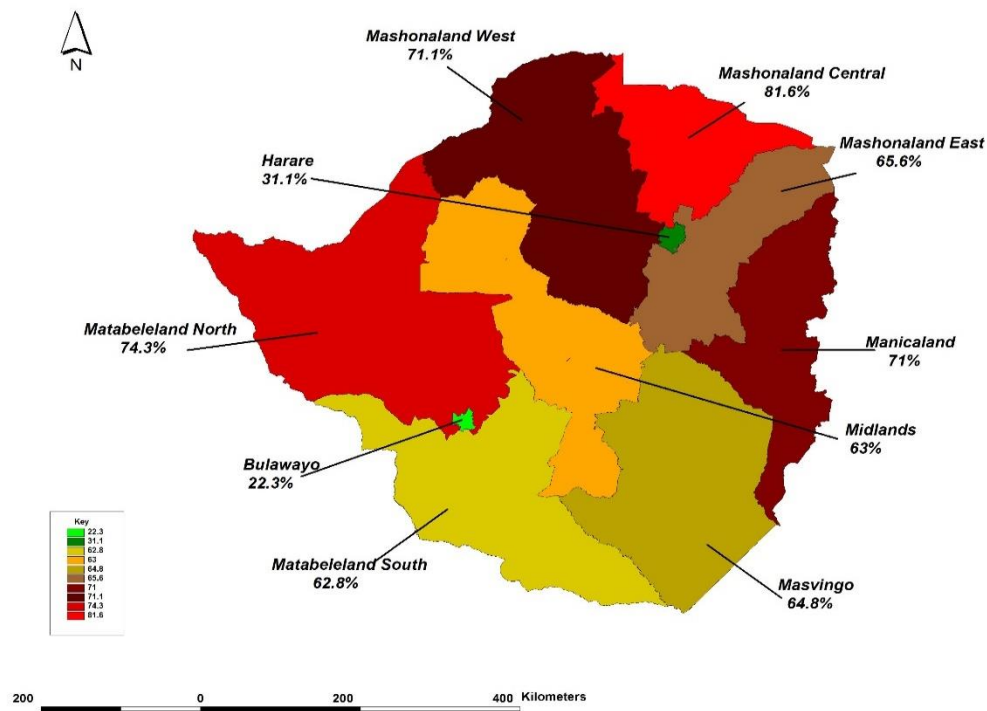# Zimbabwe Poverty Report 2017

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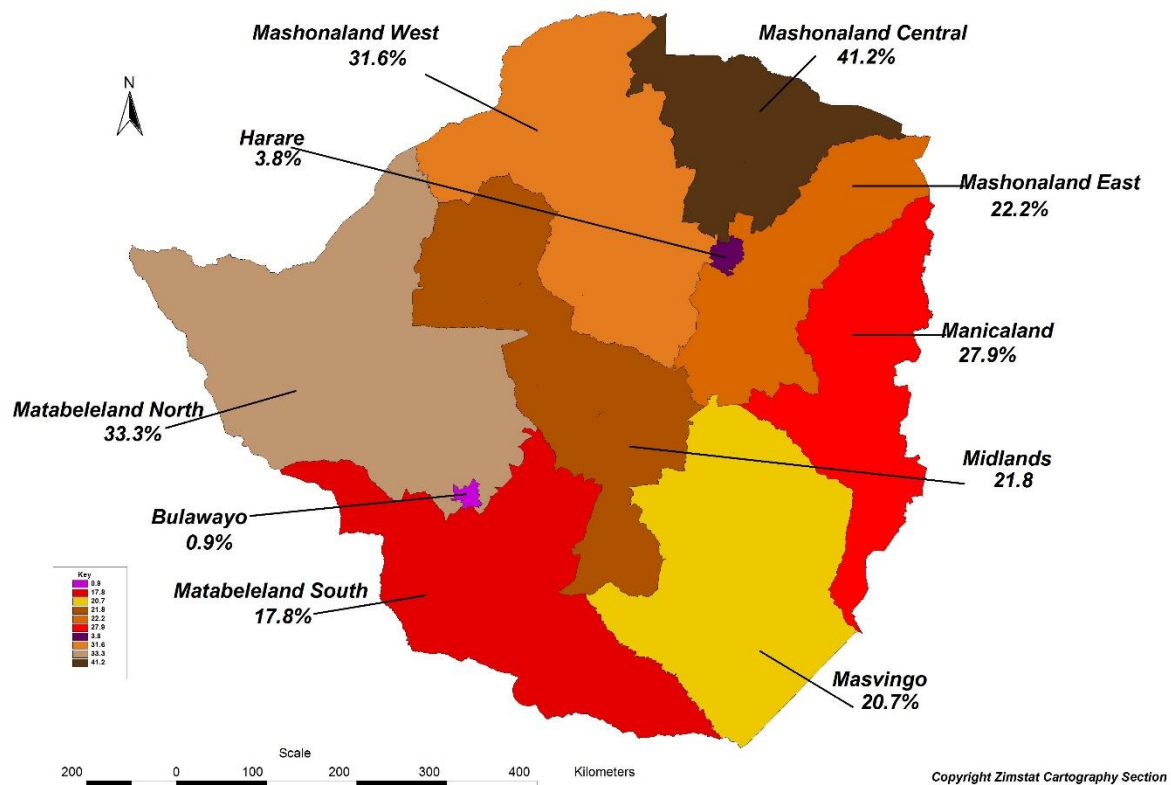
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Map1: Percent Poverty Prevalence by Province for Households in Zimbabwe PICES 2017

Map 2: Percent Extreme Poverty Prevalence by Province for Households in Zimbabwe PICES 2017

Map 3: Percent Extreme P*overty Prevalence by District for Households in Zimbabwe PICES 2017*
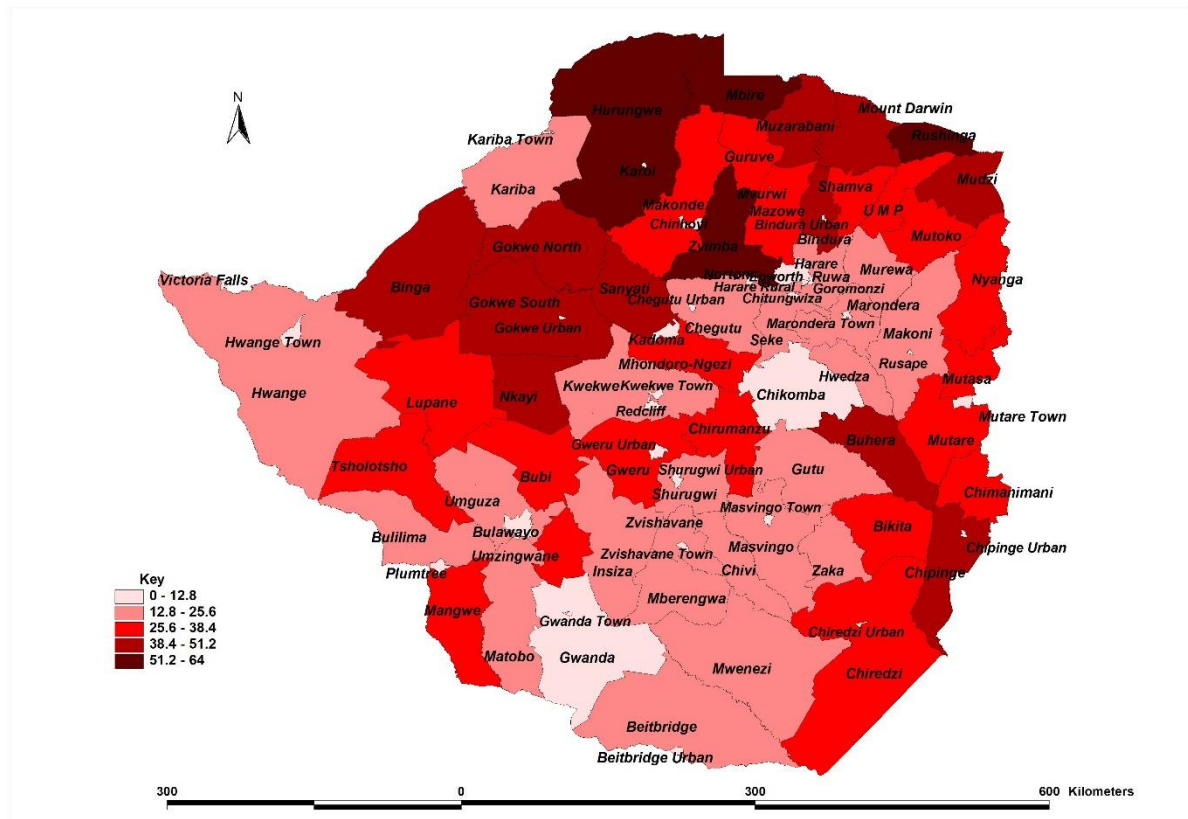
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Acronyms

AfDB	: African Development Bank
AIDS	: Acquired Immuno Deficient Syndrome
ALS	: Agriculture Livestock Survey
BEAM	: Basic Education Assistance Module
CL	: Communal Lands
CMR	: Child Mortality Rate
CPS	: Consumer Price Survey
DFID	: Department for International Development
EAs	: Enumeration Areas
FAO	: Food and Agricultural Organization
FGT	: Foster, Greer and Thorbeckle
FPL	: Food Poverty Line (the lower line)
GDP	: Gross Domestic Product
GDP Per capita	: Gross Domestic Product per Person
GER	: Gross Enrolment Ratio
HIV	: Human Immuno Virus
ICDS	: Intercensal Demographic Survey
ILO	: International Labour Organization
IMR	: Infant Mortality Rate
IPRSP	: Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper for Zimbabwe
LSCF	: Large Scale Commercial Farm
MLAWCRR	: Ministry of Lands, Agriculture, Water, Climate and Rural Resettlement
MPSLSW	: Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare
NER	: Net Enrolment Ratio
PDL	: Poverty Datum Line
PGER	: Primary Gross Enrolment Ratio
PICES	: Poverty Income Consumption and Expenditure Survey
PNER	: Primary Net Enrolment Ratio
PPS	: Probability Proportional to Size
RA	: Resettlement Areas
RDC	: Rural District Council
SDA	: School Development Associations
SER	: School Entrance Ratios
SGER	: Secondary Gross Enrolment Ratio
SNER	: Secondary Net Enrolment Ratio
SSCF	: Small Scale Commercial Farms
TCPL	: Total Consumption Poverty Line (the upper line)
UNDP	: United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	: United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	: United Nations Children's Fund
USD	: United States Dollar
WHO	: World Health Organization
ZDHS	: Zimbabwe Demographic and Health Survey
ZIM ASSET	: Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation
ZIMSTAT	: Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency

Glossary of Terms

Demography Definitions

Dependency Ratio is defined as the sum of all persons less than 15 years of age and over 64 years of age divided by the number of persons aged 15-64, multiplied by 100.

Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) is the number deaths of infants under one year old per 1000 live births.

Child Mortality Rate (CMR) is the probability of dying between exact age 1 and the fifth birthday expressed as deaths per 1,000 children surviving to the first birthday.

Nutritional Status is the condition of health of a person that is influenced by the intake and utilisation of nutrients. Normal *nutritional status* is managed by balance food consumption and normal utilization of nutrients. People need a nutritious diet for well-being and good health.

Malnutrition or Under-Nutrition is the condition of health of a person that results due to the lack of one or more nutrients.

Over-Nutrition, Overweight or Obesity occurs when there is an excess intake of nutrients.

Education Definitions

Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) is an indicator of the overall participation in education by children who are within the official school-going age limits. This ratio is computed as the proportion of all children in school to the number of children of school-going age. GER is influenced by three factors: School Entrance Rates (SER), drop-out rates, and complete non enrolment of some children.

School Entrance Rates (SER) is defined as the proportion of children in the lower school-going age limit (6 and 13 years in Zimbabwe for primary and secondary school, respectively) who are enrolled in school compared to their total population in the age group. If there are significant numbers of overage and underage students at a given level of schooling, the GER can exceed 100 percent.

Net Enrolment Ratio (NER), computed as the proportion of children of school-going age in school to the total number of children of that age group in and out of school.

Poverty Definitions

Money-Metric Approaches allow quantification (in monetary terms) of the depth and severity of poverty and allow consistent comparisons to be made across subgroups of households and over time. For example, specific information can be generated about the size of the transfer to the poor necessary to eliminate poverty (the poverty gap). Alternatively, the level of income growth necessary to reduce poverty may be measured. Money-metric approaches also can be used to quantify the degree of inequality among household groups.

Non-Money Metric is a means of examining poverty which include the use of asset indices to assess relative well-being, measures of access to social services, qualitative assessments and

participatory assessments. Non-money-metric approaches can provide rich detail about the poor, the conditions they face and some non-financial dimensions of poverty.

Prevalence (or Incidence) of Poverty (also known as the *headcount index*) represents the total population (either people or households) whose consumption expenditures fall below the poverty line as a proportion of the total population.

Poverty Gap Index is a measure of the intensity of poverty. It is defined as the average shortfall in expenditures below the poverty line as a proportion of the poverty line. The poverty gap index is an improvement over the poverty headcount index which simply counts all the people below a poverty line, in a given population, and considers them equally poor. Poverty gap index estimates the depth of poverty by considering how far, on average, the poor are from that poverty line. The greater the gap, the deeper the poverty or the more severe the poverty is.

Poverty Severity Index sometimes referred to as the *Squared Poverty Gap Index*, takes into account not only the distance separating the poor from the poverty line (the poverty gap), but also the inequality among the poor. That is, a higher weight is placed on those households who are further away from the poverty line. In other words, the poverty severity index is a weighted sum of poverty gaps as a proportion of the poverty line. This is in contrast to the poverty gap index where the poverty gaps are weighted equally.

The Gini Coefficient is a measure of inequality. It provides an indication of the equality of distribution of welfare (measured through income or consumption) across a population. A Gini coefficient of 1 is an indication of complete income inequality with one person having all the income, while a Gini coefficient of 0 is indicative of complete equality with everybody earning an equal income.

The Lorenz Curve provides a complete summary of information about the distribution of wellbeing. It is graphed as the cumulative percentage of consumption expenditures (the Y-axis controlled by the cumulative percentage of population (the X-axis).

Computation of the Poverty Lines
Poverty is generally defined as the inability to attain a level of well-being constituting a realistic minimum as defined by society.

A Poverty Line represents the cost of a given level of living standard which must be attained if a person is deemed not to be poor.

Food Poverty Line (FPL) represents the minimum consumption expenditure necessary to ensure that each household member can (if all expenditures were devoted to food) consume a minimum food basket representing 2100 calories. *Food Poverty Line* (FPL) is computed by valuing the products in the minimum needs basket by the average prices across all the provinces of Zimbabwe. It is assumed that an individual whose total per capita consumption expenditure do not exceed the FPL is very poor. The FPL is sometimes referred to as the lower line.

Total Consumption Poverty Line (TCPL) is derived by computing the non-food consumption expenditures of households whose total expenditures per capita just equal the value of the FPL. The TCPL is sometimes referred to as the upper line.

Poverty Prevalence refers to the proportion of households or people in households whose consumption expenditures per capita are below the upper poverty line (the TCPL).

Extreme Poverty represents households whose per capita consumption expenditures fall below the FPL or the lower poverty line.

Dependency Ratios (in poverty) refer to the mean dependency ratio (i.e. number of dependents divided by the total number of household members) for households in a particular poverty group or category. This is somewhat different from the way demographers traditionally compute these ratios.

De-Facto Female Headship means that the woman is head of the household because her husband is temporarily absent.

Dejure Female Household heads are the usual heads of the household normally identified by marital status such as divorced/separated or widowed.

A material that is *homogeneous* is uniform in composition or character; one that is *heterogeneous* is distinctly non-uniform in one of these qualities.

Classification of concepts

Government workers include Central and Local Government employees

Parastatals workers include cooperative employees

Formal Sector workers mean workers in registered establishments

Informal Sector workers mean workers in unregistered and unlicensed establishments.

Food Shares is total (market and non-market) value of food consumption divided by total value of consumption.

Maize Share is value of maize consumption divided by total value of food consumption.

Share of Own-Produce of Maize is value of maize own consumption divided by total value of food consumption.

Non-Market Food, consisting of own-produce, gifts and transfers, and payments in kind, is the value of non-market food divided by total value of food consumption.

A Means Test is a determination of whether an individual or family is eligible for help from the Government, based upon whether the individual or family possesses the means to do without that help.

Access to Safe Water refers to piped water inside and outside house, communal tap, protected well/borehole.

Unsafe Water refers to water obtained from places such as unprotected wells or boreholes, streams, dams and rivers.

International Labour Organization Definitions of Unemployment

Unemployed Persons (Broad Definition)

These are persons aged 15 years and above who, during the reference period are - without work and currently available for work. These will be referred to as broadly unemployed persons.

Unemployment Rate

-Is the percentage of unemployed persons in the economically active population. The rate can be strict or broad depending on the definition of unemployment used.

Unemployed Persons (Strict Definition)

These are persons aged 15 years and above who, during the reference period (e.g. 7 days) are :
- without work (are not in paid employment or self-employment),
- currently available for work;
- and actively seeking employment, i.e. have taken specific steps (registered or checked at any employment agency, applied to employers, responded or placed advertisements, enquired at farms or worksites or asked friends or relatives about work) in a specified recent period to seek paid employment or self-employment.

Tied Accommodation

A person living in tied accommodation occupies it by virtue of his/her job. The accommodation belongs to the employer and is made available as part of terms of employment. If the person leaves the job, s/he is required to move out of the dwelling unit.

*Examples of Tied Accommodation include***:**
- ❖ plantation and commercial farm compounds;
- ❖ industrial and factory compounds;
- ❖ domestic workers' quarters;
- ❖ railways and other industrial accommodation;
- ❖ staff houses provided in schools or health institutions.

Foreword

The Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency (ZIMSTAT) conducted the 2017 Poverty Income Consumption and Expenditure Survey (PICES) from January to December 2017. This report "Zimbabwe Poverty Report 2017" is based on the data derived from the PICES 2017 survey results.

The objectives of the Zimbabwe Poverty Report 2017 are enshrined in the PICES 2017 objectives as follows:
- Estimate private consumption expenditure and disposable income of households, and assess their distribution across the population;
- Calculate the poverty line, the poverty rate and other poverty indicators and compare these across geographical areas and population groups
- Provide a profile of the poor
- Estimate the contribution of the informal sector to GDP in Zimbabwe
- Calculate weights for the Consumer Price Index (CPI)
- Compile the production account of the agricultural sector
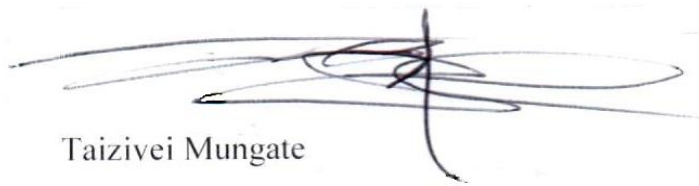
Detailed information on survey design can be found in the PICES Survey Report 2017. The anonymized micro-data of the PICES 2017 survey will be made available to researchers for further analysis.

This report covers information on the overview of the country, poverty profile for Zimbabwe and sectoral profile of poverty in Zimbabwe. The survey was guided by the PICES Technical Committee chaired by ZIMSTAT and comprised members from the World Bank, United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), African Development Bank (AfDB), Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare, Ministry of Lands, Agriculture, Water, Climate and Rural Resettlement (MLAWCRR) and ZIMSTAT.

The Agency is grateful for the financial and technical support provided by the World Bank, UNICEF, UNDP, and AfDB. We are also grateful to UNFPA for providing vehicles to the PICES 2017. The Government of Zimbabwe facilitated the funding process and provided the human resources for the survey.

I wish to express my profound gratitude to the Development Partners and the Government of Zimbabwe for their support throughout the survey. The survey owes its success to the collaborative and concerted efforts of these two parties. I also thank the respondents who provided the information and many others who were involved in making this exercise a success.

Furthermore, my sincere gratitude also goes to the members of the PICES Technical Committee for successfully implementing the PICES 2017 project proficiently. Finally I wish to thank the ZIMSTAT field staff, supervisors and data capture operators for a job well done.

Taizivei Mungate

Acting Director-General, Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency
Harare, May, 2019

Executive Summary

Chapter 1 provides a background to many issues related to the well-being, social and economic conditions in Zimbabwe. The developments in the economy with respect to the land issue, agriculture, education and health are highlighted. Recently, the Zimbabwean economy is characterized by macroeconomic imbalances such as high budget deficit, balance of payment deficits, inflation and low economic growth. Inflation is rising sharply. The country is currently facing foreign currency shortages, cash shortages and fuel shortages. The Government of Zimbabwe introduced the Transitional Stabilisation Programme (TSP) in October 2018 to deal with the above challenges. The TSP which draws its policy thrust from Vision 2030 is expected to end in December 2020. The TSP replaces the ZIM ASSET policy framework which began in 2013 and ended in 2018. The Zimbabwe Poverty Report 2017 and data can be useful for the preparation of the new development plan.

Chapter 2 discusses the measures of well-being and welfare. The per capita consumption expenditure approach is adopted in measuring poverty in Zimbabwe. Comparison of well-being mainly use the per capita consumption expenditure indices combined with other measures of well-being such as household characteristics, asset ownership and access to social services. The analysis reveals that poverty was worse in rural areas than in urban areas of Zimbabwe.

The value of the mean food poverty line was US$31.2 per person per month while the Total Consumption Poverty Line (upper line) for Zimbabwe was US$70.36 per person per month. The national mean consumption per person per month was US$85.2 compared to that of urban areas of US$133.4 and rural areas of US$59.2.

Poverty was much higher in rural than in urban areas of Zimbabwe. While 60.6 percent of all Zimbabwean households had per capita consumption expenditures below the upper poverty line (the TCPL), 76.9 percent of rural and 30.4 percent of urban households were deemed poor (Table 2.4). As according to the PICES 2017 data, the majority of Zimbabwe's households (69.2 percent) lived in rural areas. Prevalence, depth, and severity of rural poverty were much higher than those of urban poverty.

Since poor households tended to have more people than the non-poor, the rural *individual* poverty prevalence was higher (86.0 percent) than the household's poverty rate compared to 37.0 percent among the urban population. Extreme poverty was also much higher in rural areas as 40.9 percent of the rural population was extremely poor compared to 4.4 percent in urban areas.

The proportion of the population that was poor dropped to 70.5 percent in 2017 from 72.3 percent in 2011/12. However, *rural* individual poverty increased from 84.3 percent in 2011/12 to 86.0 percent in 2017. *Extreme* poverty among the population increased from 22.5 percent in 2011/12 to 29.3 percent in 2017. This increase in extreme poverty was entirely driven by worsening conditions in rural areas where individual poverty rose from 30.4 to 40.9 percent between 2011/12 and 2017 while extreme poverty rates among the urban population are low and continued to drop: from 5.6 percent to 4.4 percent. See Table S1.

Table S1: Individual Measured Prevalence of Poverty, for Selected Years

Residence	Measured prevalence of		Poverty Indices	
	Poverty	Extreme poverty	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity Index
PICES 2017				
Rural	86.0	40.9	43.5	25.4
Urban	37.0	4.4	11.3	4.8
All Zimbabwe	**70.5**	**29.3**	**33.3**	**18.9**
PICES 2011/12				
Rural	84.3	30.4	42.8	25.4
Urban	46.5	5.6	15.5	7.2
All Zimbabwe	**72.3**	**22.5**	**34.1**	**19.6**
ICES 2001				
Rural	82.4	52.4	43.4	27.0
Urban	42.3	14.5	15.5	7.6
All Zimbabwe	**70.9**	**41.5**	**35.4**	**21.4**
ICES 1995				
Rural	86.4	62.8	**47.1**	**29.6**
Urban	53.4	15.0	**20.2**	**10.0**
All Zimbabwe	**75.6**	**47.2**	**38.3**	**23.2**

Source: PICES 2017, PICES 2011, ICES 2001 and ICES 1995. Note comparison was done only in percentages. The poverty lines were not recalibrated to 2017 prices

Inequality in Zimbabwe, as measured by the Gini coefficient has been declining substantially over time but has risen again since 2011/12: from 0.42 to 0.44 in 2017. The national Gini coefficient was much higher than the one for rural and urban areas separately which was an indication of the large gap in median consumption expenditures between rural and urban areas.

Extreme poverty among the population was highest in Mashonaland Central Province with 49.5 percent of the population below the food poverty line followed by Matabeleland North Province with 45.1 percent, while the lowest was found in Bulawayo Province (1 percent) and Harare Province (5.2 percent). Manicaland Province had the highest proportion of the poor (16.4 percent) followed by Masvingo Province (13.3 percent). About 10 percent of Zimbabwe's poor households were found in the major cities, Harare and Bulawayo,

Of all provinces in Zimbabwe, Mashonaland Central Province had the highest proportion of poor households, (16.1 percent) followed by Mashonaland East Province with 14.0 percent and Matabeleland North Province at 12.5 percent. On top of containing the highest proportion of Zimbabwe's rural poor, Mashonaland Central Province had the highest prevalence of rural poverty; 84.7 percent of rural households in the province were poor. Matabeleland South Province had the lowest rural poverty prevalence of 68.5 percent, extreme poverty of 20.7 percent, poverty gap index of 28.7 percent and poverty severity index of 14.9 percent.

Poor households in Zimbabwe were characterised by large families, high dependency ratios, and, on average, older heads of households were associated with higher poverty than younger heads of households. Households deemed poor in Zimbabwe had a dependency ratio of 47.7 percent, which was 17 percentage points higher than non-poor households. Rural areas had a higher dependency ratio compared to urban areas.

Male-headed households were somewhat poorer than female-headed households. However, divorced or widowed male-headed households were much less poor than divorced widowed female - headed households.

Households headed by communal and resettlement farmers suffered from the greatest poverty prevalence, 82.9 percent, compared to other employment types. Households whose head received his/her main source of earnings from salaries and wages were less likely to be poor in Zimbabwe compared to those dependent on other main sources of income. Households with at least one member working in the formal sector were much less poorer as 20 percent were poor than those working in the informal sector (63 percent). This was the same for both rural and urban areas.

At the national level, poor households spent 42.5 percent of their money on food while non-poor households spent 28.4 percent of their budget on food. The contribution of food shares to total household consumption expenditures in poor households was persistently above 42 percent in most months of the year.

Chapter 3 deals with differential access to productive assets, attainment of education, access to public services such as schooling services and health care which distinguish the poor from others. Rural poverty was most prevalent in communal lands (CL) (79.2 percent), followed by resettlement areas (RA) with 76.4 percent. Extreme poverty was most prevalent in CLs with 34.0 percent when compared with 29.9 percent for RAs.

In rural areas, communal and resettlement farmers constituted 80.6 percent of the economically active population. Moreover, households headed by a communal/resettlement farmer had the highest prevalence of extreme poverty 40.0 percent compared to other heads of households across land use sectors.

About 15 percent of the non-poor households in rural areas reported having a member with an illness in the past month compared to 9.5 percent in urban areas. The percentage of households reporting illness declined with poverty status as 12.2 percent of the poor and 10.6 percent of the extremely poor reported illness. About 57 percent of poor people who were ill used public health facilities for treatment, while 48.0 percent of the non-poor went to such facilities. The percentage of households reporting illness declined with poverty status as 14.6 percent of the poor, 12.2 percent of the poor and 10.6 percent of the extremely poor reported illness during the last 30 days. Illnesses were more common in rural areas than urban areas. In urban areas there was little difference between the poor and the non-poor. Fifty one percent of the extremely urban poor residents did not receive treatment because they could not afford it, while this was 30.9 percent for the urban non-poor and 36.1 percent for the poor urban.

Sanitation was clearly better in urban areas compared to rural areas. Almost all urban households had flush toilets (91.5 percent), while 36.8 percent of households in rural areas had no toilet at all. About 30 percent of rural households rely on water supplies that were unsafe. About 2 percent of urban households used unsafe water, which came from unprotected wells, rivers and dams.

A strong negative association was observed between educational attainment of the head of household and household poverty. Incidence of poverty declined as the household head's educational attainment rises. There was a substantial increase in household poverty when its head had less than secondary school education. Households headed by someone who had at

least some secondary education was 15.6 percentage points less likely to be poor and 13.1 percent less likely to be extremely poor compared to households whose head had only primary school education. In addition, the primary school gross enrolment ratio for extremely poor children was 98.1 percent compared to 101.2 percent for non-poor children.

Furthermore it was noted that returns to primary education were fairly low in rural areas as difference in poverty prevalence between those with no education and only primary education was small. In urban areas, however, the returns to primary education was substantial as the poverty rate among those with primary education was much lower than those with no education. Moreover it was shown that returns to secondary education were most evident when looking at extreme poverty especially in urban areas as those with secondary education had only half the extreme poverty rate than those with only primary education.

It was also shown that the poverty reducing impact of education was higher among female headed households than among male headed households. The analysis of education presents a mixed message about the education system in Zimbabwe. Whilst the poor and the extremely poor children was only at a slight disadvantage compared to children from non-poor households at primary level, the gaps was much larger at the secondary level.

Chapter 4 deals with the recommendations made to policy makers about the poverty situation in Zimbabwe.

1. Zimbabwe in Context

1.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a background to many issues related to the well-being, social and economic conditions in Zimbabwe. The developments in the economy with respect to the overview of the country, state of the economy in the last three years, the land issue, agriculture, education and health were highlighted. The objectives of the Zimbabwe Poverty Report 2017 are enshrined in the PICES 2017 objectives as follows:

- Estimate private consumption expenditure and disposable income of households, and assess their distribution across the population,
- Calculate the poverty line, the poverty rate and other poverty indicators and assess welfare trends,
- Compare poverty levels across geographical areas and population groups,
- Provide a profile of the poor,
- Assess access of the poor and the non-poor to public services and facilities,
- Estimate the contribution of the informal sector to GDP in Zimbabwe,
- Calculate weights for the Consumer Price Index (CPI) and,
- Compile the production account of the agricultural sector.

1.2. Overview of the Country

Zimbabwe is situated in the southern part of Africa. It borders with Mozambique, South Africa, Botswana and Zambia to the east, south, west and north, respectively. The country is land locked with a total area of approximately 390 757 square kilometers. It has a population of 13 572 560 persons according to the 2017 Intercensal Demographic Survey (ICDS). The 2017 ICDS further indicates that there are 6 514 829 males and 7 057 731 females. The average household size in Zimbabwe according to the 2017 ICDS is 4.2 persons per household.

Zimbabwe is divided into 10 provinces of which two, Harare (the capital city) and Bulawayo, are essentially urban provinces whilst the rest of the provinces are mixed. There are four main rural land use sectors and five ecological regions. The main land use sectors are large scale commercial farms, small scale commercial farms, resettlement areas and communal lands. Resettlement areas consist of old resettlement areas, A1 farms and A2 farms. The other land use sectors are national parks, state land, forest land, urban areas, etc.

Agriculture is the backbone of the Zimbabwean economy. Most of the agriculture in Zimbabwe is dependent on rainfall and the economy is susceptible to weather or climate variations that include droughts and floods. The PICES 2017 was conducted when Zimbabweans were enjoying a bumper harvest from the 2016/2017 agricultural season as a result of above normal rainfall. The production of maize was boosted by the Government's popular Command Agriculture. Tobacco is the largest foreign currency earner while cotton is the second major cash crop. The main staple food is maize and is widely grown by both commercial and communal farmers. The mining and manufacturing industries play a major role in foreign trade.

Zimbabwe's formal education system is divided into primary, secondary and tertiary schools. There are several types of primary and secondary schools which differ according to ownership of the schools. There are slightly over 8 950 primary and secondary schools in Zimbabwe.

District council schools constitute the largest proportion of 72.3 percent of both primary and secondary schools. The rest of the schools are classified into municipal council schools, town board, central government, church or mission schools and other private schools which includes farm, mine, private company, and trust schools. These schools help to promote high literacy levels in Zimbabwe.

The health sector consists of primary level care provided by clinics, secondary care provided by district hospitals, tertiary services provided by provincial and general or referral hospitals. Finally the quaternary level is catered for by six central hospitals in Chitungwiza, Bulawayo, Mutare and Harare. Government, church missions, local governments and private players (predominantly in urban areas) are also involved in the provision of health services.

1.3. State of the Economy and Current Economic Policy

Recently, the Zimbabwean economy has been characterized by macroeconomic imbalances such as high budget deficits, balance of payment deficits, inflation and low economic growth. Low inflation was reported in 2017 the year of the PICES survey but started to rise sharply from August 2017, see Figure 1.1. Prices of goods and services were low in 2017 as the country remained in a deflationary situation. The introduction of the bond note led to the three tier pricing systems that is cash, electronic transfer (swipe) and mobile money transfer. The country has started to face foreign currency shortages and cash shortages.

Figure 1.1: Annual Inflation Rate in Zimbabwe Year-on Year from January 2017 to December 2017
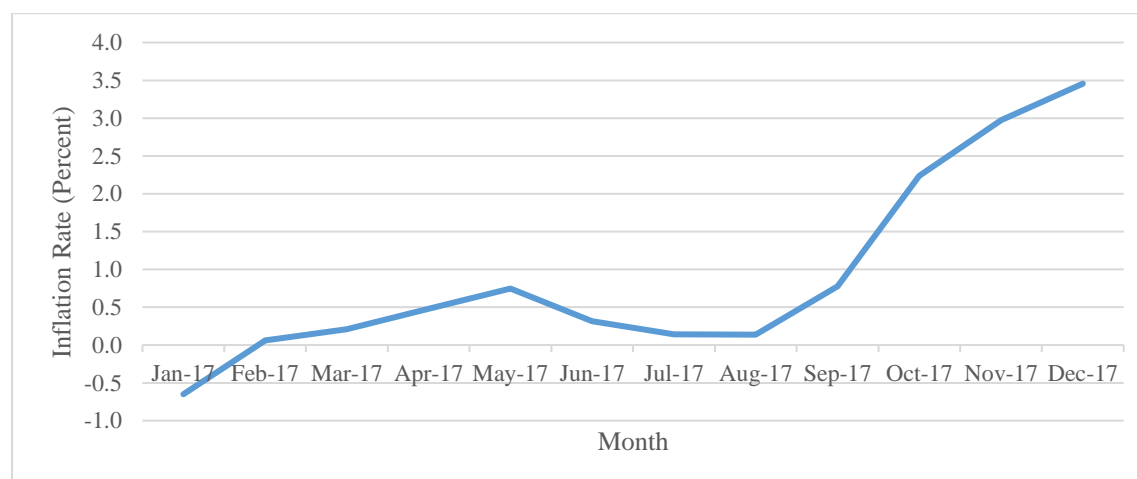
Source: ZIMSTAT 2018

Statistics from ZIMSTAT indicates that the Real Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth rate at market prices was 4.7 percent in 2017 compared to 0.8 percent in 2016. Real GDP per capita growth in 2017 was 2.4 percent compared to minus 1.5 percent in the prior year. Per capita GDP growth was depressed for three consecutive years prior to 2017 see Figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2: GDP Growth Rate at Constant Prices and Real Per Capita Growth 2014 to 2017
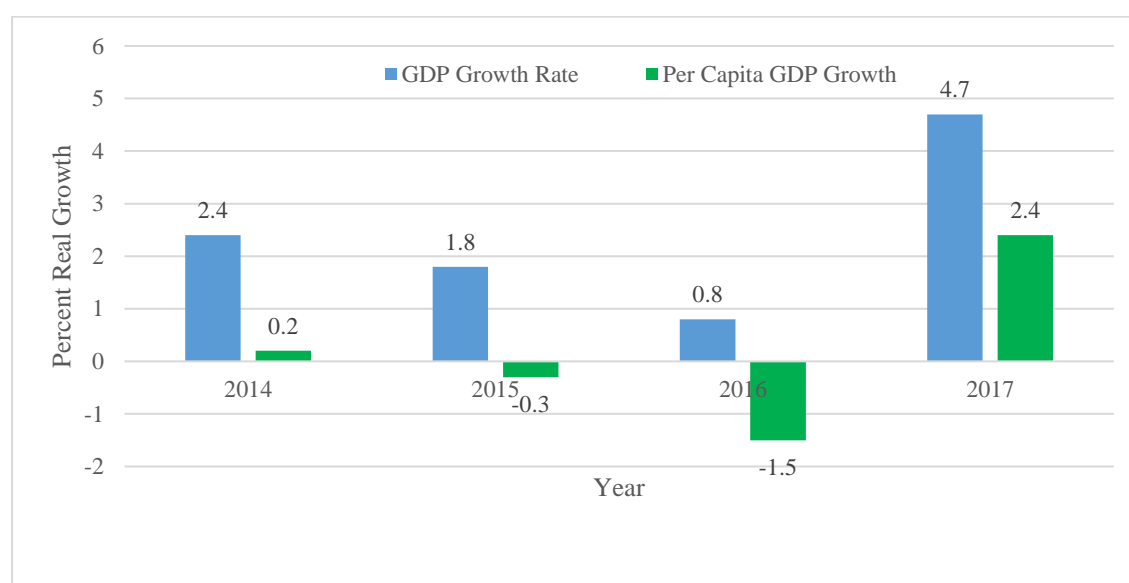
Source: ZIMSTAT 2018

In response to the challenges identified above, the Government of Zimbabwe introduced the Transitional Stabilisation Programme (TSP) in October 2018. The TSP, which draws its policy thrust from Vision 2030, is expected to end in December 2020. The TSP replaces the ZIM ASSET policy framework which began in 2013 and ended in 2018.

The five strategic clusters for Vision 2030 are:
- Governance.
- Macro-economic stability and re-engagement.
- Inclusive growth.
- Infrastructure and utilities.
- Social development.

The objectives of the Transitional Stabilisation Programme are:
- Stabilising the macro-economy and the financial sector.
- Introducing necessary policy and institutional reforms, to transform to a private sector led economy.
- Addressing infrastructure gaps.
- Launching quick-wins to stimulate growth.

Policies dealing with macro-economic imbalances include:
- Restoration of the Macro-Economic Environment.
- Restoration of Fiscal Balance.
- Mobilising Domestic Savings.
- Competitiveness of Exporters.

The targets relate to growing per capita income, through economic growth rates aimed at growing employment creation and poverty reduction.

1.4.   Poverty Analysis in Zimbabwe

The ZIMSTAT analysis uses consumption expenditures to rank individuals and households along the welfare distribution and analyses, in greater detail, some of the determinants of poverty. The poverty reports which have been compiled are listed as follows:

- Poverty in Zimbabwe 1998 based on the Income, Consumption and Expenditure Survey (ICES) 1995/96
- Poverty in Zimbabwe 2007 based on the ICES 2001 Survey
- Poverty and Poverty Datum Line Analysis in Zimbabwe 2013 based on PICES 2011/12 Survey.

The poverty reports provide an insight into important questions such as: How is poverty distributed throughout the country and which areas suffer from the worst poverty?
What are the characteristics of the poor? How good is the access of the poor to public services and facilities?

1.5.   Poverty Alleviation in Zimbabwe

Eradicating poverty is a top priority of the Government's overall policy objective, which stems from the country's development blue print, the 'Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation' (Zim Asset), October 2013-December 2018. Poverty eradication strategies and interventions have been embedded in all economic programmes the Government has been implementing over the years. The development of the Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper for Zimbabwe (IPRSP): 2016-2018 is another planning document for mitigating poverty, consistent with Zim Asset. The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) agreed at the global level are also an important framework for poverty reduction in Zimbabwe (see Box1.1)

Box 1.1: The Sustainable Development Goals
Goal 1 : End poverty in all its forms everywhere.
Goal 2 : End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote
sustainable agriculture.
Goal 3 : Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages.
Goal 4 : Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning
opportunities for all.
Goal 5 : Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls.
Goal 6 : Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all.
Goal 7 : Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all.
Goal 8 : Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and
productive employment and decent work for all.
Goal 9 : Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable
industrialization and foster innovation.
Goal 10 : Reduce inequality within and among countries.
Goal 11 : Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable.
Goal 12 : Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns.
Goal 13 : Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts.
Goal 14 : Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for
sustainable development.
Goal 15 : Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems,
sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land
degradation and halt biodiversity loss.
Goal 16 : Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide
access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive
institutions at all levels.
Goal 17 : Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the global partnership
for sustainable development.
Source: United Nations

1.6. The Agricultural Sector

Agriculture remains the mainstay of the Zimbabwean economy. Agriculture in Zimbabwe is divided into four major land use sectors as follows:

1.6.1 Large Scale Commercial Farming Areas

Large Scale Commercial farms are those located in areas that were formerly occupied by white commercial farmers. These farms include the portion occupied by the original farmer if the farm is subdivided. The large-scale commercial farming sector is generally well financed, capitalised and produces crops and livestock, including horticulture, on a large scale. The number and area of large-scale commercial farms has been decreasing during the past twenty-two years mainly due to the Government's land reform programme.

The Government implemented the accelerated land reform programme in 2000 where by acquired land from Large Scale Commercial Farming areas was distributed to resettle farmers from communal lands and urban areas into two accelerated resettlement models namely A1 and A2 Farms.

a) *A1 Farms:* This model includes those where an individual family farm is at least six hectares (depending on natural regions) plus a common grazing land for livestock. The homesteads are in villages and farmers have fields at a designated area. This sector includes self-contained A1 farms. Under this model, farmer offer letters are issued to farmers.

b) *A2 Farms*: This is the commercial model of the accelerated land reform programme where farmers were resettled such that an individual has a farm where crop and livestock production is carried out within the farm (no common grazing land). The farm sizes in the A2 scheme depend on natural regions but are larger than A1 Farms. Under this model farmers are given offer letters and 99 years lease agreements. The lease recognizes gender as it can be issued men only or to both spouses jointly or to women in their own right.

1.6.2 Small Scale Commercial Farming Areas

There are approximately 9 655 Small Scale Commercial farms in Zimbabwe with an average size of 148 hectares. Small Scale Commercial Farms typically existed before independence and occupy 4 percent of all arable land. Farmers in this sector have title deeds as a form of ownership or lease with option to purchase: deed of grant.

1.6.3 Old Resettlement Schemes

This farm type came into existence due to the Government's land redistribution programme from 1982 to 1998, during which the Government bought land from Large Scale Commercial Farming areas on willing buyer willing seller basis and resettled farmers from communal lands on to these lands. The farmers were resettled on an individual family basis or as co-operatives. Five models, A to E, have been used in these schemes.

1.6.4 Communal Lands

In these areas farmers live in villages and have areas for cropping and common grazing lands. Agricultural production is mainly for subsistence with the surplus being sold to the market. The population in the communal lands sector makes up about 51 percent of Zimbabwe's population. The sector occupies 42 percent of total arable land area.

1.7. Area Planted, Crop Reaped per Hectare by Kind of Crop

Between 2010 and 2016 areas planted and amounts harvested dropped for all crops except tobacco and soya beans. However, in 2017, production of all crops except soya beans was higher than in any of the previous seven years (see Table 1.1). This suggests the 2016-2017 agricultural season was an exceptionally good season.

Table 1.1: Area Planted, Crop Reaped Per Hectare by Kind of Crop, 2010-2017

Crop		2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2017
Maize	Area (h)	1 362 563	1 538 577	1 385 161	1 260 893	1 048 268	984 698	988 062
	Prod. (t)	1 192 399	1 010 473	1 095 954	846 233	974 956	555 439	1 346 255
Sorghum	Area (h)	272 679	222 988	216 796	226 843	226 127	146 363	176 213
	Prod. (t)	73 675	50 549	44 346	69 540	103 768	35 303	54 765
Pearl Millet	Area (h)	189 471	183 536	184 222	177 638	152 251	126 855	114 526
	Prod. (t)	38 888	28 544	28 596	30 298	45 062	14 544	50 256
Finger Millet	Area (h)	48 811	29 509	24 237	22 081	19 895	15 412	23 216
	Prod. (t)	12 234	6 999	7 882	6 784	8 618	3 389	11 439
Groundnuts	Area (h)	319 608	329 803	214 266	164 319	137 350	152 290	199 078
	Prod. (t)	136 719	97 504	72 194	67 855	56 666	52 096	98 398
Edible dry beans	Area (h)	79 189	53 786	52 123	66 155	32 220	35 461	26 258
	Prod. (t)	31 248	16 028	20 935	29 083	14 702	14 700	15 262
Paprika	Area (h)	1 140	1 742	1 181	1 156	388	315	0
	Prod. (t)	685	771	814	542	178	161	0
Cotton	Area (h)	198 824	246 559	358 410	195 072	130 690	112 066	76 495
	Prod. (t)	149 907	140 267	247 752	141 478	74 693	42 823	73 260
Tobacco	Area (h)	94 175	117 287	92 705	125 717	128 668	132 126	118 967
	Prod. (t)	109 737	125 056	139 179	147 068	184 003	171 083	240 367
Soyabeans	Area (h)	42 288	44 672	50 408	50 785	60 616	44 155	23 515
	Prod. (t)	57 328	53 849	77 124	66 740	71 328	41 768	36 478
Sunflower	Area (h)	28 945	26 164	19 628	18 216	15 399	16 635	8 269
	Prod. (t)	11 836	8 237	7 349	7 047	6 799	6 398	5 222

Source: ZIMSTAT Agriculture Livestock Survey (ALS),
NB. Pearl Millet is Mhunga, Finger Millet is Rapoko

1.8.   The Command Agriculture Programme

The Command Agriculture is a Zimbabwean agricultural scheme aimed at ensuring food self-sufficiency that was introduced at the start of the 2016-2017 farming season, following the drought of the previous season. Command Agriculture is a voluntary programme where interested farmers can get agricultural input packages, in the form of a loan, to produce specific crops. The loan is repaid in the form of harvested output of those specific crops where farmers receive prices above the market price. Each participating farmer was required to commit 5 tonnes per hectare towards repayment of advanced loans in the form of irrigation equipment, seeds, fertilisers, chemicals, mechanized equipment, electricity and water charges. Farmers would retain a surplus product produced in excess of the 5 tonnes. In the 2016/17 agricultural season, the targeted crops under the command agriculture were maize and wheat.

1.9.   The Natural Regions of Zimbabwe

Agriculture in Zimbabwe has two broad distinguishing factors: natural regions (see Box 1.2) and land use sectors, already described.

Box 1.2: The Natural Regions of Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe has five natural regions, distinguished by annual rainfall and agricultural productive potential of the soils. Intensity of farming activities varies across these natural regions.

Region One *(specialized and diversified intensive farming):* The region receives more than 1 000 mm of rainfall per annum. The main agricultural activities include forestry, fruit production and intensive livestock rearing. It covers 7 000 km^2 (less than 2% of total arable area).

Region Two *(intensive farming):* The region receives between 750-1 000 mm of rainfall per annum. It specializes in crop farming and intensive livestock breeding and covers 58 600 km^2 (15% of total arable area).

Region Three *(semi-intensive farming)*: It receives between 650-800 mm of rainfall per annum and specializes in livestock breeding, fodder and cash crops. It has marginal production of maize, tobacco and cotton, and covers 72 900 km^2 (19% of total arable area).

Region Four *(extensive farming):* This region receives 450-650 mm of rainfall per annum. It specializes in extensive livestock breeding and drought-resistant crops. It covers 147 800 km^2 (38% of total arable area).

Region Five *(semi-extensive farming):* The region receives too low and erratic rains for even drought-resistant crops. It specializes in extensive cattle and game ranching and covers 104 400 km^2 (27 % of total arable area).

1.10.   Human Capital and Social Services in Zimbabwe

This section on human resources and social services in Zimbabwe deals with social indicators such as dependency ratios, infant mortality rates, child mortality rates and on nutritional status of children, population and education.

1.11.   Population and Demographics

The population pyramid for Zimbabwe is broad based and narrows at the top as age increases (Figure 1.3). The broad base of the pyramid indicates that Zimbabwe's population is young, a scenario typical of countries with high fertility rates.

Figure 1.3: Population (000s) by Age Group: Pyramid for Zimbabwe PICES 2017
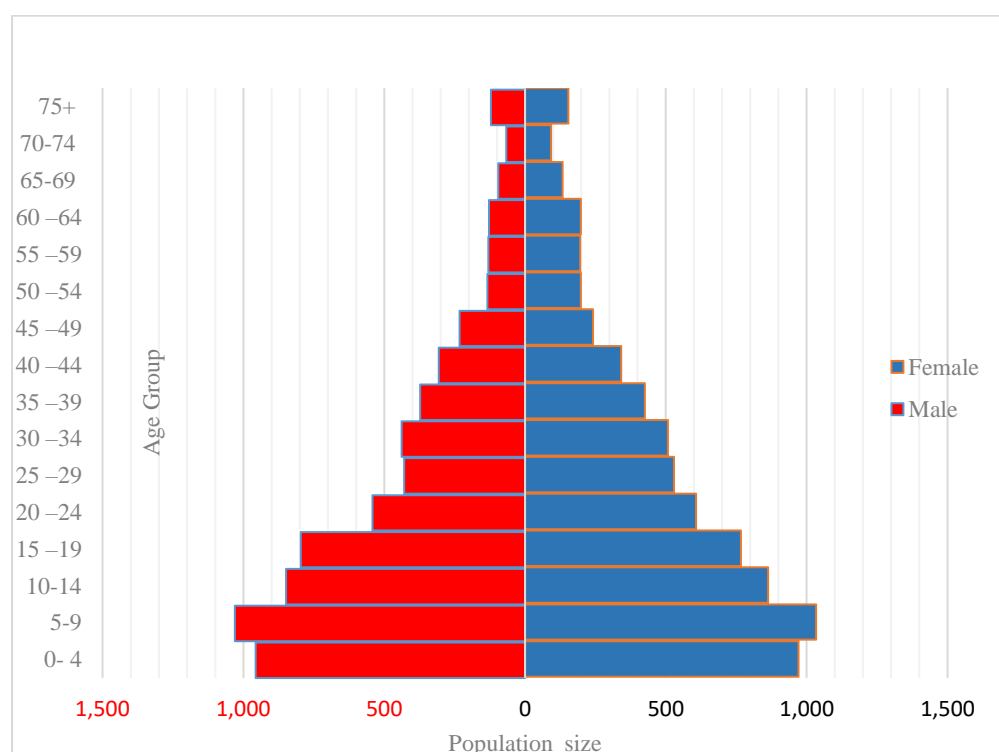
1.12. Trends in Dependency Ratios

The *age dependency ratio* is defined as the sum of all persons under 15 years of age and over 64 years of age (the dependents) divided by the number of persons aged 15-64 (the potential working population), multiplied by 100. When this dependency ratio is high there is a high dependency burden for that particular population. The age dependency ratio according to the ICDS 2017 is 83 dependents per 100 persons in the age group 15-64 years up from 74 dependents per 100 persons in the age group 15-64 years in 2012. A high dependency ratio is associated with more poverty since it implies that there are relatively more dependents relative to the working population.

It should be noted that this dependency ratio does not capture other factors like unemployment, diseases, severe disability and the fact that some of the people who are above 16 years may still be full time students. Many people in these groups are de-facto dependent on assistance from their families.

1.13. Health

The government has focused on primary and preventive health care, notably maternal and child health, nutrition and family planning.

The Central Government per capita health expenditures declined from US$21.8 per person per person in 2013 to US$16.6 per person in 2014 and then rose sharply to US$ 30.2 per person in 2017. (See Figure 1.4) The per capita health services are derived from the total Central Government Expenditure on Health divided by the deflator to change health expenditures to constant 2012 Prices. The constant prices figure is then divided by the population of Zimbabwe each year. This yields health expenditures per person per year.

Figure 1.4: Central Government per Capita Expenditure on Health Services Constant 2012 Prices in US$, 2013 to 2017
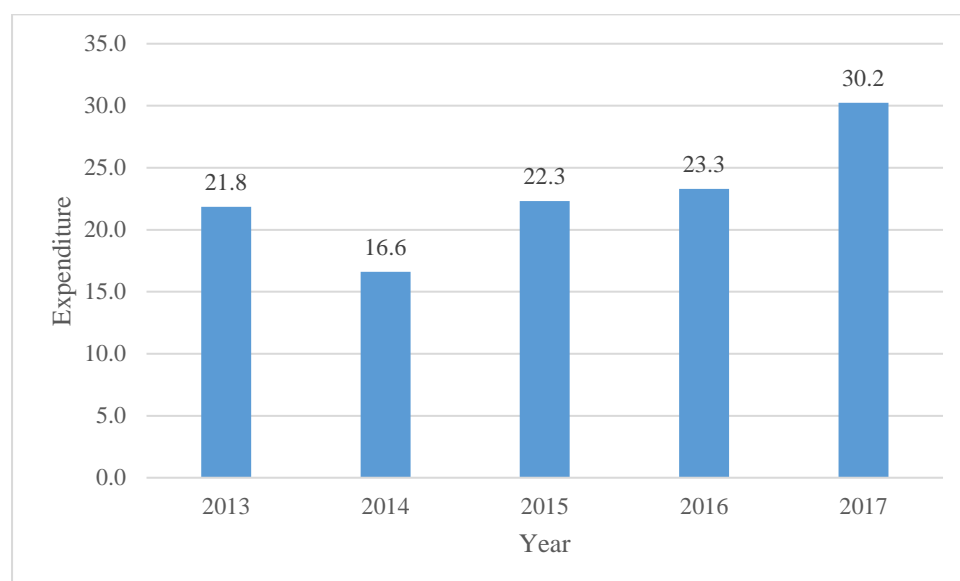
Source: ZIMSTAT 2018

The Child Mortality Rate reached a peak of 102 deaths per 1 000 live births in 1999 and slowed down to 69 deaths in 2015. The infant mortality rate also reached a peak of 65 per 1 000 live births in 1999 and declined to 50 deaths per 1 000 live births in 2015. The lowest infant mortality rate of 49 deaths per 1 000 live births was reported in 1988. (See Figure 1.5).

Figure 1.5: Trends in Mortality Rates, 1988-2015
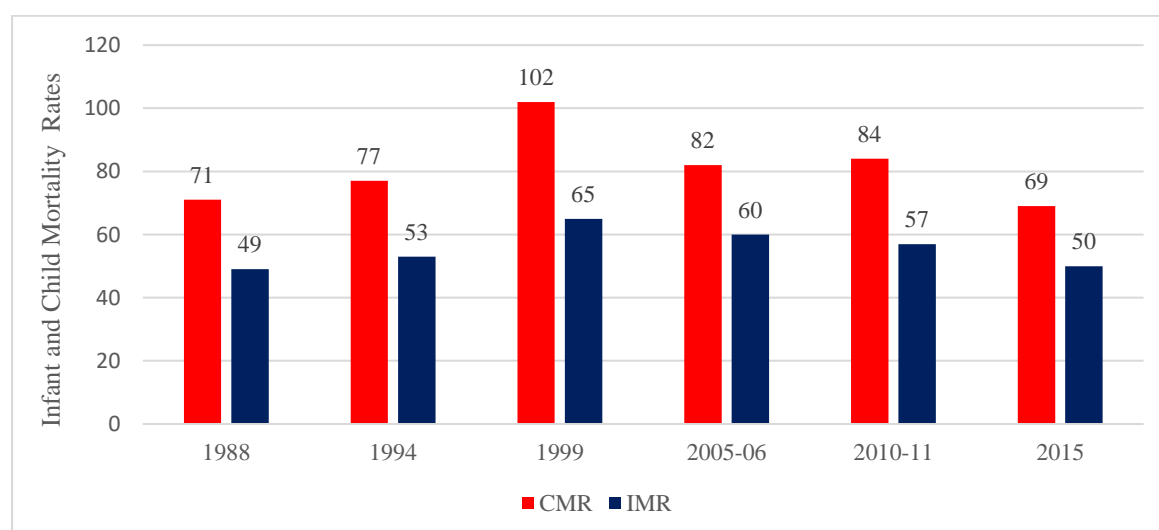
Note: Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) is the number of children dying before they attain one year out of 1 000 born alive. The Child Mortality Rate (CMR) is the number of children dying between their first and their fifth birthday expressed per 1 000 children surviving to the first birthday. The above figure shows IMR and CMR from 1988 to 2015 in Zimbabwe. Source: Zimbabwe Demographic and Health Survey (ZDHS) 2015.

1.14.   Malnutrition

Malnutrition in Zimbabwe dropped between 2005/6 and 2015. The prevalence of children who were stunted, underweight, and wasted decreased during this period. Figure 1.6 shows trends in nutritional status of children, which includes stunting, underweight, wasting and overweight. The prevalence of children who were stunted declined from 35 percent to 27 percent. Additionally, the prevalence of children who were underweight declined from 13 percent to 8 percent. The prevalence of children who were wasting also declined from 7 percent to 3 percent in the same period. (Figure 1.6)

Figure 1.6: Percent Trends in Nutritional Status of Children Under Age 5 from 2005-06 to 2015
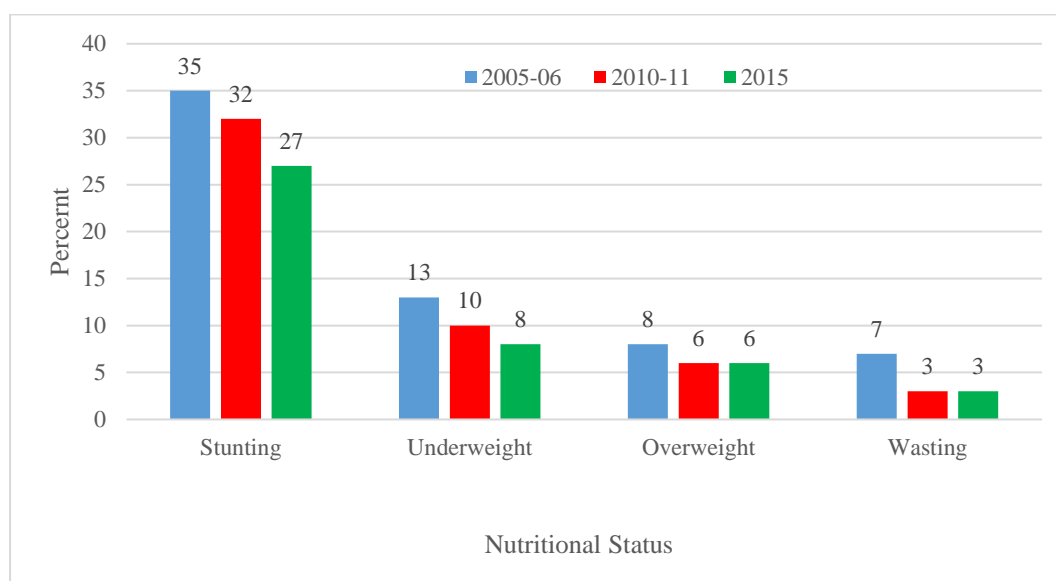
Source: Zimbabwe Demographic and Health Survey (ZDHS) 2015

1.15.   The AIDS Epidemic

Zimbabwe faces challenges in areas of communicable infections, parasitic, respiratory, maternal and peri-natal conditions. The HIV and AIDS pandemic have taken a heavy toll on morbidity and mortality. To preserve the gains in health outcomes since Independence, Zimbabwe require continuous aggressive and far-reaching campaigns against the pandemics. The total HIV prevalence declined from a high 18 percent between 2005 and 2006 to 13.8 percent in 2015. (Figure 1.7). The prevalence among women fell from 21.1 percent to 16.7 percent, and the prevalence among men declined from 14.5 percent to 10.5 percent during the same period.

Figure 1.7: HIV Prevalence for Females Aged 15-49 Years and Males Aged 15-54 Years in Zimbabwe 2005-06 to 2015
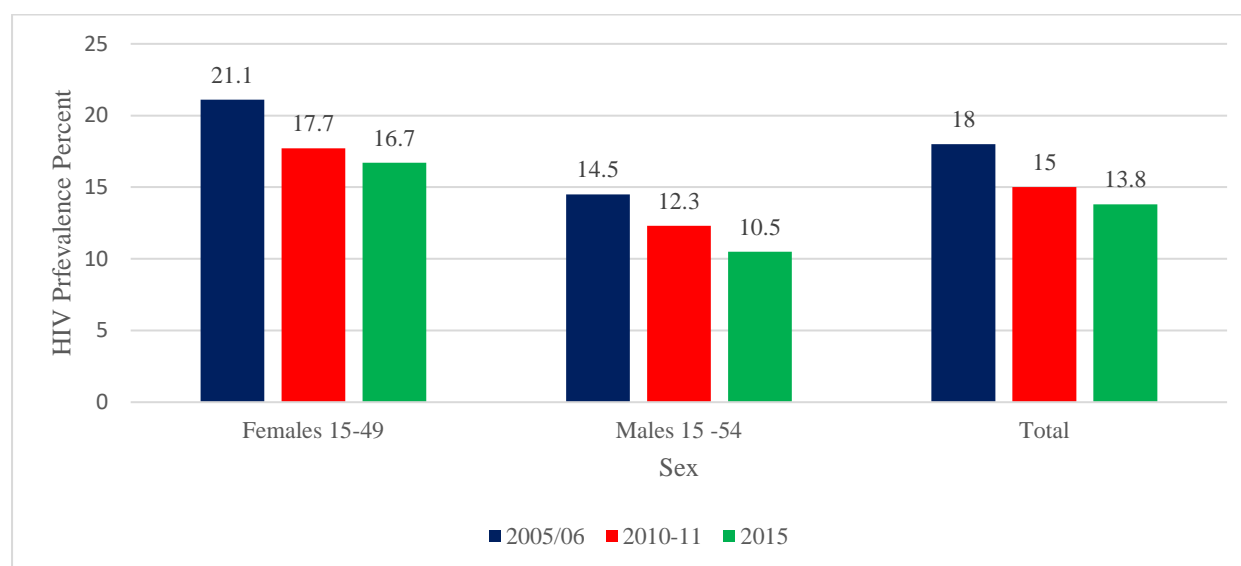
Source: Source ZDHS 2010-11 and 2015.

1.16. Education

There were slightly more than 6 470 District Council primary and secondary schools in Zimbabwe. The majority of schools, 72.3 percent were provided by District Councils. Church or Mission schools constituted 8.3 percent of schools, see Table 1.2.

Table 1.2: Distribution of Schools by Type of School

Type of School	Number of Schools			Percentage of Total		
	Primary	Secondary	Grand Total	Primary	Secondary	Grand Total
Church/Mission	413	330	743	6.8	11.7	8.3
City Council	126	16	142	2.1	0.6	1.6
District Council	4 627	1 847	6 474	75.6	65.3	72.3
Farm	82	11	93	1.3	0.4	1.0
Government	435	251	686	7.1	8.9	7.7
Mine	37	6	43	0.6	0.2	0.5
Other	68	136	204	1.1	4.8	2.3
Other Government Ministries	53	17	70	0.9	0.6	0.8
Private Company	196	164	360	3.2	5.8	4.0
Town Board	19	10	29	0.3	0.4	0.3
Trust	67	42	109	1.1	1.5	1.2
Grand Total	6 123	2 830	8 953	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education 2017

1.17. Summary

This chapter has dealt with the background to many issues related to well-being, social and economic conditions in Zimbabwe. The developments in the economy with respect to the overview of the country, state of the economy, land reform, agriculture, education and health were highlighted. Recently, the Zimbabwean economy has been characterized by macroeconomic imbalances such as a high budget deficit, balance of payment deficits, inflation and low economic growth. Inflation is rising sharply. The country is currently facing foreign currency shortages, cash shortages and fuel shortages. The Government of Zimbabwe introduced the Transitional Stabilisation Programme (TSP) in October 2018 to deal with the above challenges. The TSP which draws its policy thrust from Vision 2030 is expected to end in December 2020. The Zimbabwe Poverty Report 2017, among other reports, provide a solid evidence base for the preparations of the new development plan.

2. Poverty Profile for Zimbabwe for 2017

2.1 Poverty Concepts and Measurement

Measures of well-being and welfare

Poverty studies attempt to assess or measure well-being and establish a level of measured well-being at which a person can be considered to be poor. Comparisons of well-being can be made across subgroups of the population. Poverty is generally defined as the inability to attain a level of well-being constituting a realistic minimum as defined by society. Some studies utilise money-metric measures of well-being while others use non money-metric approaches. When money-metric measures are used, household income as well as consumption expenditures need to be adjusted for regional price differentials as well as household size to enable valid comparisons across households.

Money-metric approaches allow quantification of the depth and severity of poverty and allow consistent comparisons to be made across subgroups of households and over time. For example, specific information can be generated about the size of the transfer to the poor necessary to eliminate poverty. Alternatively, the level of income growth necessary to reduce poverty may be measured. Or, for specific groupings of households, measures of the size of the shortfall of welfare below the poverty line can be obtained. Money-metric approaches can also be used to quantify the degree of inequality among household groups.

Non money-metric means of examining poverty also exist. They include the use of asset indices to assess relative well-being, measures of access to social services, qualitative assessments and participatory assessments. Non money-metric approaches can provide rich detail about the poor, the conditions they face and some non-financial dimensions of poverty. They recognize that poverty is a social state that cannot often be defined in terms of dollars alone. Many of the qualitative studies of this kind allow the poor to explain why they are poor.

The report's primary measure of well-being is household per capita consumption expenditures. These expenditures will be used to identify relative levels of household well-being. Comparisons will be made between relatively well-off and less well-off households. Household characteristics, asset ownership, access to social services and other factors will also be used in conjunction with the capita consumption expenditure in assessing poverty levels in Zimbabwe.

The choice of the best indicator may also depend on other constraints such as survey structure and timing, but there is little doubt that consumption expenditures are preferred when compared to other alternatives as a measure of welfare. In addition to the consumption expenditures, data for poverty analysis should include information on household structure and demographics, and access to social services can also help complement the poverty profile. The Poverty, Income, Consumption and Expenditure Survey (PICES) 2017 conducted by the Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency, is a data set that contains much of the necessary information and is well suited for poverty analysis and the data set is being utilized in this report.

2.2 Overview of the PICES 2017 Survey

The PICES was conducted from January 2017 through December 2017. Household data on incomes, receipts, and consumption expenditures were collected on a weekly and monthly basis. Each selected household was monitored for a complete month during which household

food consumption expenditures were recorded in a daily record book. Weekly visits to the households were used to transcribe the daily records into the questionnaire and to check for recording consistency.

The sampling frame for the PICES 2017 was based on the complete set of Enumeration Areas (EAs) drawn from the 2012 Zimbabwe Population Census. Due to increasing response burden on households, the Zimbabwe Master Sample was not used for the PICES 2017 sample. Instead the Population Census Frame was used. The survey is based on a sample of 32 256 households, representative at Province and District Levels. The population was stratified into land-use groupings, namely, communal lands, large-scale commercial farming areas, small-scale commercial farming areas and resettlement areas. It was also stratified for urban and semi-urban areas. The sample design entailed two stages: selection of enumeration areas (EAs) as the first stage and selection of households in these EAs as the second stage. In total 2 304 EAs were selected with Probability Proportional to Size (PPS), the measure of size being the number of households enumerated in the 2012 Population Census. Out of a total of 32 256 sampled households a total of 31 195 households successfully completed interviews. This gave a response rate of 96.7 percent of the sampled households. In general, households in rural areas had higher response rates compared to households in urban areas.

Although it was not designed specifically for measurement of poverty, the PICES is well suited for such measurement because it can be used to construct a comprehensive measure of household consumption. In addition to market purchases of goods, the survey collected rich detail on own-consumption, payment in kind, and gifts and transfers of all goods. Additional information in the PICES 2017 included information on health, disability, education, housing, migration and remittances within the country and from abroad which is useful in determining poverty levels in Zimbabwe. Furthermore, ownership of assets can be used to impute consumption flows (user values) from these assets and information on housing values and characteristics can be used to construct an imputed flow of consumption from owner-occupied housing (See Annexes A-C for the details on the use of the PICES for poverty analysis and on data processing). The PICES data is combined with Consumer Price Survey (CPS) data to create a poverty datum line used to distinguish poor and non-poor households (see Annex D).

2.3   The Poverty Datum Line

A poverty line reflects the cost of a given level of living standard which must be attained if a person is deemed not to be poor. The idea is not simply to produce a figure defining the poor at a point in time but instead, to enable consistent comparisons across subgroups of society such as sectors, regions and over time. This study uses two poverty lines: the Food Poverty Line (FPL) or lower line and the Total Consumption Poverty Line (TCPL) or the upper line.

The FPL represents the minimum consumption expenditure necessary to ensure that each household member can (if all expenditures are devoted to food) consume a minimum food basket representing 2 100 calories. When consumption expenditures are measured on a per-capita basis, households or people below the FPL are said to be very poor or extremely poor. Table 2.1 shows the value of the food poverty line (lower line) by province and by rural and urban areas. See Annex D for details of how the FPL is computed. The mean FPL line was US$31.2 per person per month across all provinces.

Usually the cost of living is higher in urban areas, mainly due to housing costs. The highest mean difference between urban and rural areas was noted for Matabeleland North, 4 percent. In 2017, the prices of basic goods were depressed due to lack of demand.

Table 2.1:Annual Mean FPL by Province (US Dollars)

Province	Urban Mean FPL	Rural Mean FPL	Total Mean FPL
Manicaland	30.5	30.6	30.6
Mashonaland Central	31.2	29.5	30.4
Mashonaland East	30.9	29.3	30.1
Mashonaland West	31.9	32.3	32.1
Matabeleland North	34.0	30.0	32.0
Matabeleland South	32.0	32.5	32.2
Midlands	31.6	29.9	30.8
Masvingo	31.0	30.2	30.6
Bulawayo	32.1	-	32.1
Harare	31.8	-	31.8
All Zimbabwe	31.7	30.5	31.2

Source: PICES 2017: Notes: Variation in FPL is caused by spatial and seasonal variations in prices and by variations in the food shares by place of residence (rural/urban) and province.

The value of the Total Consumption Poverty Line (upper line) for Zimbabwe was US$70.36 per person per month (Table 2.2). The TCPL includes an allowance for non-food minimum need requirements such as housing, clothing, transportation and health care, etc. The TCPL naturally exceeds the FPL, and households or people whose per capita consumption expenditure is below the TCPL are deemed to be poor. Each of these poverty lines varies by region and month of the survey to reflect regional and temporal differences in prices. The average non-food consumption expenditure for the households whose per capita food was around the food poverty line was computed to give the TCPL. See Annex D for details on how the poverty datum lines used in this study were constructed.

Table 2.2: Total Consumption Poverty Line (TCPL) US Dollars

Zimbabwe	Average Value	TCPL=FPL + Non Food Consumption Expenditure
Food Poverty Line	US$31.27	US$ 70.36
Non Food Consumption	US$39.09	

Source: PICES 2017: One TCPL is computed for Zimbabwe. TPDL is measured in US$ per person per month. The non-food consumption expenditure for households whose per capita food is around (+-FPL) the food poverty line is computed. The average non-food for these households is computed to give the TCPL.

2.4   Poverty Measures

In order to make poverty comparisons across population subgroups or over time, data on individual or household consumption expenditures and the levels of such consumption relative to the poverty lines must be aggregated over people or households in the subgroups. The *prevalence* of poverty is one example of such an aggregation. The prevalence (also known as the *headcount index*) represents the share of population (either people or households) whose consumption expenditures fall below the poverty line as a proportion of the total population. *For example, the prevalence of poverty in a region is the number of people (or households) below the poverty line divided by the total population (individual or households) in the region.* The prevalence of poverty is especially useful for targeting regions and subgroups; a basic principle of targeting is to target groups or regions whose poverty prevalence is highest.

The prevalence of poverty does not, however, provide complete information about the degree of poverty felt by different subgroups. It does not inform about the *depth of poverty* or the mean shortfall of the poor's consumption expenditures below the poverty line. This information is provided by the *poverty gap index* which is *the average poverty gap in the population as a proportion of the poverty line.*

The *poverty severity index* sometimes referred to as the *squared poverty gap index* takes into account not only the distance separating the poor from the poverty line (the poverty gap) but also the inequality among the poor. That is, a higher weight is placed on those households who are further away from the poverty line. *In other words, the poverty severity index is a weighted sum of poverty gaps as a proportion of the poverty line.* This is in contrast to the poverty gap index where the poverty gaps are weighted equally.

Each of these measures belong to a class of poverty indices known as the Foster, Greer, Thorbecke (FGT) indices.

The following analysis will be conducted on a household basis. Since the ultimate interest of the policy maker is reduction of poverty among people, results will also be presented for individual poverty.

2.5   Average and Median Consumption

Levels of well-being, as measured by consumption expenditure per person, are very low in Zimbabwe. It should be noted that household consumption expenditure includes purchases of goods and services, own consumption and in kind consumption as well. The national mean consumption per person per month (based on the value of the dollar in June 2017) was US$85.2 and median consumption was US$55.7 (See Figure 2.1). In urban areas, the mean and median per capita consumption expenditures per month were US$133.4 and US$98.7, respectively. As expected, rural people had lower mean and median monthly consumption expenditures per capita compared to urban areas: US$59.2 and US$41.5, respectively. The June 2017 mean and median figures were taken as they represent stable period in the middle of the PICES survey year. June 2017 prices were used as the base for deflating nominal data.

Figure 2.1: Mean and Median Monthly per Capita Consumption Expenditures in US Dollars for Rural and Urban Areas
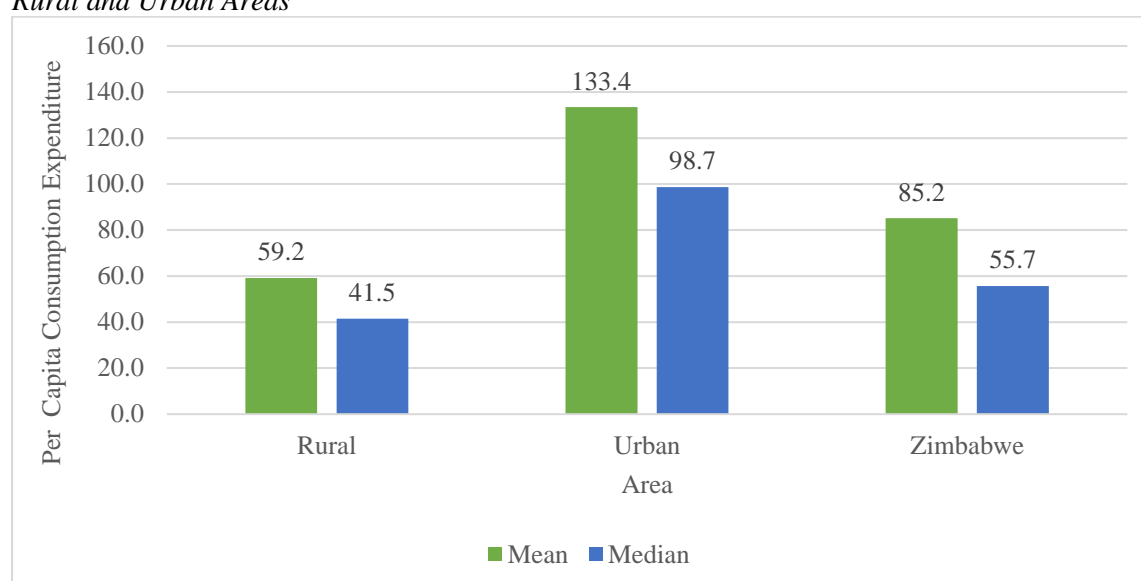
Source: PICES 2017

In order to measure whether well-being is equally or unequally distributed the *Gini coefficient was used*. A Gini coefficient of 1 is an indication of complete income inequality with one person having all the income while a Gini coefficient of 0 is indicative of complete equality with everybody earning an equal income. A *Lorenz curve* plots the cumulative percentages of total income received against the cumulative number of recipients, starting with the poorest individual or household.

The Gini coefficient of Zimbabwe according to PICES 2017 was 0.435 up from 0.423[1] in 2011/12. See Table 2.3. This suggests growing welfare inequality in Zimbabwe over the recent years and an increase in the gap between the rich and the poor. [2]. The Gini coefficients in Zimbabwe declined substantially between 1995/96 and 2011/12 before increasing somewhat in 2017 as shown by Table 2.3. However, it can be noted that the rural gini coefficient has been on a continuous downward trend since 1995/96 whereas that of urban areas took a rise from 2011/12 to 2017.

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[1] This Gini coefficient is constructed using real consumption per person as the welfare measure and using the PICES 2017 population weights to reach nationally representative estimates.
[2] The source of Zimbabwe data is ICES 1995, ICES 2001, PICES 2011 and PICES 2017.

Table 2.3: Comparison of the Gini Coefficient in Zimbabwe over Selected Years

Year	National gini coefficient	Rural gini coefficient	Urban gini coefficient
2017	0.435	0.361	0.398
2011/12	0.423	0.370	0.390
2001	0.489	0.434	0.452
1995/96	0.626	0.597	0.575

Source: ZIMSTAT PICES Surveys

Inequality varies by place of residence and was slightly higher in urban areas (the Gini was 0.398) compared to rural areas (0.361), See Table 2.3. Part of this inequality was driven by disparities between rural and urban areas. The national Gini coefficient was much higher than when rural and urban areas were considered separately, which is an indication of the large gap in median consumption expenditures between rural and urban areas. See Annex D.

Individual well-being is skewed and unequal as indicated by the Lorenz curve in Figure 2.2. The Lorenz curve provides a complete summary of information about the distribution of well-being. It is graphed as the cumulative percentage of consumption expenditures (the Y-axis controlled by the cumulative percentage of population (the X-axis). If well-being is evenly distributed, the Lorenz curve would be the first diagonal. The Gini coefficients and the Lorenz Curve show minor differences in inequality between rural and urban areas in the lower segments of the population but widens after 40 percent as shown in the graph.

Figure 2.2: Lorenz Curve for Zimbabwe Rural and Urban Areas
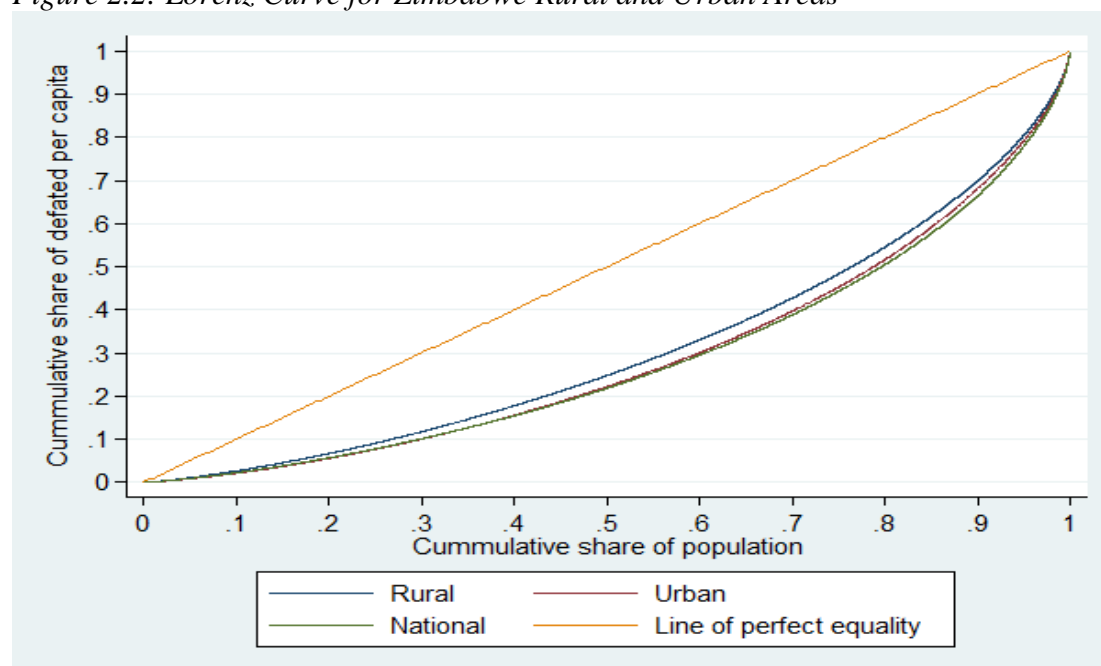
Source: ZIMSTAT, PICES 2017.

Poverty was much higher in rural than in urban areas of Zimbabwe as spatial patterns of individual and household poverty follow those of mean levels of consumption. While 60.6 percent of all Zimbabwean households had per capita consumption expenditures below the upper poverty line (the TCPL), 76.9 percent of rural and 30.4 percent of urban households were deemed poor (Table 2.4). According to the PICES 2017 data, the majority of Zimbabwe's households (69.2 percent) lived in rural areas. The indices of poverty show that prevalence, depth, and severity of rural poverty were much higher than those of urban poverty.

Since poor households tend to have more people than the non-poor, the rural *individual* poverty prevalence was 86.0 percent, compared to 37.0 percent among the urban population (Table 2.4). Extreme poverty was also much higher in rural areas as 40.9 percent of the rural population was extremely poor compared to 4.4 percent in urban areas (Table 2.4).

Table 2.4: Poverty Indices by Place of Residence

	Prevalence (%) of		Poverty indices	
Residence	Poverty	Extreme poverty	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
Households				
Rural	76.9	31.9	36.6	20.6
Urban	30.4	3.3	9.0	3.7
All Zimbabwe	60.6	21.9	26.9	14.7
Population				
Rural	86.0	40.9	43.5	25.4
Urban	37.0	4.4	11.3	4.8
All Zimbabwe	70.5	29.3	33.3	18.9

Source: PICES 2017. Poverty refers to the prevalence of households or people in households whose consumption expenditures per capita are below the upper poverty line (the TCPL). Extreme poverty represents a shortfall below the lower poverty line (FPL). The poverty gap and the severity indices are the Foster, Greer and Thorbecke $\alpha=1$ and $\alpha=2$ measures, respectively (see Ravallion, 1992 for details). These indices are computed using the upper poverty line.

2.6   Comparison of Poverty Prevalence over Time

The national-level household poverty rate of 60.6 percent for 2017 was slightly lower than 62.6 percent in 2011/12. The poverty gap has also slightly decreased from 27.7 percent in 2011/12 to 26.9 percent in 2017. However, extreme household poverty increased to 21.9 percent in 2017 up from 16.2 percent in 2011/12, See Table 2.5. This increase is driven by worsening conditions in rural areas (rural household poverty increased from 22.9 to 31.9 percent while urban extreme poverty dropped from 4 to 3.3 percent.

Table 2.5: Household Measured Prevalence of Poverty, for Selected Years

Residence	Measured prevalence of		Poverty indices	
	Poverty	Extreme poverty	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
PICES 2017				
Rural	76.9	31.9	36.6	20.6
Urban	30.4	3.3	9.0	3.7
All Zimbabwe	**60.6**	**21.9**	**26.9**	**14.7**
PICES 2011/12				
Rural	76.0	22.9	36.1	20.6
Urban	38.2	4.0	12.3	5.6
All Zimbabwe	**62.6**	**16.2**	**27.7**	**15.2**
ICES 2001				
Rural	73.0	42.3	36.1	21.6
Urban	33.8	10.5	11.7	5.5
All Zimbabwe	**60.6**	**32.2**	**28.3**	**16.5**
ICES 1995				
Rural	76.2	50.4	50.6	30.5
Urban	41.1	10.2	35.4	16.9
All Zimbabwe	**63.3**	**35.7**	**47.0**	**27.3**

Source: PICES 2017, PICES 2011, ICES 2001 and ICES 1995 reports. Note: comparison was based only on percentage differences. The poverty lines for 1995 and 2001 were not recalibrated to 2017 prices.

The individual national poverty rate dropped to 70.5 percent in 2017 from 72.3 percent in 2011/12. The poverty gap also decreased slightly from 34.1 percent in 2011/12 to 33.3 percent in 2017. However, rural individual poverty increased from 84.3 percent in 2011/12 to 86.0 percent in 2017. Extreme poverty among the population increased from 22.5 percent in 2011/12 to 29.3 percent in 2017. See Table 2.6. Urban areas appeared to be witnessing lower poverty over time and the national pattern of increasing extreme poverty was being driven by worsening conditions in rural areas leading to higher levels of poverty prevalence rates in rural areas.

Table 2.6: Individual Measured Prevalence of Poverty, for Selected Years

Residence	Measured prevalence of		Poverty Indices	
	Poverty	Extreme poverty	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
PICES 2017				
Rural	86.0	40.9	43.5	25.4
Urban	37.0	4.4	11.3	4.8
All Zimbabwe	**70.5**	**29.3**	**33.3**	**18.9**
PICES 2011/12				
Rural	84.3	30.4	42.8	25.4
Urban	46.5	5.6	15.5	7.2
All Zimbabwe	**72.3**	**22.5**	**34.1**	**19.6**
ICES 2001				
Rural	82.4	52.4	43.4	27.0
Urban	42.3	14.5	15.5	7.6
All Zimbabwe	**70.9**	**41.5**	**35.4**	**21.4**
ICES 1995				
Rural	86.4	62.8	**47.1**	**29.6**
Urban	53.4	15.0	**20.2**	**10.0**
All Zimbabwe	**75.6**	**47.2**	**38.3**	**23.2**

Source: PICES 2017, PICES 2011, ICES 2001 and ICES 1995. Note comparison was done only in percentages. The poverty lines were not recalibrated to 2017 prices.

2.7 Geographical Picture of Poverty

Poverty among households varies significantly across and within provinces of Zimbabwe. The prevalence of household poverty ranged from 22.3 percent in Bulawayo Province to 81.6 percent in Mashonaland Central Province. The high poverty prevalence among households in rural Mashonaland Central Province has lifted the overall poverty prevalence of the province. According to all poverty indices, Matabeleland North, Manicaland and Mashonaland West provinces have a poverty prevalence levels of 70 percent and above (Table 2.7)[3]. Mashonaland Central is the poorest province, worse off according to each poverty index, having an extreme poverty index of 41.2 percent, a poverty gap index of 42.2 percent and a severity poverty index of 25.1 percent. It should be noted that the provinces with a high prevalence of poverty were also those with the deepest and most severe poverty. Households in Bulawayo and Harare reported low levels of extreme poverty, 0.9 percent and 3.8 percent, respectively, and their poverty gap indices were the lowest being 5.3 percent and 9.7, respectively. The poverty severity index was lowest in Bulawayo with 1.8 percent while the poverty severity index of Harare was 4.1 percent.

Only 10 percent of Zimbabwe's poor households were found in the major cities, Harare and Bulawayo. Manicaland Province had the highest proportion of poor households (16 percent of

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[3] For the purposes of targeting poverty alleviation programmes, it is preferred to target based on a higher prevalence or incidence of poverty. The reason for this preference is that there will be fewer "leakages" to non-poor households in high-prevalence subgroups. However, some policymakers wish to know the subgroups containing the largest percentages or numbers or poor, and for this purpose we report the distribution of poor by province.

all poor households live here), while Bulawayo (2.1 percent) and Matabaleland South Province (5.6 percent) and Matabeleland North Province (6 percent) have the lowest proportion of poor households (See Table 2.7).

Table 2.7: Household Poverty Indices by Province

| Province | Percent poor households | Prevalence of (%) | | Poverty Indices | |
		Poor households	Extremely poor households	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
Manicaland	16.5	71.0	27.9	33.0	18.3
Mashonaland Central	12.5	81.6	41.2	42.2	25.1
Mashonaland East	12.6	65.6	22.2	28.8	15.5
Mashonaland West	12.8	71.1	31.6	34.3	20.0
Matabeleland North	6.1	74.3	33.3	36.0	20.6
Matabeleland South	5.3	62.8	17.8	25.6	13.1
Midlands	11.4	63.0	21.8	27.8	15.0
Masvingo	12.8	64.8	20.7	27.6	14.5
Bulawayo	2.1	22.3	0.9	5.3	1.8
Harare Province	7.9	31.1	3.8	9.7	4.1
All Zimbabwe	**100.0**	**60.6**	**21.9**	**26.9**	**14.7**

Source: PICES 2017. The poverty gap and the severity indices are the Foster, Greer and Thorbecke $\alpha=1$ and $\alpha=2$ measures, respectively (see Ravallion, 1992 for details). These indices are computed using the upper poverty line (the TCPL). Prevalence of poverty refers to the percentage of households whose consumption expenditures per capita fall below the upper poverty line (the TCPL). Extreme poverty refers to households below the lower line (the FPL).

Looking at individual poverty (Table 2.8) we note that Manicaland Province had the highest proportion of the poor (16.4 percent) followed by Masvingo Province (13.3 percent). Mashonaland Central Province had the highest individual poverty rate of 87.9 percent. The lowest individual poverty prevalence was in Bulawayo Province, 29.9 percent, followed by Harare Province with 37.3 percent. Extreme individual poverty was highest in Mashonaland Central Province with 49.5 percent of the population below the food poverty line followed by Matabeleland North province with 45.1 percent while the lowest was found in Bulawayo Province (1 percent) and Harare Province (5.2 percent). The individual poverty gap was highest in Mashonaland Central Province (47.9 percent) followed by Matabeleland North Province with (44.6 percent).

Table 2.8: Prevalence of Poor and Severely Poor People and Distribution of Poor People by Province

| Province | Percent poor people | Prevalence (%) of | | Poverty indices | |
		Poor people	Very poor people	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
Manicaland	16.4	80.7	36.9	40.0	23.0
Mashonaland Central	12.0	87.9	49.5	47.9	29.4
Mashonaland East	12.2	75.8	29.9	35.5	19.9
Mashonaland West	12.6	78.7	38.7	39.9	23.9
Matabeleland North	6.5	85.3	45.1	44.6	26.6
Matabeleland South	5.7	76.9	27.3	34.3	18.5
Midlands	11.8	73.8	30.2	34.9	19.7
Masvingo	13.3	75.0	27.9	34.0	18.5
Bulawayo	2.2	29.9	1.3	7.1	2.4
Harare Province	7.3	37.3	5.2	12.2	5.3
All Zimbabwe	100.0	70.5	29.3	33.3	18.9

Source: PICES 2017 The poverty gap and the severity indices are the Foster, Greer and Thorbecke $\alpha=1$ and $\alpha=2$ measures, respectively (see Ravallion, 1992 for details). These indices are calculated using the upper poverty line.

Poverty was much higher in rural areas than in urban areas and the overall level of poverty was positively related to the proportion of the provincial population living in rural areas.

The major cities had lower poverty levels than the other provinces which were predominantly rural and the patterns of poverty across the large cities were similar. Harare Province had, however, a large percentage of households whose monthly consumption fell between the two poverty lines (the TCPL and the FPL) since the measured prevalence of poverty dropped dramatically when the lower line was used instead of the upper line. This drop indicates a bunching of household consumption expenditures just below the upper poverty line suggesting high vulnerability to income shocks

A simulation exercise was conducted to observe the changes in poverty prevalence following a 10 percent increase in per capita consumption expenditures in each household. The results of the simulation indicates that the poverty prevalence in Zimbabwe would drop by 4.1 percentage points to 56.5 percent from 60.6 percent currently being reported (See Table 2.9). If the above scenario occurs, all provinces would register a decline of poverty prevalence by a magnitude ranging from 3.1 percentage points in Mashonaland Central Province to 5.2 percentage points in Harare Province. Mashonaland Central Province consumption expenditures were so low that the 10% increment in consumption does little to reduce poverty. (Table 2.9)

Table 2.9: Simulation Results: Prevalence of Household Poverty and Poverty indices by Province Following a 10 Percent Increase in Per Capita Consumption Expenditures in Households

Province	Percent poor households before simulation (1)	Percent poor households after simulation (2)	Prevalence of (%) Poverty before simulation (1)	Poverty after simulation (2)	Percent change in poverty prevalence (2-1)
Manicaland	16.5	16.8	71.0	67.2	-3.8
Mashonaland Central	12.5	12.9	81.6	78.5	-3.1
Mashonaland East	12.6	12.7	65.6	61.2	-4.4
Mashonaland West	12.8	12.9	71.1	66.7	-4.4
Matabeleland North	6.1	6.2	74.3	70.7	-3.6
Matabeleland South	5.3	5.2	62.8	57.6	-5.2
Midlands	11.4	11.5	63.0	59.1	-4.0
Masvingo	12.8	12.7	64.8	59.9	-4.9
Bulawayo	2.1	1.8	22.3	17.8	-4.5
Harare	7.9	7.4	31.1	27.3	-3.9
All Zimbabwe	100.0	100.0	60.6	56.5	-4.1

Source: PICES 2017. The poverty gap and the severity indices are the Foster, Greer and Thorbecke $\alpha=1$ and $\alpha=2$ measures, respectively (see Ravallion, 1992 for details). These indices are computed using the upper poverty line (the TCPL). Prevalence of poverty refers to the percentage of households whose consumption expenditures per capita fall below the upper poverty line (the TCPL). Extreme poverty refers to households below the lower line (the FPL).

2.8   Poverty in Rural Areas

Of all provinces in Zimbabwe, Mashonaland Central Province had the highest proportion of poor households, (16.1 percent) followed by Mashonaland East Province with 14.0 percent and Matabeleland North Province at 12.5 percent. The poor in Manicaland and Masvingo Provinces constitute 12.2 percent and 11.9 percent, respectively, of the total rural poor Zimbabwean households (See Table 2.10). On top of containing the highest proportion of Zimbabwe's rural poor, Mashonaland Central Province had the highest prevalence of rural poverty, 84.7 percent of rural households in the province were poor. This is followed by Mashonaland West and Manicaland provinces with rural household poverty prevalences of 82.7 and 78.7 percent, respectively.

Table 2.10: Household Poverty in Percentages by Province in Rural Zimbabwe

Province	Household prevalence of (%)				
	Percent poor households	Poor	Extremely poor	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
Manicaland	12.2	78.7	32.7	37.7	21.2
Mashonaland Central	16.1	84.7	43.5	44.2	26.4
Mashonaland East	14.0	71.3	25.7	32.3	17.7
Mashonaland West	10.5	82.7	41.3	42.2	25.2
Matabeleland North	12.5	78.6	36.9	39.0	22.5
Matabeleland South	11.0	68.5	20.7	28.7	14.9
Midlands	11.7	77.6	30.3	36.3	20.1
Masvingo	11.9	71.5	23.6	30.9	16.4
Total	100.0	76.9	31.9	36.6	20.6

Source: 2017 PICES.

When urban areas are considered, Harare Province had the highest contribution to urban poverty: 44.7 percent of the urban poor households lived there followed by urban Manicaland Province which contributed 11.7 percent. (Table 2.11). Urban household poverty rates were highest in Matabeleland South Province where 40.2 percent of the urban households were poor followed by Mashonaland West Province at 39.0 percent. Extreme urban poverty rates were highest in Mashonaland East Province and Mashonaland West Province, although still relatively low (5.7 to 5.8 percent) (Table 2.11).

Table 2.11: Household Poverty Prevalence by Province in Urban Areas

Province	Percent poor households	Prevalence of poverty	Prevalence of extreme poverty	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
Manicaland	11.7	22.3	0.9	5.3	1.8
Mashonaland Central	8.5	36.0	5.8	11.6	5.2
Mashonaland East	1.5	30.6	2.5	8.9	3.4
Mashonaland West	7.5	39.0	5.7	12.3	5.2
Matabeleland North	9.8	37.4	3.4	11.1	4.6
Matabeleland South	2.1	40.2	4.8	12.6	5.4
Midlands	2.0	29.0	0.9	6.9	2.3
Masvingo	9.4	29.9	2.4	8.3	3.3
Bulawayo	2.7	19.0	1.2	4.8	1.9
Harare	44.7	31.1	3.8	9.7	4.1
Total	100.0	30.4	3.3	9.0	3.7

Source: PICES 2017. The poverty gap and the severity indices are the Foster, Greer and Thorbecke $\alpha=1$ and $\alpha=2$ measures, respectively (see Ravallion, 1992 for details). These indices are calculated using the upper poverty line.

2.9   Characteristics of Poor Households

Poor households in Zimbabwe had the following characteristics: they have high dependency ratios, while heads of households tend to be older (Table 2.12). Poor households had a dependency ratio of 47.7 percent which was 17 percentage points higher than non-poor households. In rural areas, poor households had a dependency ratio of 49.2 percent per household which was slightly higher than the dependency ratio in urban poor households of 43.0 percent per household. The dependency ratio was highest in extremely poor rural households being 54.7 percent compared to the dependency ratio for households in urban areas which was 50.4 percent.

Poor households in Zimbabwe were also larger in size than non-poor households. Poor families had a mean size of 4.2 members, compared to 3.2 for the non-poor while extremely poor households had an average size of 5.7 members. The mean household size for the rural poor was 4.5 members while rural non-poor households had a mean size of 2.7 members. The extremely poor households in rural areas had on average 5.7 members compared to extremely poor households in urban areas with 5.1 members.

In rural areas, heads of poor households were older than heads of non-poor households, but the heads of extreme poor households were younger than the rural average. In urban areas both poor and extreme poor household heads were younger than the average, suggesting that many of the urban poor and extreme poor may include young families

Table 2.12: Dependency Ratios and Age of Household Head by Poverty Status

Poverty status	Dependency ratio (percent)	Mean household size	Children under the age of 6	Mean age of household head
National	42.4	4.2	0.7	45.6
Non-poor	30.6	3.2	0.4	44.5
Poor	47.7	4.5	0.8	46.4
Extremely poor	54.5	5.7	1.1	46.4
Rural	47.1	4.4	0.8	47.4
Non-poor	32.4	2.7	0.3	46.7
Poor	49.2	4.5	0.8	48.3
Extremely poor	54.7	5.7	1.1	46.7
Urban	33.9	3.8	0.6	42.4
Non-poor	29.5	3.4	0.5	43.2
Poor	43.0	4.6	0.9	40.4
Extremely poor	50.4	5.1	1.2	41.7

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households are those below the upper poverty line (the TCPL), and poorest have consumption expenditures below the lower poverty line (the FPL). Dependence ratios here are the mean dependency ratio for households in the particular poverty group. So dependency ratios here refer to the mean dependency ratio (i.e. number of dependents divided by the total number of household members) for households in a particular poverty group. For example, the rural poor dependence ratio is the sum of household dependency ratios (for poor households) divided by the number of poor households. This is somewhat different from the way demographers traditionally compute these ratios.

2.10 Sex of Household Head

According to the PICES 2017 survey, male-headed households constituted 62.1 percent of all households in Zimbabwe while 38.0 percent of households were female-headed (See Table 2.13). Female-headed households were more common among smaller households, as almost half of households of 2 to 3 members were female-headed. Larger families had a larger proportion of male-headed households.

Table 2.13: Percent Distribution of Households of Different Sizes by Sex of Head of Household

	Sex of head, Zimbabwe		
Size of household	Male	Female	All
	%	%	%
1	58.7	41.3	100.0
2	50.4	49.6	100.0
3	54.1	45.9	100.0
4	62.1	37.9	100.0
5	66.8	33.2	100.0
6	70.2	29.8	100.0
7	69.3	30.7	100.0
8	68.6	31.4	100.0
9 +	70.5	29.5	100.0
Total	**62.1**	**38.0**	**100.0**

Source: PICES 2017

Female household heads can be classified as *dejure or defacto* heads. *De-facto* female headship means that the woman is head of the household because her husband is temporarily absent. *Dejure* female household heads are the usual heads of the household normally identified by marital status such as divorced/separated or widowed. This distinction has implications on prevalence of poverty. Households that are headed by *de-facto* females may be better off than *de-jure* female heads of household because they might receive remittances from absent spouses while the female *de-jure* heads may have to stand on their own.

Male-headed households were somewhat poorer (61.6 percent is poor) than female-headed households (58.9 percent). Extreme poverty was also slightly higher for the *de-facto* male-headed households with 25.2 percent compared to the prevalence of extreme poverty in the *de-facto*, female-headed households with 21.2 percent. Divorced male-headed households were less poor than widowed female-headed households. At the same time, households headed by male widows were less poor than families with a female widow as a head (Table 2.14). Sex of the household head may influence the ability to access wage jobs, or land, for example, can be important to secure income and these can be more difficult to access for women than for men. Male-headed households that had never married were much less poor than other households, they were also less poor than female-headed households that had never married.

While male-headed households were somewhat worse off on average, but larger household of male-headed households may play a role here as our welfare measure was expenditure per capita, leading to lower welfare and higher poverty when households were larger. Higher poverty among female-headed households that were widowed, divorced or never married

headed than their male-headed equivalent suggest that many female-headed households faced substantial disadvantages. But there was substantial diversity among female-headed households and targeting any programme based on household headship alone will need to be met with caution (Table 2.14).

Table 2.14: Household Poverty by Household Headship-All Zimbabwe

Headship	Prevalence (%) of		Poverty indices	
	Poverty	Extreme poverty	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
Male-headed	**61.6**	**23.1**	**27.8**	**15.3**
Defacto				
-Married	65.4	25.2	29.9	16.6
Dejure				
-Divorced	41.2	8.2	14.9	7.1
-Widowed	49.8	12.7	19.6	9.9
Never Married	19.5	2.9	6.2	2.7
Female headed	**58.9**	**19.8**	**25.4**	**13.6**
Defacto				
-Married	62.3	21.2	27.1	14.5
Dejure				
-Divorced	46.6	14.3	19.2	10.2
-Widowed	64.4	22.5	28.1	15.2
Never Married	29.3	5.8	10.1	4.9

Source: PICES 2017. The poverty gap and the severity indices are the Foster, Greer and Thorbecke $\alpha=1$ and $\alpha=2$ measures, respectively. These indices were computed using the upper poverty line. Defacto female headship means that the woman is head of the household because her husband is temporarily absent. Dejure female household heads are the usual heads of the household normally identified by marital status such as divorced/separated or widowed.

In rural areas, the female headed households that were widowed or divorced were much poorer than their male-headed equivalents but the difference was much smaller in urban areas. This would suggest that rural widows and divorcees were vulnerable

2.11   Employment and Income Sources

The type of employment of the household head is closely associated with household poverty status. In rural and urban areas, households headed by own-account workers were most likely to be affected by high poverty. Casual or temporary employees similarly suffered from high poverty. Households headed by a permanent paid employee or by an employer had the lowest likelihood of being poor. Households headed by communal and resettlement farmers suffered from the greatest poverty prevalence, 82.9 percent, while households headed by an employer had a poverty prevalence of 10.0 percent, (Table 2.15). Households headed by an unemployed head had a poverty prevalence of 67.7 percent in rural areas compared to 45.7 percent in urban areas.

Table 2.15: Prevalence of Household Poverty by Main Activity of Household Head and Rural/Urban

Main activity	Place of residency		
	Rural	Urban	All Zimbabwe
Paid employee-permanent	40.8	15.8	25.7
Paid employee casual	64.9	39.7	49.2
Employer	36.5	6.1	10.0
Communal and resettlement farmer	83.7	37.4	82.9
Own account worker (other)	66.5	40.2	47.4
Unpaid family worker	53.7	76.5	65.4
Unemployed	67.7	45.7	48.3

Source: PICES 2017. Prevalence refers to the percentage of households whose consumption expenditures per capita fall below the upper poverty line.

Households headed by Government workers had the lowest poverty both in in urban and rural areas (Table 2.16). These were followed by parastatal workers and non-farm own account workers. The poverty and extreme poverty prevalence was highest for communal farmers followed by resettlement farmers (Table 2.16). Households headed by a private sector worker were poorer than average. But households headed by someone who was employed in the formal sector were less likely to be poor than those in the informal sector in both rural and urban areas.

Table 2.16: Prevalence of Household Poverty by Sector of Employment of the Household Head and Rural/Urban

Employment type	Rural		Urban	
	Poor	Extremely poor	Poor	Extremely poor
Communal farmer	85.1	38.1	-	-
Resettlement farmer	81.0	31.8	-	-
Own account worker other	66.5	21.4	47.4	9.2
Government worker	23.4	2.7	17.0	1.4
Parastatal worker	37.8	6.4	15.5	1.7
Private sector	79.9	33.4	68.1	25.6
Formal sector	70.9	27.5	50.1	15.8
Informal sector	78.2	32.9	63.6	23.6

Source: PICES 2017. Government workers include Central and Local government workers; parastatals include cooperative employees; formal sector includes registered establishments; informal sector includes unregistered establishments.

The impact of poverty on household access to employment in a "formal" sector is strong. Household members working in the formal sector consisted of those working in establishments such as Central and Local Government, quasi-corporations, parastatals, or private companies, and registered cooperatives. Household members working in the informal sector were those who were working in household enterprises which were neither registered nor licensed.

Given these definitions, it was observed that households with at least one member working in the formal sector were much less poorer (20 percent is poor) than those working in the informal

sector (63 percent). This was true for both rural and urban areas. These results show that the Government strategy to promote formal employment is very relevant for poverty reduction (Table 2.17).

Table 2.17: Household Poverty Indices by Household Member's Employment

| Employment status | Prevalence (%) of | | Poverty indices | |
	Poverty	Extreme poverty	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
At least one household member with formal employment				
Rural areas	54.7	14.1	21.0	10.4
Urban areas	18.4	1.8	4.6	1.8
All Zimbabwe	29.4	5.6	9.6	4.4
No member with formal employment				
Rural areas	77.8	32.7	37.2	21.0
Urban areas	32.8	3.5	9.8	4.1
All Zimbabwe	63.4	23.3	28.4	15.6

Source: PICES 2017. The poverty gap and the severity indices are the Foster, Greer and Thorbecke $\alpha=1$ and $\alpha=2$ measures, respectively. These indices were computed using the Upper poverty line. Formal sector means that household has at least one member with Government, parastatal, or formal sector employment.

Consistent with the above findings, households whose head received his/her main source of earnings from salaries and wages were less likely to be poor in Zimbabwe compared to those dependent on other sources of income. As expected, households that earned most of their money from communal farming were the poorest, and had the deepest and most severe poverty. The incidence of poverty for households engaged in communal farming was 85.0 percent with extreme poverty levels of 39.0 percent and a poverty gap index of 42.0 percent. Households whose head was an owner of business had the lowest extreme poverty rate but their poverty rate (using the upper poverty line) was slightly above those relying on salaries and wages. See Table 2.18.

Table 2.18: Household Poverty Indices by Household Head's Main Source of Household Income, Zimbabwe

| Main source of income | Prevalence (%) of | | Poverty Indices | |
	Poverty	Extreme poverty	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
Salary and wages	37.0	8.0	13.0	7.0
Gifts and transfers	72.0	24.0	32.0	17.0
Own business	46.0	7.0	16.0	7.0
Communal farming	85.0	39.0	42.0	24.0
Other	81.0	32.0	38.0	21.0

Source: PICES 2017. The poverty gap and the severity indices are the Foster, Greer and Thorbecke $\alpha=1$ and $\alpha=2$ measures, respectively. These indices were computed using the upper poverty line.

In rural areas, poverty was highest for households that depended mainly on communal farming (85.0 percent), followed by households that depended on gifts and transfers (77.0 percent) as

shown in Table 2.19. The lowest poverty rate was found among those whose main source of income was salaries and wages (54.0 percent).

Table 2.19: Household Poverty Prevalence by Main Source of Household Income, Rural Areas

| Main source of income | Rural areas | | | |
| | Prevalence (%) of | | | |
	Poverty	Extreme poverty	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity Index
Salary and wages	54.0	17.0	22.0	12.0
Gifts and transfers	77.0	26.0	34.0	18.0
Own business	64.0	18.0	27.0	14.0
Communal farming	85.0	40.0	43.0	25.0
Other	82.0	33.0	38.0	21.0

Source: PICES 2017. Poor refers to households whose per-capita consumption expenditures are below the upper poverty line (the TCPL). Very poor households are below the lower line (the FPL).

In urban areas, poverty was highest among households that depended mostly on own business. This reflects the high degree of informality and low productivity of these businesses. As reported above, poverty was relatively low, 26.0 percent, among urban households whose main source of income was salaries and wages. See Table 2.20.

Table 2.20: Household Poverty Prevalence by Main Source of Household Income, Urban Areas

| Main Source of Income | Urban areas | | | |
| | Prevalence (%) of | | | |
	Poverty	Extreme poverty	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity Index
Salary and wages	26.0	2.0	7.0	3.0
Gifts and transfers	33.0	8.0	12.0	5.0
Own business	40.0	4.0	12.0	5.0
Communal farming	32.0	7.0	11.0	5.0
Other	18.0	-	4.0	1.0

Source: PICES 2017. Poor refers to households whose per-capita consumption expenditures are below the upper poverty line (the TCPL). Very poor households are below the lower line (the FPL).

In general, poverty was high (72.8 percent) among households without salaried workers as compared to those with a salaried worker (38.5 percent), See Table 2.21. Poverty among household heads that do not have a salary or wage was, as expected, much higher in rural than in urban areas. (Table 2.21).

Table 2.21: Prevalence of Household Poverty and Extreme Poverty by Whether any Household Member Avails Salaries and Wages

Area of residence	Salaried/wage worker			
	Poverty	Extreme poverty	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity Index
Rural	55.5	17.6	23.2	12.2
Urban	26.6	2.3	7.3	2.9
Zimbabwe	38.5	8.5	13.8	6.7
Area of residence	No salaried/wage worker			
	Poverty	Extreme poverty	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity Index
Rural	83.1	36.1	40.4	23.0
Urban	36.1	4.7	11.5	4.9
Zimbabwe	72.8	29.2	34.1	19.1

Source: PICES 2017. Cells contain prevalence of household poverty depending on whether any member of the household has salaries or wages as a main source of income.

2.12 Food Security

Poor households spent 42.5 percent of their consumption expenditure on food while this figure was 28.4 percent among non-poor households (See Table 2.22). The proportion of the total consumption budget allocated to food by a household determines what it allocates to other non-food consumption items. The larger the share of budget a household allocates to food, the less budget space it has to accommodate other non-food expenditures such as health, education, transport and clothing, etc. It was noted that higher food shares were associated with higher prevalence of poverty whilst lower food shares were associated with lower prevalence of poverty. Borrowing and other coping strategies were used by households to smoothen consumption expenditures.

Of the total expenditures on food, the share of total expenditures spent on own maize, the staple food in Zimbabwe, ranged from 7.3 percent for non-poor households in urban areas to 14.0 percent for poor households living in rural areas. Poor households allocated bigger shares to maize than non-poor households. This was probably because non-poor households could afford other starch alternatives such as rice, potatoes and pasta. These alternatives, however, cost more than maize.

Own-produced maize and reliance on non-market purchased foods was markedly higher for the poor households compared to the non-poor households. About 14.0 percent of own produce maize was consumed by rural poor households and 55.6 percent of their food consumption expenditure was not from the market. Much of the food that the poor ate came from food produced for own consumption.

Table 2.22: Food Shares and Own-Production by Poverty Status, Rural and Urban Areas

Shares	Rural			Urban			All Zimbabwe		
	Non-poor	Poor	Total	Non-poor	Poor	Total	Non-poor	Poor	Total
Food shares	36.4	45.0	43.0	23.5	30.9	25.8	28.4	42.5	36.9
Maize shares	19.4	27.4	25.7	11.7	17.2	13.4	14.7	25.7	21.6
Own-prodn/maize	9.9	14.0	13.3	7.3	11.7	9.1	9.6	13.9	13.1
Non-market food	43.1	55.6	52.9	15.9	18.5	16.7	31.1	52.2	45.7

*Source: PICES 2017. **Food shares** are total (market and non-market) value of food consumption divided by total value of consumption; **maize share** is value of maize consumption divided by total value of food consumption; share of **own-produce of maize** is value of maize own consumption divided by total value of food consumption; **non-market food** (consisting of own-produce, gifts and transfers, and payments in kind) is the value of non-market food divided by total value of food consumption).*

The differences in the share of maize in total food consumption varied between 16 and 31 percent depending on the season. The maize shares of the poor were higher than of the non-poor. They varied during the year and were largely driven by the share of own maize consumption which starts increasing after the harvest month of April, was highest in September and lowest in March, just before the harvest. The maize shares of the poor were substantially higher than the non-poor especially during July-October.

The rural poor were more vulnerable to maize price increases during the earlier months of the year (January through May) when their own food stocks are depleted and they rely on markets for purchase of food.

Figure 2.3: Percent Maize Consumption Shares of Households in Rural Areas by Survey Sample Month by Poverty Category
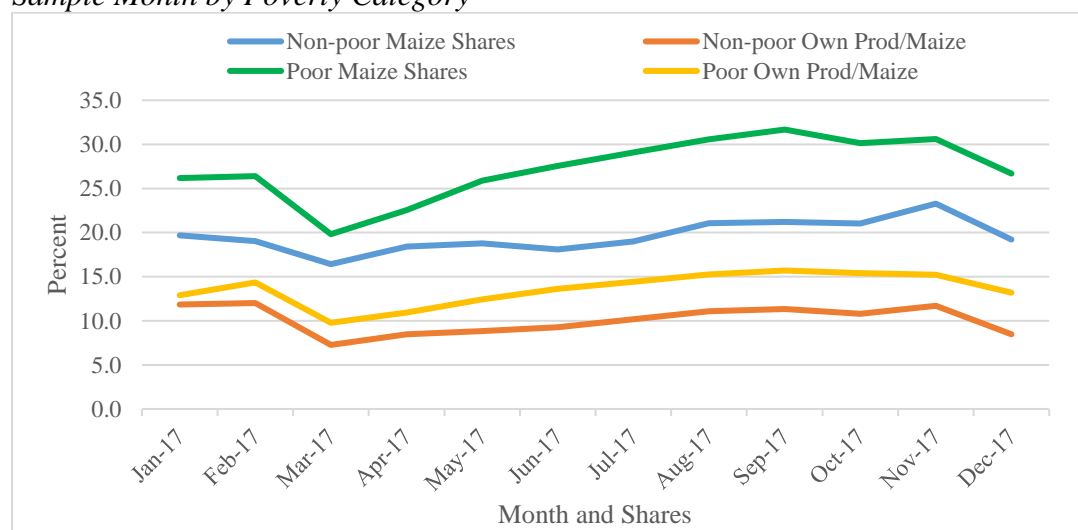
Source: PICES 2017. Maize shares are the share of maize consumption in total food consumption; own-production is the share of maize consumption in total food consumption

The contribution of food shares to total household consumption expenditures in poor households was persistently above 42 percent in most months of the year and ranged from 42 percent in January 2017 to 52 percent in March 2017 (See Figure 2.4). The high food shares also reflect a high poverty prevalence. However, the monthly food shares by non-poor households varied among months, ranging from 32 percent in January 2017 to 43 percent in

March 2017. This shows that the non-poor households spent a smaller proportion of their budget on food compared to the poor households.

Figure 2.4: Percent of Rural Food Shares by Month and Poverty Category
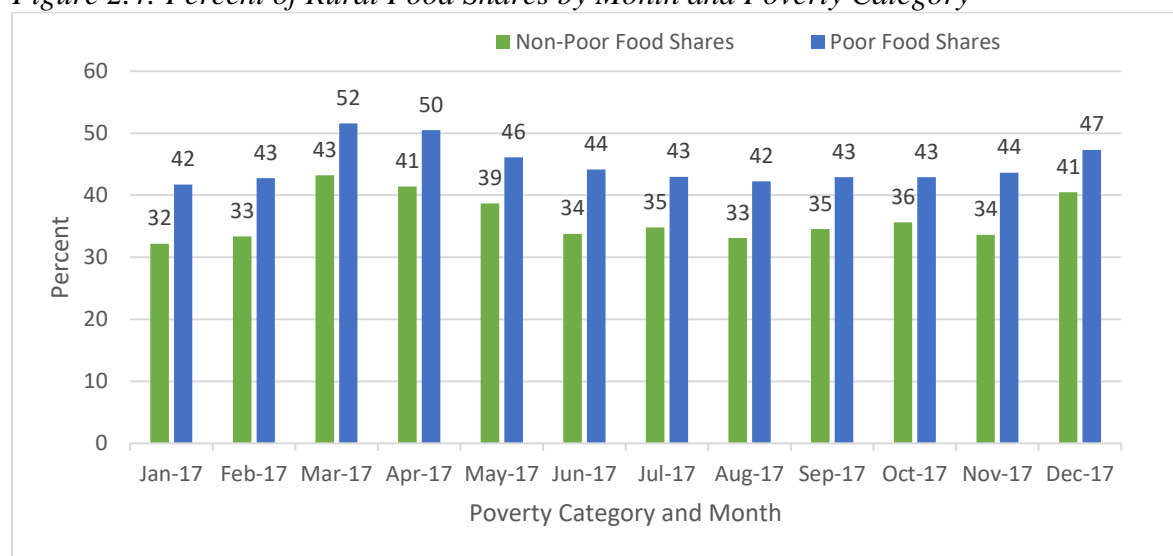
Source: PICES 2017

2.13   Asset Ownership and Poverty

Non-poor households are more likely to own key assets than the poor and very poor households. About 31.1 percent of all Zimbabwean households reported owning a radio while 37.2 percent owned a television and 14.5 percent owned a bicycle. About 7.6 percent owned an automobile (Table 2.23).

Bicycle and radio ownership was not closely associated with poverty status as poor households were slightly more likely to own each type of asset compared to the non-poor and very poor. A relatively high proportion of poor households in Zimbabwe owned a television (28.8 percent) while only 9.7 of the extremely poor own one.

Table 2.23: Percentage of Households Owning Selected Assets by Poverty Status; Zimbabwe

	Poverty status of the household			
Percent owning	**Non-poor**	**Poor**	**Extremely poor**	**All Zimbabwe**
Radio	29.0	33.2	31.4	31.1
Television	60.8	28.8	9.7	37.2
Refrigerator	46.1	11.9	1.0	23.0
Stove	58.6	19.4	2.7	31.2
Heater	6.0	0.9	0.0	2.7
Bicycle	13.4	16.5	12.9	14.5
Automobile	16.8	2.4	0.3	7.6

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have consumption expenditures below the upper poverty line (TCPL), while the extremely poor are below the lower poverty line (FPL).

Asset ownership more clearly distinguishes poor and non-poor households in rural areas compared to urban areas (Table 2.24). This is related to the higher prevalence of poverty in

rural areas and lower levels of rural electrification. Far lower percentages of rural households owned assets such as televisions and refrigerators and the rural poor only had a few of these assets. The rural non-poor were 4 times as likely as the poor to own a refrigerator and 4 times as likely to own an automobile as the poor. About 3.1 percent of the poor households in urban areas owned an automobile compared to 2.2 percent of the poor households in rural areas.

In urban areas, ownership of refrigerators, heaters and automobiles most clearly distinguished poor from non-poor households. The urban non-poor households were 7 times more likely to own a motor vehicle than the urban poor households. Roughly equal percentages of poor and non-poor households owned bicycles in both rural and urban areas.

Table 2.24: Percentage Household Ownership of Assets by Poverty Status, Rural and Urban Areas

Asset	Rural			Urban		
	Non-poor	Poor	Extremely Poor	Non-poor	Poor	Extremely Poor
Radio	33.4	35.9	31.9	26.3	24.7	21.7
Television	28.4	16.5	8.0	80.7	66.7	41.0
Refrigerator	14.9	3.6	0.7	65.3	37.4	7.7
Stove	19.0	4.3	1.0	82.9	65.5	33.6
Heater	1.9	0.3	0.0	8.5	2.8	0.6
Bicycle	19.1	18.4	13.3	10.0	10.5	4.5
Automobile	8.7	2.2	0.3	21.7	3.1	0.0

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per-capita consumption expenditures that are below the upper poverty line (the TCPL). Very poor households are below the lower line.

There were major differences in use of energy by poor and non-poor households in Zimbabwe (Table 2.25) and these differences were partly due to the higher prevalence of poverty in rural areas compared to urban areas. Nationally, 78.9 percent of non-poor households had access to electricity, while 51.6 percent of poor and 34 percent of the extremely poor households had access to electricity. The poor and extremely poor households used more wood or coal as cooking fuel than the non-poor households. Ninety seven percent of the extremely poor used wood or coal as the main source of energy for cooking (Table 2.25).

Table 2.25: Energy Sources by Household Poverty Status for All Zimbabwe (Percent Households with Access to Source).

Energy sources	All Zimbabwe		
	Non-poor	**Poor**	**Extremely Poor**
Access to electricity	78.9	51.6	34.0
Cooking fuel			
Wood or coal	37.8	82.1	96.8
Electricity or gas	58.1	15.2	1.6
Other	4.1	2.7	1.6

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per-capita consumption expenditures below the upper poverty line (the TCPL). Extremely poor households have per capita consumption expenditures that fall below the lower line.

In urban areas, the difference between poor and non-poor households in terms of access to electricity was, however, much smaller. About 79 percent of urban poor households claimed to have access to electricity whilst 94.2 percent of the urban non-poor households had it (Table 2.26). In contrast, in rural areas, 54.4 percent of non-poor and 42.9 percent of the poor have access to electricity. In rural areas, almost all the poor households used firewood to cook, while 82.1 percent of the non-poor cook used wood fuel.

The extensive use of firewood for cooking places pressure on the natural resource base and could lead to substantial environmental degradation. Deforestation soil erosion and siltation of rivers and dams.

Table 2.26: Energy Sources by Household Poverty Status for Rural and Urban, Zimbabwe

Percent Households with Access to Source						
	Rural			Urban		
Energy sources	**Non-poor**	**Poor**	**Extremely poor**	**Non-poor**	**Poor**	**Extremely poor**
Access to electricity	54.4	42.9	32.9	94.2	78.6	54.4
Cooking fuel						
Wood or coal	82.1	97.3	99.1	10.1	35.2	55.9
Electricity or gas	16.1	1.9	0.4	84.3	56.3	22.6
Other	1.8	0.9	0.5	5.6	8.5	21.4

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per-capita consumption expenditures below the upper poverty line (the TCPL).Extremely poor households have per capita consumption expenditures that fall below the lower line.

2.14 Housing

In rural areas, 87.7 percent of the poor households resided in their own dwelling units. In urban areas, about 26 percent of poor households owned their dwelling units while lodgers constituted 53.9 percent of the urban poor. (Table 2.27).

Table 2.27: Distribution of Household Tenure Status by Urban/Rural and Poverty Status

Percentage of Households in Each Class						
	Rural areas		Urban areas		All Zimbabwe	
Tenure status	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor
Owner/purchaser	62.6	87.7	36.6	26.2	46.5	76.9
Tenant or lodger	4.4	2.0	42.4	53.9	28.0	11.2
Tied accommodation	30.3	7.9	8.9	6.8	17.0	7.7
Other	2.7	2.3	12.1	13.1	8.5	4.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

*Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per-capita consumption expenditures below the upper poverty line (the TCPL). A person living in **tied accommodation** occupies it by virtue of his/her job. The accommodation belongs to the employer and is made available as part of terms of employment. If the person leaves the job, s/he is required to move out of the dwelling unit.*

In rural areas, most of the poor and non-poor live in a mixed dwelling (a mixture of modern and traditional dwelling units) while in urban areas, the majority of poor and non-poor live in a detached house. (See Table 2.28).

Table 2.28: Type of Dwelling by Household Poverty Status in Percentages for Rural and Urban Areas

	Rural			Urban		
Dwelling	Non-poor	Poor	Extremely poor	Non-poor	Poor	Extremely poor
Traditional	12.4	22.6	33.8	0.1	0.3	-
Mixed dwellings	46.0	60.5	55.0	0.7	1.2	1.8
Detached house	29.9	12.7	8.7	75.8	70.8	70.4
Semi-detached	9.2	3.0	2.0	17.0	21.7	17.4
Flat or townhouse	1.5	0.6	0.4	5.0	4.2	6.6
Other	1.1	0.6	0.3	1.3	1.9	3.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per-capita consumption expenditures below the upper poverty line (the TCPL). Extremely poor households have per capita consumption expenditures that fall below the lower line. Mixed dwellings is an old style family settlements where one or more of the buildings in a cluster are built of materials more modern than pole and dagga/bricks and thatch. If, for example, one of the buildings is of brick with a corrugated iron roof and the rest are of pole and dagga, the type of dwelling is considered "mixed".

2.15 Summary of Findings

This chapter has presented and discussed poverty trends and the characteristics of the poor and extremely poor. The analysis revealed that poverty was worse in rural areas than in urban areas of Zimbabwe.

The value of the mean food poverty line was US$31.2 per person per month while the Total Consumption Poverty Line (upper line) for Zimbabwe was US$70.36 per person per month. The national mean consumption per person per month was US$85.2 compared to that of urban areas of US$133.4 and rural areas of US$59.2

Poverty was much higher in rural than in urban areas of Zimbabwe. While 60.6 percent of all Zimbabwean households had per capita consumption expenditures below the upper poverty line (the TCPL), 76.9 percent of rural and 30.4 percent of urban households were deemed poor. The indices of poverty show that prevalence, depth, and severity of rural poverty were much higher than those of urban poverty.

Since poor households tend to have more people than the non-poor, the rural *individual* poverty prevalence was 86.0 percent compared to 37.0 percent among the urban population. Extreme poverty was also much higher in rural areas as 40.9 percent of the rural population was extremely poor compared to 4.4 percent in urban areas.

The proportion of the population that was poor dropped to 70.5 percent in 2017 from 72.3 percent in 2011/12. However, *rural* individual poverty increased from 84.3 percent in 2011/12 to 86.0 percent in 2017. *Extreme* poverty among the population increased from 22.5 percent in 2011/12 to 29.3 percent in 2017. This increase in extreme poverty was entirely driven by worsening conditions in rural areas where individual poverty rose from 30.4 to 40.9 percent between 2011/12 and 2017 while poverty rates among the urban population were low and continued to drop from 5.6 percent to 4.4 percent.

Inequality in Zimbabwe, as measured by the Gini coefficient has been declining substantially over time but has risen again since 2011/12: from 0.42 to 0.44 in 2017. The national Gini coefficient was much higher than the one for rural and urban areas separately which was an indication of the large gap in median consumption expenditures between rural and urban areas

Extreme poverty among the population was highest in Mashonaland Central Province with 49.5 percent of the population below the food poverty line followed by Matabeleland North Province with 45.1 percent while the lowest was found in Bulawayo (1 percent) and Harare Province (5.2 percent). Manicaland Province had the highest proportion of the poor (16.4 percent) followed by Masvingo Province (13.3 percent). About 10 percent of Zimbabwe's poor households were found in the major cities, Harare and Bulawayo.

Poor households in Zimbabwe were characterised by large families, high dependency ratios, and on average, older heads of households. Poor households had a dependency ratio of 47.7 percent which is 17 percentage points higher than non-poor households. Rural areas had a higher dependency ratio compared to urban areas.

Male-headed households were somewhat poorer than female-headed households. However, divorced or widowed male-headed households were much less poor than divorced or widowed female-headed households.

At the national level, poor households spent 42.5 percent of their money on food while non-poor households spent 28.4 percent of their budget on food. The contribution of food shares to total household consumption expenditures in poor households was persistently above 42 percent in most months of the year.

3. Sectoral Profile of Poverty in Zimbabwe

3.1. Introduction

In order to formulate an effective poverty reduction strategy, it is necessary to understand the relationships between poverty status and household location, other household characteristics, access to assets and services, degree of dependence on different livelihood strategies and other key correlates of poverty. This section of the report examines some of these relationships.

3.2. Poverty and Agriculture in Rural Areas of Zimbabwe

The differences in household poverty prevalence in rural areas is influenced by rainfall patterns and soil types which determine the types of crops produced. The rural areas with higher poverty prevalence also tended to have some sections of their land being semi-arid and characterized by low productivity. Poverty prevalence was analysed by land use sectors in rural Zimbabwe.

The prevalence of poverty across different land use sectors differed as shown in Table 3.1. Rural poverty was most prevalent in communal lands (CLs) (79.2 percent) followed by resettlement areas (RAs) with 76.4 percent. Extreme poverty was most prevalent in CLs with 34.0 percent and the poverty gap was also the highest here. The differences in poverty prevalence was negligible between CLs and RAs. The prevalence of poverty in CLs might be attributed to the lack of financial and material resources needed to engage in meaningful productive agricultural activities.

Table 3.1: Rural Poverty Head Count for Households by Land Use Sector

	Prevalence (%) of		Prevalence (%) of	
Land use area	Poverty	Extreme poverty	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
Communal lands	79.2	34.0	38.3	21.8
Small scale commercial farms	67.0	27.3	30.8	17.2
Large scale commercial farms	63.9	21.9	27.9	15.0
Resettlement areas	76.4	29.9	35.2	19.5

Source: PICES 2017 NB. Resettlement refers to Old resettlement farms, A1 Farms and A2 Farms established after independence. Small Scale Commercial Farms are the purchased lands before independence.

3.3. Household Size and Poverty in Rural Areas

The average household size in rural areas was 4.4 persons, with communal lands and resettlement areas having average household sizes of 4.5 persons and 4.6 persons, respectively. Large commercial farm areas had an average household size of 3.7 persons while in small scale commercial farm areas this was 4.1 persons. The household size of 4 to 5 members accounts for the greatest share of rural households across land use sectors, See Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Distribution of Households by Size and Rural Land Use Sector

Household size	Communal lands	Small scale commercial farms	Large scale commercial farms	Resettlement areas	Total rural areas
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)
1	8.5	10.7	20.0	8.5	9.6
2-3	25.1	31.8	30.1	24.2	25.6
4-5	36.9	35.3	32.0	37.6	36.6
6-7	20.2	16.1	13.0	20.2	19.4
8+	9.2	6.2	4.8	9.5	8.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Mean size	4.5	4.1	3.7	4.6	4.4

Source: PICES 2017. Household size is a count of reported number of members.

Larger households were more likely to be poor and more likely to be found in resettlement areas and communal lands. The prevalence of poverty among households of more than 8 persons in small scale commercial farms and large-scale commercial farms was 95.5 percent and 82.3 percent, respectively. Similarly, households of size 8 and above in communal lands and resettlement areas had a mean poverty prevalence of 97.0 percent and 95.5 percent respectively. Almost all rural households with 8 members were deemed poor (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3: Poverty Head Count for Households by Size and Rural Land Use Sector

	Household prevalence of poverty (%)			
Household Size	Communal lands	Small scale commercial farms	Large scale commercial farms	Resettlement areas
1	21.1	17.4	18.9	17.1
2-3	67.9	54.2	59.0	62.3
4-5	87.6	82.4	85.4	85.6
6-7	94.2	80.2	85.0	91.8
8+	97.0	95.5	82.3	95.5
Total	79.2	67.0	63.9	76.4

Source: PICES 2017. Poverty refers to the proportion of households whose per capita consumption expenditure values fall below the upper poverty line.

Rural poor households were characterised by much higher dependency ratios compared to non-poor households and dependency was highest for the poorest households (Table 3.4). There were also notable differences in patterns of household dependency across land use areas. Large scale commercial farms had the lowest dependency ratios in all poverty categories compared to other land use sectors. The low dependency ratios for large scale commercial farmers help explain lower rates of poverty in these areas. Extremely poor households had, on average, more dependents than the non-poor across all land use sectors.

Table 3.4:Dependency Ratio by Poverty Status in Rural Areas

Land use area	Non-poor	Poor	Extremely poor
Communal lands	36.2	51.2	55.6
Small scale commercial farms	28.9	41.2	50.7
Large scale commercial farms	19.6	39.4	49.4
Resettlement areas	30.5	47.2	53.2
All rural areas	32.4	49.2	54.7

Source: PICES 2017. Poor household per capita values fall below the upper poverty line and above the lower line. Extremely poor households have per capita values that fall below the lower line. Dependency ratios here are the mean dependency ratio (number of dependents divided by the total number of household members) for households in the particular poverty group.

3.4. Employment, Incomes, and Wealth

The majority of rural workers were communal and resettlement farmers. In rural areas, they constituted 80.6 percent of the economically active population, See Figure 3.1. Own-account workers and others constituted 3.8 percent of the rural areas economically active population while the unemployed constituted 1.3 percent.

Figure 3.1: Percent of Economically Active Persons Aged 15 Years and Above by Economic Activity in Rural Areas in the Last 7 Days
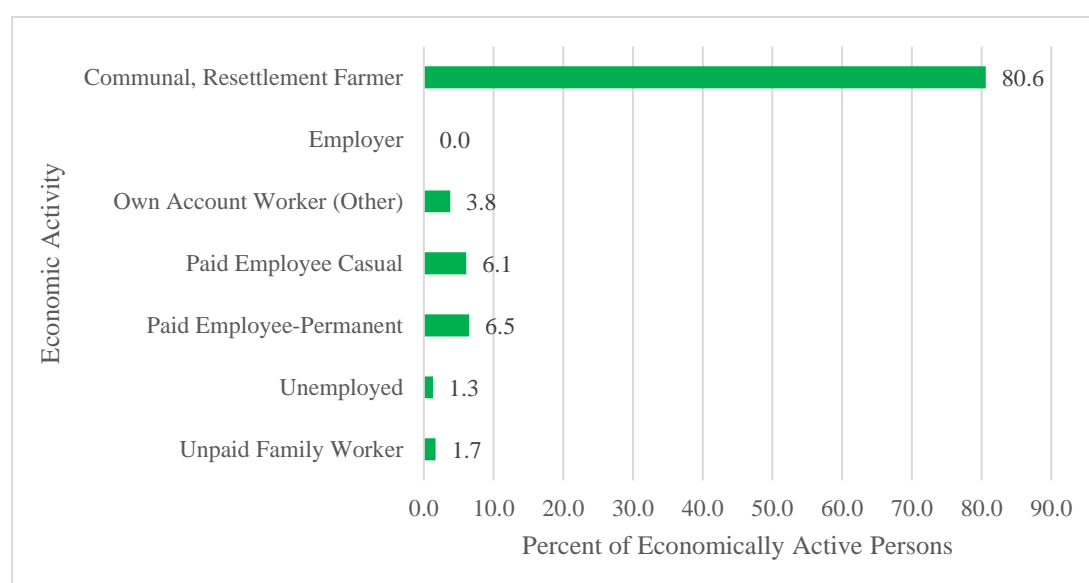
Source: PICES 2017

As observed previously, the poverty status of rural households was closely associated with the main source of employment of the head of household. A household whose head had communal or resettlement farming as a main activity was much more likely to be poor or extremely poor than a household headed by a permanent or even casual employee (Table 3.5). Households headed by a communal/resettlement farmer had the highest prevalence of poverty 85.1 percent compared to other heads of households across land use sectors. Households headed by a permanent paid employee were less likely to be poor compared to households that were headed by casual or temporary employees.

Table 3.5: Poverty Head Count by Main Activity of the Household Head, Rural Zimbabwe

Main activity	Land use sector			
	Communal lands	Small scale commercial farms	Large scale commercial farms	Resettlement areas
Permanent paid employee	27.6	46.1	54.8	49.2
Casual/temporary employee	61.3	74.1	63.4	69.7
Communal/resettlement farmer	85.1	74.9	72.4	81.0
Other own account-worker	66.9	49.1	59.5	72.0

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per capita consumption expenditure values that fall below the upper poverty line.

3.5.   Asset Ownership in Rural Areas

Cattle ownership did not vary much by land use sector but poultry ownership did. The average number of livestock owned was calculated only for households that owned at least one. Households residing in large scale commercial farm areas owned on average 3.7 cattle per household compared to 2 for households living in communal lands. Households residing in small scale commercial farms owned on average 12.8 sheep compared to 5.8 in large scale commercial farms. Ownership of goats was not much different among all land use sectors. Furthermore, the average number of pigs owned by large scale commercial farms was 12.1 per household. See Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Livestock Ownership by Land Use Sector- Average Number Owned for Households Owning the Livestock (Excluding Zeros)

Livestock	Mean household ownership (number of heads)			
	Communal lands	Small scale commercial farms	Large scale commercial farms	Resettlement areas
Cattle	2.3	3.3	3.7	2.9
Poultry	10.6	14.9	11.6	12.6
Pigs	3.8	5.6	12.1	3.4
Sheep	5.3	12.8	5.8	5.8
Goats	5.4	6.4	6.3	5.6

Source: PICES 2017.

Ownership of cattle is an indicator that a household is less likely to be poor in all areas. In small scale commercial farm areas, poor households had mean holdings of cattle of 2.8 per household compared to 4.3 per household in non-poor households. In resettlement areas, poor and non-poor households owned 2.2 and 2.7 cattle per household, respectively. It was noted that poultry ownership varied significantly between poor and non-poor households in all land use sectors. Poultry ownership ranged from 10.2 per household in poor households living in communal lands to 18.8 per household for the non-poor households living in small scale commercial farms (Table 3.7).

Table 3.7: Livestock Ownership by Land Use Sector and Household Poverty Status

Number of Heads								
Livestock Type	**CL**		**SSCF**		**LSCF**		**RA**	
	Non-poor	**Poor**	**Non-poor**	**Poor**	**Non-poor**	**Poor**	**Non-poor**	**Poor**
Cattle	2.7	2.2	4.3	2.7	4.2	3.5	3.6	2.7
Chickens	13.2	10.2	18.8	13.8	13.8	11.1	15.7	11.9
Pigs	5.0	3.6	7.8	5.4	23.3	4.7	3.8	3.2
Sheep	5.9	5.2	13.1	12.5	5.3	6.4	7.6	5.0
Goats	7.0	5.1	9.8	5.3	7.6	6.0	6.9	5.3

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per capita consumption expenditure values that fall below the upper poverty line. N.B. SSCF=Small Scale Commercial Farms; LSCF=Large Scale Commercial Farms; RA= Resettlement Areas. Note that Resettlement Areas includes A1 Farms and A2 Farms.

Productive asset ownership was highest in resettlement areas (Table 3.8). This counts for ploughs, scotch carts and wheel barrows. The highest ownership of tractors of 3.0 percent was found in small scale commercial farms.

Table 3.8: Percentage of Households Owning Productive Assets in Rural Areas by Land Use Sector

Asset	**CL**	**SSCF**	**LSCF**	**RA**
Plough	39.2	31.5	10.3	44.0
Tractor	0.2	3.1	0.3	0.8
Scotch-cart	15.3	19.6	22.6	21.3
Wheelbarrow	19.0	21.1	5.7	28.2
Grinding mill	25.4	20.7	9.1	23.8
Cultivator	0.7	1.2	0.5	1.4

Source: PICES 2017. N.B. CL=Communal Lands; SSCF=Small Scale Commercial Farms; LSCF=Large Scale Commercial Farms; RA= Resettlement Areas. Note that Resettlement Areas includes A1 Farms and A2 Farms.

Many assets were accumulated by rural households over a long period of time, yet ownership of productive assets does not automatically assure that a household was not poor. In particular, in resettlement areas, 44.7 percent of poor households owned a plough compared to the non-poor with 41.6 percent, see Table 3.9. The same pattern of plough ownership was noted for the poor and non-poor households living in communal lands and in small scale commercial farms. This may be explained by the fact that there were few households which were above the total poverty line. If plough ownership was an indication of specialization, then poor households may be more completely specialized in agriculture than non-poor households. Ownership of scotch-carts and wheelbarrows in communal lands was, however, associated with lower likelihoods of poverty.

Table 3.9: Productive Asset Ownership by Poverty Status and Land Use, Rural Zimbabwe

Asset	% owning asset							
	CL		SSCF		LSCF		RA	
	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor
Plough	35.2	40.2	27.0	33.8	10.6	10.1	41.6	44.7
Tractor	0.6	0.1	2.3	3.4	0.9	0.0	1.8	0.5
Scotch-cart	20.3	18.6	21.8	20.8	5.7	5.7	28.7	28.0
Wheelbarrow	33.3	23.3	27.1	17.5	11.2	8.0	29.5	22.0
Grinding mill	1.1	0.6	1.3	1.1	0.4	0.6	2.0	1.2
Cultivator	8.4	5.0	14.9	9.8	3.5	2.0	12.1	9.2

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per capita values that fall below the upper poverty line. N.B. CL=Communal Lands; SSCF=Small Scale Commercial Farms; LSCF=Large Scale Commercial Farms; RA= Resettlement Areas. Note that Resettlement Areas includes A1 Farms and A2 Farms.

3.6. Health and Poverty

In order to formulate effective anti-poverty strategies within the health sector, it is necessary to understand how health status and access to health care infrastructure is related to household poverty. In this section of the report, we examine the relationship between household poverty and: (i) health status, (ii) access to health care treatment, and (iii) barriers to treatment. We also investigate access to sanitation and potable water by poverty category and place of residence.

Self-reporting of illnesses varies by location in Zimbabwe and by household poverty status. The percentage of households reporting illness declined with poverty status as 14.6 percent of the non-poor, 12.2 percent of the poor and 10.6 percent of the extremely poor reported illness during the last 30 days. Illnesses were more common in rural areas than urban areas. In urban areas there was little difference between the poor and the non-poor. See Table 3.10.

Table 3.10: Percent of Households Reporting Illness by Poverty Status, Zimbabwe

Poverty Status	Rural	Urban	All Zimbabwe
Non Poor	14.6	9.5	11.1
Poor	12.2	9.6	11.5
Extremely Poor	10.6	9.5	10.6

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per capita values that fall below the upper poverty line and above the lower line. Extremely poor households have per capita values that fall below the lower line.

When ill, the poor and poorest people in Zimbabwe were slightly more likely to seek treatment in a public health facility than were the non-poor (Table 3.11). About 57 percent of poor people who were ill used public health facilities for treatment while 48 percent of the non-poor went to such facilities. About 16 percent of non-poor people who were ill sought help in a private clinic, while 7.9 percent of the poor and 5.7 percent of the extremely poor do that. Extremely poor people seemingly cannot afford visiting private clinics. It should be noted that private clinic includes church or mission hospitals. Around one third of people in all wealth categories did not seek treatment when they were ill.

Table 3.11: Method of Treatment of Illness by Poverty Status, for Those Reporting an Illness, Zimbabwe

Poverty Status	Public health facility	Traditional healer	Private clinic	None	Total
Non-poor	48.0	0.7	16.2	35.1	100.0
Poor	56.6	0.9	7.9	34.6	100.0
Extremely poor	59.4	1.1	5.7	33.7	100.0
Total	**55.5**	**0.9**	**9.1**	**34.4**	**100.0**

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per capita consumption expenditure values that fall below the upper poverty line and above the lower line. Extremely poor households have index values that fall below the lower line.

The poor and extremely poor households in *rural areas* were more likely to attend public health facilities when ill than the non-poor (Table 3.12). Approximately 57 percent of all rural residents who reported being ill, sought treatment in a public health facility. See Table 3.13. Access to public health facilities is important for all segments of the society in rural areas. The rural poor and the rural extreme poor were about half as likely to seek treatment in a private clinic when they were ill than the non-poor. Private clinics in rural areas mostly serve few households (12.6 percent) who are non-poor (Table 3.13).

Table 3.12: Method of Treatment of Illness in Rural Zimbabwe by Poverty Status, for Those Reporting an Illness

Poverty Status	Public health facility	Traditional healer	Private clinic	None	Total
Non-poor	51.2	0.8	12.6	35.4	100.0
Poor	57.0	0.9	7.7	34.3	100.0
Extremely poor	59.8	1.1	5.7	33.4	100.0
Total	**57.1**	**1.0**	**7.8**	**34.1**	**100.0**

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per capita consumption expenditure values that fall below the upper poverty line and above the lower line. Extremely poor households have index values that fall below the lower line.

In urban areas, 42.8 percent of the non-poor households who are ill, went to public facilities while 52.7 percent of the poor and 39.8 percent of extremely poor, respectively, sought treatment in a public facility (Table 3.14). Treatment rates in urban areas suggest that the poorest of the poor were not seeking health-care assistance in public health facilities or receiving care at all. Relatively high proportions (50.5 percent) of the extremely poor in urban areas did not seek treatment for their illnesses.

In all areas, the poor benefited relatively more than the non-poor from Government spending on public health services as they used more public health facilities. In urban areas, the non-poor substituted public facilities for private clinics but few poor and extremely poor households were treated in those (Table 3.13).

Although the re-introduction of fees in hospitals and clinic helped to boost funds in the health sector, the high percentage of people who were ill but did not visit hospital facilities could be a consequence of financial barriers to use these.

Table 3.13: Method of Treatment of Illness in Urban Zimbabwe by Poverty Status, for Those Reporting an Illness

Poverty status	Public health facility	Traditional healer	Private clinic	None	Total
Non-poor	42.8	0.5	22.0	34.7	100.0
Poor	52.7	0.6	10.1	36.6	100.0
Extremely poor	39.8	1.0	8.7	50.5	100.0
Total	45.7	0.6	17.6	36.1	100.0

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per capita consumption expenditure values that fall below the upper poverty line and above the lower line. Extremely poor households have index values that fall below the lower line.

An important barrier preventing people from seeking treatment for their illness was cost. Nationwide, this figure was 29.7 percent for the extremely poor, compared to 28.8 percent of the poor and 25.9 percent of the non-poor, See Table 3.14. Distance appeared to be a relatively unimportant barrier for not seeking treatment compared to cost. Only 8.2 percent of the poor and 9.2 percent of extremely poor compared to 6.6 percent of the non-poor households blame distance as the reason for not seeking treatment, see Table 3.14. In 2011/12 more extremely poor people 41.9 reported that they could not afford treatment compared to 29.7 percent for 2017. More extremely poor households, 33.3 percent, had home treatment in 2017 compared to 28.4 percent in 2011/12.

Table 3.14: Reason for Not Seeking Medical Treatment for People Who Were Ill But Did Not Treat Their Illness, Zimbabwe

2017								
Percentage	Too far	Cannot afford	Home treatment	Religion	Not necessary	Lack of Medicines	Other	Total
Non-poor	6.6	25.9	42.9	1.5	12.2	0.5	10.5	100.0
Poor	8.2	28.8	37.1	6.8	10.3	0.5	8.3	100.0
Extremely poor	9.2	29.7	33.3	7.3	9.9	1.3	9.3	100.0
2011/12								
Percentage	Too far	Cannot afford	Home treatment	Religion	Not necessary	Lack of Medicines	Other	Total
Non-poor	2.9	26.2	47.5	3.1	17.9	-	2.5	100.0
Poor	3.9	37.0	34.4	4.1	18.6	-	2.0	100.0
Extremely poor	4.3	41.9	28.4	7.8	15.8	-	1.9	100.0

Source: PICES 2017 and 2011/12. Poor households have per capita consumption expenditure values that fall below the upper poverty line and above the lower line. Extremely poor households have index values that fall below the lower line.

In *rural areas* of Zimbabwe, distance to health service providers was a more important barrier to health care compared to urban areas, compare Tables 3.15 and 3.16. About 2 percent of the non-poor people in urban areas who did not seek treatment claimed that distance to the facility prevented them from doing so while 9.2 percent of the rural non-poor identified distance as a problem.

About 29 percent of the extremely rural poor did not receive treatment because they could not afford it when compared to 22.9 percent for non-poor and 28.0 percent for poor rural residents (Table 3.15). In both rural and urban areas, home treatment was the most common avenue to deal with illnesses instead of seeking outside treatment.

Table 3.15: Reason for Not Seeking Medical Treatment for People Who Were Ill But Did Not Treat Their Illness, Rural Zimbabwe

Percentage	Too far	Cannot afford	Home treatment	Religion	Not necessary	Lack of Medicines	Other	Total
Non-poor	9.2	22.9	43.1	1.7	11.9	0.7	10.5	100.0
Poor	8.9	28.0	36.7	7.2	10.5	0.5	8.3	100.0
Extremely poor	9.5	29.1	33.5	7.3	9.9	1.4	9.4	100.0

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per capita consumption expenditure values that fall below the upper poverty line and above the lower line. Extremely poor households have per capita values that fall below the lower line.

Fifty-one percent of the extremely urban poor residents did not receive treatment because they could not afford it while this was 30.9 percent for the urban non-poor and 36.1 percent for the poor urban, see Table 3.16. In general, people frequently suffered from minor ailments but the non-poor were more likely to buy their own medication from shops and pharmacies compared to the poor. Affordability of public health care appeared to be a more important problem for the poor households in *urban* Zimbabwe (Table 3.16).

Table 3.16: Reason for Not Seeking Medical Treatment for People Who Were Ill But Did Not Treat Their Illness, Urban Zimbabwe

Percentage	Too far	Cannot Afford	Home treatment	Religion	Not necessary	Lack of medicines	Other	Total
Non-poor	2.2	30.9	42.6	1.1	12.7	0.2	10.4	100.0
Poor	2.9	36.1	40.7	2.9	8.7	0.4	8.3	100.0
Extremely poor	0.0	51.0	25.5	7.8	9.8	0.0	5.9	100.0

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per capita consumption expenditure values that fall below the upper poverty line and above the lower line. Extremely poor households have per capita values that fall below the lower line.

3.7.   Housing and Sanitation

Sanitation is clearly better in urban areas compared to rural areas. Most urban households had flush toilets (91.5 percent) while 36.8 percent of households in rural areas had no toilet at all (Table 3.17). About 72 percent of households in urban areas had access to piped water inside or outside the house, compared to only 6.0 percent of rural households. The percentage of households without toilet facilities in Zimbabwe declined from 26.2 percent in 2011/12 to 23.7 percent in 2017. Similarly in rural areas the proportion of households without toilet facilities dropped from 40.1 percent in 2011/12 to 36.8 percent in 2017. About 30 percent of rural households relied on water supplies that were unsafe. *Unsafe water*, includes unprotected wells, rivers and dams. About 2 percent of urban households rely on unsafe water.

Table 3.17: Percent Access to Sanitation by Urban and Rural Areas

Place of Residence			
Sanitation and Water	**Zimbabwe**	**Rural**	**Urban**
2017			
Type of Facility	**% Households**	**% Households**	**% Households**
Flush Toilet	35.6	4.0	91.5
Blair Toilet	23.4	34.7	3.3
Pit Toilet	17.1	24.3	4.4
None	23.7	36.8	0.6
Other	0.2	0.2	0.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water Source			
Piped Water Inside House	14.9	1.5	38.6
Piped Water Outside	14.9	4.5	33.3
Communal Tap	3.8	4.5	2.7
Borehole/ Protected Well	46.1	59.1	23.2
Well-Unprotected	14.3	21.5	1.4
River/Stream/ Dam	5.2	8.1	0.1
Other	0.7	0.7	0.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Safe Water	79.7	69.6	97.8
2011/12 **Place of residence**			
Type of facility	**All Zimbabwe**	**Rural areas**	**Urban areas**
	% Households	**% Households**	**% Households**
Toilet			
Flush	34.3	3.2	90.7
Blair toilet	21.6	31.1	4.4
Pit latrine	16.7	24.3	2.9
None	26.2	40.1	0.9
Other	1.2	1.3	1.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source			
Piped inside house	12.8	1.5	33.4
Piped outside house	18.8	4.0	45.7
Communal tap	4.3	4.7	3.7
Protected well/borehole	40.7	55.0	15.0
Unprotected well	15.9	23.7	1.8
River/stream/dam	6.9	10.7	0.1
Other	0.4	0.5	0.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: PICES 2017 and 2011/12

Households in communal lands and resettlement areas were least likely to have quality sanitation and water. The worst living conditions were in communal lands and resettlement areas with 38-39 percent of households reporting having no toilet facilities while 30-33 percent received their water from unprotected wells or a surface water supply such as rivers, streams

or dams (Table 3.18). In contrast, households in large scale commercial farming areas seemed to have reasonably quality water supplies and sanitation.

Access to safe water in large scale commercial farm areas was 77.8 percent which is far better than the rural average of 69.6 percent. Households living in small scale commercial farm areas also had better access to quality sanitation services compared to households in communal lands or resettlement areas. Sixty-seven percent of households in small scale commercial farms relied on Blair and pit latrines compared to 59.2 percent for households in communal lands and 57.7 percent for households living in resettlement areas. However, use of protected wells and boreholes was highest in communal lands (64.1 percent) compared to 29.2 percent of households in large scale commercial farm areas and 56.8 percent in resettlement areas.

Table 3.18: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Rural Households, Zimbabwe

	Land use sector				
Sanitation and Water	**Total Rural**	**CL**	**SSCF**	**LSCF**	**RA**
Toilet Facility					
Flush Toilet	4.0	2.1	7.2	19.4	2.8
Blair Toilet	34.7	35.3	37.2	36.1	31.5
Pit Toilet	24.3	23.9	29.8	21.8	26.2
None	36.8	38.4	25.9	22.7	39.2
Other	0.2	0.2	-	-	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water Source					
Piped Water Inside House	1.5	0.7	1.9	8.3	1.1
Piped Water Outside	4.5	3.1	5.4	16.2	3.8
Communal Tap	4.5	1.1	15.7	24.1	5.6
Borehole/ Protected Well	59.1	64.1	48.0	29.2	56.8
Well-Unprotected	21.5	21.7	23.0	13.2	24.6
River/Stream/ Dam	8.1	8.7	5.9	5.8	7.6
Other	0.7	0.4	0.2	3.1	0.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Safe Water	69.6	69.0	71.0	77.8	67.3

*Source: PICES 2017. **Note:** access to safe water consists of piped water inside and outside house, communal tap, protected well/borehole. N.B. CL=Communal Lands; SSCF=Small Scale Commercial Farms; LSCF=Large Scale Commercial Farms; RA= Resettlement Areas. Note that Resettlement Areas includes A1 Farms and A2 Farms.*

The rural poor were much less likely than the non-poor to have access to safe water supplies. Almost everyone in urban areas had safe water, with poor households being only slightly less likely to source water from unsafe sources than the non-poor. The proportion of rural poor households using water from sources such as unprotected wells, rivers, streams and dams was 32.4 percent compared to 20.4 percent for the non-poor households. (Table 3.19)

Similarly, in rural areas, the poor were much less likely than the non-poor to have either a flush toilet or a Blair toilet (Table 3.19). But in urban areas, the poor were a little less likely to have safe water or sanitation than the non-poor. The proportion of poor households without toilet facilities in rural areas was high (43.3 percent) compared to non-poor households (23.2 percent).

Table 3.19: Percent Distribution of Households with Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Rural and Urban and Poverty Status

Type of facility	Rural areas		Urban areas		All Zimbabwe	
	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Toilet						
Flush toilet	9.1	1.6	94.2	84.3	42.9	8.6
Blair toilet	50.7	32.1	3.4	6.5	31.9	30.0
Pit toilet	16.9	22.7	1.7	6.3	10.9	21.4
None	23.2	43.3	0.4	2.6	14.2	39.9
Other	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source						
Piped water inside house	4.2	0.5	49.4	28.2	22.2	2.8
Piped water outside	8.8	2.9	35.4	41.1	19.3	6.1
Communal tap	6.0	3.5	2.9	8.9	4.8	3.9
Borehole/ protected well	60.6	60.7	11.1	17.8	40.9	57.1
Well unprotected	13.3	21.6	0.5	1.8	8.2	20.0
River/Stream/ Dam	6.3	10.3	0.0	0.6	3.8	9.4
Other	0.8	0.5	0.7	1.7	0.8	0.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Safe Water	79.6	67.6	98.8	96.0	87.2	69.9

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per capita consumption expenditure values that fall below the upper poverty line (TCPL). Extremely poor households have index values that fall below the lower line.

3.8.   Education and Poverty

In this section of the report, we examine the link between education and poverty. We begin by examining how household poverty is associated with the educational attainment of the household head. We then investigate differential access to educational services by poverty and socioeconomic status of households. We conclude by discussing some of the implications of our findings on the educational policy.

A strong negative association was observed between educational attainment of the head of household and household poverty (Table 3.20). Incidence of poverty declined as the household head's educational attainment rises. There was a substantial increase in the likelihood of a household being poor and other poverty measures when its head had less than secondary school education. This association between head's education and poverty holds, regardless of whether poverty was measured among households or people.

The association between head's education and household poverty status holds across all areas of Zimbabwe. There appeared to be strong "returns" to education in both rural and urban areas. However, causality cannot be concluded because these results suggest a strong correlation not that more education will necessarily lower poverty.

Table 3.20: Household Poverty by Education of the Household Head; Zimbabwe

Prevalence (%) of				
Education of the household head	**Poor**	**Extremely poor**	**Poverty gap index**	**Poverty severity index**
No education	82.2	35.9	40.1	23.1
Primary education	74.6	31.5	35.4	20.1
Secondary education	59.0	18.4	24.8	13.1
Post-secondary education	20.7	3.7	6.8	3.2

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per capita consumption expenditure values that fall below the upper poverty line. Extremely poor households have index values that fall below the lower line.

Returns to primary education were fairly low in rural areas as the difference in poverty prevalence between those with no education and only primary education was small (Table 3.23). In urban areas however, the returns to primary education were substantial as the poverty rate among those with primary education was much lower than those with no education. Returns to secondary education were most evident when looking at extreme poverty especially in urban areas as those with secondary education had only half the extreme poverty rate than those with only primary education. In rural areas they were only one fifth lower (36 vs 29 percent). Returns to post-secondary education were very high especially in urban areas where poverty among those with no education was four times higher (54.7 percent) than those with post-secondary education (13.2 percent). In rural areas this is only 2.3 times. See Tables 3.21 and 3.22.

Table 3.21: Household Poverty by Education of the Household Head; Rural Areas

Prevalence (%) of				
Education of the household head	**Poor**	**Extremely poor**	**Poverty gap index**	**Poverty severity index**
No education	84.8	38.8	42.3	24.6
Primary education	81.8	36.3	39.8	22.8
Secondary education	76.5	29.4	35.4	19.6
Post-secondary education	36.7	10.6	14.8	7.7

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per capita consumption expenditure values that fall below the upper poverty line. Extremely poor households have index values that fall below the lower line.

There appears to be poverty reduction benefits associated with education, regardless of place of residence. It should be noted that correlations rather than causation are being shown in the association of education and place of residence.

Table 3.22: Household Poverty by Education of the Household Head; Urban Areas

Prevalence (%) of				
Education of the household head	**Poor**	**Extremely poor**	**Poverty gap index**	**Poverty severity index**
No education	54.7	4.9	17.3	7.0
Primary education	36.4	6.2	11.9	5.3
Secondary education	35.7	3.7	10.6	4.3
Post-secondary education	13.2	0.5	3.0	1.1

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per capita consumption expenditure values that fall below the upper poverty line. Extremely poor households have index values that fall below the lower line.

The poverty reduction impact of education was higher among female headed households than among male-headed households. For female heads, the prevalence of poverty was dramatically lower for those household heads with secondary education compared to household heads with no education. Prevalence of poverty for male-headed households dropped by 22.1 percentage points while the prevalence of poverty for female-headed households dropped by 30.3 percentage points when the household was headed by a person with secondary education compared to a head with no education at all. (Table 3.23)

Table 3.23: Poverty Indices for Households by Sex and Education of the Household Head

Education of household Head	**Prevalence (%) of**		**Poverty indices**	
	Poor	**Very poor**	**Poverty gap index**	**Poverty severity index**
Male-headed				
None	84.5	39.6	42.7	25.0
Primary school	76.8	35.0	37.8	21.9
Secondary school	62.4	20.8	26.9	14.4
Post-secondary school	22.4	3.8	7.3	3.4
Female-headed				
None	81.1	34.1	38.9	22.1
Primary school	71.9	27.1	32.4	17.8
Secondary school	50.8	12.6	19.7	9.8
Post-secondary school	17.0	3.7	5.6	2.8

Source: PICES 2017. The poverty gap and the severity indices are the Foster, Greer and Thorbecke $\alpha=1$ and $\alpha=2$ measures, respectively (see Ravallion, 1992 for details). These indices are calculated using the upper poverty line.

3.9. Participation in Education by Poverty Status

School enrolment rates did not differ much among wealth categories. Nevertheless, the net enrolment rate was lower among poorer households especially in secondary education. Entrance rates were lowest among children in extremely poor households but even children in poor households were doing relatively well in terms of education participation (Figure 3.2). The primary school gross enrolment rates were around 100 percent for all wealth categories, indicating very good access to education for all primary school-aged children in Zimbabwe. (See Box 3.1 for definitions of SER, NER and GER).

Enrolment ratios are a good indicator of the participation of the various poverty groups in formal education. The gross enrolment ratio (GER) is an indicator of the overall participation in education by children who are within the official school-going age limits[4]. *This ratio is computed as the proportion of all children in school to the number of children of school-going age.* GER is influenced by three factors: school entrance rates (SER), drop-out rates, and complete non enrolment of some children. *The SER is defined as the proportion of children in the lower school-going age limit (6 and 13 years in Zimbabwe for primary and secondary school, respectively) who are enrolled in school compared to their total population in the age group.* If there are significant numbers of overage and underage students at a given level of schooling, the GER can exceed 100 percent.

The school net enrolment ratio (NER), computed as the proportion of children of school-going age in school to the total number of children of that age group in and out of school. NER is a function of SER, dropout rate and early enrolment in primary school. For example, children who enroll at the age of five complete primary school early and this results in a lower NER. *A GER greater than the net enrolment rate implies that either children overstay in school, or, are enrolled late.* This difference translates to high age-grade mismatch. By definition the NER cannot exceed 100 percent.

Further abbreviations are as follows:
PGER is Primary Gross Enrolment Ratio;
PNER is Primary Net Enrolment Ratio;
SER   is School Entrance Rate
SGER is Secondary Gross Enrolment Ratio;
SNER is Secondary Net Enrolment Ratio;

The primary school gross enrolment ratio (PGER) for extremely poor children was 98.1 percent compared to 101.2 percent for non-poor children. Primary school entrance rates showed that children from non-poor and poor households tended to enter the school system earlier than those from extremely poor households, See Figure 3.2. Children from extremely poor households might enroll in school late due to resource constraints. Most extremely poor households may hesitate to enroll their children in schools because they may find difficulties in mobilizing financial resources to pay for other school costs like uniforms and levies, etc. This was demonstrated by the lowest entrance rate of 29.2 percent for extremely poor children compared to a 48.5 percent entrance rate for non-poor children. As noted in Figure 3.2, the differences in primary school entrance rates between children from extremely poor and non-poor households were relatively high, representing 19.3 percentage points in favour of the non-poor children.

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[4] In Zimbabwe, the official school-going age is 6 – 19 years

Figure 3.2: Primary School Enrolment Ratios by Household Poverty Category (Percent)
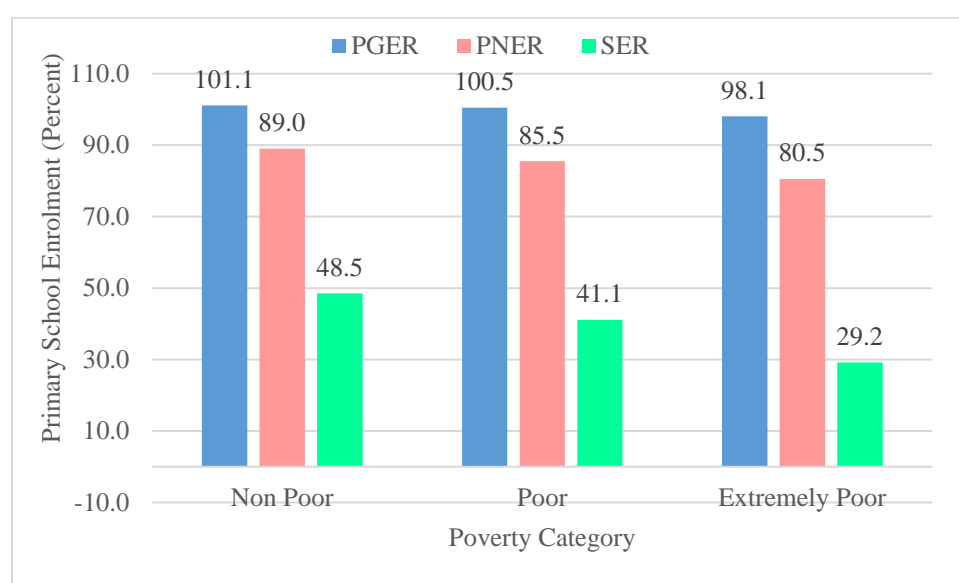
Source: PICES 2017 Poor are children from households whose per capita consumption is lower than the upper poverty line but above the food poverty line. Extremely poor are from households below the food poverty line. PGER =Primary Gross Enrolment Ratios; PNER= Primary Net Enrolment Ratios; SER =School Entrance Rate

The relationship between poverty and enrolment was more pronounced in secondary education where SGERs were 67.7 percent for the non-poor as compared to only 37.6 percent for children from the poorest households (Figure 3.3). Secondary school entrance rates for the extremely poor were 12.4 percent, when compared to 38.7 percent for the non-poor. The secondary school NER was 61.0 percent for the non-poor compared to 35.5 percent for the extremely poor children. It appears that a large proportion of poor children drop out of school upon completion of primary education.

This analysis presents a mixed message about the education system in Zimbabwe. Whilst the poor and the extremely poor children were only at a slight disadvantage compared to children from non-poor households at primary level, the gaps were much larger at the secondary level.

Figure 3.3: Secondary School Enrolment Ratios by Household Poverty Category (Percent)

Source: PICES 2017. Poor are children from households whose per capita consumption is lower than the upper poverty line but above the food poverty line. Extremely poor are from households below the food poverty line. SGER =Secondary Gross Enrolment Ratios; SNER= Secondary Net Enrolment Ratios; SER =School Entrance Rate

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The main factor determining school enrolment rates of children was dropout rates, followed by never having been to school. These two indicators increase only slightly as poverty increased (Figure 3.4). These two factors, compounded with the low school entrance rates cause both SNER and SGER to be lower for the poor. School dropout rates were highest for the extreme poor (15.1 percent) but the difference between the poor (12.1 percent) and non-poor children (11.4 percent) was not high. The proportion of children that had never been to school for the extremely poor children constituting 2.6 percent was 1.3 percentage points higher than those for the non-poor and 1.2 percentage points higher for the poor children.

Figure 3.4: Proportion of Children of School Going Age Who are Not in School, by Household Poverty Category
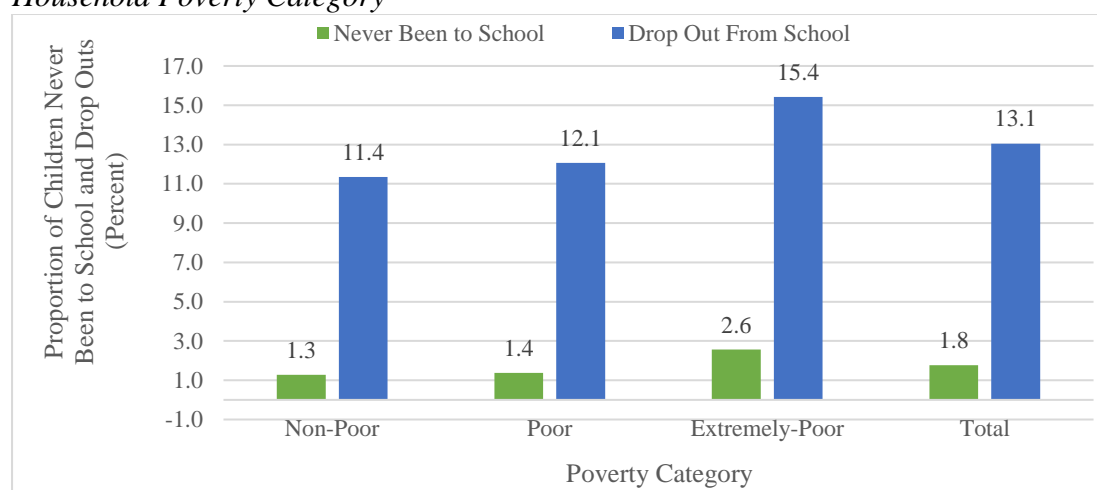
Source: PICES 2017. Poor are children from households whose per capita consumption is lower than the upper poverty line but above the food poverty line. Extremely poor are from households below the food poverty line.

3.10. Poverty and rural/urban school enrolments

The relationship between household poverty status and enrolment was far stronger in urban areas than rural areas. Notably, children from extremely poor urban households were strongly disadvantaged as the entrance rates were very low, only 12 percent compared to 50 percent among the non-poor. In urban areas, the school entrance rate among extremely poor children was 26 percent which was higher than in urban areas but much lower than among non-poor children (48 percent). The School Entrance Rates (SER) is defined as the proportion of children in the lower school-going age limit (6 and 13 years in Zimbabwe for primary and secondary school, respectively) who are enrolled in school compared to their total population in the age group.

The primary school gross enrolment ratio for rural areas was relatively high and reflects reasonably good access by extremely poor children to rural primary school education. There were differences in primary school gross and net enrolment ratios in urban areas for the urban poor children and the urban extremely poor children. Children from poor urban households who exceed the age of six without enrolling in school eventually enter school. In rural areas, children from non-poor households had greater chance of receiving an education than those from poor households but differences in educational attendance by poverty status were not as pronounced in rural areas as they were in urban areas.

Figure 3.5: Primary School Enrolment Ratios by Household Poverty Category in Rural and Urban Areas

Source: PICES 2017. Poor are children from households whose per capita consumption is lower than the upper poverty line but above the food poverty line. Extremely poor are from households below the food poverty line. PGER =Primary Gross Enrolment Ratios; PNER= Primary Net Enrolment Ratios; PER =Primary Entrance Rate

3.11. Poverty and School Enrolments by Sex

The relationship between poverty and school enrolment was almost the same for boys and girls at primary school level (Figure 3.6). In the non-poor poverty category, the PGERs for boys were slightly lower than those of girls while in the poor and extremely poor poverty categories boys were somewhat favoured. In cases of extreme poverty, the GER for the boy child was slightly higher than that of the girl child by a 1.2 percentage points. This implied that a few girls seem to drop out of school as poverty increased. The primary school GER of 98.0 percent and 98.2 percent, respectively, for boys and girls were noted in the extremely poor households.

Figure 3.6: Primary School GER by Sex and Household Poverty Category

Source: PICES 2017. Poor are children from households whose per capita consumption is lower than the upper poverty line but above the food poverty line. Extremely poor are from households below the food poverty line.

In all wealth categories, the primary school NER was slightly higher for girls than for boys (Figure 3.7). Primary school NER for both girls and boys declined a little with increasing poverty and in cases of extreme poverty the NER was 82.4 percent for girls and 78.6 percent for boys. The decline in primary school NER as household poverty increased indicated a higher drop-out rate of older poor girls and boys from primary school coupled with lower entrance rates and high rates of grade-repetition.

Figure 3.7: Primary School NER by Sex and Household Poverty Category
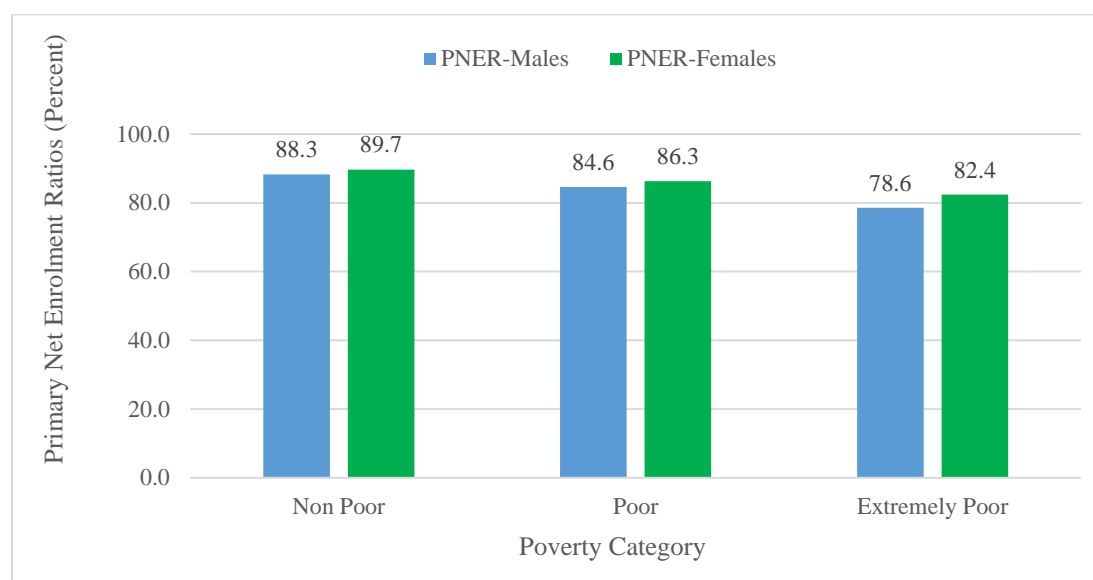
Source: PICES 2017. Poor are children from households whose per capita consumption is lower than the upper poverty line but above the food poverty line. Extremely poor are from households below the food poverty line.

Although secondary school enrolment rates were lower for the poor, there were marginal disparities in enrolment indicators between girls and boys across all household poverty categories. The gap in secondary school enrolment ratios between the extremely poor and non-poor children should be a cause for concern for policy makers. The secondary school enrolment ratios of 38.3 percent for the extremely poor girls represented a disparity of 27.5 percentage points with non-poor households. A similar pattern was observed for enrolment ratios for non-poor boys and extremely poor boys with a 33 percentage points difference in favour of non-poor boys. This implied that GERs for secondary schools were sensitive to household poverty and that the poor children were less likely to attend secondary schools compared to the non-poor children.

Figure 3.8: Secondary School GER by Sex and Household Poverty Category
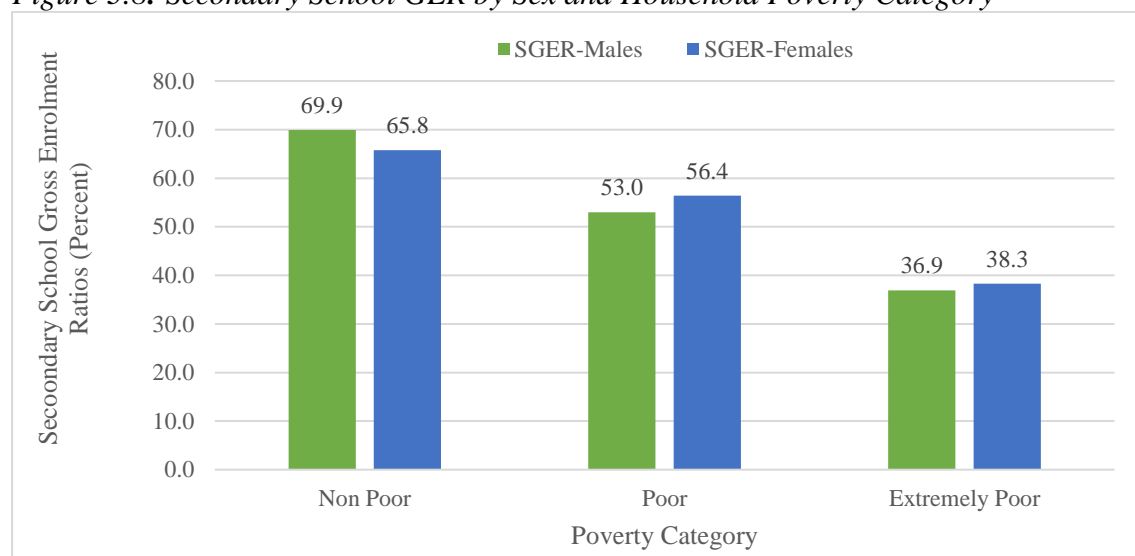
Source: PICES 2017. Poor are children from households whose per capita consumption is lower than the upper poverty line (TCPL) but above the food poverty line. Extremely poor are from households below the food poverty line. SGER= Secondary School Gross Enrolment Ratios

Although secondary school NERs also tended to be lower for children from poor and extremely households, there were only minor disparities between girls and boys in net enrolments across all poverty categories and girls even appeared to be slightly better off (Figure 3.9). The fall in the secondary school NER for children as household poverty increases indicated a high drop-out rate of older poor children from primary school and low secondary school entrance rates. The slight disparities between GER and NER across poverty categories imply that either children overstay in school or, were enrolled late. This translates to a high age-grade mismatch. The gap between the NER for the non-poor children compared to extremely poor children should be cause of concern to the policy makers. The NER for the non-poor boy was 61.2 percent compared to 34.4 percent for the extremely poor boy. A similar pattern was noted for the girl child.

Figure 3.9: Secondary School NER by Sex and Household Poverty Category
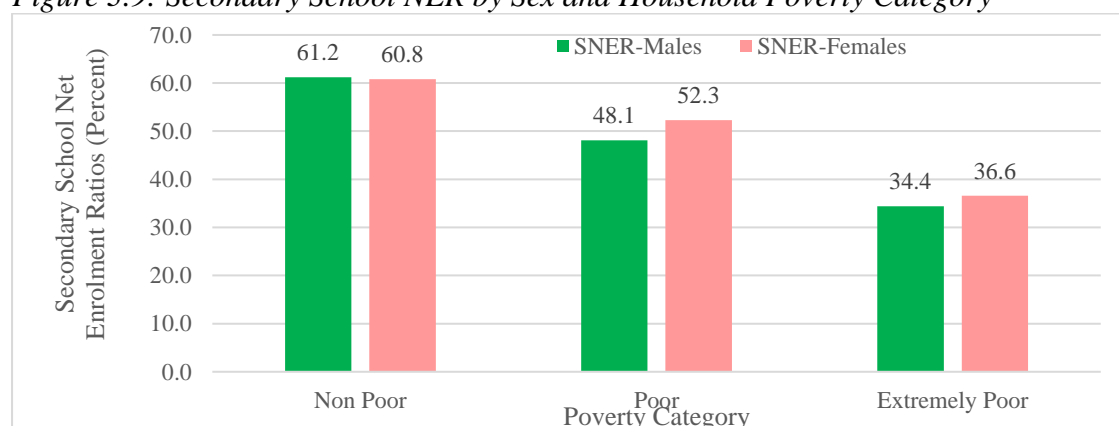
Source: PICES 2017. Poor are children from households whose per capita consumption is lower than the upper poverty line but above the food poverty line. Extremely poor are from households below the food poverty line. SNER= Secondary School Net Enrolment Ratios

Primary school gross enrolment ratios for non-poor rural boys of 109 percent were higher than those of non-poor girls 102 percent (Figure 3.10). In urban areas there were disparities between

GER for boys and girls from non-poor households while the disparities for the poor boys and girls in GER were smaller. The urban areas primary school GER for extremely poor boys and girls was 77 percent and 71 percent, respectively. It was also noted that children from poor households were more likely to drop out of school after completing primary school education compared to children from non-poor households. The higher GERs shown for the rural areas in all poverty categories could be explained by the fact that primary school children residing in rural areas enrolled late compared to primary school children residing in urban areas.

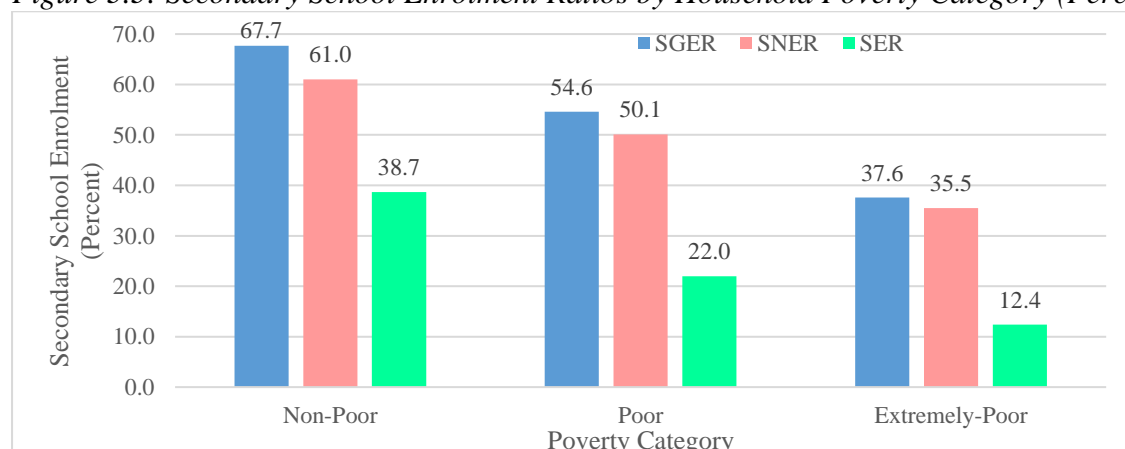*Figure 3.10: Primary School GER Vs Poverty Category by Rural and Urban Areas*

Source: PICES 2017. Poor are children from households whose per capita consumption is lower than the upper poverty line but above the food poverty line. Extremely poor are from households below the food poverty line. PGER = Primary School Gross Enrolment Ratios

While primary school NERs were lower than primary school GERs, there were marginal disparities in NER between boys and girls in both rural and urban areas, see Figure 3.11. The highest primary school net enrolment ratio of 90 percent was for the non-poor urban and rural girls while the lowest NER of 65 percent was recorded for extremely poor urban girls. The NERs hardly drop at all by poverty status. It was noted that for extremely poor households living in urban areas, girls had lower net enrolment rates (65 percent) compared to boys 68 percent. The difference in NER for extremely poor rural girls was 7 percentage points lower compared to the NER for the non-poor rural girls of 90 percent. It was also noted that there was likely to be a higher rate of school dropouts for the extremely poor boys in urban areas, more likelihood of late entry into school or relatively more repeated grades. In rural areas there was particularly no visible pattern as females across poverty categories had higher net enrolment ratios. There was however a big drop in enrolment ratios when poverty categories between urban and rural areas were compared.

Figure 3.11: Primary School NER and Poverty Category by Rural and Urban Areas
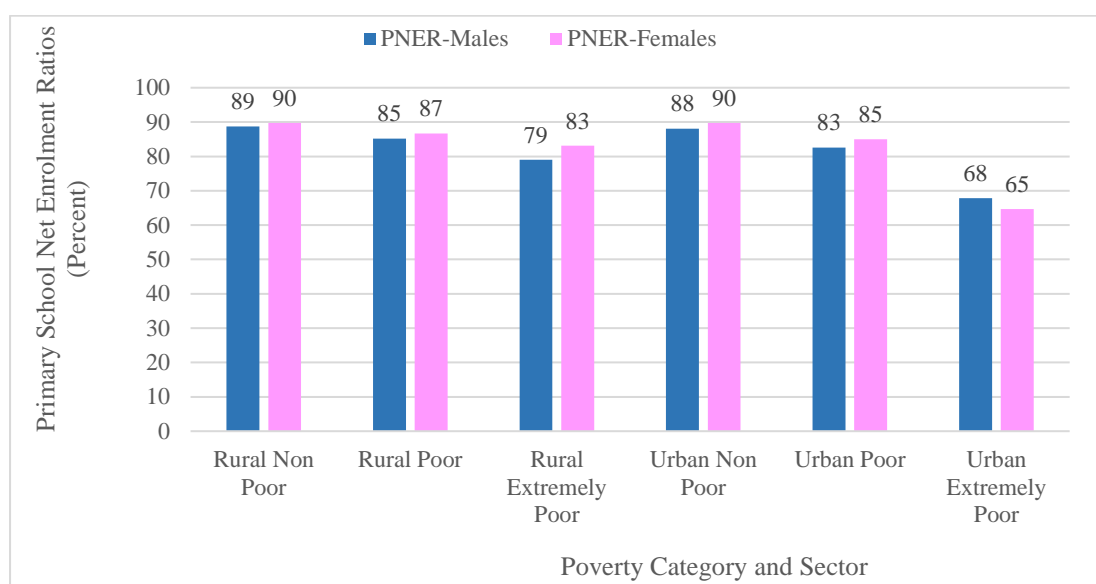
Source: PICES 2017. Poor are children from households whose per capita consumption is lower than the upper poverty line but above the food poverty line. Extremely poor are from households below the food poverty line.

The Government of Zimbabwe (See Box 3.2) was the largest provider of educational services to children from all poverty categories, enrolling 92.7 percent of extremely poor students, 88.6 percent of poor students and 81.8 percent of non-poor students who were in school (Figure 3.12). About 16 percent of non-poor students were enrolled in private schools while 9.6 percent and 5.9 percent, respectively, of the children from poor and extremely poor households were enrolled in private schools. A small proportion of students across the poverty categories were enrolled in employer's schools. Enrolment of children in Government schools was highest for children from extremely poor households whilst enrolment in private schools was highest for children from non-poor households.

Figure 3.12: Proportion of Children in Each Poverty Category Enrolled in School Versus Category of Education Provider
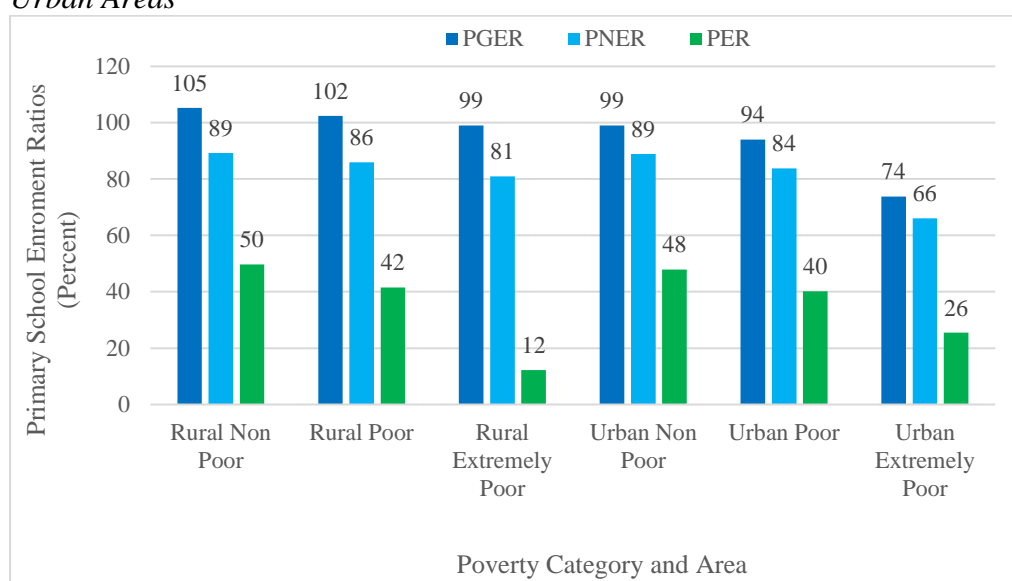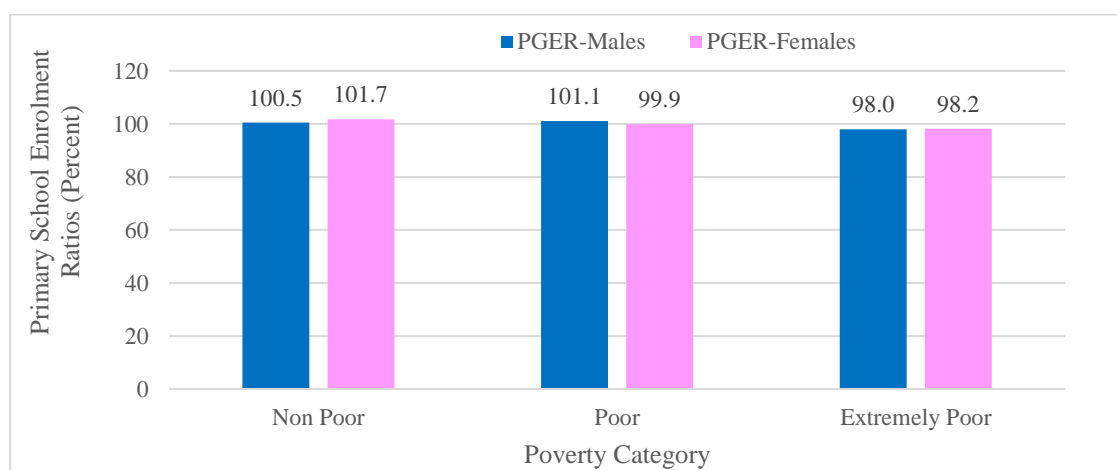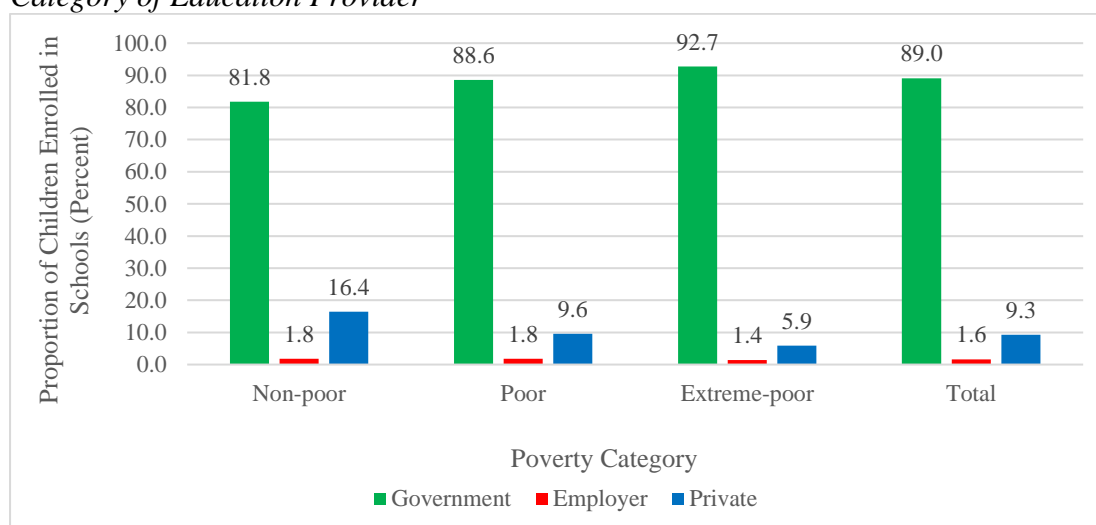

Source: PICES 2017. Poor are children from households whose per capita consumption is lower than the upper poverty line but above the food poverty line. Extremely poor are from households below the food poverty line.

Three major providers of education are found in Zimbabwe: Local and Central Government, churches and other private organizations. Other private organizations consist of employers who provide schools for their employees' children. This usually occurs in mining areas, commercial farms, resettlement farms and other private schools or colleges.

Local authority providers of primary schools consist of municipalities and Rural District Councils (RDC). About 75.6 percent of rural primary schools are owned by rural district councils, 2.1 percent by municipalities, 8.0 percent by Central Government, 6.8 percent by churches, 0.6 percent by mines, 1.3 percent by farmers, 0.3 percent by local town boards, 4.3 percent owned by other private organizations and other 1.1 percent.

Rural district councils also play a pivotal role in providing secondary school education services and constitutes 65.3 percent of the total while Central Government provides 8.9 percent of the secondary schools, other Government Line Ministries 0.6 percent and Town Boards 0.4 percent. The Non-Government Secondary schools also contribute to the number of secondary school as follows: Churches/Mission provide 11.7 percent of the secondary schools, Mine 0.2 percent, Private Company 5.8 percent, Farm schools 0.4 percent, Other Private schools 4.8 percent and Trust secondary schools 1.5 percent. All in all Government Secondary Schools contribute 75.7 percent of secondary schools while Non-Government secondary schools contribute the remaining 24.5 percent.

Source: Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education 2017

Rural schools face challenges in delivering educational services to poor students. Government in this table refers to Central and Local Government schools. About 43.6 percent of children who were learning in rural government schools were extremely poor while 3.0 percent of children learning in Government schools in urban areas were extremely poor (Table 3.24). Urban private schools did, however, serve poor students as 31.6 percent of students in urban private schools were poor while 3.6 percent of the students were extremely poor. It was also noted that 89.9 percent of children who went to a Government school in rural areas were poor while 37.5 percent of the children in urban Government schools were poor.

Table 3.24: Prevalence of Household Poverty by Type of School in Which Children are Enrolled and Rural/Urban

Type of school	Rural prevalence (%) of		Urban prevalence (%) of	
	Poverty	Extreme poverty	Poverty	Extreme poverty
Government*	89.9	43.6	37.2	3.0
Employer	84.0	32.7	52.8	7.7
Private	80.7	30.8	31.6	3.6

Source: 2017 PICES. Poor households have per capita expenditure values that fall below the upper poverty line and above the lower line. Extremely poor households have index values that fall below the lower line.
N.B.*Government refers to Central and Local government

3.12. Local and Central Government Schools

Rural Central Government and Rural District Council schools enrolled large proportions of children from poor and very poor households compared to urban schools. In rural areas, 43.6 percent of children in Central Government schools and 43.6 percent of the children in Local Government schools were extremely poor (Table 3.25). Similarly in urban areas, 2.6 percent of the children attending schools in Central Government and 4.6 percent of children attending school in Local Government schools were deemed extremely poor. It was also noted that 89.4 percent and 36.5 percent, respectively, of children attending school in rural and urban Central Government schools were poor.

Table 3.25: Prevalence of Household Poverty in Local and Central Government Schools by Rural and Urban Areas

Type of Government school	Rural Prevalence % of		Urban prevalence % of	
	Poverty	**Extreme poverty**	**Poverty**	**Extreme poverty**
Central Government	89.4	43.6	36.5	2.6
Local Government	90.1	43.6	39.5	4.6

Source: 2017 PICES. Poor households have per capita expenditure values that fall below the upper poverty line and above the lower line. Extremely poor households have index values that fall below the lower line.

Many children enrolled in Central Government and rural district council primary schools were from poor and extremely poor households. However, poverty rates among children in secondary school were lower compared to the poverty rates in primary school. About 47 percent of the children attending a Central Government primary school in rural areas were from extremely poor households while 3.3 percent of the children attending Central Government primary school in urban areas were extremely poor. The lower participation of children from the extremely poor households in secondary school indicated that a significant proportion of rural poor children dropped out of school at the primary level or Central Government schools in rural areas did a better job in retaining poor and extremely poor students. In urban areas, fewer children from the extremely poor households participated in Central Government and Local Government secondary schools compared to the rural areas (Table 3.26).

Table 3.26: Prevalence of Household Poverty in Local and Central Government Primary and Secondary Schools by Rural and Urban Areas

Type of government school		Rural prevalence (%) of		Urban prevalence (%) of	
		Poverty	**Extreme poverty**	**Poverty**	**Extreme poverty**
Primary	Central Government	91.6	47.0	44.4	3.3
	Local Government	91.2	46.6	41.9	4.7
Secondary	Central Government	84.6	33.2	27.8	2.0
	Local Government	86.2	32.4	29.1	3.9

Source: 2017 PICES. Poor households have per capita values that fall below the upper poverty line and above the lower line. Extremely poor households have index values that fall below the lower line.

Participation in Central Government primary and secondary schools was lower for poor and extremely poor children compared to the non-poor. Participation in schools administered by

municipal school was higher for the poor and extremely poor compared to the non-poor (Figure 3.13). Primary school enrolment ratios in Local Government schools were higher for poorer households compared to non-poor households. About 52 percent of the non-poor children attended school in Local Government primary school while 48 percent attended school in a Central Government school. About 71 percent of the extremely poor children learn in Local Government primary school while 29 percent learnt in a Central Government school.

Figure 3.13: Distribution of Children Enrolled in Local and Central Government Primary Schools, All Grades
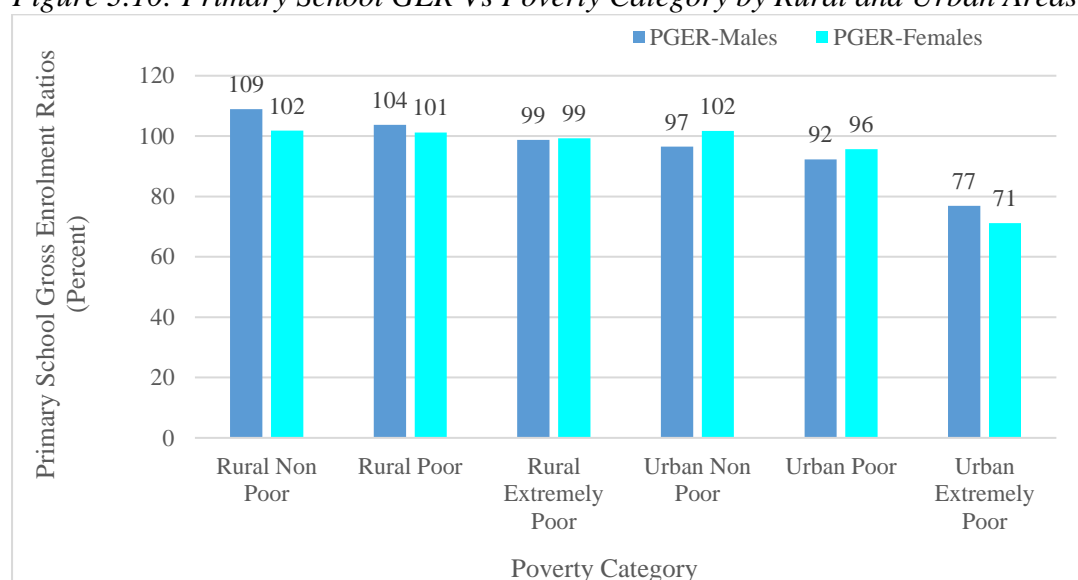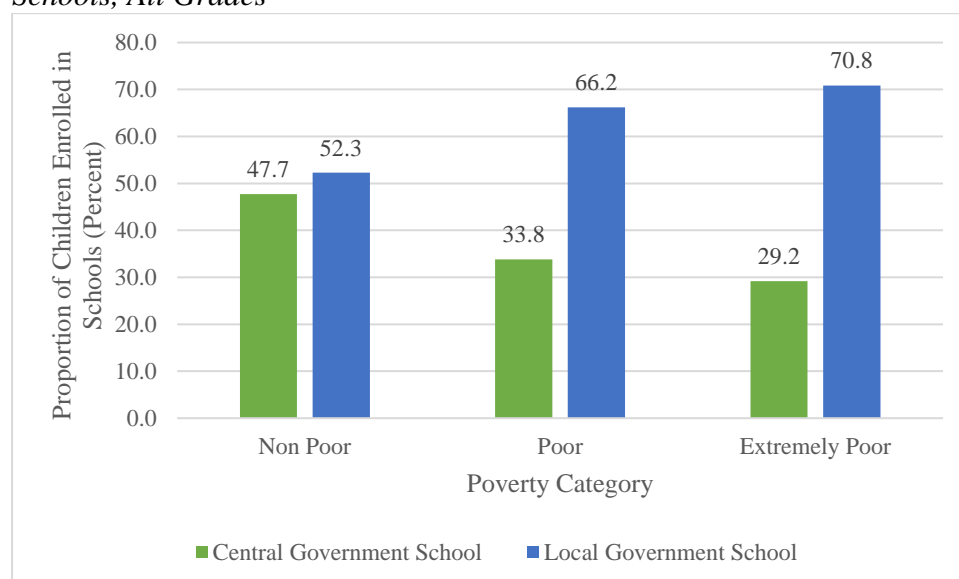

Source: PICES 2017. Poor are children from households whose per capita consumption is lower than the upper poverty line but above the food poverty line. Extremely poor are from households below the food poverty line

The proportion of secondary school children going to Central Government schools was lower for poor and extremely poor children compared to non-poor children, (Figure 3.14). Children from poor and extremely poor households participated more in Local Government secondary schools compared to non-poor children. In the non-poor category, 58.4 percent of the children attended school in a Central Government secondary school while 41.6 percent attended school in a municipal school. In contrast, 67.8 percent of children from extremely poor households attended secondary school in a Local Government school compared to 32.2 percent in Central Government secondary school. These findings were due to two main factors: firstly, almost all Central Government schools were in urban areas where there were more non-poor than poor households. There were very few municipal secondary schools hence Central Government dominates in the provision of secondary education. As highlighted in the previous section, the non-poor had superior secondary school entrance, gross and net enrolment rates. Secondly, the large poor population in rural areas tended to enroll in rural district council schools that were relatively affordable. Additionally, parents could not afford to send their children to boarding schools because of high costs.

Figure 3.14: Distribution of Children Enrolled in Local and Central Government Secondary Schools by Poverty Category
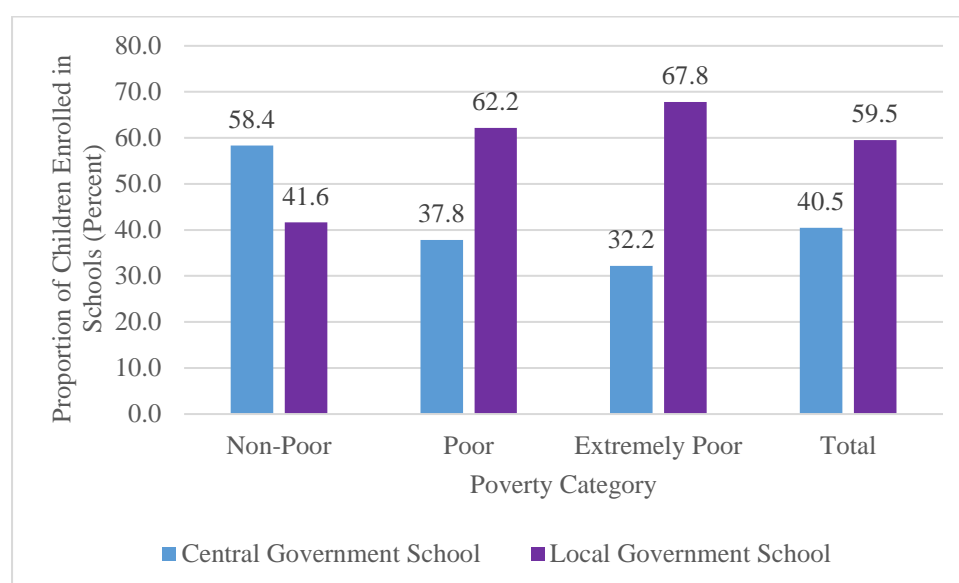
Source: PICES 2017. Poor are children from households whose per capita consumption is lower than the upper poverty line but above the food poverty line. Extremely poor are from households below the food poverty line.

3.13. Employer Schools

Employers in large scale commercial farming areas and mining towns frequently provided education facilities for the children of their employees. Since settlements in these two areas were normally located far from other settlements, children (regardless of household poverty status) did not have much choice besides enrolling at their local school. Hence, each of these employers provided schools and enrolled only about two percent of children across all poverty categories.

3.14. Mission Schools and Private Schools

The aim of this analysis is to show the distribution of children enrolled in mission and other private primary schools by household poverty category. Central and Local Government schools were excluded from the analysis. Mission or church and other private schools enrolled small proportions of the school going population because they were expensive by Zimbabwean standards.[5] However, these schools appeared to be doing a relatively good job at mitigating these cost constraints as relatively high proportions of children in each poverty group were enrolled in mission and church schools particularly the poor and extremely poor children (Figure 3.15). About 57.4 percent of the non-poor children attended primary school in a mission or church school while 42.6 percent of them attended school in other private schools (See Figure 3.15). See Box 3.3 for more information on private schools. In addition, among the

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[5] Enrolments by these two categories of schools are higher than shown in this Report because children in boarding schools were not captured by the PICES as they were not part of the de-jure household. Almost all mission schools and a large proportion of the high-fee private schools are boarding schools. Those captured as attending these schools were mostly probably enrolled as day scholars in these schools, or, they were on vacation from school during the time of the survey.

poor children attending school in Mission and Other Private schools, 73 percent went to Mission Schools while 27.0 percent attended school in other private schools. The same applies with children in the extremely poor poverty category.

Figure 3.15: Distribution of Children Enrolled in Mission/Church and Other Private Primary Schools by Household Poverty Category
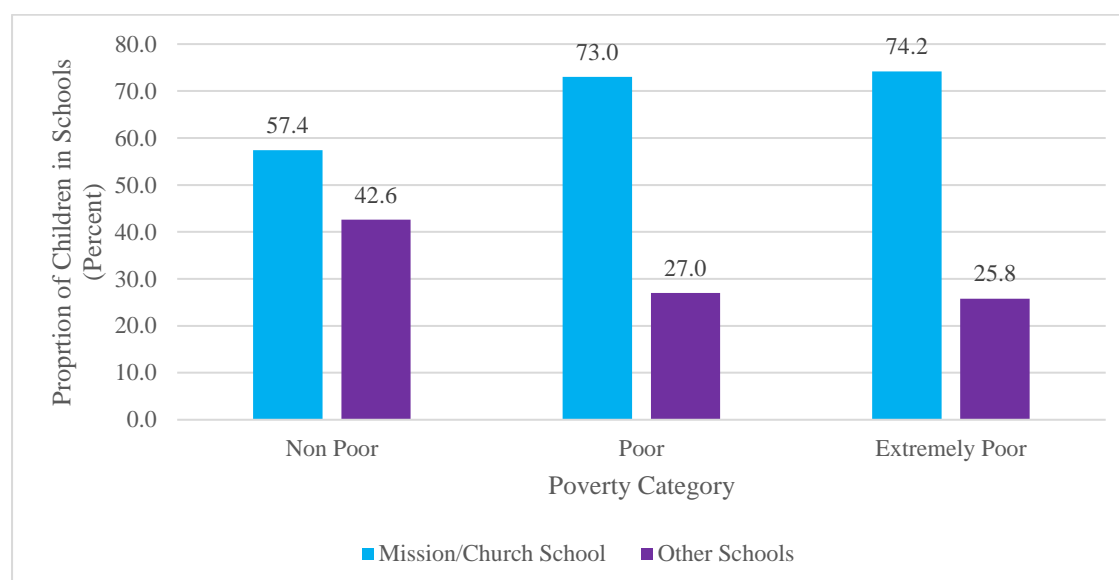
Source: PICES 2017. Poor are children from households whose per capita consumption is lower than the upper poverty line but above the food poverty line. Extremely poor are from households below the food poverty line. N.B. This analysis is for Mission and Other private primary schools including employer schools only and excludes Central and Local Government Primary Schools

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Box 3.3: Private Schools

Zimbabwe has a well-established system of mission schools run by churches and other private schools run by boards of trustees/governors. The distribution of primary schools is administered as follows: 6.8 percent by mission or churches, 1.3 percent by farms, 0.6 percent by mines and 4.3 percent administered by other private organizations. The distribution of secondary schools is administered as follows: 11.7 percent by mission schools, 0.4 percent by farms, 0.2 by mines and 7.3 percent administered by other private organizations. Among the private schools, a considerable proportion are high-fee schools that only attract children from non-poor households who can either pay the fees from their own earnings, or get school fee assistance from their employers as a fringe benefit.

Source: Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education 2017

After removing Central Government and Local government secondary schools it is noted that 47 percent of the non-poor children attended secondary school in mission or church schools while 53 percent attended secondary school in other private schools, (See Figure 3.16). Of those children attending secondary school in Mission and Other private secondary schools, a high proportion of extremely poor children 72.9 percent attended secondary school in mission schools while 27 percent of the extremely poor children attended secondary school in other private secondary schools. Enrolment rates in mission or church secondary schools increased

with increasing poverty and this scenario provided poor and extremely poor children with an opportunity to come out of poverty through being educated.

Figure 3.16: Distribution of Children Enrolled in Mission/Church and Other Private Secondary Schools by Poverty Category
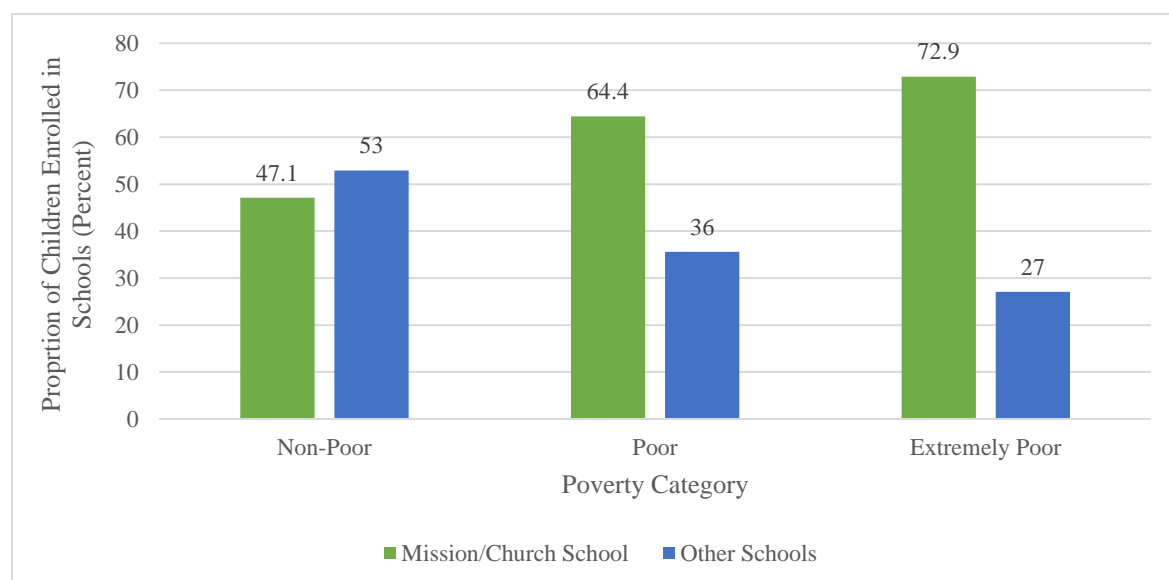
Source: PICES 2017. Poor are children from households whose per capita consumption is lower than the upper poverty line but above the food poverty line. Extremely poor are from households below the food poverty line. N.B. This analysis is for Mission and Other Private Secondary schools only and excludes Central and Local Government Secondary Schools

3.15. Children who Left School, Highest Education Completed and Poverty Status

Table 3.27 shows the percent distribution of children who left school aged between 6 to 20 years by highest level of education completed and poverty status. It was shown that for all Zimbabwe, children who left school and had not completed Grade 7 were poor (90.4 percent), while 52.4 percent were extremely poor. Children who left school having completed Form 4, were less likely to be poor (61.2 percent) compared to children who left school without completing Form 4. There were also not many differences in poverty prevalence for male and female children who left school across all categories. Prevalence of poverty dropped sharply for both male and female children who left school after Form 5 and above.

Table 3.27: Poverty Status (for children 6-20 years old) by Sex and Schooling Attainment

Sex and highest level completed	Prevalence of %	
Males	**Poor**	**Extreme poverty**
Not reached grade 7	88.8	50.3
Completed grade 7	86.8	41.4
Not reached form 4	83.2	36.9
Completed form 4	61.6	18.8
Form 5 and above	42.0	11.1
Females		
Not reached grade 7	92.9	55.5
Completed grade 7	87.4	48.5
Not reached form 4	79.0	38.8
Completed form 4	60.9	20.2
Form 5 and above	39.0	13.5
Total	**Poor**	**Extreme poverty**
Not reached grade 7	90.4	52.4
Completed grade 7	87.1	44.7
Not reached form 4	80.8	38.0
Completed form 4	61.2	19.6
Form 5 and above	40.5	12.3

In urban areas, children who left school between the age range 6-20 years were less likely to be poor compared to children who left school in rural areas in the same age group range, see Table 3.28. In rural areas 92.5 percent of the children who left school at Grade 7 were deemed to be poor compared to 73.9 percent for urban areas. In urban areas children who left school at Form 5 and above were less likely to be poor 23.2 percent compared to children who left school after Form 5 and above in rural areas, 72.7 percent.

Table 3.28: Poverty Prevalence of Children (Aged 6-20 Years) Who Left School by Highest Level of Education Completed

Area/highest education level	Prevalence of poverty %	
Urban areas	**Poor**	**Extreme poverty**
Not reached grade 7	73.9	27.2
Completed grade 7	71.2	19.6
Not reached form 4	50.1	9.8
Completed form 4	35.7	3.5
Form 5 and above	23.2	0.4
Rural areas		
Not reached grade 7	92.5	55.6
Completed grade 7	88.7	47.3
Not reached form 4	87.7	44.3
Completed form 4	81.1	32.2
Form 5 and above	72.7	34.6

3.16. Implications on Educational Policy

An extra dollar ploughed into the development of RDC schools, is likely to benefit children and people from the poorest households. Municipalities should also give particular attention to the construction of more primary and secondary schools as their share in the whole sector is still very small.

The proportion of poor households decline as educational attainment of the household head increases, so investments in education are likely to yield returns in terms of poverty reduction. Government should, therefore, invest in education, particularly in rural areas where school enrolment rates were low and poverty was most widespread among households with school going children. Most households in rural areas were poor and were less likely to invest in their children's education due to cost. Central Government, thus, has a significant role to play in supporting rural education and society as a whole will benefit because social returns will exceed rural returns (because of migration).

Government has done a lot in reducing urban poverty by investing in the children of urban households. It could now be time to direct resources to rural educational development. Government should consider investing in improvement and rehabilitation of educational infrastructure in rural areas.

Government has achieved significant progress in formulating policies directed at improving access to education. For policy implementation, incentives need to be designed to discourage parents from keeping their children out of school. Effective policing mechanisms should be put in place to ensure that children are not sent away from school for finance-related reasons and that parents do not unnecessarily keep their children out of school.

3.17. Summary

This chapter has dealt with differential access to productive assets, attainment of education, access to public services such as schooling services and health care which distinguish the poor from others.   Rural poverty was most prevalent in communal lands (CL) (79.2 percent) followed by resettlement areas (RA) with 76.4 percent. Extreme poverty was most prevalent in CLs with 34.0 percent when compared with 29.9 percent for RAs.

Rural poor households were characterised by much higher dependency ratios compared to non-poor households and dependency was highest for the poorest households. Dependency ratios increased as poverty increased in all land use sectors.

In rural areas, communal and resettlement farmers constituted 80.6 percent of the economically active population. Moreover, households headed by a communal/resettlement farmer had the highest prevalence of poverty, 85.1 percent, compared to other heads of households across land use sectors.

In communal lands, 58.3 percent of the households own cattle while 73.1 percent own chickens. Households in small scale commercial farming areas own more poultry on average14.9 poultry per household than households in other land use sectors. Households in resettlement areas were fairly well-endowed with productive assets such as ploughs, scotch carts and wheel barrows.

About 15 percent of the non-poor households in rural areas reported having a member with an illness in the past month compared to 9.5 percent within urban areas. The percentage of households reporting illness declined with poverty status as 12.2 percent of the poor and 10.6 percent of the extremely poor reported illness. About 57 percent of poor people who were ill used public health facilities for treatment while 48.0 percent of the non-poor went to such facilities.

Sanitation was clearly better in urban areas compared to rural areas. Most urban households had flush toilets (91.5 percent) while 36.8 percent of households in rural areas had no toilet at all. About 30 percent of rural households relied on water supplies which were unsafe. About 2 percent of urban households had access to unsafe water.

Incidence of poverty declined as the household head's educational attainment rose. There was a substantial increase in household poverty when its head had less than secondary school education. Households headed by someone who had at least some secondary education have a poverty rate that was 15.6 percentage points lower compared to households whose head had only primary school education. This difference was 13.4 percent among the extreme poor. In addition, the primary school gross enrolment ratio for extremely poor children was 98.1 percent compared to 101.2 percent for non-poor children.

4. Summary and Conclusions

The 2016/17 agricultural season had good rains all over the country, although in the south part of the country there were floods. The main finding in this report is that poverty fell by 2 percentage points since 2011/12 while extreme poverty went up by almost a third

 Household sizes of poor households were far greater than those of non-poor households. The poor tended to have more children and elderly dependents. Poor households in Zimbabwe were characterised by high dependency ratios and on average, older heads of households were associated with higher prevalence of poverty than younger heads of households. In addition, household size of the urban poor and extremely poor households were larger than those of the non-poor and this indicated a perpetuation of poverty through generations. As a result, children in poor urban families were similarly less likely to attend school and more likely to drop out of school. These characteristics, in turn, perpetuate poverty over time, leading to a vicious cycle of inter-generational misery. Children in such households were less likely to attend school and more likely to drop out earlier. There was a particular problem with access to and participation in secondary school for poor rural households. The higher dependency ratio alluded to earlier reduces productivity growth. A growth in the non-productive population will diminish productive capacity and could lead to a lower long-run trend rate of economic growth.

In terms of health, it was shown that the extremely poor were more likely than people in other poverty categories to claim that inability to afford treatment was the main reason for not seeking treatment for an illness. Home treatment was the second reason for not seeking treatment when ill for the extremely ill but for the non-poor, however, home treatment was the main reason for not seeking external treatment when ill.

Urban poor households tended to be dependent on irregular or informal income sources and the formal sector had not created the growth in employment required to absorb the large number of people entering the job market. Slow employment creation in urban areas reduced remittances to rural areas and contributed to rural poverty. Informal sources of income usually did not provide benefits such as medical aid or retirement.

The sector–wise profile of poverty illuminates several areas that deserve attention by policy makers:

4.1. Agriculture

Poverty is worse among households that were more dependent on agriculture, particularly in communal lands and resettlement areas. The poor in resettlement areas owned more assets than poor households in other rural areas, indicating potential for poverty reduction through productivity improvement in these areas.

The poor who, in rural areas, tended to be dependent on agriculture, need low cost technologies that improve the productivity of their land, given their resource and knowledge base. These attributes need to be factored into decisions on funding of agricultural research. Techniques for better water management, harnessing of rainfall water, increased access to water for agricultural production and land conservation should also be given high priority in the rural land use sectors. This is particularly needed in the semi-arid regions. There is also need to invest in infrastructure such as roads so as to enable farmers to deliver agricultural output to

the markets. Additionally, agricultural markets should also be established nearer to the farmers in order to reduce transport costs.

4.2. Health

Public expenditure on health does not appear to be well targeted towards the poor. The policy of exemption of fees for primary health care in rural areas has benefited the rural poor and non-poor in approximately equal percentages. Most rural poor people who did not seek medical care were constrained by the high cost of such services and also by the distance to the service facilities. This indicates that health care benefits should be expanded in rural areas in order to reduce distances to the health facilities. Mobile clinics were another alternative that might be explored. In urban areas, the main constraint to treatment of illness faced by the poor appeared to be related to cost. Public health facilities were used more frequently by the urban poor but a substantial percentage of poor households in urban areas used private health care providers.

In urban areas, sanitation and water supplies were available to the majority of households, even to the poor. In rural areas, there is need to improve both. For example, sanitation facilities did not exist in most of the homes of the rural poor and a high percentage of the rural poor relied on unsafe water supplies.

4.3. Education

Education spending should also benefit from improved targeting of children who are not able to access education because of poverty. Poor children in both rural and urban areas were less likely to attend school and more likely to drop out than were other children. These patterns were particularly pronounced for secondary education where payoffs to education were higher.

Access to secondary education remains limited for many Zimbabweans but the poor suffer from lowest enrolment rates of all. Whilst the country has made large investments in secondary school infrastructure and teacher training, a majority of the children in need of secondary education did not benefit from this investment, especially the poor as secondary school enrolments declined as poverty increased. A programme to expand access to secondary education by the poor should, therefore, be considered. In rural areas, access to education was worse than in urban areas and some of the implicit subsidies in the education system flow disproportionately to urban areas. Although students in rural primary schools were exempted from paying tuition fees, children were constrained by other factors, as they tended to enroll late and drop out of school early.

Economic returns to education were lower in rural areas than they were in urban areas. The poorest households may be aware of these limited returns and thus tend to invest less in the education of their children. Government might have to increase its investment in education in rural areas so as to increase participation by the rural poor. Alternatively, programmes to generate employment opportunities in rural areas will increase rural returns to education and provide increased incentives for educational investments by the rural people. There is also need to prioritize economic diversification and employment generation in both urban and rural areas and provide support to the informal sector.

Zimbabwe is benefiting from the brain drain that occurred in the last decade as out migrants now send remittances home.

5. Annexes

5.1. Annex A: Measures of Welfare: Incomes, Wealth and Consumption

To measure and compare poverty among subgroups, a means of ordering and quantifying household well-being is needed. There are several money-metric options for such measurement including household income, wealth, expenditures, and consumption. These operational measures are often selected for convenience, ease of collection, or availability in a given survey. The critical issue, however, is how closely the measure corresponds to the concept of well-being.

Most poverty analysts prefer current consumption expenditures to income or wealth as an indicator of well-being. Wealth and income form the basis over which an individual or household commands resources. These resources are transformed, either through market transactions, or household production, into commodities that are consumed. This consumption, then, determines well-being, so that the value of consumption is most closely aligned with the money-metric concept of well-being.

It is generally recognized that wealth and income are more difficult to measure than expenditures or consumption, especially in a developing country context. Wealth is difficult to measure because measurement requires valuation of assets including real property, household assets, and livestock but few surveys provide such details. Even if the survey covered all assets owned by the household, it would be difficult to value the assets without detailed information on their attributes. Markets for many assets are thin or non –existent and imperfect markets compound the problem of asset valuation.

Income, especially when large proportions are derived from the informal sector or through sporadic activities, can be difficult to measure. Recall problems, either due to the irregularity of earnings or strategic responses on the part of respondents, can increase the difficulty of measurement. Measurement of income from household enterprises requires careful distinction between net incomes and changes in the asset value of the enterprise. Few informal enterprises in developing countries possess the accounting skills necessary to determine net enterprise income.

Finally, income tends to fluctuate both seasonally and annually due to the vagaries of the production cycle. Seasonal and annual fluctuations in income are normal in rain-fed agriculture which particularly dominates Zimbabwe's rural areas. Typically, the poor can smooth consumption through savings, storage; insurance schemes etc., so that consumption (and well-being) will fluctuate less than incomes. Ravallion (1994) states that: a) current consumption is almost certainly better than current income as an indicator of current standard of living; and, b) current consumption may also be a good indicator of long-term standard of living.

The 2017 PICES is the major source of data for the poverty profile. There is need to ensure that the use of data in the best possible manner to create measures that have a close correspondence to the concept of welfare and poverty.

The basic guiding principle for use of the data was to create "good" measures of the concepts of interest. For the purpose of this analysis, these variables are taken to be household income

and household consumption expenditures[6]. No single measure can fully capture the multidimensional aspects of welfare or poverty. However, it can be argued that since consumption expenditures or income reflect a person's command over goods and services on which much welfare does depend on, they represent more comprehensive indicators of welfare than other measures. Information is also needed on household composition to ensure consistency. Many of the other variables in the PICES (such as employment, schooling, health) also affect well-being and may not be adequately reflected in consumption expenditures. Consumption of public goods and many benefits that do not flow through markets can be difficult to measure and value thus they are also not included in the measure of consumption used in this study.

It is important that the measure (consumption or income) corresponds closely to the concept in question. Both of these are "flow" concepts, whereas wealth is a "stock" concept. Therefore, there is need to measure the flow of goods, money, etc. that are either consumed, or accrued as income. It is also important to avoid double counting. Double counting occurs when goods are purchased and then used to produce something else that is either consumed or used to create income.

Income is a net concept; it should be computed as the difference between revenues (actual and imputed) earned by the household and costs (such as the purchase of inputs). Expenditures on inputs into, for example, farm production are an obvious area where double counting needs to be avoided, as these expenditures do not fit into the concept of consumption. Purchases of flour used to produce bread are counted in the own-consumption portion of the questionnaire and should not be included in the final expenditure measure.

Standard economic concepts should be used to help define each "variable." The notion of a household income and expenditure can help sort things out. In this scenario, household "expenditures" on consumption should equal household income minus the net change in asset position including savings. Everything entering the consumption portion of the balance should have a corresponding entry on the income or asset side.

Household Income/Consumption Balance

The basic balance equation for household income, asset values and consumption is

$$C_i \equiv Y_i - A_i,$$

where C_i represents consumption (in dollars) by the ith household (the identity could also use a subscript for time), Y_i is the income and A_i is the net change in the asset position of the ith household. This identity must hold for every household for every period of time.

Aggregate income balance:
Nationally, the following must hold,

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[6] Consumption expenditure is used in this study because a large part of welfare ultimately depends on the consumption of goods and services. Typically, expenditure surveys measure purchases of goods and expenditures are used as a proxy for consumption. The comprehensive nature of the PICES allow us to construct a measure of household consumption that includes consumption of home-produced goods, consumption from durable assets, implied consumption from owner-occupied housing, etc.

$$\sum Y_i \equiv Y,$$

where Y is national income. That is, we should recognize that our individual measures of household income need to be consistent when aggregated. Similarly, consumption should sum to national consumption.

Aggregate Consumption Balance:
In the aggregate, consumption must also balance,

$$\sum C_i \equiv C,$$

where C is private consumption. In this report, only household consumption expenditures are considered in the identity. These identities provide information about how different items should be treated:

Savings

Savings can be thought of as the residual on household consumption, a part of the asset balance in the preceding discussion. They represent income not spent on direct consumption, but on consumption deferred into the future. Thus, saving and dissaving represent changes in the net wealth (A_i) of the household. This asset position creates the link between household income and consumption. Current savings are not, therefore, consumption expenditures, and sales of assets (except capital gains) should not be treated as income.

Imputed Expenditures and Imputed Income

Imputations are required in a number of cases. Consumption of own-produced goods counts both as income and as expenditure. This consumption is valued by the household in the PICES, i.e. there is a corresponding "imputed" income accrued from this consumption. Purchase and consumption of durable goods need to be handled in a similar fashion. An expenditure on a durable item represents a transfer to the household "asset account." It should be treated exactly as savings. Only that portion of the asset that is "consumed" in the period in question is counted as consumption. Thus, the purchase price should be amortized over the life of the good in question. How does such consumption of durable goods enter the income side of the household identity? Note that the income used to purchase the asset was earned at some prior time. This income was disposed of by spending it on the asset (a transfer to the asset account). "Consumption" occurs over the life of the asset; this initially earned income is gradually disposed of.

Assets whose values are not diminished by use. Some assets are not "consumed" by their continued use. Housing is the principal example; the value of housing does not fall by continued occupation. In such cases, consumption does not lessen the value of the asset, and an imputed income must be used to balance the household identity. Also, imputed values (or implicit rental values) go into C_i if the housing is owned.

Remittances: The identity should not only balance at the household level, but also in the aggregate. How do remittances enter on the income side of the equation and on the consumption side? Remittances sent out of the house should count against net income (even though it might seem strange, these are part of the "cost" of earning an income); remittances received from others add to income. Such a treatment ensures balance at the national level.

Remittances out of a house are not expenditures (nor consumption). Since income must equal expenditures, remittances are income that never happened.

During the processing of the consumption variable, the above conventions are adhered to. The resulting variable (household consumption in a given month) is expressed on a household per-capita basis in order to conduct the analyses.

5.2. Annex B: Computation of the Consumption Aggregate

Introduction

The 2017 PICES data needed extensive processing to create the measure of household consumption expenditures. Household consumption expenditures form the core welfare indicator for ranking households in this report. Normal cleaning of the data is required. The raw data is generally quite clean, but some outliers are identified by examining the univariate distributions of variables.

The decision to use consumption rather than expenditure made it necessary to smooth some expenditures (on durables and schooling) and to impute in some cases (durables, schooling, and housing). Note that the PICES questionnaire might be altered to reflect a longer recall period for purchases of assets. These smoothing and imputation procedures are described below. The expenditure recall period for the PICES is generally the past month, including durables. The problem encountered is in the recording of lumpy expenditures, particularly schooling and some durables.

Total Consumption Aggregate

Total consumption aggregate is computed as the sum of the monthly consumption expenditures of food, non-food, durable goods, housing, schooling and non-durable goods. All expenditure categories that are present in the PICES 2017 data are included in this computation. For example, expenditures on transportation, fuel, etc. are all included.

Food Consumption Expenditure

Cleaning is required for food expenditures to get rid of outliers. The PICES has detailed information on food expenditures (market, own consumption, gifts, transfers, and payments in kind) for 263 items. Although market purchases are recorded for all food items, own consumption, gifts, transfers, and payments in kind are recorded for only broad groups of food items (for example bread and cereals, milk cheese and eggs etc).

Non-Food Items

Schooling Consumption Aggregate

Introduction
The consumption aggregate of education or schooling consists of school fees and levies and other educational expenses such as uniform, books etc. The school fees and levies data was obtained from the demographic section as it was more complete compared to the data in the non-food section of the PICES 2017 questionnaire. The data on other educational expenditures was obtained from the non-food section of the PICES 2017 questionnaire.

Expenditures on schooling is treated in a manner that is consistent with the study's use of consumption as the means of ranking household welfare. Households that have children in school either had expenditures (and an implied equivalent value of consumption of school services), or they receive free schooling which also represents a consumption of school

services. Two problems are addressed when creating the variable for household consumption of school services: the lumpiness of expenditures on school fees, and valuing the consumption associated with free schooling.

Information on schooling is found in two places in the PICES. Schooling status of household members is collected in the section on household demographics. Questions are asked about the highest grade completed, current attendance, and type of school currently attended, for all members of the household. Other questions on education which include 'who paid school fees last term', current grade attended, distance to school, has name paid school fees this term and how much is termly school fees and levies. Expenditures on school-related items are recorded for the month during which the household is interviewed.

Expenditures on schooling, including school fees, levies, and other fees, tend to be lumpy, as they are usually incurred only once per term. For this reason, expenditures on schools are imputed for households who reported having children in schools, but who reported none of these expenditures.

Treatment of School Fees

In PICES 2017 the same method of estimating school fees directly from the demographic section is adopted because school fees data is collected adequately using a new question, Q26. Question 26 solicited information on school fees which is usually paid each term by each school going child in the household. Question 26 reads " how much is (name)'s termly school fees (including levies)". This question is very helpful because when the enumerator visited every household, the question is asked whether the household paid school fees or not during the month. This question covered all school going children including children attending school in boarding schools. Since there are 3 terms in a year, the data on school fees is annualized first (termly fees multiplied by 3) and then the result is divided by 12 to obtain monthly consumption expenditures on school fees.

The following assumptions are used in determining school fees in the PICES 2017 survey:
- Information on school fees and levies is taken from Question 26 for it represented the total amount of fees paid per term. Actual data on school fees and levies tended to be lumpy or are paid over a long period of time. So the actual expenditures are not used. Some households did not have information on school fees expenditures because they did not pay school fees during that particular month. These households would have reported the amount of school fees they usually pay per term in question 26.
- It is assumed that all fees will be paid eventually if owing as relatives and friends often help. In addition, schools have strong follow up measures to obtain their money and this includes sending children away from school until fees are paid or inviting parents to make payment plans for their children.

In the final analysis the actual school fees obtained from the expenditure portion of the non-food aggregate, is not used in the computation of school fees, as all information is obtained from question 26. This is done to avoid double counting of school fees.

Where there are missing school fees values in the data these values are estimated using the average fees paid in the locality. The missing school fees values are replaced by the mean per capita school fees in each enumeration area, ward, and district. This analysis is done for each

child who is reported to be going to school in question 11 (code2) but did not have a figure of school fees in question 26. Imputation of school fees is done based on type of school attended by child in question 12 and the level of education the person is currently attending. In this case, it is assumed that the person with missing school fees attended school in their localities beginning from the enumeration area, then ward, and district. The type of school and current grade being attended by a child with a missing value of school fees is be matched to the fees of children learning in the same kind of school and attending the same current grade. The type of school attended by school going children in question 12 are listed as follows;

- Government (Central Government)
- Municipal/Council (Local Government)
- Mission/Church
- Mine
- Commercial Farm School
- Private School
- Other

The actual fees paid on the consumption expenditure section is used to check the school fees mentioned in the demographic section.

Durable Goods

Since the study uses the concept of household *consumption,* rather than *expenditures,* to rank household welfare, care needed to be taken in separating flows of consumption benefits from purchase and ownership of durable goods. Two procedures are employed to measure the flow of consumption benefits from the purchase and ownership of durable assets.

It is necessary to smooth the lumpy non-food consumption expenditures as they would distort the computation of means. The first issue is the purchase of durables. A list of durables is noted and their life span is used to determine the consumption expenditure of the durables derived in each month.

Expenditures on durables tend to be very lumpy. Note that the PICES 2017 questionnaire asks about last month's expenditures on durables and expenditure on durables in the last 12 months. To be consistent with the study's use of consumption, it is necessary to spread the value of expenditures on durables over the estimated lifetime of the good in question. Welfare-relevant benefits from such purchases are far below the purchase price, depending on the estimated life of the asset. The monthly consumption benefit from purchased assets equals the expenditure in the past year on each asset (as reported in the 2017 PICES), divided by the total expected life of the asset in months. The estimated lives of durable assets that are used in the study are presented in Table 5.1. Purchases of 12 types of durable goods are recorded in the 2017 PICES (see Table 5.1); their purchase values are divided by the average monthly life to reach a monthly equivalent expenditure value.

Since PICES also records ownership of key assets (see Table 5.1), it allows an imputation of the benefit flows accruing to the household from ownership of these assets when the asset was not purchased in the past year. If the household reports owning the asset, the monthly equivalent benefit from such ownership is computed as the average purchase price divided by the asset's life in months.

Table 5.1: Durable Asset Lives and Estimated Purchase Prices

Asset	Ownership recorded in PICES[b]	Estimated life (years)[c]	Value of assets[a]	
			Percent Owning Assets [d]	Mean expenditure on asset (US$)[e]
Automobile	Yes	10	7.5	4 330
Refrigerator	Yes	10	22.2	431
Stove	Yes	10	30.3	469
Heater	Yes	5	2.6	34
Television	Yes	10	35.9	395
DVD player	Yes	3	27.7	75
Radio	Yes	5	29.1	81
Bicycle	Yes	5	13.6	104
Furniture (f)	Yes	10	9.7	2 361
Jewellery	No	10	-	21
Other electronic goods (Cell Phone)	Yes	5	78.8	117
Other electronic appliances	No	7	-	61

[a]From PICES 2017 survey

[b]If ownership was recorded, then benefit flow from ownership is imputed.

[c]Based on judgment of team

[d]Percent of households owning assets

[e]Used as the CPS price for imputations for consumption flows from ownership of automobiles, refrigerators, stoves, heaters, televisions, DVDs, radios, and bicycles..

f. All kinds of furniture e.g. beds and mattresses, bedroom suite, tables and chairs, dining room suite etc.

The average prices of durables used to compute aggregate consumption is obtained from the Consumer Price Survey (CPS) from January to December 2017. This means of imputing benefits from ownership, however, introduces error in that there is no information from the PICES on the quality of the durable nor on its age. It is assumed that durables are all of a uniform quality and that no movement in relative prices of durables occurs over the life of the asset. It also assumes that durables owned by poor and non-poor households are equal in value and quality. This assumption probably overstates the in-kind-income from durables in poor families.

Because purchase and ownership benefits are measured, the interest payments on consumer loans (items 630-632 in the PICES 2017) are not included when computing consumption. Their inclusion would represent double counting.

Non-Durable Goods

Expenditures on non-durable items such as clothing, household furnishings, etc. are recorded for the month of the interview and are included directly. No imputations are necessary and only minimal cleaning is required.

An obvious problem is associated with this treatment of non-durables such as clothing as a current expenditure (rather than amortising the expenditure over the life time of the good in question). These expenditures can be as lumpy as expenditures on durables, and the flow of consumption benefits from ownership of these items is not included in the measure of welfare. This problem could not be avoided, as there is no information on ownership of these items from

the PICES. Instead of spreading purchase values over the expected lives of some of these semi-durable assets, reported monthly expenditures are used to capture the consumption benefits from such purchases.

However, after this process, lumpy expenditures are identified in the PICES data particularly on semi-durable goods. These expenditures are found in product items such as repair charges for vehicles, hospital medical charges, funeral expenses, wedding expenses, fares on airline, etc. In all these cases an attempt is made to amortize the semi -durable goods to a life span ranging from 1 to 2 years in order to remove the lumpiness of these consumption expenditures. For some semi- durables a lifespan of 1 year or two years is used to spread the consumption expenditures of these product items.

5.3. Annex C: Housing and Rental Values

Housing Consumption Aggregate

Step 1: Total housing information was derived from three sources namely:

- The value of actual rental paid by tenants.
- Value of self-imputed rentals stated by house owners.
- Mortgage payment by households who bought new houses.

The PICES 2017 data did not have data on mortgage payments. Therefore, mortgage payments were dropped from the analysis. In cases where mortgage payments are available and there are no actual rental payments or imputed rentals then the monthly mortgage payments would represent the value of rental.

It was noted that there were 31 households that reported a non-zero value for both actual rent and imputed rent. To solve this problem question 112 on tenure status of households was used. It was concluded that owners should not have actual rentals but only imputed rentals. Tenants and lodgers should not have imputed value. For tied accommodation if households reported both actual and imputed rental, it was decided to set actual rent to missing and take imputed rental. For other types of tenure the data shows that they have more imputed than actual rentals. The solution was to assume those who reported both actual and imputed rentals, then set actual rent to missing and take imputed rental. Imputed rentals reported by households in the non-food section was used.

Step 2: Information on tenure status was used to estimate housing consumption aggregate.

For owners imputed rentals was estimated using rent per room multiplied by the number of rooms. If number of rooms was missing it was replaced by the median number of rooms in the province. Log of rooms was taken to show a normal distribution and outliers are smoothed out. Missing rent was imputed using average rent in the province.

Step 3: Removing outliers for actual rentals.

This was done using the Z-scores and treating a z-score of more than 3 as an outlier. The mean actual rental for the province was used to replace the outlier of the actual rentals. Secondly outliers identified by the Z scores were treated by top coding them by province based on visual inspection of data.

Step 4: Removing outliers for self-imputed rentals.

Replace self-imputed rentals equals or greater than $15,000. Replace outlier with mean imputed rentals of the province. Secondly Z-scores were used and a Z score of more than 3 was treated as an outlier. The Z score identified 444 outliers and these were replaced by the mean self-imputed rentals in the province. Top coding was done by province, focusing outliers identified through the Z-score. The top code was done, based on visual inspection of data on self-reported imputed rentals.

Step 5: Number of rooms

If rent per room was greater than 2.5 average rent per room per month it was considered an outlier and so it had to be replaced by the mean self-imputed rental value. Where there was missing rental information the number of rooms was multiplied by average rent per room.

5.4.   Annex D: The Poverty Datum Line for Zimbabwe

Background

Different methods can be employed to determine the PDL, including the "food energy" method, the "least-cost diet" method, and the "cost of basic needs" method. The cost of basic needs method is adopted in this study, because it is consistent with prior practices in Zimbabwe, and is preferred on conceptual grounds because it leads to consistent comparisons among sub groups (for a discussion of consistency and the desirable properties of PDLs, see CSO, 1998; or Ravallion, 1998).

The cost of basic needs method consists of identifying a "minimum needs basket" of food items and other consumption goods, and then valuing that basket using market prices. The resulting value represents the cost or minimum expenditure required to attain a minimum level of well being (or what Ravallion, 1998, calls "the cost of the poverty level of utility"). As the value of the minimum needs basket will vary depending on the composition of the basket (and, of course, prices), it is important that the basket be consistent with expenditure patterns of the poor.

Methodology

The poverty datum lines employed in this study use a "representative basket" of food items that are consistent with expenditure patterns in Zimbabwe, provide reasonable dietary diversity, and provide a minimum amount of food energy needs. This basket is valued using market prices for the 10 provinces of Zimbabwe[7]; the resulting value (or cost of consumption of the minimum food needs) represents the "food poverty line" (FPL). It is assumed that an individual whose total per capita consumption expenditures do not exceed the FPL is very poor. A second poverty line that accounts also for non-food basic needs is created; this line is denoted the "total poverty line" (TCPL). The TCPL is derived by computing the non-food consumption expenditures of households whose total expenditures per capita just equal the value of the FPL. Please note that there are two potential upper lines, depending on how the food share is computed. The share of food expenditures for households whose total consumption exactly equaled the FPL is used. This is a lower bound for the upper line. An alternative is the food share for household whose food expenditures exactly equaled the FPL. This would be used to compute an upper poverty line. This amount is added to the FPL. If an individual does not consume more than this TCPL, he or she is deemed poor.

There are two options for the "representative basket" of food items: (i) use a single basket for the entire country, or, (ii) use a basket that varies according to location.

If a single national basket is used, poverty among certain groups may be understated when their consumption is compared to the cost of each poverty line. The reason for this is that as prices change, consumers substitute away from consumption of relatively more expensive goods and replace them with less expensive sources of nutrients. For example, prices of some commodities such as sugar and cooking oil might be higher in rural areas than they are in urban

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[7] Average Prices by province and district were derived from CPS data from January 2017 to December 2017. These prices are the most appropriate prices to use in this analysis because the data is representative at district level and all the variations in the prices of goods across the nation are captured.

areas. Rural consumers will substitute less expensive goods for these higher-priced goods. If a constant food basket is used, and prices of the goods in the basket in rural areas are all higher than in urban areas, the poverty line, computed using a single food basket, in rural areas will be higher than it should be. Rural consumers will be able to achieve the same level of welfare, at lower cost to them, by making substitutions. The resulting poverty line will tend to overstate rural poverty relative to urban poverty[8].

The above argument implies that different "baskets" should be used depending on the location, especially if relative prices vary "significantly" across locations. However, a problem emerges with the use of different baskets, because different baskets of goods can imply different levels of welfare. To make poverty comparisons, the analyst must try to insure that individuals (or households) whose expenditures or income are exactly equal to the poverty line have equal levels of well-being, regardless of where they live. When "minimum needs" baskets contain different quantities or different items in different areas, it is difficult to insure this equality. Thus, the validity of the poverty comparisons may be compromised by the use of different consumption baskets to construct the poverty line.

The ZIMSTAT has, as a matter of policy, adopted a single minimum needs food basket. There are several reasons for this, including the fact that ZIMSTAT uses single national weights for its CPI. It is desirable to have a consistent methodology for the CPI and the PDLs. In addition, there are substantial difficulties associated with ensuring that welfare levels are similar if different baskets are used. For the purpose of validating inferences, rural and urban minimum needs baskets are identified and the results of the two profiles are compared.

The minimum needs food basket

The minimum needs food basket is identified by examining expenditure patterns from the PICES[9] and comparing those patterns to baskets used in other studies.

Identifying basket components

Eighteen expenditure items are identified as being significant components of food expenditure. These commodities and their shares of total food expenditures are shown in Table 5.2. They formed the "minimum needs" basket of food.

The same minimum needs basket of commodities is maintained in the 2017 poverty analysis, see Table 5.2. The quantities of commodities consumed help to provide the 2 100 calorie per person per day as desired by the FAO minimum needs dietary needs.

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[8] The example here is hypothetical, and the real direction of the bias depends on a number of things, including the magnitude of price differences, the source and composition of the minimum needs basket, and the propensity of low-income consumers to make substitutions. The direction of the bias (that is, whether poverty is over- or under-stated in a given area due to the use of a single food basket) is an empirical question.

[9] The terms "consumption" and "expenditure" are used interchangeably here. The PICES contains information on market expenditures and non-market values such as own-produced items consumed by the household.

Table 5.2: Minimum Needs Food Basket for All Zimbabwe

Commodity	Share of minimum needs food basket	Quantity (kg/annum/person)
Maize (including own-produced)	.28	134.7
Bread	.06	18.3
Rice	.01	0.7
Flour	.02	3.6
Ration Beef	.12	11.1
Chicken	.02	2.4
Fish Carpenter	.05	3.5
Milk (including own-produced)	.03	7.8
Eggs (including own-produced)	.03	7.8
Cooking Oil	.06	5.7
Rape	.03	13.1
Cabbage	.01	5.3
Tomatoes	.01	3.1
Own-consumed vegetables (Rape)	.18	66.7
Groundnuts	.02	8.4
Potatoes	.02	6.6
Sugar	.08	13.3
Sugar Beans	.01	10.5
Salt	.01	2.9

Source: ZIMSTAT

Steps to Construct the Food Poverty Line

1. Take the prices of the minimum needs basket from the 2017 Consumer Price Survey (CPS) ledger
2. Apply the average prices on the 18 products in the minimum needs basket.
3. Generate average CPS prices per province per month by urban rural (geometric mean)
4. If there are missing prices, impute
   - If prices are missing from rural, take the urban and vice versa
   - If prices are missing from both urban and rural take the prices from the adjacent provinces
     - For Matabeleland South Province take Bulawayo Province
     - Mashonaland East Province take Harare Province
   - A few missing prices are in groundnuts in some months. The rest of the products had prices every month.
5. Price the basket to come up with the food poverty lines

Cleaning of Prices

The data from the Consumer Price Survey conducted by the ZIMSTAT Prices Section is checked to see if the quantity of each product matched the weight of each product on the minimum needs basket. Examples include a smaller loaf than the standard loaf of bread or a larger bag of maize meal than the one expected on the product list. The product whose quantity

is outside the expected range is identified and removed from the data then average prices for each product in the minimum needs basket are computed. The mean prices are computed at province level. These mean prices for each product are used to replace all the products whose prices are above or below the average prices. The province average prices by product are used to replace the products which did not have the correct quantity in each province.

The raw price data is obtained for the 18 products which are in the minimum needs basket (Table 5.2). The data is collected for each province, and for each month of the PICES survey.

The PICES team had to carry out a data price cleaning process in order to come up with average prices for urban and rural areas. There are two problems with the prices: (i) missing prices; (ii) prices where the unit for which the price are collected does not match the standard ZIMSTAT unit (such as smaller than normal loaves of bread) which sometimes referred to as outliers.

The Prices for groundnuts is collected from various markets and the quantity used in these markets is a 20 litre bucket which is equivalent to 20 kilogrammes. The price of a small loaf was converted to standard loaf prices by doubling the price of the small loaf which had a price of say 50 cents when the standard loaf was about 1 dollar. The price of groundnuts is converted to price per kilogramme so as it use it on the basket quantity of one kg. These mean prices for each product are used to replace all the products whose prices are above or below the average prices (outliers).

The Food Poverty Line

The quantities consumed in this minimum needs basket are multiplied by the market price in each of the 10 provincial markets to yield a food poverty line for each province. This poverty line varies by market and by month as the prices of the goods in the minimum needs basket change.

When a food basket providing 2 100 calories per day is reached, it is priced for each province and month using local prices. This process yields region (province), rural, urban and month-specific food poverty datum lines. For the PICES 2017 survey, 216 poverty lines (12 x18 as there are no rural markets for Harare and Bulawayo) or 9 x2 x 12 are computed. These poverty lines are deflated by the Harare June 2017 Food Poverty Datum Line to basically yield one food poverty datum line.

Deflated Using Food Poverty Line

The deflation is both spatial (over space) and temporal (over time). The FPL for Harare in June 2017 is used as the base.

The deflator will take the form:
$$FPLdef_{pu\_m} = FPL_{hj}/FPL_{pu\_m}$$
Where

hj=Harare June 2017

pu=province by urban rural

m=month

FPL=Food Poverty Line

There will be 216 monthly deflators for the 10 provinces by urban/rural disaggregation.

Computing Food Energy Content

The energy content of the minimum needs basket have to be estimated in order to derive the inflation factor and ensure that the quantities of food in the basket provided adequate dietary energy. To do so, values of expenditure on the food items are divided by the food prices (see above) to yield quantities. After this, the quantities have to be converted to their energy equivalent.

Table 5.3: Assumed Composition of Own-Produced Consumption, by Broad Group

Own-produced broad commodity group	Assumed composition
Bread and cereals	Maize (100%)
Meat	Beef (70%), poultry (30%)
Dairy	Milk (80%), eggs (20%)
Vegetables	Cabbage (33%), rape(33%), tomatoes (34%)

Source: ZIMSTAT. Note: these assumed compositions are based on rough expenditure patterns for market purchases of the items.

Own Consumption

Own consumption accounts for a large share of reported expenditures on the following food groups: bread and cereals, meats, dairy products, and vegetables. Since the PICES contains no information on the specific commodities composing these own consumption expenditures, assumptions needed to be made about their composition in order to compute prices (which are quantity-weighted averages) and energy contents of these commodities[10]. Assumptions about the composition of the own-consumption composite goods are made based on expenditure patterns, on the availability of ZIMSTAT prices, and common sense. For example, the own-consumption of the bread and cereal group did not include bread (very little own-consumption of bread occurs) or sorghum/millet (ZIMSTAT does not collect prices of these commodities). The assumed composition of the own-consumption bundle for each of these groups is shown in Table 5.4.

Energy Content

The primary source of information on energy content of food items is the paper authored by Chitsiku. In cases where food items are aggregated into a compound commodity, raw expenditure shares are used to weight the calorie contents of the different components. All energy values are adjusted for energy losses during cooking.

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[10] The PICES addresses own consumption by asking the household the value of own-produced food items consumed in the previous month (see ZIMSTAT PICES 2017 Manual and Questionnaire). However, these values are aggregated during completion of the questionnaire into broad food groups. For example, while the PICES contains information on market expenditures on maize, bread, millet, etc., it only contains information on own-consumption of the broad cereal group. Payments in kind, gifts, and transfers are also aggregated in a similar fashion.

Table 5.4: Assumed Energy Content of Food Items in the Minimum Needs Basket

Commodity	Units	Kcal/ unit	Note
Maize	100 g	310	Straight run mealie-meal, adjusted (*.89) for energy loss during cooking
Rice	100 g	311	Raw rice, adjusted (*.89) for energy loss during cooking
Flour	100 g	291	Adjusted (*.89) for energy loss during cooking
White bread	Standard Loaf	2 100	70 kcal/25 g., 750 g. per loaf
Beef	100 g	251	Stewed beef
Poultry	100 g	216	Roasted chicken
Own-produced meat	100 g	240	Beef (70%), chicken (30%)
Fish	100 g	299	Dried fish
Milk	1 cup (244 g)	150	Fresh whole milk
Own-produced dairy	100 g	151	Milk(80%), eggs (20%)
Oil/fats	100 g	895	Vegetable oil
Cabbage	100 g	20	Boiled
Rape	100 g	36	Adjusted (*.76) for nutrient loss during cooking
Tomato	100 g	16	Adjusted (*.76) for nutrient loss during cooking
Own-produced vegetables	100 g	24	Cabbage (33%), rape (33%), tomato (34%)
Tubers	100 g	78	Compound commodity (.75 boiled potato and .25 boiled sweet potato)
White sugar	100 g	375	
Dried vegetables	100 g	330	Dried haricot beans

Source: Chitsiku

Table 5.5: Annual Mean Food PDL by Place of Residence in US Dollars

Province	Urban Mean FPL	Rural Mean FPL	Total Mean FPL
Manicaland	30.5	30.6	30.6
Mashonaland Central	31.2	29.5	30.4
Mashonaland East	30.9	29.3	30.1
Mashonaland West	31.9	32.3	32.1
Matabeleland North	34.0	30.0	32.0
Matabeleland South	32.0	32.5	32.2
Midlands	31.6	29.9	30.8
Masvingo	31.0	30.2	30.6
Bulawayo	32.1	-	32.1
Harare	31.8	-	31.8
All Zimbabwe	**31.7**	**30.5**	**31.2**

Source: PICES 2017. Notes: Variation in FPDL is caused by spatial and seasonal variations in prices and by variations in the food shares by place of residence (rural/urban) and province.

Non-Food Expenditures

Because it is difficult to measure quantities, qualities, and prices of non-food goods necessary for a minimum level of well-being, the analysis turned again to revealed behaviour of households near the FPL. Ravallion (1998) shows that on a conceptual basis, the total consumption poverty line cannot exceed the total consumption of those whose actual food spending achieves basic food needs. A non-parametric method is used to compute the Total Consumption Poverty Line (upper line). The average non-food for the households whose per capita food consumption expenditure is around the food poverty line is computed to give the TCPL. Table 5.6 below shows the value of the TCPL for Zimbabwe is US$70.36 per person per month.

Total Consumption Poverty Line (TCPL) = Food Poverty Line (FPL) + Non Food Expenditures

Table 5.6: Total Consumption Poverty Line (TCPL) US Dollars

Province	Average Value	TCPL=FPL + Non Food Consumption Expenditure
Food Poverty Line	US$31.27	US$ 70.36
Non Food Consumption	US$39.09	

Source: PICES 2017: One TCPL is computed for Zimbabwe. TPDL is measured in US$ per person per month. The non-food consumption expenditure for households whose per capita food is around (+-FPL) the food poverty line is computed. The average non-food for these households is computed to give the TCPL.

Deflating Household Expenditures

The *upper poverty line* is used to *deflate household consumption expenditures* to reflect cost of living-based differences in the minimum expenditures. Harare, June 2017 is used as the reference period and area.

How Poverty Prevalence Numbers are Computed

The prevalence (also known as the *headcount index*) represents the total population (either people or households) whose consumption expenditures fall below the poverty line as a proportion of the total population. For example, the prevalence of poverty in a region is the number of people (or households) below the poverty line divided by the total population (individual or households) in the region. To get overall poverty prevalence the number of poor households is divided by the total number of households in the survey to give 60.6 percent as stated in chapter two. The percent non poor is shown as 39.4 percent using the same calculation.

Table 5.7: Computation of Poverty Prevalence for Poor Households and Severely Poor Households and by Province, Zimbabwe

Province	Number of Non poor households	Number of poor households	Total Number of households	Percent Non poor households	Percent Poor households
				(4)=	(5)=
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)/(3)*100	(2)/(3)*100
Manicaland	128 398	314 930	443 328	29	71
Mashonaland Central	53 492	237 861	291 353	18.4	81.6
Mashonaland East	126 710	241 313	368 023	34.4	65.6
Mashonaland West	99 401	245 062	344 463	28.9	71.1
Matabeleland North	40 224	116 168	156 393	25.7	74.3
Matabeleland South	59 539	100 416	159 955	37.2	62.8
Midlands	127 765	217 758	345 523	37.0	63.0
Masvingo	133 058	244 617	377 675	35.2	64.8
Bulawayo	137 552	39 400	176 951	77.7	22.3
Harare	332 859	150 212	483 071	68.9	31.1
Total	1 238 998	1 907 736	3 146 734	39.4	60.6

Sensitivity Analysis: Prevalence of Poverty Following a 10 Percent Decrease in Per Capita Consumption

If the households in Zimbabwe suffer a 10 percent decrease in per capita consumption say owing to high inflation then household poverty prevalence for all Zimbabwe increases by 4.6 percent, see Table 5.8 Bulawayo and Harare would have the highest increase in poverty prevalence of 5.6 percent each. Urban households tend to suffer more from a reduction in per capita consumption expenditures compared to rural areas. If per capita consumption falls by 10 percent the prevalence of poverty in Zimbabwe would rise from 60.6 percent to 65.2 percent.

Table 5.8: Simulation Model Results: Prevalence of Household Poverty and Poverty Indices by Province; Following a 10 Percent Decrease in Per Capita Consumption Expenditures in Households.

| Province | Percent poor households before simulation (1) | Percent poor households after simulation (2) | Prevalence of (%) | | Percent Change in poverty prevalence (2-1) |
			Poverty before simulation (1)	Poverty after simulation (2)	
Manicaland	16.5	16.3	71.0	75.4	4.4
Mashonaland Central	12.5	12.0	81.6	84.5	2.9
Mashonaland East	12.6	12.7	65.6	70.6	5.1
Mashonaland West	12.8	12.6	71.1	75.0	3.9
Matabeleland North	6.1	6.0	74.3	78.3	4.0
Matabeleland South	5.3	5.3	62.8	67.6	4.8
Midlands	11.4	11.4	63.0	67.7	4.7
Masvingo	12.8	12.8	64.8	69.5	4.7
Bulawayo	2.1	2.4	22.3	27.9	5.6
Harare	7.9	8.6	31.1	36.7	5.6
All Zimbabwe	100.0	100.0	60.6	65.2	4.6

Source: PICES 2017. The poverty gap and the severity indices are the Foster, Greer and Thorbecke $\alpha=1$ and $\alpha=2$ measures, respectively (see Ravallion, 1992 for details). These indices are computed using the upper poverty line (the TCPL). Prevalence of poverty refers to the percentage of households whose consumption expenditures per capita fall below the upper poverty line (the TCPL). Extreme poverty refers to households below the lower line (the FPL).

Summary: Steps Taken in Computing the Poverty Line

- Collect price data for the 18 products listed on the minimum needs basket from the Consumer Price Survey for January 2017 to December 2017.
- Average prices are computed by province and by rural and urban areas.
- Average prices of the products in the minimum needs basket are multiplied by the quantities already established for the products in the minimum needs basket.
- A total of 216 poverty lines are computed by province, rural, urban and each month of the PICES 2017 survey.
- All the 216 lines are divided (deflated) by the Harare June 2017, food poverty line to yield one national food poverty line.
- The average non-food for the households whose per capita food is around the food poverty line is computed to give the TCPL.
- The upper poverty line is used to deflate household expenditures while Harare, June 2017 is used as the reference period and area.
- To get the prevalence (also known as the *headcount index*) the total population (either people or households) whose consumption expenditures fall below the poverty line is expressed as a proportion of the total population.

Kernel Density Estimation

In statistics, kernel Density Estimation (KDE) is a non-parametric way to estimate the probability density function of a random variable. Kernel density estimation is a fundamental data smoothing problem where inferences about the population are made, based on a finite data sample. Kernel density estimates are closely related to histograms, but can be endowed with properties such as smoothness or continuity by using a suitable kernel. Comparison of the histogram (left) and kernel density estimate (right) constructed using the same data. The 6 individual kernels are the red dashed curves, the kernel density estimate the blue curves. The data points are the rug plot on the horizontal axis.

Figure 5.1: Example of the difference between a K density function and a histogram
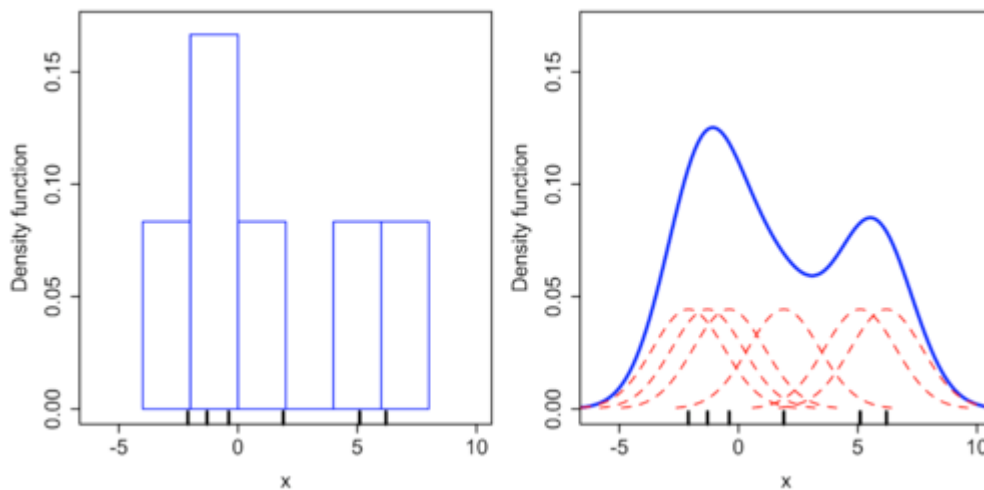
Source: Wikipedia

Distribution of per Capita Consumption Expenditure in Zimbabwe

Most of the households in rural areas are below the total consumption poverty line which shows higher poverty prevalence compared to urban areas. The mean of the overlayed K density functions for the rural and urban areas are shown at the peak of the curves. The mean log per capita consumption in rural areas has settled on the food poverty line also showing high proportions of rural households who are in extreme poverty. The mean per capita consumption expenditure of the urban households has settled around the total consumption poverty line. The distance between the two means shows high levels of inequalities between rural and urban areas. Figure 5.2 contains the rural and urban distributions for all Zimbabwe, while Figure 5.3 shows the distributions for Manicaland Province.

Figure 5.2: Distribution of Per Capita Consumption Expenditure for All Zimbabwe by Rural and Urban Areas
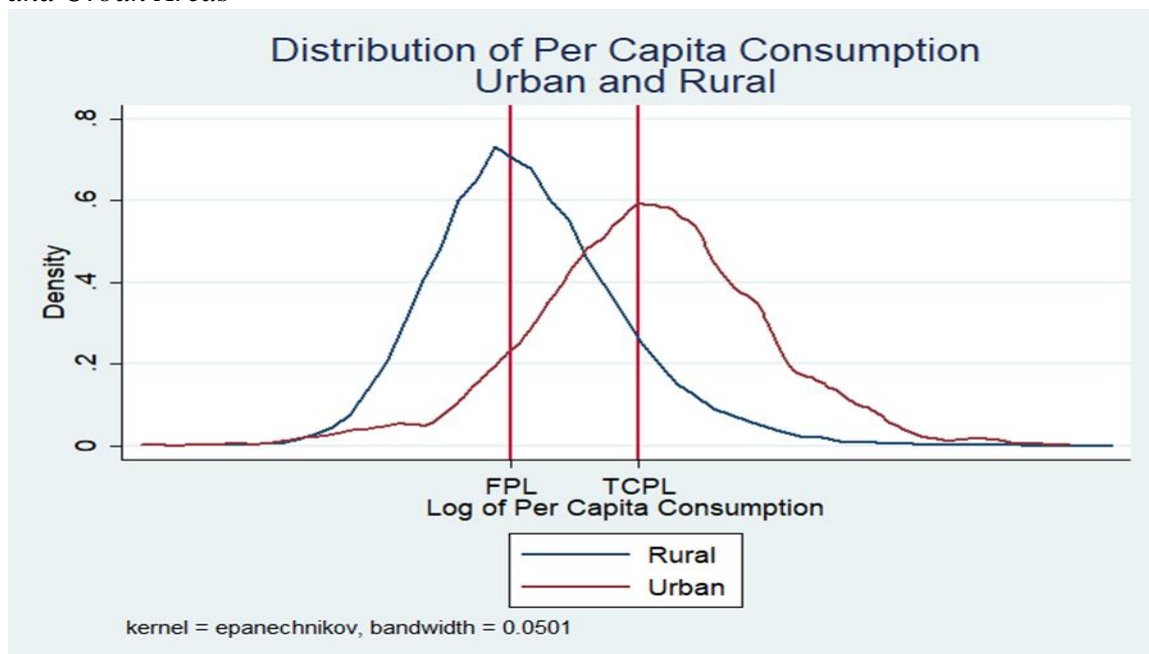
Manicaland Province

The distance between the two means shows high levels of inequalities between rural and urban areas of Manicaland Province.

Figure 5.3: Distribution of Per Capita Consumption Expenditure for Manicaland Province by Rural and Urban Areas
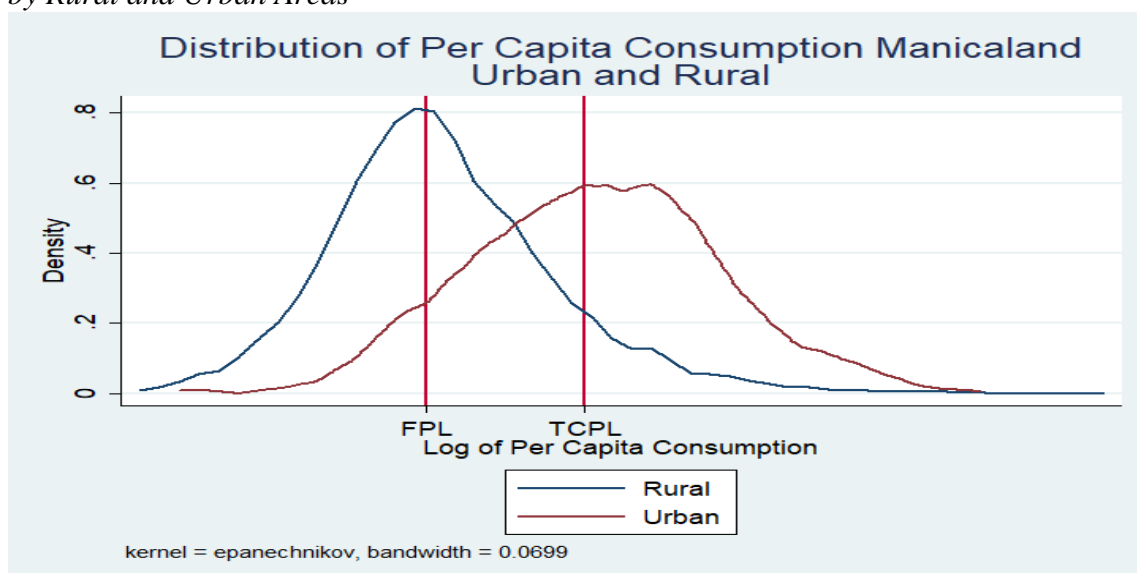
Mashonaland Central Province

The majority of the rural households in Mashonaland Central are to the left of the Food Poverty Line showing high levels of extreme poverty. Inequalities between urban and rural areas is high as the distance between the two per capita consumption expenditure for rural and urban areas is large, see Figure 5.4.

Figure 5.4: Distribution of Per Capita Consumption Expenditure for Mashonaland Central by Rural and Urban Areas
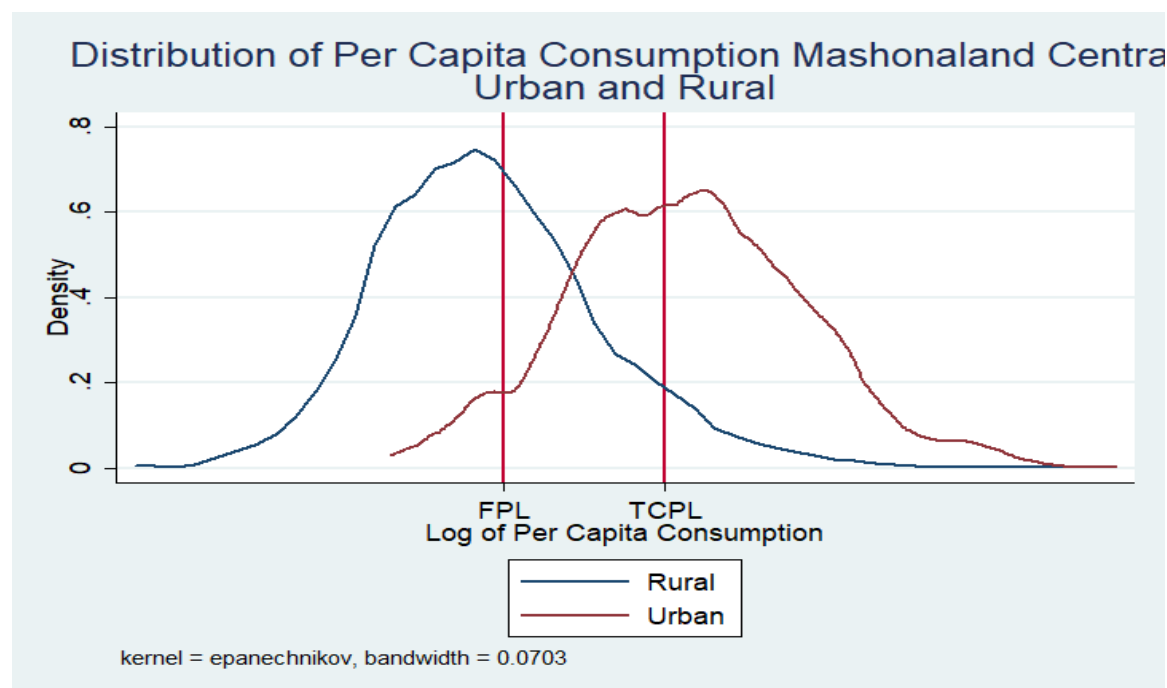
Mashonaland East Province

The mean per capita consumption expenditure for Rural Mashonaland East province is centered near the FPL while the mean per capita consumption expenditure in urban Mashonaland East province lies on the TCPL. Inequalities between rural and urban areas are high in this province.

Figure 5.5: Distribution of Per Capita Consumption Expenditure for Mashonaland East by Rural and Urban Areas
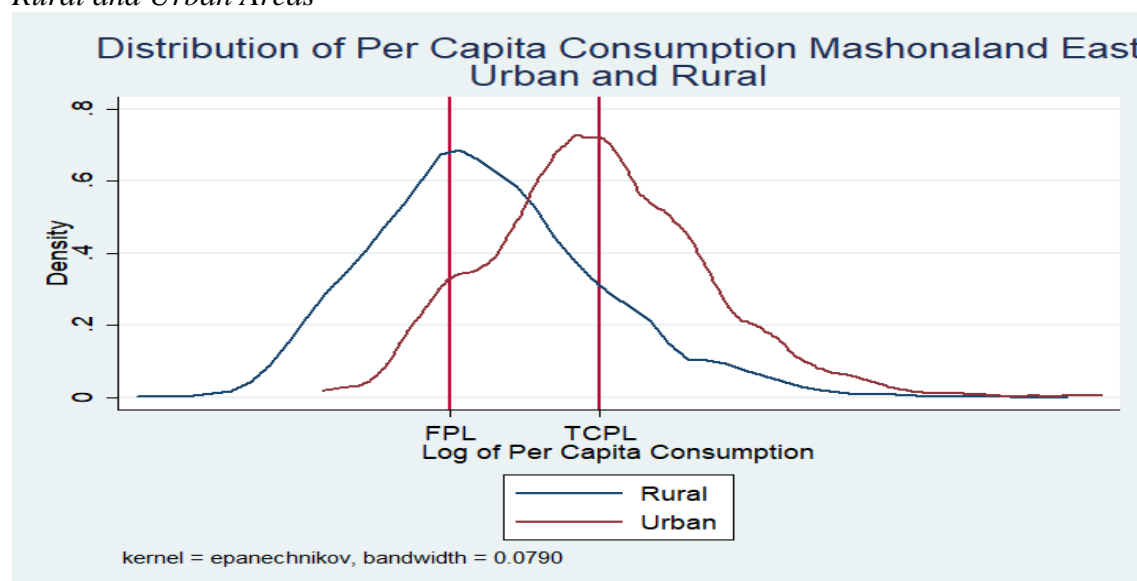
Mashonaland West Province

The majority of households in Rural areas of Mashoanaland West Province are to the left of the FPL showing high levels of poverty prevalence and extreme poverty. Inequalities between urban and rural areas are high as the distance between the per capita rural and urban area means is large, see Figure 5.6.

Figure 5.6: Distribution of Per Capita Consumption Expenditure for Mashonaland West by Rural and Urban Areas
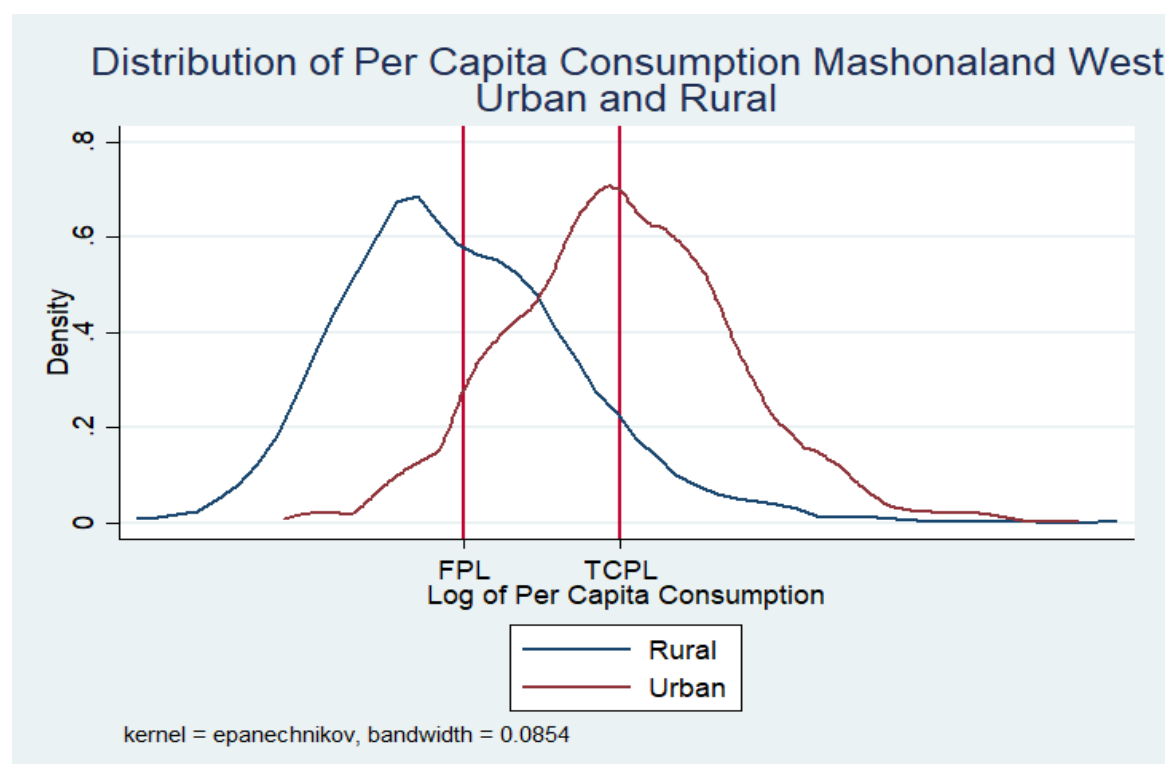
Matabeleland North Province

Rural poverty is high in Matabeleland North Province as most of the households are below the FPL. High levels of inequalities are seen between rural and urban areas of Matabeleland North Province, see Figure 5.7.

Figure 5.7: Distribution of Per Capita Consumption Expenditure for Matabeleland North Province by Rural and Urban Areas
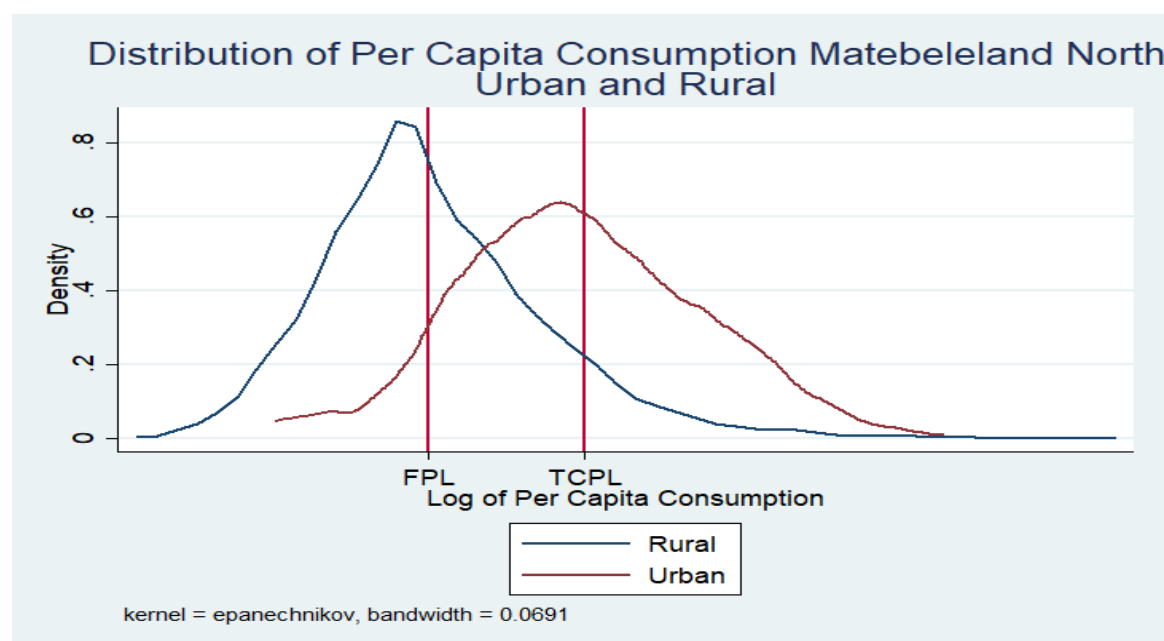
Matabeleland South Province

Rural poverty is relatively lower in Matabeleland South Province as most of the households are between the FPL and the TCPL. Lower levels of inequalities are shown between rural and urban areas of Matabeleland South Province as the distance between the per capita consumption means for urban and rural areas is narrower, see Figure 5.8.

Figure 5.8: Distribution of Per Capita Consumption Expenditure for Matabeleland South by Rural and Urban Areas

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The mean per capita consumption expenditure lies on the FPDL while the mean per capita consumption expenditure lies on the TCPL. Poverty is relatively high. Lower levels of inequalities are shown between rural and urban areas of Midlands Province as the distance between the per capita consumption means for urban and rural areas is narrower, see Figure 5.9.

Figure 5.9: Distribution of Per Capita Consumption Expenditure for Midlands Province by Rural and Urban Areas
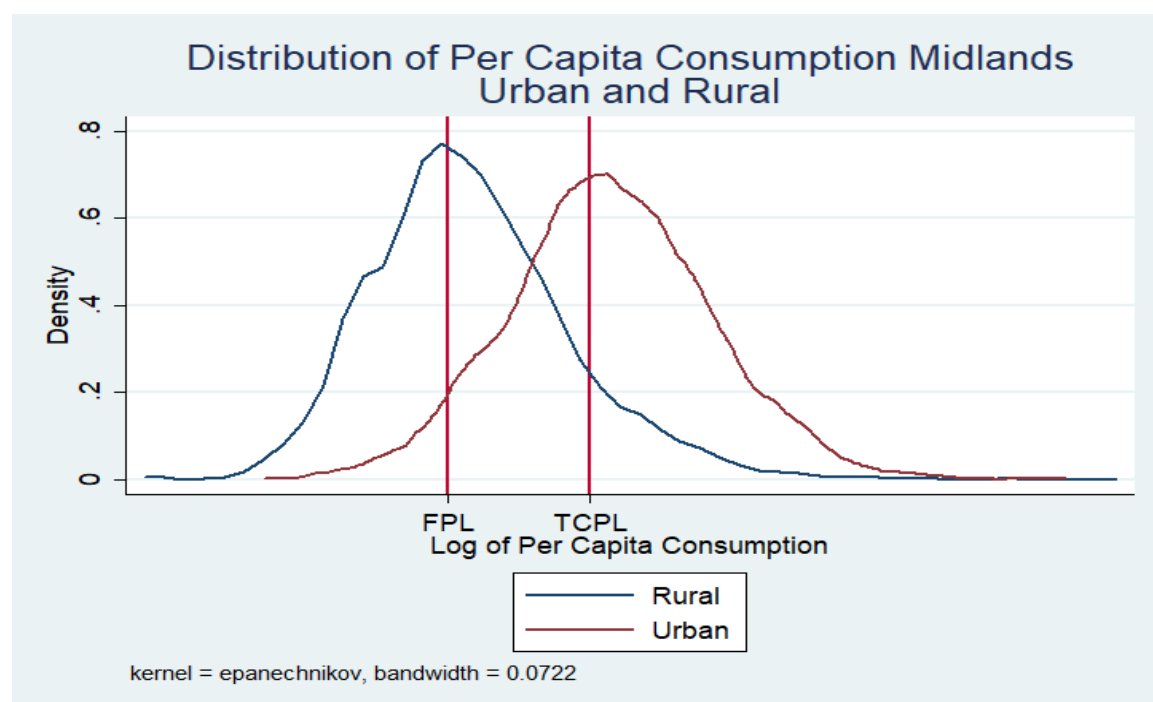
Masvingo Province

The urban areas of Masvingo have low poverty levels as the mean per capita consumption expenditure is to the right of the TCPL. In the rural areas most of the households are between the FPL and TCPL. Inequality between rural and urban areas is however high, see Figure 5.10.

Figure 5.10: Distribution of Per Capita Consumption Expenditure for Midlands Province by Rural and Urban Areas

Distribution of Per Capita Consumption Masvingo
Urban and Rural
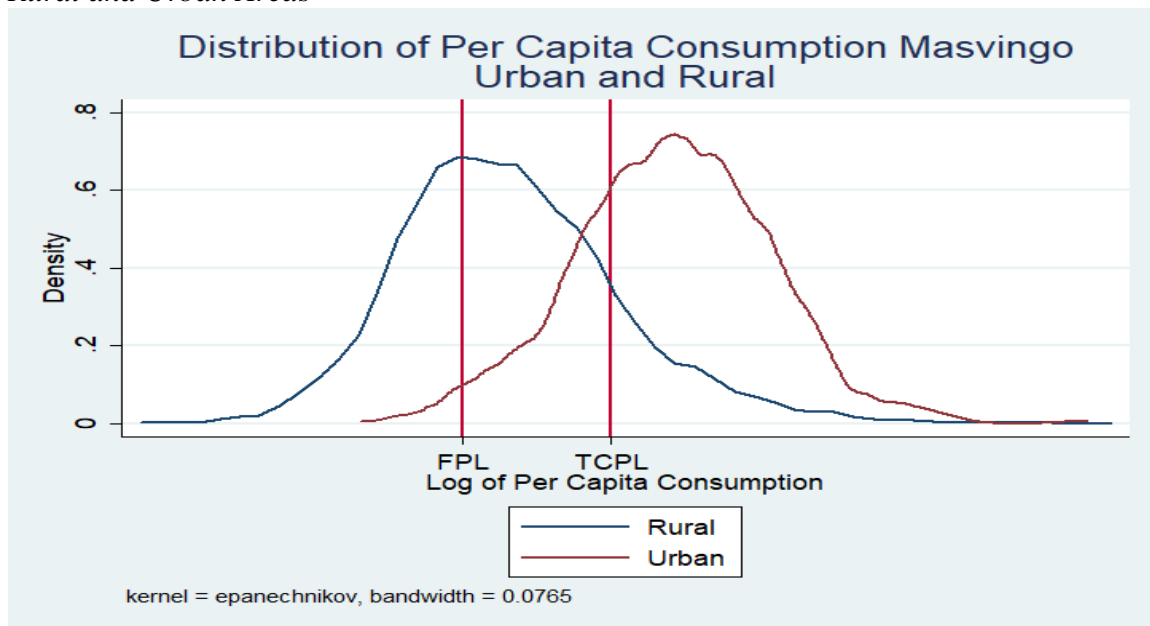
Explaining the Gini Coefficient

G= A / (A+B)

Where G=Gini coefficient

A is the area under the diagonal and the Lorenz curve.
A+B is the whole area under the diagonal line of equality.

Relationship between the Gini coefficient and Lorenz Curve

The diagonal line represents the curve for perfect equality. The horizontal axis represents the cumulative percentage of the population studied. The vertical axis represents the cumulative percentage of the studied variable.
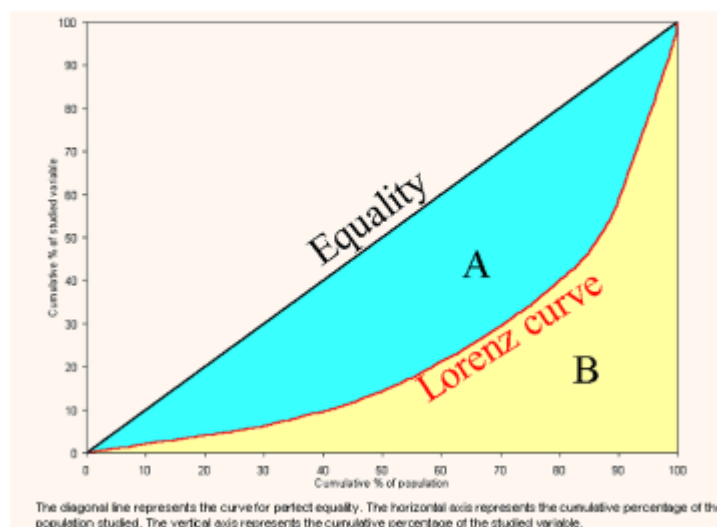
The Lorenz Curve for Selected Provinces

The levels of inequalities among provinces is very high as the gap between provinces is wide. There are also disparities between rural and urban areas, See Table 5.9

Table 5.9: Gini Coefficient for Zimbabwe, Rural, Urban by Province

Province	Gini-Rural	Gini-Urban	Gini
Bulawayo	-	0.422	0.422
Manicaland	0.380	0.372	0.415
Mashonaland Central	0.366	0.335	0.388
Mashonaland East	0.406	0.406	0.422
Mashonaland West	0.405	0.349	0.430
Matabeleland North	0.414	0.359	0.425
Matabeleland South	0.393	0.360	0.408
Midlands	0.398	0.356	0.428
Masvingo	0.412	0.341	0.429
Harare	-	0.419	0.419
Total	0.361	0.398	0.435

Figure 5.11:The Lorenz Curve for Selected Provinces
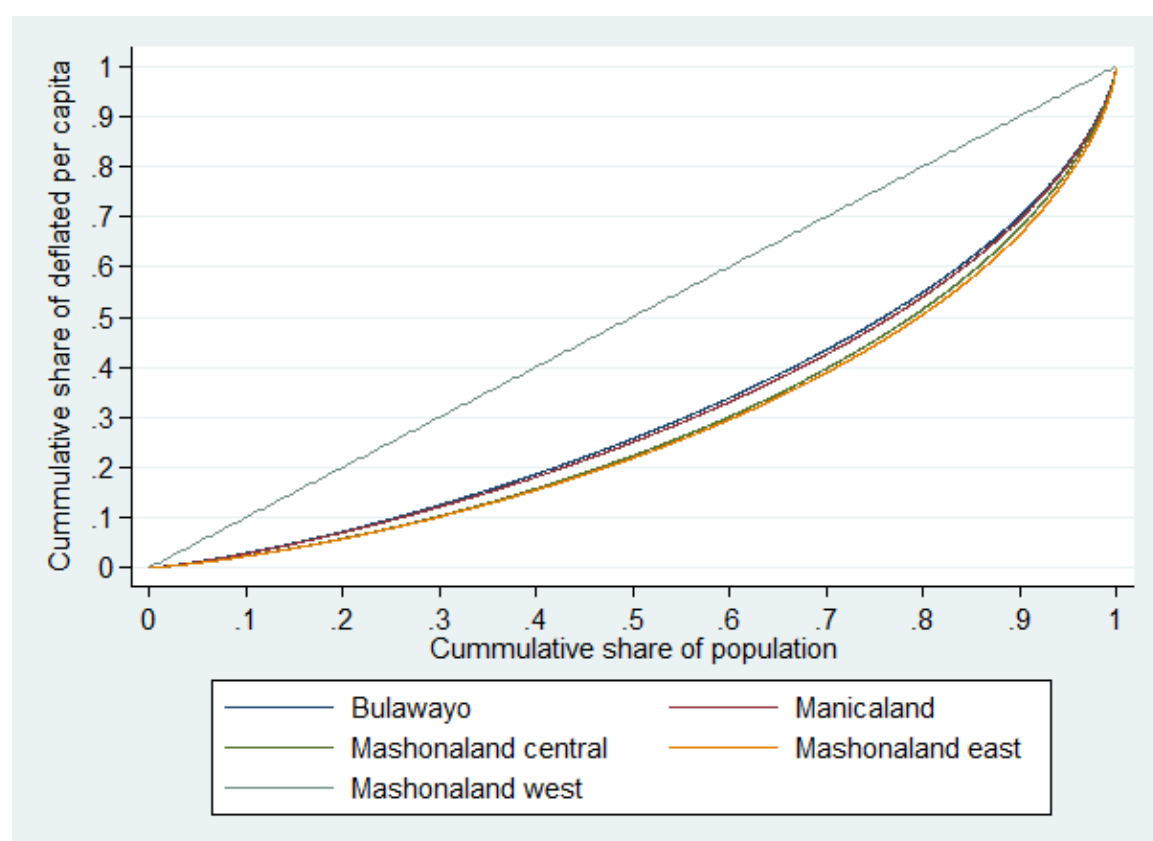
Figure 5.12:The Lorenz Curve for Manicaland Province
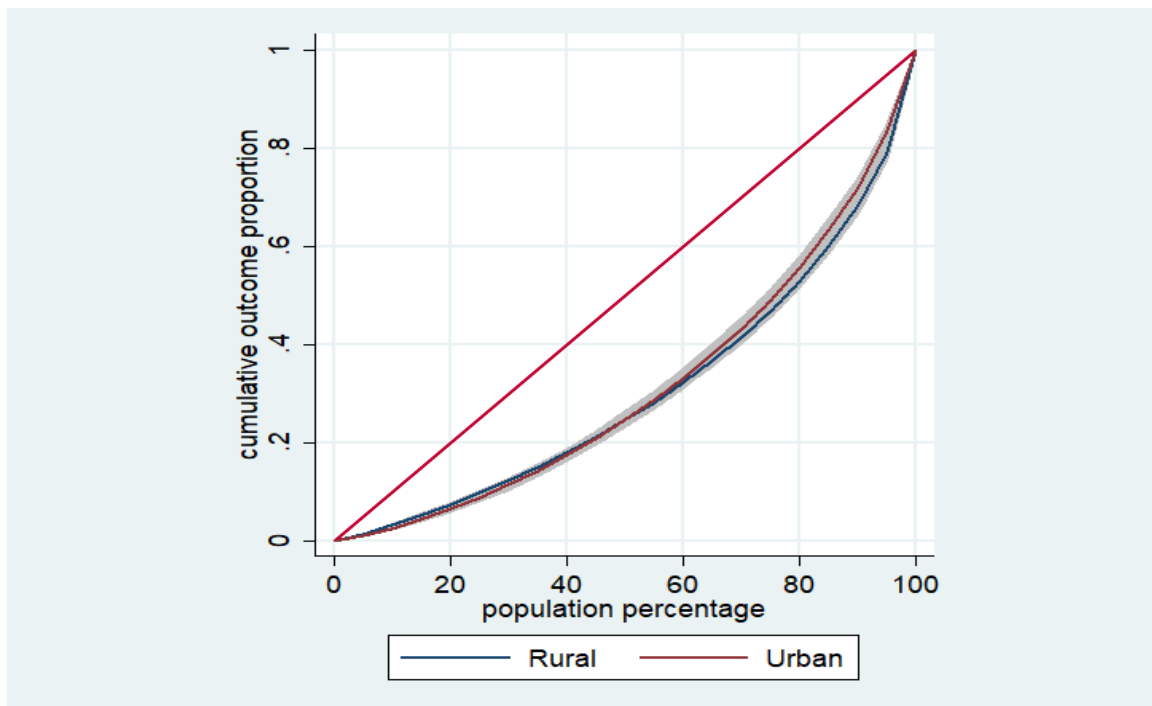
Figure 5.13:The Lorenz Curve for Mashonaland Central Province
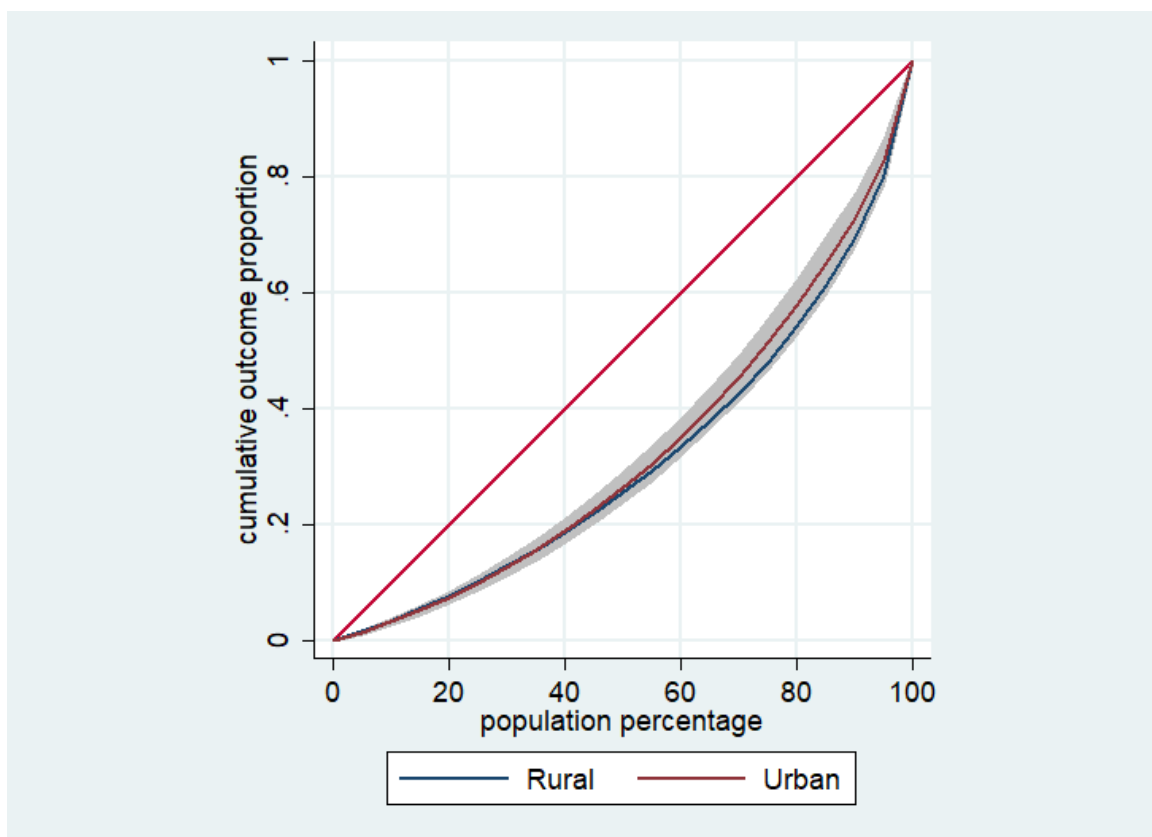
Figure 5.14:The Lorenz Curve for Mashonaland East Province
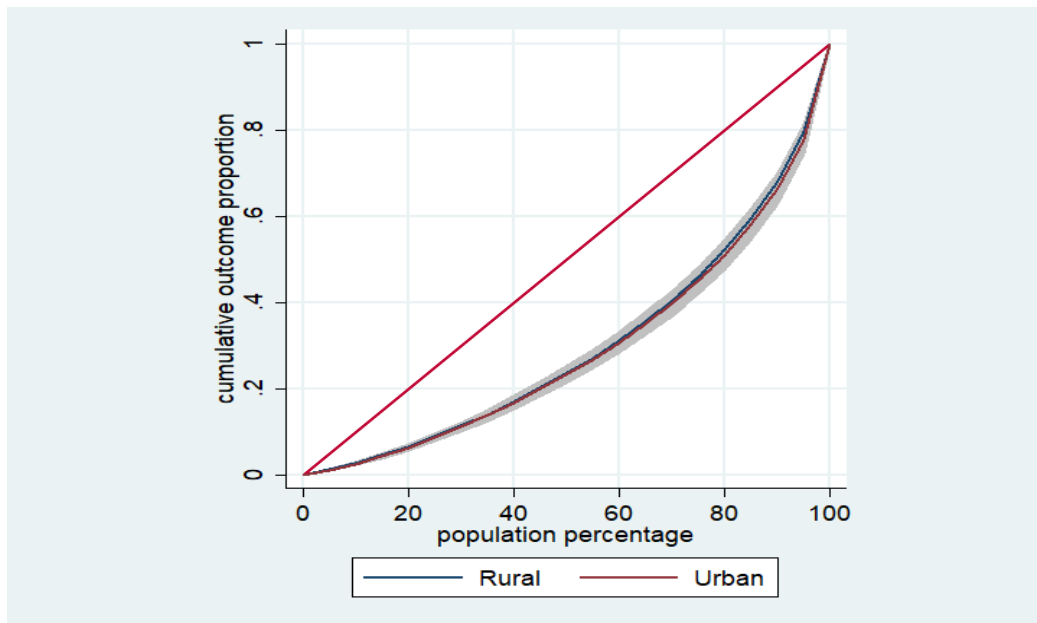
Figure 5.15:The Lorenz Curve for Mashonaland West Province
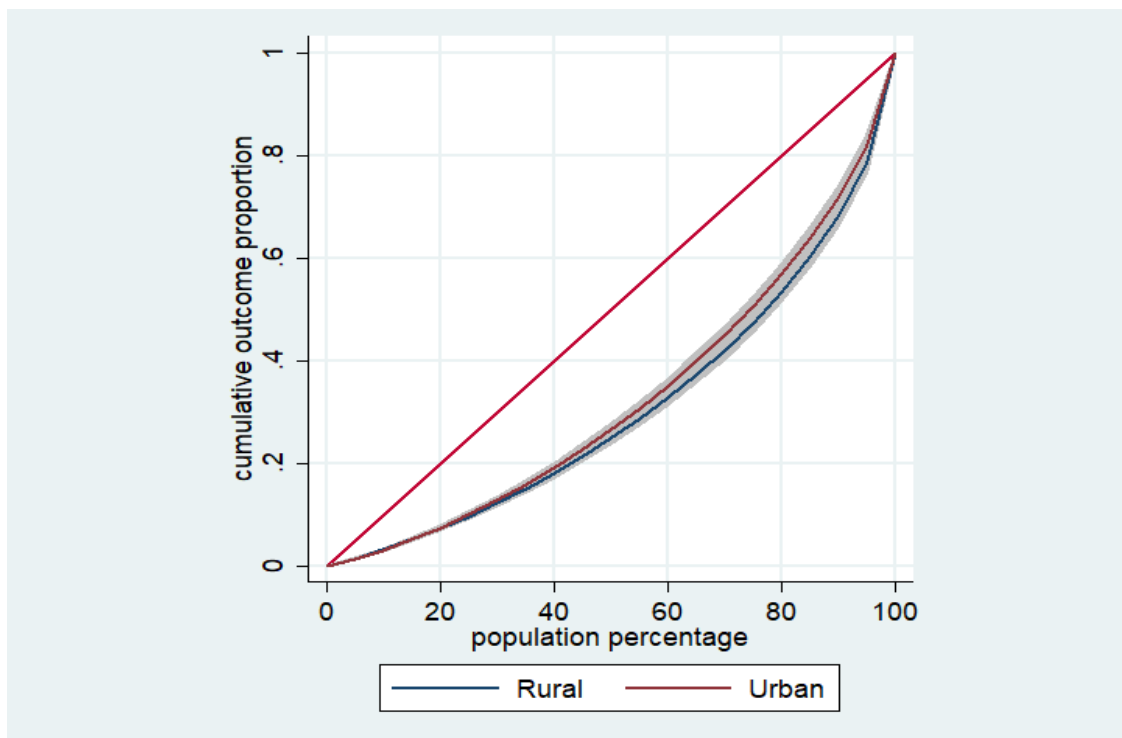
Figure 5.16:The Lorenz Curve for Matabeleland North Province
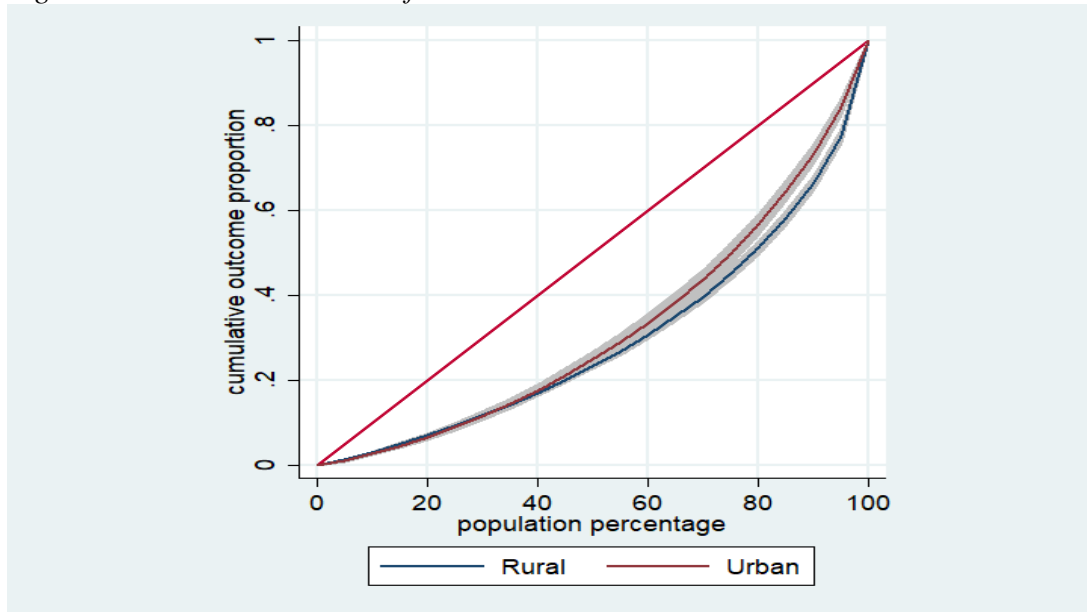
Figure 5.17:The Lorenz Curve for Matabeleland South Province
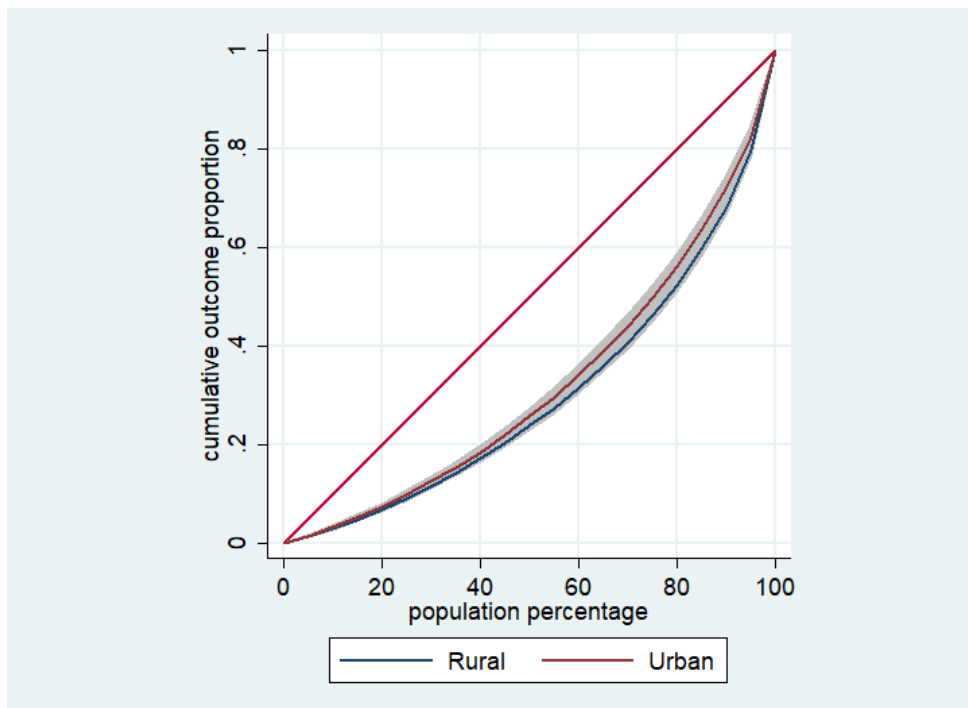
Figure 5.18: The Lorenz Curve for Midlands Province
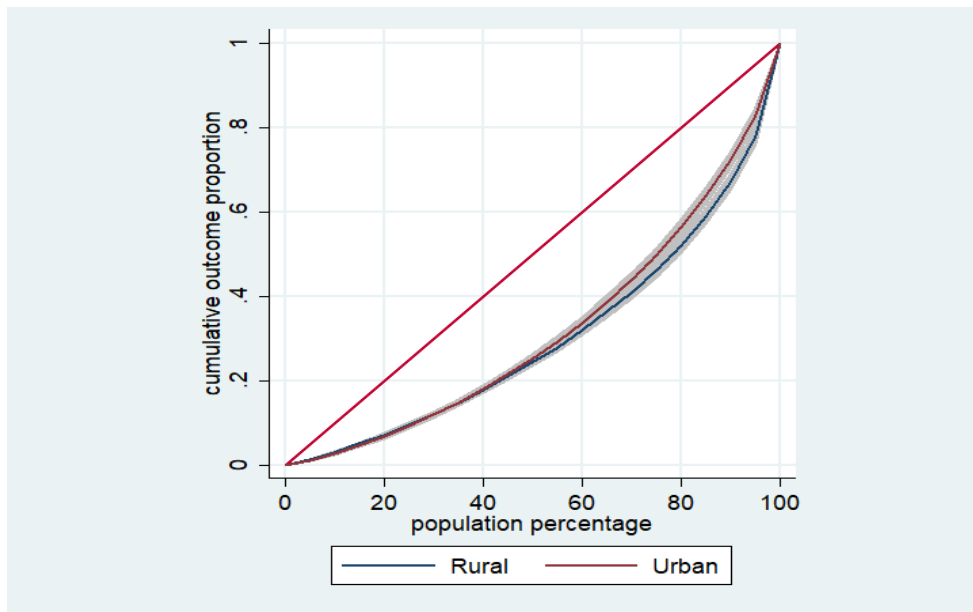
Figure 5.19:The Lorenz Curve for Masvingo Province
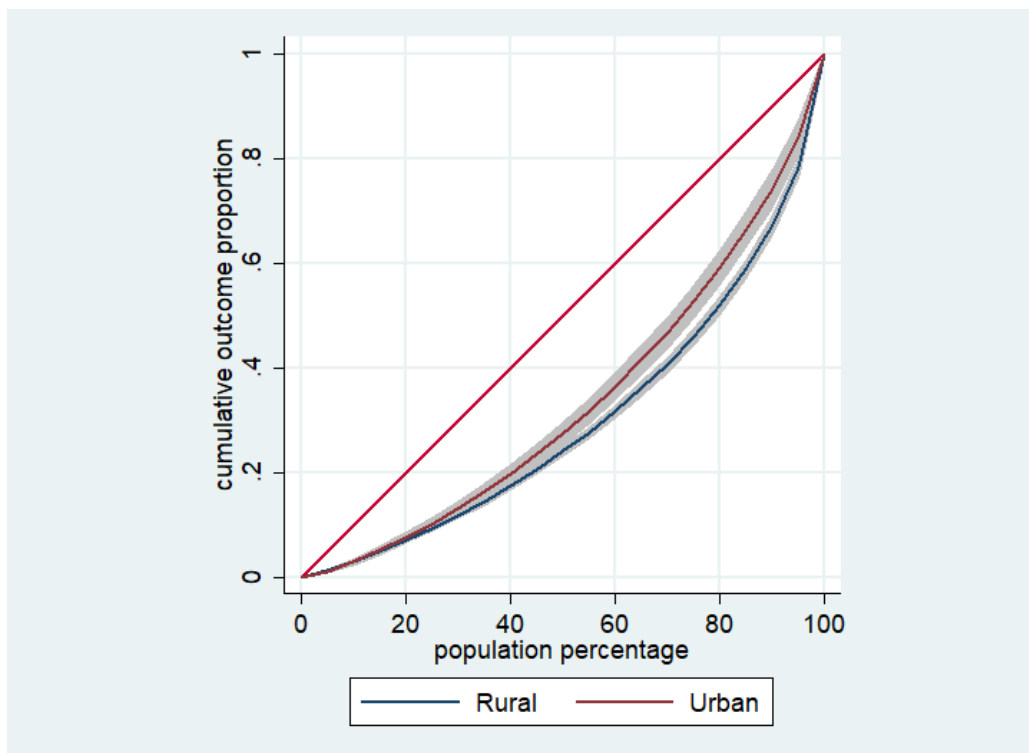
Figure 5.20:The Lorenz Curve for Bulawayo Province
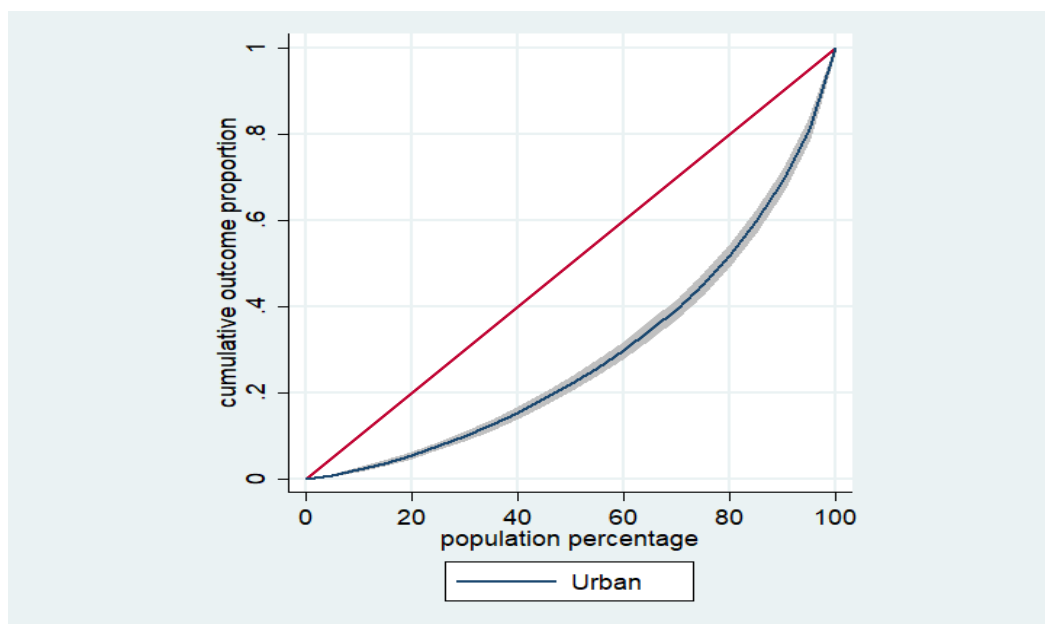
Figure 5.21:The Lorenz Curve for Harare Province
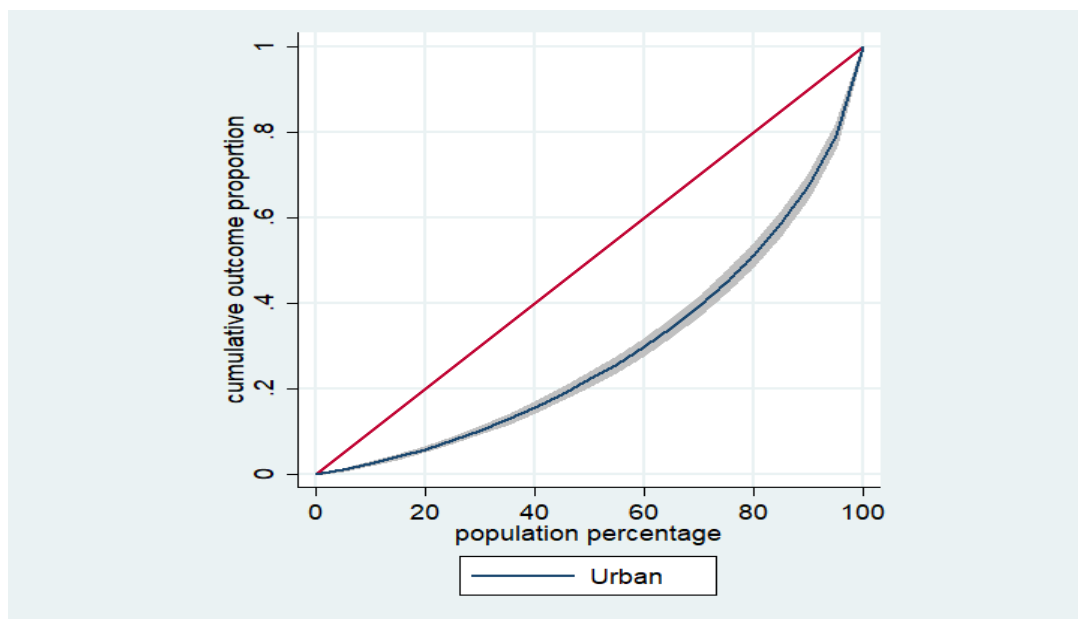
Figure 5.22: Lorenz Curve for Males and Females
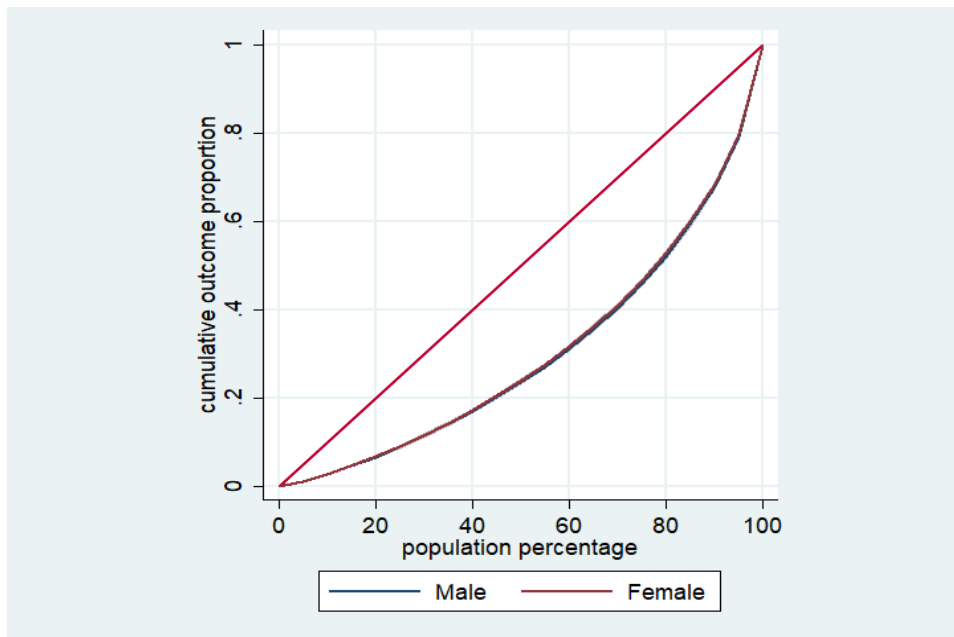
Figure 5.23: Lorenz Curve for Youth 15-35 Years Males and Females
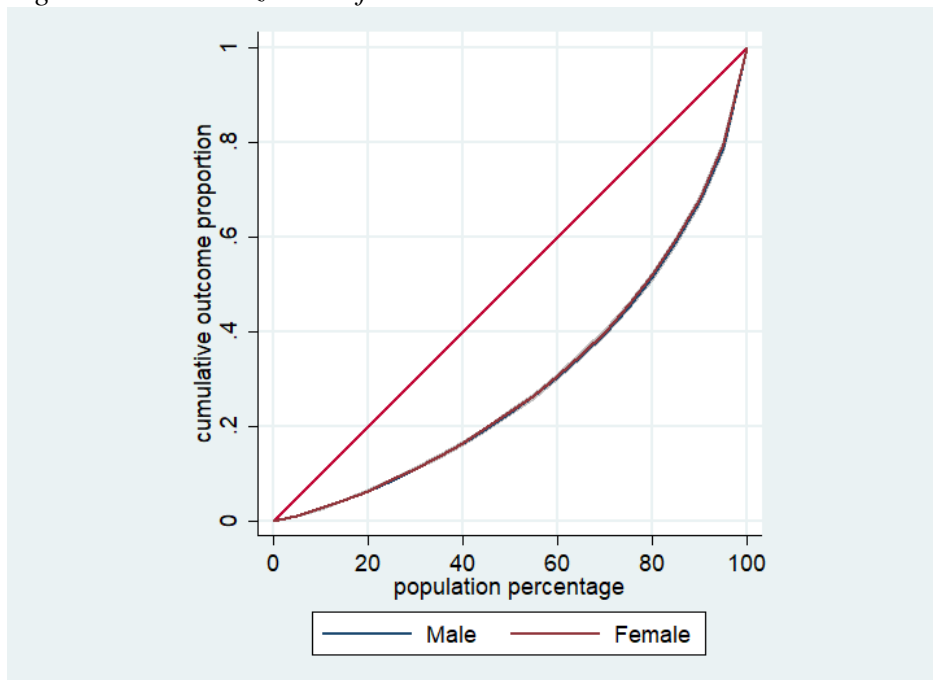
5.6.   Annex E: Miscellaneous Tables

Table 5.10:Main Activity for People Reported to be Working, By Urban/Rural (Percent)

Percent workers reporting main activity as	Place of Residency		
	Rural	**Urban**	**All Zimbabwe**
Permanent paid employee	6.4	34.6	12.9
Casual/temporary employee	5.9	29.6	11.4
Employer	0.0	0.3	0.1
Communal/resettlement farmer	82.1	4.8	64.4
Other own-account worker	3.7	28.5	9.4
Unpaid family worker	1.9	2.3	2.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: PICES 2017. Workers are only those who currently report being employed. For example, the main activity of a student is student and he or she would not be included among these numbers.

Table 5.11: Mean Holding Size (Hectares) in Communal and Resettlement Areas, by Province

Province	Communal lands	Resettlement areas
Manicaland	2.1	3.1
Mashonaland Central	2.6	3.8
Mashonaland East	3.0	6.2
Mashonaland West	2.8	4.0
Matabeleland North	2.1	2.6
Matabeleland South	1.8	2.5
Midlands	3.8	6.1
Masvingo	2.3	7.1

Source: PICES 2017

Table 5.12:Shares of Total Consumption Expenditures Per Capita and Mean Real Consumption Expenditures for Each Decile

Decile	Share of total expenditure per capita	Mean real expenditure per capita (US$)
1	0.0252	17.99
2	0.0349	24.87
3	0.0427	30.44
4	0.0511	36.45
5	0.0612	43.66
6	0.0739	52.72
7	0.0912	65.03
8	0.1167	83.21
9	0.1632	116.45
10	0.3400	242.53
Total	1.0000	

Source: PICES 2017 Harare in June 2017 is the base period. The share of total expenditures per capita for the first decile were computed by taking the first 10 percentile per capita expenditure as a proportion of total expenditures per capita. All expenditures are first expressed to Harare June 2017 prices. The mean real expenditures per capita are then computed for each decile.

Table 5.13: Prevalence of Poor and Severely Poor People and Distribution of Poor People by Rural and Urban Areas

Residence	Prevalence of poverty	Prevalence of severe poverty	Percent poor people	Percent very poor people
Rural areas	86.0	40.9	83.4	95.3
Urban areas	37.0	4.4	16.6	4.7
All Zimbabwe	70.5	29.3	100.0	100.0

Source : PICES 2017. Poor denotes residents of households whose consumption expenditures do not meet the upper poverty line (the TCPL); very poor people reside in households with consumption expenditures below the lower poverty line (the FPL).

Table 5.14: Prevalence of Poor and Severely Poor People and Distribution of Poor People by Province

Province	Prevalence (%) of		Poverty Indices	
	Poor people	Very poor people	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
Manicaland	80.7	36.9	40.0	23.0
Mashonaland Central	87.9	49.5	47.9	29.4
Mashonaland East	75.8	29.9	35.5	19.9
Mashonaland West	78.7	38.7	39.9	23.9
Matabeleland North	85.3	45.1	44.6	26.6
Matabeleland South	76.9	27.3	34.3	18.5
Midlands	73.8	30.2	34.9	19.7
Masvingo	75.0	27.9	34.0	18.5
Bulawayo	29.9	1.3	7.1	2.4
Harare	37.3	5.2	12.2	5.3
Total	70.5	29.3	33.3	18.9

Source: PICES 2017, The poverty gap and the severity indices are the Foster, Greer and Thorbecke α=1 and α=2 measures, respectively (see Ravallion, 1992 for details). These indices are calculated using the upper poverty line.

Table 5.15: Distribution of Poor People by Province (Percent)

Province	Percent poor people	Percent very poor people
Manicaland	16.4	18.1
Mashonaland Central	12.0	16.2
Mashonaland East	12.2	11.6
Mashonaland West	12.6	14.8
Matabeleland North	6.5	8.3
Matabeleland South	5.7	4.9
Midlands	11.8	11.6
Masvingo	13.3	11.9
Bulawayo	2.2	0.2
Harare	7.3	2.4
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: PICES 2017. Poor denotes residents of households whose consumption expenditures do not meet the upper poverty line (the TCPL); very poor reside in households with consumption expenditures below the lower poverty line (the FPL).

Table 5.16: Household Poverty Indices by Sector of Employment of the Household Head

Type of employment	Prevalence (%) of		Poverty indices	
	Poor	Very poor	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
Communal farmer	85.1	38.1	42.0	24.1
Resettlement farmer	81.0	31.8	37.7	20.8
Government	17.0	1.4	4.5	1.8
Parastatal	15.5	1.7	4.4	2.0
Private sector	69.4	26.6	31.8	17.6
Formal sector	50.1	15.7	20.6	10.9
Informal sector	70.5	28.1	32.9	18.4

Source: PICES 2017: Formal sector includes registered establishments composed of Central and Local parastatal and registered cooperative employees: Informal sector includes establishments that are registered nor licensed.

Table 5.17: Prevalence of Household Poverty by Tenure Status

Tenure status	Rural	Urban	All Zimbabwe
Owner/purchaser	82.4	23.9	71.8
Tenant or lodger	60.6	35.7	38.0
Tied accommodation	46.6	25.2	41.2
Other	74.4	32.2	43.4

Source: PICES 2017. Poor people reside in households whose per capita consumption expenditures are below the upper poverty line (the TCPL).

Table 5.18: Distribution of Poor People by Province, Rural Areas (Percent)

Province	Percent poor people	Percent very poor people
Manicaland	18.0	18.3
Mashonaland Central	14.0	16.9
Mashonaland East	13.3	11.7
Mashonaland West	13.0	15.1
Matabeleland North	7.4	8.6
Matabeleland South	6.5	5.1
Midlands	12.4	11.8
Masvingo	15.4	12.4
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: PICES 2017. Poor people reside in households whose per capita consumption expenditures are below the upper poverty line (the TCPL). Very poor have consumption expenditures below the lower line (the FPL).

Table 5.19: Poverty Indices for People in Rural Areas by Province

Province	Individual prevalence of (%)		Poverty indices	
	Poor	Extremely poor	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
Manicaland	87.8	42.5	44.9	26.2
Mashonaland Central	90.8	52.2	50.0	30.8
Mashonaland East	81.4	34.2	39.4	22.4
Mashonaland West	89.1	49.2	47.9	29.5
Matabeleland North	88.8	48.8	47.4	28.5
Matabeleland South	82.1	30.5	37.5	20.4
Midlands	86.8	39.6	43.4	25.0
Masvingo	81.4	31.2	37.4	20.5
Total	86.0	40.9	43.5	25.4

Source: PICES 2017. The poverty gap and the severity indices are the Foster, Greer and Thorbecke $\alpha=1$ and $\alpha=2$ measures, respectively (see Ravallion, 1992 for details). These indices are calculated using the upper poverty line.

Table 5.20: Indices of Poverty Among People by Rural Land Use Sector

Land use area	Prevalence (%) of		Poverty indices	
	Poverty	Extreme poverty	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
Communal lands	87.6	43.1	45.0	26.5
Small scale commercial farms	76.5	35.5	37.1	21.5
Large scale commercial farms	76.1	30.0	35.6	19.9
Resettlement areas	85.2	37.9	41.6	23.8

Source: PICES 2017. The poverty gap and the severity indices are the Foster, Greer and Thorbecke $\alpha=1$ and $\alpha=2$ measures, respectively (see Ravallion, 1992 for details). These indices are calculated using the upper poverty line.

Table 5.21: Percentage of Males and Females Reporting an Illness, by Poverty Status

Poverty status	Sex	
	Male	**Female**
Non-poor	9.3	12.8
Poor	9.5	13.4
Extremely poor	9.3	11.7

Source: PICES 2017. Cells are the percentage of people reporting being ill in the past 30 days.

Table 5.22: Prevalence of Poverty Among People by Sex and Education of the Household Head, Rural and Urban Areas

Education of household head	Rural		Urban	
	Poor	Very poor	Poor	Very poor
All households				
None	92.0	50.1	68.3	7.1
Primary school	89.9	46.1	48.0	8.3
Secondary school	85.0	36.6	42.5	4.9
Post-secondary school	50.6	16.7	16.1	0.5
Male-headed				
None	94.3	53.5	64.2	0.0
Primary school	91.2	49.4	51.2	7.7
Secondary school	86.4	39.5	46.3	5.3
Post-secondary school	52.2	16.4	17.9	0.7
Female-headed				
None	90.6	48.2	71.0	11.8
Primary school	87.9	41.0	44.7	9.0
Secondary school	80.9	27.6	33.6	3.9
Post-secondary school	46.5	17.4	10.9	0.2

Source: PICES 2017. Poor people reside in households whose per capita consumption expenditures are below the upper poverty line (the TCPL). Very poor have consumption expenditures below the lower line (the FPL).

Table 5.23: Poverty Indices for Households by Sex and Education of the Household Head

Education of household head	Prevalence (%) of		Poverty indices	
	Poor	Very poor	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
Male-headed				
None	84.4	39.6	42.7	25.0
Primary school	76.8	35.0	37.8	21.9
Secondary school	62.4	20.8	26.9	14.4
Post-secondary school	22.3	3.7	7.3	3.4
Female-headed				
None	81.1	34.1	38.9	22.1
Primary school	71.8	27.1	32.4	17.8
Secondary school	50.8	12.6	19.7	9.8
Post-secondary school	17.0	3.7	5.6	2.7

Source: PICES 2017. The poverty gap and the severity indices are the Foster, Greer and Thorbecke $\alpha=1$ and $\alpha=2$ measures, respectively (see Ravallion, 1992 for details). These indices are calculated using the upper poverty line.

Table 5.24: Prevalence of Household Poverty by Sex and Education of the Household Head, Rural and Urban Areas

Education of household head	Rural		Urban	
	Poor	Very poor	Poor	Very poor
Male-headed				
None	88.5	44.2	49.5	0.0
Primary school	83.3	39.9	38.0	5.8
Secondary school	78.4	32.4	39.7	4.3
Post-secondary school	39.0	10.9	15.0	0.6
Female-headed				
None	83.1	36.4	58.0	7.9
Primary school	79.8	31.5	34.8	6.5
Secondary school	71.5	21.5	26.9	2.3
Post-secondary school	32.1	10.0	8.8	0.2

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per capita consumption expenditures are below the upper poverty line (the TCPL). Very poor have consumption expenditures below the lower line (the FPL).
** Means the number of observations are few.

Table 5.25: Poverty Indices Computed for People by Education of the Household Head

Education of household head	Poor	Very poor	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
None	90.0	46.5	47.5	28.6
Primary school	84.2	40.9	42.6	25.1
Secondary school	68.5	24.3	30.4	16.5
Post-secondary school	26.6	5.4	9.3	4.5

Source: PICES 2017. The poverty gap and the severity indices are the Foster, Greer and Thorbecke $\alpha=1$ and $\alpha=2$ measures, respectively (see Ravallion, 1992 for details). These indices are calculated using the upper poverty line.

Table 5.26: Poverty Indices by Province and by District PICES 2017

Province and district	Poverty	Extreme poverty	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
Bulawayo province	22.3	0.9	5.3	1.8
Total	**22.3**	**0.9**	**5.3**	**1.8**
Manicaland province				
Buhera	84.5	40.8	42.8	24.5
Chimanimani	70.8	25.9	31.4	17.0
Chipinge	82.2	44.2	43.5	26.3
Makoni	75.2	21.2	31.8	16.2
Mutare Rural	79.2	34.3	39.3	22.4
Mutasa	72.6	25.9	32.9	17.8
Nyanga	74.4	31.0	35.1	19.6
Mutare Urban	31.5	3.2	8.9	3.5
Rusape	29.4	4.4	9.0	4.3
Chipinge Urban	52.9	10.5	21.8	10.7
Total	**71.0**	**27.9**	**33.0**	**18.3**
Mashonaland Central province				
Bindura Rural	82.2	42.4	41.5	24.4
Muzarabani	89.2	48.3	48.0	29.5
Guruve	78.5	35.6	38.4	22.1
Mazowe	81.5	32.7	38.9	21.6
Mount Darwin	87.1	47.5	47.3	28.6
Rushinga	89.9	58.6	51.7	32.8
Shamva	81.3	38.3	40.4	23.5
Mbire	90.7	64.0	55.3	36.6
Bindura Urban	30.8	1.4	8.7	3.3
Mvurwi	25.8	4.3	9.5	3.8
Total	81.6	41.2	42.2	25.1
Mashonaland East province				
Chikomba	58.8	11.0	22.2	10.4
Goromonzi	67.4	22.9	30.2	16.5
Hwedza	65.0	19.2	26.9	13.8
Marondera	60.8	15.0	23.4	11.4
Mudzi	83.0	50.4	46.9	29.6
Murehwa	62.8	18.7	26.5	13.9
Mutoko	78.5	29.8	36.9	20.0
Seke	60.1	14.2	22.4	11.0
Uzumba Maramba Pfungwe (UMP)	81.0	36.5	40.9	23.9
Ruwa Local Board	38.3	6.6	12.3	5.4
Total	**65.6**	**22.2**	**28.8**	**15.5**

Table 5.26: Poverty Indices by Province and by District PICES 2017 Continued

Province and district	Poverty	Extreme poverty	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
Mashonaland West Province				
Chegutu Rural	65.1	17.7	25.5	13.0
Hurungwe	89.1	56.1	51.0	32.3
Mhondoro-Ngezi	79.6	33.1	37.9	21.2
Kariba	63.7	18.7	26.7	13.7
Makonde	78.2	26.1	34.2	18.5
Zvimba	87.2	54.9	50.0	32.1
Sanyati	88.7	40.8	42.6	24.4
Chinhoyi	39.2	5.6	13.0	5.8
Kadoma	42.2	4.7	13.0	5.5
Chegutu	33.3	3.4	10.4	4.3
Norton	34.5	3.0	10.4	4.3
Karoi	51.6	0.0	12.2	4.1
Total	**71.1**	**31.6**	**34.3**	**20.0**
Matabeleland North Province				
Binga	85.6	50.1	47.1	28.9
Bubi	76.7	33.2	36.4	20.4
Hwange	63.0	15.6	24.6	12.3
Lupane	78.8	34.1	38.3	21.6
Nkayi	91.4	50.1	49.7	30.0
Tsholotsho	67.4	26.4	29.8	16.2
Umguza	62.9	22.9	28.3	15.3
Victoria Falls	41.5	3.5	11.7	4.5
Total	**74.3**	**33.3**	**36.0**	**20.6**
Matabeleland South Province				
Beitbridge Rural	62.3	14.9	24.4	12.2
Bulilima	72.4	23.5	31.4	16.5
Mangwe	74.5	30.5	35.4	20.0
Gwanda Rural	62.4	11.9	23.0	10.7
Insiza	72.1	24.6	30.5	16.3
Matobo	65.4	18.2	26.6	13.6
Umzingwane	69.9	26.1	32.6	17.7
Gwanda	12.3	0.0	2.7	0.9
Beitbridge Urban	37.3	1.2	9.0	3.0
Plumtree	33.6	2.6	7.5	2.7
Total	**62.8**	**17.8**	**25.6**	**13.1**

Table 5.26: Poverty Indices by Province and by District PICES 2017 Continued

Province and district	Poverty	Extreme poverty	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
Midlands Province				
Chirumhanzu	75.4	26.4	33.9	18.5
Gokwe North	84.9	41.4	42.7	24.6
Gokwe South	87.0	45.4	46.2	27.6
Gweru Rural	66.5	28.5	30.3	17.2
Kwekwe Rural	66.4	20.3	29.9	15.5
Mberengwa	72.3	16.2	28.5	13.9
Shurugwi	67.7	20.7	27.5	14.2
Zvishavane	59.5	18.7	25.8	13.5
Gweru	26.4	0.9	6.1	2.2
Kwekwe	26.9	1.7	7.1	2.7
Redcliff	34.1	0.0	8.8	3.0
Gokwe Centre	38.7	3.9	11.0	4.6
Total	**63.0**	**21.8**	**27.8**	**15.0**
Masvingo Province				
Bikita	80.1	28.2	36.2	19.3
Chiredzi	67.2	28.7	31.3	17.6
Chivi	67.9	23.1	29.0	15.1
Gutu	67.8	21.9	28.3	15.1
Masvingo Rural	69.6	13.9	27.0	13.0
Mwenezi	71.5	20.4	30.0	15.6
Zaka	71.8	22.3	30.7	15.8
Masvingo Urban	14.4	0.0	2.8	1.0
Chiredzi Town	20.6	0.0	5.1	1.5
Total	**64.8**	**20.7**	**27.6**	**14.5**
Harare Province				
Harare Rural	78.5	15.4	34.3	16.8
Harare Urban	23.3	1.7	6.1	2.2
Chitungwiza	37.3	7.7	12.3	5.7
Epworth	67.5	10.6	25.1	11.4
Total	**31.1**	**3.8**	**9.7**	**4.1**

Source: PICES 2017

Table 5.27: Percent Distribution of Poor Households by Province and by District PICES 2017

Province and district	Percent of Poor Households
Bulawayo province	100.0
Total	100.0
Manicaland province	
Buhera	17.1
Chimanimani	8.8
Chipinge	14.9
Makoni	17.7
Mutare Rural	15.0
Mutasa	9.8
Nyanga	9.3
Mutare Urban	4.9
Rusape	0.8
Chipinge Urban	1.6
Total	100.0
Mashonaland Central province	
Bindura Rural	11.3
Muzarabani	11.1
Guruve	10.2
Mazowe	20.8
Mount Darwin	20.1
Rushinga	7.2
Shamva	10.3
Mbire	7.1
Bindura Urban	1.5
Mvurwi	0.3
Total	100.0
Mashonaland East Province	
Chikomba	8.0
Goromonzi	14.0
Hwedza	5.6
Marondera	14.0
Mudzi	12.6
Murehwa	14.5
Mutoko	10.8
Seke	7.6
Uzumba Maramba Pfungwe (UMP)	8.6
Ruwa Local Board	4.3
Total	100.0

Table 5.27: Percent Distribution of Poor Households by Province and by District PICES 2017 Continued

Province and district	Percent of Poor Households
Mashonaland West Province	
Chegutu Rural	11.2
Hurungwe	26.0
Mhondoro-Ngezi	6.8
Kariba	3.9
Makonde	11.9
Zvimba	18.5
Sanyati	9.1
Chinhoyi	3.2
Kadoma	3.8
Chegutu	2.4
Norton	2.3
Karoi	1.0
Total	100.0
Matabeleland North Province	
Binga	24.5
Bubi	8.9
Hwange	9.8
Lupane	12.5
Nkayi	16.8
Tsholotsho	14.6
Umguza	9.9
Victoria Falls	3.0
Total	100.0
Matabeleland South Province	
Beitbridge Rural	12.1
Bulilima	14.0
Mangwe	10.7
Gwanda Rural	16.8
Insiza	16.4
Matobo	14.2
Umzingwane	9.6
Gwanda	0.8
Beitbridge Urban	4.5
Plumtree	0.9
Total	100.0

Table 5.27: Percent Distribution of Poor Households by Province and by District PICES 2017 Continued

Province and district	Percent of Poor Households
Midlands Province	
Chirumhanzu	7.5
Gokwe North	9.8
Gokwe South	24.6
Gweru Rural	5.5
Kwekwe Rural	11.1
Mberengwa	15.2
Shurugwi	7.3
Zvishavane	7.9
Gweru	4.6
Kwekwe	3.4
Redcliff	1.8
Gokwe Centre	1.2
Total	100.0
Masvingo Province	
Bikita	13.8
Chiredzi	20.6
Chivi	9.4
Gutu	14.3
Masvingo Rural	12.5
Mwenezi	12.0
Zaka	14.9
Masvingo Urban	1.7
Chiredzi Town	0.9
Total	100.0
Harare Province	
Harare Rural	10.0
Harare Urban	54.5
Chitungwiza	18.2
Epworth	17.3
Total	100.0

Source: PICES 2017

Table 5.28:   Method of Treatment Sought by Poverty Category and Land Use Area

Percentage	Public health facility	Traditional healer	Private clinic	None	Total
Communal lands	**58.5**	**0.9**	**7.4**	**33.2**	**100.0**
Non-poor	51.9	0.6	12.2	35.3	100.0
Poor	57.7	0.8	7.4	34.2	100.0
Extremely poor	61.7	1.1	5.8	31.4	100.0
SSCF	**51.8**	**1.6**	**10.8**	**35.9**	**100.0**
Non-poor	50.6	0.0	16.9	32.6	100.0
Poor	60.0	0.0	11.6	28.4	100.0
Extremely poor	41.8	6.0	1.5	50.8	100.0
LSCF	**51.2**	**0.5**	**11.3**	**36.9**	**100.0**
Non-poor	47.2	0.0	17.4	35.4	100.0
Poor	51.2	0.8	11.0	37.1	100.0
Extremely poor	54.6	0.5	6.9	38.0	100.0
Resettlement areas	**53.6**	**0.7**	**7.6**	**38.1**	**100.0**
Non-poor	50.6	0.2	11.1	38.1	100.0
Poor	56.1	0.8	7.6	35.4	100.0
Extremely poor	51.9	0.9	5.0	42.2	100.0

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per capita consumption expenditure values that fall below the upper poverty line and above the lower line. Extremely poor households have index values that fall below the lower line.

Table 5.29: Method of Treatment Sought by Poverty Category by Province

Province	Public health facility	Traditional healer	Private clinic	None	Total
Manicaland Province	**54.9**	**2.2**	**12.5**	**30.5**	**100.0**
Non-poor	48.2	0.9	24.1	26.8	100.0
Poor	58.0	1.2	9.8	31.0	100.0
Extremely poor	54.2	4.2	9.8	31.8	100.0
Mashonaland Central	**61.8**	**0.8**	**6.0**	**31.5**	**100.0**
Non-poor	51.7	0.6	12.8	34.9	100.0
Poor	61.1	1.3	6.7	30.9	100.0
Extremely poor	64.8	0.4	3.8	31.1	100.0
Mashonaland East	**56.5**	**0.2**	**6.8**	**36.6**	**100.0**
Non-poor	48.2	-	13.1	38.7	100.0
Poor	55.1	0.4	5.4	39.2	100.0
Extremely poor	65.5	-	3.9	30.7	100.0
Mashonaland West	**51.9**	**0.6**	**9.0**	**38.5**	**100.0**
Non-poor	43.5	0.2	16.4	39.9	100.0
Poor	54.0	0.3	8.4	37.3	100.0
Extremely poor	55.8	1.3	4.2	38.7	100.0
Matabeleland North	**56.7**	**0.2**	**10.3**	**32.8**	**100.0**
Non-poor	54.0	-	14.4	31.6	100.0
Poor	57.6	0.3	10.6	31.5	100.0
Extremely poor	56.9	0.2	8.0	34.9	100.0
Matabeleland South	**54.3**	**0.8**	**6.6**	**38.4**	**100.0**
Non-poor	52.7	0.5	8.8	37.9	100.0
Poor	54.6	0.5	6.0	38.9	100.0
Extremely poor	55.2	1.5	5.4	37.9	100.0
Midlands	**51.0**	**0.5**	**11.9**	**36.6**	100.0
Non-poor	43.4	0.3	22.9	33.5	100.0
Poor	51.6	0.4	9.3	38.8	100.0
Extremely poor	57.0	0.9	6.3	35.8	100.0
Masvingo	**58.0**	**1.1**	**10.2**	**30.7**	**100.0**
Non-poor	53.2	0.5	17.6	28.8	100.0
Poor	59.8	1.3	8.8	30.0	100.0
Extremely poor	58.5	1.3	6.5	33.8	100.0
Harare Province	**43.4**	**0.4**	**14.6**	**41.6**	**100.0**
Non-poor	41.5	0.9	18.6	39.0	100.0
Poor	50.0	-	9.8	40.2	100.0
Extremely poor	18.8	-	12.5	68.8	100.0
Zimbabwe	**55.5**	**0.8**	**9.1**	**34.6**	**100.0**
Non-poor	48.0	0.4	16.2	35.5	100.0
Poor	56.6	0.8	7.9	34.7	100.0
Extremely poor	59.4	1.1	5.7	33.8	100.0

Table 5.30: Reason for not Seeking Medical Treatment for People Who Were Ill but Did not Treat Their Illness, Zimbabwe

Percentage	Too far	Cannot afford	Home treatment	Religion	Not necessary	Lack of Medicines	Other	Total
Bulawayo								
Non-poor	1.3	36.1	48.4	-	10.3	0.7	3.2	100.0
Poor	-	41.5	39.0	2.4	12.2	-	4.9	100.0
Extremely poor	-	33.3	-	-	33.3	-	33.3	100.0
Manicaland								
Non-poor	5.6	13.5	59.6	2.3	6.7	-	12.4	100.0
Poor	5.5	19.6	48.2	10.2	8.2	0.4	7.8	100.0
Extremely poor	7.5	22.3	42.6	12.2	8.5	1.1	5.9	100.0
Mash. Central								
Non-poor	7.1	37.5	25.0	0.9	18.8	0.9	9.8	100.0
Poor	7.0	32.0	32.8	6.7	9.5	0.4	11.6	100.0
Extremely poor	5.6	35.4	29.1	10.6	7.6	0.8	10.9	100.0
Mash. East								
Non-poor	4.9	30.4	35.3	3.3	12.5	1.1	12.5	100.0
Poor	3.8	36.1	33.7	7.3	10.5	0.3	8.4	100.0
Extremely poor	3.9	45.3	22.9	12.3	7.8	0.6	7.3	100.0
Mash. West								
Non-poor	3.7	25.2	44.2	1.2	10.4	0.6	14.7	100.0
Poor	5.5	31.1	42.6	2.6	6.4	-	11.9	100.0
Extremely poor	9.6	44.2	25.0	3.4	8.2	1.4	8.2	100.0
Mat. North								
Non-poor	17.8	17.8	50.0	-	7.8	-	6.7	100.0
Poor	25.9	32.3	29.6	1.4	8.2	0.5	2.3	100.0
Extremely poor	16.9	20.6	39.7	1.4	10.1	0.5	11.0	100.0
Mat. South								
Non-poor	10.4	19.4	50.7	-	8.3	0.7	10.4	100.0
Poor	13.1	23.6	39.7	1.4	11.1	0.7	10.4	100.0
Extremely poor	10.1	18.9	48.0	-	10.1	6.1	6.8	100.0
Midlands								
Non-poor	4.0	25.4	40.5	0.8	19.1	-	10.3	100.0
Poor	5.2	29.6	38.2	10.5	7.9	1.5	7.1	100.0
Extremely poor	11.0	23.4	33.1	5.8	19.5	2.0	5.2	100.0
Masvingo								
Non-poor	11.3	18.3	40.9	2.6	17.4	-	9.6	100.0
Poor	4.9	21.1	32.5	15.1	20.0	0.4	6.0	100.0
Extremely poor	13.1	15.6	31.9	10.0	12.5	-	16.9	100.0
Harare								
Non-poor	2.3	29.6	34.1	6.8	6.8	-	20.5	100.0
Poor	8.1	37.8	40.5	-	5.4	-	8.1	100.0
Extremely poor	-	45.5	54.6	-	-	-	-	100.0

Table 5.30: Reason for not Seeking Medical Treatment for People Who Were Ill but Did not Treat Their Illness, Zimbabwe Continued

Percentage	Too far	Cannot afford	Home treatment	Religion	Not necessary	Lack of Medicines	Other	Total
Zimbabwe								
Non-poor	6.6	25.9	42.9	1.5	12.2	0.5	10.5	100.0
Poor	8.2	28.8	37.1	6.8	10.3	0.5	8.3	100.0
Extremely poor	9.2	29.7	33.3	7.3	9.9	1.3	9.3	100.0

Source: PICES 2017. Poor households have per capita consumption expenditure values that fall below the upper poverty line and above the lower line. Extremely poor households have index values that fall below the lower line.

Table 5.31: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Households, Zimbabwe, by District and Province

Districts in Manicaland Province				
Type of Facility	Buhera	Chimanimani	Chipinge Rural	Makoni
Toilet				
Flush	2.2	4.6	0.9	6.8
Blair toilet	26.6	34.3	26.0	37.9
Pit latrine	24.4	52.9	48.5	27.8
None	46.4	8.2	24.4	27.5
Other	0.4	-	0.2	-
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source				
Access to safe water				
Piped inside house	1.2	3.8	0.5	5.2
Piped outside house	5.0	25.5	7.7	2.0
Communal tap	-	12.8	-	2.7
Protected well/borehole	50.0	36.3	69.2	54.4
Unprotected well	37.2	18.4	18.2	30.9
River/stream/dam	6.4	2.6	2.5	4.7
Other	0.2	0.6	1.8	-
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 5.31: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Households, Zimbabwe, by District and Province Continued

Districts in Manicaland Province			
Type of Facility	Mutare Rural	Mutasa	Nyanga
Toilet			
Flush	1.1	6.8	12.7
Blair toilet	34.6	35.3	48.5
Pit latrine	46.4	53.7	15.4
None	17.9	4.2	23.4
Other	-	-	-
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source			
Access to safe water			
Piped inside house	0.8	5.2	5.1
Piped outside house	9.9	22.2	20.6
Communal tap	1.5	3.4	9.3
Protected well/borehole	68.4	33.7	45.7
Unprotected well	18.3	31.5	12.7
River/stream/dam	1.1	4.0	6.7
Other	-	-	-
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 5.31: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Households, Zimbabwe, by District and Province Continued

Districts in Manicaland Province				
Type of Facility	Mutare Urban	Rusape	Chipinge Urban	Total
Toilet				
Flush	97.8	89.1	47.3	13.3
Blair toilet	0.9	1.8	3.6	31.6
Pit latrine	0.4	9.1	47.3	35.1
None	0.4	-	1.8	19.8
Other	0.4	-	-	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source				
Access to safe water				
Piped inside house	42.5	27.3	16.4	6.4
Piped outside house	50.9	63.6	52.7	17.6
Communal tap	5.3	-	-	4.5
Protected well/borehole	1.3	5.5	10.9	45.0
Unprotected well	-	3.6	20.0	22.4
River/stream/dam	-	-	-	3.8
Other	-	-	-	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 5.31: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Households, Zimbabwe, by District and Province Continued

Districts in Mashonaland Central Province					
Type of facility	**Bindura Rural**	**Muzarabani**	**Guruve**	**Mazowe**	**Rushinga**
Toilet					
Flush	1.4	0.4	2.2	6.4	0.2
Blair toilet	39.1	36.7	43.3	41.4	34.4
Pit latrine	39.7	36.3	28.3	43.3	31.0
None	19.3	26.3	26.0	8.5	34.4
Other	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.4	-
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source					
Access to safe water					
Piped inside house	0.3	0.4	0.8	3.2	-
Piped outside house	0.3	4.0	4.1	1.7	-
Communal tap	6.4	10.0	3.0	16.3	-
Protected well/borehole	72.9	38.7	64.6	52.9	72.8
Unprotected well	18.2	30.7	21.7	22.5	17.2
River/stream/dam	1.7	16.2	5.1	3.4	9.8
Other	0.3	-	0.6	-	0.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 5.31: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Households, Zimbabwe, by District and Province Continued

Districts in Mashonaland Central Province					
Type of facility	**Shamva**	**Mbire**	**Bindura Urban**	**Mvurwi**	**Total**
Toilet					
Flush	0.8	1.2	92.0	100.0	5.5
Blair toilet	40.9	41.0	4.3	-	38.1
Pit latrine	33.1	31.0	2.9	-	32.8
None	24.8	26.6	-	-	25.4
Other	0.4	0.2	0.7	-	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source					
Access to safe water					
Piped inside house	0.6	1.4	51.4	32.1	2.9
Piped outside house	7.9	2.2	36.2	60.7	4.2
Communal tap	6.9	-	4.3	-	5.2
Protected well/borehole	61.7	63.8	7.2	7.1	60.9
Unprotected well	15.5	11.6	0.7	-	17.5
River/stream/dam	7.1	20.8	-	-	9.1
Other	0.4	0.2	-	-	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 5.31: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Households, Zimbabwe, by District and Province Continued

Districts in Mashonaland East Province						
Type of facility	**Chikomba**	**Goromonzi**	**Hwedza**	**Marondera**	**Mudzi**	**Murehwa**
Toilet						
Flush	14.3	10.1	4.4	37.7	3.9	8.2
Blair toilet	33.8	26.6	39.6	24.2	33.6	27.3
Pit latrine	15.5	46.8	27.4	25.9	25.5	44.0
None	36.0	16.5	28.5	11.6	37.1	20.2
Other	0.4	-	-	0.6	-	0.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source						
Access to safe water						
Piped inside house	6.6	0.3	2.4	11.4	3.3	1.7
Piped outside house	7.0	11.6	3.5	21.1	2.4	4.1
Communal tap	-	15.9	0.4	12.4	0.2	2.2
Protected well/borehole	67.2	57.5	69.3	42.1	62.0	69.0
Unprotected well	17.9	11.9	21.3	10.7	22.9	20.4
River/stream/dam	0.9	0.6	2.6	0.8	9.0	0.6
Other	0.4	2.1	0.6	1.5	0.2	2.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 5.31: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Households, Zimbabwe, by District and Province Continued

Districts in Mashonaland East Province					
Type of facility	**Mutoko**	**Seke**	**Uzumba Maramba Pfungwe**	**Ruwa Local Board**	**Total**
Toilet					
Flush	9.2	18.4	0.4	87.4	14.6
Blair toilet	28.8	31.7	49.9	4.2	32.1
Pit latrine	32.2	34.3	16.7	7.9	28.2
None	29.6	15.2	31.2	-	24.7
Other	0.2	0.4	1.9	0.5	0.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source					
Access to safe water					
Piped inside house	3.6	5.6	0.6	1.0	3.9
Piped outside house	3.2	5.1	0.9	3.1	6.0
Communal tap	1.1	5.3	-	2.1	3.5
Protected well/borehole	59.5	70.7	64.0	88.5	63.9
Unprotected well	29.2	12.8	27.1	4.7	19.2
River/stream/dam	2.8	0.2	6.1	-	2.7
Other	0.6	0.4	1.3	0.5	0.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 5.31: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Households, Zimbabwe, by District and Province Continued

Districts in Mashonaland West Province							
Type of facility	**Chegutu Rural**	**Hurun gwe**	**Mhondo ro-Ngezi**	**Kariba**	**Mako nde**	**Zvimba**	**Sanyati**
Toilet							
Flush	2.7	2.6	6.0	43.5	1.3	8.9	1.7
Blair toilet	52.9	17.2	29.6	12.8	40.3	33.8	25.5
Pit latrine	11.8	42.7	21.6	7.4	19.3	25.9	18.1
None	32.7	37.5	42.2	35.7	39.0	31.3	51.9
Other	-	-	0.6	0.6	-	-	2.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source							
Access to safe water							
Piped inside house	1.1	0.6	4.8	22.2	1.3	4.8	-
Piped outside house	4.2	2.4	3.2	24.6	2.6	4.4	3.0
Communal tap	9.5	3.2	3.2	4.2	8.5	18.0	7.4
Protected well/borehole	70.3	41.4	73.6	24.0	55.7	39.0	82.7
Unprotected well	14.8	37.9	12.4	20.0	22.0	28.4	5.2
River/stream/dam	-	13.8	2.8	4.8	9.5	5.2	1.7
Other	-	0.6	-	0.4	0.3	0.2	-
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 5.31: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Households, Zimbabwe, by District and Province Continued

Districts in Mashonaland West Province						
Type of facility	Chinhoyi	Kadoma	Chegutu	Norton	Karoi	Total
Toilet						
Flush	84.6	93.5	100.0	81.6	96.3	27.4
Blair toilet	7.7	3.4	-	2.4	3.7	23.3
Pit latrine	2.4	1.5	-	15.2	-	18.2
None	5.3	0.8	-	0.8	-	30.6
Other	-	0.8	-	-	-	0.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source						
Access to safe water						
Piped inside house	35.5	33.5	22.9	6.4	40.7	10.5
Piped outside house	47.9	48.3	50.5	20.8	48.1	14.5
Communal tap	4.7	8.4	1.0	0.8	-	7.0
Protected well/ Borehole	9.5	9.1	25.7	67.2	7.4	45.6
Unprotected well	0.6	0.8	-	4.8	-	17.5
River/Stream/Dam	-	-	-	-	-	4.7
Other	1.8	-	-	-	3.7	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 5.31: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Households, Zimbabwe, by District and Province Continued

Districts in Matabeleland North Province					
Type of facility	Binga	Bubi	Hwange	Lupane	Nkayi
Toilet					
Flush	3.4	1.6	30.4	3.2	2.8
Blair toilet	20.0	42.2	24.1	26.1	23.3
Pit latrine	2.0	8.1	1.7	3.0	8.0
None	74.2	47.5	43.8	67.7	65.8
Other	0.4	0.6	-	-	-
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source					
Access to safe water					
Piped inside house	0.8	1.4	10.1	1.6	0.6
Piped outside house	4.4	3.4	3.5	1.0	2.4
Communal tap	2.4	13.2	19.4	0.4	-
Protected well/borehole	41.1	68.8	55.1	63.1	70.0
Unprotected well	22.8	4.5	4.9	23.2	5.2
River/stream/dam	28.2	4.7	7.0	10.8	21.1
Other	0.4	4.1	-	-	0.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 5.31: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Households, Zimbabwe, by District and Province Continued

Districts in Matabeleland North Province				
Type of facility	Tsholotsho	Umguza	Victoria Falls	Total
Toilet				
Flush	2.4	7.7	98.0	10.3
Blair toilet	33.9	38.9	-	28.7
Pit latrine	2.2	9.8	-	4.9
None	61.4	43.5	2.0	56.0
Other	-	-	-	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source				
Access to safe water				
Piped inside house	2.2	2.3	70.6	5.4
Piped outside house	0.8	5.9	28.1	4.1
Communal tap	2.4	13.2	-	6.4
Protected well/borehole	88.0	68.4	0.7	62.4
Unprotected well	2.0	3.8	-	9.3
River/stream/dam	4.4	6.1	-	11.5
Other	0.2	0.4	0.7	0.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 5.31: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Households, Zimbabwe, by District and Province Continued

Districts in Matabeleland South Province				
Type of facility	Beitbridge Rural	Bulilima	Mangwe	Gwanda Rural	Insiza
Toilet					
Flush	2.9	2.6	2.4	4.7	0.8
Blair toilet	34.6	36.7	64.7	65.3	40.5
Pit latrine	4.1	9.4	2.6	5.2	16.3
None	57.8	51.4	30.0	24.4	42.1
Other	0.6	-	0.2	0.2	0.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source					
Access to safe water					
Piped inside house	2.9	1.6	1.9	3.0	0.4
Piped outside house	6.7	3.2	3.1	2.0	4.8
Communal tap	1.6	0.6	2.6	6.7	0.8
Protected well/borehole	74.0	57.6	60.9	66.6	51.4
Unprotected well	9.8	10.4	3.1	9.5	21.8
River/stream/dam	4.8	26.7	27.6	12.2	19.8
Other	0.3	-	0.7	-	1.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 5.31: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Households, Zimbabwe, by District and Province Continued

Districts in Matabeleland South Province					
Type of facility	Matobo	Umzing wane	Gwanda	Beitbridge Urban	Total
Toilet					
Flush	7.4	10.3	93.5	98.9	100.0
Blair toilet	44.6	45.5	5.4	-	-
Pit latrine	4.4	12.1	-	-	-
None	43.4	32.1	1.1	1.1	-
Other	0.2	-	-	-	-
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source					
Access to safe water					
Piped inside house	3.8	4.6	61.3	44.9	61.9
Piped outside house	5.8	9.7	36.6	32.6	34.5
Communal tap	0.6	3.6	-	0.6	-
Protected well/borehole	58.6	59.6	-	11.8	-
Unprotected well	18.7	15.2	-	-	-
River/stream/dam	12.2	7.3	2.2	-	-
Other	0.2	-	-	10.1	3.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 5.31: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Households, Zimbabwe, by District and Province Continued

Districts in Midlands Province					
Type of facility	Chiru mhanz u	Gokwe North	Gokwe South	Gweru Rural	Kwekwe Rural
Toilet					
Flush	9.8	-	0.4	1.9	8.5
Blair toilet	47.0	9.3	16.4	37.7	23.9
Pit latrine	7.3	31.8	29.7	13.0	10.1
None	35.4	58.8	53.5	47.4	57.5
Other	0.4	-	-	-	-
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source					
Access to safe water					
Piped inside house	5.3	0.2	-	1.3	3.2
Piped outside house	6.1	0.2	1.8	0.6	6.1
Communal tap	4.5	-	2.5	-	4.9
Protected well/borehole	58.9	39.2	44.9	63.6	63.2
Unprotected well	21.2	32.0	37.8	29.9	15.8
River/stream/dam	4.1	25.4	13.0	4.5	6.5
Other	-	3.0	-	-	0.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 5.31: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Households, Zimbabwe, by District and Province Continued

Districts in Midlands Province					
Type of facility	Mberengwa	Shurugwi	Zvishavane	Gweru	Kwekwe Urban
Toilet					
Flush	-	18.1	44.1	99.1	98.3
Blair toilet	37.6	48.2	26.6	0.6	0.6
Pit latrine	12.9	12.7	5.3	-	0.6
None	49.5	21	24.1	0.3	0.6
Other	-	-	-	-	-
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source					
Access to safe water					
Piped inside house	-	4.1	15.4	70	46.2
Piped outside house	0.6	19	14.8	25.9	48.6
Communal tap	0.2	1.1	17.7	-	4.6
Protected well/borehole	60.4	61.6	43.7	3.4	0.6
Unprotected well	19.3	9.5	2.5	-	-
River/stream/dam	19.5	4.3	5.9	-	-
Other	-	0.4	-	0.6	-
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 5.31: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Households, Zimbabwe, by District and Province Continued

Districts in Midlands Province			
Type of facility	Redcliff	Gokwe Centre	Total
Toilet			
Flush	97.1	15.4	23.9
Blair toilet	2.9	51.9	26.7
Pit latrine	-	28.8	13.8
None	-	-	35.6
Other	-	3.8	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source			
Access to safe water			
Piped inside house	27.5	5.8	11.7
Piped outside house	20.3	73.1	11.2
Communal tap	5.8	-	3.8
Protected well/borehole	46.4	-	45.7
Unprotected well	-	-	17.2
River/stream/dam	-	-	9.6
Other	-	21.2	0.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 5.31: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Households, Zimbabwe, by District and Province Continued

Districts in Masvingo Province					
Type of facility	**Bikita**	**Chiredzi Rural**	**Chivi**	**Gutu**	**Masvingo Rural**
Toilet					
Flush	0.6	24.7	3.4	6.4	7.7
Blair toilet	32.0	18.2	42.3	48.0	39.3
Pit latrine	16.0	3.6	20.1	3.2	12.3
None	51.3	52.9	34.2	42.2	40.7
Other	-	0.7	-	0.2	-
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source					
Access to safe water					
Piped inside house	0.6	8.3	1.6	2	4.7
Piped outside house	4.5	7.8	5.2	3.8	4
Communal tap	-	11	1.4	1.8	2.3
Protected well/borehole	71.2	45.7	57.5	48.2	48.7
Unprotected well	14.6	12.6	17.1	40.6	32.3
River/stream/dam	8.3	10.8	17.1	3.4	6.3
Other	0.8	3.8	0.2	0.2	1.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: PICES 2017. **Note:** *access to safe water consists of piped water inside and outside house, communal tap, protected well/borehole*

Table 5.31: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Households, Zimbabwe, by District and Province Continued

Districts in Masvingo Province					
Type of facility	Mwenezi	Zaka	Masvingo Urban	Chiredzi Town	Total
Toilet					
Flush	6.2	1.8	98.3	100.0	13.0
Blair toilet	31.4	33.3	1.7	-	32.7
Pit latrine	6.6	6.3	-	-	9.0
None	55.8	58.4	-	-	45.0
Other	-	0.2	-	-	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source					
Access to safe water					
Piped inside house	2.0	2.0	52.3	32.1	5.8
Piped outside house	7.0	5.3	44.8	66.1	8.4
Communal tap	0.2	0.4	-	-	2.2
Protected well/borehole	46.8	50.0	2.9	-	49.5
Unprotected well	23.4	28.4	-	-	22.3
River/stream/dam	20.0	13.1	-	-	10.8
Other	0.6	0.8	-	1.8	1.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 5.31: Percent Access to Safe Water and Sanitation by Land Use, Households, Zimbabwe, by District and Province Continued

Districts in Harare Province					
Type of facility	Harare Rural	Harare Urban	Chitungwiza	Epworth	Total
Toilet					
Flush	37.5	98.2	97.2	37.1	88.6
Blair toilet	33.3	1.2	1.9	8.1	4.1
Pit latrine	29.2	0.6	-	54.8	7.2
Other	-	-	0.9	-	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Water source					
Access to safe water					
Piped inside house	-	35.2	24.5	1.6	28.3
Piped outside house	4.2	34.6	15.1	1.6	26.8
Communal tap	-	0.8	1.9	-	0.8
Protected well/borehole	85.4	27.9	57.5	83.9	41.1
Unprotected well	8.3	0.8	0.9	11.3	2.3
Other	2.1	0.6	-	1.6	0.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

*Source: PICES 2017. **Note:** access to safe water consists of piped water inside and outside house, communal tap, protected well/borehole*

Table 5.32: Poverty Prevalence (Percent) for People, Males and Females, Rural and Urban

Area	Male	Female	Total
Rural	85.6	86.3	86.0
Urban	37.7	36.5	37.1
Total	70.7	70.3	70.5

Table 5.33: Poverty Prevalence (Percent) for People Males and Females Youths (15-35 Years)

Area	Male	Female	Total
Rural	82.5	85.7	84.1
Urban	35.0	35.3	35.2
Total	66.2	65.9	66.0

Table 5.34: Poverty Prevalence (Percent) for Males and Females

	Males			
Province	**Poverty prevalence**	**Extremely poor**	**Poverty gap index**	**Poverty severity**
				index
Manicaland	80.9	36.8	40.1	23.0
Mashonaland Central	87.3	49.2	47.5	29.1
Mashonaland East	75.2	29.5	35.1	19.6
Mashonaland West	79.1	38.7	40.0	24.0
Matabeleland North	84.1	44.6	44.0	26.3
Matabeleland South	76.2	26.6	33.9	18.3
Midlands	74.6	30.9	35.5	20.0
Masvingo	75.4	28.0	33.9	18.5
Bulawayo	31.1	1.3	7.3	2.4
Harare	37.6	5.5	12.6	5.5
Total	70.7	29.4	33.4	18.9

Table 5.35: Poverty Prevalence (Percent) for People, Males and Females

Province	Females			
	Poverty prevalence	**Extreme poor**	**Poverty gap index**	**Poverty severity index**
Manicaland	80.5	37.0	40.0	23.0
Mashonaland Central	88.5	49.8	48.2	29.6
Mashonaland East	76.3	30.3	35.9	20.2
Mashonaland West	78.4	38.6	39.7	23.8
Matabeleland North	86.5	45.6	45.2	26.9
Matabeleland South	77.6	27.9	34.7	18.7
Midlands	73.0	29.6	34.4	19.3
Masvingo	74.7	27.9	34.0	18.6
Bulawayo	29.0	1.3	6.9	2.4
Harare	36.9	4.8	11.9	5.1
Total	70.3	29.3	33.2	18.8

Table 5.36: Poverty Prevalence (Percent) for People, Males and Females

Province	Total			
	Poverty prevalence	**Extremely poor**	**Poverty gap index**	**Poverty severity index**
Manicaland	80.7	36.9	40.0	23.0
Mashonaland Central	87.9	49.5	47.9	29.4
Mashonaland East	75.8	29.9	35.5	19.9
Mashonaland West	78.7	38.7	39.9	23.9
Matabeleland North	85.3	45.1	44.6	26.6
Matabeleland South	76.9	27.3	34.3	18.5
Midlands	73.8	30.2	34.9	19.7
Masvingo	75.0	27.9	34.0	18.5
Bulawayo	29.9	1.3	7.1	2.4
Harare	37.3	5.2	12.2	5.3
Total	70.5	29.3	33.3	18.9

Table 5.37: Poverty Prevalence for the Youths aged (15-35 Years) Total for Males and Females

	Total			
Province	**Poverty prevalence**	**Extreme poor**	**Poverty gap index**	**Poverty severity index**
Bulawayo	27.3	0.9	6.3	2.1
Manicaland	76.8	32.8	37.0	20.9
Mashonaland Central	86.4	48.1	46.7	28.5
Mashonaland East	72.8	27.3	33.3	18.4
Mashonaland West	76.2	36.4	37.9	22.5
Matabeleland North	83.3	43.1	43.1	25.6
Matabeleland South	72.9	24.3	31.5	16.7
Midlands	69.1	26.7	31.9	17.7
Masvingo	71.0	25.7	31.7	17.2
Harare	35.2	4.7	11.2	4.8
Zimbabwe	**66.0**	**26.1**	**30.4**	**17.0**

Table 5.38: Poverty Prevalence for the Youths aged (15-35 Years) for Males

Males

	Poverty prevalence	**Extreme poor**	**Poverty gap index**	**Poverty severity index**
Bulawayo	28.5	0.9	7.2	2.4
Manicaland	75.8	30.5	35.9	20.1
Mashonaland Central	86.3	47.2	46.4	28.2
Mashonaland East	72.0	26.6	32.8	18.1
Mashonaland West	76.5	36.4	38.1	22.5
Matabeleland North	81.4	41.2	41.7	24.5
Matabeleland South	71.3	23.2	30.8	16.3
Midlands	70.7	27.2	32.6	18.1
Masvingo	71.0	24.9	31.3	16.9
Harare	33.8	4.9	11.1	4.8
Total	**66.2**	**25.8**	**30.5**	**17.0**

Table 5.39:Poverty Prevalence for the Youths aged (15-35 Years) for Females

Female

	Poverty prevalence	Extreme poor	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
Bulawayo	26.3	0.8	5.7	1.9
Manicaland	77.8	34.9	38.1	21.8
Mashonaland Central	86.5	49.0	47.1	28.8
Mashonaland East	73.7	27.9	33.7	18.7
Mashonaland West	75.8	36.4	37.7	22.5
Matabeleland North	85.2	44.8	44.5	26.6
Matabeleland South	74.6	25.5	32.2	17.2
Midlands	67.7	26.2	31.2	17.3
Masvingo	70.9	26.3	32.0	17.4
Harare	36.3	4.5	11.4	4.9
Total	**65.9**	**26.4**	**30.4**	**17.0**

Table 5.40: Poverty Prevalence for the Disabled and Not Disabled Persons

Disability status	Poverty prevalence	Extreme poor	Poverty gap index	Poverty severity index
Not disabled	69.5	28.5	32.6	18.4
Disabled	74.1	32.2	35.7	20.5

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