct investment can directly impact employment opportunities and economic growth in South Africa, subsequently affecting poverty levels (FAO, 2016; Cumming et al., 2017).

South Africa has its own challenges such as the highest levels of income inequality in the world, global migration patterns that are affecting South Africa creating economic instability because of economic instability in neighbouring countries which has led to increased migration into South Africa, putting pressure on jobs and social services, and potentially raising tensions within local communities. South Africa receives international aid like any other developing country aimed at poverty alleviation. Global priorities and funding can shape local policies and programs, impacting how effectively poverty is addressed at the national level. Global health crisis such as the COVID-19 pandemic, highlight how interconnected the world is. The pandemic disproportionately affected impoverished communities in South Africa, proving how global issues can have local ramifications that worsen poverty (Cumming et al., 2017). In South Africa about 39,8% of the population are multidimensionally poor, like many other developing nations, South has a relatively high GDP compared to some African nations, but its wealth is concentrated in the hands of a few leaving large portions of the population in poverty (OPHI and UNDP, 2020).

This first chapter introduces the study and thereafter presents the study's background. The problem statement is outlined with the research questions and objectives of the study, an overview of the research design and methodology is also given with

limitations and delimitations of the study. The final sections outline the structure of the thesis and provide definitions for the concepts used in the study.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

In 1994, the Republic of South Africa achieved political transformation with the first democratically elected government led by the African National Congress (ANC). The ANC government inherited a country characterised by massive inequality and the exclusion of the majority of people from most of the economic activities. Despite considerable progress over the last three decades, broad socio-economic changes such as urbanisation and increased labour market opportunities in cities, have reduced extreme poverty in rural areas of South Africa. The urbanisation and increased labour market opportunities have resulted in more people migrating to cities. It is estimated that in 2050, almost 72% of the world's population will be urbanised (Li et al., 2021). Migration to the cities has increased the number of people living in townships, which has resulted in those townships suffering and having to share the available limited resources. By 1994, townships were already suffering a considerable backlog in essential services and infrastructure development, and with an increase in the number of people sharing limited resources, the problem has intensified (Francis, Habib & Valodia, 2021).

Townships in urban cities such as Alexandra, Diepsloot and Ivory Park are confronted by human development issues including extreme poverty, chronic diseases and a shortage of basic human needs like housing, sanitation, healthcare and clean water. Instead of seeing an improvement in the lives and livelihoods of people, the country's economy has shown a persistent decline in economic growth characterised by highly unequal distribution of income and wealth, rising unemployment, poverty, socio-economic imbalances and backlogs in service delivery (Francis, Habib & Valodia, 2021).

Lack of collaborative effort by all stakeholders to alleviate poverty has always been a challenge. In other developing countries, it has been noted that poverty cannot be tackled by government and civil society organisations alone, there is also a need for the endogenous driving force of the poor groups to get rid of poverty (Zhang, Appau & Kodom, 2021). Prior to 1994, South African policies such as the land policy and migrant labour system forced many people off the land and promoted widespread

dependency on a cash income (Hara, Ncube & Sibanda, 2021), and hence, many people migrated to cities.

South Africa is one of the most unequal countries in the world (World Bank, 2019), with more than 50% of the population living in poverty. Despite notable gains in poverty reduction post-apartheid, especially in the black South African community and in rural areas, the country is still facing major poverty alleviation challenges. According to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (No. 108 of 1996), and the government's National Development Plan (NDP), the government has committed itself to addressing poverty, inequality and social exclusion. The NDP was adopted in September 2012 to eliminate poverty and significantly reduce inequality by 2030. According to the implementation strategy of the NDP (2014–2019), there is at least some engagement with poverty, inequality and social exclusion in all governmental sectors. The poverty alleviation policies are insufficient, and more needs to be done to include poverty, inequality and social exclusion in all policymaking (Herbert & Odeniyi, 2021) with policy-making institutions, civil society organisations, and poverty groups taking ownership of the national poverty alleviation mandate (Sjöberg, 2020).

Despite the existence of anti-poverty measures and the country's system of consultation and participation in decision-making, poverty rates in South Africa are still rising (Beegle, Christiaensen, Dabalen & Gaddis, 2016; Madzivhandila & Owusa, 2024; Ndaguba & Ijeoma, 2017; Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2018; Stats SA, 2017). According to Statistics SA (2017:31), over half of South Africans are currently living below the poverty level.

The poverty alleviation strategies and policy programmes that were put in place have, however, only resulted in an increased Gross Domestic Product (GDP), but not in the development within the context of the Marxist theorem of development (Gumede, 2017) and poverty alleviation. This may have been caused by increased unemployment, corruption, broken institutions and systems, and unequal service delivery to communities, making poverty alleviation a vital objective of development economists, policymakers and politicians (Akinboade & Adeyefa, 2018).

In a bid to eradicate poverty, several studies have been undertaken, and a few poverty alleviation frameworks have been proposed. Among these is the framework developed by Kolk, Rivera-Santos and Rufin (2018), which outlines how businesses should

interact with the impoverished as co-inventors or beneficiaries and the role that they play in the value network as customers or business owners, the framework developed by Munir, Ansari and Gregg (2010) and Gradl and Knobloch (2010), which include the government's involvement but it continues to concentrate on big, international private sector companies, and finally, Karnani and McKague's (2019) integrated framework that charts the responsibilities of civil society, the private sector, and the government. However, these frameworks have not been effective in alleviating poverty, as evidenced by the implementation of these frameworks in the poverty space, on the one hand, and the existing high poverty levels, on the other. For example, the stakeholder model for community economic development created by Ndaguba and Hanyane (2018), was a meta-review of over 100 articles, which makes it less effective and less reliable and the community economic development strategic framework for poverty alleviation developed by Ndaguba (2019), may not be effective in South Africa's urban areas to alleviate poverty as the author used secondary data in his study, in which the voice of the poor community on the ground was not heard.

The main reason that existing frameworks and models have not been effective and sustainable is that very few provide a comprehensive description of the roles that local communities, civil society organisations, and/or the government can play in a holistic approach to reduce poverty. In addition, they must offer a holistic viewpoint on how the impoverished might be incorporated into the public sector service delivery value chain in a developing country context. Given that, the current study proposes to adopt a poverty alleviation approach that is people-centred and community-based, as community-based actors have strong ties to development, particularly community-driven development (Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2018).

Areas of improvement reported in studies and solutions for the poverty problem that has not had much effect in South Africa are related to the conceptualisation of poverty (Gamboa, Mingorria & Scheidel, 2020). These studies have defined poverty based on economic factors (money-metrics) as measures for the well-being of households to guide policy making and raise public concern for poverty (Biyase, Zwane & Rooderick, 2019; Enwereji & Uwizeyimana, 2021; Sekhampu, 2017; Van der Walt, 2019). This approach has been found to be inadequate as it does not capture the overall amount of households' resources required to meet their daily needs and measure poverty levels (Adeyemi, Zewotir & Ramroop, 2019). In addition, the South African dynamics

are not the same as they include political, social, cultural and economic factors. This approach is not particularly effective and as a result, there is a need for another study that will consider South Africa's specific country conditions. This explains why the South African government has lowered its commitment to combating poverty to merely providing food stamps and social subsidies to those in need. (Gumede, 2021b; Madzivhandila & Owusu, 2024). Poorly conceived, formulated, adopted and executed methods for poverty alleviation have resulted from the incapacity to assess or conceptualise poverty sufficiently (Ndaguba & Jjeoma, 2019).

Reducing poverty will necessitate a multifaceted approach that includes and accommodates the extremely poor, who lack the formal education and skills necessary for management. Furthermore, the difficulties of implementation necessitate a more thorough comprehension of the reasons behind poverty in a particular setting (Mitra, Mukherjee & Chatterjee, 2024). For the community to advance, it is therefore essential that communities be included in the stages of programme objective identification, formulation and execution. The issue, particularly in Africa and sub-Saharan Africa, is that most of the time, problems are recognised and developed at the national level and then implemented locally as a top-down strategy that rarely produces meaningful results (Arkorful, Hilton & Awaah, 2023).

Despite efforts made by the South African government, global institutions such as the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and other stakeholders involved in community developments in developing policies and programmes aimed at improving the lives of the citizens of the country, the country is still faced with significant challenges regarding poverty and its alleviation. The existing public poverty alleviation policies and programmes need to be more effective in alleviating poverty (Ndaguba, 2019). The literature reviewed indicates that although some progress has been made in addressing poverty, poverty remains unacceptably high, especially in developing countries (Beegle et al., 2016; Gumede, 2020; Ndaguba, 2019; Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2018). Based on the increasing poverty levels, especially in low-income communities (LICs), a sustainable strategic framework for poverty alleviation is still needed for urban areas in South Africa. Therefore, this study intended to fill this gap by assessing the role played by government, civil society organisations and other poverty groups in alleviating poverty in South Africa. Specifically, this study aimed to

assess the role of government and civil society organisations including all other poverty groups in alleviating poverty in South Africa's low-income communities and subsequently develop a sustainable framework for poverty alleviation in low-income communities of urban communities South Africa, hereafter referred to as the framework for poverty alleviation.

Even though poverty alleviation models and frameworks have been proposed and used such as the one for private sector intervention (Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2019) and that for building human capacity and fostering resilience (World Bank, 2019), poverty is on the rise both in South Africa and even globally (Mattes & Patel, 2022). In South Africa specifically, a number of programmes, tools, and methods have been implemented to reduce poverty in both rural and urban areas, which include Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa (ASGISA), Black Economic Empowerment (BEE); Community Works Programme (CWP), Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP), Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR), National School Nutrition Programme (NSNP) and the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP). For example, the RDP policy is an inclusive, comprehensive socio-economic framework, which seeks to mobilise people and resources to end poverty and create a democratic, non-racial, and non-sexist state. The RDP provides an inclusive framework to reduce poverty and promote equality, achieving successes like social security and low-cost housing, but is criticized for fostering dependency rather than empowering independence. The literature reviewed reveals that, in South Africa, although progress has been made by government, civil society organisations and other poverty groups in addressing poverty, poverty levels still remain unacceptably high (Gumede, 2017; Stats SA, 2017; Ndaguba, 2019).

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

In South Africa, over 55.5% of the population lives under the poverty line (Ohonba & Akinola, 2023); there is increased unemployment, corruption, dysfunctional systems and institutions, and inequality in service delivery to remotely located communities (Hendrickse, 2024). The number of people living in poverty is rising and the country is still faced with major poverty and poverty alleviation challenges despite the implementation of anti-poverty programmes and the country's system of consultation and participation in decision-making (Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2018; Mattes & Patel,

2022; Ndaguba, 2019; Salahuddin, Vink, Ralph & Gow, 2019). One of the reasons for this is that no sustainable strategic framework for poverty alleviation suitable for urban areas specifically, has been developed and implemented.

Globally, a few poverty alleviation models and frameworks have been proposed, such as the private sector intervention (Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2019) and building human capacity and fostering resilience (World Bank, 2017a). However, the poor have experienced inefficient and ineffective government programmes, contributing minimally towards poverty relief. In South Africa specifically, various poverty mechanisms, programmes and instruments have been adopted to alleviate poverty in rural and urban areas, such as Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa (ASGISA); Black Economic Empowerment (BEE); Community Works Programme (CWP); Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP); Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR); National School Nutrition Programme (NSNP); Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP). The RDP policy is an inclusive, integrated socio-economic framework aimed at mobilising resources and people to eradicate poverty and build a democratic, non-racial and non-sexist state. The RDP was successful in some areas, such as social security, providing low-cost housing to redress the imbalances of the apartheid legacy and creating a dependency culture instead of equipping the poor to be independent.

Even though these policy frameworks have resulted in some gains in poverty reduction since 1994, South Africa continues to be challenged with high poverty rates, high inequality and high unemployment. Levels of income inequality are still among the highest in the world. Of concern is that the country is still sharply divided along racial and socio-economic lines, even though discriminatory laws were abolished (David et al., 2018). According to Statistics South Africa (2017) poverty has increased and over half the population are poor, child poverty rates are disproportionately high; and in 2014, it was reported that the top 10% of the population received two thirds of national income, while the top 1% received 20% of national income (Alvaredo et al., 2018).

Despite all the efforts made in the development of policies and programmes aimed at improving the lives of the citizens of the country, South Africa is still faced with major poverty and poverty alleviation challenges. The existing poverty alleviation

programmes are not effective and sustainable enough to reduce the level of poverty in the communities.

Why the study focuses on urban areas of South Africa

The majority of the world's population now lives in cities and towns, with future population growth expected to be centred on these areas. The number of people living in cities was predicted to increase from 4.4 billion in 2018 to 6.7 billion in 2050 (Li et al., 2021). During the past three decades due to broad socio-economic shifts like urbanisation and expanded employment options in cities, there has been a shift in that multidimensional poverty is particularly higher in urban areas, as more people now live in urban areas than in rural areas.

Economic activity in South Africa has traditionally been concentrated in a small number of regions, namely KwaZulu-Natal, the Western Cape and Gauteng. These three regions account for over 65% of the country's GDP, with Gauteng's share growing marginally over time (Harrison, 2013). Urban populations have grown due to a number of factors, such as migration from rural areas, higher birth rates than mortality rates in urban areas and poverty in rural areas. Poverty rates in South Africa's small towns and secondary cities are high (Harris, 1989). According to statistics, a mere 56% of Gauteng's population was born there, and the majority of its residents are migrants and immigrants from other provinces and from outside the nation (Stats SA, 2017). The population increase in urban areas has resulted in an adverse impact on local labour market in the Gauteng province as many people have moved into neighbouring townships with the hope of building their lives in the city of Johannesburg. The poverty landscape in South Africa has thus shifted from rural to urban areas as a result of population growth. Urban areas in South Africa continues to face significant poverty in spite of all the efforts made to implement policies and programmes aimed at improving the lives of the nation's population.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study sought to answer the following main research question: *How could poverty alleviation in LICs of urban areas in South Africa be addressed?*

The specific research questions were:

1. What factors affect poverty in LICs of urban areas in South Africa?

2. To what extent do the factors of poverty affect poverty in the LICs of urban areas in South Africa?
3. What poverty alleviation strategies could be used in alleviating poverty in LICs of urban areas in South Africa?
4. What sustainable framework could be developed and used for poverty alleviation in LICs of urban areas of South Africa?

1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main objective of this study was to determine how poverty alleviation in LICs of urban areas in South Africa could be addressed

The specific objectives of the study were to:

1. Identify factors that affect poverty in the LICs of urban areas in South Africa.
2. Determine the extent to which the factors of poverty affect poverty in the LICs of urban areas in South Africa.
3. Examine the poverty alleviation strategies that could be used to alleviate poverty in the LICs of urban areas in South Africa.
4. Develop a sustainable framework that could be used for poverty alleviation in the LICs of urban areas in South Africa.

1.6 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The need for poverty alleviation in South Africa cannot be overemphasised. Ohonba and Akinola (2020) state that over 55.5% of the population of the country lives under the poverty line. The UNSDG (2030) Sustainable Development Goal 1 of Poverty Eradication aims to end poverty in all its forms and dimensions, including extreme poverty; it aims to significantly reduce the poor and vulnerable, develop nationally suitable social protection systems and policies for everyone, and cut the percentage of men, women, and children of all ages living in poverty by at least half, by 2030. Although poverty rates have in some instances, declined in South Africa, income inequality in the country has increased and the gap between the rich and the poor has increased exponentially.

According to Mattes and Patel (2022), poverty in Africa, South Africa included, is on the rise. Urban population is said to be growing at an alarming rate in countries such as Tanzania, Ethiopia, Madagascar, Mozambique and Nigeria. Those countries are

said to be in the top 20 with Tanzania taking the 5th highest position in the world. Due to the high growth in urban migration in those countries, service delivery is a challenge, and the majority of the population are living in slums with no proper infrastructure and security is compromised (Lenhardt, 2024). The issue of migration to urban areas has increased the problem of extreme poverty, especially in the townships, as the majority of migrants from rural areas believe that there is work on offer (Moyo & Gumbo, 2021).

In 2018, the urban population in Africa was estimated to be at 4.4 billion and by 2050 it is projected to reach 6.7 billion. In order to achieve the UNSDGs by 2030, which aims to ensure access for all to adequate, safe and affordable housing and basic services, the goal can be achieved through proper planning and management of urban areas to reduce poverty and create employment (UNDESA, 2020a).

According to Statistics SA (2017), a substantial portion of the population lives below the official monthly food poverty line and are considered extremely poor. In last quarter of 2024, 13.2 million people in South Africa were said to be living under 2.15 US dollars per day which indicates that more people found themselves living below the poverty line when compared to 2023 (Cowling, 2025). In 2023, it was indicated that a third of the economically active population was unemployed, with Limpopo and Eastern Cape province ranked the highest in terms of chronic poverty and severe food insecurity, which affects majority rural households. It is reported that, in 2023, almost 50% of the South African households were receiving state support with the majority situated in the Eastern Cape. The unemployment rate in South Africa was 27.2% in the fourth quarter of 2024, down from 27.7% in the same quarter of 2023. Young South Africans were the most affected, at 59.6%, in comparison to the general population (Cowling, 2025).

The government of South Africa has tried to devise initiatives including frameworks for alleviating poverty, but they have not been successful as the number of the poor continues to escalate (Mattes & Patel, 2022; Ndaguba, 2019; Salahuddin, Ali, Vink & Gow, 2019). The poverty alleviation strategies and policy programmes that were implemented have failed to alleviate poverty in South Africa; poverty levels, especially in urban areas of the country, are continually rising (Beegle et al., 2016; Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2018; Ndaguba, 2019). There is therefore still a cause for concern for this has led to a feeling of discomfort especially among the growing young and unemployed (Uzochukwu et al., 2021).

This study is an attempt to devise a poverty alleviation framework that could reduce poverty in the lower-income communities of urban areas of South Africa. The study contributes to the greater knowledge in terms of a sustainable solution, and a tool to effect poverty alleviation in urban areas in an effort to improve the livelihoods of people in low-income urban communities of South Africa.

1.7 OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The study embraced positivism, which allows for the use of quantitative data collection methods. The target population consisted of 386 449 households in the selected study areas in South Africa, and the targeted sample comprised 400 households. The probability sampling method with a stratified random sampling technique was adopted in the data collection process. The research adopted a survey design and a structured questionnaire to collect data (Taherdoost, 2021). This design was chosen because it is cost-effective and time bound. In addition, the cross-sectional survey enabled the collection of data from a considerable number of respondents (Zeng et al., 2020).

The structured questionnaire was piloted with a small group to test its validity before dissemination. The pilot study results assisted in modifying the data collection tool accordingly. Regression modelling was used to analyse the data to determine the relationships between the independent variables (that is, household size, unemployment, social, economic and political factors) and the dependent variable, (that is, poverty). The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used to analyse the data.

Ethics clearance was obtained from the University of South Africa (UNISA) School of Business Leadership (SBL) Ethics Committee before the fieldwork was done. The researcher safeguarded the participants' consent, autonomy and data confidentiality, with the view that ethical consideration would be taken into consideration throughout the research process.

1.8 SCOPE AND DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was conducted in the LIC of the urban areas in the province of Gauteng, South Africa. These urban areas are Alexandra, Diepsloot and Ivory Park and are similar in terms of characteristics (that is, densely populated townships with high number of informal settlements). These townships are typical urban townships or

urban areas and are considered some of the poorest townships in the City of Johannesburg, characterised by high population and high unemployment rates, extreme poverty, lack of education, health care and other social amenities (Frenzel, 2020; Ngubeni, 2021).

1.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Only a few urban areas in South Africa were considered for data collection because of time and budget constraints. The drawing of the study sample from selected urban areas (instead of all the urban areas of the country) could be cited as the study's limitation. Another limitation is that businesses were not included in the study and so they were not interviewed to obtain their views on possible poverty alleviation strategies. However, every effort was made to ensure that the results from the study are still valid and reliable and sufficient to provide insight into, and a solution to, the problem at hand.

1.10 KEY CONCEPTS AND TERMS

It is crucial to provide context and clarification for some of the terminologies utilised in this study. Throughout the thesis, several important ideas and phrases were used.

Absolute poverty is defined as “a condition characterized by severe deprivation of basic human needs, including food safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education, and information. It depends not only on income but also on services” (Yaqoob & Rahim, 2024:455).

Family-According to the English dictionary, a ‘family’ is a group of people who are related to each other, such as a mother, a father, and their children. In this study, a family means a group of people who are related to each other, referring to a group of individuals living under one roof and sharing a meal; and under one head, or a fundamental social group in society typically consisting of one or two parents and their children. Family members can be related by blood, marriage or adoption.

A Household is defined as one or more people who share a residence. It may be of a single family or another type of person group. The household is the basic unit of

analysis in many social, microeconomic and government models, and is important to economics and inheritance (Silbaugh, 2016).

Household head in lower-income communities refer to the person who is the primary financial provider or decision maker for a household in the LIC of urban areas in South Africa, irrespective of gender, age or creed (Booyesen & Sevias, 2021).

Low-income communities (LIC) refer to poor communities of the urban areas of South Africa based on the three South African national poverty lines which are Food Poverty Line (FPL); the Lower-Bound Poverty Line (LBPL) and the Upper-Bound Poverty Line (UBPL).

Monetary approach identifies poverty with a shortfall in consumption or income (Nishimwe-Niyimbanira, 2020).

Poverty is referred to on the basis of social, economic and political aspects (Kumar, 2022). Poverty can be viewed as deprivation, lack or denial of access to resources (goods and services), rights and the inability to participate in normal relationships and activities available to a certain group of people in a society. The more recent conceptualisation aligns poverty with resources that an individual requires to encourage inclusivity and social cohesiveness, which are fundamental to the right to human dignity (Selebalo & Webster, 2017).

Poverty in low-income communities of urban areas in the province of Gauteng are based on food and non-food components, which are unemployment, lack of education, lack of assets, social exclusion, failure to participate in decision-making and lack of basic services. These components are measured using three South African national poverty lines which are Food Poverty Line (FPL); the Lower-Bound Poverty Line (LBPL) and the Upper-Bound Poverty Line (UBPL) (Oqubay, Tregenna & Valodia, 2021).

Poverty measurements: Globally poverty is measured using two common perspectives: firstly, money used to buy goods and services (money-metric approach) and secondly, multi-dimensionally through elements such as employment, living standards, education and health (non-money metric). In September 2022, the international poverty level was raised from US\$1.90 per person per day to US\$2.15

per person per day. (Kenny, 2024; World Bank, 2022). The cost-of-basic-needs approach, which ties welfare to the consumption of commodities and services, is used to quantify poverty in South Africa. These measurements referred to as National Poverty Lines (NPL), are adjusted periodically to maintain their relevance over time; they were last updated in 2023. In 2023, the NPLs were as follows: food poverty line (FPL-R760), the lower-bound poverty line (LBPL-R1,058) and the upper-bound poverty line (UBPL-R1,558) (Stats SA, 2023).

Relative Poverty is defined as the inability to afford the means to engage in activities, traditions and dietary practices that are widely accepted by society (Maia, 2024; Townsend, 2019).

Poverty alleviation can be referred to as initiatives to lessen and eventually eradicate poverty, which entail putting policies and plans into place by governments, non-governmental organisations or affluent people to enhance the standard of living for those who are already impoverished (Miller, 2013).

Social Exclusion (SE) is “a process of long-term non-participation in economic, civic and social norms that integrate and govern the society in which an individual resides” (Burchardt, Le Grand & Piachaud, 1998:227). Other authors identify social exclusion as a phenomenon linked to multiple deprivations. Low-income communities of Gauteng, South Africa, are socially excluded and are likely to experience social service deficits, spatial isolation, discrimination, lack of education, inequality in access to employment, high levels of unemployment, high levels of dependency on government social security, stigmatisation, institutional breakdown, sub-standard housing if any, disconnection from civil society and higher health risks (Koch, Lindellee & Olsson, 2021)

Wellbeing refers to a multifaceted concept that encompasses aspects such as health, education, personal activities such as employment, political voice and governance, social connections and relationships, the environment (both current and future) and economic and physical insecurity (Stiglitz, Fitoussi & Durand, 2019).

1.11 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

The study comprises seven chapters.

Chapter 1: Introduction. This chapter introduced the study, including the background of the study, the problem statements, the research questions, the objectives, the study's rationale, the scope and organisation of the thesis.

Chapter 2: Theoretical Foundation. The chapter discusses the theories of poverty underpinning the study.

Chapter 3: Literature Review. This chapter starts by discussing the definition and conceptualisation of poverty and its impact on policy formulation, followed by the dynamics of poverty in South Africa, poverty trends in South Africa, and causes and factors affecting poverty in South Africa. Furthermore, it explores various strategies for poverty alleviation, discusses the contributions of community organisations, addresses the challenges encountered, identifies the Gap in literature, and then offers a proposed conceptual framework for poverty alleviation in LIC in urban areas of South Africa.

Chapter 4: Research Design and Methodology. This chapter focuses on the research design strategy used in the study, the target population and sample size, the unit of analysis, data collection and data analysis methods. Lastly, the chapter discusses validity and reliability and gives the ethical consideration undertaken during the research process.

Chapter 5: Results. This chapter presents the research findings and interpretation of the results, it also presents the framework for poverty alleviation.

Chapter 6: Conclusions. This chapter provides the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

1.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter introduced the study, and gave the background and context of the study, the problem statement, the research questions, the study objectives and the justification of the study. It also provided a brief discussion of the methodology used in the study. In addition, it also highlighted the scope and delimitations of the study as well as the limitations of the study, concept clarification and the organisation of the thesis.

In South Africa, the number of people living in poverty is still rising and the country is faced with poverty alleviation challenges, despite the existence of anti-poverty strategies. Hence, this study was intended to identify factors of poverty in South Africa's low-income urban communities and subsequently develop a sustainable framework for poverty alleviation for these communities.

The next chapter presents the theoretical foundation that supports the study.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the theories underpinning the study. Firstly, it provides a theoretical background of social exclusion and its origins, and then, it offers a synopsis of the other theories that affirm the suitability of the researcher's evidence, such as the culture of poverty, geographic disparities theory, cyclical interdependence theory, Marxist radical theory, progressive social theory and individual deficiency theory. Thereafter, it shows how the theories are linked to the research questions and objectives.

2.2 SOCIAL EXCLUSION

2.2.1 Theoretical Background

Social exclusion has its roots in the country's history of social solidarity and national cohesion (Clerici, 2024). It has been associated with discrimination in first-world countries such as France, England and the United States of America (USA). Individuals who were impoverished, elderly, homeless, disenfranchised, mentally sick or culturally alienated were socially excluded from engaging in political and social activities. De Haan and Maxwell (2017:2) define social exclusion as "the process through which individuals or groups are wholly or partially excluded from full participation in the society in which they live". Other authors identify social exclusion as a phenomenon linked to multiple deprivations (Onsongo & Knorrinda, 2020). However, there has been controversy in terms of the definition of social exclusion in the past as it was defined based on age exclusion.

Eckhard (2022) views social exclusion as caused by labour marginality, leading to poverty and social isolation and resulting in long-term unemployment. The author goes on to say that labour market marginalisation is not related to motivational deficiency such as financial incentives. However, the experience of unemployment serves to further reinforce the structural hurdles that people face in the labour market.

When linking social inclusion to employment market activity, Bak (2018) argues that adults of any age, not in paid work and jobless households, are considered socially excluded as they are at risk of poverty and possibly other forms of social exclusion.

The reviewed literature reveals that social exclusion is linked to the substantial amount of research on poverty and poverty alleviation (Eckhard, 2022). Social exclusion and poverty cannot be easily distinguished as the definitions of poverty incorporate the aspect of social exclusion (Postan-Aizik, 2021). The concept of social exclusion is found to be more relevant to the context of the study as socially excluded individuals or groups fail or are unable to participate in social, economic and political activities, which may result in poverty. The Copenhagen World Summit for Social Development (UN,1995:15) adopted the general poverty definition which views poverty as a multidimensional phenomenon marked by illnesses and diseases, illiteracy, malnutrition and a lack of clothing and shelter. While others view poverty as hunger and malnutrition, poor health, limited or non-existent access to education and other essential services, elevated morbidity from illness, homelessness and substandard housing, hazardous surroundings, social exclusion and discrimination, and a lack of income and productive resources to guarantee sustainable livelihoods. All these are characterised by low self-confidence that undermines individuals' dignity and leads to a lack of participation in decision making (Hill, Genoni & Sen, 2019; Khandker & Samad, 2018; Townsend, 2019).

The concept of social exclusion in Europe is more closely linked to the social rights of citizens who are deprived of a certain basic standard of living and cannot participate in significant social and occupational opportunities in society (Barnes, 2019). Headey, Goodin, Muffles and Dirven (1999) assert that social exclusion can be measured relatively by comparing a person's circumstances to another person in the same socio-historical context. Okokhere (2017) points out that the incorporation term seems challenging in the African continent; that people do not suffer from poverty due to exclusion. However, if the conditions are unfavourable, they exclude themselves from the larger economy and society, as well as the burdensome and unequal obligations of citizenship. In the African region, social exclusion incorporates a wide range of causes of inequalities which include racial discrimination, denial of fundamental citizen rights, inadequate schooling, ill health, homelessness, disability, unemployment, low

income and disengagement from everyday social activities (Cuesta, Lopez-Noval & Nino-Zarazua, 2024).

Social exclusion theory and urban poverty in the South African context

Among the primary objectives of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development are shared prosperity and inclusivity. The 2030 Agenda, according to the Sustainable Development Goals Report (2016), is a fundamental declaration for ensuring that no one is left behind and to achieve all goals and targets for every nation, population and societal group, with a focus on supporting those who are most in need first. Those who are marginalised because of their age, gender, colour, ethnicity, disability or immigrant status and who do not have access to opportunities, resources, or power are specifically identified in the UN's equity-focused Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (WHO, 2016).

The social exclusion theory provides a compelling framework for comprehending urban poverty in South Africa. Social exclusion does not only view poverty purely in terms of income or consumption, but it also describes a process by which certain individuals and communities are systematically disadvantaged by being denied access to resources, opportunities, and rights that are fundamental to full participation in society (Cosgrove & Curtis, 2022). As pointed out by the UN (2016) that social exclusion in South Africa is closely related to inequality, this is rooted in the history of apartheid and continues to influence the lives of millions of city dwellers. Firstly, one of the most obvious effects of apartheid-era urban planning is spatial exclusion. Many impoverished South Africans still live in informal communities or outlying townships that are distant from major cities (World Bank, 2018).

A large proportion of the workers from the townships have to travel long distances to their workplaces. The majority of the townships in urban areas lack basic infrastructure such as clean water, sanitation and reliable electricity, which exacerbates the marginalisation of the local population. The rapid growth of cities partly due to rural-urban migration has strained their capacity to provide services. Spatial divisions still exist even after apartheid officially ended, restricting locals' access to good healthcare, education and employment opportunities (Turok, 2018).

Economic marginalisation is another significant factor. South Africa's high urban unemployment rate is a problem that impacts young people and historically marginalised groups, making it difficult for the poor to access the basic resources they require to escape poverty. The poor are excluded due to low levels of education or lack of networks and resources necessary to secure those opportunities.

This is compounded by the low performance of urban schools, which feeds the cycle of limited opportunities. Political and social marginalisation are also significant factors. Many people who live in impoverished townships or informal settlements believe that policymakers ignore them and that they have no voice in the issues that impact their daily life (Torik, 2018). Both the deprivation and the feeling of being ignored are reflected in the frequent protests over service delivery. In addition, societal prejudices related to immigrants and the jobless contribute to the further alienation of marginalised communities from the larger population (World Bank, 2018).

Poverty and exclusion have a reciprocal relationship in which poverty exacerbates exclusion and exclusion causes poverty. To break this cycle, more is required than just economic expansion. It demands policies that actively promote inclusivity, like improved urban infrastructure, simpler access to healthcare and education, and sincere community involvement in planning and governance. Policies significantly contribute to poverty and inequality by promoting equity, inclusivity, empowerment, and security for marginalized groups, ensuring access to services, resources, and opportunities, and enabling them to participate in society (Sharma, 2023).

In conclusion, social exclusion theory highlights that poverty in urban South Africa is not just a matter of income, but of systematic barriers that prevent meaningful participation in society. Addressing these exclusions is key to building more just and equitable cities (Turok, Scheba & Visagie, 2017).

2.2.2 Origins of Social Exclusion

The concept of social exclusion was associated with the rupture of the social bond in France (De Haan et al., 2024). It is believed that social exclusion is a multifaceted process of progressive societal disintegration. It detaches groups and people from social interactions and institutions, prohibiting them from fully engaging in the usual, normatively regulated activities of the community in which they live (Bevan, 2022). It

is thought to be a micro and macro level phenomenon that considers group relations as well as individual relationships. It also reflects on the excluded groups or individuals and the excluded institutions and individuals that benefit from the process (Walsh & Scharf, 2017). Tosi (2018:103) views social exclusion as emphasising the dynamics of "social disaffiliation", whereas Paugam (2016:41) highlights "social disqualification" in social exclusion.

In France, poverty was a rural problem in the nineteenth century. However, research found that exclusion became a synonym for 'underclass' and slowly replaced or complemented poverty in the European Union (EU) dictionary (De Haan & Maxwell, 2017). As a result, since the early 1990s, EU social policy has shifted from the idea of poverty to that of social exclusion (Bernard & Šafr, 2018).

2.2.3 Social Exclusion Theory

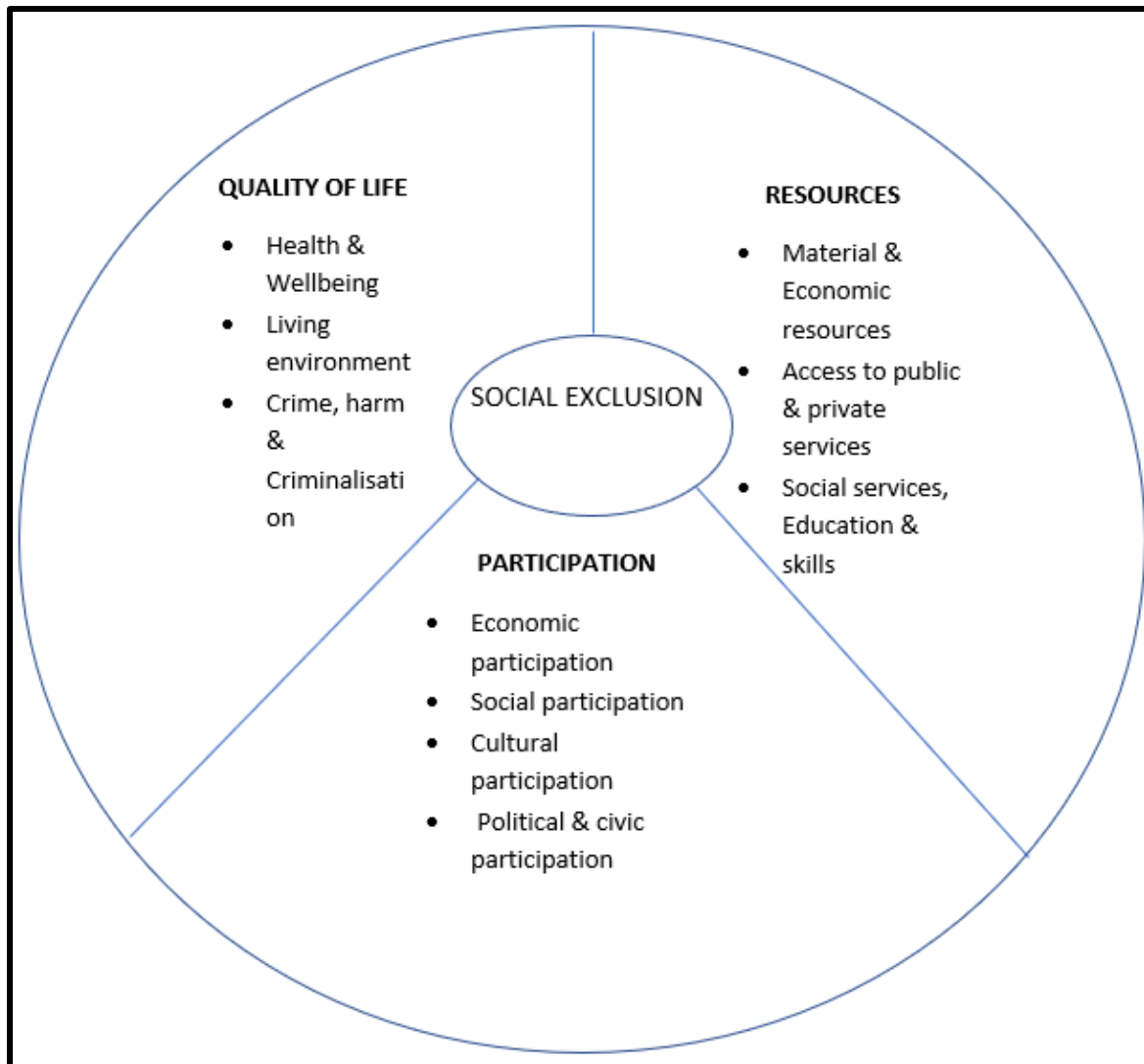
The social exclusion theory, which was officially adopted at the 1995 World Summit in Copenhagen and maintained that certain people are exposed to poverty because of discrimination, is the overarching or main theory underpinning this study. A review of the literature on social exclusion found that the theory emanates from poverty created by excluding individuals or groups of people from participation in economic, political, cultural and social activities due to discrimination. Balki, Hayes and Hollard (2023) believe that social exclusion is a downward spiral in which marginality in the labour market leads to poverty and social exclusion, increasing the probability of long-term unemployment. On the other hand, Wass, Thygesen and Pura (2023) view social exclusion as a lack of voice where individuals are barred from participation, especially in their own communities.

Social exclusion is characterised by three paradigms: solidarity, specialisation and monopoly. The solidarity paradigm highlights moral integration and cultural boundary as the binding factor, meaning that those who do not, suffer exclusion and are bound to remain poor. The specialisation paradigm emphasises interdependencies regarding economic activities where goods and services are exchanged. Individual interests and capabilities are the driving force behind social structures based on specific forms of the division of labour to achieve success. Finally, the monopoly paradigm is based on particular interest groups driven by political power, status and class to exert control

and influence over available resources (Nwankwo, 2023). Monopoly is common on the African continent, where corruption is most prevalent.

Corruption impacts the well-being of society as it deprives individuals of the resources required for participation in the social, economic and political activities of society. According to Egbulonu (2018), the Sub-Saharan region is characterised by widespread corruption. The inability to access realistic opportunities due to exclusion, perpetuates poverty, especially in developing countries such as Nigeria and South Africa (Igiebor, 2021; Okoumenlen, 2023). According to Transparency International (2022), in the Sub-Saharan Africa continent, Seychelles continues to lead with the highest Corruption Perception Index (CPI) of 70 in the region, followed by Botswana and Cabo Verde with a score of 60 each, while South Africa scored 43, which is above the regional average of 32, although most of the Sub-Saharan African countries are ranked below the world median. Somalia is at the bottom of the CPI with the least score of 12 regionally and globally. According to research, for example, in Nigeria, it is difficult to curb corruption as some argue that corruption is seen as part of the country's culture, as in many developing countries (Okoumenlen, 2023). Several countries regard corruption as a myth because bribery is viewed as another's mutual goodwill in African culture. For instance, the recipient of a contract offered by a government official would be required to express gratitude in cash or in kind. A similar practice occurs in villages, where the people would do so when a chief offers them a piece of land to cultivate.

Poverty, low income, lack of employment opportunities, discrimination and low educational attainment are all results of social exclusion. A review of the literature on social exclusion discovered that it has an impact on societal well-being because it deprives individuals of resources needed for participation in societal social, economic and political activities (Ortiz, Martin & Martin, 2024). Figure 1.1 presents the schematic diagram for the theoretical framework.



Source: University of Bristol (2012)

Figure 2.1: Theoretical Framework

Poverty results from social exclusion since it deprives individuals of the same chances and rights as others in their community. The following are ways in which social exclusion contributes to poverty:

- **Lack of resources, opportunities or rights** affect social interaction on an equal footing with others. Basic necessities of life are either denied or inaccessible.
- **Political exclusion** causes a segment of the population to be under-represented in positions of authority. As a result, policies are created that do not benefit those who are excluded.

- **Poor quality of life** relates to living in slums with inadequate hygienic conditions and inadequate medical facilities and services are more likely to be poor and to be impoverished.
- **Being denied access to opportunities** or excluded from them results in fewer work options, which does not assist people in escaping poverty.
- **Denied human rights** places restrictions that prevent some people from enjoying their rights in the same way as others. For instance, the denial of fundamental rights like justice and education exacerbates poverty.
- **A sense of social inferiority** in the community or a decline in social standing are characteristics of social inferiority.

Social exclusion and poverty have a cyclical connection in which poverty causes exclusion from participation, which in turn causes more poverty (Razer, Friedman & Warshofsky, 2013). For poverty alleviation to take place in the urban areas of South Africa, people must be equipped with resources, such as material and economic resources, access to public and private resources, social and educational skills, political, economic, social, and cultural participation, and quality of life, which includes living conditions, health and well-being as well as crime, harm and criminalisation, must be addressed (Mlambo, Ndebele & Zubane, 2019).

2.3 AN OVERVIEW OF THE OTHER THEORIES OF POVERTY

According to Anyanwu et al. (2022), to design or adopt strategies for reducing poverty, a thorough evaluation and understanding of the important variables that influence household welfare status must be conducted. The majority of existing theories of poverty are grounded on the structural flaws in the political, social and economic systems and are based on how poverty is seen in affluent nations (Nwambuko, Nnaeto & Nwobi, 2023). They are incompatible with one another and produce various community development intervention strategies. The theories of poverty that underpinned this study are the Culture of Poverty, Geographic Disparities Theory, Cyclical Interdependence Theory, Marxist/Radical Theory, Progressive Social Theory of Poverty and Individual Deficiency Theory/Neoclassical Theory. A synopsis of each is provided below:

2.3.1 The Culture of Poverty

The conservative (individualistic and culture of poverty) theories hypothesise that poverty results from a pattern of life which a community adopts as a way of living. In this theory, poverty results from the generational transfer of a set of socially constructed but privately held attitudes, values and abilities. (Fu et al., 2020). Thus, cultures are socialised and learned over some time. Addae-Korankye (2019) sees individuals as victims and says they are not always at fault, because they are victims of their dysfunctional sub-culture or culture. According to Najman et al. (2018:24) the culture of poverty perpetuates poverty, "children reared in poverty, are more likely to themselves experience poverty in adulthood". In this theory, trends such as high divorce rates, lack of participation in community programmes meant to improve individual lives, are detrimental behaviours and values associated with culture or custom that have been ingested and passed down from generation to generation (McDermott & Vossoughi, 2023).

Choices that societies make in life are the ones that determine their destiny. The culture of poverty is seen as a sense of resignation and despondency. Individuals are said to have cultural attitudes toward undermining imposed reform (Nwankwo, 2023). According to Danaan (2018), a culture of poverty is very common among the lower classes in developed capitalist societies, as well as in developing nations and societies that are just beginning to industrialise.

This theory is applicable to this study because of the norm of not addressing these inhibitors that has been imbedded within people's lifeways. Individuals are excluded from the common cultural practices of contemporary society and their community effects. This includes religion, language and nationality, all of which can contribute to the exclusion of the poor by denying them access to informal contacts about possible helpful career pathways and role models.

2.3.2 Geographic Disparities Theory

This theory is based on the poverty caused by geographical inconsistencies, which refers to a lack of certain opportunities for wealth creation because of unfavourable geographical locations. This is common in developing countries because some regions have natural advantages over others due to agglomeration forces

(Floerkemeier, Spatafora & Venables, 2021). Location is seen as an excellent predictor of one's welfare, particularly proximity to the coast. Cerio, Calalo, Marasigan and Dizon (2019) state that rainfall, soil quality and elevation are examples of agro-ecological traits that do not exhibit a high correlation with welfare. Changes have taken place as more and more people move to cities and towns where there are large levels of economic activity, even though most developing countries commonly have a high proportion of poverty in rural areas due to a lack of empowerment possibilities. Due to a high immigrant population, poverty has increased in some places as a result of high unemployment rates and other issues of poverty (Omeje, Chukwu & Isiwu, 2022).

This theory is applicable in most developing countries, such as Nigeria and South Africa, where there are high levels of poverty in urban areas. In 1991 when the Group Areas Act, 1950 (re-enacted in 1957 and 1966) that separated urban areas into 'group areas' where ownership and residency were restricted to specific population groups was repealed in 1991, people moved in great numbers from rural to urban regions in search of employment. This migration to urban areas created a situation where the unemployment rate increased in the urban areas. As a result, the government has had to find ways of creating jobs and/or developing policies and initiatives that could promote entrepreneurship in urban areas of South Africa. This is partly the rationale or justification of this study.

According to Taba et al. (2023), this theory suggests the concentration of poverty in particular areas, communities or localities within countries or the world with the factors responsible being disinvestment, proximity to natural resources, density and diffusion of innovation for example. Addae-Korankye (2019) presents three perspectives on this theory, namely, spatial concentrations of poverty coming from the economic agglomeration theory, the central place theory, and one that incorporates selective out-migration. Economic agglomeration theory explains how a cluster of comparable businesses draws in markets and supportive services, which in turn draws in more businesses. This suggests that poverty, coupled with poverty conditions, leads to even greater poverty. According to classical economists and the selective outmigration perspective, the central place theory states that even during times of overall economic expansion, privileged places typically experience quicker growth than disadvantaged ones. It also predicts a multiplier effect but no equalisation. According to Addae-

Korankye (2019), the people who have the most education, the most skills and the most opportunities, are the ones who move outside of central cities.

2.3.3 Cyclical Interdependence Theory

Per capita income forms the basis for the vicious cycle of poverty, which is more prevalent in developing countries. According to the cyclical interdependency theory of poverty, people's circumstances and community resources are interdependent and a failing economy results in people who lack the means to engage in the economy. (Danaan, 2018). In this theory, poverty is a system in which each unit supports the other and so keeps the system in a cyclical state. The cycle starts with low-income earnings, which impacts the purchasing power, level of nutrition, education, productivity and ability to save. Low saving leads to low investment causing low output, resulting in low-income (Fagbemi, Fajingbesi & Osinubi, 2023). In most developing countries, unemployment has been a key causal factor where most of the youth are unemployed or underemployed which creates a high dependency ratio on government grants where they are available or it puts more pressure on the privileged few which leads to inefficiencies in productivity, service delivery then systematic failures which exacerbates poverty (Ekwutosi, 2023).

This type of poverty arises when unexpected events, such as natural disasters, cause people or households to suddenly become unable to support themselves. It views personal circumstances and available communal resources as interdependent. Insufficient employment, for instance, results in insufficient income, which in turn leads to insufficient spending, consumption and savings; this assumes that people are unable to invest in businesses, training or starting their own ventures, which further creates a situation where there will be no growth, the market will contract and people will disinvest, resulting in a lack of opportunities in the community (Makwamba, 2023).

The inability to afford preventative care, a balanced food and a healthy living environment are some of the reasons for the poor lagging behind, and these issues lead to health problems at the second level of the cycle. Furthermore, because of their low incomes, the impoverished do not make the necessary educational investments, which frequently leads to their children attending subpar schools and falling further behind when they start working. They will also be more susceptible to disease and subpar medical treatment. The absence of employment and money, declining self-

esteem, low motivation and depression are the causes of the third stage of the poverty cycle. People's relationships with other people exacerbate these psychological issues, creating a culture of hopelessness and fatalism among community leaders (Musa & Mohammed, 2024).

This theory is applicable to the study because in South Africa, there is a huge problem of youth unemployment with many people depending on government grants, which exacerbates poverty by causing inefficiencies in productivity, service delivery and systematic failures.

2.3.4 Marxist/Radical Theory

The radical perspective, known as the power theory, asserts that capitalism is the source of social problems, including severe inequality and poverty. The radicals believe that institutions and class exploitation are the causes of poverty and are inherent in the capitalist mode of production. Poverty cannot be alleviated without fundamentally altering the mechanisms of capitalism. Inequality, unemployment, underemployment and poverty are a product of capitalism's operation (Shaikh, Rasheed & Shaikh, 2023). Poor people lack private assets, feel excluded and are marginalised by society. They are also affected by government and market failures that exclude the poor from participating in the credit markets and other social and economic activities (Taba et al., 2023). Mhlanga (2022) emphasises that externalities and moral hazards leading to market failures aggravates poverty. For example, excessive regulation in the labour and product markets can be a hurdle to poverty reduction since it hampers private entrepreneurs and worsens the investment climate (Davis, 2014). Given the aforementioned, it is accurate to say that inequality, the unequal distribution of income and wealth, and the exclusion of the poor from economic activities that generate wealth are the main causes of poverty.

Al Amin and Mir (2023) among others, have criticised and disputed this hypothesis, arguing that it has numerous grave ramifications. Weeks (2024) restates that Marx, for instance, believed that a commodity's exchange value is decided by the amount of labour and the duration of its production; if this is the case under non-capitalist conditions, then why should its value be established by capitalist costing norms? The central argument is that households may not employ cost calculus in any form. Therefore, demand, not cost, determines the exchange value of labour power.

This theory is applicable to the study since South Africa has elements of a capitalist mode of production, in which case (according to this theory), poor people are excluded from participation in economic activities and poverty cannot be alleviated without fundamentally altering the mechanisms of capitalism. According to this theory, inequality, unemployment, underemployment and poverty are products of capitalism's operations. This is a situation where poor people lack private assets, feel excluded and are marginalised by society. This study is intended to devise an appropriate poverty alleviation framework that is able to promote private entrepreneurs and improve the investment climate.

2.3.5 Progressive Social Theory of Poverty

The progressive social theory views poverty as a result of political, economic and social distortions, as well as discrimination that limits individuals from creating wealth (Danaan, 2018). Arar and Mifsud (2023) assert that the economic system of capitalism perpetuates poverty by keeping wages low. In most developing countries, government policies and factors such as high inflation, privatisation of government entities and commercialisation and unlimited free market, contribute to poverty (Bosah & Nwanolue, 2023). Communities struggle with prejudice based on personal characteristics including gender, colour, religion and education, which restricts chances despite an individual's strengths. (Abubakar et al., 2023). It is noted that societies are denied or excluded from participating in or gaining access to resources that will improve their lives, such as employment opportunities (Prince, Ehi & Hayes, 2023). The exclusion might result from social imbalances, political associations or economic factors. For example, social exclusion is highly prevalent in rural or urban low-income communities, resulting from cultural, sexual and religious differences (Pigeon-Gagne, Hassan & Yaogo, 2024).

Lister, Patrick and Brown (2024) assert that government welfare contributes to poverty by permitting a cycle of welfare dependency where families remain in poverty by failing to find employment and be independent. They believe that government interventions, in the form of welfare programmes, are a source of economic inefficiency as they aggravate the situation (Taba et al., 2023).

This theory is applicable to the study because historically, South Africa has been affected by discrimination according to the colour of the skin or race, gender, religion

and education, all of which limit job opportunities. According to theory, the economic system of capitalism perpetuates poverty by keeping wages low. The country is also affected by high inflation, privatisation of government entities and commercialisation and unlimited free market all of which contribute to poverty. Certain people are thereby denied or excluded from participating in or gaining access to resources that would improve their lives. This study is intended to suggest policies and programmes that are intended to promote economic, political, social and cultural inclusion of people in urban areas of South Africa.

2.3.6 Individual Deficiency Theory/Neoclassical Theory

This theory attributes poverty to individual deficiencies. The neoclassical theory of poverty indicates that individual choices cause poverty. Neoclassical economists argue that reasons for poverty are based on factors such as genetic attributes, intelligence and even the punishment for sins committed. Individual failure or weaknesses cause individual inability to be productive (Ekwutosi, 2023).

Whereas the culture of poverty is seen as a sense of resignation and despondency, individuals are said to have cultural attitudes toward undermining imposed reform (Isimah, Chukwurah, Okeke & Nwankwo, 2023). In this theory, poverty is created by the transmission over generations of beliefs, values and skills that are socially generated but individually held (Addae-Korankye, 2019). Thus, cultures are socialised and learned over time. Individuals can be regarded as victims of their dysfunctional sub-culture or culture and should not necessarily be blamed. According to Lewis (2017:9), the culture of poverty perpetuates poverty, "It tends to perpetuate itself from generation to generation because of its effects on children".

Addae-Korankye (2019) states that the individual theory of poverty is criticised because with the emergence of the concept of inherited intelligence in the nineteenth century, the eugenics movement rationalised poverty and even sterilised people who seemed to have restricted talents when the idea of hereditary intelligence emerged in the nineteenth century (Taba et al., 2023). Secondly, the idea that the impoverished are plagued by the mark of Cain implies that their moral flaws are the reason they must suffer and are intended to suffer. In addition, according to Edeh, Ezaegu and Attamah (2023), the idea that poverty is the result of people's negative attitudes is refuted by the poor, who place a strong emphasis on hard labour, despise the welfare

system, and take personal responsibility. The theory implies that anyone can succeed via hard work and skill application, and that all that is needed to succeed is motivation and perseverance-a notion that is not true in reality.

2.4 LINKING THEORIES TO THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND OBJECTIVES

The overarching theory, which links to all the research objectives is social exclusion theory. This theory states that lack of participation or not having a voice politically, socially and economically in the things that affect people, cause people to be poor by depriving them of resources needed for upliftment. Other effects of social exclusion are low educational achievement, prejudice, lack of employment opportunities and low income.

The complementary theories, which also link to the objectives:

1. Identify factors that affect poverty in the LICs of urban areas in South Africa.
2. Determine the extent to which the factors of poverty affect poverty in the LICs of urban areas in South Africa.

The Culture of Poverty Theory: Lack of access to social services, poor education, poor health, corruption, unequal distribution of wealth, unemployment are some of the factors that perpetuates poverty. This theory then supports the notion that children born under such conditions are likely to maintain their values and mindsets that aid their continuation in such economic status.

Geographic Disparities Theory: In urban areas of South Africa, there is a large number of refugees, and this increases poverty due, for example, to high unemployment rate. This theory asserts that poverty is caused by geographical inconsistencies, which creates deprivation of economic activities in disadvantaged areas and results in high levels of migration to cities to seek employment and opportunities for economic growth.

Cyclical Interdependence Theory: This theory is applicable in the sense that South Africa experiences youth unemployment and a dependence on government grants. This leads to inefficiencies in productivity, service delivery and systematic failures, which exacerbate poverty.

Progressive Social Theory of Poverty: Poverty in South Africa is partly explained by the former apartheid government that discriminated against blacks economically, politically, socially and culturally. In addition, the country is affected by high inflation, privatisation of government entities and commercialisation and unlimited free market, which contribute to poverty.

Individual Deficiency Theory/Neoclassical Theory: Poverty is caused by the set of beliefs arising from the transmission over generations of set of beliefs, values and skills shared amongst the communities.

For objectives:

3. Examine the poverty alleviation strategies that could be used to alleviate poverty in the LICs of urban areas in South Africa.
4. Develop a sustainable framework that could be used for poverty alleviation in the LICs of urban areas in South Africa.

Marxist/Radical Theory: Poverty caused by individual failure to participate in the economic activities because of discrimination which renders them useless. Many people in South Africa are historically excluded from participation in economic activities; however, poverty cannot be alleviated without fundamentally altering the mechanisms of capitalism. Poor people lack private assets, feel excluded and are marginalised by society, a situation that necessitates the development of a poverty alleviation framework that involves both government and business intervention to promote private entrepreneurs and improve the investment climate.

In the main, this study is underpinned by the social exclusion theory as the main theory. As far as this theory is concerned, poverty alleviation in the urban areas of South Africa is possible if poor people are equipped with resources, participate in the economic, political, social, and cultural activities of contemporary South African society, and their quality of life is attended to.

By applying the social exclusion theory as the main theory, poverty alleviation in the urban areas of South Africa is possible if the poor people are equipped with resources and are offered the opportunity to participate in the economic, political, social and cultural activities of contemporary South African society and their quality of life is improved. Applying these theories enabled the investigation of poverty and the

development of a sustainable framework for poverty alleviation in low-income urban communities of South Africa.

2.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented and described the theories underpinning the study of poverty and poverty alleviation. Firstly, it provided a theoretical background of social exclusion and its origin. Thereafter, the chapter evaluated the social exclusion theory as the overarching theory and gave a summary of the other complementary theories of poverty. Lastly, it demonstrated the link of the theories to the research objectives.

The next chapter provides the analysis of literature relevant to this study of poverty in South Africa.

CHAPTER 3

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews literature that supports this research and is focused on poverty and poverty evaluation both in developed and developing countries including South Africa. Firstly, poverty based on various authors is defined and conceptualised. It outlines the types of poverty, then it describes approaches to measuring poverty. The dynamics of poverty are discussed from a global perspective to regional and onto a domestic perspective. Drawing on a domestic perspective, factors affecting poverty in South Africa are then discussed.

The chapter then presents the strategies for poverty alleviation in South Africa (including policies, programmes, amongst others), and the role of community organisations in poverty alleviation in South Africa. Challenges faced by South Africa in alleviating poverty are identified. The gap in literature is acknowledge and lastly, it provides the conceptual framework for poverty alleviation, which guides the study and connects the theories, beliefs and key concepts.

3.2 DEFINING AND CONCEPTUALISING POVERTY

According to the World Bank Development Report (World Bank, 2019), there is no collective agreement on an accepted definition of poverty; however, there are different views on how poverty should be defined. As a result, several authors and international institutions, such as the World Bank, have tried to find an acceptable norm for defining poverty. In their view, poverty should be defined based on the poverty lines expressed in terms of the income a household or an individual would require purchasing goods and services deemed necessary for sustainability). This has led to economists and social scientists using the concept of poverty, which is based on consumption, income, and, to a lesser extent, human welfare, as a way to comprehend and measure people's levels of poverty and wellbeing. (Sitio et al., 2022).

3.2.1 Types of Poverty

According to Srivastava, Kumar and Srivastava (2023), poverty can be classified based on social, economic and political aspects. This distinction would imply that

policies aimed at reducing poverty ought to take into account the many facets of each of these forms of poverty.

3.2.1.1 Absolute poverty

Absolute poverty, also referred to as extreme poverty, is characterised by a lack of access to basic necessities such as clean water, food, housing, health care, education and information. Robert McNamara, the former president of the World Bank, defined absolute poverty as “a condition so limited by malnutrition, illiteracy, disease, squalid surroundings, high infant mortality and low life expectancy as to be beneath any reasonable definition of human decency”. Buheji and Ahmed (2019) refer to absolute poverty as a state in which people are severely deprived of necessities like housing, water, sanitary facilities, health care, education and information. Absolute poverty is the denial of fundamental necessities like food and shelter, which maintain existence (Thain, 2024).

Absolute poverty can also be defined as a situation where people do not enjoy the basic needs of life, such as housing, food, living circumstances, recreational opportunities and facilities. Conversely, relative poverty is determined by how much a person lacks access to necessities that are accepted as normal in society (Miller, Rein, Roby & Gross, 2020). Absolute poverty is determined by the poverty line, which is the amount of money needed for a household to meet all its basic needs of life. Lanau, Mack and Nandy (2020:2) reported that during the 1995 World Summit for Social Development (WSSD) which resulted in the Copenhagen Declaration (UN, 1995) and adopted by 117 countries, stated that absolute poverty is defined “as a condition characterised by severe deprivation of basic human needs, including food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education and information”.

3.2.1.2 Relative poverty

Relative poverty is defined from a social standpoint as one's level of living in relation to the economic standards of those who share the surrounding community (Verma, Kumar & Dash, 2021). Relative poverty does not only focus on the needs of an individual for basic survival as well as the issue of social inequality (Maia, 2024). Each household is compared to those of the average family in the society in which they live, if they cannot afford items or have fewer opportunities when compared to other families in their society. Relative poverty is referred to as ‘relative deprivation’. Rauhut

and Hatti (2021:185) define poverty in its most general sense “as the lack of necessities such as basic food, shelter, medical care and safety that are based on shared values of human dignity that depend not only on income but also on access to social services”, whereas other authors view poverty as relative deprivation. Townsend (2019:30) also defines relative poverty as “the lack of the resources necessary to permit participation in activities, customs, and diets commonly approved by society”.

Poverty is multi-dimensional in nature; it has a social, economic, political and cultural dimension. Therefore, to analyse poverty holistically, a researcher should ideally utilise a research approach that allows the poor to engage and have their voice heard; that is, to investigate the socio-political and economic concerns that directly affect them. In addition to income, poverty should be examined in terms of the denial of fundamental human rights such as food, shelter, water, sanitation, health, education and information.

Nyasulu, Maposa, Sikhakhane and Pandya (2021) state that there are different views on how poverty should be defined, some tend towards social definitions, while others have preferred statistical, economic or political definitions. This poses a challenge to the question of how poverty should be dealt with by development practitioners, scholars, governments, multinational firms and non-governmental organisations (Simpson Reeves, Parsell & Liu, 2019). While, for example, a political definition necessitates political interventions to deal with poverty, economic definitions inevitably lead to economic interventions. For example, Halleröd and Larsson (2007:16) define poverty as “the poor are those who, due to insufficient access to economic resources, have an unacceptably low level of consumption of goods and services”. This definition emphasises the difficulty of making ends meet, and the authors argue that this definition is lacking because, for example, malnutrition alone does not constitute poverty; rather, poverty only results from a lack of financial means that prevents a person from purchasing food (Marchetti & Secondi, 2022).

There is, however, a consensus among researchers. In the European Union (EU), for example, poverty is defined as “persons, families, and groups of persons whose resources (material, cultural and social) are so limited as to exclude them from the minimum acceptable way of life in the member state to which they belong” (Grishina

& Tsatsura, 2020:1747). According to Kwilinski, Vyshnevskyi and Dzwigol (2020), this definition is problematic because it assumes that it is 'okay' to be under some conditions however deplorable, as long as the member state has not declared them as such. This definition abrogates responsibility by focusing on the less contentious issue of 'person' or 'group of persons' in a member state.

The United Nations Development Programme's definition of poverty means not having enough food, clothes, a school or clinic to go to, over and above that not having the land to grow food or a job to earn a salary or access to credit to start a business. It means insecurity, powerlessness and exclusion of individuals, households and communities from participation in any form (Gaba, Dunga & Redda, 2021).

Statistical definitions use figures, numbers and percentages to define poverty (Delamonica, 2021). For example, the World Bank defines poverty as any income below US \$2.15 per day (Mukwamba, 2023). In this case, different poverty lines are used to define poverty, depending on country specific contexts. Based on research, the definition of poverty is of importance as it forms the basis on which interventions are drawn (Nyasulu, 2021).

This study focused on poverty caused by deprivation, lack or denial of access to resources (goods and services), rights and the inability to engage in regular interactions and activities that are available to a particular group of individuals in a society. Poverty in this instance is not confined to economic aspects of life; but it also includes social, cultural and political aspects. According to the European Commission (Lecerf, 2016), people are said to be poor if their income and resources are so inadequate that they are excluded from experiencing a standard of living that is considered acceptable in their own communities. Townsend (2019) states that poor people are excluded from participating in the social, economic and cultural activities of the societies in which they live. Poverty definition influences the kind of poverty alleviation initiatives that are designed and implemented; hence, an incorrect definition of poverty results in ineffective and unsustainable poverty eradication strategies (Kaninas, 2023). Yapa (2022) contends that the high rate of poverty in the third world, particularly during times of fast economic expansion, is a socially unique condition rather than the result of a general state of scarcity in the economy.

According to the analysis of numerous studies, both monetary and non-monetary measures of poverty are needed for policy formulation (Hicham & Qingjie, 2024). In this study, a non-monetary measure of poverty was used. Poverty was measured subjectively because more robust and objective measures, such as the poverty line, multidimensional poverty indices, or income and consumption data could not be used. The reason for this is that in these low-income communities (LICs), where the study was done, most people are not employed, so the issue of any of these measures of poverty was not possible. Decerf (2023) points out that while employing an income poverty measure as a tool, other factors should be taken into consideration in addition to income and consumption. Zuma (2022) reiterates that wellbeing and poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa are now seen as multidimensional phenomena. Thus, the wellbeing of an individual does not depend on income but also on several other dimensions or capabilities such as health, education, empowerment, for example (Salecker, Ahmador & Karimli, 2020). A multi-dimensional measure of poverty can incorporate a range of indicators such as health, lack of education, inadequate living standards, disempowerment, poor quality of work, the threat of violence and hazardous living environments (Alkire & Robles, 2017; Tigre, 2019).

In South Africa, the cause of poverty lies mainly in the country's lengthy history of discrimination that has left a legacy of inequality and poverty (that is, the structuralist explanation) (Dlakavu, 2022) due to the unjustly designed political and economic system that for decades discriminated against particular groups of people (Westley, 2022). The main causes of poverty that persist includes social forces, unemployment, inflation, changes in employment requirements, gender inequality and educational standards (Serumaga-Zake, 2018). Friel et al., (2021) reiterate that the conditions experienced by the poor are because of the policies and institutions that have shaped the lives of different societies, irrespective of their qualities, choices and efforts.

Mhlanga (2020) asserts that evidence seems to indicate that poverty is proving to be much more intractable and that much less progress has been achieved with poverty alleviation than was initially hoped for in South Africa. While several jobs have been created, the overall unemployment rate has increased. In the third quarter of 1995, the unemployment rate in South Africa was at 15%, and in the third quarter of 2023, the results of the quarterly labour force survey indicated that the number of unemployed

people increased by 399 000 from 16.3 million to 16.7 million and the official unemployment rate was at 31.9% towards the end of 2023. In South Africa, black Africans migrate to urban areas with the hope of finding job opportunities to escape poverty. As a consequence, the migrating youth are confronted with human rights abuse, marginalisation and social exclusion (Aboagye, 2021).

3.2.2 Approaches to Measuring Poverty

Four approaches to defining and measuring poverty have been devised which include Monetary, Capability, Social Exclusion and Participatory Approach. Each approach has different implications to policy, as each point to different people as being poor. The definition of poverty is extremely important as different definitions necessitate using different metrics to measure it. Incorrect definitions may lead to the erroneous identification of different individuals and groups as poor, which may lead to incorrect poverty eradication strategies.

Research indicates that the monetary approach and social exclusion were initially devised for developed countries, whereas the capabilities approach, and participatory approach were devised with developing countries including South Africa in mind. Currently, characteristics of different societies determine the approach to be used in defining poverty. The *monetary approach* identifies poverty as a shortfall in consumption or income. The *capability approach* focuses on indicators of freedom to live a valued life, where a person is considered poor if he fails to achieve certain minimal or basic capabilities such as life expectancy, morbidity, literacy and nutrition levels (Sen, 2020).

Social exclusion is a concept that was developed for industrialised countries to describe the process of marginalisation. Later, it was adopted by the European Union (EU) for the development of its social policy to eradicate poverty and social exclusion. Social exclusion is defined as “a process through which individuals or groups are wholly or partially excluded from full participation in the society in which they live” (Khan, Combaz & McAslan Fraser, 2015:5). Maia (2024) identified three main characteristics of social exclusion: Relativity-exclusion, which is relative to a particular society, agency-exclusion which is related to the action of an agent or agents, and lastly, exclusion based on the dynamics of society. Social exclusion is found to be multi-dimensional, as deprivation of individuals or groups occurs in more than one or

many dimensions. Du Toit (2020) in his research on social exclusion as a poverty mechanism, asserts that less developed economies with weak institutions and socio-linguistically diverse populations are more likely to experience social exclusion.

Their socio-economic level, ethnicity, race, nationality, geographic location, political affiliation and religion may all contribute to the differences that communities face and serve as the foundation for their exclusion from a variety of activities that may otherwise improve their well-being. Authors have found that access to certain areas of employment in the labour market becomes impossible, which results in exclusion. Gagnet (2005) views social exclusion as a violation of the principles of equality labelled 'inequality traps' where people are marginalised and discriminated against based on certain qualities that they do not possess.

The monetary approach to poverty is found to have retained its dominance nationally and internationally in studies of poverty and poverty alleviation strategies. According to the Human Development Initiative (2022), a technical conceptualisation of poverty considers various aspects such as material lack of resources necessary for survival, agency and dignity, which entail giving up self-respect or failure to fulfil minimal social obligations in society.

According to Everatt (2003:1), "the impact of definitional imprecision has been and remains considerable, affecting the development programmes while fuelling ill-tempered, if ultimately rather hollow, debate". Poverty manifests in various ways, including lack of durable goods, education, unsafe environments, social exclusion, low life expectancy, high unemployment, high mortality rates, chronic hunger, homelessness, and insufficient income (de Salvo & Piñeiro, 2022).

In this study, poverty includes economic, social, cultural as well as political aspects. It is therefore defined according to researchers (Atsenga & Amuhaya, 2020; Basu, 2020; Nyasula, 2020; Townsend, Phillimore & Beattie 2023) as the lack of income and productive resources to ensure sustainable livelihoods, hunger and malnutrition, ill health, limited or lack of access to education and other basic services. This has an influence on increased morbidity from illness, homelessness and inadequate housing, unsafe environments, social discrimination and exclusion, which are characterised by low self-confidence that undermine individuals' dignity and lead to a lack of participation in decision making.

3.3 DYNAMICS OF POVERTY

Based on literature, many people in developing countries are living in poverty. In South Africa, the proportion of the population experiencing poverty is said to be larger than the population identified as poor at any point in time (Javed, Yaqub & Gillani, 2023). Considering that poverty is multi-faceted, it includes not just a lack of income but also deprivations in other areas of well-being that are essential to the existence of an individual or households (Seema, 2022).

Poverty is regarded as a dynamic process, a situation where the effects of poverty may also be its causes. Poor people are less likely to have financial capital, education and social capital than non-poor people; and without these resources, the poor experience disadvantages that may, in turn, increase their poverty levels. Poverty exists in a dynamic cycle, with its effects tending to increase the likelihood that it will be transferred from generation to generation. We can define the poverty cycle as a phenomenon where a poor family becomes trapped in poverty for generations. Normally, such a family has either limited or a scarcity of social and economic resources to take it out of poverty or to break the cycle of poverty. For example, low-quality education, hunger and homelessness can all perpetuate poverty by creating barriers to individual economic advancement.

Reviewed literature reveals that there has been much research on poverty in South Africa, but a paucity of research on poverty dynamics in South Africa. To investigate poverty dynamics, certain approaches need to be followed, which require the use of longitudinal data. Several studies on the dynamics of poverty use either the spells approach or the components approach to investigate the persistence of poverty in a dynamic setting. In general, most research has used both income and consumption as measures of living standards. Households whose income is lower than the poverty line over the whole period are defined as permanently poor, whereas those who are poor in one or two periods are defined as transitory poor, as poverty can either be seen as permanent or transitory.

According to Kulkarni and Gaiha (2021), persistent poverty is caused by deep-rooted characteristics that cannot be easily changed in the short or medium term, such as lack of education, lack of employment, lack of assets and social exclusion for the household head. Induced poverty traps can develop into chronic poverty since these

variables feed off one another, keeping people stuck in a cycle of deprivation and making it difficult for them to escape. The majority of poor families more especially in developing countries have been trapped in poverty for generations. Poverty exists in a dynamic cycle, with its effects tending to increase the likelihood that it will be transferred from generation to generation. We can define the poverty cycle as a phenomenon where a poor family becomes trapped in poverty for generations. Most impoverished families, particularly those in emerging nations, have been stuck in poverty for many generations.

3.3.1 Global Poverty

Global Poverty has been a major challenge as nearly half of the global population in the developing regions live below the poverty line. In October 2015, the International Poverty line (IPL) was set at \$1.90 a day. The World Bank changed the extreme poverty threshold from \$1.90 to \$2.15 as of September 2022, using the 2017 Purchasing Power Parity (PPP). Lower-middle income countries' IPL is at \$3.20 per day, and the upper-middle income countries' IPL is at \$5.50 per day (World Bank, 2024). After the MDG's strategic objectives were adopted to reduce extreme poverty by half in 2015, the poverty rate is said to have declined at least by 14%, although more than 800 million people are still living in extreme poverty. Poverty globally can be attributed to conflict in other parts of the world, which has had a spillover effect, resulting in low schooling attainment, high inequality in education outcomes and the lack of job opportunities (Baah & Lakner, 2023; World Bank, 2024). The employment rate indicates that from 1991 to 2015, the employment to population ratio decreased by 2% from 62% to 60% (Ortiz-Ospina & Roser, 2023), and in early 2020, post COVID, the unemployment rate has settled near 33.5%, a 50-year low (Albert & Valletta, 2022).

Poverty has increased because of the global financial crisis between the periods of 1997 and 2000, although the number of people living below the poverty line have been steadily declining over the years by an average of 1.1% points per year. Research reveals that the distribution of poverty across the globe is highly uneven. In the early 1990s, 90% of the poor were situated in three regions, East Asia, South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, and in 2019, extreme poverty was concentrated in East Asia, South Asia and the highest in Sub-Saharan Africa. In terms of the global statistics, Sub-Saharan Africa has the highest percentage of extremely poor people as it accounts for

50.7% globally. According to the World Bank (2024), the global poverty headcount ratio was at \$2.15 per person per day resulting in a revision of poor people from 648 to 659 million in September 2022. An additional 11 million people were said to be living in extreme poverty. According to Baah and Lakner (2023), extreme poverty has decreased at a slow pace in Sub-Saharan Africa but is increasing in other regions such as the Middle East. The major contributing factor to poverty increasing is the conflicts that affect the country's ability to develop and eradicate poverty. According to Mukwamba (2023), poverty is a highly persistent and slow-moving process.

Based on the World Bank Report (2024), nearly 700 million people today are said to be living in extreme poverty as they survive on less than \$2.15 per day, which is the new extreme poverty line based on the 2017 Purchasing Power Parity (PPP), even though Sub-Saharan Africa has experienced demographic growth in the poorest areas. According to the latest poverty statistics, approximately 9.2% of the global population live in extreme poverty. In 2022, the poverty rate was said to be at 45.5%, which indicates a decline of 0.8% from 2021 (World Bank, 2024), but the number of poor people continues to rise. Sub-Saharan Africa has been lagging in terms of addressing poverty issues in comparison to the rest of the world, as a result of failure to share in economic benefits coupled with population growth and climate change (Juju et al., 2020; World Bank, 2024).

Ravallion (2020a) states that even though research confirms that globally poverty is highly prevalent in rural areas, evidence shows that there is a growing trend of migration to urban areas in most developing countries which is increasing at an alarming rate, which is estimated to double by 2030. The increasing urban population is reducing poverty in rural areas and increasing poverty in urban areas caused by lack of proper planning and failure of government policies to accommodate increased population growth in urban areas. Cali and Menon (2013) reiterated that the high rate of urbanisation has had an effect on rural poverty because of factors such as increased demand for local agricultural products, rural land/population ratio and rural non-farm employment.

According to Dyvik (2024), it is estimated that nearly 12% of the world's extremely poor population were located in Nigeria in 2023. About 63% of Nigerians lived in poverty as a result of not having access to security, work, education, health care or living

standards. Nigeria is said to be experiencing an annual urban population growth of 4.3% as the country hosts five of the 30 largest urban settlements on the African continent. The depth of urban poverty is said to have increased seven-fold when compared to rural poverty, which increased only two-fold (Mbah, Mgbemena & Ejike, 2016; Oladokun, 2021).

Gago-Cortes and Novo-Corti (2018) confirm that there is a phenomenon gaining popularity globally known as 'Urbanisation of Poverty' which refers to the global shift in terms of poverty from rural to urban areas. The shift is seen as a result of a serious global economic crisis which has crippled most of the developed and developing countries since 2007 as most Low-Middle Income Countries (LMIC) fail to support a strong agricultural development for general economic growth.

3.3.2 Poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa

In 1990, based on the World Bank Report (2023), about half the Sub-Saharan African population were living in extreme poverty. In the next three decades, only 35% were said to be living in extreme poverty (Thorbecke & Ouyang, 2022). However, in 2020, the World Bank reported that roughly 60% of the world's extreme poor people live in Sub-Saharan Africa, while 81% of the global poor live in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. In the past, Asia and the Pacific had the highest number of poor people in the world, but lately poverty has risen to an extremely high rate in Sub-Saharan Africa. Based on forecasts, it is estimated that by the year 2030, nearly 9 in 10 people living in extremely poor conditions will be found in Sub-Saharan Africa (World Bank, 2024).

According to research, poverty is more prevalent in rural areas in the Sub-Saharan Africa (World Bank, 2020). With the rising incidence of poverty and other factors, young Sub-Saharan Africans migrate to urban areas with the hope of finding job opportunities to escape poverty. As a consequence, the migrating youth are confronted with human rights abuse, marginalisation and social exclusion (Osman, 2020).

3.3.3 Poverty in South Africa

South Africa, which is located at the southernmost point of Africa and spans 471 445 square miles, was once subject to apartheid rule or ethnic separatism. However, between 1989 and 1994, the government led by F.W. de Klerk, the country's president

at the time, abolished the apartheid laws. (Tukamushaba & Okech, 2012; Hance, 2019; Sonneborn, 2010; Landsberg, 2013; Michaels, 2015). The transition happened through universal suffrage and a true electoral democracy, when Nelson Mandela led the Black majority in the 1994 election to form a government of national unity (UNECA, 2024).

The country is divided into nine administrative regions known as provinces, each having its provincial government. These are Eastern Cape, Free State, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, North West, Northern Cape and the Western Cape. Most of the provinces were established after the democratic elections in 1994. The Northern Cape is the province with the largest area but the smallest population, while Gauteng is the province with the smallest area but the largest population. (InfoguideSouthAfrica, 2020).

South Africa is regarded as the most developed middle-income country in Sub-Saharan Africa, although poverty remains one of the most critical challenges with which the government is faced (Manana, 2019). Post-1994, poverty in South Africa is based on the racial dimension, where the majority of black people are extremely poor at 56.3%, followed by coloured people at 36.1%, Asians at 14.7% and whites at 6.9%. Poverty is more prevalent among the youth and adolescents (Manana, 2019; SAHRC, 2022). However, considerable progress has been made in areas like basic water supply access, which is a basic necessity for those who were previously underprivileged. The South African government through its 1994 Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) established the protocols and rules governing government policy which meant a commitment to meeting the basic needs of all South African citizens. In 2012, in his speech, the then-president Jacob Zuma indicated that income inequality had deteriorated since 1994, but inequality was narrowing (The Presidency, 2012).

Based on the National Development Plan (NDP) 2030, the South African government made a commitment to deliver on the MDG goals based on its constitutional obligations to bring South Africans together, develop an inclusive economy, and develop capabilities in order to eradicate poverty, reduce inequality by 2030 and enhance capacity of leadership. Poverty alleviation strategies that were implemented meant that poor people were able to change their lives and contribute to the wellbeing of their families (Johannesburg Development Agency, 2024).

Even though changes have been evident since 1994, South Africa had the highest inequality in income distribution in 2023 which indicated a Gini coefficient score of 0.63, which was the highest in the developing countries followed by Namibia with a score of 59.1 (Dyvik, 2024). The forecast for 2024 remained the same as there were no major changes in the country in terms of employment and wealth distribution (Ngubane, Mndebele & Kaseeram, 2023). The gap that existed between the rich and the poor was aggravated by endogenous factors such as the legacy of apartheid, the wage gap that exists between different racial groups, gender and age disparity as well as exogenous factors, which were attributed to globalisation and trade distortion which occurred in the past (UNECA, 2017).

According to poverty trends as reported in 2015, it was estimated that 30.4 million people (55.5% of the total population) in South Africa were living below the poverty line. The number increased by 2.3% from 53.2% in 2011 (Stats SA, 2011). People reported to be living in extreme poverty also increased from 11 million in 2011 to 13.8 million in 2015. In 2023, poverty in South Africa was estimated at 62.7%, based on the middle-income country poverty line. The Gini coefficient which measures income inequality, improved from 0.72 in 2006 to 0.68 in 2015, and in 2024, it was at 0.63, which indicates the widening gap since 1994 between the top and bottom earners (Stats SA, 2024). South Africa has the most unequal societies in the world in terms of income and wealth distribution (Ayoo, 2022). The global COVID-19 pandemic and the related containment measures led to a severe contraction in economic activities globally and domestically, which resulted in some people losing employment and others unable to find jobs. South African employment figures showed a decline by over 2.2 million in the second quarter of 2020. In the fourth quarter of 2021 with relaxation of the COVID restrictions around the world, employment levels started to increase with the largest change recorded by the end of second quarter in 2022.

Democracy in South Africa has failed to deliver as promised because problems such as malnutrition, poor education, and income inequality still exist in the country. Income distribution has benefited the rich versus the poor as inequality between racial groups has declined, but inequality within racial groups has increased especially within the African population.

South African society is divided into broad levels, the first being the increasing multi-racial upper class, which comprises the predominantly middle class who are formally employed with their dependents, the second being an almost exclusively black and rural lower level who are in the agricultural sector, and also the informal sector and the last being the unemployed (Dawson & Fouksman, 2020). Mabhoyi and Seroto (2019) believe that African people who have enjoyed upward mobility have had semi-privileged starting points, but children from poor families are bound to have disadvantages in terms of nutrition, health and proper education which will lead to failure in getting the right type of education in order to secure proper jobs.

However, despite efforts made by the government in developing policies aimed at alleviating poverty in South Africa, the country is still faced with a number of challenges such as high unemployment rate, extreme poverty and high levels of inequality. (Sambo, 2021; UNDP Report, 2013). The majority of poor people in South Africa live in rural areas where 70% are considered to be extremely poor compared to 30% of people living in urban areas. The major provinces confronted with extreme poverty are the Eastern Cape with 12,7% of its household classified as multi-dimensionally poor, followed by Limpopo with 11,5% also classified as multi-dimensionally poor. KwaZulu-Natal is ranked as the third province with poor people at 7,7% in 2016, which showed a huge decline to 22,3% in 2001 (Stats SA, 2017). With poverty more prevalent in rural areas, there has been a steady migration from rural to urban areas which has increased as many people try to escape poverty and unemployment. Individuals migrate back and forth between their rural homes and the urban centres in search of employment and higher wages (Stapleton, 2023). The migration decisions are based on human capital such as education, job opportunities in urban centres, physical capital access to money or credit and social capital, which is access to migrant network through which information can pass from urban centres to rural communities (De Haas, 2021).

The general household survey released by Statistics SA in 2023 reported that South Africa is faced with a high shortage of housing resulting in an increase in informal settlements in the three largest provinces, namely the Western Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and Gauteng estimated to be 134 000, 176 000 and 481 000 respectively despite huge increases in budget allocations for housing (Kerr & Wittenberg, 2019). In addition, South Africa faces a serious challenge of urban food insecurity. Evidence shows that

malnutrition rates are growing in urban areas although nationally, the country is food secure. South Africa is one of the developed countries in Africa with a well-developed agricultural sector. To date, 60% of the South African population is already urbanised, and the number is expected to increase to 80% by the mid-century. However, increasing urban migration will increase the urban challenges of housing shortages, food insecurity, unemployment and poverty.

Gauteng and the Western Cape are the economic hubs of South Africa. The two provinces are highly affected by an increasing population. Most people who move to Gauteng province are from other provinces and outside the country. Only 64.8% of the population in Gauteng were born in Gauteng, and the rest are migrants which includes asylum seekers and refugees from the neighbouring countries (Dlamini, Tesfamichael, Shiferaw & Mokhele, 2020). In the Western Cape, 71.9% of the people were born in the Western Cape, 16.2% are migrants from the Eastern Cape and 4.5% are from outside South Africa.

Population growth in Gauteng and the Western Cape is the reason for the rise in the percentage of impoverished households in these regions. Between 2001 and 2011, the population of the Western Cape increased from 10.1% to 11.2%, and in Gauteng the population increased from 20.9% to 23.7%. According to reports, the Western Cape and Gauteng also saw an increase in the percentage of households without income, which is attributed to population growth. Gauteng reported a rise of 29.7% from 20.4% between 2001 and 2011, whereas the Western Cape reported an increase of 10% from 5.1% over that same period (SA Stats, 2011). According to Census 2022, Cape Town experienced the highest annual population growth rate of 2.4%, followed by Mpumalanga with 2.3% then Gauteng with 2.0%, with Johannesburg city growing only by 0.8%.

However, Gauteng as a province has always depended on immigrants as the highest contributor in the labour force because of its economic activities which include mining, manufacturing and other activities. The increase in immigrants has had an adverse impact on the local labour market as locals are easily substituted by immigrants, which results in wage exploitation as migration is motivated by a desire to maximise the economic opportunities that exists in other part of the country.

According to Leibbrandt, Woolard and Woolard (2019), the larger conversation about inequality has included sub-themes related to poverty measurement and profiling. The majority of people within racial groupings were relegated to the bottom of the nation's income and wealth distribution under apartheid, which clearly projected onto poverty incidence. Many social scientists were tasked with proving this and shedding light on the aspects of apartheid policy that contributed to poverty. Although such information was widely discussed in international anti-apartheid circles, internal acceptance was, at best, lukewarm.

This study used cross-sectional data which entails the collection of data at a single point in time and focuses on the evolution of poverty levels from a static point of view. To measure poverty in low-income communities of South Africa, variables such as the level of education of the household head, assets and household size were used. Low levels of education of the household head are among the most important variables used to explain chronic poverty in countries such as Mexico (Garza-Rodriguez et al., 2021). Education levels of household members, more especially the household heads, are a strong predictor of chronic poverty since labour is the greatest asset of the poor (Garza-Rodriguez, 2018).

From the literature reviewed, there is evidence that low levels of education in households, especially household heads, result in low-income, which significantly increases the likelihood of the household falling into poverty (Iniguez-Montiel & Kurosaki, 2018). Urban poverty in South Africa is viewed as a structural issue, with the impoverished being trapped in a cycle of inadequacy and lack due to systems that prevent them from doing what is morally right, that is, changing the macro-economic system, politics and ideology to benefit everyone (Nzabamwita, 2021).

How poverty in South Africa differs from global and neighbouring perspectives

Poverty in South Africa has unique characteristics when compared to global poverty. Global poverty is more often linked to factors such as economic inequality, political conflict, natural disasters caused by climate changes, lack of education, structural issues like corruption, rapid urbanisation without sufficient infrastructure or employment opportunities as well as resources necessary for human survival. Even though they both face similar difficulties, Moshood (2024) reaffirmed that poverty in South Africa is caused by a number of factors, including the legacy of apartheid's racial

segregation and discrimination policies, which left most South Africans with limited access to economic opportunities, education and basic services. The nation has the greatest rates of income inequality in the world, and these policies still have an impact on employment rates, wealth distribution, and resource access. Even while there have been advancements since 1994, economic progress has not been equitable, and the vast majority of people remain impoverished (Plagerson, 2023).

3.3.4 Poverty in the Province of Gauteng

As previously indicated, most migration to Gauteng is from other provinces and outside the country. Only 56% of the people in Gauteng were born there, and the rest are migrants or immigrants. The increase in the proportions of poor households in Gauteng can be attributed to population increases as it grew from 20.9% to 23.7% between 2001 and 2011. Gauteng reported an increase in the proportions of households without income, which is attributed to population growth.

Gauteng, especially the city of Johannesburg, has attracted the majority of South Africans and foreigners. Johannesburg is the largest and wealthiest city in South Africa. The majority of the immigrants live in the inner-city areas and other pockets of the city such as informal settlements, where they struggle with access to basic needs and have the highest unemployment rate with increased numbers of people who live in extreme poverty, high crime rates, chronic diseases such as AIDS and HIV, and lack of proper housing (Duba, 2020; Kayembe, 2021).

According to Cinini and Mkhize (2022), everyone competes in a labour market that is oversubscribed with low-skilled work seekers. Based on Statistics SA (2013), it was indicated that over one quarter of the Gauteng labour force is unemployed and lives below the poverty line. Due to employment scarcity in the province, a considerable number of migrants have obtained employment and are running successful small businesses in the townships because of their skills, industrious work ethic, work experience and social networks (Phalatsi & Maphela, 2020). The small businesses have been able to create employment opportunities for a few South Africans although the employment is usually reserved for immigrants' next of kin or other immigrants such as Ethiopians and Somalians.

Poverty in South African Townships

In South African townships, a large number of people do not have a decent standard of living. This is partly due to the South Africa's historical circumstances that shaped the present configuration of poverty and opportunities along racial lines. According to May and Norton (1997 in Meyer & Nishimwe-Niyimbanira, 2016), one of the main reasons why there are high levels of poverty in townships is the now defunct apartheid system of racial segregation, a procedure of dispossession, where assets such as livestock and land were confiscated from Blacks, leaving them with high levels of poverty which is still evident today. Black people were systematically left with relatively little in the way of land and other resources, were not afforded education of a quality comparable to that of whites, and were compelled to adopt coping strategies (Aliber, 2001). A large proportion of the workers from the townships have to travel long distances to their workplaces. Statistics show that the urban areas have continued to grow at unprecedented rates. For example, in Kwakwatsi, Sekhampu (2012) found that 50% were found to be poor using the lower bound poverty line, and 77% when using the upper bound poverty line. On average, poor households had an income shortage of 56% of their poverty line when using the lower bound poverty line. The rapid growth of cities, partly due to rural-urban migration, have strained their capacity to provide services such as energy, education, health care, transportation, sanitation and physical security. This has resulted in the government of South Africa having less revenue to spend on the basic upkeep of cities and the provision of services; thus cities have become areas of massive sprawl, serious environmental problems and widespread poverty (UN, 1995).

3.3.4.1 An overview of poverty dynamics in Alexandra Township

Alexandra Township, commonly known as Alex, is identified as one of the poorest townships in region E ward 75 of Johannesburg and identified as the 14th most deprived ward, and the 96th deprived ward in Gauteng (Ngubeni, 2021). Alex is situated 16 kilometres from the central Johannesburg's white-dominated North-Eastern suburbs. Based on history, Alex dates back to 1904 when a wealthy farmer bought a number of farms and started selling parts of Zandfontein farm to black families, giving them an opportunity to own land (Nauright, 2007). However, the Land Act of 1913 took away the right of black people to own land (Brou, Shikwambana & Sivakumar, 2021). Alex was designated as a 'native township' in 1912, and the

Alexandra Health Committee was founded in 1916 to oversee Alex. Alex continued to suffer under the apartheid regime as the Committee was not allowed to collect local taxes (Thipe, 2020). In addition, a lack of resources and appropriate administration resulted from the Johannesburg City Council's exclusion of Alex and refusal to assume accountability for a region as it was claimed to be outside its purview. Alex lacked infrastructure, including paved roads, sewerage systems, drainage systems and streetlights. (Mbanjwa, 2018).

Alex is restricted in an area of 7.6km² on the banks of the Jukskei River. The population of Alex in 2016 was estimated to be at 179 624 (60% male and 40% female), with a growth rate of 15% per year (Mbokazi, 2016). Although Johannesburg is said to be dominated by foreigners, 97% of residents of Alex are South Africans, and only 3% are believed to be foreigners with 98.95% black Africans, 0,43% coloured, 0,12% white, and 0.07% Indians or Asians (Stats SA, 2011). Alex has a highly complex housing structure. It has original stands of between 500 and 600 square metres, with a normal house meant for one family. Additional three to six separate rooms (backyard shacks) have been built on to house additional families for significant income to the main householder (Harrison, Masson & Sinwell, 2014).

In 2000, Alex was estimated to have 20 000 shacks, of which 7 000 were located in the backyards of the original houses. The population increase is a result of people from within South Africa and people from the neighbouring countries moving into the area for employment opportunities. The population is estimated to have increased four times which weighs heavily on the current infrastructure; for example, constant blocked sewerage systems, lack of water and illegal connections to the electricity supply system (Harrison, Masson & Sinwell, 2014, Crankshaw, 2022)

In the early 1980s, there was an effort to turn Alex into a Garden City with an entirely different design. Only a small part of the plan was implemented because of violence that erupted in which 40 people were killed. In the late 1980s, the government introduced the 'Urban Renewal Plan', which caused significant community disturbances, demolitions, and displacement. It was shelved in 1990 (Ballard & Hamann, 2021).

A further influx of people led to the development of a new area called 'East Bank'. In 1998, the government introduced a new development plan to reduce the population of

Alex and divide the township into development zones. The plan did not work. In 1999, the government managed to build a new establishment called 'Tsutsumani', which consisted of 1,700 freestanding, semi-detached and simple units that are now occupied by Alex residents who have been on the housing waiting list and qualify for housing (Mareere, 2020)

The Johannesburg Poverty and Livelihoods study found that Alexandra is characterised by a high population and unemployment rate, extreme poverty, a lack of education, health care and other social amenities (Harrison, Masson & Sinwell, 2014, Crankshaw, 2022). Alex is said to have an average of 3.62 households per stand, with an estimated 3.42 number of people per household. Sixty percent (60%) of households are headed by males, and 40% are headed by female. Only 5% of the population have post-matriculation qualifications. Only 24% of households in the survey were found to be food secure, and 49% of the population was believed to have severe food insecurity. Female-headed households are found to have high food insecurity when compared with male-headed households. Based on research, Alex is found to be one of the poorest urban areas in South Africa (Mathye, Scholz & Nyende-Byakika, 2022).

Figures 3.1 to 3.4 depict Alexandra Township in, showing informal dwellings located on the Jukskei River, government-subsidised housing Tsutsumani and well-built houses, East Bank.



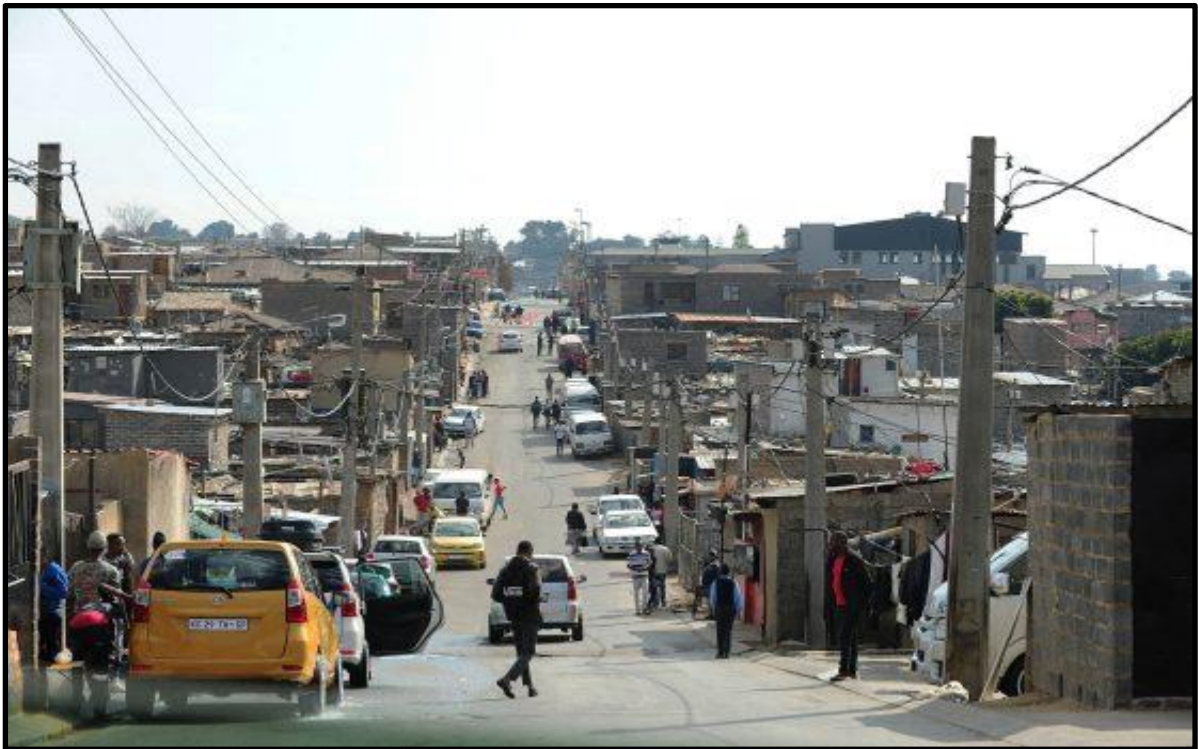
Source: Themba Hadebe (2023)

Figure 3.1: Alexandra Township - Jukskei River Squatter Camp



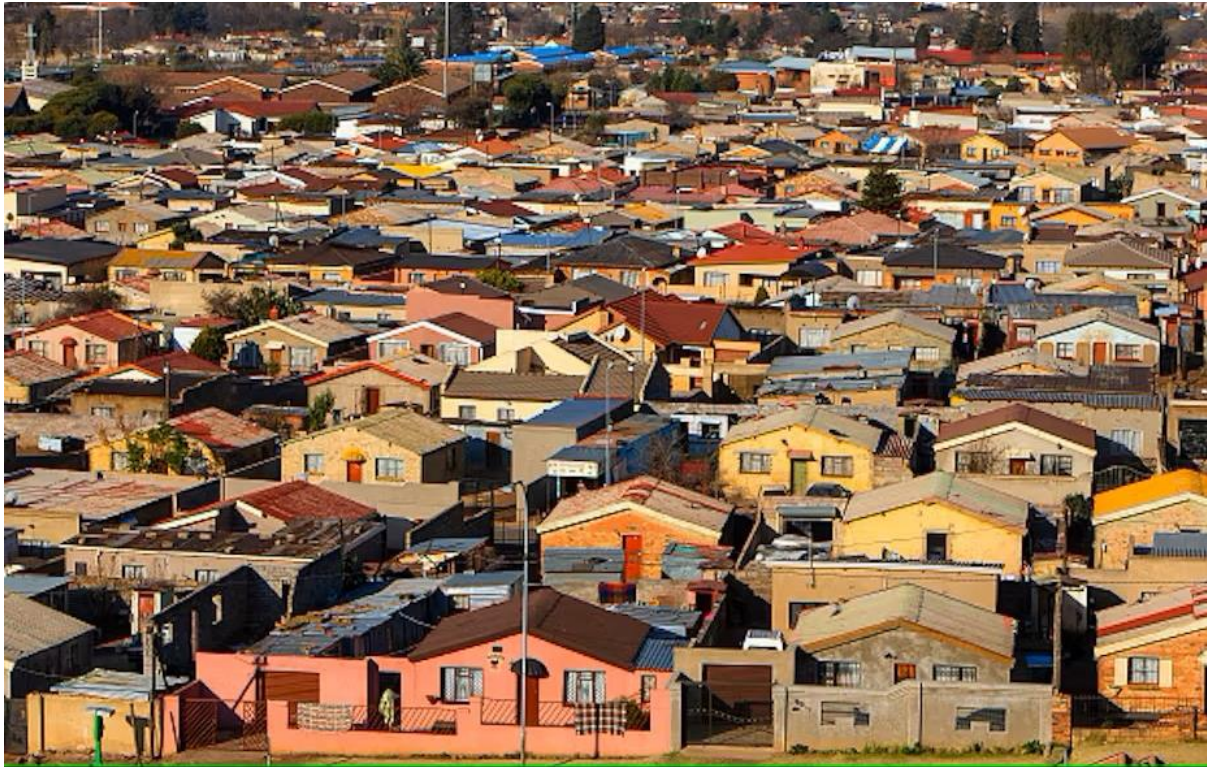
Source: The Craft Media (2016)

Figure 3.2: Alexandra Township - Tsutsumani main township with different houses/dwellings



Source: The Craft Media (2016)

Figure 3.3: Alexandra Township - Tsutsumani main township with different houses/dwellings



Source: Marc Hoberman/Hoberman Collection/Universal Images Group via Getty Images (2023)

Figure 3.4: Alexandra Township - Eastbank (bonded houses)

3.3.4.2 An overview of poverty dynamics in Diepsloot Township

Diepsloot, which in Afrikaans refers to ‘deep ditch’, is a densely populated township established in 1995 as a transit camp located in the north of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality. The first residents of Diepsloot were 200 families evicted from Zevenfontein who settled in Zone 1. In the early 1990s, Diepsloot served as a resettlement for people in the north of Johannesburg who were from Zevenfontein (informally known as eSgodiphola) (Dhlamini, 2019).

Diepsloot came into being as a result of racial segregation under the apartheid regime and the government’s failure to implement a proper housing programme. Diepsloot residents own houses, RDP houses and shacks, most of the people of Diepsloot became house owners through the People Housing Process (PHP), which was initiated by the government in the early 1990s to encourage people to build their own houses to be able to benefit from the R7 500.00 subsidy for every house completed. The RDP houses are owned by individuals who became beneficiaries of the RDP housing projects in the area, and the majority of the people own shacks made of corrugated iron. Most people in Diepsloot rent houses, RDP houses and shacks. The informal settlement area is overcrowded with no service delivery (Makondo, 2018).

In less than 20 years of establishment, Diepsloot has grown, covering approximately 5km² with an estimated total population of 138 329 in 2011 when the last census was carried out (Stats SA, 2022). However, in 2022, it was estimated that the population of Diepsloot had increased to approximately 350 000 in the intervening years. Diepsloot is divided into extensions, which comprise government-subsidised RDP houses in extensions 4, 5, 6, 9, and 10, brick houses built by landowners in extensions 2 and 7, partially government-subsidised houses in extension 3 called Tanganani, as well as shacks, which make up the biggest section comprising sections 1, 12, and 13, with almost 45.5% of residents renting from landowners who have subdivided their land (Mndze, 2014).

Diepsloot comprises black Africans that are ethnically mixed (Xhosa, Pedi, Venda, Shangaan) from Limpopo, which makes up 98% of the total population. Pedi is said to be dominant ethnic group, which could be as high as 50% of the population in Diepsloot. Recently, there has been an influx of foreign nationals from Mozambique, Lesotho, Zimbabwe and Malawi, with Somalia, Pakistan and Bangladesh immigrants operating the majority of the small businesses in the area (Stats SA, 2022).

Although Diepsloot has formal businesses such as the Diepsloot Shopping Mall, the economy is dominated by many informal businesses that are individually owned. Most people either sell their goods by the roadside in the open areas or from their houses. The majority sell second-hand clothing, electronic goods, vegetables, poultry, blankets, cooked food, are open-air vehicle panel beaters or car mechanics, which means that the economy of Diepsloot is dominated by informal businesses. The challenge with informal businesses is that more than 40% do not survive for more than six months (Lloyd & Leibbrandt, 2018). It is estimated that half or 50% of the population of Diepsloot is unemployed, and more than 70% live below the poverty line, with South Africa's unemployment rate standing at 33.5% with an increase of 0.8% in the first quarter of 2024 (Stats SA, 2024).

The high unemployment rate in Diepsloot is attributed to limited education attainment coupled with other socio-economic and political factors such as youth unemployment, lack of service delivery, inadequate electricity, water shortages, sewer leakages and poor sanitation. Another major challenge for Diepsloot is crime, drug abuse, rape and violent attacks on local residents, especially women and children. Recently, there was

an attack and killing of two minor children because their father decided to join the community policing forum. The majority of the gruesome murder and rape cases of women and children are committed in this area (Stats SA, 2024)

Although services such as electricity, water and sanitation are provided through Pikitup, Johannesburg Water, for example, illegal connections, water shortages and sewer blockages continue to be a serious problem in the area. Diepsloot is confronted by service delivery protests and xenophobic attacks, as people feel that the government is not doing enough for the community in terms of providing services and alleviating poverty in the area. Figures 3.5 to 3.7 illustrate the type of housing found in Diepsloot township in Gauteng Province as well roads that are not tarred (Mahajan, 2014).



Source: www.dyp.co.za (2021)

Figure 3.5: Diepsloot Township: informal settlement



Source: Getty images: Bloomberg (2024)

Figure 3.6: Diepsloot Township: brick houses built by owners with or without government partial subsidy (Riverside View)



Source: Money web- Maxim Bolt (2023)

Figure 3.7: Diepsloot Township: Untarred road-lack of service delivery in the township

3.3.4.3 *An overview of poverty dynamics in Ivory Park Township*

Ivory Park is a densely populated township situated on the northern boundary of the City of Johannesburg in Midrand. It began as an informal settlement established in 1997 to accommodate the homeless and migrants coming to the city of Johannesburg seeking employment (CityofJoburgZa, 2024). In 1997, 14 627 residential stands were established to accommodate the homeless migrants who were seeking employment in Johannesburg (Charman, 2015). The city has built about 452 subsidised houses including RDP houses and infrastructure development such as roads, schools and other community facilities (Census, 2011). The majority of people rent houses, RDP houses and shacks made of corrugated iron. Although Ivory Park seems better in terms of structural architecture when compared to Alexander and Diepsloot, it is overcrowded with challenges of rapid urbanisation and in-migration, with houses overlapping on pavements and shacks erected in most backyards (Mahajan, 2014). Ivory Park was designed as a dormitory settlement built only to accommodate the masses without any provision for business or trade. According to Statistics SA (2011), Ivory Park had a total population of 184 383 people residing in a 9 210km² radius (Masuku, 2015) and this has had a negative impact on infrastructure development and service delivery. Majority of the households are made up of young adults who are unemployed, living in poverty and are unable to pay for services.

The township is comprised of a community from various cultural backgrounds such as Zulu speakers, constituting more than a quarter of the population, who are internal migrants from KwaZulu-Natal. However, all South African ethnic groups are represented in the area. According to Statistics SA (2012), the average household is 2.4 metres in size, which is less than the national average of 3.4 metres. About half of the population of working age is employed both in the formal and informal sectors. Ivory Park is abuzz with economic activities as migrants are mostly involved in street trade and street activities either as self-employed, micro entrepreneurs or informal workers (Ligthelm, 2012). Most people are in the business of selling liquor, cooked food, fruits and vegetables and grocery items, operating from open ground to formalised establishments as well as from their houses. Migrant entrepreneurs generally run the more profitable micro-businesses in the township, which has hampered growth for local businesses because of their social networks, innovative

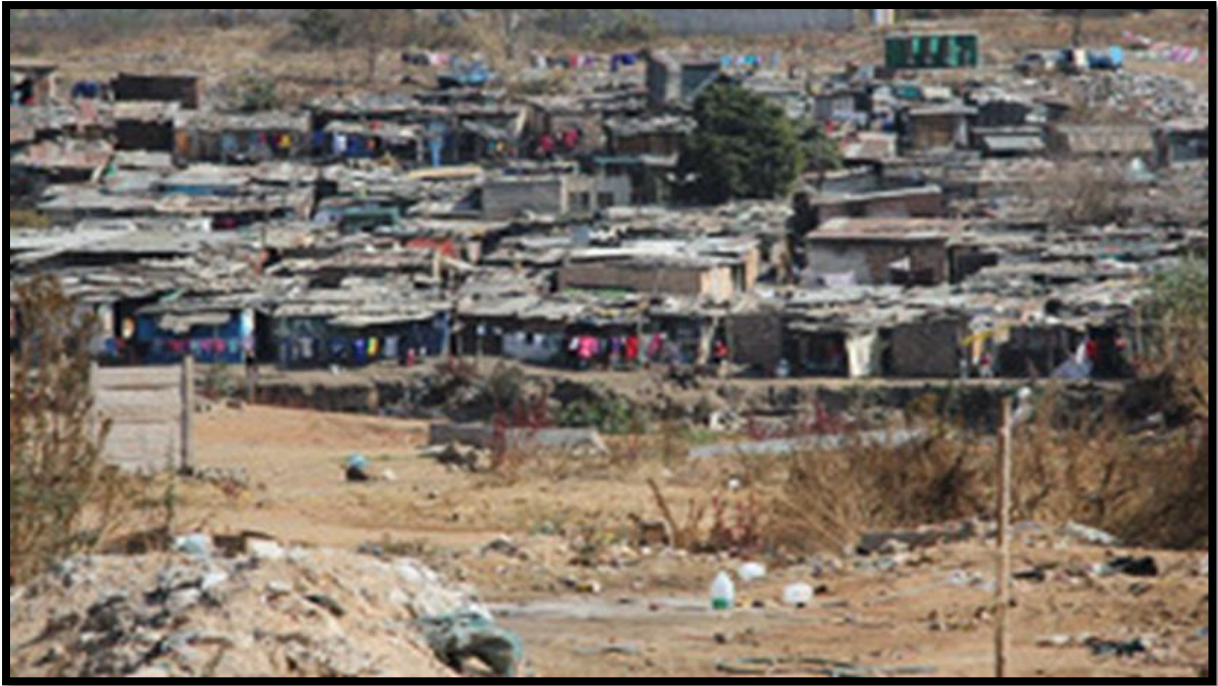
business approaches, collective procurement of stock and the methods employed in managing micro-business enterprises in the township (Masuku, 2015)

The challenges experienced by residents of Ivory Park as an informal settlement, are inadequate infrastructure, sub-standard living conditions and socio-economic deprivations such as high levels of unemployment, low household income and inadequate access to formal housing and basic services. Crime in Ivory Park is a challenge like any other township in South Africa. With a high unemployment rate, people unable to afford the necessities and resort to criminal activities. According to the crime statistics over the years, crime in Ivory Pak has consistently increased, with drug-related crimes being the highest with over a thousand cases per annum followed by burglary then assault cases. The challenge is drugs and alcohol which are easily accessible as they are cheap. Crime, corruption, unemployment and lack of assets and also lack of service delivery has been identified as the major problem hampering development in Ivory Park (Masuku, 2015). Ivory Park township (Figures 3.8 and 3.9) has similar types of houses as found in Alexandra and Diepsloot, but it is more organised. It has formal government fully and partially subsidised houses, and shacks made of plastic and corrugated iron (Phalatsi, 2020)



Source: Shutterstock.com (2019)

Figure 3.8: Formal houses-Ivory Park Township



Source: Transformsa.co.za (2021)

Figure 3.9: Ivory Park-Squatter Camp

3.4 FACTORS AFFECTING POVERTY

A number of factors of poverty have been identified, and these include lack of education and skills, slow growth, inequality and unrest, ill health and disability, asset poverty traps, unemployment, social exclusion and lack of infrastructure (Chibba & Luiz, 2020). According to Olaberria and Reinhart (2023), extreme poverty is found to be a challenge especially in the 21st century. The top 20% of the world population has access to over 85% of the world's wealth, and 80% of the population has access to only 15% of the wealth, which indicates a high level of inequity. Extreme poverty is largely a consequence of the unfair and unequal sharing of wealth and opportunities, rather than a mere lack of food, medicine or resources. The richest countries in the world, such as the United Kingdom (UK) and the United States of America (USA) have the highest Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) of above \$30,000 per capita when compared with the developing countries of the world. South Africa and Brazil are said to have an estimated range of between \$10 000 and \$20,000 PPP. The poorest countries like Angola and Philippines have a PPP of less than \$10,000 per capita (Teal, 2021).

Bartle (2021) views poverty as a social problem which affects all communities irrespective of their cultures and beliefs in a society. He identified five primary factors

affecting poverty which are ignorance, diseases, apathy, dishonesty and dependency. He believes that a solution to the problem of poverty is to identify the primary factors of poverty and address them (as a way to eradicate poverty). The primary factors are the main contributors classified as educational factors, political factors, health factors, cultural factors, social factors, economic factors, infrastructure factors, ICT factors and wealth factors.

3.4.1 Educational Factors

3.4.1.1 *Lack of education and skills*

Since education increases welfare and lowers the likelihood of poverty and hunger in households, it is the most significant factor in reducing poverty. The cost of education is found to be the highest contributing factor to the lack of education. Most poor households are excluded from participation in educating their children because of the high cost of education. Children raised in poor families are likely to experience long-term poverty as poverty will affect their health and future earning potential. A study conducted in Guinea-Bissau by the World Bank research team, found that the primary reason given by more than half of families with children who had left school was a lack of funds for tuition, which has a detrimental effect on the nation's overall economic development (Špoljar, 2022).

In Sub-Saharan Africa, it has been found that education systems are notoriously underfunded, and the enrolment rates are far behind the standard of industrialised countries, which impacts negatively on overall economic growth (Grimmer, 2022). In addition, levels of education are found to have an impact on poverty. Adeniyi, Ajayi and Adedeji (2021) identify education as a crucial contributory factor to growth inclusiveness in Sub-Saharan Africa. Households with higher education levels have more advantages in terms of income growth and development versus those with low education levels. However, there are instances where higher levels of education are considered unimportant in reducing poverty. Ullah (2022) found that in areas such as rural Pakistan, education does not contribute to the wellbeing of individual households, although in areas such as Bangladesh, education plays a major role in poverty reduction in urban areas than in rural areas.

The Analysis of National Child Development Study data indicates that children who do not have basic literacy and numeracy skills or leave school with low levels of

educational attainment, are at a high risk of experiencing social exclusion as adults (Hobcraft, 2002). According to a study on poverty by the South African Human Rights Commission (2018), education is one of the primary means of promoting social mobility as well as dismantling poverty traps (von Fintel, 2021). Access to education is found to be a determinant for future life chances and mobility out of poverty (Cohen Raviv & Lewin-Epstein, 2021). According to UNESCO (2017), there are high levels of discrimination and inequality found in children when they enter formal schooling (Balestra & Ciani, 2022).

Research has found that inequality and liquidity constraints as a result of exclusion, have made poor households choose not to invest in education, thereby trapping their descendants in perpetual poverty (Selim & Gungor, 2021). According to Zhang (2021), the poverty trap can emanate from the 'culture of poverty', which is mostly common in poor communities where low levels of education in the community can set a social norm for education where people fail to attain high levels of education and remain uneducated or have only achieved low levels of education.

Educational attainment is found to have a positive effect on labour market participation and unemployment (Bynner & Heinz, 2021). It was found that in most developing countries such as South Africa, segregation policies of apartheid have had a lasting impact on education (Mpisi & Alexander, 2024). The poor are unable to access quality education; they are excluded because such schools are not easily accessible as they are located in remote exclusive areas. Intentionally, children from poor communities are excluded from participating in quality education. Frizelle, Ceroni Bateman and Hart (2021) confirm that poverty can perpetuate itself via low educational attainment and low-quality education, which has a negative impact of labour market prospects and thus, obstructs social mobility (Santos & Halkias, 2021). Another form of exclusion in this country is through the medium of instruction where the language of instruction is not the language spoken at home (Howie & Tauchert, 2019; Mestry, 2019). According to study conducted in 2010, one of the main strategies for fostering social mobility and escaping poverty traps is education (Lewin, 2019; OECD, 2010).

3.4.1.2 Levels of education

According to Mashamba, Magweva and Gani (2022), all levels of education have a positive impact on income growth rate in Africa; and those who have completed higher

education have more of an advantage in terms of income growth and development. Education has been seen as highly significant in the development, based on the fact that it increases the productivity of existing resources and contributes to disseminating new technology and the effectiveness and efficiency of institutions. Grimmer (2022) also found that a higher human capital base enables economies to be role players in international markets. The educational status of the household head is found to be the greatest contributory factor in terms of poverty levels of the household. The higher the educational level of the household head, the lower the poverty rate and vice versa. The household head is found to have a negative influence on both the poverty prevalence and poverty gap, as access to education enhances the ability to acquire better jobs, which results in high productivity and high wage-earning abilities (Madan & Mor, 2020). Grimmer (2022) also asserts that a higher human capital base enables economies to be role players in international markets.

Early et al. (2020) when comparing experiences of children from different backgrounds and their attitude towards education, found that poverty has a major impact on education and in most cases, determines the levels of education that a child will achieve. Children from poor family backgrounds have higher chances of not achieving high results as they feel anxious and insecure when compared with children from rich families. This has been found to be true in continents such as Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa.

In order to address the issues of education, the attitudes and experiences that are behind the social differences in education need to be addressed by breaking the cycle of poverty in low-middle income communities even though poverty is also found in developed countries. A study conducted in the UK confirms that children from disadvantaged backgrounds are less likely to achieve good General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) or equivalent, and in Scotland, children from poor families who qualify to receive free school meals, have fewer chances of reaching level 5 in terms of credit and qualifications (Stopforth, Gayle & Boeren, 2021).

The background of children plays an important role because poor parents have high chances of producing poor children, which transfers poverty across generations. Mabhoyi and Seroto (2019) confirm that poverty breeds poverty, this means that if a

person experiences poverty from childhood to mid-life, he or she has less chances of recovery and is less likely to do well in the labour market as is the case in South Africa.

3.4.1.3 *Activities outside the classroom*

The most critical element is the activities outside school which are mostly ignored, yet they play a major role in terms of developing the confidence of the child in learning and can help strengthen the relationship between the child and the instructor. Researchers such as Hirsch (2017) confirm that out-of-school settings help children to become used to the environment and end up seeing learning as a partnership and enjoying participating rather than something that they are forced to do. It is confirmed that socio-economic circumstances that result in children failing to obtain qualifications when they reach adulthood, transfer poverty across generations (Hirsch & Paczynska, 2024).

3.4.2 Health Factors

3.4.2.1 *Diseases*

Poverty and diseases are two interconnected issues that present significant challenges in poor countries, more especially in Sub-Saharan Africa. Because this region is characterised by high prevalence of poverty, it is also burdened with heavy diseases. The relationship between poverty and diseases is complex and multifaceted, with poverty exacerbating the spread of diseases, and diseases further entrenching individuals and communities in poverty (Hassan, 2022). Poverty increases susceptibility to diseases through factors such as malnutrition, lack of access to safe drinking water and sanitation, and limited access to health care. This vicious cycle perpetuates the burden of diseases, particularly communicable diseases such as malaria, tuberculosis, cholera, and HIV/AIDS (Wilshire & Ward, 2020).

According to Bartle (2022), being physical and mentally healthy not only benefits the health of individuals but also the community as a whole by eliminating poverty. There is also a strong correlation between many indicators of poverty and common mental disorders like schizophrenia, depression, intellectual disability, alcohol use disorders, and suicide, especially in low- and middle-income countries. This correlation was found in the study and analysis of the patterns, causes, and effects of health and diseases, conducted to ascertain the risk factors and preventative healthcare intervention.

3.4.2.2 Mental disability

Well-being not only benefits healthy individuals but also contributes to poverty eradication. Research confirms that mental illness has a negative impact on economic development as it results in high indirect costs when treatment is not provided such as loss of employment, absenteeism, poor performance and premature retirement and death in some instances (Kinchin & Doran, 2017). The National Institute of Mental Health has estimated that more than 3 million adults aged 18-69 have a serious illness and therefore are unable to work or find employment (Subudhi, 2014). In the USA, it was confirmed that 72% of the people with disabilities including people with severe mental illness have a strong desire to work but are unable to find employment (Wahl, Rothman, Brister & Thompson, 2019), which could lead to poverty.

A study conducted in Brazil revealed that children from extremely poor households are five times more likely to have psychiatric disorders when compared with children from middle-class families (Lage et al., 2021). In developed countries such as the UK and the USA, it was established that four in ten people with a serious mental disorder are found in poor households where the family's income is below the minimum threshold. According to the World Health Organisation (WHO), mental disorders account for 25.3% and 33.5% of all years lived with a disability in low-middle income countries (Akour, Al-Tammemi, Alrawashdeh & Kakaje, 2023)

Although it is expected that governments and other organisations would place greater emphasis on mental diseases in their developmental strategies, given the harmful effects on economic growth and stability, less funding has been allocated to address mental problems thus far. The impact of mental illnesses in low-middle income countries has a high social impact such as homelessness, poor educational accomplishment and other social ills and sometimes to imprisonment (Whorley, 2021). Low-middle income countries often detain mentally ill persons in prisons instead of putting them in treatment facilities. Such occurrences have been experienced in countries such as Nigeria, where they are referred to as 'civil lunatics', inmates who do not have convictions but are sent to prisons by family members who are failing to take care of them in their current conditions; however, such occurrences cause further deterioration of mental health (Coa, 2021).

In terms of education, globally, it was estimated that only 5% of children with mental and physical disability receive appropriate education more especially in low-middle income countries where government infrastructure and resources are either not available or limited; if provided by private institutions, they are unaffordable by the majority. In a study conducted in EU countries, it was found that 26% of people with severe mental disorders and 20% with severe and moderate disorders left school at the age of 15 when compared with 14% of children without mental disorders because of lack of resources and funds (Oliveira Hashiguchi, 2020).

It is well known that the majority of employers are not willing to recruit people with mental illness. Many employers are reluctant to hire people with mental illness, leading to denied access to employment and credit services. Despite poverty exposing people to mental disorders, they are not adequately supported in terms of education, employment opportunities, facilities and general support. Research shows that individuals with mental illnesses can work and be productive when supported with proper counselling, medication, and social support (Slepecky, Clark, Sefarova & Prasko, 2019). A study conducted in Uganda, found that people with mental disabilities are not allowed to apply for jobs or loans since they are not capable of carrying out normal daily activities, which prevents them from escaping poverty through income-generating endeavours (Renzaho et al., 2020; Tesemma, 2014). Despite companies realising that poverty exposes people to risks in developing or aggravating mental disorders, they are not supported in terms of education, employment opportunities, adequate facilities and general support, which can result in improved conditions. Researchers confirm that people with mental illnesses are capable of working and being productive especially when they are supported with the correct counselling, medication and social support (Oles et al., 2022).

In conclusion, mental illnesses have been found to have a profound impact on labour and capital, decreased global output between 2011 and 2013 which accounted for an aggregate GDP loss of US\$16.3 trillion (Frank, 2022). To eradicate poverty especially on vulnerable people with mental challenges, targeted poverty-alleviation programmes are required to break the cycle of poverty. The most critical recommendation is early detection which requires high investment in early child development, which would render both highly effective and cost-effective improvements which could have an effect on addressing the issue of poverty.

3.4.3 Lack of Assets and Asset Poverty Trap

In broad terms, assets can be defined as resources or possessions that have value and can contribute to an individual's well-being or economic status. They include physical assets such as land and property, human and social assets like education and support networks. Chan et al. (2021) define assets in developing countries as the stock of wealth used to generate well-being or as productive tangible resources that generate returns.

According to Lázár, Adams, Adger and Nicholls (2020), household asset levels are a useful measure of relative wealth or welfare and are used as an alternative measure in poverty studies. The South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC, 2014) confirms that low asset levels are a sign of being stuck in a poverty trap, as household assets are a relative measure of wealth or welfare. Although poverty is found to be multi-dimensional, most researchers have used income and consumption to measure relative wealth. Most poor communities are unable to accumulate basic household assets, which measure relative welfare. They have been found to lack basic employment or some income-generating activity.

Liquidity and credit constraints are found to be some of the factors preventing households from accumulating assets. In most cases, individuals from poor communities are prohibited from participating in certain labour markets due to a lack of education, high inequality and general social exclusion perpetrated by other factors such as corruption and favouritism within communities. According to Michael, Tashikalma, Kolawole and Akintunde (2021), initial asset levels are a determining factor for the poverty levels of individuals in certain African states.

A study conducted in Kenya found that the asset-based poverty trap is prevalent in poor households, which is common on the continent. It was found that people with low asset levels are unable to enter or expand into skilled non-farm activities, and as a result, they remain trapped in lower-return livelihood strategies (Michael et al., 2021). Social exclusion and liquidity constraints are seen as instrumental in sustaining poverty traps.

In South Africa, social isolation and financial limitations have been identified as key factors in maintaining the poverty trap, which is said to exist in most developing countries. Barrett and Carter (2019) conducted a study in the province of KwaZulu-

Natal, where they found that households that begin with a low asset base are expected to collapse into a low-level poverty trap. Such is experienced due to high levels of unemployment or employment, whether informal or temporary.

In the past, poverty was more prevalent in rural areas, and 90% of rural people depended on agricultural production for survival; land ownership was vital for sustainability. The majority of people owned some land but lacked access to key assets necessary for production (Ba, Anwar & Mughal, 2021). Women were deprived of land ownership rights, which has had an effect on poverty alleviation. The majority of poor people are not able to own assets because they lack access to credit and savings and are discriminated against as a result of a lack of community membership and other factors such as gender discrimination, poor government policies or lack of implementation, favouritism and corruption (Ahmed & Tauseef, 2022).

3.4.4 Political Factors

3.4.4.1 Corruption

According to Šumah, Šumah and Golcer (2023), the word ‘corruption’ is derived from the Latin word *corruptus*, which means ‘corrupted’. In legal terms, corruption is the misuse of a trusted position in the legislative, executive or judicial branches of government or in political or other organisations in order to obtain material benefit that is not legally justified for oneself or for others. Roth, Sahonero and Rodriguez (2023:19) define corruption “as the behaviour of public officials which deviates from accepted norms in order to serve a private end”. According to Gabriel, Goodluck and Ogbu (2022), corruption is a complex and multi-faceted phenomenon with multiple causes and effects, as it takes multiple forms and functions. Instead of disappearing, corruption has the capacity to take on a new form (Omede & Ngwube, 2019).

For this study, corruption is defined as “an anti-social behaviour conferring improper benefits contrary to legal and moral norms, and which undermines the capacity of authorities to improve the living conditions of the people” (Ududu & Onwe, 2023:2). Fisayo, Nte, Adejoke and Ayoola (2023) assert that corruption has a negative impact on poverty reduction efforts as it results in the society losing its social capital of trust, devotion to duty and communal interdependence with consequences of the poor being totally excluded from participation in the economic activities of the country.

Nkoyock and Waziri (2012) see corruption as a global phenomenon that causes poverty because it obstructs development and drives away investments. For example, Nigeria is one of the richest countries in Africa but poverty in Nigeria has been described as being highly prevalent and persistent (Nomishan, Andzenge, Kolawole & Oyigebe, 2022). It is found to have reached unacceptably high levels (Eze, 2020) and from 1980 to 2004 it was estimated to be rising by 10% every year (Aborisade & Aliyyu, 2018). Research has found that fundamental reasons for the failure of poverty reduction efforts are as a result of corruption and implementation bottlenecks (Adegboyega, 2020).

Corruption arises from an array of several interrelated factors which can differ considerably from one country to another such as political, economic environment, professional ethics and legislation as well as ethnological factors, such as customs, habits and traditions (Šumah, 2018). Corruption has the capacity to render any society unstable and insecure. It has a negative impact on the economy as it hinders economic expansion and has an impact on employment, investments, and corporate operations. Chukwuemeka (2020) highlights the fact that corruption is a cancer that can affect any civilisation. If corruption is allowed to go undetected and uncontested, it results in a failed state status, which makes poverty even worse.

According to Transparency International (2022), Sub-Saharan Africa is home to some of the world's most corrupt countries. They claim that six out of 10 most corrupt countries are in Sub-Saharan Africa. Corruption has been found to have cost the continent an estimated \$150 billion in lost revenue in countries such as Ghana, Tanzania and Rwanda. African leaders have become tyrants and one-party state rulers who have introduced repressive legislation and cannot be challenged in terms of corruption and waste of resources meant to address the issues of poverty, which are misdirected to benefit only a few. Most African leaders who have come into power through their own family legacy have abused resources and are said to be the richest leaders in Africa, yet they have the poorest nations in the world. When African leaders die or leave office, their countries are confronted with huge foreign debt, high inflation, high unemployment rate, tribal divisions and misery among the people (Ishii et al., 2024).

3.4.4.2 Colonialism and multi-national corporations

Colonialism affected the African continent by reinforcing labour and resource exploitation. According to Frankema and van Waijenberg (2012), colonial control forced changes in the operation of labour and markets and facilitated the construction of railways to be able to persuade large inflows of European investments to poor countries (Goldsmith, 2014).

Seeing the benefits from developing countries, Europe adopted liberal trade policies to foster economic growth (Bollen, De Ville & Orbie, 2018). Africa exported produce such as gold, ivory, palm oil gum, hides and skins to Europe for manufacturing which later increased to include raw materials such as cocoa, coffee, tea and tobacco. Sub-Saharan Africa experienced a rise in exports during the early 1790s to the 1980s with a commodity price boom which was 3% per annum and is regarded as exceptionally sharp when compared with Latin America, Southeast Asia, India and China (Frankema et al., 2018). Some economists believe that colonialism diversified the African economies into manufacturing and damaged native handicrafts. By using a combination of protective barriers and African labour coercion, settlers were able to establish a significant and self-sufficient industrial sector in nations like South Africa and Southern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe) (Hillbom & Green, 2019).

Today economists are of the view that multi-national corporations are exploiting developing countries particularly Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa. Multi-national corporations are attracted to developing nations as there is a relative abundance of low-skilled and unskilled labour as well as untapped mineral resources. Based on economics theory of factor endowments, the African continent has labour, land and natural resources that could be exploited for manufacturing within countries. Countries with factor endowments are often financially better off than countries with less factor endowment. It is argued that currently history is being repeated with China exploiting Africans using diplomacy rather than brutal force. China is suddenly dominant in the African continent in terms of investments in land, infrastructure and mining. China's strong economic expansion has increased its presence in international markets and strengthened its trading relations with Sub-Saharan Africa. According to reports, China is searching for primary commodities, primarily found in Africa, such as minerals and oil. In light of the aforementioned, China has emerged as a significant development

partner for the majority of African nations, a relationship that is only growing (Patey, 2021).

In 2015, Africa as a whole was estimated to have Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) totalling \$66.4bn for a total of 705 projects. Investments are in sales, marketing and manufacturing (Meyer & Habanabakize, 2018). The coal, oil and natural gas sector ranked the highest in terms of capital investment with \$15.7 bn, with most of the capital investments being in Egypt. Trade appears to be a major factor in China's outbound direct investment (ODI) in Africa. (Park, 2016). In 2012, it was estimated to be \$2.52bn, and in 2013 it was at \$3.4bn. China is driven by a trade initiative that seeks to connect China, Europe and Africa called 'One Belt, One Road'. China's ODI is said to have had countries growing from 23.8% in 2015 to 60% in 2016 (Lyons, 2021). According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF) (2024), FDI in sub-Saharan Africa is expected to increase from 1.74% in 2023 to reach 2.13% of gross domestic product (GDP) in 2024. Based on the above, it shows that even though FDI has increased over time in sub-Saharan Africa, it has had limited direct impact on poverty alleviation as poverty levels continue to rise.

3.4.4.3 *Lack of leadership that promotes pro-people policies*

The African continent has struggled with leaders who purport to be principled leaders, loyal and democratic in their own right, yet they have failed to deliver in terms of democratic principles. Sub-Saharan Africa suffered post-colonialism as leaders failed to promote pro-people policies ensuring care and concern for the poor. African leaders abuse fundamental human rights, which results in withdrawal and disengagement in politics by the masses for fear of intimidation. The majority of African leaders are not democratically elected, refuse to be held accountable and refuse to decentralise power (Ackerman, 2019). They reject opposition and such was once confirmed by the former leader of Malawi, Kamuzu Banda during his reign when he questioned the existence of political opposition in his country. Currently, the Malawian poverty rate is estimated to be at 71% as only the education and health sectors of the economy are a concern to the government. Malawi's urban poverty rate increased by 8.3% from 17.9% to 26.2% between 2010 and 2013 (Mathiassen & Wold, 2019). Such an autocratic behaviour is seen by political opposition as failing to challenge the institutional network controlled by the ruling party (Fombad, 2023). Africa is generally underdeveloped and is dominated by political violence, intolerance, repression and dictatorship. Economic

growth and development are seen as a prerequisite for social development, and development results in poverty alleviation.

3.4.5 Social Factors

3.4.5.1 Ignorance

Bartle (2023) defines ignorance as lack of information or lack of knowledge. The lack of knowledge has manifested as a disease that has crippled the majority of developing nations. He ascertains that the most critical element is not only educating communities but training them, which is direct transfer of skills to increase the levels of self-reliance and improve the overall living conditions. For example, communities that are dependent on agricultural production for survival but lack better irrigation conditions, have few physical capital assets and have no land or own a small portion of land are more susceptible to poverty. In contrast, communities with better education and training are less likely to be poor (Xiao, Zheng & Xie, 2022).

3.4.5.2 Dependency

Aid is seen as having a significant impact in terms of providing foreign investment flows to Africa and has played a major role in terms of alleviating poverty. Abebe and Quaicoe (2018) are of the view that foreign aid to developing countries in the form of conditional debt relief, improved economic governance has contributed to increased foreign investments and capital formation. Other researchers confirm that debt relief through aid initiatives has contributed immensely to Africa's development (Idemudia, Tuokuu & Liedong, 2022). Although such is the case, some researchers reject the idea that foreign aid has improved the wellbeing of the African people because foreign aid has resulted in creating and stimulating some of the macro-economic factors which are a disadvantage to economic growth such as exchange rate overvaluation, curtailing exports of the poorest African countries whereas they are the most critical element for economic growth (Boye, 2019).

In the researcher's view, foreign aid to Africa has perpetuated the dependency syndrome of the African countries where many are fully dependent on foreign aid where resources such as raw materials are extracted from Africa and are exported to foreign countries. This has increased the dependency element to such an extent that even if production occurs in the country, labour is imported from foreign countries. Baba and Fortin-Lefebvre (2021) attest to the fact that foreign aid can discourage

indigenous entrepreneurial initiatives, which discourages entrepreneur growth and independency. Some economists confirm that Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) can be a source of harm to the continent as some of the developed countries prey on the least developed countries (Nthatsi, 2022).

Research has found that there is a significant relationship between FDI and poverty reduction in Sub-Saharan Africa. Ibrahim (2022) reiterates that FDI has shown a significant positive relationship with poverty reduction in other parts of the continent, more especially Southern and Western Africa but not the whole of Africa. Research confirms that over the last decade, FDI to Africa has increased on average; at the same time, the Human Development Index (HDI) has shown some improvement (Gökmenoğlu, Apinran & Taşpınar, 2018). Financial openness and private credit have been found to have a positive relationship with poverty and economic growth in Africa.

3.4.6 Economic Factors

3.4.6.1 Increasing bank loans and bank debt

Developing countries around the world have been impacted negatively by debt. For example, Brazil, which had a severe recession in 2015 and 2016, grew its real GDP by 1%; inflation declined to below the target range and interest rates were cut to the lowest (Sicsú, Modenesi, & Pimentel, 2021). The public debt escalated to the highest at 84% of the GDP and fiscal reform slowed down. The government debt was at 69.9% during 2016. Brazil, like South Africa, is faced with domestic political challenges and possible trade disruptions caused by global financial conditions (Alexander, Guerreiro & Baer, 2018) which has a major impact on poverty alleviation.

Economic growth and development for third world countries are jeopardised by increasing bank loans and bank debt. Most rich countries have access to large sums of money invested in Western banks, which is used as loans to third world countries to fund development projects. Developing countries are unable to repay debts; since 1980, it has been indicated that over \$4.2tn was paid to foreign banks in the form of interest alone (Madrid, 2019). According to the World Bank, in the early 1970s, low-income countries were estimated to have debts of \$25 billion. By 2002, the debt had increased to an estimated \$295 billion. In the past four decades, it is said that \$550 billion has been paid for both principal debt and interest. The Sub-Saharan African

continent is paying \$10 billion every year for interest on accumulated debt (Thomas, 2018).

In addition, the African continent is suffering from capital outflow caused by foreign companies who invest in third world countries and then repatriate home. Companies such as Anglo-American extracts a lot of money from gold mining in South Africa and BP extracts oil from Nigeria's oil reserves and all the profits made are taken back to their home countries. The most damage is on unrecorded capital flight caused by illicit goods. It has been estimated that developing countries have lost an estimated \$13.4 through unrecorded capital flight since 1980 (Forstater, 2017).

Based on the assessment by the Executive Board of the International Monetary fund (IMF) in 2016, South Africa is said to have made much economic and social progress in the past two decades, even though it has structural problems such as infrastructural bottlenecks, skill mismatch and detrimental insider and outsider dynamics that impact negatively on economic growth and development. This has had a detrimental effect on employment and has contributed to poverty in the country.

3.4.6.2 *Unequal terms of trade*

Aganbegyan (2022), in the theory of Global Keynesianism where unequal exchange, global exploitation and global neoliberalism is assessed, indicates that livelihoods of millions of human beings are determined by the ups and downs of the world market and the forces of the international economy. They indicate that there is a high level of unequal terms of trade that exists between rich and poor countries caused by the structurers of unequal exchange rates. They believe that the unequal exchange rate is a determining mechanism of this world economy. The world is divided into centres which are characterised by unequal exchange, which is considered as a high political issue that is ignored by most economists which causes major poverty.

Most poor countries particularly in Africa, are the custodians of raw materials such as precious stones, oil and gas to mention but a few. Raw materials are extracted and exported to the rich countries at cheap prices. Overwalle and Van Dycke (2024:1) as quoted by Steffen Flechsig in his theory of periphery capitalism, says that "the prevailing international division of labour and trade were not of mutual benefit for all participants. Peripheral countries were not able to realise the comparative advantage of their participation; not the benefits of increased productivity in primary production

could be enjoyed by them". He argues that there is no free competition; as a result, productivity gains in the centres are not appropriately transferred to the periphery by lower prices and vice versa (Sparn, 2019).

3.4.6.3 *Global corporations maximising profits*

Rich countries establish monopolies in poor countries with the intention of extracting raw material for export purpose. Land has been one of the dominating issues in most developing countries as foreigners are able to expropriate land for cash-crops which they export to their own countries and disadvantage the poor local communities. The land problem has been exacerbated by corruption in host countries as government is able to give land to foreign individuals and companies for development at a cost which locals cannot afford based on their local currency. In addition, the global corporations have a tendency to exploit labour in the host country. They normally offer a low minimum wage with the intention of maximising on profit. Such has been a practice in countries where legislation is not easily enforceable due to corruption (Hickel, Dorninger, Wieland & Suwandi, 2015)

3.4.6.4 *Foreign aid*

Foreign aid has been found to have a positive impact on developing countries as it assists in facilitating production and creates employment so that people are able to earn an income and support their families. Sometimes foreign aid meant for poverty reduction is not sufficient; it can serve to reduce the impact of poverty but cannot reduce overall poverty due to funds diverted to other projects or programmes that do not benefit the poor. It was found that in the 1990s, donors cut foreign aid to Sub-Saharan Africa where it was needed the most from 0.7% of GNP on aid to 0.22% of the GNP, and as a result, foreign aid fell from \$34 to \$20 (Wallace, Pollack & Roederer-Rynning, 2020). Currently, foreign aid is said to have been increased and linked to anti-poverty programmes.

3.4.6.5 *Increase in exports of labour-intensive goods and services*

Trade liberalisation has been found to have a positive impact on poverty alleviation in developing countries where labour intensive production is encouraged. Gichohi-Wainaina, Kumwenda and Zulu (2021) argue that increase in trade can increase poverty especially in countries that are found to have a trade deficit.

3.4.6.6 Globalisation

Globalisation is regarded as the engine for growth; Bisiriyu and Malik (2024) indicate that globalisation is seen as the main force behind growth and the fight against poverty through the provision for knowledge which is spread across the globe, better division of labour, increased productivity and access to foreign direct investments (Kohler, 2020). According to Perraton (2019) globalisation is seen as an instrument for faster economic growth as the poor are able to reap the rewards for growth to a certain extent. Globalisation is seen as a force for poverty reduction, has played a major role in the optimal allocation of world resources and has boosted per capita income as well as uplifting the standards of living for the majority of people in many parts of the world (Ouedraogo, Sawadogo & Dianda, 2024). Wade (2020) confirms that open developing economies have performed well in terms of economic development and uplifting the standard of poor communities in their countries versus the closed developing economies. In his research, Ratnawati (2020) argues that poverty alleviation in low-income countries is linked to growth rates and the accelerated growth has led to high poverty reduction rates. Chishti, Rehman and Murshed (2022) attest to the fact that changes in the per capita income are the main determinants of changes in poverty.

In contrast, the World Bank has found that traditional regional growth is not effective for poverty alleviation. Investment is found to have both a negative and a positive impact on growth and poverty alleviation. Participation in world markets for example, exposes the region's exports and at the same time, exposes them to world competition from more efficient producers from outside the region. Investment can have a positive impact on a region's growth and poverty alleviation only if trade policies protect regional investors from exploitation. Constraints in economic development particularly in the Europe and Central Asia region are policies that are not complemented by anti-poverty measures such as reduction to labour migration and barriers to the in-migration of capital, investments in education and skills particularly in low-income households (Sloffer, 2020).

Globalisation has had a significant impact in the South African labour market. While it has created new opportunities in sectors such as trade, services and skilled sector, it has also led to job losses and wage inequality in some areas. Here are some of the keyways it has influenced the job market:

Positive Impacts:

1. **Globalisation has boosted trade and investment:** Despite the numerous negative aspects of globalisation that have been highlighted, it has increased foreign direct investment (FDI) in South Africa in a number of industries, including manufacturing, agriculture, technology, and mining. Jobs have been created as a result, particularly where skilled work is needed.
2. **Access to Globalisation Markets:** As a result of globalisation, the majority of South African businesses now have access to international markets, which enables them to compete globally and generate employment in export-oriented markets.
3. **Technology transfer and skill development:** Foreign businesses who have established operations in South Africa have benefited the nation by frequently bringing cutting-edge technologies with them.
4. **Job creation in the service sector:** Globalisation has brought about opportunities in the service sector, including retail, finance and telecommunication (Ukpere, 2009; Salahuddin et al., 2020).

Negative impact of globalisation in South Africa:

1. **Job displacement:** Multinational corporations entering South African marketplaces have a detrimental effect on local industries. In industries like manufacturing, low-cost imports have hurt local businesses to the point where plants are closing, which affects jobs in the area. According to Altiner, Bozkurt and Toktaş (2018), South Africa's unemployment rate rose as economic globalisation grew.
2. **Wage inequality:** Low-skilled workers in industries like manufacturing, mining and sales make far less money than highly trained workers in industries like technology and finance, to name a few. This wage gap has widened as a result of globalisation.
3. **Informal employment:** globalisation has forced the majority of South Africans to join the informal sector which offers lower wages and less job security as it is becoming difficult to secure permanent jobs.
4. **Exploitation of labour:** Workers are exploited in South Africa because of lack of employment in industries such as mining, manufacturing and agriculture where they face poor working conditions and low wages. The majority of the people employed in these sectors are foreigners (Mpabanga, Ukpere & Knight, 2023; Salahuddin et al., 2020).

Pheko (2024) asserts that the gap between South Africa and the OECD is growing, as a result of economic globalisation. The dynamics causing unequal economic development in South Africa have shifted from the national state/market combination to the global market as a result of globalisation. While some scholars such as Krugman, Moyo and Colander (2019) perceive globalisation as a way to re-colonise African nations, including those that have never been colonised, others see it as a positive force that equitably and universally advances nations towards modernity.

Economic globalisation in South Africa

According to Ukpere (2011), the current globalisation seems to have aggravated the problem of unemployment and hence income inequality and mass poverty in Africa. The author stated that there is a strong correlation between globalisation, unemployment, income inequality and poverty in Africa. Altiner, Bozkurt and Toktaş (2018) found that the increase in economic globalisation increased the unemployment rate in South Africa. The economic globalisation might alter the structure of jobs, that is the distribution of jobs among the economic activities. Some jobs might disappear, and others might emerge as a result of changing competitive advantages and specialising; and this might be caused by technological advancements.

3.4.6.7 Slow growth and inequality

Countries with slow economic growth have a challenge in terms of poverty reduction. Chen and Ravallion (2021) and other researchers have found that poverty reduction is likely to occur in countries experiencing economic growth. After the global financial crisis in 2000, Sub-Saharan Africa experienced the highest level of poverty with a poverty rate of 51% while Asia was at 33% (PovcalNet, 2011). Poverty reduction experienced in Asia was attributed to the highest economic growth in that region. It is indicated that on average a 1% growth will result in a 2-3% reduction in poverty (Ravallion & Chen, 1997).

On the other hand, Erumban and De Vries (2021) found that a 1% economic growth will only reduce poverty by an estimated 0 to 0.73%. Adeniyi, Aremu and Olumuyiwa, (2022) in their study on the relationship between economic growth and poverty, found that economic growth does reduce poverty as economic growth creates opportunities that are shared amongst people including those with small material resources. They see economic growth as one of many conditions for poverty reduction.

Economic growth is seen as the most important element to poverty reduction; however, in a country like South Africa with extreme inequality, poverty and corruption, economic growth does not benefit the poor. Economic growth would mean much more when it equitably benefits the populace (Hendricks & Thengela, 2020). Economic growth is not the only tool for poverty reduction; as a result, poverty reduction can be achieved through economic growth coupled with the right successful institutions and policies. According to Basu (2024), overall income growth is the driver for recent poverty reduction as theory and evidence show that policy interventions can be an important element for poverty reduction. The poor can easily benefit through public-private partnership which is essential for poverty reduction.

Poverty alleviation through economic growth can be achieved if policies are focused on both income and non-income dimensions of poverty such as education, health, inequality, gender inequality and inclusion. Research on growth, poverty and poverty reduction has found that the speed at which poverty can be reduced depends on factors such as the rate of average income growth and changes in the level of inequality (Klasen & Villabos, 2020).

Kuada (2022) explores the nature and causes of economic progress and the link between economic growth and poverty alleviation. Global Research organisations such as the World Bank, the World Trade Organisation (WTO), and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) academics found that economic growth and poverty reduction has been proven to be the ultimate goals for all development endeavours. The World Bank and the United Nations declared the eradication of poverty by 2030 as their main objective to ensure that they improve the welfare of the member states (Koopman, Hancock, Piermartini & Bekkers, 2020). The IMF has contributed to poverty alleviation through the provision of financial support via its concessional lending facilities such as the Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility (PRGF), and debt relief under the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative (Karapinar, 2015). Evidence from the World Bank figures confirm that between the period of 1987 and 1998, poverty rates declined from 28% to 24%. Poor people globally declined by 200 million from 1980 to 1998. It was estimated that in 2001, 400 million fewer people were living in poverty (Ravallion & Chen, 2017).

3.4.6.8 Trade liberalisation and Foreign Direct Investments (FDI)

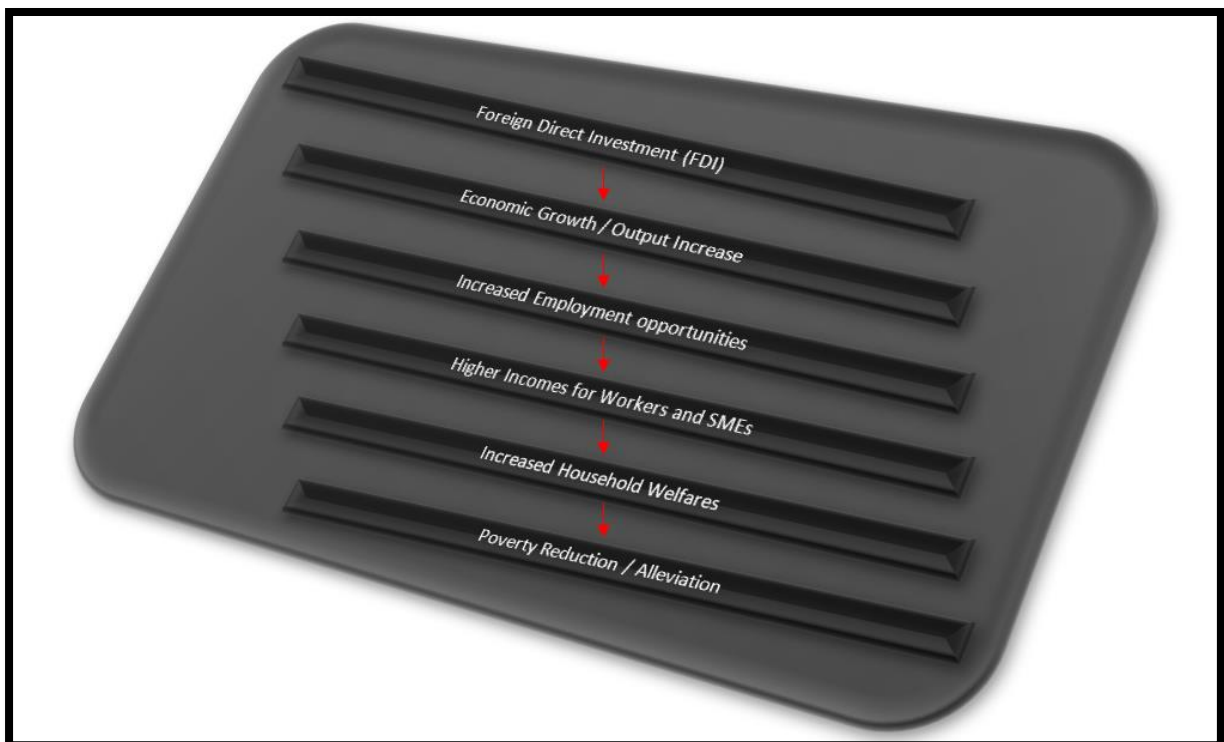
According to Magombeyi and Odhiambo (2017), the relationship between FDI and poverty reduction has, however, been surrounded by much controversy. Chhikara and Lal (2020) examined the relationship between the trade policy and poverty reduction and concluded that trade policies have no impact on poverty but have an impact on overall growth. On the other hand, Fambeu (2021) indicated that there is no relationship established between changes in trade volumes and changes in income inequality which allows them to conclude that open trade regimes lead to faster growth and poverty reduction in poor countries. FDI has supported economic growth in terms of employment creation, acquisition of new technology and new business ventures, creation of more advanced and competitive business ideas and global best practice standards aiding international competitiveness and contribution of high tax revenues (Alfaro & Chauvin, 2020).

Developing countries such as Asia, Latin America and Sub-Saharan Africa understand FDI as a vehicle for economic development in terms of creating investment opportunities, which result in increased employment opportunities and income growth to bridge the gap between the poor and the rich for poverty alleviation (Islam, 2022). FDI has been proven to have a positive impact on poverty reduction based on host countries' policies and programmes which support labour issues and regulation (Quinonez, Saenz & Solorzano, 2018).

According to Magombeyi and Odhiambo (2017), the relationship between FDI and poverty reduction has, however, been surrounded by much controversy. The impact of FDI on poverty is divided between finding a positive impact of FDI on poverty reduction and a negative one, or an insignificant impact of FDI on poverty reduction. Meyer (2004), and Gorg and Greenaway (2004) found that positive contributions of FDI to poverty reduction were achieved through spillover effects, employment creation and an increase in investment capital. Magombeyi and Odhiambo (2017) state that a negative or insignificant impact of FDI on poverty reduction is covered by the dependency theory; the theory explains the underdevelopment of developing countries and how the nature of development results in poverty. The authors state that this variability in the results might also be due to the methodology and poverty proxy used and that this makes generalisations concerning the FDI-poverty reduction relationship inappropriate.

The figure adapted from Tambunan (2011) illustrates how FDI trickles down to affect poverty alleviation, it shows causal linkages from FDI to macro-economic and social outcomes. According to Tambunan, FDI has enhanced economic growth in the host nation by funding SMEs and creating employment opportunities, which improves household welfare and reduces poverty. Developing nations have also benefitted from tax money received from businesses, the transfer of other intangible assets from foreign to domestic companies, and labour-intensive economic expansion brought about by foreign direct investment (Man, 2022; Schutter, Swinnen & Wouters, 2012).

The majority of developing countries in Africa are suffering from low economic growth rates and high population growth, which has resulted in an increase in a high number of unskilled labourers with fewer employment opportunities. Tambunan (2011) asserts that FDI often benefits urban over rural areas. The trickle-down effect of benefits of economic growth for poverty alleviation through employment creation via FDI is depicted in Figure 3.10.



Source: Adapted from Tambunan (2011)

Figure 3.10: Relationship between Foreign Direct Investment and poverty reduction through economic growth

3.4.6.9 Unemployment

In South Africa, it has been found that unemployment and employment of a temporary nature are among the factors that result in poverty. It is also evident that the formal network is seen as a gateway out of poverty based on the legacy of social exclusion in South Africa (Seabe & Burger, 2017). Unemployment can be regarded as an economic condition in which the working-age individual is looking for a job but is unable to find it; it includes people who have been laid off or unemployed for the past four weeks yet are still ready and able to work.

In most cases, exclusion from the labour market is perpetuated by other factors such as lack of financial incentive to reintegrate with the labour market, lack of educational qualifications, lack of social network of employed people and generally shortage of employment as a result of poor performance of the economy. Failure to find employment results in failure to provide an acceptable standard of living for certain individuals and their families, which in most cases leads to long term unemployment (Sitshi, 2023) and ultimately poverty.

3.4.7 Infrastructural Development

Infrastructural development is seen as the most vital element for economic growth in addressing the challenges of poverty and inequality. Research has found that economic growth is necessary but not sufficient for poverty alleviation (Young, 2019). Infrastructural development in rural areas contributes to economic growth and development of roads, electricity, telecommunications and irrigation facilities to increase agricultural productivity (Ghosh, 2017). In urban areas, more emphasis is put on support for small and medium enterprises where there is a large disparity in terms of the economic sectors and cannot be attributed to a single sector (Jones & Fukawa, 2019).

Certain theories which support the effectiveness of public infrastructural development on poverty alleviation were identified; the first theory supports the notion that an investment in education and health care is more highly significant in terms of achieving the goals for poverty alleviation than physical infrastructure (Nyström et al., 2021). In contrast, Kallon (2020) argues that an investment in both physical and social infrastructure is considered to be critical in terms of reducing poverty by providing all the necessary social amenities which contribute to human dignity. Other authors

confirm the importance of infrastructure by defining it as the glue that holds communities together; the provision of both social and physical infrastructures generally contributes to the well-being of individuals and communities (Drobež & Laws, 2022).

Private sector engagement is critical in infrastructural development as it benefits both the domestic private sector and the employment sector. Two main challenges identified in private sector engagement in infrastructural development are lack of skill and access to funds or financial institutions (Owusu-Manu, et al., 2021). In the research on regional poverty reduction strategy, it was found that geographical isolation in Africa and Middle Eastern countries is a major challenge as a result of lack of transportation networks (Jouanjean, Gachassin & te Velde, 2022). Job creation through industrialisation of the rural agricultural sector is highly important coupled with improvement and expansion of water, sanitation, roads and electricity (Jones & Fukawa, 2017).

Qadeer and Jehan (2021) explored the aspect of soft economics where they link the provision of health care services and productivity. They argue that benefits in the health services are twofold; there is an increase in value of productivity as well as an increase in social benefit which are realised by improvement in child health services. Children of educated parents benefit more in terms of health care services as their parents are free and willing to engage health care service providers concerning their children's health issues and status which promote the wellbeing of their children (Thasineku, 2022).

Other researchers view growth as a prerequisite for social development, which results in poverty alleviation (Echeverri-Gent, Sinha & Wyatt, 2021). Although education and health are considered to be the most critical elements, physical infrastructure plays an important role in terms of providing support services to communities in the form of transportation networks, roads, rail, housing and other government services considered essential for human survival. Lack of physical infrastructure would be detrimental for human survival. Munatsi (2021) argues that investments in infrastructure in general have no positive impact on poverty eradication.

Mafela and Gumbo (2020) report that apartheid spatial planning has created a deep infrastructural disadvantage for townships. As a result, South Africa is faced by many

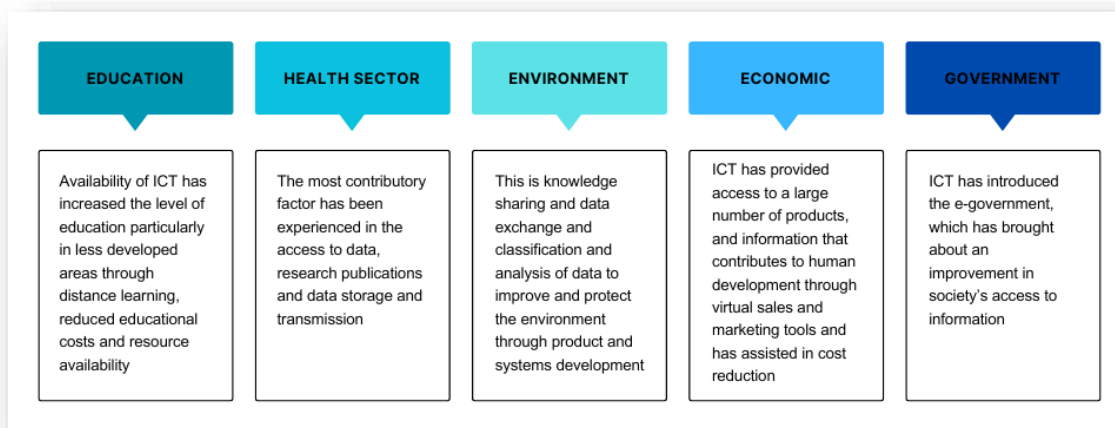
challenges such as increasing political, economic and social instability. The majority of people in townships are not employed, and the major contributing factor to lack of employment is lack of infrastructure for economic growth. For example, in Diepsloot with no nearby industrial development, residents spend up to 40% of their income commuting to work. Makhathini, Mlambo and Mpanza (2020) claim that the South African government views infrastructure development as a crucial strategy to combat poverty, inequality, environmental sustainability and urban resilience, especially amid rising urbanisation rates. Post 1994, Local Economic Development (LED) strategies were introduced in South Africa, resulting in investment in infrastructure to benefit locals. However, the country faces challenges due to increased levels of corruption, a high rate of unemployment, poverty and inequality (Carlsson, Otto & Hall, 2013).

South Africa, Africa's most industrialised country, faces challenges in its infrastructure networks due to poor maintenance, neglect and underinvestment, hindering economic development (Makhathini, Mlambo & Mpanza, 2020).

3.4.8 Evolution of ICT

Information and Communications Technology (ICT) serves as a crucial foundation for enhancing wellbeing and advancing human rights, situated within the wider framework of fundamental rights, democracy, environmental sustainability, peace promotion, development rights, essential freedoms, economic advancement and social equity.

ICT is identified as playing a major role in poverty alleviation both in developing and developed countries (Roztock, Soja & Weistroffer, 2019). In the 21st century, ICT has brought changes in human development through the exchange of information. According to research done for the Regional Preparatory Ministerial Conference of Latin America in 2003, it was established that ICT is a crucial tool for human rights, democracy, environmental protection, peace, development, freedom, economic progress and social equity. This has allowed the majority of developing countries to establish ICT structures in their countries, which is fundamental to human development and poverty alleviation (Cobos & Malásquez, 2023). ICT development has contributed to economic development through the exchange of information particularly in different areas as depicted in the diagram below.



Source: Adapted from Ahmed, Nathaniel & Shahbaz (2021)

Figure 3.11: Areas where ICT has contributed to economic development through exchange of information

Research indicates that on an e-government index, Korea is ranked high in terms of ICT provision, online services, telecommunication and human capital (Younus, Pribadi & Nurmandi, 2023). When compared to the lowest ranking countries such as South Africa and Peru, failure in ICT development is caused by the high inequality in income distribution apart from the advancement in ITC infrastructural development such as e-Government, which has been found to be the best tool in terms of socio-economic development in providing democratic communication channels between citizens and governments, reducing costs and increasing state tax revenue collection (Cobos & Malásquez, 2023).

Access to services: South Africa has the challenge, particularly in rural areas where most of the poor people have no access to ICT. Services such as the ADSL and Optical fibre are available but are located in major cities and limited to specific groups of people (Guiffard, 2022).

Data quality: Lack of quality in information control has been identified as another challenge where hosting rights are not renewed with service providers. This might be as a result of lack of funds in government or political interference, as is the case in South Africa. In the Tshwane municipality, data provision was made available for a period and due to political interference, the service was cut off from the community (Bueno, 2013).

In order for ICT services to succeed as a poverty alleviation tool, the following key factors are identified as important for ICT development:

Environmental factors: emphasis is put on the identification of the real needs of the people which will allow government to provide services including adoption of foreign ICT services which are highly advanced.

Political will: leadership participation in ICT development is critical. The support of political parties and civil society groups is critical for the provision of ICT services. ICT is perceived as a priority for government to meet service delivery objectives. Research highlights the importance of ICT implementation, resource organisation and feedback as critical elements to improve service delivery (Ahmed et al., 2021).

3.4.9 Income Inequality

It has been observed that in South Africa there has been a high level of income inequality. Over the course of the twentieth century, there has been an occurrence of persistent substantial average income differences by race, even though average real income has been rising for all racial groups. The income gap has continued to dominate the post-apartheid landscape. The increased income gap is because of skills scarcity, exacerbated by the colour bar, which promoted high income for relatively skilled white workers (Branson et al., 2024).

The 2011 census data showed that during the 1990s and early 2000s, both overall inequality and inequality within each racial group kept rising. To illustrate the rising inequality, Van der Berg and Louw (2004: 568) reiterate by saying that “rising black per capita income over the past three decades has narrowed the inter-racial income gap, although with increasing inequality within the black population which seems to have prevented a significance decline in aggregate inequality”. The highest inequality is said to be within the African population and lowest within the white population (Katiyatiya, 2020).

3.4.10 Social Exclusion

Some people are born into poverty, and this entrapment is explained by social exclusion. In comparison to someone who is not socially excluded, a person who is socially excluded finds it difficult to participate in various activities (such as access to the employment market) and is also likely to receive a lower net return from doing so.

This is how 'exclusion traps', which the World Bank refers to as 'inequality traps', essentially violate the principle of equality of opportunity through discriminatory and marginalising actions that can be covert or overt. (Duncan, 2024; World Bank, 2022b). Social exclusion is the basis for being excluded from a variety of activities that could otherwise improve their well-being and can be linked to socioeconomic status, ethnicity, race, nationality, geographic location, political affiliation and religion.

Although significant strides have been achieved by South Africa to increase financial access for those who were previously underprivileged, asset accumulation is still a challenge as the majority of the poor in South Africa are not employed. To address the challenges of the past, the South African government currently assists low-income and poor households earning R3 500 per month or less to own houses. On the other hand, the South African social policy is exclusively transfer-based with millions of people including children, disabled and those above sixty years of age receiving government support grant (Fomum & Jesse, 2017). This has created a dependency syndrome where even those who are able to work are now solely dependent on the social grant for survival. In order for the poor to start accumulating assets, social welfare must engage in the poor's capacity building rather than just transferring money. To accumulate assets, savings play a crucial role. Kasongo (2019) asserts that savings are essential for boosting economic growth. For South Africa, income transfer alone cannot enable the poor people to break out of poverty.

According to the Global Assets Project Symposium held in June 2007, the purpose of asset development was to increase savings and useful assets, such as education, home ownership, livestock, investment and pensions, which is referred to as 'asset accumulation, asset development and wealth building' (Nam, Huang & Sherraden, 2008).

3.5 STRATEGIES FOR POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.5.1 South African Strategies and Policies Prior-1994

During the apartheid era, the purpose of the Carnegie Commission was to eradicate poverty and establish ideal sustainable livelihoods for the white minority in South Africa through public service delivery. According to Mubangizi (2009), a group from the church and university, with assistance from the Carnegie Corporation of New York, launched the first effort to comprehend and address poverty in South Africa. The

Carnegie Commission was thus set up to alleviate abject poverty suffered by the poor whites forced off land into urban areas and towns in the early 1930s. The Commission recommended that white people should be uplifted to enable them to contribute to an economy moving towards modernisation. The transformation was a shift from rural to the modern urban sector where they experienced complete transformation to fit into modern society. The Carnegie Commission's recommendation was meant only for poor whites as blacks were denied human rights during that time; poverty for black South Africans became official policy (Wilson & Ramphela, 1989). During that period, labour in the old agricultural sector moved to the contemporary urban sector for white people and later for the black people as well, which led to the widening gap between the rich and poor but also between black and white (Coetzee, 1989).

According to Dladla (2023), the Carnegie Foundation recommended white poverty reduction based on three elements:

1. A labour market legislation package that prioritises white people over black people.
2. A long-term initiative to expand government services for white people, with a focus on housing, health and education.
3. A comprehensive public works programme with large funding schemes aimed at supporting the white minority.

Unemployment relief measures for whites increased from 1% to 10% in 1920, but they were temporary, which resulted in a degenerated situation once the programmes ended. After the economic expansion from 1945 onwards, relief programmes were terminated due to a lack of impoverished white people because white people were placed in permanent jobs (Cawker & Whiteford, 1993). In 1984, the Second Carnegie Commission focused on all South Africans as long as they were categorised as deprived and poor. This Commission focused on understanding the causes of poverty in order to develop suitable policies (Wilson & Ramphela, 1989).

The Commission found that the root of South Africa's poverty was as a result of the history of the region's political economy which included not only apartheid but also the pattern of racial capitalism that had occurred for centuries. A recommendation was that redistribution of power would be the absolute strategic move to poverty alleviation, although not much was achieved by the Second Carnegie Report (Wilson &

Ramphela, 1989). This framework failed to alleviate poverty as poverty was historically seen in the context of white with little regard being given to other races. Every policy development was meant to alleviate poverty for the plight of the whites.

3.5.2 South African Strategies and Policies Post-1994

After the elections in 1994, the democratic government realised the importance of poverty eradication through implementation of several policies, legislation, plans and strategies to benefit the poor by creating an equal society through provisions such as social grants, free houses, free education and free social services. As a result, a report on poverty and inequality was commissioned by the South African government in collaboration with the World Bank and IMF to establish a policy framework for the reduction of poverty and inequality. The South African government embarked on several strategies to alleviate poverty which included the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) policy framework, the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa (ASGISA), National Development Plan (NDP), War on Poverty Programme (National-War Room) and the Public Works Programmes (PWPs). Each of these strategies implemented by the South African government is discussed and their impact on poverty is analysed (South African history online, 2019).

3.5.2.1 Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP)

The RDP policy was South Africa's first inclusive, integrated, socio-economic policy framework aimed at mobilising the people of the country and its resources towards the final eradication of poverty, building a democratic, non-racial and non-sexist state (Government of South Africa, 1994). The RDP policy had six basic principles which are:

- *An integrated and sustainable programme:* The RDP policy's main intention was to harness all resources in a coherent and purposeful effort that could be sustained in future. These strategies would be implemented by all organs of the state from national to local municipalities including organisations within civil society.
- *A people-driven process:* The RDP policy was said to regard people as the main resource, and it was focused on people's most immediate needs and relied on South Africans to deliver on their own future needs.

- *Peace and security for all:* Promoting peace and security had to involve all people and must build on and expand the national peace initiative.
- *National building:* Apartheid in South Africa perpetuated massive divisions and inequality. In order to build a new South Africa, nation building was the basis on which to build a South Africa that could support the development of a stronger region.
- *Link construction and development:* In order to reconstruct the country, the key was to develop an infrastructural programme that would provide access to modern and effective services like electricity, water, telecommunications, transport, health, education and training for all the people.
- *Democratisation of South Africa:* The RDP policy required that there were fundamental changes in policies in South Africa so that all citizens of the country were able to participate in decision making and contribute to reconstruction and development (Jankielsohn & Mollentze, 2021).

The RDP policy was meant to address the inequality of the past and address poverty challenges in South Africa by providing all South African citizens with access to education, healthcare, employment, land and clean water. Its main focus was on infrastructural investment and not on economic growth. Based on the notion that economic growth would in the long run translate into poverty reduction through job creation, the RDP policy was seen as having little or no impact on poverty alleviation. In order to alleviate poverty, more emphasis should have been placed on job creation (The Presidency RSA, 2005).

3.5.2.2 *Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) policy framework (1996-2000)*

In 1996, the South African government replaced the short-lived RDP policy with the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) policy framework. GEAR, based on the conventional neoclassical macro-economic ideology, focused on economic growth and aimed to boost trade competitiveness by appealing to financial markets, rather than focusing on the socio-economic objectives of the RDP. It intended to attract foreign investments to boost the economy of the country, to create employment and alleviate poverty. The government set its objectives on achieving a 6% growth rate per annum based on the structural adjustments. During that period, the GEAR policy was expected to generate an estimated 1.3 million jobs in the formal sector of South Africa;

however, 800 000 jobs were lost during that period (Damonse, 2022). Job losses in the formal sector increased during the year 2000, despite positive economic growth (Hodge, 2009). Only two objectives, which were low inflation rate and a reduction in the budget deficit, were achieved during that time. Although the number of multinational corporations increased at a rate of 2,7%, poverty reduction through job creation was not achieved. The trickle-down effect through income growth was not achieved. Instead, South Africa experienced an increase in the middle-class people with high earnings. The poverty rate increased, as more people found themselves without employment (Bundy, 2020).

3.5.2.3 The Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa (ASGISA)

Through consultation with a range of stakeholders, the South African government led by the-then Deputy President Lindiwe Mlambo Ngcuka, initiated the ASGISA which was approved in 2005. They were convinced that South Africa was ready to be a national shared growth initiative, rather than merely a government programme (Nair, 2022). By addressing a number of issues, including a lack of money, corruption, a lack of skills, a lack of human resources to implement policies, poor coordination across institutions and entry hurdles, ASGISA sought to improve both economic growth and policy implementation. (Gumede et al., 2024).

According to research, South Africa needed to have an annual growth rate of 5% on average to achieve its social objectives by 2014. South Africa set two phase targets after assessing the capabilities of the economy and the international environment (Makhubu, 2021). The first phase was between 2005 and 2009, and an annual growth rate of 4.5% or higher was sought. The second phase was between 2010 and 2014, with the growth rate set at 6%. In addition to the growth rate, the government had to consider its social objectives by improving the environment and opportunities for more labour absorbing economic activities in order to alleviate poverty. The government was able to put the economic growth on a balanced footing by making exports more attractive and ensuring that all South Africans benefited directly from the economic advances. It was indicated that the social grant benefited a number of people but a third of households did not benefit directly (Cloete, 2017; Nair, 2022). ASGISA has also failed to make an impact on poverty alleviation, as South Africa had failed to reach the needed growth rate as a high growth rate is associated with a reduction in poverty levels (Mosala, 2022).

3.5.2.4 *The National Development Plan (NDP)*

In May 2010, the former President Jacob Zuma appointed a National Planning Commission consisting of 26 people drawn largely from outside government, based on their expertise to draft a vision and national development plan. Based on the fundamental six principles, the NDP is a comprehensive strategic framework that lays out a logical and all-encompassing strategy for addressing poverty and inequality. These priorities are to unite South Africans around a common programme, ensure that citizens are direct participants in their own development, ensure faster and more inclusive growth, build capabilities, build a capable developmental state and elect leaders that would assist in building trust by taking full responsibility to address challenges of society (Maemu, 2023). The NDP's primary goal was to eradicate income poverty by lowering inequality and the percentage of households earning less than the 2009 South African poverty level of R419 per person from 39% to 0%. It was anticipated that the Gini coefficient would drop from 0.69 to 0.60 (Orlandi, 2020).

3.5.2.5 *War-on-Poverty Programme (National War Room)*

The South African government launched the War-on-Poverty programme, supported by the Community Development Worker's Programme (CDWP), under the National War Room on Poverty to tackle the country's high poverty levels. The War-on-Poverty programme was an initiative by government launched in 2009 as a Presidential Special Programme aimed at reducing poverty by improving the living conditions of all South Africans. The programme's mandate was to coordinate all the anti-poverty initiatives to obtain a clear definition of the country's poverty matrix, develop a proper database of people living in poverty to find an appropriate solution where a household could become self-sustaining after transitioning from governmental assistance. The war on poverty programme adopted the participatory community development theoretical framework. This framework views community development in the context of social, demographic, technological, economic environment, political and other changes. The framework acknowledges that community members should come together to deal with community issues that have been identified, cooperate and learn from one another in order to achieve a solution to poverty (Mundau & Tanga, 2017; National War on Poverty Policy Coordination and Advisory Services, 2009).

3.5.2.6 Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP)

The EPWP is a government initiative aimed at addressing inequality, poverty and unemployment. The programme was implemented in 2003 as a nation-wide programme to give unemployed youth an opportunity to gain skills through work experience in order to increase the opportunity of getting permanent employment when they leave the programme (Department of Public Works, 2018). The programme offers temporary employment to the unemployed, aiming to reduce unemployment, boost economic growth, enhance skills, and promote industry growth, while also alleviating poverty in the disadvantaged sector.

3.5.3 Reviewing the Effectiveness of the South African Strategies for Poverty Alleviation

Although the South African government has spent billions of rands in a bid to alleviate poverty response, it has had limited success with poverty constantly on the rise. Despite the general decline in poverty in South Africa between 2006 and 2011, it was found that in 2015, the poverty rate increased and the poverty gap widened (Francis & Webster, 2019). In 2015, more than half of South Africans were poor with the poverty rate increasing from 53, 2% in 2011 to 55,5% in 2015 (Stats SA, 2017). The figures are calculated using the upper-bound poverty line (UBPL) of R992 per person per month (2015 rates). In 2015, more than 30.4 million South Africans were living below the poverty line. Poverty is found to be prevalent in two provinces, the Eastern Cape and Limpopo. Children under the age of seventeen, Black African women, those living in rural areas, and those with little to no education are the groups most impacted. It was estimated in 2015 that 13 million children in South Africa were living in poverty. According to the World Bank Report (2024) in 2023, poverty was estimated to be at 62.7% with the most affected being women and youth (Stats SA, 2017).

The RDP, GEAR, ASGISA and NDP strategies have done little to tackle the main causes of poverty especially unemployment. For policies and programmes to be effective, they need to tackle the root cause of poverty, which is unemployment. These policies have failed to translate the benefits of economic growth to the poor through the trickle-down effect (Marazanye, 2016). They have focused more on providing social welfare to the poor (Choto, Iwu & Tengeh, 2020). Prior to democracy, South Africa recorded an average growth rate of 1.4% during the period 1980 to 1993. After 1994, the country recorded an average economic growth rate of 3.3% per annum in

real terms over the period 1994 to 2012. It was an improvement from the past, but the projected growth rate of 6% was not achieved. This was strongly correlated to the global economic performance. South Africa experienced several shocks which were not predicted including the global financial crisis of 2007. The South African economy was boosted by household consumption expenditure and fixed investment activity coupled with the export sector over the years till 2007 (Hobongwana, Kapingura & Makhetha-Kosi, 2023).

The South African economy as a developing country, had a challenge in terms of its secondary sectors particularly manufacturing. Manufacturing was small, and it started declining because of the highly competitive global environment. To grow the manufacturing sector, the government rolled out a 3-year Industrial Policy Action Plan (IPAP), which was a sector specific programme with action plans to retain, grow and diversify South Africa's industrial base. It was aimed at bringing about a structural change in the economy. To add value in the production sectors, focus was placed on a labour-intensive and export-oriented sector to add value in the production sectors. This was supplemented by the medium-term New Growth Path (NGP), which highlights the significance of a production-led growth trajectory (Oladele, 2022).

GEAR's central focus was to respond to unemployment through economic growth (The Presidency RSA, 2005); however, the predicted growth rate of 6% failed to be achieved, which could be attributed to other factors such as the robust household consumption expenditures that have significantly increased, driving domestic demand that saw a sharp increase in imports from 2003 to 2007. Additionally, the public sector's extensive infrastructure investment program caused a sharp increase in capital goods imports. (that is, machinery and equipment). Also, the crude oil rose sharply from \$25 in 2002 to \$112 in 2012, crude oil imports accounted for 15.8% of total imports in 2012 compared to 6.6% in 1994 and 10.5% in 2002 (Goa, Bosiu & Bell, 2019)

On the other hand, South Africa's export trade balance deteriorated during the same period. South Africa businesses were faced with a challenging operating environment. They experienced rising operating costs which included high costs of electricity, fuel and labour charges. Furthermore, there were high levels of industrial action which impacted negatively on the production of goods especially in the mining sector,

infrastructure backlogs and safety issues. This led to an overall deficit in the current account of the balance of payment, deteriorating to 7.2% of GDP by 2008 (Oladele, 2022).

War-on-Poverty programmes, supported by the CDWP, failed to achieve the intended objective of alleviating poverty as nothing had been done with the household data. Political alignment of certain municipal counsellors with certain political parties made it impossible to achieve the intended objective as there was no collaboration and integration of service delivery (Mundau & Tanga, 2017).

Failure of the South African strategies can be driven by an attempt as the RDP plan aims to combine the ANC's traditional social democratic and socialist principles (redistribution, basic requirements) with neo-liberal principles (trade and financial deregulation, central bank independence). This is highlighted in the statement of principles which sets out the developmental strategy and integrates growth, development, reconstruction and redistribution into a unified programme. Both the RDP and GEAR policies reflect a compromise to the neo-liberal, trickle-down economic policy preference of the old regime (Adelzadeh & Padayachee, 1995). In terms of the GEAR policy, although, subject matter experts were involved, it was found that the ANC government wanted globalisation to play a major role in economic development based only on monetary, fiscal and trade liberalisation (Hirsch, 2017). GEAR is found to have reduced some of the poverty alleviation objectives listed in the RDP policy. The GEAR policy promoted efficiency in state expenditure which was seen as a conflict in addressing poverty concerns (SARPN, 2003; Sihlangu & Odeku, 2021).

The RDP, GEAR, ASGISA and NDP fall under the umbrella of conventional neoclassical macro-economics. The main aim was to accelerate economic growth with the view that it would have a trickle-down effect by creating employment. Based on the failure to achieve the projected economic growth, employment growth has not been achieved; instead, poverty rates were projected to increase to 62.7% by 2023 (World Bank, 2024 in Rubin & Soest, 2024:6).

3.5.4 The Social Grants System

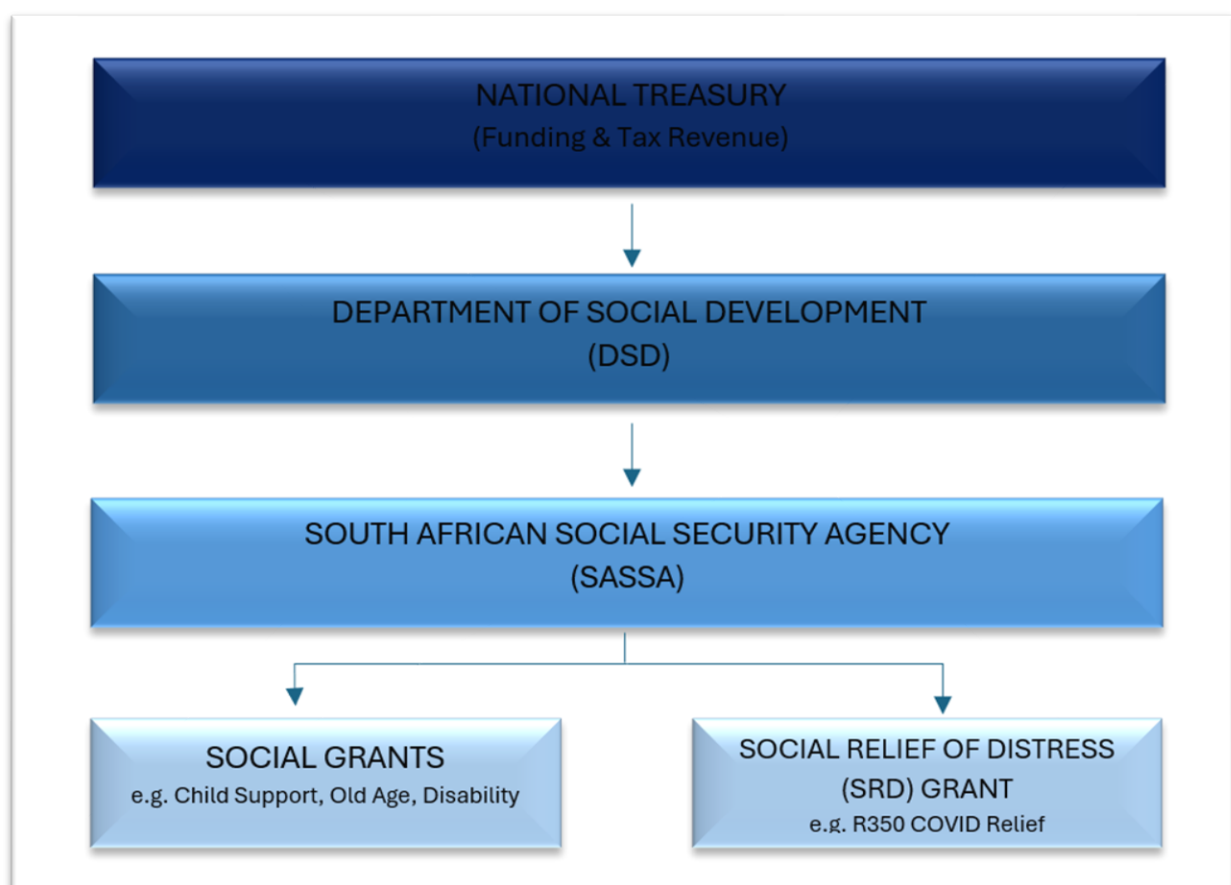
Social grants in South Africa were originally introduced in the early 1900s. The Old Age Pensions Act of 1928, like all the other grants such as the grant for the blind,

grants for the disabled and pensions for war veterans, were introduced with the aim of providing social security, which excluded black South Africans (Ngwakwe & Badar, 2021). In the late 1940s, social grants were extended to include blacks, but they were awarded very small amounts when compared to their counterparts in other racial groups (Mitullah & Cochrane, 2023). In the 1980s, the apartheid government moved to close the gap between the different racial groups by increasing grants for blacks and decreasing grants received by their white counterparts. By 1993, grant payments were almost equal among all racial groups. In 1994, after the apartheid legislation had been repealed in 1991, the government introduced certain types of social grants as a way of combating poverty and inequality.

The current social grant system is well developed when compared with the rest of the world (Armstrong & Burger, 2009) and grants are targeted at people who are vulnerable to poverty, which are the elderly, people with disabilities and children. However, the social grant system is lacking in terms of meeting social assistance required by the Constitution to support all South Africans who are unable to help themselves and their dependents. The ANC government in South Africa views social grants as the most direct means to alleviate poverty and deprivation but not eradicate it (Brockhoff, 2013; National Treasury, 2017a). The social grants consist of seven different grants: The Old Age Grant (OAG), Child Support Grant (CSG), Disability Grant (DG), Grant in Aid (GIA), Care Dependency Grant (CDG), Foster Care Grant (FCG) and the War Veterans Grant (WVG) (RSA, 2004b). The social grants are administered by a separate national government agency, the South African Social Security Agency (SASSA), which was established in 1994. South Africa is regarded as the biggest welfare state in the world, South Africa was found to have spent 3.5% of its GDP on social grants and social assistance (National Treasury, 2015).

The grants are meant to address specific inequalities in income distribution. More than one-third of poor households in South Africa depend on grant payments directly or indirectly. During the 2015/16 fiscal year, South Africa was estimated to have around 16.4 million beneficiaries for social grants, which include child support grants, old age pensions, disability grants and others. In 2023, more than 8 million beneficiaries received social grant payments (IEJP BRIEF, 2024), which included child support grants, old age pensions, disability grants and others. Over and above the social grants, South Africa has other complimentary programmes for poverty alleviation such

as unemployment insurance and public works programmes which are meant for the poor people and cater more for the previously disadvantaged communities. Figure 3.12 below illustrate the full extent of the social security system in South Africa with different kinds of social benefits established by government to fight the problem of poverty (Pasha, 2014). The figure shows the flow of funds from government's National Treasury and SARS through tax revenue and other funding. Department of Social Development (DSD) is the main government department responsible for social protection policies and programs which oversees and funds agencies and social programs. SASSA is the key implementing body under DSD that handles administration and distribution of most social grants. Social grants include long term support like CSG, OAG. There are other key institutions outside SASSA which are crucial to social security such as the UIF that offers temporary relief to workers who lose their jobs, the Compensation Fund for employees injured on duty and GEPIF which is a retirement fund (National Treasury, 2015).



Source: Adapted from Woolard and Leibbrandt (2013)

Figure 3.12: Social Security in South Africa

Based on research (Lindi, 2018; Woolard & Leibbrandt, 2013), the benefit of an old age pension has indicated that there is a positive relationship between living in a household with a recipient and finding employment. Women between the ages of 20 and 30 years, living with a pension beneficiary are up to 15% more likely to participate in the labour market than those in non-recipient households. Grants are not only meant to support beneficiaries; they are used to provide a broader support. This has also shown a positive impact in terms of health and education. Research indicates that pensioners share their old age grant with the rest of their families, as one grant is likely to provide for up to six persons in a recipient's household (Moore, 2020).

The impact of social grants in South Africa include:

- Poverty in South Africa is reported to have fallen from 30% in 2002 to 13% in 2011 (World Bank, 2014b), extreme poverty dropped from 26.6% in 2006 to 20.2% during the same period. According to Statistics SA, South Africa's official unemployment rate has fallen from 33.5% for Q2 of 2024 which is up from the 20% recorded in 1994 and 21.5% in 2008 (Stats SA, 2024).
- South Africa succeeded in decreasing the Gini-coefficient from 0.72% to 0.69% in 2011 when compared to other developing countries. Stats SA (2019) reported that the Gini-coefficient rose from 0.68 in 1993 to 0.69 in 2008 before decreasing to 0.66 in 2014.
- Research done to evaluate the benefits of child cash grants, measuring their health status and wellbeing, found that even though they receive cash grants, they are still faced with a number of challenges which includes failure to participate in the labour market, failure to get quality education and lack of life satisfaction.
- Social grants have been found to have a huge impact on poverty and inequality. Social grants were found to be effective in alleviating poverty although they are found not to be sustainable. Mackett (2020) revealed that after 1994, poverty reduction was as a result of social grants. Mtshali (2018) found that in South Africa, like Brazil, old age grants have a positive impact on poverty alleviation. The old age pension has been found to have had a high expenditure not only on food but also on education (Ray, 2018).
- On child nutrition, it has been found that CSG has strengthened early childhood nutrition. Research found that there is a positive correlation between grant

recipient and school enrolment. Children who receive the CSG are significantly more likely to be enrolled at school.

3.5.5 Concerns and Unintended Consequences of Social Grants

The grant amount is seen as eroding self-esteem and is negatively linked to the status of being a CSG recipient. It was found that social grants influence household formation, where the poor are seen as joining social grants receipt households (Granlund & Hochfeld, 2020; Maake, 2017).

Some studies found that social grants have a positive impact on employment by enabling recipients to search for jobs (Cooper, Mokomane & Fadji, 2020; Ngcobo, 2021). Others found that social grant recipients develop 'dependency syndrome'. Even if employment opportunities present themselves, social grant recipients are no longer willing to work. In the USA, Han and Shah (2020) found that government poverty alleviation strategies have failed overall. It was found that in some instances, the behaviour of the poor reduces their chances of getting employment or being in the job market. The individuals prefer to be grant recipients than to being formally employed. If such grants could be removed, more people may enter the job market.

As part of the process of policy formulation, in 1995, the South African government approved the commissioning of a report on poverty and equality to analyse current policies in an integrative manner to achieve the objectives of reducing poverty and inequality. A Poverty and Inequality Report (PIR) was presented to assess the current framework of policies for eradicating poverty and inequality and offering recommendations for the creation and use of appropriate policies. According to Mubangizi (2021), the lack of reliable and thorough social indicator data required for suitable policy formulation was addressed by the PIR.

Based on that, the PIR found that poverty was more prevalent in rural areas with a share of 70% versus 30% in urban areas, even though measuring poverty between rural and urban areas showed disparities in living standards. PIR found that the most important element was to create an environment for economic growth as prime requisite for poverty alleviation, as well as creating and maintaining better quality jobs (Francis & Webster, 2019). Research confirms that in most developing countries, there has been a close and inverse relationship between the rate of economic growth and the poverty rate (Ravallion, 2022). Although it has been found that economic growth

may have a positive impact in reducing income inequality and poverty, but it might not always be the case (Niyimbanira, Eggink & Nishimwe-Niyimbanira, 2020). In South Africa, this might not be true as the country suffers from the legacy of the apartheid system as well as the structure of the economy because poverty and income inequality in South Africa are persistent. Ravallion (2022) also emphasised that the impact of economic growth on poverty can be substantially lower than what has been advocated to be because of issues such as rising inequality. Based on research done in the province of Mpumalanga, it has been proven that when the economy is growing, job creation takes place which reduces poverty, but the growth does not reduce the level of income inequality (Nishimwe-Niyimbanira, 2020; van der Berg, 2018).

In addition, the PIR took into consideration the link between infrastructure and poverty alleviation by examining issues relating to service delivery such as clean water, sanitation, transport and communication. Most services are lacking in rural areas in South Africa and to provide services to the underprivileged, the PIR recommended a three-pronged approach to maximise government spending on infrastructure. Firstly, a revision of the way government institutions deliver services to address inequality by rendering services to all those who can afford the services was suggested, secondly, focusing intervention in each sector to ensure that members of this group are afforded the necessary services, and thirdly, programmes with greatest impact on poverty alleviation to be prioritised (PIR, 2000).

3.5.6 Framework on Knowledge Management for Poverty Alleviation

Amongst the frameworks suggested for South Africa is the framework on knowledge management for poverty eradication. According to Subotzky and Prinsloo (2011) and the UNDP (2015a, 2015b), enhancing literacy skills like computer literacy, media literacy, network literacy, information literacy, cultural and visual literacy can help create knowledge. These skills are benchmarks for human development that will make information more accessible for the eradication of poverty. According to the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), such a framework is meant to eradicate poverty through Information and Communication Technology (ICT) as a critical enabler for knowledge management (ECLAC, 2010). In Africa, the programme has strategic components meant to benefit the poor which are to strengthen knowledge sharing and learning infrastructure, establishing collaborations

for more extensive knowledge-sharing and education, as well as encouraging a culture of supportive knowledge-sharing and education (Ehizuelen, 2019). The main objective pertaining to this model is the creation of groups forged on common interest in a knowledge area. In countries such as Malaysia, ICT training and knowledge sharing practices were found to have empowered the rural youth with skills and experiences to join the labour market (Fombad, 2018). The challenge faced by South Africa currently is the lack of strong information literacy skills needed for using ICTs effectively (Oriakhogba & Ndlovu, 2024). With such, people with little education can access and share the knowledge they need, which will promote growth and open opportunities. The proposed ICT framework for South Africa was seen as a means for human resource development in education and skills development, which will prevent the intergenerational transmission of poverty (Oriakhogba & Ndlovu, 2024).

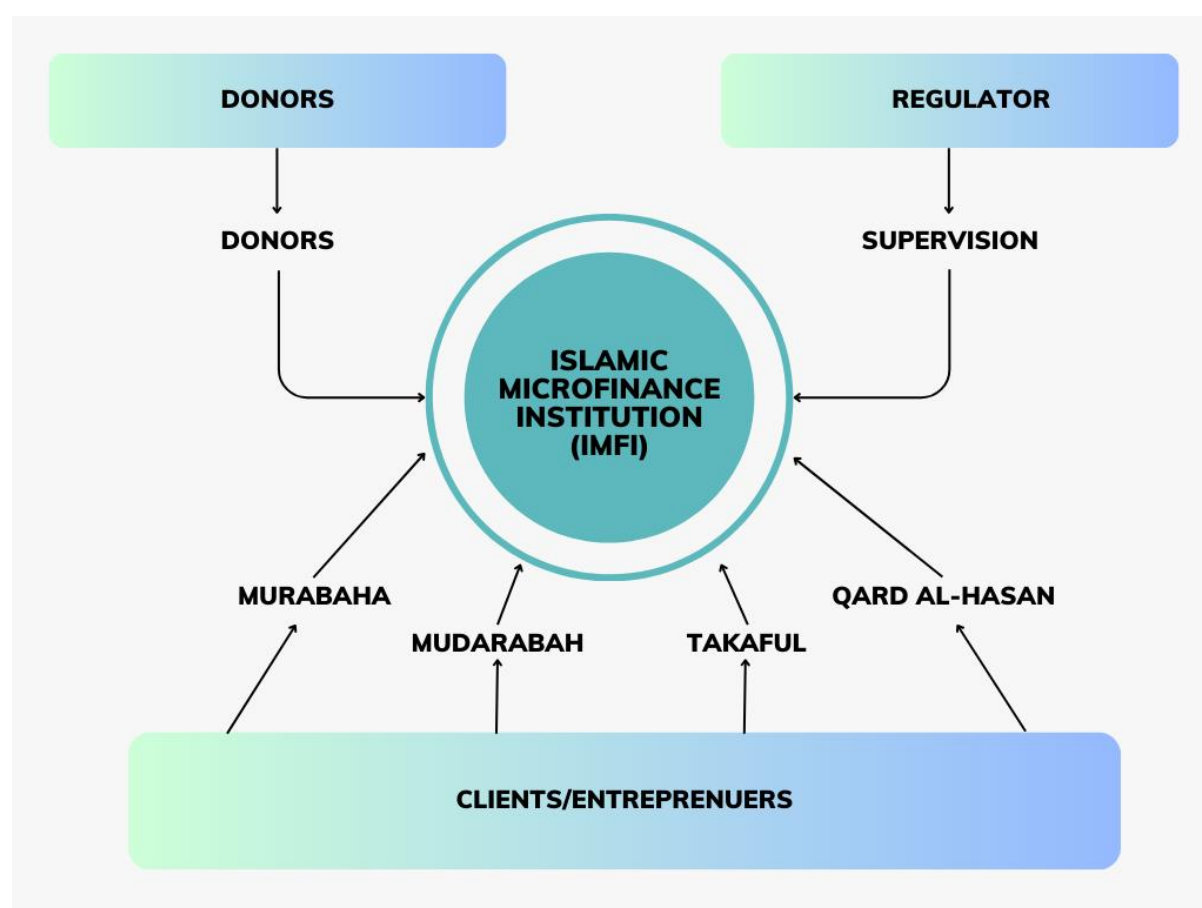
The following sections offer some insights into two models developed for knowledge management for poverty alleviation:

3.5.6.1 *The Islamic Micro-Finance Model*

Based on the increasing levels of poverty in the world across all regions and countries, the Islamic communities saw a need to intervene in reducing poverty by developing a poverty alleviation strategy based on the agenda for Sustainable Development adopted in 2015. According to Kar (2024), the microfinance approach in Muslim nations is based on Islamic ideals, which aim to create human prosperity by fostering the growth of human capital and economic opportunity. The model is focused on building wealth for the poor through the creation of employment and establishment of business ventures (Tinubu, 2019). Findings from other studies indicate that the prospect of getting out of poverty is difficult for the poor because of failure to attain the required educational level necessary to fight poverty, generate income and build assets (Abdulkadir, 2022). The model was created to offer financial mediation with a focus on moral and ethical principles in the business world based on Islamic teachings (as enshrined in the Quran and Sunnah) (Ibrahim & Murtala, 2018).

Usman and Tasmin (2016) developed the Islamic micro-finance model. The image below is a flowchart (Figure 3.13) showing how the Islamic microfinance institution (IMFI) operates to alleviate poverty using Shariah-compliant methods. Firstly, funds come from various Islamic and ethical sources such as Zakat (obligatory charity),

Sadaqah (voluntary charity), Islamic investors (such as Sukuk), depositors (Islamic savings accounts) using different Shariah-compliant financing methods such as Qard al-Hasan (interest-free loan), Micro-Takaful (Islamic micro-insurance). The target beneficiaries are the poor families, micro-enterprises, woman-led households and rural poor (Abdulkadir, 2022).



Source: Adapted from Mustafa (2015)

Figure 3.13: Islamic micro-finance model

3.5.6.2 Stakeholder Model for Community Economic Development in Municipalities for alleviating poverty (community-based approach)

Ndaguba and Hanyane (2018) proposed the Stakeholder model for implementing Community Economic Development in Municipalities for alleviating poverty in South Africa. This model is people-centred and community-oriented as community-based actors hold significant ties for development, especially development that is community driven. For a poverty alleviation framework to work, all stakeholders, including the communities themselves, have an essential role to play. These roles include engaging the poor as sources of information, as suppliers, employees, distributors and potential

customers and hiring the poor as producers and employers of local small and medium-sized enterprises. The model was recommended because it is a community-based approach, people-centred and community-orientated with the intention of encouraging community participation in the governance of the communities (Loha, 2018; Torjman, 1998). It advocates for community stakeholders, citizens and the private sector to take charge of activities in local governments by being involved in formulating procedures and methods for their benefit in order to create employment.

Despite the number of consultations and participation in decision-making, poverty in South African continues to rise (Stats SA, 2017). This is seen as a result of the legitimising of corruption in the country, which compromises institutions meant to provide a solution to poverty reduction by creating employment. In the Raymond Mhlaba Local Municipality in the Eastern Cape, for example, locals have been unable to tap into the local economy as businesses within their communities are owned by foreigners, students and investors who do not reinvest in the communities.

The model was built on a meta-review of over 100 articles conducted on both quantitative and qualitative methods related to existing business models for community economic development and poverty alleviation. According to Ndaguba and Hanyane (2018), the stakeholder model is used in proposing a means through which communities can collaborate to advance its cause, without necessarily being dependent on the municipality and the provincial government.

This model provides guidance on poverty alleviation which advocates for community involvement in poverty alleviation and is important in ascertaining the needs of the community, without the responsibility of the people for whom the intervention was intended. To achieve the objective of alleviating poverty by creating employment, it is recommended that the model should incorporate business methods that have practical implications for growth and development in society. In reviewing the model, it was found that the other role-players for poverty alleviation are ignored, not realising that they are the agents of change and should be involved in anti-poverty policy formulation strategic sessions using community representatives. There should be an increased focus on institutional issues where policy and process should be combined to create a holistic framework aimed at strengthening sustainable service delivery for sustainable livelihoods (Mubangizi, 2021).

3.6 THE ROLE OF COMMUNITY ORGANISATIONS IN POVERTY ALLEVIATION

3.6.1 Co-operatives

Co-operatives in South Africa started in the early 1800s and were informal in nature as they were formed by black people with the intention of raising capital to fund activities such as funerals, birthdays and to promote social clubs. Co-operatives in South Africa range from agricultural co-operatives, consumer co-operatives, marketing and supply co-operatives, housing co-operatives, financial services co-operatives, socio-co-operatives which includes burial societies, service co-operatives and worker co-operatives (Dozono, 2024). The past model for co-operatives in South Africa did not provide nor promote employment creation. Co-operatives that provided employment to the black majority were started by the apartheid government and were aimed at developing and promoting a white agricultural farming community. Although there is change, co-operatives have not transformed the country; they still reflect the apartheid policies which promote development for the white minority. On the other hand, some government agencies view co-operatives as a vehicle for economic development and individual and community empowerment (Firouznia, Gharani Arani & Salman, 2023).

According to the National Co-operative Association of South Africa (NCASA), South African co-operatives reflect past European and North Asian co-operatives as they promote the principles of capitalism and social injustices. Apart from the challenges they face, co-operatives are seen as a vehicle for economic growth and individual development. Small businesses have benefited using the co-operative model as a collective in terms of economies of scale. The benefits of co-operatives in South Africa have grown. The current legislation framework makes provision for three types of banking licences in South Africa, which are for Mutual, Commercial and Co-operative banks.

The number of registered co-operatives has increased since 1994. It was recorded that 22 030 co-operatives were registered between 1922 and 1994. Out of the 22 030, only 2 644 are still active today, which indicates that 88% of the co-operatives that were registered during that period are no longer operational and have failed to sustain their businesses. Co-operatives in South Africa fail due to lack of co-operative

knowledge. The majority of black people are not able to manage businesses as the success of businesses depends on members' creativity, innovation and dedication (Soga, 2022; Thabo & Mbohwa, 2015).

Black people only participated as general workers in white-owned co-operatives. Post 1994, the government devised a co-operative strategy meant to support black people in starting their own businesses. The support is in the form of funding, business strategies and policy development. Apart from government support that co-operatives receive, co-operative members have failed to sustain their businesses due to lack of co-operative principles and values such as self-help, self-reliance, self-responsibility, democracy, equity and solidarity (Bond & Okbandrias, 2020).

Even though the majority of co-operatives in South Africa have failed, a few are successful (Oluwadayisi, 2020). The success is reflected by co-operative banks such as the Ditsobotla primary savings and credit cooperative bank, and the OSK Koöperatiewe bank, both of which were registered in 2011. The third cooperative bank is Ziphakamise Savings and Credit Cooperative bank which was licenced in May 2017. To date, a number of groups especially young women, use the Stokvel rotating credit and savings scheme to build up reserve to establish different kinds of businesses. Currently, South Africa has an ambitious group of young professional women who are in the process of establishing the country's first female-led corporative bank aimed at supporting black entrepreneurs. They have 252 members and more than R2 million in reserve funds (IOL, 2024).

It appears that there is continuous realisation that co-operatives in South Africa could provide an opportunity for economic development for woman who are attempting to supplement household income received from state grants (Raniga, 2021). The benefits of co-operatives in South Africa have increased with small businesses using the co-operative model as a collective in terms of economies of scale. However, the success of businesses depends on members' creativity, innovation and dedication (Soga, 2022; Thabo & Mbohwa, 2015). According to Raniga (2016), there are groups of women in KwaZulu-Natal and Gauteng that have benefited from co-operatives through government and non-governmental interventions using a combination of asset-based community development (ABCD) and sustainable livelihood frameworks which help to create an enabling environment for co-operative enterprises to thrive.

According to Raniga and Ngcobo (2014), co-operatives allow women to pool their resources and skills to start small businesses or income-generating projects which creates a path to financial independency and reduces long term reliance on government grants. Most co-operatives offer training in agriculture, sewing, catering and business management. These programmes build practical skills and improve the chances of sustainable success. This has assisted groups of women in securing start-up funding supported by government due to formalised activities.

3.6.2 Civil Society Organisations (CSOs)

CSOs are found in most developing countries but seem to have challenges in poverty alleviation. For example, Bangladesh is said to have been able to reach about 20% of its population in 1993. Bangladesh is considered a country with strong pro-poor CSOs at the national level, which have been able to reach a higher percentage of the population when compared to its counterparts in the same region. However, some of the challenges and limitations that CSOs in less developed countries are faced with in alleviating poverty are as follows.

- CSOs in less developed countries are not interested in poverty reduction and some oppose it.
- CSOs often lack capacity and reach.
- Most governments do not support CSO strategies and programmes that are meant for poverty alleviation.
- When governments attempt to assist, they frequently fail because certain government actors particularly those at lower levels are incompetent or unwilling.
- Tight fiscal constraints restrict the government from supporting CSO programmes for poverty alleviation.
- Pro-poor CSOs often find that the 'good' things they seek to encourage contradict one another.
- CSOs find it difficult to generate any kind of social capital to address the challenges of poverty.
- CSOs in developing countries find that social exclusion, poverty and disempowerment are deeply ingrained and are extremely challenging to eradicate (James, 2004:10).

Post-1994, the South African government, in their policy development, saw it as imperative that CSOs participate in the implementation of public policy. This decision was driven by the need for society to take ownership of their development and by the government's commitment to establishing a people-centred society and improving everyone's quality of life in South Africa, as stated in the RDP policy (Jankielsohn & Mollentze, 2021). The RDP policy is an inclusive, integrated socio-economic policy framework aimed at mobilising resources and people in order to eradicate poverty and build a democratic, non-racial, and non-sexist state. The RDP policy, as indicated earlier, is meant to address the challenges of poverty, inequality and unemployment by improving the lives of South Africans. The RDP strategy comprises objectives driven by a number of principles, including the principle of inclusiveness, which requires a full participation of society in development programmes.

In 2007, the ruling party approved a plan to make South Africa a developing state. The government's objective was to give the less advanced nations an opportunity to catch up with the advanced nations. A developmental state is defined as "a state where politics has assured that power, autonomy and capacity are centralised in order to achieve explicit developmental goals" (Van Dijk & Croucamp, 2007:665). Although developmental states are seen as based on the performance of the state, Banda (2020) argues that developmental states for African countries are not driven by the same purpose as other countries, which focus on deploying their resources and administration for economic development. Instead of depending on the disorganised effect of market forces in resource allocation, a development state in an Asian nation aims to direct and influence socio-economic development by actively participating in the process. South Africa introduced the White Paper for Social Welfare in 1997, aimed at addressing the challenges of poverty based on social development. According to the White Paper, government is intended to serve and build a self-reliant nation in partnerships with all stakeholders to maximise its existing potential to effect an equitable, sustainable, accessible, people-centred and developmental state (Paul, 2010). People are said to be the masters of their own destiny.

In 1998, the ANC government, in its formation of national development policies and strategies to promote economic growth, established the National Development Agency through the National Development Act, 108 of 1998. Its primary objective was to eradicate poverty by granting funds to CSOs for the purpose of carrying out

programmes and projects meant to develop poor societies. The NDP symbolised what the ANC government wanted to foster - partnership and collaboration with civil society.

Civil society has played a major role in poverty alleviation in South Africa. CSOs in general seek “to promote not only their socio-economic interests but also defines the rules for settling conflicting claims and interest in ways that are beneficial to them and to the society at large” (Schmitter, 1991:16). In South Africa, the Small Enterprise Development Agency (SEDA) developed a guide on how CSOs in less developed countries might contribute to poverty alleviation at higher and local levels in the political system (Mditshwa, 2020).

The role of CSOs is said to have declined in South Africa since 1994, as it is alleged that this sector lost many of its key leaders and skilled managers to the public sector after the transition to democracy (Arugay & Keith, 2024). In contrast, some researchers have found that many CSOs continue to exist; for example, new social movements called ‘cyber movements’ are emerging, comprising newly formed Community-Based Organisations (CBOs), New Social Movements (NSMs), and CSOs (Cwaile, 2023; Friedman, 2014). The NSMs that have emerged since the early 2000s comprise movements such as the Anti-Eviction Campaign, the Landless People Movement, the Soweto Electricity Crisis Committee (SECC), the Concerned Citizens Group (CCG), the Homeless People's Alliance, the Treatment Action Campaign, Abahlali base Mjondolo and the Anti Privatisation Forum. They are a result of a general disillusionment with the performance of government, increased poverty and inequality (Liguori & Winkler, 2020). The state-CSO sector relationship in South Africa has gradually deteriorated as the CSOs became more critical of the ANC-led government and its policies on service delivery (Warshawsky, 2020).

The emerging CSOs are gaining momentum as they are more influential and have a significant influence on laws, policies, public attitudes, and service provision issues (Pratt, 2020). In the period 1960-1994, CSOs in South Africa received extensive financial support from rich countries, which they were not expected to report on concerning their spending. For example, Sweden provided more than \$400 million between 1972 and 1993, and the USA provided approximately \$340 million between 1985 and 1994. Other donors to South African CSOs include Denmark, Norway and the European Union. The support continued until 1998, four years after democracy,

and then started to decline from 1998 onward. After 1998, funds were diverted to support specific 'types' of NGOs, the government and the African National Congress (Sun, 2022; Warshawsky, 2020). In the period 2008-2014, CSOs were struggling financially as most of the support was withdrawn, reduced or ceased to exist. Politics plays a major role in influencing donor funds. After the election of the new South African president, most donors moved away from South Africa to fund other low-income countries (Ngwara, 2020). In contrast, donors diverted their funds to paying high salaries to the employees of unscrupulous international organisations (O'Riordan, Boyle, O'Leary & Shannon, 2021); the international NGOs registered more than a quarter billion rands a year as evidence (Maheshwari et al., 2024).

An analysis of 100 CSOs was done in South Africa in four provinces, namely, Free State, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and Limpopo. It was found that CSOs play a major role in development and poverty alleviation in South Africa. They are found to be the best guarantee for consolidating democracy. Their role is found to have had an impact on alleviating poverty, as they impact positively on empowerment, participative governance, the capacity of CSOs, funding, accountability and sustainability. Communities are involved in the identification of needs, beneficiaries and fundraising, apart from the design and implementation of the said programmes (Ngandu & Motala, 2019).

3.7 CHALLENGES FACED BY SOUTH AFRICA IN ALLEVIATING POVERTY

The NDP listed nine significant problems, including a lack of broad collaborations and a failure to implement policy, as the main causes of the poor progress. These challenges are:

- Too few people work.
- The quality of school education for black people is poor.
- Infrastructure is poorly located, inadequate and under-maintained.
- The economy is unsustainable resource intensive.
- The public health system cannot meet demand or sustain quality.
- Public services are uneven and often of poor quality.
- Corruption levels are too high.
- South Africa remains a divided society.

- A plan is needed to combat poverty and its effects by increasing work opportunities, bolstering the social wage, enhancing public transportation, and increasing rural incomes.
- Boost private investment in labour-intensive areas, competitiveness and exports, with adjustments to lower the risk of hiring younger workers.
- An education accountability chain, with lines of responsibility from state to classroom.
- Phase in national health insurance, with a focus on upgrading public health facilities, producing more health professionals and reducing the relative cost of private health care.
- Public infrastructure investment at 10% of GDP, financed through tariffs, public-private partnerships, taxes and loans and focused on transport, energy and water.
- New spatial norms and standards – densifying cities, improving transport, locating jobs where people live, upgrading informal settlements and fixing housing market gaps.
- Reduce crime by strengthening criminal justice and improving community environments.

3.8 THE GAP IN LITERATURE

The analysis of literature reviewed revealed that while there are a number of studies conducted on social exclusion, they focus on social exclusion in a different context or use it interchangeably with the concept of poverty. Recently, poverty has been conceptualised as a multidimensional phenomenon which includes social participation as a resource for avoiding poverty and its consequences (Maia, 2024). Social exclusion is also viewed as a multi-dimensional characteristic although it is argued that it is a difficult process to grasp, measure or monitor. Defining and measuring poverty is mainly based on income and consumption (Townsend, 2020). The concept of conceptualising and measuring social exclusion is less well established in research. A significant number of studies documented in literature fail to recognise the link between unemployment, corruption, lack of assets and lack of education with social exclusion and poverty. Social exclusion is more about employment and income, but little data exists on social or political participation. Several studies have examined

poverty but there is less emphasis on poverty as a consequence of social exclusion. Some authors assert that exclusion can occur in the absence of poverty (Fischer, 2020). This study focuses on the overall definition of poverty that incorporates elements of social exclusion, which are social discrimination, exclusion and lack of participation in decision making pertaining to economic, social political and cultural life which contribute to the wellbeing of individuals in a society.

Poverty contributes to the vicious circle of exclusion but there is no clear view that social isolation is directly caused by unemployment (Pohlan, 2019). In addition, Pohlan (2019) and Yang, Kim and Matthews (2023) investigated the causal relationship between job loss and social exclusion. The research was based on economic and social consequences of job loss which contributes to exclusion from society. It was found that job loss has a detrimental effect on the subjective perception of social integration. In view of the above, the research confirms that although several studies have been done to examine poverty and its relationship with social exclusion, there is less emphasis on poverty as a consequence of social exclusion. The above confirms that there is a need for more studies towards understanding the relationship between poverty and social exclusion as a result of unemployment, lack of education, lack of assets and corruption. This study tries to bridge this gap by focusing on how the economic, political and social factors causing poverty, that is, corruption, unemployment, lack of assets and lack of education, affect poverty.

In most cases, no observation has been made on the link between social exclusion and poverty. There is no evidence that research has been done that focuses on poverty as a consequence of social exclusion. Pohlan (2019) looked at the negative consequences of unemployment discussed in many empirical studies which found that long term unemployment reduces the probability of individuals getting employment and leads to alienation from society, which leads to long term-dependency on social welfare benefits (Tenand, 2018).

Similarly, in policy discussions about poverty and social inequality, social exclusion is frequently used to describe living conditions that are less favourable, which result in people not participating in society (Pohlan, 2019). Not much has been done in terms of focusing on the development of poverty alleviation strategies and policies for low-income communities in urban areas. Most literature reviewed does not consider the

mediating role of social exclusion in poverty. In a number of cases, social exclusion is not considered as an integral part of the concept of poverty. The researcher is of the opinion that social exclusion can be positioned as a mediating link between the independent variables and the dependent variable. This study tries to bridge the gap by focusing on the integrated theories of poverty, which incorporate the theory of social exclusion. Poverty affects both the quality of life of individuals and the equity and cohesion of a society as a whole.

3.9 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR POVERTY ALLEVIATION

The conceptual framework, shown in Figure 3.14, has been develop for this study and illustrates that poverty is as a result of social exclusion.

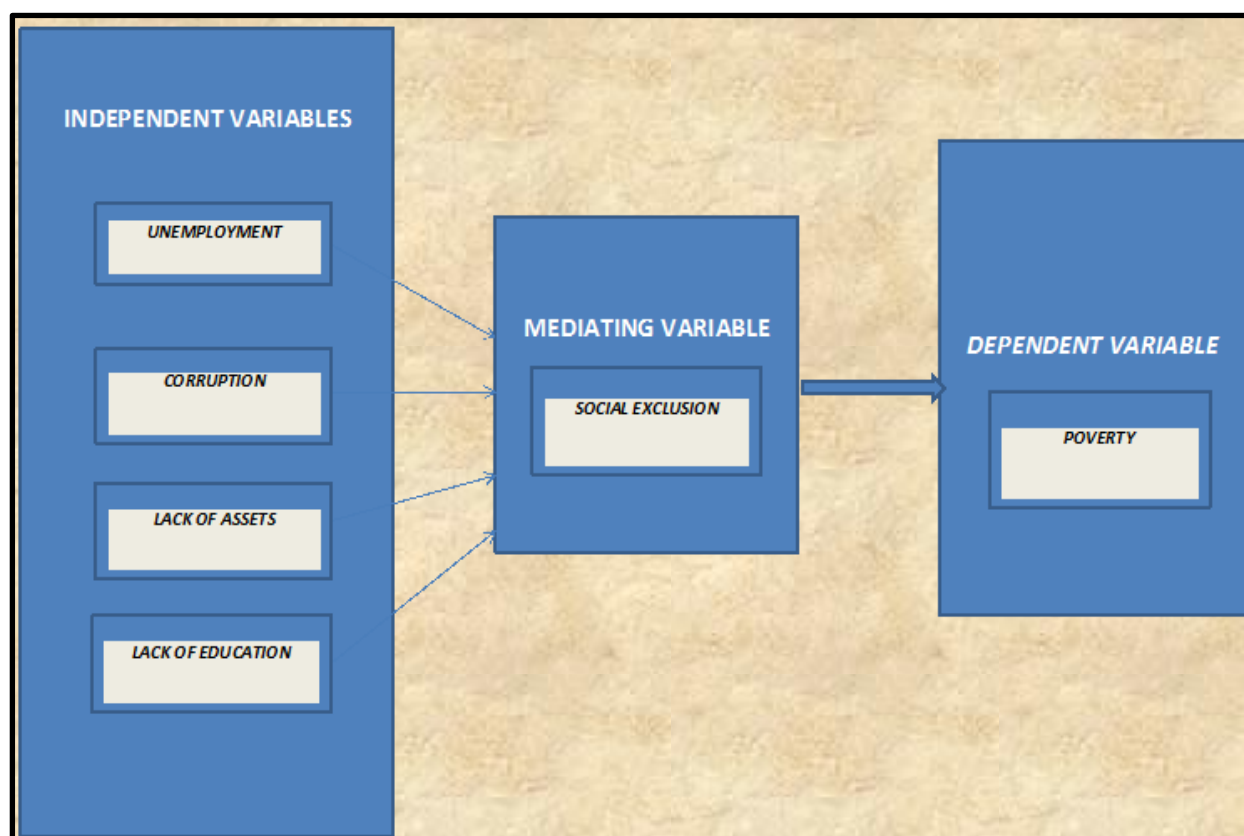


Figure 3.14: A conceptual framework for poverty alleviation

In order to promote social cohesion and inclusiveness, the conceptual framework for poverty alleviation includes how economic, political and social factors such as corruption, unemployment, lack of assets and lack of education, affect poverty. Social exclusion is a mediator variable between corruption, unemployment, lack of assets and lack of education (that is, independent variables) and poverty (that is, dependent variable). A change in one of the independent variables, for example corruption, will

lead to a magnitude of change in poverty. Social inclusion could be a potential mechanism by which the independent variables can produce change on the dependent variable.

3.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter reviewed the current and relevant literature on poverty and poverty alleviation that supported the study. It started by defining and conceptualising poverty based on various interpretations and its impact on households in South Africa, thereafter, it defined the main types of poverty which are absolute poverty and relative poverty; discussed the approaches to measuring poverty, dynamics of poverty (starting with the global overview then cascading down to regional then to domestic overview), The chapter also discussed the factors affecting poverty.

The last sections of the chapter presented strategies used for poverty alleviation in South Africa, and different frameworks and models that exist for poverty alleviation.

A gap in literature has been identified. Using the theoretical framework presented in Chapter 2 and reviewed literature in this chapter, a Conceptual Framework was devised for this research and provides the basis for the development of a proposed framework for poverty alleviate in urban areas of South Africa.

The next chapter discusses the research design and methodology used in this study.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the research methodology used in the study. Tiala (2022) defines research methodology as the techniques one uses to gather and examine data, some of which may be unique to a given academic field. The processes a researcher takes to explore a research problem and the reasoning behind them are referred to as research methodology. In this research, the study aimed to determine how poverty alleviation in LICs of urban areas in South Africa could be addressed. This chapter focuses on the research methodology, which comprises of the philosophy behind the research, the quantitative approach and research design. The research methods refer to the target population, the sampling technique and selected sample, the instrument for data collection, its validation criteria, the administration of the instrument, and the method of analysing the data.

4.2 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

The most crucial component of research methodology is research philosophy as it guides the link between the theoretical and practical elements of research. According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009), the research philosophy is viewed as a system of beliefs and assumptions meant to develop knowledge in a particular field by answering a specific question. Moon, Blackman and Adams (2019) confirm the importance of exploring philosophy in research as research philosophy can assist in clarifying the research approach to be employed in the study as well as in refining and defining the research methods to be used; to aid researchers in choosing the best research strategy and preventing the needless usage of work by recognising the shortcomings of specific methodologies early on; and lastly, to support the researcher's creativity and originality in choosing or modifying approaches that the researcher had not previously considered. In this study, the main research question was: *How could poverty alleviation in low-income communities of urban areas in South Africa be addressed?"*

It is imperative for the researcher to understand the research philosophy, paradigms, and methodology for business research to adopt the best (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

The research philosophy in business and management is derived from various disciplines within the social sciences, leading to the coexistence of multiple research philosophies, paradigms, approaches and methodologies. As a result, two opposing perspectives emerged, namely pluralism and unification (Capizzo & Feinman, 2022). Unification views business and management as fragmented, which prevents it from becoming more like a true scientific discipline and compels scholars to promote a pluralistic approach. Pluralists see diversity in economic and business management as important in that it enriches business and management. Each research philosophy, paradigm and methodology are seen as contributing something unique and valuable to business and management research (Kankam, 2019). According to Saunders (2020), a research philosophy is influenced by one's understanding, assumptions and views of the world. Research is classified into three main philosophical approaches, which are axiology, ontology and epistemology (Saunders, 2020).

4.2.1 Axiology

Axiology refers to the theory or study of values; it is the science of inquiry into human values. It examines the moral stance that needs to be adopted in order to combat poverty in local communities. This inquiry allows individuals to recognise the internal value systems that shape their perceptions, decisions, and actions, facilitating a clearer understanding, "What do I value? How do I value, and how do I make value decisions?" (Schoof, 1999:1).

Values do not give people a sense of what is not valuable (able to have worth or merit), but they do give people a sense of what is valuable (McGregor, 2011). Axiology is the study of individuals' selection of fundamental values (De Monticelli, 2022). It brings order to everyday moral decisions and value judgements to people's value world (Hartman, 1967). Axiology delineates what individuals should prioritise and identifies significant aspects, thereby aiding in the clarification of their prejudices and biases.

It assesses individuals' cognitive processes and perceptions rather than the content of their thoughts (Hartman, 2021). Axiology is the study that elucidates and quantifies the evaluative processes underlying human behaviour. (Yardley, 2023). Ethics (good and bad) and aesthetics (beauty and harmony) are the two categories of values.

Values form the backdrop against people's thinking, beliefs and perceptions; values underpin relationships and are invaluable, priceless and of deep importance to

transdisciplinary work. Whether expressed explicitly or not, people's values permeate everything they write, say, do and produce (McGregor, 2022). Values profoundly inform people's behaviour and their (in)actions. Not surprisingly, axiology (the study of values and value judgements) is intended to link thinking (valuing) with action (McGregor, 2020).

The essence of goodness, moral behaviour, worth and obligation are all related to axiology (Dube, 2021), and according to Klakegg and Tvedt (2024), this idea deals with issues of value and what is deemed desirable or 'good' for people and society. In addition to measuring the degree of growth and the many kinds of perceptual biases, it deals with the questions of right and wrong.

Human rights are meant to regard people as valuable and important. Poor people lack many human rights. For example, they are frequently denied the opportunity to actively engage in politics and are unable to pursue justice for human rights abuses. They also lack access to basic sanitation, safe drinking water, health care and education. In South Africa, Ubuntu is considered an axiological framework for human rights, as well as the South African Bill of Rights (Chapter 2, Section 7-39), which is a cornerstone of democracy in the country, upholds the democratic ideals of freedom, equality and human dignity and enshrines the rights of every citizen of our nation. The state is obligated to uphold, defend, advance and fulfil the rights outlined in the Bill of Rights. These include equality (for example, everyone is entitled to equal protection and benefits under the law, and the environment. (that is, everyone has the right, (a) to an environment that is not harmful to their health or wellbeing; and (b) for the sake of current and future generations, to conserve the environment (Sachs, Ewinyu & Shedi, 2024).

4.2.2 Ontology

Ontology is critical, especially with regard to qualitative research methodology, as the ontological position of the researcher has some bearing on the methods that are selected. Ontology is concerned with a researcher's perspective on the world and their presumptions about its composition and the nature (being) of objects. Barron (2017) explains ontology as the study of the existence of connections between various facets of society, including social actors, cultural norms, and social structures. The ontological tenets that underlie quantitative research hold that the world operates in

accordance with set laws of cause and effect and that objective methods are necessary to discover the truth (Tzivelopolou, 2020). The urge to examine the various ways that social actors continuously interpret the social reality from their own perspectives drives ontological research by constructivists, interpretivists, and social scientists.

When choosing a research methodology, a researcher is guided by ontology and epistemological assumptions. The objectivist viewpoint, which includes positivism, is where the ontological principles that support quantitative research originate. According to this perspective, society is a distinct entity that exists independently of the social actors that make up a particular society. In order to gather information from respondents, this study employed a structured questionnaire with closed-ended questions and the positivist worldview. One of positivism's problems is that the researcher cannot fully separate themselves from the subject of their research because they are also a part of the world they are studying. As a result, 'complete objectivity' is called into doubt (Hovens & Muijs, 2020). Its disregard for social meanings and the way the world is socially formed presents another difficulty.

However, the ontological presumptions that guide qualitative researchers hold that social reality is not a static collection of occurrences but rather a dynamic emergent quality of personal creation. Social scientists' concepts are shaped by their guiding knowledge perspective. The ontological principles underpinning qualitative research belong to the perspective of non-positivism or interpretivism; and with this view, the ontological nature of society is based upon the thinking that society is not a separate entity, and that the world or reality is subjectively created. Therefore, unlike quantitative research, in qualitative research, context matters, and when we are studying a phenomenon, the researcher cannot separate him/herself from the study environment and social actors (that is, the participants). The information is normally obtained by in-depth interviewing of the people themselves being investigated to obtain their perceptions (Moser & Korstjens, 2018).

In this study, ontologically, we see the world constituting a society made up of people who are economically, socially, politically and culturally different. There are rich people and poor people. The world is divided into different continents and countries which have governments. South Africa is situated in Sub-Saharan Africa, which has the

highest percentage of extremely poor people (Savary et al., 2022). The country has the most unequal societies in the world in terms of income and wealth distribution, according to the World Bank (2022).

The three townships, which were chosen for this study, are situated in the City of Johannesburg in the province of Gauteng and, like other provinces, are experiencing poverty challenges as many people living in rural areas migrate to urban areas in search of employment and food (Mzungule & Ndzendze, 2021). Though inequality has supposedly declined, the inequality within racial groups has increased, especially within the African population. South African society is divided into four broad levels, the first being the increasing multi-racial upper class, the predominantly middle class who are formally employed with their dependents, with the second being an almost exclusively black and rural lower class, that are in the agricultural sector and the informal sector, and the last being the unemployed. (Seekings, 2015).

4.2.3 Epistemology

The philosophy of knowing, what qualifies as legitimate, valid and acceptable knowledge, and how that knowledge is transmitted to others are all included in epistemology (Oliveira, 2021). Blaikie and Priest (2022) reiterate that epistemology focuses on what is known to be true. The relevant questions are: Who will supply the valid information? How shall we get valid and acceptable information? Both qualitative and quantitative studies are affected by this. In this study, the philosophies of axiology were disqualified because the study did not intend to investigate the various ways social actors are constantly interpreting the social world from their own particular perspectives. The study adopted the ontological and epistemological principles related to quantitative methodology.

The three most prevalent paradigms among research philosophies are pragmatism, constructivism/interpretivism and positivism. Basic belief systems, known as paradigms, are predicated on ontological, epistemological and methodological presumptions (Kankam, 2019). The methodology is typically quantitative since positivism holds that there is only one known reality that can be quantified through statistical hypothesis testing. On the other hand, constructivists or interpretivists contend that reality must be understood because there is no one truth or belief, so reality needs to be interpreted (also known as interpretivism). The thought process is

that reality needs to be interpreted by the very individuals or social actors who experience it. Pragmatism is the third prevalent paradigm, according to which reality is continually renegotiated, discussed and interpreted (McBeath, 2023).

According to pragmatism, the third prevalent paradigm, reality is continually renegotiated, discussed, and interpreted. With an emphasis on concrete, objective facts that can be evaluated experimentally, positivist research is frequently employed in deductive reasoning to produce generalizations that resemble laws (Alharahsheh & Pius, 2020). Empirically, this study embraced positivism

4.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

This section presents the type of methods, procedures and techniques that were used to identify, select, collect and analyse the data in order to answer the research questions and address the research objectives, hence the name 'research approach'. Research methodology is defined as the specific procedures or techniques that are used for conducting research (Creswell, 2021). Three categories of research methods can be distinguished: the first group focuses on data collecting, the second group uses statistical techniques to identify relationships, and the third group assesses the accuracy of the results acquired. The research method depends mainly on the sources from which information is obtained, how the sample is obtained and the technique for analysing the data. Harmey and Wilkinson (2019) describes research methodology as the particular steps or methods used to find, pick, process, and evaluate data related to a subject. Furthermore, Sharma et al. (2023) refer to research methodology as a detailed discussion of the use of the research design.

There are three research methodologies identified in research, namely, the quantitative methods, the qualitative methods and mixed methods. According to Clark, Foster, Bryman and Sloan (2021), while qualitative research attempts to collect and analyse non-numerical (descriptive) data in order to comprehend an individual's social reality, including their attitudes, beliefs and motivation, quantitative research is a research strategy that focuses on quantifying the collection and analysis of data. The mixed methods approach combines the use of more than one method of data collection or research in a research study or set of related studies (George, 2023). The study adopted a quantitative method.

4.3.1 Quantitative Methods

The main objective of this study was to determine how poverty alleviation in LICs of urban areas in South Africa could be addressed and thereafter, develop a sustainable framework for poverty alleviation. To achieve this, the quantitative data collection method was used for gathering data from each household in the three selected locations. The decision about the data to be collected was informed by the research problem, research design and additional information collected about the variables (Quinlan, 2019).

The goal of quantitative methodology is to describe, explain and predict using mathematical and statistical techniques that are employed to test hypotheses in order to understand phenomena. This is a good methodology to study relationships between variables or phenomena; it is more objective than the qualitative method. Large sample sizes, randomly chosen subjects and representative samples are typical features of quantitative research. A quantitative method normally manipulates variables referred to as independent variables and sees what happens to the variable of interest, which is called the dependent variable. It uses deductive reasoning to draw conclusions (Kurniawan, Ardiansyah & Aryanti, 2021).

Large sample sizes, random and probability sampling, and statistical techniques are all necessary for quantitative research in order to evaluate theories and hypotheses. With this kind of approach, the researcher uses surveys and scientific experiments to get numerical data for primary data collection, or they use secondary data that has already been gathered and processed for their research.

In this study, a critical literature review was used to assess how the poverty alleviation strategies, programmes and policies affect poverty alleviation in urban areas in South Africa. In addition, research was conducted using quantitative methods to achieve the study objective of determining the factors that affect poverty in urban areas in South Africa and hence determine the extent to which the factors of poverty and poverty alleviation affect poverty in urban areas in South Africa.

The reason for using a quantitative method in this study was that the empirical objectives that the researcher sought to address or achieve were quantitative in nature. In this case, the quantitative methods were used to study the economic issues of the study phenomenon. Specifically, these methods were used to determine the

factors of poverty in South Africa. The quantitative data were collected in three locations where the majority of the population live in poverty due to unemployment, a lack of education, inadequate service delivery, overpopulation and a lack of assets.

4.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is defined as a 'framework' or 'blueprint' for gathering the data required for the project in the most efficient manner. In order to produce a credible research study, the research design is a strategy that connects the methodological presumptions and philosophical underpinnings of a research approach to its research questions and research methodologies. In other words, the research design "provides a systematic and logical strategy or plan for leading research in a reliable, valid and effective manner to steer the investigation throughout the stages of variable selection, relationship determination, data collection, measurements, analysis for answering the research question" (Sidharth, 2023:381). The research topic, its goal, breadth, current knowledge, time, resources, and the study's underlying philosophy should all be taken into consideration when selecting a research design. In summary, a research design is "a complete plan for the entire project" (Kumar, 2011:396).

The study adopted a cross-sectional survey design. A survey design is an observational research strategy that compares participants to a control group to reach a conclusion. The primary issue with observational studies is that the researcher cannot randomly assign people and has no control over the make-up of the control groups. In addition to producing bias, this can obscure cause-and-effect linkages or, conversely, imply correlations where none exist. In order to find any potential issues with the full-scale investigation, a pilot study was carried out to assess the research procedures and the data gathering tool. Before investing enormous sums of money and resources, pilot studies are frequently used to determine whether a lengthy research project or programme is feasible. They also aid in improving the measuring device.

The study employed a cross-sectional survey which entails the collection of data at a single point in time in connection with two or more variables using structured questions and semi-structured questions (Bell, Bryman & Harley, 2022). This kind of survey allows for the drawing of conclusions about phenomena across a large population by taking a snapshot of the population at a specific moment in time.

This study focused on the evolution of poverty levels from a static point of view. It is generally acknowledged that poverty is not a static phenomenon; therefore, this study did not deal with all aspects of the phenomenon. Because a dynamic type would necessitate a longitudinal investigation and be impacted by the potential drawbacks outlined above, this study used the static poverty type. Hence, the study did not analyse things like poverty exit rates for cohorts of people, poverty re-entry rate, transition rates or transition probabilities. A cross-sectional survey design was applicable for this study as it was cost effective and time-bound and allowed the research to evaluate numerous characteristics at once; for example, in this research, age, income and gender were some of the characteristics that were observed.

4.5 TYPES OF DATA

The study collected both primary and secondary data. Primary data collection in the behavioural sciences can be accomplished using observation techniques, interviews, questionnaires and databases, according to Mazhar, Anjum, Anwar and (Khan, 2021). This study collected primary data through a structured questionnaire. The researcher was primarily responsible for the collection of the primary data for this study. Due to the size of the tasks, the researcher recruited assistants in each location to help with the primary data collection. The researcher had to ensure the preparedness of the data collection assistants by putting the following measures in place:

1. Recruited post-matric students who were at tertiary level or had completed their studies and were unable to find employment.
2. The assistants were recruited from the same areas where the data were collected.
3. The researcher made sure that the assistants were fluent in the primary language of the respondents in the area.
4. The assistants were given training to ensure that they understood the objective of collecting the data, and where and how the data should be collected. This training not only equipped them with the necessary skills but also fostered a sense of responsibility towards the accuracy and integrity of the data. Consequently, the assistants were able to engage effectively with the respondents, thereby enhancing the overall quality of the research outcomes.

5. Before data collection started, they signed a confidentiality agreement.

The advantage of collecting primary data is that they are more consistent with the research questions and objectives. In this study there was a requirement for demographic information, information about the education of the household head etc which is not available in secondary sources and was uncovered through the process of primary data collection. The disadvantage of primary data collection is that it takes time and can be very costly to collect (Ghuri & Gronhaug, 2020).

Secondary data are widely used in studies (Serumaga-Zake, 2020). In this study, secondary data was gathered from outside sources such as the World Bank, Statistics South Africa, the Reserve Bank, HSRC, MRC, universities, other organisations, individual researchers, websites, sales and accounting records, magazine articles, and company research reports. Databases that had already been created allowed for easy access of data (Kumari, 2022). However, one should be aware of the problems with secondary data, for the data may not be relevant; that is, it may not be fit for the research. The data may cover the topic being worked on, but it may not fit the requirements of the particular problem being solved. Secondary data can also be too general, vague and ambiguous and may not have enough content to support findings (O'Connor, 2020). Additionally, the information can be erroneous, so a comprehensive check which can take time is necessary. It may be outdated, or/and the sample used to produce the secondary data might be minimal (for example, less than 30). The benefits of secondary data include accessibility, affordability, elucidation of a research problem or question, and the potential to address a research question (Zina, 2021). The drawbacks include, for instance, insufficient information that is not timely and are not unique to the researcher's demands and study topic.

4.6 DATA COLLECTION

The research used a survey research design because it was a quantitative investigation. Survey research is defined as “the collection of information from a sample of individuals through their responses to questions” (Check & Schutt, 2012:160). A survey can be cross-sectional or longitudinal. There is no temporal dimension in a cross-sectional design since it is defined by the gathering of pertinent data at a specific moment in time. It also permits the use of a structured questionnaire, which would include the variables being studied (Ghanad, 2023). A cross-sectional

survey design was chosen because it is cost-effective and time-bound since it can be administered to a sizable population sample in a condensed amount of time (Krasniqi & de Jonge, 2022). It is feasible to collect a significant amount of data from a big target audience by using a survey. When one wants to learn more about the traits, inclinations, viewpoints and beliefs of a group of people, a survey is advised.

A structured questionnaire with closed-ended questions was used to gather primary data. Seakhoa and Augustyn (2020) think of a questionnaire as a technique where a series of closed-ended questions are asked of different people. The questionnaire was developed in consultation with experts and validated by an expert to make sure that it would collect the data intended to be collected. The questions were short and simple and restricted to a single idea to elicit information that is essential for the research. The questionnaire was administered through face-to-face intervention by enumerators who were trained to collect data. The questionnaire was tested before use to ensure that participants understood the contents and interpreted them in a way that was expected, as well as to determine the time taken by respondents to answer the questions. Sharma et al. (2023) assert that a good questionnaire should not take too much time to complete and must be able to produce useful data. Since data were collected using a structured questionnaire, the data collector distributed the questionnaires to the respondents, and after they had completed them, the questionnaires were returned to the data collector.

The structured questionnaire for this study consisted of different categories of questions, which included health and nutrition, material wealth, education, the social and economic spheres and lastly, infrastructure and services to determine the level of service delivery in the community by government and other stakeholders involved in poverty alleviation.

Section A comprised of basic questions on the demographics of the respondents and their households (that is, household size, race, gender of the head of the household, etc.) as well as issues of Health and Nutrition, Material Wealth, knowledge, economic sphere, social sphere, Infrastructure and Services. *Section B* comprised issues pertaining to administrative governance that can impede financial viability and service delivery for the social upliftment of local communities, such as corporate and environmental factors, that are related to administrative governance that can hinder

financial viability, and service delivery for the social upliftment of local communities. *Section C* addressed elements that could impede effective service delivery to local municipalities and *Section D* gathered information on the issues that could impede achieving optimal financial viability for effective service delivery in local governments (See attached Appendix A).

The questionnaire was self-developed for the study, with some parts borrowed from similar instruments. The borrowed parts were adapted to suit the study context, and all sources are acknowledged in the thesis. As stated, the present research sought to identify factors that affect poverty in the urban areas of the province of Gauteng, South Africa, to develop a framework for poverty alleviation that could be adopted by government, civil society organisations and other poverty groups such as the community-based organisations (CBOs). Poverty must be understood from the perspective of the individual households that are challenged by issues such as unemployment, lack of education, corruption, lack of assets, as examples.

4.7 TARGET POPULATION OF THE STUDY

Majid (2018) characterises the target population that the study aims to investigate as the population of interest. This is the whole population to which the researcher can extrapolate the study's findings. This study was done in the province of Gauteng in South Africa. South Africa is divided into nine provinces. Gauteng is one of the major provinces in South Africa and contains the country's largest city, Johannesburg. It also has the largest number of urban areas, or townships, with all the different kinds of characteristics of an urban area. Hence, it was chosen to be the study area. The total population consisted of 386 449 households from the three areas. Three townships were selected using a cross-sectional survey design and stratified sampling method. Table 4.1 indicates the estimated number of households per township.

Table 4.1: Estimated total population

NAME OF TOWNSHIP	ESTIMATED POPULATION
Alexandra Township	63 737
Diepsloot Township	138 329
Ivory Park Township	184 383

NAME OF TOWNSHIP	ESTIMATED POPULATION
Total	386 449

Source: Stats SA (2011)

4.8 SAMPLING AND SAMPLE SIZE

4.8.1 Sampling

Casteel and Bridier (2021) cite sampling as a technique for drawing conclusions about the entire population rather than measuring each individual unit. A sample is informed by the sampling plan and sampling parameters that are interrelated with the purpose and research questions of the study. To get an authentic result, an appropriate and proper sampling technique should be chosen (Neuman, Celano & Portillo, 2021).

There are two types of sampling: non-probability sampling, which chooses samples based on the researcher's subjective assessment and probability sampling, in which every sample in the population has an equal chance of being chosen (Datt, 2016). Simple random sampling, systematic random sampling, random cluster sampling and stratified random sampling are the four main categories of sample procedures used in probability sampling. Non-probability sampling has four types of sampling: convenience sampling, snowball sampling, quota sampling, and purposive sampling (Mabasa, 2023)

The study used probability sampling to select the quantitative data. Specifically, the stratified random sampling technique was adopted in the selection process. Gauteng was divided into townships (clusters). Cluster sampling was then used to select three clusters, namely, Alexandra Township, Diepsloot Township and Ivory Park Township. Each of these townships (clusters) was then divided into zones (strata), and from each stratum, an independent sample of a suitable size based on given population size was selected. The allocation of the sample sizes to the respective strata was done using the probability proportional to size (PPS) procedure. Stratified sampling was also used in this study because of its various advantages, some of which are described below: administrative convenience, estimation of sub populations, representativeness of a sample, efficiency of estimators, for example.

The total sample size was calculated using the Yano Yamane formula given below as 399, 586, which was meant to be 400. The researcher then used the PPS procedure

to calculate the sub-sample sizes of the individual townships. Once the sample size for each township was calculated, systematic sampling was adopted to select the households to be interviewed using the structured questionnaire. A street was chosen randomly, and the first household to be selected into the sub-sample was also randomly selected from the first ten households on this street as the starting point. Then, every ninth household on this street and other connecting street was chosen until the calculated or chosen sub-sample size was reached.

Suppose from the i^{th} stratum a sample s_i of size n_i is selected by some suitable sampling procedure. Samples from each of the strata are selected independently.

Let y_{ij} be the value of character y under study for the j^{th} unit of the i^{th} stratum,

$$j = 1, \dots, N_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, K$$

$$Y_i = \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} y_{ij} = i^{\text{th}} \text{stratum total} \quad (5.1)$$

$$\bar{Y}_i = Y_i / N_i = i^{\text{th}} \text{stratum mean}$$

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} y_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^K Y_i = \sum_{i=1}^K N_i \bar{Y}_i = \text{population total} \quad (5.2)$$

$$\bar{Y} = \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} y_{ij} / N = \sum_{i=1}^K N_i \bar{Y}_i / N = \sum_{i=1}^K W_i \bar{Y}_i = \text{population mean per unit} \quad (5.3)$$

$$W_i = N_i / N = i^{\text{th}} \text{stratum weight}$$

$$S_i^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} (y_{ij} - \bar{Y}_i)^2 / (N_i - 1) = i^{\text{th}} \text{stratum variance} \quad (5.4)$$

$$S^2 = \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} (y_{ij} - \bar{Y}_i)^2 / (N - 1) = \text{population variance} \quad (5.5)$$

Strata

1 i K

	y_{11}	y_{i1}	y_{K1}
	y_{12}	y_{i2}	y_{K2}
	.	.	.
	y_{1j}	y_{ij}	y_{Kj}

	.	.	.
	y_{1N_1}	y_{iN_i}	y_{KN_k}
Stratum size	N_1	N_i	N_K

The sum of the sub-sample sizes of the strata was the total sample size for the study.

4.8.2 Sample Size

The sample size is determined by the kind of research to be conducted. Although there are various requirements for both quantitative and qualitative research, they both rely on the features of the population, the type of information to be gathered, and its accuracy, such as its degree of confidence, which is not about the number but the representativeness (Neuman et al., 2022).

The sample size can be determined in a number of ways, such as applying formulas, simulating a sample size using public tables, and using a census for tiny populations. The degree of precision, level of confidence or risk and degree of variability in the attributes being measured are some requirements that must be met to determine the proper sample size (Ranatunga, Priyanath & Megama, 2020). It is confirmed that data with different attributes requires a different sample size (Louangrath, 2021). To determine the sample size for the quantitative data in this study, the researcher used the Yano Yamane formula (Yamane, 1967), which is as follows:

$$n = N / \{1 + N(e^2)\}$$

Where:

n = the desired sample

N = the population

e = acceptable margin error limit (0.05 based on 95% confidence level)

Out of a total population of 386 449 households, 400 were randomly selected based on their level of income, standard of living and location, as indicated in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Sample selected based on estimated total population

NAME OF TOWNSHIP	ESTIMATED POPULATION	SAMPLE SELECTED
Alexandra Township	63 737	66
Diepsloot Township	138 329	143
Ivory Park Township	184 383	191
TOTAL	386 449	400

Source: Stats SA (2011)

The stratified random sampling technique was adopted to distribute the sample size among the strata (that is, Alexandra, Diepsloot and Ivory Park Townships), using the probability proportional to size (PPS) procedure. With this procedure, the larger township would have a larger sub-sample size. The sample size of the study obtained was 400, which is less than 10% of the population size. Although the preferred sample size is at least 10% of the target population, according to Althubaiti (2023), the research can still proceed with less than 10% as long as the results and interpretation thereof is confined to the respondents and not inferred to the target population.

4.9 UNIT OF ANALYSIS

According to Morin, Olsson and Atikcan (2021:301), since it serves as the foundation for the entire study, the unit of analysis is the most crucial component. They are defined as ‘the units, cases or parts of social life that are under construction or the element that serves as the basis for conducting and reporting analyses. They are essential for concept development, data analysis and empirically measuring or observing concepts. The unit of analysis can refer to individuals, groups, organisations, movements, institutions or countries (Chan & Clarke, 2021). The determination of the unit of analysis is considered important during the initial stage of the research (Khan, 2014). Kumar (2018) also defines the unit of analysis as the ‘who’ or the ‘what’ that one is analysing for one’s study. Using a unit of analysis in research helps provide important boundaries, particularly for data analysis (Dohn, 2021).

For the current research, the unit of analysis was a household head (any individual who holds the position of head of the household irrespective of gender, or creed) of

Low-Income Communities (LICs) of the urban areas of the province of Gauteng, South Africa (that is, Alexandra Township, Diepsloot Township and Ivory Park Township).

4.10 DATA ANALYSIS

Normality test, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Test for Poverty Skewness and Kurtosis

Statistics like skewness and kurtosis are typically used to determine whether or not a value is regularly distributed. The mean or average value in a normal distribution should be equal to both the distribution's mode and median value. These statistics differ in some distributions. When more than half of the instances are either above or below the mean, the distribution is considered to be skewed. The distribution is said to be left-skewed or negatively skewed if the mean is higher than the median. Conversely, a distribution is said to be positively skewed or skewed to the right if the mean is less than the median. Kurtosis can be defined as a distribution's degree of tailedness. Leptokurtic distributions have a high peak (in comparison to a normal distribution), whereas platykurtic distributions have a low peak (flat topped). Only the normality of the distribution of poverty, the dependent variable was needed to be investigated for normality.

Multiple regression analysis (MRA) was used to analyse the quantitative data. Regression analysis is a statistical technique used to determine the relationship between two variables, that is, a dependent variable and an independent variable. It can also be used to find out whether a variable is a factor or affects the other. Multiple regression analysis was used to find the factors of poverty because poverty is multidimensional, being affected by many factors. When a researcher wishes to forecast a variable's value based on the values of two or more variables, they employ MRA (Kim & Oh, 2021). The dependent variable is the one to predict. In this research, the dependent variable was poverty. The status of poverty, that is, whether the household was considered to be (1) poor, (2) fairly poor or (3) not poor, was used to measure poverty, as a categorical variable. Unemployment, income inequality, corruption, a lack of assets and a lack of education are examples of independent factors that are used to forecast the value of the dependent variable (Kerlinger, 2022). For example, MRA was used in this study to understand how poverty is caused by unemployment in LIC urban areas of South Africa. It should be noted that for the

regression model, poverty (measured as 1 = poor, 2 = fairly poor, and 3 = non poor) was the dependent variable and other multi-dimensional or categorical variables such as social factor, political factor and assets (measured as 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = non opinion, 4 = disagree, and 5 = strongly disagree) were the independent variables. There was no need to use a data reduction technique to construct indices; they were used in the model as numerical variables.

4.10.1 The Regression Equation

Consider the model

$$Y = \alpha + \beta x + e \quad (5.6)$$

where x is a non-random variable and e is a random error distributed with mean zero and variance σ^2 . Fitting model leads to a regression line $\hat{y} = a + bx$, where a is an estimate of α in the model and b is an estimate of β , and $\hat{y}$ is the estimate of y . There are many ways of fitting a straight line to data. The method of least squares is the best in many circumstances (Dash & Paul, 2021).

Multiple regression analysis

The multiple regression modelling was used in this study because poverty is affected by many factors. The factors or independent variables, such as unemployment, income inequality, corruption, a lack of assets, and a lack of education, are those that are utilised to forecast the value of the dependent variable. In this study, only household size, unemployment, social factor, economic factor, political factor, assets and education were used as independent variables, corruption was not used because it could not be measured to get valid results. The questionnaire shown in Appendix C shows how these variables were measured. For example, to measure 'household size', people were asked, "How many people are there in your household?" For 'unemployment', under 'Economic sphere', people were asked to choose from:

Which of the following have been the most reliable and important sources of income for your household over the past 12 months?	
1.Salary/Wages	
2.Government grant	
3. Other Services (tradesman, workshop, spaza etc.)	

‘Social factor’ was measured by using the ‘Social sphere’ questions and the responses were aggregated. Similarly, ‘Economic factor’ was measured by using ‘Economic sphere’. For the political factor, the following question was used:

Do you or other members of your household participate in decision –making processes in you township (not including decisions made by local councils in resolving disputes)	
1.Never	
2.Sometimes	
3.Always	

According to the English dictionary, the word ‘asset’ means a useful or valuable quality, skill, or person: something valuable belonging to a person. In this study, it meant ‘something valuable belonging to a person’ such as a house or a car, for example. This variable was measured by:

Material Wealth

(Please Access for yourself, DO NOT ASK) What is the quality of the respondent’s house like?	
1. Below standard	
2. Standard	
3. Above standard	
(Please Access for yourself, DO NOT ASK) Does the household own a car or a motorbike?	
1. No	
2. Yes	
(Please Access for yourself, DO NOT ASK) Does the household own a satellite dish or a refrigerator?	

To measure ‘Education; the following question was used:

What is the highest level of education among the adult members of your household (including the household head)?	
Primary school or lower	
Secondary school or completed matric	
Post Matric qualifications (certificate, diploma, degree)	

Regression analysis is a popular technique for modelling the process of creating data, making predictions or forecasts, determining which independent factors are related to the dependent variable and investigating the types of relationships between these variables (Zhang, Liu & Liu, 2020).

In the multiple regression model, there are p independent variables:

$$y_i = \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip} + \varepsilon_i \quad (5.7)$$

where x_{ij} is the i^{th} observation on the j^{th} independent variable

The residual, $e_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$, is the difference between the value of the dependent variable predicted by the model, $\hat{y}_i$ and the true value of the dependent variable y_i .

The residual can be written as

$$e_i = y_i - \hat{\beta}_1 x_{i1} - \dots - \hat{\beta}_p x_{ip} \quad (5.8)$$

The method of estimation, ordinary least squares minimise the sum of squared residuals,

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^N e_i^2 \quad (5.9)$$

A set of simultaneous linear equations in the parameters, or p normal equations, are the result of this minimisation. The parameter estimators are obtained by solving these normal equations.

The normal equations are:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^p X_{ij} X_{ik} \hat{\beta}_k = \sum_{i=1}^n X_{ij} y_i, j = 1, \dots, p \quad (5.10)$$

In matrix notation, the normal equations are written as

$$(X^T X) \hat{\beta} = X^T Y \quad (5.11)$$

where the ij element of X is x_{ij} , the i element of the column vector Y is y_i , and the j element of $\hat{\beta}$ is

$\hat{\beta}_j$. Thus X is $n \times p$, Y is $n \times 1$, and $\hat{\beta}$ is $p \times 1$. The solution is

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y \quad (5.12)$$

After building a regression model, it is critical to determine the model's goodness of fit by computing the R-square and the predicted parameters' statistical significance. Hypothesis testing and residuals pattern analysis are included in diagnostic analysis.

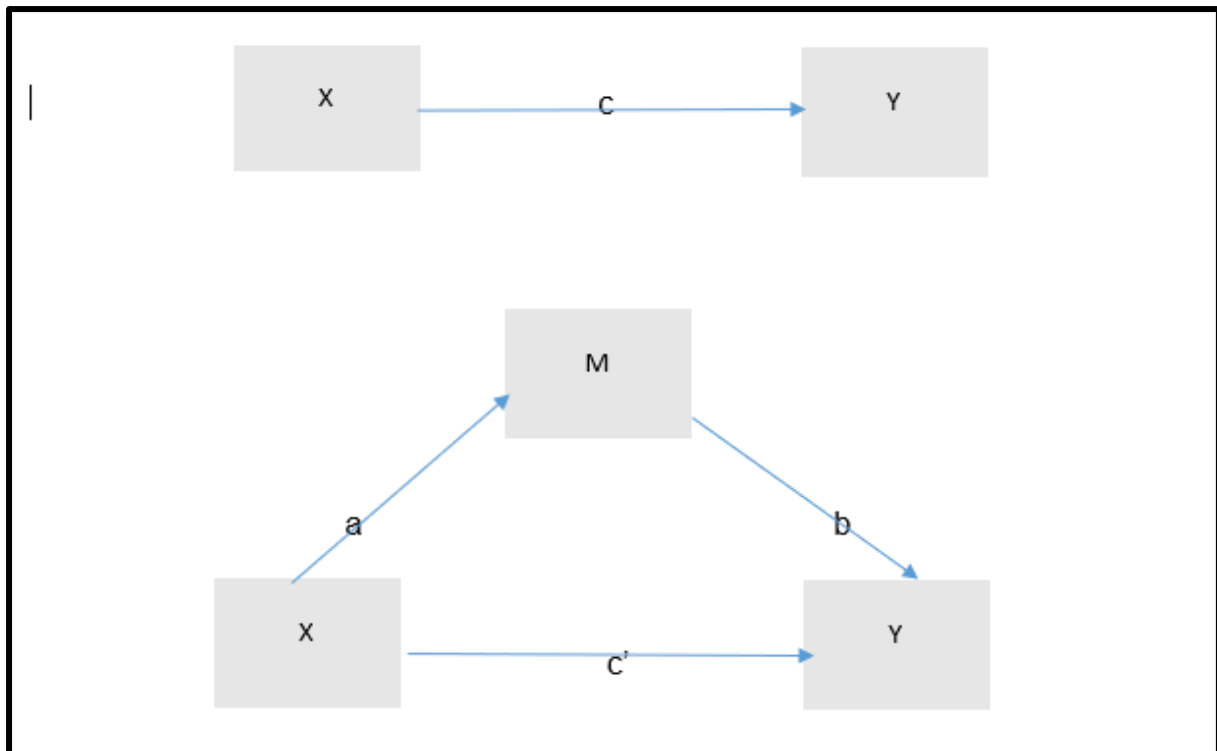
An F-test of the overall fit using the ANOVA table and t-tests of the individual parameters can be used to determine statistical significance. The model assumptions play a major role in how these diagnostic tests are interpreted. The estimated

parameters will deviate from normal distributions and make inference more difficult if the error term in small samples does not have a normal distribution. However, a central limit theorem can be used with comparatively large samples, allowing asymptotic approximations to be used for hypothesis testing. The statistical tool SPSS was used to process the raw data using the following statistical techniques:

- Normality test by examining the skewness and kurtosis of the frequency distributions of the variables.
- The Shapiro-Wilk test was used to test goodness of fit as to how close the sample data fit to a normal distribution.
- A correlation analysis was done before the regression analysis, to investigate the relationship among the variables and, most importantly, to get a rough idea of the possible factors of poverty. In addition, this analysis was done to see whether, when the regression analysis is done, potentially, there is or is not likely to be a serious multicollinearity problem. A serious multicollinearity problem can occur in regression analysis when some independent variables are highly correlated.
- Thereafter, a regression analysis was done. Two regression models were fitted. The first one included all the independent variables, excluding the mediator. The second one was fitted to both the independent variables and the mediator to find out whether there were changes in the coefficients of the independent variables (Hatem, Goossens, Zeidan & Moreira, 2022).

4.10.2 Mediation Analysis

Figure 5.1 shows the basic mediation model's framework. The independent variable is denoted by X, the dependent measure by Y and the mediating or intervening variable by M.



Source: Adapted from Preacher & Hayes (2004:718)

Figure 4.1: Schematic of a simple mediation model

The introduction of the mediator is shown at the bottom of the picture, while the overall impact of X on Y is shown at the top. The direct influence of X on Y after adjusting for the suggested mediator is denoted by c' in this figure, whereas c indicates the total effect of X on Y (i.e., the unstandardized slope of the regression of Y on X). a represents how the independent variable affects the mediator, and b represents how the mediator affects the dependent variable after adjusting for the independent variable.

Lastly, the product $a \cdot b$ is the indirect impact. Generally speaking, the difference between the total effect and the direct effect, $c - c'$, is equal to $a \cdot b$. Finding the link between X and Y is the first step in the mediation analysis process. From this angle, it is possible to consider a significant c coefficient as a prerequisite for evaluating mediation. The causal steps method concludes that there is no indirect impact in the absence of a substantial c because there is no overall effect to mediate.

The effect of X on Y is referred to as the direct effect and is designated c' . This is because the significance of X on Y is also employed once the overall effect has been determined to be significant and a suggested mediator has been added and statistically controlled. Second, if the overall effect is determined to be significant and a suggested mediator is introduced and statistically controlled, the effect of X on Y is

also employed. In this scenario, the effect is referred to as the direct effect and is designated c' .

In contrast, researchers usually state that the mediator only partially mediates the effect of X on Y if there is still a large direct X to Y effect after adjusting for the mediator. The difference between complete and partial mediation has influenced the development and testing of theories and models.

Full mediation, in a straightforward mediation model with a single mediator, implies that a researcher has fully described how X influences Y and that additional indirect effects testing is not necessary. It is evident that such indirect effects might (and most likely should) be investigated and evaluated empirically in the case of partial mediation.

Therefore, partial and full mediation findings may have consequences for theory or model development. (Rasoolimanesh, Wang, Roldan & Kunasekaran, 2021). Hence, the significance test of the X on Y relationship is used by researchers to: 1) determine whether there is a substantial overall effect and, if so, whether it is reasonable to move forward with investigating indirect effects., and evaluate the degree of any observed mediation and, hence, its significance or completeness.

The questionnaire was perfectly crafted to allow the researcher to gather high-quality data. It was created so that the interviewer could comprehend every question and provide the respondent with an accurate and consistent explanation. The questionnaire was created with the intention of fulfilling the research's purpose and providing answers to the research questions. The structured questionnaire consisted of a total of 30 questions, which included polar questions and some five-point Likert type scale questions (strongly agree / agree / no opinion / disagree / strongly disagree) for collecting the quantitative data. These were divided among the seven sections of the questionnaire, namely, household basic data (demographics), health and nutrition, material wealth, knowledge, economic sphere, social sphere, and infrastructure and services (Taherdoost, 2022).

After the questionnaire was designed, not only was it checked by the supervisor, but it was also piloted in order to validate it and measure its reliability, that is, to test its applicability and practicality to the environment. Feedback was also obtained from the

respondents, who commented on the nature (that is, length of questions, format and wording) of the questions in the questionnaire, the length of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was adjusted according to this feedback. The face validity, construct validity and content validity were also checked by the supervisor and experts in the field of the study.

4.10.3 Multicollinearity Problem

Regression analysis was first performed to determine whether multicollinearity issues would arise. Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs) should be used to assess multicollinearity; if some independent variables regressions are criticized even if all tests are valid; it is preferable to add control dummies and remove some variables rather than the other way around.

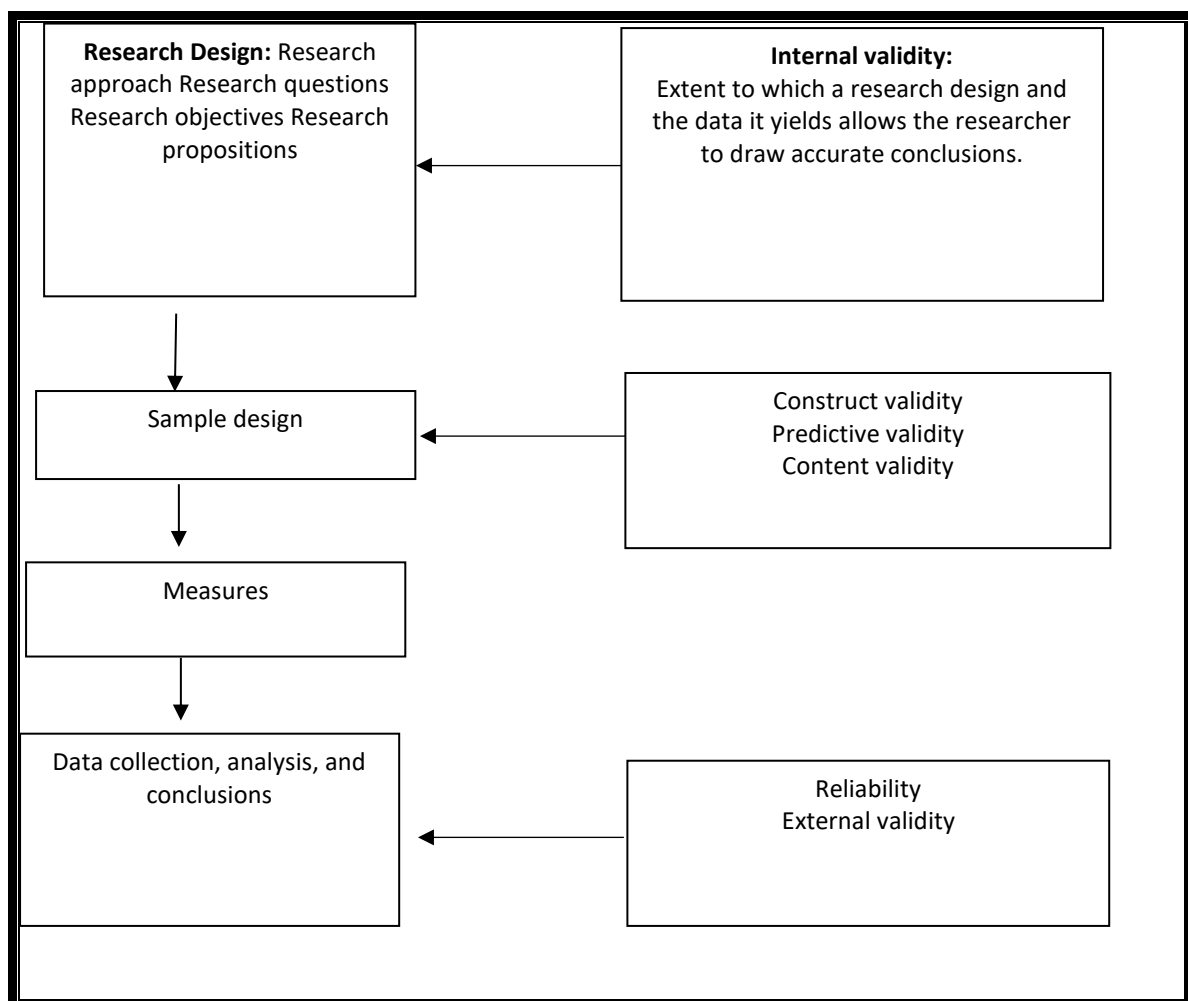
4.10.3.1 Addressing the multicollinearity problem

Regression analysis may encounter a multicollinearity issue if the independent variables or predictors of the dependent variable have a high degree of correlation. The coefficients of the variables in question are impacted by this issue. It happens when predictor variables have strong connections with one another, raising the standard errors of regression coefficient estimations, making them unstable and untrustworthy. (Shrestha, 2020). In this study, variance inflation factors (VIFs) were employed to detect the multicollinearity issue. Simply because the standard error of a coefficient is inflated when it should be large, it may render it insignificant. The variance, or the square of the standard error of a specific coefficient, is 70% greater than it would be if that predictor had no correlation at all with any of the other predictors, for instance, if the VIF is 1.7. The VIF has no upper bound but a lower bound of 1. The tolerance level that is most frequently advised as the lowest (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) is .1; but there has also been a suggestion for a minimum value as high as .2 (Bergquist, 2024). In this research, a minimum tolerance level of .2 was used. If it is lower than .2, it means that there is a multicollinearity problem. The best way to deal with the multicollinearity problem is to drop an independent variable.

4.11 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Validity and reliability are crucial components of standardising the suggested measurement scale and proving that it actually measures the things it is intended to assess in quantitative research.

Validation of results takes place at each stage of the study process (Creswell, 2021). Therefore, a set of procedures used to verify the accuracy of the quantitative data is a crucial goal in the data analysis of different research techniques that must be explained (Creswell, 2021). Serumaga-Zake (2020) explains that a measuring procedure's accuracy and precision are referred to as its reliability. The characteristics of the underlying construct being measured, the test itself, the groups being evaluated, and the assessment's goal can all be seen as influencing reliability. Reliability answers the question: how well does the instrument measure what it purports to measure? Figure 5.2 shows the phases of validity and reliability.



Source: Prof. Msweli lectures: UNISA (SBL) (2020)

Figure 4.2: Phase of validity and reliability

4.11.1 Validity

In quantitative research, validity is the ability to derive significant and practical conclusions from test results (Creswell, 2021). Cai, Kunaviktikul and Klunklin (2017) define the validity of a questionnaire as the extent to which it measures what it is intended to measure. A measure is said to be valid if it accurately reflects the concept it is intended to measure (Clark et al., 2021). Convergent and discriminant validity are commonly quantified as part of the process of evaluating a measure's validity. Content validity, face validity, construct or measurement validity, internal validity and external validity are some of the methods of validity assessment that are examined.

4.11.1.1 Content and Construct Validity

Content validity is an examination of how well the measurement technique incorporates all of the key components pertinent to the construct being assessed. According to Gray, Connolly and Brown (2019), content validity ensures that no unnecessary questions are asked and that there are sufficient pertinent questions covering all areas of the study. The literature, target population representatives and content specialists provided evidence for content-based validity.

In this study, the content validity of the data gathering tool was assessed by specialists, following Almanasreh, Moles and Chen (2019). Each item in the research instrument was analysed with assistance from the research supervisor and the UNISA research consultants. The research tool's content validity was further guaranteed by the addition of elements sourced from the literature. Content validity was assessed to determine the clarity, comprehensiveness and redundancy of the measurement tool. Additionally, by comparing the items in the data collecting tools with the study objectives, construct validity was attained. Construct validity is the degree to which an instrument measures the construct under investigation (Mellinger & Hanson, 2020). Construct validity can be regarded as the extent to which an instrument measures the construct being studied.

4.11.1.2 Face validity

In essence, face validity confirms that the data collection tool seems to measure the intended study topic or content (Karthik & Devi, 2024). It is often criticised as the weakest form of validity because it essentially means taking something at face value (Raphael, 2022). This was assessed by consulting experts and the supervisor to make

sure that the questions were relevant, clear and unambiguous, following Matore, Khairani and Abd Razak (2020).

Clark et al. (2021) make reference to the idea that face validity indicates that the measure appears to accurately capture the essence of the concept being studied and is simple enough for the participants to understand. This was done by engaging with relevant people from the target population. The researcher had extensive engagement with her supervisor which allowed for review of the questionnaire it was deemed to reflect face validity.

4.11.1.3 Internal validity

This is about causal relationships. For this research, valid data interpretation and conclusions on the findings were drawn from the data collected for this study in accordance with a reasonable research design. To put it another way, the study was carried out so that the interpretation of the data did not include the influence of unrelated factors on events. Internal validity can take three forms: (a) content validity, which measures how well the instrument covers the investigative questions; (b) criterion-related validity, which measures how well the predictor captures the pertinent aspects of the criterion; and (c) construct validity, which deals with abstract characteristics that cannot be empirically validated. (Serumaga-Zake, 2017). This type of validity can be addressed by employing specialists or a panel of judges, as well as by carefully defining the issue at hand, the items to be measured, and the scale to be used.

4.11.1.4 External validity

External validity deals with the question of whether the results of a study findings can be extrapolated beyond the specific research context (Velez, 2022). The researcher was able to use a decent representative sample in the study since a random sample was chosen from the target population. The sample was substantial with 400 respondents. With an acceptable response rate of 78% and a representative sample, the external validity of this study was deemed satisfactory.

4.11.2 Reliability

The consistency, accuracy and dependability of the equipment used to measure data are referred to as reliability (Wanling & Shuying, 2024). One way to think of reliability

is as the relative absence of error in an instrument. The questionnaire was designed in English only to ensure the collection of reliable data free from misinterpretation. The questionnaire consisted of a series of Likert-scale questions; reliability analysis was thus performed. As explained by Mtsweni, Serumaga-Zake and Kruger (2020), reliability can be evaluated by single-administration techniques, breaking the test into two or more equivalent sections, administering an analogous form (parallel test forms), repeating the same test or measure (test-retest) or examining internal consistency. The coefficient alpha, also called Cronbach's alpha (α), is the psychometric test applied to measure the internal consistency of the instrument and was generated by SPSS. The normal range of α value is between 0.00 and +1.00. Higher numbers that are nearer +1 indicate greater internal consistency and dependability. Reliability coefficients > 0.65 are considered satisfactory, and values greater than 0.70 are considered more than adequate (Sijtsma, Ellis & Borsboom, 2017). In this study, the α of the questionnaire was 0.84, meaning that it collected reliable data.

The likelihood of a response to provide an answer that is comparable to the same question is known as reliability, and it may be thought of as the relative error-free nature of an instrument. However, the dependability of a measuring device is not immediately impacted by systematic errors (Elsayad, 2023), because these have a systematic impact on the measurement. Unstable errors primarily have a negative impact on dependability because they result in low reliability in measuring devices. A good measure should produce consistent results and be reasonably dependable. Two issues arise when measurements are not accurate: (1) A measure with low reliability might not be valid because it is pointless to ask what it is measuring if it does not consistently detect anything. (2) As the dependability of x decreases, so does the relationship between x and other factors when researchers use statistical studies, such as correlations, to evaluate how scores on an x variable relate to scores on other variables. In other words, when a researcher has unreliable measures, relationships between variables usually appear weaker (Akanno et al., 2014). The reliability and robustness of the data collecting instrument (that is, the questionnaire) utilised in this study were assessed using the Cronbach's alpha produced by SPSS.

4.11.3 Piloting the Questionnaire

Following the creation of the questionnaire, a pilot survey was conducted to test and improve it, if needed. Experts with knowledge of the study's nature and scope as well as the fundamentals of question construction, in addition to the supervisor, evaluated the questionnaire.

To meet the validity and reliability requirements of the pilot study, various steps were undertaken: field participants were requested to provide feedback on the suitability and applicability of the research tool in light of the study goals.

A Likert-scale questionnaire, which is regarded as a suitable and pertinent study tool, was employed: only filled-out surveys with all items addressed were used by the researcher. The significance of the study was conveyed to each responder over the phone and in a cover letter in order to persuade them to take part. Each responder received a telephone explanation of the significance of the research and a cover letter outlining its purpose.

The data were subjected to reliability analysis, which afforded an opportunity to determine the time taken to complete the questionnaire when feedback was obtained from the respondents. The respondents for the piloting were drawn from the target population but were not used in the final survey. According to Ragab and Arisha (2018), when a self-completion questionnaire is used as the data collecting technique, a pilot study is especially important because there is no interviewer present to address any misunderstandings that may arise during the respondents' completion of the surveys.

Through the pilot study, the researcher was able to identify any issues, determine whether the construction principles had been met, and assess how well the questionnaire was understood. It made it clearer that the questions were understood by the replies.

It gave the study the assurance that the tool was reliable and unambiguous. The responders were at ease and assured that they thought the questions would be useful for the study. Respondents reported that the selected data collection method was easy to use and that they were free to answer the questionnaire honestly without feeling

compelled to do so, indicating that the pilot study evaluated for ambiguity and any misconceptions. The responders correctly followed the instructions for answering the questions, and the instructions were effective.

In addition, the pilot study assisted in determining whether any irrelevant questions needed to be eliminated, whether any pertinent questions needed to be adjusted as well as testing if the respondents understood the terminology used in the questionnaire and were not misunderstood. In addition, the pilot study helped to determine if the questions were not too long and tedious. The questions used in this research place emphasis on meeting the requirements of validity and reliability. The consistency of responses and lack of ambiguity during the pre-test gave the investigator confidence that the instrument was reliable.

In a nutshell, five randomly chosen respondents from the target population were used to test the questionnaire after it had been constructed. These respondents were not used in the main study. The results were analysed to check reliability, using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient. A value of .7 was obtained. The pilot study also afforded the opportunity to determine the time taken for administering the questionnaire, obtain feedback on the time at which it should be administered, discover problems, if any, test the credibility of the interviewer by letting him or her present and explain the questionnaire to respondents, as well as test the quality of the questionnaire by comparing it with the results that are directly available. According to the respondents' feedback, the questions were clear and unambiguous, and the interviews of 20–30 minutes timeline was appropriate.

4.12 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

The rules or guidelines that a researcher must follow when performing research in order to differentiate between appropriate and inappropriate behaviour in the research setting are known as ethics (Tiala, 2022). The integrity, reliability and validity of the research findings rely heavily on adherence to ethical principles. The majority of professional organisations have enacted rules and guidelines that specify moral conduct and direct researchers. This code offers fundamental principles and covers topics like objectivity, honesty, secrecy, and non-discrimination, to mention a few. The researcher requested permission from both internal and external stakeholders.

Internal stakeholders included the UNISA-SBL Research Ethics Committee. The researcher was able to collect data after receiving ethical clearance and permission from the UNISA-SBL Research Ethics Committee. External permission was sourced from community organisations and businesses as recommended in the research.

The volunteers gave their informed consent. The participants were informed that their involvement was entirely voluntary and that they could discontinue at any time if they so desired. Additionally, they were informed that the information they provided would be kept completely private. The importance of using human subjects in research and the need to respect their rights are emphasised. Ethical guidelines prevent data fabrication and falsification in quantitative research. The main goal of qualitative research is to safeguard and advance community members without endangering them. (Bayeta, 2023).

Neuman (2020) states that the following are important:

- The aims of the research should be communicated to the research subjects.
- Participation in the research study should be voluntary.
- Information provided by participants should always be treated as confidential (i.e., no information on any subject should be released).

It is the ethical duty of researchers to safeguard study participants' rights. The researcher observed the following ethical considerations:

4.12.1 Ethical Approval

For the researcher to ensure that the research is conducted ethically, she requested approval from the UNISA Ethics Committee. The certificate is attached (Appendix 1).

4.12.2 Right to Privacy

An individual's right to privacy is the ability to choose when, how much, and under what general conditions personal information shall be disclosed to or kept private. The researcher ensured that the research was not more intrusive than it needed to be. Participants' privacy in relation to attitudes and records was maintained throughout the study. Furthermore, she collected data with the knowledge of participants, who were informed that their data would be kept in strictest confidence (Cusack et al., 2018).

4.12.3 Right to Confidentiality and Anonymity

The researcher must take the responsibility of maintaining the confidentiality of the data collected during the study. Confidentiality is defined as the management, by the researcher, of private information shared by a participant that must not be shared with others without the participant's consent (Meyer & Fourie, 2021). To maintain anonymity and reduce the possibility of unintentional revelation of sensitive information, all interviews with participants were conducted in a private area that was designated for this purpose at the research sites, namely the participant's homes. In addition, all participants were given a code, and identifying information was not entered into any database. All information was password protected, securely stored and only transmitted through secure means, namely password protected email.

The researcher used codes instead of participants' names and participants were informed that other researchers would examine the data for the purposes of enhancing the credibility of the study findings, following Holmes, Hagland Beyer and Cassidy, (2019). Personal information was not included in the information provided in the research report and when writing the report, the researcher described the findings in such a way that it made it impossible to identify individual cases from participants' responses. Anonymity was observed.

4.12.4 Right to Fair Treatment

The right to fair treatment is based on the ethical principle of justice, whereby each person is treated fairly and receives what he or she is due or owed. In this context, the researcher selected study participants for reasons directly related to the research problem. Hence, any bias that might have influenced participant selection was eliminated. Furthermore, fair treatment of participants was ensured in the study. During data collection, the researcher arrived at the site on time, and the data collection process was terminated after the agreed time of 20 to 30 minutes for each study participant. Additionally, data were collected using the same questionnaire for each study participant.

4.12.5 Right to Protection from Discomfort and Harm

The right to protection from discomfort and harm is based on the ethical principle of beneficence, which holds that one should do good, and, above all, do no harm (Leedy

& Ormrod, 2019). Minimal risk was expected for the participants in the study, which is defined by Mann, Treit, Geyer and Omen (2021) as risks not greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life or during routine tests or procedures. In this study, the researcher achieved this by scheduling prior briefing sessions with community representatives before the surveys were conducted with the participants. Expected risks related to participation were explained up front, and participants were able to refuse participation if they chose to. Risks were minimised throughout the study by giving due consideration to the sensitivity of the private and personal information.

4.12.6 Informed Consent

Informed consent is important for safeguarding study participants and respondents, as highlighted by Dankar, Gergely and Dankar (2019). Informed consent as prospective respondents' agreement to voluntarily participate in a study, which is reached after the participant assimilates essential information about the study. The purpose of the study was explained to potential subjects in the structured questionnaire. Prior to acquiring their informed consent, the study solicited their voluntary participation. The participants were guaranteed that there would be little to no risk associated with taking part in the study. The subjects were made aware that they might leave the study at any time without facing any consequences if they so desired. To ensure confidentiality, the following steps were taken into consideration:

- Consent letters were signed by participants after they had been made aware of the objectives of the study.
- The study was carried out during the day at the respondents' homes, and great care was taken to avoid interrupting the respondents' duties. Respondents were free to participate and could withdraw at any time.
- The identification of respondents was private and confidential. Any information exchanged would be used solely for the purpose of this study and would not be shared with outside parties without the original respondent's prior written agreement.

Responses and results, or findings, from the participants were aggregated with others and cannot be linked to a particular participant.

4.13 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter outlined the research methodology which included the research approach, design, data collection instruments and data collection methods that were used in the study. It also provided the basis for all choices made in terms of data collection methods and data analysis methods. The study used a quantitative research approach with a cross-sectional survey design to achieve the study objectives. Multi-regression modelling was used to analyse the data. Reliability and validity were discussed, including piloting the questionnaire. Ethical considerations for the study were also discussed.

The next chapter presents the results and discussions.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 outlined and described the research methods that were used in this study. This chapter presents the results of the study which sought to answer the following main research question: *How could poverty alleviation in LICs of urban areas in South Africa be addressed?* The main areas of discussion are linked to research objectives, study variables and influence of socio-demographic factors on the study variables.

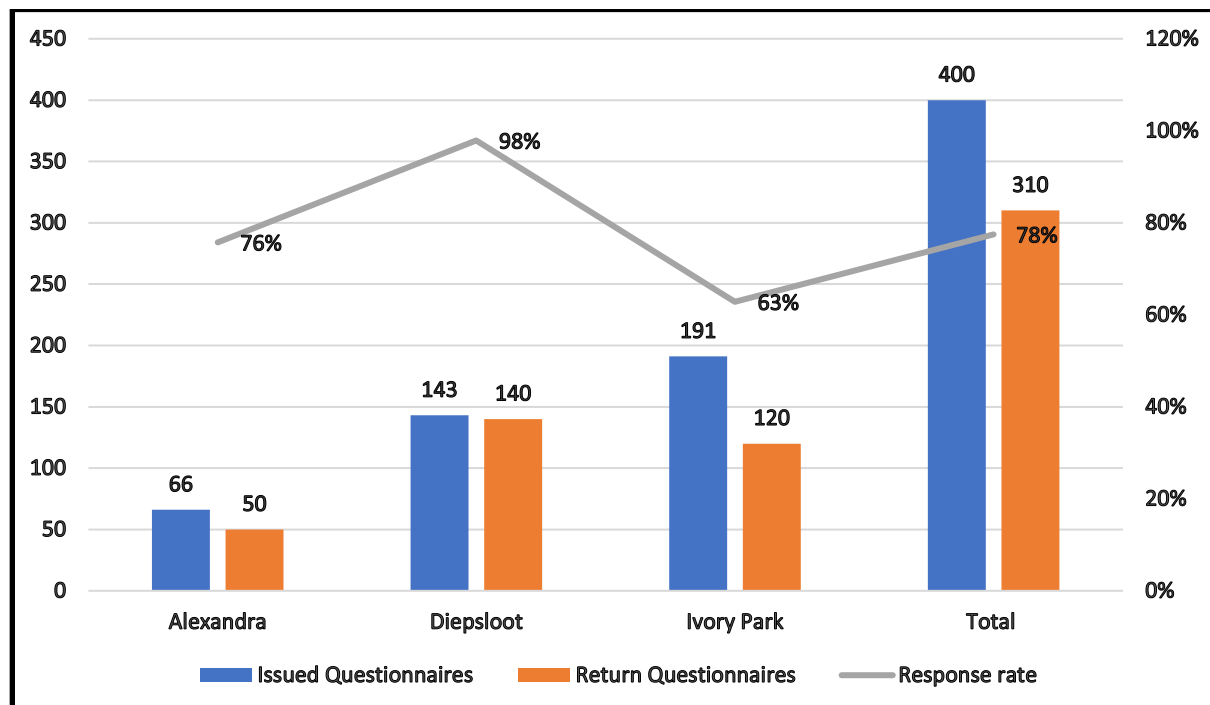
The chapter begins with a discussion on the response rate, validity and reliability. The results of demographic analysis of the respondents is also presented, followed by descriptive statistics of the key study variables, correlation analysis, regression analysis and addressing the study objectives. The chapter also presents a discussion of the key findings of the study. The findings of the study were used to develop a Framework for poverty alleviation in Low Income Communities (LIC) in urban areas of Gauteng Province by integrating the literature with the study objectives.

5.2 RESPONSE RATE, VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

5.2.1 Response Rate

Researchers rely significantly on the willingness of the intended respondents to positively answer the questionnaire's items in order to conduct a successful and relevant investigation. In social sciences, the response rate for a survey is a challenge as it is difficult to achieve a 100% response rate. Thus, a high response rate is the goal of researchers who employ a questionnaire or questionnaires to gather data. A higher response rates generate larger datasets with a higher statistical power and smaller confidence intervals, registered around sample statistics. Additionally, they often deliver results that are more credible to stakeholders and users (Sataloff & Vontela, 2021). Most research studies achieve a response rate of less than 100%, which implies that the researcher must control the non-response bias because of the negative effects it will have on reliability and validity of the survey research findings. Scheaf, Loignon, Webb and Heggestad (2023) however, concluded that percentages of between 50% and 80% have been found in published studies.

For this study, a total of 310 of the 400 questionnaires that were distributed were returned, representing a 78% response rate. Some 143 questionnaires were distributed in Diepsloot, with 140(97%) being returned; 191 questionnaires were distributed in Ivory Park, with 120(63%) were returned; and in Alexandra 66 questionnaires were distributed with 50(76%) being returned. It is therefore considered that the response rate was acceptable, and the findings could be reliable and valid. It should be noted that 39 questionnaires were unusable, so they were excluded (leaving only 271 questionnaires that could be analysed). In addition, some of the respondents did not answer all the questions and only those who answered a particular question were included in a table showing the results. Figure 5.1 shows the number of questionnaires issued versus the response rate.



Source: Author computations from collected data (2024)

Figure 5.1: Questionnaire response rate

5.2.2 Validity and Reliability

Validity and reliability tests are important in demonstrating whether constructs measure what they are supposed to measure. In quantitative research, validity can be achieved if the researcher is able to draw meaningful and useful inferences from scores on a particular instrument (Rose & Johnson, 2020). The questionnaire used to collect quantitative data was piloted and was fine-tuned based on the results that were

obtained from the pilot survey. The validity of the study was addressed from the planning stage to ensure credibility and worth throughout the process of the research. Nazar et al. (2022) point out that in research, a series of steps should be taken to check the validity of data being used and validation of findings occurs throughout the steps in the process of the research. It was ensured that measurement techniques used in the study were valid indicators of the variables being investigated. Generally, the respondents indicated that questions posed to them were straight forward and clear.

The coefficient alpha, also called Cronbach's alpha (α), is the psychometric test applied to measure the internal consistency of the instrument and was generated by SPSS. The normal range of α value is between 0.00 and +1.00. Higher values closer to +1 reflect higher reliability and a higher degree of internal consistency. Reliability coefficients > 0.65 are customarily regarded as acceptable, and values above 0.70 are regarded as more than adequate (Ellis & Roever, 2021). In this study, the α of the questionnaire was 0.84, meaning that it collected reliable data. This indicates a high internal consistency, confirming that the questionnaire reliably measured the same construct. The data gathered were captured and stored properly and SPSS was used to analyse and ensure integrity, reliability and accuracy. The respondents' responses were kept private and confidential.

5.3 DEMOGRAPHICS ANALYSIS

In this section, the demographic information concerning the target population is presented. It should be noted that for the combined townships, the responses tallied to 271, because of missing data. For all the variables, only questionnaires with all the questions answered were included in the calculations.

The first research objective of the present study was to identify the factors that affect poverty in the LICs of urban areas in South Africa. Hence, for this study, a major objective is to analyse the effect of households' socio-economic and demographic characteristics on poverty. The persistence of poverty is linked to its multidimensionality, it is complex, dynamic, institutionally embedded, and for example, a gender, social group, location specific phenomenon (Chaudhry, Malik & ul Hassan,

2009). Therefore, profiling the target population using demographic characteristics can never be overemphasised.

5.3.1 Household

5.3.1.1 *Household size: Number of people in a household*

Table 5.1 and Figure 5.2 show the household sizes in Low-Income Communities (LIC). They range from 1 (5.90%) to over 8 (7.01%). Over 72.32% of the households have a household size of between 1 and 5. Household size is one of the factors of poverty according to the literature (Fusco & Islam, 2020).

Table 5.1: Household size

Size	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
1	16	5.90	5.90
2	30	11.07	16.9
3	60	22.14	39.11
4	52	19.19	58.30
5	38	14.02	72.32
6	31	11.44	83.76
7	21	7.75	91.51
8	4	1.48	92.99
Over 8	19	7.01	100.00
Total	271	100.00	

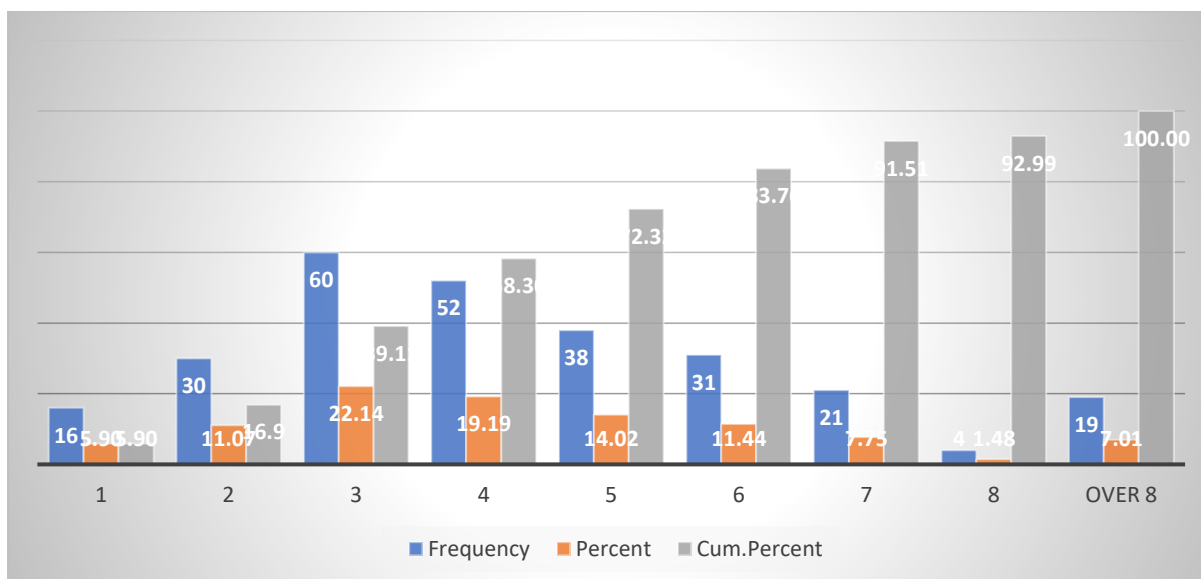


Figure 5.2: Household size

5.3.1.2 Number of families in a household

Table 5.2 and Figure 5.3 indicate that the overwhelming majority of households (84.13%) have only one family making up a household. Number of families in a household would expectedly increase the household size, hence the level of poverty.

Table 5.2: Number of families in the household

Size	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
1	228	84.13	84.13
2	29	10.70	94.83
3	7	2.58	97.42
Over 3	7	2.58	100.00
Total	271	100.00	

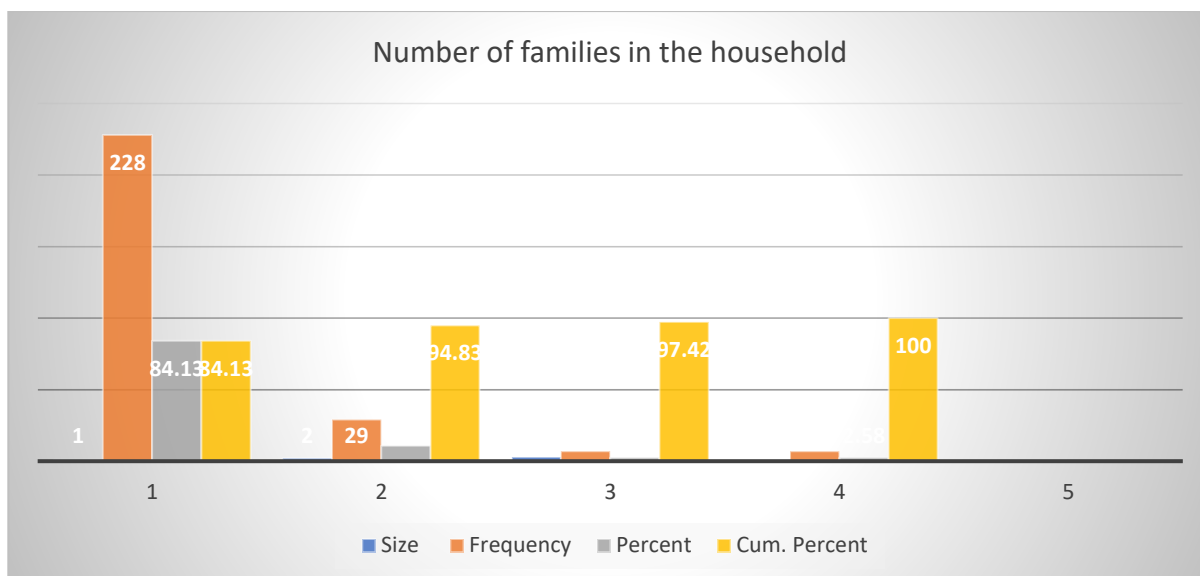


Figure 5.3: Number of families in the household

i. Number of adult males living in a household

Table 5.3 and Figure 5.4 indicate that the majority of households (53.14%) have only one adult male, followed by those with two adult males (23.62%). Very few (5.17%) have over three adult males living in a household. It has been mentioned above that gender is potentially a factor of poverty, hence profiling the target population by gender is important.

Table 5.3: Number of adult males in the household

Size	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
0	30	11.07	11.07
1	144	53.14	64.21
2	64	23.62	87.82
3	19	7.01	94.83
Over 3	14	5.17	100.00
Total	271	100.00	

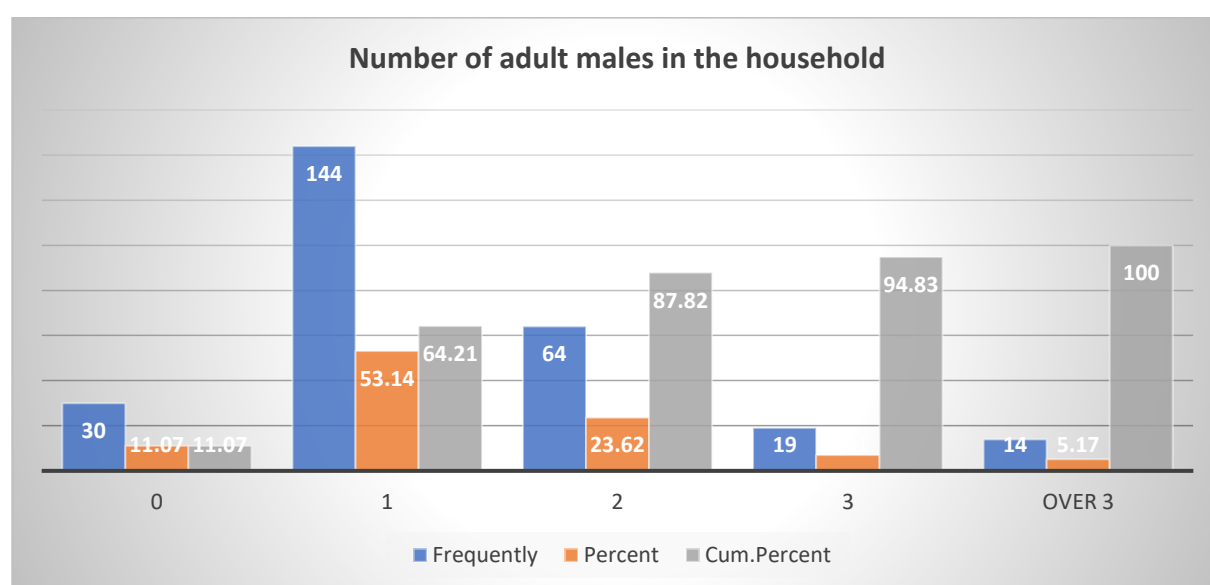


Figure 5.4: Number of adult males in the household

ii. Number of adult females living in a household

Similar results were obtained for adult females as for adult males. According to Table 5.4 and Figure 5.5, the majority of households (53.70%) have 1 adult female.

Table 5.4: Number of adult females in the house

Size	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
0	26	9.63	9.63
1	145	53.70	63.33
2	67	24.81	88.15
3	21	7.78	95.93

Size	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
Over 3	11	4.06	99.99
Total	271	99.99	

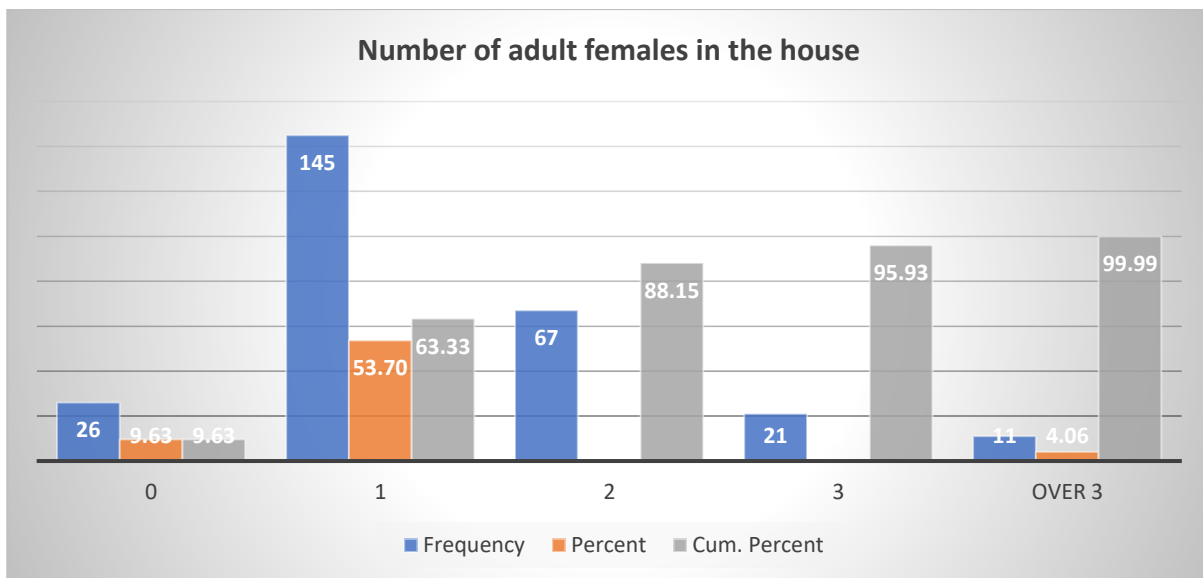


Figure 5.5: Number of adult females in the house

iii. Number of male children (under the age of 18) in the household

The number of male children in the family is depicted in Table 5.5 and Figure 5.6. A little over 95% of homes have no more than two male children, and 42.22% are without any.

Table 5.5: Number of male children in the household

Size	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
0	114	42.22	42.22
1	108	40.00	82.22
2	33	12.22	94.44
3	8	2.96	97.41
Over 3	7	2.59	100.00
Total	270	100.00	

Note: One (1) respondent did not answer this question

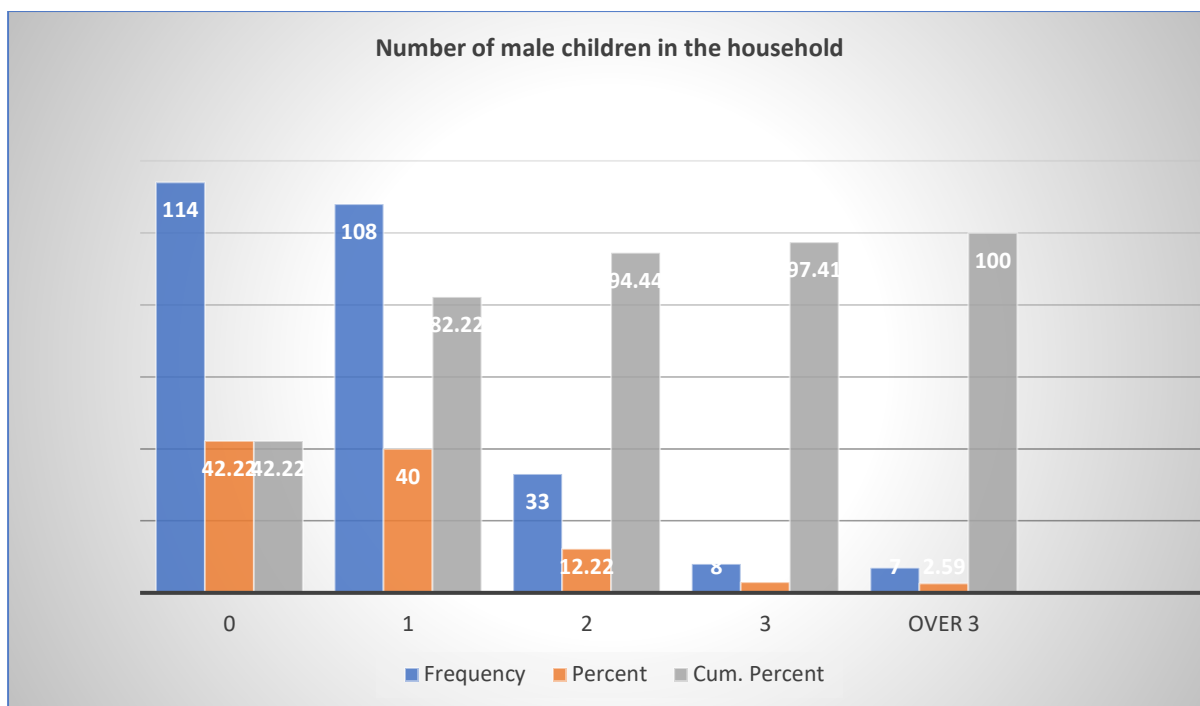


Figure 5.6: Number of male children in the household

iv. Number of female children (under the age of 18) in the household

Similarly, Table 5.6 and Figure 5.7 indicate that about 95% of the households have not more than 2 female children and 41.57% do not have any female children.

Table 5.6: Number of female children in the household

Size	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
0	111	41.57	41.57
1	110	41.20	82.77
2	33	12.36	95.13
3	8	3.00	98.13
Over 3	5	1.87	100.00
Total	267	100.00	

Note: Four (4) respondents did not answer this question

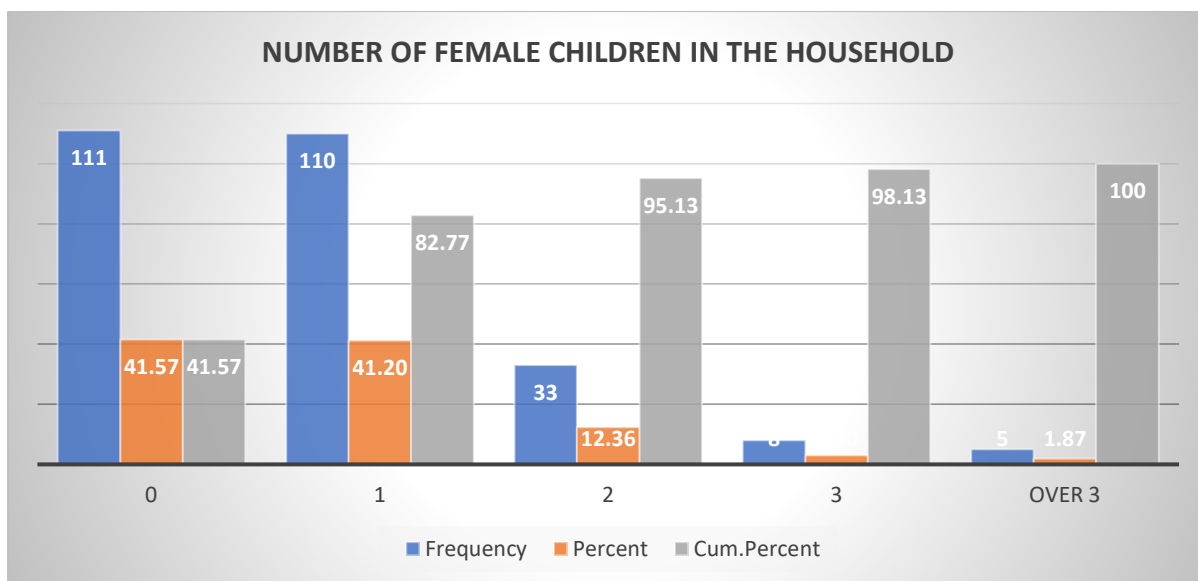


Figure 5.7: Number of female children in the household

v. Ethnic majority of the household

Table 5.7 and Figure 5.8 show the ethnic majority of a household. The results indicate the ethnicity of almost all households (98.88%) were black.

Table 5.7: Ethnic majority

Ethnicity	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
Blacks	264	98.88	98.88
Coloureds	1	0.37	99.25
White Africans	2	0.75	100.00
Indian/Asian	0	0	
Other	0	0	
Total	267	100.00	

Note: Four (4) respondents did not answer this question

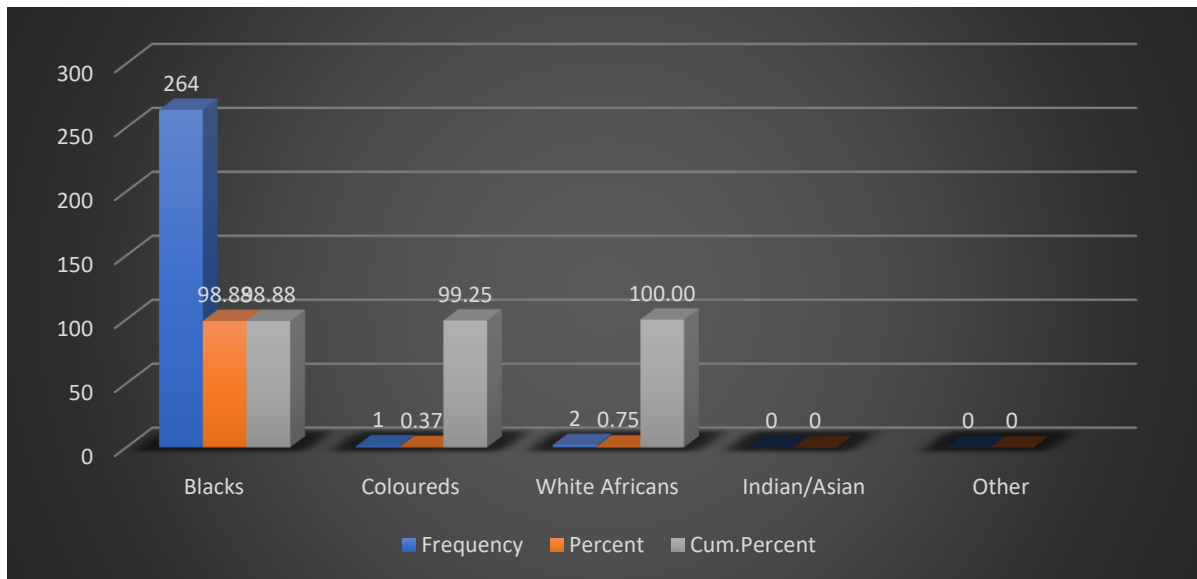


Figure 5.8: Ethnic Majority

vi. Orphans, single mothers or disabled persons in the household

Table 5.8 and Figure 5.9 show the results concerning orphans, single mothers or disabled persons in a household. The results indicate that the majority of the households (83.03%) had either orphans, single mothers or disabled persons.

Table 5.8: Orphans, single mothers or disabled persons in the household

	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
1	9	3.32	3.32
2	37	13.65	16.97
3	225	83.03	100.00
Total	271	100.00	

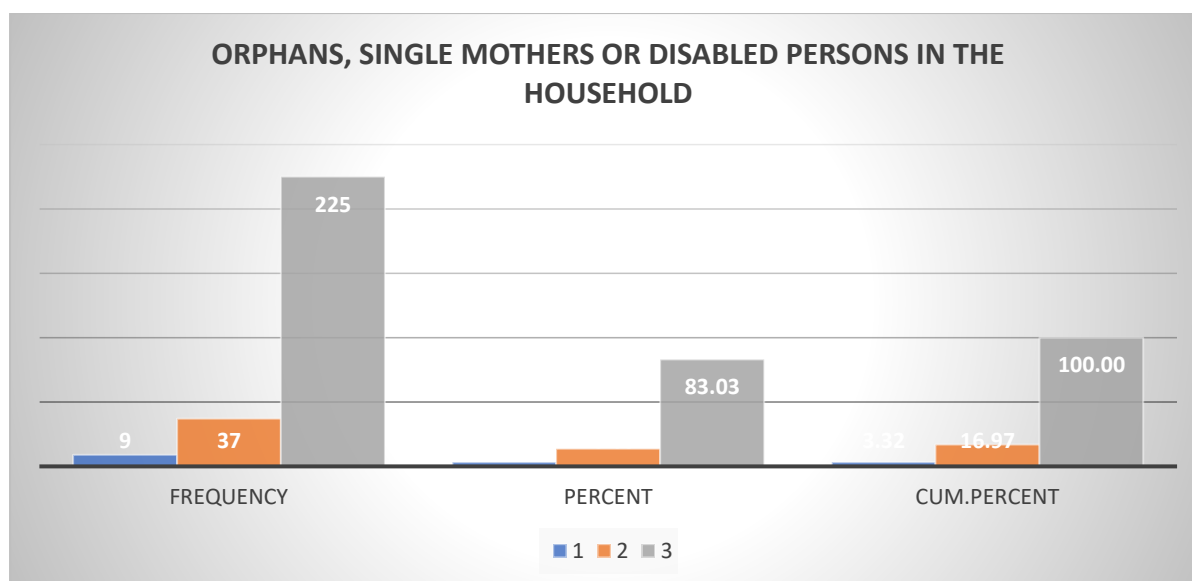


Figure 5.9: Orphans, single mothers or disabled persons in the household

5.3.2 Basic Needs

According to Table 5.9 and Figure 5.10, 90% of the households have access to basic needs. There is a negative relationship between basic needs and poverty (Srinivasan, 1977)

Table 5.9: Access to basic needs

	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
No	27	10.00	10.00
Yes	243	90.00	100.00
Total	270	100.00	

Note: One (1) respondent did not answer this question

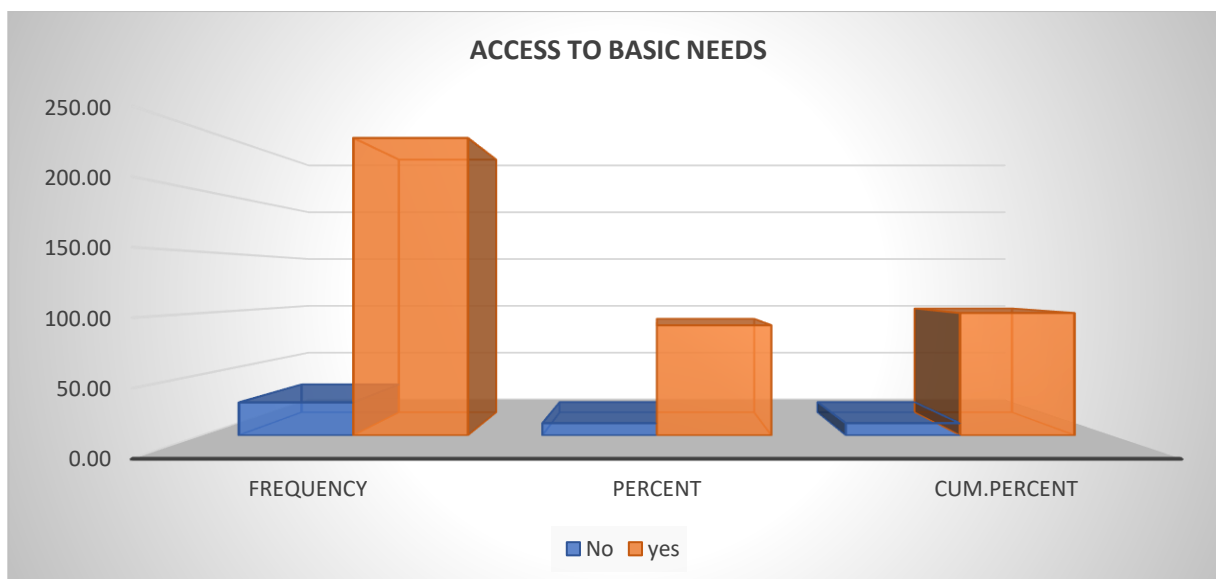


Figure 5.10: Access to basic needs

5.3.3 Identity Documents

According to Table 5.10 and Figure 5.11, practically every person living in the examined households (89.63%) in Johannesburg's low-income communities possessed an identity document.

Table 5.10: Identity documents

	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
Yes	242	89.63	89.63
No	28	10.37	100.00
Total	270	100.00	

Note: One (1) respondent did not answer this question

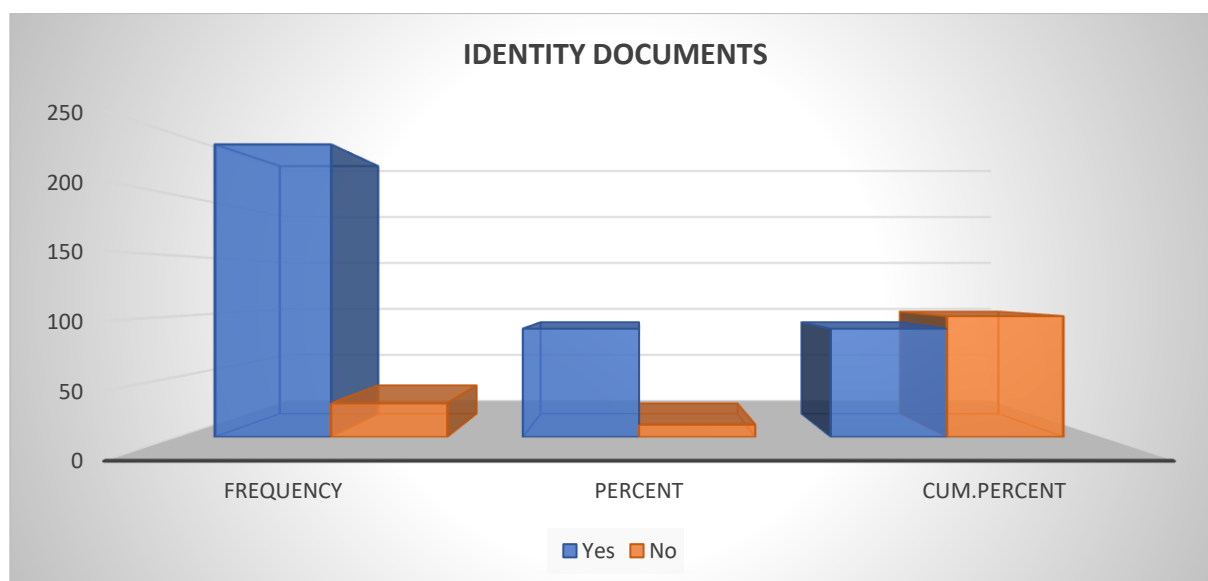


Figure 5.11: Identity documents

5.3.4 Health and Nutrition

Research indicates that poverty is linked with both nutrition and health (Taherdoost, 2022; Marchetti & Secondi, 2022). The findings regarding nutrition and health are presented in Table 5.11. Based on the table, the majority of households in the three locations did not experience food shortages for more than a month in the previous year and had access to clean drinking water (83.90%). In the event of illness, they occasionally received either conventional care from a traditional healer (61.69%) or modern medical care from a doctor, nurse or midwife. The table also shows that 86.57% of households do not have home care-based services including health, personal care and housekeeping, 89.59% do not have well-trained certified home care providers, and 90.77% do not have well-trained certified home health care providers. Nearly all households (97.77%) conveniently access health and social services where they live.

Table 5.11: Health and nutrition

	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
Has there been any shortage of food for more than 1 month during the past 12 months?			
Yes	70	29.54	29.54

	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
No	167	70.46	100.00
Total	237	100.00	
Does your household have access to clean drinking water?			
Yes	224	83.90	83.90
No	7	2.62	86.52
Yes, but only sometimes	34	12.73	99.25
Yes, always	2	0.75	100.00
Total	270	100.00	
In the event of sickness, do members of your household always receive modern medical treatment from a doctor, nurse, midwife or traditional care from a traditional healer			
Never	38	14.56	14.56
Sometimes	161	61.69	76.25
Yes, always	46	17.62	93.87
Nobody has been sick for the last 12 months	16	6.13	100.00
Total	261	100.00	
Does the community where you live have the following?			
	Yes	No	
Conveniently located health and social services			
Yes	263	97.77	97.77
No	6	2.23	100.00
Total	269	100.00	
Conveniently located emergency care centres			
Yes	229	86.09	86.09
No	37	13.91	100.00
Total	266	100.00	

	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
Home care-based services including health, personal care, and housekeeping	36	13.43	13.43
Yes	36	13.43	13.43
No	232	86.57	100.00
Total	268		
Well-trained certified home care providers			
Yes	28	10.41	10.41
No	241	89.59	100.00
Total	269	100.00	
Well-trained certified home health care providers			
Yes	17	6.39	6.39
No	249	93.61	100.00
Total	100.00		
A variety of health care professionals including specialists			
Yes	9	3.38	3.38
No	257	96.62	100.00
Total	100.00		

5.3.5 Material Wealth

Taherdoost (2022) alluded that there is a connection between poverty and material. The responses to the questions about material riches are displayed in Table 5.12. The table shows that the majority of respondents' homes (70.99%) are of a standard quality, that most households (60.00%) either own their primary residences (60.00%) or rent them (32.69%), but that most households (81.99%) do not own cars or motorcycles. By observation, the majority of these homes are shacks.

Table 5.12: Material wealth

	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
What is the quality of the respondent's house like?			
Below standard	67	25.57	25.57
Standard	186	70.99	96.56
Above standard	9	3.44	100.00
Total	262	100.00	
Does the household own a car or a motorbike?			
No	214	81.99	81.99
Yes	47	18.01	100.00
Total	261	100.00	
Does the household own a satellite dish or a refrigerator?			
No	96	36.78	36.78
Yes	165	63.22	100.00
Total	261	100.00	
Do you own or rent your primary home – or do you have some type of living arrangement, such as living with a family member or friend?			
Own	156	60.00	60.00
Rent	85	32.69	92.69
Other type of living arrangement	19	7.31	???
Total	260	100.00	

5.3.6 Education and Knowledge

Table 5.13 presents the responses to the questions that concern education and knowledge. Key findings show that education and knowledge has a significant positive impact on wellbeing (Azzahra et al., 2024). The table indicates that the highest level of education among the adult members of the households (including the household head) of the majority of households is 'senior secondary school or completed matric' (86.82%); that in 21.74% of the households, none of the children aged between 7 and 18 years old in the household are enrolled at a school (21.74%), and only in 43.08% of the households, all children aged between 7 and 18 years attend school. The table also shows that out of 67.68% of households, none of the household members has any extra vocational training (including welding, electrical or mechanical skills). It is

interesting to note that in Alexandra, only 27.24% of the households consider themselves to be poor.

Table 5.13: Education and knowledge

	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
What is the highest level of education among the adult members of your household (including the household head)?			
Primary school or lower	46	17.83	17.83
Secondary school or completed matric	178	86.82	86.82
Post Matric qualifications. (certificate, diploma, degree)	34	13.18	100.00
Total	258	100.00	
Are there any children aged between 7 and 18 years old in your household attending school (children funded by your household)?			
None attend school	55	21.74	21.74
Not all attend school	84	33.20	54.94
All attend school	109	43.08	98.02
No children aged between 7 and 18	5	1.98	100.00
Total	253	100.00	
Are there any household members with additional vocational training (any other training such as welding, electrical or mechanical)?			
None	178	67.68	67.68
One person	77	29.28	96.96
More than one person	8	3.04	100.00
Total	263	100.00	
Do you consider your household poor?			
Yes, it is poor	67	27.24	27.24
Fairly	159	64.63	91.87
No	20	8.13	100.00
Total	246	100.00	

5.3.7 Economic Sphere

Table 5.14 shows the responses to the questions that concern the economic sphere. Taherdoost (2022) found that economic aspect is a significant contributor to poverty.

The table indicates that only 30.45% of the households in low-income communities had a salary/wage as the most reliable and important source of income for their households over the past 12 months; the majority has one source of income (61.38%); 89.38% do not pay any school fees for their children. Most families rely on government social grants. Only 50.57% of the households, families could afford basic food stuff such as mealie meal, beans, bread and sugar. It is interesting to note that only about 30% consider their households to be poor. Even though the rest of the households have more than one source of income, the total income earned per hour is far less than the minimum wage prescribed by government.

Table 5.14: Economic sphere

	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
Which of the following have been the most reliable and important sources of income for your household over the past 12 months?			
Salary/Wages	81	30.45	30.45
Government grant	112	42.11	72.56
Other Services (tradesman, workshop, spaza etc.)	73	27.44	100.00
Total	266	100.00	
How many sources of income do you have?			
One	151	61.38	61.38
More than one	95	38.62	100.00
Total	246	100.00	
Do you pay any school fees for the children?			
No	202	89.38	89.38
Yes, private school	24	10.62	100.00
Total	226	100.00	
Does your family afford basic food stuff such as mealie meal, beans, bread and sugar			
Yes	134	50.57	50.57
No	8	3.02	53.58
Sometimes	123	46.42	100.00
Total	265	100.00	
Do you consider your household poor?			
Yes, it is poor	79	29.92	29.92
Fairly	157	59.47	89.39

	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
No	28	10.61	100.00
Total	264	100.00	

5.3.8 Social Sphere

Table 5.15 presents the responses to the questions pertaining to the social sphere, indicating that poverty also has a social dimension (Taherdoost, 2022). According to the table, the majority of households (60.30%) in the township have neighbours who are reasonably willing to lend a hand when needed (either financially or labour-wise), almost half of households (49.44%) have feelings of mutual trust, but 37.74% of households have neighbours who frequently have disagreements. In addition, the table indicates that the majority of the households (63.12%) have daily access to news or information from TV, newspaper or radio and 79.70% of households occasionally have family members that participate in decision-making processes in the township. Only 9% of the households always participate in decision-making processes in the townships.

Table 5.15: Social sphere

	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
How willing are township community members to help each other (doing work or financially)?			
Not very willing	80	29.96	29.96
Reasonably willing	161	60.30	90.26
Very willing	26		100.00
Total	267	100.00	
How are feelings of mutual trust among community members in the township?			
Low	116	43.45	43.45
Medium	132	49.44	92.88
High (most people are trustworthy)	19	7.12	100.00
Total	267	100.00	
Do conflicts frequently arise between people of families in the township?			
Yes, frequently	100	37.74	37.74
No	40	15.09	52.83
Rarely occur	125	47.17	100.00
Total	265	100.00	
Does your household have daily access to news or information from TV, newspaper or radio?			

	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
NO	42	15.97	15.97
Yes, from one source	166	63.12	79.09
Yes, from more than one news/ information source	55	20.91	100.00
Total	263	100.00	
Do you or other members of your household participate in decision –making processes in you township (not including decisions made by local councils in resolving disputes)			
Never	30	11.28	11.28
Sometimes	212	79.70	90.98
Always	24	9.02	100.00
Total	266	100.00	

5.3.9 Infrastructure and Services

Poverty is affected by infrastructure and services (Taherdoost, 2022). Table 5.16 shows the responses to the questions pertaining to infrastructure and services. The data shows that nearly all households (92.08%) responded that the community has easy and accessible public transportation; that this transportation is reliable (79.32%); and that this transportation is provided by the government (78.13%). They however, reported that public transport provided by government for free is not safe for school children (69.59%). The table also indicates that for most of the households (77.64%), children at school receive food (feeding scheme); the community does not receive any other government support, for example, a subsidy for food, food parcels or any other form of subsidy (56.82%); they do not receive non-government support programmes from companies, civil society and other community organisations (71.43%).

The majority of households, however, have sports facilities, park or other places considered suitable for recreation in the township (76.60%); and the facilities are conveniently located and easily accessible (76.76%). Almost half of the households reported that the roads in the township are tarred (49.43%) but they are not well maintained (76.25%). The results also indicate that 42.86% consider their household to be unhappy, which is expected because the results also indicate that about 30% of the households consider themselves poor and almost 60% consider themselves fairly poor.

Table 5.16: Infrastructure and services

	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
Does your community have accessible and convenient public transport?			
No	10	3.77	3.77
Yes	244	92.08	95.85
Sometimes	11	4.15	100.00
Total	265	100.00	
How reliable is your public transport?			
Not reliable	6	2.26	2.26
Reliable	211	79.32	81.58
High (available all the time)	49	18.42	100.00
Total	266	100.00	
Does your community have reliable government funded school transport?			
Yes, frequently	29	11.33	11.33
No	200	78.13	89.46
Sometimes	27	10.55	100.01
Total	256	100.01	
Is the public transport provided by government for free safe for the children?			
No	135	69.59	69.59
Yes	53	27.32	96.91
Yes, most of the time	6	3.09	100.00
Total	194	100.00	
Do the children at school receive food (feeding scheme)?			
Yes	184	77.64	77.64
No	39	16.46	94.10
Sometimes	14	5.90	100.00
Total	237	100.00	
Does your community receive any other government support for example subsidy on food, food parcels or any other form of subsidy etc.			
Yes	28	10.61	10.61
No	150	56.82	67.43
Yes, sometimes	86	32.58	100.01
Total	264	100.011	
Does your community receive nongovernment support programmes from companies, civil society and other community organisations?			

	Frequency	Percent	Cum. Percent
Yes	16	6.02	6.02
No	190	71.43	77.45
Yes, sometimes	60	22.56	100.01
Total	266	100.01	
Do you have sports facilities, park or other places considered suitable for recreation in the township?			
Yes	203	76.60	76.60
No	62	23.40	100.00
Total	265		
Are the facilities conveniently located and easily accessible?			
Yes	200	76.76	75.76
No	64	24.24	100.00
Total	264	100.00	
Are the roads in the township tarred?			
Yes	131	49.43	49.43
No	134	50.57	100.00
Total	265	100.00	
Are the tarred roads well maintained?			
Yes	23	8.81	8.81
No	199	76.25	85.06
Yes, sometimes	39	14.94	100.00
Total	261		
Do you consider your household to be happy?			
No it is unhappy	114	42.86	42.86
Reasonably happy	110	41.35	84.21
Yes, it is happy	42	15.79	100.00
Total	266	100.00	

5.4 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

5.4.1 Mean and Standard Deviations of the Key Variables

This sub-section presents the mean values, standard deviation and correlations and normality tests for the dependent variable, poverty. Variables such as the social factor,

economic factor, political factor, assets and social exclusion, were derived by adding all the items of the questionnaire that were used to measure the variable.

Table 5.17 presents the average values of the variables. The table indicates that on average, the respondents regarded themselves as fairly poor. Most respondents were unemployed; with secondary education; and sometimes participates in decision-making processes in their township.

Table 5.17: Average values of the study variables

Variable	No. of obs.	Mean	Std. error	Median	Mode	Lower boundary	Upper boundary
Poverty	264	2.193	.608	2 (Fairly)	2	1	3
Household size	271	4.528	2.515	4	3	1	19
Unemployment	266				0 (unemployed)	0	1
Social factor	261	9.548	1.894	10		5	14
Economic factor	220	5.668	1.203	5		5	13
Political factor	190	21.179	2.958	21		15	34
Assets	260	6.192	1.143			4	9
Education	258	1.953	.556	2 (secondary)	2	1	3
Social exclusion	266	1.977	.451	2 (participates sometimes)	2	1	3

5.4.2 Normality test, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Test for Poverty

5.4.2.1 Skewness and Kurtosis

Table 5.18 shows the value of Pr(skewness) and Pr (Kurtosis) for poverty. The value of Pr(skewness) ($p=.407$) is higher than .05, meaning that the distribution is not skewed. The value of Pr (Kurtosis) ($p=0.062$) is also higher than 0.05, therefore the distribution does not have kurtosis.

Table 5.18: Skewness and Kurtosis

	No. of observations	Pr (Skewness)	Pr (Kurtosis)	Adj chi2(2)	Prob>chi2
Poverty	264	0.407	0.062	4.21	0.122

This means that the skewness of the variable is not significantly different from 0; and the kurtosis is not significantly less than -3 or greater than 3, the cut-off points for normality. Hence, poverty is normally distributed, which is the assumption of regression analysis.

5.4.2.2 Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests

Tests of normality also included the Shapiro-Wilk test. Stata was used to do the normality test. The data is considered normal if the Shapiro-Wilk test probability value is higher than 0.05. If it is below 0.05 then the data deviates significantly from a normal distribution. The results are presented in Table 5.19.

Table 5.19: Shapiro-Wilk test

	No. of observations	W	V	z	Prob>z
Poverty	264	0.997	0.585	-1.251	0.895

The results indicate that the variable, poverty, is normally distributed because Prob>z = 0.895>.05.

5.5 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Before the regression analysis, correlation analysis was done to investigate the relationships among the variables, but most importantly, to have a rough idea of the possible factors of poverty. In addition, this analysis was done to see whether, when the regression analysis is done, potentially, there is likely a serious multicollinearity problem. Normally, in statistics, the analyst does correlation analysis first before regression analysis to find the potential factors of a dependent variable. Hence, the

analysis was done to indicate the possible independent variables that could be included in the regression model. A serious multicollinearity problem can occur in regression analysis when some independent variables are highly correlated. Table 5.20 presents the correlations between variables.

Table 5.20: Correlations

Variable	Poverty	Household Size	Social Factor	Economic Factor	Political Factor	Assets	Education	Social Exclusion
Poverty	1							
Household size	0.006	1						
Social factor	-0.110	-0.093	1					
Economic factor	0.028	-0.076	0.195*	1				
Political factor	-0.118	-0.228*	0.465*	0.211*	1			
Assets	-0.514*	0.094	0.096	0.042	0.079	1		
Education	-0.140*	0.027	0.117	0.052	0.117	0.307*	1	
Social exclusion	0.076	-0.006	0.351*	0.040	0.160*	-0.022	0.076	1

Note: * means that the correlation is significant at the 5% level.

The table shows that poverty is negatively correlated with assets ($r = -0.514^*$) and education ($r = 0.140^*$). The economic factor is positively correlated with the social factor ($r = 0.195^*$). The political factor is negatively correlated with household size ($r = -0.228^*$) and positively correlated with the social factor ($r = 0.465^*$) and the economic factor ($r = 0.211^*$). Education is positively correlated with assets or material wealth ($r = 0.307^*$); and social exclusion is positively correlated with the political factor ($r = 0.160^*$).

5.6 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Regression analysis is used to ascertain the relationship between independent variables and a dependent variable; in this way, the analysis helps to examine or identify the factors that affect the dependent variable. In addition, regression analysis helps to determine the extent to which a particular independent variable affects the dependent variable. Hence, this means that, in this study, the regression analysis was used to address the first two research objectives, namely (1) the factors that affect poverty and poverty alleviation in urban areas in South Africa, and (2) to determine the extent to which the factors of poverty affect poverty in the low-income communities of urban areas in South Africa. The results of the study presented and discussed in this section are organised according to the objectives of the study. Each objective is reported as (a) and (b) where a is the results analysis excluding social exclusion while b includes social exclusion. It should be noted that in this regression analysis, the alpha coefficient value used for significance is 1%.

5.6.1 Objective 1: Identify factors that affect poverty in the LICs of urban areas in South Africa

For the regression analysis, the dependent variable was poverty, the mediator was social exclusion, and the independent variables were household size, unemployment, assets, education, social factor, economic factor and the political/legal factor; social exclusion was the mediating variable. Two regression models were fitted. The first one (a) included all the independent variables excluding the mediator. The second one (b) was fitted on both the independent variables and the mediator to find out whether there are changes in the coefficients of the independent variables. The first regression model is shown in Table 5.21.

Table 5.21: Regression model

Regression model excluding social exclusion						
Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs. = 159 F(7, 152) = 217.30 Adj R-squared = 0.909		
Model	755.503	7	107.929	Prob > F	=	0.000
Residual	75.497	152	.497			
Total	831	159	5.226	Root MSE	=	.705
	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P>t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Household size	.046*	.020	2.35	0.020	.007	.086
Unemployment	-.244*	.144	-1.70	0.092	-.529	.040
Social factor	.041	.032	1.28	0.203	-.023	.105
Economic factor	.085*	.046	1.84	0.068	-.006	.176
Political factor	.076*	.018	4.33	0.000	.041	.111
Assets	-.120*	.047	-2.55	0.012	-.213	-.027
Education	.108	.103	1.05	0.296	-.096	.313
Regression model including social exclusion.						
Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs. = 159 F (8, 151) = 206.82 Adj R-squared = 0.912		
Model	761.505	8	95.188	Prob > F	=	0.000
Residual	69.495	151	.460			
Total	831	159	5.226	Root MSE	=	0.678

*

	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P>t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Household size	.042*	.019	2.21	0.028	.005	.080
Unemployment	-.166	.140	-1.18	0.239	-.443	.111
Social factor	-.009	.034	-0.27	0.789	-.076	.058
Economic factor	.071	.045	1.60	0.112	-.017	.159
Political factor	.066*	.017	3.82	0.000	.032	.100

	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P>t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Assets	-.146*	.046	-3.18	0.002	-.237	-.056
Education	.091	.100	0.91	0.365	-.106	.288
Social exclusion	.484*	.134	3.61	0.000	.219	.749

* Means that the coefficient is statistically significant

As indicated in Table 5.21, the first model ($F=217.30$, $p=.000<.01$) is highly significant at the 1% level. The Adj. R-square is 0.909, which means that 90.9% of the variation in the data is explained by this model. Household size (coef.=.046, $p=0.020<.05$), unemployment (coef. =-0.244, $p=.092<.1$), economic factor (coef.=.085, $p=.068<.1$), political factor (coef.=.076, $p=.000<.01$) and assets (coef. =.120, $p=.012<.05$) are significant.

The second model ($F=206.82$, $p=.000<.01$) is also highly significant at the 1% level. The Adj. R-square has increased slightly from 0.838 to 0.912, which means that now, 91.2% of the variation in the data is explained by the model. This time around, household size (coef.=.042, $p=.028<.05$) is significant; the magnitude of the coefficient of unemployment, has decreased from “.244” to “.166” and it is now not significant. It is interesting to note that now, the economic factor (coef.=.071, $p=.112>.1$) and education (coef.=.091, $p=.365>.1$) are not significant. Social exclusion (coef.=.484, $p=.000<.01$) is highly significant at the 1% level.

The above results imply that social exclusion mediates the effects of unemployment, the economic factor as well as that of education on poverty, making them insignificant. Unemployment increases poverty, whereas the economic factor, political factor and assets decrease it. In other words, unemployment has been found to negatively affect poverty and poverty alleviation.

Economic factor means ‘being economically active’; this is a situation where for example, the household head is either being employed, engaged in an economic activity or owning (or running) a business. In this study, this economic factor was measured by three variables, namely, (1) whether the family affords basic food stuff such as mealie meal, beans, bread and sugar or not, (2) the number of sources of income someone has, and (3) whether he or she pays any school fees for the children. The political/legal factor (infrastructure and services as indicator) was measured using

12 variables, including for example, (1) whether his or her community has accessible and convenient public transport, (2) how reliable his or her public transport is, (3) whether his or her community has reliable government funded school transport. Assets meant material wealth, including (1) the quality of the respondent's house, (2) whether the household owns a car or a motorbike, (3) whether the household owns a satellite dish or a refrigerator.

The first study objective was to identify the factors that affect poverty in the LICs of urban areas in South Africa. With these results, it has been found that the factors that affect poverty in low-income communities in urban areas in South Africa are household size, unemployment, economic factor, political factor and assets. The results imply that household size and unemployment increase poverty, whereas the economic factor, political factor and assets decrease it. These results are supported by the reviewed literature (see Chapter 3). It was found that lack of education and skills, ill health and disability, asset poverty traps (Younger, 2020), unemployment (Burger, von Fintel & Van der Watt, 2018), social exclusion (Brotons, 2021; Cuesta et al., 2024; Scutella, Wilkins & Kostenko, 2009), and lack of infrastructure (Akinci, 2018) increases poverty.

Studies (Du Toit & Neves, 2017; Nam et al., 2008; Saunders, 2015) indicate that lack of education and skills, ill health and disability, lack of assets, social exclusion as well as lack of infrastructure affect poverty and poverty alleviation negatively.

South Africa is faced with many structural issues, the most prevalent of which is unemployment, which exacerbates problems with poverty, social and economic inequality within the country. According to Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS) (2024) when comparing the employment figures for quarters 1 and 2 of the year 2024, in Q1:2024, the unemployment rate was at 32,9%, it increased by 0.6% to 33.5% in Q2: 2024. It is further indicated that the absorption rate decreased by 0.4% to 40.3% and the labour force participation rate decreased by 0.1% to 60.6% during the same period. The number of employed people decreased by 92 000 to 16.7million. The majority of the people who lost their jobs were in trade followed by agriculture then private households (Stats SA, 2024). People living below the upper-bound poverty line increased. Unemployment is the critical economic factor that significantly affects

poverty in urban areas of South Africa. It has been found that South Africa has the highest rate of unemployment, particularly among young people, creating a labour market crisis. Lack of job opportunities and inadequate employment policies result in a large portion of the population being unable to secure stable and decent-paying jobs, leading to financial insecurity and poverty. Extensive evidence exists that, although South Africa experienced a slight economic growth at some point in time after 1994, at the end of the second quarter of 2023, there were still about 74 000 fewer jobs than at the end of 2019 with women and youth persistently more impacted (World Bank, 2023). The majority of people in urban townships are employed in local businesses. Creating employment alone does not solve the problem of poverty, for when the labour market increases, the real wage decreases. Most people are involved in the informal economy, which results in an increasing number of the working poor. The majority of informal workers are paid below the country's minimum wage, which has prompted the government to intervene, through a range of grants (a phenomenon that has made the poor government dependent). Policies, therefore, should focus on ways of increasing the income of the working poor.

Most people in urban townships are highly dependent on township businesses, which are mostly informal; hence, it becomes difficult to access market opportunities due to the high level of non-compliance. The additional contributing factor to the high unemployment rate in urban areas is poor education levels which produce high levels of unskilled labour. Low-skilled labour means that there is a greater low-skilled pool of human resources and a reduced specialised pool of skills. It was revealed that a large number of people stay in the bracket of low-income earners who then survive through debt or do not survive at all, resulting in their families depending on government grants, free education and food parcels with no housing. South Africa has the challenge of strict labour laws such as the minimum wage, which has prevented most industries, such as restaurants, hotels and cleaning services, from hiring locals due to the demand for a living wage. The majority of industries, such as those above, are hiring foreign nationals, which alleviates the pressure of the minimum wage prescribed by labour laws. Lack of proper training, such as internship opportunities, is due to changes in government and private systems to enhance skills. High numbers of immigrants from the neighbouring countries are providing cheap labour and flooding

the South African labour market. Slow economic growth exacerbated by the pandemic in 2020, has resulted in a high unemployment rate. Poor economic activities cause people to move to urban areas, which then bear the brunt of more poverty and higher unemployment levels year on year.

The results of this study are supported by previous studies reported in the literature that poverty in South Africa is influenced by various factors, including lack of education, slow growth, inequality, health and disability, asset poverty traps, unemployment, social exclusion, corruption and a lack of infrastructure (Plagerson, 2023). Assets, including physical and human resources, are considered valuable assets that contribute to an individual's well-being or economic status (Gumede, 2021). Low asset levels are an indicator of a poverty trap as poor communities often lack sources of income for asset-generating activities. Households are unable to accumulate assets because of liquidity and credit constraints, which are frequently brought on by social exclusion, high levels of inequality and illiteracy. In this study, it is hypothesised that social exclusion causes poverty, low-income, lack of access to jobs, discrimination and low educational attainment. Failure to secure a job results in individuals not being able to accumulate assets, and initial asset levels becoming a determining factor for poverty levels. In the past, poverty was more prevalent in rural areas, where land ownership was vital for survival (Sharaunga & Mudhara, 2021). However, many poor people lack access to land and other key assets, such as credit and savings, which could assist in accumulating those assets. The asset-based poverty trap is prevalent in poor households worldwide, as people with low asset levels are unable to enter or expand into skilled non-farm activities.

Due to a lack of employment or a source of income and high levels of immigrants in urban areas of South Africa, people who have no access to houses are living in shacks and squatter settlements. Every year, there is an increase in the number of people living in squatter camps in Gauteng. The RDP programme was created by the government and the private sector in response to the housing shortage in South Africa. Its goal is to give low-income or subsidised housing to South Africans who are unable to afford to buy property. This has created difficulties because there is currently a backlog of more than 1.2 million people waiting to be assigned RDP housing because the demand for affordable housing exceeds the supply.

Unemployment is a temporary economic condition where working-age individuals are unable to find jobs. This is primarily due to the exclusion of certain groups from the labour market, particularly in historically poor housing conditions like slums in inner-city areas. Factors such as a lack of financial incentives, educational qualifications, and social networks contribute to this exclusion. Long-term unemployment can lead to health issues, skill decay, declining aspirations and evaporating self-confidence.

Social exclusion is a significant factor, as it explains observed patterns of poverty where afflicted households or individual members of a distinct group are based on factors such as socio-economic status, ethnicity, race, nationality, spatial location, political affiliation and religion. This exclusion trap violates the principle of equality of opportunity through practices of marginalisation and discrimination, similar to the 'inequality traps' labelled by the World Bank.

This implies that for poverty alleviation to occur in urban areas of South Africa, poverty alleviation players such as government should make sure that people are educated and have skills, and come up with programmes and policies that would, for example, deal with social exclusion and encourage small business incubation to grow small business in order to create employment. Since entrepreneurship is one of the strategies for eradicating unemployment and boosting economic growth, there are more entrepreneur incubation centres in townships that are supported by the government, academic institutions and private businesses. These incubations offer support and funding to entrepreneurs in order to help them expand their businesses.

Baker (2020) in his article alluded to the fact that the provision of basic infrastructure for poor households leads to improved quality of life for the poor in different ways, such as improved economic and social activity and improvements in living areas, which lead to improvements in property values (Amis, 2001). Infrastructure development is crucial for economic development.

Zhou, Kori, Sibanda and Nhundu (2022) concurred that household size and education are the two main factors influencing poverty in South Africa's urban and rural areas, with larger households being more likely to be impoverished and higher levels of education being associated with lower levels of poverty. Family size with the number of children are significant factors that influence poverty; the probability of poverty

increases with the size of the household. Results are also consistent with literature that children from homes with educated parents and more educational resources at home are more likely to succeed in school and, in turn, later in life, making the home environment one of the most significant determinants of student outcomes (Santosh, 2023).

5.6.2 Objective 2: Determine the extent to which the factors of poverty affect poverty in low-income communities in urban areas in South Africa

(a) Excluding social exclusion

The results obtained in this study indicate the extent to which the factors of poverty affect poverty in low-income communities in urban areas in South Africa. The results are consistent and similar to those found in the literature. Because poverty was measured from 1 (poor), 2 (fairly poor) to 3 (non-poor), on average, if the household size increases by one (1) person, poverty level decreases by 0.046 in the range of between 1 and 3. This may be contradicting economic thinking that if the family is battling to put food on the table, then you increase the dependents, poverty would be expected to increase, because the household per capita income will decrease. According to Meyer and Niyimbanira (2016), the research on how household size affects poverty levels is conflicting, with some findings suggesting a negative relationship between poverty and household size and others suggesting a positive one (Orbeta, 2005; Schiller, 1995; Virola & Martinez Jr, 2007). Therefore, the study results support and are consistent with the findings of the previous studies in the literature. Meyer and Nishimwe-Niyimbanira (2016) discovered that different elasticities were either consistent with the traditional belief that poverty and household size are roughly orthogonal or even negatively associated, or that larger households are typically poorer. In this study, because of the way poverty was conceptualised and measured, poverty elasticities were not considered and the extent of effects of the independent variables were not measured in terms of marginal effects.

Anyanwu et al. (2022) found that larger households are more likely to be poor than smaller households. This aligns with Fonta et al., (2020) that the size of a household has an impact on poverty, it has been found that a one-person household drastically

and adversely lowers poverty, whereas the likelihood of living in poverty gradually rises with the number of family members.

On average, if a household head becomes unemployed, his or her poverty level increases by 0.244, which aligns with Matsebula and Yu (2020). The social factor ($p=0.203>.1$) is not significant, which implies that household head's social support in the community does not affect poverty. On average, if a household head's economic status or factor increases by one (1) unit, his or her poverty level decreases by .085. (see Kumar, Srivastava & Singh, 2018). On average, if the political/legal factor (Infrastructure and services factor) increases by one (1) unit, his or her poverty level decreases by 0.076. This factor is highly significant at the 1 percent level (see Appiah, Baldwin, Karian & Udry, 2020). On average, if the household head's assets increase by one (1) unit, his or her poverty level decreases by 0.120. On average, if the household head goes back to school to study further by, say from primary school to secondary school, or from secondary school to complete a post-matric qualification, his or her poverty level decreases by .108. This result is supported by researchers such as Waite, McGregor and McNutty (2018).

(b) Including social exclusion

On average, if the household size increases by one (1) person, the poverty level decreases by 0.042 in the range of between 1 and 3. This time, 'Unemployment' ($p=0.239>.1$) is not significant; the social factor ($p=0.789$) is not significant; this implies that respondent's social support in the community does not affect poverty. This time the economic status or factor ($p=0.112>.1$) is not significant. On average, if the political/legal factor (infrastructure and services factor) increases by one (1) unit, his or her poverty level decreases by 0.066. On average, if the household head's assets increase by one (1) unit, his or her poverty level increases by 0.146. This time, education ($p=0.365>.1$) is not significant.

To summarise, this study has found that economic and cultural variables affect poverty and poverty alleviation. It has also been found that unemployment increases poverty, whereas the economic factor and political factor decrease it. It has also been found that social exclusion mediates the effects of household size, unemployment, economic factor as well as that of education. Social exclusion suppresses the effects of

unemployment, economic factor and education on poverty. To a large extent, these results are compatible with the literature.

When all independent variables were included in the regression model, the following VIFs and tolerance levels were obtained (Table 5.22). It should be noted that these tests were not done for all the different regression models because the same results would have been obtained.

Table 5.22: Tolerance Levels

Variable	VIF	Tolerance
Political factor	1.29	0.775
Social factor	1.27	0.787
Education	1.12	0.891
Household size	1.11	0.905
Assets	1.11	0.905
Unemployment	1.10	0.911
Economic factor	1.09	0.921
Mean VIF	1.15	

The results show that the tolerance levels of all the variables are higher than 0.2. This is an indication that there would not likely be a serious multicollinearity problem in regression analysis.

5.6.3 Objective 3: Examine the poverty alleviation strategies that could be used to alleviate poverty in the low-income communities of urban areas in South Africa

In this subsection, the poverty alleviation strategies that could be used to alleviate poverty in the low-income communities of urban areas in South Africa are discussed. The South African government has implemented poverty alleviation strategies such as Black Economic Empowerment (BEE), Community Development Worker's Programme (CDWP), Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), Growth, Employment and Redistribution: A Macroeconomic Strategy for South Africa (GEAR), and ASGISA to improve people's lives. BEE aims to enhance economic participation of Black people, while GEAR aims to create a competitive, fast-growing economy,

accessible health, education and productive work environments. The South African government's efforts to address poverty have been limited, with poverty rates increasing and the gap widening despite a general decline in poverty between 2006 and 2011 (Francis & Webster, 2019). The poverty alleviation strategies have not effectively addressed the root cause of poverty, namely unemployment. According to Statistics SA (2017) there are over 50 government programmes and initiatives aimed at addressing food security and malnutrition in South Africa. Based on the National Food and Nutrition Security Plan 2018-2023, over time, there was a notable drop in multidimensional poverty as assessed by factors such as economic activity, standard of living, education and health from 17.9% in 2001 to 7% in 2016 (Stats SA, 2017). The decline is attributed to free basic services which the government provides such as water, sanitation and electricity, primary health care, no fee-paying schools and provision of free housing (Stats SA, 2017). Despite numerous interventions, poverty remains high compared to the National Development Goal (NDP) Goal 1 of 2030 which is to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality. Goldman and Hlela (2024:1) put forth that "South Africa is the most unequal country in the world with a Gini coefficient of 0.63, and more than half of the population living below the poverty line (UBPL)".

- **Health and Nutrition**

In 2015/16 the ANC government approved the National Integrated Early Childhood Development (ECD) policy which is aimed at improving access to ECD services and appropriate nutrition interventions for children based on the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) targets aimed at ending malnutrition and hunger by 2030. One of the known root causes of poor child development is poverty. For the most socially and economically marginalised children, early childhood development services and support, particularly in the early years is vital. The provision of early childhood development services is a right that the government is required to uphold. The South African Social Security Agency (SASSA) reported that by the end of June 2024, almost 19 234 218 social grants were paid to 12 048 971 beneficiaries. Though, generally, the community has conveniently located health and social services, and has access to clean drinking water, most of the households do not have home care-based services including health, personal care and housekeeping and do not have well-trained certified home care providers. About 30% of the households have a shortage of food

and only 17.62% always receive modern medical treatment from a doctor, nurse, midwife or traditional care from a traditional healer in the event of sickness. Only 50.57% of the households can afford basic food stuff such as mealie meal, beans, bread and sugar. With an average household size of three to four people, the government social grant might not be enough to cater for all their socio-economic aspects of life. It is interesting to note that, only about 30% consider their households to be poor.

- **The RDP policy**

In 1994, the ANC government initiated the RDP policy which was a socio-economic policy framework meant to address South Africa's past inequality and poverty by providing education, healthcare, employment, land and clean water. The RDP housing policy was also created to provide government-subsidised housing programme to millions of South African citizens with the aim of lifting people out of poverty (Ukeje et al., 2019). In 2017, the General Household Survey reported that 13.6% of South African households lived in RDP or government subsidised houses. RDP housing has been a challenge to most South Africans who are eligible but are not able to receive an allocation due to corruption. Some of the houses built are of poor quality with only 30% complying to building regulations. Based on the survey conducted, the majority of respondents' homes (70.99%) are of a standard quality, and that most households (60.00%) either own their primary residences (60.00%) or rent them (32.69%).

- **Government and Community Support: Free Public Transport Provided by Government, School Children Feeding Scheme, and Non-Government Support Programmes from Companies, Civil Society and Other Community Organisations**

About 90% of the households do not pay any school fees for their children. Nearly all households (92.08%) responded that the community has easy and accessible public transportation, that this transportation is reliable (79.32%) and that this transportation is provided by the government (78.13%). They however, reported that public transport provided by government for free is not safe for school children (69.59%).

For most of the households (77.64%), the children at school receive food at school through the feeding scheme. However, the community does not receive any other government support, for example subsidy on food, food parcels or any other form of subsidy and the majority (71.43%) do not receive non-government support from companies, civil society and other community organisations.

In conclusion, these results imply that the strategies, policies and programmes the government is using to alleviate poverty are not successful. In order for them to be effective, poverty alleviation players such as government should make sure that people are educated and have skills. In addition, they should devise programmes and policies that would, for example, deal with social exclusion and encourage government incubation for sustainability of the small business in order to create jobs.

It must be acknowledged that even though historically, family and community support and care have been a key source for poor families, in contemporary times this can be perceived as *ad hoc* and temporary support. This support has diminished due to the disabling economic environment that families are expected to survive (Raniga & Mthembu, 2017).

5.6.4 Objective 4: Develop a sustainable framework that could be used for poverty alleviation in low-income urban communities of urban areas of South Africa

Objective 4 aimed to use the results of this study to develop a sustainable framework for the alleviation of poverty. However, to give some background on the need to develop a framework, the following are offered for justification of the choice of framework:

- Kolk et al. (2018) explain that a framework shows how organisations should interact with the impoverished (co-inventors or beneficiaries) and their place within the value chain (consumers or business owners). However, this framework excludes the role of civil society actors and the government in the production and distribution of value, as well as the role of the poor as producers.
- McKague and Karnani (2019) provides a comprehensive framework for reducing poverty that outlines the responsibilities of the private sector,

government and civil society organisations. The authors contend that market-based approaches to poverty alleviation depend on the government's ability to provide public services, infrastructure, regulation and job creation. They also contend that civil society can act as a catalyst and watchdog to make sure that governments and the private sector both adhere to social norms and expectations. Social entrepreneurs and their partners could address poverty eradication if they had a better awareness of the different roles and approaches of actors. However, this is a global framework that cannot be applied in South Africa.

- The stakeholder model for community economic development in alleviating poverty in municipalities in South Africa by Ndaguba and Hanyane (2018) was derived from a meta-review of over 100 articles. The community economic development strategic framework for poverty alleviation of Ndaguba (2019) may not be applied in urban areas of South Africa to alleviate poverty either because the author used secondary data in his study. The disadvantage is that in most cases, the data might have been collected for a different purpose and therefore may not be optimal for the current research problem; it may also be difficult to assess its validity and reliability.
- Other frameworks by Munir et al. (2010) and Gradl and Knobloch (2010) incorporate a role for government but remain focused on large multinational private sector organisations.

None of these frameworks for reducing poverty offer a thorough analysis of the roles that the public, private, and civil society sectors can play in an integrated strategy for reducing poverty or a thorough understanding of how the impoverished can be incorporated into a commercial value chain in the context of developing nations. As indicated in Chapter 1, this would necessitate a multifaceted approach that includes and accommodates the extremely impoverished, who lack the formal education and skills necessary for business management. In addition, understanding the root causes of poverty in a particular local environment is crucial to overcoming implementation obstacles (Chatterjee & Mitra, 2017).

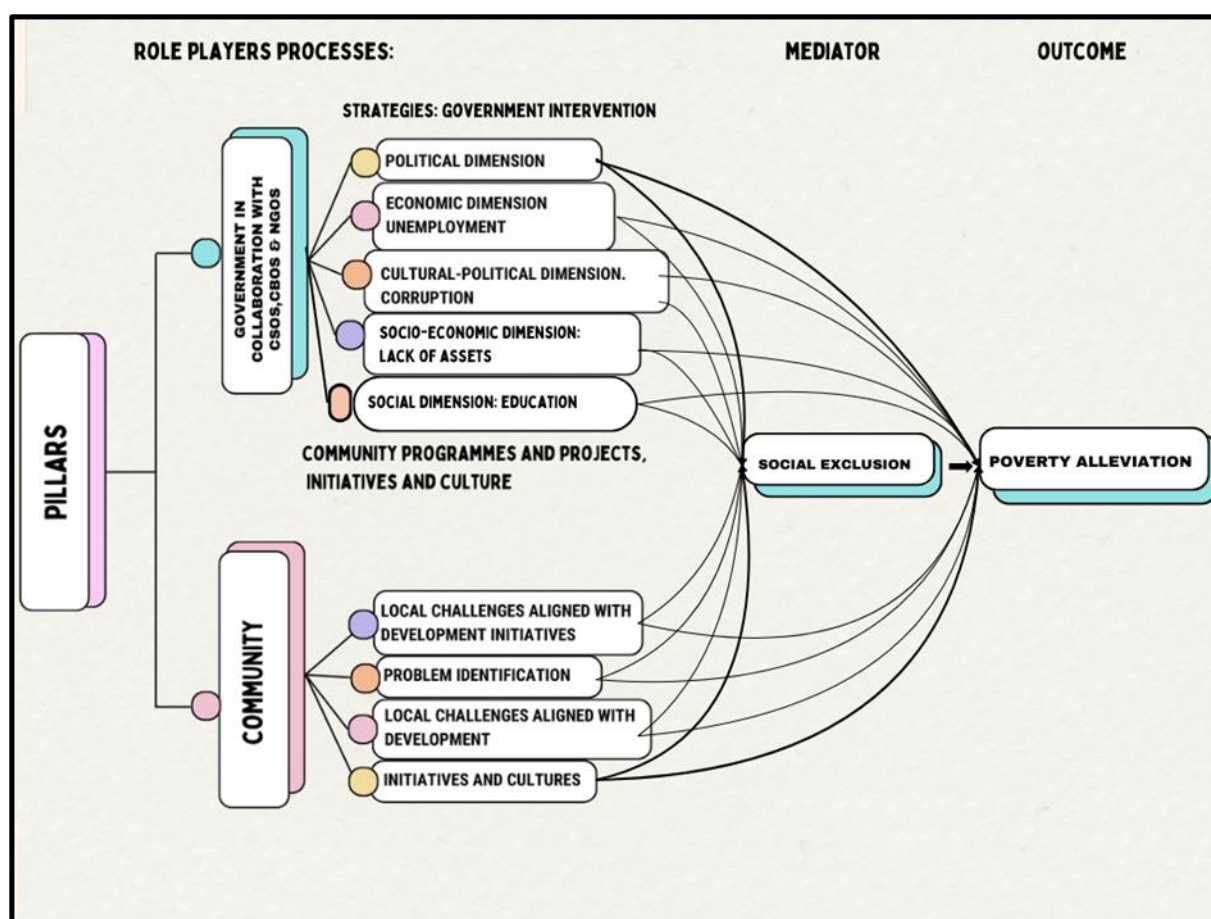
Ndaguba (2019) suggested a number of concepts and a strategic framework for community economic development that could improve South Africa's poverty trajectory. However, some of these traditional policy frameworks, such as the World Bank's Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP) and South Africa's Growth, Employment, and Redistribution Programme (GEAR) (Beegle & Christiaensen 2019; Stats SA, 2017), were founded on antiquated methods of reducing poverty (Goldman, Bassier & Budlender, 2021) and as a result, they are ineffective.

Ndaguba (2019) claims that while the idea of poverty is ambiguous and occasionally misapplied, misdirected or blatantly misinterpreted, the official discourse on poverty in South Africa is still based on a unidimensional definition of poverty that is based on income or consumption (Gumede, 2020). As a result, developing methods that address poverty is challenging (Gumede, 2020a). Since perception often comes before action (Odekon, 2015), the incapacity to quantify or conceptualise poverty effectively has resulted in inadequately articulated, adopted and implemented methods for poverty reduction (Ndaguba & Ijeoma, 2018). The South African government has reduced its obligation to reduce poverty to simply providing social grants and food stamps to those in poverty because if a government views poverty from a narrow perspective of income or consumption, its methods for reducing poverty will also be limited from effectively capturing all the dimensions of poverty (Gumede, 2020b; Ndaguba, 2019).

Unlike the existing poverty alleviation conceptual frameworks, the newly developed conceptual framework provides a detailed breakdown of the roles to be played by the government, civil society organisations and/or local communities. In addition, it provides a detailed explanation of how the poor could be included in the value chain of the public sector service delivery. This is a poverty alleviation approach which is people-centred and community-oriented. It advocates for job creation, political inclusion and increased quality education levels for the poor.

The proposed sustainable framework (see Figure 5.12) shows that, emerging from this study, the factors of poverty and poverty alleviation have been found to include household size, unemployment, education and skills, social, economic, political, cultural variables, infrastructure, assets and social exclusion as a mediating variable.

The framework for poverty alleviation is comprised of two role players, which are the government (as the main role player) and community. The key concepts relating to the government as a role player include factors of poverty such as political dimension, economic dimension of unemployment, cultural-political dimension which includes corruption, socio-economic dimension which relate to lack of assets and the economic dimension relating to education. The community as a role player, experiences aspects such as challenges related to development initiatives, problem identification, challenges relating to development and initiatives and culture. The mediating variable between these factors (independent variables) and the outcome variable (dependent variable), is social exclusion and the outcome variable, is poverty alleviation.



Source: Author's own work (2024)

Figure 5.12: Proposed sustainable framework for poverty alleviation

This sustainable framework for poverty alleviation consists of two pillars, namely government and the community. These are discussed below:

PILLARS: ROLE PLAYERS – GOVERNMENT IN COLLABORATION WITH OTHER ROLE PLAYERS

The government of South Africa has the primary responsibility to institute programmes and policies for poverty alleviation even though all stakeholders are responsible. It should commit itself to addressing poverty, inequality and social exclusion according to the constitution and the government's National Development Plan (NDP). Policy-making institutions, civil society organisations and poverty groups should take ownership of the national poverty alleviation mandate (Hart, 2024). Poverty should be conceptualised adequately in order to design, frame, adopt and implement strategies for poverty reduction, and it should be alleviated through a multi-pronged approach where governments, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), civil society organisations (CSOs), and other poverty groups such as community-based organisations (CBOs) (including the endogenous driving force of the poor groups) come together in a collaborative effort to address the country's socio-economic problems. Together, they must find a solution to reduce poverty and improve the lives of the people. The framework for poverty alleviation must be adopted by the government, civil society organisations and other poverty groups, including community-based organisations (CBOs).

For this framework to be effective and sustainable, there must be a detailed breakdown of the roles that the government, civil society organisations, and/or local communities should play in an integrated approach to poverty alleviation. The poor themselves should be included in the public sector service delivery value chain, a poverty alleviation approach that is people-centred and community-oriented as community-based actors hold significant ties to development, a kind of development that is community-driven. For this poverty alleviation framework to be successful, all stakeholders, including the communities themselves, have an essential role to play. These roles include engaging the poor as sources of information to participate in the identification, formulation and implementation stages of programme objectives, which is critical for the advancement of a community. Targeting poverty alleviation requires a diverse strategy that accommodates and involves the very poor, who lack skills and formal education for management. There is a need for communities to participate in

the identification, formulation and implementation stages of programme objectives, which is the bottom-up approach.

Discrimination based on personal attributes such as race, gender, religion and education limits opportunity in spite of their personal capabilities must be avoided because this denies or excludes people from participating in or gaining access to resources that would improve their lives, such as employment opportunities. The government needs to devise policies and programmes to promote the economic, financial, political, social, and cultural inclusion of people in low-income communities of urban areas of South Africa. Government policies and initiatives should be put in place to include the poor in the common cultural practices of contemporary society and their effects on communities as far as religion, language and nationality are concerned.

The government is responsible for finding ways of creating jobs and/or devising policies and initiatives that could promote entrepreneurship in low-income communities of urban areas of South Africa. Ways or policies should be put in place to promote job creation through entrepreneurship. In order to alleviate poverty, emphasis should be placed on job creation. Both government and business interventions should be involved to promote private entrepreneurs and improve the investment climate. A public works programme focusing on assisting the poor with substantial funding should be encouraged.

Education and skill, health and physical infrastructure are critical elements, as they play an important role in terms of providing services to communities in the form of transportation networks, roads, rail, housing and other government services considered essential for human survival. The government must increase services focusing on education, health and housing.

Government welfare should be used wisely because it contributes to poverty by permitting a cycle of welfare dependency where families remain in poverty by failing to find employment and become independent. This kind of government intervention might exacerbate the situation.

In addition, ICT in the form of e-government must be encouraged, as it brings about an improvement in society's access to information. It acts as a mechanism to foster both economic and social progress by facilitating transparent dialogue between citizens and their leaders, which ultimately lowers costs and boosts government tax revenue since the government's failure to effectively implement ICT services is largely linked to poor infrastructure.

The government should try to avoid continuing the dependency syndrome, a social policy where people are solely dependent on social grants for survival even though they are able to work. In order for the poor to start accumulating assets, social welfare in South Africa needs to extend beyond fund transfers and invest in capacity development of the poor.

It is essential to advocate for the social assistance program to aid South Africans who are unable to provide for themselves and their families. South Africa has a well-established welfare system, and grants are targeted at people who are vulnerable to poverty; these are the elderly, people with disabilities and children. The grants are meant to specifically address inequalities in income distribution.

The framework is centred around the community and its members, aiming to stimulate their participation in the governance and management of local affairs. It advocates for community stakeholders, citizens and the private sector to take charge of activities in local governments by being involved in formulating procedures and methods for their benefits in order to create employment.

The state is required to uphold, protect, advocate for, and implement the rights contained in the Bill of Rights, particularly those related to equality. (everyone is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit from the law). For these poverty programmes and policies to be effective, government must fight corruption and improve the labour market, ensuring a more stable and prosperous economy.

STRATEGIES: GOVERNMENT INTERVENTION

- **Political Dimension**

When it comes to promoting commerce, creating jobs and nurturing the next generation of business owners, the government needs to be heavily involved. The Department of Trade and Industry (DTI, 2008) states that government organisations like the Small Enterprise Development Agency (SEDA) and the Ministry of Small Business Development, founded in 2014, have a strategic action plan to lower regulatory barriers, increase financial and non-financial support and create demand for the local goods and services offered by SMMEs. These efforts are commendable and should be supported. Care should be taken when the government gets involved in development to avoid discouraging private investment or opening the door for corruption and rent-seeking practices (Sénquiz-Díaz, 2021). The extent of government intervention in business should be kept to a minimum.

- **Economic Dimension: Unemployment**

Unemployment results in a failure to provide an acceptable standard of living for certain individuals and their families (Zadeh, 2020). Long-term unemployment leads to side effects such as health deterioration, skill decay, aspirations declining and self-confidence evaporating (Farre, Fasani & Mueller, 2018). Poor education, low-skilled labour, inflexible labour laws, a lack of proper training, high immigration from neighbouring countries and poor economic activities in rural areas contribute to high unemployment rates in urban areas. Addressing these factors could help reduce poverty.

- **Cultural-Political Dimension: Corruption**

Corruption exacerbates poverty and can render a society unstable and insecure. The prevalence of corruption in the country has a negative impact on the social, political and economic health of the state. Like social exclusion, corruption also impacts the well-being of society; it deprives individuals' resources required for participation in the social, economic and political activities of a society. It causes an inability to access realistic opportunities as a result of exclusion, perpetuates poverty, is positively correlated with state instability (Mohammed & Ogba, 2021) and hampers economic

growth, which in turn, increases unemployment and levels of poverty (Carballo Perez, 2022). Corruption has a negative impact on poverty reduction efforts as it results in society losing its social capital of trust, devotion to duty and communal interdependence, with the consequences of the poor being totally excluded from participation in the economic activities of the country (Olayiwola, 2019). Hence, transparency should be encouraged, corruption should be avoided at all costs, and the government should devise measures for this to happen. Corrupt government officials should be dealt with according to the law, and those found guilty should be convicted. Corruption should be dealt with decisively, making sure that people who are employed, have the right qualifications.

Corruption is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon with multiple causes and effects, taking multiple forms and functions. Because it denies people the resources necessary to engage in social, economic and political activities within society, corruption has an adverse effect on the general well-being of society. It has a negative impact on poverty reduction efforts as it results in the loss of social capital such as trust, devotion to duty and communal interdependence. Corruption arises from interrelated factors such as the political and economic environment, professional ethics, legislation and ethnological factors. Corruption has the capacity to render any society unstable (Williams & Le Billion, 2017). Abrahams and Everatt (2019) observed that South Africa has a high prevalence of corruption because corrupt officials do not fear being exposed and punished.

According to the Corruption Perception Index (CPI, 2023), every region is either stagnant in its overall corruption efforts or showing signs of decline. South Africa received its lowest score in the global index on corruption, dropping below the global average in 2023. It has been found that corruption in South Africa includes the improper use of public resources for private ends, including bribery and improper favouritism. South Africa has a robust anti-corruption framework, but laws are inadequately enforced and there is no consequence management. Zumba, Abab, Adeshlaa and James (2021) confirm that corruption in the public sector in South Africa has increased, and includes the receipt and giving of bribes, extortion, public fraud, embezzlement, biased selection of people for employment, nepotism, favouritism and

greed, amongst others. The majority of South Africans regularly deal with corruption in the form of bribery, particularly when requesting services from public officials.

According to Kesar et al. (2024), based on empirical evidence on the impact of corruption on economic growth, it has been found that corruption impedes economic growth, has a negative influence on governance and is a great disease for government. Lim (2018) indicated that most of the countries in Sub-Saharan Africa are faced with a weakened economy with large gaps in infrastructure, a lack of skills and poor service delivery. All three townships surveyed for this research, experienced poor public service delivery because of high levels of corruption in local municipalities. Evidence shows that in countries where corruption is out of control, unemployment and poverty are rising despite efforts made to reduce them (Adjor & Kebalo, 2018).

- **Socio-Economic Dimension: Lack of Assets**

Lack of assets is primarily caused by social exclusion, which results in poverty. Household asset levels are a useful measure of relative wealth or welfare and are used as an alternative measure in poverty studies (Zwane, 2022). Liquidity and credit constraints are found to be some of the factors preventing households from accumulating assets. These constraints should be investigated.

The study revealed that asset ownership decreases poverty. Asset accumulation is a way to escape poverty, and initial asset levels and social exclusion appear to be determining factors for future well-being (Barrett et al., 2021). The poor find it difficult to escape poverty as they are liquid and credit-constrained (SAHRC and UNICEF, 2014).

The majority of households face difficulty in terms of accumulating basic assets due to being unemployed and other contributing factors such as a lack of education to be able to find jobs. Poor people who lack private assets feel excluded and are marginalised by society. They are also affected by government and market failures that exclude the poor from participating in the credit markets and other social economic activities (Mhlana, 2022).

The challenge for poor people in South Africa is a lack of access to financial services, which is a significant economic factor contributing to poverty in urban areas. Many

individuals, particularly those in lower income communities, face barriers to accessing banking and financial institutions in South Africa. Without access to formal financial services, such as savings accounts, credit and insurance, individuals struggle to build assets, cope with emergencies and invest in income-generating activities. Limited access to financial services also restricts the ability to save money and access affordable credit, hindering economic growth and exacerbating poverty levels in urban areas. According to Matsebula and Yu (2020), South Africa has a fairly inclusive financial sector when compared with other developing countries, whereas the number of people from informal settlements do not have relationships with banks as they cannot afford to do so. They mostly rely on family, friends, loan sharks, *stokvels* and savings clubs, which are more prevalent in townships. As a result, they are not able to accumulate assets. It is reported that because of corruption, the majority of people from low-income communities in urban areas are not able to secure RDP houses, therefore, they stay in shacks or rent backyard shacks. RDP houses are sold or given to relatives and friends, which disadvantages those who are eligible. Dlamini (2021) confirms that in Diepsloot, the majority of the people who applied for RDP houses are still on the waiting list because of corruption and their inability to pay the bribes.

- **Social Dimension: Education**

Education improves welfare and reduces the likelihood of experiencing poverty and hunger therefore it should be encouraged (Moeis, Dartanto, Moeis & Ikhsan 2020). The educational status of the household head has been found to be the highest contributory factor to the poverty levels of a household, as access to education enhances the ability to acquire better jobs, which result in high productivity and high wage-earning abilities (Akerlele et al., 2023; ILO, 1995). According to the literature, the background of the children plays the most important role because it is most likely that poor parents produce poor children, which transfers poverty across generations. This is supported by Mabhoyi and Seroto (2019), who confirm that poverty breeds poverty so that if a person experiences poverty from childhood to mid-life, he or she has fewer chances of recovery and is less likely to do well in the labour market which is tantamount to being trapped in the poverty cycle. Brooks-Gunn, Klebanov, Liaw and Duncan (2021) state that children raised in poor families are likely to experience long-term poverty, as poverty will affect their health and future earning potential. Education

increases the productivity of existing resources, contributes to disseminating new technology, and increases the effectiveness and efficiency of institutions. The South African government should address the issue of the cost of education. Most poor households are excluded from participation in educating their children because of the high cost of education. People should be encouraged, at least, to have basic literacy and numeracy skills. This will result in lowering the risk of experiencing social exclusion as adults (Obeng, 2020) because educational attainment has been found to have a positive effect on labour market participation and unemployment (see also Bynner, 2017)

The study found that poverty is caused by a lack of education, or poor education, apartheid education and a lack of skill. There is a challenge in urban areas of Gauteng with a low-skilled pool of human resources and a less specialised pool of skills, which increase poverty and make individuals dependent on government grants. The inequalities that are already present from birth persist and grow as children get older, which signifies a poverty trap. Education is found to be one of the principal mechanisms for promoting social mobility, as well as dismantling poverty traps.

Lack of education is the most important contributing factor to poverty in low-income communities of urban areas of Gauteng, as the majority of poor households do not have educational qualifications, which would assist them in terms of getting better-paying jobs. The low level of education, whether among adults or children in a community, can set a social norm and therefore deter individual investment beyond the social norm. Higher levels of education are associated with lower levels of poverty, and larger households tend to face a higher probability of being poor. Home background is one of the most important factors influencing student outcomes, as children from households with educated parents and more educational resources in the home are more likely to succeed at school and, consequently, later in life.

PILLARS: COMMUNITY

COMMUNITY PROGRAMMES AND PROJECTS, INITIATIVES AND CULTURE

The community should be involved in identifying community programmes and projects for social and economic development (Brockington, Coast, Mclee & Howland, 2021). Ndaguba and Hanyane (2018) recommend that one of the ways in which community

viability or sustainability are guaranteed is through a regeneration or reconversion policy and a framework that articulates and harmonises sustainability issues and localisation challenges for communities in each locality. There must be certain initiatives and cultures that should be learned, developed, incorporated and sustained in local areas, and among them are local investments, buying locally made products, patronising local shops, local regeneration, local reconversion, community linking with bigger markets, the social identity of a people and solidarity as a form of social development. Building sustainable capital and markets in communities is integral to the survival of any community that wishes to be economically viable or sustainable and local challenges in communities need to be realigned with development initiatives to develop them because communal challenges differ according to context.

- **Local challenges aligned with development initiatives**

Government, in collaboration with the community or/and community organisations must find a way of working together to address challenges experienced in the community. Implementation challenges that require a deeper understanding of the causes of poverty in a given context should be addressed with the help of the community. Development initiatives begin with community participation in the identification of the problems, and the formulation and implementation stages of programme objectives. Included are challenges of the use of a top-down approach; lack of human resources to implement policy; skills shortage; corruption; lack of funding; improper coordination among institutions and barriers to entry; failure to participate in the labour market; failure to get quality education; psychological problems (exacerbating self-confidence, weak motivation and depression, aggravated by people's associations with other individuals, leading to a culture of despair, which in turn lead to a sense of hopelessness and fatalism among community leaders).

According to the NDP, the main reasons for slow progress in poverty alleviation include a lack of community involvement in decision-making and policymaking, too few people work, the quality of school education for black people is poor, infrastructure is poorly located, inadequate and under-maintained, the economy is unsustainable resource intensive, the public health system cannot meet demand or sustain quality,

etc. These implementation challenges require a deeper understanding of the causes of poverty in a given local context according to Chatterjee and Mitra (2017).

- **Problem identification**

The correct problems should be identified. If the exercise and finances expended are premised on a faulty foundation, it will not produce any outcome. It is critical that the communities themselves participate in the identification, formulation and implementation stages of programme objectives. Problems must be identified and formulated at the local level to be effectively implemented in the local areas.

Buying local products and local investments, amongst others, should be promoted. For this to happen, one requires a loop through which collaboration is eminent, which relates to the stakeholder theory. The stakeholder model proposes a means through which communities can collaborate to advance its course without necessarily being dependent on the municipality and the provincial government.

- **Local challenges aligned with development**

These challenges happen because government fails to identify an appropriate solution for poverty alleviation. They include the following: economic conditions such as a rising unemployment rate; change in the environment due to global warming; corruption; the increasing urban immigration causing rapid urbanisation with houses overlapping on pavements and shacks erected in most backyards and an informal settlement; global financial crisis and trade disruptions caused by global financial conditions; health challenges, which occur because of the unaffordability of preventive medicine, a good diet and a healthy living environment; inadequate income, causing people not being able to invest in their children's education resulting in their children going to poor quality schools and falling further behind when they enter the job market. These also cause people to be vulnerable to illness and poor medical care; extreme poverty; high levels of inequality; inadequate infrastructure; sub-standard living conditions and socio-economic deprivations such as inadequate access to formal housing and basic services; as well as lack of skill and access to funds or financial institutions.

Others include increasing political, economic, and social instability; large household size; issues of health and nutrition; material wealth; lack of knowledge; infrastructure

and services; corporate and environmental factors (related to administrative governance that can hinder financial viability, and service delivery for the social upliftment of local communities).

- **Initiatives and culture**

Initiatives that promote entrepreneurship in urban areas of South Africa have the ability to alleviate different kinds of poverty. For example, programmes and initiatives aimed at addressing food security and malnutrition (Stats SA, 2017) and those that target education, healthcare, and skill development should be emphasised.

Entrepreneurship in the low-income communities of urban areas of South Africa should be promoted. Building sustainable capital and markets in local communities is integral to the survival of any community that wishes to be economically viable or sustainable and realigning local challenges in communities with development initiatives to develop them cannot be overemphasised.

Community organisations, as discussed in the literature review, such as civil society organisations (CSOs), non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and community-based organisations (CBOs) should be encouraged to continue playing a critical role in working with communities. Poverty alleviation programmes focus on grassroots development and empowerment of marginalised communities targeting education, healthcare and skill development.

The initiatives should reflect the culture of the people and be sustained in local urban areas. This includes maintaining focus on buying locally made products, locally grown produce, patronising local shops, local regeneration, local reconversion, community linking with bigger markets, the social identity of a people, and solidarity as a form of social development. It is important to protect and promote local cultures and cultural expressions can help to create community and promote shared prosperity. Everyone should be included in common cultural practices of contemporary society and their effects on communities as far as religion, language and nationality are concerned.

MEDIATOR: SOCIAL EXCLUSION

According to the theory of social exclusion, a person who is socially excluded finds it difficult to participate in particular activities, such as gaining access to the labour

market and will probably receive lower net benefits from doing so than someone who is not excluded. Thus, through practices of marginalisation and discrimination (which can be covert or overt), these so-called 'exclusion traps' fundamentally contradict the idea of equality of opportunity (see Hickey & Du Toit, 2007; World Bank, 2005).

Yadav and Longchar (2015:878) define social exclusion "as a process by which certain groups are systematically disadvantaged because they are discriminated against on the basis of their ethnicity, race, religion, sexual orientation, caste, descent, gender, age, race, religion, migrant status, or where they live. Discrimination occurs in public institutions, such as the legal system or education and health services, as well as social institutions like the household, and in the community." Since the concept is multidimensional, the government should fight it in different ways.

One way is to make sure that people themselves participate in the decisions that affect them, decisions about what it means to be poor and the magnitude of poverty and in all other decisions that affect them, whether economic, social, political or cultural. Social exclusion has been found to impact the well-being of a society as it deprives individuals' resources required for participation in the social, economic and political activities of society as a whole. Literature reveals that social exclusion causes poverty, low-income, lack of access to jobs, discrimination and low educational attainment (Mobeen, Ullal, Ali & Chaudhary, 2024). Social exclusion mediates the effects of unemployment, corruption, lack of assets and education; it suppresses their effect on poverty and poverty alleviation.

OUTCOME

Figure 6.1 illustrates that poverty is a result of social exclusion, which mediates the effects of unemployment, corruption, a lack of assets, and a lack of education on poverty and poverty alleviation. This framework also shows how economic, social, political and cultural factors affect poverty (unemployment, corruption, assets, and education affect poverty and poverty alleviation). The social dimension refers to the exclusion of individuals from decision-making (rights to citizenship), social services and community and family support. The economic dimension refers to the exclusion of individuals from opportunities to earn an income, participate in the labour market and access to assets. Social exclusion causes lack of education, lack of assets,

corruption, inequality, low-income and unemployment, which then indirectly causes poverty.

This research advocates for social inclusion, which gives people the platform to participate in decision-making to ensure effective problem-solving in their society.

5.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented and discussed the key findings of the study. It also discussed the response rate, validity and reliability; presented a demographics analysis of the respondents, descriptive statistics of the key study variables, as well as the results of the inferential analysis that involved regression analysis, which addressed the study objectives. The findings which have emerged from this research have been used to develop a sustainable framework for poverty alleviation in low-income communities in Urban Areas of Gauteng Province by integrating the literature with the study's empirical findings.

Chapter 6 concludes the study and offers recommendations based on findings.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This final chapter concludes the study. It provides a brief summary of the study and then discusses in brief, the main findings of the study. The following section presents conclusions to the research and offers recommendations and policy implications. The final sections present the contributions to the body of knowledge, limitations of the study and identifies areas for further research.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS

6.2.1 Research Findings

It has been found that poverty in South Africa is on the rise (Mattes & Patel, 2022) and the country is still faced with poverty alleviation challenges despite the existence of anti-poverty strategies. Over 55.5% of the population of the country lives under the poverty line (Ohonba & Akinola, 2020). Previous studies have failed to recognise the link between unemployment, corruption, lack of assets and lack of education with social exclusion and poverty; and none of the reviewed frameworks or models qualifies to be a sustainable framework for poverty alleviation (refer to Chapter 5, Section 5.6.4). Specifically, no study has focused on the development of poverty alleviation strategies and policies for low-income communities in urban areas of South Africa. There was therefore a need for a study towards understanding the relationship between the factors of poverty, social exclusion and poverty in South Africa. Hence, this study was conducted to bridge this gap; it focused on how the economic, political and social factors causing poverty, that is corruption, unemployment, lack of assets and lack of education, affect poverty.

In seeking to fulfil the broad objective of determining the factors of poverty in low-income communities of urban areas in South Africa, and subsequently developing a sustainable framework for poverty alleviation in these communities of South Africa, this study intended to achieve the following objectives:

1. Identify factors that affect poverty in the LICs of urban areas in South Africa.

2. Determine the extent to which the factors of poverty affect poverty in the LICs of urban areas in South Africa.
3. Examine the poverty alleviation strategies that could be used to alleviate poverty in the LICs of urban areas in South Africa.
4. Develop a sustainable framework that could be used for poverty alleviation in the LICs of urban areas in South Africa.

The theoretical and empirical underpinnings of poverty and poverty alleviation, which included the social exclusion theory as the overarching theory as well as other complementary theories of poverty, were explored. Philosophically, the positivist paradigm and a deductive approach were applied to conduct this quantitative research with a cross-sectional survey design. A representative stratified sample of 400 households was selected from a population of 386 449 households in three local municipalities of urban areas in the province of Gauteng to collect quantitative data using a structured questionnaire. Due to limitations and constraints caused by political unrest, the response rate was 78% which is considered acceptable and reliable for this study. According to Parekh, Bates and Amdur (2020), although a researcher's minimum goal for a survey response rate should be about 60%, published studies have shown numbers ranging from 50% to 80%. Multi-regression modelling was used to analyse the data. In general, the results obtained in this study support and are consistent with the findings found in the previous studies. The following is how the research questions were answered.

6.2.1 RQ 1: What factors affect poverty in LICs of urban areas in South Africa?

This study has found that the factors affecting poverty in urban areas in South Africa fall into two groups: the broader and narrower groups, where the former group includes social, economic, political, and cultural factors. Within the social factor, lack of education, infrastructure and services were factors found to be causing poverty in the study areas, while unemployment and lack of assets were identified as factors within the economic factor group, and corruption was identified as a factor within the political factor.

The study found that most households (about 72%) have a household size of between 1 and 5, with the majority of households (84.13%) having only one family. Most

households have 0 to 3 adult males (87.8%) and 0 to 3 female adults (88.2%). About 95% of households have no more than 2 male children and no more than 2 female children. The ethnic majority of households (99%) were black Africans. Of the households sampled, the majority (83%) had three orphans, single mothers, or disabled persons. It was also found that 90% of the households had access to basic needs.

The majority of the households experienced little or no shortage of food for more than 1 month during the past 12 months, access to clean drinking water (83.9%) and the majority of the sick sometimes received modern medical treatment or traditional care from a traditional healer (61.69%). However, almost all the households do not have access to a variety of health care professionals, including specialists (96.6%), where they live. The quality of the majority of the respondents' houses (71.0%) are standard; the majority of households do not own a car or a motorbike (82%), own their primary homes (60%); or rent them (33%).

i. **Social dimension**

The following variables were used to measure education and knowledge: the highest level of education among the adult household members, including the household head; whether any children in the household, aged 7 to 18, are enrolled in school (children who are paid for by the household); and whether any household members have received additional vocational training (any other training such as welding, electrical, or mechanical).

Most of the household heads have secondary school education or have completed matric (86.8%). Education plays a crucial role in alleviating poverty by improving welfare and reducing the likelihood of experiencing poverty and hunger in households. Household heads' educational status is the highest contributor to poverty levels, with higher education rates resulting in lower poverty rates. Higher education levels have a positive impact on income growth, with households with higher education levels having more advantages in terms of income growth and development (Garza-Rodriguez, 2018).

In 21.7% of the households, none of the children aged between 7 and 18 years old in the household were currently attending school. Some respondents believe that education is no longer important in South Africa, as more and more children are unable to find employment after graduating. Educational attainment positively affects labour market participation and unemployment, but segregation policies in developing countries like South Africa have had a lasting impact on education. Low educational attainment and low-quality education can perpetuate poverty and hinder social mobility.

The social factor was measured as the desire of township residents to assist one another (doing work or financially); their sense of mutual trust among community members in the township; and whether or not disputes between individuals or families occur regularly in the townships ; whether a household has daily access to news or information from TV, newspaper, or radio and whether the household head or other members of the household participate in decision-making processes in the township (not including decisions made by local councils in resolving disputes).

The majority of the households (63.12%) have daily access to news or information from TV, newspapers or radio, and for the majority of the households (79.7%), sometimes members participate in decision-making processes in the township. Only 9% of households always participate in decision-making processes in the townships.

Based on the findings, it shows that there is mutual understanding between the neighbours, as more than half of the population indicated that they have neighbours who are always willing to lend a hand where necessary. Based on observation, most of the people in the township own a television set and are exposed to news on a daily basis, which keeps them informed about important issues in the country. Some respondents indicated that although there is mutual trust among the community members, sometimes issues arise because of the high levels of crime, which sometimes results in mob justice. These are some of the social issues perpetuated by corruption, where criminals are arrested and then released back to communities to commit more crime without serving jail time. Most of the respondents indicated that participation in decision-making processes in the township is mostly difficult, as the majority of the community members are excluded from participating.

One of the main issues facing the majority of South African municipalities is the absence of community participation in policy and decision-making. The failure of South African local municipalities to adapt and implement community involvement initiatives in their communities has led to several service delivery protests and the damage of municipal infrastructure, as confirmed by Petunia and Selepe (2020).

Corruption is found to be a major contributing factor to the persistence of poverty in South Africa. Despite efforts made to combat corruption, it remains prevalent in various sectors, including law enforcement, public administration and regulatory bodies. Corruption is highly prevalent in South Africa, to the point that the majority of the people surveyed thought that most, if not all, police officers in South Africa are corrupt. This has led to a lack of trust and faith from the public. The majority of the respondents expressed their anger and frustration at the increasing levels of corruption in South Africa, which negatively impacts service delivery. In all three locations, respondents expressed their dissatisfaction concerning the current ruling party in South Africa: some went to the extent of detailing the amount of corruption that they are exposed to in the local government. Corruption erodes social cohesion and trust within society, leading to increased social inequalities and the marginalisation of vulnerable groups. One issue raised was the issue of loadshedding which is crippling small businesses in the townships. In most townships in South Africa, extended hours of loadshedding were being experienced, compared to suburbs. In addition, load reduction, as a result of an overload of power usually sparked by illegal connections, was experienced.

ii. Economic dimension

The economic dimension refers to exclusion from possibilities to acquire assets, engage in the employment market and generate revenue. Hence, the economic factor was measured by using the following variables: sources of income for the household (employment, government grant, business, or other source); number of sources; whether the household pays any school fees for the children or not; affordability of basic food stuff (such as mealie meal, beans, bread, and sugar); and whether a household considers itself to be poor or not.

The study found that only 30.5% of the households in low-income communities earned a salary or wage as the most reliable and important source of income for their households over the past 12 months, and only 50.7% of the households and families could afford basic food items such as mealie meal, beans, bread, and sugar. Some 42.1% relied on government grants, and the rest were dependent on income from services such as spaza shops, tradesmen and workshops, which are informal in nature. Only 27.2% of households consider themselves to be poor. The majority of households (61.4%) have only one source of income. The rest of the households have more than one source of income; however, the total income earned per hour is far less than the minimum wage prescribed by the government.

Even though people in low-income communities in urban areas earn far less than the minimum wage prescribed by government, 50.6% of the majority of the households indicated that they are able to afford basic food items such as mealie meal, beans, bread, and sugar; 46.4% of the households are sometimes able to afford basic foodstuffs; and only 8% of the households are not able to afford basic food items and are totally dependent on neighbours and other donors as community members are reasonably willing to help each other.

iii. Political dimension

The political dimension is linked to the persistence of discriminating factors like racism (inequality), market failure and unenforced rights. The political factor was measured using the following variables: lack of leadership that promotes pro-people policies; debilitating brain drain out of the poor countries of the world; and corruption. Factors that impede development are political and include a lack of administrative skills, instability, corruption, and the ability of special interest groups to block changes in economic policy.

Infrastructure and services were measured using the following variables: whether the community has accessible and convenient public transport; reliability of public transport; reliable government-funded school transport; reliability of government-funded school transport; safety of the public transport provided by the government for free for the children; whether the children at school receive food (a feeding scheme) or not; whether the community receives any other government support, for example,

subsidies on food, food parcels, or any other form of subsidy whether the community receives non-government support programmes from companies, civil society and other community organisations; availability of sports facilities, parks, or other places considered suitable for recreation in the township; whether the facilities are conveniently located and easily accessible or not; whether the roads in the township are tarred or not; whether the tarred roads are well maintained or not; and whether they consider the household to be happy or not.

The increasing rate of urbanisation in South Africa has led to a need for improved infrastructure and service delivery in some of the country's impoverished urban neighbourhoods. Most people are transferring to cities as well as immigrants migrating to South Africa due to poverty and political unrest in their countries. The South African government adopted a National Infrastructure Plan in 2012 aimed at improving the delivery of essential services, create jobs, and change the economic landscape (Stats SA, 2023).

It was generally reported that the community has accessible, convenient, and reliable public transport. However, the majority of household heads reported that public transport provided by the government for free is not safe for children (69.6%) and that schoolchildren (77.6%) receive food (a feeding scheme). The respondents reported that the roads in the township are tarred (49.4%), but they are not well maintained (76.3%).

This study also examined the impact of factors such as poverty and poverty alleviation on poverty levels. The results show that increasing household size by one person decreases poverty levels by 0.046 in the range of 1 to 3. However, the relationship between poverty and household size is fragile and sensitive to size elasticity. The study also found that unemployment increases poverty levels by 0.244, and social support does not affect poverty. Economic status or factor increases by one unit, and political and legal factors (infrastructure and services) decrease poverty levels by 0.076.

The overall findings of this study reveal that the factors of poverty and poverty alleviation in the low-income urban areas of South Africa include historical challenges (imperialism, land dispossession, apartheid education, displacement), as well as

social, economic, political and cultural variables. Still, nearly half of the global population, particularly in developing regions, live below the poverty line. It has also been found that unemployment increases poverty, whereas the economic factor, political factor and assets decrease it; that social exclusion mediates the effects of unemployment, the economic factor, as well as that of education, and that poverty alleviation strategies and policies do not affect poverty alleviation significantly; they have failed to alleviate poverty in urban areas of South Africa. Economic and political factors affect poverty and poverty alleviation, and unemployment increases poverty, whereas economic factors and political factors decrease it. Social exclusion suppresses the effects of unemployment, economic factors and education on poverty and poverty alleviation.

It was concluded that people are regarded as poor if their income and resources are so inadequate that they are excluded from experiencing a standard of living that is considered acceptable in their own communities, and the poor people are excluded from participating in the social, economic, and cultural activities of the societies in which they live.

6.2.2 RQ 2: To what extent do the factors affect poverty in the LICs of urban areas in South Africa?

The study revealed that economic and cultural variables significantly impact poverty and poverty alleviation. On average, household size increases poverty levels by 0.042. Unemployment is not significant, social support does not affect poverty, economic status or factors are not significant, and political/legal factors like infrastructure and services decrease poverty levels. Social exclusion mediates the effects of household size, unemployment, economic factors and education, while social exclusion suppresses the effects of these factors on poverty.

Social, economic, political, and cultural variables were found to be factors affecting poverty and poverty alleviation in low-income communities in urban areas of South Africa. It has been found that unemployment increases poverty, whereas economic factors, political factors and a lack of assets decrease it. It has also been found that social exclusion mediates the effects of unemployment, economic factors, corruption, and education on poverty and poverty alleviation by suppressing their effects.

i. Social dimension: Education and knowledge

The results indicate that poverty is highly prevalent in households where adult members lack education. The highest level of education among the adult members of the household (86.8%) is secondary school or completed matriculation. The majority of the community members are not educated, nor do they have any form of training that could assist them in terms of getting jobs or better jobs. Only 13.2% of households possess post-matric qualifications such as welding, electrical or mechanical. They are without additional vocational training, which contributes to the high level of unemployment and poverty.

The findings are in line with the literature (Adeniyi, Ajayi & Adedeji, 2021; Balestra & Ciani, 2022; Bynner & Heinz, 2021; Frizelle et al., 2021; Grimmer, 2022; Mashamba, Magweva & Gani, 2022; Mpisi & Alexander, 2024; Santos & Halkias, 2021; Selim & Gungor, 2021; Zhang, 2021), which confirms that lack of education is the most important contributing factor to poverty in the urban areas of the low-income communities of Gauteng, as the majority of the poor households do not have educational qualifications, which would assist in terms of getting better-paying jobs. Most of the household heads who are employed are either in labour-intensive, low-salary areas that require no education or are in the informal sector, including salespeople, vendors, domestic workers, mechanical or electrical workers, welders, and gardeners. Lei (2022) and Hanke and Lowitzsch (2020) found that a low level of education, whether among adults or children in a community, can set a social norm and therefore deter individual investment beyond the social norm (See also Cerroni, 2020).

The study found that in the three townships studied, only 43% of households have children between the ages of 7 and 18 that are attending school, and the rest are not. Children in government schools in South Africa do not pay school fees and are entitled to free basic education based on the post-apartheid education policy in South Africa. This has helped in terms of making it possible for the majority of school-going children to get a free basic education. However, even though education is free, it has brought about other challenges in terms of overcrowding in public schools, compromise on the quality of education offered, increased levels of inequality, and putting a strain on

available resources. Hanushek, Woessmann and Machin (2023) explored data for two birth cohorts to establish the relationship between deprivation in childhood, education attainment and later labour market performances and found that children who grow up in poor families have more of an impact on economic success as adults, which is confirmed in the findings. To add to that, it was also found that areas with a higher proportion of qualified young people tend to have many adults with degree-level qualifications (Playford, Mountford-Zimdars & Benham-Clarke, 2023). A number of studies have been done to establish the impact of poverty on educational attainment, and it has been established that there is a major gap in the performance of children from advantaged schools when compared with children from the disadvantaged schools (Thompson, 2020).

The above-mentioned is supported by Addae-Koran (2019) in one of his theories on anti-poverty. Programmes from a poverty perspective show that in other instances, poverty is brought on by cultural belief systems that foster poverty subcultures, in which the impoverished in certain areas or social circumstances have a common set of values, beliefs and behavioural standards that are distinct from but ingrained in the main society's culture. This also transfers to children who are born into such households and, as they grow up, tend to absorb the basic attitudes and values of their subculture. The majority of the children in poor communities do not attend school or leave school at an early age, as indicated above; only 43% of the children in poor communities are currently at school, and if they matriculate, they do not go for further training because they do not consider education as important in terms of changing their current situation. These findings imply that social exclusion mediates the effects of unemployment, economic factors and education; social exclusion suppresses the effects of unemployment, economic factors, and education on poverty. This means that social exclusion makes education and other economic factors ineffective or less effective.

It is interesting to note that in this study of low-income communities in urban areas, only 27.2% of the households consider themselves to be poor; the majority of the households are of the view that they live a reasonable life as they can afford basic needs and are able to access basic services. This mainly depends on how poverty is

defined by various scholars based on certain perspectives. According to Wang et al. (2022) for the urban poor population from the perspective of relative poverty, poverty is a situation where a household's income is relatively low compared to the average income level of the society; relative poverty rate is the ratio of the number of people living in relative poverty to the whole population.

Maia (2024) asserts that relative poverty is the inability of a household to have the resources that would enable it to participate in activities, customs and diets that are commonly approved by society. His theory defines relative poverty on the basis of 'relative deprivation'. This justifies the fact that minority households do not view themselves as poor when they compare themselves with the rest of the society in which they live. Other scholars, such as Rauhut and Hatti (2021) introduced the concept of 'capacity poverty', which other scholars transferred to a multi-dimensional perspective of vulnerability, discourse power and social exclusion (Pu, 2020).

ii. Economic dimension: Unemployment

According to Wakefield, Yu and Swanepoel (2022) and Mncayi-Makhanya and Shuping (2021), South Africa is among the countries in the world with the highest unemployment rates. From 1995, the labour force grew by over 5%, which the economy failed to absorb, the unemployment rate rose from 17% to 28%, and in the third quarter of 2021, it grew from 28% to 34.9%. This caused the informal sector to grow and absorb some of the excess labour force that could not be absorbed by the formal sector. Because growth in the labour market has a negative impact on wage growth in terms of market real wage determination, the informal labour market suffered the most when compared with the formal labour market as it absorbed the excess labour at a very low cost. According to Jamaludin, Masri and Nurfakhanah (2020), the improvement in overall macro-economic conditions has not helped the vulnerable such as women, young people, older workers, and the unskilled, who frequently wind up in low-paying positions. This suggests that poverty alleviation and unemployment reduction are not always seen as complementing policy objectives. There may be a trade-off between reducing unemployment and reducing poverty in some areas.

In order to boost the labour supply and lower unemployment, high growth rates and job creation necessitate a sharp decline in real wages, which lowers living standards

and raises the poverty rate. Maintaining a steady job lowers the likelihood of poverty and supports household incomes (Uchimura & Ohkado, 2020).

The results show that, in addition to other factors, poverty can also result from the exclusion of some persons or groups from the labour market, which prevents them from participating and gaining access to certain assets. Well over 40% of the people relied on government grants as a source of income. The majority of people have one source of income, and they cannot build resources based on that. Even though some households may have more than one source of income, the total income earned per hour is far less than the minimum wage prescribed by the government.

Statistically, the regression model of poverty showed that unemployment (coef. = -0.244, $p = .092 < .1$), the economic factor (coef. = .085, $p = .068 < .1$), the political factor (coef. = .076, $p = .000 < .01$) and assets (coef. = -.120, $p = .012 < .05$) are significant factors. These results indicate that unemployment increases poverty, whereas the economic factor, the political factor and assets decrease it. The findings indicate that for low-income communities in urban areas specifically, creating employment alone does not solve the problem of poverty, and when the labour market increases, the real wage decreases. Most people in low-income communities are involved in the informal economy, which results in an increasing number of working poor. Although unemployment has decreased to a certain extent, the overall poverty rate has increased in these areas. The majority of the informal workers are paid below the country's minimum wage, which has prompted the government to intervene, by giving out grants (a phenomenon that has made the poor people government dependent).

iii. Political factor

Political factors, such as lack of administrative skills, instability, corruption, and the ability of special interest groups to obstruct economic policy changes, are linked to discriminatory forces like racism and market failures, thereby preventing development. Development is hampered by both political and social issues. Political factors include the capacity of special interest groups to obstruct changes in economic policy, instability, corruption, and a lack of administrative expertise.

- **Lack of leadership that promotes pro-people policies.**

Sub-Saharan Africa faces post-colonialism due to leaders' failure to promote pro-people policies, abuse of human rights, and lack of democratic representation. This leads to underdevelopment, political violence, intolerance, repression and dictatorship, resulting in stalled economic growth and poverty.

- **Debilitating brain drain out of the poor countries of the world**

The brain drain occurs in poor countries due to poor economies, promoting scarce skill retention due to low pay and limited opportunities. Talented individuals migrate to rich countries for high-paying jobs, exacerbated by high unemployment rates. Global corporations prefer to bring talent from their own countries, leading to thousands of graduates leaving poor countries annually for better employment opportunities.

- **Corruption**

African leaders have become tyrants and one-party state rulers, introducing repressive legislation and corruption. These leaders often abuse resources, leading to the poorest nations in the world. Corruption has led to foreign donors withdrawing support from corrupt nations, and organisations like the World Bank and IMF have introduced stricter anti-corruption standards into their lending policies. However, some scholars argue that corruption can be beneficial for political development, contributing to economic development, national integration and administrative capacity. Corruption can also be normalised in organisations, embedding initial corrupt decisions into structures and processes, making them acceptable or desirable.

iv. Social Factor: Infrastructure and Services

The City of Johannesburg is one of the cities faced with rapid urbanisation, which has brought about high levels of urban poverty in South Africa. According to Gauteng's socio-economic outlook (2016), Gauteng's urbanisation rate is the highest in the country. Gauteng is experiencing high levels of poverty as the majority of the people are living in informal settlements, while the country is still suffering from the effects of policies intended to separate residential areas based on race, ethnicity and class. With reference to socio-economic factors, this element was measured with social factors such as the willingness of township community members to help each other, mutual trust, family conflicts, daily access to news or information and participation in decision-making processes in the township.

Infrastructure and services were measured using elements such as the accessibility, reliability and safety of government-funded school transport. It also assessed the provision of food for children, government support, non-government support programmes, the availability of sports facilities, road maintenance, and household satisfaction. The results were based on factors such as accessibility, reliability, safety and community satisfaction.

Recently, there has been growth and urgency in addressing infrastructure and service delivery in some of the poor communities living in cities in South Africa, which has been prompted by the rise in urbanisation. Many people, including immigrants fleeing poverty and unrest, are moving to South African cities. Most respondents reported access to government infrastructure and services. While transport is available, its reliability can be inconsistent.

Barrett et al., (2019) alluded to the fact that the provision of basic infrastructure for poor households leads to improved quality of life for the poor in different ways, such as improved economic and social activity and improvements in living areas, which lead to improvements in property values (Mishra & Agarwal, 2019). Infrastructure development is crucial for economic development.

6.2.3 RQ 3: What poverty alleviation strategies could be used in alleviating poverty in LICs of urban areas in South Africa?

In conceptualising poverty, although there is no consensus on the accepted definition of poverty, the study found that poverty is multi-dimensional and involves social, economic, political and cultural aspects of life. Poverty definition influences the design and implementation of poverty alleviation initiatives, and incorrect definitions can lead to ineffective and unsustainable solutions particularly as poverty is a complex issue involving social, economic, political, and cultural aspects.

The South African government has implemented numerous strategies, policies and programmes to address poverty and corruption:

The RDP policy was adopted by the new South African government to address the economic problems as well as factors such as high unemployment, inequality and reduce the high levels of poverty. However, the RDP policy failed to deliver in terms

of employment creation to alleviate poverty. According to Masters (2019), the first democratic South African government although it was ambitious to deliver, lacked the administrative capacity, as people responsible administratively had no sufficient skills to implement the RDP policy, also there were some organisational inefficiencies that hindered revenue collection. Although employment was created at that time, there was no proper plan for achieving economic growth and improve the rates of employment in order to reduce poverty. The economic growth grew slightly by 2.5% which failed to achieve the expected rate of between 4% and 6%.

Thereafter, the GEAR policy was introduced as a more conservative strategic macro-economic policy to lower inflation, reduce the budget deficit and create employment and not replace RDP policy. This policy failed to reduce poverty as jobs were lost in the formal sector instead of being created. South Africa lost 800 000 jobs instead of creating 1.3 million jobs as expected. Although the GEAR policy was well accepted locally and internationally, it was highly criticised as it lacked popular participation and consultation and was not subjected to public opinion (COSATU, 1998) The poverty rate increased and the gap between the poor and the rich widened.

In 2006, the government introduced the third policy which was ASGISA which is said to have failed to make an impact on poverty alleviation as the ANC government failed to fully achieve the set targets. ASGISA differed from RDP and GEAR as government used its own policy experts with external stakeholders such as economists and academics. The aim of ASGISA was to reduce unemployment from 30 to 15% and grow the economy to an average of 4.5% and thereafter, sustain it at 6%. In the process, the government was able to learn that South Africa has a shortage of skills and was unable to support small business that would assist in growing the economy (The Presidency, 2006). ASGISA somehow achieved some of the objectives, as growth rate increased to an average of 5%, and jobs were created through interventions such as EPWP. The challenge with programmes such as EPWP, is the nature of jobs which are temporary for 2 years and offer a stipend, which is insufficient considering the high inflation rate and high youth unemployment rate in South Africa.

Civil society organisations (CSOs) in South Africa have been actively engaged in initiatives to address poverty and corruption. Non-governmental organisations (NGOs)

and community-based organisations (CBOs) play a crucial role in implementing programmes that focus on the grassroots development and empowerment of marginalised communities. These include initiatives targeting education, healthcare, and skill development. Transparency and advocacy organisations also play a pivotal role in monitoring and exposing cases of corruption, promoting accountability, and advocating for anti-corruption measures at various levels of society.

Despite all the existing poverty alleviation interventions done in South Africa, poverty levels continue to increase (Cohen et al., 2022). It seems that government policies and programmes adopted to combat the effect and impact of the spread of poverty are generally Western-oriented and based on Western philosophies. Hence, they are not suitable for developing countries like South Africa (Beegle & Christiaensen 2019; Gumede, 2021b); Schaafsma et al., 2021). Ndaguba (2019) argues that global interventionist techniques are not fit for local growth and development for three primary reasons, which are capital, capacity and structure.

The existing poverty alleviation programmes and policies are not effective because the wrong problems are identified in communities. If the wrong problem is identified, the local area's exercise and financial investment are based on a flawed foundation that will ultimately not provide any results but, more often than not, lead to the creation of new problems.

This necessitates involvement in the phases of programme objective identification, formulation, and implementation. This is critical for the advancement of the community. Thajane (2019) states that in Africa, in most cases, problems are identified and formulated at the national level and implemented in the local areas using a top-down approach that does not work. Community economic development therefore proposes a medium through which buying into local and local investments, among others, are promoted. The principles of localism should be promoted, with a loop through which collaboration is eminent.

Uncertainty and opacity surrounding poverty-related policies in government operations make it difficult to set specific goals, create all-encompassing plans, organise efforts to reduce poverty and provide operational guidelines. This explains the South African government's poverty reduction strategy, which has led to the country's dependence

(Ndaguba, 2019). There is a lack of community involvement in choosing community initiatives and programmes for social and economic development (Mahembe & Odhiambo, 2019).

Only a policy for regeneration and reconversion, as well as a framework that explains and harmonises sustainability concerns and localisation challenges for communities in each locality, can ensure sustainability. Local investments, purchasing locally produced goods, shopping at local establishments, local regeneration, local reconversion, community connections to larger markets, a people's social identity and solidarity as a means of social development are some of the initiatives and cultural practices that must be learned, developed, incorporated and maintained in local and rural areas in order to reduce poverty. For any community to survive and be economically viable or sustainable, it is essential to develop a sustainable capital and market. The localisation challenges of communities differ, but the existing frameworks do not align them with development initiatives to develop communities.

6.2.4 RQ 4: What sustainable framework could be developed and used for poverty alleviation in LICs of urban areas in South Africa?

The study proposes a sustainable framework for poverty alleviation in low-income communities of urban areas of Gauteng Province in South Africa. The conceptual framework shows that the factors of poverty and poverty alleviation have been found to include social, economic, political, and cultural variables. A Sustainable Framework for Poverty Alleviation in low-income urban communities of South Africa is outlined and discussed in chapter 5 (figure 5.12).

6.3 STUDY LIMITATIONS

The study experienced some limitations. Time was a limitation in that the study was conducted in the three chosen locations on households and collecting data from a large number of respondents took time. Secondly, timing was of essence, as the problems existing today could alter due to political changes. It is imperative that such research be completed in a short period of time to achieve reliable results. Furthermore, the communities were also challenging. Although people are expected to give accurate information, they tend to hold back as poverty issues are sensitive, more especially in poverty-stricken communities. A further limitation which could have

had an effect, is that businesses were not included in the study and so they were not interviewed to obtain their views on the poverty alleviation strategies. In addition, because of budgetary constraints and political unrest in some locations, the data collection process was prolonged. Lastly, while the findings may not be entirely applicable to other provinces or regions, they can be used for those with comparable traits.

6.4 CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE BODY OF KNOWLEDGE

i. Theoretical Contribution

Poverty results from social exclusion, which exacerbates economic inefficiencies. According to this study, social factors, economic factors (including unemployment), political factors, household size, assets, education and social exclusion (a mediator variable between these variables and poverty) were found to be the main causes of poverty in low-income communities in the urban areas of Gauteng.

This study also emphasises the social exclusion element in poverty theories and frameworks, the correct conceptualisation of poverty and that localisation of problems and challenges is of critical importance, as well as the fact that poverty is a multidimensional phenomenon that includes social participation as a resource for avoiding poverty and its consequences, thus aligning with Cronin (2017).

The researcher is of the opinion that social exclusion should be positioned as a mediating link between the independent variables and the dependent variables, that is, poverty and poverty alleviation. Not much has been done in terms of focusing on the development of poverty alleviation strategies and policies for low-income communities in urban areas; hence, this study made an attempt to bridge the gap by focusing on integrated theories of poverty that incorporate the theory of social exclusion.

ii. Practical Contribution

In spite of efforts made by the government, private institutions and CSOs in developing good policies and programmes aimed at improving the lives of the citizens of the country, South Africa is still faced with major and increasing challenges with regards to poverty alleviation. Existing government and business poverty alleviation

programmes are not effective. This study was therefore intended to fill this gap by focusing on assessing the role of government and CSOs in alleviating poverty and subsequently proposing a sustainable framework for poverty alleviation which includes social, economic, political and cultural variables, namely, unemployment, corruption, lack of assets and lack of education as its pillars or dimensions and social exclusion as a mediating variable between the independent variables and poverty alleviation as the dependent variable. Such a framework could be used to reduce unemployment and poverty of low-income communities located in urban areas, such as Khayelitsha in the Western Cape.

The framework provides insights into poverty alleviation, illustrating that poverty is a result of social exclusion, which mediates the effects of unemployment, corruption, a lack of assets and a lack of education on poverty and poverty alleviation. Poor communities need to become involved as opportunities to build the country can only be realised through participatory, rather than representative, democracy. Citizens are the people who can identify the gaps in the communities in which they live in and be in a position to mobilise for change in order to realise growth. The poverty alleviation strategy should prioritise people, community and economic growth, fostering job creation, entrepreneurial initiatives, political inclusion and education enhancement.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

The following are the recommendations and policy implications.

6.3.1 Government

- The quality of education tends to produce high levels of skilled labour. A good educational background can alleviate poverty by ensuring that children are taught skills they will need for future employment or to venture into business.
- The government and other stakeholders should engage in radical changes and the equitable distribution of resources, as well as improve the levels of education and development.
- Inflexible labour laws such as the minimum wage, which have prevented most industries such as restaurants, hotels, cleaning services from hiring locals due to the demand for a living wage, should be revisited.

- Lack of proper training, such as internship opportunities, due to changes in government and private systems to enhance skills, should be avoided.
- Illegal immigrants from neighbouring countries that are providing cheap labour and flooding the South African labour market, should be avoided.
- All citizens should be given the opportunity to upskill so that when economic opportunities are available, they are well able to take them up. Without the skills, it becomes impossible for individuals to take up the opportunities.
- The government should deal with corruption decisively and make sure that people who get employed have the right qualifications.
- The government should consider the non-material aspects of poverty in determining the strategies and frameworks proposed and adopted for poverty alleviation in the country.
- The official discourse on poverty in South Africa should rely on a multi-dimensional measurement of poverty.
- The government should play a major role in terms of trade facilitation, employment provision and the creation of new entrepreneurs.
- The Ministry of Small Business Development, established in 2014, should develop a strategic action plan to increase financial and non-financial support.
- A demand for the local products and services provided by the SMMEs should be created to reduce regulatory constraints (DTI, 2008). Government institutions such as the Small Enterprise Development Agency (SEDA), are in the right direction and should therefore be encouraged. Government intervention in development should be done with care not to result in crowding out private investment or creating opportunities for rent-seeking activities and corruption.
- The government's involvement in businesses should be minimised.
- Entrepreneurship should be encouraged by giving the necessary support to SMEs/SMMEs to enhance employment.
- The government must partner with businesses, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and civil society organisations (CSOs) to enhance socio-economic development.
- Transparency should be encouraged.

- Corruption should be avoided at all costs, and the government should come up with measures for this to happen. Corrupt government officials should be dealt with according to the law, and those found guilty should be convicted.
- The government should address the issue of the cost of education. Most poor households are excluded from participation in educating their children because of the high cost of education. The education of children in poor households (depending on the official poverty line) should be funded.
- The government should encourage people to have at least basic literacy and numeracy skills. This will result in lowering the risk of experiencing social exclusion as adults because educational attainment has been found to have a positive effect on labour market participation and unemployment.

6.3.2 Community

- Communities should become involved in identifying community programmes and projects for social and economic development. Sustainability can only be guaranteed through a regeneration and reconversion policy and a framework that articulates and harmonises sustainability issues and localisation challenges for communities in each locality.
- Initiatives and culture must be learned, developed, incorporated and sustained in local and rural areas, and among them, local investments, buying locally made products, patronising local shops, local regeneration, local reconversion, community linking with bigger markets, the social identity of a people and solidarity as a form of social development.
- Building sustainable capital and markets in communities should be encouraged, as these are integral to the survival of any community that wishes to be economically viable or sustainable.
- The correct problems should be locally identified in the community. If a wrong problem is identified, then the exercise and finance expended in a local area will be premised on a faulty foundation that will eventually not produce any outcome, but, in most cases, create a new problem rather than solve one.
- The community must become involved in identifying community programmes and projects for social and economic development. Regeneration/reconversion

policy and a framework that articulates and harmonises sustainability issues and localisation challenges of communities in the locality are critical.

- Local challenges of communities need to be realigned with development initiatives to develop them because communal challenges differ according to context.
- Communities themselves should participate in the identification, formulation, and implementation stages of programme objectives. Problems must be identified and formulated at the local level to be implemented in the local areas.

6.6 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Businesses were not included in the current study. Further research should be undertaken to determine the impact of business on poverty alleviation.

Similar research could be done in other parts of South Africa, especially in rural areas, to devise a suitable framework for poverty alleviation in those particular areas. It is imperative that this kind of research be completed in a short period of time to achieve reliable results.

6.7 A FINAL WORD

This research project has taken me on a fascinating journey in that I have not only learnt how to engage in scientific research, but I also now have a deeper understanding of poverty and poverty alleviation, especially in specific urban areas in South Africa. To end off the research, I am once again reminded of the words of Nelson Mandela: “Overcoming poverty is not a gesture of charity. It is an act of justice. It is the protection of a fundamental human right, the right to dignity and a decent life.”

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Ethical Clearance

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Cnr Janadel and Alexandra Avenues, Midrand, 1685, Tel: +27 11 652 0000, Fax: +27 11 652 0299
E-mail: sbl@unisa.ac.za Website: www.unisa.ac.za/sbl

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS LEADERSHIP RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE (GSBL CRERC)

06 September 2021

Ref #: 2021_SBL_DBL_003_FA

Name of applicant: Ms T Malope

Student #: 71372318

Dear Ms Malope

Decision: Ethics Approval

Student: Ms T Malope, (tmalope@sars.gov.za , 082 496 3754)

Supervisor: Prof P Serumaga-Zake, (ps Serumagazake@yahoo.com , 0645384519)

Project Title: A Conceptual Framework for Poverty Alleviation in Urban Areas of South Africa.

Qualification: Doctor of Business Leadership (DBL)

Expiry Date: August 2023

Thank you for applying for research ethics clearance, SBL Research Ethics Review Committee reviewed your application in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics.

Outcome of the SBL Research Committee: Approval is granted for the duration of the Project

The application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the SBL Research Ethics Review Committee on the 12/08/2021.

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

- 1) The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the relevant guidelines set out in the Unisa Covid-19 position statement on research ethics attached
- 2) The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
- 3) Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the SBL Research Ethics Review Committee.
- 4) An amended application could be requested if there are substantial changes from the existing proposal, especially if those changes affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants.
- 5) The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study.

University of South Africa, PO Box 392, Unisa, 0003, South Africa
Cnr Janadri and Alexandra Avenues, Midrand, 1685, Tel: +27 11 652 0000, Fax: +27 11 652 0299
E-mail: sbl@unisa.ac.za Website: www.unisa.ac.za/sbl

Kind regards,

NBW/MLitwa

Prof N Mlitwa

Chairperson: SBL Research Ethics Committee

011 - 652 0000/ wiltonb@unisa.ac.za

Pumeleli Msweli

Prof P Msweli

Executive Dean: Graduate School of Business Leadership

011- 652 0256/mswelo@unisa.ac.za

Appendix B: Informed Consent

Informed consent for participation in an academic research project

A Conceptual Framework for Poverty Alleviation in urban areas of South Africa

Dear Respondent

You are herewith invited to participate in an academic research study conducted by Ms. Thoko Malope, a student in the Doctor of Business Leadership at UNISA's Graduate School of Business Leadership (SBL).

The purpose of the study is to investigate the role of government and business in alleviating poverty and subsequently develop a conceptual framework for poverty alleviation in urban areas of South Africa. All your answers will be treated as confidential, and you will not be identified in any of the research reports emanating from this research.

Your participation in this study is very important to us. You may however choose not to participate, and you may withdraw from the study at any time without any negative consequences. The interview to be conducted should not take more than 20-30 minutes of your time.

The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only and may be published in an academic journal. We will provide you with a summary of our findings on request.

Please contact my supervisor, Prof. P Serumaga-zake, pserumaga-za@gmail.com if you have any questions or comments regarding the study. Please sign below to indicate your willingness to participate in the study.

Yours sincerely

Ms. Thoko Malope

I,.....; herewith give my consent to participate in the study. I have read the letter and understand my rights with regard to participating in the research.

Respondent's signature

Date

Appendix C: Structured Questionnaire

Structured Questionnaire

Topic: A Conceptual Framework for Poverty Alleviation in urban areas of South Africa

Household Questionnaire

Questionnaire Details

Name of Respondent	
Name of Head of Household	
Name of Location	
Name of District	
Name of Assessor	

Instructions

- All of these questions refer to conditions over the last 12 months and apply only to your household or township.
- Please provide only one answer for each question
- Household members include only those living together in one house or those being supported by the household.

Household Basic Data (Demographics)

How many people are there in your household?	
How many families are there in the household?	
How many living adult males are there in the household?	
How many living adult females are there in the household?	
How many living male children (younger than 18 years) are there in the household?	
How many living female children (younger than 18 years) are there in the household?	
What is the ethnic majority of your household?	Write the circled number in the boxes below
1 Black, 2 Coloureds, 3 White African, 4 Indian/Asian, 5 Other	
Are there any orphans, single mothers or disabled persons in your household?	
1. Yes more than one	
2. Yes, only one	
3. No	

Is your family having access to basic needs?	
1. No	
2. Yes	
Do members of the household have identity documents?	
1. Yes	
2. No	

Health and Nutrition

Has there been any shortage of food for more than 1 month during the past 12 months?		
1. Yes		
2. No		
Does your household have access to clean drinking water?		
1 yes		
2 No		
3 Yes, but only sometimes		
4 Yes, always		
In the event of sickness, do members of your household always receive modern medical treatment from a doctor, nurse, midwife or traditional care from a traditional healer		
1 Never		
2 Sometimes		
3 Yes, always		
4 Nobody has been sick for the last 12 months		
Does the community where you live have the following?	Yes (1)	No (2)
Conveniently located health and social services		
Conveniently located emergency care centres		
Homecare-based services including health, personal care, and housekeeping		
Well-trained certified home care providers		
Well-trained certified home health care providers		
A variety of health care professionals including specialists		

Material Wealth

(Please Access for yourself, DO NOT ASK) What is the quality of the respondent's house like?	
1. Below standard	
2. Standard	
3. Above standard	
(Please Access for yourself, DO NOT ASK) Does the household own a car or a motorbike?	
3. No	
4. Yes	
(Please Access for yourself, DO NOT ASK) Does the household own a satellite dish or a refrigerator?	
1. No	
2. Yes	
Do you own or rent your primary home – or do you have some type of living arrangement, such as living with a family member or friend?	
1. Own	
2. Rent	

3. Other type of living arrangement	

Knowledge

What is the highest level of education among the adult members of your household (including the household head)?	
1. Primary school or lower	
2. Secondary school or completed matric	
3. Post Matric qualifications (certificate, diploma, degree)	
Are there any children aged between 7 and 18 years old in your household attending school (children funded by your household)	
1. None attend school	
2. Not all attend school	
3. All attend school	
3. No children aged between 7 and 18	
Are there any household members with additional vocational training (any other training such as welding , electrical or mechanical)	
1. None	
2. One person	
3. More than one person	
Do you consider your household poor?	
1. Yes, it is poor	
2. Fairly	
3. No	

Economic Sphere

Which of the following have been the most reliable and important sources of income for your household over the past 12 months?	
1.Salary/Wages	
2.Government grant	
3. Other Services (tradesman, workshop, spaza etc.)	
How many sources of income do you have?	
1. One	
2. More than one	
Do you pay any school fees for the children?	
1.No	
2.Yes, private school	
Does your family afford basic food stuff such as mealie meal, beans, bread and sugar	
1. Yes	
2. No	
3. Sometimes	
Do you consider your household poor?	
1. Yes, it is poor	
2. Fairly	
3. No	

Social Sphere

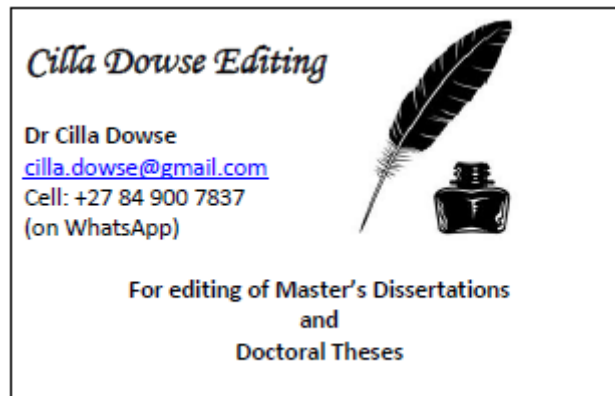
How willing are township community members to help each other (doing work or financially)	
1. Not very willing	
2. Reasonably willing	
3. Very willing	
How are feelings of mutual trust among community members in the township?	
1. Low	
2. Medium	
3. High (most people are trustworthy)	
Do conflicts frequently arise between people of families in the township?	
1. Yes, frequently	
2. No	
3. Rarely occur	
Does your household have daily access to news or information from TV, newspaper or radio?	
1. No	
2. Yes, from one source	
3. Yes, from more than one news/ information source	
Do you or other members of your household participate in decision –making processes in you township (not including decisions made by local councils in resolving disputes)	
1. Never	
2. Sometimes	
3. Always	

Infrastructure and Services

Does your community have accessible and convenient public transport?	
1. No	
2. Yes	
3. Sometimes	
How reliable is your public transport?	
1. Not reliable	
2. Reliable	
3. High (available all the time)	
Does your community have reliable government funded school transport?	
1. Yes, frequently	
2. No	
3. Sometimes	
Is the public transport provided by government for free safe for the children?	
1. No	
2. Yes	
3. Yes, most of the time	
Do the children at school receive food (feeding scheme)?	
1. Yes	
2. No	
3. Sometimes	
Does your community receive any other government support for example subsidy on food, food parcels or any other form of subsidy etc.	
1. Yes	
2. No	
3. Yes, sometimes	

Does your community receive nongovernment support programmes from companies, civil society and other community organisations?	
1.Yes	
2.No	
3.Yes, sometimes	
Do you have sports facilities, park or other places considered suitable for recreation in the township?	
1.Yes	
2.No	
Are the facilities conveniently located and easily accessible?	
1.Yes	
2.No	
Are the roads in the township tarred	
1.Yes	
2.No	
Are the tarred roads well maintained	
1.Yes	
2.No	
3.Yes, sometimes	
Do you consider your household to be happy?	
1.No it is unhappy	
2.Reasonably happy	
3.Yes, it is happy	

Appendix D: Proof of Editing



This letter serves to confirm that editing and proofreading was done for:

THOKOZILE MALOPE

Doctor of Business Leadership

University of South Africa-SBL

**SUSTAINABLE FRAMEWORK FOR POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN LOW-INCOME
URBAN COMMUNITIES OF SOUTH AFRICA**

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads 'Cilla Dowse'.

Cilla Dowse

12 November 2024

Cilla Dowse PhD in Assessment and Quality Assurance in Education and Training: University of Pretoria 2014 Basic Editing and Proofreading: McGillivray Linnegar Associates 2008 Programme on Editing Principles and Practices: University of Pretoria 2009 Editing and Proofreading for Academic Purposes: McGillivray Linnegar Associates 2021 Professional Editors' Guild Associate Member, DOW003
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Disclaimer: The editor takes no responsibility for any changes or revision to the document after the final round of editing has been completed and the proof of editing certificate issued.

Appendix E: Turnitin Report

Similarity Report	
PAPER NAME	AUTHOR
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WORD COUNT	CHARACTER COUNT
94714 Words	527954 Characters
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291 Pages	6.9MB
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