

The 2015-2016 Drought in South Africa

National Outcome Forecast Analysis

Analysis of Fourteen Livelihood Zones in Limpopo, KwaZulu-Natal and Free State Provinces, with a Synthesis for the Remainder of the Country



agriculture, forestry & fisheries

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The South Africa Vulnerability Assessment Committee (SAVAC) is comprised of:

- Department of Social Development;
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- Department of Health;
- Statistics South Africa
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Glossary of Terms and Abbreviations

Items in *italics* refer to definitions elsewhere in the list:

ARC	Agricultural Research Council
ARC-ISCW	<i>ARC</i> – Institute for Soil, Climate and Water
ASI	Agricultural stress index
Baseline	A description of a <i>livelihood zone</i> , its <i>wealth breakdown</i> and the <i>livelihood strategies</i> households can employ to survive
BSS	<i>Baseline storage spreadsheet</i>
CEC	Crop Estimates Committee
CPI	Consumer price index
CRS	Coordinate reference system (same as SRS)
DAFF	Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries
EA	Enumeration areas, geographical areas used in the census for counting the population. An EA is defined as an area that can theoretically be covered by one enumerator in one day during the census, although in practice and EA may require more than one day for coverage
ESA	Enumeration small areas, the smallest geographical units for which population data from the national census are made available. ESAs are derived by combining EAs so as to ensure that EA data cannot reveal individual data on households and violate privacy laws
FAO	United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization
FAO-GIEWS	<i>FAO</i> – Global Information and Early Warning System
FEWSNET	United States Famine Early Warning System Network
FPL	Food poverty Line, a <i>poverty threshold</i> devised by Statistics SA that consists of a basket of food stuffs whose energy content equates to 8800 kilojoules (kJ) per person per day. The FPL is higher than the cost of 8800 kJ of a <i>simple starch diet</i> (which may include a very small addition of legumes and cooking oil only) because it contains a variety of other more expensive food items, which are, based on food consumption surveys, considered reasonable for used as the minimum household expenditure
GIS	Geographic information system
kcal, cal, Cal	Kilocalorie (kcal), a non-official unit of energy, in common use for food energy by nutritionists in many countries. It is easily confused with the Calorie (Cal), or ‘large’ calorie, which is also 1,000 calories (cal).
KJ, J	Kilojoule, derived from the official SI unit of energy, the joule (J), and adopted by the South African Bureau of Standards (SABS). In practical use in this report for food energy, rather than kilocalories (kcal). 1 kJ = 1,000 J = 0.2388459 kcal, or 1 kcal = 4.1868 kJ
LBPL	Lower Bound Poverty Line, a <i>poverty threshold</i> expressed as an income level that includes food purchases from the food poverty line, as well as a minimum of non-food goods and services to assist in determining a standard of living
Livelihood	The sum of the ways in which people obtain food and the goods and services that they need for a defined standard of living
Livelihood strategies	The different ways that people can obtain food and income to meet their minimum needs, as well as the priorities for their expenditure

LZ	Livelihood zone, a geographical area where people broadly share the same patterns of <i>livelihood</i> ; due to geographical factors that determine their sources of food, income and their expenditures
NAMC	National Agriculture Marketing Council
NOFA	National outcome forecast analysis
OFA	Outcome forecast analysis
Poverty threshold	
Response analysis	Analysis of the <i>response strategies</i> that includes checking their impact on household assets (the degree of destructiveness of the response strategies) and the impact of the hazard on them as well.
Response strategies	In the context of this report, response strategies are <i>livelihood strategies</i> that can be expanded or adapted to increase access to the minimum food, goods and services households need in order to reach their defined <i>poverty thresholds</i> . Examples of response strategies are: seeking additional employment, requesting help from kin, or switching expenditure to the most essential goods and services. However, strategies like reducing food intake are not considered ‘response’ strategies in this analysis as they will not help the household reach its appropriate <i>poverty threshold</i> ; rather, these strategies may be termed ‘coping strategies’.
RFA	Rainfall anomaly
RSA	The Republic of South Africa
SA	South Africa (abbreviation for the <i>Republic of South Africa</i>)
SABS	South African Bureau of Standards
Scenario	
SI	International System of Units (French: Système international d'unités, SI)
Simple starch diet	In this document a simple starch diet is one often used to determine households' survival threshold, i.e., the bare minimum needed to survive. As its name suggests, the diet is primarily starch, which are the cheapest kilojoules, but may include a modicum of legumes (usually beans) and cooking oil. A survival threshold based on the simple starch diet is not used in this analysis because the author wishes to inform broader issues on poverty and inequality, which are topical in South Africa, rather than outright starvation
SPI	Standard precipitation index
SQL	Structured query language
SRS	Spatial reference system (same as CRS)
Stats SA	Statistics South Africa, the legally mandated government agency for collecting and analysing key national statistics for South Africa
SZAS	Single zone analysis spreadsheet
UBPL	<i>Upper Bound Poverty Line</i>
Upper Bound Poverty Line	
VCI	Vegetation condition index
VHI	Vegetation health index
Wealth breakdown	The process of subdividing a <i>livelihood zone</i> 's households into <i>wealth groups</i>

Wealth group	A group of households within the same <i>livelihood zone</i> who share similarities in terms of their assets and resources and similar access to food, goods and services
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South Africa Livelihood Zones

50 0 50 100 150 200 250 km

Projection: Albers Equal Area with standard parallels at 24.2° S and 32.8° S.

Datum and ellipsoid: WGS 1984.

Prepared by CW Rethman for the South African Vulnerability Assessment Committee (SAVAC) and the SADC Regional Hunger and Vulnerability Programme.

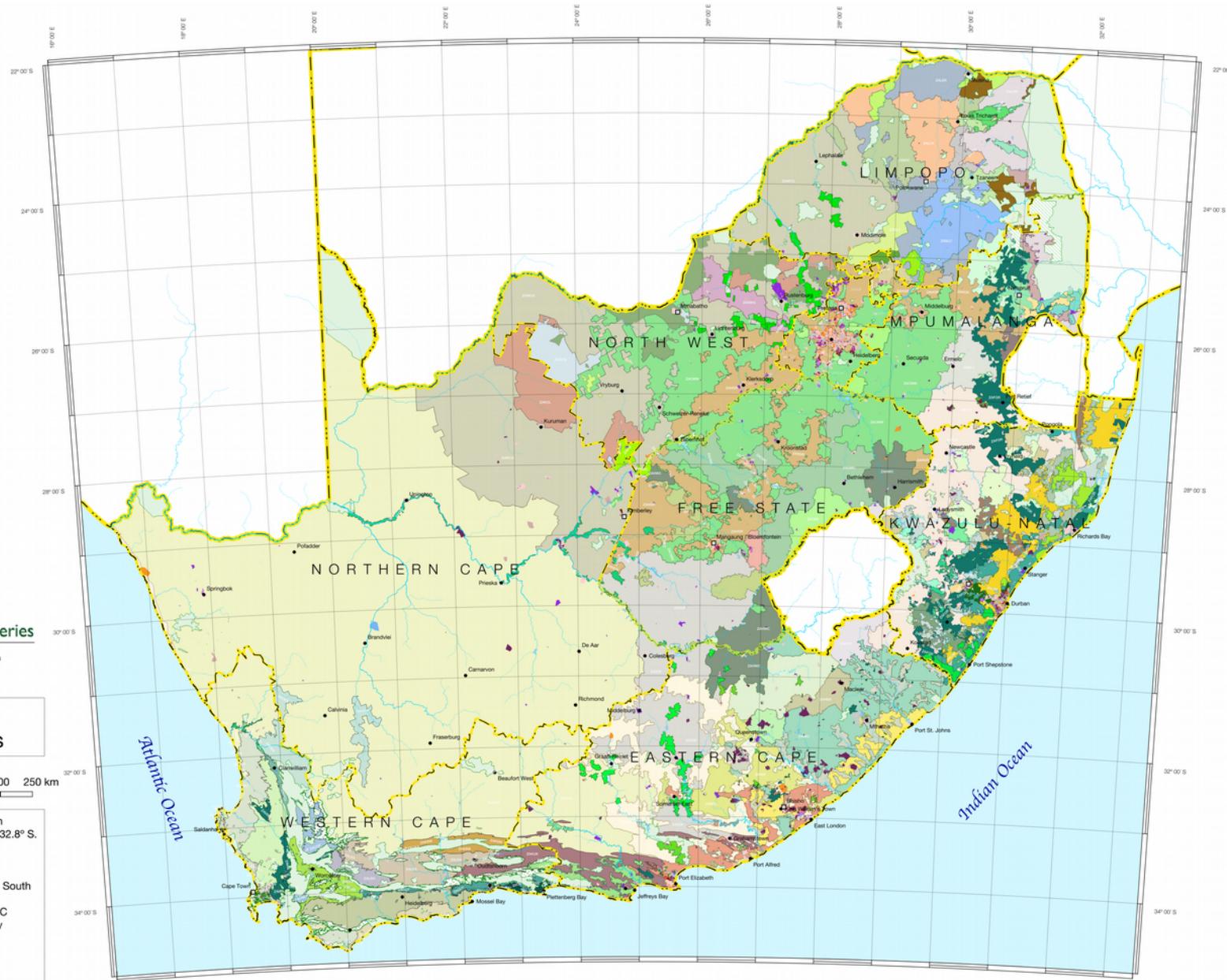


Figure 1: Map of the livelihood zones of South Africa

Executive Summary

Introduction

The Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (DAFF), in collaboration with the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Regional Vulnerability Assessment and Analysis (RVAA) Programme, is working towards strengthening food insecurity and vulnerability assessment in South Africa. Through this partnership, a number of activities have been conducted towards institutionalisation of the South African Vulnerability Assessment Committee (SAVAC). The activities include:

- A scoping study, a strategic plan and the formation of Provincial VACs in three provinces;
- Baselines assessments in Limpopo province;
- An outcome forecast analysis (OFA) in Limpopo;
- Baselines assessments in Free State and KwaZulu-Natal provinces, and;
- This exercise, a national outcome forecast analysis (NOFA).

However, during 2015 and 2016 two events have had enormous impact on the lives of the country's poorest people: the occurrence of a severe drought resulting from an extreme El Niño event and the progressive devaluation of the Rand, the country's local currency. The former has impacted on farmers' ability to produce food locally, and the latter has substantially pushed up the price of imports.

In order to understand how these factors impact downstream on households access to quality food, we need to first understand how those households make a living. This necessitates understanding *the sum¹* of the different strategies they use to obtain enough food, to acquire the services and other goods they need to achieve the acceptable standard of living.

The size and complexity of South Africa as a country requires the vulnerability assessment system to be decentralised to provincial level or through the establishment of Provincial Vulnerability Assessment Committees (PVACs). The first provincial vulnerability assessment committee (PVAC) formed was the Limpopo VAC (LimVAC) and further PVACs have been formed in KwaZulu-Natal and Free State. As result of these efforts, full baselines with livelihoods and food security indicators' assessments have been carried out in *fourteen livelihood zones* by 29 April 2016.

The SAVAC uses a system that combines the Household Economy Approach (HEA), which provides a longitudinal or temporal picture of the *depth* of changing household food access and living standards, with the Food Security Continuum (the 'Continuum'), which provides a detailed cross-sectional 'snapshot' description of people and household under different food security indicators. The basic principle underlying the Household Economy Approach is that the understanding of local livelihoods is essential for analysing the impact (at household level), of shocks such as drought, conflict or market changes. The household economy approach analysis establishes a picture of typical, normal livelihood patterns for households in different geographical areas, in order to understand a range of conditions that local communities must cope with in a normal year as its baseline assessment.

The HEA methodology has been widely adopted in most Member States in the SADC Region. The methodology saves on resources and time, making it affordable and sustainable under small budgets. The methodology also attempts to maximise the use of existing information and survey data. Besides data generated using HEA, SAVAC also uses a range of secondary sources of data such as the crop estimates from the Department of Agriculture, population projections from Statistics South Africa (Stats SA), price time series from Stats SA and NAMC and consumer price index (CPI) and inflation rates from Stats SA. Ordinarily, a field exercise is also conducted that provides an opportunity to verify secondary data with that obtained from the province, district and municipalities as well as the villagers.

The baseline information is then used as a reference point for modelling the likely effects of shocks such as drought, floods and market failure. These shocks may affect people's ability to maintain their livelihoods or in extreme cases, they could be life-threatening. Any external response to these shocks needs to be based on the provision information and analysis, which gives solid guidance for short, medium and long term relief, recovery and development initiatives.

¹ As opposed to just obtaining the single most important strategy, which is grossly misleading since poor households invariably have more than one source of livelihood.

The purpose of the forecast scenario analysis exercise was to establish whether livelihoods of the household in the area covered by the zones have been affected, compared with the baseline outcomes. This will be used to demonstrate the approach and provide recommendations for appropriate policy action.

This exercise was carried out by one consultant, who used secondary sources entirely to define problem specifications and modelling the possible effects on households. Crop failure may, for example, leave one group of households without anything to eat if crop production is their main source of food but another group may be able to cope because they have alternative sources of food and income that can make up for lost crop production.

Baseline data was used to determine the key parameters that needed to be analysed and these included crop and livestock production, prices, and government assistance programmes among others. The SAVAC also consulted Department of Agriculture Officers in the municipalities within the livelihood zones and villages to seek their technical input and participation in the forecast analysis data collection.

This report focuses on the current agricultural season in terms of general rainfall and weather conditions, crop and Livestock production and household sources of food and cash income.

The analysis combines current year monitoring data with baseline data to project the most likely scenario in the quarter of the 2015/16 consumption year.

A Summary of the Assessment Process

The process of baseline livelihood profiling started in 2014 with a livelihood zoning exercise, given the significance of geography as a determinant of livelihood patterns. A livelihood zone was visited and the next step was to define the wealth groups in the livelihood zone as wealth determines options available to the household for access to food and income.

Having patterned households according to where they live and their wealth², the next step was to generate baseline livelihood profiles for typical households in each wealth group for a defined baseline or reference consumption year. An understanding of food access is gained by investigating the sum of ways households obtain food; that is, how much food they get from their own direct food crop production, their livestock, gifts from others, exchanges or barters and from purchases. To understand the latter, information is also collected on how much cash income is earned in a year and what essential needs are met with the earned income.

Obviously, it is not practical to analyse in detail the various components of each and every household's livelihood in the country, so a level of aggregation needs to be applied.

The first level of aggregation is geographic and although administration areas are the logical basis for reporting, very often an administration area might contain a many different groups of people, whose livelihoods will be vulnerable to different shocks or hazards, for example, farmers are vulnerable to drought, miners are vulnerable to mine closures which might result from collapsing commodity prices and business people are vulnerable to exchange rate shocks. Obviously, it makes sense to segment these different groups off as much as possible before doing the analysis and geographically, this is done by defining **livelihood zones**.

Within the livelihood zones, livelihoods depend on the resources that households have at their disposal. From an analytical point of view (but hardly from a privacy perspective), it would be ideal to have a complete inventory of all assets of all households in the country. However, this is not realistic and a practical approach involves grouping households who have approximately similar assets. It is important to note that 'assets' are not just the tangible assets we normally think of like cattle, vehicles, land or money, they also include intangible 'human assets' like education or health, 'social assets' like people's networks and connections, 'political assets' like access to leaders, an ID book, etc. and 'environmental assets' like water, soil quality, forests or infrastructure. These groups of households are called **wealth groups** and in all livelihood zones there are three or four wealth groups (usually described as 'Very Poor', 'Poor', 'Middle' and 'Better Off'). These wealth groups are defined by the communities during the **wealth breakdown**, when the baseline assessment teams explore issues related to household vulnerability as well as the coping strategies and options they undertake during bad years.

Once the baseline is established, analysis can be made on the likely impact of a shock or hazard in the current year. This process involves assessing how food access will be affected by the hazard and, given households' asset holdings and capacity to earn more, what other food sources can be added or expanded to make up for the initial shortfall. After all these factors are considered, final deficits emerge once households have exhausting all their coping strategies. The SAVAC used the period April 2013 to March 2014 as the baseline or reference consumption year and therefore the current analysis reflects the impact of current problems for the forecast period of 2013 to 2014.

The key parameters evaluated in April 2016

Using the baseline profiles, key parameters of change in each livelihood were identified. Each parameters affects a particular source of food, source of income or expenditure by changing either the amount of that source or its price. Examples of key parameters are the crops grown by households, their livestock, their labour, the social grants they receive from government and the food and non-food items that they purchase. With consumption, foodstuffs are grouped into staple and non-staple, and are combined with non-food expenditure to be compared with accepted standards, such as the Food Poverty Line (FPL), the Lower Bound and Upper Bound Poverty Lines (LBPL and UBPL).

Key parameters always compare the consumption year under review (in this case the period from April 2016 to March 2017) with the baseline consumption years (in all livelihoods it is the period from April

2 Wealth is defined in terms of asset holdings and incomes

2013 to March 2014). An important characteristic of key parameters is whether they are *known* or *unknown*: known parameters are those which impact on livelihoods early in the consumption year and thus have already occurred, allowing their measurement, while unknown parameters have yet to occur during the consumption year and so cannot be measured. Of course, with the consumption year under review only just having started, there remain a lot of unknown parameters, which can only be included by constructing scenarios.

The key parameters assessed included:

- Household own-production and how this year it compares with that in the baseline year March 2013;
- Household access to food from agricultural labour exchange and how this compares with the baseline year;
- Access to food from livestock products and how this compares with the baseline year;
- Quantities of income-activities in the current year from crop sales, livestock sales, agricultural labour, other casual labour, petty trading, access to social grants and other income activities that vary across wealth groups, compared with the baseline;
- The prices of maize and livestock in the current year compared with baseline year prices;
- The price of items in the minimum non staple basket (soap, paraffin, matches, sugar, Tea and salt), and the essential expenditure basket (education, medical, ploughing, seed, livestock treatment, cooking oil, clothing and grinding costs).

Comparison of key parameters data for 2013 with 2014 was done and the findings from this analysis formed the current year problem specification for scenario modelling.

Methodology

The six stages of the household Economy Approach

The South Africa Vulnerability Assessment Committee (SAVAC), conducts assessments and analysis using a livelihoods based analytical framework, called the Household Economy Approach (HEA), for modelling its forecasts. There are six stages in a household or food economy analysis:

1. **Livelihood zoning** – the area under consideration is divided into geographical areas where people broadly share similar patterns of livelihood;
2. **Wealth breakdowns** – the population in each livelihood zone is then further subdivided into wealth groups consisting of people with similar resource or asset bases;

These first two stages are concerned with dividing the population into groups of households that share similar characteristics in terms of their access to food and income. The assumption underlying these two stages is that access to food and income is determined by two factors; geography and economic status (i.e. relative wealth). While geography (where a household lives) determines the options for obtaining food and income, wealth generally determines a household's ability to exploit those options.

3. The third stage involves developing a detailed picture of food access, income and expenditure for each wealth group in 'typical' or 'normal' year. This picture describes household **livelihood strategies**.

The resulting product from these first three stages is called the **baseline**³. The data from these stages are stored in maps (the livelihood zones, as in **Figure 1** on page 7) and in the **baseline storage spreadsheets (BSSs)**, an example of the summary of which is presented in **Table x**. These BSSs are an inefficient and cumbersome store for this type of information but they nevertheless provide a summary outcome that can be used in an outcome forecast analysis (OFA).

³ This baseline, which is essentially just a reference point for on-going temporal and monitoring analysis, must be distinguished from a *programmatic baseline*, which is the existing situation before an intervention, which is obviously hoping to achieve some long term change from the baseline.

4. The fourth stage is to define the **hazard** or change for the current year in reference to the baseline year. As we are ‘peeking’ into the future we do not know all the potential hazards that await households, so we build **scenarios** based on reasoned and stated **assumptions**. This process is called defining the **problem specification**.
5. The fifth stage is the **response analysis**; where **response strategies** that households may employ to ensure their minimum needs are met are included together with the hazard and baseline livelihood strategies.
6. The sixth and final stage is to combine all the above information (baseline access, hazard and response strategies) to generate projections of future food and income access. The results from the analysis can then be collated into totals by administrative area (such as provinces and districts) for informing decision making at the appropriate levels.

These last three steps constitute the **outcome forecast analysis (OFA)** and since, this is an OFA for the entire country, it is referred to as a **national outcome forecast analysis (NOFA)**. The process can be summarised in an *approximate mathematical form* thus⁴:

$$Outcome = \sum_{\text{each source}} (\text{Baseline} \times \text{Hazard}) + (\text{Response} \times \text{Hazard})$$

This formula is applied in a more complex way in the **single zone analysis spreadsheets (SZASs)**, into which the problem specifications are entered and the details of the response analysis are applied. These spreadsheets are essentially complex calculators; they take the sources of food (in food energy terms), the sources of income and the expenditures of each wealth group from the baselines and process them through the problem specification, factoring in the response analysis and presenting the outcome, in either food energy terms or cash terms.

The resultant total (cash and non-cash) income from the analysis outcomes are compared with three thresholds: the food poverty line, the lower bound poverty and the upper bound poverty line. If it falls below any of these thresholds a deficit is recorded. The food poverty line is expressed in both food energy and cash terms, while the LBPL and UBPL are expressed only in cash terms; this gives four output parameters to be recorded for compilation. This processes is done with a view to estimating individuals who are below the thresholds and require policy intervention.

Using census data for the **enumeration small areas (ESAs)** and the hazard extent defined earlier during the problem specification, outcomes were converted from livelihood zones to administrative areas, so that appropriate policy interventions can be designed and implemented.

The Entire Process

In order to achieve the objectives laid out, this exercise was broken down into 37 steps:

Preparation of the Baselines

1. Prepare a synthesis-baseline for farm workers;
2. Prepare a synthesis baseline for the urban poor.

Preparation of the analysis spreadsheets;

3. Prepare analysis spreadsheets for all assessed and completed livelihood zones;
4. Prepare synthesis analysis spreadsheets for the remaining open access livelihood zones in the country;
5. Prepare analysis spreadsheets for farm workers and for the urban poor.

Collecting data from secondary sources

6. Collect secondary source data for crop production, largely from the Crop Estimates Committee (CEC) for each harvest from 2013 onwards;

⁴ There is a lot more to the analysis calculations than what is presented in this formula—for instance, it includes aspects of switching expenditure, which is the preference a more efficient source over another.

7. Collect secondary source satellite imagery and climatic spatial data (for example, the Standard Precipitation index);
8. Collect secondary source data for price problem specifications;
9. Collect secondary economic forecasts such as inflation, gross domestic product (GDP) and gross national product (GNP) growth rates.

Defining the hazard area and getting crop production problem specifications

10. To define the “hazard-affected” spatial area in the country, review and choose from the various rainfall and vegetation maps and remote sensing raster images;
11. Use a desktop Geographic Information System (GIS) to geo-reference the raster image or convert the origin rainfall vector feature set to the map coordinate reference system (CRS);
12. For raster images, in the desktop GIS, convert the colour remote sensing images to greyscale if the image contains more than one colour (for example, from red to yellow to green) by applying different weightings on each primary colour (red, blue and green) to ensure that each colour does not overlap with another colour’s grey shade value (e.g. dark green must be a different grey value from dark red);
13. Remove the any lines or borders within the image by filtering out all-black or dark grey pixels (which should be beyond the darkest colour shade);
14. Convert the raster image to vector polygons (‘polygonise’ or ‘vectorise’), with an attribute in the polygon table holding the greyscale value.
15. Import the vector feature set into a geo-spatially enabled database (such as PostGIS) for further operations;
16. Switch the greyscale values to text values representing the range of covered by each colour in the original raster image. This should result in an ordinal text value that traverses the remote sensing image from its lowest value range to its highest range;
17. Filter out all polygons smaller than nine pixels;
18. Buffer the resultant polygons to make sure that they overlap one another that polygons separated by only one pixel will be combined;
19. Remove any edge boundaries or other image paraphernalia by cropping the image to a polygon that defines the area of interest.
20. Select an appropriate cut-off for the vector layer on the new ordinal value column, so only the “hazard-affected” (in the current case, “drought-affected”) areas are shown;
21. Union (“dissolve” in ESRI parlance) the resultant filtered polygons in single multi-polygon for the remaining “hazard-affected” areas (which can be dumped to obtain separate single-polygon features, if needed);
22. Compile the crop estimate data to obtain provincial commercial crop problem specifications and national ‘subsistence’ crop problem specifications;
23. Overlay (“intersect” and “union”, in ESRI parlance) the “hazard-affected” area polygons onto the crop national crop areas;
24. Choose appropriate values for normal or non-hazard crop problem specifications in the open-access (or ‘subsistence agriculture’) and commercial areas in each province, then calculate the problem specification for the drought hazard areas using the crop estimates problem specs from step 22 (above);
25. Obtain, derive or choose scenarios for problem specifications of other agricultural production (crops, livestock, game, aquaculture, fishing);
26. Obtain, derive or choose scenarios for employment opportunities, self-employment opportunities and small business problem specifications;
27. Obtain, derive or choose scenarios for problem specifications on prices;

28. Decide on the ratios of grant and non-grant recipients; the analysis should be split into two cases: those that receive grants and those that do not.

Run the outcome analysis on the spreadsheets

29. Enter all the problem specifications in all the outcome analysis spreadsheets to run the analysis (to save time, a strategic approach can be made by entering common problem specifications, copying the spreadsheets and then entering the variants for each scenario);
30. View and study each livelihood zone/hazard grouping to understand and account for the analysis;
31. Collect all the outcomes (food deficit, food poverty line deficit, lower bound poverty line deficit and upper bound poverty line deficit) for each wealth group in each scenario in each livelihood zone into a single large table.

Attribute the analysis to populations and calculate the totals

32. Overlay (“intersect” and “union”, in ESRI parlance) the “hazard-affected” area polygons onto the enumeration small areas (SAs), and assign an attribute “hazard affected” as well as the month and date to a new table of small areas;
33. Review the nature of the problem specifications for the livelihood zones analysis. In the case of the current NOFA there are *four scenarios* for each livelihood zone: *drought-affected* versus *normal* and *grant-receiving* versus *non-grant-receiving*;
34. Compute other problem specifications that are general or the same for all livelihood zones, such as general rates of inflation, price changes, etc.;
35. Create pivot tables for each outcome;
36. Map the numbers of people (or percentages of people) affected for each outcome;
37. Map the amounts of deficit for each outcome.

This involved a considerable amount of processing. To get the job done quicker, scripts were written and applied to many of the processes. Fortunately, this can be done given modern software and database tools such as Postgres, PostGIS, NodeJS and the QGIS desktop mapping application (with its many plugins).

The outcomes are presented as maps and as tables in pages....

Findings

The following draws on the steps outlined above.

The Baselines

Farm Workers (Step 1)

Urban Poor (Step 2)

The Analysis Spreadsheets

Existing baselines (Step 3)

Other Open Access Livelihood Zones, Farm Workers and the Urban Poor (Step 3 to 5)

Secondary Source Data (Step 6 to 9)

This analysis was completed entirely with data from secondary sources. Normally, when an assessment of this nature is undertaken, some primary data will still be captured and used alongside that from the secondary indicators. This helps to ‘ground truth’ the analysis, as well as filling in the indicator gaps that monitoring systems often leave out in livelihoods, such as: casual labour opportunities, informal or petty trading, crafts and self-employment.

Hazard Definition and Problem Specification

The hazards people face can be broken into two types: spatial and non-spatial. Spatial hazards are those that are confined to particular geographical areas (such as crop failures resulting from drought or floods), whereas non-spatial hazards are those that afflict people (but not necessarily all people) in all areas (such as a general rise in prices or changes to social development policies).

With both hazard types, a determination needs to be made for those that experience the hazard versus those that do not.

Usually, a combination of approaches are applied to arrive at a spatial definition of the hazard. The first approach is to use some sort of spatial hazard data, such as remote sensing images, while the second approach is to look at the production factors of interest (for example, crops or livestock).

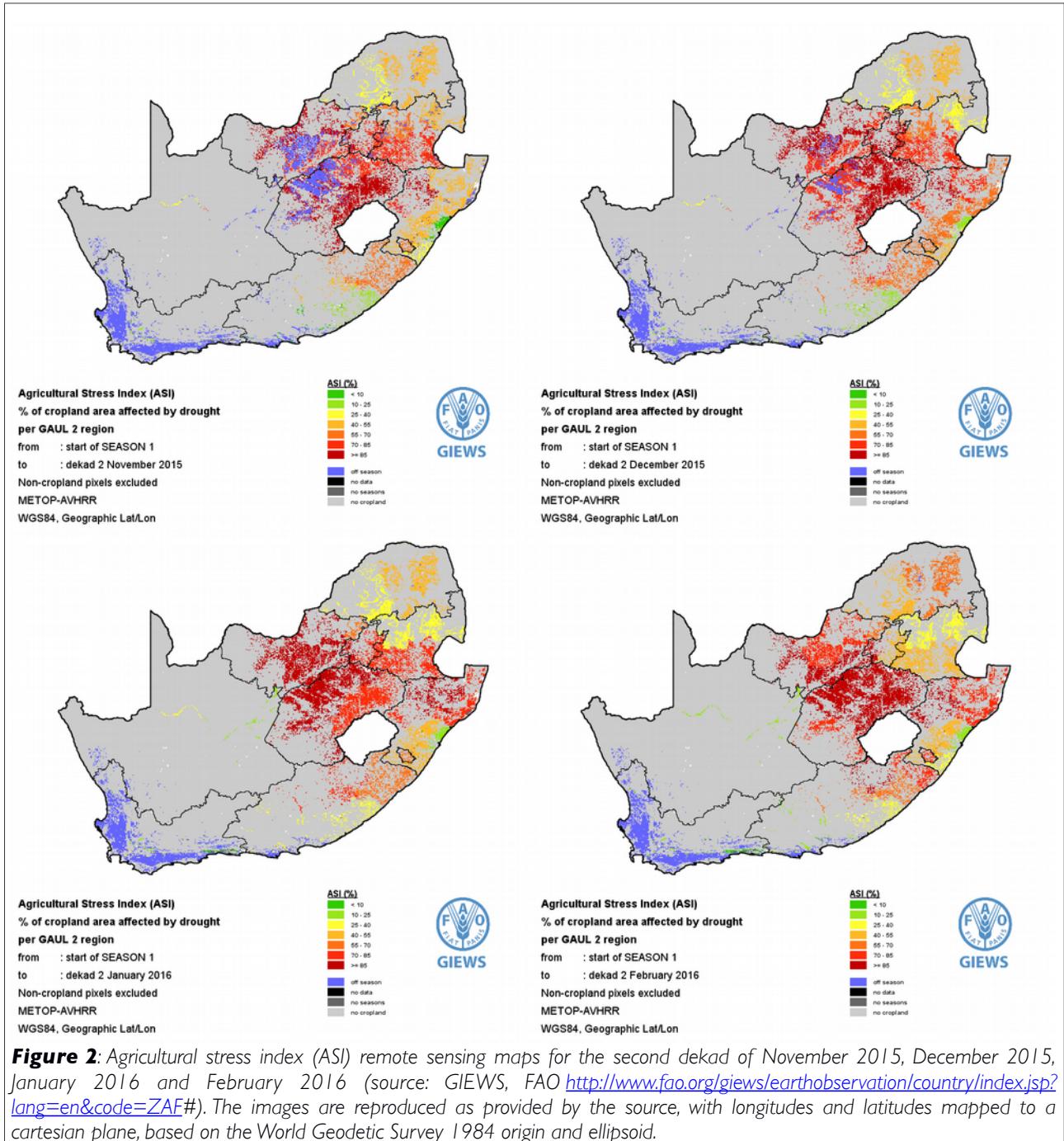
Climatic Spatial Data and Remote Sensing (Step 10)

The author looked at several types of remote sensing data sets and these include:

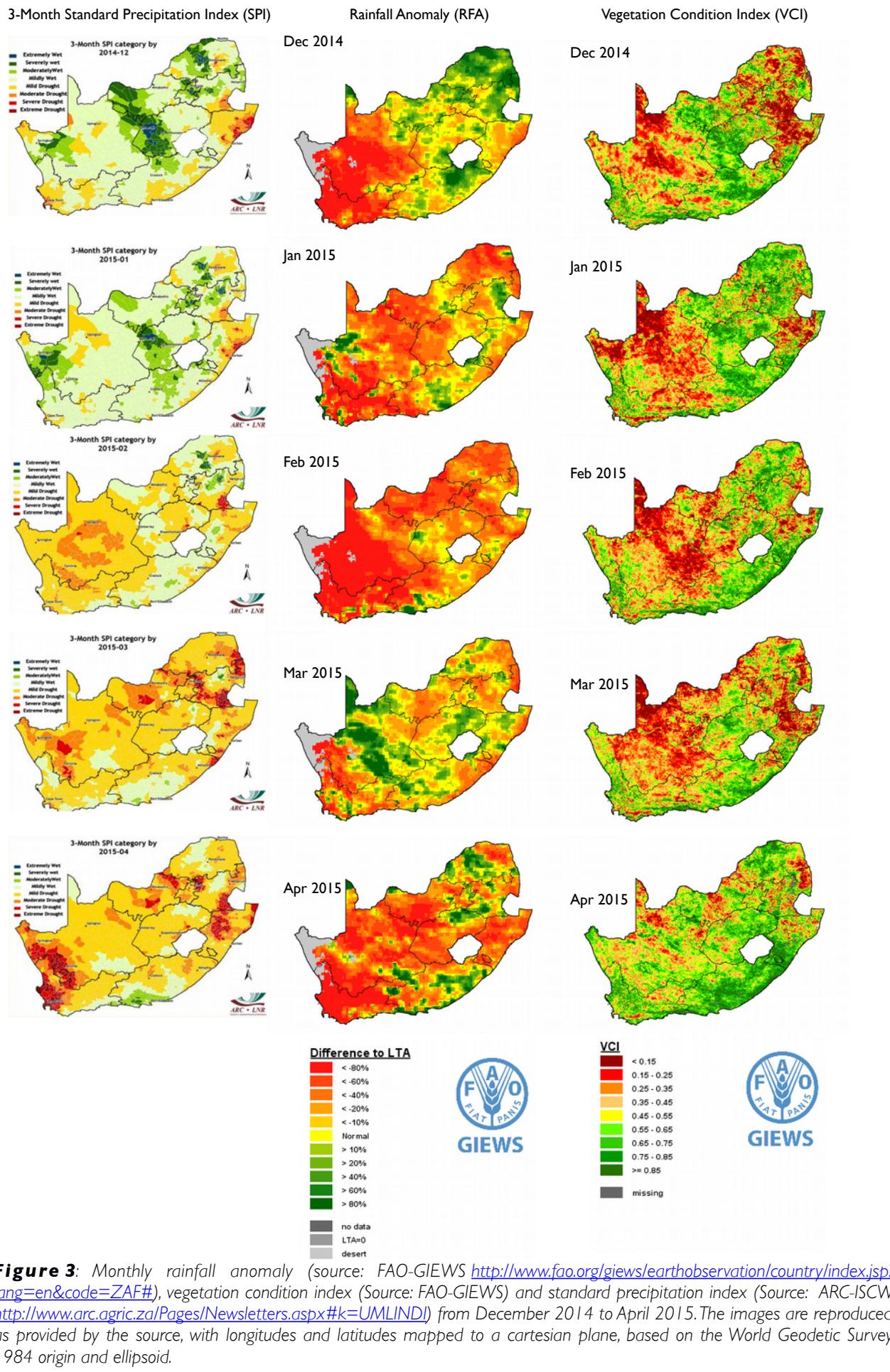
- Rainfall deviation from satellite images (source: FAO);
- Rainfall deviation from local sources (source: ARC-ISCW);
- Standard precipitation index (SPI) (source: ARC-ISCW);
- Normalised differential vegetation index (NDVI) (source: FAO-GIEWS);
- Vegetation condition index (VCI) (source: FAO-GIEWS);
- Vegetation health index (VHI) (source: FAO-GIEWS); and
- Agriculture stress index (ASI) (source: FAO-GIEWS).

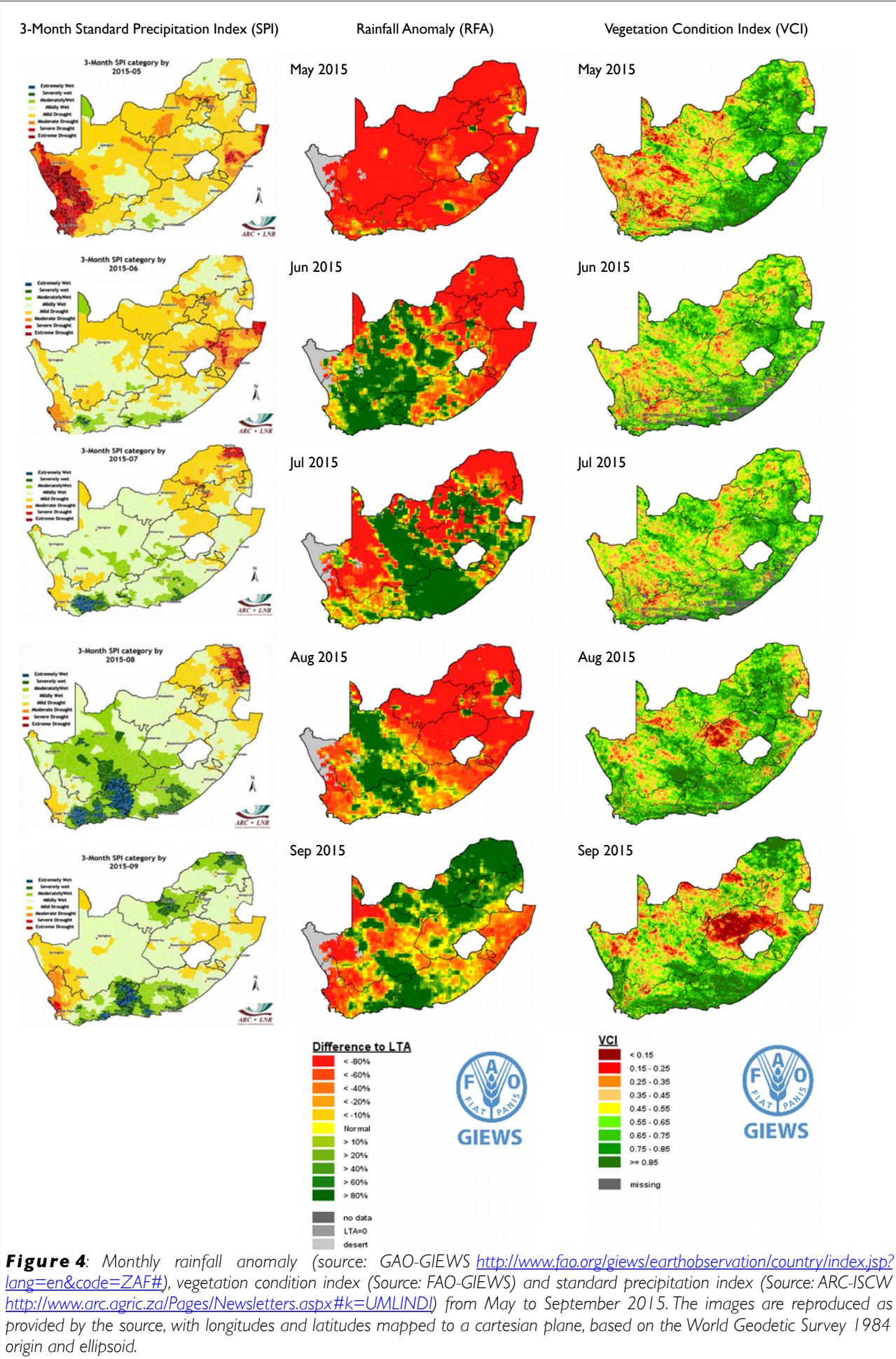
At first glance, the agricultural stress index (ASI) appeared to be the simplest and most attractive set to use to determine hazard areas, with a historical set of images for each dekad that shows how, where and when the drought developed to its most devastating. **Figure 2** shows the development of the drought over the months from November 2015 to February 2016. The ASI has the advantage that it is a combination of a range of factors that affect crop performance, so in many ways it is good for establishing a problem specification. However, it also suffers some disadvantages:

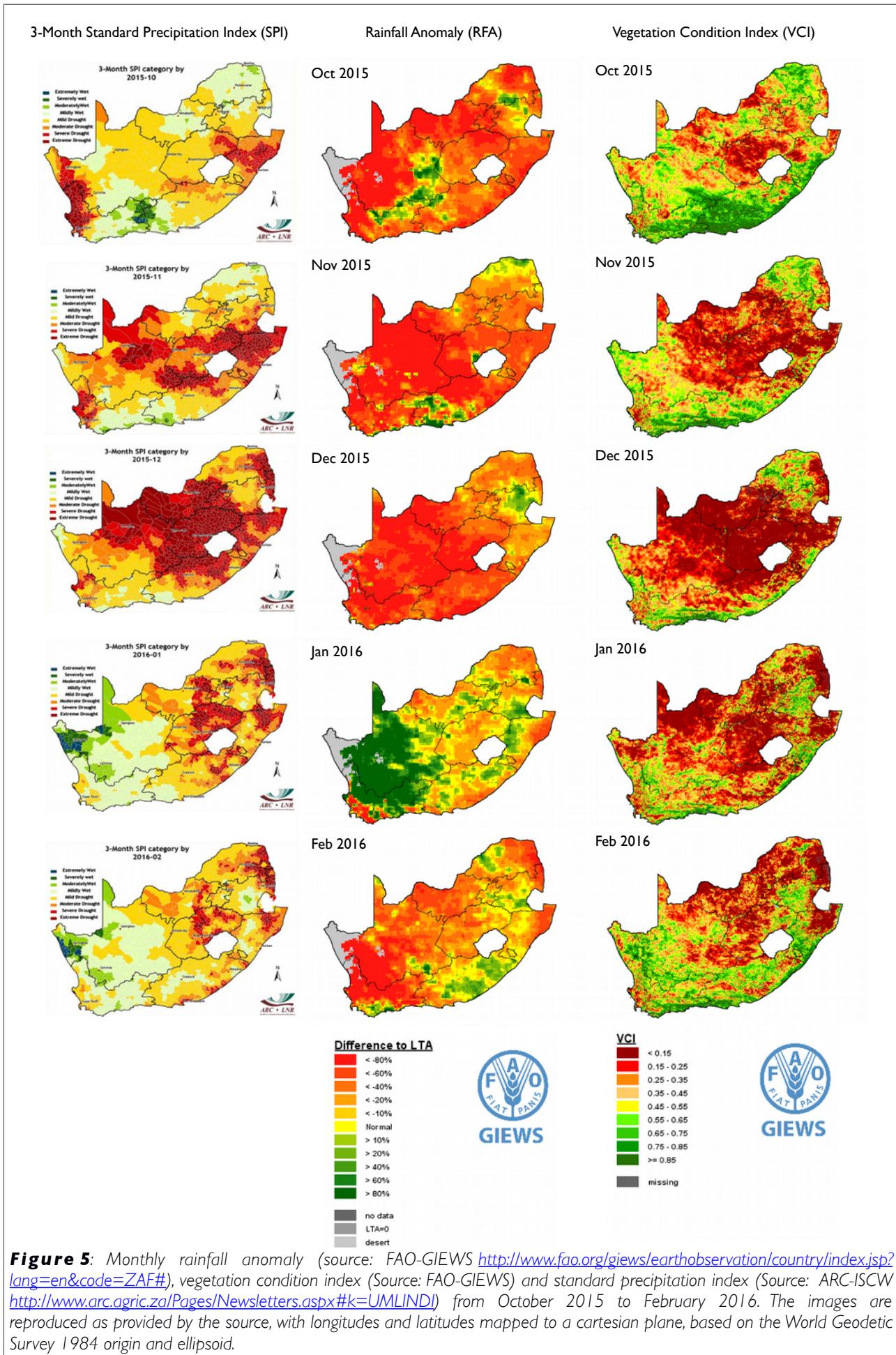
- The ASI focusses only on crops, while in many affected parts of the country livestock are the key productive components; and
- The ASI only shows results for the current cropping season, so areas with different seasonal priorities (such as winter rainfall) have to come from a different set of images.



Nevertheless, the images in **Figure 2** do show the extent of crop failure: the dark red areas of North West, Free State and northern KwaZulu-Natal, as well as the red or orange parts of KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape and Limpopo. Note, the winter rainfall Western Cape and the vast area under livestock grazing in North West, Northern Cape and Free State do not show up.







Therefore, the analyst considered precipitation and vegetation maps for more information.

Precipitation, when compared with the long term average as in the rainfall anomaly (RFA), is an important determinant, although crop and grazing conditions depend as much on the *distribution* of rainfall as they do on the total amount that fell. The standard precipitation index (SPI) takes these factors into account (SPI - McKee et al., 1993) and was formulated to display drought events from rainfall data by quantifying precipitation deficits on different time scales. Spatially, the data are grouped per quaternary catchment for each time period and are based on the historical distribution of rainfall. The time period chosen here is the three-month average, so each image (for each month) represents a moving average over 24 months, twelve months, six months, three months and a single month for that particular month. These are published by the Agricultural Research Council's Institute For Soil, Climate And Water (ARC-ISCW) in their monthly publication "Umlindi – the Watchman".

Lastly, the condition of the vegetation shows the impact of rainfall (or the lack of it) on the actual crops and grazing. The vegetation condition index (VCI) has been chosen here.

Figures 3, 4 and 5 contain a time series of SPI, RFA and VCI, starting in December 2014 (in 2014 there was a localised drought in North West Province) and running up until February 2016. The SPI images are for three-month categories, which means they are like a three-month moving average ending at the particular month (e.g. the three-month SPI for November 2015 is the SPI for September, October and November 2015).

The development of the drought is clear. It began in the north of KwaZulu-Natal in December 2014, spread up to southern Mpumalanga in February 2015 and on to North West in March 2015, afflicting Free State in October 2015. The drought reached its worst in December 2015, with the rains finally arriving in the summer rainfall regions in January 2016. A month after the onset of these rains, the natural vegetation was showing recovery, although the cropping season was lost for much of North West, Free State, Northern Cape, northern KwaZulu-Natal, northern Eastern Cape, the lowveld of Mpumalanga and Limpopo and the Swartland area of Western Cape.

The vegetation condition image for January 2016 was chosen because it captures the after-effects of the previous months' low rainfall, as well as the relief that some parts of the country received that month for the limited rains.

Georeferencing, conversion of colour raster images to single-value vector format (Steps 11 to 16)

Much of the analysis depends on ground area measurements, for example, the overlapping or common ground area between map features representing two or more variables. Considering that the analysis takes place at a national scale, the maps need to be reprojected to a suitable coordinate reference system (CRS) for measuring area reasonably quickly. The South African Albers Equal Area Conical CRS does this well and so the images are georeferenced and reprojected to it⁵; the result is shown below in **Figure 6**. The colours in the image where the drought was worst are those with a value less than 0.35, that is: dark red, red and dark orange. The analyst was unable to obtain the original images with pixel values representing the VCI value, so the colour spectrum from this image was converted to suitable values. This was done by converting the pixel colours to greyscale, adjusting the red and green shades so that they do not have the same grey values (dark red and dark green can convert to the same grey shade, but obviously they represent opposite values on the image). This way, the green and red coloured pixels are staggered from one another in terms of grey shading. The result is shown below in **Figure 7**, note the greyscale colour value in square brackets after the VCI value on the legend (e.g. "[RGB=151,151,151]").

The country and level 1 boundaries in the raster images needed removal. Fortunately, this was easily done by filtering the greyscale image on black and very dark values. It did, unfortunately, also leave 'holes', 'gashes' or blank values where the lines used to be.

⁵ The general shape of continental South Africa (i.e., excluding Marion and Gough Islands), being somewhat wider (maximum east-west dimension) than its height (north-south dimension) makes it suited to a conical projection. If the standard parallels are chosen correctly, Albers Equal Area gives a good representation of land area throughout the country, at the expense of distorting directional accuracy (except along the longitude of centre) and polygon shapes. The standard parallels used in all national maps with this projection have been chosen at 24.2° S and 32.8° S, with the longitude of centre at 25.1° E. The projection uses the World Geodetic Survey 1984 datum and ellipsoid, while map measurements and coordinates are in metres.

Figure 6: VCI image reprojected to the South African Albers Equal Area (please note the provincial boundaries are those of the image and are incorrect)

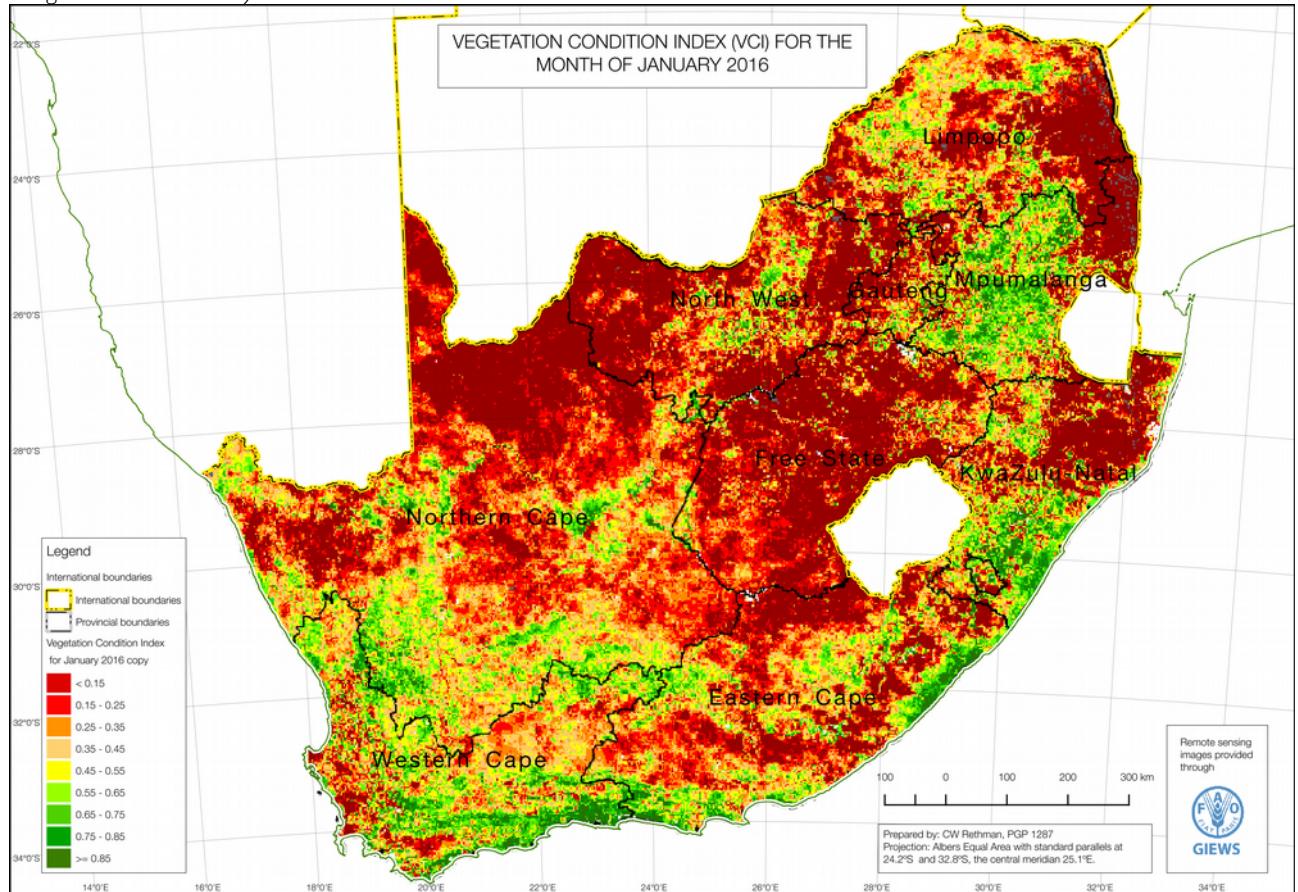
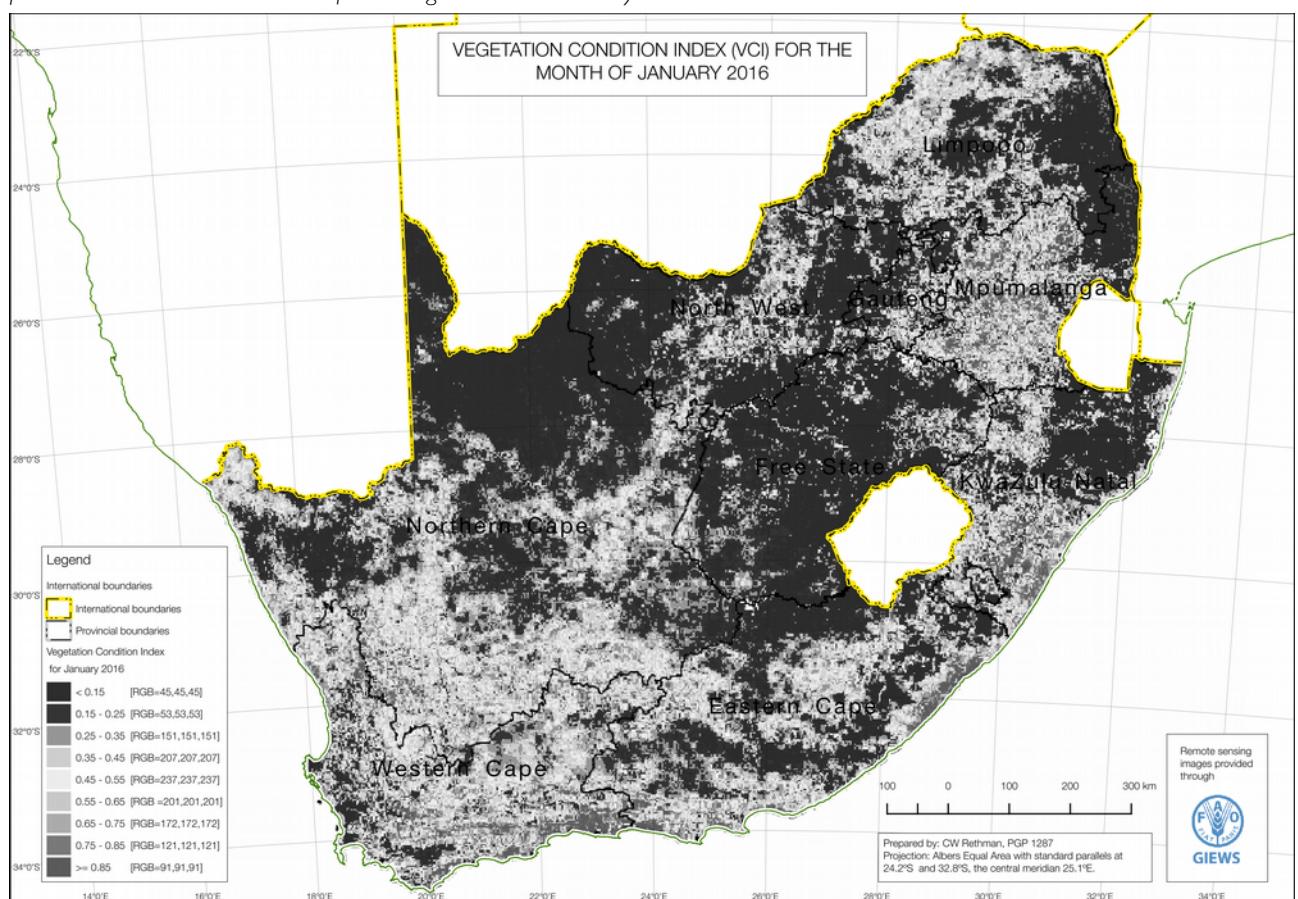
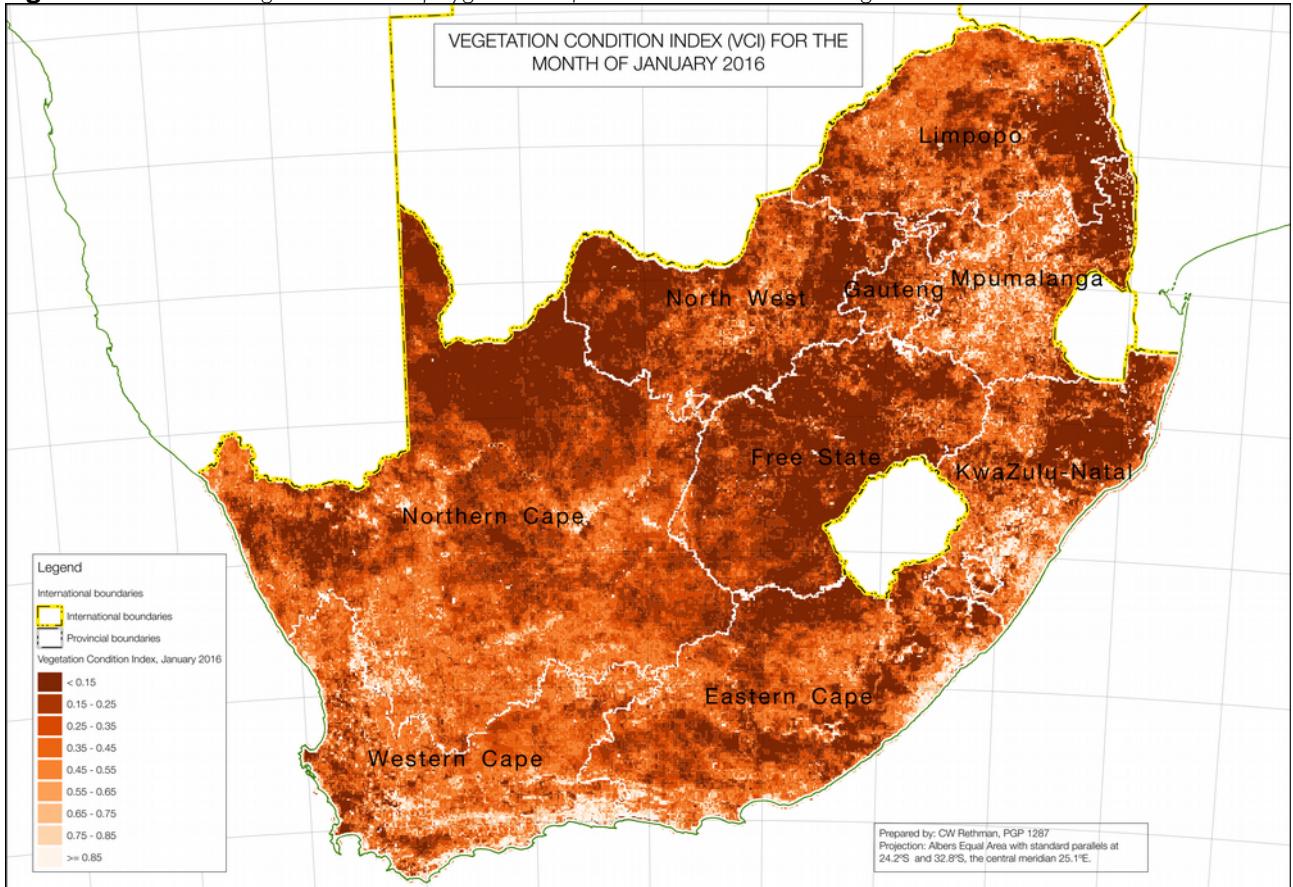


Figure 7: VCI image converted to greyscale, with reds offset from greens to ensure separation of shades (please note the provincial boundaries are those of the image and are incorrect)



This raster image could then be converted to a vector format. The conversion process applies a union (a ‘merge’ or ‘dissolve’) to adjacent pixels having the same shade, so that the resultant vector feature has polygons that comprise one or more pixels, depending on the shade values. The grey-shade values appeared as an attribute column on the vector table and were mapped to the VCI ranges by adding a column with the ranges values as text. The result was imported into PostGIS/Postgres and is shown in **Figure 8**. Note that although this graphic appears to be similar in its presentation as the greyscale image in **Figure 7**, it is in fact fundamentally different because the previously green areas of the map are now lighter than any of the red or orange areas. For example, compare the coastal belt just south of Durban, which was to be green in the original VCI image in **Figure 6**, then became a darker grey in **Figure 7** and a lighter orange in **Figure 8**.

Figure 8: VCI raster image converted to polygon vector format with the VCI value range restored

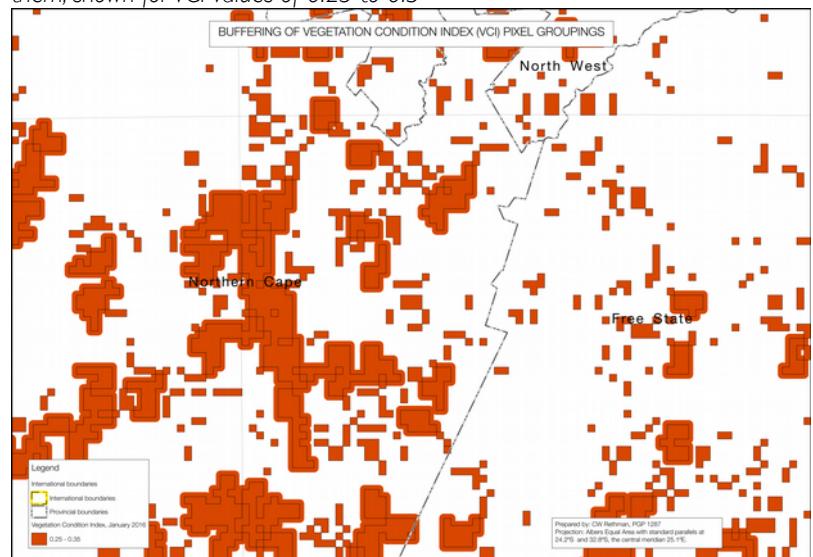


Buffering, cleaning and filtering out the small groups of pixels (Steps 17 to 19)

Very small areas of low vegetation condition could be considered outliers or anomalies that do not need to be included in the general hazard area. All features smaller than nine pixels were thus filtered out and the remaining features buffered by 1500 metres to ensure that when they are combined by a union into larger polygon features set out as the drought-affected area, they are closer to one another than one pixel width (which is approximately 2500 metres).

At this point all the extra graphics and paraphernalia from the remote-

Figure 9: The process of selecting only larger groups of pixels and buffering them, shown for VCI values of 0.25 to 0.3



sensing images can be removed as well; they are easily filtered out with simple spatial query parameters.

Obtaining the hazard area; filtering the worst affected pixels and then combining them together with a union (Step 20 and 21)

The threshold for ‘drought’ conditions was set at all VCI values below 0.35 and the buffered polygons were then combined to form a single ‘drought hazard area’ feature set. This drought hazard area is shown below in **Figure 10**. The feature set polygons were initially combined into a single large multipolygon, which was dumped into its many constituent pieces, so that the feature set table now has many rows, which are spatially indexed.

Figure 10: The ‘drought hazard area’ defined from the VCI remote sensing image for January 2016

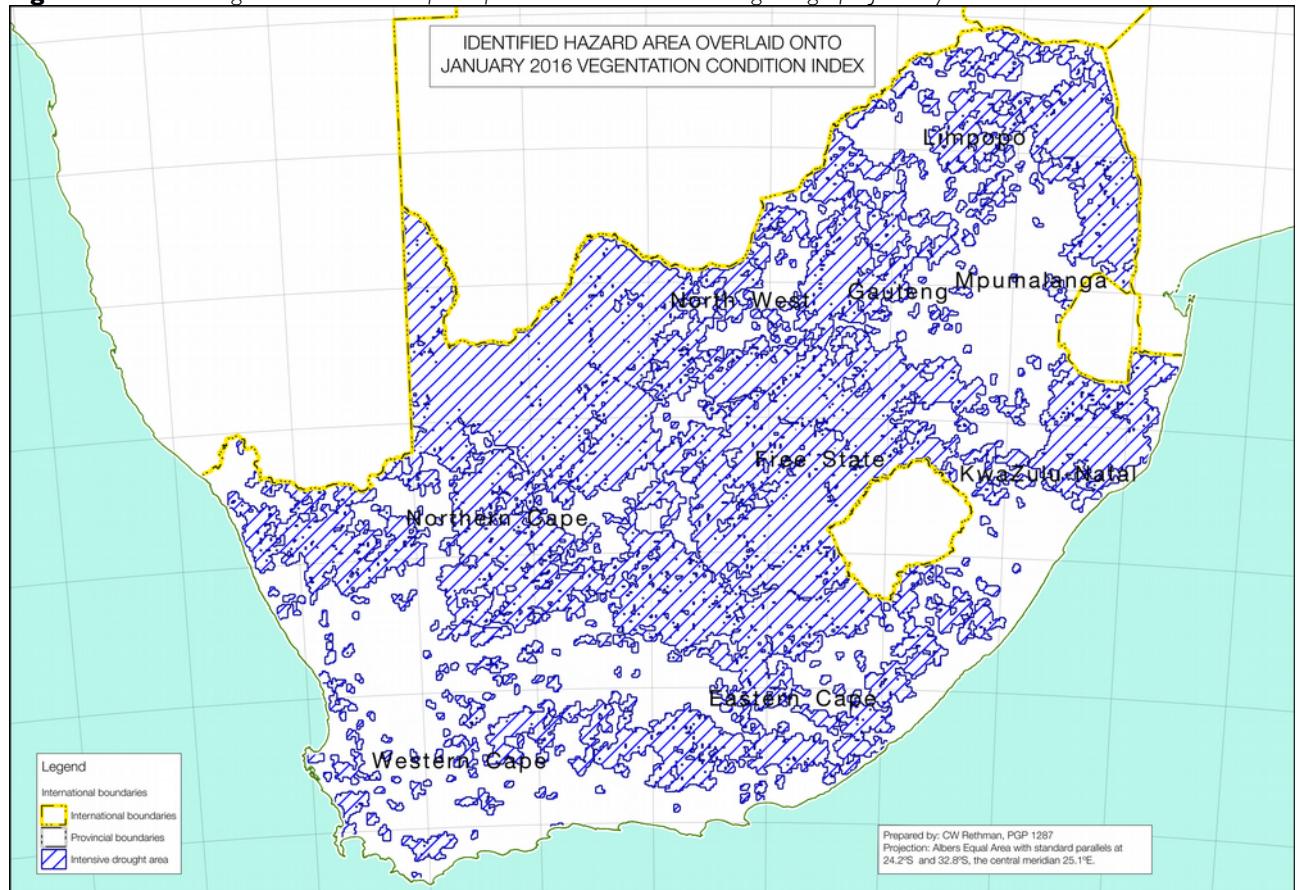


Figure 11 shows the drought hazard area superimposed onto the original VCI remote sensing image. The result is a satisfactory coverage of the worst drought areas in the country.

Crop Production

Analysing the crop estimates and obtaining worst and best areas (Step 22)

Crop estimates from the Crop Estimates Committee (CEC). These are published four times for each summer and winter season. However, the estimates available from the CEC on their website are totals for the provinces only, with the addition of a national figure for ‘subsistence’ agriculture. Going forward, it will be extremely useful if these provincial crop estimate numbers could be further broken, perhaps into district-level numbers or even better, municipality-level. This data will contain a lot more local resolution.

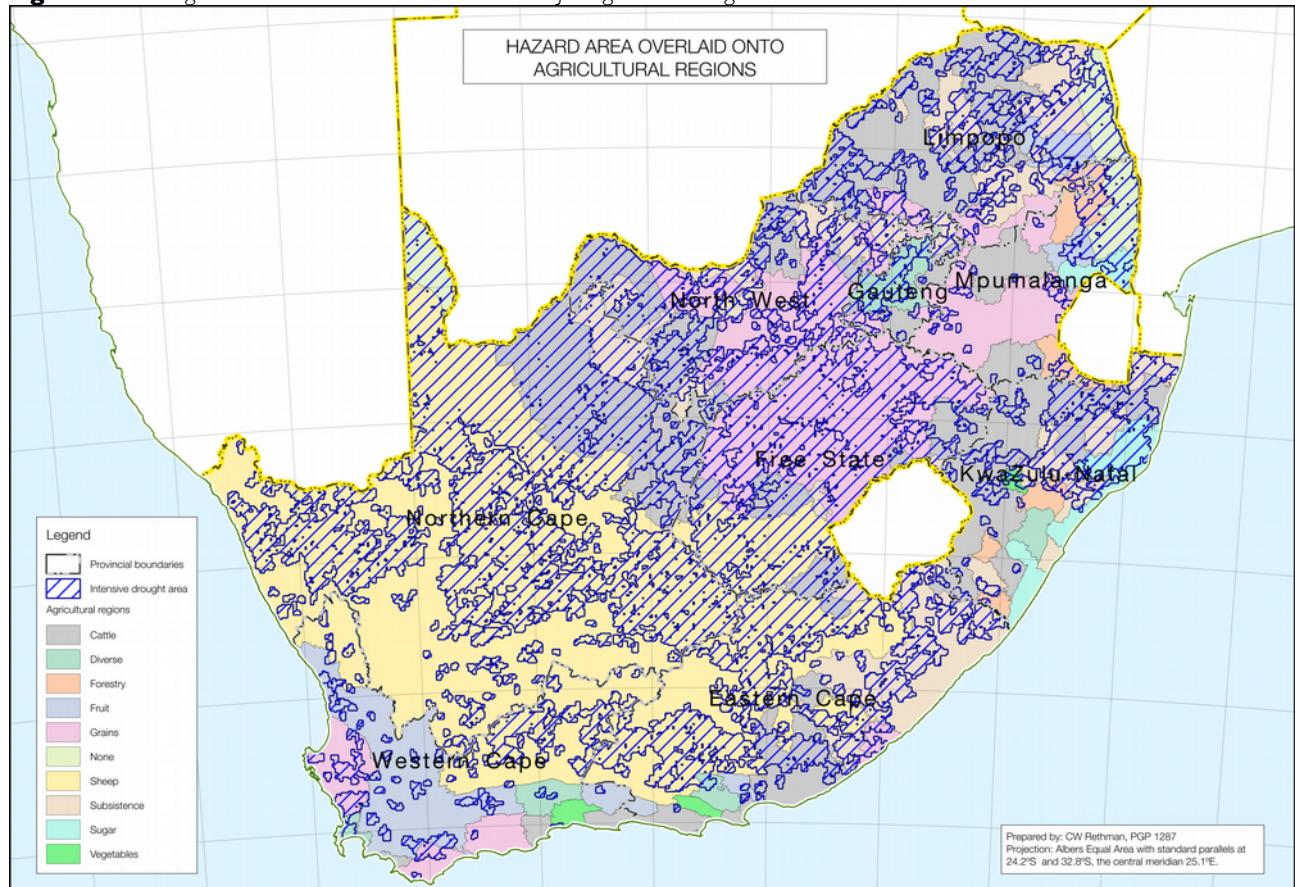
Crop problem specifications are arrived at by dividing this year’s production by the baseline year’s production over the same area. In all livelihood zones the baseline consumption year was 2013-2014, so the harvests achieved in 2013 served as the comparative production data, i.e., the problem specification is derived by dividing 2016 production data by 2013 production data.

Table 1 above shows the production data for the 2013 baseline year, the current year (where available) and the problem spec for non-commercially grown and commercially grown major crops—with the commercially grown major crops subdivided by province.

Obtaining agricultural problem specifications for hazard and non-hazard sections (Steps 23 to 25)

The difficulty is that CEC crop estimates and problem specifications apply to the whole of each province; they do not discriminate between drought-affected and non-drought affected areas in each province. To discriminate between these two cases, the breakdown between ‘normal’ and ‘drought-affected’ areas was achieved by overlaying the drought hazard area from **Figure 10** onto the major agricultural regions, as shown in **Figure 12**, and then comparing the area of land under the hazard with that which is not for the agricultural region.

Figure 12: Drought hazard area overlaid onto the major agricultural regions



Areas under the hazard sections and non-hazard sections were derived through a spatial union of the hazard area, the agricultural regions and the provinces.

In terms of grain crops—primarily maize in the summer rainfall parts of the country—the approach was to decide on a reasonable crop problem specification for the *non-hazard* (or ‘normal’) sections of each agricultural region in each province and then calculate the *hazard section* problem specification from the CEC data for the province, the non-hazard problem specification and the comparative land areas for the hazard and non-hazard sections. Consideration was made on the degree of coverage of the hazard section on the agricultural regions in the province as well as the CEC crop estimates for that province when deciding on an appropriate non-hazard problem specification. In badly affected provinces (Free State, KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape and North West) the non-hazard problem specification was 77%. In Limpopo, the drought varied in its intensity across the province, and the *non-hazard section* problem specification was 140%, while in Mpumalanga the *non-hazard section*, which in the end was larger than in Free State or KwaZulu-Natal due to the January rains, nevertheless suffered reduced production, so problem specification was set at 70%. The ‘subsistence’ (or open-access tenure) agricultural region also has maize production and also has hazard and non-hazard sections, although there are significant variations in the degree of affectedness from the hazard. A problem specification of 109% (i.e., 9% more than 2013 production) was used for the *non-hazard section* in these subsistence regions. In Northern

Table 3 - Income source quantity problem specifications for types of livelihood zones (where data are not shown it is because the income source is not in the baseline).

Livelihood zone types (abbreviation, code)	Hazard section	Agricultural casual labour	Construction casual labour	Domestic casual labour	Formal employment	Labour migration	Self-employment	Small business	Gifts	Remittances
Urban poor (ZAUP, 59800)	Hazard	50%	50%	50%	100%		100%	100%	100%	100%
	Non-hazard	100%	100%	100%	100%		100%	100%	100%	100%
(ZAFW, 59050)	Hazard	50%	50%	50%	60%		80%	100%		
	Non-hazard	100%	100%	100%	100%		100%	100%	100%	100%
Rural open-access LZs	Hazard	50%	50%	50%	60%	40%	80%	80%	100%	100%
	Non-hazard	100%	100%	100%	100%	80%	80%	80%	100%	100%

Without any field surveys to draw upon, it was not possible to obtain problem specification data for each zone. Rather, single national problem specifications were applied, with some changes between rural open access livelihood zones, the commercial farm workers and the urban poor being apparent in formal employment (prospects in urban areas, whether hazard-affected or not, are the same as before), self-employment and small business.

Obtaining problem specifications on prices (Step 27)

Purchase prices of staple food commodities (maize meal, samp, bread and rice) are projected (by March 2016) to have increased by around 12% from that of the baseline year (April 2013 to March 2014) in Limpopo Province. This is a problem specification of 112% and it is applied to all four livelihood zones. This projection is based on the previous price changes and on forecasts for inflation generally. This may or may not change in reality—a lot will depend on the domestic supply situation, the country's import requirements and the position with the Rand weakening further against the major currencies.

In rural areas in all livelihood zones there are fewer outlets and distribution costs mean that staple prices in the villages are higher than in towns or cities. Traders who increase their prices of food commodities beyond that of increases elsewhere are seen as exploiting vulnerable rural communities. This is because 'very poor' and 'poor' households in these zones purchase 50–70% of their annual food requirements, increases in staple prices seriously affects their access to food. This is a key parameter for the SAVAC to monitor.

Other Food Items' Purchase Price Changes

Although in countries where a situation of outright starvation (a famine situation) is a threat, in South Africa analysts are more concerned with poverty and inequality—which implies that quality of life and living standards are more the issue than mass shortage of food energy. Hence, the focus must be wider than the cheapest way for people to obtain the food energy, or staple, which is usually maize.

A diet that is confined to staples is not healthy and diversity is essential for people to obtain all the nutrients they require, providing them with the capacity for a productive and dignified life. In order to account this required diversity, the SAVAC were required to refer to standard food baskets used in other surveys, such as the Living Standards Surveys and General Household Surveys. The latter compares levels of consumption with poverty levels, the lowest of which is the Food Poverty Line (FPL). The FPL is composed of a list of varied commodities, the sum of the energy content of which still equals 8800 kJ per person per day (2100 kcal per person per day).

The SAVAC has used the same list of commodities as for its FPL and, taken together with staple, this represents the minimum threshold for household incomes in the villages. SAVAC Rand values for this threshold are similar to the provincial threshold used by Statistics South Africa, the differences reflect the purely rural local variations in prices and availability of commodities.

The non-staple FPL items are projected to increase at the provincial non-cereal food inflation rates, with the projection for the coming months based on the overall inflation projections. The resultant problem specification for the 2015-2016 consumption year for non-staple foods is 114%, or an increase in prices of 14% since the baseline year (April 2013 to March 2014). This was applied to all four livelihood zones.

Prices of Items Non-Food Basket (Lower Bound Poverty Line and Upper Bound Poverty Line, as well as the Resilience Line)

In addition to non-staple food products, households need to purchase other goods and services that meet their basic needs. These goods and services include items such as soap, paraffin, electricity, matches, salt (zero food energy), tea or coffee (zero food energy), services, schooling, health, veterinary, taxes, community contributions, clothing, communications, transport and so on.

When the cost of the smallest quantity of these commodities is added to that of staple and non-staple food, this becomes the Lower Bound Poverty Line (LBPL). When a larger quantity of each of these commodities is used, it defines the Upper Bound Poverty Line (UBPL).

Lastly, there are important investments that households must make each year if they are to have sustainable livelihoods. This means that they must spend on maintenance of all their capital (human, social, physical, environmental and financial) if they are to be able to develop themselves further and withstand or recover from future livelihood hazards. This expenditure therefore includes livelihood-specific investments in inputs for agriculture or business activities (including labour), educational investments, health and nutrition investments. Critically, these investments usually have a knock-on impacts from one wealth group to another; for example, money spent on labour hire by the better-off adds significantly to poorer households' incomes.

The sum of the expenditure on all of these investments with the other preceding expenditures in the UBPL, LBPL, FPL and staple purchase, make up the Resilience Line. Unlike the FPL, LBPL and UBPL, the Resilience Line varies across wealth groups, as households with more productive assets must spend more to maintain and use those assets.

The team used the general prevailing inflation rate with a forecast for the coming months to obtain the change in price from the baseline year (April 2013 to March 2014) to this year (April 2015 to March 2016) for the LBPL, UBPL and the resilience line. The resultant problem specification for these thresholds is 111%, or an 11% increase in prices. This was applied to all four livelihood zones.

Food purchase availability

Generally, food is available in all retail outlets, such as the big grocery chain stores such as Pick'n Pay, Spar, and Shoprite, as well as the smaller local stores. There are some areas within the zones, including Greater Tubatse, Lephala, Fetakgomo, Mogalakwena, Mopani, Lepelle-Nkumpi, Maruleng and Greater Letaba that need monitoring as they will lose livestock this coming season if the rains are insufficient because of the lack of grazing.

Grants and non-grants recipients (Step 28)

Social grants are, for many families, a life-saving necessity. Furthermore, they are often the largest single source of income for many households and therefore are pivotal in this analysis. The two grants that have the largest impact are Old Age Grants and Child Support Grants. Although other grants such as War Veterans Grants are of substantial value for poor people, they provided to very small proportions of the population. However, the odds of a poor household having at least one child or one elderly person (male over 65 years or female over 60 years) and qualifying for social grants are reasonable and this is why social grants are factored into the livelihoods baselines. Nevertheless, there are *still* some households that do not qualify for some technical reason or are unable to benefit—what of them?

In order to capture them on our model, we consider two possible scenarios: one with social grants and one without. This means that the income source quantity problem specification for social grants is either 100% (representing those with grants) or 0% (representing those without grants).

This means that in each livelihood zone or analysis group there are four possible 'partition scenarios'—scenarios partitioning people into one of four possible groups: **hazard section with grants**, **hazard section without grants**, **non-hazard section with grants** and **non-hazard section without grants**.

Running the analysis (Step 29)

Each scenario in each livelihood zone was completed on a single-zone analysis spreadsheet (SZAS), the SZAS file containing individual sheets for each wealth group, with the livelihoods outcomes compared with the three different thresholds (food poverty line (FPL, in cash and food terms), the lower bound poverty line (LBPL) and the upper bound poverty line (UBPL)). This means that in a livelihood zone there is one SZAS file for each partition scenario, or four SZAS files per zone, leading to a total of 76 SZASs over 19 livelihood zones. Usually, there are four wealth groups in a livelihood zone, although some have only three and this means that, in effect, this NOFA covered a total of 292 different analyses.

The calculated problem specification percentages from steps 23 to 28 above, which are the changes in the current year compared to baseline year, were entered into the analysis spreadsheet to calculate the food and expenditure deficit. These problem specs are only entered into a set of columns in the sheet

for the 'poor' wealth group; the SZAS copies them to the other wealth groups itself. Based on expandability factors already entered into the SZAS, it automatically computes the outcomes.

The livelihoods analysis (Step 30)

It must be emphasised that the drought this year was only one hazard; the other powerful hazard is economic: the price changes. Hence, even people living in non-drought areas may still be at the same risk of food insecurity because of this. Similarly, people that are exposed to a certain kind of hazard may not be vulnerable to it (for example, people earning a salary will likely not be as vulnerable to drought as people who farm). This will be explored below as we studying the livelihood systems and explore the impacts of the various changes in environmental and the economic situations for different wealth groups.

Analysis was done for both the drought-affected and unaffected areas of each livelihood zone. Both unaffected and affected areas had the same or very similar price problem specifications; the differences being in crop and livestock production.

Affected areas fared slightly worse than unaffected areas but the difference was not substantial, highlighting the relative unimportance of agriculture as a source of food and income, compared with social grants, paid employment and small businesses. The hazards that are more likely to have an impact on livelihoods and consumption levels are therefore those that affect these incomes and expenditure, such as high borrowing rates (affecting the government's ability to deliver on social grants, as well as loans for starting businesses), high food purchase prices and the lack of opportunities for work (agricultural, domestic and short-term contracts, such as construction).

The poorest households invest the least in agriculture; they depend on social grants and casual work as their main source of income. The casual work may be domestic, construction or agricultural—in the case of the latter it may be local (within the village or on commercial farms). The direct impact of the drought on them has therefore been the least—indirectly, they may suffer from reduced work opportunities. This may seem counter-intuitive to readers schooled in regarding village economies as "subsistence agriculture". Similarly, the better-off have either full-time employment or a small business that cushions their livelihood from losses due to drought or weather hazards. Hence, in rural open-access livelihood zones, it is often the 'middle' households who are more dependent on agriculture but lack the cushions of full-time employment, a small business or social grants and who are *directly* most vulnerable to drought.

The very poor and poor households do depend heavily on the market for their food and, with the kind of income activities in which they engage in such as weeding work, harvesting work, low-level petty trading, craft selling and domestic work already stretched to the limit, opportunities for them to expand their income are minimal. Hence, their vulnerability is to *price changes and shocks*.

Wealthier households may dispose of assets or switch non-essential expenditure to food purchases and essential expenditure.

In an analysis of this kind in South Africa, while starvation or life-threatening mass hunger are important issues to be aware of, our focus is generally more on poverty, living standards and the opportunities people have for escaping the worst conditions. This means that over time, the analysis factors in impoverishment brought on by external events to households' livelihoods. The comprehensive safety net and social grant system ought to cover the bare minimum needs for all citizens, automatically preventing famine or extreme deprivation for the great majority of people. However, the grant system is designed around needs for an average year, while this assessment studies the impact of ephemeral change, from one year to the next. Therefore it is not surprising, given the leap upwards in food prices, that there are food poverty line deficits in many livelihood zones, especially among the unfortunate few households that lack access to any substantial social grants.

The analysis converts all production (including that which is consumed directly) into a cash equivalent, based on what it would cost to have purchased the items that are produced and consumed directly, and then adding the cash values together over a whole year to obtain an annual total income.

Figures 13 and 14 show the annual total incomes for Okhahlamba open-access intense crops and livestock livelihood zone (ZAKHC, 59208) in the drought hazard-affected areas where households do and do not receive social grants. All four wealth groups are shown in the graphs, which include the baseline and the forecast year; the four bars on the left representing each wealth group in the baseline

situation and the four bars on the right representing the same for the forecast situation. It is important to note three features with these graphs:

- The wealth groups are broken down by different percentages (the better-off are fewest in number)—the bars do **not** represent quartiles;
- Income values and expenditure thresholds have been normalised to a common household size;
- Income values and expenditure thresholds have been normalised to today's Food Poverty Line cost. This means that the FPL in the baseline is set the same as that of the current forecast year and thus stable incomes, such as from full-time employment, will appear diminished because of reduced purchasing power. Based on their relative cost, the LBPL and UBPL lines may be higher or lower than in the baseline.

Figure 13: Livelihood strategies for the **drought hazard-affected** Okhahlamba open-access intense crops and livestock livelihood zone (ZAKHC, 59208), **with** social grants

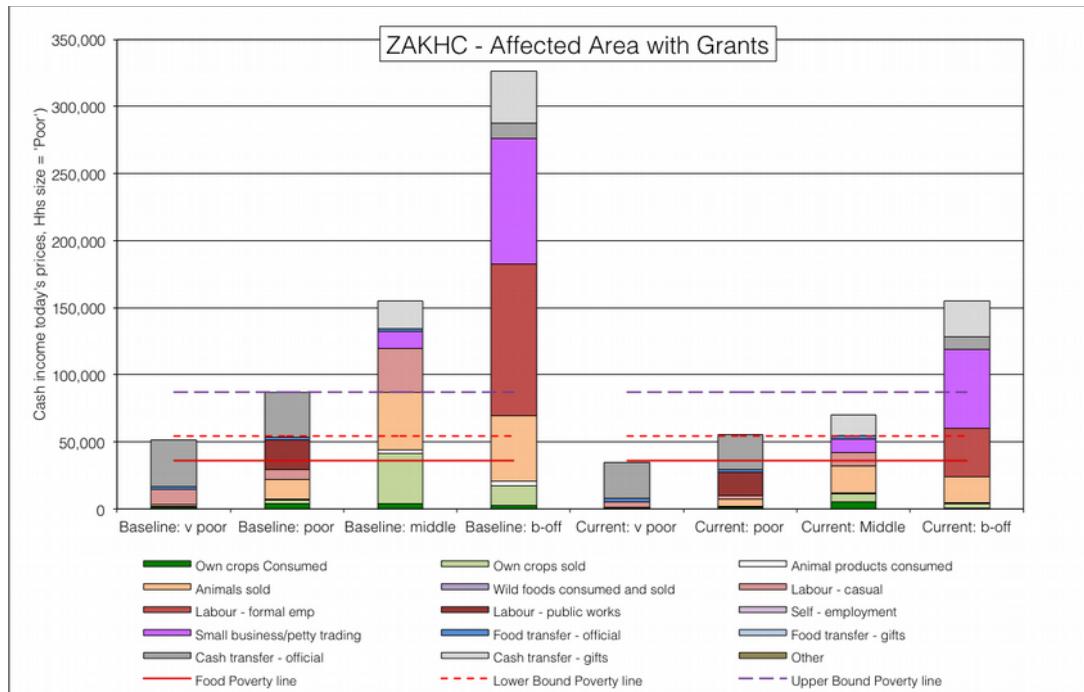
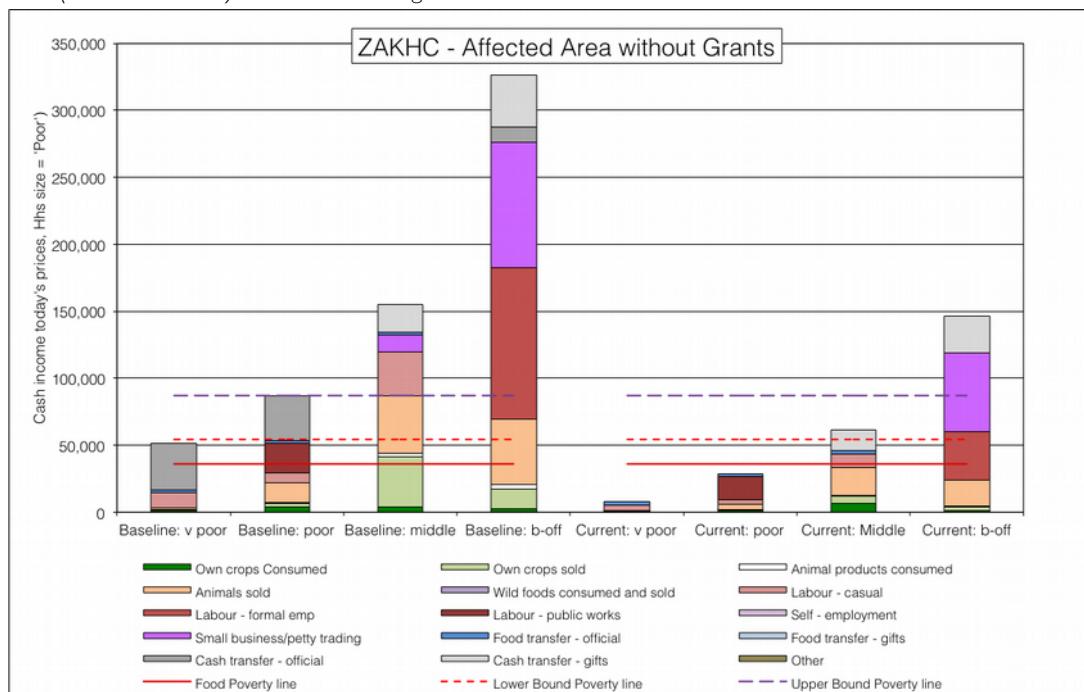


Figure 14: Livelihood strategies for the **drought hazard-affected** Okhahlamba open-access intense crops and livestock livelihood zone (ZAKHC, 59208), **without** social grants



Contrast the drought situation with the non-drought affected analyses for these two groups:

Figure 15: Livelihood strategies for the **non-affected** Okhahlamba open-access intense crops and livestock livelihood zone (ZAKHC, 59208), **with** social grants

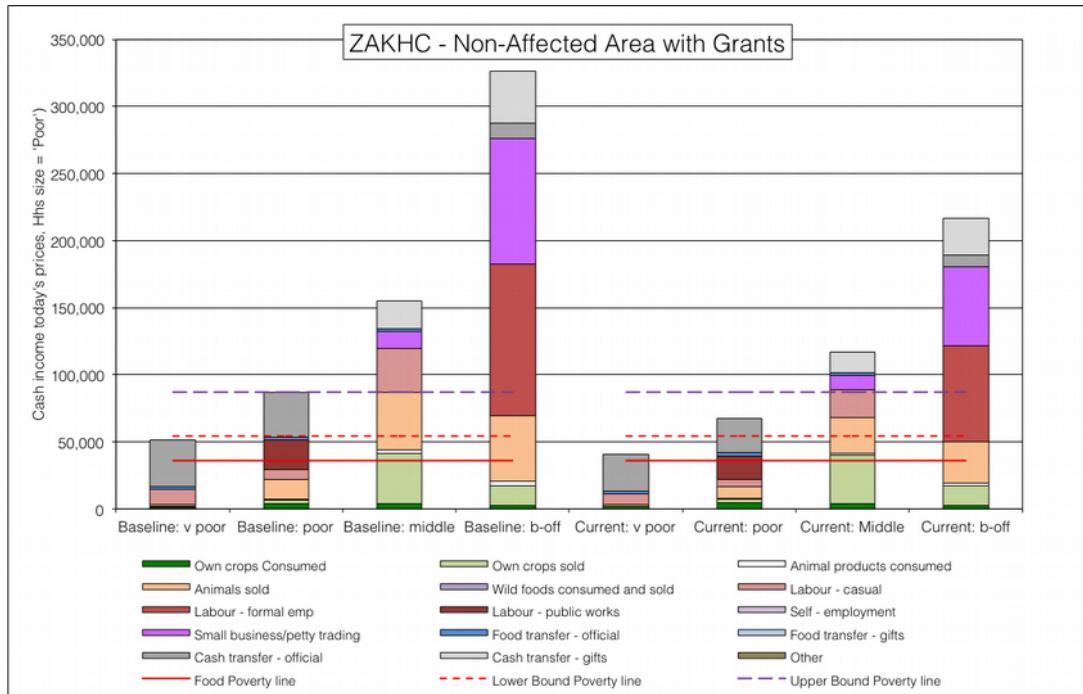


Figure 16: Livelihood strategies for the **non-affected** Okhahlamba open-access intense crops and livestock livelihood zone (ZAKHC, 59208), **without** social grants

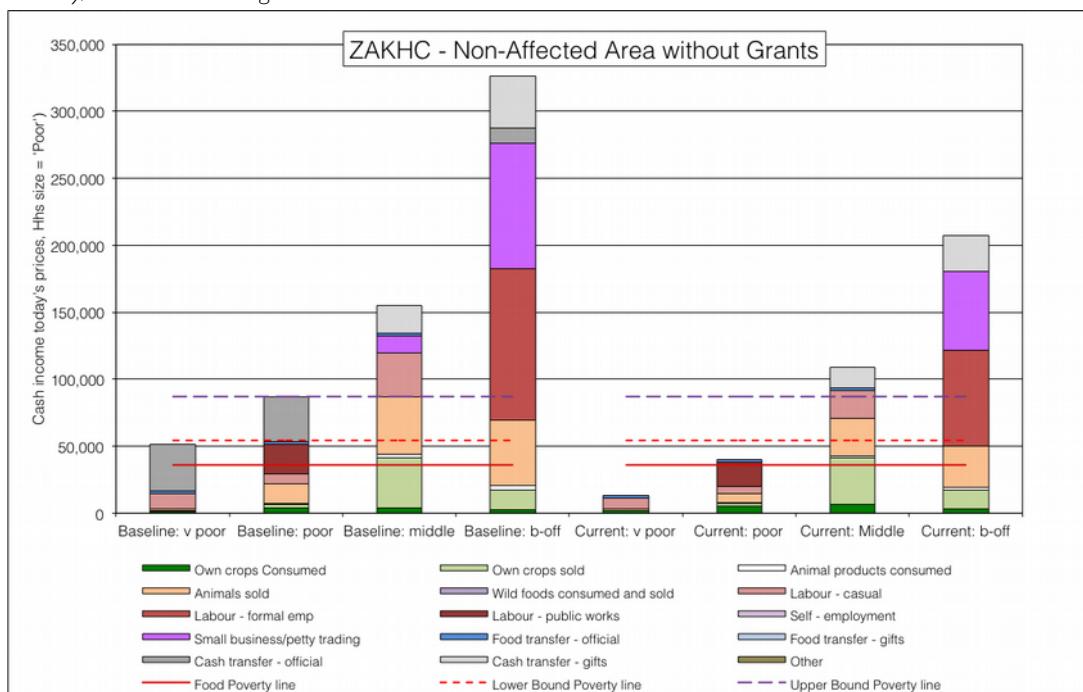


Table 4 - Summary of annual deficits in Rands for Okhahlamba open-access intense crops and livestock LZ (ZAKHC, 59208)

Poverty line	Hazard	Very Poor		Poor		Middle		Better-off	
		Grants	No Grants	Grants	No Grants	Grants	No Grants	Grants	No Grants
UBPL	No Drought	46,248	73,516	19,320	47,033	No deficit	No deficit	No deficit	No deficit
	Drought	52,175	79,443	31,426	58,187	17,218	25,852	No deficit	No deficit
LBPL	No Drought	13,510	40,778	No deficit	14,295	No deficit	No deficit	No deficit	No deficit
	Drought	19,437	46,705	No deficit	25,449	No deficit	No deficit	No deficit	No deficit
FPL	No Drought	No deficit	22,395	No deficit					
	Drought	1,054	28,322	No deficit	7,066	No deficit	No deficit	No deficit	No deficit

The substantial difference is with the ‘middle’ wealth group, who lost their production the drought hazard-affected area: their total incomes thus fall below the UBPL. **Table 4** summarise these deficits and the patterns can be seen there.

The north coast of KwaZulu-Natal was badly affected by the drought. The plains north of Empangeni up to Mkuze contain good agricultural land that is extensively cropped and constitute the North coast open access intense cultivation livelihood zone (ZANCC, 50304). The situation for drought hazard-affected areas with and without grants are given in **Figures 17 and 18** below.

Figure 17: Livelihood strategies for the **drought hazard-affected** north coast open access intense cultivation livelihood zone (ZANCC, 59304), **with** social grants

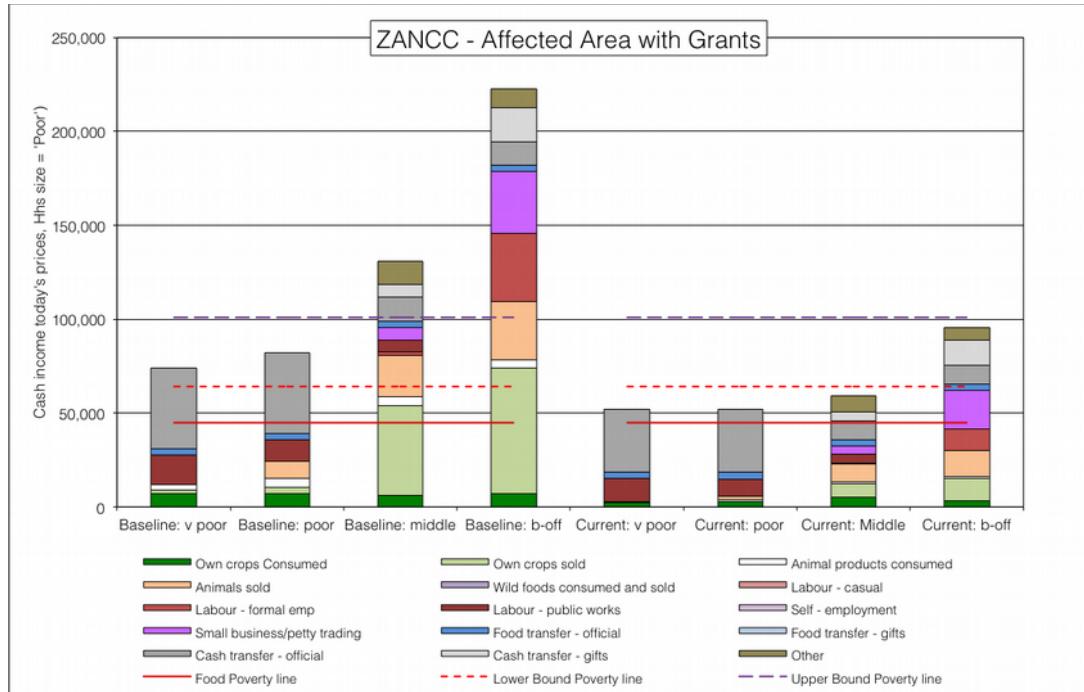
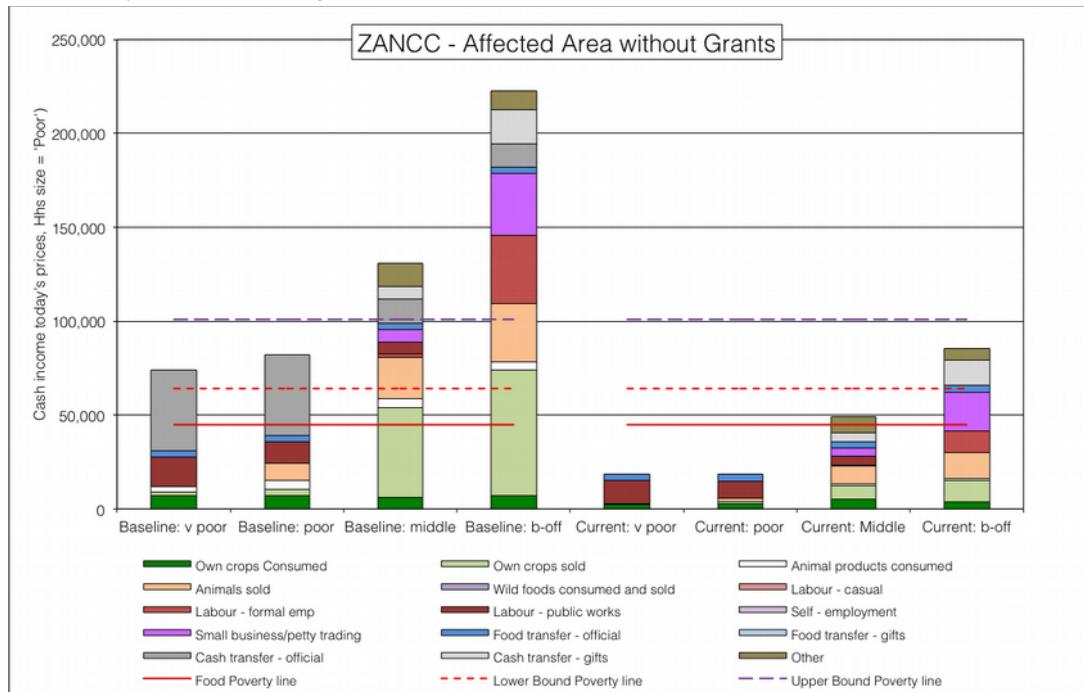


Figure 18: Livelihood strategies for the **drought hazard-affected** north coast open access intense cultivation livelihood zone (ZANCC, 59304), **without** social grants



Notice how, even with the impact of the drought—which is important in this crop-growing livelihood—the poorest households can still manage to reach the food poverty line, provided they are receiving at least some social grants. However, for the households of the unlucky few that don’t receive grants, the

situation is dire. Their effective income falls to critically low levels. Another point is that both the ‘middle’ and ‘better-off’ households are farmers in this zone; this makes them vulnerable to the drought, which has pulled them both down below the UBPL. Essentially, whole communities are being impoverished by the drought.

Figure 19 and **20** show the same graphs for households in the non-drought affected part of the livelihood zone. Income from crops remains good, although declining purchasing power due to high food prices reduces incomes across the board somewhat.

Figure 19: Livelihood strategies for the **non-affected** north coast open access intense cultivation livelihood zone (ZANCC, 59304), **with** social grants

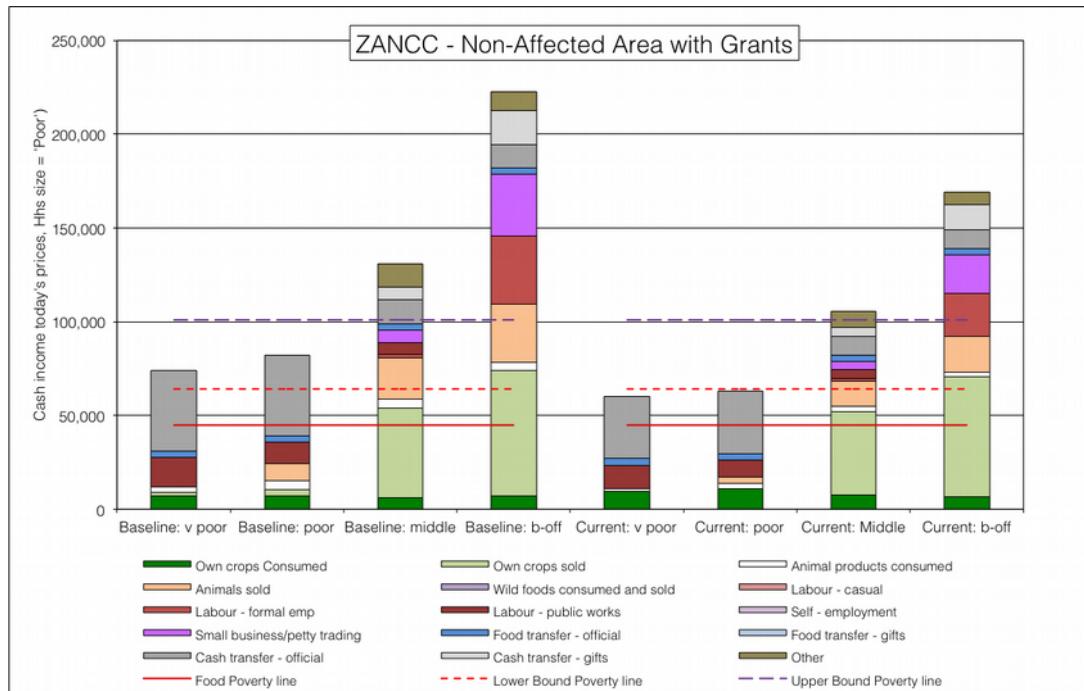
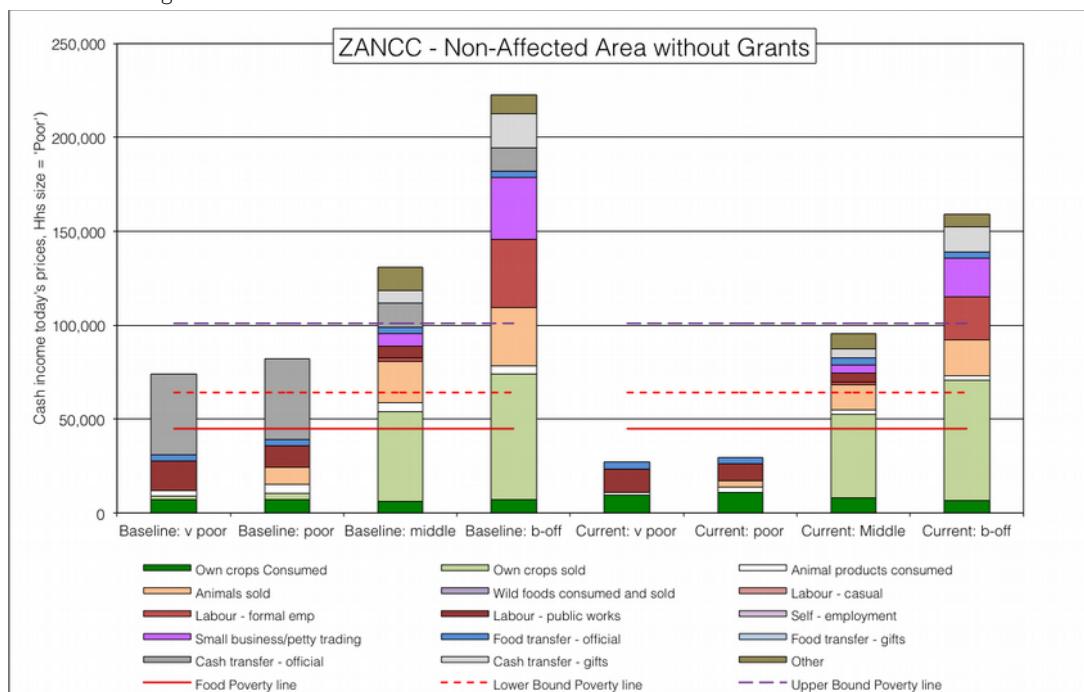


Figure 20: Livelihood strategies for the **non-affected** north coast open access intense cultivation livelihood zone (ZANCC, 59304), **without** social grants



Once again, the poorest households without grants are in a critical state, well below the food poverty line, regardless of whether they are in the drought-affected area or not. **Table 5** lists the deficits for this livelihood zone.

Table 5 - Summary of annual deficits in Rands for north coast open access intense cultivation LZ (ZANCC, 59304)

Poverty line	Hazard	Very Poor		Poor		Middle		Better-off	
		Grants	No Grants	Grants	No Grants	Grants	No Grants	Grants	No Grants
UBPL	No Drought	40,573	73,990	37,867	71,284	No deficit	5,257	No deficit	No deficit
	Drought	48,754	82,172	49,019	82,436	41,740	51,793	5,578	15,445
LBPL	No Drought	3,743	37,160	1,036	34,454	No deficit	No deficit	No deficit	No deficit
	Drought	11,924	45,341	12,188	45,606	4,910	14,963	No deficit	No deficit
FPL	No Drought	No deficit	17,895	No deficit	15,189	No deficit	No deficit	No deficit	No deficit
	Drought	No deficit	26,077	No deficit	26,341	No deficit	No deficit	No deficit	No deficit

A similar pattern appears for the Free State open access cattle and crops, another livelihood zone that experienced the worst of the drought this year. Incomes for ‘middle’ and ‘better-off’ households almost halved, while social grants remained the mainstay of the ‘poor’ and ‘very poor’.

Figure 21: Livelihood strategies for the **drought hazard-affected** Free State open access cattle and crops livelihood zone (ZAOCC, 59209), **with** social grants

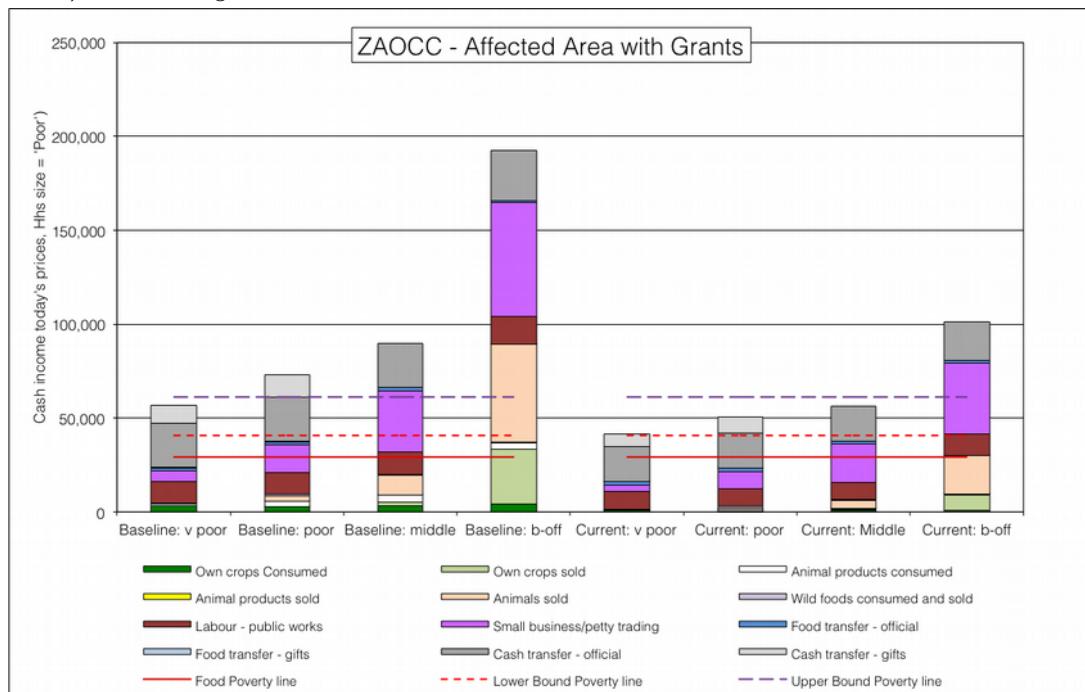


Table 6 - Summary of annual deficits in Rands for Free State open access cattle and crops LZ (ZAOCC, 59304)

Poverty line	Hazard	Very Poor		Poor		Middle		Better-off	
		Grants	No Grants	Grants	No Grants	Grants	No Grants	Grants	No Grants
UBPL	No Drought	16,887	34,279	6,656	24,273	No deficit	15,444	No deficit	No deficit
	Drought	19,879	37,515	10,475	28,107	4,762	24,205	No deficit	No deficit
LBPL	No Drought	No deficit	13,818	No deficit	3,812	No deficit	No deficit	No deficit	No deficit
	Drought	No deficit	17,054	No deficit	7,646	No deficit	3,744	No deficit	No deficit
FPL	No Drought	No deficit	2,329	No deficit					
	Drought	No deficit	5,565	No deficit					

Figure 22: Livelihood strategies for the **drought hazard-affected** Free State open access cattle and crops livelihood zone (ZAOCC, 59209), **without** social grants

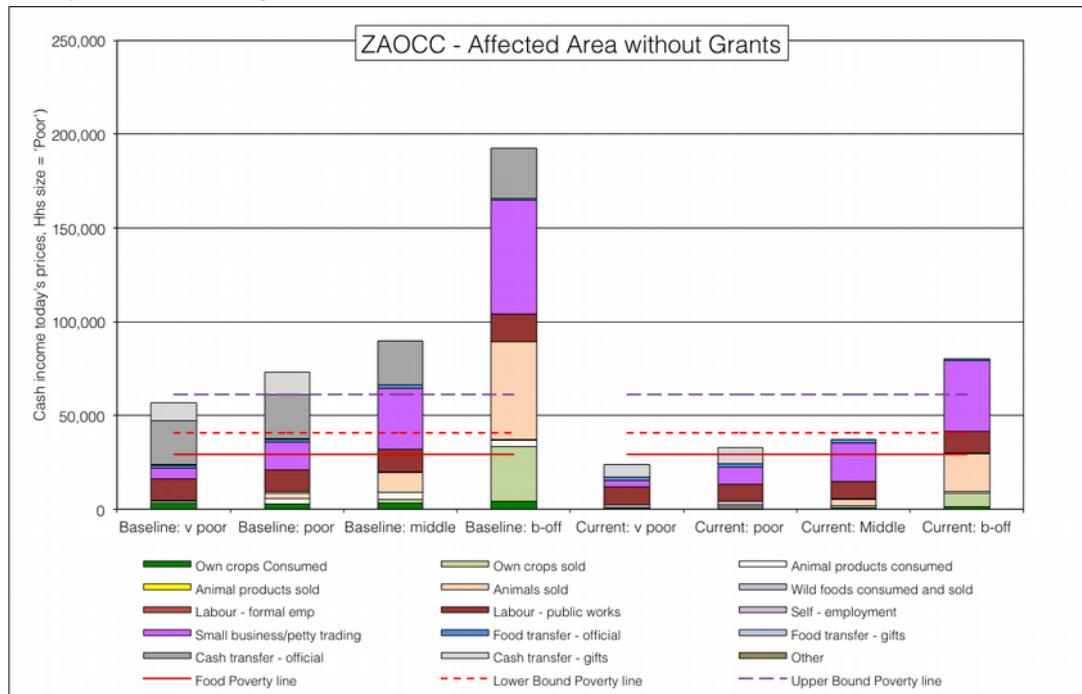


Figure 23: Livelihood strategies for the **non-affected** Free State open access cattle and crops livelihood zone (ZAOCC, 59209), **with** social grants

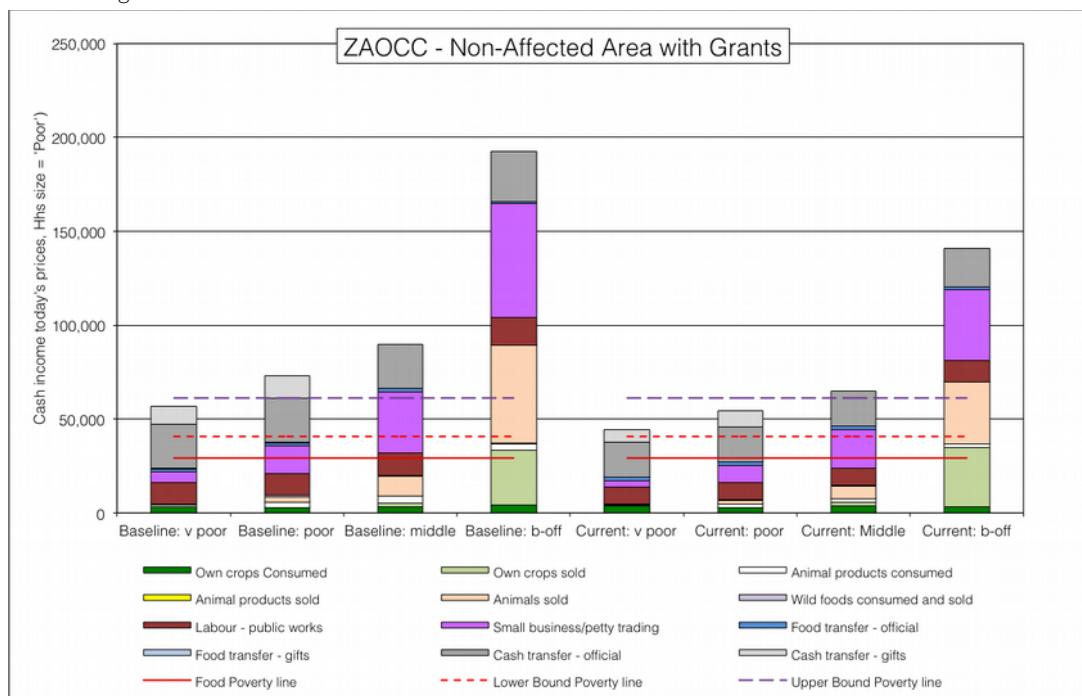


Figure 24: Livelihood strategies for the **non-affected** Free State open access cattle and crops livelihood zone (ZAOCC, 59209), **without** social grants

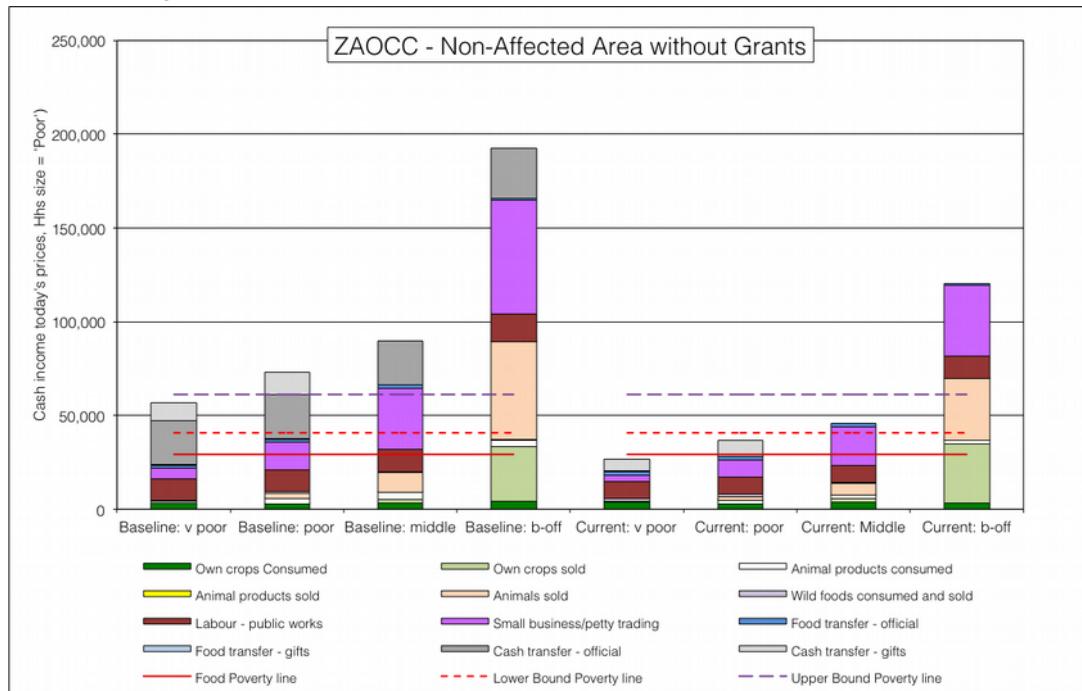


Figure 25: Livelihood strategies for the **drought hazard-affected** southern Limpopo open access livestock and crops livelihood zone (ZASLC, 59203), **with** social grants

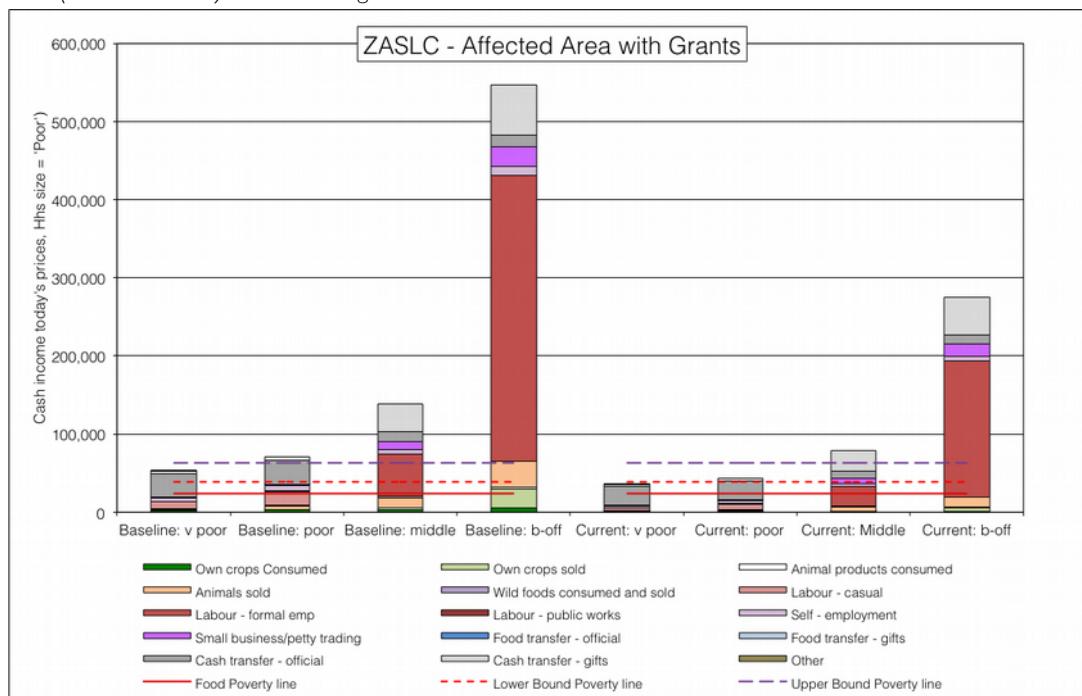


Figure 26: Livelihood strategies for the **drought hazard-affected** southern Limpopo open access livestock and crops livelihood zone (ZASLC, 59203), **without** social grants

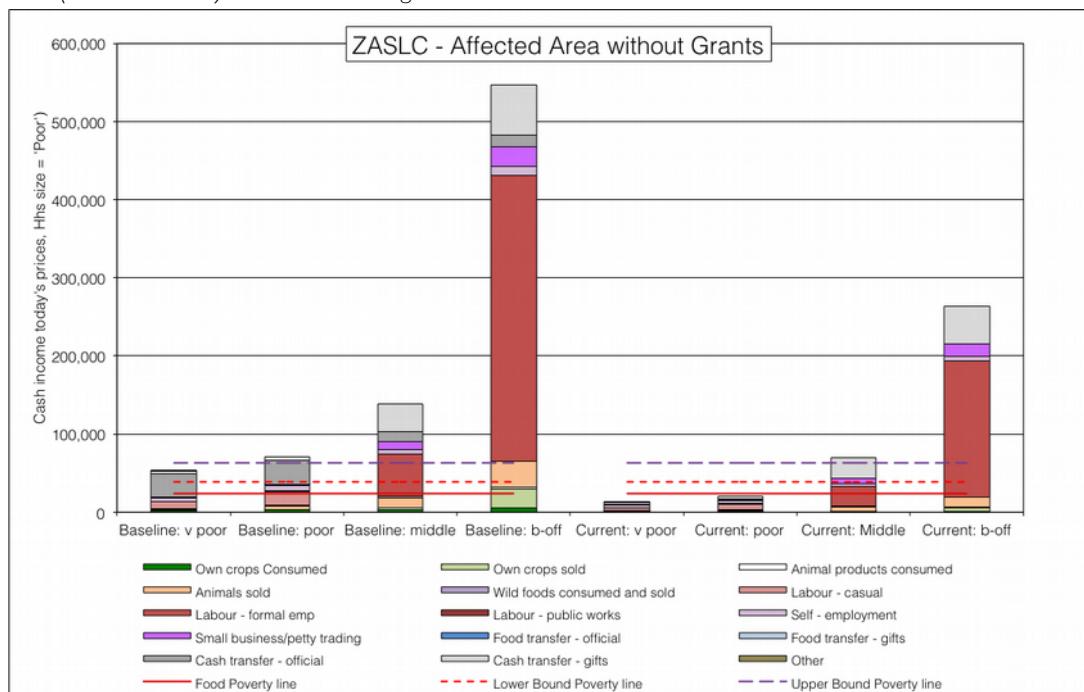


Figure 27: Livelihood strategies for the **non-affected** southern Limpopo open access livestock and crops livelihood zone (ZASLC, 59203), **with** social grants

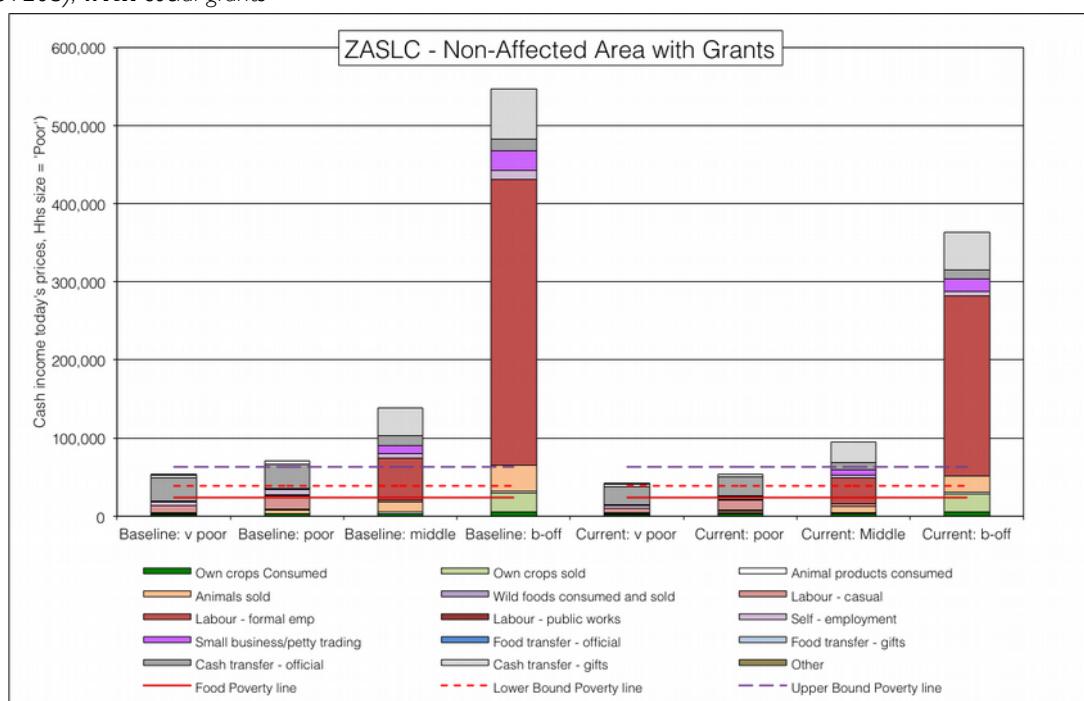
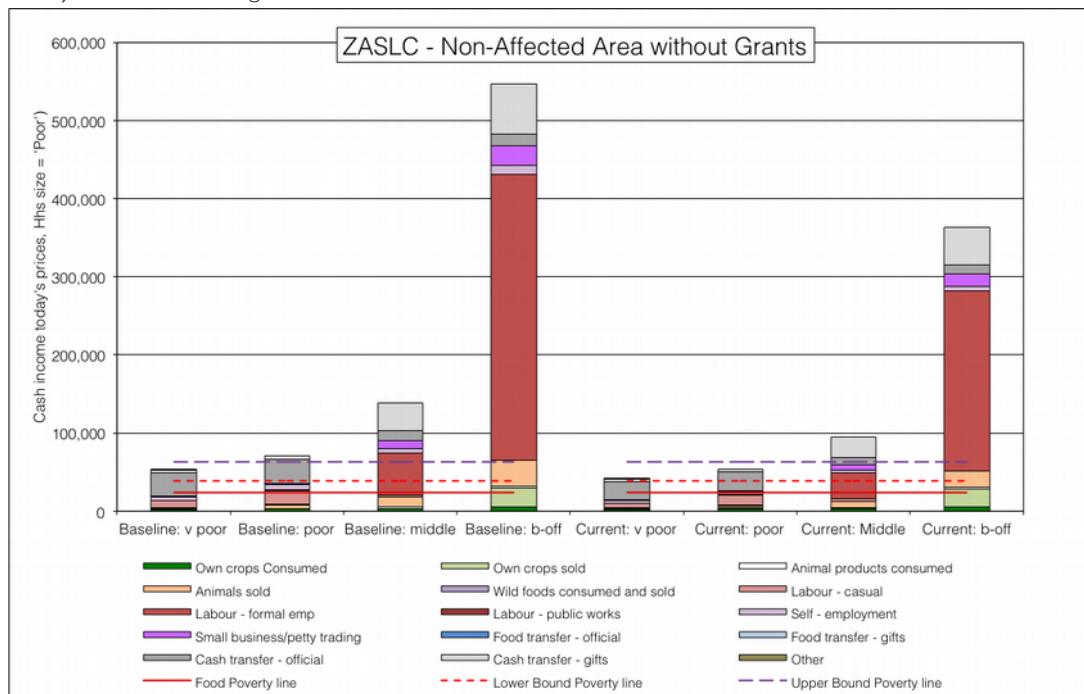


Figure 28: Livelihood strategies for the **non-affected** southern Limpopo open access livestock and crops livelihood zone (ZASLC, 59203), **without** social grants



Collecting all the outcomes (Step 31)

The number of affected people was calculated using small area and enumeration area data for the respective areas for the 2008 Statistics South Africa Population and Household Census.

The results were then pooled together and a report was drafted.

The affected and unaffected populations for the four livelihood zones under study are calculated by overlaying the Small Area Layer from Statistics SAs Census data onto the affected areas in Figure 6. The SAVAC has attributed each Small Area to its livelihood zone, so the spatial query performs four drought groupings:

- 1) Small Areas that are entirely within the affected area are classified affected and are assigned a value of 1.
- 2) Small Areas that straddle an affected area boundary and have more than 50% of their area overlapping it are classified affected and assigned a value of 1.
- 3) Small Areas that straddle an affected area boundary but have less than 50% of their area overlapping it are classified unaffected and assigned a value of 0.
- 4) Small Areas that lie entirely outside the affected area are classified unaffected and are assigned a value of 0.

It is then a simple matter to sum the populations in the Small Areas by their constituent administrative areas (such as Municipality, District) and by livelihood zone. A pivot table is the simplest way to achieve this cross-tabulation. This is presented overleaf in Table I.

Public Works Programme

The number of people employed through this program is almost the same as the baseline year. The wages obtained by households involved in this program slightly increased by less than 3 per cent.

Staple Food Purchase Price Changes

Analysis of the livelihood zones

Southern Limpopo Open Access Cattle and Crops livelihood zone (ZASCL)

Table 6 provides a summary of the total incomes for the 'poor' and 'very poor' wealth groups against this year's poverty lines (FPL, LBPL and UBPL). As can be seen in the table, neither wealth group is below either the FPL or the LBPL, whether drought-affected or not. However, the 'very poor' are below the UBPL in both the drought-affected and not affected areas, while the 'poor' are below the UBPL in the drought-affected areas only. It is important to note that both the 'very poor' and 'poor' also suffer a UBPL deficit in the baseline year—without the drought but under today's price regimes, both wealth groups are actually in a better position; it is only those that are in the drought areas that are worse off.

Table 8 - comparison of 'Poor' and 'Very poor' household incomes between baseline, unaffected and drought-affected areas in the Southern Limpopo Open Access Cattle and Crops livelihood zone this year

Measure	Cash equivalent in today's Rands					
	'Very Poor' wealth group			'Poor' wealth group		
	Baseline	Unaffected areas	Affected areas	Baseline	Unaffected areas	Affected areas
TOTAL Income	39,915	39,151	37,643	52,902	55,066	51,125
FOOD POVERTY	18,679	18,679	18,679	18,679	18,679	18,679
Food Poverty Deficit	0	0	0	0	0	0
LOWER BOUND POVERTY	31,957	31,648	31,648	31,957	31,648	31,648
Lower Bound Deficit	0	0	0	0	0	0
UPPER BOUND POVERTY	55,603	54,745	54,745	55,603	54,745	54,745

Upper Bound Deficit	15,688	15,594	17,102	2,701	0	3,620
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Figure 9 is a chart showing the some details of all wealth groups' total income in the *affected part* of the livelihood zone. The chart is based on the cost of the FPL, and normalises all the income as other poverty lines against this; the apparent reduction in incomes actually results from the rise in the cost of the FPL—in purely nominal terms, households' incomes actually rise for the current year (April 2015 to March 2016) when compared with the baseline (April 2013 to March 2014).

High Food Price Scenario

Commercial farmers in South Africa are also facing a production crisis that could result in local supply shortfalls, while the recent slide in the value of the Rand could possibly raise the cost of imports significantly. The 'very poor' and 'poor' households in this zone are very reliant on food purchases, obtaining, respectively, approximately 69% and 63% of their total annual food energy intake from this source. This makes them vulnerable to price increases. For any wealth group to experience a Food Poverty Deficit (and therefore facing starvation) in this livelihood zone, the price of foodstuffs will need to rise by 150% when compared with 2013-2014 levels (the new price would be 2.5 times the baseline). This means that maize, which retailed for approximately R 6.00 a kilogram in 2013-2014, would have to cost R 14.01 currently. For households from any wealth group to fall below the Lower Bound Poverty Line (a measure of dire poverty), the prices of food stuffs will need to rise by 65% when compared with 2013-2014 levels (the new price would be 1.65 times the baseline). This means that maize would cost R 9.28 instead of R 6.00 in the baseline.

High Food Price Scenario

Commercial farmers in South Africa are also facing a production crisis that could result in local supply shortfalls, while the recent slide in the value of the Rand could possibly raise the cost of imports significantly. Households in this zone are vulnerable to price increases and for any wealth group to experience a Food Poverty Deficit (and therefore face starvation) in this livelihood zone, the price of foodstuffs will need to rise by 61% when

compared with 2013-2014 levels (the new price would be 1.61 times the baseline). This means that maize, which retailed for R 5.00 a kilogram in 2013-2014, would have to cost R 8.05 currently.

Summary of Deficits in Livelihood Zones and Administrative Areas

The household deficits in each analysis are combined with population breakdowns for the livelihood zones in each administrative area. The tables overleaf are arranged as a cross-tabulated pivot table: Livelihood zones are in columns and districts or municipalities are in rows. Numbers are only reported if the livelihood zone is experiencing a deficit for at least one wealth group.

Populations below the Lower Bound Poverty Threshold, with the Total Deficits (total of amount below the LBPL)

		lz_name	Data	Lowveld open access irrigated cropping		Northern open access cattle and dryland crops		Southern Limpopo open access cattle and crops		North eastern Limpopo open access farming		Total Total Deficit Pop	Total Total Deficit
District	Municipality	Total Deficit Pop	Total Deficit	Total Deficit Pop	Total Deficit	Total Deficit Pop	Total Deficit	Total Deficit Pop	Total Deficit	Total Deficit Pop	Total Deficit		
Capricorn	TOTAL Aganang Blouberg Lepele-Nkumpi Molemole Polokwane			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Greater Sekhukhune	TOTAL Elias Motsoaledi Ephraim Mogale Fetakgomo Greater Tubatse Makhuduthamaga			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mopani	TOTAL Greater Giyani Greater Letaba Greater Tzaneen Maruleng	11,420	14,673,076	11,420	14,673,076	-	-	-	-	11,420	14,673,076	11,420	14,673,076
Vhembe	TOTAL Makhado Mutale Thulamela	14,542	19,788,974	-	-	-	-	103,239	91,181,310	117,781	110,970,284	29,355	25,505,276
Waterberg	TOTAL Bela-Bela Lephalale Mogalakwena	718	976,950	13,824	18,812,024	-	-	1,656	1,495,256	2,374	2,472,206	72,228	64,180,778
Total Result		25,962	34,462,050	-	-	-	-	103,239	91,181,310	129,201	125,643,360		

Conclusion

In the current year, April 2014 to March 2016, households face problems with the current drought, including reduced food production, reduced opportunities for income, increases in prices of food and increases in prices of other essential household items. This impacts on the poorest households the most.

The 'very poor' households in all zones rely mostly on purchases (an average of 85% of their total annual food energy intake) and this makes them vulnerable to food price increases. The combination of high food and other commodity prices, constrained work opportunities (especially through reduced availability of *both agricultural labour and domestic labour opportunities*), augmented somewhat by poor crop production in April 2015, reduces household capacity to access quality food and a decent standard of living, defined by the Upper Bound Poverty Line. In the North Eastern Open Access Crop Farming and the Lowveld Open Access Irrigated Farming livelihood zones, 'very poor' households are living below the Lower Bound Poverty Line. Although the same outcomes exist in the baseline as well, the *margins of deficit have increased this year*.

Approximately 1,796,300 people are below the Upper Bound Poverty Line and their accumulated poverty gap is R 4.263 billion. Approximately 129,200 people are below the Lower Bound Poverty Line and their accumulated poverty gap is R 125.6 million.

Recommendations

1. Government should consider an assistance package for the 'very poor' households which are likely to miss some of their livelihood entitlements in the coming three months. This could be in the form of scaling up social relief grants to increase household incomes;
2. The Extended Public Works Programme (EPWP) should be targeted to the very poor and poor households so as to increase the available employment slots, hence improving the frequency a household can benefit from the programme in a year;
3. The current SAVAC projections are based on current conditions such as current price of maize meal. An efficient monitoring system especially for the price of maize meal is required to be able to analyse the likely impact of further price increases on household access to food;

4. There is a high potential to increase household incomes through irrigation of vegetable production which is plentiful in the zone especially during the peak season. There is a need for further investigation of this potential medium- to longer-term economic intervention in the area;
5. There is a need to distribute government agricultural inputs in time to ensure timely operation of agricultural activities;
6. Improve access to community micro-financing for job creating opportunities

Appendix A

List of all livelihood zones and codes included in the study

Appendix B

Graphs of the livelihood zones not reported in the text

Coastal open-access non-crop income (ZACNI, 59106)

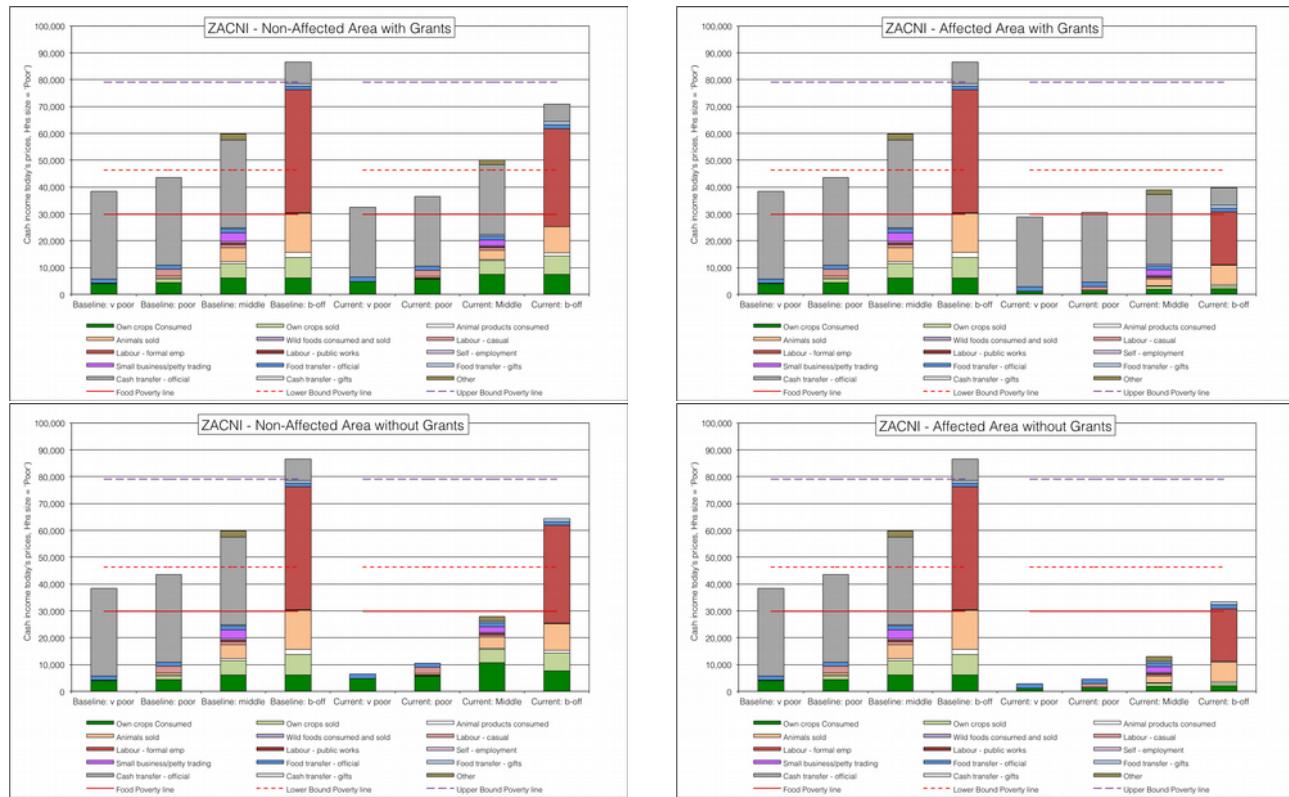


Figure 29: ZACNI livelihoods for each of the four scenarios

North eastern Limpopo open access farming (ZALOF, 59301)

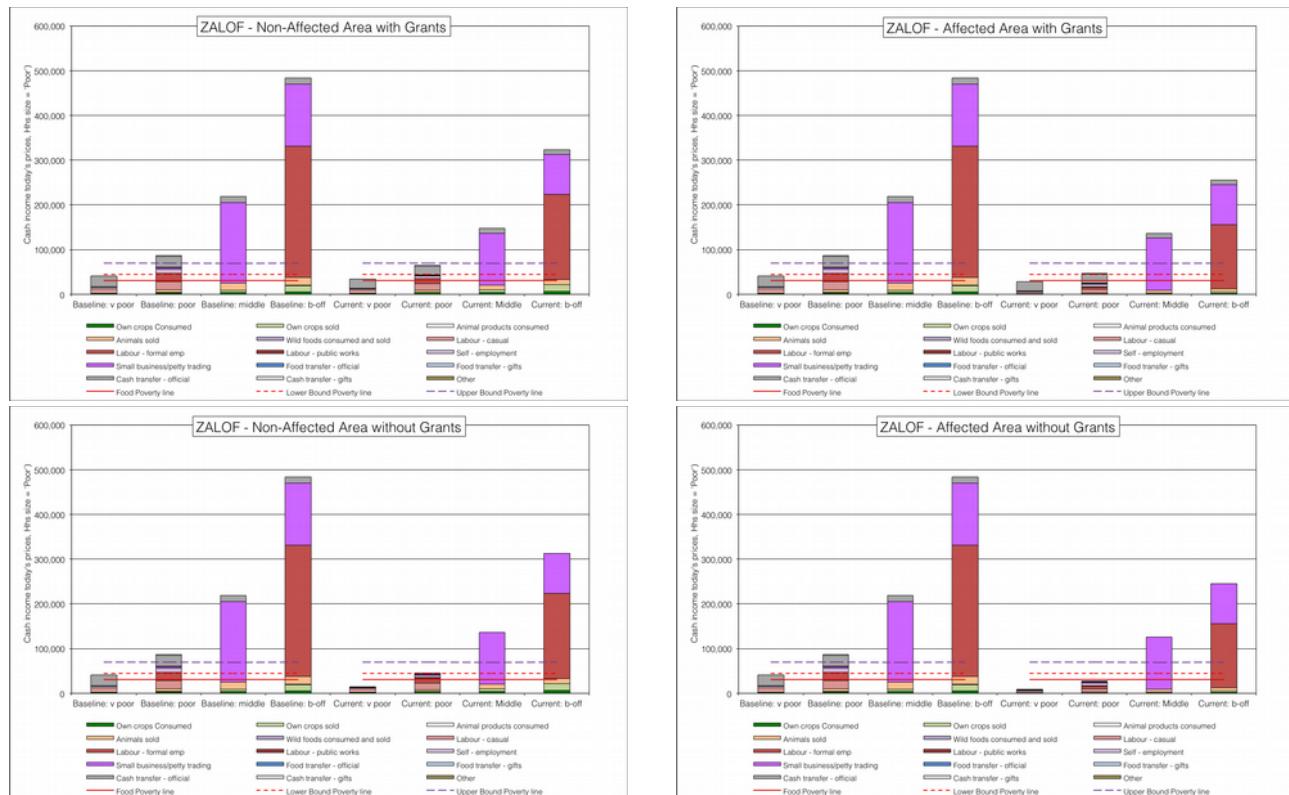


Figure 30: ZALOF livelihoods for each of the four scenarios

Lowveld Open Access Irrigated Cropping Livelihood Zone (ZALOI, 59302)

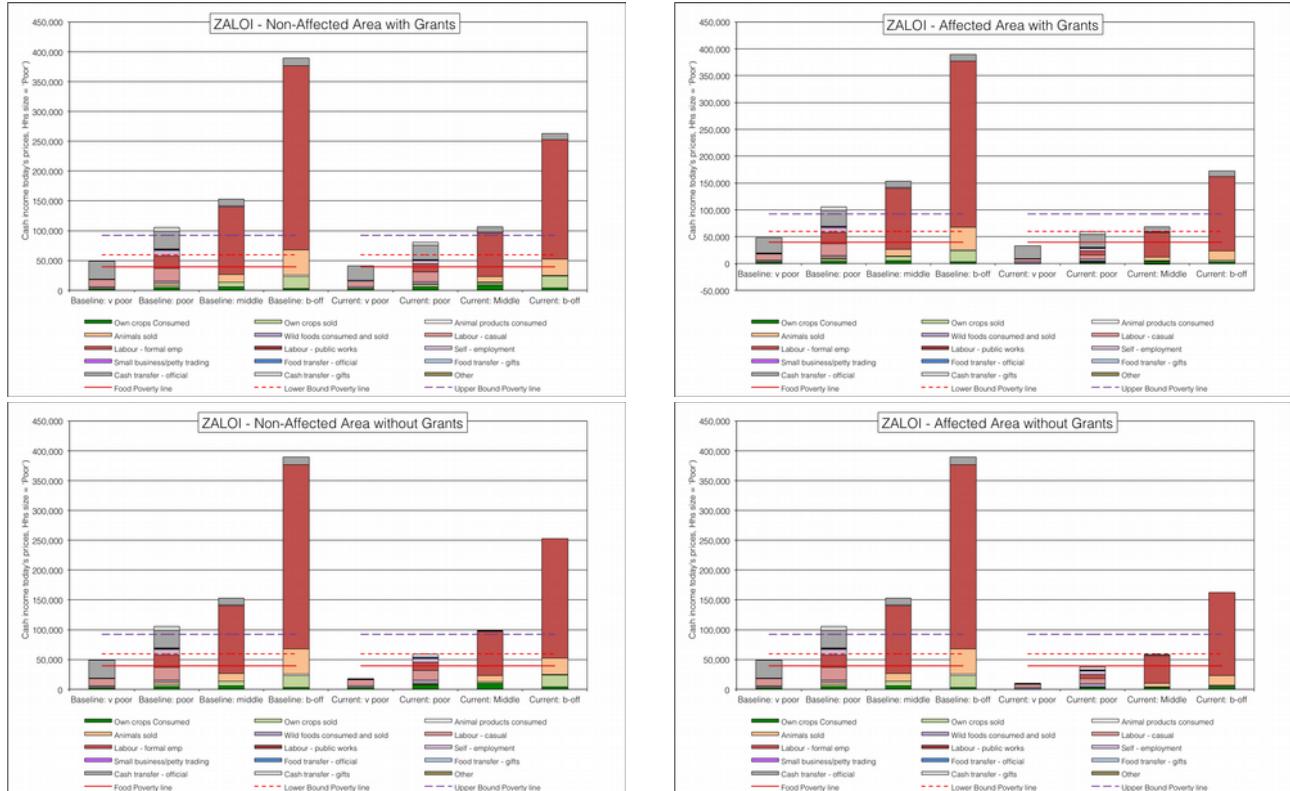


Figure 31: ZALOI livelihoods for each of the four scenarios

Open access low intensity rain fed cultivation (ZALRC, 59206)

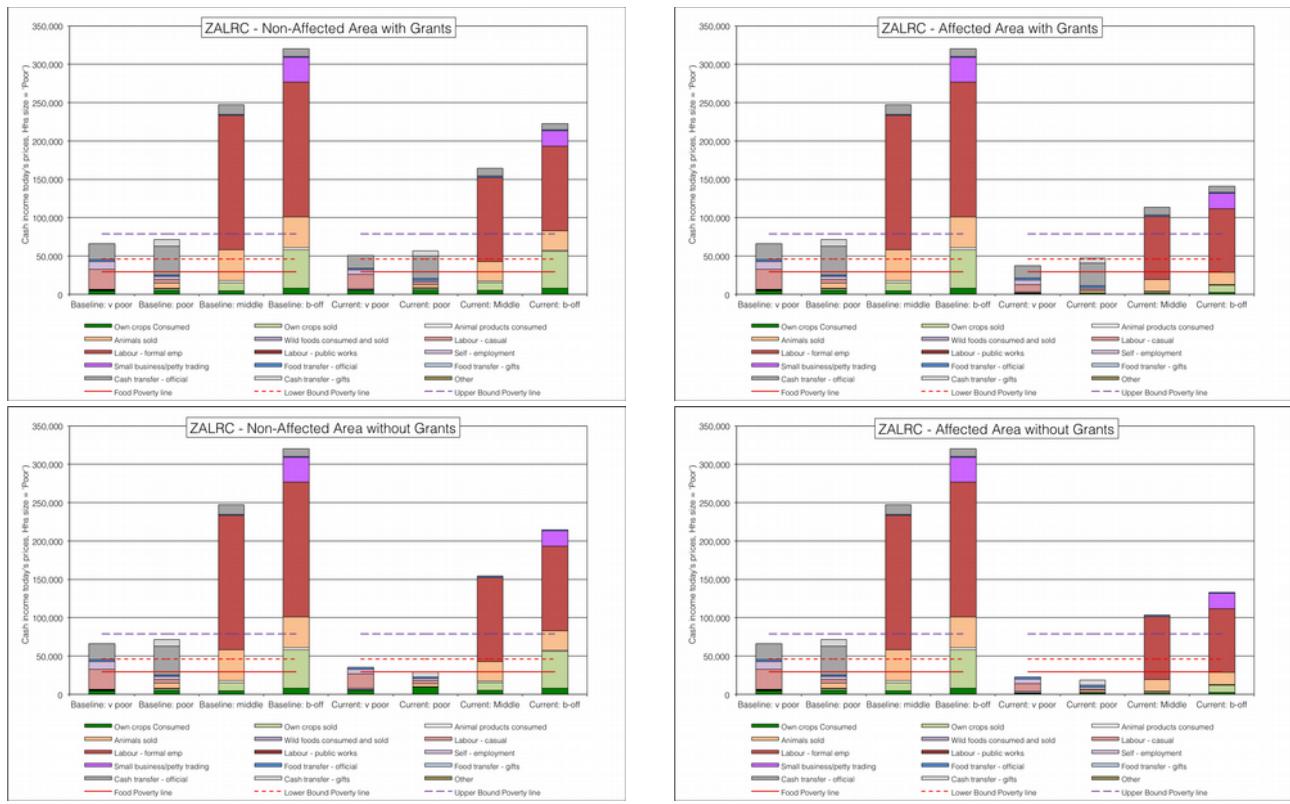


Figure 32: ZALRC livelihoods for each of the four scenarios

Mzimkulu-Mkomazi midlands open access mixed farming (ZAMMO, 59210)

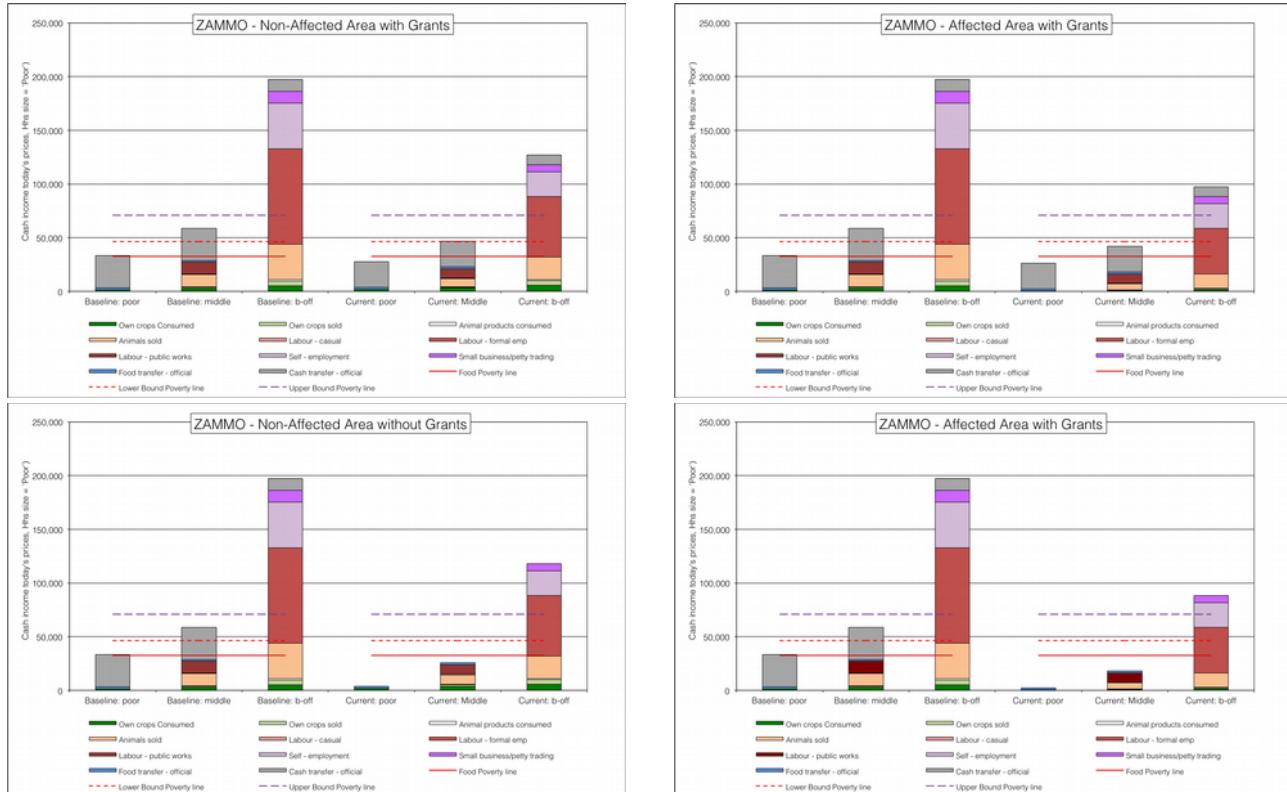


Figure 33: ZAMMO livelihoods for each of the four scenarios

Northern inland open access farming and livestock (ZANFL, 59207)

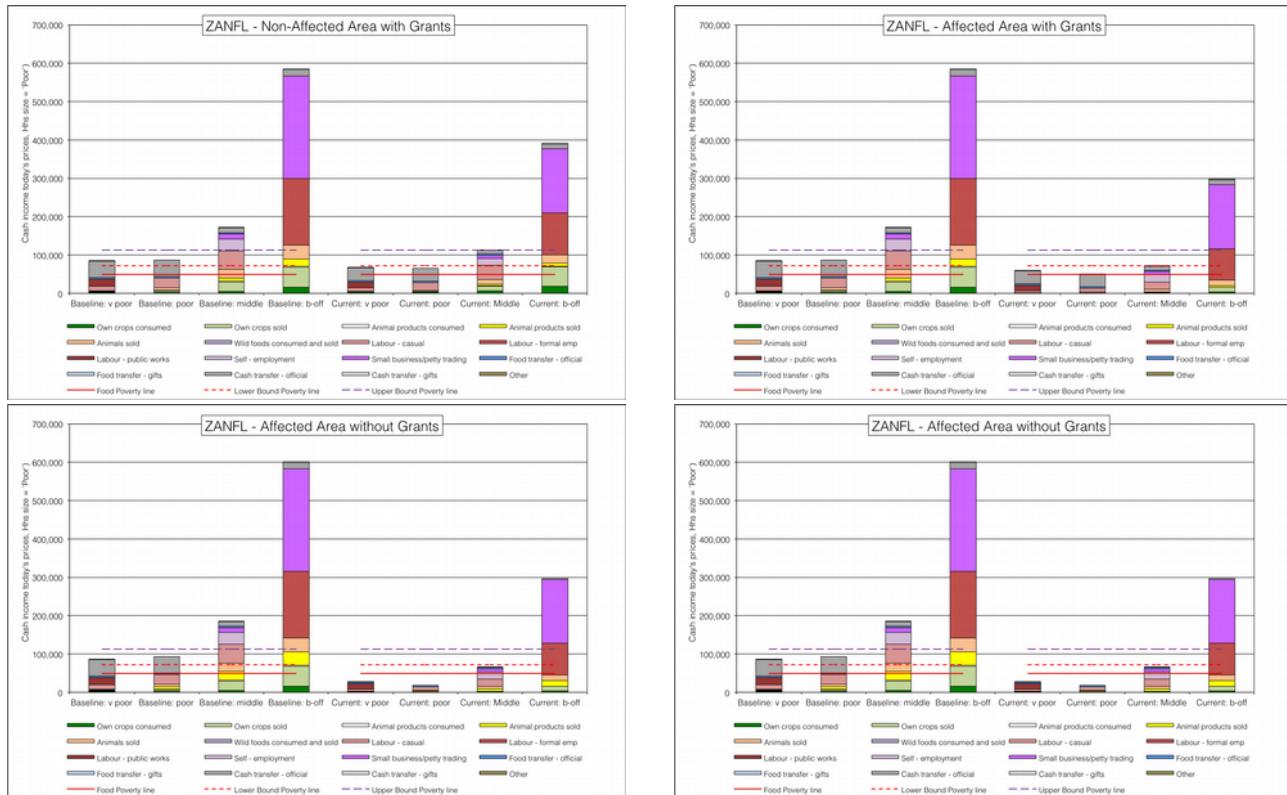


Figure 34: ZANFL livelihoods for each of the four scenarios

Northern open access cattle and dry land crops livelihood zone (ZANOC, 59202)

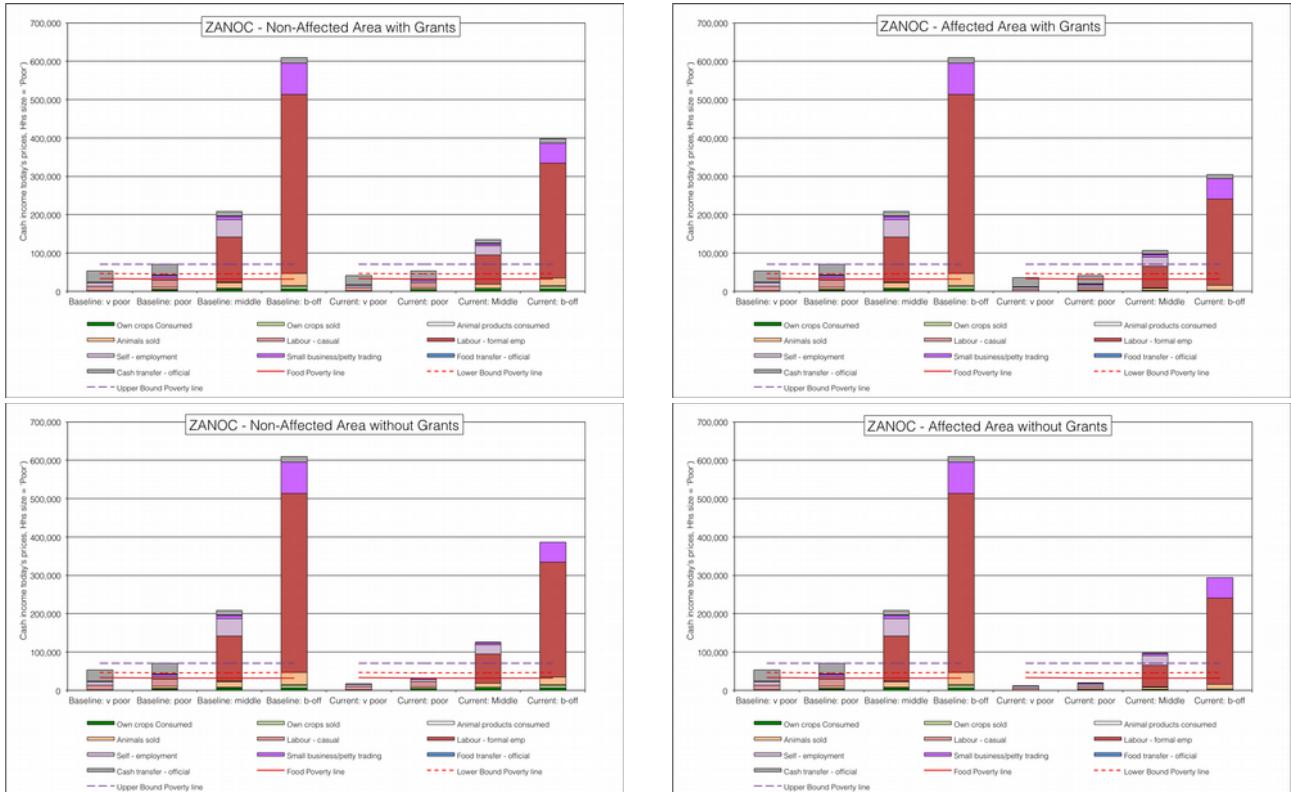


Figure 35: ZANOC livelihoods for each of the four scenarios

Inland open access livestock and other income livelihood zone (ZAOLO, 59107)

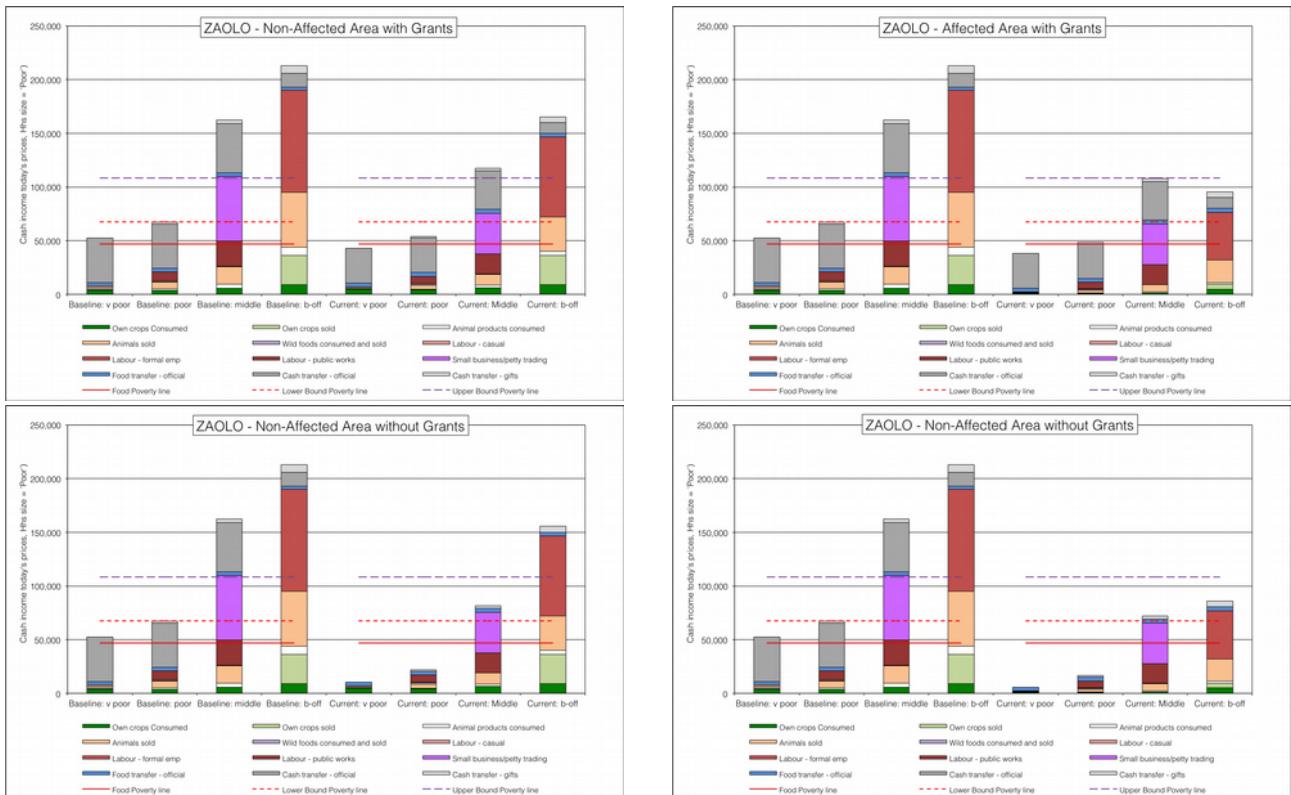


Figure 36: ZAOLO livelihoods for each of the four scenarios

South coast intensive open access cropping (ZASCO, 59305)

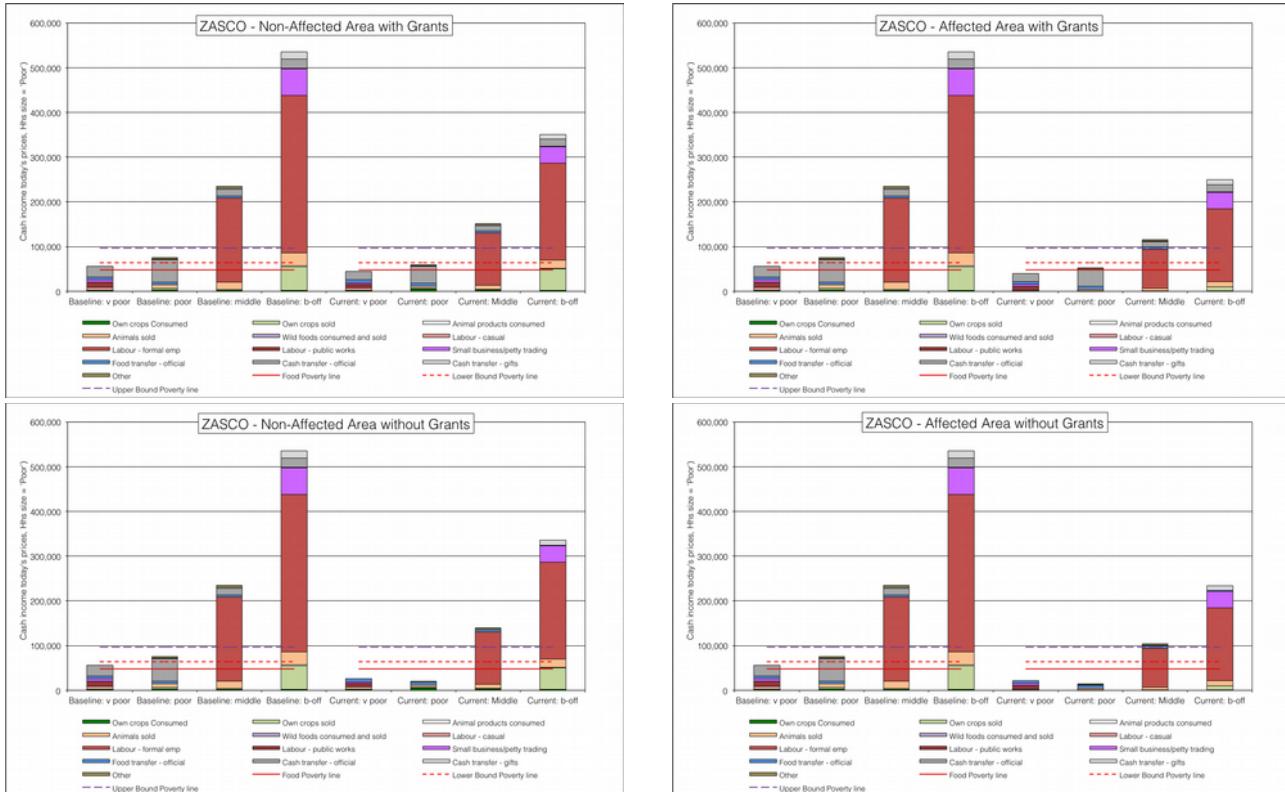


Figure 37: ZASCO livelihoods for each of the four scenarios

Thukela and Lebombo sparsely populated (ZATGL, 59105)

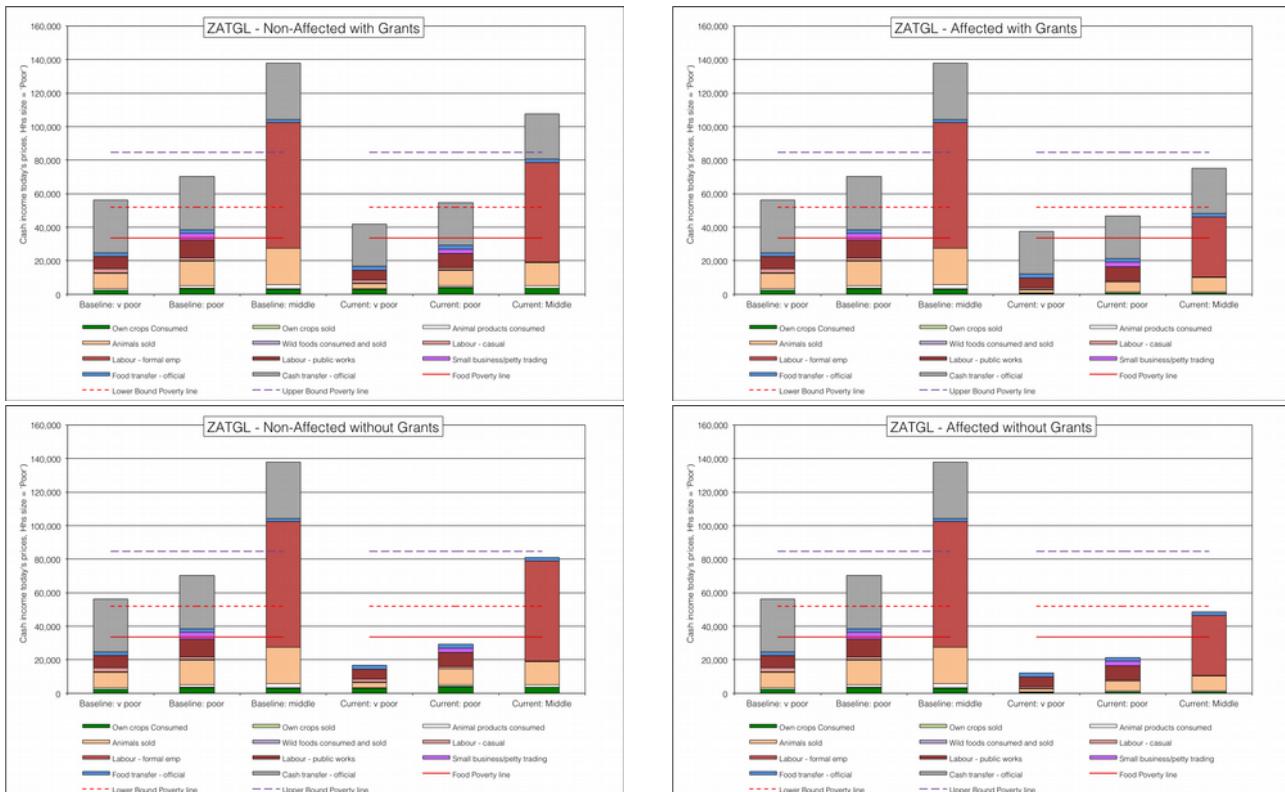


Figure 38: ZATGL livelihoods for each of the four scenarios

Generic livestock-based open access livelihood zones (ZA1XX, 59100)

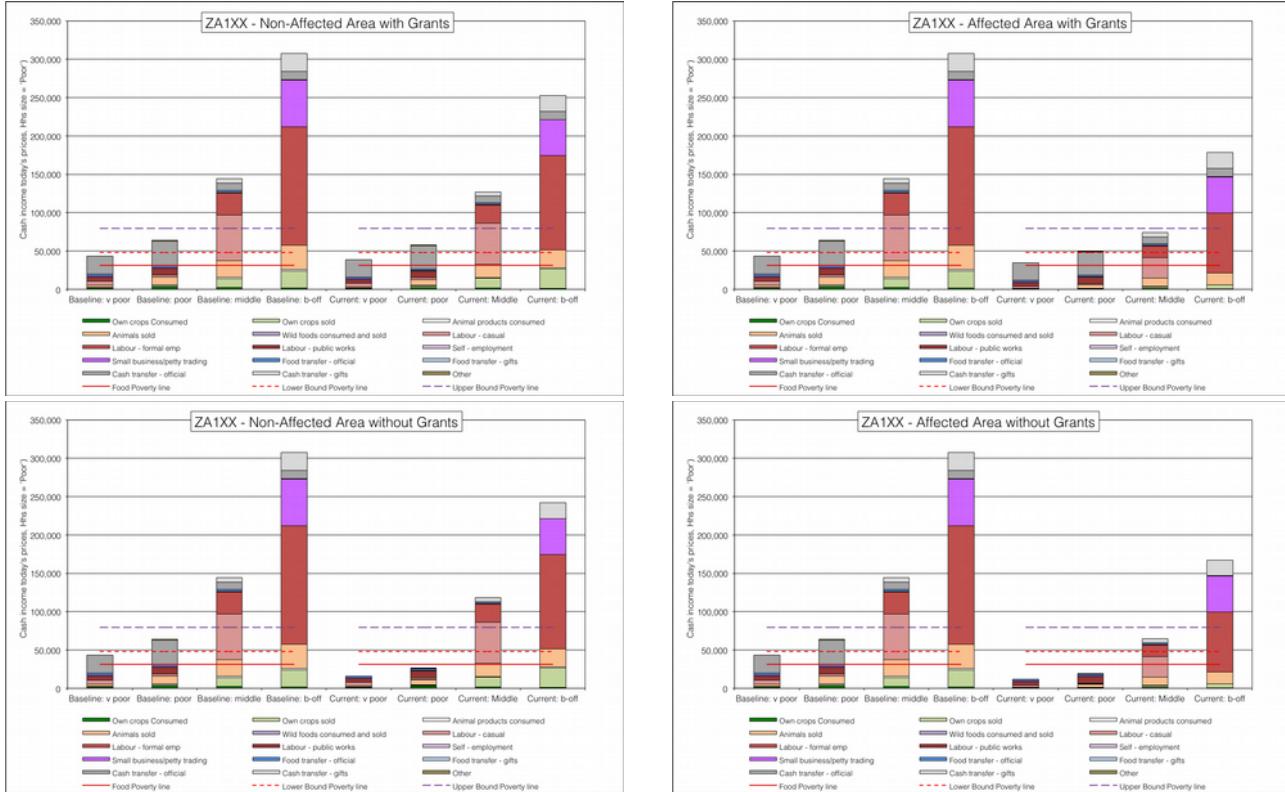


Figure 39: ZA1XX livelihoods for each of the four scenarios

Generic mixed crops- and livestock-based open access livelihood zones (ZA2XX, 59200)

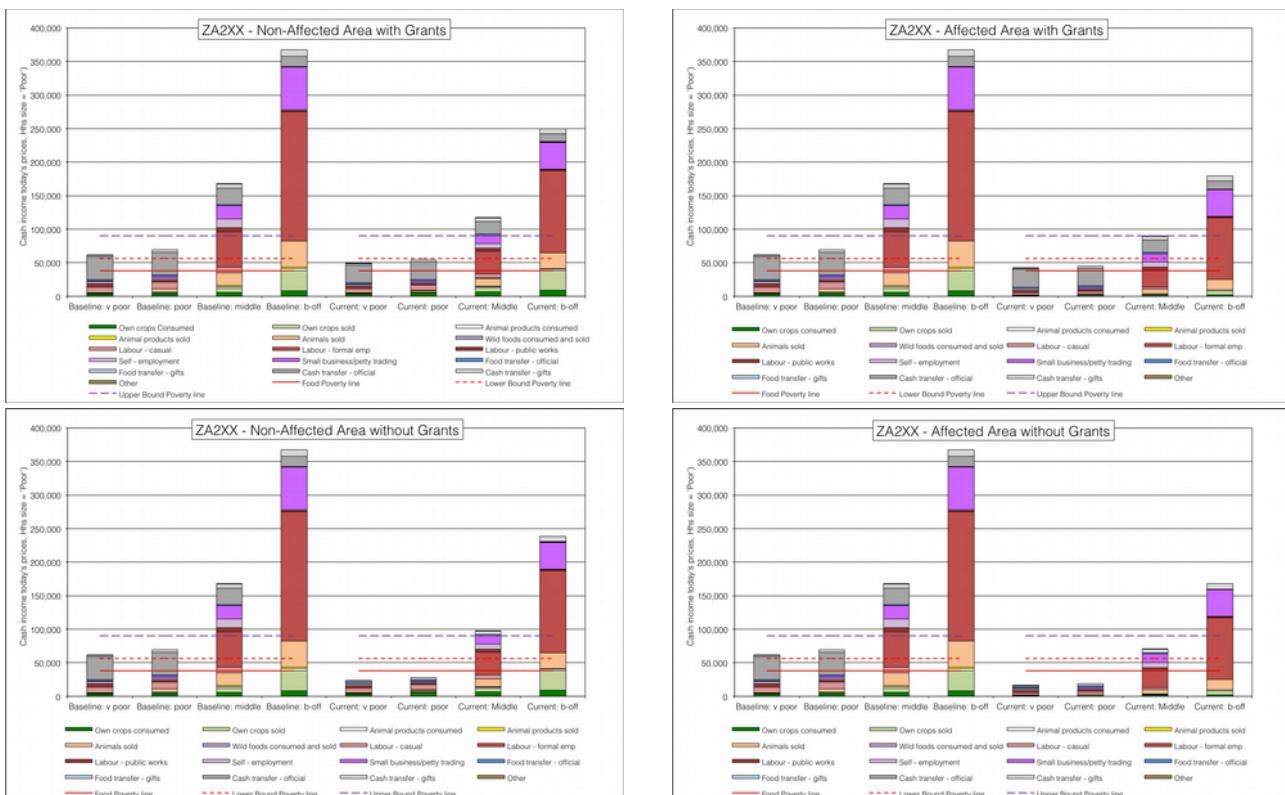


Figure 40: ZA2XX livelihoods for each of the four scenarios

