Rural Women and their Role in the Expanded Public Works Programme in Modimola Village, North West Province: An Assessment

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DECLARATION

I, Manka Sheila Ngoh, student number 23821639 declares that the mini-dissertation entitled 'Rural Women and their Role in the Expanded Public Works Programme in Modimola village, North West Province: An Assessment', hereby submitted for the degree of Master of Social Sciences in Sociology has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other university. I declare that this is my work in design and execution and that all materials contained herein, have been duly acknowledged.

Manka Sheila Ngoh
DEDICATION

This research study is dedicated to my family, Neh Rachel Ngoh (my beloved mother), Paul Nkamta (my husband), and Nkamta Edilson Kyron Nkamta (my son).
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

A research project like this is never the work of only one person. The contributions of many different people in their different ways have made this possible. I would like to extend my appreciation especially to the following:

I would start by thanking the Almighty God for bestowing upon me wisdom, perseverance, good health and strength during this research project. I could never have accomplished this without the Faith I had in Him.

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ABSTRACT

In the past, rural women were looked upon as being physically weak and were assigned the main role of child-bearing and child-rearing. In recent times, however, there has been recognition that women's roles go beyond the immediate household domestic and reproductive spheres into economically productive public spheres. Women are therefore recognized as agents of development as they play a vital role in society and contribute to socio-economic development. The main aim of this research was to focus on this sphere of life and examine the contribution of women through the case study of the EPWP project in Modimola village, North-West Province of South Africa. A qualitative research approach was used in this study in the form of in-depth interviews with a sample of the women who participated in the project. This was done to establish the role, benefits, and challenges women encountered in the fore-mentioned EPWP project. It was found that women had a very productive and active toil in the project, and contributed positively towards its effectiveness and success. This was however not sustainable largely due to failure by the Department of Public Works' officials to provide continuous leadership, as well as monitoring and evaluation of the project to ensure continuous improvement and sustainability.
ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

EPWP Expanded Public Works Programme
FAO Food and Agricultural Organization
GAD Gender and Development
GPD Gender policy and development
IFSS Integrated Food Security strategy
SABC South African Broadcasting Corporation
SADC Southern Africa Development Community
SARS South African Revenue Service
WAD Women and development
WID Women in Development
PWD public works department
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CHAPTER ONE

1.1. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Throughout history and in many societies, inequalities between women and men have been part and parcel of an accepted male-dominated culture. It is a complex historical process which needs to be thoroughly examined and studied before conceiving a viable strategy to improve and sustain the status of women in the society. There has been very little recognition of women’s actual or potential contribution to economic, social and cultural statues (see Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development Report, 2008:7). The role of women within households coupled with the high level of unemployment and underemployment of the population in general has led to the unequal state of priority of men in matters of employment. This is despite the fact that resilient and resourceful rural women contribute in a multitude of ways through different livelihood strategies in getting their households and communities out of poverty (Ibid, 2008:8).

Women work long hours and many of their activities are not considered as economically productive in national accounts yet they are essential to the well being of households (FAO, 2011:8). They also constitute a significant proportion of labour on farms, whether producing for household consumption or for sale (Unifem, 2005:2). Rural women are constrained by unequal access to productive resources and support services. The limitations rural women face in turn impose huge costs on society as a whole and rural development in particular including lags in agricultural productivity.

According to Prakash (2003:1), rural women play a pivotal role in agriculture and in rural development in most countries of the Asia-Pacific region. There are a number of constraints which prevent women from playing important and effective roles in societies bound by age-old traditions and beliefs. Patriarchal modes and practices motivated by cultures and/or interpretations of religious sanctions and illiteracy hinder women’s freedom to opt for various choices to assert greater mobility in social interactions. As a result of these, women’s contribution to agriculture and other sectors in the economy remains concealed and unaccounted in terms of economic performance. Rural women have always been discriminated against due to stereotypes that restrict them to a reproductive role. They are
also denied access to resources which could eventually enhance their social and economic contribution to the society.

In developing countries, poor rural women are the most vulnerable. Empirical evidence suggests that women in rural areas are more adversely affected by poverty than men (Prakash, 2003:2). The issue of gender bias points to the double burden women have to bear; that is, being poor and being a woman. Projects aimed at reducing poverty view poor rural women as recipients of benefits of development instead of active participants. They have the least access to basic services such as health care and education.

According to Bobo (2011), 52% of South Africa’s total population are women; and a greater percentage of this number live in rural areas. The number of rural women differs drastically between population groups. 75% of African women live in rural areas compared to only 17% of Coloured women and 8% White women. Unemployment rate amongst rural women amounts to 53% for all population groups compared to 47% of urban women. These women lack access to basic services and opportunities; a situation that sadly persists even today. In addition, amongst rural African women, unemployment amounts to 56% compared to 31% amongst rural coloured women and only 13% amongst rural white women. The above statistics indicate that the majority of black African women continue to live under extreme poverty in rural areas (see Bobo, 2011:2). What then should be done to address this situation? The question that arises and which this study seeks to answer is: what impacts do development programmes have on rural African women? Given the state of rural African women, do the South African government projects such as the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) significantly improve the living conditions and standards of rural women?

1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

South African rural women play an indispensable role in community development and in the development of a nation as a whole. However, these contributions remain concealed due to some social barriers and gender biases. This is as a result of history and gender stereotypes which assign certain roles to women such as child-bearing and child-rearing functions in the family and in society. Rural women in the past were considered as the weaker sex. They had nothing to offer to society except for their child-bearing roles. Women have however
challenged these roles by moving from the domestic sphere into economically productive public roles. Women today, work in offices, organisations, structures, and contribute extensively to the success of the organisations, the development of their communities and the nation as a whole. Rural women are not only restricted to their historic given roles of the family but have moved to contributing to community development within their societies through their involvement in community development projects. Whitehead (1990:17) argues that rural women play a very important role in their households as they grow the bulk of food crops, most of which is used for both subsistence and commercial purposes. Despite the vital role played by women, their contribution is never fully recognised.

This study seeks to understand the role of South African rural women in community development projects, and benefits derived from these projects. This it does through the case study of the Expanded Public Works Programme in Modimola village whereby rural women’s role in this project is examined and the impact on their lives.

1.3. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study is aimed at adding to existing sociological discourse on women and development, and especially of rural women in developing countries.

It is also intended to create awareness on the importance of women in society, both in the domestic and public spheres.

This study, I hope, will contribute to the challenging of the misguided notion that women only play a reproductive role in society, while simultaneously not only highlighting women’s economically productive roles, but also to contributing to the movement for empowerment of women in society, and especially rural women in less developed countries.

1.4. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Research is undertaken to investigate and address a specific issue. This present study poses the following research questions for which answers are sought and recommendations made on the basis of the findings:

- What role is played by rural women in the EPWP in Modimola village?
• Does it provide rural women with meaningful opportunities to contribute towards development as well as to improving their living conditions?
• Does the programme present women with any challenges?
• How can those challenges be overcome?

1.5. SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Therefore the specific objectives of the study are:

• to investigate the role played by rural women in community development, especially through EPWP in Modimola village;
• to determine the benefits derived by rural women from their participation in this EPWP development project;
• to understand the challenges to and opportunities for rural women within the EPWP projects; and also
• to understand the nature of those challenges and how they could be addressed and overcome.

1.6. HYPOTHESIS

Community development projects such as the state-driven EPWP in South Africa provide women (and especially rural women) with a meaningful and active involvement in socio-economic activities which in turn not only contribute positively to community development but also to women's lives.

1.7. METHODOLOGY

A case study-based approach using the Expanded Public Works Programme's project in Modimola village, in the North West province, has been employed in this study. According to Yin (1984:23), a case study research method is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context. When the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident, multiple sources of evidence are used. The advantage of a case study approach is that it yields information from the viewpoint of the participants by using multiple sources of data. The researcher conducted qualitative in-depth interviews with women participating in the project, through the use of open-ended questionnaire. Their role in the project and their experiences were also examined.
1.8. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This study is purely qualitative focusing on the role of rural women in EPWP development projects. Since it deals with human beings, their feelings, and values, informed consent principle was used for participants who participated in the study. Their consent was subsequently secured and all of them were assured of confidentiality. As Creswell (2007:12) asserts, in every research endeavour, participants must be informed and should know the risk or dangers of participating in the research.

1.9. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

One of the greatest challenges faced by the researcher was the use of an interpreter (Setswana speaking post graduate student), to assist in the data collection process. This made the process time consuming and the researcher doubts if the answers obtained from the interpreter were the exact words of the participants given that the researcher neither speaks nor understands Setswana. Also, some of the respondents were located very far away from each other making it time consuming and stressful as the researcher had to move long distances in order to get hold of the respondents for interviews.

1.10 THE REPORT WILL BE STRUCTURED AS FOLLOWS:

Chapter one: The introduction and background to the study

Chapter two: Theoretical framework

Chapter three: Literature review

Chapter four: The Expanded Public Works Programme of South Africa

Chapter five: Research design and methodology

Chapter six: Case study of the Expanded Public Works Programme in Modimola Village: North West Province

Chapter seven: Analysis of Results

Chapter eight: Conclusion and Recommendations.
1.11 CONCLUSION

In this chapter an introduction and background to the study were presented. The problem statement stating why this research project is being carried out, objectives of the study, significance of the study, research questions, aims and objectives as well as a brief outline of the chapters were also discussed. The next chapter presents a theoretical framework of the study.
CHAPTER TWO
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. INTRODUCTION

According to Parpart (1989:2), a theoretical framework consists of basic assumptions about the nature of the social world and how it works, and also about the nature of people and how they act and interact. It also indicates how problems are defined and the kind of questions asked. Ornstein and Hunkins (1993:184) maintain that a theory is a device for interpreting, criticising and unifying established laws, modifying them to fit data unanticipated in their formation and guiding. Carl (2009:3) believes that theories make possible robust explanations of previous or currently observed phenomenon.

Therefore, studies such as the current one cannot proceed without the consideration of theoretical framework. Thus this current chapter provides a review of current sociological theories on gender and development as a framework useful to the study and analysis of the role of women in development projects and society as a whole. For the purpose of this present study, it is necessary to examine whether or not evidence and findings on the role and experiences as well as participation of rural women in Modimola EPWP project support or refute the current sociological theoretical viewpoints on women, gender and development. Specifically therefore, this chapter reviews theories that fall within the sociological perspectives that could broadly be categorised as falling within the traditions of liberal, functionalists and radical Marxist perspectives.

2.2. SOCIOLOGICAL THEORIES OF RELEVANCE TO WOMEN AND DEVELOPMENT

2.2.1. EARLY SOCIOLOGICAL THEORIES OF DEVELOPMENT

Perhaps of relevance and to start off with are the broad sociological theoretical perspectives on development and underdevelopment. Modernisation theory is well documented as the first of such theories developed in early 1950s. This theory, which is liberal functionalist in nature, provides a linear account of how development occurs or could be realised. Modernisation theory holds the view that the less developed world should follow the same path of development as the developed world including adopting and adapting to their ways of
doing things. Technological systems should be taken from developed countries and adapted to the less developed in order to bring change and development to less developed countries. Fair (1982:5) argues that the Western capitalistic dream for development in the Third World insists that all poor or underdeveloped countries have to follow the development path of western First World countries. Thus, according to this theory, development entails a universal process of modernisation, whereby, Western values, production systems, technology and consumption patterns have to be simulated by poor countries in an attempt to modernise their societies. (see Swanepoel and de Beer, 1997:18). Modernisation perspective is clearly reflected in the Rostowian model which states that societies follow a series of linear stages towards development (see McCarthy, in Fair 1982:7). Rostow’s stages of development start with a traditional society, followed by preconditions for take-off and take-off stages, and then the drive to maturity, culminating in high mass consumption stage. Thus, for Swanepoel and de Beer (1997:19), modernisation theory can be regarded as a continuation of old colonial values where forms of social organisation that differed from dominant western paradigm were ignored or regarded as primitive.

This liberal functionalist modernisation perspective was however critiqued by the Marxist dependency theory for its claim that all societies evolve from a common starting point of underdevelopment and transform along the reductionist continuum to modernism (see Fair, 1982:7). Western lifestyles, norms and values, it is argued, are never questioned. Underdeveloped societies are expected to accept external intervention without questioning the motives of the outsiders. The theory presents development as a process which can be controlled as certain inputs are expected to yield particular set of outputs. Little attention is paid to the integrated nature of development. The limitations of Western knowledge systems are also hardly questioned. Furthermore, Western materialism and individualism are also regarded as important modern and traditional traits that exist side by side and together. The lack of development of the traditional economy is explained mainly in terms of its detachment from the modern economy (see Fair 1982:6-7).

Furthermore, modernisation theory assumes that at some stage of the development process, a spread effect will take place and that development impulse from the developed areas will flow to the less developed and underdeveloped areas. Also, growth and inputs into the more modern sectors would eventually have a positive spin-off and eradicate poverty in the whole economy through a trickle-down effect.
The dependency paradigm places greater emphasis on external variables and therefore blames the modernisation approach for seeking an internal explanation of underdevelopment and basically ignoring external variables (Fair, 1982:3). Where modernisation theory assumes that development is in principle a harmonious process, the dependency theory pays substantial attention on the clash or conflict of interests between the upper class and the lower class. Radical Marxist dependency theory goes further than the liberal functionalist modernisation theory by promoting a break with the world capitalist system since many poor countries are vulnerable in terms of international trade and technological support (see Fair, 1982:24; and Roxborough, 1981:23).

The dependency theory holds the view that rather than diffusion from the core to the periphery occurring, the core tends to exploit the periphery in a capitalist world-wide system through a hierarchy of dependency (see Brookfield in Fair 1982:21). Dependency theory however fails to pay attention to the role of internal factors in the impediment of development. Both theories are caught in the trap of Western reductionism. They both attempt to approach problems in a very linear fashion and both promote westernisation, although from different points of departures with different emphasises. They both operate on a very high level of generalisations (see Swanepoel and de Boer, 1997: 21). Nonetheless, they all made a valuable contribution towards refining development thought leading to alternative models of development. Of immediate relevance and discussed below are community development and sustainable development theories.

2.2.2. COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT THEORY

The key tenet of dependency theory is that people on the ground should lead their own development. This is consistent with the bottom-up approach advocated in community development theory. As a response to the shortfalls of top-down central government-led development programmes, this approach is clearly seen as desirable for the objectives of community development to be achieved as signified in various definitions of community development. For instance, for Mendes (2008:3), community development is about “the employment of community structures to address social needs and empower groups of people”. Similarly, Schiele (2005:21) summarises community development as “collective problem-solving, self-help and empowerment. Payne (1997:2) considers community
development as "developing social capital, social inclusion and exclusion, and capacity building.

While the above definitions point largely to how community development could be achieved, others highlight the key objectives of community development. Rubin and Rubin (1992:9), for instance, define community development as "a set of diverse objectives aimed at solving local problems ranging from unemployment and/or poverty, addressing inequalities of wealth and power, and promoting democracy, to building a sense of community." For Christenson, Fendley and Robinson (1989:15) community development involves groups of people in their localities initiating social actions and planned interventions to change their economic, social, cultural or environmental situations. Similarly, Summers (1986:360) defines rural community development as a planned intervention aimed to stimulate social change for the explicit purpose of the betterment of the people. These definitions are linked to the basic needs approach within community development perspective which attaches importance to the provision of basic services such as health, education, clean drinking water and sanitation (see Kotze, 1988:43). For Robinson Jr. and Green (2011:22) community development is a "process which involves methods of bringing in change such as technical assistance, self-help or conflict solving approaches".

Community development is therefore an ideology for action to restructure the social, normative and economic order, towards desired ends. Community development is a programme of any specific activity which could either be the construction of houses, adoption of agricultural innovations and implementation of recreational programmes. While community development has several meanings, it however has as its core aspect running through these definitions a change towards a better well-being of the inhabitants.

Marguis de Condorcet (1992:5) thus argues that principles of development theory are derived from the idea of progress in terms of which change should be led by people. This can be done through their skills and capacities applied in community development projects. Thus, progress and change can be achieved in the community through harnessing of capacities of the members of the community. As it has been observed, people have capabilities that determine their well-being rather than the goods or income they receive (see Sen, 1981, and Watts, 1991). York (1984:12) appropriately summarises the foci of community development.
theory as “the organisation of community agencies, the developing of local competencies and political action for change.”

Community development efforts started in a form of centralised government initiatives. The poor were encouraged to participate in these government-led programmes without being given opportunity to raise questions and make input. This approach reflects the typical modernisation view of top-down contrary to community development model which advocates a bottom-up initiative and participatory approach. The latter is based on the recognition that people should determine their needs and how best to fulfil them. Thus, it is the right of the poor to prioritise their needs and make decisions on how these needs should be addressed (see Wisner, 1988:19).

2.2.3 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT THEORY

Sustainable development theory clearly builds on community development perspective’s basic needs and bottom-up principles. According to Norgard (1994:39) and Oldham (1987:29) sustainable development constitutes a new framework of development thought and practice. Schumacher (1973) suggested that high economic growth tends to have severe environmental implications. The environment often received relatively limited attention in the development debate. For Lele (1991:609) and Vormholz (1994:196) sustainable development means sustaining the economy as well as social and ecological systems. Sustainable development paradigm also promotes continuous learning, participation of communities and capacity building, and also involving all interest groups. To ensure this, appropriate institutions should be created to monitor the processes of development. Sustainable development implies the measurement of development performance and includes all social benefits and costs, as well as the depletion of natural resources.

Thus, for Brundtland (1987:31), sustainable development is a development which meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. For Lele (1991:608-9), sustainable development is a development that can last only for a definite or indefinite period of time. Sustainable development approach promotes lifestyles and ethics that take the limits of the natural environment into account.

Institutions should therefore address issues of social benefits and costs of development. Thus, sustainable development requires an institutional framework that combines inter-government
and inter-agency co-ordinated actions (see Khan, 1995:64). It is clear that implementing sustainable development would require co-ordinated efforts of many sectors of the society.

This perspective, it could be argued, is also evident in feminist sociological approaches on women and development. Initially the dominant feminist view was Women in Development (WID), which is a liberal perspective that advocated for inclusion of women in development projects and condemned patriarchy. The WID was followed by Women and Development (WAD) and Gender and Development (GAD) perspectives, both leaning more towards Marxist radical approach. These are discussed below.

2.2.4 FEMINIST SOCIOLOGICAL THEORIES ON WOMEN AND DEVELOPMENT

According to Chupical (1987:89), the famous approach developed by the feminists is the Women in Development (WID) approach, a perspective through which women in the West advocated for inclusion of women excluded from development policy making and development programmes. Boserup (1970:223) pointed out that the primary goal of WID was to include women into existing initiatives. Women were marginalised and excluded from the benefits of development. In so doing, the WID approach points out the major problem to women’s unequal representation and participation as the male-biased and patriarchal development policies (Beneria and Sen, 1982:161). The WID approach blamed patriarchy which did not consider women’s productive and reproductive capacities. Women were tied down to domestic work and were thus, almost invisible in development programmes.

The solution to this is mainly educational which if considered, is necessary for the changing of attitudes of male development officials and planners, and the education of women in less developed countries and their new role which integrates development programmes. For Beneria (1982:161), the main obstacles to women involvement in the development processes are patriarchal attitudes. Moreover, Rogers (1980:90) in a survey conducted at the Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO 2011:16), discovered that no woman was in a position above that of the auxiliary secretary and that no female officer occupied a post at the technical level. Rogers drew his conclusion by saying that women were not only excluded from development planning and decision-making, but also that the particular needs of women in any specific development were unconsidered. This is attributed to the stereotyping of women as housewives, regardless of local circumstances, and under valuing of women’s economic
This is contrary to observation such as that by Rogers (1980:91) that in most parts of Africa, women were more often than not the main food producers as well as petty traders.

Boserup (1970) and Rogers (1980) further argue that the main reason for the marginalisation of women in development is the imposition of western gender stereotypes on Third World societies and the influence of Western male biased views. Rogers (1980) also argues that development was actually domesticating women and entrenching economic inequalities between men and women, rather than fostering equality. He thus called on males to change their attitudes, tackle patriarchal ideologies and bring women back into policy and planning processes of development institutions. The WID approach is a model of gender equality that as it is primarily cultural in character and origins. Eleanor Leacock (1983:92) argues in her research conducted in Australia, that, in the Americas, the Pacific and Africa, women and men were independent economic actors, but capitalism and colonisation subjugated women to becoming subordinate to men. The WID approach advocates that women deserve equal participation in development projects.

According to Kabeer (1994:53), Women and Development (WAD) emerged as a critique of the WID approach. WAD states that women have long been involved in development and that it was precisely this involvement that fostered the structured women’s inequitable experiences of development processes. The radical Marxist feminists suggested that it is the imperatives of a world capitalist economy which determine whether women should be involved in the developmental process or not. Mies (1982:93) presented a case study of poor women lace makers in India. These women were linked to the world’s market export production as the lace they made was exported to North America and Europe. Capitalism was not pulling down the walls of tradition and customs. This was in contradiction with the WID thesis that patriarchy was separate from development and ultimately, was simply an issue of cultural change particularly in respect of male attitudes towards women.

Moreover, a comparative study was presented on the dominance of female workers in the new world market factories, especially in electronics, clothing and textile sectors. These new employment opportunities were greatly promoted by WID development officials and politicians in order to liberate women through economic independence. The radical Marxist dependency feminists argue that women who work in factories earn very low wages,
experience poor conditions, and few protections or rights. Lim (1983:80) also points to capitalism, imperialism, and patriarchy as having each contributed to the exploitation of women workers in factories. She states that Third World women are the most heavily exploited group of workers. All groups are subject to capitalist exploitation but Third World women are subjected more to imperialist and patriarchal exploitation.

According to Whitehead (1992:6), GAD lays emphasis on the 'interconnectedness of gender and class relations by distinguishing relations of reproduction from those of production'. GAD challenges WAD explanations of female employment in global factories. Elson and Pearson (1988:95) argue that cultural constructions of gender inform the ability of global capital to draw on female labour force. Women's subordination within gender relations makes them available as a labour force subject to exploitation by global capital.

The GAD concept of gender as involving both women and men provides a more flexible and nuanced approach to gender inequality and development process. GAD also critiques WID approach's focus on poor women in Third World countries and not the force of women themselves (see Bandarage, 1984:500). GAD focuses on listening and responding to the voices of poor women in Third World countries and working with them at grassroots level in order to effect greater change in their lives through women empowerment (Sen and Grown, 1987:82). It outlines a vision of development which is based on the acknowledgement that the basic rights of the poor and the transformation of the institutions which subordinate women are inextricably linked. This can only be achieved through empowerment of women, not only by redirection of resources to the poor as the basic needs approach intended, but also through their participation in the policy-making and implementation processes of development. Also, a multifaceted approach was envisaged which would work to transform development organisations from within, while work outside the mainstream institutional framework to effect change. Kabeer (1994:90) further stated that empowerment is an alternative approach to development which comes from the grassroots. WAD and GAD strategies involve a broad conception of development as involving major structural and cultural transformation if poor men and women are to benefit from development processes.
2.2.5 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I have presented and discussed various theoretical perspectives on women and development. The chapter first looked at broad sociological theories of development i.e. the modernisation theory and how it was critiqued by the dependency theory. This was then taken further to other theories that were inspired by these initial sociological theories, and specifically community development theory, sustainable development theory and the feminist theories on women and development. The theoretical framework arising from these interlinked theories will inform the later analysis of the Expanded Public Works Programme’s project in Modimola village as the empirical case study of this study, in terms of the role that rural women played in this project and how it impacted on their lives.
CHAPTER THREE
LITERATURE REVIEW

3.0. INTRODUCTION
Terreblanche and Durrheim (1999:17) state that literature review involves the identification and analysis of literature related to one’s research project. This is done because a research project does not exist in isolation, but is rather, built upon what has been done previously. Below, I provide a review of some of the literature of relevance to this study.

3.1. THE ROLE OF RURAL WOMEN IN AFRICAN SOCIETY

Rural African women have always played important economic role in society. This has always been so despite the historical lack of recognition of this role. As Kiteme (1992:10) has pointed out with reference to the Kenyan case, the active economic participation of Kenyan rural women in trade has always been an integral part of the country’s socio-economic life and development, and especially in the past 40 years, but that this went largely undocumented in research literature (see also MatsepeCasaburi, 1983:25).

Between 1947 and 1988, he argues, Kenya’s population increased fivefold from 4.3 million in 1947 to an estimated 20 million in 1988 (see Kenya population census, 1970, 1981, UK population census, 1946, 1949), and that this growth was accompanied by economic revolution marked by a shift from a solely rural agricultural subsistence economy to an urban economy. Alongside this were development of urban market and an extensive network of internal trade. Kenya’s rural market women traders, he argues, were inextricably linked with this urban market economy through the socio-economic activities in the country side. The female traders have not only contributed to food production and supply through their economic activities but also provided assistance and financial support for numerous community causes such as education of children, family clothing, farm employment, acquisition of cattle, improvement of family, housing, developmental projects, community health, adult education, direct and indirect payment of government taxes and improvement in transportation, and general infrastructures development. Notwithstanding this, women’s socio-economic input was and is still remains unrecognised. This is despite the fact that women constitute majority of the world’s population. Around the world, and not just in Africa, women are central actors in rural livelihood activities. Rural women also devote great
part of their important time to domestic and farm work, which together with women’s subordination; contribute to their invisibility in economies of developing activities. According to the United Nations Report on Rural Women Empowerment and Development (2012:3), rural women play a vital role in rural economies of developing countries. In most parts of developing countries, women play an important role by participating in crop production and livestock keeping, providing food, water and fuel for their families. They also engage in off-farm activities to diversify their families’ livelihoods. In addition, they carry out vital functions such as caring for children, for the elderly, and for the sick.

According to Volunteers for Africa, a Non-Governmental Organisation (2009:26), rural women are important in Kenya for their role as upholders of rural-micro economic activities. However, nowhere is their impact and activities more significant than in their indigenous knowledge of and management of natural resources such as land, water, forest and wildlife. Their traditional gender roles bring them in direct contact with these natural resources. Their survival and that of their families depends directly on exploiting and harnessing supplies from these natural resources. Rural women are targeted for cultural and social change and play an important role in a number of activities ranging from running households to leading rural development projects. In Kenya, women play a productive role in the production of food for their households. In most village farms, one would find 80 percent of women providing labour for food production. Women are also the main collectors of water in rural Kenya. They decide where to collect water, how to draw and transport it, how to store it, and, how many sources of water to exploit and for what purpose (kitchen, drinking, and other domestic use).

Rural women are also known for their role of supplying fuel wood from the forest. They use forests for fire wood in order to supplement fuel and use land as a source of food. Women also look after livestock, thus their use forest products and conservation are tightly linked with their activities and gender roles.

According to Damisa and Yohanna (2007:3), rural women contribute immensely to the domestic and socio-economic life of the society such that national development is not possible without developing this important and substantial segment of the society. Writing with reference to contemporary South Africa, Mkhize(2013:5) argues that women play a vital role in the “izitokfela” (this is Nguni word for group of people who come together to pull
their resources, often financial, in order to assist each other accomplish their aspirations and needs) in their communities with other women. Through “izitokfela”, they (especially working-class women) are able to furnish their homes, to financially support weddings and funerals as well as other community social and cultural activities.

Whitehead (1990:64) also argues that women have a very important role to play in the society such as growing the bulk of food crops, most of which are consumed by their immediate and extended families. Added to that, women are also involved in trade and marketing activities. Women and men’s work was situated in a sexual division of labour growing out of domestic and kinship arrangements. Within these relations, labour was exchanged between men and men, and also between men and women.

3.2. CHALLENGES FACED BY RURAL WOMEN IN SOCIETY

3.2.1 RURAL WOMEN IN AFRICAN SOCIETIES

According to Volunteers for Africa NGO (2009:28), rural women face a serious challenge of land tenure system. In many patriarchal societies, land is passed on to men and not women. Women are involved mostly in the provision of food and when little and poor land is available for subsistence crops, they are forced to work harder or go long distances to reach scattered parcels of land to farm domestic food crop.

Rayah (2007:34) argues that rural women are also hampered by lack of access to income from the sale of cash crops grown by their households even though they contribute labour for the cultivation of such crops. Thus, rural women suffer under patriarchal relations which place them firmly in the position of economic subordination to men. In Ghana, for instance, women face the challenge of oppressive, harmful cultural and traditional practices. Some of the harmful practices pertain to widowhood rights and female genital mutilation. Even though some laws have been put in place to change these negative practices, very little has been achieved. Rural women are especially vulnerable as they are forced to subscribe to tribal authorities who do not support women’s rights. Harmful cultural and religious practices make the lives of rural women vulnerable to poverty, violence and other forms of oppression and discriminations. Furthermore, access to land in rural communities is male-biased. Inheritance after the death of a spouse is taken up by male members of the family. This calls for a broad
and new approach to development whereby opportunities are created for women in a way that allows them to define their own needs, values, strategies and goals in order to move out of the feminisation trap. In 1995, during the Beijing Conference, not only were cultural barriers reported but also, governments were invited to use their influence to change the inferior and exploitative conditions of women in order to serve goals of equality for all women and ensure their full participation in development.

Highlighting concerns about such injustices to women, Omar (2011:15), argues that the uprisings in Egypt were accompanied by fear of a salafi movement inside the country with stories of attacks on women across rural areas. Women feared the attack of the salafi protesters and the threat of acid being thrown to uncovered women. This made women feel threatened and in some cases, even pulled girls out of schools. Women again were accused of dishonourable acts in Sadat city and their houses were burned down (Omar, 2012:15).

Rebecca (2003:3) maintains that rural women in Cameroon are faced with challenges of lack of capital, lack of social amenities, lack of access to water and electricity, health and education services, and infrastructure for communication. This constitutes a form of exclusion of women and for it to be addressed; it would require the creation of an enabling environment marked by increased access to these key resources so that women are in a position to make use of them productively.

### 3.2.2 RURAL WOMEN IN SOUTH AFRICAN

The post-1994 South African constitution in considered highly favourable for equality of all citizens (see Bobo, 2012:8), which is further enhanced by the country's ratification and signing regional and international human rights protocols. The Beijing Platform for Action, for instance, seeks to accelerate state mechanisms for advancing gender equality such as the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Declaration on Gender and Development; the African Charter on Women and Peoples' Rights as well as the Maputo Declaration on Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights. Even though all of these instruments have been put in place for the protection of women's rights and to ensure the full, equitable participation of women in society, women, especially in rural areas, continue to struggle for access to these rights and continue to be disadvantaged.
Bobo (2012:12) further alludes to another of the challenges rural women are faced with being access to health care (that is public health clinics and hospitals for primary health care services). Some health officials are reported to be critical and judgemental of young women and fail to observe confidentiality. Female condoms are not easily accessible compared to male condoms and this creates barriers as well as the spreading of teenage pregnancies and HIV infections, further leading to school drop outs, maternal deaths and stigmatisation of young women. It has also been explained that rural young women in particular are likely to be more HIV infected than their male peers. They are predisposed to violence and risky sexual relationships. (Bobo, 2012:12). These observations by Bobo are shared by Sally (2010:40), who further points to lack basic opportunities for rural women. This is despite the fact that access to basic services is not only fundamental to women’s health and wellbeing but also impacts on the quality of life of their households.

Furthermore, the SABC2 TV news (broadcast on Monday 6 August 2012), reported that rural women in South Africa still face many challenges, yet they perform multiple roles as farmers, mothers, and homemakers. Most rural women are faced with poor access to social services such as health, sanitation and education. Some challenges faced by rural women include poor education and limited access to education, low literacy and skills levels, and inappropriate labour practices, lack of technical know-how compared to women in urban areas.

Delphy (1984: 23) argues that one of the greatest challenges women face in the society is oppression which is a result of patriarchal setting. Women’s oppression is a result of men feeling threatened by women’s superiority. Girls are socialised to be obedient to men as the husbands are seen as heads of families and while wives are seen as minors. Thus women have always been looked upon as the weaker sex whose role is restricted to household such as child-bearing and child-rearing.

Hassim (1991:77) argues that during the 1980’s in South Africa, organisations were interested in mobilising women for the national anti-apartheid struggle instead of mobilising women for their liberation from gender-based oppression. The mobilising process had the effect of reinforcing rather than challenging patriarchal relations of domination. Because the main reason of women’s oppression as stated by Delphy (1984:23) was patriarchal, this had to be dealt with first before mobilising women for the general liberation. Kruks, Rapp and Young (1989:56) maintain that women’s support for national liberation and the overthrowing
of apartheid would automatically lead to the overthrow of patriarchy. Even though in post-apartheid South Africa, patriarchal domination has been reduced, it has not been abolished completely. While in some parts it has been greatly reduced as one can find women involved in developmental projects, Gaiskell et al (1984:55) maintain that women's oppression in South Africa is three fold as blacks, workers, and as women. He terms this a “triple oppression”. Clara (1989:72) argues that the concept lacks depth and works only at the descriptive level. It could be the links assumed between race, class, and gender and the consequent analysis of gender oppression. Engels (1975:42), a Marxist, thought that when capitalism is overthrown and replaced by a classless society, the exploitation and oppression of women would also be wiped away and both men and women would have equal rights in the society.

According to Hargreaves and Meer (1999:9), the Department of Land Affairs in South Africa has a gender policy which seeks to translate the broader policy commitment to gender equity into practice. Many of the challenges to gender equity lie in the market space which continues to exclude poor people at the community level, especially rural women. Patriarchal systems, rules and practices undermine the state's pursuit of gender equity in land reform projects. Households with skewed internal relations determine who controls and benefits from household resources. Gender equity requires equitable redistribution of resources between men and women Hargreaves (1999:16) suggests a few factors which act as a challenge to gender equity goals and retard progress towards advancement of the interests of women within the land sector. There are problems with male dominance of leadership in many organisations which generally brings a diminished capacity and commitment to gender change internally and in the work of organisation. Also, when leadership is obstructive and resistant, the opportunity for gender strategy and organisational change is seriously constrained. A progressive movement towards an approach to programme and project management which is individually-based rather than team-driven is needed. The different values are placed on different modes of work. Again, internal social networks are used by dominant interests (often men) to entrench ways of doing things, shape strategy undermine resistance and consolidate authority.

Meer (1999:66) argues that there is need for conceptual clarity in the ways in which gender power relations determine access to land and the control of resources, power and authority.
There is a link between institutions and their orientation and the gendered nature of policy and practice. Kabeer (1994:36) thus maintains that the causes of gender inequality are not confined to the household but are reproduced across a range of institutions such as the state, communities and the market place. These institutions produce, reproduce and reinforce social relations. Kabeer (1994:7) argues that institutions are hierarchically organised with gender as one of the central organising principles. There are very few institutions which profess ideologies of gender inequality or any form of inequality. The state, not being a neutral institution, plays a role in maintaining inequalities. Kabeer (1994:18) further argues that gender awareness in policy and planning requires an analysis of the social relations within the institutions of the family, market, state and community in order to understand how gender and other inequalities are created and reproduced through their separate and combined interactions.

According to Greenberg (2002:6), the aim of rural development initiative is to develop the capacity of rural communities to build their own sustainable organisations as well as to engage actively in policy formulations. This requires rural development policy to root itself at the local level. Rural women have little or no say over what policy positions are adopted. As a result of culture of silence, this is sometimes internalised by women and sometimes imposed through the use of violence. The truth is that issues which rural women feel particularly strong about are under-represented in policy formulation. Attempts to develop a policy position without the continual and active involvement of the affected communities result in processes which are divorced from reality. Those developing a strategy are only present to the reality at the static intervals and would not get an adequate picture of what is actually occurring. Rural communities need to be empowered to articulate their own needs and desires. Supporting organisations needs to be present within communities in order to reach a depth of understanding of the specific forms of women’s oppression and the manner in which these forms play themselves out at the locality level.

In rural areas like Modimola village, there are minimal resources or government support and therefore difficulties in organising. Women in rural areas feel the brunt of under-development. This is because women make up the majority in rural areas and take care of children, the sick, and the elderly, fetch basic household inputs such as water and firewood, produce subsistence crops and reproduce the household on a daily level. Lack of basic
facilities makes women’s life more difficult. This is because the spent on a more productive task would be spent on all these other tasks. Levin and Weiner (1996) refer to this as the unfinished business because political liberation achieved in urban areas has not fully spread into the hinterland. Despite the fact that almost three-quarter of African women and 60% to 70% of African men over the age of 59 live in rural areas, priorities and budgets continue to be focused on urban development.

Governments need to listen to their local people as stated by the rural development initiative. This could be achieved through making direct connections with people themselves, or by engaging with organisations of people involved in rural development issues. Genuine participation should exist as opposed to top-down consultation in rural development. This is because it roots democracy more firmly into the society. Also, during rural development initiative workshops, women’s role in development has been greatly emphasised. The role of women in the provision of water, environmental management, food production, and health care have been undervalued and the call is for rural women to be given space to participate in decision-making processes and structures on an equal footing with men.

Women are said to be overburdened with work and that the most pressing need is the alleviation of the drudgery of women which includes fetching water, food processing, firewood collection, farming and many others (see Kandyoti, 1991:22). Tinker (1981:32) is of the opinion that women at all cost need to be involved in planning and also be central to it. Even when it comes to the introduction of new technologies, women need to be trained to use these technologies and have the means of controlling those related to their fields of economic activity. Women are also involved in storage, processing and marketing of food stuffs. Women’s role in these activities is however constrained by the use of primitive technology. Actually, women make use of primitive technology in farming and most of the time, are not trained. As far as development is concerned, confidence has to exist at ground level to develop the society without the need to impose entire development models from outside. That is the main reason why indigenous knowledge, skills and resources in rural areas must be recognised and developed. There is also the need for an active participation of people possessing this knowledge. In any development project in a community, the active participation of the members is needed because, when members participate, they would value
and respect the project thereby providing sustainability to the project. It has been recorded that many developmental projects have failed because of women’s resistance in the projects.

3.3. IMPACT OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS AND CHALLENGES FACED BY THE PROJECTS

According to Putnam (2000:2), one of the impacts of community development is that it stresses the importance of building the capacity of residents to address issues affecting their quality of life. Rubin and Rubin (1992:3) argue that local organisations contribute to community development in several ways. Firstly, community developments projects help develop expertise, either through collective or accumulated experiences, or through obtaining resources to hire experts when in need. In this case, community development organisations provide a stronger link between local knowledge and technical expertise, in so doing, helping to build the ability for residents to respond to problems quickly.

Green and Haines (2012:94) points out that community development organisation stimulate empowerment by providing an incubator for public participation, enabling residents to learn how to participate actively in development projects. The experience obtained often helps shape individual involvement in other organisations and institutions. Participation is a learned skill, often developed through formal and informal organisations. More so, community development organisations also play a key role in that they are embedded in local social networks. As a result, these networks become an important source of information. Social networks also provide community development projects with local knowledge that is so critical for implementing programmes and delivering services.

Swanepoel (1997:24) believes there are several impacts of community development projects on the community such as people becoming aware of themselves and their environment, of their needs and their resources. Moreover, activities which were established through community development have to be maintained and managed. Community development projects lead to new needs and objectives. Community members not only acquire confidence but demonstrate an enthusiasm to tackle further problems and become aware of the needs in other areas. In addition, the fact that the impact of community development leads to a successful project goes far and wide and others quickly become aware of changes for the better. A project which has been successful demonstrates to other community members that
standing and working together can make a difference. For example, when farm projects are successfully initiated, many more similar projects are started in that area.

Korten (1991:30) argues that one most important impact of community development is community building through enhancing institutional capabilities. Institutions become adaptable and development-oriented and through them, leadership is created and developed. Thus, effective community development, leads to more organised communities which become more appropriate, effective and efficient, and it also develops the ability to expand the outcome of the learning process. Through community development, skills of individuals are organised, negotiated, planned, acted or do specific tasks either gained or improved upon.

Swanepoel (1997:26) argues highlights another impacts of community development as the improvement in living conditions. As many centres will be built, for health care education, child care, housing, and lifestyles are expected to be improved upon. Jobs could be created and income generated leading to a reduction in crime rate.

The challenge for Green and Haines (2012:309) though is that, and as seen in Britain, the advent of technological changes and the globalisation of the economy and culture have made it more difficult for community development projects to enable communities to act on their local problems. Many people feel alienated and incapacitated because they have come to believe that they cannot effect change at the local level. In addition, individuals are more likely to maintain social contacts outside of the local community. Again, because people now live, work and consume in different places, their allegiance to specific places becomes much more diffused.

The challenge faced by community development projects is that societal trends seem to be working against community-oriented development projects. The society is becoming more mobile and individuals are less oriented towards local institutions than they used to be. At the same time, several forces are pushing for community-based strategies for addressing local problems. Most countries have marked a trend towards decentralisation of authority and decision-making due to pressures to limit the size of national government and physical constraints in the public sector. Decentralisation has obviously placed much stress on local communities and does not necessarily equip them with the tools to manage the problems they face.
Furthermore, Putnam (2000:4) argues that in the United States of America, the decline of social capital had implications for community development efforts. Residents in poor and minority communities are more likely to rely on neighbours and kin to meet their material and emotional needs. It thus appears to be a wide basis for social contacts and ties within these neighbourhoods. If local residents lack social and organisational ties, it is more difficult to mobilise residents to address local problems as well as to raise their consciousness about issues affecting their collective good.

Furthermore, one of the challenges faced by community development organisations, according to Green and Haines (2012:110), is the tension between public participation and leadership. The result is that if a community development organisation is successful in getting the community involved, they may lack the leadership to carry through their objectives. Conversely, strong leadership may be a deterrent for many people to participate in the organisation. Again, some real issues affecting community development projects are how to encourage public participation, avoid becoming too bureaucratic, obtaining external resources without losing control over the process, addressing multiple objectives such as economic, social, and environmentalism well as building the capacity of local residents.

3.4. SOUTH AFRICAN GOVERNMENT’S CONTRIBUTION TO RURAL COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

According to Graham (1996:25), the state through the development commission and through its definition of self-help, stimulated the voluntary effort to solve the problems of service provision through self-help projects. These self-help projects assist people in organising and governing control over resources and activities hitherto controlled by the state and could also be seen as empowering members in the community.

In South Africa, the government has created a comprehensive rural development programme aimed at creating sustainable rural communities throughout the country. The national rural youth service corps programme aims at enhancing skills development by providing unemployed youths in rural areas with opportunities to work in their communities and to be trained to provide the necessary services for socio-economic development. Development grant programmes are conditional grants which have been provided to municipalities to stimulate and accelerate investment in poor, under-served residential neighbourhoods.
Finally, home-based community care programmes provide health and social services to vulnerable people in their homes and train caregivers to administer these services.

In 2002, the government of South Africa implemented the Integrated Food Security Strategy (IFSS) with the objective to increase household food production and trade, improve income generation and job creation and also improve nutrition and food safety opportunities to all. The national government has the main responsibility for guiding the implementation of the programme and establishing equitable funding arrangements and well-structured approaches including formulating policy, creating enabling legislation and developing strategies for community development workers. It also prepares model job description application procedures and performance standards by promoting inter-sectorial collaboration and commissioning research and evaluation. Moreover, the government strengthens the periphery through capacity building in cooperation with other sectors by organising and sponsoring different national conferences on development.

Provincial governments have the main role of communicating, monitoring, integrating and supporting. They have the responsibility of adapting national guidelines to specific target districts and adapting generic approaches to specific language and culture. They are responsible for organising training institutions to provide both faculty and community-based training for the development of personnel mentioned in this document. They are required to promote inter-sectorial collaboration at district and local levels. This exactly took place in Modimola village as the provincial government had to dedicate the responsibility to the local government for the implementation of the project. Though the provincial government gave this responsibility to the local government, monitoring, support was provided to the implementation of the project. The women in Modimola village were basically trained and prepare by the EPWP to be able to participate in the project.

The local government has the role of providing and coordinating efforts to promote participatory direct democracy inward communities. They support community development mandate. The community development manager oversees the work of community development workers and provides guidelines to them as well as monitoring and evaluating activities of community development workers. The local government also plays a role of providing mentorship to community development workers during learner ships, ensuring that
community developments are effectively integrated into the work ethos of municipalities, creating an enabling environment for community development workers.

3.5. CONCLUSION

This chapter has examined and presented the literature review of relevance the study. The role of rural women in the broader African society and specifically in South Africa society, challenges faced by rural women, the impact of community development projects and challenges faced by the projects itself and government’s contribution to community development projects in rural areas were discussed. The next chapter gives an overview of the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) in South Africa.
CHAPTER FOUR
EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMME OF SOUTH AFRICA

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the history of the Department of Public Works and the Expanded Public Works Programme. The objectives of the Expanded Public Works Programme are presented as well as some achievements made.

4.2. BRIEF HISTORY OF THE PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

Public works has always been one of the key departments of government in South Africa, dating back to the apartheid period. In 1954, the apartheid government of South Africa established the Public Works Department (PWD). At the time, the main function of the Public Works Department was the construction of roads, buildings, railways as well as flood control, irrigation and military works. Thus, the PWD was responsible for the construction of infrastructure along with providing service to 24 ministries. The works of the PWD were not confined to urban areas; they reached into distant district headquarters, remote villages, near borderlands and even the largely inaccessible parts of the country. The result is that it has boosted unprecedented progress in the implementation of a diversity of projects. The department has been performing its task with a high degree of innovation, minimal expense and maximum workmanship.

The importance of this department continued into the post-apartheid period. After the first democratic elections in South Africa's history (1994), former state President Nelson Mandela announced a new cabinet whose ministries included that of Public Works. The latter was tasked with the responsibility of carrying out similar kind of traditional functions as those under the previous government i.e. infrastructure development. The basic principles of its public works programme, however, include community-based public works programmes aimed at assisting government fight against poverty and unemployment, and especially in rural areas. Key to these programmes is the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) which is briefly discussed in the next section.
4.3. THE EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMME (EPWP)

The Expanded Public Works Programme is a South African programme initiated in 2003 to reduce unemployment and alleviate poverty for at least one million people between 2004 and 2009. This was to be achieved by generating work opportunities in some sectors of the economy, and especially in infrastructure development, environment projects, and social and economic sector. It was founded during the 2003 government's Growth and Development Summit, EPWP constituted one of the key national policy priorities subscribing to the theme of Decent Employment through Inclusive Economic Growth (see www.epwp.gov.za, accessed on 12 April 2013). It is a national programme covering all spheres of government and state-owned enterprises. The first five years of the Expanded Public Works Programme were April 2004 to March 2009. According to the Consolidated Programme Overview and Logical Framework (2002), the goal of the Expanded Public Works Programme was to:

- Alleviate unemployment for a minimum of one million people in South Africa (40% women, 30% youth and 2% disabled by 2009);
- Provide needed public goods and services, and labour-intensity at required standards through mainly public sector resources and public and private sector implementation capacity;
- Create projects for community members in order to enable them to earn income and acquire skills through work experience opportunities, training, and information related to local work opportunities, further education and training, as well as Small Medium and Micro Enterprise;
- Build infrastructure through labour intensive public infrastructure projects. This could be achieved through low volume roads, sidewalks, storm-water management, trenching and material supply;
- Create work opportunities through public environmental and cultural programmes. This would include work for water, work for wetland, work for coast, tourism, domestic waste collection and agri-business initiatives;
- Create work opportunities through public and social programmes of early childhood development and home base care; and
- Develop small businesses and co-operatives, utilising government expenditure on goods and services such as catering, security, uniforms and cleaning.
The Expanded Public Works Programme’s Phase Two (i.e. another 5 year period) was launched in April 2009 at the University of the Western Cape. The goal was to create two million full time equivalent jobs for the poor and the unemployed. It was to be achieved through the delivery of public and community services.

The Expanded Public Works Programme is reported as having recorded a lot of successes, one of which is the impact it had in eThekwini Municipality in the KwaZulu-Natal province where community members were given training in community development work, HIV/AIDS, counselling and gardening, while also working in the Expanded and Public Works Programme’s projects. Also, many infrastructural development projects created employment, however temporal. Another success recorded by the Expanded Public Works Programme, according to Innovative Insight initiative (2004), it achieved a lot in the area of job creation as many people were employed, some working on roads, others in the pre-cast concrete manufacturing yards where kerb and gutter units are constructed.

In the North-West Province, the Expanded Public Works Programme was launched on 16 September 2004 by Minister Jeff Radebe and Premier Ednah Molewa. In the same year, there was the establishment of the EPWP agricultural project in Modimola village near Mafikeng where small emerging farmers produced cash crops for local and commercial purposes. The Modimola pilot project was a labour-intensive construction of internal village roads in the targeted Modimola village. The project also included the construction of farming infrastructure by small contractors, small scale irrigation farming by 30 small farmers on 0.054 ha and an upgrade of 10km of the Modimola village road by two small contractors. As a result, 100 permanent jobs were created alongside 200 temporary ones to be created in agriculture and construction.

4.4. CONCLUSION

A summary of the history and background of both the Department of Public Works and its Expanded Public Works Programme were presented in this chapter. The objectives of the department were also presented as well as the achievements so far for the Expanded Public Works Programme. The findings on Modimola village EPWP project would be examined to determine whether or not such projects are enabling the achievement of the overall objectives of the EPWP.
CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.0. INTRODUCTION

According to Strauss and Myburg (1999), research methodology is ‘a diligent and systematic enquiry of a phenomenon in order to discover or revise facts and theories.’ The main purpose of every design is to bind together the research and to make it a complete unit. Research design involves the procedure or process a researcher uses to collect data in any research endeavour. This chapter examines the research design and the methodology of the study, outlines the research method adopted for the study population. Case study selection, population size, interview strategy, analytical approach to data collection and ethical issues as applicable to research are also discussed in this chapter.

5.1. RATIONALE FOR A QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHOD

In the social sciences, there are two types of research methods. The research method chosen to be used in any research endeavour will depend mainly on the topic of the research. The research design adopted for this study is a qualitative research design given that the research seeks to investigate the role rural women play in community development. According to Creswell (2007), a qualitative design is ‘a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a human problem.’ Using a qualitative research method for the study enabled the researcher to have an in-depth understanding of the role rural women played in community development in Modimola village. The procedure involved collecting information (qualitative data) from women in Modimola village by means of in-depth interviews.

5.2. CHOICE OF THE RESEARCH SITE

Modimola village was chosen for the research because of it has recently had an Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) project. The village has a small population of 2 892 inhabitants. The majority of inhabitants in this area are women with a population of 1492 as opposed to men with a population of 1395. An investigation carried out by the researcher discovered that the development project in the village employed 30 people. Majority of them were women i.e. twenty-two (22) females compared to eight (8) males (see Table 1 below).
Table 1: Gender of participants in the project

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<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>22</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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As a result of this, it pushed the researcher into carrying out research in Modimola village on the role rural women played in community development. This is because rural women have been classified as uneducated and have no role to contribute to development. They are restricted to their role of child bearing and child rearing. When the researcher discovered that rural women were involved in community development project in that area, this was enough incentive to carry out research in Modimola village to understand the role they played and how the project benefited them and the community at large.

5.3. THE ROLE OF THE RESEARCHER

In qualitative research endeavours, the researcher acts as a key instrument in data collection. Qualitative researchers collect data through the examination of documents and by interviewing participants (Creswell 2009:46). Information was obtained from statistics South Africa which provided the researcher with the demographic characteristics of Modimola village.

5.4. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This purely qualitative study focuses on rural women in Modimola village, near Mafikeng, in the North-West Province. Since the research is a study that deals with human beings, their feelings, morals and values, participants informed consent had to first be ensured and secured as well as confidentiality guarantee. As Creswell (2007:123) maintains, in every research endeavour, participants must be informed and should know the risk or dangers in participating in the research.

At the beginning of the data collection, the central purpose of the study was mentioned to each individual interviewee Individual responses and identities gathered from the interviews were therefore not to be disclosed to the public without their consent. The researcher thanked
all the respondents for their participation in the research at the end of the project. As a result, basic ethical issues involved in research were fully observed and adhered to.

5.5. SAMPLING

For the purpose of this research, a non-probability, purposive sampling technique (which enables the researcher to use his/her expert judgement in the selection of respondents) as well as snowball sampling technique was used to select participants from Modimola village’s EPWP project in line with the research’s main objectives. According to Sarantokos (1988:153) snowball sampling is a process whereby it begins with a few respondents available. These respondents are requested to recommend other relevant persons who meet the criteria and who might be willing to participate. This process is continued till the researcher gets the required number of respondents. Thus both purposive and snowball sampling techniques were used to identify and select women in Modimola village who were involved in the EPWP project. The researcher conducted face-to-face interviews with the women who were involved in the EPWP. The interview questions solicited answers on their roles in the project and benefits derived from their involvement in the project, their demographic characteristics, and the challenges women faced in the project as well as benefits derived from the project. Possible solutions to those challenges were also sought from participants. A total number of 10 persons were in-depth interviewed.

5.6. FURTHER DATA COLLECTION

The researcher went to the field in order to get collect data from women who were involved in the EPWP project in Modimola village. Observations were also made at the project side and on the village. This enabled the researcher to get a vivid description and understanding of the project in Modimola village. Further data for the research was obtained through secondary literature comprised of journal articles, books, internet sources, and websites.

5.7. INTERVIEW SESSIONS

An interview is a face-to-face encounter between two or more people. It involves an interviewer and an interviewee with the aim of soliciting information that may be relevant to the research study. Denzin (1978:113) maintains that an interview is the qualitative researcher’s main data gathering device. Greef et al (2002:292) shares the same view by affirming that interviewing is the predominant mode of data collection in qualitative research.
Researchers should create a friendly atmosphere with participants to make the process interesting for obtaining information.

The purpose of the interview was to obtain information, get a deep and full understanding of the role rural women played in community development project i.e. EPWP in Modimola village. Follow-up questions were asked enabling the researcher to get clarifications on some of the issues raised during the course of the interview.

The responses obtained from the interview, the literature review and the background of the study did not only provide more light on the research problem, but went a long way in providing credible data that could be used in future to identify the role of women in community development, their challenges and how it could be improved upon. The interview questions were designed by the researcher and the questions developed from the problem statement and the research questions. The interview questions were made up of two parts. The first part sought demographic information and the second part consisted of items on the role women played in the project and its influence on their lives.

5.8. DATA ANALYSIS AND REPRESENTATION

According to Creswell (2007:148), data analysis in qualitative research consists of ‘preparing and organising the data for analysis, then reducing the data into themes through a process of coding and considering the codes and finally representing the data in figures or a discussion.’ Since this is a qualitative research, the data collected through the interviews were analysed through a detailed description of the case and its context.

The first process of analysing the data was to read through the interview questions. This gave the researcher a general sense of the information and reflection on the overall meaning of the data. The researcher also studied the interview questions, finding out what participants were saying, writing notes on margins and recording the general thoughts about the data. After reading the interview questions, the data was coded according to identified themes. Topics or themes were grouped that relate to each and arranged according to major topics and themes. A detailed description of each case and setting was analysed for evidence, conclusions, and evolution of the case.
5.9. PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

The findings of the research are presented in chapter six according to the themes identified during the analysis of the data. The findings are supported where necessary, with verbatim responses from participants. Prior to presenting and analysing the data in chapter seven a summary of the data collected will be presented to show the trends of the responses and what participants said during the face-to-face interview sessions.

5.10. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

One of the greatest challenges faced by the researcher was the use of an interpreter to assist in the data collection process. While it was highly necessary to use the interpreter who speaks local language of the respondents i.e. Setswana language, the process was however time consuming, and the researcher doubts if the answers obtained from the interpreter were the exact words of the respondent given that the researcher neither speaks nor understand Setswana. Also, some of the respondents were located very far away from each other making it time consuming and stressful as the researcher had to move long distances in order to get hold of the respondents.

5.11. CONCLUSION

The research methodology indicates one of the major trends and procedures in the domain of research and how the process was conducted. This chapter presented the project selection rationale, data collection methods, analysis of the data and presentation in the study. The research design and methodology adopted for the study are qualitative. Issues of ethical considerations were also covered in this chapter. The next chapter focuses on the case study and its findings.
CHAPTER SIX

CASE STUDY OF THE EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMME IN MODIMOLA VILLAGE: NORTH WEST PROVINCE

6.0. INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the presentation and analysis of data collected through qualitative interviews with 10 women to establish the role rural women played in a specific EPWP project in Modimola village, and how the project impacted on their lives. The analysis was also done in respect to the different sections and themes informed by the responses of participants such as demographic information, how they got involved in the project, benefits derived from their involvement in the project, challenges of the project, possible solutions and the way forward. Before presenting and analysing the data, it is of primary importance to examine what was identified in the field.

6.1. DESCRIPTION OF STUDY AREA: MODIMOLA VILLAGE, NORTH WEST PROVINCE

Modimola is a rural village in the North West province of South Africa, situated approximately 176 miles (284km) west of Pretoria and 163 miles (262km) west of Johannesburg. It has a total population of about 2,892, comprising 1,395 males and 1,497 females (see 2001 Census Statistics South Africa). Thus women are in slight majority (for the map of the village, refer to figure 2 below).

Most of the inhabitants in the area live on social grants and livestock. Many youths migrate to urban areas in search of jobs. Water is a major problem in the village and villagers make use of boreholes as their source of water (see figure 1 below as an example of such boreholes used in this village).
Electricity is also an issue in the village since the entire village is not completely electrified. Some households have electricity while others do not have. Sanitation is a cause for concern in the village. There is no garbage collection system in place. Inhabitants therefore have to dig large pits to dump garbage. Moreover, inhabitants of Modimola village use pit toilets. There are no tarred roads in the village and inhabitants use mainly foot paths. Roads are to be tarred and upgraded in the village as well as storm water maintained. There is however a health centre in Modimola which provides primary health care services. There are primary schools in the village where young kids receive formal education. There are no libraries.
though for learners to study and conduct research (see Integrated Development Report Mafikeng Local Municipality, 2011/2012).

**Figure 2**: Map of Modimola village

*Source: Statistics South Africa, 2001*
6.2. FINDINGS

A total of 10 face-to-face interviews were conducted with 10 women involved in the EPWP in the Modimola village farming enterprise. In addition, the activities of the project ranged from the sowing of seeds, weeding, watering, harvesting, packaging and loading into trucks in preparation for sale. Eggs laid by chickens were also packaged and sold at affordable prices within the community. Produce obtained from the farms were also sold to shops like Shoprite, Pick 'n Pay (fruits such as watermelon, paw-paw, and pumpkins; vegetables such as cabbage and spinach). Other main activities carried out within this project were the rearing of animals and the practice of agriculture through mixed farming methods. From the interviews with the women, the researcher found that most of the women involved in the project were between the ages of 35 and 45 (see Table 2 below).

Most of the women are single (unmarried) and only a few are divorced (see Table 3 below). They have on average, four or more dependents (see Table 4 below). As a result of this, women have to work hard in order to be able to take care of their families and/or households. Their educational level varies from those who completed grade 12 to those with school certificates (see Table 5 below). Most of them are breadwinners in their families and/or households, making them responsible to their families and the community.

Table 2: Distribution of respondents by age

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<td>20-29</td>
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<td>30-39</td>
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<tr>
<td>40-45</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>46-50</td>
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Table 3: Marital status of respondents

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<th>Marital status</th>
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<tr>
<td>Single</td>
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<tr>
<td>Married</td>
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<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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</table>

Table 4: Distribution of respondents by number of dependents

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<th>Number of dependents</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
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<tr>
<td>2–5</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>6 and above</td>
<td>1</td>
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Table 5: Educational level of respondents

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<tr>
<td>Primary school education</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
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</table>

The wages received by these women in the EPWP project ranged from one thousand three hundred rand per month (R1\,000.\,00\,p/m) to one thousand five hundred rand per month (R1\,500.\,00\,p/m). Most of the women got involved in the project after attending interviews which were conducted by promoters of the project. Thus recruitment into the project involved
interviews with women. This followed a community meeting in the village where the project was announced and introduced to community members. Those who were interested in the project remained behind after the meeting and were given an aptitude test and were later further interviewed by project leaders from EPWP office. Successful candidates were eventually recruited into the project.

All the respondents believe that recruitment into the EPWP project was transparent. Successful candidates were trained for a period of nine months and later given portions of land to implement the skills acquired from the training. The National Qualification Framework (NQF) certificates were issued to participants after successful completion of the programme organised by Taletso Further Education and Training (FET) College under the supervision of the Department of Public Works.

One of the key objectives of the research was to understand the role women played in this EPWP project. Most respondents indicated that they played an active role in the project as they were involved in the planting of seeds, weeding, watering, harvesting on the various plots allocated to them. It was a little stressful but they all enjoyed the job. Note for instance this response:

'I remember the project, it was so stressful, because you had to work real hard to meet your target, but at the end of it, I enjoyed the job.'

Rural women involved in the EPWP played key roles in the project. They did amongst others packaging of the produce from the farm, loading onto trucks for transportation, and sales in the village. The responses below speak to these:

"I played a role in the project in the sense that I planted cabbages, tomatoes, spinach, pumpkins, water melon and paw-paw, all of these were sold to the community members and to shops like Pick 'n Pay, Shoprite and Fruit and Vegetable".

Others responded by saying that their role in the project was in the rearing of chickens and selling eggs laid by chickens. A respondent stated as follows:

"I was concerned with the packaging of eggs to be transported and sold out of the village."

The project also led to infrastructure development in the form of the construction of roads, to make the area accessible to trucks for collection and transportation of produce. This later led
to community development in the village. As seen above, agents of development actively contribute to development. One of the participants stated that:

“I had the role of making sure that my own plot met its target of the day.”

Women employed by EPWP in this project benefited a lot from the project as they recorded that they could pay fees for their children; buy food, clothes and improved their living standards. As recorded from one participant:

“I really loved that project, with the project, life was a little bit easy, as I got money to buy food, clothes, and paid my children’s school fees.”

Another participant responded:

“With the money I earned, I was able to buy food, and even pay the children’s school fees.”

The project also empowered/equipped women with essential skills.

“It was really beneficial to me as I attended workshops for the first time in my life and acquired personal skills in subsistence farming.”

“I now have the skills of agriculture, especially in mixed farming methods.”

One of the objectives of the EPWP was to alleviate poverty, which it would seem was able to achieve, as responses indicated. More so, some do record that many things were achieved from the project as experience was gained. Women did not only acquire skills but also experience in farming. They could also start their own home gardening using the same skills and insights. Some commented that they had food in excess and this enabled them to bring food home, thereby eliminating poverty within their households. A tarred road was also constructed in the village due to the project helping to expose the village to passers-by. Others stated that the project was helpful because they learned methods of water preservation and could also buy poles for the fencing of their yards. The benefits of the project are clearly numerous as.

Another respondent said:

“To me, I benefitted a lot as it addressed the issue of unemployment. I was sure of a thousand and five hundred rand every month which I could manage and take care of my family.”
The workers were not the only ones who benefitted from the project, but the community too benefitted with the construction of a road. Those who owned livestock could go to the site and collect animal feed such as cabbage leaves. Many were happy with the project and stated it was the best thing to have ever happened to them, and wished that the government comes up with many similar projects in future.

On the other hand, even though many responded that they benefitted a lot from the project; those who joined the project during its collapse stages hold a different view. A few indicated that towards the project’s collapse, which was triggered by the Department of Public Works’ withdrawal and handover of management to of the local chief, began to lose the benefits that the projects yielded to them. This hand-over resulted in project management opened up corruption and discrimination. This is evident in one of the responses below:

“The project was running very well until when management was given to the local chief, many new persons were recruited into the project but on what criteria, we did not know and because he is so powerful, no one could challenge him but it involved a lot of corruption and bribery.”

Wages were no longer paid to workers and no further skills training was provided, while managing a large group of workers began to prove to be a challenge (thirty workers were employed in the project). Respondents stated that managing a large group of people could at times be challenging as people have their own ideas, ways and methods of doing things. Letting everyone come to a general agreement was a problem. Some of the respondents saw unfair labour practices and discrimination of women in the project. They stated that when women came late to work, money was deducted from their wages but when supervisors came late, no money was deducted. This, the women saw as being unfair practice.

Conflict would always arise when it comes to sharing ideas and trying to reach to a consensus. Those who worked harder were never motivated and incentivised as they would all receive the same wage as the wage paid to the lazy ones as reflected in their low work output. This discouraged hard workers. A meeting was held to address the situation but the issue was never fully resolved. As one respondent said:
“You will work hard and others will not, but when it came to pay time, we will all receive the same wage. It was really discouraging, the issue was raised during the meeting but no solution was provided.”

Another challenge for some of the respondents was the promise of shares by management which was never implemented. Wages were small for the output and to make matters worse, managers reported the job to South Africa Revenue Services (SARS). SARS had to deduct their wages every month, despite the fact that their wages were small. Others reported that another challenge they faced was that the job was tedious, especially during the harvest period as they had to work extremely hard to meet their targets. Towards the collapse of the project, two or more plots were allocated to one person making the job more difficult. A few of the responses referred to equipment being stolen such as the power generators, batteries, and borehole pipes used to pump water from the ground. Most respondents indicated that the challenges resulted in productivity decline and the eventual collapse of the project. This could be backed by one of the respondent’s view who responded as follows:

“The implication of the challenge was that productivity levels dropped and I later quit from the project”.

They are of the view that for the project to be salvaged, management should address problems and challenges facing their employees. Similarly, others responded that the challenges led to the collapse of the project with many workers finally quitting.

6.3. CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the findings interviews with the project participants. These include demographic and socio-economic profiles of the EPWP project participants in Modimola village, the role of women in the project, the benefits derived from the project which was mainly an improvement in the living standards of the life of women in the Modimola village and the challenges of managing a large of people, a shift of management to the local chief were issues discussed in this chapter. The next chapter will be on the analysis of these findings.
CHAPTER SEVEN

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

7.0. INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the analysis of the findings as presented in the previous chapter. The analysis draws on the theoretical framework and the literature discussed in chapters two and three. There was need to verify if the literature review correlated with the data collected from the field in order to finally establish whether the research hypothesis is confirmed or refused, meaning the lives of rural women have been meaningfully or adversely affected by this project.

7.1. ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

Available literature reveals that many rural women are uneducated. Boys were meant to go to school while girls had to get married. It was also revealed from the literature that women are marginalised in the areas of education, training, and health. This is contrary to the evidence collected as most respondents indicated some significantly high levels of literacy. There is a health care centre in the village for primary health care and schools for provision of formal education. This is consistent with the literature reviewed in this study which suggests that in the last few decades, there has been an improvement in the state of women following the international introduction of progressive gender equity policies and protocols. In South Africa, this happened mainly in the post-apartheid period in the last decade and half, as marked by the national constitution and legislative interventions such as Gender Equity Act.

The literature also indicates that women are the key brains behind agriculture in their communities. Most of the produce obtained from the farm was as a result of the hard work of the women. This can be confirmed by the fact that most of the workers involved in the EPWP project were women (i.e. 22 out of a total of 30 workers). This goes a long way to testifying that women are no longer completely marginalised and that their skills and capacities are beginning to be untapped under the current progressive dispensation.

The findings in Modimola village’s EPWP project suggest that while the project was unsustainable due largely to poor management, it did however positively affect the lives of the women who were employed in it as well as the community at large. It was noted that
these rural women were able to earn cash income for their households and the produce obtained from the project not only led to improvements in their living standards but also to the community as a whole. The produce was sold at affordable prices to community members thereby increasing food accessibility and their standards of living.

One of the goals of the EPWP was to alleviate poverty among one million people in South Africa with 40% being women, 30% men and 2% disabled. From the data collected, it could be argued that the project has attained part of its objective by reducing unemployment and alleviating poverty amongst women and other villagers in Modimola village. Thus poverty alleviation was attained in a way which led to an improvement in the standards of living within households. Respondents also stated that the living standards were improved as workers would always come back home with excess produce from the farms.

This positive effect of the EPWP project in Modimola village, it could be argued, is attributable to the initial participative approach that was used before its launch. The initial involvement of women and other members of the village community, through community consultative meetings, have seen those not keen in it staying out. Not only did this ensure that those with interest are finally employed in the project, but also that through skills training, the participants are appropriately equipped to efficiently carry out the subsequent tasks of the project. This therefore supports the bottom-up approach advocated in community development theory which is clearly influenced by the dependency theory as critique of modernisation theory. The advantage of such bottom-up approach is that the people would be able to define what their needs and preferences and in so doing would fully participate in the project. This would enhance the project sustainability because the participants value and are able to identify with the project’s objectives.

While this approach is in line with the sustainable development principles, it was however noted that the project’s sustainability in Modimola village could not be finally realised due to factors such as poor management and lack of continuous monitoring and evaluation of the project by the staff of the Department of Public Works. This is contrary to the sustainable development theory’s call for continuous learning and improvement as well as active participation of communities and capacity building. While, evidently in the initial stages, capacitation did take place and community members were involved, there was however no continuous learning and improvement of the project. The Department of Public Works
officials, as was noted, pulled out of the project leaving it to the authority of the local chief, which eventually led to the collapse of the project as corrupt practices infiltrated the project’s management. There was also a difficulty to manage large group of workers. Poor management and lack of accountability therefore led to the project’s final collapse. The equipment is currently lying unattended in the village and depreciating as it is no longer in use. These signal a waste of valuable resources as can be seen from neglected farms and equipment at the project site (see figures 3, 4 and 5 below). The project clearly failed not because of women, but because of poor management.

Figure 3: Abandoned EPWP project site with neglected equipment in Modimola village
Figure 4: Abandoned EPWP site in Modimola village
7.2. CONCLUSION

The researcher found that the project was the first of its kind in Modimola village. It was a project which made members very proud as individuals and community. The project created and raised awareness of the village in the province. Generally, the project was greatly appreciated by the community members and they wished it could be reinstated and/or that similar new projects could be introduced by government. This confirms the hypothesis of the
study which stated that community development projects such as the state-driven EPWP in South Africa give rural women a meaningful and active involvement in socio-economic activities, which in turn, not only contribute to positive development but in improving their standard of living.

Thus the above preceding analysis therefore suggests that while the EPWP project in Modimola village has greatly impacted positively on the lives of the women who were employed in it, it was however not sustainable. The project’s initial success and subsequent meaningful influence on the lives of rural women was attributable to the participative and empowering approach that was adopted prior to its launch whereby community members’ interest in the project was generated and appropriate skills transferred to the participants to ensure efficient operation of the project. Members in the village were trained on mixed farming methods in agriculture. This training lasted nine months and included courses on theoretical training and mixed farming, plant production and maintenance, pest control, applied business in agriculture, mathematics and communication. Majority of the trainees were women (28 in total) and men in the minority (only 8 farmers). One of the women records that, her involvement in to the EPWP changed the living standard of her family, as she is now able to put food on the table and is able to take care of her nine children: Members of the community who were involved in the Expanded Public Works Project also acquired various skills in road construction, road maintenance, building, roofing, and brick making. This initial approach was consistent with the participative community development theory and the sustainable development perspective’s principles. The project not only improved the immediate living conditions of women but also led to some infrastructure improvement for the village in terms of road construction. It was noted that the project’s sustainability was however compromised by mainly poor management, corrupt practices and the failure by the Department of Public Works to provide continuous monitoring and evaluation mechanisms.
CHAPTER EIGHT
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1. CONCLUSION

The purpose of the study was to examine the role played by rural women in community development in Modimola village, North West Province. This was done by focusing on the government's Expanded Public Works Programme, its contribution to community development and empowering rural women. The case of Modimola Expanded Public Works Programme was used for the study. It was noted that, the role of rural women in EPWP in the Modimola farming enterprise gave participants an opportunity to sow seeds, weed, water, harvest and package as well as load farm produce onto trucks for sale. The participants also acquired skills in development. Those involved in the poultry project had to rear chicken, take care of the eggs and also package the eggs for sales. With regard to the findings from the study and analysis, women can and do contribute to community development in their communities. The focus of the study was on an agricultural project where women were well represented and contributed extensively to the success of the project.

The benefits derived from the project were numerous, ranging from poverty alleviation, job creation, improved living standards, new road construction in the community, and development of personnel skills on the part of the workers, as well as some financial independence. This project was beneficial to the community as they loved and cherished it. The project made them proud of their community.

Though the project registered so many successes, it however, also experienced challenges. Key to the challenges was lack of monitoring and evaluation to ensure efficiency and continuous improvement. The handover of management to the local chief led to poor management and corrupt practices. Wages were no longer paid out and involvement of the South African Revenue Service (SARS) worsened the situation through tax deductions. These are some of the challenges the project encountered resulting in its eventual collapse. A good project cherished, embraced and appreciated by the inhabitants in the community was dragged through mud by the same people who had to preserve it. It is therefore necessary for EPWP to draw lessons from this experience and see how best the project and other future ones could be reinstated and introduced as poverty alleviation and employment creation initiatives.
8.2. RECOMMENDATIONS

From the research conducted and the analysis of data, it was revealed that women play a vital role and contribute to community development and even to the nation in general. Women should not be attributed to the role of child-bearing and child-rearing only because they have the talent and roles to contribute to community development in their communities and the nation. This was the first time a government project came to Modimola village and the impact was immense and appreciated by all and sundry.

Based on the findings of this research, the following recommendations are proposed: women should be encouraged to participate more actively and take part in decision-making processes as they contribute and play a vital role in development programmes. The project and similar ones should be reinstated and introduced; and the local chiefs with no previous managerial experience should not be allowed involvement so as to ensure stability in the functions of the projects.

Furthermore, considering the fact that roads in the villages are so rough and untailed, it is recommended that government should endeavour to tar the roads in the villages. It is often said that where a road passes, development follows. This will benefit the community as it will ease communication and movement in and out of the village.

If ever the project has to be reinstated, wages should be increased in order to motivate workers to work harder and stay longer in the project. Furthermore, security should be reinforced during the running of the project to avoid theft of equipment and other resources belonging to the project. There should be continuous monitoring and evaluation as well as improvement led by the government officials.

By and large, it was the first time government came to the village with the project of this kind. Many more of such projects should be created to help reduce poverty in rural areas. Lastly, the challenges raised by the women involved in the project should be examined and preventative measures introduced for future projects.
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APPENDIX

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS ON THE ROLE OF RURAL WOMEN IN THE EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMME (EPWP) IN MODIMOLA VILLAGE, NORTH WEST PROVINCE

This study seeks to find out the role of females in the Expanded Public Works Programme in Modimola village. Your voluntary responses will help me get a better understanding of the role rural women in Modimola village played in the EPWP, as well as how they benefitted from the EPWP project. The information you provide will remain confidential. Please feel free to express yourself. There are no right or wrong answers.

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3) Level of education;

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>No formal education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Primary education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Middle school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>High school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Tertiary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>University</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3) Are you the sole-breadwinner at home?

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4) What is your income level

5) How many dependents do you have?

6) Could you please explain how you got involved in the EPWP?

7) How would you describe the experience of working in the programme?

8) What are some of the benefits you derived from your involvement in the project/programme?

Did you develop and acquire any new skills from your involvement in the programme? If yes, what are they? If not, why is this so?

8) What activities did you carry out under the project/programme?
9) What are some of the challenges you encountered working with the programme?

10) How did you overcome some of these challenges?

12) Was it the first time that Government was coming to Modimola village with the project?

Do you have any other comment?

THANKS FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION