

**University of Zululand**



Social grants, food security and coping strategies: a case study of selected households in Umhlathuze District, KwaZulu-Natal

by

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A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Arts in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of  
Master of Arts in Development Studies

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## **Acknowledgements**

It is important that I thank my supervisors, Prof BM Selepe and Mr. MM Masuku. I am grateful for your support from the beginning up until the final submission, as it has been an incredible, inspirational and challenging journey. I would like to thank the Department of Development Studies. It has been a pleasure being your student. I am grateful for the support of the individuals that voluntarily assisted me in the process of data collection. Thank you to my supervisor at work for the great conversations about research which were truly encouraging and informative. My heart goes out to my supportive parents and friends who never talk about giving up, but share sentiments of encouragement and the need to emulate to become a better person.

## **Dedication**

To my loving parents who have unconditionally supported me, encouraged me to be brave and trust in the Lord in the face of all challenges. This study is also dedicated to those that suffer from hunger and poverty, and to all those that invest their resources - whether financial, time or energy - to help the most vulnerable.

## **Abstract**

The main aim of this study was to establish an association between social grants and access to sufficient food within beneficiary households and how these households cope with food insecurity. A data set of 100 respondents from uMhlatuze city was used to determine the effectiveness of social grants. Firstly, the results of the regression analysis show the relationship between characteristics of the household caregiver such as gender, educational attainment, marital status and employment status, with food (in)security. The intention was to determine whether such features reduce or augment household access to adequate food, and it was discovered that most of these characteristics do not significantly affect food (in)security levels. Households running out of food, the skipping of meals and reasons for skipping meals were used as predictors of food insecurity. Also, other methods were utilised to comprehensively assess the significance of social grants, such as: reviewing how the households utilised the income from the grants, the percentage contribution of the grants to the general household income and what other sources of income the households had. It was evident that grant income was pooled amongst household members to support various household necessities other than food. When households received grants, they spent them on food, education, medical costs, clothes, payment of loans, water bills, starting a small business and building a home, and very few could afford to make savings or investments. The majority of households admitted that they would be incapable of surviving without the grants, as they were a necessary contribution towards food access. It had been fully established that households were food insecure and sometimes hungry; therefore, there was a necessity for assessing the types of adopted coping strategies. Unfortunately, many used mechanisms that were harmful to the households in the long run, such as taking loans, skipping meals and purchasing cheap food. To assess the importance of caregiver characteristics for food security, a simple correlation analysis was used. It was discovered that the progression of food insecurity does not subside or grow within the household on account of caregiver socio-demographic characteristics. They were ineffectual in sufficiently achieving food access. In conclusion, social grant beneficiary households at Umhlatuze are food insecure. This is an unfortunate state of affairs, as access to sufficient food is a basic human right, according to Section 27 of the South African Constitution.

## Acronyms

CG: Caregiver  
CSG: Child Support Grant  
EUMAGINS: European Margins  
FAO: Food and Agriculture Organisation  
FCG: Female Caregiver  
FHH: Female-headed Household  
GDP: Gross Domestic Product  
GHS: General Household Survey  
HLPE: High Level Panel of Experts  
IDP: Integrated Development Plan  
ILO: International Labour Organisation  
IPA: Innovation for Poverty Action  
KZN: KwaZulu-Natal  
LIC's: Low Income Countries  
MCG: Male Caregiver  
MGD: Millennium Development Goal  
MHH: Male-headed Household  
OAG: Old Age Grant  
SA: South Africa  
SACNR: South African Cities Network Report  
SASAS: South African Social Attitudes Survey  
SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences  
TAs: Traditional Authorities  
USDA: United States Department of Agriculture

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## **CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY**

### **1.1 Introduction**

South Africa has a well-developed system of social security and its uninterrupted reach has expanded rapidly since 1994. Nonetheless, more is yet to be done for the social security system to meet its constitutional obligations. Overall, there are three pillars of social security: namely, social grants assistance, social insurance funds and occupational and voluntary schemes (Hanekom, 2016 and Brockerhoff, 2013). Although social security takes on different forms, the main focus of this chapter will be directed towards social assistance, as this study focuses mainly on social assistance and its relationship to food security. The social grants assistance programme is distinguishable from the other two pillars which are typically associated with private employment benefits, retirement plans and private pension scheme benefits etc.

According to Woolard, Harttgen and Klasen (2010) and Daidone, Davis and Dewbre (2014), the South African social grants assistance programme is an important government attempt to provide financial security to those who are needy and without the means of supporting themselves. Grants available include child support grant, old age grant, disability grant, grant-in-aid, care dependency grant, war veterans' grant and foster child grant, all of which will be further discussed in Chapter 2. These grants are intended to reduce deprivation among vulnerable people on a low income such as the elderly, children and those people with disabilities who cannot fully participate in the labour market.

Since post-democracy, the national proportion of grant beneficiaries has also been rapidly increasing (Brockerhoff, 2013; Grobler, 2015). By way of illustrating the rapid increase of beneficiaries, households receiving at least one form of social grant rose from 29,9% of the population in 2003 to 44,3% in 2010, then rose to 45.5% in 2015 (General Household Survey, 2015). Currently in 2017, a slight increase in monthly social grant payments has expanded to more than 17 million beneficiaries nationally, as announced in the national budget, and is expected to support 18.1 million in the next three years. Approximately a third of South African citizens and more than half of all households in some provinces now receive at least one social grant from the state (Devereux, 2017).

In theory, the constant growth of social grant assistance should result in an improvement in national food security indicators. Ideally, the beneficiaries should have more money to spend on food, diet should diversify and the number of meals per day should increase. The effect of social grants should assist in improving household access to food on a regular basis. Grants are meant to help reduce food insecurity and hunger, but nevertheless they are failing to effectively eradicate it due to various other limiting factors and the diverse aspects of food security. Though state grants are necessary, scholars such as Finn, Woolard and Leibbrandt (2013) argue that they are not enough and the small increase in the value of the grant does not substantially change the status quo.

South Africa displays a provincial variation in the state of food security, as the general household survey shows that some provinces, more than others, show greater inaccessibility to food. For instance, North West is the highest at 37.3%, followed by Northern Cape at 30.7%, Eastern Cape at 29.4%, and Mpumalanga at 29.4%. It is apparent that South Africa is reasonably food secure at a national level, but scholars equally maintain the view that there is a significant level of severe food insecurity at household level (Grobler, 2014, Grobler and Dunga, 2015). According to the South African National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (SANHANES) data, the levels of food security nationally have escalated, reflecting persistently severe and moderate food insecurity (Shisana, Labadarios, Rehle, Simbayi and Zuma, 2014) and this is despite the presence of social grants.

Since the post-apartheid era, South Africa's condition has been inconsistent. Inequality, unemployment and food insecurity continue to be incredibly high (Mokwena, 2016). According to Stats SA (2016), the level of youth unemployment is persistently high. As of 2016, approximately 30.6% of youth aged 15-24 years were not in employment, education or training, and this percentage point has increased compared to the year 2015. Also nationally, as of September 2016, unemployment is persistently high at 36.3% for all those of working age.

Unemployment affects South Africans negatively. The soaring level of unemployment, coupled with the lower living wage, increases the likelihood of households becoming more prone to hunger, starvation and food insecurity (Dodd and Nyabvudzi, 2014). As a reaction to unemployment, many rely on the grant income earned by other household members. At this standpoint, grant income is spread thinly amongst other household members, compromising

its effectiveness in meeting the basic needs of the intended beneficiaries (MacInnes, Tinson, Gaffney, Horgan and Baumberg, 2014).

Both positive and negative spin-offs of state grants have been found. Ndobu and (2013) show the positive contribution of social grants, in the form of an increased expenditure towards food by beneficiary households which is directly attributed to the presence of grants. This is in line with the thinking of Shisana et al. (2014), who also reflect on the increased usefulness of social grants on household consumption and food security. Grobler (2015), on the other hand, argue that the more households depend on grants for their livelihood, the more likely they are to be food insecure, thus compromising the quality of their meals. Firstly, this is because grants cannot keep up with inflation and the increasing cost of food, and grant income is spread amongst various household needs and people (Devereux, 2017).

This study highlights both the positive outcomes and the shortcomings of state cash transfers delivered to impoverished and vulnerable people and how the recipients use the money. Lastly, it confirms whether cash transfers in the context of uMhlathuze support consumption and improve the welfare of recipients and their broader households. The study is specifically conducted in the uMhlathuze area as, according to the 2012/2017 IDP of uMhlathuze, the community is in a position where many households are unable to sustainably support themselves. Such a challenge is exacerbated by a range of factors at play that drive up the cost of food, while social welfare is not sufficiently increasing in conjunction with food prices (Gutura and Tanga, 2014). The current dependency on social grant packages and the social welfare support by the municipality is felt, due to financial constraints faced by the municipality. It is therefore necessary to understand how livelihoods are sustained and whether the efforts invested in the reduction of food insecurity with the aid of grants is still serving its intended purpose.

## **1.2 Background of the study**

Poverty and food insecurity is at the centre of development debates. Principal development institutions, notably the World Bank through its Poverty Reduction Strategies such as Structural Adjustment Programs which have not been successful for various reasons, as well

as the United Nations through its Millennium Development Goals, are dedicated to addressing these issues (Carletto, Jolliffe and Banerjee, 2015). Nevertheless, the discussion is also focused on the role of the state, with special interest in the role it plays in social protection, as well as in addressing chronic food insecurity and poverty. The Government's intervention is set out in the Constitution of South Africa and takes many forms, including direct cash transfers through state grants.

A speech by finance minister Pravin Gordhan revealed that an estimated 3% (R180 billion) of GDP goes towards social grant expenditure (National Budget, 2017). The grants are advanced and cover a broad range of people, as intended. They cover the most vulnerable throughout their lifetime, from childhood to adulthood and into old age (Lekezwa, 2011). South Africa by far has the largest expenditure on social grants compared to other countries globally, while this expenditure does not go far in terms of alleviating food insecurity. All this raises the question of effectiveness in reducing hunger and food insecurity and how significant its impact is on food security.

Section 27 (1) (c) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa provides that “everyone has the right to have access to social security, including appropriate social assistance for those who are unable to support themselves and their dependants.” The State has a further obligation to take reasonable legislative and other measures, within its available resources, to achieve the progressive realisation of this right. Moreover, food security is central to Section 27 (1) (b) of the Bill of Rights in South Africa, as it states that “every citizen has a right to access sufficient food and water”. The Constitution, along with international law, identifies the association between income and social assistance and acknowledges that the poor have the right to social grants when they cannot meet their most basic needs (Halland Budlender, 2016).

Social grants are perceived as essential by law and by those that benefit from them, as they help increase household expenditure on basic necessities such as food, clothes and school fees, amongst other things (Mudzingiri, Moyana and Mbengo, 2016). Gutura and Tanga (2014) argue that even though social grants provide a level of food security, and are a safety net for the vulnerable households nationally; nonetheless the issue of poverty and inequality remains a persistent problem. This begs the question of concern about the impact of social grants, whether grant beneficiary households experience a reduction in hunger and food

insecurity, whether they are no longer at risk of hunger or whether they are now food insecure without hunger and how they sustain a livelihood. This study thus reveals the welfare of grant beneficiary homes and establishes existing conditions that constrain food security and which may require attention. This contributes to the realisation of struggles of grant beneficiary homes in putting food on their tables and the strategies they use to cope with failure to access adequate food on a daily basis.

### **1.3 Statement of the problem**

Thornton, Leibbrandt and Ardington (2016) argue that South Africa is food secure as a country while Grobler (2014) and Grobler and Dunga, (2015) support the view that, at household level, there is a significant level of severe food insecurity. The cause of food insecurity is not due to a shortage of food, but rather an inadequate access to food by certain categories of individuals and households in the population. Statistics South Africa has shown that food insecurity is not an exceptional, short-term event, but is rather a continuous threat for more than a third of the population (Stats SA, 2011). Almost two decades after the political transition in 1994, more than 14% of the people in the country still experience food insecurity, both in rural and urban areas.

The country's persistent social and economic inequalities have reduced access to food for the poor (Vella, 2012). Hunger rates may have declined, but almost half of households in rural areas experience inadequate access to food as compared to urban households. Food security is established on four pillars, namely: availability, accessibility, utilisation and stability. However, it must be noted that this study focuses on the accessibility aspect of food security within the grants beneficiaries' households. Attention is on food access, since for various reasons the biggest problem of food security nationally has been identified as 'limited access to food'.

The vast majority of South Africans suffer the most from food price inflation, as they buy their staple foods from commercial suppliers, rather than growing it themselves, and are therefore dependent on having (direct or indirect) access to cash (Ndobu and Sekhampu 2013). Food price inflation is one of the contributing factors to weakening access to food in South Africa. Since 2008, the average price of food has been escalating faster than the

economy or the value of the grants. When comparing January 2017 with January 2016 retail prices, very significant price inflation (10 % or more) was observed by the Market and Economic Research Centre (2017) for many products within the food basket. As such, price increases are said to be one of the main contributors to households' food insecurity rather than a shortage of supply and distribution (Vella, 2012). The concept of food security is multidimensional in nature and this at times leads to conflicting views about what being food insecure entails. As such, the many factors that have an effect on access to food are sometimes misunderstood and this has an adverse impact on the capacity to identify appropriate policies to improve access to food.

Several studies have been undertaken in order to understand household food security and it has been established that demographic and socio-economic factors can be crucial in assessing and understanding household food security. For instance, Meyer and Nishimwe-Niyimbanira (2016), Tantu, Gamebo, Sheno and Kabalo (2017) and Bashir et al.(2012) noted that educational attainment of the household head and size of household income positively influence food security, while larger household size negatively affects food security. Although food insecurity has been identified in urban areas, it has also been largely identified as a rural phenomenon (Sonnino, 2016). Generally, it is a characteristic of rural areas to be “physically isolated, separated and having poor access to food” (Marshall, Dawson and Nisbet, 2017). Smith and Abrahams (2015) argues that grant income may not be adequate for food security, considering the high cost of living accompanied by a depreciating rand value. As a result, households need to adopt coping strategies to manage food insecurity and grant inadequacy.

These are some of the many studies that make evident the need to disentangle the issue of food security from varying standpoints. This study elaborates further on these findings by establishing the relationship between food security status and social grants in selected rural households at uMhlathuze in the KwaZulu-Natal province, South Africa and how these households sustain their livelihoods. Furthermore, the study associates demographic variables with food security status and how the vulnerable households cope with food insecurity. Hopefully, the findings of this study will make a meaningful contribution to the existing literature and can be used as a point of reference when setting programmes relating to vulnerable social grant beneficiary households in rural settlements of South Africa.



## **1.4 Aim**

The aim of the study is to establish the relationship between food security and social grants within selected grant beneficiary households in Umhlathuze traditional authority areas. Also, the study aims to establish how vulnerable social grants households make a livelihood and cope with food insecurity should that be the case.

## **1.5 Objectives of the study**

- To capture the relationship between state grants and household access to food in a rural traditional authority at uMhlathuze, KwaZulu-Natal
- To gain an understanding of how these grants are utilised within recipient households.
- Discuss the mechanisms that households undertake to ensure access to food

## **1.6 Research questions**

- How do state grants contribute to household food security of rural households at uMhlathuze?
- What are the expense priorities of grant beneficiary households?
- What do households do when they do not have enough food, or enough money to buy food?

## **1.7 Research delimitations**

South Africa has a long history of food insecurity. This study, however, reports selectively on social grant beneficiaries and establishes household livelihood and food security status after the introduction of social grants. It is predominantly limited to two main variables - food security and social grants - and only homes with grant beneficiaries residing within the households are included in the sample.

## **1.8 Significance of the study**

The findings of the study would benefit society, as food security and poverty reduction are an important aspect of development in the country. The attempt by the state to improve livelihoods and reduce food insecurity through social grants justifies the need to assess the impact and the success that these efforts currently have on the welfare of the households. Consideration of findings derived from this study could assist policy-makers with the formulation of better strategic objectives that will present various economic opportunities and development programmes. This would lead to these households being able to sustain their livelihoods. It would create a guide on what should be emphasised when dealing with the problem of food insecurity in grant beneficiary homes.

## **1.9 Research methodology for measuring food in/security**

The study selected a quantitative approach. The selection is informed by the objectives of the study. The ideal is to determine the relationship between the two main variables (social grants and food security) within the population of uMhlatuze. The study has 100 representative households, with one respondent per household. Because of the size of the sample, this study would not be generalised to the overall population of South Africa, but it would assist in giving an idea about the general state of food insecurity within these vulnerable households and how they cope with food shortages. One major factor which affects the sample size is that the study has been self-funded, therefore could not be expanded to a much larger sample.

Purposive sampling will be used to select respondents. The sample will be homogenous, composed solely of households that benefit from social grants. This sampling method will be used, together with snowball sampling, as respondents would disclose other households that benefited from grants and might be willing to participate. The data collection tool is written in English and translated into isiZulu. Data would gather with the aid of a semi-structured questionnaire with clearly defined questions and the data obtained will be analysed with the aid of computer software called STATA. Data would then be coded, after which logistic regression and bivariate analyses are done.

### **1.9.1. Logistic regression analysis for associating household food in/security with household head/caregiver demographic characteristics**

Various studies have established that generally the characteristics of the household head play a significant role in the food security status of households. In this study, the regression is carried out to determine whether, within grant beneficiary households, the characteristics of the household head/caregiver have a significant impact on the state of food security. Logistic regression is used because the dependent variable (food security) has two possible outcomes: zero (household is food insecure) or one (household is food secure) and the outcome is dependent on an explanatory variable.

**The following are the explanatory variables fitted into the model:**

- Gender: gender of household head/caregiver (male=1 and female=2)
- Age: age of household head/caregiver (19-39 years=1, 40-64 years=2 and  $\geq 65=3$  )
- Education: educational attainment of household head/caregiver (no formal education=1, Grade 1-7=2, Grade 8-12=3 and Tertiary=4)
- Employment: employment status of household head/caregiver (Employed=1 and Unemployed=2)
- Marital status: marital status of household head/caregiver (Single=1, Widowed=2, Separated=3, Divorced=4, Married=5 )

The binary ( $\beta$ ) variable on this regression is represented as follows: food security=0 or 1, food security being 1 if the household is food secure and 0 if the household is food insecure. The binary model in its simplicity can be expressed as follows: food security= $\beta_1$ Gender+ $\beta_2$ Age+ $\beta_3$ Education+ $\beta_4$ Empyment+ $\beta_5$ Marital status+  $\epsilon$  (error term)..... (1/0).

### **1.9.2. Bivariate analysis for unpacking coping strategies and the relationship between social grants and food security**

As already established, the purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between food security and social grants, how households use the grants income, how the vulnerable households cope with food insecurity and how they sustain their general livelihoods. These

will be established using data showing adopted sets of coping strategies, self-reported food in/adequacy, income value, income expenditure and livelihood sustaining strategies. Descriptive tabulations and bivariate figures would be used in the analysis of the above.

### **1.9.3. The sustainable livelihood approach**

This study applies the sustainable livelihoods approach (Chambers and Conway, 1992; Scoones, 1998, 2009, 2015) to purposefully analyse data on how the rural social grants beneficiary households in Umhlathuze District in KwaZulu-Natal live. The theoretical framework associated with this approach is outlined in Chapter 2, and includes a schematic representation of how a sustainable livelihood is attained and demonstrates various factors that may affect food security. Applying this theoretical framework to the study findings will offer insights into livelihoods and the state of household food security, and enable policy-relevant recommendations to be made regarding food insecurity reduction strategies in rural areas. For households that are food secure within the sampled population included in the study, this framework will contribute a deeper understanding of how social grant beneficiary households sustain regular food access. This will be done while considering shocks that limited food access, such as food price increases that have taken place since 2008, constrained access to livelihood assets, etc.

The study also seeks to get an enhanced understanding of the strategies households use to cope with livelihood shocks and food insecurity. The sustainable livelihood approach is based on evolving thinking about the way poor and vulnerable people live their lives and the importance of policies in enhancing the welfare of the poor. This study will apply the sustainable livelihood approach in the concluding chapter when discussing the implications of the findings relating to predominant coping strategies, the state of household of food security, and the manner in which households strategically utilise social grants income.

## **1.10 Operational definitions**

The conceptual definitions provide an understanding of the common terms as they are used in the study.

### **1.10.1 Food security**

Food security is a complex term which is defined in various ways by numerous organisations around the world. The FAO, for instance, defines it as a “situation that exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life” (FAO and WFP, 2010). This study, however, adopted the basic definition of food security similar to that of Du Toit (2011), which refers to the ability of a household or individual to obtain adequate food on a daily basis.

### **1.10.2 Food insecurity**

The concept of food insecurity offers an accepted process for determining household food deprivation. Relevant shorthand terms for expressing food insecurity include “struggling to avoid household food shortages and hunger” and “household experiencing food shortages and hunger or at risk of both” (USDA, 2016). In this study, food insecurity does not mean that a household does not have access to a grocery store, or cannot make time to visit a grocery store or that the household is in a food desert. It only means that the household is food insecure because it lacks financial and other resources to support its needs. This study is similar to the USDA in that it will identify food in/security by establishing whether a household is struggling to avoid food shortages or is at risk of getting hungry. This is possible by consideration of factors such as main income sources, total monthly household income and the share spent on food, general usage of the income, domestic food production and propensity to skip meals, while at the same time making reference to literature and other measures of food in/security.

### **1.10.3 Social grants**

Social grants are assistance in the form of cash to the vulnerable and needy through government social systems (SASSA, 2011/12). The social grants are one of the government initiatives for addressing poverty, unemployment and inequality (White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997), and these, according to Kihenzile (2017), are essentially the underlying causes of food insecurity. South Africa has a maximum of seven major grants, namely: the old age grant, children's grant, disability grant, grant-in-aid, care dependency, foster care and the war veterans' grant. They are financed through the general tax revenue gathered on a national basis and administered by a separate state agency, the South African Social Security Agency.

### **1.10.4 Household**

A household is typically understood as people who live together in a home, including their servants. However, the description of a household within the context of this study requires that household members live in the same dwelling, acknowledge the same household head and must eat from the same pot at least 15 days on average in a month. The household may be composed of only one person. This definition of a household is similar to that of the South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS, 2016).

## **1.11 Organisation of the study**

The first chapter introduces the study and gives detailed information about food security and social grants. Chapter 2 reviews literature related to the issues of food security and social grants, particularly in the context of South Africa and at a household level. The purpose of the third chapter is to discuss methods that were used to collect and analyse data. The next chapters (4, 5 and 6) present analysed data. Household food security according to the characteristics of caregivers and households is presented in Chapter 4, while Chapter 5 shows grant utilisation and means of supplementing grants to improve access to food. The final chapter of data analysis offers a detailed presentation of coping strategies when food is

inadequate, as illustrated by respondents. Chapter 7 provides a summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations.

The next chapter reviews literature on social grants and household food security

## **CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 Introduction**

Establishing food security, particularly household food security, is widely acknowledged as an important milestone in advancing the living standards of the poor. For this reason, this chapter reviews comprehensive literature on the background of social grants in South Africa and how they affect food security. This chapter and the general study focus on the state of food security within households that benefit from social grants. The South African Constitution, Section 27, states that “everyone has the right to sufficient food” and that the state must take reasonable legislative and other measures, within its available resources, to achieve this. One avenue toward realising this is through issuing state grants with the intention of mitigating the impact of food insecurity experienced by the disadvantaged groups. By definition, food security is “a situation that exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life” (FAO and WFP, 2010). The concept of food security was brought to light in the early stages of increasing food supply in order to reduce famine and hunger throughout the world (Simon, 2012).

The concept of food security is founded on four fundamental elements, namely: food access, availability, utilisation and stability. Food access suggests that every individual should have sufficient access to sufficient resources in order to have appropriate food to live a healthy life. Food availability implies that a sufficient quantity of food should be available, and every individual must have access to food (FAO, 2006). Utilisation of food involves the preparation of sufficient food with clean water, sanitation and special health care and sustainability i.e. the assurance of people’s access to food, even in the face of natural or economic shocks.

An estimated 16.9 million of South Africans, as of 30 September 2015, receive social grants and in most cases these grants support the entire household (Ferreira, 2016). These households will be destitute if they do not receive grant payments in a timely fashion. It is therefore evident that the social grants system is functional and provides financial assistance that the disadvantaged need. Food security has been and still is an issue of concern globally and in South Africa specifically. South Africa is regarded as a food secure nation;



nonetheless, close to a third (73%) of its households are food insecure, although most of their income goes towards food expenditure (Financial and Fiscal Commission, 2014).

The state has made various attempts to mitigate food insecurity. There is the human rights framework reflecting the human right to food alongside the right to social grants in the national and African context. During the 1996 World Food Summit, heads of states signed the Rome Declaration on World Food Security, re-affirming “the right of everyone to have access to safe and nutritious food, consistent with the right to adequate food, and the fundamental right of everyone to be free from hunger” (Wenaar, 2013). Nevertheless, poverty makes it challenging for households to secure sufficient food for their livelihood, with some households worse off than others. Food insecurity in South Africa is a grave issue, as poverty has become normalised for many citizens, despite the country’s Constitution that acknowledges the right to food security (Gutura and Tanga, 2014).

The issue of food insecurity expands beyond the borders of South Africa. There is continual progress in the fight against hunger, but at the same time, FAO (2015) identifies a continental spread of food insecurity and hunger. Furthermore, one in every four people experiences deprivation of sufficient food for a healthy life, while the rising cost of food and the drought drive people deeper into hunger and poverty. In Africa, grants were introduced as a means of relieving poverty and hunger. Although grants are necessary for improving access to food, a bulk of the grant income is directed towards other household necessities instead of meeting the food needs of the households and, at the end, grant income is spread thinly, limiting its success in curbing food insecurity. According to Smith and Abrahams (2015), state grants have been criticised for ineffectiveness against food price inflation. The argument is that the value of the grant is low and annual increases do not allow families to feed themselves sufficiently at appropriate levels because of the sharp increase in inflation.

## **2.2 Social Grants in the African context**

According to Bayeh (2016), post-independence African nations are westernised, as they have adopted the administrative system of their former colonisers. As such, the social grants in contemporary Africa are intertwined in strands of multifaceted pre- and post-colonial histories and an administrative system of former colonisers (Thandika, 2016). Consequently,

this has resulted in gross inadequacy in terms of grant coverage, with responses that could not sufficiently meet the needs of the local population that the social grants are intended for (Jha and Acharya, 2016). The United Nations Development Plan (UNDP, 2014) states that the outcomes of grant policy in Africa are extremely limited, similar to the global context where social grant protection coverage is also low, encompassing only 20% of the population. In low income countries (LICs) such as the African countries, grant coverage levels are significantly lower and inequitably distributed.

Though grant coverage is lower in LICs, nevertheless, when food production has collapsed due to natural disasters, social grants are successful in helping households secure food, as they would access food through markets (Devereux, 2015). Also, there is evidence that cash transfers have reduced the depth and severity of hunger and food insecurity. In grant beneficiary households, expenditure would on average be significantly higher for food consumption. The households also leverage significant improvements in nutrition and increased utilisation of health and education services (Owusu-Addo, Renzaho, Mahal and Smith, 2016). On the other hand, the FAO (2015) stated that when cash transfer grants are implemented in isolation from other complementary interventions such as livelihood promotion, then graduation out of poverty and food insecurity is unlikely. What is most important is the benchmarking of the value of the cash transfers against the cost of basic food needs - for instance, the value of the cash can be adjusted almost monthly to accommodate the fluctuating food prices.

The FAO (2015) confirms that social grants, if well-targeted and well-designed, can be an affordable instrument for reducing the incidence and intensity of household food insecurity. Gutura and Tanga (2017), however, state that social grants are not well designed to manage vulnerability within the poor households and that not all households can graduate out of reliance on social grants. Social grants are a necessary way of providing social assistance to those households that are poor and food insecure (Xaba, 2016). Therefore, social grants must be designed in a way that they can immediately respond to issues such as food price inflation and natural disasters. This requires that social grants be strongly associated with corresponding sectors such as agriculture, health and education, while at the same time constructing and protecting dynamic assets that can underwrite economic progression and decrease the risk of imminent household food insecurity (Smith and Abrahams, 2015). Moreover, effective social grant services could make the poorest households more resilient to

shocks and food insecurity by mitigating livelihood risks, thus making them more resilient (Crush and Caesar, 2014).

### **2.2.1 The overbearing cost of social grant programmes**

Africa as a continent is faced with many opportunities and challenges, such as an improving governance and macro-economic indicators, as well as a decline in poverty in the previous two decades. Yet Africa still remains at risk for high levels of poverty, with vulnerability to food insecurity remaining a cause for concern (Beegle, Christiaensen, Dabalen and Gaddis, 2016). There is an overbearing cost on social protection programmes as well as their overzealous idealistic objectives such as the expectation of achieving national and household level food security and increasing productivity (Devereux and Waidler, 2017). These expectations are unrealistic in terms of coverage of programmes and the size of their benefits; nonetheless, many governments are unenthusiastic about making social protection a sizeable recurrent budget item. Findings of the International Labour Organisation (2014) indicate that African countries at all levels have increasing investments in social grants and in overall social protection programmes.

The costs are largely dependent on coverage, value of the programme, monitoring and administration costs (Academy of Science of South Africa, 2016). For instance, in Namibia, the cash transfer system costs 2% of national GDP and 6% of the overall national budget (Gracia and Moore, 2012). In South Africa, expenditure on the social grant system has been increasing; it costs 3.2% of national GDP (National Budget speech, 2017). African studies assessing cash transfer programmes in Africa cite social grants as a critical component of development; the notion is that social grants have the potential for addressing poverty, hunger, food insecurity, reducing inequality and contributing towards the national economic growth agenda (Honorati, Gentilini and Yemtsov, 2015). According to Honorati et al. (2015), and Bastagli, Hagen-Zanker, Harman, Barca, Sturge, Schmidt and Pellerano (2016), there is evidence of reduced hunger, food insecurity and poverty, and an increase in household food expenditure. This is attributed to the presence of cash transfer programmes.

## **2.2.2 Social security grant reforms in South Africa and in KwaZulu-Natal**

South Africa's social assistance programme has seven different grants, as depicted in Table 2.1. The Old Age Grant (OAG) provides support to old people who are 60 years of age and above. The War Veterans' Grant (WVG) supports disabled individuals or those older than 60 years who served in the Second World War or the Korean War, while the Disability Grant (DG) supports disabled people. Grant-in-Aid (GIA) is intended for adults receiving the OAG, DG or WVG who require 24-hour care because of a physical or mental disability. The Care Dependency Grant (CDG) is for supporting families with disabled children below the age of 18, while the Foster Care Grant (FCG) helps take care of foster children. The Child Support Grant (CSG) supports households that have children below the age of 18.

The grants are given on the basis of the ideal that the beneficiary best knows how to appropriately spend the money to maximise welfare and that conditionality will only increase monitoring, enforcement and administrative responsibilities on the side of the state (Zembe-Mkabile, Surrender, Sanders, Jackson and Doherty, 2015). All grants are supported through tax revenue and the eligibility of the beneficiary is established through a means test which is income-and asset-based. The test also varies according to characteristics of the beneficiary (SASSA, 2015; Zembe-Mkabile et al., 2015). Realistically, the evaluation of a potential beneficiary is difficult, thus in practice only the income criterion for evaluation is used (Abel, 2013). Beneficiaries collect monthly electronic cash transfers at designated pay point locations (Sinyolo et al., 2016).

Table 2.1 gives a general outline of social grants in South Africa and then KwaZulu-Natal in contrast to other provinces. By the end of 2014, South Africa had more than 16 million beneficiaries and the numbers continue to grow (SASSA, 2014). KZN is the province of interest because the study area (uMhlatuze) is located within the province. Evidently, KZN has the largest number of beneficiaries in all grant types except for war veterans' grants. It has a number of 3,812,820 beneficiaries in total; this is the largest number of benefactors nationally, with a significant amount of expenditure going towards child support grants and old age grants. According to Midgley (2013), the cost of providing social grants is increasing and will continue to increase, so that very soon the intelligence of this consumption expenditure will be greatly questioned.

**Table 2.1 Total number of social grants by grant type and region as at 31 May 2014**

Grant type								
Region	OAG	WVG	DG	GIA	CDG	FCG	CSG	Total
EC	519,072	59	180,475	12,907	18,555	119,285	1,805,067	2,655,420
FS	177,963	6	79,000	1,584	6,221	40,962	638,187	943,923
GP	455,457	103	113,090	2,294	15,686	57,222	1,575,990	2,219,842
<b>KZN</b>	<b>616,132</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>296,083</b>	<b>31,651</b>	<b>35,919</b>	<b>130,170</b>	<b>2,702,811</b>	<b>3,812,820</b>
LP	423,090	28	91,999	13,591	12,745	60,996	1,650,665	2,253,114
MP	218,554	18	77,355	3,778	8,998	35,436	999,473	1,343,612
NC	77,409	11	48,473	5,304	4,694	14,735	279,724	430,350
NW	226,434	15	85,939	5,484	8,683	42,060	766,593	1,135,208
WC	277,680	113	149,920	10,377	11,312	29,491	883,802	1,362,695
<b>Total</b>	<b>2,991,791</b>	<b>407</b>	<b>1,122,334</b>	<b>86,970</b>	<b>122,813</b>	<b>530,357</b>	<b>11,302,312</b>	<b>16,156,984</b>

**Adapted from SASSA (2014)**

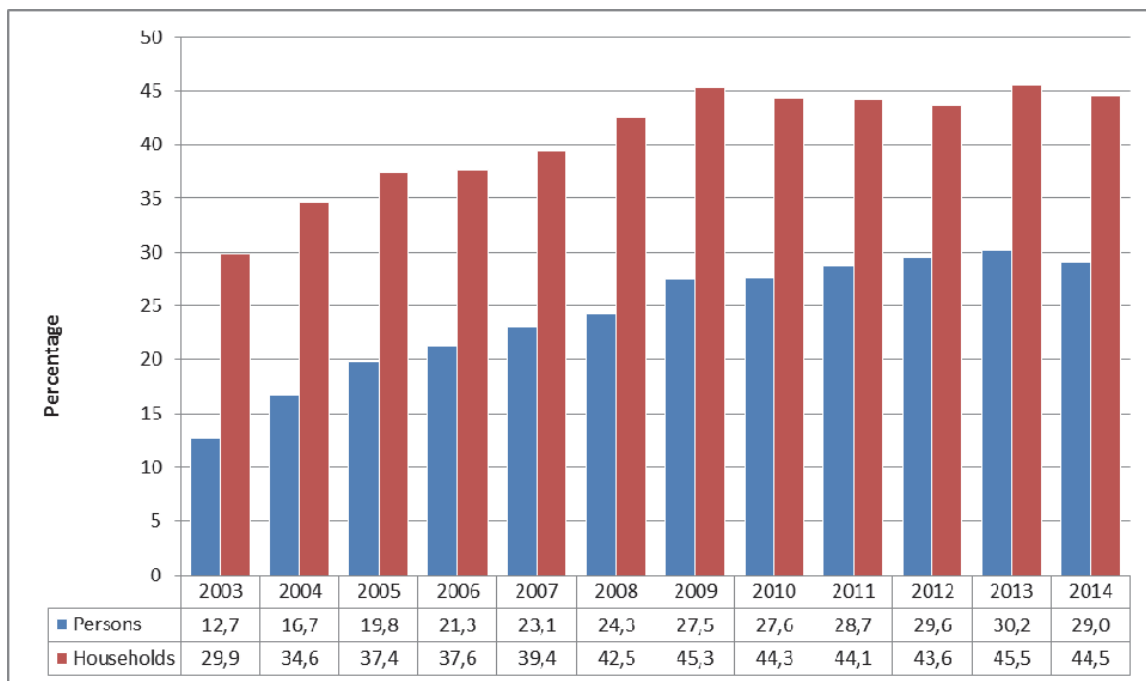
Taking into consideration the above evidence indicating that KwaZulu-Natal has the largest number of social grants beneficiaries, one may easily assume that the province would have the least number of households suffering from food insecurity. The findings of Govender, Pillay, Siwela, Modi and Mabhaudhi (2017), however, are contrary to expectations. The problem of food insecurity in the province of KwaZulu-Natal is extraordinarily high. Vulnerable households, particularly in rural areas, still battle to access sufficient food on a daily basis.

This inability to meet food needs at a household and individual level has a variety of causes, but it can mainly be attributed to a lack of food purchasing power. Unemployment levels are high above market expectations (Stats SA, 2017) and households that benefit from state grants do not have sufficient money to purchase food, although the grants are an important safety net. The rising food prices place households who are already struggling to meet basic needs in an even more difficult state. The high cost of food pushes households even further into hunger with the poorest, according to Oxfam (2014), spending virtually half of their income on food, however cheap and non-nutritious it might be. This fashions a society that has ‘good access to bad food’.

### **2.3 Accumulating fraction of social grant support**

Cash transfer grants are a significant and yet developing segment of the social protection initiative, particularly for those underdeveloped and vulnerable individuals (World Bank,

2015; Taylor and Chagunda 2015). The largest cash transfers in Africa are in South Africa (Mabugu, Chitiga, Fofana, Abidoye and Mbanda, 2015/16). According to the Treasury's National Budget Review for 2013/14, spending on social grants accounts for 3% of the country's gross domestic product (GDP) and is projected to rise from R118-billion in 2013/14 to R145-billion by 2016. Social grants have defining characteristics: firstly, to target the poorest households incapable of supporting their basic needs; secondly, to provide cash transfers to the main beneficiary or the primary caregiver, and lastly, to ensure the programmes are well tested and targeted to the poor. Figure 2.1 below represents the accumulating percentage of individuals and households that benefit from state grants in slightly more than a decade.



**Fig.2.1. National grant uptake by households and individuals (2003-2014) Adopted from: Stats SA, 2014**

The significance of the above figure is its ability to show that South Africa has been significantly increasing grant coverage on an annual basis. Evidently, there has been a constant increase in the percentage of persons that benefited from social grants in a decade (2003-2013) before declining slightly in 2014 (Figure 2.1.). Simultaneously, the percentage of households that benefited from at least one grant increased from 2003-2013 before declining in 2014. Increased coverage of child support grant, old age grant and disability

grant has been driving the general increase in the number of beneficiaries nationally (Budlender, 2016). More households continue to depend on state assistance, with those that receive at least one grant increasing from 29,9% in 2003 to 45,5% in 2015. At the same time, the number of individuals that receive social grants grew from 12,7% to 30,1% in the same period. These are the findings of the General Household Survey (GHS, 2016) released by Statistics South Africa (Stats SA).

It is evident that social grant coverage in South Africa is extensive. Besides the notable coverage of South Africa's grant system, the social grants extend beyond the individual beneficiary to the household as a unit. As it happens, the case of people relocating to households with grant beneficiaries (mostly old age grants), according to Mabugu et al. (2015/16), has amplified grant efficacy in relieving poverty for a significant network of people. At this standpoint, households view grant recipients as a valuable source of income.

With many relying on grants, households in the poorest quintile receive no less than two-thirds of their income from social grants (GHS, 2016). For these groups, accessing food and increasing the quantity of food consumed is a challenge and a priority. FAO (2016) is of the opinion that grants can reduce the impact of poverty and food insecurity; however, in isolation, grants are not anticipated to significantly reduce the poverty headcount and the experience of food insecurity, because their value is inadequate to put the beneficiaries above the poverty line.

#### **2.4 Overview of social grants and food security in South Africa**

South Africa is applauded globally for the scope and generosity of its social grant system. The aim of social grant cash transfers is to reduce temporary food insecurity and intergenerational transmission of poverty and vulnerability. Nonetheless, South Africa as a nation is food secure, while food insecurity is more of an inability to adequately access food at a household and individual level (Shisana, Labadarios, Rehle, Simbayi, and Zuma, 2014). Social grants do not have food security as an explicit objective; however, changing the current circumstances of the poor is listed as a goal. South Africa's seven social grant schemes have doubled the share of national income received by the poorest households

(Taylor and Chagunda, 2015). Households in the poorest quintile receive no less than two-thirds of their income from social grants (GHS, 2016). Below is a criticism of social grants and their effect on food security.

#### **2.4.1 Criticism of social grants towards food security**

Grant consumption is expected to increase among the poor and a well-implemented social grant policy can address structural poverty and food insecurity (FAO, 2015). The Overseas Development Institute (2015) upholds cash transfers as a better alternative to food aid. Beneficiaries can receive an envelope of cash, a plastic card or an electronic money transfer to a mobile phone with which they can pay rent, purchase food or whatever is needed. There is a downside to cash transfers, however, since their capacity to provide food and other needs hinges on the functioning of local markets and food price inflation. Cash transfers are effective if food security is limited in terms of access at household level; however, if the limitation to access dominates at a national or local level, then cash transfers would not be effective in securing food. Cash transfers are also effective when unfortunate circumstances occur such as when households or communities face drought.

Cash transfers are then necessary and effective, as they replace cropping with market food (Jelle, Grijalva-Eternod, Haghparast-Bidgoli, King, Cox, Skordis-Worrall, Morrison, Colbourn, Fottrell and Seal, 2017). Furthermore, a social grant cash transfer's effectiveness in meeting household food needs also depends on the amount and regularity of the cash transfer, as well as the purchasing power. This means grants are less effective when the rand is weak and the cost of food is high. Kajiita and Kang (2016) have a different and adverse argument about social grants, stating that they create a dependency syndrome instead of leading towards a path of sustainable development. The grants are founded on a welfare approach and are identified as hand-outs that discourage development, individuality and self-help initiatives.

Wright, Noble, Ntshongwana, Neves and Barnes (2014) reject this argument, presenting grants as a necessary strategy founded on a human rights framework with the capacity for reducing poverty and restoring human dignity. They concluded that social grants have been continually making a difference on human development in the country. They are improving



the welfare of the poorest groups as well as redistributing wealth for a more equitable society. There is also the argument that poverty and food insecurity can be better minimised by pursuing economic growth of the general state instead of giving out cash (World Bank, 2015). It is advised that countries focus more on improved governance of state resources and on infrastructural development such as schools, housing, roads and hospitals (Taylor and Chagunda, 2015). The criticism is that while the effect of a social grant is positive, it is nevertheless short-term and affects a small group of people in contrast to investing in public infrastructure and state resources.

The anti-social grant argument has been used many times to promote in-kind support such as food transfers in the place of money transfers. This is based on the idea that beneficiaries misuse the grant income. Honorati et al. (2015) argue that social grants increase access to food as well as to health, education and hygiene. Furthermore, evaluations from Africa and other developing countries show that the argument of grants' misuse is not valid, as findings did not indicate an impact on the consumption of alcohol, tobacco and gambling on the part of the beneficiary, as some would claim.

## **2.5 Coping with grant inadequacy and food insecurity**

Social grants are a crucial component of South Africa's fight against food insecurity, poverty and hunger, but social grants alone are not adequate. The money from grants will never be enough for food security due to the high cost of living and the continually decreasing value of the rand (Smith and Abrahams, 2016). As such, these households have to adopt a set of strategies to cope with grant inadequacy and food insecurity (Food Security Cluster, 2017). The term 'coping strategies' refers to methods employed by households when food is insufficient. Households should use certain coping strategies to endure food insecurity, but it is unfortunate that many food-coping strategies that vulnerable households use have negative consequences on nutrition security (Wabwoba, Wakhungu and Omuterema, 2015).

### **2.5.1 Forms of food security coping strategies**

According to Kadir (2015), coping strategies could be implemented to improve food security and sustain livelihoods, and they involve instantaneous and temporary alteration of consumption patterns. Hendriks (2015) settled on the notion that food insecurity increased the frequency and severity of coping strategies that households would adopt, and the strategies would be amplified and extreme in the brink of food shortages. Ngidi and Hendriks (2014), in their study of coping strategies in rural South Africa, identified four types of consumption strategies amongst the vulnerable households. They are as follows:

The households begin to sacrifice meal quality for cheaper and less preferred food options, thus allowing them to maintain calories (Farzana, Rahman, Sultana, Raihan, Haque, Waid, Choudhury and Ahmed, 2017). At this phase, coping strategies are typically rescindable and do not cause any damage to the long-term livelihood.

Secondly, households may attempt to improve accessibility of food by means of inappropriate short-term coping strategies that may be harmful in the long-term. Usual instances include borrowing or buying on credit and in most extreme cases begging or opting for wild food, as well as consuming immature crops and seedlings. In this phase, should food insecurity persist, the sale of productive assets will occur (Musemwa, Muchenje, Mushunje, Aghdasi and Zhou, 2015). These households become much more dependent on daily activities for their livelihood such as “farm and non-farm activities, livestock and poultry-rearing, varieties of small shops, tea stalls, wage labour, petty hawking and trading, handloom, handicrafts and so on” (Walsh and van Rooyen, 2015; Wabwoba, Wakhungu and Omuterema, 2015). Households also spend much less on non-food items such as health, education, clothing etc. (World Food Programme, 2016).

Thirdly, households may minimise the number of household members needing to be fed by sending some of them elsewhere, e.g. sending the kids to the neighbour’s house when those neighbours are eating. This stage would involve the relocation of some household members in the hope of sharing the grant with fewer members and thus expanding the food basket (Mtolo, 2016). Lastly, they may reduce the amount of available food given to household members, e.g. cutting portion sizes or frequency of meals, favouring certain household members over others or, in extreme cases, skipping the whole day’s meal.

### **2.5.2 Food production as a coping mechanism**

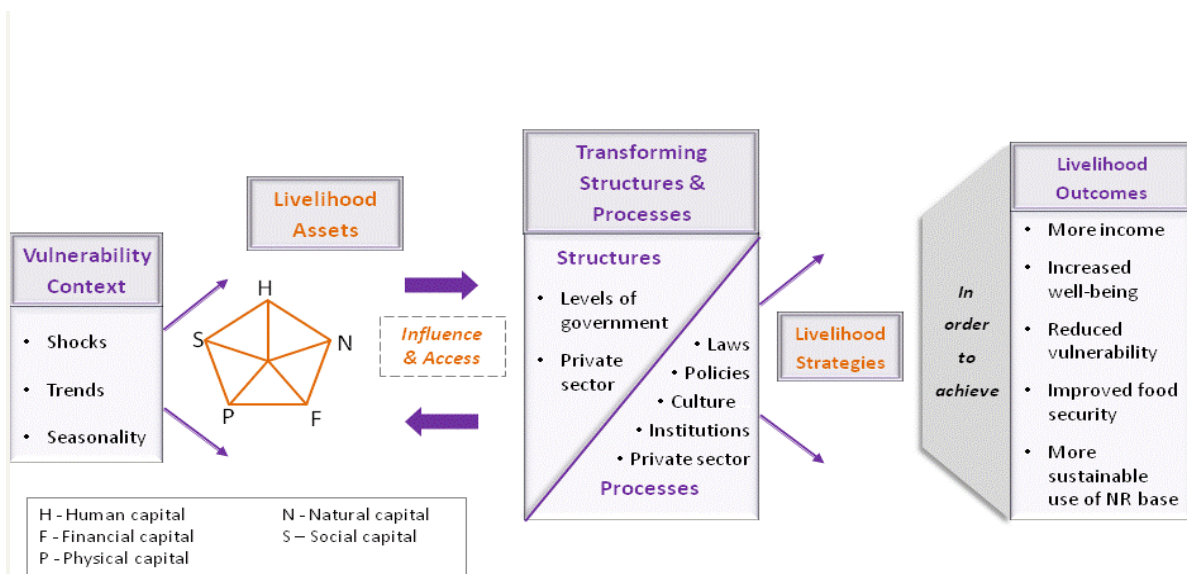
On the other hand, comparative studies indicated that shocks such as crop failure are more difficult to deal with (Debebe et al., 2013). Riesgo, Louhichi, Paloma, Hazell, Ricker-Gilbert, Wiggins, Sahn and Mishra (2016), however, discovered that crop production does not supply households year-round, leading to food shortages and a further need to seek more coping strategies. Subsistence farming may contribute to the household, but food and nutrition security remains a key problem because of biophysical and socioeconomic challenges.

According to Ngidi and Hendriks (2014), the precautionary practices of food insecurity that households apply vary considerably by season - for instance, households are more likely to be faced with food insecurity during the summer and winter months. However, non-farming households engage in practices such as selling off productive assets as they experience severe reduction in food consumption, in contrast to farming households that can engage in regular smallholder production (Mtolo, 2016). Production prolongs the availability of food in the households.

### **2.6. Sustainable livelihood approach, food security and grant beneficiary households: An overview**

The sustainable livelihoods framework of Chambers and Conway, 1992; Scoones, 1998, 2009, 2015 is an effort to holistically conceptualise livelihoods, thus taking into account various livelihood intricacies, opportunities and constraints that households/individuals are exposed to. Various factors shape these constraints and opportunities, which are ranging from those operating at the national/global level which one has no control over or may be completely unaware of and the resources that individuals or households have general access to (Krantz, 2001 and Serrat, 2017). This framework focuses on what households do to sustain their wellbeing in the long run, rather than just relying for survival on safety nets that may fail them in a crisis. It facilitates the identification of practical priorities for actions that are based on the views and interests of those concerned, but they are not a panacea. However, it makes the connection between

people and the overall enabling environment that influences the outcomes of livelihood strategies.



**Fig. 2.2 Sustainable Livelihoods Framework**

Source: DFID (1999)

In figure 2 above, the context of vulnerability refers to the peripheral setting in which people live. This peripheral environment is inclusive of national economic trends, technological advances, politics, a variety of shocks including weather changes, and fluctuations in prices, food production, etc. The vulnerability context encompasses shocks, trends and seasonality; these factors directly affect opportunities that the poor may have to secure a livelihood, both presently and in future (Carney, 2003 and DFID, 1999). The concept of assets is pivotal to the sustainability of livelihoods. The framework shows how, in different contexts, sustainable livelihoods are achieved through access to a range of livelihood resources (natural, physical, economic, human and social capital) which are combined in the pursuit of different livelihood strategies (Scoones, 1998).

According to the sustainable livelihood approach, poverty and food insecurity is not simply understood as a lack of income but rather it considers the various assets that the vulnerable people need to sustain an adequate income in order to survive. A household may be able to

ensure sustained livelihood security through asset ownership. The more assets that the household has, the less vulnerable they will be to shocks and negative trends, thus increasing their ability to sustain their livelihoods and achieve food security (Chambers and Conway, 1991 and De Haan, 2012). When a livelihood is sustainable, households will have adequate stocks and flows of food and cash to meet basic needs.

Global crises, such as the food-fuel-financial crises have affected the entire world since 2008. Also, there have been more localised shocks such as droughts, floods, etc. These have also played a prominent role in the broader set of climate-driven events that have been progressively impacting local populations and expanding the risks confronted by the poor and vulnerable. Communities most vulnerable to risk are those involved in agriculture and other ecosystem-dependent livelihoods in developing countries (Adger, 2007; Fiott et al., 2010; IPCC, 2007). Building on the work of Guhan (1994), Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler (2004) attempted to explore the role of social security/protection policies in practice, and proposed a categorisation of social security/protection according to a Protection-Prevention-Promotion-Transformation (3P-T) framework. A precise definition of these 3P-T categories is not put forward in this literature; however, the protection category is usually understood as follows: “Protective measures include social policies and instruments aiming at protecting marginalised individuals or groups such as children, orphans, elderly, or disabled people through the establishment of social welfare programmes” (Davies, Béné, Arnall, Tanner, Newsham and Coirolo, 2013).

The concept of social security has progressed over the years, from a fairly narrow focus on safety nets during the 1980s and 1990s to present day classifications that take account of temporary interventions that reduce the impact of shocks, while also considering long-term strategies intended to combat chronic poverty and food insecurity (Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler, 2004; Barrientos and Hulme, 2008). Within this context, it is now widely recognised that social security provides a critical entry point for addressing the rising poverty, food insecurity and vulnerability that characterise the current situations in developing countries (Devereux and White, 2010; Dercon, 2011). Social security measures include a wide range of different interventions and instruments. Core social security interventions usually involve the direct transfer of cash or food to those experiencing transitory livelihood hardship or longer-term, more chronic forms of poverty (see, for example, Devereux et al.,

2005). Interventions that characterise social security policies include interventions and instruments also aimed at the promotion and transformation of people's livelihoods.

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## **2.7. Empirical review of determinants of household food in/ security**

Several studies have identified the following characteristics as the main contributors to household food insecurity:

### **2.7.1 Geographic location**

The majority of grant beneficiaries are located in the province of KwaZulu-Natal (SASSA, 2014) and the province is largely rural. In general, it is a characteristic of rural areas to be "physically isolated, separated and having poor geographic access to food" (Marshall, Dawson and Nisbet, 2017). The supermarket structures or food industries play a fundamental role in perpetuating food insecurity and hunger through their influence on food pricing and geographic accessibility. Food retailers and market outlets are saturated in cities and towns and many of those living in geographically-isolated areas cannot afford to travel, as so they have no options but to purchase at rather expensive stores, which in most cases stock inadequate, if any, nutritious food (The Food Trust, n.d.).

While the country has adequate food supplies at national level, this in itself has not assured household and individual food security. Food insecurity has been largely identified as a rural phenomenon; however, according to Sonnino (2016), food insecurity has also been identified in urban areas. The current rise of urban food insecurity is marked by the rising cost of food, depreciating natural resources, social unrest and unfavourable climate changes (Even-Zahav, 2016). However, the annual expansion of social grants in coverage and value has raised the income of the poor, especially those residing in rural areas where most beneficiaries live (Zimbalist, 2016). The issues of rural food security are not similar to those in metropolitan areas and tackling the soaring levels of food insecurity requires innovation in policy responses, and an acknowledgement that geography matters, and that these different areas necessitate a different response to address food insecurity (OECD/FAO/UNCDF, 2016).

### **2.7.2 Household size**

At a household level, there is a relationship between the level of food insecurity and household size (Meyer and Nishimwe-Niyimbanira, 2016). Tantu, Gamebo, Sheno and Kabalo (2017) suggest that the number of household members and food security are negatively correlated. This means that within poor households, an increase in household size by one additional member generally reduces expenditure per head, income per head and food consumption per head (Abu and Soom, 2016). Seemingly, household size matters, since a larger household size will demand more food. If a household has a larger number of economically inactive members, the greater the burden on social grants and on the active individuals. For this reason, the likelihood of household food insecurity grows (Mokwena, 2016).

Not only do large households have negative effects on food security, but they also take their toll on economic efforts; as such, households would need to spend most income on acquiring food to support the larger family size (Chinnakali, Upadhyay, Shokeen, Singh, Kaur, Singh, Goswami, Yadav and Pandav, 2014). Food insecurity is likely amongst large households residing in poor communities (Sekhampu, 2013). When families have fewer numbers of children, they can better contribute to accelerated development and a reduction of poverty and food insecurity at a household and macro-economic level (Meyer and Nishimwe-

Niyimbanira, 2016). Nonetheless, population growth and increasing household size are not negative developments of the country, particularly in a developing nation.

### **2.7.3 Household income**

The value of household income is regarded as the most critical contributing factor to household food security status. As one might expect, inadequate household income for food expenditure can lead to an insufficient availability and access to food (Skinner and Hayson, 2016). In this regard, lower income households would be more likely to be food insecure in contrast to their middle income and wealthier counterparts. Leung, Epel, Willett, Rimm and Laraia (2014) studied the impact of household income size on the general nutrition and wellbeing of adults and the general household. Findings confirmed a negative relationship between low monthly income, nutrition and the wellbeing of the household. Xaba (2016) also revealed that lower income households largely rely on social grant income to access food. Also, there are instances where the low income households become indebted because of their incapacity to sufficiently access food.

Grant beneficiary households are categorised as low income. The cash transfers may contribute significantly to food security, however, especially for those who are economically active, as they have additional sources of income (World Bank, 2015 and UNHABITAT, 2014). This means that households that do not solely rely on grants for income have a greater chance of food security due to the increased size of household income. According to Mokwena (2016), grants for the low income households are sources of livelihood which help households break the barriers of social exclusion. Furthermore, they assist those households that have no other source of income to survive on; as such grants play a significant role in elevating access to food and other basic necessities.

### **2.7.4 Educational attainment of household head**

Level of educational attainment positively affects the state of household food security (Mutisya, Ngware, Kabiru and Kandala, 2016). This means that the higher the level of educational attainment, the lower the risk of household food insecurity. This can be attributed to the fact that education awards the opportunity for households to sustain the livelihoods of



its members. According to Borat, Cassim, and Tseng (2016), educated household heads have the capacity to increase their productive abilities, as they are most likely to attain better financial resources. Evidence produced by Westhof, Tizora and Maguranyanga (2016) indicated that if household heads are educated, they have the knowledge, information and intellectual capacity to maintain a particular standard of living.

The level of educational attainment of the household head impacts the general household's access and utilisation of information which in turn builds up the ability to improve household food security (Mango, Zamasiya, Makate, Nyikahadzo and Siziba, 2014). Furthermore, better educated household heads are more likely to use gathered information during decision-making and management in contrast to the least educated households. Education of household heads is fundamental and is assumed to help households consistently secure a diversity of preferred food; therefore, a positive relationship is expected between food security and level of education of household heads.

Since education is important for the welfare of the household, the Development Bank of Southern Africa (DBSA, 2015) suggested that policy-makers need to ensure education remains a priority, not only to improve food security but for a better socio-economic status. Fortunately, according to the Department of Social Development (DSD, 2013), the South African government believes that by addressing education issues, it will improve food security and nutrition knowledge. Therefore, education was included in the strategic mandate vision of 2030 as part of the national development plans. Education is necessary for reducing or eliminating poverty, malnutrition and food insecurity. Multiple studies acknowledge the significance of education in eradicating hunger and poverty in the world (Mtolo, 2016). Education is significantly linked to reducing the prevalence of food insecurity. High income households have better food security and education levels than low income households, irrespective of the health status, thus the need for education (Meacham, 2014).

#### **2.7.5 Age of household head**

In the context of the age of a household head, Bashir et al. (2012) discovered a negative correlation between the age and food insecurity. This means that an increase in the age of the household head decreases the likelihood of household food security. A study conducted by

Abdullah, Zhou, Shah, Ali, Ahmad, Din and Ilyas (2017) confirms this. It established that age is a significant determinant of household food security. It was found that households that were food secure had older heads and those with younger heads were least food secure. The findings of Abdullah et al. (2017) are consistent with previous studies that had confirmed that households led by older heads are likely to be food secure. The assumption of Mango, Zamasiya, Makate, Nyikahadzoi and Siziba (2014) is that household knowledge of food security related matters will improve as the head is older and more experienced. Abu and Soom (2016) argue otherwise, in that households led by the elderly become more reliant on gifts, remittances and grants while at the same time they become less productive with age.

### **2.7.6 Gender of household head**

According to Sida (2015), food security, good nutrition and gender are closely linked and this is so often because females are denied rights to property, decent employment, education and good health. Nonetheless, food insecure and poor households led by women are usually successful in accessing nutritionally-sufficient food for the children and general household members in contrast to those led by males. Gustafson (2013) argues that a household led by a female is likely to be vulnerable to food insecurity. Furthermore, these households are greatly affected by food price inflation and typically spend a larger portion of their income on food in contrast to male-headed households.

Rural women, particularly in developing countries, play a significant role in ensuring household access to food; however, regardless of their contribution to food security, they form the most part of the socially and economically disempowered groups in society (Sharaunga, Mudhara and Bogale, 2016). Furthermore, empowering women is necessary and is the key to achieving sustained household food security; therefore, appropriate policies are a necessary step for reducing food insecurity. The South African post-apartheid government, through various interventions including state grants, has sought to address inequalities. In a media briefing, Minister Bathabile Dlamini said that:

*“Social grants remain Government’s biggest intervention in the fight against poverty, especially in female- and child-headed households. The government is in the process of finalising proposals for the creation of a comprehensive social security system that combines contributory and non-contributory elements to eradicate poverty and*

*income protection for everyone living in South Africa” (All Africa, 16 February 2016).*

While the act of empowerment is relevant for both sexes, it is most needed by females. The source of female disempowerment resonates from social distinctions, cuts across class and intra-family relationships are the greatest cause of female powerlessness (Sharaunga et al., 2016).

### **2.7.7 Household asset ownership**

The effect of asset ownership such as land or crops was discovered to be significant, as households that owned assets were more food secure in contrast to those that did not (Sharaunga et al., 2016). This is in agreement with the findings of Chang, Chatterjee and Kim (2014) where it is stated that lack of resources is strongly related to an increase in household food insecurity. According to Mango et al. (2014), physical assets including cash, land, livestock and crops are important when attempting to establish the state of household food security.

Remittances including state grants are identified as one of the most significant financial assets and sources of income for most poor households and are a potential source of economic growth and food security (Jebran, Abdullah, Iqbal and Ullah, 2016). Grants or other remittances provide a level of household food security while other poor households lacking in such assets are food insecure (Sharaunga et al., 2016). Furthermore, poor households with supplementary financial assets have access to a variety of food through markets and therefore are more food secure.

Assets such as agricultural inputs are both direct and indirect resources used in farm production and are a critical element in food production and food security (Mtolo, 2016). Direct resources are inclusive of seeds, plant material, water, fertilisers and pesticides, while indirect resources for those who engage in selling off produce would be equipment and fuel. Over the years the cost of agricultural inputs has escalated relative to commodity prices and has led to a cost price squeeze which refers to the relationship between prices paid for inputs compared to prices received for outputs (Pereira, Cuneo and Twine, 2014). This has caused a negative impact on the livelihood and food security of farming households.

### **2.7.8 Unemployment of household members**

Since the post-apartheid era, studies have indicated a slow growth in employment and it has done very little to reduce the impact of poverty. However, accessibility to services has noticeably improved and social grants have greatly contributed to the reduction of poverty and food insecurity. This is mostly attributable to the expansion of child support grants since the early 2000's (Seekings, 2016). The problem of unemployment is defined by Dodd and Nyabvudzi (2014) as a situation in which those who are able and willing to work cannot find a job. Furthermore, unemployment has a negative effect on the capacity to purchase basic goods and to take care of oneself; this suggests that unemployed individuals cannot fulfil basic necessities such as food, thus supporting an alternative hypothesis that unemployment has an effect on food security. Taborda (2014) states that the higher the unemployment rate, the lower the household income, which in turn increases the level of food insecurity. Employment levels therefore influence household food insecurity.

Dodd and Nyabvudzi (2014) mentioned that households cannot purchase food primarily because their purchasing power is limited by a scarcity of income-generating opportunities, especially in rural areas, but generally, South Africans increasingly fail to afford food. In South African rural areas, the problem of food insecurity is aggravated, as there are higher rates of unemployment, failing remittances and low wage incomes (Dodd, 2016).

### **2.7.9 Household composition and income pooling**

A partial increase in monthly social grant payments to more than 17 million South Africans was announced by the finance minister in the National Budget in February 2017. There is a variance in value and availability of state grants across individual beneficiaries. Composition of households becomes a vital consideration in any attempt to avoid hunger and poverty (Whitworth and Wilkinson, 2013). According to Sinyolo, Mudhara and Wale (2016), in a situation where social grants provision is for particular individuals, income on its own makes an impression on household formation and decision-making. Food security requires adequate access to nutritionally sufficient food, but the grants are too small and are often shared among many more people than the person who receives it, thus reducing the food basket. In a

theoretical perspective, when grants are spread too thinly amongst many household members, they do not yield improvement in food security indicators. The household cannot afford enough food, while grant income does not keep up with inflation; consequently, the number of daily meals will decrease and their daily feeding practices deteriorate.

MacInnes, Tinson, Gaffney, Horgan and Baumberg (2014) brought forth confirmation, suggesting that household composition for the vulnerable is at least a reaction to unemployment, the partial system of state social grants and the financial necessity to meet basic needs. From this standpoint, households view grant recipients as a valuable source of income, particularly those that receive child and old age grants. There is existing consensus that grants involve a spill-over effect amongst household members because of the prevalence of multigenerational households in South Africa (Abel, 2013; Whitworth and Wilkinson, 2013). Grant beneficiaries do not typically act independently, and income entering the household affects the household as a unit. Hence, cash transfers become supplementary to the income of the household, with the hope that the grant will increase the household's standard of living and somehow positively affect food security and the welfare of the beneficiary (Sinyolo et al., 2016).

#### **2.7.10 Cost of food**

In theory, the annual increase of the value of social grants should lead to improved food security as more money would be spent on food by households. However, social grants are not enough to allow for the purchase of adequate food. This is because the increases in grant payments have not kept up with the rate of inflation. Food prices in South Africa have been rising by as much as 10% or more in recent years, while the social grants have been increasing slowly (Market and Economic Research Centre, 2017). For instance, in 2016-17, the cost of a nutritionally adequate diet increased by an estimated 16%, but the Child Support Grant increased by only 9% (The conversation, 2017). The money from grants (e.g. child grant), even if it was all spent on food for the child alone and no other household members, at its value of R380 would cover less than two-thirds of nutritionally adequate food for the child. The overbearing cost of food for grant beneficiary households reduces spending on other basic items to compensate for the cost of food prices.

## **2.8. Human rights approach or theory**

The interest of this approach or theory is to establish the legitimacy of human rights to sufficient food access on a daily basis.

### **2.8.1. The basic right to food**

The realisation of the right relies on the extent to which available resources are prioritised for social security and the policy must be implemented for the purpose of ensuring that people's lives are improved through the realisation of their socio-economic rights (Centre for Applied Legal Studies, 2016). Access to social grants is a constitutional right and it must be noted that the South African constitutional court allowed for progressive realisation of the right to social security (Chennells, 2015). This means that, while the state may be incapable of immediately realising the right because of resource limitations, it is nonetheless obliged to gradually improve in terms of the number and range of people benefiting from the right.

To achieve the right to food, people must be afforded the privilege of accessing adequate food and resources that are fundamental for sustainable food security (Nick and Hearn, 2017). However, it is necessary to clarify what the right to sufficient food does and does not entail. According to Taylor and Loopstra (2016), the right to food is not an entitlement to particular nutrition or the right to be fed. On the contrary, the right to food includes an assurance for one to feed, through access to resources and means to sustain a livelihood. According to FAO (2014), assurance to feed requires the availability of sufficient food production to meet the needs of the population and, more importantly, the ability of people to access such food. Households ought to have the capacity to domestically produce and/or purchase the food they need (FAO, 2016). The capacity to produce rests, amongst others, on access to resources such as land, water, market and money. Therefore, the right to food security places a responsibility on the state to offer an enabling environment for people to use their potential to procure and produce sufficient food for their households.

On the whole, the right to sufficient household food requires the state to utilise available resources to reduce and possibly eradicate hunger and food insecurity (Stats SA, 2016). The rights-based perspective to food security should be founded on national policies that prioritise access to financial, natural and public resources that will grant people the capacity to sufficiently feed themselves and their families with dignity (Feed the Future, 2016).

When people lose their right to food, they lose the freedom to choose which food to consume (Matthies and Uggerhøj, 2014). The violation of the right to food does not result from the lack of adequate food in the world, but from a lack of access to the already available food. Furthermore, within the prevailing food system, the right to food depends on the availability of money and access to the market place. Fundamentally, this means that if for any reason the consumer lacks money, they lose their right to food. FAO (n.d.) regards the right to food as a wholly inclusive right. Humans should be able to access all nutritional elements needed and lead a healthy life. Once more, emphasis is placed on the fact that food security refers to the right to food and not the right to be fed. This means that the government does not have the legal obligation to hand out free food.

### **2.8.2 Policy interventions to food security**

Currently, there is not a sole overarching policy framework addressing the right to food in South Africa; however, the South African government is continually striving to formulate policy interventions on the issue (Hendriks, Mkandawire, Hall, Olivier, Schönfeldt, Randall, Morgan, Olivier, Haggblade and Babu, 2016). Several state departments have introduced policies in an attempt to address the right to food (Drimie, 2016). Some of the policy interventions are inclusive of the food and agricultural policy, the Integrated Food Security Strategy of 2002 and the social grants programme etc. (Mtolo, 2016). In South Africa, there is a food security policy with the primary goal of ensuring that everyone is food secure and that there is support in accessing adequate dietary needs (Hendriks, 2014). The National Food and Nutrition Security Policy Challenge is also intended to make sure that everyone has access to food (DOA, 2013).

The laws that apply to social welfare such as the Social Assistance Act (SAA) and the South African Social Security Act (SASSA) are tied to social welfare rights, including the right to food (Foluke, 2015). The SAA provides a legislative framework for the provision of social grants to the poor and disadvantaged when there is a need for crisis intervention in the form of social relief (Government gazette, 2016). According to the FAO (2014), policies that address food insecurity need to be shaped around the four dimensions of food security, namely: availability, access, utilisation and stability. Pereira et al.'s (2014) suggestion is that food policies need to have a holistic appreciation of the food system and believe that food policies should focus on government interventions such as food aid programmes. Moreover, the food policies should be multi-level in order to effectively achieve their purpose and should consider diverse factors such as a growing retail sector, access to land and water, sources of revenue, inputs and should all be integrated into the nation's development. Mtolo (2016) critiques the state of South Africa by saying it lacks enforceable policies that ensure food security. This is mainly so because there is no vision of attainment towards a food secure nation and there is a lack of common understanding. According to Hendriks (2014), current and former governments in South African have differently interpreted food security policies which have resulted in the lack of proper co-ordination and monitoring. The FAO (2014) upholds the importance of monitoring and stated that it promotes evidence-based decision making.

## **2.9 Conclusion**

The social grant policy is generous in its reach with the number of beneficiaries and the yearly increasing value of the grant. There is boundless debate for and against the effectiveness of social grants and their capacity to improve access to food security. The social grant is a necessary policy constitutionally and as a food access strategy. Review of literature shows that households cannot afford the abundantly available food nationally, as food security is a matter of accessibility and not availability of food. The social grants are a source of income, and the needs of the households are realised through the market. Clarifying the issue of food (in)security is a rather diverse and complex situation that differs at a national level as compared to the household and the individual level, and is further perpetrated by



various factors both within the household and external. The issues of food security are fairly highlighted in grant beneficiary households, so is the importance of a stable income from social grants.

What compounds food insecurity is the vast reliance on social grants, even by those who are not beneficiaries. Households rely on markets for food access; as such, good and constant income is important for a sustained access to quality food. Income from social grants is proven to be necessary for food security as well as other household necessities. Borat and Cassim (2014) confirm that the target objective attempted by social grants to reach the poorest seems to be successful. Stats SA (2016) has evidence of this, as the survey shows that after the first democratic election, the number of beneficiaries has increased from a minimum of 2.4 million to 16.6 million in 2017. However, food security still remains a relentless challenge in South Africa.

The next chapter discusses methodologies undertaken to study the research problem.

## **CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 Introduction**

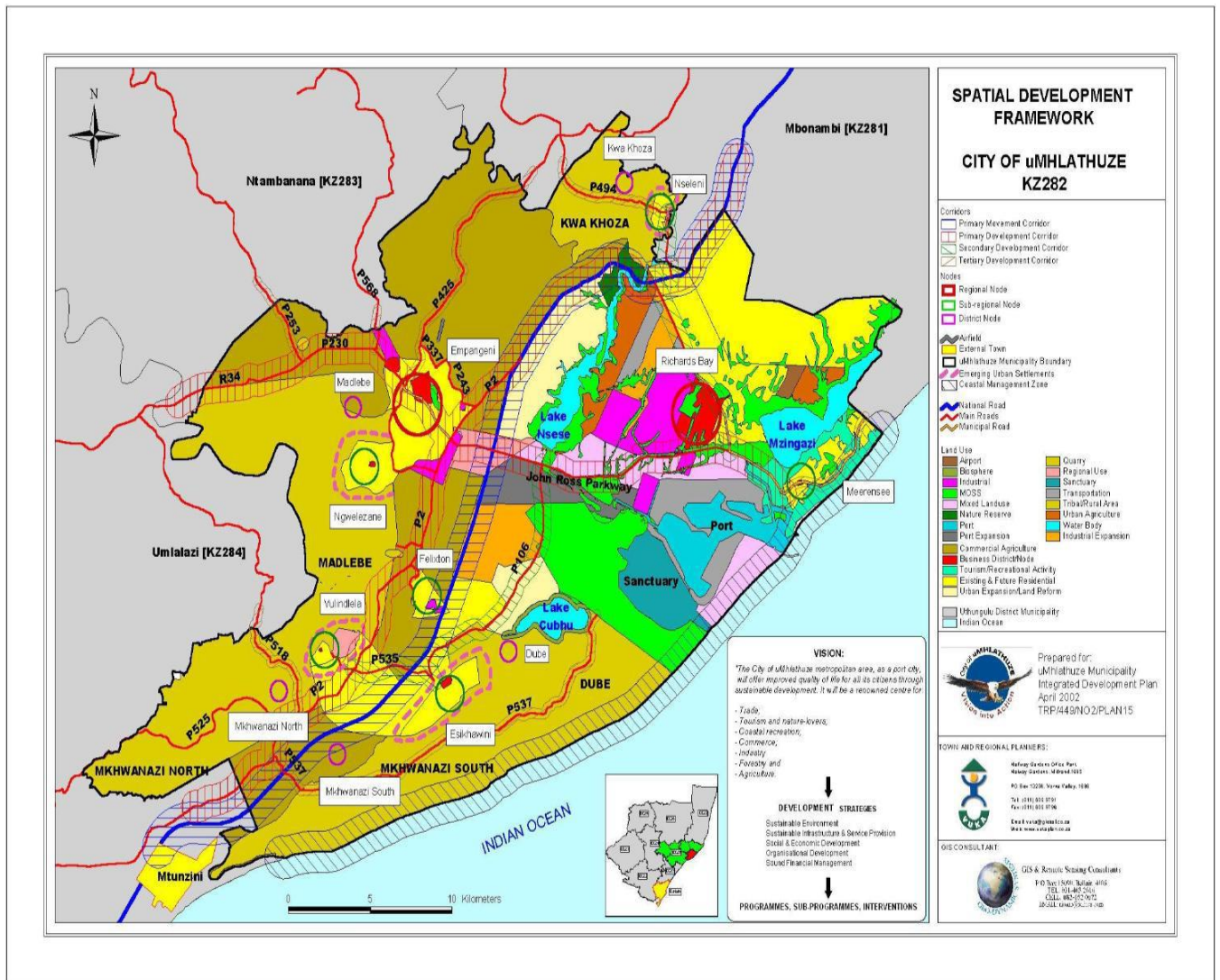
This chapter discusses specific areas of sampling and data analysis. It elucidates the nature of the research design, as well as the particular data collection method that was used in the study. Furthermore, an overview of the area where the data were collected is presented. The significance of this chapter lies in the appropriate description and analysis of food security in relation to social grants. This is helpful in understanding the facts about the state of food security within the social grant receiving households.

The methodological process includes the use of a closed-ended questionnaire (Appendix E). Data were only collected from households that were benefiting from social grants. The questionnaire included questions that elicited causes of food insecurity within beneficiary households which comprised household head features as well as general household traits, coping strategies, how the grants are utilised as a livelihood means, main food and income sources as well as other significant variables.

### **3.2 Study area**

uMhlathuze Municipality under King Cetshwayo District Municipality is the area of study with four communities of interest, namely: Mangezi and Esikhaleni under Mkhwanazi Traditional Authority, as well as Ncombo and Ndindima under Dube Traditional Authority. The four areas at uMhlathuze were selected because they were conveniently close to each other in terms of accessibility, thus saving time and financial resources. The Traditional Authorities (TAs) are predominantly composed of rural communities and are located south of Richards Bay.

Figure 3.1 below displays the north and south of Mkhwanazi TA as well as Dube TA. Each traditional authority is vast and occupies 35% of land on average in the municipal area (South African Cities Network Report SACNR, 2014).



**Fig. 3.1 Map of uMhlathuze municipal area showing Mkhwanazi (North and South) and Dube TAs**

According to the King Cetshwayo district municipality Integrated Development Plan (2017/18) uMhlathuze has the largest population (334,459) at King Cetshwayo District, making each household a home with an average of four members. The common issue of unemployment is high for the economically active in this area at 36%. This percentage is higher than the national average of 26.5% (Fin24, 2017). An estimated 50% of the Municipal area, according to the 2012/2017 uMhlathuze IDP, is mainly rural and rural development is a priority. The thrust of the development in this municipal area is agrarian reform. It is envisioned that agrarian land must be redistributed, thus improving food security for the rural poor and, amongst other objectives, creating entrepreneurial opportunities. Land is scarce and the households in the TAs acquire their livelihoods by securing land tenure which they use

for subsistence farming. However, this effort is usually inadequate for household food security (SACNR, 2014). According to statistics obtained by the SACN from SASSA offices in September 2013, the impact of poverty and food insecurity at uMhlathuze is to such an extent that the Department of Social Welfare supported an estimated 229 628 grantees in Richards Bay, Empangeni and Esikhaleni alone.

### **3.3 Research design**

A quantitative research method was used to collect data from the designated areas, using a semi-structured questionnaire (Appendix E). A quantitative method was used to achieve the objectives of this study and it must be emphasised that the semi-structured questionnaire was the most appropriate tool for gathering measurable primary data for analysis. The main advantage of a quantitative design is its ability to generate data needed to scientifically and objectively estimate household food security and the importance of social grants. Specific quantifiable food security variables included, among others, possession of productive household assets, household composition, cash allocated to food and other necessities, and livelihood strategies. Quantitative results obtained were analysed using descriptive statistics to accurately measure the effect of grant income on household food security. Statistical software, STATA, was used in analysing data.

#### **3.3.1 Sampling method**

The initial expectation was the sole implementation of purposive sampling that consisted of 100 households with a minimum of one grant holder in each household. The focus was on one particular subgroup in which all those that were sampled were homogenous and in this case, only households with social grants formed the complete sample. The variables from which the sample was drawn were linked to the research questions; therefore, there was a need to purposely select households with grant recipients. There was a need to recruit subjects that were willing to participate, were available and were grant beneficiaries. Each household completed one questionnaire (Appendix E), assisted by the researcher or field worker. Households that had grant recipients and were available to the researcher in terms of location were included in the sample. Purposive sampling was accompanied by snowball sampling, since some households within the sample acted as informants in identifying other

households that were grant beneficiaries. In this way, the respondents were also actively participating in the research process. Hence, the sample households appeared to grow like a snowball. This process was time-efficient and presented an easy method of locating households with grant beneficiaries. These sampling methods were used in co-operation until the intended sample was reached. Children below the age of eighteen were not included in the sample, as the study did not have ethical clearance for minors.

### **3.3.2 Data collection processes**

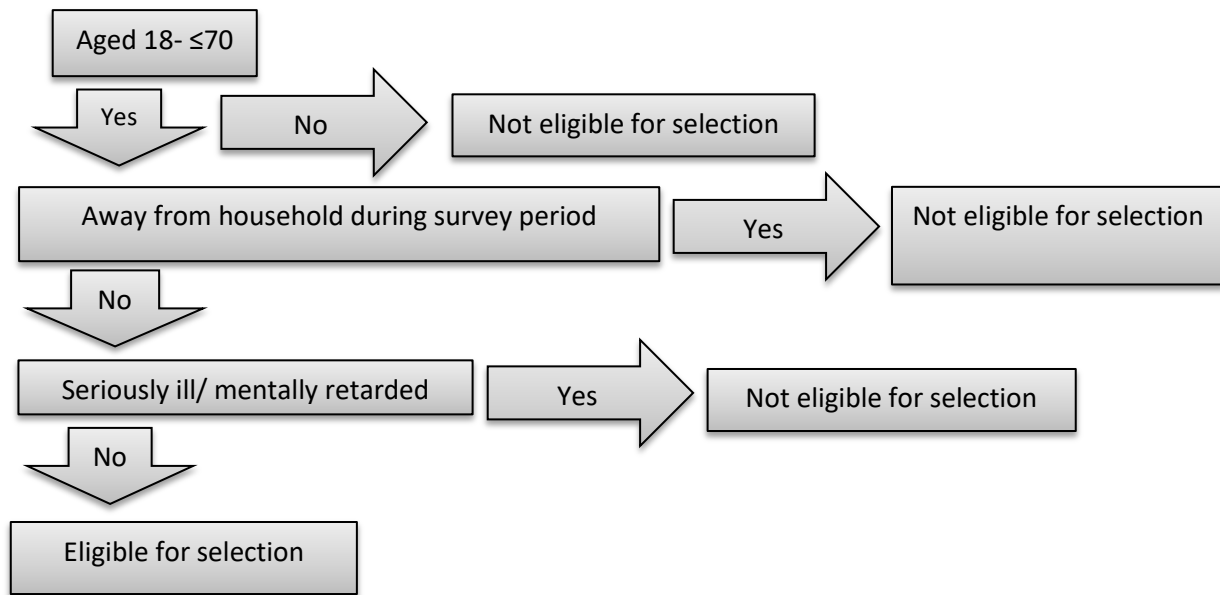
Below is an outline of the method of systematically gathering measurable information on variables of interest that enable the researcher to respond to the research questions.

#### **3.3.2.1 Primary data collection**

The primary data were first collected at Mkhwanazi area because it was conveniently accessible before collecting at Dube area. There were 100 respondents in total.

A local University of Zululand student was trained to assist in data collection. This was to ensure that collected data were of high quality. Only one person was included in the survey in each home, which was preferably the person that ran the household, as he/she was assumed to be knowledgeable about grant access and utilisation.

Although the questionnaire was written in English and translated into isiZulu, each respondent was assisted in completing the questionnaire, as some were either illiterate, had poor vision or simply preferred to speak instead of writing. The actual collection of data happened after the study was explained to the respondents and after informed consent was obtained. The research field workers asked questions and completed the questionnaire on behalf of the respondents. Although the process was time-consuming, it was exceptionally beneficial in yielding maximum responses on the part of the respondents. Each questionnaire was validated for completeness before leaving the data collection site. The questionnaire was checked for inconsistencies and errors which were corrected and saved into a data base before collecting data.



**Figure 3.2: Eligibility scheme adopted From EUMAGINS, project paper 6A 2011**

This study did not rely solely on collecting data from caregivers in case they were unavailable or ineligible; there was a system of selecting an eligible respondent within the household, as displayed in Figure 3.2. The figure shows that, before commencing with data collection, the respondents had to be between particular ages. It was important to ensure that the responding individual was not too young or mentally ill to ensure reliability and accuracy of collected data. If, however, the caregiver for any reason was away from the household during the time of the survey, he/she was excluded and the next to assume responsibility for the household was selected.

### **3.3.2.2 Secondary data collection**

In this study, secondary research was conducted to gather information that was relevant to Chapter 1, Chapter 2 and throughout the data analysis chapters, in order to adequately discuss primary data. This was intended to aid the understanding of the conceptualisation of food security, social grants and other associated challenges. A review of literature included previous research studies, government publications, journal articles, books, the Internet, conference papers etc. Books were reviewed to provide a theoretical perspective on food security. Government publications included regulations and policy briefs on the state of household food security in South Africa.

### **3.3.3 Data Analysis**

The primary data was captured using SPSS and later exported into STATA for analysis. The actual analysis of data was classified into three sections, as presented in the forthcoming chapters. The classifications gave a detailed preview of the various limiting factors of food security, the extent at which the social grants are beneficial to the households and the adopted coping mechanisms when food sources were limited.

Bivariate analysis was used to establish the association between socio-demographic variables, adopted sets of coping mechanisms and utilisation of social grants to household food (in)security. For instance, household income value and sustainable access to food (e.g. household runs out of food) would be simultaneously analysed. This would show the relationship between these two variables: whether there is an association between the value of monthly household income and adequacy of food and the strength of this association. Baddeley and Borrowclough (2009) emphasise that this method can be used predominantly when the dependant variable, which in the case of this study is that “beneficiary household food security” is not continuous, but on the contrary has two possible outcomes which is either that a household is food secure or not food secure. Therefore, food security based on social grant contribution was analysed, using the bid values of 1 and 0. A few questions that allowed respondents to elaborate were categorised into themes and coded and thereafter the basic quantitative analysis was done. Secondary data were used to complement the issues that were raised through quantitative analysis of data.

### **3.4 Reliability and validity**

For purposes of testing the tool, a pilot study was conducted amongst ten (10) grant beneficiary households at KwaDlangezwa. The respondents were requested to state how they understood the questions. Responses showed that they understood most of the questions, especially when they were presented in isiZulu.

However, those questions that were misunderstood were explained and rephrased until the respondents could understand them. The tool was also found to be imperfect, because there

were lengthy questions which generated large amounts of unnecessary data that would take a long time to process and analyse. These questions were reviewed and, according to Alvesson and Sandberg (2013), were limited to a maximum of eleven simplified words per question to eliminate any chances of misinterpretation. It was noted that too many questions made respondents reply superficially, as it took too long for the questionnaire to be completed. To remedy this, the number of questions was reduced and questions that elicited the same responses were excluded. Some respondents were unwilling to answer questions that requested them to reveal household income. It was therefore necessary to reassure them of anonymity and explain why the information was collected and how the findings would be beneficial.

### **3.5 Ethical considerations**

Ethical requirements when conducting a survey require respondents to give informed consent prior to commencing with the study. Permission or authorisation to enter selected sites was firstly sought and obtained from uMhlathuze Municipality. The deputy municipal manager, after carefully reading the letter which explained the study (Appendix A), granted permission to conduct the study (Appendix B). The municipality did not recommend any changes or disapprove; however, there was a request that the dissertation be submitted to the municipal manager upon completion of the study.

The process of obtaining permission was extensive, as it included traditional leadership. The study area is a rural setting predominantly ruled by traditional leaders. People in the research sites were not contacted directly, but a letter was written to the traditional leaders in isiZulu (Appendix C), explaining the study. The traditional leaders thereafter gave permission to conduct the study. The nature of the study depended on gaining access to people's households; as a result, this also warranted the cooperation of households who had one or more grant beneficiaries. In practice, this meant securing approval from all households that were approached before having them respond to the questionnaire. The respondents themselves, when they were approached in their homes, were all requested to sign an informed consent form (Appendix D), agreeing to voluntarily participate in the study. The respondents were assured of confidentiality; as such, the participants were not required to



write their names on the questionnaire. There was the necessity for obtaining ethical clearance before recruiting respondents and gathering data. Ethical clearance was thus granted and the ethical certificate UZREC 171110-030 (Appendix F) was issued. The study was within the ethical standards required by the University of Zululand.

### **3.6 Limitations of the study**

The main limitations were on the side of the participants when gathering data on household income and food consumption, with the aid of an open-ended 24-hour recall. Respondents had a difficult time recollecting all the kinds of food, snacks and beverages consumed from 12pm the previous day until 12pm the following day. As a result, the 24-hour recall was excluded from data analysis.

In the case where households were requested to reveal the value of their income, they were hesitant to disclose that information, but were assured of confidentiality. Ethical considerations play a pivotal role in gaining the trust of the respondents. Also the study was self-funded; as a result, it had to be limited to a maximum of 100 households to save time and money. Because of the small sample, findings could not be generalised to the larger population of beneficiary households in South Africa, but only amongst beneficiary households living at uMhlathuze. During analysis, it was discovered that most households were led by the elderly, with almost none between 19-39 years. There was also a categorical imbalance based on educational attainment and employment status within the households.

The next chapter outlines the characteristics of household caregivers and their impact on food security.

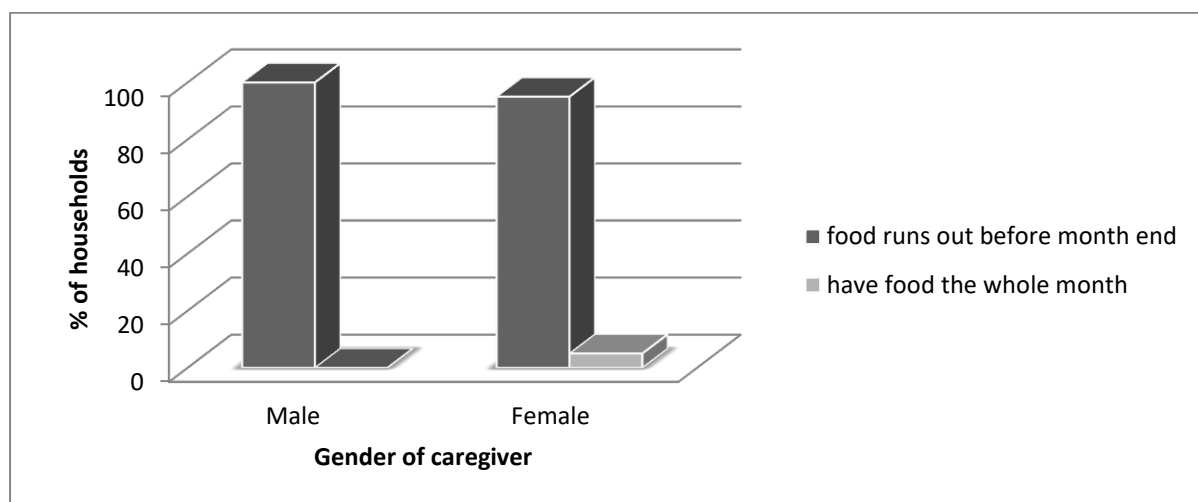
## CHAPTER 4: CHARACTERISTICS OF HOUSEHOLD CAREGIVERS

### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the importance of household caregiver<sup>1</sup> characteristics in achieving household food security. The characteristics are age, gender, education, marital status and employment status of a caregiver.

### 4.2 Gender of a caregiver

Figure 4.1 indicates that almost all households, regardless of gender, are food insecure, as they cannot maintain adequate availability of food to household members the whole month. Findings of this study suggest that the gender of a head has a somewhat considerable role in the degree to which households are food insecure. There is partial variation between food insecurity of male-headed homes and female-headed ones, although it is small. All households with male caregivers consume a maximum of three meals per day until the household runs out of food before the month ends.



**Figure 4.1 Household access to food by gender of caregiver (%)**

<sup>1</sup> Within the context of this study, a care-giver is a household member that has accepted the responsibility of looking after dependent grant beneficiaries and makes important decisions regarding the general household welfare

On the other hand, 95% of households with female caregivers run out of food before the end of the month. This proportion is 5% less than that of the males. Unlike male caregiver households, 5% of female caregiver households have adequate access to food the entire month. The argument of the High Level Panel of Experts (2012) is in agreement with these results. They confirm that social transfers that target women are more likely to realise a greater impact on food security in contrast to targeting men. This is because women have a foremost role as caregivers and food producers in their households. Also, females are known as pivotal actors in tackling the problem of food insecurity globally. Currently, gender is assessed to determine whether it is a limiting factor to the realisation of household food security and at uMhlathuze it was discovered that, though female households are less likely to run out of food, the difference is trivial in comparison to the male-headed households. Jha and Acharya (2016) stated that food insecurity and hunger eradication are amongst the top priority agendas today, considering the multiple strategies implemented by the state to reduce their impact amongst the vulnerable groups. Gender inequalities in favour of males are known to prevent the attainment of such priorities.

### 4.3 Age of caregiver

Table 4.1 shows that the occurrence of food shortages is somewhat higher for the younger group and slightly better for the older. One percent of the households are managed by young adults (19-39 years) and none is child-headed. Food accessibility for each grouping varies with the age of the caregiver and the proportion of households that are food secure is very small. There is a slight decrease in the number of households that experience food shortages as age increases. There is a growing vulnerability to food insecurity in as far as basic necessities such as food to sustain life is concerned.

**Table 4.1 Access to food by age of household caregiver (Col, %)**

Household food security	Age of household head		
	19-39	40-64	≥65
<b>Household runs out of food before the month ends</b>	1	98	95
<b>Household has food the whole month</b>	0	2	5
Total (%)	100	100	100
Total (N)	<b>1</b>	<b>53</b>	<b>46</b>

The likelihood of food insecurity decreases as caregivers grow in age. Mango, Zamasiya, Makate, Nyikahadzoi and Siziba (2014) associate younger age with a significant decrease in the chance of food insecurity and this is contrary to the current study. Ndobu (2013) explains that food security amongst older caregiver households results from the possibility of accessing old age pension grants and some retirement funds, with fewer people to support. This age-related outcome is also consistent with research findings of a similar study by Abdullah, Zhou, Shah, Ali, Ahmad, Din and Ilyas (2017) that households managed by those  $\geq 65$  are less food insecure, as they have greater knowledge and involvement in social settings and domestic farming.

#### 4.4 Education level of caregiver

Although Ndobu (2013) has linked educational attainment of caregivers to household food security, and that food insecurity is generally common in households managed by those with lesser educational attainment or without formal education. At uMhlathuze, the level of education does not seem to play a significant role in accessibility of food (Table 4.2). The small percentage of the food secure households is found amongst households led by those with Grade 1-7 of educational attainment. Apparently, the educational attainment of the caregiver does not influence food security amongst grant beneficiary households in the uMhlathuze area.

**Table 4.2 Access to food by education level of caregiver (Col, %)**

Household food security	Level of education			
	No formal education	Grade 1-7	Grade 8-12	Tertiary education
<b>Household runs out of food before the month ends</b>	100	87	100	100
<b>Household has food the whole month</b>	0	13	0	0
Total (%)	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
Total (N)	<b>19</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>9</b>

This goes against the findings of Dimitri, Oberholtzer, Zive and Sandolo (2015) that showed that some of the important factors that influence household food security are knowledge and education of the individual who is caring for and managing the home. These attributes are

identified as necessary to sufficiently meet needs and maintain the wellbeing of a household. However, this is not the case in the uMhlathuze area.

#### 4.5 Employment status of caregiver

Table 4.3 below represents variance of household food security based on household head employment or unemployment status. The FAO (2012) suggests that a secure and decent employment is necessary to achieve food security.

**Table 4.3 Household access to food and employment status of caregiver (Col, %)**

Household food security	Employment of caregiver	
	Employed	Unemployed
Household runs out of food before the month ends	96	97
Household has food the whole month	4	3
<b>Total (%)</b>	100	100
<b>Total (N)</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>75</b>

Employment of a caregiver plays a significant role in food security by serving as a channel of accessing food and as a source of livelihood, particularly for the low income households (Floro and Swain, 2013). Table 4.3 shows a substantial gap in the employment status of caregivers. A sizeable difference exists between the number of employed (25) and the unemployed (75). This is evidence of a high unemployment rate amongst these households. However, the findings in Table 4.5 indicate that there is no significant difference between the employed and the unemployed as far as household food security is concerned. According to Wiemers (2014), such households are food insecure because they experience under-employment which lowers incomes, as such households possess limited mechanisms to deal with the many risks that they face, including satisfying a basic need such as access to adequate food.

##### 4.5.1 Economic activity of household caregivers

This section provides the employment status of household caregivers of the sampled population. The unemployment rate was calculated using the South African standard equation.

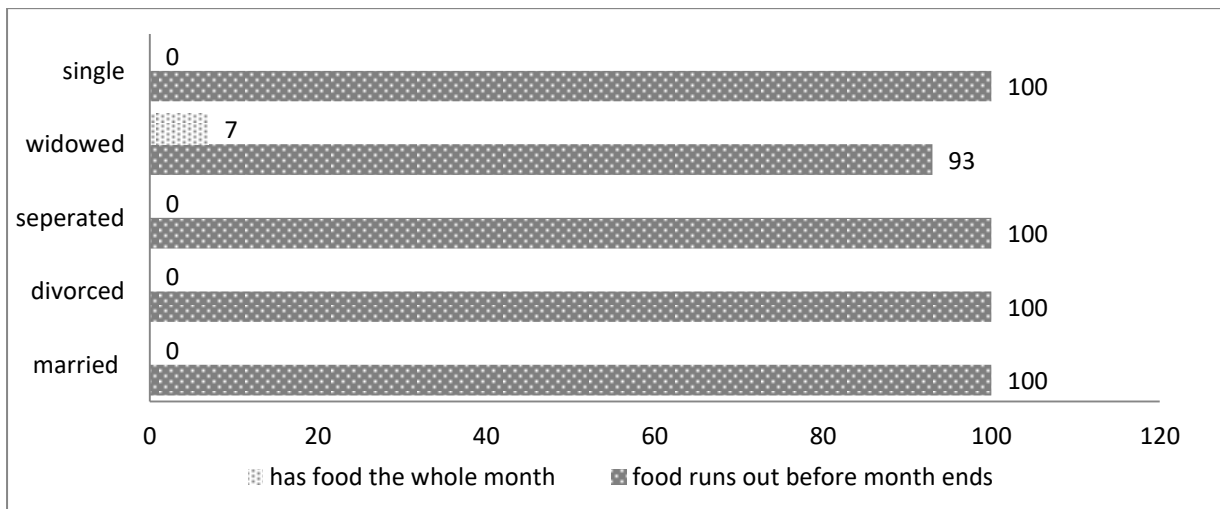
$$Ur = \frac{\text{number of unemployed}}{\text{economically active}} \times 100$$

$$Ur = \frac{36}{54} \times 100 = 67\%$$

The unemployment rate was calculated for those between 18 and 64 years, excluding those  $\geq 65$  years. Calculations showed a high unemployment rate of 67% amongst the economically-active. Even in the national context, according to Stats SA (2016), unemployment has a structural nature and continues to be a cause of concern. It is an issue that leads to food insecurity and poverty for those that are disadvantaged and have taken steps to seek employment to no avail (Dodd and Nyabvudzi, 2014).

#### 4.6 Marital status of caregiver

Food insecurity is commonly associated with households headed by the unmarried. The expected difference is because single heads may lack support structures and the general household is likely to depend on the income of one adult (Wang and Qiu, 2016). An overview of food security using marital status as a unit of analysis will assist in establishing the importance of the marital status of a caregiver in achieving sustainable access to food for the general household.



**Figure 4.2 Household food access and marital status of caregiver (%)**

Figure 4.2 shows that the married are food insecure, similar to the single, separated and the divorced. The small proportion (7%) that is food secure is amongst those cared for by the

widowed. These findings are not similar to other studies such as Sekhampu (2013) and Aidoo, Mensah and Taffour (2013) where those that are married are far less food insecure, due to multiple income sources and a better capacity for securing food. This variable appears to be unimportant in predicting food (in)security status in the study area.

#### 4.7 Significant relationships between characteristics of caregiver and household food security using correlation analysis

Table 4.4 represents the logistic regression correlation analysis to establish an association between household caregiver characteristics and food security within the grant beneficiary household. This analysis measures the strength of the association and the direction of the relationship. Academics such as Abdullah, Zhou, Shah, Ali, Ahmad, Din and Ilyas (2017) have established that socio-demographic and socio-economic variables are important factors for determining food security. Therefore, in Table 4.4, the intention is to establish whether this can be said for grant beneficiary households in a rural traditional authority.

**Table 4.4 Correlation Analysis of demographic variables to food security**

<b>Demographic variables of caregiver</b>	<b>Significance</b>
<b>Age</b>	<b>0.440</b>
<b>Gender</b>	<b>0.706</b>
<b>Employment status</b>	<b>0.117</b>
<b>Marital status</b>	
Married vs. separated	<b>0.494</b>
Married vs. single	<b>0.522</b>
Single vs. separated	<b>0.064*</b>
<b>Education</b>	
No education vs. tertiary	<b>0.999</b>
No education vs. Grade 11-12	<b>1.000</b>
No education vs. Grade 8-10	<b>0.812</b>
No education vs. Grade 1-4	<b>0.272</b>
***Significant at 1% level, **Significant at 5% level, *Significant at 10% level	

Analysis of the findings displayed in Table 4.4 does not suggest a variation in degree of food insecurity on the basis of socio-demographic characteristics of the household head. This means the progression of food insecurity does not reduce or grow within these households on account of these variables. All explanatory variables such as caregiver's marital status, level of education, employment status, gender or age have no effect on general household food security; they are not predictors of food in/security. This suggests that a household's success in managing the problem of food insecurity is reliant on other factors and not on these variables. Evidently, gender and educational attainment are not statistically significant predictors of food insecurity in the study area, although multiple studies in most cases usually indicate otherwise.

#### **4.8 Conclusion**

Evidence shows that most households are food insecure and the insecurity arises from the incapacity to access food every day for the whole month. The sampled households lack access to sufficient quantities of food that will support them without any shortages. The main contributory factor to food shortages when considering characteristics of caregivers is gender, as females become slightly less exposed to food insecurity. Food insecurity also partly decreases as the age of the caregiver increases. Education has no considerable impact, while households are almost equally food insecure, regardless of the state of employment of the caregiver. Lastly, if the household is cared for by a married couple or single or divorced persons, they are likely to experience food shortages, but a small percentage (7%) of the widowed do not at any point experience food shortages in their households.

The next chapter discusses the utilisation of state grants and their contribution to food security.



## CHAPTER 5: UTILISATION OF STATE GRANTS AND THEIR CONTRIBUTION TO FOOD SECURITY

### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses state grants and their usage by households and whether households feel they are adequate for most basic needs such as food.

### 5.2 A profile of grant coverage and type of grant

Table 5.1 indicates that most households (36%) benefit from a joint contribution of two social grants on average and they are predominantly old age grants (OAG) or child support grants (CSG). Stats SA (2015) conducted a study on correlation coefficients, thus discovering that shared contribution of OAG and CSG to household income is statistically significant and has a strong and positive correlation. However, the correlation was found to be lower if the household had no other means of generating income. As indicated in Table 5.1, the average household size of the sampled population at uMhlathuze was calculated to be 5.8. Non-poor households, according to the General Household Survey (2011), are commonly composed of an average of 3.2 members. However, Stats SA (2014/15) mentioned that household income grows with the size of the household, but then again decreases when the number of household members reaches 5 and more. Furthermore, large households are likely to rely on social grants and other family allowances to supplement income.

Based on the above statistical findings, social grant households at uMhlathuze could be categorised as poor and reliant on state grants for their livelihood (Table 5.1). There is a negative association between food security and a larger household and as such a household and food security are inversely proportional (Olayemi, 2012).

**Table 5.1: Social grant profile at uMhlathuze**

Mean number of grant recipients per household	2
Mean number of different grant types per household	2
Mean total monthly grant value in rand per household receiving grants	R 1 277
Mean number of household members	5.8
% of households receiving OAG only	20
% of households receiving CSG only	31
% of households receiving foster care (FC)	11
% of household receiving disability grants (DG)	2
% of households receiving a combination of grants	36

Table 5.1 depicts various grants received by households and the average rand value contributed by the grants within households. Nationally, in the year 2007, the average amount of grant income was less than R1070 per month for about 75% of the South African population; it was slightly higher than the 2003 average of R1005 (Stats SA, 2003 and 2007). Currently, the grant income of the sampled population of uMhlathuze is slightly higher at an average of R1277. The increase in monthly average social grant income is a consequence of the increase in the value of the grant income, as well as an increase in the number of grant beneficiaries, as confirmed by the South African Social Security Agency (SASSA, 2014).

It is households composed of several members (five or more on average) with a regular income of approximately R2742 or less per month that are likely to be food insecure and are anticipated to consume larger quantities of food than those with fewer members (GHS, 2014). Evidently, households of uMhlathuze fall below this income threshold, with a larger household composition in both households managed by males or females. As already discussed, households benefit mostly from OAG and CSG at 20% and 31% respectively, with an average of two grants per household. The scale of these grants is sufficient to pull the households out of poverty, but inadequate to secure nutritionally sufficient food on a daily basis (Standish-White and Finn, 2015).

### 5.3 Household income and relative contribution of social grants

Within the context of domestic food production, Table 5.2 shows that only 4% of uMhlathuze households have livestock sales; 2% have gardening practices, and 22% have other non-farming income activities while 5% have remittances.

**Table 5.2 Income source of recipient household**

Income source of recipient household	
<b>% households with remittances</b>	5
<b>% of households with sales of garden products</b>	2
<b>% of households with sales of livestock</b>	4
<b>% of households with other non-farming income</b>	22
<b>% getting help from friends/family/neighbours</b>	44

Even in the context of South Africa, very few (12.1%) grant beneficiary households take part in domestic food production in the form of gardening or livestock production or receive agricultural-related support from the state (Stats SA, 2015). In 2015, few households (2.1%), for purposes of household consumption or selling off some of their produce, admitted getting training in crop production and only 6.8% received livestock dipping and vaccination services (Stats SA, 2015). This suggests that households that may rely on subsistence farming for food or income have minimal support structures.

**Table 5.3: Total monthly household income and contribution of grants**

Average household income from other sources e.g. ( <i>employment, irregular work and running small business</i> )	R3040.54 (48%)
Average income from grants only	R 1 277.00 (42%)
<b>Total (average)</b>	<b>R4317.54</b>

The average household income derived from other income sources is R 3 025 monthly (Table 5.3). Ndobu (2013) regards the size of household income as a critical contributing factor to household food (in)security. This means that lower income households are to be expected to be vulnerable to food insecurity and the opposite would be true for the higher income counterparts (Ngidi, 2015). For measuring food intake of the sampled population, the concept of average monthly food expenditure was utilised. The estimated expenditure on food as disclosed by all households was added together and divided by the number of households in the sample, to estimate per capita monthly expenditure. Below is the applied method in order to realise the average cash value dedicated to food.

$$\text{Average monthly expenditure (AME)} = \frac{\text{total montly estimated expenditure by households}}{\text{number of households}}$$

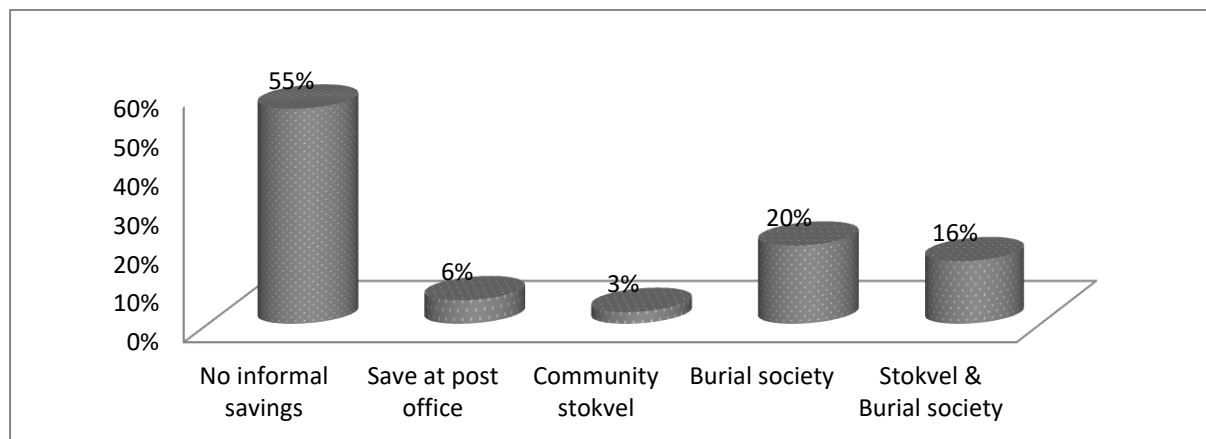
$$\text{AME} = \frac{R107850}{100} = R1078.5$$

With this information, it was possible to estimate an average of R1078.5 as a cut-off point for each household per month. The amount spent on food by households of uMhlatuze is almost similar to the total value of the grant income that is indicated in Table 5.3. According to the GHS (2014), poor households spend R8 485 per annum on average and this can be calculated to be R707 monthly food expenses, which value accounts for 33% of household income. This

finding suggests that grant beneficiary homes at uMhlatuze are not food secure, but live somewhat above the estimated poverty line.

#### 5.4 Grant savings

According to Figure 5.1 below, some of the beneficiary households have the privilege of saving and investing some of their grant income in various enterprises. The figure below depicts some of the financial behaviour and financial assets of the beneficiary households.



**Figure 5.1 Representations of household’s means of saving**

These beneficiary households have access to three important assets such as stokvels<sup>2</sup> (3%), burial societies<sup>3</sup> (20%) or a combination of these two (16%), as well as savings at a post office (6%). Savings resources such as stokvels and the post office make it possible for households to access food or funds which undoubtedly secure access to food and other household necessities. On the other hand, investing in a burial society does not meet immediate household needs including food, but protects the household against unexpected funeral expenses. Based on Stats SA’s (2013) national findings, most of the low income households struggle to meet basic daily needs such as food, shelter and clothing; and as such, this compels the poor to depend upon self-help community-based activities as a means of survival. Stokvels become vital food insecurity reduction strategies which are adopted by many low income households.

<sup>2</sup> The stokvels work as a circulating savings plan whereby participants invest a fixed cash value on a weekly, monthly or fortnightly process.

<sup>3</sup> Burial societies provide by voluntary subscriptions for funeral expenses for unforeseen circumstances such as the death of a household member.

More than half (55%) of the sampled households do not adopt any form of savings, the main reason expressed by the households being that overall household needs exceeded income and as such, funds were inadequate for savings. According to Karlan, Savonitto, Thuysbaert and Udry (2017), in events when the unforeseen occurs, such households may suffer financial as well as material hardships that threaten the general well-being of the household, including food security.

**Table 5.4: Representation of retailer forms of saving by grant recipient/households**

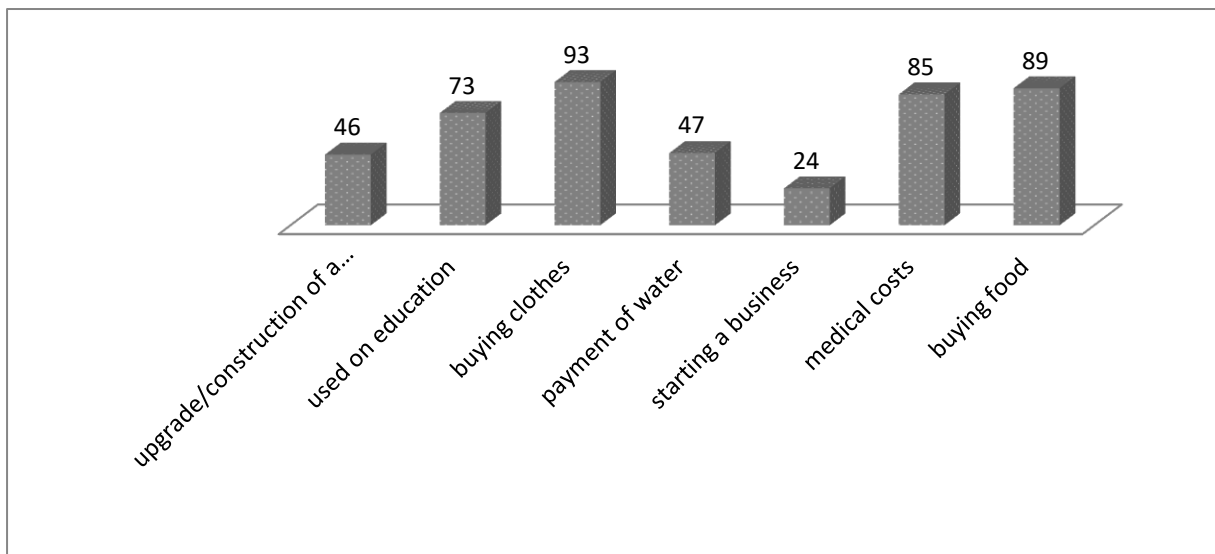
<b>Formal/retailer savings</b>	<b>Grant only</b>	<b>Grant + other income</b>
Lay-bys for clothing	11	31
Lay-bys for building material	0	8
Buying Christmas stamps	0	2
Clothing and building material	0	3
Money is inadequate for savings	89	56
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

All households, whether they depend on grants only or grants in combination with other forms of income, to some extent consider formal or retailer forms of savings as instruments for supporting household food security, as well as improving the quality of life of the household. Table 5.4 above shows different outcomes of expenditure and savings amongst households that rely on grants only, in contrast to those that have other sources of income. According to Stats SA (2014/15), expenditure on basic necessities remains larger for higher income households. This proves to be true, as 31% of grant and other income category households can afford to make lay-bys for clothing, in contrast to 11% that have no other income sources; some (8%) lay by building material, while none of the grant-only households can afford such purchases. A minimum of 3% save by making lay-bys on both clothing and building material and no household that depends on grants only does the same. According to Stats SA (2014/2015), KwaZulu-Natal is amongst the provinces that spent the least (4.7%) of their income on building materials, furnishing and routine maintenance of the household.

Two percent of multiple-income households purchase Christmas food stamps. Eighty-nine percent of households that rely on grants only do not engage in any form of savings, in contrast to 56% of those that have both grants and other income. Ting (2013) suggests a vital and negative association between savings and food security, indicating that households that do not save are least likely to escape food insecurity, while those that do can possibly attain a level of food security. Also, the decline and/or absence of savings raise prospective current and future issues of household consumption (National Treasury, 2013/14).

### 5.5 General usage of grant income

Figure 5.3 below displays some of the benefits of social grants as expressed by the households. Social grants positively contribute through purchases of clothing for the majority (93%) of households.



**Figure 5.2: Illustration of how the grants are utilised by households/beneficiaries**

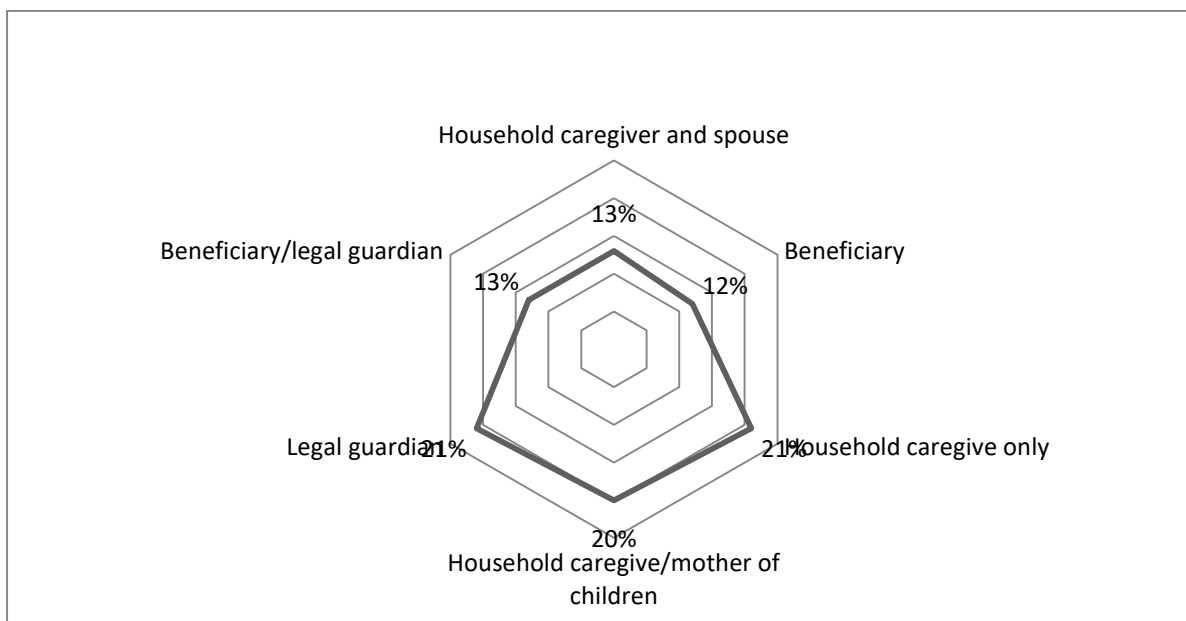
Social grants empower households to avoid food destitution, as 89% admit to purchasing food with the money. Food represents the most common and largest monthly expense for grant beneficiary homes, as they would reiterate that food is the most important concern, considering the inadequate value of the grants. According to GHS (2014), poor households spend a third of their income on food. Not only do grants contribute to consumption, findings in Figure 5.3 also suggest these grants are robustly associated with good health, education for children and grant recipients, payment of water bills, building or house improvement, and

starting a business. Apart from improving access to food, GHS (2015) also indicates that grants boost household income while positively impacting other aspects such as health and education. Furthermore, grants positively impact on accommodation and housing, as the money is also used to renovate and build homes.

In South Africa, most household expenditure goes towards “housing and utilities, transportation, an assortment of goods and services, and food and non-alcoholic beverages” (Stats SA, 2014/2015). These account for approximately three-quarters (76%) of all consumption expenses. However, within grant beneficiary households of uMhlatuze, the four priorities are clothing, food, medical costs and education.

### 5.6 Decision-making related to grant usage

Although grants are legally recorded against those for whom they are intended, decision-making regarding their general usage may fall upon a guardian, household head or other household members. It is possible to examine decision-making with regard to how the grants will be used (Figure 5.3).

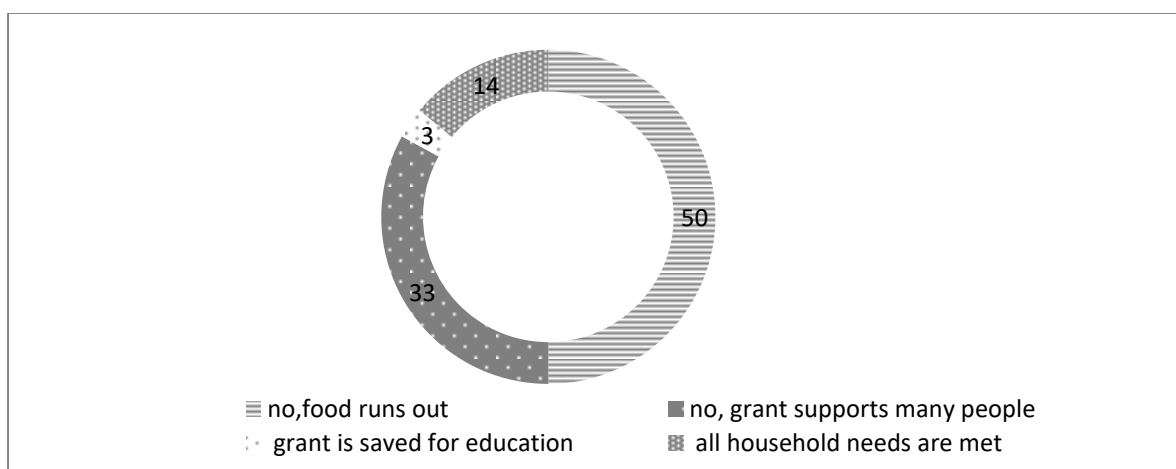


**Figure 5.3: Grant related decision making**

Within households defined as low income, intra-household decision-making, household dynamics and grant utilisation may have a substantial impact on the welfare of the general household (Bailey, 2013). Decision-making is inclusive of how much of the money should be used, how much should be invested or saved and how and when it should be used. Twenty one percent of decision-making is solely the responsibility of caregivers and legal guardians. 20% of caregivers consult with mothers in instances of child support grant. Thirteen percent of household decisions are made by caregivers with their spouses or the main beneficiary together with a legal guardian. 12% of beneficiaries are the sole decision-makers.

Within these households, various elements influence the dynamics of decision-making such as marital status of the caregiver (if the caregiver is single, he/she can be solely responsible for decision-making). Caregivers can have greater command over financial resources (how the resources are utilised, e.g. to favour children predominantly and also benefit the household as a unit) and intra-household food distribution (Anderson, Reynolds and Gugerty, 2017). Another important decision-making factor is beneficiary independence in terms of age and decision-making capacity and who is considered the caregiver of the beneficiary. It is argued that age is a central characteristic that affects management and distribution of roles in a household. Furthermore, it has an impact on decision-making, especially in relation to important household resources and food security (Kumba, 2015).

### 5.7 Sufficiency of grant income for food



**Figure 5.4: Grant adequacy in meeting food needs of beneficiary and household**



The effect of inadequacy of social grants is felt by most households as displayed in figure 5.5. Fifty percent of social grant beneficiaries reported that the grant was inadequate and did not meet their food needs; 35% claimed the grant was inadequate to meet food needs because it supported many people. Most households such as these experience the dreaded reality of food insecurity, while they spend a large portion of their income on food. The value of the grants and the increasing cost of food make it difficult for them to obtain sufficient food (Financial and Fiscal Commission, 2014). On the other hand, 3% of the households do not use the grant for food but save it all for education, while 14% are satisfied with the grant's ability to meet food needs. These households may not be very concerned about means of accessing food, as social grants are not a very strong material basis for accessing food and as such the household engages in other livelihood-supporting activities (Von Fintel and Pienaar, 2016).

## **5.8 Conclusion**

Grant recipient households are commonly low income households, as already established; however, these households are capable of avoiding food destitution. When the beneficiary households were questioned about their survival should the grants cease, most (61%) were certain that they could not survive, while 39% said the opposite. Evidence shows that social grants are necessary and that the wellbeing of households is related to the receipt of grants, as more than two fifths (42%) of household income comes from grants alone. The impact of the grants is not homogeneously experienced across all households; instead, they are influenced by different factors such as the size of the household and supporting the general household and being used for other needs other than food. The number of grants per household and degree of reliance on grant income affects food security. Households that depend on grants only are likely to be more vulnerable to food insecurity. The degree of household dependence on grants is guided by the extent to which the income is collectively shared and this is predominantly associated with food insecurity and the deteriorating welfare of the general household. The households are food insecure; however, the amount of money spent on food indicates that they live slightly above the national poverty line. More than half (55%) of the households could not afford to make savings, as the overall needs of the household surpass the value of household income. Those that rely on grants in combination with other financial resources have basic expenditure that is higher than households that rely on grants only.

Households claimed that grant income was inadequate to meet food needs; as such, they experienced the dreaded reality of food insecurity.

The next chapter discusses food insecurity coping strategies.

## **CHAPTER 6: FOOD INSECURITY COPING STRATEGIES**

### **6.1 Introduction**

From findings in the previous chapters it has been established that most households are food insecure thus adopting a set of varying strategies to access food. This chapter discusses households' food insecurity coping strategies as reported by the households. The adopted coping strategies will be used as an alternative indicator of the seriousness of food insecurity. The basic premise for establishing the seriousness of household food insecurity was that a simple set of questions was presented to the respondent to identify households that were mostly at risk. Quantitative methods were used when gathering answers to the general questions, what do households do when they do not have enough food, or enough money to buy food? Asking questions that show what people do when they are food insecure can be a relatively simple and quick indicator of the seriousness of food insecurity.

### **6.2 Household coping strategies**

Low income households take a variety of specific strategies to deal with food insufficiency (Von Fintel and Pienaar, 2016). The sub-sections below discuss the mechanisms that households undertake to ensure access to food.

#### **6.2.1 Domestic food production**

Domestically producing food is an ancient tradition which is common amongst households in the study area. The practice, however, is not on a large scale and is maintained on small plots with a few traditional crops such as maize, pumpkins etc. At certain times of the year, they improve the variety of crops they produce. Production is meant to bridge the gap in food accessibility, but the practices are kept on a small scale and whether they offer adequate products all year is the question at hand.

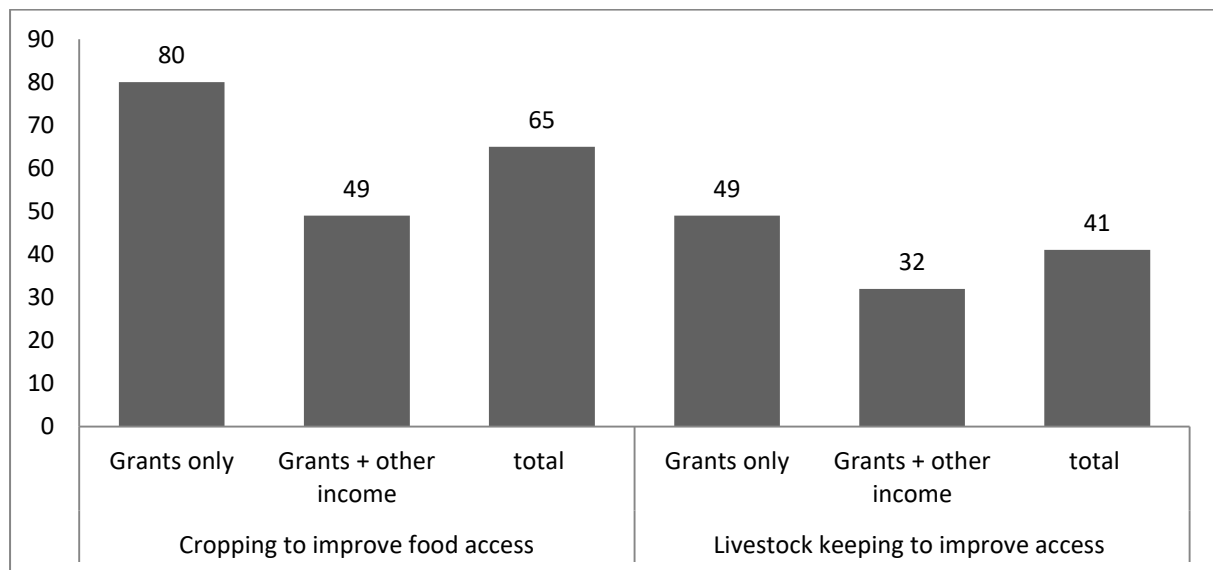
**Table 6.1: Cropping and livestock keeping (N=100)**

<b>Food production to supplement grants only or grants with other income</b>	<b>Total (%)</b>
We have a home garden	86
We do not have a home garden	14
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>
We grow fruit and vegetables	60
We do not grow fruit and vegetables	40
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>
We grow fruit and vegetables for own consumption	56
We grow fruit and vegetables for profits	7
We grow for profit and household consumption	37
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>
We keep live stock	38
We do not keep live stock	62
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>
We keep livestock for own consumption	36
We keep livestock for profit	4
We keep livestock for profit and household consumption	60
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>
We consume domestically-produced food only	0
We purchase most food	100
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

Eighty six percent of households have home gardens and 60% of the households use them to grow fruit and vegetables. The main reasons for growing fruit and vegetables are presented in Table 6.1. Home gardens not only serve as a means of supplying food, but also as a source of income for some. Only 38% mentioned keeping livestock. Table 6.1 above shows that most households have livestock for household consumption, as well as generation of income and this was supposed to improve the availability of food and generate income for other household necessities.

Evidently, some households do not consume all of their produce, be it livestock or fruit and vegetables. Sibande, Bailey and Davidova (2017) also discovered that the limited consumption of food from domestic production can be attributed to the need to trade some of the produce for the purpose of securing other food or non-food products that are considered as essential by the household.

The domestic production of food by the poor and food insecure is viewed as a coping mechanism during conditions of food shortages and is geared to increase household consumption. According to Africa Cooperative Action Trust (ACAT, 2016), the unemployed groups would plant staples and other vegetables on vacant and unused land to secure food for the households. The produce ensured access to food and surplus would be sold to secure income for other household needs.



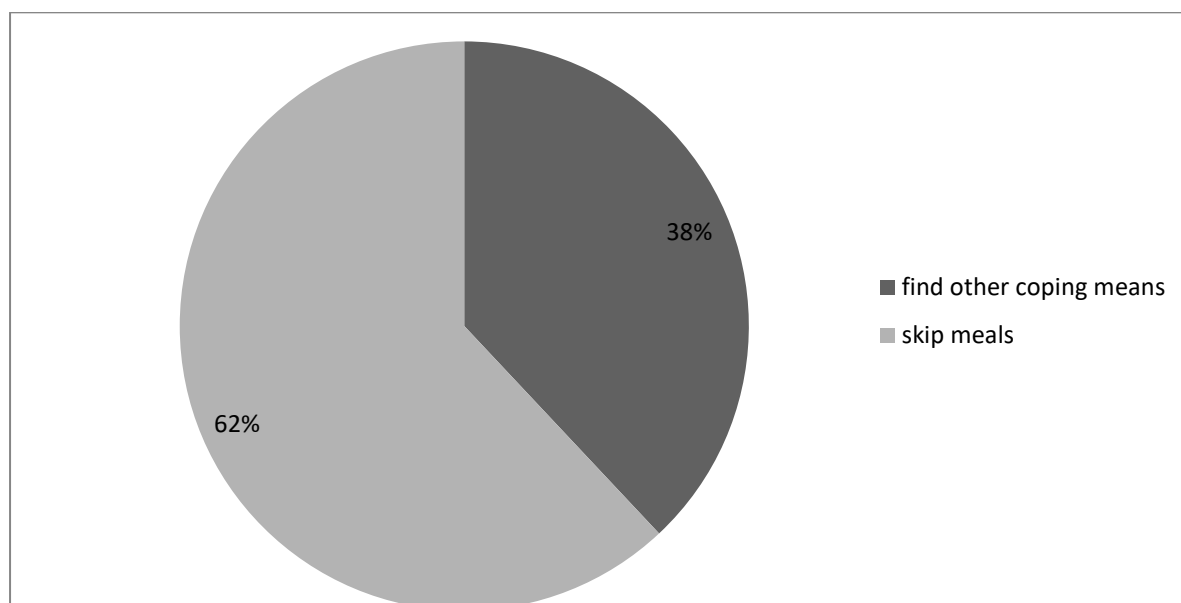
**Figure 6.1 Livestock keeping and crop production by household income source**

From Figure 6.1, a variation in domestic food production can be seen, based on households' sources of income. The households with various income sources are less dependent on cropping and livestock keeping as a means of accessing food. According to Schreinemachers, Patalagsa and Uddin (2016), domestic farming amongst the food insecure and the poor is important and is underpinned by the need to survive economically and to secure sufficient food for household consumption. Overall, 65% of households within sampled population are likely to employ cropping as a coping behaviour while almost two fifths (41%) adopt livestock keeping as a coping mechanism.

### 6.2.2 Food consumption strategies

Figure 6.3 shows that most households which experience food deficits resort to omitting meals, while some choose to find other means of accessing food. This strategy of omitting

meals is far more harmful than eating staple food in place of nutrient-rich food, as it is evidence of households experiencing bouts of hunger (Uzokwe, Giweze and Ofuoku, 2016).



**Figure 6.2 Coping mechanisms during food shortages**

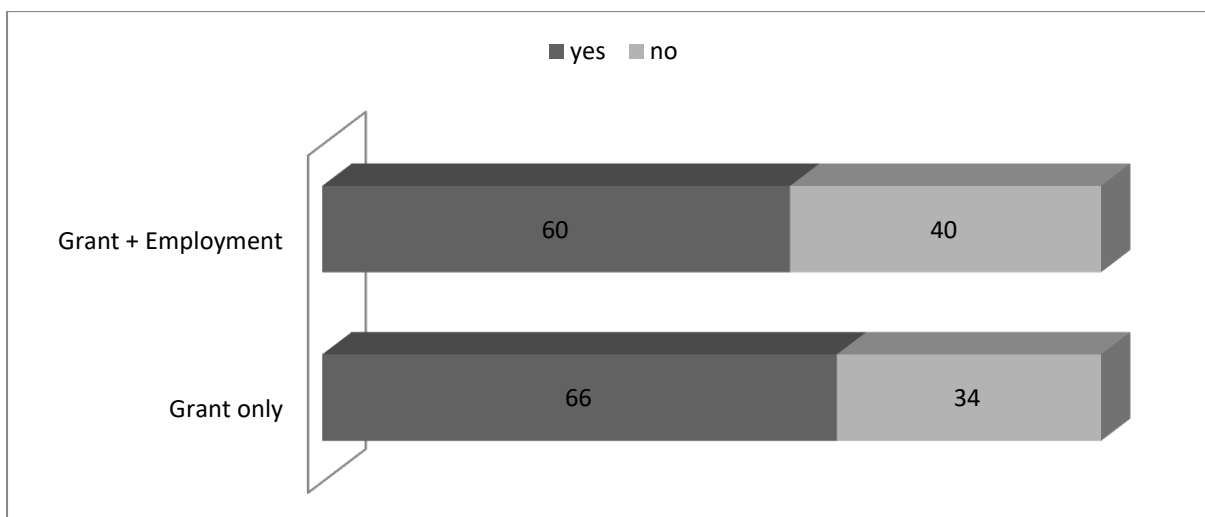
Nationally, there has been a considerable increase in poverty as a consequence of an increase in global food prices which pushes many households into hunger and food insecurity (Ngidi, 2015). Naturally, when other coping strategies fail and there is not enough to eat, people adopt various means of responding to such conditions and such people become even less food insecure when the number of coping mechanisms increases (Gupta, Singh, Seth, Agarwal and Mathur, 2015). Household caregivers, being the ones responsible for the household’s well-being, become responsible for organising other means of limiting the impact of not having adequate food. Households begin to alter food consumption patterns when a problem is foreseen, while others seek further methods such as skipping meals before food sources are completely exhausted.

**Table 6.2 Food coping strategies**

Coping strategies	Percentage (%)
Buy cheap food	41%
Ask food from neighbours and relatives	11
Wait for month to end	2

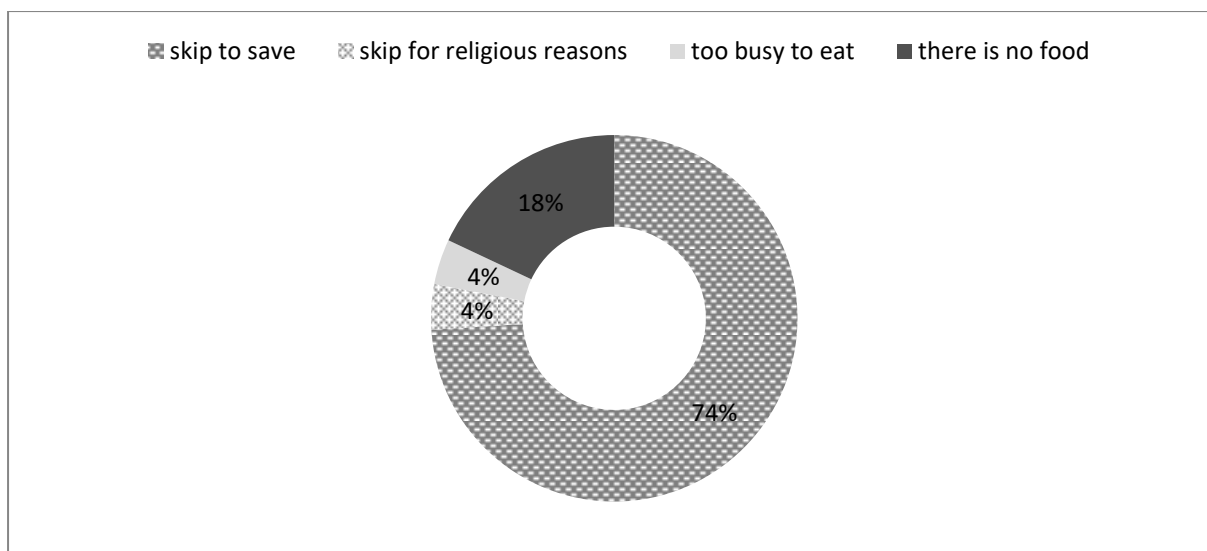
It has been established that most households are food insecure to the degree of skipping meals because of food shortages. Apart from skipping meals, Table 6.2 shows that buying less expensive food is one of the main strategies by 41% of households. Eleven percent of state grant beneficiary households ask for food from neighbours and/or relatives, while the other 2% choose to wait for the month to end, surviving on what they have.

The sources of income represented in Figure 6.4 denote variation in a number of households that skip meals. Sixty-six per cent of the households that solely rely on social grant income opt for the more unhealthy coping strategies such as omitting meals when experiencing food shortages. The number of households with grants and employment that omit meals is also high at 60%, but slightly lesser than those that rely on grants. Such household sources of food and income reflect the position of low income and a sure difficulty in accessing adequate food in quality and quantity on a regular basis.



**Figure 6.3 Income source of household and skipping of meals**

This state of affairs has put ordinary South African households in a very difficult position of struggling to meet the most basic needs and exposing them to a greater vulnerability to food insecurity (Dykstra, Davey, Fisher, Polonsky, Sherman, Abel, Dale, Foster and Bauer, 2016).



**Figure 6.4 Reasons for skipping meals**

Seventy four percent skip meals to preserve whatever food is available. Alarming, 18% skip meals because they have no food at all or any money to purchase it. About 4% are too busy to eat and the other 4% intentionally omit meals for religious reasons. Access to adequate food by households depends considerably on income and assets of which poor households do not have enough; for this reason, they are expected to be more vulnerable to food price shocks (Abdullah, Zhou, Shah, Ali, Ahmad, Din and Ilyas, 2017).

### 6.2.3 Monetary and food loans

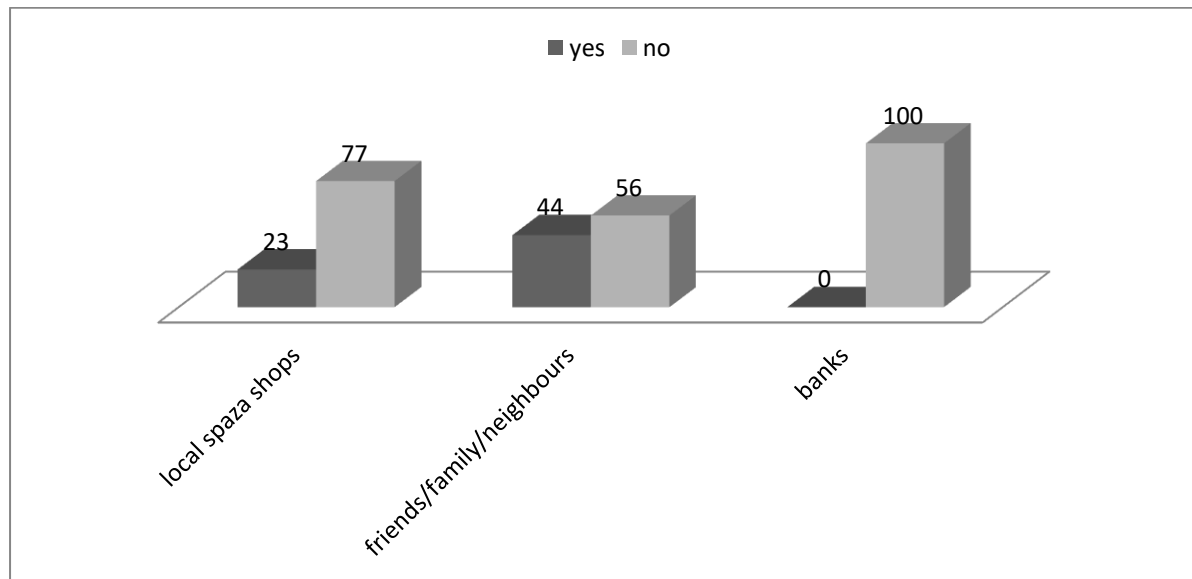
Taking of loans amongst the poor households is a common act of bridging food shortages and avoiding the experience of hunger (Ghimire, 2014).

**Table 6.3 Adopted monetary strategies during household food shortages**

Household monetary coping strategies	Percentage (%)
loan money	24
loan money and food	22



Table 6.3 shows that monetary loans are a preferred option by 24% of households, while another 22% mutually loan food as well as cash. The taking of loans appears to be a common coping mechanism to avoid omitting meals or taking non-adaptive strategies such as buying low quality food which is a significant concern, as such food, according to Uzokwe et al. (2016), is not nutritionally adequate.



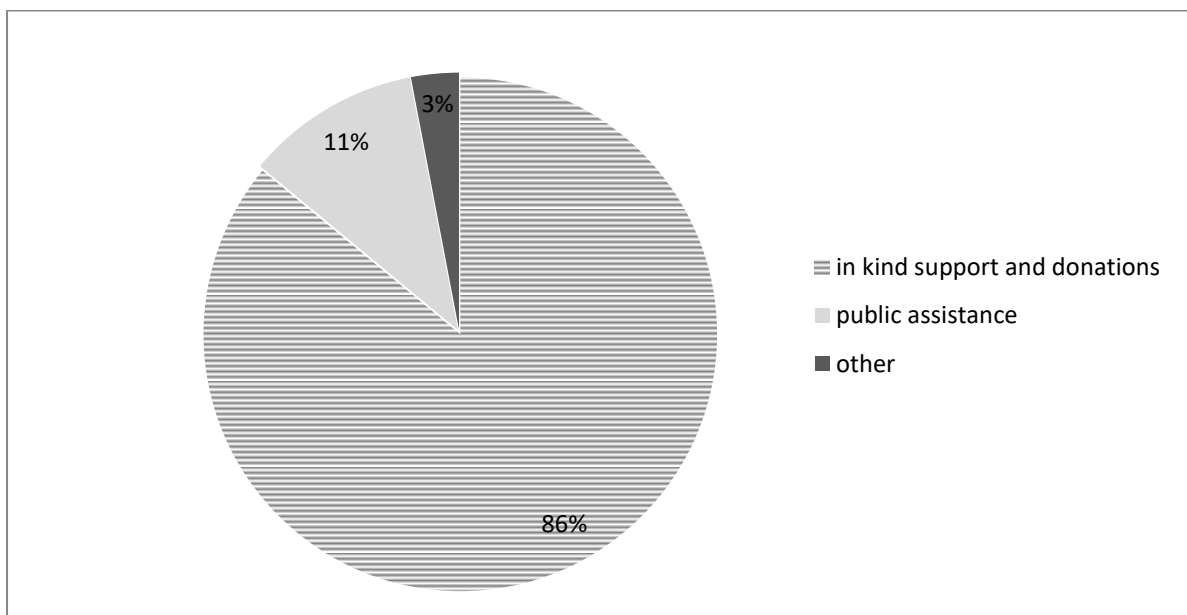
**Figure 6.5 Household's sources of loans**

Bank loans are not a feasible option, as they typically charge interest rates and require a guarantee that the borrower will be capable of refunding the borrowed money. When money lending from formal institutions is not practical, households usually borrow from relatives, outside of kinship networks such as money lenders, and any other informal mechanisms that exist in many forms and this signals worsening economic conditions (Ezeama, Ibeh, Adinma, Emelumadu and Adogu, 2015). The most feasible means of accessing loans at uMhlatuze is through local spaza shops, friends and family, as well as neighbours. Figure 6.4 illustrates that less than half (44%) and 23% loan from local spaza shops and friends, family or neighbours, respectively. Borrowed funds are usually distributed between costs such as school needs and often food by most households. Accessibility of credit, whether in the form of food or cash, could allow households to improve their food security, as they will not turn to costly coping strategies in difficult times, such as selling off productive assets and reduced food consumption to make ends meet (Karlan, 2016). Ksoll, Bie Lilleør, Lønborg and

Rasmussen (2016) also identify the positive impact of loans towards food security, as the frequency of household meals would increase per day.

#### 6.2.4 Reliance on external assistance

The sampled households rely on a collection of sources of income in the form of external assistance to supplement social grants and survive the effects of food insecurity. This support helps to sustain food sources and to contain expenses that will aid in providing for basic needs.



**Figure 6.6** Forms of external support received by households

Eighty-six percent of households receive in-kind support and donations (in the form of food, money and other basic necessities) from external agencies and family, which is a form of charitable giving. About 11% at some stage benefited from public assistance as a temporary measure which provided funds to afford basic necessities such as food and utilities. According to Nugusse (2013), aid effectively contributes towards reduction of food insecurity, although it does not rectify the underlying causes but its symptoms. Three percent of households receive other forms of aid, such as paternal support for children which assists in the procurement of food within the household.

### 6.3. Coping strategies as food insecurity indicator

**Table 6.4 Household coping behaviours (row, %)**

Coping strategy	Household percentage
<b>In-kind support and donations</b>	86
<b>Cropping to improve access to food</b>	65
<b>Skip meals</b>	62
<b>Loan money, food or both</b>	46
<b>Livestock keeping to improve access to food</b>	41
<b>Buy cheap food</b>	41
<b>Ask neighbours/relatives</b>	11

There are about seven coping strategies practiced by the households experiencing food shortfalls. Table 6.4 summarises the most commonly reported strategies and ranks them in order of frequency. The most reported strategy by (86%) of households was reliance on in-kind support to cope with food shortages. Cropping to improve food access was also employed as a coping strategy by (65%) of households. Sixty two percent of household caregivers reported that they adopt rationing strategies such as skipping of meals to manage shortages of food.

Slightly more than two-fifths (41%) of the sample said that they opt for dietary change strategies; they alter their diets and get by with less expensive food stuffs. Some households adopt food seeking strategies, for instance (11%) beg from neighbours/relatives while (46%) take monetary and/or food loans to increase the amount of food available to them in the short term. Almost three thirds (57%) of households depend on food seeking strategies. Livestock keeping to improve access to food was used by about two-fifths (41%) of households.

In order of importance to establish the seriousness of food insecurity, the sample population's coping strategies were ranked from most important to least. Behavioural responses in relation to food insecurity have been documented previously by several researchers. Food access challenges that are handled with in-kind support, for example, hold no long term consequences as they do not push the household further into food insecurity. The second most adopted strategy of cultivating land to grow food can have positive and significant influence on food security through its role on food production and income

generation. Opponents have been critical of home gardens as a coping mechanism. It is suggested that small scale farming are neither sustainable nor viable and that their efficiency has been generally misplace (Sender and Johnston, 2004). Support for this stance comes from discovering that households with home gardens similar to non-farming households are as likely depend on market-purchased food (Palmer and Sender 2006). Putting aside this debate the important enquiry concerns the households which are food poor and use home gardens as a coping mechanism. Rogan and Reynold when conducting a study in a poor rural traditional authority area found that most households farm in some way or the other e.g. growing crops or livestock whether for consumption or profit. Regardless of this activity these households were more likely to be below the food poverty line than households that do not engage in own agricultural production. This is an unfortunate state of affairs.

According to Corbett (1988) and Devereux (1993), when the first line of coping strategies fails and situation of food insecurity escalates, households adopt more harmful coping strategies. Typically these strategies are less reversible than the strategies previously mentioned and consequently represent a more severe means of coping and increased food insecurity. Coates et al. (2006a) argues that when behaviours are less reversible they tend to be indicators of severe coping and thus help identify the seriousness of household food insecurity. Behaviours such as skipping of meals, making dietary changes (purchasing cheap food) and food seeking behaviours (loans and begging from neighbours and relatives) demarcate the seriousness of food insecurity and should be recognised as such. According to the WFP (2017) households using severe food and livelihood-related coping mechanisms (including limiting food intake, eating cheaper and less nutritious food, borrowing food, and relying on debt) face significant long-term consequences. In the most serious cases, they skip meals or go entire days without eating and they are sending some household members to beg.

It is evident that the food insecure households mostly depend on unsustainable and harmful food domain coping strategies. This implies that when households experience food inadequacy they make tough decisions about feeding themselves. According to UNICEF (2009), the behaviour of skipping meals and compromising the quality and quantity of diets has health diminishing effects. The households are food insecure and it is believed that the relied upon coping strategies have an effect on consumption which may in turn affect dietary diversity and nutritional status of household members. Osei et al., (2010) established that when households opt for cheaper food choices, this in turn might have an influence on dietary variety and nutritional status of individual household members. When meals are omitted and

food quality is compromised because of limited material resources to access food; this leads to stress and discomfort, a feeling that is caused by hunger. Hunger and poor dietary intake according to Tomkins and Watson (1989) is more harmful for the survival of human beings than the actual deficiency of material resources such as income, capital etc.

### **6.3 Conclusion**

The study findings confirm that the grant beneficiary households that took part in the study are vulnerable and predominantly food insecure. As such, they adopt non-adaptive coping strategies such as taking loans in the light of their small household income, sacrificing meal quality, as well as skipping and reducing meal quantity. Those that rely on grants only are harder hit by food insecurity and mostly rely on coping strategies. The major cause of food crisis is the chronic problem of household income being too low for purchasing enough food and failing coping strategies during difficult circumstances. Under-employment and unemployment are significant contributing factors to food insecurity, leading to the desperate coping strategies, some of which are more harmful than helpful. These households use agricultural production as another method of fighting food insecurity. Such activities should provide easy and immediate access to a variety of food that can be eaten on a daily basis. This, however, is not the case, as most households run out of food and must rely on external support and various coping strategies.

The next chapter presents conclusions and recommendations.

## **CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **7.1 Introduction**

The motivation of the study presented in this thesis is rooted in the fact that, in the South African context, household food security is a persisting developmental challenge. This is mirrored in my selected case study sample, which was found to contain a significant number of households that were unable to access sufficient food on a daily basis. By reviewing the empirical findings presented in chapters 4, 5 and 6, this concluding chapter seeks to answer three basic questions about the livelihoods of rural grant beneficiary households within the study area. Firstly, what is the state of food security within the sampled population in the study area? Secondly, what are the various coping mechanisms that have been adopted in the face of food insecurity? Lastly, how are the grants used and supplemented to support the household? Each of these questions is addressed by reflecting on salient insights derived from the collected household data. This study takes seriously the issue of food insecurity within the selected households and, at the same time, acknowledges the importance of grants income as they currently protects households from complete destitution. Below is a summary of the findings based on the objectives of the study.

### **7.2 Summary of research findings based on objectives**

The summary is presented, based on the three objectives of the study. This sub-section will begin by reviewing the success of grants in achieving household food security, followed by how the households choose to use the grants, then lastly, what the household do when food is inadequate. But firstly, this chapter will reflect on the association between caregiver characteristics and household food security. This is done to show the significance of caregiver socio-demographic characteristics in securing household access to adequate food.

#### **7.2.1 Socio-demographic characteristics of caregiver**

In order to identify the households that were mostly affected by food shortages, a bivariate analysis of explanatory variables (gender, education, employment, marital status) of caregivers against food security was carried out. These variables had no substantial impact, as

most household caregivers, regardless of socio-demographic characteristics, indicated that the household does experience food shortages. This reveals that at uMhlatuze grant beneficiary households are predominantly food insecure, regardless of the characteristics of the household head. This finding is dissimilar to that of scholars such as Bashir, Schilizzi and Pandit (2012) and Kassie, Ndiritu and Stage (2013) who state that the household head's characteristics influence the state of food insecurity in a household. One may conclude within the study area that it is not about the characteristics of the head, but rather the size of the income or availability of material resources to the households that determines their food security status. If resources are limited, a household will be food insecure, regardless of who is leading it.

### **7.2.2 Social grants and household food security**

The focus of the case study was on exploring the state of food security within social grants beneficiary households. Firstly, the study found that social grants are important to beneficiary households and have a significant impact on household income, contributing on average 42% of total household income in the sampled households. To measure food security and the households' ability to access sufficient food on a daily basis, monthly access to food was reviewed. Households were asked whether they ran out of food at any stage during the previous month. It was discovered that 97% of households experience food shortages at some stage before the end of the month. This is a large proportion of households that express uncertainty and deficiencies in sustainable access to food on a daily basis. Grants form a substantial share of household income within the study area, and it is clear that social assistance grants are necessary in helping families to cope; however, they do not lead to improvements in food security indicators such as "stable access to food". If sustained access to food is still an issue, then the availability of social grants to these households does not necessarily help overcome the battle to fight food insecurity.

The study has established that the ability to access food, though inadequate for most households, hinges on the continued availability of state grants. Households would suffer immeasurably without the grant income, and the impact of food insecurity would be widespread, as they would lack the financial means for accessing food. Without the state grant income, 61% of caregivers in beneficiary households were certain that their household

would not survive, while almost two fifths (39%) said otherwise. Although the value of social grants is inadequate to ensure food security, for now they save households from complete destitution. The minor increases in the value of the grants over time have not necessarily changed the status quo, given the proportion of households that run out of food and taking into account the sizeable share that proclaimed they would not survive should grants be taken away.

These findings bring forth two inconsistencies. Firstly, due to various intra-household and external factors, the country's extensive social grants system fails to eradicate food insecurity. According to Devereux (2016) these constraints to food security are likely shaped by a multitude of factors ranging from global and national trends that households or individuals are unaware of and cannot control. For now the focus is on the household rather than an individual level. Secondly, although the grants system currently saves the households from complete destitution, beneficiary households are likely to experience hunger, malnutrition and other vulnerabilities in the long-term should the current state of affairs persist. What is it that is missing? To respond to this question, households require sustained access to enough food and to maintain their general livelihoods.

The researcher posits two primary reasons for the poor state of food security in social grants beneficiary households. Firstly, the annual increases in grants payments are not keeping up with food cost inflation and this is not a factor that the households can control or change. The recurrent shifts in the cost of food, coupled with declining employment opportunities, are one of the main sources of hardship, particularly for vulnerable households. Fluctuations in food prices magnify food insecurity in poor and vulnerable households. The cost of food in South Africa has been rising at an average rate of 10% per annum (Market and Economic Research Centre, 2017), while the annual grant increase falls far below this rate. For instance, in 2017 the value of Foster Care Grants increased by 3%, Child Support Grants rose by 5.5% while grants for pensioners over 60 years and the disabled increased by 5.9%. Furthermore, between 2016 and 2017, the cost of a nutritionally adequate diet increased by an estimated 16%, which greatly exceeds the normative range of annual increases in the value of social grants.

The inadequacy of the household income to sustain food source is influenced by external factors, such as inflated food prices and the overall inability of household income to keep



pace with the rate of inflation. The high cost of nutritious foods can be assumed to be one of the most compelling challenges to acquiring enough food. This means it is difficult, if not impossible, for the surveyed households to secure daily access to an adequate diet. The second problem is that social grants are not only used for food within the households. Even if they were being spent on food alone, they are simply not keeping up with the rate of inflation, and the amounts would not cover the needs of the general household. Social grants may be making a substantial contribution to household income; however the issue of poor access to food remains a prominent one. The existing grant allocations might not be adequate to alleviate food insecurity, as 66% of the selected beneficiary households relied on grants as the main source of income. This also means that social grants in isolation are insufficient for liberating households from food insecurity and granting access to adequate food on a daily basis. Although the value of grants is small, they nonetheless play a significant role in the household and in the livelihoods of beneficiaries. Without grants, these vulnerable households would be hungry and lead stressed lives.

Examining households by main source of income showed that reliance on grants alone is the main cause of food shortages, and a reliance on harmful coping mechanisms. Recent thinking on overall social security programmes emphasises graduation from food insecurity to food sufficiency and ultimately to self-reliance. The households within the sampled population are surviving, but they have not graduated, as they cannot meet food needs. The amount of food households acquire through grant income, production, employment, trade or any other livelihood strategies is inadequate to meet daily food needs. In the absence of receiving social grants, the surveyed households would be impoverished and would not be able to withstand even modest shocks. However, it must be emphasised that for these households social grants are more than handouts to poor people because they contribute actively to household income, and increase both purchasing power and food access.

### **7.2.3. Coping with household food inadequacy**

The dominant findings from this aspect of my analysis are how rural livelihoods weave together various coping strategies in the struggle against food insecurity. It was necessary to understand the decisions households take when resources become insufficient to ensure food security. The coping strategies adopted when food was inadequate or unavailable were used

to identify the extent to which the households were anxious and food insecure. Most households (62%) resorted to risky behavior, such as skipping meals, two fifths (41%) found other means of purchasing cheap food, thus compromising quality of food, while nearly half (46%) select food-seeking strategies such as cash/food loans. Finally, 11% resorted to undignified methods such as begging from neighbors and or relatives.

This study has established that the coping strategies adopted by the sampled population are predominantly food domain based. UNICEF (2009) reported skipping meals and compromising quality and quantity of food (eating cheap and less nutritious food) as health-diminishing behaviors. This goes to show that when faced with food shortages, households make difficult decisions about how to feed. Aggregating the households by main income source showed that reliance on grants alone increases food insecurity and the likelihood of relying more on coping strategies. This implies that households solely relying of state grants are significantly more inclined to adopt food compromising coping strategies.

#### **7.2.4 Utilisation of grants within recipient households**

The surveyed households had on average two grant beneficiaries. These grants are commonly pooled to support other members instead of ring-fencing them to support the beneficiary alone. It is obvious that households have multiple needs, and the effectiveness of social grants toward meeting food needs is limited by the fact that grants are pooled and many people depend on them for their welfare. Besides that, income from other sources is minimal. Household members of working age suffer from unemployment and underemployment and often rely on grants received by qualifying members for survival. There is a great reliance on grants for a livelihood. Apart from food, grants have multiple roles, such as paying for education, clothing, payment of water bills, medical costs etc.

Food forms a significant proportion of expenditure for the surveyed households but the grants also have other strategic roles in addition to food. The study findings confirm that grants contribute to the households in many ways, such as retailer forms of savings involving lay-bys for clothing, although most households could not afford this form of expenditure. Some

households have communal saving schemes such as stokvels and burial societies, but most were not at a liberty to afford these forms of saving, as finances went towards basic household needs. Grants are used for household necessities apart from food, such as payment of water, investments by initiating small businesses to support the household, upgrading of a house, medical costs, clothing and education. The number of grants per household and degree of reliance on grant income affects food security. Households with more grant beneficiaries can better afford to spend on food and other utilities. Effective grant utilisation is dependent on factors such as household size and the necessity of supporting other household members. More than half (55%) of households could not afford to make savings with the grant income, as the overall needs of the household surpassed the value of the overall household income. Most of the surveyed households are food insecure and the amount of money allocated to food shows that they live slightly above the national poverty line. Those that rely on grants in combination with other monetary resources have basic expenditure that is higher than households that rely on grants only. Regardless of the availability of grants, the households disclosed that grant income was inadequate to meet food needs and sustain livelihoods.

### **7.3 Conclusion**

The social grants are necessary, as they play a contributory role in meeting basic needs, although their impact is not sustained. Findings presented are evidence that households continue to be food insecure, despite the state intervention through social grants. Even with the grant support, the average money spent on food is almost similar to that spent by the poverty-stricken groups. This means that grant income is necessary, but inadequate to completely support the beneficiaries and their families. There is no quick fix or one-size-fits-all method for ensuring food security within these households. Findings also suggest that grant programmes may be implemented in isolation from any other complementary interventions to promote livelihoods, as households mentioned relying heavily on them; as such, graduation from food insecurity is unlikely.

The households also face the harsh reality of an increasing cost of living affected by increases in food prices and the fact that the money is needed for many other purposes. Grant income is only enough to push households out of poverty, while they still remain vulnerable to food

insecurity, with some coping strategies being destructive. Food insecurity should be alongside broader contributory concepts such as unemployment, socio-economics, environmental development, soaring food prices, agricultural (inclusive of crop disease and pests) and climatic shocks. These factors greatly influence the impact of social grants towards household food security.

## **7.4 Recommendations**

This section suggests strategies that can improve household food security. The recommendations are based on the findings and conclusions of the study.

### **7.4.1 Recommendation for respondents**

The household could consider limiting their reliance on social grants, as they have access to a productive natural resource such as land. The maintenance and use of home gardens by all those that have access to land could have long-term positive spin-offs towards food security and income generation. This can be achieved by a full-scale variety of food in each season, instead of focusing on traditional methods that focus on seasonal staple foods. This would increase easy access to food, improve nutritional status by adding variety to meals, reduce the amount of money spent on food and reduce the need for many coping strategies. To seedlings be provided. Though subsistence farming, according to Altman et al. (2009), is not a guarantee of food security amongst low-income households, it does assist in the generation of additional income. The government can introduce more initiatives to reduce food insecurity at household level, as grants are not enough. The households can be empowered through workshops or support groups, where they can be trained to develop entrepreneurial activities to generate much-needed income to support themselves.

### **7.4.2 Recommendation on study limitations**

When households were requested to reveal the value of their income, they were at first hesitant to disclose that information, but were assured of confidentiality. Ethical considerations played a pivotal role in gaining the trust of the respondents.

### **7.4.3 Recommendation for further study**

The study was conducted in two of four traditional authorities within uMhlathuze. In order to understand the impact of social grants at uMhlathuze, all four traditional authorities should be included in the sample, so as to confidently generalise the findings to the entire community. This study focused on accessibility to food; it would be more efficient to also study the nutritional aspect, such as the quality of food consumed, to establish overall food security.

### **7.4.4 Recommendations for government institutions**

Findings show that households continue to be food insecure, despite the state intervention through social grants and the availability of land for gardening. Given that many households have home gardens, it is necessary for them to be sensitised towards utilising their already available plots as a means of accessing food and/or generation of income. There is no easy and quick strategy for addressing food insecurity within households. If social grant programmes are implemented in isolation of other interventions, then graduation out of poverty is doubtful. The second is that the causes of food insecurity are complex and require a comprehensive package of interventions to reduce them, not only social grants. Understanding food insecurity coping strategies adopted by households could be a good starting point to develop and formulate community-based, contextually-sensitive interventions to improve household food insecurity.

Food security initiatives should be effected in conjunction with broader instrumental concepts, such as the creation of employment/livelihood initiatives, socio-economics, environmental developments, regulation of food prices mostly to favour the poor, engaging communities in agricultural support systems (inclusive of support against crop disease and pests) and climatic shocks. These factors can yield a positive support for social grants towards food security. South African Social Security Agency (SASSA) in isolation would never be capable of fighting the frontiers of poverty and food insecurity. This calls for various state departments, the private sector and non-government organisations to collectively pool and integrate resources to effectively fight the social problem of food insecurity.

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## **9 Appendices**

### **Appendix A: Access letter requesting permission to conduct research**

University of Zululand

PO Box X1001

KwaDlangezwa

3886

The Municipal Manager

Mhlathuze Local Municipality

Private Bag X1004

Richards Bay

3900

Date 15/04/2015

Dear Ms/Mr

#### **REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH**

I am a registered Master's student in the Department of Anthropology and Development Studies at the University of Zululand. My supervisor is Dr BM Selepe and Mr MM Masuku

The proposed topic of my research is: the contribution of state grants to household food security. The objectives of the study are:

- (a) To determine the contribution of state grants on household food security status
- (b) To investigate the effective use of these grants by beneficiaries to gain access to food on a daily basis.

- (c) To assess the adequacy of state grants in meeting the food and nutrition needs of the beneficiaries.

I am hereby seeking your consent to conduct research in Mangezi and Msasandle rural areas.

Should you require any further information, please do not hesitate to contact me or my supervisors. Our contact details are as follows:

Dr BM Selepe [SelepeB@unizulu.ac.za](mailto:SelepeB@unizulu.ac.za) 0833652733

Mr MM Masuku [MasukuM@unizulu.ac.za](mailto:MasukuM@unizulu.ac.za) 0724045249

Miss SS Mtyingizane (my contacts) [Samelamtyingiza@yahoo.com](mailto:Samelamtyingiza@yahoo.com) 0838797679

Upon completion of the study, I undertake to provide you with a bound copy of the dissertation.

Your permission to conduct this study will be greatly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

**Signature:** .....

**Name: Samela S Mtyingizane**

## **Appendix B: A request for permission to conduct research in your community**

Receive my greetings

My name is Miss Samela S Mtyingizane, I am a Masters student in the Department of Anthropology and Development studies at the University of Zululand. As a masters student at my department it is a prerequisite that registered student conduct a research in order to generate knowledge, learn and to gather experience. I am kindly and humbly requesting for a permission to conduct my research within your community.

**The aim of the research is to determine the contribution of state grants to household food security.** The study will generate data and information on how much state grants contribute in improving household food security, the effective use of these grants by beneficiaries to gain access to food on a daily basis and lastly the adequacy of state grants in meeting the food and nutrition needs of the beneficiaries. This research will present data and insight into various state grants and whether they contribute to the household food security of its beneficiaries, it will further demonstrates how the poor survive on the state grants, and lastly will illustrate the role and contribution of social grants to the reduction of food insecurity and vulnerability in very poor households.

We appreciate your willingness to allow us to conduct this research within your community.

Yours faithfully

Miss SS Mtyingizane (The researcher)

Cell no: 0838797679

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_



## **Isichibiyelo B: Isicelo sokuthola imvumo yokwenza ucwaningo emphakathini wenu**

Ngiyanibingelela

Igama lami ngu Nkosazane Samela S Mtyingizane, ngumfundi wemfundo ephakeme yeziqo ZeMasters esikhungweni se Anthropology and development studies enyuvesi yase Zululand. Njengomfundi emnyangweni wami kufanele ngenze ucwaningo ukuze ngithole ulwazi nesipiliyoni. Ngokukhulu ukuzithoba ngicela imvume ngenze ucwaningo emphakathini wenu.

Isizathu salolu cwaningo ukuthola ukuthi imali yesibonelelo isiza kangakanani emakhaya. Lolucwaningo luzoletha ulwazi ekuthenini isibonelelo sikahulumeni sisiza kangakanani emakhaya ukuze abantu bathole ukudla okwanele nsuku zonke, luzoveza ukuthi abampofu baphila kanjani ngale mali okukugcina luveze indima edlalwa yilesisibonelelo ekudleni emakhayeni ampofu.

Singayithikozela imvume yenu okuba sense lolucwaningo emphakathini wenu.

Ozithobayo

NKSZ SS Mtyingizane (Umcwaningi)

Ucingo: 0838797679

Ukushicilela.....

## **Appendix C: Project information and consent**

Receive my greetings

My name is Samela Mtyingizane; I am a Masters student in the Department of Development studies at the University of Zululand. I am doing research on "**The contribution of state grants to household food security**" and I am in need of your assistance in gathering the relevant information for this research project. Participation in this project is voluntary and should you decide to participate you may withdraw from this project at any stage. The project will be explained clearly to you with an aim of making you understand what will be done and what is expected of you.

### **What is this study?**

The purpose of the project is:

The purpose is to establish the potential contribution and success of social grants in addressing and improving various dimensions of vulnerabilities and poverty with the intent of improving household food security over the long term and whether social grants are at all successful in improving food security

### **Why is this study important?**

This study is significant as it will present scarce data and insight into various state grants and their contribution to the household food security of its beneficiaries, it will demonstrate how the poor survive on the state grants, lastly the study will illustrate the role and contribution of social grants to the reduction of food insecurity and vulnerability in very poor households.

### **Procedure**

The project will take place over a period of ten (10) weeks. All participants will be requested to complete questionnaires and sign a consent form.

### **WHAT IS EXPECTED OF YOU**

- ✓ You will be asked to sign a consent form before participating in the project
- ✓ You will be asked a number of questions and respond with honesty

- ✓ Should you have any questions about the project, please do not hesitate to ask at any point.
- ✓ Your participation in this research project is voluntary and you are not obliged to divulge any information that you prefer to remain private
- ✓ There are no rewards for your participation
- ✓ Should you wish to withdraw from this project, you are free to do so whenever you want.
- ✓ In order to ensure your privacy, the researcher will not write your name or any information that can lead to your identification on the questionnaire forms or any document.
- ✓ If you request for research findings, they will be made available to you.
- ✓ The researcher will make every effort to minimise possible risks to you.
- ✓ Questionnaires that will be completed will be kept safe, and will not be shared with anyone without your permission and will only be used for this research purpose only.
- ✓ Should you have any queries about the research now and or in the future, you are welcome to direct them to the researcher.

Thank you

Samela Mtyingizane

Mobile number: 0838797679

**Informed consent**

I, the undersigned .....(names and surname) of  
.....(physical address).

I have read the details of the project, or I have listened to the oral explanation and declare that I understand. I have had the opportunity to discuss relevant aspects with the researcher and declare that I voluntarily participate in the project. I hereby give consent to participate in the project.

Signature of participant.....

Signed at.....on.....

Witness

Name .....

Signature .....

Signed at..... on .....

Contact telephone number .....

## **Isichibiyelo C: Imininingwane yeproject nesivumelwano**

Ngiyanibingelela

Igama lami ngu Samela Mtyingizane. Ngingumfundi wemfundo ephakeme (Masters) emnyangweni wezokuthuthukisa enyuvesi yase Zululand. Ngenza ucwaningo mayela noxhaso olenziwa yisibonelelo sikahulumeni ebukhonenei kokudla emakhaya, ngidinga usizo lwenu ukuze ngithole ulwazi okuyilona lwalolu cwaningo. Ukuzinikela kwakho ukwenza lolucwaningo kumahala, uvumelekile ulenza uma uthanda futhi ungayeka noma ngabe inini uma usufuna ukuyeka. Lolucwaningo luzochazwa kabanzi ngenhloso yokusiza wena uqonde kangcono okuzokwenziwa nokulindeleke kuwe.

### **Luyini lolucwaningo?**

Inhlose yalolucwaningo:

Inhloso ukuthola ulwazi ngosizo nempumelelo enziwa yisibonelelo sikahulumeni ukuqondisa nokuthuthukisa izinga lalaba abampofu/abaswelayo emakhaya bathole ukudla okwanele nsuku zonke.

### **Ukubaluleka kwalolucwaningo**

Lolucwaningo luzonikeza ulwazi ezikhungweni eziphathelene nesibonelelo sikahulumeni, kanye nomthelela wesibonelelo ekutholakaleni kokudla kumakhaya walabo abasitholayo, luzoveza ukuthi abaswele baphila kanjani ngalemali kanye nendima edlalwa yilemali ukusiza ukuthe kutholakale ukudla ookwanele kulamakhaya aswele.

### **Inqubo mgomo**

Leprojekthi izithatha amaviki ayishumi. Bonke abavumile ukubamba iqhaza kulolucwaningo bazocelwa bagwalise ifomu naphendule nemibuzo.

### **Yini okulindeleke kuwe**

- ✓ Uzocelwa ukuba ushicilele/usayine ifomu ngaphambi kokuba uqhubeke nokuphendula imibuzo
- ✓ Uzobuzwa imibuzo, uyacelwa uphendule ngokwethembeka
- ✓ Uma ngabe unemibuzo ngale projekthi ungasabi ukubuza noma ngabe inini

- ✓ Ukuzinikela kwakho ukwenza lolucwaningo kumahala, awukho umklomelo ngosizo lwakho.
- ✓ Uma ufuna ukuyeka uvumelekile ukuba ungashiya noma ngabe inini
- ✓ Ukuvikeleka kwenu umcwaningi uzoqinisekisa ukuthi akabhali amagama enu noma ngabe yiluphi ulwazi oluzoveza nina noma ikuphi
- ✓ Umcwaningi uzokwenza ngakho konke okusemandleni ake ukuthi akanifaki enkingeni.
- ✓ Imibuzo ezophendulwa izogcinwa kahle angeke inikezwe noma ngabe ubani ngaphandle kwemvumo yenu, kanti ke izosetshenziselwa lolucwaningo kuphela.
- ✓ Uma ngabe unenkinga mayelana nalolucwaningo uvumelekile ukuba utshele umcwaningi.

Ngiyabonga

Samela Mtyingizane

Mobile number: 0838797679

#### IFOMU LOKWAZISA

Mina ovumayo.....(igama nesibongo) wase.....(ikheli lakho). Ngifundile imininingwane yaleprojethi nhabuye ngalalela ngichazelwa, ngiyavuma ukuthi ngizwile. Ngibenalo ithuba lokuthi ngixoxe nomcwaningi, ngazibophezela ukuthi ngizinikele mahala ukumsiza kule projethi. Ngilana ukuvuma ukuthi ngizomsiza/ngizo sebenzisana naye keprojethi.

Ukushicilela komsizi.....

Shicilela kuphi.....nini.....

Ufakazi

Igama.....

## Appendix D: Respondent questionnaire

### Instructions (*imiyalelo*)

- Mark with an **X** where options are given (*sebenzisa isiphambano X lapho unikezwe uhlu*)
- In all questions select one appropriate answer, unless requested to give more than one response (*kuyo yonke imibuzo khetha impendulo eyodwa, phandle uma umbuzo udinga izimpendulo ezimbili kuya phezulu*).
- Please respond to all questions as faithfully and truthfully as possible (*uyacelwa ukuba uphendule yonke imibuzo ngokweqiniso*).
- Please respond to all questions, unless the question or answers do not apply to you (*uyacelwa ukuba uphendule imibuzo yonke, ngaphandle uma kukhona engakudingi*).
- If provided response options do not fit you, you should provide appropriate response that suits you (*uma uhlu lwezimpendulo onikezwe zona zingakufaneli, bhala eyakho ekufanele*).

### Socio-Demographic profile

1. Age of household head (*iminyaka yenhloko yekhaya*):

≤18	19-39	40-64	≥65

2. Gender of household head (*ubulili benhloko yekhaya*):

Male ( <i>owesilisa</i> )	Female ( <i>owesifazane</i> )

3. Are you employed (*uqashiwe*)?

Yes ( <i>yebo</i> )	No ( <i>cha</i> )

4. Race (Uhlanga)

Black ( <i>omnyama</i> )	White ( <i>omhlophe</i> )	Indian ( <i>indiya</i> )	Coloured ( <i>ikhaladi</i> )	Other(specif y) Olunye:cacis a
				..... .

5. Marital status (*isimo sokushada*)

Married ( <i>ushadile</i> )	Divorced ( <i>udivosile</i> )	Separated ( <i>uhlukanisile</i> )	Widowed ( <i>washonelwa</i> )	Single ( <i>uwedwa</i> )

6. How many household members are between the indicated ages (*bangaki abaphakathi kwaleminyaka abangamalunga omndeni*)?

0-18	19-39	40-64	≥65

7. Level of education (*Izinga lemfundo*)

Grade 1-4	Grade 5-7	Grade 8-10	Grade 11-12	Tertiary education ( <i>isikhungo esiphezulu semfundo</i> )	No formal education ( <i>awufundile</i> )

8. Home language (*ulimi lasekhaya*)

IsiZulu	Other( <i>okunye, chaza</i> )
	.....

9. Citizenship (*ubuzwe*)?

South African	Other( <i>okunye, chaza</i> )
	.....

10. Religion (*inkolo*)?

Christianity ( <i>umkristu</i> )	Other( <i>okunye, chaza</i> )
	.....

11. How many household members are employed (*bangaki abaqashiwe ekhaya*)?

0	1-3	4-6	≥6

12. Type of employment (*uhlobo lokuqashwa*)?

Permanent ( <i>Uqasho ngokugcwel</i> )	Part time ( <i>okwesikhashana</i> )	Seasonal ( <i>uqasho lwenkathi</i> )



13. Indicate the main source of income (*cacisa ngemali engenayo*)

Employment ( <i>umsebenzi</i> )	Grant ( <i>imali yesibonelelo</i> )	Combination ( <i>kokubili</i> )

14. What is the average household income per month (*isiphi isamba semali engenayo ekhaya*)?

≤R1000	R1000 – R2000	R2000 – R3000	R3000 – R4000	≥ R4000

15. How many members of the household receive state grants (*bangaki ekhaya abamukela imali yesondlo kuhulumeni*)?

1	2-3	4-5	≥6

16. Indicate type of grant received and number of household members receiving the state grant (*cacisa ngohlobo lwesondlo olungenayo kanye nenani labantu ekhaya abathola isondlo sikahulumeni*).

Type of grant( <i>uhlobo lesondlo</i> )	Indicate( <i>cacisa</i> )	No. of recipients ( <i>inani labathola isondlo</i> )
Old age grant ( <i>isibonelelo sabakhulile</i> )		
Disability grant ( <i>isibonelelo saba khubazekile</i> )		
Child grants ( <i>isibonelelo sezingane</i> )		
Other ( <i>okunye</i> )		

17. Where do you get water (*niwatholaphi amanzi*)?

Community tap ( <i>umpompi womphakathi</i> )	
River ( <i>emfileni</i> )	
Stream ( <i>ixhaphosi</i> )	
Piped in dwelling ( <i>umpompi egcekeni</i> )	
Other (specify) <i>okunye (cacisa)</i>	

18. Type of housing (*uhlobo lwendlu*)

Rondavel ( <i>urondo</i> )	
Shack ( <i>umkhukhu</i> )	
Modern house ( <i>indlu yesimanje</i> )	
Other (specify) <i>okunye (cacisa)</i>	

## UKUBAKHONA KOKUDLA

1. Do you ever skip meals (*kuyenzeka weqe isidlo*)?

Yes ( <i>yebo</i> )	No ( <i>cha</i> )

2. How many meals do you have a day (*udla izidlo ezingaki ngosuku*)?

1	2	3

3. What is the reason for skipping (*isizathu sokweqa isidlo*)?

Saving food <i>Ukongka ukudla</i>	Religion <i>ngokwenkolo</i>	Busy to eat <i>Isikhathi esingekho</i>	No food <i>Ukudla okungekho</i>

4. Other reasons for skipping meals (*ezinye izizathu ezenza weqe ukudla*)?

I.	
II.	

5. How much do you spend on food a month (*malini eniyisebenzisayo ekudleni ngenyanga*)?

R200-R500	R500-800	R800-R1000	R1000-R1500	≥R1600

6. Do you ever run out of food (*niyaphelelwa ukudla*)?

Yes ( <i>yebo</i> )	No ( <i>cha</i> )

7. What do you do when you run out of food? do you for example Ask from neighbours? Ask from relatives? Buy more food? Loan money from neighbours/relatives? (*Uma niphelwe ukudla nenzenjani? Niyacela komakhelwane noma ezihlobeni? Nithenga okunye? Niboleka imali kubantu*)?

I.	
II.	
III.	
IV.	

8. Do you have a home garden (*ninayo ingadi ekhaya*)?

Yes ( <i>yebo</i> )	No ( <i>cha</i> )

9. Do you produce or purchase the food you eat (*niyakhiqiza noma niyathenga ukudla okudliwa ekhaya*)?

Produce ( <i>siyakhiqiza</i> )	Purchase ( <i>Siyathenga</i> )	Both ( <i>kokubili</i> )

10. Do you receive food aid or gifts (*lukhona usizo lokudla enilutholayo*)?

Yes ( <i>yebo</i> )	No ( <i>cha</i> )

12. Do you grow fruits and vegetables (*nitshalile izithelo nokunye*)?

Yes ( <i>yebo</i> )	No ( <i>cha</i> )

13. Do you grow crops fruits and vegetables for own consumption or for profits (*zikhona izitshalo ezitshaliwe ngesizathu sokudayisa noma ukudla ekhaya*)?

Own consumption ( <i>ukudla ekhaya</i> )	
Profits ( <i>inzuzo</i> )	
Both ( <i>kokubili</i> )	

14. Do you keep livestock (*nifuyile*)?

Yes ( <i>yebo</i> )	No ( <i>cha</i> )

15. Reason for keeping livestock (*isizathu sokufuya*)?

Own consumption ( <i>ukudla ekhaya</i> )	
Profits ( <i>inzuzo</i> )	
Both ( <i>kokubili</i> )	

19. Do you have proper food storage facilities? E.g. refrigerator, cupboards (*ninazo izindawo zokugcina ukudla, isibonelo ifridge, amakhabethe*)

Yes ( <i>yebo</i> )	No ( <i>cha</i> )

## CONTRIBUTION OF STATE GRANTS TO HOUSEHOLD FOOD SECURITY

1. Are the state grants the primary source of income (*isondlo sikahulumeni sodwa esiletha imali ekhaya*)?

Yes ( <i>yebo</i> )	No ( <i>cha</i> )

2. Do you routinely save the grant income through informal saving mechanisms (*niyayonga imali yesondlo*)?

Yes ( <i>yebo</i> )	No ( <i>cha</i> )

3. If **yes**? What are the savings used for (*uma impendulo ithi "yebo", imali isetshenziselwani*)?

I.	
II.	
III.	
IV.	

4. Do you engage with formal and retailer-driven forms of savings using the grant money e.g.

		Yes/Yebo	No/Cha
I.	Lay buys for clothing ( <i>impahla yokugqoka</i> )		
II.	Lay buys for building materials ( <i>impahla yokwakha</i> )		
III.	Buying Christmas stamps from supermarkets ( <i>nongela ukuthenga ukudla ngokhisimusi</i> )		
IV.	Other (specify) <i>okunye (cacisa)</i>		

5. Does the grant money adequately meet food needs of the recipient or household on a daily basis (*imali yesondlo iyazifeza zonke izidingo zokudla ekhaya ngokwanele*)?

Yes (yebo)	No (cha)

6. If **no**, why (*uma impendulo ithi "cha", ngobani*)?

V.	
VI.	
VII.	
VIII.	

7. Who decides how the household grants will be used (*ubani othatha isinqumo sokuthi imali yesondo izosetshenziswa kanjani*)?

I.	
II.	
III.	
IV.	

8. State how the grants are used (*isho ukuthi isetshenziswa kanjani imali yesondlo*)?

I.	
II.	
III.	
IV.	

9. Could the household be able to survive if the grants were stopped (*kungaphileka uma imali yesondlo ingavalwa*)?

Yes (yebo)	No (cha)

10. Why (*ngobani*)?

I.	
II.	
III.	
IV.	

11. Do you engage in formal/ informal borrowing of cash to supplement the grant (*niyaboleka imali ngesizathu sokwandisa etholakala kuhulumeni*)?

	Yes/Yebo	No/Cha
Bank borrowing ( <i>uboleka ebankini</i> )		
Furniture store credit ( <i>uboleka kwizitolo zefenisha</i> )		
Retail-based ( <i>uboleka kwizitolo ezikhulu zokudla</i> )		

Local spazza shops ( <i>uboleka kwi spazza zendawo</i> )		
Friends/family/neighbours ( <i>uboleka kubangani, kwizihlobo, komakhelwane</i> )		
Other (specify) <i>oukunye (cacisa)</i>		

12.

How much do you usually borrow ( <i>ujwayele ukuboleka malini</i> )?	R.....
--	--------

What is the money used for ( *imali ijwayele ukusetshenziselwa ini*)?

I.	
II.	
III.	
IV.	

13. Does the grant support other people who are not receivers of grant (*lemali yesendlo iyabasiza abanye abangayiholi*)?

Yes ( <i>yebo</i> )	No ( <i>cha</i> )

14. In the past or currently is the grant used for any of the mentioned reasons (*phambilini noma manje imali yesendlo ike isetshenziselwe lezi zizathu zilandelayo*)?

Education expenditure e.g. <i>school fees, transport, uniforms etc</i> ( <i>ukukhokhela izidingo zesikole</i> )	
Upgrade/construct houses ( <i>ukwakha noma ukulungisa indlu</i> )	
Buy clothes ( <i>ukuthenga izimpahla</i> )	
Payment of water, electricity ( <i>ukukhokhela amanzi noma ugesi</i> )	
Start a business ( <i>ukuqala ibhizinisi</i> )	
Medical costs ( <i>ukukhokhela izindleko zikadokotela nokuthenga imithi</i> )	
Other, <i>specify (okunye, cacisa )</i>	

15. Do you rely on other sources of income such as those mentioned below to supplement state grants (*ninazo ezinye izindlela zokuthola imali njenga lezi ezilandelayo*)

Public assistance ( <i>ukusizwa umphakathi</i> )	
Private maintenance paid by the fathers of their children ( <i>imali ekhokhelwa izingane obaba bazo</i> )	
Donations ( <i>isipho/umnikelo</i> )	
In-kind support from families and external agencies ( <i>uxhaso lomndeni</i> )	

nama agency)	
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**Livelihood activities**

<b>What income earning activities do you implement to supplement state grants and to improve food security ziphi izindlela zokuthola imali enizisebenzisayo ukwandisa imali yesondlo ukuze kubekhona ukudla ekhaya?</b>	
Informal employment/ irregular work <b>specify</b> (ngiqashiwe/nginamatoho eskhashana) <b>Cacisa</b>	..... ..... .....
Work in exchange for food (ngisebenza nginikezwe ukudla)?	<b>Yes /No (Yebo/Cha)</b>
Run your own business? <b>Specify e.g.</b> selling of goods, hawking, etc Nginebhizinisi lami, isbonelo,ngiyadayisa	..... .....