



**The Effectiveness of Tlhoafalo Basadi and Disaneng Youth
Projects as Sustainable Livelihood Initiatives in Ngaka
Modiri Molema District, North-West Province, South Af-
rica**

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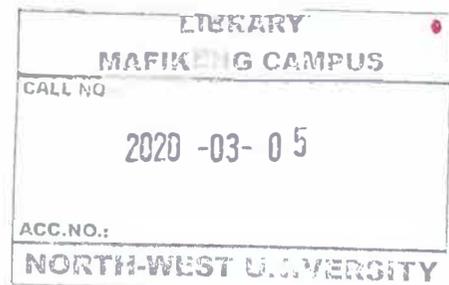
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degree *Master of Social Science in Development Studies* at
the North-West University.

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DECLARATION

I, Goldens Edah Lungu, do declare that the study “*The effectiveness of the Tlhoafalo Basadi and Disaneng Youth projects as sustainable livelihood initiatives in Ngaka Modiri Molema District, North-West Province, South Africa*” hereby being submitted to the North-West University-Mafikeng for the degree of Master of Social Science in Development studies in the Faculty of Human and Social Sciences has not been submitted previously to this or any other university for a degree by me. I further declare that it is my own work and that all material contained herein has been duly acknowledged to the best of my ability.



.....

Lungu E.G

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to:

My Husband

Paul Frank Lungu

My Children

Habiba Pauline Lungu and Jayden Asher Lungu

My Parents

Goldens Marko Moyo and Beatrice Moyo

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is with such relief that I have come to the end of this study. Henceforth, I wish to acknowledge the following people and institutions:

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ABSTRACT

The issue of poverty and unemployment in South Africa is an ever pressing challenge. For that reason, the government through the Department of Social Development (DSD), informed by the sustainable livelihood approach, facilitates and supports income generating livelihood initiatives to achieve its broader goal for sustainable community development. This study was done at Tlhoafalo Basadi and Disaneng youth project which are part of the initiatives in Ngaka Modiri Molema aimed at reducing poverty and unemployment. The main objective of the study was to assess the effectiveness of these projects in terms of reducing poverty and unemployment. To gather information, the researcher used open-ended interview guides, observation and focus group discussions. In total, twenty-one (21) participants, chosen purposively were available for the study. The population of the study included members from projects, DSD officials, municipal officials and traditional authority. The outcome of the study revealed that the projects were unable to realise sufficient income for their beneficiaries, an indication that they are not effective initiatives to graduate their beneficiaries from poverty and provide employment. It was also discovered that one of the projects could not thrive past its exit from the department. Amongst other objectives, the study also wished to ascertain the challenges faced in both projects as well as the types of support they received from different stakeholders. It was discovered that the projects had potential to be turned into successful livelihood initiatives if the challenges faced were dealt with. The challenges of insufficient skills and lack of market were among the challenges faced. As a result, there is a need for continued capacity building from various institutions through education, training and development, financial support and on-site mentorship.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ASGISA	Accelerated Shared Growth in South Africa
ANC	African National Congress
BNA	Basic Needs Approach
CARE	Cooperation for Assistance and Relief Everywhere
CDPs	Community Development Practitioners
CRDP	Comprehensive Rural Development Program
DFID	UK Department For International Development
DSD	Department of Social Development
EPWP	Expanded Public Works Program
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
IDPs	Integrated Development Plans
IDS	Institute For Development Studies
IISD	The International Institute for Sustainable Development
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
NDP	National Development Plan
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NMMD	Ngaka Modiri Molema District
ODI	Oversees Development Institute
OXFAM	Oxford Committee for Famine Relief
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Program
SIDA	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
SL	Sustainable Livelihoods
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
URP	Urban Renewal Program
UN	United Nations

UNDP	United Nations Development Program
WFP	World Food Program

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CHAPTER ONE: ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

One of the major issues confronting the African continent is poverty. According to the African Economic Outlook Report of 2018, Africa's recent growth rates have not been accompanied by high job growth rates. As such, poverty reduction has been retarded (African Economic Outlook Report 2018:41). Previous studies have further established that Southern Africa accounts for the highest number of those living in poverty (Chandy and Gertz 2011:8; Nyapokoto 2014:5). In South Africa, significant progress has been made since 1994; however, the National Planning Commission acknowledges that the country still faces immense challenges where poverty, inequality and unemployment continue to affect the lives of many people (SA MTSF, 2014-2019:4). A report on "the poverty trends in South Africa" shows that despite the general decline in poverty between 2006 and 2011, poverty levels rose in 2015; where more than half (approximately 30.4 million) of South Africans were poor with the poverty headcount increasing to 55,5% from a series low of 53,2% in 2011 (Statistics South Africa 2017:14). As a way of countering this problem, South Africa after 1994, embarked on policy reforms and introduced several programmes including the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) which sought to reverse and curb the injustices of the apartheid regime which left the majority of the people poor (ANC 1994:14). Other programmes introduced were the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (ISRDP) and the Urban Renewal Programme (URP) in 2001. However, in 2006, a study was conducted by the National Department of Social Development (DSD) to evaluate poor people's livelihoods and assess the impact of the services of the DSD. The results of the study demanded the department to rethink and enhance its identity beyond social welfare and protection to become the champion of the broader and long-term community development process anchored in a Sustainable Livelihoods (SL) approach (DSD 2009:1).

The SL approach has been useful to humanitarian and government institutions in the developing world and operates as a guide in the development of interventions for alleviating poverty. In South Africa, the SL approach provides guidance at both public and private institutions in designing and facilitating appropriate livelihood enhancing programmes and strategies (Luka and Maistry 2012:15). Strategies implemented in South Africa that reflect this approach include; income generating projects and cooperatives implemented through institutions like the DSD. Generally, cooperatives and projects are viewed as some of the mechanisms through which principles of the SL approach can be put into practice in order to improve poor people's

wellbeing, promote self-reliance and reduce poverty and unemployment. However, in spite of these efforts, recent studies reveal that the efforts have yielded less benefits to the communities/beneficiaries they are intended for, in the sense that they are less successful (Niesing 2012:72).

In light of the above, this study will explore the Tlhoafalo Basadi and Disaneng projects under the custody of the DSD. The department has within its vision for community development facilitated community projects as informed by the SL approach in order to realise its broader goal of reducing poor people's vulnerability and ensuring sustainable livelihoods overtime (Luka and Maistry 2012:16). The study seeks to assess the progress and the effectiveness Tlhoafalo and Disaneng projects as poverty alleviation livelihood initiatives in order to identify problem areas and determine successes which could then be the basis for recommendation to the policy makers and implementing institutions for replication of efforts elsewhere or amendments thereof.

Tlhoafalo Basadi project was established in 2002 by four unemployed members with the aim of fighting poverty, empowerment of women and youth as well as job creation. The project is located in Bodibe village, Kgomola section in ward 14, one of the most deprived areas in Ditsobotla municipality. Tlhoafalo project is currently run by 7 members. The Disaneng youth project is located in Disaneng village in Ratlou Municipality. The project was launched in 2008 by a group of young people who sought to address challenges they were facing within their community, including unemployment. The project's aim was to generate income for its members. The project was previously managed by 20 unemployed young people but the number was reduced to 8 members, two of whom were not so active.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

In pursuit of sustainable livelihoods and long term development in South Africa, development practitioners are increasingly in support of the SL approach. The aim is to ensure the implementation of long lasting solutions to poverty and unemployment especially in disadvantaged communities. This approach is greatly influenced by incidents of higher poverty levels and the complexity around its definition as well as its negative effects on the environment (Elliot 2006:9; Chandy and Gertz 2011:8). In spite of the progress made thus far, literature reveals that poverty reduction in Africa significantly lags behind other developing nations. As such, a large share of the population continues to live below the international poverty line of \$1.90 a

day (Beegle *et al* 2016:21). It is further indicated that Southern Africa has the highest concentrations of the poor and was projected to be even higher in 2015 at 39.3% (Chandy and Gertz 2011:13; Nyapokoto 2014:5).

Meanwhile, international organisations and Agencies such the UK Department for International Development (DFID), Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA), Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere (CARE) and the Institute for Development Studies (IDS) are also in favour of the SL approach to advocate and design appropriate poverty intervention programmes aimed at providing sustainable livelihoods while not undermining the natural resources base (Krantz 2001:6). Singh and Gilman (1999:540) stress that the essence of the SL approach is to eradicate poverty, and the main goal is to capacitate individuals, families and communities to take charge and improve their own livelihood systems in the present and the future. The approach also seeks to aid the understanding of underlying factors that perpetuate poverty. This is done by assessing those factors at different levels which may directly or indirectly undermine poor people's access to enabling resources thereby impacting on their livelihoods. A livelihood can be defined as any direct income generating activity in which individuals engage. McNamara and Morse (2013:8) define a livelihood as "a means of acquiring the necessities of life." An example of a livelihood source would be a small grocery shop, a dairy production activity or any other activity such as fishing. The SL approach thus puts poor people at the centre of achieving development (Patnaik and Prasad 2014:355). Drawing on Chambers and Conway's 1992 definition of sustainable livelihood, the IDS in (Krantz, 2001:3) defines sustainable livelihoods as follows;

A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources), and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base.

A livelihood is also defined as a means through which a household or community is able to achieve the wellbeing of its members and sustain it (DSD 2009:6). In the context of those definitions, Saxena (2015:19) and Farrington *et al.* (1999) assert that activities people adopt for

pursuing livelihood outcomes (health, income, self-esteem, reduced vulnerability e.g. food security) are not only influenced by their priorities and preferences but also by a wide range of factors including institutional processes and policies as well as shocks such as droughts, floods and crime.

Achieving sustainable livelihoods is therefore a complex process and demands a holistic approach in the way strategies are designed and coordinated. Based on the assumption that people are not poor and vulnerable in the same way, the SL approach seeks to understand those variations in order to find effective ways of enhancing livelihoods in an integrated manner, which is by taking into account links between different aspects of people's lives (DSD 2009:5; Luka and Maistry 2012:16).

1.3 ORIGIN AND KEY ISSUES IN THE SL APPROACH

The concept of sustainable development became prominent through the Brundtland report of the world Commission on Environment and Development. Sustainable development sought to link the socio-economic and the ecological aspects in a manner that was cohesive and relevant for policy design (Singh and Gilman 1999:540; Krantz 2001:6). Meanwhile the usage of the concept "Sustainable Livelihoods" was derived from the works of Chambers and Conway (1992) as indicated in Toner (2003:772) which advocated for the creation of livelihood strategies that accounted for long-term impact by maintaining the natural resource base for the benefit of others and future generations. The United Nations Conference on Environment and Development further expanded on the concept in 1992 to advocate for the achievement of sustainable livelihoods as a broad goal for eradicating poverty (Krantz 2001:6). Since then, the livelihoods concept has been employed widely by development practitioners and scholars in their endeavours as they sought to understand and respond to rural poverty.

Before the 1990s, development strategies were delivered in a top-down manner, an approach not supported by the advocates of SL. The SL approach suggests that solutions to poverty must not be delivered to communities that are passive (NPC 2011:4). Communities are passive when local people are only involved in projects that are pre-planned by the state or any other institution. Carney (2003:13) and DSD (2009:8) indicate that one of the principles of the SL approach is to be responsive and participatory, suggesting that sustainable livelihoods can only be achieved if facilitated in such a way that local choice is involved. For

that reason, it is argued that early traditional development approaches designed and implemented programmes in a top-down manner and that the pattern in which they were implemented deprived people of their sense of community and control, thereby perpetuating social and economic inequality (Davids *et al.*, 2005:96).

Scholars in favour of the SL approach suggest that focusing on livelihoods is one way of practicing sustainability (McNamara and Morse 2013:18). McNamara and Morse (2013) further assert that livelihoods approaches should be founded upon the appreciation of what underpins livelihoods. These are known as livelihood assets and they include; natural, financial, human, social and physical capitals. In economic terms, the word capital is used to mean 'factors of production' as coined by the economist Adam Smith in the 17th century (Morse and McNamara 2013:28-29). Livelihood strategies should also take into consideration activities that people engage in for generating desired livelihood outcomes e.g. health, income and education. That can be done by ensuring the availability and accessibility of resources and widening choices in order to enhance wellbeing and promote self-reliance. Therefore, the core objective of the SL approach remains to alleviate poverty by facilitating livelihood strategies that are resilient to environmental and other risks while focussing on people and their capabilities.

Sustainable Livelihood strategies seek to have a long term effect and to encourage partnerships with the communities. Carney (2003:23) asserts that sustainable livelihood strategies should not deprive people of their autonomy to pursue livelihoods the way they perceive is right for them, rather they should provide poor people with the opportunity to come up with their own ideas and be able to initiate projects for themselves. In other words, their rights and power should be emphasised in terms of them being in control of their own situations. The emphasis on rights and power issues entail the aspect of access and freedom in terms of; "do people have access to enabling resources?" and "what do they have to say about their own situations and resources at their disposal?" De Beer and Swanepoel (2011:51) suggest that outsiders i.e. anyone apart from the community or individuals themselves should not prescribe to the local people what their priorities should be in terms of improving their own lives. In other words, outsiders should be there only to facilitate and guide the implementation of the projects that have been decided upon by the locals themselves not to work it out for them, as Burkey (1993: 50) puts it.

1.4 LIVELIHOODS IN THE CONTEXT OF SOUTH AFRICA

Livelihoods in South Africa have, in the past, been influenced by the discriminatory practices of the apartheid regime. The majority of black South Africans (those living in former homelands) now classified as rural areas, were deliberately excluded from development. Similar to other African nations under colonial rule, this exclusion meant blacks could not have access to land, meaningful employment, education and other enabling assets such as proper infrastructure (Mufudza 2015:3). The result was that livelihoods were shaped around very limited means such as subsistence agriculture, remittances, and income earned on farms, domestic work as well as mines. However, after South Africa's democracy in 1994, livelihoods took on new forms incorporating a wide range of activities following policy amendments to include the previously marginalised. Attempts by government were aimed at reversing the injustices of the past and improving the quality of life of all South Africans (ANC 1994:14-15; Benya 2011:17). As a result of those amendments, programmes such as Land Reform, Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP), and the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) were introduced along with increased social assistance with the aim of widening opportunities for the poor. Other interventions such as market liberalisation, decentralisation and legislation on the improvement of service delivery were employed (Perret 2002:12). Thus Contemporary livelihoods tend to be centred on small business (both on and off farm), agricultural activities, pensions, grants, remittances and employment (Neves and Du Toit 2013:94-95).

In spite of South Africa's progress, it is argued that not all vulnerable people have had access to services such as grants to which increased improvement in wellbeing of the poor majority has been attributed (Liebrandt *et al.* 2010:10). Nyapokoto (2014:7) confirms that even after eighteen years following the end of apartheid in South Africa, the lives of many black people had not changed. While acknowledging the progress made, Liebrandt *et al.* (2010:12) assert that poverty remains a challenge in South Africa especially amongst black communities. Bailey (2011:10) further argues that South Africa's interventions under the RDP delivered its services to a passive community. The consequence was failure to effectively address all issues relating to the enhancement and sustainability of livelihoods. Previous development programmes in South Africa were believed to have been conceptualised based on the situations of apartheid and have now been criticised for employing a top-down strategy than a

bottom-up approach supported by envoys of the SL approach (Davids *et al.* 2005:43). Programmes delivered in such a manner fail to fully benefit or empower the poor as they are placed on the receiving end not having much control. Information/knowledge in that case comes from outsiders and is equated to mere involvement (De Beer and Swanepoel 2000:271). To that effect, Bradstock (2005: 251) adds that when poor people are enabled to access resources such as land, they ought to be given skills, information and training so that they are able to utilize those resources to their advantage.

1.5 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY

Various theories inform and guide contemporary development practices and research both in the community development discipline and beyond. However, since the proposed study is embedded within the context of Community Development, the Communicative Action Theory identified in Philips and Pitman (2009:28) used by community development practitioners and the SL framework will provide the basis on which the proposed topic will be explored and examined.

1.5.1 Communicative Action Theory

Communicative Action Theory is one of the theories that guide the practices of community development workers. More literature on Communicative Action Theory is reflected in the works of Guy (2004:2-8) who provided insights on the importance of communication as a tool for effective facilitation of development efforts. In his writings, Guy (2004) emphasises the effectiveness of two way communication with local authorities and other stakeholders which provides a platform for communities to communicate their needs. This platform further enables the stakeholders involved to identify factors that contribute to or constrain livelihoods of the communities or households. Therefore, Communicative Action Theory regards communication as an important aspect of a life world which occurs within the contexts of political, technological and market realities, without which community participation would be impossible (Stoecker 2013:50).

It is no surprise that this theory is deemed relevant in the community development discipline. This follows the assumption that by its nature, community development involves the participation of networks and individuals whose voices are part of the life world in a democratic manner. Therefore, in the community development perspective, it is assumed that

development occurs within the context of democracy that is deliberate and participatory. In this sense, participation is made possible in instances where a wide range of voices are heard so that the problem is explored, solutions to the problem tested and policy changes are made where the community sees it fit (Philips and Pittman 2009:28).

Communicative Action Theory further informs the self-help approach used in community development which emphasises the need for community members to learn how to address their own problems as per their own definition so as to improve their wellbeing. Green and Haines (2008:16), say that the self-help approach is a belief that community development is primarily about helping people to help themselves, that is by allowing them to communicate their concerns freely. In that way, facilitators become neutral agents in the change process and are there to just provide information as requested and facilitate the development of skills and knowledge. As a result, (Robinson and Green 2011:16) stress that community members become more active in their community through projects that address their own interests and concerns.

1.5.2 Framework for sustainable livelihoods

Sustainable Livelihoods approaches are based on the notion that people have complex ways in which they try to construct their livelihoods. As such, the approach emphasises the appreciation of those factors that underpin livelihoods (Morse and McNamara 2013:15). In turn, SL frameworks seek to build on people's assets/capitals and their strengths as well as their coping strategies which lead to livelihood strategies and outcomes (Patnaik and Prasad 2014:335). Various organisations (DFID, OXFAM and CARE) have proposed different livelihood frameworks for understanding, designing and implementing livelihood programmes. However, most frameworks seem to cover similar attributes, focusing on capitals/assets (Saxena 2015:19). Livelihood frameworks are intended to illustrate the interactions between livelihood assets, vulnerabilities and transforming structures such as policies and institutions (Toner 2003:772). The interactions between livelihood assets, vulnerabilities and transforming structures give rise to livelihood strategies which then lead to livelihood outcomes. Livelihoods can be analysed at different levels that is, at individual level, household (HH) level, local and regional levels. Figure 1.1 is a livelihoods framework adapted from the DFID as illustrated in Ashley and Carney (1999:47).

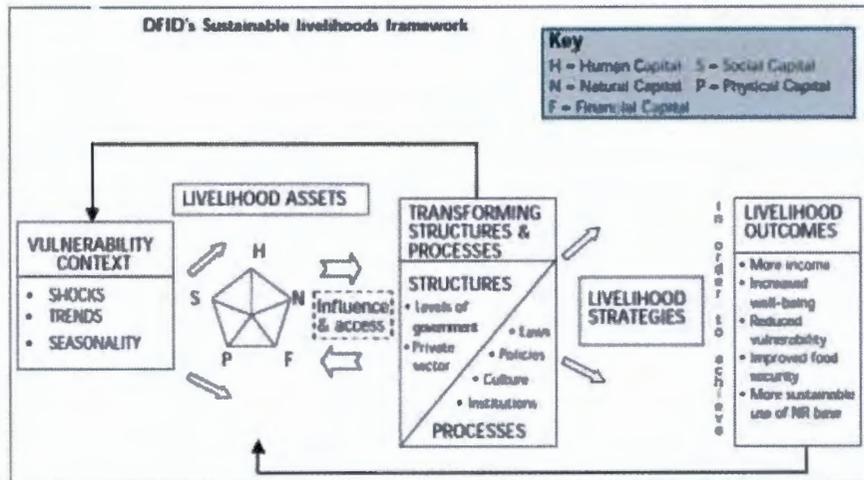


Figure 1.1: Sustainable Livelihoods Framework

1.6 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The proposed study will be conducted in NMMD and will focus on Tlhoafalo Basadi and Disaneng youth projects which are part of the poverty alleviation projects initiated under the community development chief directorate of the DSD. The projects were initiated with a general aim of generating income for its beneficiaries. There are also a few projects within the DSD intended for people with disabilities. However, they are not placed under the community development directorate hence they will not be included in this study. Income generating projects provide informal employment to the unemployed members of the communities where they are situated. They also provide people with income and access to production assets which could enhance their capacity and wellbeing (Niesing 2012:30). For that reason, development agencies regard income-generating activities as a priority (Kadozo 2009:34). There is a possibility that when these projects succeed, dependency on government grants and the burden of unemployment will be reduced significantly.

In the context of this study, a project will be classified as effective when (i) its beneficiaries are able to participate fully at all stages of the project and are able to determine the goals and design of the project; (ii) its beneficiaries receive support in relation to the project, e.g. education and training; (iii) its beneficiaries jointly monitor and evaluate the project; and most importantly (iv) its beneficiaries are able to derive benefits that are consistent with their livelihoods goals.

Ngaka Modiri Molema District is situated in the North-West province of South Africa. Figures 1.2 and 1.3 below indicate the locations of the North-West Province in South Africa and NMMD in the North-West province. Figure 1.4 is the map of NMMD showing its municipal boundaries.

Figure 1.2: Provincial boundaries in South Africa.



Source: <http://www.southafrica./provinces/php>

Figure 1.3: District boundaries in the North West Province



Source: <http://www.localgovernemnt.co.za/provinces/views/8/northwes>

Figure 1.4: Municipal boundaries in NMMD



Source: <http://www.localgovernment.co.za/districts/view/42/ngaka-modiri-molema-district-municipality>

1.7 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A research problem indicates the intent, objectives or major idea of a proposal or study (Creswell 2009:111; Mouton and Babbie 2011:103). It must therefore contain or give information about the researcher's focus to be explored in the study and reason (s) he wants to embark on that study. Similarly, Mouton (1996:101) says that the purpose of a research problem or statement is to give an indication of what a researcher seeks to achieve in his study. However, Bless *et al.* (2006:29) argue that a research problem should rather be specific than general. The problem to be investigated in this study can thus be stated in the following terms;

Tlhoafalo Basadi and Disaneng youth projects are some of the initiatives by government through the DSD in NMMD aimed at increasing livelihood choices and promoting self-reliance among the beneficiaries of projects and the communities at large. However, there have not been any attempts to determine whether or not the projects are achieving their intended goals. Recent studies reveal that most Livelihood projects do not remain sustainable over time; participants get frustrated and lose interest (Sithole 2013:2). Niekerk (2006), in (Niesing 2012:3) indicates that very few community-based projects implemented by government institutions and agencies remain active for longer than ten years. Therefore, this study wishes to assess the above mentioned projects in order to establish whether or not beneficiaries are able to derive outcomes that are consistent with their livelihood goals. This problem leads to the following questions:

- What are the objectives of livelihoods projects in the NMMD?
- What are the roles of different stakeholders in the implementation of livelihoods projects?
- What types of support do project beneficiaries receive?
- What challenges are encountered by the beneficiaries during and after withdrawal of outside help and how are they addressed?
- What are the successes achieved and what are the factors contributing to the successes?

1.8 AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to assess the effectiveness of the Tlhoafalo Basadi and the Disaneng youth projects in NMMD which are part of the sustainable livelihood initiatives implemented by the Department of Social Development. Recommendations will be made which are intended to contribute to a more effective implementation of the Sustainable Livelihoods policy in the District.

1.8.1 Specific Objectives of the Study

This study has the following specific objectives;

- To determine the specific objectives of the livelihoods projects in the NMMD.
- To analyse the roles of different role players in the process of implementing those projects.
- To analyse the types of support given to project beneficiaries.
- To identify challenges encountered by the beneficiaries during and after withdrawal of outside help and to find out how challenges are being addressed.
- To determine successes achieved and factors contributing to those successes.

1.9 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

There are scant studies relating to the proposed study in NMMD. Therefore, it is not clear how livelihoods projects under the DSD have contributed to the welfare of the poor communities in the area. In view of that, this study is to bring to light how Tlhoafalo Basadi and Disaneng youth projects have performed over the years. Additionally, the study will orient communities on the significance of such initiatives and their involvement, which will assist in appreciating their livelihoods. The study will further orient stakeholders to understand

and assess their own shortcomings where sustainability of livelihoods projects is concerned. It will also broaden the researcher's understanding of the SL approach to development. Ultimately, the study will contribute to the body of knowledge in the development studies discipline and provide insights for strengthening operations of projects and the sustainable livelihoods policy in Ngaka Modiri Molema District.

1.10 LITERATURE REVIEW

This study reviewed literature from journals, library and e-books, policy documents and government publications as well as past research papers that encompassed a wide range of themes which are related to the study. Literature was obtained from the North West University's library and electronic search engines such as Google scholar, SA ePublications, ProQuest and e-library. Some of the themes reviewed were; the meaning of development, sustainable development, the relevance of SL approach in South Africa, its definitions and principles, as well as income generating projects as livelihood initiatives in South Africa.

The purpose of literature review is to display scholarly skills and credentials (Silverman 2013:226). Literature review also helps the researcher to know exactly where his/her research fits in, and it is done through extensive reading of previous literature. Silverman (2013:226) asserts further that a literature review helps to show command of the subject area and understanding of the problem and also to justify the research topic, design and methodology. Bless *et al.* (2006:24) highlight several purposes of a literature review; these include; (a) deepening and sharpening the theoretical framework of a research, (b) enabling the researcher to familiarise himself/herself with development in the area of his/her research and (c) identifying gaps in the previous knowledge as well as weaknesses in previous research work.

Literature review gives a comprehensive review of previous research on the general and specific subjects considered in the study (Berg 2007:350). Therefore literature review should serve as a guide to the researcher by demonstrating where the undertaken study fits into the scheme of things, which is, prevailing thinking on the area under investigation.

1.11 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

A research design is a plan or blue print of how the researcher intends to do his/her research. Punch (2014:142) suggests that a research design is an overall plan for a piece of research including four main ideas, that is, the strategy, the conceptual framework, the question of who or what will be studied and finally the tools to be used for collecting and analysing the collected data. Hakim (2000: i) adds that a research design should provide a practical overview of the central issues involved in the social and economic research process.

1.11.1 Methodology

As part of the research design, Mouton (1996:108) and Silverman (2013:120) suggest that the methodology should state the type of research being undertaken; whether qualitative or quantitative. Berg (2007:351) asserts that the purpose of a methodology is to explain to the reader how the researcher will conduct his/her research to acquire valid knowledge or understanding. Similarly, Mouton (1996:36) suggests that a methodology refers to the section that describes how to do things or a total set of the means that are employed by social scientists in pursuit of valid knowledge. In this case, it should describe how exactly a research will be conducted to arrive at valid results.

Silverman (2013:123) further explains that methods are technics or tools of the trade for social scientists and are chosen on the basis of criteria related to the major elements of methodology in which they are embedded.

1.11.2 Qualitative and Quantitative Research

Hakim (2000:34) points out that a qualitative research is mainly concerned with individual's own accounts of their behaviour, attitudes and motivations. In this way, qualitative research presents descriptive reports of individual's perspectives, attitudes, beliefs, views and feelings. Qualitative research is thus used for explanatory or exploratory studies where people are the central units of analysis to determine their perceptions and behaviours. Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009:167) indicate that qualitative research seeks to understand, in depth, the viewpoint of the research participants and its purpose is to interpret meaningful human actions and interpretations that people give of themselves and others.

On the other hand, quantitative studies usually rely on measurement and scales to compare and analyse different variables (Bless *et al.* 2006:43). Unlike qualitative studies, quantitative methodology relies on the use of measurement (a process by which data is turned into numbers) and scales to compare and contrast relationships between two or more variables.

To find out the effectiveness of Tlhoafalo Basadi and Disaneng youth projects, a qualitative research approach was adopted, involving a descriptive method. As Mouton and Babbie (2001:53) put it, a qualitative research attempts to study human action from the insider's perspective. Its goal is not to generalise the results but aspires towards describing and understanding human behaviour (Bless *et al.* 2013:162).

1.11.3 Study Population

The study population comprised of officials from the DSD, representatives from the traditional authorities, officials from the municipalities as well as the project members. Officials from the DSD included the acting Chief Director, (Community Development Chief Directorate) along with his/her subordinates, under whom the projects under investigation directly fell. The project manager and the Community Development Workers (CDPs) were also included. From the Municipalities, only ward counsellors of where the projects are located were included. In this study, participants from the DSD, from traditional authorities, municipalities and custodians (chairpersons, secretaries and treasurers) of the projects were classified as key informants.

1.11.4 Sampling and sample size

Payne and Payne (2004:200) suggest that sampling is a process of selecting a sub-set of people or social phenomena to be studied from a larger universe to which they belong. According to Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009:26), a sample is referred to as a subset of the whole population which is being investigated by the researcher. Mouton (1996:132) further defines sampling as a process of selecting things or objects (units of analysis) from a larger universe when it is impossible to include all elements of a larger collection of these objects. The aim of selecting this sample is to produce a set of representatives from a target population.

Nachmias and Nachmias (1996:179) indicate that the purpose of sampling is to reduce costs and make it easier for researchers to conduct research. Without sampling, it would be impossible to include all the elements of the population in the study (Vanderstoep and Johnston 2009:28). There are two types of sampling technics namely;

- **Non-probability sampling:** It refers to the case where the probability/chance of including each element of the population in a sample is unknown. In this case, some elements may not have the chance to be included in the sample. Hence it is difficult to tell how well the sample represents a population (Bless *et al.* 2006:86). Similarly, Nachmias and Nachmias (1996:183) assert that in non-probability sampling, there is no way of specifying the probability of each sampling unit's inclusion in the sample and there is no guarantee that each unit has the same chance of being included in the sample.

Non-probability sampling is defined by Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009:27) and McIntyre (2005:105) as a method which involves selecting sampling units on the basis of availability, willingness and essence rather than representativeness. Furthermore, this method of sampling relies on the researcher's own mature judgement of the best cases to be selected for the study. (Bless *et al.* 2013:177.)

- **Probability or random sampling:** It occurs when the probability of including each element of the population is determined. With this type of sampling, it is possible to estimate the extent to which findings based on the sample are likely to differ from what would have been found by studying the whole population (Bless *et al.* 2006:86). In the same way, (Tracy 2013:134) indicates that in random sampling, the probability of including each sampling unit in the sample can be specified and each unit possesses an equal opportunity to be included in the sample.

This study used purposive sampling, a non-probability sampling method to select respondents. Purposive sampling is a deliberate strategy of selecting participants based on their willingness, experience, knowledge, and qualities targeted by the researcher (Neuman 2011). Purposive sampling requires critical thinking about the perimeters of the population to be studied in order to carefully select a sample, and it is used widely by qualitative researchers. That is because qualitative researchers are concerned with settings, groups and individuals where the processes being investigated are most likely to occur (Silverman 2013:148; Tracy 2013:134).

The study population included all the active members of the Tlhoafalo Basadi and the Disaneng Youth projects as well as some representatives of the DSD, Municipalities, and traditional authorities. These were selected based on their willingness, experience and knowledge of their projects and were regarded as the best fit for the study by the researcher. Initially, the sample size of 38 participants was targeted by the researcher; however, only 21 were available due to high member turnover in both projects. Amongst these, 14 were key informants (4 from DSD, 2 from tribal authorities, 2 from municipalities and 6 project leaders), and 7 were mere project members. Note that the 6 project leaders also formed part of the focus group discussions.

1.11.5 Data Collection methods

According to Bless *et al.* (2013:183), data is collected through scientific observation. This data, in qualitative studies, is not necessarily to be expressed numerically as it is the case with quantitative studies. In qualitative studies data could mean ideas of people about a certain issue, occurrence or object, or their feelings or attitudes towards it, not necessarily determined numerically.

Data collection entails a process of gathering information from the chosen population by the researcher (Vanderstoep and Johnston 2009:47). This process can be done through a questionnaire, observation, focus group discussions or interviews depending on the type of methodology used by the researcher, which is qualitative or quantitative or combined. Bless *et al.* (2013: 187-195), identify similar methods of data collection.

Data were collected from key informants using face to face in-depth interviews with the help of a semi-structured interview guide, containing open ended questions. The semi-structured interview guide allows for flexibility in the sense that the researcher is able to adjust questions and probe or clarify concepts when there is need to do so (Bless *et al.* 2013:197). To collect data from project members, focus group discussions were conducted using a semi-structured interview guide with open-ended questions. Another method of data collection which was used but to a lesser extent was observation, where participants were observed as they performed their duties during research visits.

1.11.6 Data Analysis

Data analysis is defined as a process of demonstrating the meaning of written and visual sources by systematically allocating their content to predetermined, detailed categories, and then both qualifying and interpreting the outcome (Payne and Payne 2004:51). It was originally used by quantitative researchers but is now being used by qualitative researchers in codifying and analysing their field notes or data (Abrahamson, in Berg 2007:307).

Mouton and Babbie (2001:491) define data analysis as a process of examining words, phrases within a wide range of texts, including books, essays, interviews and speeches as well as informal conversations. The examination of the repeated words, phrases then enables a researcher to make conclusions about the philosophical assumptions of the audience for which a piece is written.

Data were analysed using content analysis, a method used to analyse systematically the meaning of communications (Bless *et al* 2013:352). In this case, interviews were first transcribed and then data were read over and over again to get the holistic feel of all responses. Thereafter, data were coded into categories that corresponded with the research questions and objectives of the study appropriately. Coding is a process where original transcripts are broken down and classified into various categories (Bless *et al.* 2013:342). Once data were put into categories, the themes that emerged were drawn out and used to write up the findings. The purpose of data analysis is generally to discover patterns that point to theoretical understanding of social life (Mouton and Babbie 2010:400).

1.12 ETHICAL REQUIREMENTS

Ethical practice is defined as a moral stance that involves conducting research to achieve not just high professional standards, but also respect and protection for the people actively consenting to be studied (Payne and Payne 2004:66). In qualitative research, ethics are concerned with the researcher's behaviour ensuring that it stays in line with the set principles according to the discipline thereof (Bless *et al* 2006:140).

The study carefully considered the ethical principles set for social science researchers. Permission from the DSD was sought by means of a formal letter to the acting head of department. An ethical clearance was also sought prior to data collection from the ethical clearance committee of the North West University. Finally, Informed consent was requested from

prospective participants prior to data collection, which helped them to make informed decisions about whether or not they wanted to participate in the study. Issues of fair participation, confidentiality, anonymity and other relevant principles were also considered, in the sense that participants were all given the opportunity to respond according to what they felt. The researcher also made sure that the names of participants were not mentioned anywhere in the study.

1.13 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Language was a limitation in this study as some participants did not understand and express themselves well in the English language. This could have easily resulted in the distortion of data but the challenge was overcome by involving an interpreter who helped clarify the questions to the respondents and the responses to the researcher whenever it was necessary. The interpreter was always by the researcher's side when focus group discussions were conducted and when custodians of the projects were interviewed.

1.14 OUTLINE OF CHAPTERS

Chapter 1: Background and problem statement

The first chapter provides an orientation of the study background, the problem statement, and objectives of the study and the methodology which were used.

Chapter 2: Literature review

The second chapter reviews literature from various scholars relating to the study. Important concepts encountered throughout the study were also defined under this chapter.

Chapter 3: Research design and methodology

The third chapter provides a clear and detailed description of the research design, methodology and analysis used in the study. The socio-economic conditions of the study area were also provided. The aim of the chapter is to orient the reader on the circumstances that surround the area of study which have resulted in the government initiating income generating projects as part of the livelihoods initiatives.

Chapter 4: Data analysis and findings

The fourth reveals the analysis and interpretation of data collected from the two projects; Tlhoafalo Basadi and Disaneng youth. The aim is to examine and demonstrate the meanings of words or field notes collected through interviews and focus group discussions in order to come up with the conclusions to the study

Chapter 5: Discussion of research findings, conclusion and recommendations

The final chapter discusses the findings of the study and makes logical conclusions based on those findings as well as providing recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter was an orientation to this study. It highlighted that early traditional development practices did not reduce poverty, instead, the number of poor people continued to grow prompting a shift to Sustainable Livelihoods as an ideal approach in dealing with poverty. This chapter thus expands on the introductory concepts defined in the first chapter and defines other important concepts to be encountered throughout this study. It will also provide a background of past development approaches, which in part influenced the emergence of sustainable livelihoods thinking and then discuss the concept of sustainable livelihoods as an alternative approach to poverty reduction. Other relevant aspects to be considered in this chapter are community participation and the value of communication in sustainable development, income generating projects as livelihoods initiatives in South Africa, factors influencing the adoption of the SL approach in South Africa and some legal underpinnings on sustainable development.

2.2 DEFINITIONS OF OPERATIONAL CONCEPTS

2.2.1 POVERTY

The term “poverty” means different things to different people. Schenk *et al* (2015:8) use the term “poverty” to mean situations and experiences of lack, scarcity, deficiency, deprivation or want. In the community development perspective, poverty refers to all that holds people back from a full human life or the extent to which the needs of people (those that promote a healthy and long life) are not met. The absence or limitations on choice in meeting human needs such as access to education, upholding of human rights and security of political and social freedoms are all examples of poverty according to Schenk *et al* (2015:8). In the same vein, Narayan *et al.* (2000) in Botchway (2013:265) describe poverty as *a condition of being deprived of well-being, being vulnerable to events outside one’s control, being isolated and living below acceptable socio-economic norms or prescriptions of society and being psychologically and politically indisposed*. The following are some of the manifestations of poverty as highlighted in Botchway (2013);

- Lack of resources to sustain livelihoods,
- Limited or no access to basic services such as water, health and education,
- Hunger and malnutrition,
- Increased morbidity and mortality,
- Living in unsafe and insecure environment,

- Poor or no housing,
- Lack of participation in social, cultural or political life, and
- Social discrimination.

2.2.2 RURAL DEVELOPMENT

The concept of rural development is multi-dimensional. It encompasses a number of aspects ranging from improved service delivery to enhanced income generation opportunities. Rural development is aimed at providing livelihoods that are sustainable overtime in a manner that is inclusive. Thus in defining it, rural development is a process of facilitating change in communities that are non-urban in order to enable poor people to earn more and invest in themselves and their communities as well as contribute toward the maintenance of infrastructure that are key to their livelihoods (ISRDS 2000:19; Nakkiran and Ramesh 2009:12). In the long run, that means poor people should be able to identify opportunities on their own and be able to act on them. In the same context, (CRDP 2009–2012:36) regards rural development as actions and initiatives taken to improve the living standards of communities in non-urban areas.

2.2.3 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Definitions of the concept of sustainable development are quite many, more than 70 definitions as indicated in (Elliot 2006:9). The most common definition is that of the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) commonly known as the Brundtland Report of 1987. In this report, sustainable development is defined simply as development that meets the present needs without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (Elliot 2006:7; De Beer and Swanepoel 2000:63). The recent definition for sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present while safeguarding Earth's life-support system, on which the welfare of the current and future generations depend (Griggs *et al.* 2013).

Liebenberg and Stewart (1997:126) suggest that development should be long term; it must be maintained over time. For this reason, efforts ought to be made to ensure a continuous flow of resources and making sustainable its benefits. Sustainability further implies the ability to exercise choice, access to opportunities and resources and using them in ways that do not foreclose options for others to make a living, either now or in the future. Similar thinking is advanced by Niesing (2012:20), who in the community development context refers to sustainability as “the ability of the projects to continue to produce products or deliver services

and sustain benefits after the departure of the developing agency.” Sustainability is an important concept of the SL framework as it denotes the continuity of poverty reduction, environmental protection, and social and institutional continuity (Singh and Gilman 1999:540; McNamara and Morse 2013:1).

2.2.4 COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

The definition of community development is problematic and stands debatable. However, various scholars have attempted to define it using practical characteristics. In an effort to understand what community development is, it is worthy of note that community development comprises of two words; “community” and “development”. These should first be understood to form a complete meaning of the two words combined. In general terms, Swanepoel and De Beer (2011:61), define community as a unique living entity which undergoes a continuous physical and psychological change. Cascante and Brennan (2012:294) define a community as a locality comprising of people residing in the same geographical area. In this definition, a community is associated with a place where people or residents share a social relationship. Robinson and Green (2011) and Niesing (2012) further add that these people do not only share relationships but also have common interests. These interests are related to their territory/geographical area and can be anything from environmental to economic factors threatening the quality of their lives.

In the same sense, development means different things to different people or disciplines. It is multi-faceted and has many different definitions to suit the perspective in which it is being looked at. Most scholars will however, agree that development is a process of change towards a better or improved state. This could mean a process where people are being empowered to take charge of their own wellbeing or in economic terms could mean an increase in national income per capita (Todaro and Smith 2009:14). Having understood the meanings of both words “Community” and “Development,” scholars conclude that “community development” should then mean a social process of involving residents in activities designed to improve their quality of life or wellbeing. It can also be defined as networks of actors engaged in activities through associations in a place (Robinson and Green 2011:2).

2.2.5 EMPOWERMENT

Empowerment refers to the enhancement of social justice where the marginalised or the powerless people obtain power and are able to utilize it in terms of them having access to and control of resources to achieve development goals (Liebenberg and Stewart 1997:125; Schenk

et al 2015:93). The ability to have access to and control of the resources then enables them to have raised morale to an extent that they become capable of achieving what they could not when they had no power (Davidset al. 2005:21). Ferndrigger in (Niesing 2012:16) identifies the following types of power involved in community development initiatives;

- Power over personal choices,
- Power over definition of needs,
- Power over resources,
- Power over ideas, and
- Power over economic activities.

Empowerment has two components namely; equity and capacity building. Equity is when the poor receive a fair distribution of resources and opportunities, while capacity building entails a process of strengthening personal and institutional ability to undertake tasks (De Beer and Swanepoel 2000:134; Swanepoel and De Beer 2011:26). Thus empowerment is a process that incorporates and puts personal development at the core of everything else.

2.3 PAST DEVELOPMENT APPROACHES

Robinson and Green (2011:76), in a statement below, posed an interesting question which should be a starting point for putting contemporary development into perspective.

The motto for community development in the 1960s could have been this: “give people a fish and they will eat for a day.” The 1970s motto could have been: “teach people to fish and they will eat for a life time.” The 1990s (and beyond) approaches should ask the question: “who owns the pond?”

The statement above, although in this case linked directly to community development, can be used generally to picture what development should entail. The question raised, “who owns the pond?” is directly linked to aspects of access and control of certain resources vital to the improvement of the wellbeing of the poor. Concerns about who owns development and the means thereof have all contributed to the development paradigm shifts that have occurred since the 1960s. The following is a brief highlight of past development practices and how they evolved overtime.

Past development practices did not yield much of the expected outcomes in terms of poverty reduction. Poverty levels continued to rise in the developing countries and it was mainly attributed to the use of top-down models. During the 1950s, development practitioners were keen on seeing the development of their states following Rostow's growth model of development. Rostow's theory of modernisation emphasised the need for developing nations to mobilise savings both domestic and foreign so as to generate sufficient investment that would foster economic growth (a point of justification for foreign aid) which would later translate into improved wellbeing of the poor by means of trickling down the benefits to them (Todaro and Smith 2009:114; Willis 2011:103). Sustainable livelihoods scholars argue this was a narrow approach in dealing with the issue of poverty and did not always work. The reason underlying this was that the model focused on the aspect of income alone and not aspects such as vulnerability and social exclusion which are vital aspects in the understanding of poverty. Krantz (2001:6) argues that while economic growth may be essential for poverty reduction; there is no automatic relationship between the two since it depends on the capabilities of the poor to take advantage of expanding economic opportunities.

After modernisation theory failed to trickle down the effects to the poor, Community development, traced as far back as the 1920s in India, became popular in African colonies and was given priority. It was however not common in South Africa due to its potential for political change (Luka and Maistry 2012:30; Westoby 2014:10). Community development's focus was and still is on transitioning poor communities from being dependant on outside help to self-sufficiency through self-help mechanisms (Swanepoel and De Beer 2011:35). The 1970s saw the rise of the transformation approach which encouraged heavy reliance on mechanised technology in industries and in the agriculture sector for increased output. Agricultural commodities were seen as major ways for increasing national income and according to the early definition, increased income or a growing economy meant development (Ellis and Biggs 2001:440; Todaro and Smith 2009:15).

Between the period 1970 and 1980, there was a growing realisation that the benefits of development were not extending to the rural people and poverty was wide spread. This led to the adoption of Integrated Development ideas such as the integrated sustainable rural development projects (ISRDPs), the "Basic-Needs" (BNA) and the "Redistribution with Growth" Approaches (Ellis and Biggs 2001:438; Willis 2011:103). The ISRDP and Integrated Development Programmes (IDPs) in general were met with criticisms that they did not consider involving the local people properly in a participatory process and failed to build

capacity in individuals (ISRDS 2000:3). The BNA required public services provision to be expanded and developed to meet the basic needs such as access to health, education, clean water, transport, and many more (Willis 2011). According to Kadozo (2009:3), poverty was defined as a deficit, to mean that poor people lacked shelter, clean water, health services, and food; hence interventions were mainly to provide the missing things. In spite of all these things being necessary for the promotion of wellbeing, this again was a narrow conception of what poverty entailed, thus did not help much.

By the 1990s the situation of poverty had worsened. The effects of Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) introduced in the late 1970s and early 1980s by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank were still apparent. Due to mounting foreign debt problems, developing nations were forced to cut back on social and economic programmes (Todaro and Smith 2009:15; Willis 2011:56). This resulted in further research and the development of methods for analysing rural poverty in order to find better ways of alleviating it such as the provision of micro-credit, promotion of rural safety nets and the promotion of a free market economy (liberalisation). Meanwhile, themes such as environmental sustainability, good governance, decentralisation, participation and social protection were gaining momentum and were put into practice. During the 2000s, poverty was no longer looked at in terms of just reducing or alleviating it but to completely eradicate it (if possible). It was within this context that many scholars and practitioners' interests grew towards the themes of the grassroots and the sustainable livelihoods approaches to development. These shifts in development practices are a clear indication that the definition for poverty is complex. Chambers (1993) in (Kadozo 2009:3), indicates that poverty is a whole complex of issues which includes isolation, material deprivation, dependency and subordination, lack of assets, insecurity and vulnerability to disease and natural disasters. As such, there is a need to approach it holistically from all angles.

2.4 SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS (AN ALTERNATIVE APPROACH TO POVERTY REDUCTION)

Sustainable livelihood thinking is based on the idea that the participation of individuals and communities is crucial in defining and solving their own poverty. As noted in the first chapter, the approach is based on the assumption that people are not poor or vulnerable in the same way and so they construct their livelihoods differently. That said, it is essential to identify those local variations in order to develop effective mechanisms/strategies for fighting poverty (Davidset *al* 2009:40; Mazibuko 2013:175). Unlike approaches focused on the

income aspect in reducing poverty, sustainable livelihoods views low income groups and individuals as active agents in successful poverty reduction strategies. As a result, Sustainable livelihood maintains that any intervention to reduce poor people's vulnerability should fit into people's lives and the wider institutional contexts of government, civil society and private enterprises (Mauto 2013:35).

The term "sustainable" refers to the continuation over the longer term and "livelihood" to that which constitutes a means of living or sustenance. In simple terms, a livelihood is defined as a means through which a household or community is able to achieve the wellbeing of its members and sustain it (DSD 2009:6; Schenk *et al* 2015:31). According to Chambers and Conway (1992) in (Chikadzi 2014:598) and Krantz (2001:6), "a livelihood comprises the capabilities and assets (stores, resources, access and claims) and activities required for a means of living; a livelihood is sustainable which can cope with and recover from shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation; and which provide net benefits to other livelihoods at local and global levels and in the short and long term."

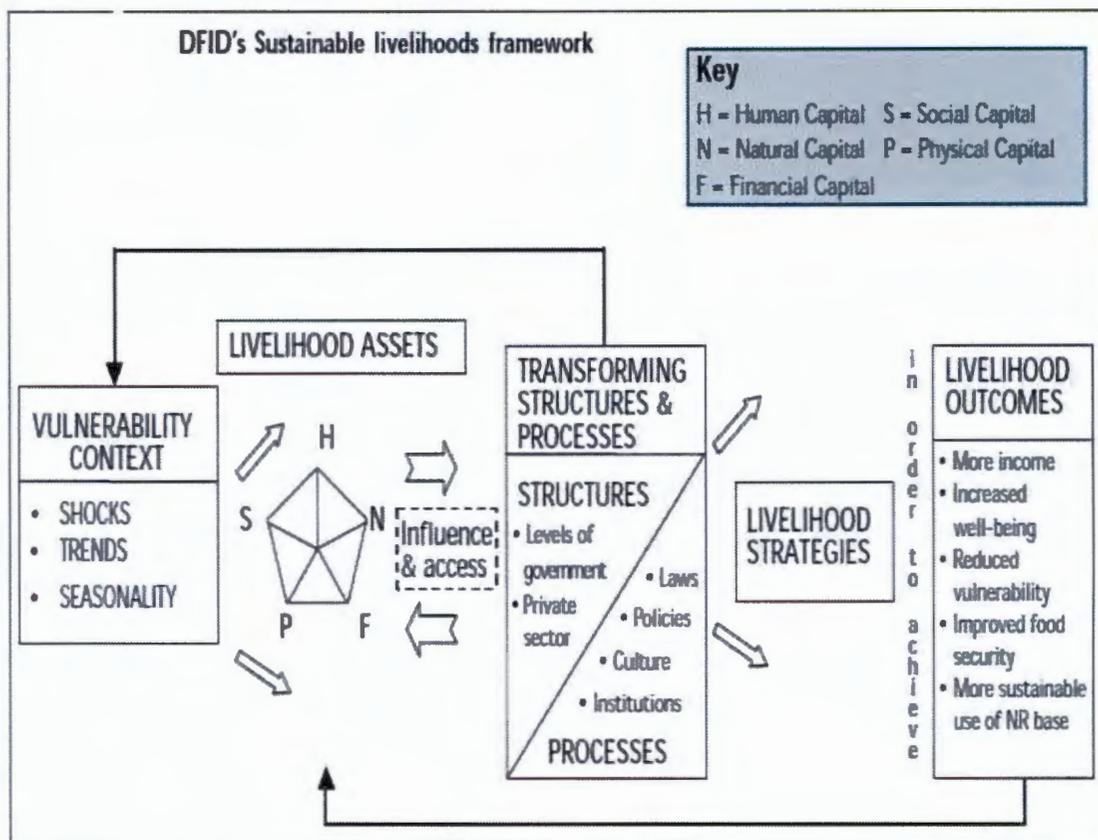
2.4.1 EVOLUTION OF SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS

As indicated previously, the paradigm shifts in development are perhaps a result of inadequacies in the conceptualisation of poverty itself which later contributed to failure of past approaches to address poverty effectively. As an alternative, sustainable livelihood comes into the picture as a holistic approach in dealing with poverty. The origin of sustainable livelihoods can be traced as far back as 1987 and was popularised through the Brundtland report of the World Commission on Environment. After the WCED endorsed sustainability to be at the core of the global development agenda, many studies emerged in support of the idea and in the long run paved the way to the emergence of sustainable livelihoods (Singh and Gilman 1999:540; Krantz 2001:6; Chikadzi 2014:597). Sustainable livelihoods as a concept is attributed widely to the works of Chamber and Conway (1992) as indicated in (Kadozo 1999:39). In 1992, the United Nations conference on environment and development further expanded on the concept to advocate for the achievement of sustainable livelihoods as a broad goal for eradicating poverty. Since then, the concept of sustainable livelihoods has been employed widely by development practitioners, scholars and NGOs. Following is a summary of the evolution of the sustainable livelihoods approach.

2.4.2 SUMMARY OF THE EVOLUTION OF THE SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOOD APPROACH

In 1987, the Brundtland report was published by the WCDE and Sustainable Development was embraced at a global scale. After five years, the UN held the first conference on environment and development. It was after this conference that organisations such as OXFAM and CARE adopted and began to employ the sustainable livelihood approach. In 1995, the UN World Summit for social development was held in Copenhagen and UNDP adopted sustainable livelihoods as one of the top five priorities. After two years, in 1997, the White Paper on international development; “Eliminating World Poverty: a challenge for the 21st century” was published by the United Kingdom’s labour party. The “Greening Aid: A sustainable livelihood in practice” was later published by the IIDE in 1998. Following that, a number of other papers were published in 2001 including the “sustainable livelihoods guidance sheets” and “Sustainable livelihoods: Building on the wealth of the poor” were published by the DFID in support of sustainable livelihoods (Mauto 2013:36).

Figure 2.2 DFID’s Sustainable Livelihoods Framework



Source: Ashley and Carney 1999:47

The DFID’s sustainable livelihoods framework comprises of a range of factors and processes as shown above which are mainly divided into four parts. In order to implement successful livelihood initiatives, it is essential that these factors are understood in terms of how they influence each other. According to Mazibuko (2013:173), the first part of the framework which is the vulnerability context determines the possession of assets. People tend to have limited or no control over critical trends as well as shocks and seasonality, which have a greater influence on people’s livelihoods and on the wider availability of assets (GLOPP, 2008:3). Vulnerability comes about when people have little or no capacity to face harmful threats or shocks they are exposed to. GLOPP indicates that the difference between risk and vulnerability is of crucial relevance for assessing the causes of poverty. Thus vulnerability is defined as the degree of exposure to risk (shocks, hazards) and uncertainty, whereas a risk is defined as the likelihood of occurrence of (external) shocks and stresses including their potential severity. The second part consists of livelihood capitals. The sustainable livelihoods framework (SLF) identifies five

livelihoods capitals which are financial, physical, human, natural and social. It is therefore crucial to analyse how people endeavour to convert these assets (which are part of their strength) into positive livelihood outcomes. Meanwhile, access to these capitals is determined and influenced by the third part of the framework which is transforming structures and processes. Structures comprise of levels of government and private sector (interactions) while processes comprise of laws and policies both local and international. These structures have a direct impact on whether people are able to achieve a sense of inclusion and well-being. Culture, also included in this area, also accounts for other unexplained variations in the way things are done in different societies (DFID 2000). Then the fourth part of the framework which is livelihood outcomes can be said to be a result of a number of linkages occurring between transforming structures, livelihoods assets and vulnerabilities posed naturally or by institutional policies and laws (Mauto 2013:56). In simplified terms, Schenk *et al* (2015:69), state that the sustainable livelihood approach assumes the following;

- People live within various vulnerabilities they are exposed to.
- People make use of capital assets to make a living and sustain it.
- People employ different strategies to improve and maintain their livelihoods.
- Capabilities are policies, institutions and processes that shape people's access to assets and livelihood activities and determine the vulnerability context of livelihood/household activities.
- That capital is transformed into strategies to determine the outcome of livelihoods.

According to Mauto (2013:37) with the aid of the DFID's framework, the sustainable livelihood approach further assumes the following;

- Unlike approaches that are focused of the income aspect alone to reduce poor people's vulnerabilities, the sustainable livelihood approach acknowledges the multi-dimensional nature of people's asset deprivation and views low income groups and individuals as active agents in successful poverty eradication strategies.
- Development interventions should fit into people's lives as well as the wider institutional context of government civil society and private enterprises.
- A livelihood is an outcome of choices people make based on their livelihood assets, given policies, and institutions.

- Sustainable livelihood interventions should operate within or work in partnership with existing institutional policies and processes as well as programs and practices so that questions of access and rights can be addressed effectively.

Most of the livelihood initiatives arising from the SL Framework are aimed at enabling self-reliance among communities of the poor. These initiatives range from vegetable gardening, micro-enterprises such as sewing, poultry, and livestock farming, as well as many other income generating projects. In South Africa, income generating projects have become popular livelihood strategies adopted by many in the fight against poverty and other vulnerabilities such as joblessness both in the urban and rural areas (Niesing 2012:26). However, as noted in the definition above, livelihood strategies initiated by the poor will not be very beneficial if they cannot survive or recover from shocks and stresses that they are exposed to, be it local or global ones. In this case, such livelihood strategies cannot be said to be sustainable.

2.4.3 CAPABILITIES, ASSETS/CAPITALS, SHOCKS AND STRESSES

- CAPABILITIES

In the sustainable livelihood context, capabilities refer to factors that constrain or promote livelihood choices. They include policies, institutions and processes, which later shape people's access to enabling assets and livelihood activities (Schenk *et al* 2015:69).

- ASSETS/CAPITALS

People's livelihoods are comprised of a complex combination of human skill, ability, social networks, financial capability and the availability of access to natural resources. These components are referred to as assets or capitals by various scholars (Khan 2013:26). In economic terms, capital refers to the means or factors of production (Morse and McNamara 2013:28). There are five capitals identified by the DFID in the framework, these are natural, social, human, physical and financial. According to the DFID, if these capitals are strengthened, households would be able to cope better with shocks and stresses (Khan 2013:27).

- *NATURAL CAPITAL*

Natural capital refers to the natural resources base and environmental services necessary for generating and sustaining livelihoods. Land, air quality, forests and water are all examples of natural assets available to people (Khan, 2013:29). According to Eskins (2003) in (Khan 2013:29), natural capital has the following functions (i) source functions, (ii) sink functions, (iii) welfare functions and (iv) life support functions

- *SOCIAL CAPITAL*

Social capital includes social networks, social claims, relations, affiliations and associations. Social resources for the poor are developed through networks and connectedness, membership in formalised groups, relationships of trust, reciprocity and informal safety nets (Nkosi 2014:21).

- *HUMAN CAPITAL*

Human capital refers to skills, knowledge, experience and the ability of an individual to adopt various livelihood strategies to achieve the objective of their livelihood. The potential of leadership, level of skills, age, health status of household members and household size are all determinants of household capital (Khan 2013:27). In essence, ill health and illiteracy will pose a threat to the achievement of livelihood objectives. The opposite is also true that good health and appropriate knowledge will determine the achievement of positive livelihood outcomes. Good physical and mental health is a pre-condition for participation in productive, reproductive and decision making processes (Mauto 2013:54). In this regard, HIV/AIDS is a good example of a disease that impinges on a person's ability to acquire a sustainable livelihood.

- *PHYSICAL CAPITAL*

Physical capital includes basic infrastructure such as roads, buildings, production equipment and technologies (Morse and McNamara 2013:69). Easy access to physical assets is vital for the enhancement and sustainability of poor people's livelihoods. Part of the assets that are so important in this regard are access to shelter and public space facilities as indicated in Mauto (2013:46). Mauto states that access to public space facilities without harassment allows poor people to participate in the informal sector of the economy through vending, thereby enabling them to create and sustain their livelihoods. Furthermore, access to shelter is an important

physical asset for the poor as a productive and reproductive space for home-based economic activities.

- *FINANCIAL CAPITAL*

Unlike in economics where financial capital is viewed as funds used to produce real capital, Sustainable livelihoods views financial capital as resources that people use to achieve their livelihood goals. The two major sources of financial capital are available stock and the regular flow of money (Khan 2013:47). Examples of financial capital include; savings, access to credit/debt, cash and other economic assets. Financial capital is important to the poor since it can easily be converted to other forms of capital and can directly be used to achieve livelihood outcomes such as paying for school fees or medical bills. Financial capital can also be used to compliment other forms of capital (Mauto 2013:52).

- *SHOCKS AND STRESSES*

Shocks are a more sudden occurrence that puts pressure on a livelihood. Droughts and floods are examples of shocks that can put pressure on a particular livelihood. In cases of floods, the pressure of soil erosion may add or increase the costs of inputs such as fertilizers or completely strangle a livelihood (in a situation where a person cannot afford fertilizer) that is dependent on good soil for production. A stress is an occurrence that adds long-term pressure on a livelihood, for example an economic downturn (Morse and McNamara 2013:35). Learning from Zimbabwe, the economic downturn has had long-term effects on the sustainability of many livelihoods and has resulted in job losses and migration. Economic downturns can take years to reshape and in the end strangle livelihoods.

2.4.4 PRINCIPLES AND VALUES OF THE SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS APPROACH

Toner (2003:774), Kadozo (2009:43) and DSD (2009:8) highlight principles for the operationalization of the SL approach. These are built on the basic principles that inform good governance and they are;

- *People Centeredness* -Effective poverty eradication and the achievement of sustainable livelihoods/development require that people's freedoms and choices are respected and their strengths appreciated. Understanding the differences between the groups of people as well as the development of focused interventions is also vital in this

regard. This means that people should be the focus and not sectors and their livelihoods should be understood in an integrated manner.

- **Participatory and responsiveness** - The gist of the sustainable livelihoods approach is that people (including the poor and most vulnerable) should take the lead by participating fully in identifying and addressing their own livelihood priorities. This means that outsiders and organisations should be enabled to listen and respond to people's views through organised processes.
- **Sustainability**-Four key dimensions are vital to sustainability. They are economic, institutional, social, and environmental sustainability. All are important and so a balance must be found between them.
- **Empowerment**- Whatever that is done to support the poor should result in increased voices, opportunities and improved well-being.
- **Partnerships**- sustainable livelihoods cannot be achieved in a vacuum or single handedly. Different organisations, both private and public should come on board to ensure effective implementation of development initiatives. These Partnerships should extend to the people and their organisations, including those of the poor. In this case, transparency in terms of agreements becomes important and so whatever is decided upon collectively (shared opinions) should be given priority.
- **Holistic** -This simply means understanding people's livelihoods and how they can be enhanced in a holistic (integrated) way and recognising the links between the different aspects of their lives.
- **Disaggregation** – recognising that livelihood profiles differ between groups and genders in terms of strengths, vulnerabilities and voice.
- **Long-term and flexibility** -Poverty reduction requires long-term commitments and a flexible approach to providing support and responding to emerging circumstances.
- **Multi-level (or micro-macro) links** – Eliminating poverty and achieving sustainable development in the long run is a daunting challenge that can only be overcome by working at multiple levels. That is to say, activities at local levels should be the ones to inform the development of policy and an effective governance environment. That further means that processes and structures of government at national, provincial and local levels must recognise the realities of the communities and be able to support people to build on their own strengths.

In addition to principles, values form an important aspect of the livelihoods approach. Schenk *et al* (2015:21) highlights the following values;

- The approach recognises the complexity of poverty,
- The approach is holistic and process oriented,
- The approach focuses on people, recognising that their well-being should be understood from their point of view,
- The approach forges a link between micro and macro levels,
- The approach is consistent with the united nations development programme's definition of poverty of human rights, human dignity and freedom,
- The approach defines and recognises people as active agents using various coping strategies to manage their complex assets.

2.5 THE RELEVANCE OF SL APPROACH IN SOUTH AFRICA

The SL approach is deemed relevant in South Africa for various reasons. Amongst them, the most important are: reduction of poverty and unemployment; and promotion of self-reliance.

2.5.1 REDUCTION OF POVERTY AND UNEMPLOYMENT

As it has been highlighted earlier, the majority of the South African people remain poor especially in rural areas and there is a need for an approach that is holistic in addressing poverty. For instance, the National Development Agency Report (2014:10) reveals that the number of households deemed poor and dependant on social grants was at 18% of the North West Province's total population. Statistics South Africa (2014:40) also indicates that 4.5 million of South African households were living below the poverty line in 2011 and the majority being unemployed. Given these statistics, it remains important that sustainable livelihood strategies and approaches be employed in order to combat and minimise poverty.

Niekerk (2006: 30) adds that most rural communities are trapped in a vicious cycle of poverty. Unemployment is another challenge that is faced by those communities for various reasons ranging from illiteracy to lack of employment opportunities which then lead to low self-esteem and a feeling of helplessness. To that effect, a well-balanced community development approach is required and in this case, the SL approach which puts poor people at the centre, seeks to address that.

2.5.2 PROMOTION OF SELF-RELIANCE

South Africa has since the dawn of democracy in 1994 pursued policy transformation, including legislation in order to create an environment for promoting the wellbeing of the poor majority (Benya 2011:17). The aim was to ensure that the social ills of apartheid were eliminated and a self-reliant society was built (ANC 1994:14). Hence government through its institutions, including the Department of Social Development has adopted the SL approach as a framework for promoting self-reliance and developing the potential of the poor and marginalised communities nationwide (DSD 2009). That is done by aligning policies and programmes with the principles of the SL approach to be discussed as the study unfolds.

Drawing from the Reconstruction and Development policy of 1994, the National Development Plan (NDP) further emphasise the need to address and combat poverty and deprivation. It also emphasises the need to build a united non-racial and non-sexist South Africa. However, the National Planning Commission (NPC) acknowledges that in spite of the progress made in poverty reduction since 1994, poverty has remained pervasive in some areas of South Africa and especially in rural areas where most households are trapped under a vicious circle of poverty (NDP, 2011:3). Statistics South Africa (2017:14) report on poverty trends in South Africa further confirms that unemployment is also a major challenge.

Consequently, the NDP suggests a need for a new approach to address those challenges. The approach suggested is one that moves from a passive citizenry, where people only receive services from the government to one that systematically includes the socially and economically excluded, where citizens are perceived as champions of their own development, and where the government effectively works to develop human capabilities through training and a wide range of supporting activities in order to enable people to lead the lives they desire (NDP2011:3 and 196). This approach will in turn ensure the creation of jobs and sustainable livelihoods in the long run.

2.6 INCOME GENERATING PROJECTS AS PART OF THE SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOOD INITIATIVES IN SOUTH AFRICA

Income generating projects are seen as strategies that can be employed by community practitioners working with communities, to assist people in creating income, hence they were adopted by the DSD in South Africa. Usually, the goal of such initiatives is to enhance the pool of local wealth by developing the existing resource base. The term “income generating

projects” is broadly used to describe small scale economic activities undertaken by individuals or groups (Schenk *et al* 2015:330). In Mufudza (2015:15), income generating projects are described as; “*those projects that are small scale, utilizing limited financial and technical resources and are assisted by a government department or a non-governmental organisation, which in turn is supported by a donor or a group of donors.*” Mufudza further describes income generating activities as those geared towards the creation of opportunities for communities so that they are able to productively use locally available resources to minimise state dependency and develop self-reliance.

As noted earlier, the extent of poverty in South African cities and rural areas is widespread. This has prompted a wider adoption of income generating projects. These projects are seen as means through which income can be earned since the majority of the poor are not included in the formal sector of the economy due to lack of skills and education. Kadozo (2009:25) also notes that poor people lack income and their diet is insufficient for good health. They also find it difficult to invest in education and training that might enable them earn an income, hence, cannot save or invest thereby perpetuating a vulnerability trap. According to Schenk *et al* (2015), the advantages of income generating projects to communities are as follows;

- They provide employment opportunities to community members.
- They provide community with needed products and services, for example, car washing, repairs and fresh vegetables.
- They offer cheaper services by saving the people travelling costs.
- They keep money in the community.

2.7 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND THE VALUE OF COMMUNICATION

“*Community development projects stand or fall by the communication that takes place within them* (Swanepoel and De Beer 2006)” This phrase indicates the value of communication in the development processes aimed to achieve sustainable development.

According to Srinivaset *al* (2001:38), communication in the development perspective, is defined as a process of building consensus and resistance. It is not a linear type of communication where messages or information is delivered from one end to the other, but rather a persuasive tool alongside information that can help to empower people. This form of communication is

referred to as dialogue. Dialogue is not about transmitting or imparting information, but about sharing, relating, connecting, and creating new visions, knowledge and understanding (Schenk *et al* 2015:258). Through dialogue, participants are able to explore issues that have meaning for them, for example, it is through dialogue that individuals or groups are able to realise what their real needs are, or what type of project to embark on at a particular point in time.

In the community development process and generally in the development discourse, communication is regarded fundamental because it is the very foundation of participatory community practice. It is through communication that communities are informed. Moreover, groups of people have become interconnected as a community because of the relationships they build through communication. The more people interact and share common circumstances, activities and experiences, the more a common life with shared values, perceptions, goals etc. emerge and recur (Schenk *et al* 2015:259). The aim of facilitating communication in communities is to facilitate self-development through increased access to resources, knowledge, skills and self-worth. According to Schenk *et al*, the result of communication is that groups and individuals learn to accommodate each other.

Furthermore, the value of communication is that it provides a basis for participation. Guided by the Habermasian communicative action theory, Chikadzi (2014:521) asserts that interventions in the lives of the poor and marginalised ought to be built on communicative ethics. That entails that before anything can proceed towards the improvement of the lives of the poor, dialogue with them must first be established to get the clear picture of what they themselves deem relevant to them. According to Chikadzi, dialogue is that basis for genuine involvement of the poor without which the value of participation as a mechanism for the empowerment of the communities is lost. Furthermore, Chikadzi asserts that the framework for communicative action assumes three things; (i) that communicative action is action towards reaching a consensus, (ii) that practical discourse is embedded in the contexts of communicative action, hence a discourse ethics is premised on communicative action, and (iii) and that choosing strategic action as opposed to communicative action presupposes a desire to act individually.

Although participation is not easily defined, scholars have attempted to bring an understanding of what it entails. De Beer and Swanepoel (2000:129), defined participation as an active process where members of a community take part or get involved in the whole process of the

project management cycle and in decision making for development issues that affect them such as service delivery. Participation also implies a collective activity of interested people in achieving a jointly determined goal. It further entails more than just informing, involving, consulting or including people in pre-determined activities that have been decided upon by outsiders (Schenk *et al* 2015:91). Real participation, as noted by Schenk *et al*, entails that people are not just passive spectators of a development process, but share fully and have an equal voice in any decision making and efforts directed towards change. This way, people take an active role in shaping the direction of the development agenda in their area. As a result, participation connects the actions of the community, individuals or groups; it is an inclusive process involving all stakeholders.

Two types of participation have been identified. They are weaker participation; defined as mere involvement of community members in projects and stronger participation; which is interpreted as empowerment. As Davids and Theron (2014:118) put it, “Public or community participation is an essential part of human growth which is the development of self-confidence, pride, initiative, responsibility, and cooperation. Without such a development within people themselves, all efforts to alleviate their poverty will be immensely more difficult, if not impossible. This process whereby, people learn to take charge of their own lives and solve their own problems is the essence of development.”

2.8 FACTORS INFLUENCING SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOOD APPROACHES IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.8.1 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT AGENDA/GOALS

Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are a set of goals that have greatly impacted on sustainable livelihood approaches in South Africa and beyond. Global development goals commit nations to a challenge of environmental sustainability, hence having influence on local policy. According to Griggs *et al* (2013), a set of six SDGs follow from combining the MDGs with conditions necessary to ensure the stability of earth’s systems and they are;

- ***Thriving lives and livelihoods.*** End poverty and improve well-being through access to education, employment and information, better health and housing and reduced inequality while moving towards sustainable consumption and production.

- ***Sustainable food security***. End hunger and achieve long term food security, including better nutrition, through sustainable systems of production, distribution and consumption.
- ***Sustainable water security***. Achieve universal access to clean water and basic sanitation and ensure efficient allocation through integrated resource management.
- ***Universal clean energy***. Improve universal, affordable access to clean energy that minimises local pollution and health impacts and mitigate global warming.
- ***Healthy and productive ecosystems***. Sustain biodiversity and ecosystem services through better management, valuation, measurement, conservation and restoration.
- ***Governance for sustainable societies***. Transform governance and institutions at all levels to address the other five sustainable development goals.

2.8.2 GLOBAL DEVELOPMENT AGENDA

The United Nations (UN) recognises that poverty is still wide spread, as such; it remains a global challenge and priority (UN Policy Note 2012). In 2000, UN's Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) committed the international community to their own development and were used to forge consensus and mobilise public support for eradicating poverty. MDGs were also an instrument for global partnership and cooperation; they emphasised a human centred approach, defining poverty as multidimensional deprivation in several social and economic areas of human lives, including education, health, environment, housing and gender inequality.

In recognition of the slow pace at which poverty was being eradicated, following the MDGs mandate by 2015, the UN formed core principles for developing beyond 2015. The first shift was the recognition of Sen Amartya's idea of expanding human freedoms, where people's freedoms are defined in a multidimensional way to include economic, social, cultural and political freedoms, among others. These freedoms, the UN suggests, must (i), be sustainable and meet the challenge of climate (ii), should reduce inequality (i.e. disparities in achievements across nations, groups, between genders and individuals) and (iii), should ensure human security- wars, crimes, natural disasters, etc. Participation and empowerment combined also form part of the critical requirements for post-2015 development. In this case, the notion of participation and empowerment emphasises the need to capacitate people to take control of their own lives and ensuring that they are not marginalised from social and political processes. Hence the legitimacy and implementation of any strategy to help the poor must be

contingent on participation (UN Policy Note 2012:16). The UN's development goals thus influence and guide policy formulation for many developing countries and the adoption of strategies for fighting poverty. In which case, the SL approach has proved very relevant as it deals with poverty in a holistic way. The updated development goals according to UN Policy note (2012) are;

- End poverty and hunger
- Ensure universal education
- Promote gender equality
- Access to health
- Ensure environmental sustainability
- Global partnerships

2.8.3 NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT POLICIES

Apart from the global mandates of development and sustainability, South Africa's development has strongly been premised on policies that have been developed overtime since the demise of apartheid. Policy transformation has mainly been geared towards the elimination of three things; poverty, inequality and unemployment. In other words, growth and development, reducing poverty and inequality, are core elements in the South Africa's development agenda as envisaged in the National Development Plan 2011. Previous research indicates a significant improvement in non-income welfare dimensions such as access to housing, health facilities, education facilities and other basic needs through state transfers like grants. Income poverty and inequality however, remain high, pointing to such as (i), inequality in skill, primarily education, (ii), inequality in the returns of skill, (iii), unemployment and (iv), low productivity including low-labour income in the self-employed sector (Bhorat *et al.* 2013). High levels of poverty and inequality have been the main reason for development practitioners and government institutions to embrace a sustainable livelihoods approach which provides a framework through which poverty can be analysed and addressed in a holistic manner. The gist of this holistic approach is to ensure effective implementation and coordination of actions towards elimination of poverty and deprivation, where no citizen is passive but actively taking part in shaping the direction of their own destiny. Some of South Africa's policies that influence the SL approach are;

2.8.3.1 THE RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (RDP)

Being the first socio-economic policy framework after 1994, the RDP formed the basis of government's attempt to deal with poverty and deprivation, and to build a democratic, united, non-racial and non-sexist South Africa. Guided by ideas of inclusiveness, government translated the RDP into various policies, programmes and budgets set especially to empower and capacitate people so that they can be self-sufficient in the long run. The policies and programmes were also to be guided by the six principles of the RDP which are; (i), integration and sustainability (ii), people driven (iii), peace and security for all (iv), nation building (v), linking reconstruction and development, and (vi), democratisation of South Africa (RDP 1994:4). Basically, the RDP remains the basis on which many development strategies that followed stand. That is to say every other development strategy introduced seeks to build on what the RDP has already heightened in order to find better ways of delivering the promise to the people. After the RDP, came other programmes/strategies such as GEAR, ASGISA and NGP but will not be included as may not be relevant.

2.8.3.2 NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN VISION 2030

Currently, the NDP is the main vision guiding the direction of South Africa's development. The first aspect on which the NDP is premised is the active efforts and participation of all south Africans in their own development. Participation is again the main factor in order to raise the living standards of people. NDP (2011:5) states that developing and upgrading capabilities to enable sustainable and inclusive development requires a new approach (in this case a SL approach) and a new mind set. Following the adoption of the NDP, the South African cabinet in 2013 decided that the 2014-2019 Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) should form the first five-year implementation phase of the NDP and mandated work to begin on aligning the plans of the national, provincial departments, municipalities and public entities with the NDP vision and goals.

2.9 LEGAL UNDERPINNINGS ON SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

South Africa's Sustainable Development Strategy was approved by cabinet in 2011 and is strongly premised on the legislation. Sustainable development is increasingly being acknowledged worldwide as a conceptual framework for development that recognises the

interdependency between economic growth, social equity and environmental integrity (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 2011). In the Constitution of South Africa (Act No 108 of 1996), sustainable development was established as a constitutional right and its vision was contained therein. As a result, the theme of sustainable development emerges in most of South Africa's policy and legislative documents after democracy. The Constitution and specifically the Bill of Rights, provide that every citizen has the right to an environment that is not harmful to their health or wellbeing and to have the environment protected for the benefit of present and future generations, through reasonable legislative and other measures that (i) prevent pollution and ecological degradation, (ii) promote conservation and (iii) ensure ecologically sustainable development and use of natural resources while promoting justifiable economic and social development.

South Africa's White Paper on Environmental Management Policy is another legislative instrument towards environmental management. The policy cuts across many sectors and is an overall government policy on environmental management. The Policy's vision is projected on an integrated and holistic management system for the environment aimed at achieving sustainable development. The White Paper on Environmental Policy further adds that, essentially, sustainable development must ensure that the developing economy proceeds from unrestrained growth and insensitive development to environmental sustainability that is characterised by a stable state economy that addresses the needs of society in a manner that is equitable while staying in balance with ecological systems/circle (Department of Environmental affairs and Tourism, 1997).

2.10 INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT FOR COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

The issue of poverty and marginalisation, has since the demise of apartheid in South Africa been the reason for policy transformation (designing new forms of social policy) in order to include the previously excluded. Sevenhuijsen *et al* (2003:300) asserts that previously, the Department of Welfare in South Africa tended to favour a white poor minority while ignoring the other disenfranchised groups to a larger extent. The Afrikaner nationalist ideology of separate development; institutionalised in 1948, did not make things any better as it translated into discrimination and inequality when put into practice. As a way of moving forward, a White Paper on Social Welfare (1997) was designed whose vision was to embrace and facilitate the development of human capacity and self-reliance within a caring and enabling socio-economic

environment. The mission of the policy as indicated therein was to serve and build a self-reliant nation in partnership with all stakeholders through an integrated welfare system which maximises its existing potential, and which is equitable, sustainable, accessible, people centred, and developmental (White Paper on Social Welfare 1997). Some of the priorities set out in the white paper where;

- Creating a single national welfare department backed by provincial departments and exploring the potential role of local government in service delivery.
- Provision of appropriate developmental social welfare services to all south Africans especially the most vulnerable (the poor and those with special needs).
- Strengthening and promoting partnership between government, community organisations, civil society and private sector involved in service delivery.
- Promoting social development in an integrated manner including all sectors both within welfare departments and in collaboration with government departments and NGOs.
- Giving effect to international conventions of the UN (world summit on social development 1995) system which are pertinent to development, and
- To realise the relevant objectives of the South African constitution of 1996 and the RDP.

Community development was institutionalised in the 1980s by the apartheid regime as part of social welfare. But after democracy, its cross-cutting nature qualified its institutionalisation in the Department of Social Development through the White Paper on Social Welfare of 1997 (Luka and Maistry 2012:14). The Bill of Rights in the Constitution of South Africa (Act No 108 of 1996) further endorses community development as a human right, thus crowning the National and provincial government, including local government with the responsibility of ensuring the wellbeing of the communities. The major challenge of community development is to reverse the legacy of apartheid and colonialism while its main function is to deal with poverty in its multifaceted reality (Luka and Maistry 2012: 37, Davids and Theron 2014:106). There are four main community development perspectives adopted in South Africa. According to (Davids 2014:37-38) and (Luka and Maistry 2012:15), they are;

2.10.1 THE INCOME PERSPECTIVE

This perspective concerns itself with income poverty. Problems associated with the income perspective are that the very poor tend to depend on non-income sources of support, that is, the

support of extended family. In South Africa, this perspective influences development approaches and poverty alleviation which are operationalized through policy instruments such as GEAR, ASGISA, and Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP), social assistance including the generation of income and job creation poverty relief projects.

2.10.2 THE BASIC NEEDS PERSPECTIVE

The basic needs approach concerns itself with providing assistance to the poor such as potable water, literacy, proper nutrition, sanitation, shelter and many more. The operationalization of these in South Africa has been through programmes such as the RDP, ISRDP and the Integrated Development Plans (IDPs).

2.10.3 THE SOCIAL EXCLUSION PERSPECTIVE

The social development perspective is derived from the “First World” where basic needs may have been met but there still exists some deprivation and vulnerability, where a certain group of society is excluded from the mainstream benefits of society and is being prevented in some way from fully enjoying those benefits. Hence this perspective aims to reduce vulnerability and inequality.

2.10.4 THE SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS PERSPECTIVE

This perspective stresses and puts emphasis on the participation of individuals and communities in defining and solving their own problems. It also advocates for the provision of assistance to communities and citizens through the construction and strengthening of an appropriate “asset base” to pro-actively identify, define and practice strategies for coping with their conditions of poverty, vulnerability and hardships.

2.11 SUMMARY

The chapter discussed literature relevant to sustainable livelihoods as an alternative approach to achieving sustainable development in current development endeavours. From the literature, it became apparent that the underlying cause for adopting this approach is poverty. In the South African context, the impact of poverty on communities and the extent of the problems associated with it, including unemployment and other material deprivation need intervention. One of the strategies employed and embedded in the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach is the promotion

of income generating projects because of their impact on the communities. The challenge however, is to make these projects sustainable over a longer period of time. In an attempt to overcome this challenge, the DSD in South Africa ensures to lean their projects on the principles of the SL approach, where community members themselves are seen as active drivers towards the realisation of their own livelihood goals. The Advantage of the approach is the holistic manner in which poverty is analysed and solutions developed.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is for the purpose of providing a clear and detailed description of the research design, methodology and analysis used in this study. The study followed a descriptive method involving a qualitative research. A descriptive study amongst others, attempts to explain reasons for the characteristics of the population by studying human action from the insider's perspective. Its goal is not to generalise the results but aspires towards describing and understanding human behaviour (Mouton and Babbie 2001:53; Bless *et al.* 2013:162). The description of the study area is also important in this chapter because it familiarizes one with the area in which the study was conducted. The study was carried out using primary data collected from representatives from the DSD, traditional authorities and beneficiaries of the Tlhoafalo Basadi and the Disaneng youth projects which are part of the sustainable livelihood initiatives by the department of Social Development in the North-West Province and particularly, Ngaka Modiri Molema District.

3.2 STUDY AREA

3.2.1 NGAKA MODIRI MOLEMA DISTRICT

Ngaka Modiri Molema district is situated in the North-West province of South Africa. It is one of the four districts of the province and is made up of five local municipalities namely; Mafikeng, Ditsobotla, Ramotshere Moiloa, Tswaing and Ratlou. NMMD is also the largest of the four districts present in the North West Province. Mafikeng, which is the capital of the North West Province, falls within the boundaries of this district. The NMMD covers an area of 31039 square km and shares an international border with Botswana. The dominant language in the area is Setswana at 82% (NMMD IDP 2015/16).

Census 2011 shows that the total population of NMMD is 842, 699 with a total of 227, 002 households. Of this population, 93.9% is made up of Africans whose majority are females at 51%. Other populations indicated 0.9%, 1.6% and 3.7%, for Asians, Coloureds and whites respectively. The highest population group in this regard was aged between 15 and 65, a population group depicted to be economically active. As of 2011, the population in this area grew by 0.97. Furthermore, Stats SA 2011 indicates that poverty headcount in the Ngaka

Modiri Molema district was at 12.3% and its intensity at 42.1%. However in 2016, poverty headcount dropped to 10.6% and its intensity to 41.9% (Census 2016, household indicators).

Construction and business finance services are the largest contributors of the economy in the district at 7.6% and 6.6% respectively. Agriculture contributes about 5.2% while mining only contributes 3%, which makes it the least contributor to the economy of Ngaka Modiri Molema district (NMMD IDP 2015/16). With this economic outlook, unemployment remains a problem in the area. Indicated in the IDP of the NMMD municipality (2015/16), the situation of unemployment is as a result of a persistently low economic growth and retrenchments from mining due to decline in mining. Another influence is a lack of diversification of the economy.

3.2.2 DISANENG VILLAGE

Disaneng village is situated in Ratlou Municipality. It is predominantly rural in nature and covers an Area of 14,618 Square km, with a population of 24.37 per square km or 107 339 people (Draft Ratlou Municipality IDP 2016 March). In 2011 census, Ratlou recorded an unemployment rate of 43.9%, with the youth being the majority at 52.4% of the total population. The IDP 2016 draft of Ratlou also indicates an alarming number of the economically inactive population of 35, 542 people i.e. 46.1% of the total population. Furthermore, only about 3.1% had attained higher education while the rate of the non-school going was at 28.9% with only 11.2% matriculants. This analysis shows the essence for the promotion of sustainable livelihood projects as a strategy to combat unemployment and poverty. Most of the households in this area are female headed (49.5%) and non-income households were 37.7% (Census 2011). Out of 26, 899 households present in Ratlou, only 5.2 % have piped water in their homes and 1.8% has flush toilets.

Meanwhile, agriculture accounts for the most income in Ratlou. Majority of the people are into livestock and 42.9% into mixed farming. Crop farming is only at 1.2% which could be the result of less rainfall in the Ngaka Modiri Molema district area as a whole (Census 2011).

3.2.3 BODIBE VILLAGE

Bodibe village is situated in Ditsobotla Municipality which is one of the municipalities in the NMMD. It has a population of 168,902 according the Ditsobotla IDP 2016. The total number of households in Ditsobotla is at 44 500 with an average of 3.8 persons. The majority of the population in this area is black Africans with 150 515, that is about 89%. Ditsobotla

municipality IDP (2016) further confirms that 46% of the population is younger than 20 years of age. In terms of education, census 2011 results records a 9% decrease in the proportion of the population without education from 24% to 15% between the period 2001 and 2011. However, only 20% are classified to have completed matric and about 6.5% have higher education qualifications. Meanwhile the percentage of the economically inactive was recorded to be 53.5% according to 2011 census results which represents a total of 89 518 of the population. About 42.2% are unemployed and 57.8% employed (Census 2011 and Ditsobotla IDP 2016).

IDP (2016) of Ditsobotla municipality further reveals that Ditsobotla contributes about 22.7% to the district's economy. Finance and business services account for the largest contributing sector with 24.7%, then the trade sector with 19.1%, followed by the manufacturing sector with 11.8%, while Agriculture and Mining contributed 7.7% and 10% respectively in 2010 (Ditsobotla IDP 2016). The household indicators/socio-economic outlook of NMMD and its municipalities are summarised in the following table;

Table 3.1: Census 2016 household's indicators NMMD.

	Poverty				Population and households				Main dwelling								Main source of water for drinking				Toilet facility						Electricity		
	2011		2016		2011		2016		2011				2016				2016		2011		2016		2011		2016		2016		
	Poverty %	Intensity of poverty %	Poverty %	Intensity of poverty %	Total Households	Household size	Total Households	Household size	Formal	Traditional	Informal	Other	Formal	Traditional	Informal	Other	Piped water	Other	Flush toilet	Other	Non	Flush toilet	Other	Non	Connected	Other	Non		
MOUJIT District	12.3 %	42.1 %	10 .6 %	41.9 %	22700 1	3.7	269 977	3.3	18768 5	8016	28618	2682	2231 86	135 76	293 62	382 4	2207 51	492 26	728 36	1370 87	170 78	951 77	1608 32	13 97 7	244 613	16 02	237 62		
CAI	16.6 %	42.4 %	16 .9 %	42.3 %	26 899	4.0	29 120	4.0	24 164	953	1413	358	23 822	277 5	246 9	33	2181 7	730 3	132 4	2218 9	337 6	670	2504 9	34 01	256 73	15 5	329 3		
LOCALI	13.4 %	41.6 %	10 .8 %	41.7 %	30 634	4.1	35 300	4.1	23 752	504	6231	147	28 551	450	550 8	792	2771 1	758 9	115 55	1576 2	331 7	142 67	1820 0	28 33	314 44	55	380 1		
LOCALI	10.6 %	42.5 %	8 .2 %	41.4 %	84 239	3.5	103 333	3.5	73 557	1477	8760	444	89 740	362 4	866 3	129 8	8534 0	179 94	276 42	5261 8	397 9	329 13	6716 9	32 51	963 32	40 1	660 0		

Local	11.6 %	41.8 %	9. 3 %	42.3 %	44 500	3.8	54 154	3.8	3.8	33 025	3548	7404	523	43 577	426 6	546 0	851	4316 2	109 92	213 03	1911 8	407 9	308 22	2094 8	23 84	482 02	19 2	575 9
eMolitor	13.2 %	42.0 %	13 .2 %	42.0 %	40 740	3.7	48 070	3.7	3.7	33 188	1533	4810	1204	37 496	246 1	726 2	851	4272 2	534 8	110 12	2740 0	232 9	165 05	2945 6	21 08	429 62	80 0	430 9

3.3 CLIMATE AND PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT OF THE STUDY AREA

3.3.1 NORTH WEST PROVINCE

North-West Province is made up of four Districts namely; Dr Ruth Segomotsi Mompati in the west, Ngaka Modiri Molema in the central parts, Bojanala Platinum in the eastern parts and Dr Kenneth Kaunda in the south. The province lies at the heart of the 'Bushveld' region characterized by a generally flat savannah landscape and can be regarded as the 'Big Five' country. Its rich mineral resources value includes minerals such as platinum and chromium, which has earned the province the trademark "Platinum Province". North-West Province also has a long geographical and archaeological history with internationally recognised fossils found at a number of sites (NWREAD 2015:11).

North West province generally has a continental climate and varies from West to East, with the Eastern part of the region wetter than the Western part. Areas of high biodiversity and prime agriculture, including grazing are separated by hills and ridges towards the central and eastern parts. The iconic geographical features of this region include the Magaliesberg and Pilanesberg ridges and the Vredefort Dome (NWREAD 2015:11). Temperatures range from 3 to 21 degrees Celsius in winter and 17 to 31 degrees Celsius in the summer. According to the 2008/9 environmental outlook report of the North West department of environmental affairs, the highest temperature recorded was 40 degrees Celsius in the months of December and January, while the lowest was -6 degrees Celsius in the months of June and July. Annual rainfall totals approximately 360mm, with the highest rainfall during the summer months between October and April. Meanwhile precipitation is very low in the winter months with an average of 3mm falling in the July (North West Environmental outlook report 2008/09 and South Africa Yearbook 2013/14).

3.3.2 NGAKA MODIRI MOLEMA DISTRICT

The topography of Ngaka Modiri Molema is classified mainly as 68% flat, with 15% of the total area being mountainous and 17% as "rolling". The area classified as mountainous is in the Northern parts of the district which is the area around Ramotshere Moiloa municipality. The central and South-western parts of the NMMD, which consists of Mafikeng, Ditsobotla Ratlou and Tswaing municipalities, are predominantly flat with a few mountainous areas around the Northern parts of Mafikeng and Ditsobotla. The soils in NMMD mainly consist of eutrophic,

dystrophic to mesotrophic types. These types of soils may be directly associated with the spatial distribution of agricultural development (NMMD IDP 2009).

Meanwhile, rainfall varies between 400 to 600mm annually. A small portion of the geographical area which is adjacent to the Eastern boundary has slightly higher rainfall with 800 to 1000 mm average per year (NMMD IDP review 2009). IDP 2015/16 of the NMMDM indicates that there is generally not enough surface water in the area due to its arid nature, hence rural water supply is heavily dependent on ground water sources. Water sources in NMMD are categorised in three and are (i), abstractions from surface water sources within the jurisdiction (e.g., dams, springs, large water collections such as natural rock surfaces and streams), (ii), and abstractions from ground water sources (boreholes) which are a major water source in both rural and urban areas, and (iii), purchase from other sources.

3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

The study followed a descriptive method using a qualitative research methodology. As indicated in the introduction of this chapter, this type of study attempts to explain reasons for the characteristics of the population by studying human action from the insider's perspective. Its goal is not to generalise the results but aspires towards describing and understanding human behaviour (Mouton and Babbie 2001:53 and Bless *et al* 2013:162).

3.5 POPULATION OF THE STUDY

The study population consisted of officials from Ratlou and Ditsobotla municipalities, traditional authorities from Bodibe and Disaneng Villages, project participants from both Tlhoafalo Basadi and Disaneng-Youth projects as well as officials from the North-West Department of social development.

3.6 SAMPLING PROCEDURE AND SIZE

Purposive sampling, a non-probability sampling method was used to select respondents in the study. Purposive sampling is a deliberate strategy of selecting participants based on their willingness, experience, knowledge, and qualities targeted by the researcher (Neuman 2011).

The study population included all the active members of the Tlhoafalo Basadi and the Disaneng Youth projects as well as some representatives of the DSD, Municipalities, and traditional authorities. These were selected based on their willingness, experience and

knowledge of their projects and were regarded as the best fit for the study by the researcher. Initially, the sample size of 38 participants was targeted by the researcher; however, only 21 were available due to high member turnover in both projects. Amongst these, 14 were key informants (4 from DSD, 2 from tribal authorities, 2 from municipalities and 6 project leaders), and 7 were mere project members. Note that the 6 project leaders also formed part of the focus group members.

3.7 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT AND DESIGN

To capture relevant data for the study, the researcher designed four different semi-structured interview guides to address the four categories of respondents accordingly. The interview guides were a primary data collection tool and consisted of semi-structured open ended questions. According to Bless *et al.* (2013:197), the advantage of semi-structured interview guides is that they allow flexibility in the sense that the researcher is able to adjust questions and probe or clarify concepts when there is a need to do so. Amongst other reasons, the open ended interview guides were mainly designed to capture the aims/goals of the two projects, the experiences of the participants, their challenges and achievements, and the roles of all stakeholders in the projects. The main objectives of the study are illustrated in the research tool table, figure 3.2 below. Observation method was also used but to a lesser extent. Members of the projects were observed as they performed their functions and some random questions were asked during visits. The tone in the voices and body language of respondents during interviews also helped the researcher with the observation technique.

Table3.2 Illustration of the main objectives of the study.

Objectives	Main and associated questions	Information required	Research question
1. To determine the specific objectives of the projects	What are the aims of the projects as defined by the members?	Reasons for implementing the project.	1. What was the aim for starting your project? 2. With reference to the livelihood projects, what are the

			policy objectives of the DSD?
2 To analyse the roles of different stakeholders/role-players.	What are the responsibilities of different role players?	Roles or responsibilities of the stakeholders.	What are the roles of different stakeholders in the projects?
3 To analyse the types of support given to project members/beneficiaries.	What type of support is given to these projects? And by who?	Identification of support given to project members and provider of that support.	a. Have you had any training? What type of training and where was it from? b. Apart from training, is there any outside support and what type is it?
4 To identify challenges encountered by project beneficiaries during and after withdrawal of outside help and how those challenges are being addressed.	What are the main challenges of the projects and how are they addressed.	Factors inhibiting success of the projects	What are your challenges as individuals and as a group and how do you address them?

5 To determine successes achieved and factors contributing to those successes.	Are there any successes in these projects? What factors are attributed to their successes?	Identification of success and factors attributed to the successes.	Are there successes in the project? What are they and what factors are contributing to those successes?
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3.8 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

When the interview schedules were ready, the researcher through the office of the project manager at the DSD made appointments and initial visits were made to the two projects on different dates for introductions and making official appointments for data collection. The following were the procedures followed during data collection:

- An ethical clearance certificate was obtained from the North West University’s ethical clearance committee.
- During the first visits, the projected members were informed verbally on the importance and reasons for collecting data from their projects.
- On the actual days of data collection, informed consent forms were administered and signed by all participants. This was to assure them of the issues of confidentiality and anonymity as well as their freedom of choice as far as their participation in the study was concerned.
- The researcher acted as the only facilitator during data collection with the help of a Setswana interpreter, whose main duty was to clarify questions whenever English could not do.
- Responses from respondents were immediately jotted down by both the researcher and interpreter to ensure that nothing was left out.
- Observation method was also used to collect data but to a lesser extent.

Table 3.3 illustrates the dates and settings for data collection.

Table 3.3 Dates and settings for data collection

Activity	Date	Place
Department of social development officials		
1. Chief Director sustainable livelihoods directorate	07 June 2017	Department of social development Mafikeng
2. Director-Youth development projects	09 June 2017	Department of social development Mafikeng
3. Project manager		Department of social development
4. Community development worker for Tlhoafalo project	10 th October 2017	Department of social development
Municipal officials		
1. Counsellor Disaneng ward...	06 June 2017	Disaneng
2. Counsellor Bodibe ward 14	09 October 2017	Telephone/Mmabatho
Traditional authorities		
Disaneng (1)	06 June 2017	Disaneng community centre
Bodibe (1)	06 October 2017	Bodibe tribal office
Project members		
Tlhoafalo basadi (5)	18 th May 2017	Bodibe village
Disaneng youth (8)	30 th May and 06 June 2017	Disaneng

3.9 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION APPROACH

To analyse the data the content analysis method was used. This method helps to systematically analyse the meaning of communications, in this case, verbal responses from participants (Bless *et al.* 2013:352). Responses were first transcribed into written form during data collection, after which all scripts were read over and over to get the holistic feel of all the responses. After getting the holistic feel, the responses were then coded into different categories that corresponded to or addressed the research questions and objectives raised in the study. To code is to break down original transcripts and classifying them according to different or various categories (Bless *et al.* 2013:342). After data were put into those categories, the themes that emerged were then used to write up the findings. The main purpose of data analysis is to discover patterns that point to the theoretical understanding of social life (Mouton and Babbie 2010:400).

3.10 CHALLENGES DURING DATA COLLECTION

- High member turnovers in one of the projects, resulting in fewer participants, contrary to the expectation of the researcher who had different figures of membership as provided by the DSD. According to the records of the DSD, Tlhoafalo basadi had 8 members and Disaneng youth had 20. However, this was not the case at the time of data collection as Tlhoafalo had only 7 active members (of which 1 was not present at the time of data collection). Meanwhile, Disaneng youth had 6 active members and 2 who were not so active but had been in the project for a long time and were willing to participate in the study. This challenge was however overcome by interviewing those who were available.
- Failure of members of Disaneng youth project to show up at the project site on the agreed date for data collection. This was because of the misunderstandings between themselves following their exit from the DSD's financial support. To overcome this challenge, the researcher followed them door to door. So instead of conducting a focus group discussion, they were interviewed face to face using the interview guide designed for the focus group.
- The researcher could not get the CDW who was assigned to the Disaneng youth project following its exit from the department. So instead, the researcher made use of the information provided by the other CDW who was available for the other project since the

projects were similar (income generating) and the interview guide was the same. However, the researcher recognises that the other CDW may have had a different perspective but the situation was beyond her control.

- Two key informants preferred telephone interviews because they were working outside town. Nevertheless, sufficient information was obtained.
- One DSD official could not be reached for an interview due to a busy schedule. Instead, only those who were available were interviewed.

3.11 SUMMARY

Basically, this chapter outlined a detailed description of the research design and methodology that was followed in the study. It was shown that the study followed a descriptive method involving a qualitative research. A semi-structured interview guide was used as a primary tool for data collection along with observation method. Data were collected through face to face interviews; and focus group discussions; and analysed using content analysis method. To add to the research design and methodology followed, the socio-economic profile of NMMD and the specific areas where the projects are located (Disaneng and Bodibe villages) were also provided. The purpose of the socio-economic profile was to orient the reader on the conditions that surround the area of research (NMMD) which make it necessary for government to implement income generating livelihood projects as part of the sustainable livelihood initiative. The profile shows that a lot still needs to be done in order to improve and secure the livelihoods and improve the quality of life of the poor in these areas.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reveals the analysis and interpretation of data collected from the two projects; Tlhoafalo Basadi and Disaneng youth. The aim is to examine and demonstrate the meanings of words or field notes collected through interviews and focus group discussions in order to come up with the conclusions to the study. The analysis was done manually, using two theme identification methods. According to Welman *et al.* (2005:212), this process is one of the most vital tasks in qualitative research. The two methods used were;

- Counting words and repetitions of words which occur more frequently.
- Making comparisons of answers given by different participants in a focus group to establish why there are differences.

4.2 TLHOAFALO BASADI PROJECT

4.2.1 Background characteristics of project members

The researcher first established the background characteristics of the respondents as is essential to the understanding of certain behaviours when it comes to participation of members of the community in development activities.

4.2.2 Gender profile of participants

Table 4.1 Gender of participant's in Tlhoafalo basadi project

Gender	Number of participants	Percentage %
Male	1	14.3 %
Female	6	85.7 %
Total (N)	7	100 %

Table 4.1 shows that the majority of participants in Tlhoafalo basadi are female with only one male participant who at the time of data collection was absent. The presentation in the table could perhaps be explained by stereotype behaviours which are still encroaching into communities, where some individuals (especially in rural settings) still believe that certain activities are associated with women, in this case, sewing. Another reason could be that the project was started by females, hence it was viewed as a women's project.

4.2.3 Respondent's age

Table 4.2 Age of respondents in Tlhoafalo basadi project

Age	Number of participants	Percentage %
18-25	1	14.3%
25-35	0	0%
35-45	1	14.3%
45 and above	5	71.4%
Total (N)	7	100%

Table 4.2 shows that one respondent was aged between 18-25, another between 35 and 45, and the rest above 45 years old. It was interesting to realise that older women were more determined to engage in income generating activities than the younger ones. The reason could be that people in this age group tend to be more stable and are more patient than young ones (especially that the benefits are not seen immediately). On the contrary, it is argued that advanced age can reduce the ability of a person to work and earn an income (Nkosi 2014:41). This study proved otherwise and could mean that communities are moving towards a better understanding of what development entails regardless of age. It could mean better sensitization.

4.2.4 Education level

Table 4.3 Literacy levels of the project members in Tlhoafalo basadi project

Education level	Number of project members	Percentage %
Primary	2	29%
Secondary	4 (standard 7) and 1 (Metric)	71%
Tertiary	0	0%
Total (N)	7	100%

Table 4.3 shows that the majority of participants in the project had a limited literacy level (able to read and write). Only one of them completed Matric and the rest could not due to lack of financial support. Literacy is viewed as one of the important factors in making projects sustainable. As noted in Niesing (2012:18), illiteracy has limiting effects on people's lives because

of their inability to perform certain tasks, asserting that literacy builds capacity in the communities. In the context of this study, literacy is one of the qualifications for getting assistance from the DSD as stated by one of the officials in an interview. The reason being that project members have to be able to write reports and keep records of their activities. However, researchers argue that education alone cannot promise the success of a project, it can only contribute to poverty reduction in a sustainable manner if the dimensions of participation and empowerment are included (Botchway 2001:87).

4.2.5 Project member's experience and perceptions

To get a clear understanding of their experience, project members were asked questions relating to why they initiated the project and what their benefits were as well as their challenges. The following were their responses;

4.2.6 Objectives of the project

Different views streamed from the question, "*what was the aim for starting the project?*" Three objectives were consistent with what was contained in their project plan which was to (1) generate income, (2) reduce unemployment and poverty and (3) to provide services to the community. Generally, the objectives as phrased by the respondent according to their understanding were;

- We wanted independence so that we can stop depending on others.
- To reduce unemployment because most of us here are unemployed.
- To support our husbands financially (those who were married).
- We wanted to see development in our community.
- To reduce poverty.
- To generate income

These were interesting reasons, but perhaps the most striking one to the researcher was the response from one of the members who stated in her own words that, "*we wanted to demonstrate to the community that women can stand on their own.*" For a long time, women were not regarded as equals in development initiatives. But recently more and more women are getting involved in development initiatives, not looking at themselves as belonging to the kitchen but as equal participants and active drivers of their own destiny. It is encouraging to realise that

women have been awakened to the fact that for poverty to be overcome, they have to do something with their own hands, hence engaging in these income generating initiatives.

4.2.7 Beneficiaries

When respondents were asked who the beneficiaries were in their projects, they indicated that there were two main types beneficiaries, project members themselves and then the community to which they provide services. They said they benefited from the project by earning something (income), by learning from each other where they obtain skills such as, interpersonal skills, team work, sewing (those who came not knowing how to sew can now try), records keeping and book keeping. According to them, community benefits by buying uniforms at affordable prices, thereby saving themselves time and money on transport to town. They further indicated that in some schools, they were able to donate uniforms to the underprivileged. One of the respondents said, *“Most of the community members find it easy to come here to mend their clothes and to have their traditional dresses made for different occasions.”* This way, community members were able to benefit because they were able to ask for discount as well.

4.2.8 Types of support received

When asked what type of support they were able to receive from outsiders, respondents identified the following;

- **Training:** According to the respondents, they were able to receive training from the DSD. The types of training received included graphic designing, record keeping, report writing and book keeping. The types of training offered and general business skills development are vital elements to the success of any income generating project. Chikadzi (2014:602) indicates that the inadequacy of business skills is one of the major impediments that lead to failure of turning projects into sustainable livelihood strategies.
- **Funding:** An injection of financial capital from the DSD has enabled the project to erect their own business structure and fence where the project is apparently running from.
- **Equipment:** According to respondents, the project has thus far received support from the Department of Sports Arts and Culture (DSAC), South African Social Services Agency (SASSA), Department of Trade and Industry (DTI), Municipality, and Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA). These institutions have

helped in the provisions of necessities such as chairs (DSAC), sewing machines (DTI), tenders to sew uniforms for the underprivileged children (SASSA, DSD), structure and fence (DSD), business plan, advertising boards and opening of account (SIDA), and land (Municipality). The municipality also helps the project members by linking them to relevant institutions for necessary help.

- **Community support:** the community supports them by buying their services.

4.2.9 Successes of the project

The respondents acknowledged that since the inception of their project a few things have changed in their lives. Although in terms of income, they expressed that it is not sufficient to meet most of their needs. First of all, they indicated that they had no monthly income target because of the fluctuations in business (they may have more orders this month and very little in the following month or nothing at all). As a result, they could not readily state the individual monthly income from the project as it depended on how much they accumulate in the account that month, which also depended on the number of orders. However, according to their own approximation, they were able to earn at least R1000 after three months of work or sometimes when they won a tender; they got up to R2000 each. This situation thus forces them to still be dependent on social grants, they expressed. When asked what type of needs were they able to meet with their little income, they revealed that they could only meet needs such as buying electricity, food and clothes or toiletries.

Respondents were however gratified by the fact that they were able to learn new things they did not know previously through their associations with other project members. Some have come to learn how to sew, write records and how to work as a team. Through these associations, they are also able to build a strong social capital base. This is important to their belonging, survival, and welfare which extends beyond participants to benefit household members asserts Chikadzi (2014:603).

Another impact identified by respondents is that the community saves time and money by getting services locally instead of going all the way to town (Mafikeng) to buy uniforms and traditional dresses. They were also glad that their project was able to positively impact lives of underprivileged children through the donation of uniforms to nearby schools. This act entails co-operate social responsibility.

So far, the project records that they have their own building where they operate from. They also own the sewing machines. To add to their successes, the project won community builder of the year award to the amount of R30, 000 in 2010 which they used to reinvest into their project on fabrics. Respondents further stated that they are also, at least, able to earn something as per their vision which is to generate income although it is not sufficient. And finally they are able to provide the much needed services to the community.

4.2.10 Factors contributing to the successes of the project

To add to the support provided by various institutions, various assets also contribute to the success as analysed by the researcher. These include; financial, physical, natural, human and social capitals. In the literature review chapter, it was noted that livelihoods are comprised of a complex combination of human skills, ability, social networks, financial capability and availability of access to natural resources (Khan 2013:26). When access to these assets is limited, it could pose vulnerability to the project members (Mauto 2013:173). It is therefore crucial to analyse how people endeavour to convert these assets (which are part of their strength) into positive livelihood outcomes. The Assets identified are;

- **Financial capital:** Sustainable livelihoods views financial capital as resources that people use to achieve their livelihood goals (Khan 2013:47). That said, participants indicated that they were able to access resources (financial) from the DSD which enabled them to acquire the things necessary for achieving their goals, e.g., building of structure. Other resources were land obtained from the Municipality and machines obtained from DTI.
- **Social capital:** Social capital includes social networks, social claims, relations, affiliations and associations. Project members had a strong working relationship despite disagreements which occur from time to time. Respondents indicated that they were able to learn from one another. Participants also belonged to families which were able to support them in months where they had no income from the projects.
- **Physical capital:** includes basic infrastructure such as roads, buildings, production equipment and technologies (Morse and McNamara 2013:69). Participants indicated that they own the building they are operating from and the sewing machines. As observed by the researcher, the project is also located along the main road linking the towns; Mafikeng and Lichtenberg. The road provides easy access to transport when

transporting goods to customers. Other physical assets identified by the researcher were a school and a clinic which are located not far from the project's location and community. Easy access to physical assets is vital for the enhancement and sustainability of poor people's livelihoods.

- **Human capital:** Human capital refers to skills, knowledge, experience and the ability of an individual to adopt various livelihood strategies to achieve the objective of their livelihood. The project members have acquired a number of skills which enable them to operate well on a daily basis. The skills include; sewing, quality control (done by the chairperson as is the most experienced), book keeping and report writing. Furthermore, as observed by the researcher, all the participants possessed a normal mental and physical health, evidenced by their physical appearance and their responses during interviews.
- **Natural capital:** Natural capital refers to the natural resources base and environmental services necessary for generating and sustaining livelihoods. Land, air quality, forests and water are all examples of natural assets available to people (Khan, 2013). In this vein, project members have acquired land where they have built. The quality of air is also good with fewer pollutants, translating into good health which is vital to productivity in the project.

4.2.11 Challenges of the project

Tlhoafalo Basadi has a number of challenges as stated by the respondents. These include;

- **Marketing.** High competition in the market is a challenging factor to Tlhoafalo Basadi project. Participants indicated that there were many other projects embarking on the tailoring business, including individuals, hence it is not always easy to get customers and tenders. Participants said those with stronger links with certain institutions got the tenders first. This signals lack of proper marketing strategy, initiative and perhaps corruption in those institutions. Project members depended on tenders (which did not come easily) and customers from the community who gave them orders to sew traditional outfits, t-shirts and tracksuits for crèches as well as mending clothes. Due to these challenges, respondents indicated their wish for supporting institutions to link them to tender boards and other markets like schools,

hospitals, security companies, etc. This situation suggests strong dependency on government's continued support and signals a lack of initiative to find their own market.

- **Lack of consistent regular income for participants.** The fluctuations in business and uncertainty in terms of acquiring tenders force participants to earn after a few months of work. This comes as a result of competition in the process of acquiring tenders. With this challenge, it is clear that the marketing strategy is insufficient which may be due to insufficient or relevant training. Sufficient or relevant in marketing and general business would help them develop skills which can enable them to look beyond the government for tenders, making it possible for them to generate more income. Project members did not mention training in marketing skills amongst the skills they received during focus group discussions as shown in the section "types of support" above when they were asked about the types of training received.
- **Shortage of staff.** Shortage of staff is due to the reason that most people want money after work, something they are not able to do as a result of irregular income. For this reason, many community members, especially the youth would prefer to get formal employment in the Chinese shops selling clothes in town and shops like Pick 'n Pay, Shoprite and other retailers where they are sure of having a monthly income, explained one of the respondents.
- **Disagreements.** Sometimes when they make money, some participants want to spend it on food at the project instead of saving until it matures. This ends them up in having disagreements. Improper use/allocation of money is an indication of indiscipline and lack of commitment to vision and must be dealt with early on in projects to avoid failure. Participants were however, able to dialogue with each other to resolve their differences. Dialogue is used because there is no constitution to guide the activities of the participants which could help solve their conflicts regarding money. According to the Communicative Action Theory, it is through dialogue that participants are able to explore issues that have meaning for them (Schenk *et al* 2015:258).
- **Challenges with allocation of duties.** This happens when they have a tender and have to complete work on time. Some project members have to attend to calls (workshops and meetings) at the DSD. Respondents expressed that tenders can come at any time when a meeting has already been scheduled by the Department which they cannot avoid. It happens that those are the same people who are also able to sew at the project

in order to meet the target, hence posing a challenge because they have to work within time. This forces them to work in the night to be able to catch up with time and demand.

4.3 DISANENG YOUTH PROJECT

4.3.1 Background characteristics of project members

Similar to the other project in this study, the researcher established the background characteristics of the Disaneng youth project members first.

4.3.2 Gender profile

Table 4.5 The gender profile of participant in the Disaneng youth project

Gender	Number of participants	Percentage %
Male	1	12.5%
Female	7	87.5%
Total (N)	8	100%

Table 4.5 shows that Disaneng youth project currently have eight members, of which only one is male. At the start of the project, participants were twenty but now the project has dropped to eight with six active ones.

“We are presently six active participants, the rest are on the project’s certificate but are not active. Some got jobs and others feel the project is not going anywhere.”

The statement provided above by one of the participant at Disaneng youth project reflects some level of frustration in members who believe that with combined efforts, much can be realised to their benefit.

4.3.3 Respondents age

Table 4.6 Ages of respondents in Disaneng youth project

Age	Number of participants	Percentage %
18-25	0	0%
25-35	3	37.5%
35-45	5	62.5%

45 and above	0	0%
Total (N)	8	100%

Table 4.6 shows that the majority of the respondents in the Disaneng project had just graduated from the category of youth, meaning that at the time it started, they were all youth. The apparent reason was obviously that this was a project geared towards the empowerment of the youth in the community.

4.3.4 Education level

Table 4.7 Education level of participants in Disaneng youth project

Education level	Number of participants	Percentage %
Primary	2	25%
Secondary	5	62.5%
Tertiary	1	12.5%
Total (N)	8	100%

According to table 4.7, five (62.5%) out of the eight remaining participant, were literate (had completed Matric). As noted earlier, literacy capacitates individuals putting them in a better position to undertake certain tasks. That said, it was disappointing to realise this project was not doing any better than Tlhoafalo basadi which is run by women who did not have Matric. This proves that the level of education has nothing to do with the success of the project but amongst others, skill and commitment.

4.3.5 Project members experience and perceptions

Disaneng project members were also asked questions relating to why they initiated the project and what their benefits and challenges were. Their views were as follows;

4.3.6 Objectives of the project

Project members gave many reasons why they started the project but the ones which were similar to those contained in their business plan were; (1) to generate income, (2) job creation and (3) to reduce poverty in their community. Other objectives were to provide services (in goods) to the community and to gain more knowledge and skills. This shows that members are well acquainted with their livelihood goals.

4.3.7 Beneficiaries

According to the respondents, beneficiaries of the project were; (a) project participants (primary beneficiaries) and (b) community (secondary beneficiaries). Their analysis was that they benefited from the project by means of earning an income from their sales, gaining new skills and learning from each other, while the community benefited by buying chickens at affordable prices, even on credit locally, saving them time and money on transport. Respondents further indicated that they were also able to donate eggs to community crèches to promote nutrition during the days when the project was doing well. They could also hire people from the community to clean the chicken run and the project yard, which they are not able to do now as there is no income to count on. One of the answers that covered everything on how the community benefited by one respondent was, *“Previously, we used to sell and donate eggs to the pre-schools and chickens in the village. We sold them at a discount sometimes and they didn't have to go to town to buy chickens so they saved on transport.”*

4.3.8 Types of support received

Collectively, respondents were only able to identify four types of support. These included;

- **Training:** All respondents agreed to have received training of some sort. They said they were trained in various areas including poultry farming level 1 which was basically about how to raise chickens, measure their temperature, how to measure chicken feed and how to prevent sicknesses. They also received Agriculture training level 2 which included book keeping and records keeping. Training was offered by the DSD and the department of agriculture.
- **Funding:** respondents admitted to have received funding to the value of R1000, 000 which they used to erect a building, buying of the equipment, fencing, stock (chicks), feed and a borehole with a tank.
- **A truck and office equipment:** they were also provided with office equipment and money for a truck by the DSD to help them deliver their products and other logistics.
- **Land:** the chief gave them land free of charge and attended their meetings to show support.

In spite of the support received, some still complained about not receiving any support apparently following their exit from the department. This only shows too much dependency on

government institutions. In as much as support is essential, too much dependency should be discouraged especially when the important things have been provided to kick start the project.

4.3.9 Successes of the project

Although most of them insisted on not seeing much success considering what their objectives were (creating employment, generating income, reducing poverty), some of them acknowledged that they had at least succeeded in acquiring their own land, building, vehicle, office equipment and other necessities like electricity and a borehole. They also said they had gained a few skills. These successes were attributed to the funding and training which they received from the DSD. Furthermore, one respondent indicated that sometimes they mobilise themselves and inject a bit of money in the project for stock but they can only get something once the chickens mature and sell. This is usually around R300 each or less. This income is however not close to meeting their weekly needs they said. One respondent said she only uses it to buy food for her lunchbox to eat at the project site as they are trying to revive the project.

4.3.10 Factors contributing to successes

Apart from other contributing factors like funding and training, assets available to the Disaneng youth project were also identified by the researcher as contributing factors to the successes experienced. They include;

- **Social capital:** through observation, as the researcher was going door to door interviewing project participants, their families were supportive. They welcomed the researcher and accorded their family members time to be interviewed without interference. The community was also supportive, evidenced by respondents who said that the community bought chickens from them, while the traditional leaders allowed them to have land within the community for the purpose of building their offices (operation centre).
- **Physical capital:** their physical capital included a truck which made it easier for them to run their daily activities, production equipment and the building which they owned. Additionally, the project is located along the main road, making them easily accessible and making it easier project members to deliver their goods or buying stock from the nearby town (Mafikeng). Not far from the project, is a government clinic where project members can easily access help whenever their health was threatened. Primary and secondary schools are also within reach.

- **Human capital:** From the researcher's observation, none of the project members looked ill or undernourished. They were all physically and mentally stable, evidenced by their response to the interviews. Some of the project members had quite some skills to help them run the daily project activities. Most of them had acquired formal education up to secondary school, putting them in a better state of being able to analyse their situations regarding the project.
- **Natural capital:** Land was made available to them free of charge by their chief. Air quality seemed to be fair as there were fewer pollutants due to the absence of industries within the vicinity.

4.3.11 Challenges of the project

It was realised that the project members did not feel that the project had impacted their lives and community as anticipated. In their own views, the project's vision was to see the project succeeding to the level where it became a small chicken factory, where they could create employment for the community. *"Our target was to have at least six broiler structures and six layer structures, but they are still the same (two) of which one is spoiled."* said one respondent. Another member expressed that she was not even sure that the current committee had the capacity and skill to take the project forward. In one of the participant's words, *"I really don't see any successes to impact our lives because even right now we are struggling; there is no capital for inputs and stock. Moreover, there is no trust amongst ourselves; others are working while some of us are not. To make matters worse, our gas cylinder and water stand were stolen, making our work more difficult."* Respondents further explained that their expectations were to have consistent income but that was not the case. They currently do not have income from the project because they do not have stock and other inputs. Several other challenges were pointed out including;

- **Theft in the community:** they indicated that the stand for the water tank and a gas cylinder were stolen making it difficult for them to store pumped water forcing them to use a bucket. The case was reported to the police but the case is still pending. Sometimes their chickens were also stolen for lack of security at the project site. Lack of security they said was perpetuated by a broken fence at their project site.
- **Lack of financial capital to inject into the project:** respondents indicated that since they stopped receiving money from the DSD, they have no funds for buying stock.

- **No income:** Since they are not working as before, there is hardly any income. Failure of community members to pay their dues in time when they owe the project contributed to the lack of income according to one of the respondents.
- **Damaged structure for layer chickens:** the structure for layer chickens was damaged leaving them with one for broiler chickens, meaning that their productivity would still be low even if the stock was made available. That is because the output will be less due to the damaged structure.
- **Inactive members who do not want to resign:** some members are inactive yet they do not want to resign as advised by the DSD because they feel they started the project, and if something good was to come out of it, they would want to benefit. Absenteeism in this case signals a lack of commitment, discipline, motivation and perhaps lack of clear vision.
- **Current membership not well trained:** some of the members that are active now were not part of the team that was trained since they are newer. So it becomes a challenge to run a project without relevant skills. Right now they cannot access any training because the project was exited from the department.
- **No heaters:** to warm chickens, heaters are important but apparently they do not have any left. Lack of a heater was attributed to the loss of a gas cylinder which was stolen as there is no security at the project site.
- **Conflicts:** respondents expressed that they are always not agreeing on many things. Old members do not want to participate and when a meeting was called upon, they did not turn up. This has made the project's performance to deteriorate further.
- **Lack of market outside the community:** lack of market outside the community had always been a challenge they said. When they tried to reach supreme chicken to give them business, supreme wanted more stock than they could afford to supply so they could not sign the deal and moreover, they did not have a track at that time as indicated by one of the committee members, which could have helped them to transport the chickens if the deal was signed.
- **Interference of some traditional leaders:** Respondents said that a traditional leader interfered in their operations and wanted to control things. The result of such behaviour is that it takes away ownership of the project from its members and disempowers them instead. Empowerment is one of the Sustainable livelihoods principles identified in Kadozo (2009:43) which should result in increased voices and opportunities not otherwise.

Another factor adding to the challenges of the Disaneng youth, as analysed by the researcher was failure of project members to recognise and put to full use some of the available assets. That could have been due to limited knowledge on the part of project members. The assets not put to full use are;

- **Financial capital:** As stated earlier, Sustainable livelihoods views financial capital as resources that people use to achieve their livelihood goals. To that effect, Disaneng youth have quite a number of resources that can be converted into money to re-inject back in the project. For example, the truck can be hired out temporarily or used to provide services such as transporting building sand to construction sites, provide services to those who are relocating from one place to another and many more. This would give them the money they need for stock and a gas cylinder. Other assets include a borehole, a building, office equipment and chicken structures. All these can help them achieve their livelihood goals if put to good use. Moreover, since they have land of their own, they may also expand their business to include gardening which could help them earn a bit more.
- **Social capital:** It was made clear to the researcher that the project members lacked the spirit of team work. They constantly disagreed on many things and could not resolve their issues. This undermines their success because their social capital is threatened.

4.4 RESPONSE FROM MUNICIPAL OFFICIALS

Two counsellors representing each project were interviewed using a similar interview schedule. The questions aimed to capture their perspectives on livelihood initiatives in their areas, to determine whether or not the projects were beneficial to the communities. The researcher's interest was also to capture whether or not these officials worked closely with the projects for support. They were asked whether they were aware of the existence of projects and their objectives in their wards, how the community benefited and what their recommendations would be regarding funding of these initiatives.

It appeared that both counsellors were aware of the existence of the projects in their wards. Although one of them indicated that he was not sure of the operations of the project in his area, providing a reason that he was only elected into office in August, 2016. For that reason, he could not comment further on whether or not the project was benefiting the community. This scenario was disappointing to the researcher as counsellors are expected to be aware of what is

happening in their community (wards). This shows a lack of commitment on the part of government officials who sometimes did not take their work seriously. The other counsellor was well informed and indicated that the project's objectives were to generate income and alleviate unemployment. This response was consistent with how project members viewed their projects.

When asked about the impact of the project in the community, the counsellor indicated that presently the project in her area was not making any progress, hence having no impact on the community. The reasons she gave were that there was no commitment on the part of project members. One of the respondents also mentioned that a traditional leader interfered in the operations of the project and wanted to control things. This could be one of the reasons they did not want to commit as it made them feel like they did not own the project.

Finally when the counsellor was asked whether or not funding of these projects should continue, she was hesitant to provide an answer but explained that if funding was to be given; only serious members who showed commitment should be recruited and on-going monitoring should be employed. She also recommended that membership should be limited to only a few because larger groups find it difficult to work together.

4.5 RESPONSE FROM TRADITIONAL AUTHORITIES

In a similar manner, traditional authorities were asked if the projects in their areas were benefiting the communities. It encouraged the researcher to learn that traditional authorities were so acquainted with what was happening in their communities. When questions were asked about the projects, they demonstrated their awareness by providing answers which were to a greater extent consistent with responses of project members. For example, they mentioned that the aim of livelihood projects in their area was to generate income and reduce poverty. This confirms that the issue of poverty is indeed a major challenge and understood by many in South Africa. Thus they view income-generating projects as mechanism/strategies through which members can generate income and address poverty in their communities. For that reason, they were of the view that these initiatives should continue to receive funding because community members were being helped to get services locally instead of going far. One respondent noted however, that there were many challenges in the projects including a lack of proper support from other community members, a lack of strong management, advertising and marketing skills. To curb these challenges, traditional authorities recommended that projects should be provided with mentorship, marketing skills and

strengthening their management skills through further training and skills development activities which in their view were not sufficiently provided and are evidenced by the challenges they face.

4.6 RESPONSE FROM THE DSD

The researcher viewed the DSD as an important stakeholder in these livelihood projects hence included its officials in the study. The reason for their inclusion was to capture the policy objectives regarding livelihood projects, the types of support they provided and the challenges they face with these projects. Below were their views;

4.6.1 Policy objectives

The DSD's policy objectives, as provided by the respondents were similar, but perhaps the most outstanding ones, which were consistent with what is contained in the DSD's community development worker's tool kit of 2009, were;

- Poverty eradication.
- Creation of employment.
- Ensuring sustainability of the projects.
- Ensuring the empowerment of communities.
- To promote sustainable development.

These objectives were also consistent with the objectives of the two projects, which were to eradicate poverty, create employment and generate income.

4.6.2 Types of support

When asked about the types of support they provided to these projects, respondents identified three major types of support. They are:

- **Funding:** funding is provided once the projects meet the requirements of the department. The requirements are that some project members should be able to read and write, their goals should be consistent with the DSD's policy objectives and they must be able to mobilise themselves.

- **Training:** The DSD, SEDA and department of agriculture appeared to be the main stakeholders involved in the training of project members in this study. One of the department's officials elaborated that usually, a skills audit is conducted before funding to determine the types of training to be provided. The most common types of training identified by both the project members and the department's officials were financial management, book keeping and records keeping. In spite of a claim that a skills audit is usually conducted prior to funding, it appeared that there were others funded before training. This followed a statement by one participant when elaborating the challenges she had observed; *“another challenge is that when we got money at first (to mean first trench) there was no training on how to plan and use the money properly, as a result, money was not used properly and we ended up stranded.”* Meanwhile others mentioned that they were not part of the group that received training because they joined the project after the training.
- **Monitoring:** monitoring was said to be offered on a continuous basis through the office of the project manager to encourage sustainability. To that effect, CDPs are allocated projects which are still under the DSD's custody. However, the level of skill for people assigned to monitor was a major concern to some of the participants who indicated that CDWs are usually just concerned about income of the project and records and sometimes they did not come to the project, indicating that they were not monitored regularly. The researcher also observed that during the times of data collection, the CDWs were not present.

4.6.3 Challenges

The DSD officials acknowledged that there were a few challenges regarding the projects which included failure of Projects members to adhere to the Performance Financial Management Act (PFMA) in the sense that members used finances as they pleased not considering the DSD's PFMA where they have to account for all expenditure (they could not produce all receipts when needed) said a key respondent. In other words, projects failed to account properly. Hence financial mismanagement, lack of sustainability of projects over time and a lack of markets were their main challenges. With these findings, it appears that the lack of business skills (due to limited training or lack of relevant business training) of project members may be the reason for these challenges which could lead to failure of projects if left unchecked. Another respondent

indicated that sometimes there was misinformation amongst project members who did not understand the way the department operates. This signals a lack of proper communication and dialogue between the DSD and the project members. Swanepoel and De Beer (2006) say that community development projects stand or fall by the communication that takes place within them. It is the duty of the department to communicate thoroughly to project members what is expected of them as they offer their support. Failure to do so will result in failure of the project as priorities will be misguided.

4.7 SUMMARY

Chapter four focused on analysing data collected from the participants of both projects studied. It demonstrated the meanings of the words and phrases expressed by respondents after interviews and focus group discussions in order to generate themes. It became apparent that in spite of all the support provided by various supporting institutions, the projects faced challenges which further challenged the idea of turning them into sustainable livelihood initiatives. It also appeared that the youth project could not pull through the financial hurdles after withdrawal of the DSD, rendering it ineffective.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INRODUCTION

This chapter will focus on the emerging themes from the analysis presented in the preceding chapter and strives to make recommendations based on the outcomes (factors posing threats of failure on the sustainability) of projects. These recommendations will strengthen the operations of the livelihood projects and contribute towards a more effective implementation of the sustainable livelihood projects in NMMD and elsewhere. A conclusion will also be drawn out of the emerging themes.

Welman *et al.* (2005:211) state that the identification of themes is one of the most fundamental tasks in qualitative research. This study used a method/technique of counting significant words/phrases that occurred more frequently to identify themes. The phrases are discussed below.

5.2 EMERGING THEMES

5.2.1 Poverty and unemployment

Considering the participant's responses from the two projects, it emerged that the main reason for their engagement in income generating livelihood projects was to generate income and fight poverty and unemployment. Income generation is the basic need of all households; without a sustainable income survival is impossible (Niesing 2012:26). Communities are well aware of the fact that poverty and unemployment are the main challenges confronting them (evidenced by their responses in this study) and are the contributing factors for adoption the SL approach in South Africa as shown in the literature. Hence communities are willing to change their situations by taking part in projects that promise an improved wellbeing. Sustainable livelihood thinking is rooted in the idea that the participation of individuals and communities is crucial in defining and solving their own problems/poverty. To that effect, low income individuals and groups are viewed as active agents in successful poverty reduction strategies (Davidset *al.* 2009:40; Mazibuko 2013: 175).

5.2.2 Limited income from projects

This study revealed that both projects failed to generate sufficient income for their members. For Example, Tlhoafalo Basadi project members revealed that sometimes they only earned something at the end of three months which was not sufficient to meet their needs even then. This fact was attributed to fluctuations in business where sometimes they did not have orders to work on. Similarly but perhaps even worse, Disaneng youth project members stated that there is apparently no income because there is no stock (capital injection needed). This situation suggests that these projects are not being effective at realising their main goals. As part of its definition, a livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks (Krantz, 2001:3). Unfortunately the youth project seems not to recover from the stress posed by the withdrawal of outside help rendering it unsustainable. Amongst other factors (pre-determined in this study), the ability of participants in the project to derive benefits that are consistent with their livelihoods goals is an important indication of whether or not a project is effective in poverty reduction. One of the reasons for failure of livelihood initiatives as indicated in Niesing (2012:28) is the inability of project members to realise personal goals like generating sufficient income and community status.

5.2.3 Inadequate markets

Limited access to market stood out to be one of the major challenges confronting both projects. The Disaneng project participants said that access to market outside their community was always a problem to them. They mentioned that they could not sign a deal with Supreme chicken (a local chicken retailer in Mafikeng) because they could not keep up with the quantity that was demanded due to their small scale productivity. In a similar manner, Tlhoafalo Basadi project participants expressed that it was difficult for them to access tenders due to high competition with similar income generating initiatives. They said those who had stronger links and perhaps more experience were considered first. While they may make that allegation, there was no evidence to prove their point.

Access to market is critical as it allows members to get extra income to supplement household income (Chikadzi 2014:602). In this case, the DSD only linked them to SASSA which further linked them to other institutions like security companies and schools for tenders to make uniforms as indicated by a key respondent. Also Albu and Scot (2001) in (Chikadzi 2014), note that market access stands as one of the key determinants of success for livelihood

initiatives adopted to support the marginalised segments of society, it also remains a major challenge faced by small scale initiatives. Furthermore, the International Fund for Agriculture Development (IFAD) (2001) in (Chikadzi 2014) notes that markets are an essential and core anchor of livelihoods of both the rich and poor as no business can thrive and succeed without selling. As a result, poor access to markets becomes a major concern in promoting sustainable livelihoods.

5.2.4 Inadequate skills

Inadequacy of skills emerged as one of the challenges confronting the two projects. Participants of the Tlhoafalo basadi elaborated that when other members (usually project leaders) are called upon by the DSD to attend meetings and workshops, the remaining ones are unable to work effectively as some cannot sew (can only iron and cut materials under supervision). This indicates inadequacy of skills in other members and can make them lose out on other opportunities because time is lost. One of the project leaders indicated that sometimes they had to split their tender with another project just to keep up with the demand taking time into consideration. That signals a loss of opportunity and income altogether. On the other hand, Disaneng youth indicated a loss where some of their chicks died as a result of insufficient skills. They mentioned that when they asked for help from the Department of Agriculture, people with wrong expertise were sent to them who could not help. Adding to those challenges, both projects lacked in business skills, evidenced by the findings generated from their responses indicating that they lacked market. As noticed in the previous chapter, both projects did not have a plan on how to aggressively market their products. To that regard, Niesing (2012:28) asserts that training and skills development should deliberately be tailor-made to fit the culture and skills level of the community; it should not only be a western-style short course which does not have long term effects. Chikadzi (2014:602) attributes the lack of marketing skills to a fault on the part of supporting institutions who sometimes fail to go beyond the provision of things such as funding, land and production equipment. He asserts that these institutions should include active on-going mentoring in all aspects of business. Nkosi (2015:67) also notes that training and skilling of people in projects was not given much attention even though supported by legislation. This assertion is based on the premise that in the formal education system, entrepreneurship and business management courses are offered over a long period of time, where people are evaluated to ascertain whether or not learning has taken place, but is not so in income generating projects. Nkosi asserts that training in projects is

sometimes presented with little intensity and less follow-ups, hence suggests a more structured approach for income generating projects which would properly guide better training.

5.2.5 Culture of dependency on outside help

Most participants from both projects indicated the need for continued government support. Members of Tlhoafalo Basadi projects expressed their wish for the supporting institution (DSD) to link them to relevant tender institutions for continued income generation. Disaneng youth on the other had felt the need to get more funding from another government institution or other supporting institutions to revive their project. The situations on both projects indicate a culture of dependency on the part of project members. A study carried out by Kadozo in 2009 asserts that this culture of dependency is perpetuated by development practitioners and politicians who make promises to the poor to obtain their votes. That according to Kadozo, results into failure of projects to drive towards self-reliance because people feel that the state is responsible for providing them with social services and grants to meet their basic needs (Kadozo 2009:118). It became apparent that none of the projects in this study had a clear sustainability plan to keep it afloat after withdrawal of the DSD.

5.2.6 Lack of initiative, commitment and shared vision

Without doubt, a lack of initiative, commitment and shared vision will translate into failure to turn a project into a sustainable livelihood initiative. This was one of the challenges posed to the youth project in this study. Most of the respondents expressed their disappointment that other members did not want to participate. The reason behind their behaviour was perhaps the one pinpointed by a representative of the traditional leaders alluding to the fact there were no incentives since the DSD has exited them, *“for as long as there was no incentive, they did not want to work”* he said. Other project members also confirmed this by indicating that there was apparently no income. There were perhaps other reasons why these young people did not want to participate (something outside the scope of this study). However, this behaviour indicates their lack of commitment and a shared vision. Similarly in another study conducted by Nkosi (2014:41), the results showed that young people did not want to participate in local projects, especially those registered as cooperatives because they lacked commitment, did not want to be involved in hard labour, and tended to lose patience easily before there were earnings in the project. That may signal a common trend amongst young people to abandon projects when there are no incentives.

5.2.7 Different stakeholders had different roles but with similarities

It emerged that different stakeholders had different roles to play depending on the type of project although some were similar. According to the sustainable livelihoods framework, livelihood outcomes are a result of a number of linkages occurring between transforming structures, livelihoods assets and vulnerabilities posed naturally or by institutional policies and laws (Mauto 2013). The results of this study show that Disaneng youth and Tlhoafalo identified similar stakeholders whose roles are summarised in table 5.1 below. According to the literature in this study, the 1997 Social Welfare policy's mission as indicated therein is to serve and build a self-reliant nation in partnership with all stakeholders through an integrated welfare system which maximises its existing potential, and which is equitable, sustainable, accessible, people centred, and developmental (White Paper on Social Welfare 1997). Therefore the essence of institutional partnerships is to maximise the social welfare system in the provision of the much needed support and to ensure cost effectiveness in the allocation of services and resources (DSD 2009). Consequently, if the roles of these partnerships are not strengthened and properly coordinated, they can pose vulnerability or challenges to the projects in the sense that project members may just be receiving the same type of support e.g. same type of training while they lag behind in other skills as realised in this study where the types of training are replicated.

Table 5.1: Roles of different stakeholders

Institution	Roles played
DSD	Funding, training, monitoring and proving linkages to relevant institutions.
DTI	Provision of production equipment.
SIDA	Training, Business plans, advertising boards and opening of business accounts.
SASSA	Provision of tenders and linkages.
DSAC	Provision of office equipment.
Department of agriculture	Training in various agricultural skills.
Municipality	Provision of land.
Agri-Seta	Provision of various agricultural skills.
Community	Buying of products.

Project members	Daily running of the project's activities.
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5.2.8 Various types of assets were present to the projects

Various types of assets were identified by the researcher, including financial, physical, social, human, and natural assets. The potential of leadership, level of skills, age, health status of members (in a project or household) and their size are all determinants of capital/assets according to Khan (2013:27). However, some of the assets identified were not used to full capacity. The reason could be that the level of education or skills amongst members in both projects is limited hence the inability to recognise, analyse and put to full use the assets available to them. For example, disagreements between the project members humpers their social asset and contributes to challenges which can lead to failure of the project. On the other hand, if these assets are utilized to the maximum, they could impact positively on the projects and turn them into successful livelihood initiatives. The Sustainable livelihoods framework seeks to build upon people's assets, strengths and coping strategies to lead to successful livelihood strategies and outcomes (Patnaik and Prasad 2014:335). Hence it becomes problematic if project members are unable to identify their strengths in terms of recognising their assets and utilizing them to their advantage. In this case, institutions should come in to help them realise the assets available to them and how to turn them into livelihood strategies to achieve their livelihood goals.

5.3 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Tlhoafalo basadi and Disaneng youth projects have the potential to be turned into sustainable livelihood initiatives but only if the present challenges are overcome. It emerged in the study that the most challenging factor amongst others identified by both projects was lack of market. Other emerging challenges were lack of adequate skills, too much dependency on outside help and a lack of commitment, initiative and a shared vision. It also appeared in the study that project members were well aware of what they wanted to achieve by indicating that income generation, poverty and unemployment reduction were the major driving factors for the initiation of their projects, confirming that poverty and unemployment were indeed a challenge in their communities. However, generating sufficient income proved to be problematic in both projects, owing to the reasons that there was no market and capital for stock. Thus failure to generate sufficient income for members renders these projects ineffective because even the little income earned was insufficient to meet their monthly

needs. Finally it emerged that these projects had access to various assets (perhaps not visible to them) and support from various institutions even though not according to their expectations thus failing to derive outcomes consistent with their livelihood goals, one of which is to be self-reliant and is the goal of the South African government following the demise of apartheid.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.4.1 Encouraging behaviour change

There is a need to encourage project members to change their attitudes and behaviours towards projects that are meant to improve their livelihoods. They should minimise their dependency and realise that government or other institutions are there to support them with necessary tools to kick start their projects but ultimately, they are the ones to put in more effort to make their projects sustainable. There has to be willingness, commitment, initiative and togetherness, thus a process that requires focus and patience.

5.4.2 Further capacity building

The study revealed insufficient level of skills amongst project members; especially in business management posing a threat to their sustainability. To that effect, the study recommends further capacity building for project members by supporting institutions. Capacity building in this case will mean strengthening the project member's abilities to undertake daily tasks which are presently proving difficult to them; e.g. marketing and financial management. Meaning that intentional and relevant training; not just once, should be provided on a regular basis to ensure that members are sufficiently trained and are able to undertake tasks without much assistance. Further capacity building will assist in making these types of projects sustainable and will contribute towards realising government's vision of poverty eradication.

5.4.3 Mentorship

It was realised in the study that project members had insufficient skills. That indicates a lack of mentorship, which is crucial in realising the goals of both project members and supporting institutions. Therefore this study recommends that CIDWs should identify people with relevant knowledge and link them to the members of the projects in order to provide on-site on-going mentorship to members of the projects until such a time that they are able to perform tasks with little or no supervision.

5.4.4 Strengthening institutional linkages

Strengthening institutional linkages will reduce the replication of efforts and save costs. For example, the types of training offered to project members in this study by different institutions were similar (e.g. book keeping and records keeping). When their links are strengthened in terms of how they communicate with each other regarding the support for projects which need their services, institutions can systematically allocate tasks to themselves, increasing efficiency and saving time and money too.

5.4.5 Encouraging the development of sustainability plans

Failure of the youth project to run after withdrawal of the DSD is evidence that the members did not plan well in advance on how to move on without outside help. To overcome this, perhaps the DSD should sensitise project members of its intention to withdraw its support at some point and encourage them to development sustainability plans well in advance. DSD should also ensure that those plans are viable in order to allow a smooth transition after.

The study further recommends that supporting institutions should perhaps focus on projects that have identified a gap in the market; where their products are needed. That means they should also do a feasibility study to check how many similar businesses are present in that community competing for the same customers and allocating funds to projects that are seen as most viable in terms of market. This will ensure that the challenge of market is minimised. Otherwise the cycle of dependency will continue.

5.4.6 Further research

This study recommends further research to include more similar projects in the area. Including more projects will determine whether or not the trends found in the two projects studied extend to other projects. Doing so will help policy makers to establish the common challenges and make amendments where need be. It will also help policy makers to establish whether or not such initiatives as these should be continued.

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ANNEXURES

ANNEXURE A: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR PROJECT LEADERS

CHAIR PERSON, SECRETARY, TREASURER AND COMMITTEE MEMBER

Date of interview.....

Place of interview.....

Name and position of interviewee.....

North-West University

Faculty of Human and Social Sciences

Department of Development Studies

Mafikeng campus

Student name: Edah Lungu

Supervisor : Professor T. Monaheng

PERSONAL EXPERIENCE WITH THE PROJECT

1. Who started the project?
2. What were the reasons for starting the project?
3. Does your project have a target monthly income?
4. Roughly, what is each person's monthly income from the project?
5. What are the roles of each office bearer in this committee?
6. What are the roles of other members of the project?
7. Is there any outside support for the project? What type of support is it and from where?
8. Have you received any training? What type of training?
9. From your own experience, do you think the project has succeeded in meeting its target or set goals?
10. Do you have any challenges running this project? What are they?
11. How do you address the challenges you face?
12. How is this project beneficial to members and the community?
13. What is it that you want to see happening in this project which can improve the project but is not being done?

ANNEXURE B: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR FOCUS GROUP

Student name : Edah Lungu

Supervisors : Professor T. Monaheng

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS

1. What age are you?

	Males	Females
18-25		
25-35		
35-45		
45 and above		

2. What is your education level?

Primary	
Secondary	
Tertiary	

PERSONAL EXPERIENCE WITH THE PROJECT

1. When did the project start?
2. How many active participants are there in the project presently?
3. What was the aim for starting the project?
4. Does your project have a set monthly income target?
5. What is the approximate individual income from the project?
6. How does the income help you to satisfy your needs?
7. Does the income sufficiently meet your needs?
8. Do you have any other form of employment or other sources of income?
If No, why?
If yes, what source of income is it?
9. How does your committee ensure financial accountability?
10. Are you happy with the way they account or do you think there is more they can do?
11. Apart from project members, which other stakeholders are there in the project and what are their roles?
12. Have you had any training? If yes, from where and what type of training was it?
13. Apart from training, is there any other outside support you receive and what type is it?

14. Are there any successes in this project? If yes, what are they and what factors are contributing to those successes?
15. What are your challenges as individuals and as a group and how do you address them?
16. How has being a member of this project been beneficial to you?
17. How has the project benefited the rest of the community?

ANNEXURE C: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR DSD OFFICIALS
VIEWS ON LIVELIHOODS PROJECTS

1. With reference to the livelihoods projects, what are the policy objectives?
2. What is required/qualification in order for individuals or groups to receive project support from the DSD?
3. What type of support and training does the department provide to the project beneficiaries?
4. Do the projects receive any support from any other stakeholders? Please explain.
5. It has been observed by scholars that after the withdrawing of government institution's support financially, the projects become less active and eventually die. What mechanisms has your department put in place to ensure that this is not the case?
6. Are there any challenges that your department encounters in the process of trying to ensure the success of these projects and how are these challenges being addressed or how can be addressed?
7. Are there any successes in these projects? What are they and what are the factors contributing to the successes?

ANNEXURE D: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR MUNICIPAL OFFICIALS AND TRADITIONAL AUTHORITIES

KNOWLEDGE AND VIEWS ON THE PROJECT

1. Are you aware of Tlhoafalo basadi/Disaneng youth project in your community?
2. If yes, how did you know about it?
3. Do you have any idea why it was started? What are the objectives?
4. In your view, is this project beneficial to your community members?
5. What changes has the project brought to the community?
6. Do project members face any challenges that you are aware of?
7. Do project members face any challenges regarding the community? If yes, what are they and how are they being dealt with?
8. What in your opinion needs to be done for the project to function better?
9. What support do you or other people give to the project?
10. Do you think these types of projects should continue to be funded in the villages?

ANNEXURE D: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Place of interview.....

Date of interview.....

North-West University

Faculty of Human and Social Sciences

Department of Development Studies

Mafikeng Campus

Dear sir/madam,

My name is Edah Lungu. I am a student at the North-West University, Mafikeng Campus. I am currently pursuing a Master of Social Science degree in Development Studies. To complete my degree, I am required to do research and submit a full dissertation. It is in the context of the above that I wish to kindly ask you to participate in the research interview. The interview consists of a series of questions pertaining to the topic of my research; “The effectiveness of the Tlhoafalo Basadi and the Disaneng youth projects as sustainable livelihood initiatives in Ngaka Modiri Molema District, North-West Province, South Africa.”

The interview schedule contains open ended questions where respondents are expected to answer according to their own understanding of the project and it may not take more than 45 minutes. Please rest assured that the information you will give will be treated with strict confidentiality and will be used only for the purpose of this study.

Please note that if at any point you wish to withdraw from taking part in this research you are free to do so, and this will not be held against you in any way.

Your kind support in this will be highly appreciated.

Participant's signature.....

Participant's name.....

Interviewer's signature.....

Interviewer's name.....