

**POVERTY REDUCTION POLICIES AND STRATEGIES IMPLEMENTED IN
THE NORTH WEST PROVINCE: AN EVALUATION OF THEIR IMPACT IN THE
NGAKA MODIRI MOLEMA DISTRICT**

BY

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Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
(DEVELOPMENT STUDIES)**

in the

FACULTY OF HUMAN AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

at the

**NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
(MAFIKENG CAMPUS)**

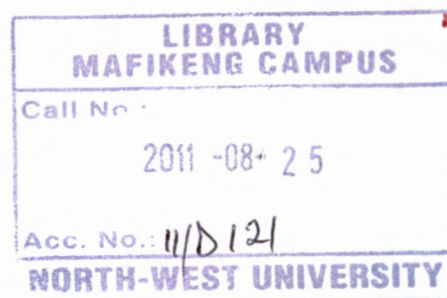
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NOVEMBER 2010



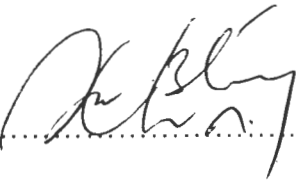
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DECLARATION

I, Samuel Asare Botchway, declare that this Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Development Studies, hereby submitted at the North-West University, is my own work and has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other university. It is my own work in design and execution, and that all materials and sources used or quoted and contained therein have been acknowledged by means of complete references.

Signed  on this 20 day of NOVEMBER 2010 at
MAFIKENG

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study would not have been completed had it not been for the generous assistance and stimuli provided by a variety of people and organizations. To them I owe much gratitude.

These include:

- My family, especially my father, who in his old age urged me on and was anxious to see the ultimate end of my study. Other members of my family, Lulama, Grace, my children, Dennis, Kofi, Esi, Leslie, Tando and especially Kwesi who gave me solid support and all the encouragement I needed.
- My supervisor, Prof. B.C.Chikulo, for his invaluable critique, comments and guidance by which this final product has been obtained.
- The NWU (Mafikeng Campus) Faculty of Human and Social Sciences which gave me some financial support and time to study. Many colleagues in this Faculty were very supportive, especially those in the Department of Development studies who advised, encouraged and assisted me in various ways.
- Officials of the Department of Social Development, South African Social Security Agency, IDT, Ratlou Local Municipality and the communities in the study area for providing me with the much needed assistance.
- Many people helped me to put together pieces of this document. These include my graduate assistants, Tebogo, Kepadisa, Tau, Mokothu and Jabayane who helped with the fieldwork; Mashila, Refilwe, Vuyo with the data capturing; Mrs Gladys Maimane who excellently typed out all the manuscripts, designed and formatted the final document; Professor Awudetsey and Ms Helen Thomas who proof read and edited the document. Many thanks go to all these people.
- Friends such Mr. Odame-Takyi, Dr Assan and Ms Galalatsang Peme who, in many special ways, supported me to come to this end.
- However, the views expressed and mistakes that may be contained in this work are mine and mine only.

ABSTRACT

Governments in the Developing World, including South Africa and its North West Province, are faced with the daunting development challenge of poverty reduction. This is evidenced by the high incidence, severity and widespread of poverty. The challenge is even more acute and compelling in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District where poverty is widespread and more pervasive in the rural communities.

Poverty which is subjective, is conceptualised broadly in this Thesis as, lack of well-being and dignity, and it afflicts people multidimensionally, quantitatively and qualitatively, and requires appropriate multidimensional interventions to reduce it if not eradicate it. To meet the challenge of poverty alleviation, the North West Provincial Government has adopted and implemented multidimensional policies, legislative and institutional frameworks and strategies. Despite these efforts, nearly half the population continues to live in poverty.

The aim of this study therefore was to evaluate the appropriateness and impact of the North West Government's implemented poverty reduction strategies on the poor in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District. Four projects implemented in the villages of Mathateng, Mayaeyane, Uitkyk and the rural suburbs of Mafikeng were used as case studies. Both qualitative and quantitative methodologies were applied in the collection of the data and its analysis.

This study identifies the nature, extent and the depth or the severity of poverty amongst the target people, and examines the relevance of the various Provincial Government policies and strategies directed at them. It establishes that poverty reduction strategies have not been effectively implemented in the rural areas. The findings highlight the challenges facing the residents of the study area and the reasons for the continued poverty in the area. It concludes that although the North West Government's poverty reduction policies and strategies may be effective, replicable and efficiently bringing down poverty at the provincial and district levels, they are less effective at the local level i.e. rural areas. At the local level where the majority of the poor reside the benefits of the generous policies have not been fully felt.

KEY TERMS:

- Development;
- Poverty;
- Quantitative and Qualitative poverty;
- Inequality;
- Unemployment;
- Well-being;
- Poverty reduction;
- Development policy;
- Development strategies;
- Dimensions of poverty;
- Poverty measurements;
- Participation;
- Rural Development;
- Basic needs;
- North West Province;
- Ngaka Modiri Molema District.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AfDB	:	Africa Development Bank
AFMD	:	Animal Feed and Medical Distributors
AIDS	:	Acquired Immune-Deficiency Syndrome
ASGISA	:	Accelerated Sustainable Growth Initiative of South Africa
CBO	:	Community Based Organisation
CBPWP	:	Community Based Public Works Programme
CICSSS	:	Committee of Inquiry into Comprehensive Social Security System
CLO	:	Community Liaison Officer
CMIP	:	Consolidated Municipal Infrastructure Programme
CS	:	Community Survey
CSSR	:	Centre for Social Science Research
CWSSS	:	Community Water Supply and Sanitation Scheme
DAET	:	Department of Agriculture, Environment and Tourism
DFID	:	Department for International Development
DoE	:	Department of Education
DPW	:	Department of Public Works
DSD	:	Department of Social Development
DWAF	:	Department of Water Affairs and Forestry
EBSSTS	:	Electricity Basic Support Services Tariff Strategy
ECD	:	Early Childhood Development
ESKOM	:	Electricity Supply Commission (Electrisiteitsvoorsienings-Kommissie)
EPWP	:	Expanded Public Works Programme
FBO	:	Faith Based Organization

GCIS	:	Government Communication and Information System
GDP	:	Gross Domestic Product
GEAR	:	Growth Employment and Reconstruction
GNI	:	Gross National Income
GNP	:	Gross National Product
HBCC	:	Home Based Care Centre
HDI	:	Human Development Index
HPI	:	Human Poverty Index
IDT	:	Independent Development Trust
IES	:	Income and Expenditure Survey
ILO	:	International Labour Organization
ISRDP	:	Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme
ISRDS	:	Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategies
JIPSA	:	Joint Initiative Programme of South Africa
KIDS	:	Kwazulu Natal Income Dynamics Study
LED	:	Local Economic Development
LFS	:	Labour Force Survey
MAF	:	Mafikeng Animal Feed
MDGs	:	Millennium Development Goals
MERG	:	Macro Economic Research Group
MFSP	:	Mayaeyane Food Security Project
MIF	:	Municipal Infrastructure Framework
MTDP	:	Mathateng Tlhabologo Development Project
MTFS	:	Mathateng Tlhabologo Financial Statement
NGO	:	Non Governmental Organization
NMMDM	:	Ngaka Modiri Molema District Municipality

NPRPF	:	National Poverty Relief Programme Fund
NW	:	North West
NWP	:	North West Province
NWPG	:	North West Provincial Government
OECD	:	Organization of Economic Cooperation for Development
OHS	:	October Household Survey
OUP	:	Oxford University Press
PAR	:	Participatory Action Research
PC	:	Project Consolidate
PCAS	:	Policy Co-ordination Advisory Services
PGDS	:	Provincial Growth and Development Strategies
PIR	:	Poverty and Inequality Report
PLAAS	:	Programme for Land and Agrarian Studies
PPA	:	Participatory Poverty Analysis
PPP	:	Public Private Partnership
PRA	:	Participatory Rural Appraisal
PRMPR	:	World Bank Poverty Reduction Group
PRP	:	Poverty Reduction Programme
PRPs	:	Poverty Reduction Projects
PRSP	:	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
RDP	:	Reconstruction and Development Programme
RFP	:	Radithuso Food Production
RLM	:	Ratlou Local Municipality
SACE	:	South African Certification Council
SAIRR	:	South Africa Institute of Race Relations
SALDRU	:	South African Labour and Development Research Unit

SA-PPA	:	South African Participatory Poverty Assessment
SASSA	:	South African Social Security Agency
SIDA	:	Swedish International Development Agency
STATSSA	:	Statistics South Africa
SWOT	:	Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats
UIF	:	Unemployment Insurance Fund
UN	:	United Nations
UNAIDS	:	United Nations AIDS Programme
UNCHR	:	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Human Right
UNDP	:	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	:	United Nations Population Fund
UNHCS	:	United Nations Centre for Human Settlements
UNICEF	:	United Nations International Children's Education Fund
UNRISD	:	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development
VDC	:	Village Development Committee
WDR	:	World Development Report
WB	:	World Bank

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

'The urgency to act has never been
greater; the clock is ticking'

- Elizabeth Stuart, Oxfam, 2008.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Poverty eradication is a major challenge worldwide. Available evidence from diverse sources consistently underscores the severity of the poverty situation globally. The World Bank (2008) reports that more than half (65%) of the world's population live in poverty and among these 45% are absolutely poor. The reports of the international development organisations continue to show that the majority of the people in the Developing World are still afflicted with poverty. According to the World Bank's (2008) recent estimates of poverty, 1.64 billion people in the Developing World are living below the \$1.25 a day poverty line used for defining the core poor (Chen & Ravallion, 2008). This figure is higher than was estimated previously. It contrasts with the 2004 figures which indicated that one in five people or about one billion people were deemed to be poor in the developing world (Chen & Ravallion, 2008). The corresponding number of those living below two dollars a day is as high as 2.6 billion or 47% of the world's population (Chen & Ravallion, 2008: 33-34). Scholars such as Myrdal (1977), Lister (2004), Greig, Hulme and Turner (2007) had earlier lamented the deepening of the poverty crisis, or increases in the incidence of poverty. The recent findings that the incidence of poverty in the world is higher than was estimated in the past, paints a grim picture of the poverty situation in the Developing World.

Of all the regions in the world, poverty poses the greatest challenge in sub-Saharan Africa (AfDB, 2002a: 19). The region has the highest proportion of

poverty and the fastest human poverty growth. According to Oxfam (Rizvi, 2008), for the past 25 years, half the population in sub-Saharan Africa has lived and continues to live in extreme poverty. The World Bank (2008) study also shows that poverty rate in Sub-Saharan Africa remains at above 50 percent, the same figure as in 1981. This report (2008: 33-34) documents that, in Sub-Saharan Africa, 51.2% or 390.6 million people live on US\$1.25 a day or less. The corresponding figures of those living on US\$2.00 a day or less is 73% or 556.7 million. These figures underscore the acuteness of the poverty situation and its severity on the continent in relation to other parts of the world. In other words, while the incidence of poverty has been falling in most regions of the world, in Africa, the proportion of those living in poverty has been increasing faster than anywhere else, leading to the region's characterisation as a 'development wasteland' (Adesina, 2006: 3).

Furthermore, the dilemma in Africa is that poverty is not only multifaceted but is also characterised by a sense of powerlessness, lack of dignity, lack of purchasing power, insufficient access to social and economic services, as well as few opportunities for formal income generation and a predominance of rural areas (AfDB, 2002a ; Hope, 2004). Rural poverty in Africa contributes to more than 60 percent of the incidence of total poverty measured by the headcount ratio (AfDB, 2002b). The state of rural poverty is thus not only widespread, but is also deep and severe, the extent of which varies between countries. The continued prevalence of poverty in Africa keeps its eradication as the central objective of its socio-economic development and thus making the reduction of poverty the most difficult development challenge (Hope, 2008:129).

In South Africa, poverty and inequality has a history with an overbearing racial stamp due to the apartheid legacy (Seeking, 2007). Following the democratic election of April 1994, the new South African government inherited an economy characterised by social and economic inequality. The inequality was particularly marked by affluence in the White communities, and backwardness in the native

reserves and homelands inhabited by the majority of the Black population (Chikulo, 2003). This duality, as scholars have observed (Chikulo, 2003) was further complicated by the parallel interracial inequality, which reserved the best socio-economic facilities for whites, and the poor facilities for Blacks. The racial segregation in the economic, educational, health and social welfare sectors "left deep scars" of inequality and poverty: the majority of the population – the black section of society – was characterized by abject poverty, and minimal access to basic social and economic services, while the affluent sectors of South African society had access to infrastructure (including power, water and sanitation) and economic and social facilities comparable to those found in the OECD countries (Chikulo, 2003; DSD, 2000).

In 1993 the poverty head count rate in South Africa, based on a poverty line, set at R250 per person, was 50.1 percent. The Black Africans accounted for a disproportionate share of poor individuals in the country as measured by that headcount rate. A racial breakdown indicates that Africans accounted for about 77 percent of the population in 1995 with their share increasing to 79 percent in 2005. In both years, however, about 93 percent of the population who lived on less than R322 a month, which is considered as a poverty line, were Africans (Bhorat & van der Westhuizen, 2006; Luyt, 2008). Clearly, Africans continue to account for a much larger share of poverty than any other South African population group. Consequently, the issue of poverty and inequality continues to dominate the post apartheid development discourse.

The poverty situation in the North West Province does not differ markedly from the national perspective. In the North West Province which can be classified as rurally orientated with 65.1% of the population residing in the rural areas, the poverty rate is 62.1% (May, 2000; UNDP, 2003a; Schoeman, 2008). The province's share of the national poverty gap is as high as 10.5% (UNDP, 2003a). Twenty eight percent (28%) of the provincial population (about 298 373) live in absolute poverty and 55% of the total population live just on the

poverty line (Stats SA, 2007; NWPG, 2004). Provincial distribution of poverty among households varies. A greater percentage of these households are found in the disadvantaged rural communities. The tragedy is that while the urban sectors enjoy all the services that make life worth living, the black rural sectors only see or hear what is going on in the urban areas but never get to participate or share in those benefits.

In the Ngaka Modiri Molema District for example, many rural areas still continue to face neglect, poverty and absence of sustainable livelihoods. Poverty is widespread and severe with over 62% of the population classified as poor and out of this, 53.4% live below the poverty line of US\$1.25 a day (Punt, Pauw, & Van Schoor, 2005: 8). There are also widespread inequalities in the district based on racial lines which correspond to those of the national and provincial inequalities. This is discernible in terms of ownership of the productive sector in the district and HDI which manifest the extent of poverty. About 80% of the productive commercial agricultural sector is largely in the hands of a small minority of whites in the district. The retail sector is also in the hands of a small Asian population. The levels of HDI inequality between the different population groups is clearly indicated by the HDI of 0.47 for African population, 0.84 for whites, 0.57 for the Coloured and 0.80 for the Asian population (STATSSA, 2005; 2009). Poverty and inequality therefore stand as some of the greatest challenges to be resolved in the district.

1.1.1 Efforts to bring poverty reduction to the centre of development agenda

In the past decade, there have been several efforts to bring poverty in general and the rural poor in particular to the centre of the development agenda. First, the leaders of industrial countries have, at various summits, pledged to assist developing countries in their critical endeavour of poverty reduction. The Copenhagen Social Summit in 1995 was among the first where leaders put the

people's human development agenda forward by adopting a declaration for social development and a programme of action. This summit which was one of many organized by the United Nations to systematically address poverty, marked the turning point for the multilateral system to address world poverty in the 1990s. The release of *Attacking Poverty* (World Bank, 2001), underscored the fact that poverty remained a critical global problem. This commitment was reaffirmed in 2001 with the adoption of the UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by almost all countries. *The Human Development Report (2003)*, and the *Millennium Development Goals: A Compact among Nations to End Human Poverty (UNDP, 2003a)* cemented the critical purpose of MDGs as universal guidelines for development efforts to alleviate poverty. Subsequently multilateral financial institutions and other donors have also highlighted the importance of refocusing on the rural poor.

Secondly, African leaders have, since 2000, reaffirmed the centrality of the poverty alleviation agenda as their primary goal, at the summit in Libreville in 2000 and OAU summit in 2001 (AfDB, 2002a: 19). These commitments to the need to reduce poverty in the region were subsequently released in the New Economic Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) and the New Vision of the African Development Bank (Adesina, Graham & Olukoshi, 2006; AfDB, 2002b). These policy frameworks seek to improve the well-being of the region's poor. Thus the challenge of poverty reduction continues to be an overriding socio-economic development goal of governments in most developing countries. As a result, poverty reduction has re-emerged as a worldwide socio economic development goal of most countries and as a buzz word in international development discourse. Consequently, the challenge of poverty and inequality has been pushed to the fore of development discourse and Development Studies (Kanbur & Lustig, 1999; Greig et al, 2007; Sachs, 2005).

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In an effort to reduce the inherited poverty and inequality and also to meet the high expectations among the Black population following the establishment of a new democratic dispensation in 1994, the South African government placed poverty reduction high on its development agenda (ANC, 1994). To achieve the poverty reduction objective, the government embarked on formulating development policies and strategies with the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) as the first of these policies and all the subsequent policy documents and strategies reflect this priority (ANC, 1994).

The RDP, which was implemented from 1994 to 1996, sought to mobilise all the people and resources towards building a democratic non sexist state by which socio-economic growth could be achieved. The RDP put emphasis on programmes that would meet basic needs and enhance human resource development. By 1996 there occurred a shift towards economic pragmatism that saw the emergence of Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) policy that replaced RDP but did not completely depart from the government's earlier policy. Some of the policy strategies of the RDP were incorporated in the GEAR (Chikulo, 2003). GEAR was aimed at, among others, achieving high rates of economic growth, by expanding the private sector to improve output, employment and redistribution. These two policies have permeated all other development policies adopted thereafter and continue to guide most sectoral policies (Wilson, Kanji & Braathen, 2001).

Other anti-poverty policies and strategies that have been adopted to re-enforce earlier ones include the Local Economic Development (LED) policy introduced in 1997, Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (ISRDP) of 2000 and the Urban Development Strategy of 1996. To re-emphasize its commitment to poverty reduction particularly in the rural areas, government produced the

'Thriving Rural Areas: Rural Development Framework' in 1997. This was a strategy aimed specifically at rural development. Further poverty reduction strategies that have emerged and adopted with time include Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) of June 2003 and the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa (AsgiSA) of 2004. AsgiSA sought to re-invigorate earlier development policy frameworks by proposing a 'national shared growth initiative', to counter the exclusion from the formal economy of the bottom third of the population.

Despite the government's commitment to poverty alleviation, poverty levels in South Africa remain high, and have not been substantially reduced since 1994. Studies indicate that despite noticeable achievements by the government in the delivery of services to the poor with specific regard to housing, water and sanitation, electrification, health and education, as well as increased pro-poor social spending, government's efforts have been less effective in terms of poverty alleviation and addressing the on-going service delivery problems within the rural communities where poverty is more acute (RSA, 2009; Seeking, 2007; Van der Berg, Louw & Du Toit, 2007; Bhorat & van der Westhuizen, 2006). This can be attributed to capacity deficits on the part of local authorities to deal effectively with service delivery. It has been almost fifteen years since the adoption of anti-poverty strategies yet nearly half of the South African population continues to live in poverty. Using the IES poverty line of R524 per month, the population living below the poverty line was 53% in 1995 and in 2008 it had only dropped to 49% (the Presidency, 2009).

This prompted the question, "Are the government's poverty reduction strategies and growth programmes having any impact on poverty in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District and for that matter other districts in the North West province?" This is the problem that this study sought to answer.

1.2.1 Research questions

The preceding discussion raised further pertinent questions that the study also sought to answer.

- i. What is the extent of poverty among households in the study area?
- ii. What poverty reduction strategies have been implemented in the North West Province in general, and in the study area, in particular?
- iii. Are the strategies employed relevant to the needs of the communities and effective in addressing poverty?
- iv. What have been the outcomes of the poverty reduction strategies employed?
- v. What problems have the communities encountered in accessing services?
- vi. What challenges are being faced in the implementation of the poverty reduction programmes?

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The major objective of this research was to evaluate the impact of the North West Government's poverty reduction strategies on the poor in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District. The specific focus areas are Mayaeyane and Mathateng within the Ratlou Local Municipality, Uitkyk in the Ditsobotla local municipality and Dibate and Montshiwastad in the Mafikeng local municipality.

The specific objectives of the study were as follows:

- i. To critically review the literature on poverty and its measurements.
- ii. To identify and analyse the types and nature of poverty reduction policies and strategies implemented in the North West Province and in the study

area in particular, the extent of their relevance to poverty reduction and associated problems.

- iii. To examine the various types and nature of poverty amongst the target population in this study and the extent to which they are afflicted, or the depth and severity of their poverty.
- iv. To identify the challenges facing the implementation of poverty reduction projects.
- v. To make some recommendations to invigorate existing strategies for the achievement of sustainable livelihood projects and poverty reduction in the study area.

1.4 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

This research has emerged from the renewed interest in poverty reduction and sustainable human development by governments both nationally and provincially, as well as the international community. It is also born out of the South African Government's commitment to redress the apartheid legacy and reduce the huge service delivery backlogs in the rural areas. In addition, in line with the international community's commitment to poverty reduction for those who earn less than US\$1.25 a day, and do not have access to clean drinking water by 2015, the government has renewed its commitment to reduce poverty first as a basic human and constitutional right and second to fulfil its commitment to the UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). It is thus imperative to establish the extent to which this critical goal of poverty reduction is being achieved and to what extent it has impacted on the people in the study area.

Consequently, the findings of this study will, hopefully, not only provide fresh insight into the issue of poverty alleviation, but also enlighten the Provincial Government about the effectiveness of its strategies, the problems confronting the strategies, and how to remedy existing and on-going problems.

Poverty continues to pose a major socio-economic challenge for the majority of South Africa's Provincial Governments. It is anticipated that the findings of this study would provide some fresh insight into the debate about whether the poverty reduction strategies have had the desired effects, and should serve as a reference point for engaging policy makers in an informed dialogue on how best to fashion such strategies. Consequently, the publication of the findings will enable other development practitioners embarking on poverty reduction for their areas to be apprised of the best practices that have worked in the North West Province. Finally both the government of South Africa and other development agencies could utilize the findings of this study to improve their intervention strategies. In short, lessons learned from this study should be viewed as a precondition to designing effective policies and strategies for poverty eradication.

The results of this research are also intended to arouse interest in the search for many appropriate strategies, modification of development policies and best practices to reduce poverty both provincially and nationally and a further search for innovative strategies on poverty reduction.

Due to paucity of studies of this nature, it is intended that this study should fill the gap in existing literature on the issue of poverty alleviation in South Africa, highlight the challenges faced and lessons learnt in the quest for poverty alleviation. It is also anticipated that the study would bring some fresh insight into the debate concerning the appropriateness of poverty reduction strategies and thus provide a legitimate focus for Development Studies as an academic discipline and as a practice.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology is a systematic scientific way to solve a research problem. In the literature, scholars define Research Methodology in many ways.

Buckley, Buckley & Chiang (1976) define it as "...the strategy or architectural design by which the researcher maps out an approach to problem-finding or problem-solving". Sarantakos (2005) defines it as "...a science of studying how research is to be carried out" or "...a study of methods by which knowledge is gained". Research methodology is thus essentially a procedure by which researchers go about their work of describing, explaining and predicting phenomena. It provides the work plan of research through the use of different methods (Sarantakos, 2005).

Mouton (1996a & 1996b), before arriving at the meaning of methodology distinguishes between the concepts 'methods' and 'techniques'. While a 'research technique' is considered as specific and concrete means that the researcher uses to execute specific research task such as sampling, data collection etc. a 'research method' is also explained as the means required to execute a certain stage in the research process. The difference between these two is that technique is the means while methods are classes or clusters of techniques. For example, a 'Sampling method' has clusters of probability and quota sampling techniques; while observation and interviewing are clusters of Data collection method. Techniques and methods are thus means in the processes or approaches of a research methodology. However the two concepts are differentiated from methodology by the fact that methodology is not merely a collection of techniques and methods but includes assumptions and values regarding its use under specific circumstances (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

Hence 'Research Methodology' is considered as the procedure or approach in research that uses both the actual methods and techniques while reflecting on the underlying philosophy to arrive at problem-solving (Mouton, 1996). In other words, methodology encapsulates techniques, procedures and skills used in social research together with an underlying philosophy. This is a level of complexity referred to as Methodological paradigm.

Several Methodological paradigms can be identified in the literature. Leedy & Ormrod (2006) identify two major Methodological paradigms in research which are Quantitative and Qualitative, while Mouton and other scholars such as Robert Chambers (1986) and World Bank (1996) identify a third category, the Participatory Action paradigm. These paradigms have distinguishable characteristics but are not mutually exclusive. In a qualitative methodology the researcher attempts to obtain a comprehensive and in-depth understanding of the object under study. In fact an attempt is made by the researcher to gain knowledge about overall human conditions in a particular context by considering a large number of variables. As such, various names such as field research, ethnographic study, case study, interpretive approach have been assigned to it (Leedy & Ormrod, 2006).

A quantitative methodology, on the other hand, requires the researcher to focus on a limited number of variables or attributes of a community. Its field research is narrower and restricted than qualitative. It is directed towards specified experiences rather than an integrated social whole (Creswell, 2009; Cohen, 1973: 37). It is highly formalized, explicitly controlled and its range is exactly defined. This is mostly used in the field of physical science. Its validity is externally established. It is associated with numerical data or quantities (Creswell, 2009; Babbie, 2007; Leedy & Ormrod, 2006).

The qualitative procedure is not strictly formalized, its scope is likely to be undefined and its mode is philosophical. It is an in-depth study of a phenomenon whose validity is established internally. However, despite their differences, Leedy and Ormrod (2006) and Babbie (2007) maintain that qualitative and quantitative are complementary rather than opposites in approaches to research and both (mixed methods) can be used at the same time. Many methodologists such as Miles and Huberman (1994) agree that a mixture of quantitative and qualitative methods if usefully employed as a combination might increase the scope, depth and power of the study. Punch

(1998) provides numerous benefits of combining methods. For example, it can be found among others that, "...while the quantitative part may uncover relationships between variables, the qualitative component will help understand the factors underlying the relationships. The quantitative aspect can look at large-scale features, while you can use the qualitative component to illuminate the findings by addressing the small-scale and behavioural aspects" (English, Fielding, Howard and Van der Merwe, 2010: 290). Due to these benefits, a mixture of the quantitative and qualitative paradigms were followed in this study.

The third paradigm which in essence is also qualitative and used by other scholars and researchers is Participatory research methodology (World Bank, 1996; Chambers 1986). Currently there are many participatory methodologies that are available to researchers. Such methods include participatory action research (PAR), participatory rural appraisal (PRA), objectives-oriented project planning (ZOPP), beneficiary assessment (BA), systematic client consultation (SCC) etc (World Bank 1996; van Veldhuizen, Waters-Bayer, Ramirez, Johnson & Thompson, 1997).

Qualitative research and participatory methodologies were employed in this research. The participatory methods of Beneficiary Assessment (BA), Participatory Action Research (PAR) as well as Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) were selected and used because of their advantages discussed above. Other reasons for this are that these qualitative methods involve fieldwork and techniques which are empirical. The advantage of this is that the researcher observed and had direct contact with the respondents who were beneficiaries of poverty reduction strategies and could offer candid hands-on answers. Beneficiaries' answers were easily verified by triangulation and observations. Further, the Qualitative and Participatory methodologies were followed because of the study area's specific rural circumstances and low literacy levels which could not easily permit quantitative research or personal administration of formalised questionnaires and interviews in an attempt to obtain a

comprehensive understanding of the poverty conditions of the people, and how poverty reduction efforts were affecting them. The study needed an in-depth description of the events, conditions and respondents feelings which could be obtained only by this methodology.

Furthermore, a much more thorough understanding, valid and conclusive results were attained when the local people themselves, with their local knowledge and experience, were allowed to do the appraisal of government strategies applied in their areas in focus groups. They viewed their participation in the research as being valuable and so cooperated with the researcher and assistants. By this research procedure the researcher gained insight into the subject matter and the conditions of the poor community members as well as their social situation at first hand from the beginning of fieldwork to the end. Quantitative as well as qualitative methods were again employed. This is because in some cases records of development activities needed to be analysed quantitatively and qualitatively.

Finally, it must be emphasized that this is mainly an in-depth empirical evaluation of the implementation of government's poverty reduction strategies within the study area. Therefore, the objectives of development programmes and projects as well as selected development indicators were used as threshold to evaluate the impact on communities in the research area.

1.5.1 Research methods and data collection procedure

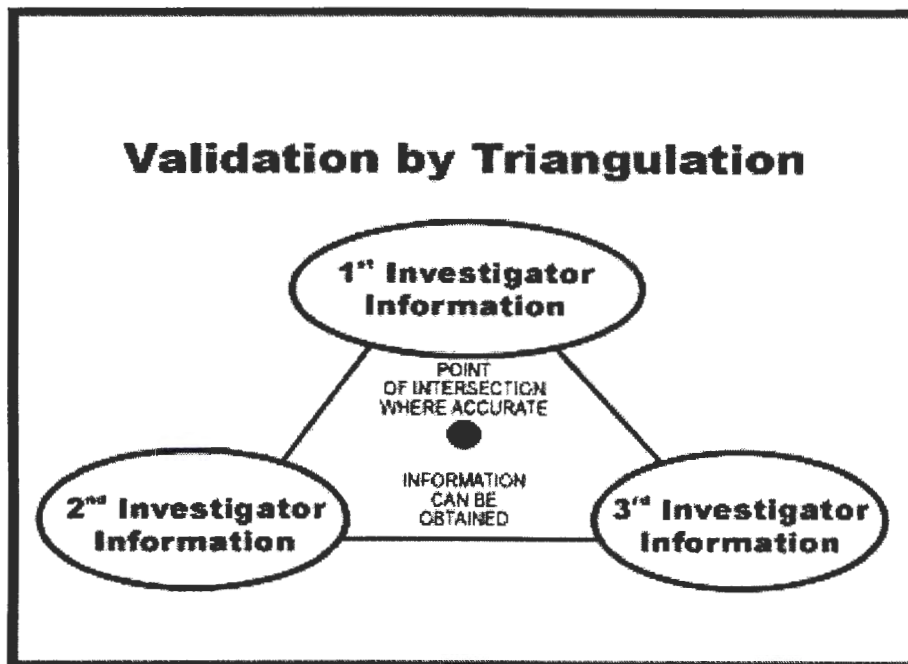
Data collection is a series of interrelated activities aimed at gathering information to answer emerging research questions. The study made use of common procedures in qualitative research such as literature review, purposeful sampling, informal interviews, discussions, observations, and focus group interviews and analysis, by which, a more holistic view of respondents and their answers to the research questions were achieved. Data collection started with

literature review which was followed by the development of research instruments. Finally, the field work was undertaken.

The validity and reliability of answers to questions during fieldwork were verified using triangulation. Scholars agree that this hybrid variation –‘methodological triangulation’- which can combine more than one method of data collection procedure within a single study can be used to validate data collected (Creswell, 2009; Sarantakos, 2005; Berg, 1998: 5; Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996). Berg (1998: 6) argues that because each method of observation “...reveals different aspects of empirical reality, multiple methods of observation must be employed” to validate data. Thus in this study, multiple observers who were the principal researcher and the research assistants observed and verified answers from respondents during interviews and focus group discussions. The researcher and assistants viewed a particular answer from the respondents from more than one perspective in order to have deeper understanding and to test validity. They, therefore, on many occasions went back to the respondents to clarify some statements which they had made. That is how the researcher double-checked validity and arrived at the conclusions of the study. Figure 1 below illustrates this procedure. The first investigator who was the researcher enquired for further clarification of information from different sources. Enquiries were also made by the research assistants (2nd and 3rd investigators). These various sets of information gathered were analysed, and where corroboration occurred on a data, it was considered by the researcher as the valid data. The congruent point or point of intersection in Figure 1 reflects the validation or accurate information from the researcher and assistants.

During the fieldwork, four graduate research assistants were selected to help with data collection and the administration of the interview schedule to the local people and respondents from the Department of Social Development, as well as Councillors and local officials.

Figure 1: Triangulation



Source: Own illustration

1.5.1.1 Literature study

The review of literature enables one to know what others have done in the selected area of study and therefore to be better prepared to attack, with deeper insight and more complex knowledge, the problem one has chosen to investigate (Leedy & Ormrod, 2006). Therefore, all available and relevant primary and secondary data were perused to review the literature. Some items of literature were purposively selected because they are reports of government commissions into poverty in South Africa and therefore are authoritative readings on the subject matter. Examples are May (2000) and May (1998), Municipal reports, Government White Papers and Local Government reports and various statistical reports from Statistics South Africa. Other works were specifically selected because they are recognized authorities on poverty, for example, the works of Amartya Sen and Robert Chambers; so also were the

World Bank's 'World development reports' and the UNDP's 'Human development reports'.

The search for related literature in this study started at the Libraries of the North West University. The researcher subsequently made use of the library facilities at the University of South Africa and the community libraries of Mafikeng. Internet sources were also greatly used. The disciplines on which the literature study focused were Development Studies/Administration, Public Administration, Sociology and Economics. The main focus areas were poverty and inequality; development theory; rural and community development; development policies/strategies; people's participation; and the role of the bureaucracy.

The literature review was primarily to establish a theoretical and historical basis for the study. This was not only to gain a deeper understanding of the issues of poverty but to do so from a historical perspective of the area studied. Consequently, the investigation into development strategies' impact on poverty followed a historical line to understand the situation in the North West Province and in particular, the Ngaka Modiri Molema District, in a historical context. The literature was used to throw more light on the issues under investigation.

1.5.1.2 Research instruments used

Research instruments are tools or actual means that the researcher used to extract information or data from respondents. Group discussions and interviews were conducted through the use of questionnaires. Creswell (2009) as well as Leedy & Ormrod (2006) point out that the qualitative researcher has more choices regarding data collection instruments such as e-mail messages, on-line data gathering etc. Based on these authorities the following data collection methods were utilized in this study:

- Focus group interviews, and discussions using unstructured and semi-structured instruments;

- Interviews of households using unstructured and semi-structured instruments;
- Interviews with local officials using a structured instrument;
- Interviews with Local councilors and leaders and other officials using structured and unstructured instruments;
- On-line statistical data gathering, and
- E-mail messages from officials at SASSA, STATSSA, DSD etc.

Semi-structured or unstructured questionnaires were administered face-to-face and these made the respondents to provide in-depth answers. The instruments helped the researcher and the assistants to be focussed in their interviews with respondents. The approach created a much less formal atmosphere which allowed more details to be elicited. A video camera was also used to film project sites and tape recorders were used to record focus group interviews with the permission of respondents in order to keep track of records and the proceedings.

1.5.1.3 Participant observation

Before interviews were held, participant field observations were conducted by the researcher. Observations continued even during formal interviews. Participant observation entailed visiting the research area and gathering information about the activities of the respondents and projects in the research area. Beneficiaries of projects were further observed during their daily routines at the project site. The researcher took part in some of their activities such as meetings and feeding of chicken. During those observations, informal questions were posed to the members about the activities of the project.

The researcher also attended group meetings arranged by Community Liaison Officers and Community Development Workers including social workers, to discuss development projects. During these meetings the researcher

established a good rapport with the target units of the study and paved the way for the formal interviews. Observations and interviews were conducted in the study area during the periods June-July 2006, December 2006 -January 2007, November 2007, and August -September 2008.

1.5.1.4 Interviews

Focus group interviews were held with the following, using the instruments above:

- Community Development Workers (CDWs) from the Department of Social Development to obtain information and knowledge of their activities and what was going on in the field,
- Project participants, and
- Households.

Furthermore, face-to-face interviews were conducted with the following also:

- Individuals in households,
- Officials, and
- Local Councillors and leaders.

In other words interviewees included beneficiaries of the Maeyaeane and Mathateng vegetable and poultry projects, the Uitkyk Radithuso Food Production project, the beneficiaries of the animal feed project at Dibate, as well as Local councillors, some local leaders and government officials. Government officials included strategically placed people at the offices of the Departments of Social Development, Department of Transport and Public works, and the South African Social Security Agency (SASSA). The sampling methods used to select respondents are explained in sub-section 1.5.1.5 below.

1.5.1.5 Sampling techniques used

Sampling is the selection of a smaller number of people from a larger population which forms a representation of that population. This selected number is often

called a research sample. In a research, a sample is selected because it is impossible to observe or interview all units in a particular population (Babbie, 2007, Leedy & Ormrod, 2006).

Two types of sampling, Probability and Non-probability, which contain several sample techniques were available for use. Probability sampling technique includes simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling. Among non-probability sampling types are Accidental, also called 'convenience' or 'haphazard' sampling, Purposive or judgemental, Goal directed, Quota and Snowball sampling (Sarantakos, 2005: 163-167). Either one or a mix of the two types can be used to obtain the needed sample (Creswell, 2009; Babbie, 2007).

Accordingly, since not all the population in the study area could be interviewed and, considering the nature of this study, both probability sampling (systematic sampling) and non-probability sampling methods (of Accidental, Purposive or judgemental, Goal directed, Quota and Snowball sampling) were combined and used to select interviewees in this study. When it came to probability sampling, the stratified systematic technique was used for the selection of individuals and households in the communities. By the systematic sampling technique every 4th house in a village in the study area was counted as a sample and selected for interview.

Use was made of non-probability sampling by the researcher selecting interviewees on the basis of the researcher's judgement and opinion about which respondents were the most relevant and useful representatives. It enabled the researcher to interview a readily accessible part of the population and those who were typical representatives. This technique ensured that those key stakeholders with knowledge and important information and who were strategically placed were not overlooked (Babbie, 2007).

The Ngaka Modiri Molema district where this research was done consists of Mafikeng, Ratlou, Tswaing and Ramotshere Moiloa and Ditsobotla Local Municipalities which are often referred to as service points in the context of programmes implementation by the Government Departments. From these five service points, projects in three - Ratlou, Ditsobotla and Mafikeng - were selected for study. Within the service points, specific communities which were considered absolutely poor were purposively sampled in order to have a good evaluation of the impact of the projects on the communities. These communities are Maeyaeyane and Mathateng in Ratlou, Uitkyk in Ditsobotla as well as Dibate and Motlhabeng in the Mafikeng local municipalities. Reasons for the selection of these communities were that the Department of Social Development had identified them as villages where the incidence of poverty was critically deep, extreme and were also far to reach. As a result they had rolled out projects to combat poverty there. The 2001 South African census document also shows that the area has extreme incidence of poverty and were located in remote areas.

1.5.1.6 Sample size

While the sample size is fixed in a probability sampling, i.e. chosen before the research, statistically determined and designed (by employing probability theory) for it to be representative, in non-probability sampling, size is flexible and (though it can also be fixed), it is chosen before and during the research (Babbie, 2007). These informed the researcher's choice of sample size for this study.

A sample size of 352 respondents was selected for interview out of a population of about 3000 people and 1800 households using a mix of purposeful, judgmental and systematic techniques.

Respondents were divided into categories of:

Households in the communities	180 (using systematic sampling)
Individuals in the communities	60 (using systematic sampling)

Project participants	65 (using purposeful sampling)
Government officials	35 (using purposeful sampling)
Community leaders and Councillors	12 (using purposeful sampling)

Government officials, community leaders and project participants were selected using purposeful and judgemental techniques, because these were people strategically placed to provide relevant information. Systematic sampling was used to sample the households and individuals in the communities.

The size selected in each category is a justifiable representative and was arrived at in the following ways. Ten percent (10%) of households sampled systematically produced 180. This figure represents household heads. This number is a justifiable representative because most of the answers provided during the interviews were corroborating; and given the fact that the average family size found was 6 (as can be seen in Chapter 5), it gives a sizeable population of 1040 out of a total of 3000. The number of 65 (using goal directed technique) for the focus group represents all project participants who were present at the project site and participated. The number of government officials is justifiable because these were those who had sufficient knowledge about the development activities being carried on and directly involved in the projects (this followed a snowball and purposive technique). The 60 individuals represent the youth and women. These were the ones readily accessible in the community (this also followed the accidental technique). The number for community leaders represents chiefs, councillors and ward committee members. These were purposively selected.

1.5.2 METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

Data collected from respondents were categorised according to selected indicators and coded in groups. They were then placed in tables and critically and descriptively interpreted. The effectiveness and impact of the strategies

employed in poverty reduction were then analysed and evaluated. The findings arrived at from the analysis were examined and summarised in a descriptive narration as represented in chapter six.

1.5.3 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical considerations were taken into account in this research to conform to what Babbie (2007) points out, that the researcher's conduct should conform to ethical standards and professionalism to ensure that no harm was caused to any respondent. That is, they had to be assured that no unpleasant effects would result after providing information. They were not to be deceived or forced to participate in the research. Therefore, anonymity and confidentiality were to be maintained. In this regard, respondents' permission (written and verbal) were to be obtained. The major reason for this is to get their cooperation (Creswell, 2009).

In a research like this one, where some respondents were public officials who were not spokespersons of Departments, the above considerations were very necessary. In the rural communities where cultural practices are most often adhered to it is difficult for respondents to readily volunteer any information to strangers. The need to maintain professionalism in this study became paramount. The researcher therefore adhered to the ethical principles involved in research and sought permission from the chiefs and local leaders before the field work. Written request to conduct research was also submitted to relevant government authorities and respondents to seek their cooperation. The authorities concerned, who gave their permission, included Heads of Departments, Ward Councillors and Traditional leaders. Upon their permission the researcher was introduced to the community members by the Community Liaison Officers whose consent to participate in the research had earlier been sought.

1.6 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

The study is divided into six chapters as follows:

Chapter one serves as a general introduction to the study. It highlights the general problem of poverty in the country and the North West Province, its extent and some strategic attempts at reducing it. After stating the problem to be researched and outlining research objectives and the study's significance, the chapter describes the study area and gives reasons for its selection. The chapter finally ends by delineating the research method used in the study and outlines the structure of the thesis.

Chapter two reviews the literature and examines the dominant theoretical conceptions and perspectives of poverty and inequality. It looks at how extensive poverty and inequality are in South Africa and how to measure these quantitatively and qualitatively. The chapter goes further to determine where the poor may be found and the causes of their poverty.

Chapter Three examines and analyses the national and provincial policies and strategic frameworks followed to effect poverty reduction in the country generally and in the North West Province. The results of these policies and strategies are then provided.

Chapter Four discusses the socio economic conditions in North West Province, and analyses the framework of poverty reduction strategies and programmes employed in the North West.

Chapter five evaluates four livelihood projects and basic service delivery in the study area meant to reduce poverty. It analyses data collected on poverty reduction in the area and measures achievements against expected outcomes.

Chapter six discusses the findings and conclusions arrived at from the analysis of data gathered on policies, strategies, projects and perceptions of respondents and provide recommendations to overcome identified problems. It then summarises the research work to conclude the study.

1.7 SUMMARY

This chapter has served as a general introduction to the study. The general problems of poverty in the Developing Countries, South Africa and the North West Province have been highlighted. The chapter has established that nearly 1.4 billion people in the Developing countries are afflicted with poverty. Sub-Saharan Africa alone has 51.2% or 390.6 million people living in poverty. In South Africa, based on a poverty line, set as low as R250 per person, 50.1 percent live in poverty, with Black Africans accounting for a highly disproportionate share of poor individuals in the country.

The chapter has shown that the poverty situation in the North West Province does not differ markedly from the national perspective and with 65.1% of the population residing in the rural areas, poverty rate is 62.1%. In the Ngaka Modiri Molema District, it has been established that over 62% of the population are classified as poor and out of this 53.4% live below the poverty line of US\$1.25 a day. Attempts to address the poverty problem by the National and Provincial Governments of South Africa have been made, by the adoption of development policies such as the Reconstruction and development programme (RDP), GEAR, EPWP, ASGISA, ISRDP etc. Despite these attempts many people have remained poor and voice discontent. This is a concern which gave rise to this study.

After stating the problem that was researched and outlining research objectives and the study's significance, this chapter finally delineates the research methodologies used, procedures followed to collect information on poverty and the scope of the thesis.

CHAPTER TWO

CONCEPTUALISING AND MEASURING THE POVERTY PHENOMENON

Don't ask me what poverty is because you have met it outside my house. Look at the house and count the number of holes. Look at the utensils and clothes I am wearing. Look at everything and write what you see. What you see is poverty.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Poverty is an undesirable and intolerable state of affairs which is considered as a social, economic, political or psychological problem. The word suggests that individuals or groups who are in poverty have to be helped to change their conditions. It was noted in chapter one that the reduction or eradication (if possible) of this poverty problem has now become the primary focus of the socio-economic development policies of developing world governments. In this chapter an attempt is made to define and review the concept of poverty as well as its theoretical realm. The size of the poverty problem is assessed and methods or ways to measure it constructed; finally its causes are probed and where the poor are found identified. The chapter thus attempts to answer the questions "What is poverty and its conceptualisations?" 'What is the extent of poverty?', 'What are the causes of poverty in South Africa in general and North West Province in particular?' and 'Where can the poor be typically found?'

2.2 DEFINING POVERTY

Poverty is hard to define and as such many different definitions are used in the development sector. Moreover, what one understands by 'poverty' varies considerably from one locality to another and from one period in time to another. The definitions range from income and/or consumption-based to others

emphasising its multi-dimensional nature, and highlighting its many manifestations. They include:

- lack of productive 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 an unsafe or insecure environment
- poor or no housing
- lack of participation in social, cultural and political life
- social discrimination or exclusion (Eldis, 2009: 1).

The different manifestations can reinforce each other. For example, hunger can lead to malnutrition which can be a causal factor in ill-health. In turn, chronic ill-health can affect an individual's ability to participate in social and community activities, and, in turn, could lead to social exclusion.

It is argued, therefore, that in order to define poverty, there ought to be a minimum standard that should be applied to all societies below which individuals can be said to be in poverty (Klugman, 2002). This minimum standard is based on subsistence and so it was earlier simply defined as, 'people are in poverty if they do not have the material resources to physically maintain human life' (Haralambos, Holborn & Heald, 1991: 191). Currently this is considered and defined as living below the acceptable social standards or threshold (Klugman, 2002). However, this idea is dismissed by relativists as being too general, and they argue that a definition of poverty should be related to standards of a particular society at a particular time. Therefore, people cannot all be branded as poor below one universal minimum standard (Eldis, 2009; Greig, Hulme & Turner, 2007; Lauer, 1998). By this view the poverty line varies (or should vary)

according to how affluent that society is. It is thus a complex issue to define poverty.

However, in one aspect, poverty is defined as a state of multiple deprivations of individuals or groups or communities of their well-being. This means, individuals lack or are deficient in socio-economic and psychological capabilities due to deprivations. This deficiency is manifested in the lack of income (money metric measures), lack of access to basic services, lack of access to assets, limited social networks (living in isolation) or social capital. This means the poor are hungry, lack shelter and clothing, lack schooling and also cannot access health care services i.e. they cannot care for themselves when sick. They are more prone or vulnerable to exogenous negative events (Greig, Hulme & Turner, 2007).

Similarly, the World Bank's (2001) report shows that poverty is very broad and a definition must encompass not only material deprivation (i.e. income and basic needs or services noted earlier) but also non-material aspects such as vulnerability, voicelessness, powerlessness and mental or psychological indispositions. Yet the Bank emphasises the material when defining and measuring poverty. There is, therefore, a dichotomy or an ambivalent problem here on the part of the Bank.

Though one generally accepted conclusive definition cannot be found for poverty due to the problems discussed in subsection 2.2.1, we need to find one in order to identify it. Therefore, poverty can generally be defined as:

A condition of being deprived of well-being, being vulnerable to events outside one's control, being isolated and living below the acceptable socio-economic norms or prescriptions of society and psychologically and politically indisposed (Narayan et al., 2000).

2.2.1 The problems of defining poverty

Development discourse shows that defining poverty is critical to political, academic and policy debates directed at the concept. It is by using the different definitions that specialists and governments are able to comprehend the problem and use as tools to propose solutions. As such, any definition given is bound up with explanation and implications. As with other concepts, Lister (2004:12) points out that there is no single 'correct' definition of poverty and so the concept has to be understood in relation to particular social, cultural and historical context and explanations.

The UNFPA (2009) contends that some of the varieties of ways available to conceptualise poverty are to define it in accordance with *basic needs approaches, income –based definitions, and participatory definitions*; but they all have their deficiencies. With reference to basic needs, it is defined in terms of material resources by which a set of minimal conditions of life that usually involves the quality of dwelling places, water supply, nutritional needs etc. have to be available or obtained. The population that lacks these is specified as poor. To define it based on material resources is not accepted by many commentators who see poverty as a multiple deprivation and can have many facets. This is because inadequate educational opportunities as well as poor working conditions and powerlessness, which are not material, are also regarded as poverty.

Thirdly, the notion can be defined in relative terms for example, as a percentage of the median income of a population, a state that reflects social inequalities of a country. This is an approach that seeks to specify a level of income per capita in a household below which the basic needs of the family cannot be satisfied (UNFPA, 2009). In this instance people are poor or are in poverty because they are living below the average income or a specified level of income (Eldis, 2009). To bring income equality or put all incomes at par would mean abolition of poverty. The implication is that the only way to eradicate poverty then would be abolishing income inequality. However, this does not take into account that there are variations in costs of similar goods for different consumers at different

locations. However, it is believed that abolishing inequality altogether would not solve the problem of poverty because some people may be disadvantaged in other aspects which would still make them poor. It is also not possible to abolish income inequality altogether. Thus, to determine poverty, the World Bank (2002) and other scholars suggest that an average measure or poverty line (threshold) needs to be established so that those below it could be considered poor and those above regarded as non-poor (Greig et al., 2007). Such a measurement of poverty using the poverty line is dealt with in sub-section 2.6.2.2.

Fourthly, it can also be defined in absolute terms. This would mean that the lack of identified basic needs or their monetary equivalent is poverty, without any qualification. All these bring in the concepts of absolute and relative poverty. While absolute deals with universal and a bounded definition, relative is contingent upon a specific society. This is explained exhaustively in sub-section 2.5.3. It again brings us back to the point that there is no single conceptualisation and definition of poverty as it is culture bound and universal and so should be defined and conceptualised as such.

All these notwithstanding, and noting that definitions are bound up with explanations, what this thesis considers to be appropriate and easily understood or conceptualized is to define it based on its manifestations noted in sub-section 2.2 and for easy reference indicated as:

A condition characterised by severe deprivation of basic human needs and conditions that includes lack of food and safe drinking water, poor health, education and information, being vulnerable, isolated and voiceless that makes people live below the acceptable socio-economic norms or prescriptions of society which leads to ill-being or the loss of one's well being and dignity.

This definition is not directly related to the lack of income of individuals which has been the orthodox understanding of poverty, the solution of which may be as

simple as increasing the income of the poor. From the understanding of poverty's manifestations, it would be appreciated that if we simply increase the incomes of the poor it will not bring about the changes needed to alleviate poverty (i.e. improve their working conditions or give them power or a voice in society (Lister, 2004)). To alleviate poverty therefore requires a range of strategies and programmes which chapters three and four deal with.

2.2.2 Approaches to conceptualising poverty

Several ways in which poverty's conceptualisation can be approached can be found in the literature with their strengths and deficiencies. Lister (2004) as well as Greig et al., (2007) present three dichotomies of conceptualizing poverty. These are defining or conceptualizing poverty in 'Broad' and 'Narrow' terms; 'absolute' and 'relative'; and 'objective' and 'subjective' terms (Greig et al., 2007:16-18; Lister, 2004: 13).

Poverty, in the 'narrow' sense is defined as "inability to participate [in society] owing to lack of material resources' (Greig et al., 2007:17). Another narrow material understanding is defining it as "having a per capita income of less than US\$1 per day" by using the 1985 purchasing power parity (PPP), or currently US\$1.25 per day using 2005 PPP (World Bank, 2008). The use of money metric and material resource constitutes a narrow definition, i.e. it confines definition to areas of financial determination. Statistics South Africa more often than not uses income and expenditure patterns in their surveys to determine the poverty line and to describe households as poor, less poor or extremely poor. They consider that these are key indicators of poverty (STATSSA, 2005:54-56). The UNDP (2003a:40-41) on the other hand, uses a combination of both monetary and non-monetary factors to explain the extent of poverty. Examination of the extent of poverty in South Africa shows that estimates about the number of people in poverty vary according to the choice of poverty line and intra-household allocation of resources used. In calculating the poverty line, indicators used include minimum dietary requirements of individuals and share of food in the total

expenditure of the bottom quintile (20%) of the population. The use of GNP and GNI to determine the scale of a country's poverty also underscores the reliance on income and expenditure in determining the well being of people. The major reason for using them is that they are the most fundamental basis for measuring poverty and they are easier and faster to use in computing poverty data. This contrasts with the broader definition that makes poverty to be seen in terms of both material and non-material deprivation.

In broader terms poverty should be defined as "lack of participation in decision-making, experiencing violence, humiliation, lack of respect and powerlessness" (Greig et al., 2007:16; Lister, 2004). In this broad definition, Lister (2004:14) notes that it is being increasingly 'conceptualized as the denial of human and citizenship rights' and the right to economic independence or the denial of individuals their capacities to be self-supporting. Their being dependent makes them more vulnerable to poverty. The broader definition draws in the humanistic and political values.

Another debate on the definition is in terms of subjective and objective poverty (Chambers, 1986). In an objective definition, vigorous specifications of who is poor and who is non-poor are given which permit comparisons to be made. These specifications are made by researchers who, Chambers (1986) calls the "outsiders", while the subjective definitions are made by people about their own states, the "insiders".

The above sets the stage for poverty's theoretical conceptualisation to be approached either through the broad or narrow way or in subjective and objective terms or in absolute and relative terms. In the literature, while some scholars concentrate on the narrow definition (conceptualisation), others move on the broader path. For example, May (2001) and May (1998:1) define poverty generally as "... the inability to attain a minimal standard of living, measured in terms of basic consumption needs or the income required to satisfy them". The definition was considered to include "alienation from the community, food insecurity, crowded homes, and usage of unsafe and insufficient forms of energy,

lack of adequately paid and secure jobs and fragmentation of the family” (May, 1998:1). Wilson and Ramphela (1989), while subscribing to May’s position, defined poverty as living in a state of chronic want. Sen (1992) also makes a case for defining poverty in terms of low income and material resources, which follow the narrow and materialistic approach to defining and conceptualizing poverty. It does not reveal the totality of poverty. To capture the essence of the phenomenon Eldis (2009) suggests that the broader conceptualisation should be followed as it makes the different manifestations reinforce each other. This is what Sen, in his other work, *Development as Freedom* (1999), alludes to, i.e. the inclusion of the broader definition and in non-material terms. Broadly therefore, in addition to lack of resources, it can be conceptualized as lack of participation in decision making, experiencing violence, humiliation, lack of respect and powerlessness.

On the objective and subjective approaches, Moser (1998) observed that some approaches to conceptualizing poverty in the literature conventionally and objectively reduce it to measurable income and consumption on the one hand, and participatory subjective approaches grounded in the understanding of the people in poverty themselves on the other. Following these objective and subjective approaches, Ringen (1987: 146) writes that, ‘in the first case poverty is defined indirectly through the determinants of way of life’ (outsiders’ view) and ‘in the second case, directly by way of life’ (insiders’ view) i.e. poverty is defined as it is perceived to be by the outsider and the living conditions or state of life of the one that is experiencing it. Ringen then defines poverty precisely as having ‘a low standard of living’, meaning deprivation in way of life because of insufficient resources to avoid such deprivation. The concept so far is considered to mean that people are “poor’ when they have both a low standard of living and a low income”.

The World Bank’s (2001, 2008) position on poverty conceptualisation is clearly income based although it accepts poverty as encompassing not only material

deprivation measured in terms of income or consumption but also low achievement in education and health. In its 2008 *Poverty Measurement and Analysis*, the Bank prioritizes income as the key measure of poverty by distinguishing between 'the poor', who live below a US\$2 a day poverty line and the 'extreme poor', who live on less than US\$1.25 a day. These are absolute measures of poverty (i.e. measures that quantify the numbers of people living below a certain threshold). The Bank thus defines it as an income level below some minimum level or threshold necessary to meet basic needs. This minimum level is usually called the 'poverty line' which varies across time and societies.

Poverty lines vary in time and place, and each country uses lines which are appropriate to its level of development, societal norms and values. But the content of the needs is more or less the same everywhere. However the Bank when treating the broader sector elaborates it by using the voices of the poor (Narayan, Chambers, Shah, & Petesch, 2000) as: Poverty is hunger; Poverty is lack of shelter; Poverty is being sick and not being able to see a doctor; Poverty is not having access to school and not knowing how to read; Poverty is not having a job, fear for the future, living one day at a time; Poverty is losing a child to illness brought about by unclean water; Poverty is powerlessness, lack of representation and freedom (World Bank 2001; Narayan et al., 2000). Sen (1999:87) follows this aptly and identifies poverty as deprivation of the intrinsic capability that a person has, that is, the substantive freedoms that he should enjoy to lead the kind of life she or he values.

The Institute of Development Studies (IDS) defines poverty in both broad and narrow terms as:

...the deprivation of common necessities such as food, clothing, shelter and safe drinking water, all of which determine our quality of life. It may also include the lack of access to opportunities such as education and employment which aid the escape

from poverty and/or allow one to enjoy the respect of fellow citizens (Eldis, 2009).

By this we can say, “to be poor is to be deprived of those goods and services and pleasures which others around us take for granted”.

The 1995 Copenhagen World Summit on Social development concluded that ‘Poverty is a condition characterized by severe deprivation of basic human needs, including food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education and information’ (UN, 1995a; 1995b). They noted that it includes a lack of income and productive resources to ensure sustainable livelihoods; yet it depends not only on income but also on access to services, social institutions and safety nets.

According to the United Nations, poverty is fundamentally a denial of choices and opportunities, a violation of human dignity and lack of basic capacity to participate effectively in society. It manifests itself in powerlessness and exclusion of individuals, households and communities. The poor are thus susceptible to violence, often living in marginal or fragile environments, without access to sanitation.

From the various definitions, views and manifestation of poverty in the literature dealt with above we find that poverty is identified when individuals, families and groups in the population lack the resources to obtain the types of diet required, participate in the activities, and have the living conditions and amenities which are customary, or are at least widely encouraged or approved in the societies to which they belong. Their resources are so seriously below those commanded by the average individual or family that they are, in effect, excluded from ordinary living patterns and activities.

Many other definitions and conceptualizations can be found in the literature if we labour on but if we stick to these examples and summarize them, we can conclude that poverty is the impossibility to meet certain basic needs, or deprivation and the absence of certain necessities or resources and important

intrinsic elements that include the following (arranged alphabetically and not in order of importance or priority):

- access to opportunities and choices
- clean water
- clothing
- dignity
- education
- food
- freedom
- health
- inclusion, participation in social and cultural life
- independence
- information
- power
- representation
- respect
- sanitation
- self-esteem
- shelter
- trust in the future (absence of fear)
- work

Eldis (2009) portrays that these needs and resources are valuable and important in themselves, but we can distinguish them according to certain types. For example, you are not necessarily poor if you are uneducated. We can think of many uneducated rich people. And not all poor people are necessarily without an education. Eldis thus breaks the needs and resources into three distinct levels:

Level 1

- Food, clothing, shelter, sanitation and clean water - needs that are directly linked to poverty. Thus you are, by definition, poor if you lack at least one of these resources (and you may even die). These can be called first-level-resources.

Level 2

- Health, education, work, representation, power, freedom and information, are resources, the lack of which can (but does not have to) make you poor; poor in the sense of not having the first level types of resources – and the presence of which is necessary for one to escape poverty. These second-level-resources are supporting resources.

Level 3

- Respect, self-esteem, dignity, inclusion, participation, trust in the future and the absence of fear, and opportunities, are resources which, like health, education etc., you may lose when you become poor, but which do not really help you to escape poverty. These are third-level-resources or concomitant resources (Eldis, 2009).

When we look at the different definitions and the resources or needs cited above, we also see that poverty has many dimensions that can be grouped as:

- *material* dimension (food, clothing etc.)
- *psychological* dimension (respect, self-esteem, trust, fear)
- *political* dimension (power, representation) and
- *social* dimension (education, health, work).

All these three levels of needs deal with material and non-material aspects, the broader way of defining and identifying our context. They also show the different forms in which poverty manifests itself which make its definition to be considered as multidimensional. Some institutions such as the World Bank and UNDP attempt to reduce it to numbers, while others such as Eldis argue that a more un-

ambiguous definition must be used. In the end, a combination of both methods is best. Today, most economists, development practitioners, and social workers use the multidimensional way to define poverty.

Perusing the development literature, one finds this multidimensional phenomenon being defined beyond low levels of income (Gordon & Townsend 2000; May, 1998) to include lack of opportunities, low levels of security, isolation, low capabilities and empowerment and lack of freedom as demonstrated by Sen (2000, 1999 & 1996) UNDP (2006, 2003b) and World Bank (2001, 2005). The narrow and money metric definitions are often used because they are easy and convenient to measure and quantify. However to understand the phenomenon comprehensively the broad and multidimensional definition is preferred and the definition given earlier can be re-emphasized as:

A condition of being deprived of well-being, being vulnerable to events outside one's control, being isolated and living below the acceptable socio-economic norms or prescriptions of society and being psychologically and politically indisposed.

Poverty is also linked to inequalities and the dimensions of poverty and inequality are positively correlated and interlocked which Chambers (1986) describes as 'the deprivation trap' (Klugman, 2002; World Bank, 2001; Chambers, 1986: 111). It is also within these parameters i.e. dimensions that poverty has been defined and discussed in this study. Since poverty and inequality are inextricably linked (but not synonymous), it would be instructive first to briefly look at the issue of inequality and its links to poverty before turning to theoretical conceptions of poverty in its multidimensionality within the context of South Africa and the North West Province in particular.

2.3 THE ISSUE OF INEQUALITY

According to the UNDP (2003b), inequalities are the disparities in income, wealth, assets, opportunities, vulnerability etc in all the domains of human existence. Economically, it is considered as the concentration of wealth in the hands of only one group enabling that group to control another. It can also be considered as a less equitable distribution of wealth and income allowing greater concentration of power in the hands of one group as against the other. In our context, inequality is seen within the social, economic and political domains among the racial groups in South Africa, especially between the white and Black Africans (May, 1998). Inequality is defined structurally as a state of social organisation which does not enable, or disable, and does not give equal access to resources and opportunities to all members (May, 2000). It connotes the disadvantaged position of one group as compared to the other. Lister (2004) contends that in general, inequality is the act of comparison either between those on lower and higher incomes, or women and men, or minority and majority ethnic groups. By comparing groups, the inequalities in material resources that may exist between the groups are then highlighted. This tends to equate relative poverty (as defined elsewhere in sub-section 2.5.3) to inequality as may be claimed by some. Though they are not synonymous they are closely associated with each other. To demonstrate the close association of poverty and inequality, Lister (2004), Esping-Anderson (2002), UNICEF (2000) all come to the same conclusion that:

Cross-national analysis demonstrates that the countries with the lowest levels of poverty tend to be more equal overall than countries with higher levels. The greater the inequality the less likely it is that those at the top will identify with those at the bottom and be sympathetic to redistributive policies to improve their position (Lister, 2004: 53)

To bring out the differences between them, Lister (2004) clearly opines that inequality is concerned solely with the comparison between groups and that relative poverty, in addition to comparison, has the notion of incapacity to meet certain needs. She further states that the feature that distinguishes poverty from inequality is the experience of deprivation in both material and social forms. Further, inequality may also be seen or measured in terms of the degree, level, amount, volume and extent of deprivation or discrimination between men and women, or minority and majority ethnic groups, children, and the aged or class (Greig et al., 2007: 13-15).

Though inequality is more concerned with the comparison of outcomes between groups, the World Bank (2005) as well as Greig et al., (2007) contend that it should be considered and measured in terms of opportunities and not outcomes because outcomes depend on the person's ability and capacity. Dealing with inequality in terms of opportunity is of great importance because from an equity perspective the distribution of opportunities matter more than the distribution of outcomes. The reason given is that whereas opportunity opens the gates for everyone to participate, outcomes basically depend on the individual's capacities. The difference therefore, between poverty and inequality is that while poverty is concerned with deprivation and lack of capabilities, inequality is concerned with deprivation of opportunities to utilise the inherent capabilities.

For instance, we can say that a person may have capabilities but the existing inequality prevents him/her from having the opportunity to utilise those capabilities for a sustainable living and thus he becomes poor. It can be inferred that poverty is therefore caused by existing inequalities. It is agreed that their relationship is causal. The strand of development debate over the two concepts now has been whether inequality plays a key role in the process that creates and maintains poverty. From the preceding arguments it cannot be denied that it plays a key role because inequality shuts down opportunities to a person's development.

Turning to another angle, the UNDP (2003b) indicates that inequality is the disproportionate distribution of wealth in the society. Wealth here refers to assets accumulation by which income can be generated. Therefore, inequality is more concerned with disproportionate distribution of wealth than income. Three reasons are offered as to why wealth distribution is an important factor in explaining inequality.

- 'First, ownership of financial wealth is a significant source of income: inequity in the distribution of wealth implies a corresponding inequity in the distribution of dividends, interest, rent, and other income received by wealth owners.
- Second, wealth provides security: a wealthier household is better able to survive interruptions in income or expensive emergency.
- Finally, wealth brings its owners political and economic power in several forms...' (UNDP, 2003b: 72).

From this statement, when wealth is not equally distributed and continues to be concentrated in one group, that group receives greater income and amasses political and economic power. An exploitative relationship is then built between the 'haves' and 'have-nots' of wealth. The wealthy amass and accumulate more wealth at the expense of the poor. A wide gap in income and wealth (a development gap) is then created between the two. It is clearly conceded in the literature that concentration and non-distribution of wealth are empirically the source of human poverty and inequality and their attendant low human development, particularly in the Developing Countries or Less Developed Countries (LDCs) (UNDP 2006; Chambers 1986). The UNDP (2006) writes that inequality is very great in developing countries and worse in Sub-Saharan Africa with a Gini coefficient of more than 70. Gini coefficient is the measurement of inequalities on the scale of 0-100. The higher a country is on that scale the greater the inequality. This is discussed and fully explained in sub-section 2.6.4. Thus sub Sahara Africa with a Gini coefficient of more than 70 has great

inequalities. Inequality consequently widens the poverty gap in this region and South Africa in particular (refer to SA's Gini coefficient in sub - section 2.6.4.1). We can say that although poverty and inequality are not mutually exclusive, a decline in poverty may not necessarily lead to a decline in inequality.

2.3.1 Inequality and social exclusion

According to May (1998), inequality occurs if there is the inability of many to satisfy their essential needs whilst a minority enjoys extreme prosperity. The inability to satisfy needs is caused by lack of capabilities which breeds a poor quality of life and poverty. Lack of capability is a cause of inequality. This is dealt with extensively in subsection 2.4.2. In the context of South Africa and North West Province, there is an enormous lack of capability that has occurred through past institutionalised discrimination. Davids et al., (2005:39) refer to this as social exclusion. Social exclusion continues to occur because despite the general wealth from resources in the country and in the province, there remains a group that is excluded from the mainstream benefits of the society and is prevented in some way from fully enjoying the prosperity accrued to the society. This is exemplified by May (1998), that the apartheid legislation directed at obtaining cheap labour for the white industries resulted in State-driven underdevelopment that encompassed dispossession, exclusion and the incapacitation of the majority Black South Africans (May, 1998).

The outcome of the policies of apartheid was the Black African's loss of assets, such as land and livestock and being simultaneously denied opportunities to develop their limited assets. This was done by limiting their access to markets, infrastructure and education. Access to markets and education are functionings in Sen's (1996) terminology and the Black African's lack of capability, or rather, being made incapable to achieve them by being excluded, led to poverty among the majority of the population. In other words, apartheid operated to produce poverty and extreme inequality by undermining capabilities. In spite of economic

changes the country has undergone after apartheid, the distortions and dynamics of social exclusion introduced by apartheid continue to reproduce poverty and inequality.

To fully understand the inequality concept, May (2000) thinks we need to know what “equality” is. She contends that equality is a state of social organisation that enables equal access to resources and opens opportunities to all its members. Inequality arises where equal access to resources and opportunities are denied to one group and offered to another. Inequality can also be in terms of scale or proportionality of access by groups. A situation where one group gains more opportunities for access to wealth and assets than the other is considered inequality.

Lauer (1998:289) shows that inequality can also be claimed as being the discriminatory treatment of people or groups of people, especially women and the disabled or the more physically challenged persons in various occupations. As a result of their status, gender or class they are excluded from many things that society enjoys. In careers there is discrimination both in hiring and in promotions and some groups of people, particularly women and the physically challenged, are discouraged and excluded, from entering certain occupations. According to Barnes, Middleton, Millan, Papadopolous & Tsukloglou (2002), the physically challenged tend to experience greater material deprivation than others living in poverty. They are clearly seen as being excluded from the upper limits of professions but they are found disproportionately in large numbers in the lower-echelon jobs.

Thus inequality, like poverty, has many dimensions. It can be found in the economic (income), social (discrimination), political (constitution) and other dimensions. Inequality in its multiple dimensions carries poverty in its trail and many poverty analysts such as Townsend (1993) and Atkinson (2002) conclude that poverty cannot be tackled effectively unless inequality is reduced at both

national and international levels. This greatly informs poverty's theoretical concept which is discussed below.

2.4 POVERTY AND ITS MULTIDIMENSIONS

The World Bank (2001) while supporting the multidimensionality of poverty reminds us of the inherent problems in defining and conceptualising it. To define poverty in different dimensions the question that arises is how to compare achievement in well-being in different dimensions. This is because different dimensions may move in different directions. For example, income may improve while education worsens. An individual may be “poor” but not “income poor”. How do we consider such a person as poor? A country may also show more improvement in health than in vulnerability. This may be the converse in another country. Weighting could be brought in as a solution but it is then also difficult to determine which dimension to assign a greater weight in order to make comparisons. That is, how much unit of a dimension can one or is one prepared to trade off for another. There is a difficulty in this. Without weighting one cannot also compare the dimensions where one is deficient.

A solution that the World Bank (2001) offers is to define as poor, anyone who is deficient in any one of the dimensions noted. This would mean referring to that person according to his/her particular deficiency. For example, an income poor person is deficient in income. A low attainment in education implies being educationally poor. On the other hand, the problem can be overcome holistically, by stating that a poor person is anybody who is poor in all dimensions of poverty. It leads us to look into the realm of the Human Development Index (HDI) and Human Poverty Index (HPI) for a solution. This is because the HDI and HPI have a combination of the multiple dimensions of poverty. The HDI is a measure of the overall economic and social well being of a country based on weighted indices of life expectancy, educational attainment and gross domestic product (UNDP, 2003). This is detailed in subsection 2.6.3.1. Since this puts various aspects or dimensions of living into perspective, it can be considered a more credible means

of conceptualising and understanding poverty and a solution to the problem under discussion. Poverty is here being referred to as the situation in which people have a low HDI, below the national average. A decrease in HDI means poverty or increase in deprivation.

The HPI also deals with deprivation in the same 3 dimensions of human development as the HDI, that is, longevity, knowledge and economic positioning. A high HPI means greater deprivation and low HPI means lesser deprivation. By a combined use of the HDI and HPI we can define poverty generally as the state of people having low HDI below the national average and a high HPI above the national average. Simply, it is a state of deprivation where people are characterized by low HDI and high HPI.

Still the problem is not solved (it seems to linger on) when we deal with the poverty of individuals since HDI and HPI deal with national indices. A country with low HDI or high HPI does not necessarily mean the people are poor equally. There will be some who are extremely rich. Secondly, we cannot compile indices for individuals. Perhaps we can use the three dimensions of human development on which the indices are based and state that deficiency (or deprivation) of a person in all these three aspects implies poverty. We can show the differences and intensity in which one is poor in order to arrive at the extreme poor by describing them in superlative terms. By this approach the poor can be described in superlative terms as more-poor, less-poor, and extreme-poor. The more dimensions one is poor in, the greater is one's poverty or ill-being. All these show that one definition of poverty is not applicable to all groups of people. It depends on their specific circumstances, location and environment.

2.4.1 Ill-being and well-being

To understand the qualitative perceptions of poverty we have to understand what constitutes 'ill-being' or 'well-being' in relation to poverty. According to De Beer and Swanepoel (2006), ill-being is being poor but this does not refer or

equate to not having money. In the same way well-being is not the same as having money though it may connote it. Well-being, the opposite of which is ill-being may or may not be associated with poverty (Lister, 2004:17-18). When it refers to poverty it would mean more than simply material perceptions but would connote non-material qualitative perceptions. This is discernible in the notion of 'quality of life' or 'social quality'. De Beer and Swanepoel (2006) demonstrate that the condition of ill-being is manifested in many facets. Physically, it is characterized by hunger, pain, discomfort and exhaustion; bad social relations are manifested by exclusion, rejection, isolation and loneliness. In terms of insecurity, it is manifested by being vulnerable and worried. It is also manifested in fear which is characterized by stress, risk and defencelessness; It is further associated with powerlessness, helplessness, frustration and anger, manifested in political impotence. Thus ill-being associated with poverty is qualitatively inclined, defined and perceived.

On the other hand the well-being as expressed in Narayan et al., (2000: 25-28) by people in poverty shows that it is characterized by both material well-being i.e. having enough food, assets, work, and non-material well-being, i.e. bodily well-being by possessing good health and appearance, being in good physical condition. The qualitative aspect includes social well-being that is, being able to care for children, maintaining self respect and dignity, living in peace and harmony with family and community; access to justice, security in old age and confidence in the future, as well as freedom of choice and action in all aspects of life. Continuing this discourse, Klugman (2002) veers to the perspective of resources and states that well-being is the possession of enough resources or having the abilities to meet current needs. The resources refer to attributes, which have a defined threshold, below which individuals are considered poor in those particular attributes. Attributes in terms of the UNDP etc are development indicators which include income, consumption, education, nutrition etc. Thus the incidence of poverty is proportionate and depends on the attribute one is measuring (see subsection 2.6). By this, Klugman (2002:29) contends that the

poverty concept can be defined simply as ‘...not having enough today in some dimension of well-being’. This conception deals with poverty over a period of time indicating that poverty may or may not be a permanent state of an individual.

In his conceptualisation on poverty, Sen (1990: 114) offers a perspective on well-being as both material and non-material. He considered that the material aspect is an instrument to achieve what really matters (the non-material), the kind of life that one would like to live to attain well-being expressed as ‘capabilities’ and ‘functionings’ which are discussed in detail in the following sub-section.

2.4.2 Poverty in terms of capability and well-being

Sen (1996) in his poverty dimensions analysis takes capability as well-being (or as one dimension of well being) and defines capability as a person’s actual ability to do valuable acts or reach valuable states of being. Simply, it is what he/she can or cannot do, can or cannot be (Sen, 1985). Capability is the alternative combination of things a person is able to do or functionings he can achieve. Functionings are the various things a person actually manages to do or be in life, while capabilities refer to what a person can do or be, given the range of choices open to her or him. The achievement of these combinations brings well-being. He defines ‘Functioning’ as ‘...the state of a person and that he/she manages to do in life’. Functionings are ends that one is able to achieve, for example, being well nourished and being in good health. Again, self-respect and being socially integrated are functionings (Nussbaum & Sen, 1996: 30-31). A person’s capability is also further reflected in the combinations of alternative functionings that the person can achieve and which he/she chooses. The more functionings one achieves the greater is one’s capabilities and well-being, and the less poor one becomes. A person’s quality of life then is measured by the capability to achieve valuable functionings. Quality of life is also embedded in well-being which Sen again defines as “...the ‘well-ness’ of a person’s state of being...” as measured by one’s personal welfare (Nussbaum & Sen, 1996: 36). Sen’s stated nature and meaning of poverty quoted at length from Meier and Rauch (2005:31)

below, captures clearly the essence of capability, minimum standards, meaning and dimensions of poverty.

... poverty is not just a matter of being relatively poorer than others in the society, but of not having some basic opportunities of material well-being – the failure to have certain minimum “capabilities.” The criteria of minimum capabilities are “absolute” not in the sense that they must not vary from society to society, or over time, but *people’s deprivations are judged absolutely, and not simply in comparison with the deprivation of others in that society. If a person is seen as poor because he is unable to satisfy his hunger, then that diagnosis of poverty cannot be altered merely by the fact that others too may also be hungry* (so that this person may not be, relatively speaking, worse off than most others)... A person’s advantage is judged in this approach by his capabilities, viz., what he can or cannot do, can or cannot be. The relevant capabilities are of many different kinds (e.g., being free from starvation, from hunger, from undernourishment; participating in communal life; being adequately sheltered; being free to travel to see friends; and so on (emphasis mine).



In short, poverty, is not ultimately a matter of incomes, it is one of a failure to achieve certain minimum capabilities. From the above, it can be found that in well-being, a person becomes contented or fulfilled by the achievement of internal and external functions. The absence of this fulfilment is poverty (Nussbaum & Sen, 1996: 36).² Sen therefore characterizes poverty as a failure to fulfil basic capabilities. By this he implies not only income but also material adequacy. Poverty is thus a relationship between income and capabilities. The inability to do valuable acts leads to poverty and poor state of being/wellness. He concludes that “... the central feature of well-being is the ability to achieve functionings” (Nussbaum & Sen, 1996: 36-43). Thus poverty is the inability to achieve functionings.

Critics of Sen describe his argument as being 'athleticism-jumping the gun' or that he overestimates the place of freedom and activity in well-being (Nuusbaum & Sen, 1996). Others treading the middle ground when commenting on Sen's 'Capability and Well-being' discourse see Sen to be saying that the quality of a person's life should be assessed in terms of the person's capabilities. A capability is the ability or potential to do or be something (to achieve a certain functioning). Our capabilities are our potential for functioning. The lack of basic capabilities is poverty. Therefore basic capabilities are of great importance when analysing poverty.

From these scholars we find that it is not the achievement of the end results – functionings – but the ability, capacity and potential thereof to be able to achieve the functionings that determine one's poverty or well being. When the capacities and functionings entailed in the above discussions are analysed it is found that capacities and potentials inherent can be exercised or activated to achieve the functionings and thus reduce poverty, if and only if, opportunities are made available to the individuals or households concerned.

2.4.3 Poverty in terms of opportunities

In the literature, poverty is also looked at in terms of the dimension of opportunity. In this dimension, 'Poverty' simply refers to people being denied their choices and opportunities that would enable them to live tolerable lives (May, 1998; UNAIDS, 1998; Wilson & Ramphela, 1989; Chambers, 1983). In this context May (1998) shows that poverty should be conceptualised as the inability to attain a minimal standard of living (measured in terms of basic consumption needs or income required to satisfy those needs) as a result of having been denied the opportunity. This encompasses lack of opportunities to obtain the basics for life sustenance e.g. food, clothing, shelter, medical care, education and adequately paid and secured employment (UNDP, 1998; May, 1998).

Poverty is conceptualised and defined in terms of deprivation or as a state of deprivation in opportunities (ILO, 2003). In that regard, poverty becomes a state where some people have been deprived of opportunities to achieve sustenance and other values in life. The deprivation can be material and in that sense will mean depriving some people of access to their material resources that they could have used for survival or to sustain themselves (Vanderberg, 2006; ILO, 2003). It can therefore be stated that deprivation is in both material and non-material aspects. Majority of people living in South Africa have become poor as a result of deprivation. There is more to this and a renewed interest in redefining and conceptualising poverty in the literature has surged. This interest has been in the realm of subjectivity and objectivity, qualitative and quantitative, political and chronic poverty. These are dealt with in the sub-sections that follow. However chronic poverty is beyond the context of this thesis and it is not dealt with.

2.5 CONTEMPORARY PERSPECTIVES OF POVERTY

Poverty's many manifestations (UNDP 1995a), which were pointed out in sub-section-section 2.2. have clearly become the point of departure for all poverty discourse in the literature. May (1998:3), like Narayan (2000), in their poverty and inequality survey point out how some people practically view poverty. These are quoted here to highlight instances of subjective views of poverty.

- *Poverty is not knowing where your next meal is going to come from, and always wondering when the council is going to put your furniture out and always praying that your husband must not lose his job. To me that is poverty.*

(By Mrs Witbooi of Philipstown)

- *I am so behind with my rent (service charges) I can't even sleep at night.*

(By a woman interviewed by Black Sash).

- *My child broke his leg and had to go to hospital. I sold my three cows to pay for transport and treatment. Now I have nothing.*

(By a man interviewed by Operation Hunger).

All the above show clearly that the conception of poverty is subjective and can mean different experiences to different people, and that there are two main views within which one has to understand poverty. These are 'Subjective' and 'Objective' views. A question that can be asked from the above statements is: What are the contemporary conceptual views on the poverty debate in the literature from the perspectives of people afflicted, in reality, by poverty in the rural communities?

Before answering the question, Wilson and Ramphela (1989), like Chambers (1983) earlier, caution that in defining and bringing out the meaning of poverty, our mind-set should not be confined to those characteristics that appear important to the people in urban universities, the 'outsiders', but must be confined to the description of those experiencing poverty in the countryside, the 'insiders'. Wilson and Ramphela align the definition of the poor to Charles Booth's pioneer study of London that defined the poor as those 'living under a struggle to obtain the necessities of life to make both ends meet'. The very poor are referred to as those that "live in a state of chronic want" (Wilson & Ramphela, 1989: 16). They are also described as indigent (*'pauvre'* in French) or absolutely poor. While the poor may have some occasional bouts of reprieve, the indigent is chronically bound to poverty.

We find from the foregoing statements and discussions that the conventional and orthodox view of poverty has been the lack of assets and deprivation of people from accessing resources that they could have used for their daily survival. Conversely stated, poverty is the abject and deplorable living conditions of people, contrary to the norms that a community is expected to live as a result of deprivation and the lack of access to the necessary required resources or basic needs.

The International Labour Organisation's (ILO) conference report of 2003 depicts poverty as being complex, deep-seated and a pervasive reality. The organisation describes poverty as a condition that breeds a growing sense of powerlessness and indignity, of being unable to think, plan or dream beyond the daily struggle to survive by any individual or household. The overview of the report notes that it is a vicious circle of poor health, reduced working capacity, low productivity and a shortened life expectancy (ILO, 2003: 1). Furthermore, it considers what constrains the poor's progress in life to be "structural failures and ineffective social systems, the product of inadequate political responses, bankrupt policy imaginations and insufficient international support" (ILO, 2003: 1). This simply means that authorities neglect to provide people with their basic needs or support systems when required and even when they do, it is not at the right time. In the end it leads to loss of fundamental human values. SIDA (Vandenberg, 2006: 8) in this vein notes that authorities' failures to provide support rob the poor of opportunities to participate in matters of fundamental importance. The poor thus continues to lack power and ability to make choices.

It was in light of support systems mentioned above that Burkey (1993) looked at poverty in terms of basic needs, and defined it as:

The inability of a community, an individual or nation to satisfactorily meet its basic needs (Burkey, 1993: 3).

It means the absence of basic human requirements and life's sustenance (the core value of development), such as access to safe water, education, employment, health and sanitation, adequate food and nutrition and others. Here we find that the needs of the individual are intertwined with those of the community and that poverty occurs for the individual if the community is unable to attain certain needs for him/her – be it educational, cultural, physical, political or health needs to maintain well-being. This is widely embraced by the UNDP in their determination of Human Development Index (HDI) (UNDP 2006).

Klugman (2002) as well as the World Bank (2001) agree that poverty is an unacceptable deprivation in human well-being comprising both physiological and social deprivation. Physiological deprivation involves the non-fulfilment of basic material or biological needs, including inadequate nutrition, health, education and shelter as mentioned above. A person can be considered poor if he or she is unable to secure the goods and services to meet these basic material needs.

Dauids et al., (2005:39) and other scholars such as Sen (1998) and Lister (2004) conclude that, from the understanding of poor people one could see that poverty is a multifaceted reality of lack of power, income and resources to make choices and to take advantage of opportunities opened to them. They consider the basic needs perspective as an essential element in overcoming poverty, and that even when other perspectives of overcoming poverty are highlighted there should be a strong emphasis on preventing deprivation in basic needs¹. This is fundamentally the material definition of poverty and scholars such as Hettne (1996) wishing to add other interpretations to it refer to 'going beyond basic needs approach'². Dauids et al., (2005) point out as an example, that in South Africa, a significant proportion of the population do not have access to basic needs such as water, sanitation and electricity for survival. Those items manifest their poverty.

Furthermore, Hindson and Xaba (2005) contend that poverty has been a subject of debate among policy analysts over time, and there is the need for a holistic approach towards poverty which looks at a much wider range of factors. Although poverty is still most commonly perceived as the "...inability of individual households or entire communities to command sufficient resources to satisfy a socially acceptable minimum standard of living" (May, 2000: 5), an integrated perspective of poverty is needed. Resources in this perception entail aspects such as employment, infrastructure, health needs, nutrition etc. To this end scholars now, at best, perceive it in qualitative and quantitative terms and

¹ See Streeten *et al* 1981 & Streeten 1979 for a comprehensive discussion on basic needs approach to development.

² Hettne, B. 1996. *Development theory and the three worlds* discusses in detail beyond BNA.

approaches. On these approaches, Hindson & Xaba (2005) re-emphasize that the wider range of factors to be considered, should have both measurable and non measurable attributes.

Klugman (2002) provides a greater understanding of this by indicating that poverty can be reduced when it is seen more in qualitative or non-measurable terms. Quantitative or measurable approaches are mainly economic-driven and include income and consumption based measures. Some aspects of human development indicators such as deprivation or poverty index, the Gini coefficient, as well as depth and distribution of poverty constitute quantitative measures. When one wants to address poverty the non-measurable aspects one finds in these measurable perspectives can be isolated and dealt with qualitatively.

2.5.1 Qualitative approaches: human development perspective

The qualitative approach deals with human development (HD) perspective. The HD perspective refers to enabling individuals to live a long and healthy life in which they are educated and have access to a decent standard of living. Included in this are rights, freedoms and security (UNDP, 2003a). Qualitative approaches also reflect other important elements of the life of the poor and include capabilities and sustainable livelihoods. A recent report issued by the South African Regional Poverty Network (SARPN) also concludes that poverty includes deprivation in a range of capabilities, such as education, health, and civil rights (Hindson & Xaba, 2005).

These qualitative perceptions are confirmed by the South African Poverty and Inequality assessment of 1998, and Narayan's *Voices of the poor* of 2000 (noted above), which voiced some important complementary elements by the poor themselves that should be taken into account when defining or conceptualising poverty. These elements provide insight into the qualitative approach to the poverty concept and include alienation from the community and the institutions of kinship, food insecurity, crowded homes, use of basic forms of

energy, lack of adequately paid and secure jobs and fragmentation of the family and lack of voice and political rights (Narayan et al., 2000; May, 2000). The political perception adds an important qualitative meaning to the well-being of people in a community.

2.5.2 The political dimension

In a political dimension, Magasela (2005) points out that poverty must be looked at in a political context. To him, in the context of South Africa and the politicians' struggle to address poverty, the meaning of poverty can be adduced politically from the constitutional provisions enshrined in the Bill of Rights. This is because poverty in South Africa is the legacy of Apartheid. He therefore sees poverty as a 'contested political concept' (Magasela, 2005: 48). The meaning is contextual and can be based on income, wage levels, employment, expenditure, social, constitutional or politics. So instead of talking about the concept in terms of only income and consumption, the concept can be expanded politically within social deprivation to include political vulnerability, lack of autonomy, powerlessness, loss of freedoms, lack of self respect and lack of voice.

In the political conceptualisation one has to deal with citizens' rights and participation in the mainstream society which includes involvement in political, economic, civic and cultural spheres, the right to take part in the conduct of public affairs. Poverty inhibits such participation (Lister, 2004: 165). The rights go to the heart of voicelessness and powerlessness associated with poverty. Thus citizens ought to have a 'voice' i.e. 'the right to say', be heard and listened to (Narayan, 2000). Having a voice alone does not move one from poverty. Voice must be associated with influence. The poor need to have influence on community programmes and not only a voice (Lister, 2004: 166-173). Thus Lister, reflecting the UN Copenhagen declaration, shows that poor people will have influence in any meaningful community-based project when they are fully

involved from the initial decision-making and implementation stages. Their participation and effective voice are inextricably linked with empowerment.

Lister (2004:172) further conceptualizes poverty politically as 'a state of powerlessness in which people are unable to exercise their basic human rights or control virtually any aspect of their lives'. The UNDP (2002) augments this by stating that 'reducing poverty depends as much on whether poor people have political power as in their opportunities for economic progress'. This means deprivation goes beyond physiological deprivation to social and political deprivation (to which greater weight is sometimes given). According to Magasela (2005) and Klugman (2002), it is instructive to have dialogue with different communities to arrive at the most appropriate meaning and conceptualisation of poverty in a country to be able to design appropriate strategies and anti-poverty programmes. This implies that the most appropriate political conceptualisation that defines poverty is local or community-based.

Furthermore, there are moral imperatives implied in political definitions. The implications are that governments take action to eradicate it, as they promised to be responsible to the people during election and so owe their positions to the people that voted them to power. Thus, the defining of poverty broadly and politically is much justified and it is the position of this thesis because governments' policies should be, and are now, geared towards the direction of meeting the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) of halving poverty by 2015. In fact the way one defines poverty reflects the manner in which we would want action on it to be. As Green (1998: 12) argues "...the manner in which a writer defines poverty reflects his [sic] underlying assumptions about human conditions, his preferred role for government". Therefore current definitions and conceptualizations are broadly and politically based in order to justify an extensive state action. Lister reasons out in this way that:

If poverty is defined in narrow, absolutist terms, the role ascribed to government and the resource implications for the policies needed to

eradicate it are considerably more limited than if it is defined to take account of social needs and obligations and the living standards the wider society takes for granted (Lister, 2004: 34).

This therefore shows that from the various points of view considered in the literature it is agreed that poverty has a multidimensional meaning and the problem should be conceptualised, and approached multidimensionally as governments seek broader solutions; and that one main defining conceptualisation is elusive and cannot direct action and resources needed towards total eradication of poverty.

With this understanding, Du Toit (2005) writes that judging what poverty is or who the poor are, is fraught with difficulties and requires an indicator that should stand as a proxy for what he calls the 'state of poverty' (refer to subsection 2.6 and 2.7). What constitutes the state of poverty can be found in the literature to be economic, moral, physical and political judgements embedded in the nature of society and the identity of its members (see also Chambers, 1986: 35-40). He concludes that "Any judgement about whether or not a particular person is poor - or about what the 'essentials of life' are, the lack of which constitute poverty - is always a political judgement and is often contested..." (Du Toit, 2005:5). This shows that, in his words, 'there is no objective, uncontroversial, value-free and unitary concept of poverty directly available for transparent operationalisation by social science' (Du Toit, 2005:5).

However, for one to understand what is entailed in this study, an operational definition is needed to direct action towards poverty reduction. In this vein the UNDP and Statistic South Africa's (2005: 54) meaning given to poverty can be considered as a compromise working definition which is more appealing and can be used for the purpose of this work. Poverty is thus being defined herein as:

The denial of opportunities, choices and loss of capabilities most basic to human development to lead a long healthy, creative life and to enjoy

a decent standard of living, freedom to act with voice in political decisions, dignity, self-esteem and respect from others.

In this definition, issues of socio-economic rights are raised which give direction for policy formulation towards well-being and measures to fight against social exclusion, deprivation in capabilities and functionings that have resulted in poverty (Nuusbaum & Sen, 1996). It also brings in its trail various types of poverty that will be distinguished in the next sub-section.

2.5.3 Various types of poverty

From the views above and in the literature various types of poverty can be distinguished. Some of the various types relevant to this study which this section explains and differentiates are:

- Income Poverty,
- Human Poverty,
- Food Poverty.
- Absolute poverty,
- Relative poverty,
- Case poverty,
- Community poverty ,
- Chronic poverty,
- Transient or transitory poverty etc.

Income poverty is the lack of money and inability to gain access to income generating employment and it depends on a single factor - income, while Human poverty refers to deprivation in certain essential aspects of human life and is a multidimensional dependent. It reflects the distribution of progress and backlog of deprivation that still exists. Food poverty is considered as the inability of the individual to obtain one decent and nourishing square meal a day (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2000; UNDP, 1998; May, 1998). This kind is found among the rural

community in the study area of North West, from where children move to the towns and become begging street kids.

In considering other forms of poverty, De Beer and Swanepoel (2000) add case poverty and community poverty. They consider case poverty as occurring when individuals do not share in the general well being of the society. It refers to specific individuals experiencing poverty while the general society is experiencing prosperity. Community poverty occurs when almost everyone in the community is poor. These two forms typically reflect conditions at Maeyaeyane village in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District in the North West Province.

Poverty can also be classified under "relative" and "absolute" poverty. These depend on the levels of deprivation or disadvantage experienced. Absolute refers to a below absolute standard of minimum requirements, while relative refers to falling behind most others in the community (Lauer, 1998:212). De Beer and Swanepoel (2000), in line with the World Bank (2001), indicate that absolute poverty refers to a situation where incomes are low and the minimum living standards cannot be maintained. This means '... a person is so poor that his next meal may mean the difference between life and death' (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2000: 2-3). In the MDG report of Nepal, absolute poverty is defined as "... a level of income insufficient to procure a basket of minimum food (2124 kilocalories per person) per day". It is a situation where the net income of the individual or group of individuals is below the threshold (poverty line) or minimum required by a person to live a decent life (UNDP, 2003a). The World bank now identifies this threshold as an income of US\$1.25 a day.

Relative poverty refers to the poverty of one entity in relation to another or poverty in one community in relation to another. According to Lauer (1998), as noted above, it is whether one has fallen behind most others by comparison. Lauer (1998:212) gives a good characterisation with respect to relative poverty when identifying poverty as a problem in a country. He notes that the poor in one

community 'A' in relation to or compared to another 'B' may not be really poor. The lowest income group in community 'A' may not be really poor because they fared better than those in 'B' when compared.

However, in using this relationship, Lauer (1998) cautions that a better evaluation of the relationship may not be achieved if countries with very great disparities are used. This is because the standard of evaluating 'A's poor cannot be that of the starving in 'B'. 'A's poverty must be evaluated in terms of the standard of living attained by the majority of 'A'. Thus, if the deprivation or poverty is relative, then the deprivation must relate to similar conditions to have a proper assessment. That is, the poor in 'A' are deprived relative to others in 'A'. Similarly the poor in 'B' are deprived relative to the majority in 'B' (Lauer, 1998). So we must evaluate poverty in a country in terms of the standard of living attained by the majority of people in that country.

Relative poverty can thus be equated to 'case poverty' distinguished by De Beer and Swanepoel referred to above. They differentiate between the two (absolute and relative) where, absolute poverty refers to a desperate situation and relative poverty refers to a comparison of levels of poverty (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2000:3). However, according to Sen (1985), a person's poverty must not be compared with the deprivation of others in the society. His/her poverty must be seen holistically or in absolute terms. That is, 'If a person is seen as poor because he is unable to satisfy his hunger, then that diagnosis of poverty cannot be altered merely by the fact that others too may also be hungry (so that this person may not be, relatively speaking, worse off than most others)...'(Meier & Rauch, 2005: 37). The distinction between the two should thus be based on their levels of capabilities so that it can be argued that though the two are deprived, one's capability may be greater or lesser than the other.

In dealing with levels of poverty or capability (that may, in the course of time lead to absolute poverty), chronic poverty is arrived at. It is classified or determined in

accordance with the duration of occurrence. Chronic poverty, also known as persistent poverty, refers to poverty of long duration. Currently, it is this aspect of poverty and that of transient poverty³ that are attracting the interest of poverty analysts and being discussed more in journals such as *World Development*. Chronic poverty is the poverty of those who are poor most of their lives and transmit their poverty to subsequent generations. It again refers to the situation of those caught in poverty traps and those who number among the 'hard-to-reach poor' (Du Toit, 2005: 4; Aliber, 2002). Hulme and Shepherd (2003) offer a duration of five years in poverty as a criterion to be classified as chronically poor. For its duration and for the avoidance of inconsistencies in time periods, this type of poverty needs to be considered as persisting for a long time unless the cycle in which they are trapped is broken with some powerful interventions. It is measured holistically by considering such factors as education levels, gender discrimination, and effectiveness of social services, political freedom, land policies and many others as contained in sub-section 2.6.. Francis (2002) adds that it may be due to low endowment of assets and lack of ability to translate given assets into income. To identify the chronically poor, a number of surveys can be done and the chronic poor can be identified using the poverty line. Those who move above the poverty line are said to have escaped poverty and those who dip below are said to have entered it. Those counted in every wave of those surveys or on average remain below the poverty line are considered 'chronically poor'.

Unlike chronic poverty, transient or transitory poverty occurs over a short period of time when one moves from 'non-poor' to 'poor' for a short period and moves back to non-poor. In such a situation, according to Du Toit (2005:5) using a poverty line based on a dataset (usually monetary in nature), a population can be grouped into 2 waves – 'the poor' and 'non-poor'. Accordingly, Carter and May (2001), using Micawber threshold in the Kwazulu Natal Income Dynamics Study

³ See Chronic Poverty Research Centre @ www.chronicpoverty.org

(KIDS), categorised households that moved between poor and non-poor over time as transitory. It may be caused by unforeseen circumstances, be they natural catastrophes or bad management of one's resources (Klugman, 2002). Similarly, Francis (2002) points out that it may be due to households' inability to cope with shocks.

Having thus seen a broader picture of poverty it is important to state that development efforts are now being focused on addressing both income and non-income measures of well-being. It is also important for any analysis of poverty and social impacts of policy to focus on both income and non-income dimensions of welfare and poverty. According to the World Bank Poverty Reduction Group (World Bank, 2002), to date, the income dimension of welfare has been the typical focus of poverty and distributional analysis, and economic tools have been most often applied in analyzing the money-metric welfare measure. However, non-income dimensions of poverty such as human development indicators, vulnerability and social capital, are now being given closer consideration. In undertaking poverty and social policy impact analysis research, as would be done in this study we need to choose appropriate indicators of welfare and poverty based on the specific area in context. Before that can be done we would have to see the extent, nature and measurement of poverty by which we can evaluate policies and measures implemented to reduce it.

2.6 MEASUREMENT OF POVERTY: EXTENT, NATURE AND DISTRIBUTION

In the previous section, poverty and its various dimensions were broadly and generally conceptualized. This section discusses poverty measurements to give meaning and understanding of the extent (incidence) of poverty in the North West Province.

2.6.1 Why measure poverty?

Measurement of poverty, as noted above, is due to the fact that if any anti poverty action is to be taken, authorities need to know its extent, severity and effects so as to be persuaded to take such action. Measurements generally imply quantifications which are to deliver objective facts. But this is not considered as what matters most. As has been seen earlier and would be seen later, from the meaning and definitions of poverty qualitative measures are also of great importance for the broad conceptualization. We can also note that different measurements can produce different results. Therefore measuring poverty concerns questions about indicators and standards (poverty line) against which the indicators are assessed (Lister, 2004; Barnes et al., 2002).

The measurements which are being discussed in this section provide the context by which detailed analysis of current policies of poverty reduction can be evaluated.

The World Bank (2001:16) writes that measuring poverty is very important because it:

- aids the formulation and testing of hypothesis on the causes of poverty and the likely impact of policy interventions,
- presents an aggregate view of poverty over time, i.e. allows the capture of a broad picture of well being and poverty and,
- enables a Government ...to set itself measurable targets for judging actions,
- allows inferences about the conditions and evolution of poverty at the national level and,
- allows investigation into the relationship among different dimensions of poverty.

In other words the nature and extent of poverty as well as its causes in a country are known and determined by some differing measurement criteria. These criteria may either be qualitative or quantitative. It is possible therefore to use

these criteria to evaluate the poverty reduction strategies employed in the North West Province and for the achievement of the objectives of this study.

Before discussing any mode of measurement, Du Toit (2005:5-6) brings to the fore that poverty measurement has difficulties. It requires identification of indicators and division of a population into two groups - the poor and non-poor - on the basis of the indicators. Though measurements are undertaken, there is no clearly cut specific scientific poverty measurement. This is clearly seen when finding where to set the poverty line in order to make poverty judgment. When setting a scientific standard based on dietary needs or caloric intake requirements, difficulties arise as to which poverty line would be appropriate and robust. When a line or standard is set, those who are at risk of starvation or malnutrition will be the ones counted as poor yet there may be a widespread poverty above the set poverty line who may not be necessarily starving.

May (1998) argues that measuring the concepts 'poverty' and 'inequality' can be approached at different levels. They call these levels 'objective' and 'subjective', aligning them to quantitative and qualitative measurements respectively. The objective level deals with socio-economic indicators such as income levels, consumption expenditure, life expectancy and housing standards; while the subjective level deals with attitudes, needs and perceptions gathered directly from people through the use of participatory methodologies – like PLA, PRA, PAR (Du Toit, 2005; Kotze ,1997; Chambers, 1986). These measures reflect the constituents of well-being or measure the access that people have to the determinants of well being. While the latter (access) is easily measurable, practical and uses conventional money metric measure thereby allowing inter-personal comparisons, the former (well-being) is difficult to measure (May, 1998:19).

Du Toit (2005) as well as May (1998) reason that even though a money metric measure of poverty is used, it is an imperfect means of measurement. It is used

because many aspects of human well-being are hard to quantify for measurement and for making comparisons. Therefore measurement of poverty can be based on monetary, quantitative and objective dimensions of well-being as well as on non-monetary dimensions (i.e. qualitative and subjective). Monetary dimensions include income and consumption and non-monetary measures include health and education (Klugman, 2002:29; Carter & May, 2001; STATSSA, 2000; Carter and Ikegami, 2000).

2.6.2 Quantitative measurement and tools

Many quantitative measurement tools are used in the literature to determine the extent and nature of poverty. Some of the tools are discussed here.

2.6.2.1 The use of household survey as a measurement instrument.

In the literature, quantitative measurement is based on income and consumption expenditure patterns and draws on monetary indicators obtained from household surveys to measure poverty. Household surveys are therefore instruments for quantitative poverty measurement. The income and consumption expenditure patterns in South Africa that are used for measurement are derived from the October household surveys compiled by the Statistic South Africa and are detailed enough to bring out the pattern of consumption (STATSSA, 2000). The use of household survey for poverty measurement has several strengths, according to the World Bank (2001), because it is based on national representative samples and allows inferences about the conditions and evolution of poverty at the national as well as local levels. It enables investigation into the relationship among different dimensions of poverty within the provinces.

Nonetheless, the use of the household survey is not problem free. One problem is the difficulty in making comparisons because there are variations in survey designs of different countries over time. In the household surveys, some

countries ask respondents about their spending on food once a month whilst others ask of spending over a week. The lack of consistency makes converting information from household surveys into measures of well being to require many assumptions. In addition data collected at household levels do not reveal inequality within households. They thus understate overall inequality and poverty (World Bank, 2001)

Concerning the use of income and consumption patterns in this measurement, Klugman (2002) writes that the use of consumption measure should be more preferred to income because, it is more closely linked to a person's well-being. Secondly, it can be calculated and recalled more than income or better measured than income particularly in an agrarian rural household environment, where income may fluctuate according to harvest season and remittance. Thirdly, consumption also reflects a households' actual standard of living and ability to meet basic needs.

Klugman (2002) argues further that the use of income measure has its own advantages as it allows distinctions to be made between sources of income. Income data from various sources are then easily compared to check the quality of data collected. The advantages and disadvantages notwithstanding, either one or both can be used to compare the incidence of poverty when data on both are available and analysed.

However, it is advisable and necessary to aggregate information in the household survey and to make adjustments when dealing with either measure. The reasons for the adjustments which Klugman notes are that there are many differences in needs between households and intra household inequality. Differences exist also in price levels at different points in time and at different places in the country. Without adjustment the problem of over stating expenditure or double counting may occur. For example, expenditure on inputs like seed, fertilizers etc. needs to be excluded (because these do not count as direct

consumption expenditure) otherwise one may overstate consumption and expenditure (or double count them). While excluding input and investment expenditure, checking whether adjustment can be made for under reporting consumption expenditure is also of great importance (Klugman, 2002).

2.6.2.2 The use of poverty lines as measurement tools

To be able to have a credible measurable analysis of income and consumption poverty, the use of poverty lines is considered to be a very effective tool or a key building block in poverty measurement. In the discussions which follow, because of the existence of quantitative and qualitative measurements, various poverty lines are noted to be used to separate the 'poor' from the 'non-poor' based on the necessary expenditure for minimum nutrition.

Elsewhere in this study, poverty line has been defined and described. It is important to show its details here, now that the purpose for which it is construed is being discussed. Simply put, poverty line is defined as the cut off line in income or consumption below which an individual is considered poor (Klugman, 2002; World Bank, 2001). Klugman conceptualizes it as cut off points separating the poor and non-poor. For example, on non- monetary perspectives it can be considered as a certain level of literacy (based on a number of year's schooling etc.). May (2000), also drawing from the World Development Report (1990), notes that the poverty line is a separation line between the poor and non-poor based on 'expenditure necessary to buy a minimum standard of nutrition and other necessities' (May ,2000:29).

In principle, the poverty lines test for the ability to purchase a basket of commodities is roughly similar across the world, internationally and in the country. Countries have their country specific poverty lines that reflect the country's economic and social circumstances and expenditure pattern. When a poverty line is specified, the extent of poverty in a particular area can then be easily assessed (World Bank, 2001).

In the literature, many researchers, for example, May (1998) in the PIR goes along these lines basing the income or consumption levels on money terms because that is easy and tractable. Though straight forward, it has disadvantages because it fails to realize that, among the poor people, there are wide income and consumption disparity levels. While some are just below the poverty line, others are far below it. If this were not noted by policy makers, poverty alleviation resources may only reach those closest to the poverty line. If these were found to be above the poverty line during time of evaluation of the effectiveness of policy, a wrong, deceptive general conclusion can be drawn to infer that those populations evaluated are above the poverty line whereas a large number would be below it (Klugman, 2002).

A solution to this problem is the use of multiple lines which can help distinguish between different levels of poverty. This is done based on various attributes of well-being, be they quantitative or qualitative. In this circumstance a poverty line then can be further defined as a certain defined threshold or point of income or consumption of non-monetary or monetary attribute (not necessarily separating the poor and the non-poor) below which an individual is referred to as poor. Below this threshold (which refers to an individual as poor) an individual or group of individuals becomes absolutely poor or falls into extreme poverty. For example, when a poverty threshold is identified, a certain percentage of the population, say 45%, falling below the line are considered poor and a further 20% below can then be considered ultra or extremely poor. For example, in the context of this work and using the country specific line of R524.00 income per month referred to, households expending less than this are considered poor. Those earning below R524.00 pm are very poor, and those further below this threshold are ultra or extremely poor. Two major poverty lines can now be depicted. These are Relative poverty and absolute poverty lines:.

- Relative Poverty Lines refer to individuals' income etc in relation to the overall distribution of income or consumption in a country. It can be set at 50% or 40% of mean consumption.
- Absolute Poverty Lines are based on absolute standards of what households should be able to count on to meet basic needs.

These are determined by the monetary value or cost of basic food needs, or cost of a nutritional basket considered minimum for the health of a typical family to which provision is made for non-food needs (Klugman, 2002; May, 2000).

It is contended that the choice of a minimum standard or threshold to determine poverty line is arbitrary and varies yearly. It depends on a widely accepted social norm and what represents a minimum (standard). Some countries may use minimum wage, or value of existing benefit widely known to represent a minimum standard.

To construct a credible poverty line which may be either quantitative or qualitative, Klugman (2002) suggests that the following three processes identified are ideal to be followed.

- The first is to identify the relevant dimension of poverty to measure, and the indicators of well being in those dimensions.
- Second is to identify a poverty line or threshold below which an individual becomes poor.
- Third is to select a poverty measure to be used for reporting for the population as a whole or its subgroups (Klugman, 2002:30).

So by these processes it would be easier to identify the poor in a given population, the types of poverty they are afflicted with, and to determine the types of anti-poverty interventions to apply.

2.6.2.3 Other quantitative poverty measures⁴

Some other quantitative measures that exist and are important to consider when evaluating poverty reduction policy implementation effectiveness are:

- 1) **Incidence of poverty (headcount Index).** This refers to the number of the poor or share (portion) of the population whose income is below the poverty line and who cannot afford the basic basket of goods. It is used to quantify those in poverty and extreme poverty (Klugman, 2002).
- 2) **Depth of poverty (poverty gap).** This gives information as to:
 - How far off households are from the poverty line. It gives information on income or consumption short-fall relative to the poverty line across the whole population. It is the total resources or money needed to bring all the poor to the level of the poverty line.
 - We refer to poverty gap therefore as the minimum amount of resources or money needed to eradicate poverty (Klugman2002). May (2000:30) puts it as 'the aggregate poverty deficit of the poor relative to the poverty line'. That is the amount needed to lift the poor to the poverty line. This is demonstrated in the Lorenz curve, Figure 2.4.
- 3) **Poverty severity (squared poverty gap)**

Poverty severity takes into account not only distance of the poor from the poverty line (i.e. poverty gap) but also the inequality among the poor. The further away one is from the line, the greater the weight or severity of poverty (Klugman, 2002).

The measurement of incidence, depth and severity of poverty can be calculated on a household basis by assessing the share of households that are below the

⁴ Poverty measure per se is a statistical function that translates the comparison of the indicator of house hold well-being and the chosen poverty line into one aggregate number for the whole or sub population.

poverty line using headcount index measure. But it is better to use a measure based on a whole population that takes into account individuals within households. Of importance to note is that the depth and severity measures are complements of the incidence of poverty which can be illustrated in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: An illustration of Poverty gap, Incidence, and severity of some socio-economic groups

	Headcount incidence	Poverty Gap	Poverty severity	Rank
Small farmer	81.6	41	24.6	1
Large farmers	77	34.6	19	2
Unskilled workers	62.7	25.5	14	5
Herders/fisher men	61.4	27.9	16.1	3
Retirees/handicapped	50.6	23.6	14.1	4

Source: Klugman 2002

Analysis of this Table 2.1 shows that some groups, such as unskilled workers, have a high poverty incidence but low poverty gap (when numerous members are just below the poverty line), while other groups have a low poverty incidence but a high poverty gap for those who are poor (when relatively few members are below the poverty line but with extremely low levels of consumption income).

Depth and severity of poverty are particularly important for the evaluation of programmes and policies. While a programme might be effective in reducing the number of the poor (incidence of poverty) it might only lift those closest to the

poverty line out of poverty (i.e. have low impact on the poverty gap). Klugman further states that other interventions might better address the situation of the very poor but have a low impact on the overall incidence, if it only brings the very poor closer to the poverty line but not above it.

We have discussed above the poverty line based on income and consumption cut off point and how to use the information for poverty measurement. These are all based on quantitative measurements. Nonetheless other measurements of qualitative types are necessary to determine the effectiveness of policies. This is because the final thrust of this work is to evaluate or find out whether poverty reduction strategies implemented for the poor have brought them closer to or above the poverty line and whether the poverty gap has been reduced on the basis of which a judgment on the strategies' effectiveness can be made.

2.6.3 Qualitative measurement: non- monetary indicators

Like quantitative measures of poverty, qualitative measures or non-monetary measures are very important means of measuring well-being. Klugman (2002) writes that poverty measurement has many other important dimensions in non-monetary terms. These are qualitative in character. In line with the concept poverty itself, qualitative measurements are associated with not only insufficient income and consumption expenditure but also with insufficient outcomes in health, nutrition, literacy, and deficient social relations, insecurity, low esteem, vulnerability and powerlessness as their indicators. When measuring poverty qualitatively, capabilities in the various indicators of well-being mentioned such as level of education, health status, etc. are compared with a given threshold or 'poverty line'. Below this threshold a person is said to be poor and unable to meet his/her basic needs. The Human Development Index (HDI) is taken as the threshold or poverty line for the non-monetary measurement of poverty. This represents a definitive level at which the indicators of the various dimensions of human development must attain or reach (World Bank, 2001:18-20; Klugman, 2002: 33).

On health and nutrition, for example, the health status of household members can be taken as an important indicator to be used to compare with the standard to be attained. Focus on the status of children's health, e.g. incidence of diseases such as diarrhea, respiratory diseases, infant mortality and life-expectancy for different groups, are all indicative of non-monetary poverty. On Education Poverty, the level of literacy or gross primary school enrolment rate, the number of years schooling are all defining characteristics judged to represent the threshold. But the World Bank (2001) criticises this as suffering from serious conceptual shortcomings, by stating that school enrolment is only a proxy for actual school attendance. The gross enrollment rate can rise if there are increased repeaters of grade without necessarily having any increased physical enrolment.

There is also the Composite Indexes of wealth used for measurement. This takes into account a mix of characteristics in income, health, assets and education. However, this has limitations and difficulties in defining a poverty line for use. Capabilities in all these would either increase well-being (when achieved) or decrease it (in their absence).

What is revealed here so far is that both monetary and non-monetary measures use poverty lines. The difference is that monetary (quantitative) measurement uses some arbitrary absolute figures while non-monetary (qualitative) measures use defining characteristics or indicators or indices as poverty lines.

UNDP (2006) and Davids et al., (2005:41) provide indicators in the various perspectives of poverty that could be used as the poverty lines or threshold in qualitative measurements. Table 2.2 gives typical examples of indicators to represent qualitative poverty lines. While income can be indicated with absolute figures for GNP and welfare payments, the basic needs' qualitative perspective

Table 2.2: Poverty perspectives and the selection of indicators

Poverty Dimension /perspective	Type of Indicator
1. Income	GNP, Welfare payments, wage levels and poverty datum lines
2. Basic Needs Perspective	Access to potable water, literacy, access to housing and nutrition levels
3. Social exclusion perspective	Political, social and economic components of poverty& inequality
4. Sustainable livelihoods perspective	Community-generated indicators focus on Vulnerability, inability to cope with hardship, disability, breakdown of family, social problems of alcoholism
5. Human development perspective	Varied and complex indicators e.g. health factors, life expectancy, mortality rate, other HDIs

Source : Davids et al., 2005

uses description of defined characteristics such as literacy, access to potable water and nutrition levels. So also does social exclusion use inequality as its indicator.

2.6.3.1 Using Human Development Indicators/index(HDI) as measurement of well-being

The GDP and GNP per capita have been solely used by convention internationally to measure well-being in quantitative or economic terms for inter-country and regional comparisons. In other words it is often used as a measure of how developed a country is. But this has proven to be inadequate to portray poverty and well-being. Its usefulness as a measure of well-being is limited as it mainly refers to economic welfare (Brown, Burges & Davies, 2009). Therefore, in addition to the monetary (economic) measure, the non-monetary measures (Human Development Indicators and its index) have been constructed by the UNDP to take care of the shortcomings and provide a good measure to compare poverty in various dimensions in countries. Thus the Human Development Indicator or Index (HDI).is a measure of a country's economic and social well-being and average progress in human development (UNDP, 2009. Three equally

weighted indicators are used to draw up the index, these being life expectancy at birth, adult literacy and enrolment rate (i.e. education attainment), and standard of living measured by real GDP per capita (UNDP, 2009;2003b; Klugman, 2002; May, 1998).

Table 2.3: Comparison of social indicators from selected middle income countries (1998).

Social Indicator	Poland	Thailand	Venezuela	Botswana	Brazil	South Africa	Malaysia
GNP per capita US\$ 1994	2410	2410	2760	2800	2970	3040	3480
Life expectancy	72	69	71	68	67	64	71
Infant mortality rate (%)	15	36	32	34	56	49	12
Adult illiteracy rate (%)	N/A	6	9	30	17	18	17
Total fertility rate (%)	1,8	2,0	3,2	4,5	2,8	3,9	3,4
HDI-2009	87.0	78.1	79.2	69.4	80.0	67.4	81.1

Source: UNDP, 2009; Brown et al., 2009; May, 2000

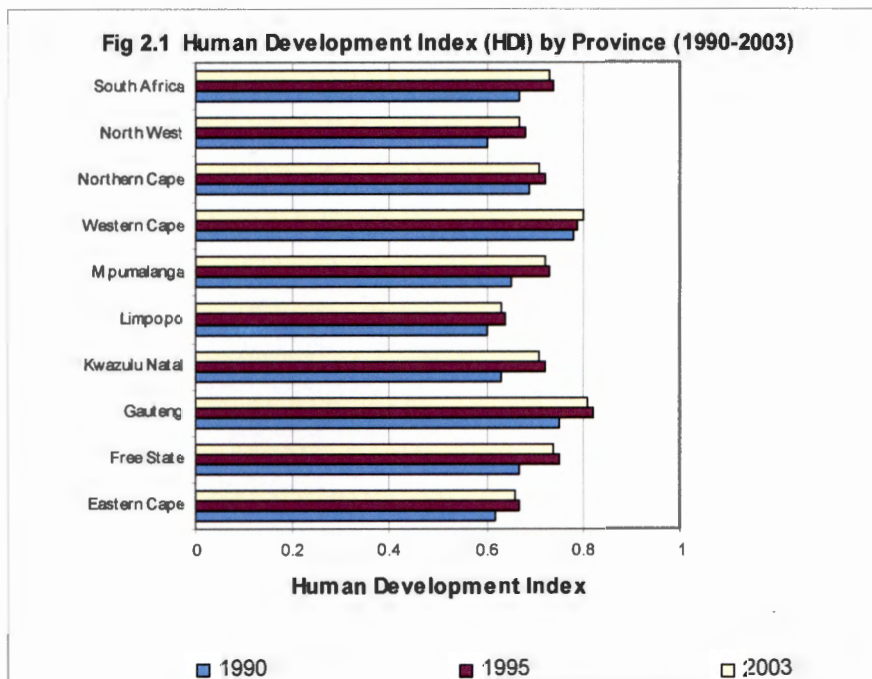
May's (1998:19) use of the indicators as an illustration of GNP's limitation is quite revealing. It shows the inadequacy of using per capita GNP as the sole indicator of development. Table 2.3 above shows that the countries before South Africa (Poland, Thailand, Venezuela, Botswana, and Brazil) have lower per capita GNP but (with the exception of adult illiteracy and fertility rates in Botswana, and infant mortality rate in Brazil) they perform better in many of the other indicators than South Africa. The composite HDI of all the countries were better than South Africa in 2009 as can be found in the Table 2.3. Thus, judging well-being in South

Africa solely by the GNP misses the point or conceals the reality. Below is how HDI is measured.

The HDI is constructed and measured on the scale 0-1 (or 1-100 in some cases), '0' being the lowest and '1' being the highest. Countries with HDI below 0,5 (50) are considered to have low level human development, those between 0,5 (50) and 0,8 (80) as medium level and those above 0,8 (80) of high level of human development, and 1(100) as absolute development (UNDP, 2003b; May, 1998). However, HDI has been not without critics. Critics contend that in spite of its intuitive appeal and use in highlighting disparities between countries geographical areas and groups, its indicators are arbitrary and have implicit trade offs (May, 1998; Ravallion, 2002).

Using South Africa as an illustration, information from UNDP's (2003b:44) South Africa country study provides a good understanding of HDI's value. According to the UNDP country study, the HDI value of South Africa in 2002 was 0.680. Of the three indices influencing HDI in South Africa, the GDP index and educational attainment have shown increasingly positive trends since 1990. The life expectancy index declined at a faster rate than the other two combined. The overall HDI has also declined after 1995. In South Africa therefore, the gap between per capita ranking and HDI ranking grew from -10 in 1994 to -64 in 2001 – an indication of a rising gap between per capita performance and progress toward human development (UNDP, 2003). In other words, there has been an increase in poverty or slow progress towards well being despite economic growth between those years and even up to 2008.

Figure 2.1: Human Development Index (HDI) by province (1990-2003)



Source: UNDP – SA (2003:44)

As demonstrated in Fig 2.1 for the three year period (1990,1995 & 2003), there occurred a trend of HDI decline in South Africa and in all provinces though the decline was not of the same rate for all provinces. Great differences in HDI exist between them. For example, the HDI in the North West Province is 0.61 compared to that of the Western Cape of 0.77. Western Cape performs better in HDI than the national HDI of 0.68. It is also in the Western Cape that HDI increased in 2003 to 0.8. The difference exists also for different population groups. HDI is lower for Africans than Whites and also lower for the rural population than urban which continues to be higher.

2.6.3.2 The Human Poverty Index (HPI)

Another poverty measurement is the Human Poverty Index which deals with the distribution of national achievement in human development: – a multidimensional measure introduced in 1997. The HPI reflects the distribution of progress and measures the backlog of deprivation that still exists in the same indicators as for HDI, these being 'longevity as measured by the probability at birth of not

surviving to age 40; *knowledge*, using adult illiteracy rate and *economic provisioning* measured by the percentage of people not using improved water sources and percentage of children under age 5 who are underweight' for their age (UNDP, 2003: 45). A low HPI implies low deprivation in the combined index of the 3 indicators. High HPI therefore means greater deprivation and greater poverty of the population.

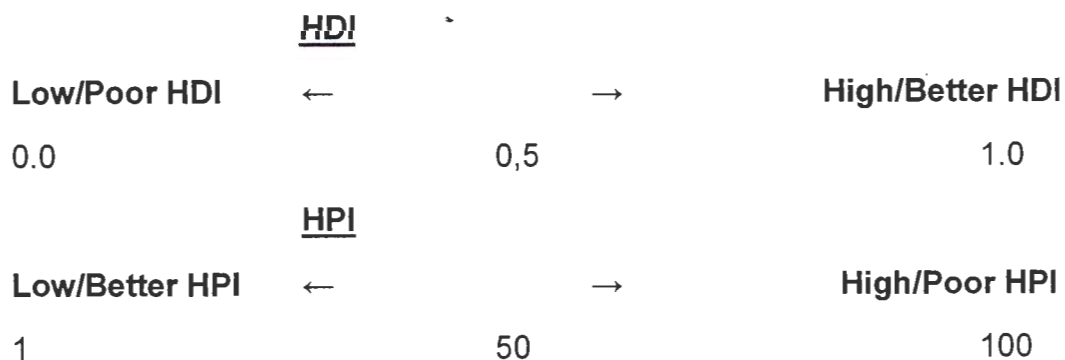
When HPI is calculated, the following are arrived at as illustrated in Figure 2.2.

Low HPI = Less deprivation (i.e. less poor/non-poor population) These are on the scale between 1- 50 or 0 - 0.5 and,

High HPI = Greater deprivation (i.e. Poor/Extreme Poverty.) These are on the scale 51-100 or 0.5 - 1.

We can deduce that the difference between the two measures, HDI and HPI, is latitudinal as illustrated in Figure 2.2, that is, on the latitudinal line in Figure 2.2, the high HDI (referred to as better well-being) is associated with higher numerical values, so also is high HPI (that constitutes a poor well-being) associated with higher numerical values. Increase in HPI means increase in human poverty or deterioration of well-being while increase in HDI means increase in well-being.

Figure 2.2: Linear representation of relationship between HDI & HPI.



Source: Own illustration.

In South Africa by 1995 the UNDP (2003b) claims that HPI was 16.4. But by 2001 the index had increased to 22.3 indicating a worsening of human poverty as measured by the index. The organisation attributes the decline in HPI to decline in probability at birth of not surviving to age 40. A probability increase from 17.8 to 31.02 is perhaps due to the HIV / AIDS pandemic. The HPI of North West was found to have increased from 23 in 1995 to 25 in 2001(UNDP, 2003b:45-46).

When these measurements are considered, especially the HDI, one finds a disadvantage in its usage mainly that it cannot be used for comparison between individual households but it is of great advantage for comparing disparities between large homogenous groups. This disadvantage is taken care of by Capability Poverty Measure (CPM).

2.6.3.3 The Capability Poverty Measure (CPM)

Capability Poverty Measure (CPM) is a measurement tool which, according to May (2000)⁵, has been developed by the UNDP to take care of the deficiency in the HDI. It is argued that the HDI focuses on the country study and comparisons of capabilities at the macro level while the CPM focuses on the micro level capabilities of people and their lack of capabilities (May, 1998; UNDP, 1996).

This index is composed of 3 indicators, like the other measurements reflecting the percentage of population with capability shortfalls in 3 basic dimensions of human development. These dimensions are, *living a healthy, well-nourished life; having the capability of safe and healthy reproduction, and being literate and knowledgeable* (STATSSA, 2000; May 1998). Unlike HDI, it does not include income. It focuses on an individual's lack of capabilities rather than on the average level of capabilities in a country (May, 1998:22).

⁵ See also May 1998 PIR; & UNDP 1996.

According to May (2000), when South Africa is ranked on the CPM for well-being it falls 6 places lower than when ranked on per capita income terms among middle income countries. This shows the impact of unequal distribution of Income. It also reveals how poverty has been made self-perpetuating by inequality in South Africa. It again shows a widespread existence of capability poverty as a result of unequal income distribution.

2.6.3.4 The subjective measurement

An important measure referred to as Subjective Measurement of Poverty (SMP) is also considered by May and SA-PPA (1998). This measurement is obtained from a qualitative survey of individuals who rank their own poverty situation in a wealth strata or grouping. They write that indicators such as income and caloric intake may be used. From the poor's own perceptions of these and other characteristics, one can subjectively rank them⁶. May (2000) notes that these perceptions are shared characteristics that are expressed by groups in their communities. The World Bank (2001) considers that vulnerability, voicelessness and powerlessness are all measures of poverty and are known through the use of participatory methods and expressed by the people. These are subjective.

From the above, it is clear that poverty itself and the degree to which households enter it can only be known through any of the various measurements of poverty. In section 2.3 when discussing inequality, the relationship between poverty and inequality was established. It is therefore pertinent to discuss inequality measurement which will also enable us to see the extent and distribution of inequality within the society.

2.6.4 Measurement of inequality: The Gini coefficient measure

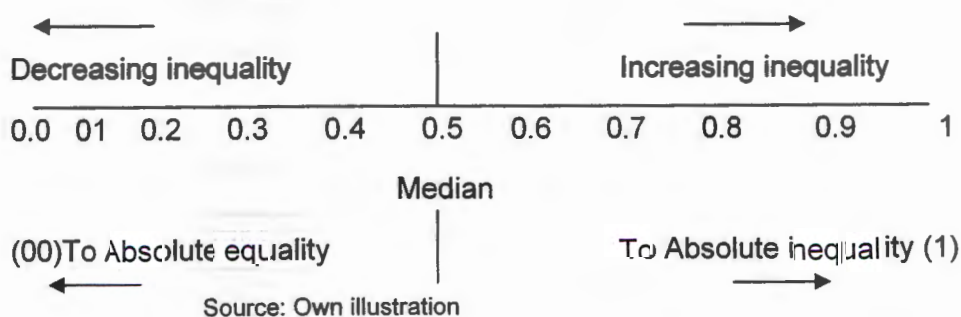
The final measurement to discuss deals with inequality. Various inequality measures found in the literature include the Gini coefficient, Theil and Atkinson

⁶ A typical example for the use of this measure is found in SA-PPA 1998:40 showing subjective responses from survey conducted.

indexes and the Decile-dispersion-ratio (Klugman, 2002; May, 1998). Of these, and for the purpose of this thesis, the Gini index, also referred to as Gini coefficient, which is the most commonly used is considered relevant and selected for this discussion. Gini coefficient though not a measurement of poverty is necessary when poverty and inequality are being discussed, because the impact of unequal distribution of income is poverty in some dimensions. In other words, inequality causes poverty and its extent is indicative of poverty itself. The Gini coefficient is used to measure the degree and extent of inequality and is an indicator of the skewed distribution of income in South Africa and North West Province (UNDP, 2003b:70-74; Klugman, 2002; May, 1998).

Klugman (2002) writes that the Gini coefficient is '...a statistical and normative measure' of variation in inequality'. The variation ranges between 0, indicating perfect equality and 1, indicating complete inequality. That is, the Gini coefficient like HDI and CPM is measured on a scale from 0 to 1 or 1 to 100. Like CPM and unlike HDI, zero (0) Gini coefficient represents a complete and perfect income equality, (i.e. all have the same income or share of the states' wealth) while a Gini coefficient of 1 represents a complete perfect income inequality (meaning that one person has all the income or consumption of the state's wealth; all others have none) (UNDP, 2006: 271-272; Klugman, 2002:48). This is represented in Figure 2.3 horizontally below. In Figure 2.3, the value 0.5 is the median point of inequality. Inequality increases from 0.5 to 1 but decreases from 0.5 towards 0.1 and finally 00.

Figure 2.3: Horizontal representation of Gini coefficient



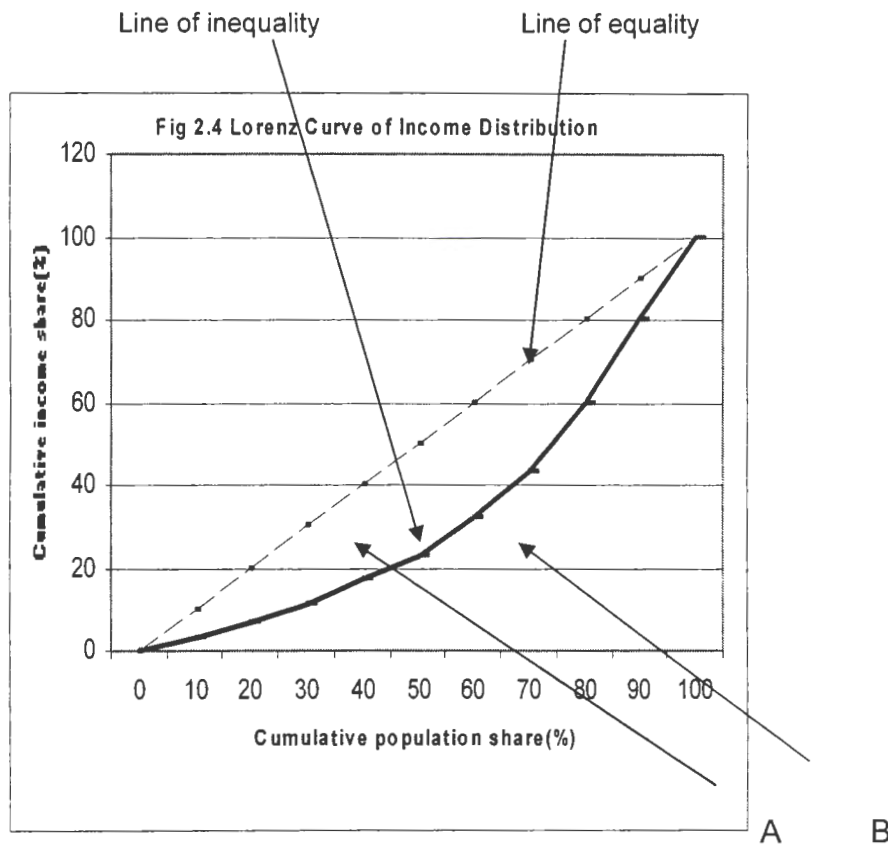
Graphically, the Gini coefficient is represented by the use of the Lorenz Curve and the line of equality, which is demonstrated below in Figure 2.4. The graph in Figure 2.4 shows cumulative income share on the vertical axis and the population distribution on the horizontal axis. The line of equality is the straight broken line which the arrow points to, while that of inequality is the curved continuous line. The Lorenz curve is described and depicted as the line of inequality. The Gini coefficient or index is described as the area between the Lorenz Curve and the hypothetical line of absolute equality expressed as a percentage of the maximum area under the line. Chen, Datt and Ravallion (1993) define it as a percentage of maximum area under the hypothetical line of absolute equality.

On the graph (Figure 2.4), 40% of the population share 20% of total income. But if everyone had the same income or if there were total equality, the income distribution curve would be represented by the straight line which is the line of total equality. In calculating the Gini coefficient (or to obtain the Gini coefficient), area A is divided by the sum of areas A and B. If income is distributed equally the Lorenz Curve and the line of total equality would merge and the Gini coefficient would reach 0 (Klugman, 2002).

However if (where) one individual receives all the income, the Lorenz Curve would pass through the points (0,0), (100,0) and (100,100) and the surfaces A and B would be similar leading to a Gini coefficient value of 1 or 100, which is absolute inequality (Klugman, 2002). Looking at the Lorenz Curve again (Fig 2.4) the more it bends away from the line of equality the greater the existence of inequality. If the curve continues bending to the right to meet the bottom horizontal axis and the right-hand vertical line 100 a complete, perfect or absolute inequality is reached – that is a situation where one person receives all

the national income and everybody else receives nothing (Todaro & Smith 2009)⁷.

Figure 2.4: The Lorenz Curve.



Source: Adapted from Klugman, 2002

By the use of the Gini coefficient we will appreciate and understand the disproportionate amount of poverty in the North West Province (NWP) and its extent. It now leads us to determine who are the poor (identify) and where these poor are found (distributed).

⁷ Todaro & Smith (2009) *Economic Development*, give a comprehensive diagrammatic description of the Gini coefficient and the Lorenz curve.

2.7 WHO AND WHERE ARE THE POOR

This section identifies who as well as where the poor are generally found, their racial composition in the case of NWP and South Africa. The section ends the chapter by reviewing what the causes of poverty are.

As Klugman (2002) argues, to be able to identify the poor, their profiles have to be known and analysed using some correlates or variables. Based on those correlates, their location, social and economic activities and why they are poor can be known. Nevertheless when empirical evidence in certain circumstances or environments is available one would not need any measurable indicators but one would merely subjectively observe people and their habitat. That came out clearly in this study in a focus group interview. When a group involved in a poultry project at Mathateng was asked why they thought they were poor; one of them immediately responded, *“look at me and judge for yourself”*. The looks of that person were that of an emaciated person wearing a browned white T-shirt over a tattered trouser, wearing a black old school-boy ‘toughies’ shoe with the toe popping out and the sole two thirds worn out. His statement re-emphasises Narayan et al.,. (2000) views of the poor in the *Voices of the poor crying out for change*.

However, in many other circumstances or environments, profile and variables need to be known to make relative comparisons and to know the depth of the people’s poverty. In Klugman (2002), the correlates that are associated with rural poverty can be indicated and briefly explained as:

- Principal sources of income
- Asset levels (i.e. land ownership and access to wealth)
- Access to basic infrastructure, services and markets
- Regional and geographical differentiation – the agro-climatic conditions and administrative locations
- Degree of remoteness of the population/communities from the regional administration

- Ethnicity
(Klugman, 2002: 70).

Before analyzing these variables the following should be considered as the categories of the poor. The analyses that follow would enable one to place in which category of variable the poor fall under.

- Older people - Inadequate income and declining health status mean that they are predisposed to poverty.
- The unemployed –the lack of earned income due to unemployment is the major cause of poverty for the majority who may be groups such as women (single parents), the youth and other people with disabilities.
- Low-wage earners – although they have employment and hence income, low-wage earners tend to be vulnerable to poverty. Their employment is precarious as they move in and out of marginal informal low paid work.
- Women – particularly single parents who are vulnerable to poverty. When they have young children the responsibility of their care makes it difficult for them to obtain work.
- People with disabilities – disability is associated with the difficulties of physical access, high living costs, low incomes and problems relating to social exclusion. It has major effects on their employability.
- People living in poor areas such as rural areas, townships, etc. – Poverty in the province still reflects apartheid settlement patterns. Virtually all poor households are found in the informal settlements, historically black townships, rural areas, and black farm settlements.
- Racially disadvantaged persons – People previously discriminated against and deprived of access to opportunities.

The first variable of *income sources* is of great importance. This deals with the number of or order (high or low) of economic activities that the poor engage in. The economic activities serve to either increase or diversify their earnings. The more (higher the order of) economic activities they engage in the greater their

well-being. The corollary holds true. So the poor are low-wage earners. Though they have employment and income, low-wage earners tend to be vulnerable to poverty because they engage in low order economic activities.

The other variable is *asset levels*. Asset includes land use and ownership patterns, housing, livestock ownership, access to technical assistance and market information, and social capital i.e. being part of a community organisation and participating in its activities. The possession of assets decreases the depth of poverty and vulnerability to risk. This risk is the degree of exposure to negative income shocks. The greater the exposure to negative income shocks, the deeper people enter into poverty. The higher their asset levels too, the better they are able to withstand or absorb income shocks. This means they would have members of the community that are better off to assist them in case of economic shock. This variable encapsulates women, older people and children.

The next important variable is *access to services* and market participation. The knowledge of market movement, impact and constraints affect the extent of poverty. Without having the opportunity (or capability) to participate in the available infrastructural services and markets, the poor are deprived of the opportunity to move up the poverty line and out of the poverty trap (Klugman, 2002). This group includes the racially disadvantaged and the disabled.

Race and geographic location all play a part in determining who and where the poor are in some countries such as South Africa and United States of America. They are also causal factors of poverty which are dealt with in subsection 2.8. Those poor due to these variables are people in the minority ethnic groups whose conditions may be worse if they were women and those who were racially segregated and dumped in impoverished lands far away from their original settlements as in the case of North West Province.

Based on these variables and correlates, many deductions and inferences about the poor can be generated concerning who they are and where they are found particularly in South Africa and the North West Province. From the literature and empirical evidence of the variables and correlates, the poor are those whose income thresholds are below the poverty lines due to limited or unavailable source of income. They mostly depend on social grants. They are those individuals and households who suffer deprivation, social and economic exclusions, are deficient in capabilities, voiceless, most vulnerable and under-empowered (UNDP, 2003b; Klugman, 2002; World Bank, 2001; May, 2000; Sen, 1996; Chambers, 1997; Kruijer, 1987; Freirie, 1978). These are identified and categorized above as the older persons, unemployed etc.

Statistics South Africa's *IES2005* and its interpretation also show that the poor are unevenly distributed in the province. Furthermore, in the literature, though the poor are found both in the urban and rural areas, they are mostly concentrated in the rural areas (Greig, Hulme & Turner, 2007; Hunter, 2003; Aliber, 2003; Chambers, 1997). This is clearly illustrated in the following sub-section.

2.7.1 Urban and rural distribution of the poor

Generally, there is a trend of increasing urbanisation and fast rate of population growth in the urban areas than in the rural areas due to rural-urban migration in search of jobs and other urban services. In South Africa for instance, urbanisation is well advanced and the Income and Expenditure Survey of 2005 by Statistics South Africa points this out. STATS-SA (2005c) found that 65.1% of all households (58.8% of the population) resided in urban areas. The incidence of poverty, however, was much higher in the rural areas of South Africa. The poverty rates of households and individuals in the rural areas were 54.2% and 67.7%, respectively – more than double the corresponding rates for urban areas (21.9% and 32.7%). Hence, 57.1% of all poor households and 59.3% of poor individuals were rural dwellers despite the fact that the rural areas housed well below one-half of the South African population.

Similarly, in the North West Province (NWP), though the poor are geographically found in both urban and rural areas, they are mostly in the rural areas. In the urban areas they are found in the townships, fringes, ghettos and the overcrowded shanty areas (i.e. informal settlements) of Mafikeng, Vryburg, Rustenburg, and other large towns. Generally, the poverty share of rural areas, (that is, the percentage of the poor people living in rural areas) as well as poverty rate (that is, the percentage of individuals who are classified as poor) is high in the North West.

Furthermore, with respect to race, the incidence of poverty among the African population who form the majority in the country is high and these live mostly in rural areas. According to Statistics South Africa (2007; 2005c) since the province has a very large African population, the overall urban-rural split is 39.4% versus 60.6%. These figures of poverty share and rate show the enormity of the poverty problem in the NW Province and South Africa; and that generally, a large majority of the poor are concentrated in the rural areas.

Hunter et al., (2003) as well as May (2000) point out that the disparities in the distribution of the poor and the standard of living between the urban and rural poor are due to several reasons or causal factors. While the poor in the peri-urban shanties and ghettos may have easy access to services, the rural poor in most cases do not, due in part to their geographical location on one hand and urban bias of municipal administration in the distribution of services, on the other. This explains the disproportionate inequality between rural and urban locations and accounts for the poor conditions in the rural areas. In view of the above discussions one should probe further, before concluding this chapter, by asking an important question: 'What causes poverty?'

2.8 THE CAUSES OF POVERTY

From the literature there are several reasons why poverty afflicts people. Many of the reasons generally apply to North West Province and the country as a

whole. The main reasons amongst others are historical circumstances of the apartheid legacy, the migrant labour system, geographical location, unemployment and ill health. These causes are being discussed as they apply to the study area.

2.8.1 Historical circumstances

In dealing with the historical causes of poverty, we refer to Coetzee and Graaff (1996) as well as Wilson and Ramphela (1989) who argue that current socio-economic and political conditions have been determined by the past and that to understand and intervene in the present problems, one needs to revisit the past. They state:

For the present has grown out of the past and so if the future is to be different it is essential to understand the way in which the present has been formed in order that we may act to overcome the past and, hence, reshape the future (Wilson & Ramphela, 1989: 190).

Clearly, the historical circumstances in the country are depicted by the Apartheid colonial administration and its legacy. In the North West Province, any study on poverty should recognize the countrywide context as many decades of apartheid rule inflicted poverty equally among the geographic administration of South Africa with just a little variation. So, in any study focused in one small area of the country, it must not be done in isolation from the wider national socio-political-economy otherwise misleading information could be transmitted. Furthermore, a narrow geographic focus could result in strategies developed to reduce poverty in one area to be irrelevant to the rest of the country, whereas in fact all provinces experienced the same causes. However, variation may occur as a result of environmental circumstances and geographical location. This variation for North West is brought up at various points in the discussions on Apartheid legacy that follow.

2.8.1.1 The Apartheid legacy

Hunter et al., (2003: 63) write that South Africa's history introduces context specific causes of poverty. These are:

- The impact of apartheid which stripped people of their assets, especially land, distorted economic markets and social institutions through racial discrimination, and resulted in violence and destabilization;
- The undermining of the asset base of individuals and households, and communities through ill health, over-crowding, environmental degradation, the mis-match of resources and opportunities, race and gender discrimination and social isolation;
- The impact of a disabling state which included the behaviour and attitudes of government officials, the absence of information concerning rights, roles and responsibilities, and the lack of accountability by all levels of government.

From these contexts the political economy of South Africa, epitomised by decades of apartheid policies, has left a legacy of poverty in the country and in the South Africa. The legacy emanates from the policy of Apartheid or separate development. The impact of this policy has been widely noted, criticized and published by many writers such as Wilson and Ramphela (1989), Yawitch (1982), May (2000) and does not need much elaboration here considering the limitations of the study. However, it is worth noting that, Apartheid policy brought into being (within South Africa), residential discrimination and the establishment of separate homelands for different racial groups between 1949 and 1959 when the Nationalist Government came into power. These homelands were often referred to as Labour Reserves and Bantustans. As the Bantu self-government Act of 1959 ushered in and regulated the homeland (the Bantustans) structures, a large number of people were forcefully removed from 'Black Spots' to the Bantustans (Hunter, May and Padayachee, 2003:4). In these Bantustans economic opportunities were limited. Inadequate provision of housing, services

and lack of access to health and education facilities resulted in poor social conditions and poverty.

The major Bantustan homelands were Bophuthatswana, Transkei, Venda and Ciskei. They were considered as independent republics while others such as Kwa Zulu, Gazankulu and Qwaqwa did not obtain autonomous independence but became National States of South Africa. Though independent, the national states derived their budgeted income to operate from subventions that the apartheid South African government gave.

Bophuthatswana, one of these Bantustans consisted of the clustered regions of Kudumane, Ganyesa and Huhudi to the west, Taung and Thaba 'Nchu in the South, Molopo in the North with Madikwe to the North east, while Bafokeng, Odi, Brits were to the East. These areas were interspersed with White South African towns such as Lichtenburg, Rustenburg, Swartruggens, Vryburg, Potchefstroom etc. which later became part of North West Province (NWP).

At the inception of democracy and with the re-demarcations of new provincial and district borders of the country, North West Province retained almost all of the Bophuthatswana regions with the exception of Thaba 'Nchu which became part of Free State. In Bophuthatswana which now forms a greater part of the NWP, the Apartheid government stripped its people to a large extent (as in other homelands) of their assets and undermined their asset base, particularly land and education. Today it can be acknowledged that these apartheid actions have shaped the nature of North West Province's economy and society.

From the literature on South Africa, the inability of many people in the North West Province to meet their basic needs while others are in extreme prosperity emanates from many sources but more importantly from decades of apartheid legislation buttressed by colonial policies of the Union Government (Hunter, May and Padayachee, 2003). The apartheid regime inflicted a plethora of legislation,

policies and repressive acts that created an environment to breed poverty among the Black African communities. Through the years these apartheid overt and covert practices systematically and progressively turned the Africans into paupers and produced a racially polarized society where one group had mobility rights and freedom of occupation while the other had none at all (Hunter et al., 2003). Simply put, these actions brought in a legacy of inequality and mass poverty within the Bantustans which became persistent and was carried over to the new dispensation. This empirically explains the inequality conceptualised in sub-section 2.3.

The first historical circumstance of pauperizing a section of South Africa's society began with the Land Act of 1913 that saw to it that no black African was allowed to purchase land outside the reserves, the 'scheduled' and 'released' areas that amounted to 14% of the country. It limited the Africans to only this portion of South Africa (SAhistory, 1913). Bundy (1972) shows that the defining moment for this arose from 1948, after the election of the Nationalist Party Government, which assaulted the poor on many fronts. These fronts are indicated by Wilson et al., (1989) as:-

1. Shift in policy from incorporation to dispossession;
2. Anti-black urbanization;
3. Forced removals in both rural and urban areas;
4. Bantu education, and;
5. Crushing of political organisations.

The second historical circumstance was the emergence of the industrial Pass-Laws of 1872 and 1895 to control movement of mine labour. The legislature of the then Transvaal in an attempt to implement the policy stated that:

The native should only be allowed to enter the urban areas, which are essentially the Whiteman's creation, when he is willing to enter and to minister to the needs of the white man

and should depart there from when he ceases so to minister
(SAhistory, 1913).

The subsequent Land Act of 1913 resulted in the establishment of independent states popularly referred to as the TBVC States (Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda, and Ciskei). Consequently, 'Pass-Laws' were instituted making it impossible for blacks to enter white urban areas without permits. There occurred limited housing construction and outright destruction of black communities. The technique was adopted to prevent black urbanization, and from the 1960's to 1983, black people were forcefully removed to places they did not choose (SAhistory, 1913). Thus, institutionalised discrimination and impoverishment were set in motion.

The forced removals were the result of the Group Areas Act of 1950 that segregated one ethnic group from the other. Black people were expelled from urban areas referred to as 'Black spots' to Black areas (TBVC states) also known as the 'Reserves'. These Black spots were areas in which African households were living but had been designated for white owned farms or were freehold lands to which the Blacks had title certificates issued by the colonial government (Hunter et al., 2003b). Hunter et al.,(2003b: 4) refer to an estimated 475 000 people removed from those spots between 1960 and 1983. Others were removed on the grounds of "betterment planning" programmes which were to consolidate people scattered through the reserves into villages. All these culminated in Black people losing their nationality, land and wealth.

It is of little wonder that in the current government's efforts to reduce poverty the land question has been stressed in all policy documents and statements of government (DLA, 2006; ANC, 1994). Government has put great emphasis on land reforms, and restitution programmes in addressing the poverty of the people. This is dealt with in chapters four and five.

The third was the colour bar that used skin pigmentation as a means of discrimination against potential competitors in the labour market. It blocked all opportunities for promotion and higher pay for Black people. It ensured that black miners even if they were competent to do so, could carry out no jobs above a certain level (Davenport, 1991). Even with unskilled labour, Blacks were to give way to white unskilled labourers, when available, who received higher pay than would the blacks (Wilson & Ramphela, 1989; Bundy, 1978). Several barriers to black advancement were put in place, such as the Apprenticeship Act of 1922 which set required educational entry to apprenticeship at standard 6 which blacks hardly ever obtained (Davenport, 1991). All these culminated in the reduction of black workers pay and increases in those of whites even though whites might be unskilled.

According to Wilson & Ramphela (1989), though the colour bar was not applied as rigidly everywhere as in the mines and railways, a combination of laws, custom and discriminatory educational policy effectively ensured white protection and access to the more highly skilled, better-paid jobs in the upper levels of the economy while blacks entered into the unskilled and semi-skilled occupations. This exacerbated inequality (refer to subsection 2.3.2).

A fourth factor was the systematic application of inequality approaches in the allocation of state expenditure on education, housing, agriculture, job-creation, energy and health. The allocation was always higher for whites than blacks in order to boost the economic well-being of whites. Though education and training are critical for any economic and social advancement to open doors for individuals to take advantage of new economic opportunities, very little attention was paid to it in the Black communities. They are factors to break the poverty cycle and for long term economic growth, yet, apartheid left behind a segregated and highly inequitable education system that was very much under resourced, referred to as 'Bantu Education'. It is not that there was lack of education but that the types of education given to blacks were irrelevant, and they provided no skills

for the job market. As a consequence Black Africans in the NWP did not have access to higher or quality education became unemployable and poor (Wilson & Ramphele, 1989).

Where employment was obtained, it was of a lower order employment such as domestic work for women, garden maintenance work for the young and old aged men. The wages for such types of employment were low which the beneficiaries barely survived on. Thus the apartheid neglect to develop the human capital of the majority of the population especially the rural residents and those that resided in the former Bantustans had inflicted deep poverty on the North West residents. In the Ngaka Modiri Molema District where the villages of Mayaeyane, Mathateng and Uitkyk are located, this legacy has extremely affected them.

A fifth factor was the Migrant Labour System (MLS) which moved the men to the mines and metropolitan areas to seek jobs leaving their families behind resulting in the creation of female /single parent headed households; and the creation of enclosed compounds as a means to control African labour more effectively. The enclosed compounds were the popular men's hostels where contracted migrant mine workers lived without the opportunity to see family and friends. The system though was to provide jobs and income, has had profound detrimental consequences for the rural black communities. The communities were unable to generate means of livelihoods as nothing was done to generate jobs for the inhabitants within the sending rural areas. Bundy's (1978) research tells us that the black South African inhabitants had been systematically impoverished, especially the women who stayed behind waiting for their miner-husbands to remit them money from the low wages they received (which rarely came).

The Migrant Labour System (MLS) has resulted in female headed households and single parenting. Table 2.4 shows the number of female headed households in the various districts in the province. The female headed families are confronted by an additional mouth or two to feed and clothe and to pay for educational fees

and other services. They are pushed by these expenses to the state of absolute poverty. They depend on the remittances from the migrant workers who often have nothing to remit, due to loss of job or disabling injuries or occupationally related illness. Those that do remit send them irregularly and in insufficient amounts because the wages are low, or they had found other uses for their money at their work places (Hunter et al., 2003; May & Woolard, 1998). The people of Maeyaeyane, Mathateng and Uitkyk villages in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District have found themselves in this situation.

In Table 2.4 on household heads, it can be seen that out of the total of 911120 households in the province, 317 887 households are female headed. In the Ngaka Modiri Molema district, 77 812 out of 183 401 households are female headed. These numbers are quite substantial and, based on the premise that

Table 2.4. NWP District household heads by gender

DISTRICT	HOUSEHOLD HEADS		
	Male	Female	Total
Ngaka Modiri Molema	105 589	77 812	183 401
Bojanala Platinum	239 739	117 462	357 201
Ruth Mompoti	52 504	47 569	100 073
Dr Kenneth. Kaunda	195 401	75 044	270 445
Province	593 233	317 887	911 120

Source: STATSSA Community Survey (2007)

female headed households are prone to or are more likely to be poor due to lack of education and influence of cultural practices as well as exclusion, one can easily acknowledge the extent of poverty in the province. What is striking is that STATSSA survey (2007) documents that a total of 222 households are headed by persons aged up to 14 and out of these 150 are female headed.

Furthermore, STATSSA's (2005c & 2008c) surveys showed that households headed by women (i.e. matrifocal families) are more likely to be poor than men. The 2005 *Income and Expenditure Survey* reported that in South Africa, 45% of all female-headed households (de jure or de facto) lived below the poverty line, compared to only 25% of male-headed households. STATSSA concluded that of all households, the female-headed household's share of poverty rate was 61.1% compared to 38.9% for male-headed (STATSSA, 2008a). By 2000, May reported that amongst the 35% female headed-households, poverty rate was found to be 60% and for male headed households 31% (May, 2000). Comparing that to the current figures one cannot but conclude that the trend has not changed and could continue for a long time. Thus female-headed households are more likely to be poor given the following circumstances:

- Female-headed households are more in the rural areas where poverty is concentrated.
- Female-headed households tend to have fewer adults of working age.
- Female unemployment rates are higher.
- Persistence of wage gap between male and female earnings.
- Female-headed households in the rural areas tend to be more heavily reliant on remittances and state transfers than male-headed households.

These illustrate how highly vulnerable to poverty females (whose husbands were part of the MLS) find themselves and underscores the importance of targeting women first in poverty alleviation and reduction programmes.

On the other hand in a Marxist school of thought, labour migration is argued (in positive terms) to be a process of proletarianisation (the production of an industrial working class) and not underdevelopment or instituted for the creation of poverty pockets. They argue that it is a process of raising productivity which is essential also for the process of capitalist development and production (Graaff, 1996). They criticize Bundy's (1972 & 1978) stance by arguing that if migrants were to stay home, family income from their subsistence farming would have

risen minimally. Families benefited far more by participating in the system of wage labour, and that peasant agriculture was unnecessary as it could not match income obtained from a regular salary. Furthermore, peasant farming could not compete with the efficiency of commercialized agricultural production for the supermarkets. But the Marxists, like Apartheid followers, miss the point when arguing for the system. On the contrary, the process was firstly, discriminatory and the attached remuneration was insignificant in relation to the hard labour offered by the migrants. Secondly, as Giliomee and Schlemmer (1985) argue, "Since migrants are typically younger, more educated and male ... the migrant labour system deprives the rural areas of skilled, innovative and physically capable manpower needed for viable agriculture. Since men are also usually household heads, their absence puts obstacles in the way of effective decision-making". Thus, the former Bantustan areas in the current dispensation lost their potential human resource and leadership (decision makers) capabilities resulting in underdevelopment that further exacerbated poverty in those areas.

Furthermore, the system did not, in reality, encourage the acquisition of on-the-job education and skills by the migrants nor did it offer them sufficient pensions. The worrisome part of it is that they had no economic security and after their tour of duty in the mines or white farms, they returned with very little money and no other source of income or skill for their family to depend on in the future. According to STATSSA's Community Survey (2007:59) by 2007, 16.6% of people in North West migrated to find jobs either in the mines or industries elsewhere. One cannot agree with Bundy more when he argues that the destruction of the African peasant farming destroyed sustainable rural livelihoods.

The last assault on the people, according to Wilson (2015), is the crushing and banning of Black political, social and economic organisations. Through the years black political movements, trade unions and student organisations were banned. Their leaders were harassed and some killed, while others took refuge in

neighbouring countries. The great potential power of blacks in the political economy of South Africa was thus stifled. Crushing of organisations is considered a cause of poverty because it brought about loss of political rights and power and loss of ability to meaningfully and effectively participate in the decisions that affected them in the country (Wilson & Ramphela, 1989)

We could see from the above that in the Province, a greater number of people were condemned to living in appalling conditions characterized by inferior and irrelevant education, poor housing, unfair and discriminatory labour practices, biased judicial system, restrictions on movements, and economic and political exclusions. Due to the racial and ethnic hostilities that affected their lives, people of rural North West were sidelined to the extent that they could not (and have not) achieve any meaningful economic empowerment.

All these have without doubt shaped the nature of NWP's economy and society and ensured the persistence of poverty even though there is a continuous transformation of the country's political economy. Today we still find poverty reflecting apartheid settlements. Virtually all poor households are found in the former Bantustans regions of North West, informal settlements and historically black townships. Poor households make up over $\frac{2}{3}$ of the population of former Bantustans areas as well as in the rest of the country (STATSSA, 2005).

However, in looking for the causes of the poverty in the North West Province care should be taken in order not to imply that all the current state of affairs regarding poverty come from apartheid. Yet it would be a serious oversight not to recognize that apartheid has fundamentally contributed to today's social problems of NWP and South Africa. In this regard, May (2000: 20), states that the social situation in South Africa has been largely due to the impact of institutionalization of discrimination and state-driven underdevelopment, encompassing dispossession and the exclusion of the majority of South Africans

from the economic wealth that existed, by the Apartheid government. Nonetheless when one probes further other contextual factors emerge.

Drawing from the historical circumstances and the statistical information discussed above, we can safely say that there are many causes of poverty in the NWP and the root goes deep into the past. In addition to that are geographic location, unemployment, lack of access to infrastructure services, illiteracy and others which the following subsections examine.

2.8.2 Geographic location

Aside from history having played a major role in shaping the social and economic positioning of the NWP's population, its geographic-specific location has inflicted a great deal of poverty on the people. A large number of the population live far away from the urban centres and do not have access to better livelihoods. The underlying cause of this is the Native Land Act of 1913 that set aside specific areas as Bantustan homelands for Black people (noted in sub-section 2.8.1) where living conditions were harsh, had no services available, were overcrowded and no employment was available (Davenport, 1991; Readers Digest, 1988; Muller, 1981). Poverty in the so-called reserves or homelands was worse than anywhere else in the country. Referring to sub-section 2.8.1, we find that a greater area of the former homeland of Bophuthatswana that had inadequate productive agricultural land and resources, with a teeming unemployed population fell within NWP after 1994. As a consequence its people now experience a great deal of poverty.

As experience shows and as is corroborated by Wilson and Ramphela (1989) and Statistics South Africa (2001 & 2007), based on some indicators such as income per head, mortality rates, availability of basic services etc, poverty varies according to geographic administration and location. Thus by location, people in the rural areas suffer a great deal of deprivation and service delivery because these are difficult to reach and it takes a long time to have access to their

location. The degree of poverty endured also depends on how far away the area is from the city or administrative capital. In the villages under study, some of which are some distances of about 120 kilometers away from the NWP capital and also from metropolitan industrial areas, experience of extreme poverty is high. Hence the axiom, the farther away a community is from the provincial capital the greater the incidence and depth of extreme poverty.

2.8.3 Unemployment and Ill-health

In the province and in the study area there is a large army of unemployed youth, women and the elderly within the rural and urban communities. It may be due to either lack of skills, lack of job opportunities or unavailable paid and secured jobs, and secured land for agricultural purposes. Many households which depend on rural farmlands for their livelihoods have inadequate productive agricultural lands. This has contributed to unemployment, lack of incomes and poverty (STATSSA, 2008). The estimated unemployment rate was 27 % in 2009, slightly higher than the South African average of 24.5% in 2009 (STATSSA, 2010; STATSSA, 2008d). The female unemployment rate was above 50%. The greatest contributing factors to the 'Poor's' continued poverty are perceived as lack of employment opportunities, lack of skills and job security in both urban and rural areas (NWPG, 2006). The lack of income generating work in the rural areas has encouraged migration to the cities and urban areas where people think they could find employment and better opportunities to escape the cycle of poverty. Unemployment therefore is the main and immediate cause of poverty for most poor households.

Unemployment and poverty are further aggravated by the incidence of HIV and AIDS. The pandemic has a great impact on poverty because it deprives households of adults able to work to earn income on which the family depends. It also has caused child-headed households and orphans. These children may be too young to work and have to be cared for by neighbours who themselves may be poor and cannot adequately care for their own households. If the 25%

prevalent rate of HIV reported in the NW Province is contextualized, one could readily imagine the enormity of poverty in the country and the province (NW Pop Unit, 2003).

2.8.4 Lack of capacities, access to infrastructure services, and traditionalism.

Another causal factor is access to infrastructure, basic services, access to assets and the extent of social network available to the poor. The rural villages have experienced deprivation of basic infrastructure and services for a long time. Such services include water, electricity, health care, sanitation, education, communication, financial service etc. The current government has attempted to improve infrastructure but difficulty of access is still being experienced by the most marginalized in the study area (NWPG, 2006). This may be caused by lack of capacities as well as limited capabilities existing at the municipalities. In addition it may be due to the communities' lack of relevant skills which they could utilize for the provision of their own livelihoods and sustenance. All these are emanating from deprivation during the apartheid era.

However, in a certain context it can be argued that access to social services, whilst critical, is not, per se, adequate to be considered as a cause of poverty. For instance access to electricity or a DSTV decoder will not guarantee optimal utilization of such access if beneficiaries are unemployed and therefore cannot afford the bills or buy the complementary electrical appliances needed. On the other hand it is a truism in a neglected neighbourhood where there are health hazards and poor infrastructure such as water and sanitation. Household income will dissipate as the poor, of necessity, have to struggle by themselves using their limited resources to address these issues.

Furthermore, inequalities generated by gender discrimination and traditionalism; and having too many children that results in overcrowded homes have all played their part in making people poor. There is a great deal of responsibility in caring

for the young ones and it becomes a strain on the meager resources available to the households when the children are many (May, 2000: 5).

2.8.5 Inequalities in the distribution of economic and social capital

Poverty in the country is associated with very high levels of inequality. Inequality in the distribution of assets, especially land, has greatly caused unemployment and the deep poverty many South Africans, especially Black Africans, are in today. The poor receive a relatively very small amount of the national cake and therefore continue to be poor. For example, by the year 2000 the richest 10% of the South African population received 45% of the national income while the poorest 40% received only 10% (World Bank, 2007).

The existence of inequalities in social and economic infrastructure distribution is also of a great concern because social justice and fundamental human rights cannot be addressed when inequality prevails in the province. High inequality serves as a constraint to growth; and that where growth takes place in an unequal society it impacts less on poverty (World Bank, 2006). The *World Development Report (2006)* alluded to a consensus debate that when there is an unequal distribution of assets and of human capital, inequality and low levels of growth are exacerbated. Conversely a more equitable land distribution and access to education and health services are associated with rising equality and with shared growth.

When we stress that the lack of capacity, capabilities, skills and illiteracy are causing poverty, the fundamental reason (root cause) for it is the existence of inequalities within the fabric of society. Therefore, policies to address inequality are a key to achieving pro-poor growth. Those policies should address inequalities in early childhood development (ECD), education, health and basic income grants. Chapter 3 therefore deals with these policies.

2.9

SUMMARY

This chapter has reviewed the concept of poverty and inequality in the literature. It establishes that poverty is multidimensional in nature and has to be approached multidimensionally. Its definition is very subjective and not only quantitative but also qualitative depending on the one experiencing it. Various poverty measuring instruments to determine the extent and incidence of poverty have been discussed culminating in the knowledge of how deep seated poverty is in South Africa generally and North West Province's rural sector in particular.

This chapter has further shown that the poor are the older persons, unemployed, rural people, women, children, farm workers, disabled and racially excluded persons and low wage earners. They are those individuals and households who suffer deprivation, social and economic exclusions, who are deficient in capabilities, voiceless, most vulnerable and under empowered. These depend on social grants for mere existence.

The review of the literature has established that causal contexts of poverty in the country and the North West Province vary. The incidence of poverty in the province and in the country in general has been caused primarily by the history of Apartheid and its discriminatory legislations. The legislations brought inequality and prevented the Black people from gaining access to resources that could empower them. The chapter has pointed out many other factors such as location, migrant labour system, unemployment, the bureaucracy, HIV/AIDS and others which in many diverse ways have contributed to the poverty situation. It points out that the solutions to these causal factors demand the attention of the government. In the next Chapter, attention is turned to policies and strategies that have been put in place to address the poverty situation.

CHAPTER THREE

THE NATIONAL AND PROVINCIAL DEVELOPMENT POLICY FRAMEWORKS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

We noted in chapters one and two that as Apartheid's racial segregation came to an end in April 1994, it left in its wake deep scars of poverty and inequalities across racial groups. The country and the NWP consequently adopted and implemented some policies and strategies to offset the inherited poverty and inequalities and backlogs in education, health and infrastructure provision, limited access to safe water, housing, sanitation, land, employment and welfare. This chapter puts the poverty situation in the country in context and thereafter, discusses and analyses the Government's development policy frameworks and assesses their impact.

3.2 THE POVERTY SITUATION NATIONALLY AND PROVINCIALLY

In the North West Province and South Africa in general, the poor are mainly the black Africans who constitute 61% of the African population (UNDP, 2003b; May, 2000). Though other race groups are poor, their percentage incidence seems insignificant. For example, Statistics South Africa's (2008) data contained in Table 3.1 shows that only 0.1% of white individuals are considered poor compared to the 93.3% of black individuals. Poverty rate of Black individuals is 54.8% while that of Whites is 0.4%. What is implied of the particularly high incidence of poverty among blacks in the table is that the black group's share of poor individuals markedly exceeds that of its population share. Many scholars such as May (2000) and Aliber (2003) contribute to a debate on this by saying that while poverty is not confined to only one racial group, it is largely concentrated in the Black African Communities where a greater effort is required to reduce it.

Similarly, with respect to access to basic needs Hoogeveen and Özler (2006:59) point out that evidence from research on the nature of poverty and inequality

problems in the province shows that while *only a quarter* of Africans have access to basic services such as piped water in their houses, Asians and Whites have *universal* access to this service. This statement does not only portray the general nature of inequalities that existed before the 1994 new political dispensation, but also what still exists despite the dispensation.

Table 3.1: Poverty rate, population share and poverty share by population groups (2008)

Group	Poverty rate of individuals (%)	Percentage shares of population	Percentage share of poor individuals
BLACKS	54.8	80.1	93.3
COLOUREDS	34.2	8.7	6.3
INDIANS	7.1	2.5	0.4
WHITES	0.4	8.6	0.1
ALL	47.1	100	100

Source: Statistics South Africa (2008a)

The findings of STATSSA's Income and Expenditure Survey (IES) of 2005, as found in Table 3.2, confirm that, poverty remains high in South Africa. The table shows that of the two levels or poverty lines of consumption, upper-bound and lower-bound (the lower-bound poverty line is the line of extreme poverty), consumption levels of 33.2% of all households were below the "lower-bound" poverty line, while 53.3% of households consumed less than the "upper-bound" poverty line. Poorer households were more, on the average, than richer ones. There was even more poverty when measured in terms of the proportion of individuals rather than the proportion of households who were poor. The percentage of households and individuals in the population that consumed less than the "upper-bound" poverty lines were 47.1% and 67.6% respectively. The "lower-bound" poverty line is consistently used in this thesis unless indicated otherwise.

Table 3.2: Poverty levels for households and individuals

	LOWER-BOUND %	UPPER- BOUND %
HOUSEHOLDS	33.2	47.1
INDIVIDUALS	53.2	67.6

Source: Statistics South Africa (2008a)

Furthermore, the poverty rates of South Africa's nine provinces differ significantly, as do those of the urban and rural areas of the country. Table 3.3 depicts poverty rates in the various provinces ranging from 24.9% in Gauteng and 28.8% in the Western Cape to 57.6% in the Eastern Cape and 64.6% in Limpopo by 2008. The three provinces with

Table 3.3: Provincial poverty rates

Province	Poverty Rate 1998	Poverty rate 2008
North West	62.1	51.1
Western Cape	28.0	28.8
Eastern Cape	70.7	57.6
Northern Cape	54.9	50.0
Free State	63.4	39.2
Kwazulu-Natal	51.9	58.5
Gauteng	17.3	24.9
Mpumalanga	57.3	50.3
Limpopo	59.1	64.4

Source: May et al., (1998); STATSSA (2008a)

the highest poverty rates (KwaZulu-Natal, the Eastern Cape and Limpopo) are also relatively populous – at the time of IES2005, they housed 47.4% of the South African population. It should come as no surprise then that fully 60.1% of poor individuals lived in these three provinces. The two richest provinces, Gauteng and the Western Cape, housed about one-sixth of the poor. Comparing 1998 and 2008 figures one

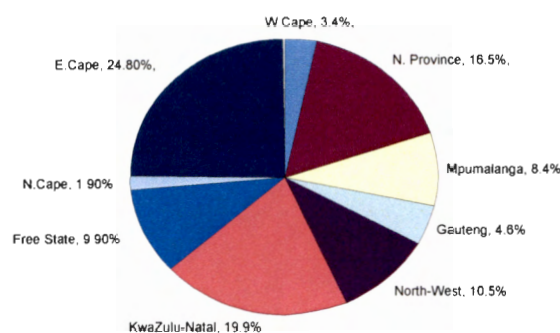
finds improved changes in the poverty rate. The change is over a ten-year period and cannot be considered as significant.

In Table 3.3, it can be seen that in the North West Province the current poverty rate is 51.1% compared to the 1998 rate of 62.1%. This shows that there has been a slight improvement (STATSSA, 2008a). The province's share of the poverty gap is also 10.5% of the GDP, which is shown in the pie chart of Figure 3.1. The province runs amongst those provinces with the highest poverty rates and gaps such as Eastern Cape and Limpopo whose poverty gaps amount to 11 and 21 percent of the provincial GDP respectively (Hunter et al., 2003; May, 1998,). The poverty gap shows that poverty is deep-seated (the poor have sunk deeper) in the province (even though there has been an improvement in the poverty rate) and it needs a huge amount of money to bring the poor, particularly the extreme poor, up to the upper-bound poverty line. The HSRC (1998) estimated an amount of 6.1 billion needed to be able to do just that.

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Figure 3.1 Provincial Share of the Poverty Gap

Fig.3.0 Provincial Share of the Poverty Gap



Source: UNDP, 2003

At the 1998 South Africa's poverty hearings (May 1998), a central message that emerged was that poor people do not want handouts, but rather opportunities to transform their lives for the better. As it has been argued in chapter two, the denial of

opportunities and choices for a tolerable life leads to poverty. Therefore the solution to the poverty problem lies in part to providing opportunities or an enabling environment that would assist the poor to overcome their poverty. In light of this and the grim poverty situation in some parts of the NWP highlighted above, Government at all levels, national, provincial, and local have and continue to evolve policies and strategies that seek to reduce poverty and provide the envisaged opportunities and choices for the well-being of the citizens. The policy frameworks are discussed and assessed in the sub-sections that follow.

3.3. IMPLEMENTED POLICY FRAMEWORKS AND STRATEGIES FOR POVERTY REDUCTION

Consequent to the above, policies and legislative frameworks which are anti-poverty have been formulated and implemented in the country as a whole and in the NWP in particular. The policies are particularly geared towards increasing access and equitable distribution of resources to all citizens. The policies are based on the following pillars:

- Creation of economic opportunities – aimed at ensuring that the economy generates opportunities for poor households to earn improved incomes through jobs or self-employment
- Investment in human capital – providing health care, education and training needed to engage with the economy and in political processes
- Ensuring income security – providing safety nets for the most vulnerable, primarily through social grants. This is to ensure that vulnerability associated with disability, age and illness does not plunge poor households into destitution
- Basic services and other non-financial transfers – what has been termed a social wage, consisting of services such as subsidized housing, and expanded access to water, electricity, refuse removal and sanitation; as well as a minimum free basic service for vulnerable sectors of the population. Inability to

pay for basic services should not prevent the poor from accessing these services altogether

- Improving healthcare – ensuring that poor children grow up healthy, providing quality and efficient preventative and curative care, and ensuring that illness or disability does not plunge poor households into destitution
- Access to assets – particularly housing, land and capital, including public infrastructure, both to improve economic and social security and to provide the basics for economic engagement in the longer run,
- Social inclusion and social capital initiatives – combining programmes to ensure a more inclusive and integrated society, based on the development of more integrated structures and engagements across class and race, as well as community solidarity in communities and society as a whole. The focus is also on strengthening social capital, especially for the poor to expand their networks and ensure they have access to information
- Environmental sustainability – requiring strategies and programmes that help link increasing economic opportunities for the poor to the protection and rehabilitation of ecosystems, reversing environmental degradation and prompting eco tourism
- Good governance – accountability to citizens, direct intervention in the provision of information, facilitating participatory, pro-poor policies and sound macroeconomic management. This is to ensure proper use of public funds, encouraging shared economic growth, promoting effective and efficient delivery of public services and consolidating the rule of law (South Africa, 2008:14).

The pillars above are embedded in the implemented policies and strategies below.

3.3.1 The introduction of the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) 1994 -1996

The South African Government, having noted the causes and existence of the enormous challenges of poverty and inequality it faced, placed the reduction of poverty and inequality firmly at the centre of its development agenda and this has been reflected in the various policy documents and strategies that have been developed since the dawn of Democracy in South Africa. The first of these to be articulated was the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) in 1994, which has been the pillar for poverty reduction in the country (ANC, 1994).

The RDP document, a socioeconomic framework, represents a first attempt by government to formulate a strategy that could balance growth, ensure redistribution and provide basic needs with the government's aim of making the country market friendly and globally competitive. It set ambitious goals of job creation through public works programmes, redistribution of assets by means of land reform, undertaking major infrastructure projects in housing, providing services, social security and education to the teeming population (SA Govt 1997; ANC 1994). Addressing UCT GSB Association in Sandton-Johannesburg, FW De Klerk (1994: 2-3) had this to say:

The Reconstruction and Development programme is the centre-piece of the policy of the Government of National Unity. It envisages a broad interlocking programme that will address the total spectrum of socio-economic needs of the disadvantaged members of our society – from the creation of jobs to the provision of housing, primary health care, water, electricity and improved education...its main provisions. The success of government... will be judged by the degree to which the RDP succeeds in improving the living conditions of millions of South Africans.

The programme sought to attain socio-economic growth and basic needs delivery, while at the same time addressing the legacy of injustice. It put emphasis on 'people-centred development', 'integrated development' and 'sustainable development' that is democratic and participatory (ANC, 1994). The RDP proposed several dimensions that should be addressed to achieve socio-economic transformation of the South

African society. The RDP further set out various socio-economic commitments and targets for delivery that would address poverty, inequality and unemployment as follows:

- The creation of 2.5 million jobs over a ten-year period;
- The building of one million houses by the year 2000;
- The connection to the national electricity grid of 2.5 million homes by 2000;
- The provision of running water and sewerage to one million households;
- The distribution of 30% of agricultural land to emerging black farmers;
- The development of a new focus on primary health care;
- The provision of ten years of compulsory free education for all children;
- The encouragement of massive infrastructural improvements through public works; and
- The restructuring of state institutions by 1997 to reflect the broader race, class and gender composition of society (ANC, 1994; Chikulo, 2003).

According to Bond and Khosa (1999), the RDP contained contradictions of ANC policies, yet credit should be given to the government of that time because it was the first bold attempt at tackling poverty reduction by embarking on actual beneficial projects. Apart from it playing a pivotal role in ensuring successful transition from separate development towards a more sustainable future, it was a pivotal point around which all instruments for nation building and development issues revolved and would further revolve (Fitzgerald, McLennan & Munslow, 1997).

During the 1994-1996 period, the RDP was viewed as the cornerstone of government development policy – a yardstick against which the success of the government development policy could be assessed. However, as a development policy document, the RDP had a number of shortcomings. Chikulo (2003) notes that at 'first,

it looked more like a “wish list” than a strategic document focusing on opportunities and constraints. Second, it made no attempt to set priorities or to assign responsibility for the implementation of each programme component. Third, it lacked mechanisms for inter-departmental coordination. Finally, local government, which has been assigned constitutional responsibility for promoting socio-economic development, did not have adequate planning and implementation capacity’.

While the government appeared to have been content with the RDP’s broadly humanitarian thrusts, problems began to surface from 1995. The economy, in particular, was not growing at the envisaged rate. The sluggish performance of the economy in turn impacted negatively on the RDP, with achievements falling behind expectations. Two years down the line it was realized that a great deal needed to be done to overcome the challenges being faced (Fitzgerald et al., 1997). This was because the government was courageous in setting targets but weaker in outlining the process required to achieve those set targets.

Several criticisms of the RDP emerged. Differences in view point by COSATU, SACP, Central Economic Advisory Services (CEAS), National Institute for Economic Policy (NIEP), demanded a review of the RDP (Fitzgerald et al 1997). Bond and Khosa (1999) state further that the lack of user-friendliness and the administrative deficiencies of the RDP office proved irritant to line departments and provinces. Failure in service delivery, poor financial and institutional mechanisms culminated in the formulation of a new overall strategy of growth, employment and redistribution (GEAR) which replaced the RDP (Fitzgerald et al, 1997; Coetzee and Graff, 1996). However the RDP’s implementation had a profound effect in the country and the NWP which is examined and analysed below.

3.3.1.1 The RDP’s impact in South Africa and NWP

Despite the RDP’s shortcomings, it no doubt played a critical and positive role in the province and in the country. It ensured the successful transition from separate

development towards a more sustainable development future. Fitzgerald, McLennan and Munslow (1997) and Mbeki (1998) point out that as a result of the RDP, the lack of access to basic social services which Apartheid brought about has been addressed nationally and provincially.

On poverty reduction, the RDP was to provide basic needs such as education, healthcare services, energy, housing, entrepreneurial and community empowerment, water, nutrition, and social security. It was also to grow the economy and democratise the state. Accordingly, RDP projects were implemented to address basic needs such as schools (education), clinics (Primary Health Care), water, refuse removal and sanitation, and rural electrification. These count as RDP's success and impact in the country, Province and the Ngaka Modiri Molema District (NWPG, 2009). This is, in part, the acknowledgement of the multidimensionality of poverty and the recognition of the importance of non-income services in addressing poverty. The following assesses service areas that the RDP tackled to bring about poverty reduction.

3.3.1.1.1 Education: Expenditure, enrollment and attainment

The RDP aimed at human capital provision for poverty alleviation. In this regard a social service, such as education, was seen as critical to improving the human capital of South Africa and the North West Province. This is one of the areas that address the multidimensional causes of poverty – exclusion, income and inequality. Since 1994 the right of access to education by all South Africans has become part of the education system's policy. The system has moved from one of diverse forms based on racial exclusiveness that brought poverty to the majority of the population, to a unitary one. The South African Schools Act, 1996 (Act 36 of 1996) has promoted access, quality and democratic governance in the schooling system and made schooling compulsory for all children aged between 7 and 15 years of age. The phasing in of a reception year (Grade R, 5-year age group) also has ensured that all learners that entered Grade 1 in 2010 had participated in accredited reception year.

The key focus was on ensuring access to education, as elaborated in the *White Paper on Education* (DoE, 1995) and *Plan of Action: Improving Access to free and quality basic education for all* (DoE, 2003). Policy documents, amongst others, aimed at facilitating stability, quality and access in education provision are: *The White Paper on Education and Training* (DoE, 1995), *Tirisano Plan of Action and Programme of Action* (DoE, 1996), *Quality Education for all: Overcoming barriers to learning and development. Report of the National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training (NCSNET) & National Committee on Education Support Services (NCESS)* (DoE, 1997). The vision of these policy documents is to ensure equal access to life-long education and training opportunities that would contribute to people's quality of life. The objective is to ensure that the poorest 40 per cent of learners continue to experience improvements in the quality of schooling provided, geared towards career paths.

From the early 2000's the focus shifted to a greater emphasis on the quality of education, suitable intervention strategies and support programme's. This was to be achieved through the *National Policy on Whole School Evaluation* (DoE, 2001:8). A key aspect of achieving the goal of quality education for all learners entailed the introduction of a continuous evaluation of the school system as a whole. The major means to achieve quality assurance was the institution of a number of assurance systems: *Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS)*, *Developmental Appraisal (DA)*, *Performance Management (PM)*, *Whole School Evaluation (WSE)* and the *Systemic Evaluation (SE)*. According to the *Systemic Evaluation* (DoE, 2003), "the main purpose of Systemic Evaluation is to benchmark performance and track the progress made towards the achievement of transformation goals of access, redress, equity and quality" (DoE, 2003:5).

The Systemic Evaluation studies are designed to provide regular information to policy makers to draw conclusions about appropriate education strategies pertaining to:

- the context in which learning and teaching is taking place;
- the performance of learners and their level of achievement; and
- the factors that affect learner achievement.

At the provincial level the NWP Department of Education has put in place a number of strategies, one of which is the Provincial Education Department *Strategic Plan 2003/04 to 2005/06* (DoE-NWP, 2003). This plan is to make education accessible to all, while promoting lifelong learning opportunities and people's self-reliance leading to a democratic society and economic growth in the province.

The plan undertakes to improve the quality of education and training in the province through a Systemic Evaluation to benchmark performance and track progress attained (DoE-NWP, 2003). The other initiatives that have been put in place include the following:

- Provision of transport (both motorized and non-motorised)
- Capex Project which was to build 61 schools from 2001.

It must be noted in this exposition on education that the thesis confines itself to basic education – the primary and secondary levels – which gives a guide as to what is expected and is happening at the higher education level.

Education expenditure trends

The pattern of expenditure on education by government both National and Provincial also shows the importance attached to education and its capacity to reduce poverty. The Policy Co-ordination Advisory Services (PCAS's) *Fifteen Year Review* points out that by 2005, total public expenditure on education as a percentage of gross national product (GNP) was 5.59% which compares well with the most advanced countries that spend between 5% and 6% of their GNP on education. Education expenditure has subsequently grown from R30 billion in 1994/5 to R101 billion in 2007/08 (PCAS, 2008). However, education's share of government expenditure actually declined from almost 22% of total state expenditure in 1994 to just over 16% in 2005. An examination of Table 3.4 that depicts these trends explains the proportion of provincial budget allocated to education.

Table 3.4: Provincial education expenditure as a % of total provincial expenditure (2002/3-2008/9)

Province	Eastern Cape	Free State	Gauteng	Kwazulu- Natal	Limpopo	Mpumala nga	Northern Cape	North West	Western Cape	Total
Year	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
2002/03	49,0	36,3	38,2	45,9	50,9	49,6	33,8	47,9	40,6	44,4
2003/04	46,8	35,4	40,0	46,4	50,1	49,9	31,0	47,5	40,5	44,1
2004/05	49,4	34,0	39,7	46,5	51,3	48,5	29,7	46,8	39,0	44,2
2005/06	48,3	34,4	38,9	44,5	48,1	49,5	29,5	44,2	38,4	42,9
2006/07	48,7	45,3	35,5	43,6	48,3	48,6	37,4	43,8	38,0	43,2
2007/08	48,5	43,6	37,0	42,9	48,1	48,6	37,1	41,8	38,2	43,1
2008/09	48,2	42,9	37,6	41,2	48,1	48,8	38,0	40,9	38,0	42,8

Source: Taylor et al in PCAS 2008

In Table 3.4, with the exception of the Free State and Northern Cape, the proportion of provincial budgets expended on education has fallen. In some instances, the drop has been dramatic. For example, the North West's education budget as a percentage of overall provincial spending declined from a high of 47.9% in 2002/03 to 40.9% in 2008/09. The decline had been due to increase in the provincial budget allocation to Social Development. Despite the decreases the proportional allocation is quite substantial to improve education in the North West Province in particular.

Table 3.5 shows that as education remains one of the largest budgetary items in South Africa, it has ensured a steady average increase of 16.6% from 1991 to 2005, in enrollment to the early childhood development (ECD), primary and secondary phases to which Table 3.3 refers.

Table 3.5: Provincial expenditure on ECD, 1999/00-2007/08(R 000)

Province	YEARS & EXPENDITURE IN RAND (R '000)								
	1999/0 0	2000/0 1	2001/0 2	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08
Eastern Cape	4 366	6 461	3 473	24 402	27 305	36 937	38 823	64 346	105 753
Free state	9 268	1 603	9 958	13 766	16 290	29 509	32 054	49 637	58 038
Gauteng				5 455	88 178	51 807	49 000	79 000	152 739
KwaZulu-Natal	27 091	22 337	42 374	52 801	22 588	79 697	61 760	96 757	167 697
Limpopo				12 193	12 809	23 535	22 031	77 715	83 935
Mpumalanga	26 580	30 927	24 639	27 857	35 075	33 072	41 867	41 827	67 297
Northern Cape	6 518	5 727	8 499	10 632	11 371	13 198	13 909	18 019	35 772
North West	98 014	92 507	128 130	107 033	107 259	122 567	113 689	151 510	159 127
Western Cape	27 390	48 170	46 261	52 838	56 310	60 135	74 477	107 397	153 039
Total	199 227	207 732	263 334	306 977	377 185	450 457	447 610	686 208	983 397

Source: PCAS 2008

The pattern of expenditure on early childhood education has expanded greatly from a very low base. Table 3.5 shows that, in the first year that substantial and consistent budget information is available, only the North West had a substantial allocation of

R98 014 000 devoted to early childhood development (ECD). By 2008 the North West Province had become the second highest ECD provider and had committed R 159 127 000 to it. In the NWP there are a total of 750 Early Childhood Development sites registered by the Department of Social Development and more than 750 unregistered sites which are in the process of registering. These have benefited more than 280 000 children (NWPG 2009). The total national expenditure on ECD as at 2007/08 stood at R983 397 000 compared to its first year total expenditure of R199 227 000.

School Enrollment

Due to a variety of measures introduced, school enrollment or participation rate in the school system has increased. They include:

- Compulsory education for children aged 7 to 15 years.
- National schools nutrition programme which feeds 5 996 050 learners in 18 039 primary schools throughout the country.
- Introduction of a reception year, Grade R for children turning five, which aims to reach full coverage by the end of 2010.
- Introduction of pro-poor finance policies, i.e. exemption from school fees and the declaration of 40% of schools that caters for the poorest in the country to be no-fee schools (Taylor; Fleish & Shindler, 2008).

In 2005 the Gross Enrollment Ratio¹ (GER) in primary schools was 103% and by 2009 it had reached 106%. It was 95% in secondary and 15% in tertiary schools (Brown, Burges & Davies, 2009; PCAS, 2008). In 2007, more than 90% of children in the compulsory school age were attending an educational institution. Just over 95% of children between the ages of 7 and 14 years were at school, and so were 93.4% of

¹ GER measures enrollment, regardless of age, in specific level of education as a proportion of the appropriately aged population for the given level of education. In South Africa ages 7-13 is used as appropriate for primary schooling, 7-15 for the basic or compulsory schooling, 14-18 for secondary & 16-18 years for Further Education and Training (FET)

15-year olds. The annual increase in school enrollment rate thus stood at over 15% (PCAS, 2008),

Tables 3.6 and 3.7 demonstrate the growth of primary and secondary school enrollment and level of attainments for ages 20 and above respectively in the country due to the above measures emanating from the RDP policy. The table shows primary (Grades 1 to 7) and secondary (Grades 8 to 12) school enrollment in 1991, 1995, 1999 and 2005 (4-year cycle). It shows the total growth and average annual growth between the years depicted. Under the % change over previous period we find that total school enrollment increased by 16, 6% between 1991 and 2005. Most of this growth was due to the rapid expansion of secondary education, which increased by 53.4% over this period, seen in Table 3.6 as an average annual increase of 3.1%. This high rate of learner enrollment shows that despite poverty, the RDP policy has ensured access to education in South Africa.

Table 3.6: Enrollment for primary (Grades 1 to 7) and secondary (1991 – 2005).

Year s	Numbers			% change over previous period			Average annual increase		
	Primary	Secondary	Total	Primary	Secondary	Total	Primary	Secondary	Total
1991	7 215 507	2 888 202	10 103 709	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
1995	8 159 435	3 749 448	11 908 883	13,1%	29,8%	17,9%	3,1%	6,7%	4,2%
1999	7 965 754	4 111 177	12 076 931	-2,4% *	9,6%	1,4%	-0,6%	2,3%	0,4%
2005	7 346 912	4 430 708	11 777 620	-7,8%	7,8%	-2,5%	-1,3%	1,3%	0,4%
Change 1991-2005				1,8%	53,4%	16,6%	0,1%	3,1%	1,1%

Source: PCAS 2008

Educational attainment

Educational attainment amongst those 20 years and older is seen as critical to addressing the skills constraints that lead to poverty in the country and a crucial indicator of employability, labour participation, as well as poverty reduction and development. According to Statistics South Africa (2007) as found in Table 3.7 over the period 1996 to 2001, there was a drop in percentage educational attainment from 33.6 % to 30.8 % among people with some secondary schooling. Between 2001 and 2007 however, there occurred a notable growth in some secondary schooling among persons aged 20 years and older (30.8% in 2001 to 40, 1 % in 2007). As a result, the percentage of no schooling dropped from 19.1% in 1996 to 10.3% in 2007.

Table 3.7: Level of educational attainment among population aged 20 years and above in % from 1996 -2007

	No schooli ng	Some primary	Completed primary	Some secondar y	Grade 12	Higher education	Matriculation pass rate
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
1996	19.1	16.5	7.4	33.6	16.3	7.1	54.7
2001	17.9	16	6.4	30.8	20.4	8.4	61.7
2007	10.3	16	5.9	40.1	18.6	9.1	65.2

Source: STATSSA (CS) 2007d

There is a decrease in the percentage of no schooling since 1996. In 1996, for those aged 20 years and above, no schooling accounted for 19.1% and steadily decreased to 17.9% in 2001 and to 10.3% in 2007. Furthermore in 2007, 9.1 % of persons aged 20 years and above had completed higher education as against 8.4% in 2001 and 7.1% in 1996 indicating also improvement since 1996. This shows that the educational policies and strategies implemented have had an impact in reducing the illiteracy rate that has been the cause of poverty. The attainment signifies that skills have been gained for future employment.

A good internal measure of long-term trends in high school performance is given by the Senior Certificate (SC) examinations, written by school leavers at the end of Grade 12. The South African public uses the Matriculation results as the main indicators of the quality of the education system and so there is an understandable concern about what the results are. From Table 3.7 and Table 3.8 it can be pointed out that the Matriculation pass rate has been increasing and that while the national percentage pass in 1996 was 54.7 (278 958), by 2007 it stood at 65.2% (368 233) (GCIS, 2010). However in 2009 it had reduced substantially to 60.7% (GCIS, 2010). The statistics thus reflect a great deal of improvement in educational achievement (though there have been fluctuations) nationally and in the NWP and the employability of a large number of the population as a result of the implemented strategies over the years.

The steady increases in the number of passes (28% over the years) and candidates indicate also levels of efficiency of the high school sector and the education system. In terms of employment and thereby reducing poverty, over 500 000 educators had been employed by 2009, according to the South African Council of Educators (SACE) data base (DoE, 2009). It could be argued that the closing down of a number of Colleges of Education in the late 1990s and early 2000s had led to a reduction in teacher numbers. However this has not been so. Teacher education became the responsibility of Education faculties at Universities thereafter. The products have been employed by the Department of Education. To ensure food security for learners as well as other citizens, 26 408 food handlers were working on the National schools nutrition programme (NSNP) receiving honorarium ranging between R300 and R500 per month and 1630 community-based service-providers were providing food supplies to 18 039 schools covering over 7 000 000 learners (DoE, 2009).

Table 3.8: Matriculation Pass rate 1994- 1998

YEAR	NWP		SOUTH AFRICA		NO OF CANDIDATES	
	% Pass Rate	No.	% Pass Rate	No.	South Africa	North West Province
1994	70.2	24572	58	287343	34984	495408
1995	66.3	27812	53.4	283742	41950	531453
1996	69.6	32485	54.7	278958	46221	518032
1997	50.0	24259	47.3	261400	48542	555265
1998	54.6	23258	49.3	272488	42436	552384
1999	52.1	19187	48.8	249831	36819	511159
2000	58.3	23366	57.8	283294	40089	489941
2001	62.5	22963	61.7	277206	36734	449371
2002	67.8	24637	68.9	324752	36348	371309
2003	70.4	25055	73.2	322492	35567	440267
2004	65.0	24221	70.1	330717	37237	467985
2005	63.0	23748	68.3	347184	37682	508363
2006	67.0	25440	66.5	351503	37953	528525
2007	67.2	21360	65.2	368217	31786	564775
2008	68.0	23283	62.7	333604	34240	533561
2009	67.5	20700	60.7	334718	30660	550073
Growth in No. of passes 1994-2003	2.0%		12.2%			
Growth in No. of passes 1994-2007	-13.1		28.2%			

Source: GCIS, 2010; NWPED, 2010; UMALUSI, 2010.

In the North West Province, the situation compared to the national figures tells a different story. The pass rate had declined steadily from 70% in 1994 to 67.5% by 2009 showing average growth of -13.1% compared to the national average growth of 28.2%. However, the pass rates show a better improvement from 2006 – 2009 than that of the country as a whole.

The Literacy rate, also as a general outcome of RDP [with the introduction of Adult Basic Education (ABET)] in the country, increased from 83% in 1996 to 89% in 2009. An outcome indicator therefore for education (also in the province) is the increase in

the adult literacy rate to 89%. Functional literacy accordingly improved from 57.1% in 1996 to 67.5% in 2007 but there are an estimated 737 000 people older than 20 years who have not completed grade 7(NPG, 2009). This is an outcome of great importance.

Education has enabled a large segment of the population to be employable and employed. The decreased unemployment rate in the country from over 60% in 1994 to 24.5% in 2009, and 27% in the NWP bears testimony (STATSSA, 2009). On access to education in the province the RDP provided 2337 schools in the province and made it to rank fifth in the country in schools acquisition by 2001. At the same time the total number of schools provided in the country stood at 27458 (STATSSA, 2001). Table 3.8 points this out.

Education has equipped the youth with capabilities and a means to break from the poverty trap (NWPG, 2009). The province's human capital poverty has, accordingly, been improved. The increased matriculation pass rate suggests that the skills profile of the province has been increasing and more people have moved away from poverty. Yet appropriate scarce skills are lacking in the province and in the Ngaka Modiri Molema Municipality. The numbers of unemployed graduates of the education system attest to this. Skills and capacity deficiencies in accounting, management etc are noticeable in the municipalities' poor governance, financial status and service delivery (NMMDM 2009). Since the North West has reduced its illiteracy level, one would have expected education together with other sectors to have contributed tremendously to a steady drop in the poverty levels, yet poverty persists. In the villages of the study area education has yet to have its full impact on poverty reduction.

Finally social exclusion in education whereby only certain races could be allowed admission into certain educational institutions and to pursue certain disciplines has by law been abolished in the province and in South Africa as a whole (NWPG, 2009; South Africa, 2006). All citizens therefore have equal access to all institutions and to study any discipline of their choice. But that notwithstanding, there are pockets of

institutions where some races particularly the poor Blacks find it difficult to gain admission into, either due to the high exorbitant fees or language (the medium of instruction) factor but not as policy. For example, the International School of South Africa in Mafikeng which excludes the poor due to its high fees and Vryburg High School which excludes the poor due to the medium of instruction and high fees. These few educational institutions are not helping with poverty reduction in the way as they should have.

The following figures summarise the outcomes in education from RDP in the NWP:

- The proportion of the population with a qualification higher than grade 12 improved from 16.6% in 1996 to 29% in 2006, and 36.7% in 2007.
- The number of grade 1 – 12 learners at schools has been reported as 780,317 in 1996 reaching a peak of 1 112 000 by 2004 and then declined gradually to 743 289 in 2008.
- Senior Certificate candidates that wrote matriculation exams increased from 34 984 in 1994 peaking at 48 542 in 1997, but then declined to 30 660 in 2009. This may not be considered as a decline because the province lost population to other provinces as a result of provincial border demarcations.
- The Senior Certificate pass rate improved steadily from 50.0% in 1997 to 67.5% in 2009.
- Senior Certificate pass rates with university exemption worsened from 15% in 1996 to 12.4% in 2004 and then improved from 12.4% in 2004 to 20.73% in 2009.

All these are attributable to the RDP's no fee and free education up to the 4th Quintile high schools in the province (NWPG, 2009: 34).

3.3.1.1.2 Healthcare services

Regarding the implementation of the RDP's public Healthcare policy, the main thrust of the Department of Health (DoH) has been to improve access to healthcare through Primary Healthcare (PHC) approach. This service was to address the qualitative aspect of poverty. It has led to increased expenditure in the health sector, implying that more poor people are accessing the healthcare services and more people are being employed as health care service providers. The available numbers for these groups in the NW Province are provided below indicating the impact the service has had in making life better for the poor.

The PHC system was a move away from the previous system before 1994 when patients accessed health care at the Level 1 and 2 hospitals where they had to pay fees, to an integrated district health system of PHC. After 1994, by this approach, free healthcare was implemented but was limited to pregnant and lactating mothers and children under six years. In 1996 it was extended to cover primary health services for all citizens (PCAS, 2008). In this approach patients had to first access health care free of charge at clinics and only go to the hospitals when referred. This was conforming to clause 27 of the Bill of Right that states that: "Everyone has the right to have access to health care services including reproductive health care ...if they are unable to support themselves and their dependants appropriate social assistance should be provided" (SA 1996). Not only that, it also addresses exclusion and deprivation that had made people poor as discussed in the literature in chapter two. Among health services provided in this approach are immunisation, maternity care, screening of children, family planning and oral health services, endemic disease prevention etc. (PCSA, 2008).

In support of the PHC, priority projects have been provided nationally and provincially since 1994. Nationally by 2007, 1 600 clinics and healthcare centres had been built as well as 10 hospitals. There are now over 4350 PHC access points available according to PCAS (2003; 2008:58). From 1997 to 2007 access by headcount visits increased from 67 021 961 to 101 644 080. In the North West 289 clinics had been provided by September 2008. This means an increased utilisation rate of the

healthcare centres. The following are some Performances registered in the North West Province's health sector:

- Registered nurses increased from 158 538 in 1996 to 171 645 in 2007.
- Doctors increased from an estimated 26 000 in 1996 to 31 081 in 2007. The number of doctors per 10 000 of population increased from 1.2 in 1996 to 1.6 in 2008.

As a result of increased access points to healthcare and healthcare professionals Tuberculosis (TB) cases have decreased. TB cases increased from 469 per 100 000 of the population in 1999 to 702 per 100 000 of the population in 2006. However with increased numbers in healthcare professionals in 2007, TB cases dropped to 472 per 100 000 of the population. Currently the TB cure rate stands at 65.5% with intensified efforts to increase this to 75% (NWPG, 2009). This indicates a substantial achievement in health care service delivery. Yet the average life expectancy at birth has decreased from 53.1 years in 1996 to 50.0 years in 2007 in the province. In the country as a whole life expectancy has plunged from a high of 63.3 years in 1990 to below 50 years in 2009 (The Economist 2009; yahoo.com 4/28/2010). This is as a result of the prevalence of HIV/AIDS pandemic (NWPG 2009; PCAS 2008).

Furthermore a 24-hour Primary Health Care (PHC) service has been implemented in each sub district of the province. This has led to increased visits to PHC centres. Available figures show that:

- the headcount visits for PHC was 9,883,482 in 2005/06. The achievement toward the implementation of a comprehensive package of PHC services is rated at 93%.
- Of the 51 hospital and clinic projects spread over a 5 year period from 2003, 22 projects have been successfully completed, 19 are still under construction, 7 are at planning stage and 3 have been put on hold.
- A total number of 23 health posts out of a planned 35 have been constructed in remote areas (NWPG, 2009).

These are indications of increased access to healthcare services and improvement in the quality of life of households. According to the social sector report of the PCAS, the increased access and per capita health spending are indicative of, or reflect expansion of health services available as well as improved health outcomes of the population. Yet the office of the Premier (NWPG, 2009: 35) reports that though there had been increases in the number of doctors and nurses and spending, the medical performance has not been as high as expected. This is attributed to the Provincial Health Department's under-spending of its budget (PCAS, 2008: 59). This fact greatly confirms the poor health service delivery found in the study area. Clinics were not readily available, and the rural communities had to travel long distances to the urban centres to access healthcare contrary to what the above outcomes state and the PHC objective of providing health care services within a radius of 5 kilometres. It also reflects a slow rate of improved health outcomes for the population particularly those in the rural areas in the study area.

3.3.1.1.3 Free basic services: water and sanitation, electricity and housing

Water

The provision of safe water is a major tool for protecting human capital and for reducing social asset poverty. It is an indicator of the quality of life the absence of which is ill-being. Since the introduction of free basic water, the proportion of households having access to clean water has increased from 60% in 1996 to over 85% by 2006 (DWAF, 2006). This indicates a wider coverage of water provision not only in the country but in the North West Province.

Table3.9: Selected trends in the provision of basic services (1994 – 2006)

Year	Total number of Households (HH)	HH with access to WATER infrastructure		HH with access to SANITATION		Total No of HH	HH with access to ELECTRICITY		New electrical connections
		No	%	No	%		No	%	
1994	10150478	6259251	61.7	5065626	49.9				
1995	10347884	6400836	61.9	5268320	50.9	8802000	4477400	50.9	

1996	10550871	6581793	62.4	5439152	51.6	9059571	4900694	54.1	932762
1997	10759617	6913681	64.3	5720997	53.2	9258000	5544968	59.9	1432073
1998	10974185	7225881	65.8	5966326	54.4	9288000	5801242	62.5	1859499
1999	11194976	7797049	68.8	6295492	56.2	11077100	6774207	61.2	2302789
2000	11422150	8109273	71.0	6582297	57.6	11098642	6777997	61.1	2699808
2001	11656059	8581234	73.6	6905086	59+.2	11205705	7735748	69.0	3036726
2002	11950115	9339949	78.2	7468555	62.5	11147900	8459895	75.9	3375298
2003	12139159	9262480	76.3	7786436	64.1	11205706	8571043	76.5	3654060
2004	12396707	9894367	79.8	8197075	66.1	11634817	8677400	74.6	3900899
2005	12656163	10469361	82.7	8742015	69.1	12726000	9508000	74.7	4124912
2006.	12802423	10840743	84.7	9057241	70.7	12980520	9563987	73.7	4283396

Source: PCAS 2008²

In Table 3.9, it can be seen that due to the introduction of this free provision of 25 litres of water per day per person, 10 840 743 out of 12 802 423 Households (HH) or 84.7% of all Households (HH) were receiving this service by 2006 nationally compared to 6 259 251 or 61.7% households of the 10 150 478 HH in 1994 (PCAS, 2008; DPLG, 2006), 460 885 or 62.1% of the North West population were receiving this free basic service by 2006 (NWPG, 2009; DWAF, 2006). Tables 3.9 and Table3.10, provide trends in the provision of this service for households from 1994 to 2006 nationally and from 2003 to 2006 provincially. By these figures one could find that the provision of free basic services has expanded to cover a large number of households in the province and the Ngaka Modiri Molema District in particular. The free basic water has improved the quality of life and wellbeing of many people. Despite the household numbers that have received basic services, there is a huge back log of these services particularly at the micro level in the local municipalities.

² PCAS 2008 notes that the sources cited were from various departments' – Housing, Water Affairs & Forestry, Minerals & Energy - administrative data sets. It also indicates that the number of households used by departments differs slightly for each service.

Table3.10: NWPG performances in the provision of free basic services (2003-2006)

Type of consumer unit ³	YEAR			
	2003	2004	2005	2006
Water Consumer Units	419 183	391 391	393 541	460 885
Energy Consumer Units	29 906	77 237	100 748	112 733
Sanitation Consumer Units	39 900	79 782	63 226	106 472
Solid Waste Consumer Units	42 851	95 621	163 563	180 637

Source: NWPG 2009

In the villages of the district, the provision of some of these basic services has to be stepped up. This is because in many villages boreholes are the main sources of water.

Sanitation

On sanitation, Table3.9 and Table3.10 depict improvement. While in 1994 only 5 065 626 (49.9%) out of the total HH had access, by 2006, 9 057 241 (70.7%) HH out of 12 802 423HH had access nationally. Provincially 106 472 HH had access in 2006 as against a mere 39 900 HH in 2003. Reports of the Ratlou Local Municipality as well as NMMDM from 2003 to 2007 point out that though the VIP type toilet system had been provided in some of the villages, refuse removal and solid waste disposal services were not being rendered in the rural areas.

³ Consumer unit implies a number of household receiving a service.

Electricity

With respect to electricity supply the situation has improved in the province according to Statistics South Africa (2007c) and NWPG (2009). According to the Provincial Government, there has occurred rural electrification and housing and 751,670 households have been provided with electricity by September 2008 (NWPG, 2009: 20). There has been an increase in electricity connections of households with electricity from 32% to 70%. Out of this number 112 733 had been provided with the free service indicated in Table3.7. This was a great leap from 29 906 households in 2003. In the national sector, as in Table3.6, provision of the service jumped from 4 477 400 (50.9%) HH to 9 563 987 (73.7%) by 2006. The Statistics South Africa's *Community survey* (2007) as an evidential of progress shows that even by 2007 the proportion of households that used electricity for lighting increased to 80%.

Yet the municipalities in the NWP have not delivered the service as required to the villages. These villages with the exception of Uitkyk have no electricity. Some have power lines across the village but with no power in them. The project at Mathateng which urgently needs electricity and water for its activities to ensure food security for the community has over the years not been connected to the Eskom electricity grid, despite many requests from the project's executives (MTDP, 2009). The delivery of this service in the area has been slow and insufficient. A backlog of 174 223 still remains to be provided in the province (NWPG, 2009). This shows that the objective regarding energy distribution has not yet been achieved. The quality of life of the poor households still remains untransformed regarding this service.

Housing

On housing, research offered by PCAS (2003; 2008) indicates that in the national context between 1994 and 2003 about R48.5 billion of housing assets which translates to 3 132 769 subsidies was transferred to citizens by 31 December 2007 and 53% of all housing subsidies approved were granted to (beneficiaries) women. The outcomes of providing subsidised housing indicate that a total of over 6 million citizens received housing by 2003 and the number increased to 9.9 million in 2007 (PCAS, 2003; 2008). Though the RDP's objective of 1million low cost housing

provision for over 5 years for the poor was not achieved within that period one could realize that there had been marked progress towards that goal. According to the PCAS's *Fifteen year review* this was achieved in 6 years.

The following Table 3.11 provides trends in the national provision of housing. It shows that in 1995, 74 409 out of the 227 811 housing units planned were completed for 51 065 beneficiaries. By 2006, 2 358 667 out of the 3 042 032 planned were completed for 1 935 087 beneficiaries. This shows a great stride. The housing policy has made the percentage of those living in formal dwellings to increase from 64.4% in 1996 to 68.5% in 2001 and to 70.5% in 2007 (STATSSA, 2007). What is more welcome is that in the Community survey of 2007 the percentage of poor informal settlements, though remained constant between 1996 and 2001, was found to have decreased in 2007 to 14.5% (STATSSA 2007).

Table 3.11: Trends in the provision of housing

YEAR	PLANNED UNITS	UNITS COMPLETED / IN PROGRESS	APPROVED BENEFICIARIES
1994			
1995	227 811	74 409	51 065
1996	458 127	177 611	154 593
1997	717 528	473 422	325 086
1998	940 709	721 813	508 992
1999	1 230 868	883 385	716 384
2000	1 501 782	1 074 028	906 348
2001	1 772 187	1 217 309	1 052 157
2002	2 299 988	1 420 897	1 230 070
2003	2 489 590	1 614 512	1 421 594
2004	2 739 631	1 831 860	1 586 594
2005	2 877 377	2 084 694	1 740 122

2006	3 042 032	2 358 667	1 935 087
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Source: PCAS, 2008

In the study area only about 250 RDP houses have been delivered at Mathateng by 2006 compared to those numbers built in cities and urban areas (RLM, 2006). In the IDP's of both the NMMDM and RLM and their annual reports (NMMDM, 2009; RLM, 2009, 2007), one of their poverty alleviation objective is to provide housing. Though some houses have been provided at Mathateng, there are many residents at Mathateng, Mayaeyane and Uitkyk who need housing and have not received them. They have lost hope of ever receiving this service due to the slow pace of service delivery (RLM, 2009).

A major challenge, among others, which veils the efforts made in the housing sector is the increasingly high demand for houses due to the declining household sizes in the urban centres from 4.5 to 3.8 and increasing numbers of households as a result, together with increases in the population (PCAS, 2003; 2008). The demand for housing has therefore doubled. Meeting the increasingly high demand for housing generated by these factors is a worry and challenge for the government. Unfortunately, majority of the remaining underserved areas which are in the rural sectors are said to be more costly and difficult to reach and require the exploration of innovative political and technological options (PCAS 2008). Thus, in terms of the provision of housing though the RDP strategy had a significant impact on the poor nationally and provincially, it had a limited impact in most rural areas in general and in the study area in particular.

In summing up, there has been much RDP activity in the North West Province since 1994. New schools were built and dilapidated ones renovated. School feeding schemes were undertaken. Primary Health Care centres were also embarked on and built. RDP housing projects were also started. The focus of all these projects was on poverty reduction.

3.3.2 The Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) Policy -1996

To augment the RDP and stimulate more job creation which would invariably reduce poverty, the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) programme, a macroeconomic policy framework, was also introduced and adopted in 1996 (SA Govt, 1997). It was aimed at transforming the economy to meet the needs of the new democracy and lift it to its competitive position in the world economy (SA Govt, 1997; Hooegeveen and Ozler, 2006).

GEAR was to promote increased economic growth and ensure that the GDP grew from a baseline of 2.8 percent to 4.2% and a further 6% between 1996 and 2000 and the deficit reduced to a target of 3 percent of GDP. This would, in turn, generate up to 400 000 jobs per annum, boost exports by over 8% per annum leading to a drastic improvement in social conditions. It was thus anticipated that in the period from 1996 to 2000, 1.35 million jobs would be created. Critical to the attainment of the goals was a significant increase in private investment and non-gold exports, together with increased state expenditure on social infrastructure (Chikulo, 2003; May et al, 1998).

The GEAR encompassed the main goals of the RDP and concerned itself with reforms to make the labour market more flexible, improve productivity, and to increase training and employment of the unskilled. We find here the rise of the non-interventionist strategy of free market orientation, consumer freedom of choice, enterprise and private ownership (Hunter et al, 2003). It again stressed the importance of the issues of economic competitiveness, fiscal prudence and efficient government spending in order to strengthen and stabilize the economy with emphasis on employment creation and distribution of income that would create opportunities for the poor and a stable environment to encourage private investment while restructuring the public sector.

However, according to Hooegeveen & Ozler (2006), despite GEAR, GDP per capita grew in line with the base line projection of 0.6% rather than the integrated scenario projections of GEAR of 6%. Between 1995 and 2000 unemployment kept increasing

from 17% to 24% (using the narrow unemployment rate), and between 29% and 38% (for the broad unemployment rate which also refers to and includes discouraged workers). In the country currently the rate shows a declining trend. It stood at 23.4% by 2009 (STATSSA, 2010; 2009; 2008b). The unemployment rate increased at the beginning of GEAR's implementation because, while demand for highly skilled labour increased, that for unskilled labour decreased during that period. Demand for highly skilled labour has continued since then. A formidable task in poverty reduction confronting the Post Apartheid Government still continues. The government's current emphasis on growth and job creation through SMMEs has led to the decrease in the unemployment rate to the region of 23%. These two documents, the RDP of 1994 and the GEAR of June 1996, represent the most powerful and important macroeconomic policy documents of the Post Apartheid ANC Government.

As Hunter, May and Padayachee (2003) show, although the GEAR policy was internationally applauded for its adoption of conventional microeconomic policies, analysts saw a curtailment of some poverty alleviation objectives posited by the RDP. GEAR argued for a reduced and an efficient state expenditure which was in conflict with the need for increased expenditure on poverty reduction. It has been the feeling (particularly of the South African labour federation, COSATU) that GEAR is capitalistic in content or more capital orientated and that as businesses grow and become more capital intensive in production they would shed labour which is contrary to the objectives of job creation and fuller employment to reduce poverty. But reports are contrary to this view. As reported by Trevor Manuel below, employment has increased with growth. Furthermore, the focus of growth would be in the urban areas and big businesses. Where focus would also be on small scale businesses they would be urban-based, neglecting the rural sector where the bulk of the poor and unemployed live.

3.3.2.1 Assessment of the impact of GEAR

Though the policy was to grow the economy and create sufficient jobs for all, redistribute income and opportunity in favour of the poor the gains expected from the adoption of this GEAR policy were not satisfactory to some organised movements.

The government projected that by 2000 a range of targets would be met to achieve real economic growth but South Africa's economic performance became disappointing at that time. As Table3.12 illustrates, key targets set such as job creation and improved growth rate of 6% p.a. as well as privatisation to reduce government expenditure etc were not met. It was hoped that Gear would create an average increase of 2.9% of jobs by 2000 but the opposite of -2.25% happened. Chikulo (2003) points out that GEAR failed to effectively attain many of its goals between 1996 and 2000 as found in Table3.12, and that the anticipated 6% growth

Table3.12: Projected and actual targets of GEAR: 1996-2000

Key Focus Areas	1996		1997		1998		1999		2000		Average	
	Projected	Actual	Projected	Actual	Projected	Actual	Projected	Actual	Projected	Actual	Projected	Actual
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Percentage of Employment growth, non-agricultural formal jobs	1.3	1.1	3	-2	2.7	3.8	3.5	-2.1	4.3	N/A	2.9	-2.25
Number of new jobs(x1000)	126	-58	252	-103	246	-194	35	-21	45	n/a	29	-225
% of real export growth, manufacturing	10.3	59.7	12.2	6.3	8.3	0	10.5	6.7	12.6	n/a	10.8	18.2
Budget deficit % of GDP(fiscal yr)	5.1	4.6	4	3.8	3.5	2.3	3	2.4	3	2.6	3.7	3.1
Real interest rate	7	12.6	5	10.4	4	15.85	3	10	3	n/a	4.4	12.3
Average real wage growth, private sector	0.4	1.7*	1	2.3	1	8.7	1	2.3	1	n/a	0.8	2.1
Average real wage growth public sector	4.4	0.9	0.7	3.5	0.4	2.7	0.8	-2.1	0.4	n/a	1.3	1.25
Real public investment growth	3.4	5.3	2.7	4.4	5.4	2.6	7.5	-5.4	16.7	n/a	7.1	1.8
Real private sector investment	9.3	7.4	9.1	4.7	9.3	-2.9	13.9	-4.4	17	n/a	11.7	1.2
GDP growth	3.4	4.2	2.9	2.5	3.8	0.6	4.9	1	6.1	3.5	4.2	2.4
Inflation (CPI)	8	7.4	9.7	8.6	8.1	6.9	7.7	5.2	7.6	5	8.2	6.6

Source: COSATU (2000a:85)

rates in GDP now remains illusory due to current economic recession (Chikulo, 2003).

The envisaged export-led growth also did not materialise and most local companies were unable to compete internationally. The irony was that, instead of its promised creation of 200 000 to 400 000 jobs during the period of its existence, 80 000 jobs were lost due to retrenchments and by 1999 the economy had shed off 500 000 jobs from 1994 (Chikulo, 2003). Table 3.13 shows the percentage of unemployment that occurred between 1994 and 2004 to illustrate the performances during this period. This shows that the official or strict unemployment rate increased from 20 percent in 1994 to 27.8 percent in 2004, while at the same time the expanded or unofficial figure also rose from 31.5% in 1994 to 41.2% in 2004 (STATSSA, 1998; 2002-2004). By 2009 the rate had decreased to 23.4% officially and 40.5% unofficially.

One important fact was that GEAR indicated that job creation was a major responsibility of the private sector and government had little responsibility in this regard. However, since the government could not force the private companies whose objectives were to obtain maximum profits from investments to employ, it was difficult to achieve the expected government's objective. However Government could have done that by offering incentives and conducive environment for the growth of businesses, big and small, which could have provided the needed employment.

In the NWP a growth rate of 3.6% was achieved but about 10 000 jobs were lost by 2004 (STATSSA, 2005). The policy therefore seems not to have lived up to expectation. It rather achieved the opposite of its objectives, high levels of job shedding and unemployment. The poverty in the rural sectors worsened. From 2004 to 2010 the major concern for South Africa and the North West province had been

Table3.13: Trends of Unemployment rate in South Africa: 1994-2009

YEAR	UNEMPLOYMENT	
	Official Definition	Expanded Definition
	%	%
1994	20.0	31.5
1996	21.0	35.6
1998	26.3	38.6
2000	25.8	36.9
2002	30.5	41.8
2004	27.8	41.2
2009	23.4	40.5

Source: STATSSA 1998; 2004

the rising unemployment and poverty among many households. In the province, with an estimated population of 2 190 000 in 2009, 290 000 of the labour force of 1 076 000 (approximately 27%) remained unemployed (STATSSA, 2010). The expected poverty reduction and well-being targets were not achieved by this strategy during the period from 1996 to 2003 though there was a noticeable economic growth.

Recent economic reports and government budget statements (2005 - 2008) as well as midterm reports show an increased economic growth of 4,5 to 5%, nearing the target of 6% (Mthombothi, 2006; 2008) In the budget statement of February 2008,

the then Finance Minister, Trevor Manuel, indicated that the country was on the path of economic growth as follows:

... the South African economy has expanded continuously since September 1999. Its pace of growth slowed slightly in 2001 and 2002, and since 2003 we have grown by an average of 5 percent a year. This is the longest continuous period of growth on record. GDP per person has increased by over 20 percent since 2000. During the past five years, employment has increased at a faster pace than at any point in the past twenty years, adding over 1.5 million jobs (SA Govt, 2008a).

All these show the outcomes of the GEAR policy. However, when examining its projections and outcomes, by 2003, it did well on meeting targets of macro-economic stability (fiscal restraints, tariff reduction, inflation control), but fell short of economic performance needed to address the inherited problems of apartheid. These conclusions are still valid. It must be acknowledged that, though the growth rate was low between 1994 and 1998, rose marginally in 1999 and robustly from 2000 to 2007, it does not come close to the estimated sustained 7% - 8% needed to halve poverty nationally by 2014. The questions emanating from this are; has the growth filtered down to the poor in the rural areas? Are the rural poor feeling the joy expressed by the Finance Minister? The growth may not have sufficiently filtered down to the poor as envisaged but some noticeable improvement on the past Apartheid socio-economic conditions have occurred.

The preceding questions point to the need for further development strategies to address poverty. The following are other strategies that have been embarked on in this regard by the various governments: Local Economic Development. (LED), Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa (ASGISA), Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (ISRDP), Social Grants, Project Consolidate etc. How these would lead to poverty reduction depends on how decentralised and participatory the programmes are in the province. These are being dealt with one after the other, some briefly, in the sub-sections that follow.

3.3.3 Local Economic Development (LED) and poverty reduction

For the RDP to completely achieve its objectives a number of complementary Anti-Poverty Strategies were implemented. Local Economic Development (LED) was one of such strategies. Local Economic Development was introduced in the country in 1997 with the basic objective of reducing poverty in a holistic manner by promoting growing local economies (Cunningham & Meyer-Stamer, 2005). In the North West Province where unemployment and poverty persists (STATSSA 2008), there has been a strong need to promote Local Economic Development (LED) particularly within small local communities. The Provincial Government, having realized that LED is a long established tradition in international circles and an important task of Local Government that would improve local standards of living, is pursuing LED programmes and activities in order to improve the income stream for local communities and government as well.

3.3.3.1 Objectives of LED

The objectives of LED are firstly, to bring about local level economic growth by facilitating the initiation of economic activities by community members for the achievement of sustainable economic development and thereby improving the quality of life for all residents in a local municipal area. Secondly, it is to create employment opportunities for the unemployed. Thirdly, it is to encourage and support the establishment of small scale private businesses – the Small, Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMMEs) – and the growth of local entrepreneurship. The fourth objective is to encourage participatory and sustainable development by bringing on board all stakeholders including the big private business sectors into the development arena in a private public partnership (Pieterse, 2004). It thus seeks to maximise the economic potentials of all municipalities.

Accordingly, it is defined by the Department of Provincial Local Government as "...an approach towards economic development which allows and encourages local people

to work together to achieve sustainable economic growth and development thereby bringing economic benefits and improved quality of life for all residents in a local municipal area" (Pieterse, 2004: 8). The World Bank, as quoted in Cunningham and Meyer-Stamer (2005:5), defines it as:

... a participatory process where local people from all sectors work together to stimulate local commercial activity resulting in a resilient and sustainable economy. It is a tool to help create decent jobs and improve the quality of life for everyone including the poor and marginalise.

We can find from its objectives and the definitions above that LED, apart from improving the quality of life for all, is fundamentally an initiative to generate sustainable economic growth that is rooted in the local economy with the local people participating. It is to create jobs in a collective development action. Pieterse (2004) corroborates this when he states that the strategy is seen as an initiative to stimulate and facilitate economic activities that match local priorities ranging from small-scale to medium and large scale-sector operations, and to ensure maximum utilization of local resources. It is to be considered as one strategy in an integrated basket of anti-poverty strategies being pursued by local government through its municipalities aimed at local level economic growth through Small Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMMEs).

It is hoped that by this policy, local level employment would be created by the SMMEs thereby growing the local economy and bringing many people into the income receiving stream while reducing household poverty. However, since economic growth is not equivalent to poverty alleviation and does not indicate poverty reduction, it can itself trigger increasing inequality if the growth is not distributed fairly. To this end, Cunningham and Meyer-Stamer (2005) demonstrate that there are doubts about LED's efficacy. These doubts emanate from the experiences of some industrialized countries and their inability to distribute income from growth to reach the poor. They contend that LED activity is in itself not necessarily an adequate strategy for reducing poverty as it is much more urban focussed.

The antithesis is that LED does not necessarily target the poor but rather increases the capacities of small scale entrepreneurs and therefore is not an anti-poverty strategy. Such an argument must be considered as missing the point if the objective of the policy is measured in terms of the framework which the UNHCS provides for measuring and evaluating poverty alleviation programmes reproduced in Table 3.14.

One can argue that if it initially does not target the poor, the local participation objective may lead to the expectation of a trickle-down effect i.e. employment, awareness and full utilization of the potential local resources which hitherto had not been thought of and utilized for the community's benefit. Thus, no matter whom the policy initially targets in the community, all members would in the end, benefit, either directly or indirectly, including the poor. Government has adopted the policy because it is hoped LED would help poverty reduction by attracting investments to local areas, especially the rural sectors, and enhance entrepreneurial dynamism. This is a possibility if and only if Government actively supports it financially, technically and infrastructurally (Pieterse, 2004).

Nel and Rogerson (2005) also argue that LED is more entrenched in policy than in practice in many municipalities and therefore it may not reduce poverty. Yet they agree that in the end it can fulfil an anti-poverty role provided its objectives are linked to the anti-poverty framework of the municipality or a development agency. Pieterse (2004) and Vanderberg (2006) echoing the ILO's diagnosis of LED agree that it should be considered as one element in a broader anti-poverty programme. Rogerson (2004) also intimates that this could be done only if the municipalities' actively engage their social partners, such as locally organised business groups and individuals and convince them of the need for socio-economic equality by which poverty can be eradicated. Though one can agree with these schools of thought, the problem is that the strategy is capital oriented. Secondly, it is doubtful whether it can be practised in the rural communities typified by the study area. However the private

sector must be convinced that equitable participation in the local economy can lead to a “win/win” situation and uplift the living standards of people in their communities.

3.3.3.2 How to focus LED to be anti-poverty

Pieterse (2004) argues further that if LED can be used for anti-poverty then LED should be geared towards variable levels and categories of poverty that can be translated into clear targets, for example, a gain in local economic growth should be targeted towards job creation and reducing unemployment, or other causal factors of poverty. LED’s approach and strategic plans can also be successful if they attract investment to the local areas as well as the following:

- enhance entrepreneurial dynamism by supporting local businesses through loans, grants, allocation of business premises, and other technical infrastructure
- raising urban productivity by lowering the cost of living and of running business in the locality
- developing the local skills base and human capital
- being community based by working directly with local communities and their organizations and linking profitable growth to redistribution.

The post 1994 RSA government before adopting the LED strategy analysed its pitfalls and realized that earlier failures of this strategy had been due to lack of participation by the poor and that most governments had considered LED as a ‘single dose’ solution to poverty. These considerations were going to be its guide. So, before the RSA government adopted the policy, it had put in place other complementary policies such as the RDP, GEAR, and ISRD programmes. It also considered the social and geo-political economy of the country.

Rogerson (2004) and Pieterse (2004) also point out that the earlier approaches were without monitoring instruments and did not address themselves to the prevailing political, social and economic dimensions of poverty and that is why they failed. To address these, Pieterse uses a framework provided by the UNHCS which is worth

considering as monitoring and measuring instruments found in Table3.11. This is not NWP specific but still applicable to it.

Table3.14 Municipal anti-poverty strategy

Security Access to Welfare & Subsidies	Infrastructure Development	Spatial Integration & Management	Employment Creation & LED Strategies	Livelihoods Expansion & Support
a)Welfare Measures • Pensions and security • Disability grants • Maintenance grants b)Financial and Fiscal Instruments • Housing subsidy • Equitable share scheme • Cross-subsidization • Rates policies	a) Bulk services (water, sanitation, housing, electricity & transport) • Access • Cost • Quality b) Social infrastructure • Health • Education • Crime and security • Legal services, e.g. access to representation, security of tenure, by-laws	• Spatial development frameworks • Environmental policy frameworks (agenda 21) • Urbanization and hostel policy (migration) • Transport policy and framework • Inner-city renewal • LED strategies, e.g. investment linking • SMME promotion strategies	• Public works • Informal sector support • Access into formal jobs • Affirmative action geared towards marginalized candidates • Targeted employment strategies • Vocational and skills training • Social capital • Multiple strategies	• Land reform • Low income credit • Child care • Targeting vulnerable groups • Urban agriculture

Source: UNHCS, 1996:108.

Table 3.14 captures a broad spectrum of possibilities and how they could be linked through participatory methodologies by municipalities and other government agencies to ensure poverty reduction. In this framework it is demonstrated that when dealing with LED, Municipalities should join hands with the provincial and national governments in utilising existing social welfare measures, for example, the social grants and maintenance grants that have been rolled out by government. Pieterse (2004) points out that most anti-poverty approaches stop at welfare and infrastructure interventions. This leads to a welfarist and sectoral approach to poverty reduction. Welfare alone would not solve the poverty problem, therefore, in addition to welfare and infrastructure, intervention should also be targeted on management, employment and livelihoods. This can be seen from Table 3.12 where multiple inputs are obtained from the state, the private sector, NGO's, and community initiatives. The framework again demonstrates that when LED is conceived as a job creation programme, it should be tested for the actual anti-poverty nature of the LED strategy, and to determine whether it adequately focuses on labour-intensiveness, sustainability, equity etc at which it originally aimed (Pieterse, 2004). Pieterse warns that it would be a mistake to define LED as anti-poverty strategy and assume it would necessarily reduce poverty without instituting other complementary policies. It should rather be understood as one element in a broader anti-poverty programme located institutionally in every municipality and different government departments should be committing themselves to it.

Rogerson (2004), contributing to this debate on how to focus LED on anti-poverty, suggests that the guiding principles and activities to meet the LED anti-poverty obligations should be that municipalities and those engaging in the LED initiatives should:

1. Establish a regulatory framework that would shape the lives of the poor e.g. laws that relate to land development, public health etc.
2. Provide the poor the access to a full range of municipal services that include water supply, sanitation, local roads, refuse removal etc.

3. Engage in employment creation and pay attention to the informal economy – the second economy – SMME's and home-based enterprises.
4. Ensure security and protection from crime and natural disasters. The poor are more vulnerable and should therefore have easy access to the judicial system for redress and be protected against natural disasters and environmental degradation.

3.3.3.3 Assessment of the impact of LED

The co-ordination and integration of development actions are of great importance. For effective poverty reduction action, consistent monitoring and integration of activities of all social partners – NGOs and other private sector organisations – are required. All these have provided the North West Province with lessons to learn from and a case to embark on vigorous LED initiatives

From the extensive background given on LED, the North West government's initiative on LED can be seen in the emphasis placed on skills development. According to the DSD, one of the major causes of poverty in the province is the lack of access to skills (DSD, 2006:10). Therefore, the government is facilitating skills development especially for adults to enable them to access jobs and also run their own businesses. SMME establishments are being encouraged and being given priority attention in the award of tenders etc. The Department of Trade and Industry as well as that of Economic Affairs and Tourism are all emphasising growing broad-based SMMEs to which they are giving preferential treatment and funding. Small business establishment in tourism, crafts, fresh produce from vegetable gardening, waste collection, clothing and textile, traditional medicines, street trading and many others have all come into existence, depicting the achievement of LED's objectives. The Municipalities have provided support for SMMEs by assisting with micro lending activities (NWPG, 2009).

From NWP Government's records (NWPG, 2009), it can be found that forty (40) SMMEs in Craft, Leather, Paper, Grass and Beads businesses have been

established and financially supported since 2004 and further 60 businesses were scheduled for support during the next three years. This translates into employment of over 12 000 individuals, mostly the youth. This has had a positive impact on the youth. However, many school leavers continue to roam the streets without accessing the opportunities being offered by the LED strategy.

On tourism business, Kraaipan Museum, Mogwase cultural village and Maubane Cultural Village have been funded by the Tourism Department and respective local municipalities to operate. The establishment of small enterprises such as the Mafikeng Animal Feed and Medical project and other Co-operatives at Mathateng and Uitkyk bear testimony of LED in the rural areas. All these projects augur well for sustainable rural development. The continued growth of SMMEs in the province testifies that LED is providing the entrepreneurial skill and the much needed employment for the youth.

3.3.4 Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategies (ISRDS)

For LED to be successful and integrate its plans with poverty reduction programmes, the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (ISRDS) was introduced in 2000 to assist the rural areas to achieve internal capacity for integrated and sustainable development. This was a 10 year programme to create socially cohesive rural communities with viable institutions that could co-ordinate and focus the use of resources in the local rural communities.

The Provincial and National Governments were to provide resources for identified priority projects while the DPLG co-ordinated the programme with support services being provided by the Independent Development Trust (IDT). Broadly, the programme is to encourage participation and empowerment as well as sustainable economic growth in the rural areas, It is also to support social development and environmental stability. In addition, infrastructural development and delivery capacity is to be enhanced. Specifically the ISRDS's objectives in poverty alleviation are to:-

- Ensure access to Education, Health, Social Welfare and grants distribution.
- Stimulate LED programmes in the rural areas.
- Improve rural service delivery e.g. water, sanitation, and electricity.
- Build access roads to improve transportation and communication in the rural areas.
- Increase household income.

In order to be able to achieve these objectives the White Paper on Local Government mandates Local Government and municipalities to be largely involved in the pursuit of this strategy (DPLG, 1998:17-36). In the North West Province many community projects have been facilitated and are on the funding list of Municipalities, the DSD and other institutions such as the Independent Development Trust (IDT) which serves as a disbursement agency in the Province. They are engaged in the planning of sustainable Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) that would improve the quality of life of households in local communities.

Finally, the continued survival of projects under ISRDS depends on the support given from the funding institutions and the ability, capacity and dedication of the participants in the community projects. It also depends largely on assets held by the community e.g. land, and the status of their assets (Cunningham & Meyer Stamer, 2006).

3.3.5 The Land Reform Programme

The holding of an asset is the point of departure for a community's poverty reduction programme. In the rural areas, it is difficult for households to access resourceful assets. In chapter two it was emphasized that the wealth of a household is its assets. For a household in a rural community, the most important and critical asset is land. Yet in the province, most rural households do not have access to land due to the apartheid policies dating back to 1913 (DLA, 2006: 6, 29). The persistence of this inequality has resulted in the lack of assets and poor distribution of land for the rural poor. Land reform was thus considered as the solution to this problem.

The Government's White paper and other documents show that a large majority of the population are landless. They had lost their land because of racially discriminatory laws passed on 19 June 1913 (Coetzee, Graaff, Hendricks & Wood, 2001; DLA, 2006). The government's land reform policy on which a White Paper was published in 1997 sets out to address this issue. The reform policy is aimed at equitable redress, land ownership and security of tenure, a proper system of land management and poverty reduction. It is to bring about economic development by enabling households to engage in productive land use, increase their employment opportunities and, equally importantly, raise their incomes (ANC, 1994: 19-20; DLA, 2006: 5). This is an important policy if one notes May and Rogerson's (2000) assertion that before 1994 only over a quarter of rural households (26%) in South Africa had access to a plot of land of about 2.2 hectares for agricultural purpose. Ownership of livestock, which the African population revered greatly, was low. Only 24% of households had average of 5.4 mature livestock. The same holds for the North West Province.

In the North West Province (NWP), over 40% of landless households exist on vulnerable livelihoods and rely on remittances and pensions for the elderly household members. This position has not markedly changed since 1994 in the rural communities. It was pointed out earlier in this chapter that the mix of lack of potential asset (wealth) for income generation (in the current context, land), and unemployment, have rendered many people in the North West rural areas very poor, especially those who mostly rely on agricultural land. For instance, in the study area where a population of 22 829 are in the agriculturally related work, and where 49 545 receive no income (eg. 8613 households in Ratlou local municipality received no income), land reform is an important poverty reduction strategy (STATSSA, 2001).

Therefore, with respect to the above mentioned factors, and given the size of the landless population mentioned in the province, it is arguably valid and correct that

Land Reform becomes a contentious emergency issue. Again, given South Africa's history, the demand for land has become a central issue for rural development. It was pointed out in a 1995 research cited in Marcus Eales and Wildschut's 1996 *'Down to Earth: Land Reform in the New South Africa'* that seven in every ten of South Africa's African rural households desired farmland, and it can be assumed that there are equal numbers of those that desire non- farmland for residential and other purposes. However as the DLA's White Paper (2006) concedes, mere access to land does not reduce poverty but depends on the provision of support services, infrastructural and other development programmes. The process of land reform and redistribution which is on-going in the province is worth noting as a poverty reduction strategy.

3.3.5.1 The Land Reform process: Redistribution, Restitution and Tenure

The process of Land Reform has three key elements or sub-programmes namely, land redistribution, land restitution and land tenure reform (DLA, 2006:6). To achieve these, the government has used various legal instruments such as the 1996 Constitution, White Paper on Land Reform and other legislations such as the Land Act 31 of 1996, Land Reform (labour tenants) Act 3 of 1996, Restitution of Land Right Rights Act, 22 of 1994 etc to consolidate its legal position in order to ensure fair redistribution of land in the country and to administer the process (DLA, 2006: 8). Box 3.1 which is derived from the White Paper, explains among those mentioned, the principal land reform laws in the country.

Box 3.1 Principal National Land Reform Laws

- **The Restitution of Land Rights Act, 22 of 1994**, which provides for the restitution of rights in land to those dispossessed of land in terms of racially based policies of the past.
- **The Provision of Certain land for Settlement Act, 126 of 1993**, which provides for the designation of land for settlement support.
- **The Development Facilitation Act, 67 of 1995**, which introduces measures to speed up land development, especially the provision of services land for low

income housing.

- **The upgrading of Land Tenure Rights Act, 112 of 1993**, which provides for the upgrading of various forms of tenure.
- **The Land Administration Act, 2 of 1995**, which makes provision for the assignment and delegation of powers to the appropriate authorities.
- **The Land Reform (Labour Tenants) Act, 3 of 1996**, provides for the purchase of land by labour tenants and the provision of subsidies to this end.
- **The Interim Protection of informal Land Rights Act, 31 of 1996**, is a mechanism to protect people with insecure tenure from losing their rights to, and interest in, land pending long term reform measures.
- **The Communal Property Associations Act, 28 of 1996**, enables communities or groups to acquire, hold and manage property under a written constitution.

There are other numerous laws, which relate directly to land, but which are administered by other Departments or other tiers of government.

Source: White paper on land (2006)

The purpose of each Act is indicated in the box. The reform programme is made up of three principal sub-programmes which are Land Redistribution, Land Restitution and Land Tenure Reform. Land Redistribution is the process of making it possible for poor disadvantaged people to buy land with the help of Government's Settlement/Land acquisition Grant. Land Restitution is the returning of land or compensating victims for land rights, lost because of racially discriminatory laws passed since 19 June 1913. Land Tenure Reform is a process to bring all people occupying land under a unitary legally validated system of landholding. It provides secure tenure of land. Let's look at these sub-programmes in turn.

Land Redistribution

The purpose of the land redistribution programme, according to the White Paper, is to provide access and to assist poor and disadvantaged people to buy land for productive and residential purposes through Settlement/Land Acquisition Grants provided by government. It is to specifically assist the poor, labour tenants, farm-workers, women as well as emerging farmers to improve their quality of life. By land

redistribution, it is hoped that a significant number of eligible people, through assisted grants and services provided by government, would be able to access and own land. According to the Department of Land affairs (DLA, 2006) the reform is expected to achieve a more equitable distribution of land and stability as the number of conflicts related to land disputes, in areas where land dispute is endemic, will be reduced. Land holdings and household income security, employment and economic growth throughout the province would be enhanced. Other related distribution programmes include housing delivery, reform of water rights, infrastructural development and energy requirement (DLA, 2006; May & Rogerson, 2000). Lands to be redistributed are identified lands belonging to the state and private individuals.

Land Restitution

The second sub-programme or element, Land restitution, involves returning land or compensating victims for land rights lost due to forced removals in the Province through the Apartheid discriminatory laws of 1913. This is in order to promote justice and reconciliation. They are to receive their land back through the Land Claims Court. On this matter the Constitution and the Restitution of Land Rights Act, 22 of 1994 provide the legal framework for the resolution of land claims against the state. The objective of this programme therefore "...is to restore land and provide other restitutionary remedies to people dispossessed by racially discriminatory legislation, and to provide support to the process of reconciliation, reconstruction and development" (DLA, 2006: 41).

In the NW Province the government has returned land to many communities. Some have experienced difficulties in gaining rights of land use on their returned land. For example, at Madikwe, the Barakolodi Horde community whose land was taken to establish parks and game reserves (in the former Bophuthatswana) have had part of their land returned to them but face a herculean task of changing the type of land use from parks to agriculture. This is because, according to the National Parks Board documents, land use of that area should be in perpetuity, and worst of all, there should be no co-ownership by government of a park with private agents. This means that even though the land is said to have been returned to the community, they

cannot use it, own it, or change its status. The same applies to the communities that own the Pilannesburg game reserve. The complementary support, additional funds for meeting basic needs on restored land, that they were promised has also not been provided, much to those communities' disappointment.

Land Tenure Reform

The third sub-programme is the Land Tenure reform that seeks to improve tenure security. It is a reform of the past discriminatory laws and practices that made land ownership and rights to land legally insecure. It aims at bringing "...all people occupying land under a unitary legally validated system of landholding" (DLA, 1997: 29). The tenure reform thus addresses landholding, land rights and all forms of land ownership.

The reform reviews current land policy, administration and legislation in order to ensure accommodation of diverse forms of land tenure and upgrade others to the mainstream (Hunter et al., 2003; DLA, Act 31 of 1996). All these are expected to enhance household income security and employment for those eligible throughout the province and, for that matter, the country. Thus the programme's poverty focus is aimed at achieving a better quality of life for the most disadvantaged. Since the enactment of the Act, reform has been vigorously pursued, albeit with difficulty, in the province. Many white farmers have resisted and refused the government's attempts to purchase back farms. They have inflated the prices of their farms for obvious reasons.

On this sub-programme the White Paper makes it clear that the activities related to its operationalisation fall into two categories of action strategy. The first category involves, among others, land acquisition, transfer, assistance with basic needs provision and land development, provision of assistance to groups to establish legal entities to purchase and lease land and finally remove impediments to the efficient operation of the land market. The second concerns the delivery system or its implementation. This deals with the establishment of statutory land reform institutions with community facilitation, planning and implementation skills, managed by well

informed people. In addition, mechanisms are established to plan, co-ordinate and implement financial management as well as monitor and evaluate the process in order to give accurate information on effectiveness and achievements (DLA, 2006: 79).

Aside from land for agricultural purposes, land for residential and industrial purposes is also of great importance. Many poor people do not own land for residential purposes and so live in dilapidated shelters in informal, peri-urban settlements. By land reform and tenure processes government can allocate sufficient space for those at the informal settlements. They could formally own the allocated land and permanently build acceptable brick houses. Land tenure reform is therefore an important element in poverty reduction which the government is pursuing.

Currently the reality is that the Department of Housing and land affairs in addressing land and housing needs have identified and secured land for low cost housing for the poor. They have embarked on building low cost houses free for the absolutely poor households both in urban and rural settlements. Such housing projects can be found in places such as Extension 39 at northern Mafikeng (locally known as 'Siga Lekhekhe') and in some rural areas such as those at Makgobistad and Mathateng, in the Ratlou Local Municipality. The concentration of these houses is in the urban areas because those are the places clogged with more informal settlements.

3.3.5.2 Assessment of the impact of Land Reform

The NWPG governments objectives on land policy was to provide employment, food security and economic growth and most importantly, equitable distribution of land. Towards these goals one could find that restitution in particular had enabled some rural populations in the province to come out of poverty. In the NWP, by 2008, Land Claims of 3 687 were settled which benefitted 149 778 claimants (SAIRR, 2008). The claimed land covered a land area of 412 928 hectares at a cost of R218 381 399 (NWPG, 2009; DLA, 2006). A total of R926 574 191 had been disbursed through Restitution Discretionary Grant; Settlement Planning Grant and Restitution

Settlement Grant. In the country as a whole, 74 747 claims had been settled for 1 415 192 beneficiaries at a cost of R7 785 203 288. Claims and settlements are still ongoing (SAIRR, 2008; DLA, 2006).

According to NWPG (2009) the Province by 2009 had reached 70% of land reform target by transferring 75,000 hectares into the hands of previously disadvantaged persons. 66 projects had been initiated through Land Reform and Agricultural Development (LRAD) initiatives, while 60 Agricultural infrastructure projects had been completed and 31 handed over to communities (NWPG, 2009:49). The tenure and reform processes of the policy have to some extent addressed the issue of social exclusion. However the majority of agricultural land is still in the hands of White owners.

Yet the expectations of many landless people have not been met due to slow pace of delivery and institutional problems. In many instances there have been delays in the complementary support for agricultural production and provision of services which the land policy prescribes. For example, disbursement of grants for land development, the provision of technical advice and skills training as in the case of the Barakolodi Horde community (Vaughan and Xaba, 1996; Carter and May, 1999; 2001). Many claimants were still waiting for re-settlement in the province despite reaching 70% of the target. The 30% left is still a large number.

In another dimension it has been found that though projects are managed through the Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP) and Post Settlement Support Programmes, many beneficiaries have failed to manage, account for and own up to their responsibility once support has been granted. They tend to apply all profits obtained from the project for the satisfaction of immediate needs without regard to future capital requirements (NWPG, 2009). Many radio and Television pronouncements have been made by Government on this fact (SABC, 2009). Government warned to seize redistributed lands which were being unutilised. This is a challenge that has to be resolved.

3.3.6 The Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP)

Another important poverty reduction strategy that the NWPG has attempted is directly stimulating employment through Community Based Public Works Programme (CBPWP) which later became known as Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP). The EPWP is an outcome of a National Growth and Development Summit in June 2003, where it was agreed that in view of the high unemployment rate as well as widespread poverty, government at all spheres must use infrastructure expenditure to create employment opportunities for the unemployed while at the same time ensuring that local infrastructure is developed and maintained.

Furthermore, the employed members of the local community were to undergo training that would equip them with skills and enable some of them to find work in the broader construction industry. The Department of Public Works thus defines the EPW's as a short to medium term strategy and "...a tool for creating additional employment at a local government level by using labour intensive construction method" (DPW, 2005: 1). The emphasis on EPWP is the use of Labour intensive methods in all industrial spheres.

3.3.6.1 Aim of EPWP and its target population

The aim of the programme is to draw a significant number of the unemployed people into productive work opportunities, accompanied by training so that they could increase their capacity to earn income. According to the Department of Public Works' guidelines and framework (DPW, 2005), EPWP is a presidential lead project within the National Public Works Programme introduced to address the rapid rate of unemployment through the utilization of labour intensive methods in all public works programmes and projects. It is also aimed at poverty alleviation, skills training, delivery of needed assets and capacity building. Its general objective is to promote infrastructural development through labour-based construction, targeting women in

particular, and creating temporary jobs, on a large scale. It thus aims to use infrastructure expenditure to create employment opportunities.

Although before EPWP, other labour intensive (projects) initiatives were being engaged, the EPWP made use of these methods an imperative so that all municipalities could realise the job creation potential of the use of labour intensive methods when delivering on the needed infrastructure. The type of labour to utilize for execution of all labour-intensive works is emphasised as unskilled and semi-skilled (DPW, 2004:13). This is made clear to all contractors in their job descriptions and scope of work in contract documents, as contained on pages 4, and 12 to 14 in the guidelines, where contractors are enjoined to ensure expenditure on employment of temporary workers in the proportions of 60% women, 20% youth and 2% persons with disabilities (DPW, 2005:13-14).

Though temporary work opportunities were to be created over 5 years for at least 1million unemployed South Africans (DPW, 2004: 14), the EPWP is also aimed at creating permanent income-generating activities through the operation and maintenance of community assets. Local Government structures at municipal levels were to manage these community development ventures (CICSSS, 2001). Given the unemployment rate, and a large unutilised rural labour force, the use of labour intensive methods in this programme for projects in areas of extreme poverty can be seen as a valuable poverty relief initiative as it provides employment and income as well as skills for further income production or generation. From the quarterly report, in its 4th year (2007/08) of implementation nationally, the number of work opportunities created was 215 704 (77%) of its annual target of 280 000 in proportions indicated above (DPW, 2007).

In addition to job creation, capacity in the construction sector was to be addressed by engaging in a labour intensive contractor- learnership programme. The aim is to produce small contractors qualified to execute work. This aspect is to be handled by the DPW together with the Construction Education and Training Authority (CETA).

The outcome of this will be the acquisition of work entrepreneurship and income opportunities by participants in the infrastructure sector between 2004 and 2009. The acquired training skills were to be employed in other sectors, particularly the SMME sector as the participants exit that public works programme (DPW, 2004:2-5). The targeted population for this programme in the proportions stipulated above include the following:

- The unemployed, able and willing to work,
- The largely unskilled,
- People not receiving social grants,
- The poor,
- Women,
- People living with disabilities,
- The youth (70% of unemployed are youth).



The EPWP is divided into 4 sectors, environment and cultural, social, economic, and infrastructure. For each of these, a Government Department is nominated to lead its implementation. While the social sector is led by the DSD, environment and culture is being led by the Department of Agriculture, Environmental Affairs and Tourism, infrastructure by Public Works and economic by the Department of Economic Affairs (DEAT, 2004:3)

3.3.6.2 EPWP implemented cases in the North West Province

The implementation of the EPWP in 2004 was in response to the NWPG poverty reduction objective of Job creation and skills training. According to the provincial government (NWPG, 2009), EPWP was a programme to create temporary employment opportunities and provide skills training for a number of unemployed people who were to graduate and enter into productive work. It was to increase their capacity to earn income in the future. While the national target was 1million temporary work opportunities, the North West share was given as 100 000 over

5year period, up to 2009, and was launched under the brand name *Semelela* (NWPG, 2009).

The implementation of this programme has taken place in many districts and local municipalities of the province. The EPWP in the Ngaka Modiri Molema district has been under the auspices of North West Department of Public Works, Department of Labour and Mafikeng Local Municipality. The Naledi Life Skills Training and AIDS Information Centre in Mafikeng gives skills training, care and support to the people infected and affected by HIV and AIDS. In this Ngaka Modiri Molema District Municipality (NMMDM), one such project was undertaken in Mmabatho in 2006. It was the Mmabatho Paving and Landscaping project. The project paved and upgraded roads, parks and the landscaping of gardens in the central business district (CBD) of Mmabatho around Mmabatho Convention Centre. There were 80 beneficiaries involved. Another EPWP project was the 'Streets Rehabilitation' in Ditsobotla local municipality that created 21 job opportunities in 2003 (DPW, 2005).

Other projects include the 'Railway Block Farming Project' that involves providing training in the form of community empowerment and entrepreneurial development (DPW, 2005). Another has been in the Ramotshere Moiloa Municipality in Zeerust where rehabilitation of existing roads has been undertaken to benefit 37 job seekers. According to records at the district municipality office, 50 projects have been completed which have benefited more than 1400 people.

In Bojanala district, upgrading of cemeteries at Madibeng created 196 jobs. The Rustenburg roads, sewer and storm water drainage created 1566 work opportunities. There was also the construction of roads in various villages in central Merafong City. The upgrading of roads in Dr Kaunda district benefited 371 job opportunity seekers. In Ruth Mompati the project was on 'bucket toilet' eradication and bulk water supply work which created 716 job opportunities (DPW, 2005).

Considering the achievement of this programme the DPW (2007) quarterly report shows that in the 2nd quarter of 2007 all sectors were on course of achieving their

annual work opportunities targets. Infrastructure had achieved a target of 57% work opportunities while the economic sector had achieved 93% towards their annual targets of work opportunities. Environment and culture exceeded annual target by achieving 124% while social sector achieved 112%. Concerning training, infrastructure achieved 12% of its annual target, economic 90% environment 24% and social sector 24% by September 2007/08 (DPW, 2007:6). The infrastructure sector in the North West had achieved 37% of its annual work-opportunities targets. The overall number of projects per sector in the province indicates, Economic 00, Environment and Culture 57, Infrastructure 106 and Social 343 projects (DPW, 2007:20).

The above shows a significant achievement but seems to scratch only the surface of the problem if the total population of the unemployed in the province is taken into consideration. This notwithstanding, all the strategies discussed, from RDP through to EPWP, show that there has been a significant achievement and a shift of social spending away from the affluent to the poor and formerly disadvantaged. It also shows that government's poverty reduction strategies have been very dynamic. As new programmes are launched and expanded, existing ones are revised to deal with asset and capability poverty, while others are launched to reinforce the addressing of newly emerging challenges.

Since its launch, R628million has been spent on 427 projects creating 23,786 work opportunities. By 2005/6, 69% (13 800) of its annual target of 20 000 was achieved in the Province. The programme rolled out could not achieve the expected job opportunity target of 100 000 over the five year period or 20 000 per annum (NWPG, 2009). The achievement against annual targets was 36% in 2004/05 and 69% in 2005/06 (NWPG, 2009: 43). Nationally expenditure on it since its launch in 1998 had increased almost tenfold creating more than 3548 permanent jobs by 2003 and over 124 808 temporary jobs. The Table 3.15 shows that only 7 798 job opportunities were created per annum which was far below the target of 20 000. In the Ngaka Modiri Molema District 1,175 job opportunities were created.

From Table 3.16 one could also see that though it has had some impact in terms of jobs created for women (3,056) and the youth (1,385) in the social sector, its impact on the target population has not been substantial. Clearly in Table 3.16 since only a little above half (i.e. R19.8 million) of the budgeted R34.5 million for 2006/07 was spent it is not a surprise that only 4062 job opportunities could be created. Not much therefore could be credited to this EPWP as achievement of its objectives in the province. It has thus had a very low impact in the district under study despite its wide publicity.

Table 3.15 EPWP General Performance Profile for North West: 2006/07

ITEMS	QUANTITIES/OUTCOMES
Number of Projects	179
Budget	R638, 451, 544
Expenditure	R418, 513, 977
Job opportunities Created	7, 798
No. of Women	4, 350
No. of Men	3, 448
No. of Youth	3, 417
No. of Persons With Disabilities	92
Investment Per Job Opportunities	R53 669
Person Days of Work	332, 697
Calculated Number of Permanent Jobs (Person Days/240)	1387
Training Data (Person days)	181, 692

Source: NWPG 2009

Thus, the Public Works Programme, while increasing the provision of assets to the households in communities, is not as efficient as income grants in alleviating poverty.

Table 3.16: Social Sector EPWP Performances 2006/7

DESCRIPTION	HEALTH	EDUCATION	SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT	TOTAL	
Number of Projects	21	21	39	81	
Budget	R21,576,000	R7,395,114	R5,605,600	R34,576,714	
Expenditure	R11,301,500	R3,121,659	R5,409,600	R19,832,759	
Person Days of Work	433,520	46,680	9,240		
No of Women	2,053	362	641	3,056	
No of Men	906	3	97	1,006	
Job Opportunities Created	2,959	365	738	4,062	
Investment Per Job Opportunity	R3,819	R8,552	R7,330	R4,883	
No of Youth	1,239	130	16	1,385	
No of Persons With Disabilities	78	0	0	78	
Training Data (Person Days)	128,825	4,950	1,548		
PERFORMANCE SUMARY PER DISTRICT(2006/2007)					
Region	Job Opportunities	Men	Women	Youth	Disabled
Bojanala District	1,044	121	923	428	26
Dr Ruth Mompati District	1,342	333	1,009	505	14
Ngaka Modiri Molema District	1,175	490	685	291	18
Dr Kenneth Kaunda District	501	62	439	161	20
Provincial Total	4,062	1,006	3,056	1,385	78

Source: NWPG 2009

Nonetheless the programme has been successful, to some extent, in alleviating the asset poverty of communities. Nationally, over 6.5 billion of expenditure has provided 2182 community assets (PCAS, 2003).

These strategies have been innovative, responsive, well conceived and potentially well targeted. But the problems arising from them have been the issue of efficiency in the delivery of services, as well as administrative and institutional barriers to access. This is of great concern. However, these issues are currently being addressed through the institution of performance management systems (PMS), which seek to reward good performance with bonus for the achievement of agreed target outcomes.

3.3.7 The Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa (ASGI-SA) programme

The policy objectives of the EPWP indicate that there is a large army of unskilled labour in the North West Province. The lack of skills has led to people being unemployed and subsequently being poor. Government has felt that citizens' wellbeing is contingent upon increased economic growth. By economic growth, more employment opportunities would be created which in the end would reduce poverty. Hence it is the new policy of the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa (ASGI-SA) launched in 2004 that embodied the core objective of government to halve poverty and unemployment by 2014 (DTI 2006).

Thus, ASGI-SA is an economic plan made up of a range of initiatives aimed at removing obstacles to economic growth. It also deals with the challenges of ensuring that South Africa raises the trajectory of growth to average at least 4, 5% in the next five years and about 6% between 2010 and 2014 when the Millennium Development Goals(MDGs) would have been achieved (DTI, 2006:5).

3.3.7.1 Objectives

ASGI-SA's objective is to accelerate the economic growth of the country through joint partnership with the private sector and communities thereby increasing job opportunities while reducing the unemployment and poverty rate (DTI, 2006). In the

GEAR policy reviewed earlier, one finds that its objectives are to grow the economy, and create more jobs through the private sector. The ASGI-SA policy can therefore be considered as similar to GEAR. However the difference here is that ASGI-SA deals with a joint initiative of Public Private Partnership (PPP) and it is to address the weaknesses found in the GEAR policy and programmes.

According to DTI, the envisaged goal of government is to reduce unemployment to below 15% and halve the poverty rate to less than one-sixth of households. It will not be achieved without sustained and strategic economic leadership from government, and effective partnerships between government and stakeholders such as labour and business. Therefore, ASGI-SA is to be a national shared growth initiative, rather than merely a 'government programme' (DTI, 2006). The initiative's objectives can thus be specified as:

- Growing the economy,
- Improving labour absorption,
- Assisting government to meet its mandate of reducing unemployment and
- Ultimately eradicating absolute poverty by the Second Decade of SA's Freedom,
- Develop scarce skills as there is a shortage of certain important skills,
- Improve services in national, provincial and municipal governments. The services include hospitals, clinics and police stations,
- Empowerment of women to play a greater role in the economy (Mbeki, 2006).

Rationale

ASGI-SA was launched because the South African Government found that there had been a steady improvement in the country's economic performance and its job-creating capacity. It was at this point in time necessary to fast track earlier policies to ensure that the government achieved the Millennium Development Goal of halving absolute poverty by 2014. It also found that although the economy was growing and

other policies were in place, there were inadequacies in the Poverty Reduction programmes initiated as well as skills shortage in the country.

According to DTI (2006), South Africa's economic growth averaged about 3% during the first decade of freedom, from 1994 – 2004, a considerable improvement on the decade before 1994 when growth averaged 1% per year. Mthombathi also in *The Financial Mail* (Dec 2006) reported that since 2004, growth has exceeded 4% per year, reaching about 5% in 2005/6. Expectations for the current strong performance to continue are high and forecasts by banks and rating agencies generally indicate expectations of growth continuing at around 4.5% in the medium term. Business confidence has been also very high (Financial Mail, 2007). The growth rate in North West Province in 1999 was 2.2%, but rose to 4% by 2000 and declined to an average of 3.8% in 2002 (STATSSA, 2005b).

The current growth in North West Province is 3.8%, a little below the national average (STATSSA, 2005). The NWPG strategic planning document – North West 2001- shows that the estimated growth of the province was 2.% by 2001 and 3.3% from 2001-2004 (North West, 2001: 7). Its annual per capita income by 2004 was R9 384. All these depict a healthy economic condition in the province.

Good economic policies, positive domestic sentiment, and a favourable international environment have created the opportunity to consolidate these gains, and to take the performance to a still higher level. With the faster growth rate should have come rapidly improving employment creation. By September 2005, the DTI points out that around 540 000 net new jobs were created. Though unemployment remains high at over 26%, this is considerably better than the 32% unemployment rate reached a few years ago. The DTI further points out that recent research also indicates that the real incomes of the poorest 20% of South Africans rose by 30% in real terms between 1994 and 2004 (DTI, 2006). Yet the rural poor are not experiencing these income increases. Whether the growth can still be accelerated and past achievements

continued, now that the world economy has had a downturn is debatable. In fact the budget presented in February 2009 by the Finance Minister put the expected growth rate at 1.5%. It casts doubt on the achievement of the MDGs and whether there could be any significant reduction in the incidence of poverty.

3.3.7.2 Targets of Accelerated and Shared Growth

As noted above, the growth rate of 5% by 2008 was on target to achieve the country's social objectives up to 2014. Realistically, assessing the capabilities of the economy and the international environment, the government set a two-phase target. In the first phase, between 2005 and 2009, annual growth rates that averages 4.5% or higher was being sought. In the second phase, between 2010 and 2014, an average growth rate of at least 6% of gross domestic product (GDP) was being targeted (DTI, 2006). The targets now have to be revised due to the economic downturn and the official declaration of economic recession by the Finance Minister following Statistics South Africa's reports for three successive negative growth rates from 2008 to 2009.

In addition to these targeted growth rates, the DTI (2006) notes that it was required of the government in its social objectives to improve the social environment and provide opportunities for more labour-absorbing economic activities. Therefore 'there is the need to ensure that the fruits of growth are shared in such a way that poverty comes as close as possible to below 50%, and possibly to being eliminated, and that the severe inequalities that still plague the country are further reduced' (DTI, 2006). The initiative is therefore focused on achieving several objectives indicated in subsection 3.4.9.1 in line with poverty reduction.

There are also special steps envisaged to develop the youth. These include establishment of more youth centres where young people can get advice, strengthen programmes to help people start small businesses, making it easier for them to get loans and training to run businesses. Aside from the youth other disadvantaged groups of people such as women have to be assisted to get out of poverty. In the North West and particularly the Ngaka Modiri Molema district, many Youth Centres

have been opened at Ratlou and other local municipalities. In the municipalities ASGI-SA is complemented with Consolidated Municipal Infrastructure Programme (CMIP), though the methodologies of the two are different. The expected outcomes of all these initiatives in the province are mass employment, economic growth and sustainably reduced poverty among the population.

3.3.8 Consolidated Municipal Infrastructure Programme (CMIP) and Project Consolidate (PC)

The Consolidated Municipal Infrastructure Programme (CMIP) deals with the skills shortage at municipal levels that has retarded delivery of service. It is acknowledged that until recently, LED initiatives have been unsuccessful in integrating SMME plans with poverty reduction programmes. This is attributable to lack of appropriate experience and capacity at local levels. However attempts have been made to address the problem. This is seen in the government's Consolidated Municipal Infrastructure Programme (CMIP) partly financed by the Development Bank of South Africa (DBSA). The programme sets out to address the problem of capacity and skills shortage at municipal levels. The aim of the CMIP is to enable municipalities to provide at least basic levels of services to low income households. It further aims at supporting municipalities through a grant fund to provide municipal infrastructure to improve the quality of life and build sustainable communities.

In the CICSSS (2001) report, one finds that this programme was to make grants available to municipalities to provide services and facilities such as water, roads, storm water drainage, solid waste disposal, community lighting, clinics, cemeteries, multipurpose community centres and sports facilities to the needy. Municipalities were to apply for funding for these projects (National Treasury, 2000b). Community Water Supply and Sanitation Scheme (CWSSS) which was an implementation instrument was set up in 2001 to provide a free basic supply of water to those, particularly in rural areas, that had not benefited from the past. Regarding free electricity, a basic support service policy was approved and named, Electricity Basic

Support Services Tariff Strategy (EBSSTS). It gave subsidy to certain allocation grids of electrified households. The EBSSTS is administered at the local level municipalities. Unfortunately organisational capacity is lacking at the local municipalities which constrains efficient administration of this service. To address the capacity deficiencies at Municipalities Project Consolidate brought in.

3.3.8.1 Project Consolidate

Project Consolidate (PC) was launched in October 2004 to address the weakness or challenges of capacity at municipal level. The PC strategy allows municipalities to identify their areas of capacity constraints in their service delivery and by doing so receive government's support in those areas. According to DPLG (2007), PC is focussed on improving integration and coordination of provincial programmes and the building of local government service delivery capacity through well-coordinated national and provincial interventions. A major specific objective of the programme is to rally the local government sphere in discharging its service delivery and development obligations. Project Consolidate supports 139 identified municipalities some of which are Mafikeng Local Municipality and Municipalities in Bophirima, which are faced with challenges such as the vast area of wards to administer and service; limited capacity to carry out ward activities and inefficient communication links between the council and ward committees.

3.3.8.2 Key performance areas of Project Consolidate

Key performance areas (KPA's) under this programme are public empowerment, participation and community development, human resource development and capacity building, free basic services which target poor households, and appropriate billing system to reduce municipal debt (DPLG 2007).

The PC provides a hands-on support to struggling municipalities. Experts referred to as Service Delivery Facilitators (SDF's) assist them address the challenges they face

which are largely general service delivery. These experts plan specific support interventions and oversee their successful implementation. PC is thus an intervention programme. Under PC free basic water as well as free basic electricity is supplied to indigents.

PC is important to the rural communities because it is this lack of capacity that has led to the backlog of services to them. The intervention exercise can be seen as addressing a major poverty indicator of basic needs among the rural households. It is also seen as the facilitation of actual provision of basic services to communities.

3.3.9 The institution of Social Security and Social Grants

All the strategies mentioned so far have focused on job creation and self initiatives or empowerment to transform the individual and household's well being. However, not all the poor households and citizens are capable of self initiating activities that could improve their poor conditions. Government acknowledges that it has not been able to provide sufficient employment to all who want to work and unemployment is severe among black women, disabled and young people under 24 years (DSD, 1997a). A third (33.3%) of the South African Black women and a fifth (20%) of those aged between 24 -25 years, the most active population, are unemployed together with a high number of those with disabilities. Due to lack of sustainable livelihood and increased vulnerability, many households have turned to the welfare system for income maintenance and social support. Such households and citizens include the old aged, children, the disabled and the terminally sick. Government thus provides welfare grants (Social Grants) through the Department of Social Development and its agency, South African Social Security Agency (SASSA) for those living in poverty, who are vulnerable, have special needs and cannot support themselves. This form of Social Security is considered as a necessity to assist these disadvantaged groups (DSD, 1997a).

SASSA's (2008:5) report describes this welfare policy and assistance programme as an income transfer in the form of grants or financial awards provided by government in the form of an old age grant, a disability grant, a war veteran grant, a care dependency grant, a foster care grant, child support grant and grant-in-aid. Hunter, May and Padayachee (2003a) write that since 1994, government's welfare spending has grown inconsistently but markedly over the period from 1994 to 2003. This is seen in the Social Services expenditure pattern of provinces which grew from 1996 to 1998 by 10% and fell slightly after that. Social Development expenditure, according to the National Treasury (2003b), increased during the periods from 2002/03 to 2005/06 by about 4.2 percent. This increase is also in line with the NW Provincial social expenditure.

There is thus a well established social security system that has the potential to provide a social wage capable of reducing poverty in the country and in the North West Province in particular. In the comprehensive South African Social Security System, social insurance is used to protect those in formal employment while social assistance focuses on those not protected by social insurance, who have no formal employment and need support (DSD, 1997a; Hunter et al., 2003a, SASSA, 2007 & 2008). For social insurance in the social security system there are funds established and from which money is drawn to cater for those who qualify under the fund. The social security fund includes Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF), Road Accident Fund (RAF) and the Workman's Compensation Fund (WCF) all maintained through compulsory levies to cater for contingencies⁴ of particular events.

It is argued by Hunter et al (2003b) that these are poverty prevention programmes. While this work will not discuss social and financial security for the formally employed, it is safe to say that as poverty interventions, and by the insurance act, a large private insurance industry that deals with retirement, health and life insurance is available to cover the formally employed. The unemployed and the self employed can

⁴ UIF addresses the contingency of unemployment. RAF addresses death and injury on the roads. WCF caters for survivors' benefit for workers who are killed or injured at workplaces or while on duty.

access them provided they can pay the premium contributions. However, experience shows that the unemployed cannot avail themselves of any form of insurance for their upkeep. They have to depend on the state for assistance.

3.3.9.1 Social Grant and Social Assistance

Turning attention now to the poor unemployed and the old aged group, the state-instituted and funded social assistance or welfare programme is administered by the DSD through its agency, the South African Social Security Agency (SASSA). It consists of the system of social grants for the most vulnerable people referred to above. Considering the numbers that qualify under this category, the government considers it an appropriate and important poverty reduction strategy.

Hunter, May, and Padayachee (2003a) echoing the point of view of the Taylor Committee which enquired into the comprehensive social system of the country, state that the absence of this social assistance would render 58% of South Africans extremely or absolutely poor or may drive them below the poverty threshold. By means of the social grant, the Taylor Commission indicated that the poverty gap was reduced by 23% (see CICSSS, 2002:59). According to the Policy Coordination and Advisory Services (PCAS, 2008) in the Presidency and SASSA (2007) it is the government's most successful poverty alleviation programme targeting poor and vulnerable people. As its measure of success, it alludes to the large number of poor people accessing and receiving grants which is growing from month to month and without which some people cannot survive.

The targets of the grants (refer to Table 3.14) are the elderly receiving Old Age Pension grant (at ages which used to be 60 for females and 65 for males but currently stands at 60 for both genders). The amount of the grant has been steadily increasing and currently (in 2010) stands at R1080-00 per month. The amount seems to be reasonable given the national minimum wage of R770 for domestic and R1, 200 for farming sector workers. It must be noted that in South Africa there is no

legislated across the board national minimum wage. The Department of labour's Legislation provides for sector determined minimum wages which are based on hours of work and conditions of employment (RSA, 2010). Though the Old Age Grant compares favourably with other sector minimum wage, it can be argued that it is insufficient for the aged because their grant is often shared with the rest of the household, which includes grand children and the unemployed in the household. Table 3.17 shows the grant's progressive increases for all grant recipients from 2007. The disabled also receive disability grants of R1080-00 at the current rate. The grant for the aged is and contributes to income poverty reduction.

Table 3.17 Grant type and progression amounts from April 2007

Grant Type	Amount in Rand				
	April 2007	April 2008	October 2008	April 2009	April 2010
Old Age	870	940	960	1010	1080
Disability	870	940	960	1010	1080
Child Support	200	210	230	240	250
War veterans	890	960	980	1010	1080+20
Foster child	620	650	650	680	710
Care dependency	870	940	960	1010	1080
Grant-in-aid	200	210	230	240	250
Institution (25%)	217.50	235	240	252.50	270

Source: SASSA reports for 2007, 2008 & 2010

In Table 3.17 there is also the target of poor children whose parents receive Child Support Grant of a relatively small amount of R250-00 for a child at the current rate per month. This is currently granted to children of 15 years and less of age (Manuel, 2009). They form the largest number of grant recipients. This is demonstrated in

Table 3.17.1. It is envisaged that the age limit would be increased to 18. Another is the Forster Care Grant received by those legally fostering children of other parents, or orphans, which stands at R710-00 per month.

Another is the AIDS Support Grant or Care dependency grant of R1080-00 rendered to those who are HIV positive or with AIDS who are poor and whose CD4 Count is 200 and below (CICSSS, 2002, DSD,2003). In addition, the AIDS support grant is also used to fund Home Based/Community Care Programmes for children and families infected and affected by HIV/AIDS. It is generally referred to as Care Dependency Grant. These grants are integrated with poverty alleviation programmes in order to meet the basic needs of people (SASSA, 2008; DPLG, 1997a). Centres for this support programme have been established within the province (DSD, 2003a).

The total recipients or beneficiaries of these grants have increased substantially over time from 2.9million to over 5.6million in South Africa. In the North West Province it can be seen in Table 3.17.1 that they averaged about 794 566 by 2006 (NWPG, 2006), and increased to 978 490 by June 2008 (SASSA, 2008). However by October 2009, the number had decreased to 773 801(SASSA, 2009). The decrease is caused by the decrease in the numbers⁵ for Child Support Grant. The number of beneficiaries in the North West Province is 7.9% of the national distribution. Kwazulu-Natal has the highest in the country, 25.24%, while Northern Cape has the lowest, 2.60%. One can find in Table 3.17.1 that the Child Support Grant accounts for the largest number of beneficiaries, which is 54.41% of the total social grant distribution (SASSA, 2008). However, despite the good intentions of government, reports from the DSD show that the Social Grant distribution has been widely abused. It has been fraught with corruption such as those who did not qualify have been receiving the grant (SA Govt, 2008b: 2).

⁵ In the child support grant the number does not mean number of children but beneficiaries.

Table 3.17.1: Grant types and beneficiaries in the North West Province - June 2007-October 2009

Grant Type	Grant beneficiaries 2007	As % of total national recipients	Grant beneficiaries 2008	Grant beneficiaries as at October 2009
Old Age	186 067	8.4	191 836	213 354
Disability	113 581	8.1	100 956	101 287
Child Support	611 625	7.7	637 609	417 734
War veterans	80	3.6	69	37
Foster child			37 680	29 672
Care dependency	7 759	7.8	8 474	8 844
Grant-in-aid	1 494	4.5	1 866	2 234
Institution (25%)	NA	NA	NA	639
TOTAL	950 453	7.9	978 490	773 801

Source: SASSA Report No 7, 2008; SASSA 2009.

According to the Minister of the DSD, by September 2008, fraudulent grants of 333 233 with an annual value of over R1billion had been detected and those names have been removed from the system nationally. Twenty one thousand one hundred and eighty nine irregular private beneficiaries and public servants have been made to repay the illegally obtained grants worth R114 374m (SA Govt, 2008b). In the North West, a total of 133 147 grants were suspended due to fraud, non-compliance or failure to verify details by January, 2008.

In addition to the social grant, there are other short term poverty relief programmes which are only briefly mentioned here, because of lack of space. One of them is cash or in-kind benefits for the destitute. These include Social Relief for Distress, Disaster Relief, and Food (relief) parcels distribution programme administered by the DSD. The Food relief programme is administered collaboratively across the Departments of Social Development, Agriculture and Health. It is a special programme for food security aimed at improving household food security of the resource poor in the rural and peri-urban areas (CICSSS, 2001). These relief programmes are temporary in nature and can be described as poverty prevention rather than reduction programmes (Hunter et al, 2003). The programme issues monthly allocations for destitute persons or households in dire material need and who are unable to meet their most basic needs (DSD, 2003). A complementary support part of this is Food Production Centres and other income generating projects that have been established, encouraged and funded by the DSD and IDT especially in the rural communities, to ensure self reliance and sustainability.

The social security system is essential for healthy socio-economic stabilisation in a rapidly changing economy. In the North West Province and in a society of great inequality as described in chapter 2, the SSS can play a stabilising role. It is important for immediate alleviation of poverty and also serves as a mechanism for active redistribution. Yet it is being abused. Some of those abusing it are employees of SASSA who must have known and utilized some flaws in its administration. It appears therefore that there is no proper monitoring and checks in the system to completely detect those who do not qualify. A watchdog department should be set up to critically check the qualifications of beneficiaries. Furthermore a software to detect children who must have left or leave the system annually due to age but still receive the grant. The software should then red-flag those names and archive them, while it blocks payments into their accounts.

3.3.9.2 Assessment of the impact of the Social Grants Provision

One major anti-poverty programme discussed in chapter 3 was the social security assistance or Social Grants which consist of medium and long term cash transfers to

the poor (PCAS, 2008). It is one of the primary vehicles used by the Government of South Africa to strengthen the safety net of the poor. Under apartheid, Social Grants were being allocated on racial basis. Since the new political dispensation, Government has abolished social exclusions, equalized the Old-Age Pensions and spread the reach of Child Support Grant among all eligible children of all races (PCAS, 2008; South Africa, 1997). The types of grants found in Table 3.17 which are currently being administered by the Department of Social Development through the South African Social Security Agency (SASSA) have substantially reduced poverty in the country, the province and the Ngaka Modiri Molema District particularly among the Black African people who form the majority of North West Province's resident population and the poor. In this regard the PCAS (2008: 25) social sector report states inter alia that "The social security system has proven to be the Government's most effective initiative in reducing poverty and promoting social development" and the Social Grants have played a vital role in this regard.

In the country as a whole, the expenditure on these Social Grants had increased by 3.5 times between 1994 and 2003 from R10 billion to R34.8 billion. Accordingly, the number of beneficiaries increased from 2.5 million in 1999 to over 12 million in 2007 nationally (PCAS, 2008). This is indicated in Table 3.18 which also shows that Child support grant numbers which stood at 34 471 in 1999 had jumped more than 200% to 7 873 314 by 2007, while the number of disability recipients doubled at the same time. In the province, referring to Table 3.18.1, the number receiving child support grant in 2007 was a staggering 402 220 and the number receiving disability grant at the same time was 118733. PCAS's research (2008) showed that in the absence of the grants, 55.0% of the elderly would have been in poverty and 38.2% would have been in ultra poverty. With the grants' provision the figures fall to 22.9% and 2.5% respectively, if all eligible recipients get grants (PCAS, 2008). An overall conclusion is that, social grants have the potential of reducing the number of individuals in poverty from 42% to 24% by 2014. The objective of income distribution to reduce poverty has thus been achieved nationally.

Provincially, this welfare policy can be seen also as one strategy implemented that has had a positive impact on the poor and the general citizenry, particularly in the rural areas such as Mathateng, Mayaeyane, and Uitkyk unlike the others. The policy has taken great strides into reducing poverty of the aged and it can be stated here that it has had a substantial impact on the elderly and on children who receive the

Table 3.18: National trends in social-assistance support: 1999-2007 - beneficiaries

	NUMBER OF GRANT BENEFICIARIES								
Type of grant	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Old age	18126 95	18607 10	18969 32	19463 13	20094 19	20604 21	20930 75	21494 06	21879 85
War veterans	9 197	7 554	6 175	5 266	4 594	3 961	3 340	2 795	2 340
Disability	633 778	612 614	641 459	732 928	953 965	1 270 964	1 307 459	1 332 547	1 429 593
Grant-in-Aid	8 496	8 748	8 529	10 435	12 787	18 170	23 131	27 252	31 722
Forster care	71 901	79 937	85 315	108 207	138 763	200 340	256 325	209 093	398 264
Care dependenc y	16 835	24 438	33 545	43 325	58 140	77 934	85 818	88 997	98 336
Child support	34 471	352 617	1 102 957	1 751 563	2 630 826	4 309 772	5 633 647	7 170 564	7 873 314
Total	2 587	2 946	3 774	4 593	5 808	7 941	9 402	10 980	12 021
Beneficiari es	373	618	912	037	494	562	795	654	554

Source: National treasury cited in PCAS 2008

greatest proportion of the welfare grant (NWPG, 2009). From SASSA documents (2009, 2007) it is shown that a great deal has been done to reduce poverty in the province and in the study area with the implementation of the welfare policy. In Table 3.18.1 the general trends in welfare provision in the province indicates that there has been increasing numbers as well as in amount provided between 2006 and 2009 from 673 814 to 744 236 and R 229 845 936 to 495 155 198 respectively. By 2009 transfers had doubled depicting a reduction in income poverty.

Figures provided by SASSA (2009) for the Ngaka Modiri Molema District Municipality, as indicated in chapter 5, Table 5.9 in sub section 5.7.2, also show that a total of 193 305 beneficiaries received the grant in the district by October 2009 out of a population of 798 783. If one considers also that 30 881 grant recipients were disabled who would have otherwise been begging for alms at street corners or would have been at home dying of hunger, and 51 695 were old aged, then the strategy has achieved its objective of supporting some of the most vulnerable in the society. According to Statistics South Africa, during the past few years, there has been a significant increase in the percentage of 'low earning' individuals and households that receive social grants (STATSSA, 2009).

Table 3.18.1: NW Provincial trends in social-assistance support (2006-2009)

Type of grant	2006		2007		2008		2009	
	Beneficiaries	Amount Rand	Beneficiaries	Amount Rand	Beneficiaries	Amount Rand	Beneficiaries	Amount Rand
Old age	187703	151608	193935	1602689 83.47	188261	1649014 80.75	200558	1945380 73.52
War veterans	101	79764.38	82	68873.91	74	65301.61	40	38801.60
Disability	104792	8455825 2.35	118733	1026746 11.97	120008	1104335 85.73	107667	1089276 79.96
Forster care	14755	1802656 7.96	19965	2030498 1.13	22485	2294915 7.76	26209	2815898 8.38

Care dependency	7200	7030101.42	8061	7182605.79	7967	7449102.69	8659	8742786.
Child support	358010	119716620.84	402220	128463874.93	392534	132705828.71	399087	154228723.68
Grant-in-Aid	1253	283021.10	1587	367730.87	1526	322963.91	2016	520145.47
Total	673814	229845936.00	744583	419331661.80	732855	438827415.1	744236	495155198.50

Source: SASSA 2010

Table 3.19 illustrates the shift in incomes that has taken place in various provinces since 2003 in percentages. When the 2003 provincial data is compared with that of 2007, a significant improvement in grants coverage can be observed in all provinces except Gauteng and Western Cape. For the low earning households with at least one grant, the biggest change for the period was found in North West with 31.5% points increase from 32.1% to 63.6%. It must be noted that a person can benefit from more than one grant. For example a sixty five year old who has a dependant grandchild benefits from OAG and CSG (Sethokga, 2010).

Similarly, those with no grants reduced by the same margin of 31.5% (i.e. from 67.9% to 36.4%). The change is expected to increase further by the end of 2010 as child support grant has been increased to include more age groups and the eligibility age for men for the Old Age Grant reduced to 60 from 65 years. From the perspective of those who receive social grants (SG) in the study area it has helped them to sustainably access food (Focus Groups 1, 2 &3, 2008). 52 sampled households in this category which translates to over 250 individuals have regular access to food and improved well-being at Mayaeyane, Mathateng, Uitkyk and the urban fringes of Mafikeng.

In the same way, based on Provincial and district figures of grant recipients which has been analysed, this study found that there is widespread awareness of how to access the grant by the rural residents. Thus significant progress has been made with regard to the coverage and reach of social grants in the NW province. However,

not all who qualify have availed themselves for the grants. There are pockets of the poor elderly, disabled and mothers who are either not aware of how to apply for the grants or do not have identity documents with which to apply.

Table 3.19: Distribution of grant recipients among low earning households per province (2003 and 2007)

Province	Low earning households 2003 N ⁶ = 11 455		Low earning households 2007 N= 13 425	
	% with at least one grant	% with no grants	% with at least one grant	% with no grants
Northwest	32.1	67.9	63.6	36.4
Western Cape	52.6	47.4	55.5	44.5
Eastern Cape	53.3	46.7	69.2	30.8
Northern Cape	44.3	55.7	64.4	35.6
Free State	46.7	53.3	68.1	31.9
Kwazulu-Natal	42.3	45.7	66.4	33.6
Gauteng	41.6	58.4	38.9	61.1
Mpumalanga	54.6	45.4	65.2	34.8
Limpopo	40.2	59.8	68.7	31.3

Source: STATSSA 2009b GHS Series vol. 1

Furthermore, this policy stands as the major one that caters for a large segment of the poor and helps greatly to fulfil the UN millennium development goals (MDGs). Many studies into the system also argue in support that the system has made an important contribution towards poverty reduction. For example, studies by Boysen

⁶ N is the number of cases in the data base available for analysis of this particular variable and not the weighted totals.

and Van den Berg (2006) argue that social grants reduced inequality and decreased the depth and severity of poverty in households. However, they also found that the cash transfers have disincentive effects on employment and that many who had given up seeking jobs are in some cases highest amongst the poorest households. Woolard (2003) also pointed out that the system had a significant impact on reducing poverty, redistributing income and reducing inequality in the country. Statistics South Africa shows that several studies undertaken by Posel, Duflo etc found that old age pensions were an important source of income for the poor and elderly (STATSSA, 2009). Thus the objective of building social security net and income distribution for the poor had been met.

Though these have undeniably been safety nets for the poor and play the role of reducing inequality and poverty in the North West Province and South Africa in general, the two 'evils' of poverty and inequality in development remain a problem. Again sight must not be lost to the eminent resultant dependency and to caution that while grants play a significant role in addressing income poverty they are not adequate on their own to deal adequately with the challenge, nor are they a permanent solution to poverty.

3.3.10 Poverty Relief Fund

To assist government departments in reorienting budgets to focus on the delivery of poverty support programmes, all the poverty relief programmes have funds established from which they draw money. Poverty relief fund was established by the National Treasury (2003b) in 1997 to finance the relief programme. The objective of the fund is to provide grants for infrastructure in the poorest areas of the provinces and to embark on capacity building and human development programmes by involving the poor communities and households, especially women. From its inception it encountered a number of problems such as under spending, lack of project management capacity, moving outside core areas of expertise etc. However government has strengthened it to be able to fulfil its mandate. The relief fund has

therefore been able to continue to provide assistance for poverty relief projects such as the food relief programmes.

On the subject of food relief, the Taylor Commission (CICSSS, 2001) recommended the adoption of nutritional intervention programmes with respect to poverty reduction. These strategies include integrated nutrition programme (INP) targeted at children aged between 0 and 24 months, at risk pregnant women, between 25 and 60 months, persons suffering from chronic diseases of lifestyle or communicable diseases etc. The nutrition programme is administered by the Department of Health. Included in this is the Primary Schools' Nutrition Programme (PSNP). The PSNP as a presidential lead project of RDP focuses on school feeding, nutrition education and health promotion. All these have received a large amount of public attention and it was hoped they would achieve the outcomes of poverty reduction. Yet until recently the schemes in many rural schools grounded to a halt because the service providers misused the funds provided.

3.3.11 SUMMARY

This chapter has put the poverty situation in the country in context and provided the reasons or the need for poverty reduction in the country. It has identified eight basic pillars on which national and provincial development policies and strategies for poverty reduction have been based and thereafter, discussed and analysed the Government's development policy frameworks and assessed their impact. The national policies and strategies identified are the RDP, GEAR, LED, EPWP, ASGISA, Social Security (Welfare Grants), and Project Consolidate etc.

The chapter has established that these policies have been considered as appropriate, particularly the Social Grant, and have in the process provided the poor with access to schools, and other basic needs such as water, electricity and food. The next chapter provides the implementation strategies for the policies in the NWP.

CHAPTER FOUR

POVERTY REDUCTION STRATEGIC FRAMEWORK OF NORTH WEST PROVINCE

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines the socio-economic conditions of North West province and the study area and discusses the various policies and intervention strategies adopted by the provincial government to address the incidence of poverty among the citizens.

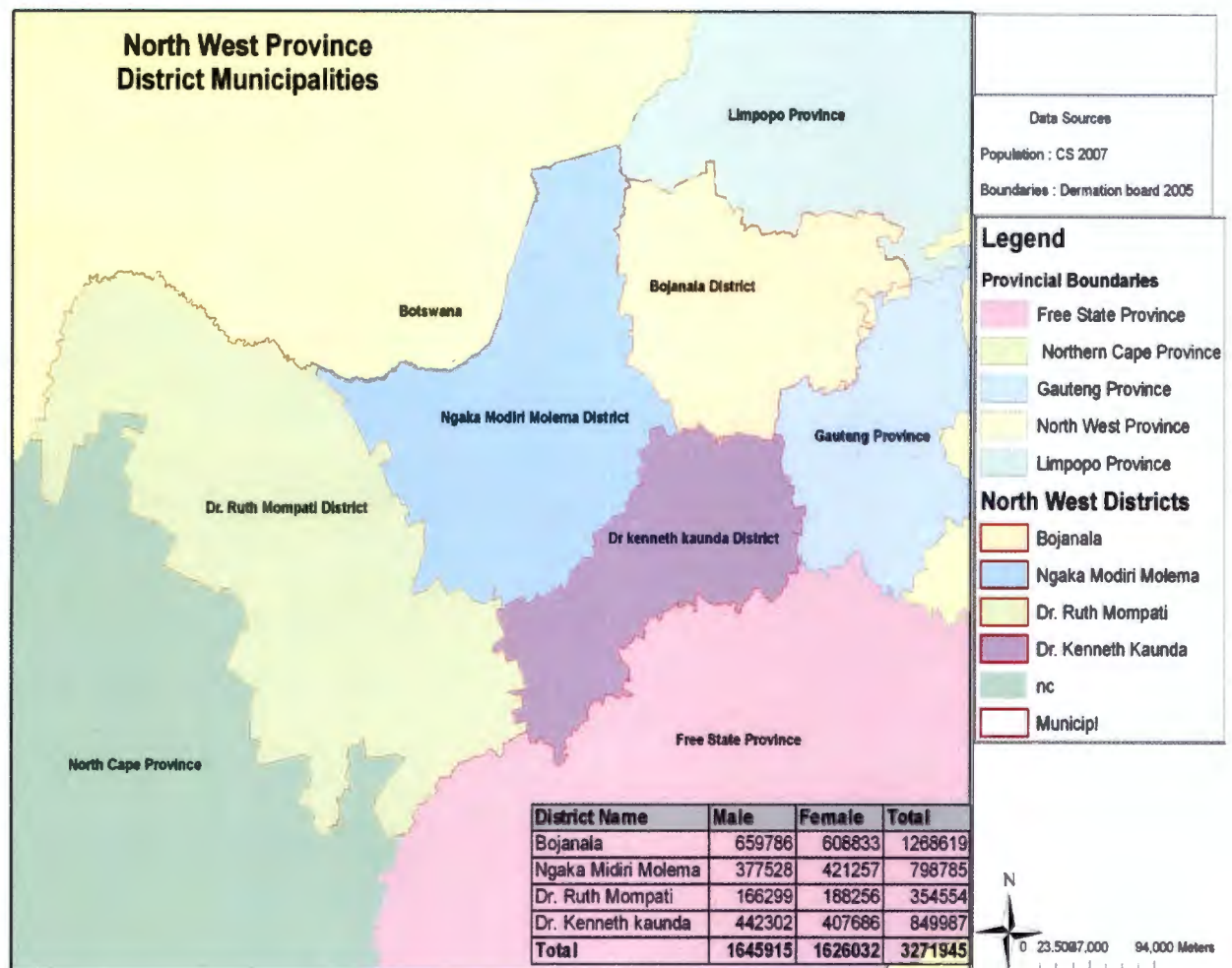
4.2 NWP SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS AND POVERTY PROFILE

The socio-economic conditions in the North West Province have some similarities with the rest of the country but also have some distinct characteristics. So as we deal with the above topic the national status would be referred and compared to

The North West Province (NWP), as its name indicates, is one of the nine provinces of South Africa located in the North West of the country, on the Botswana border. It is bordered by four South African provinces – the Northern Cape to the West, the Free State to the South, Gauteng to the East, and Limpopo to the North. North West Province also shares an international border with the Republic of Botswana to the north (see Map 4.1). Its provincial capital is Mafikeng. Currently, it covers an area of 106 512 km², which is 8.7% of the total surface area of South Africa. It is predominantly a rural orientated entity with a few intermediate towns serving the agricultural and mining sectors (STATSSA, 2010; South Africa, 2009).

Map 4.1

North West Province: its Districts and borders



Source: STATSSA, 2010

Landscape and Climate

The landscape is largely a flat region of scattered trees and grassland. The Magaliesberg mountain range in the north east extends about 130 kilometres from Pretoria to Rustenburg, while the Vaal River forms the province's southern border. It is a summer-rainfall region, with temperatures ranging from up to 33° C in summer to as little as 3° in winter (South Africa, 2009).

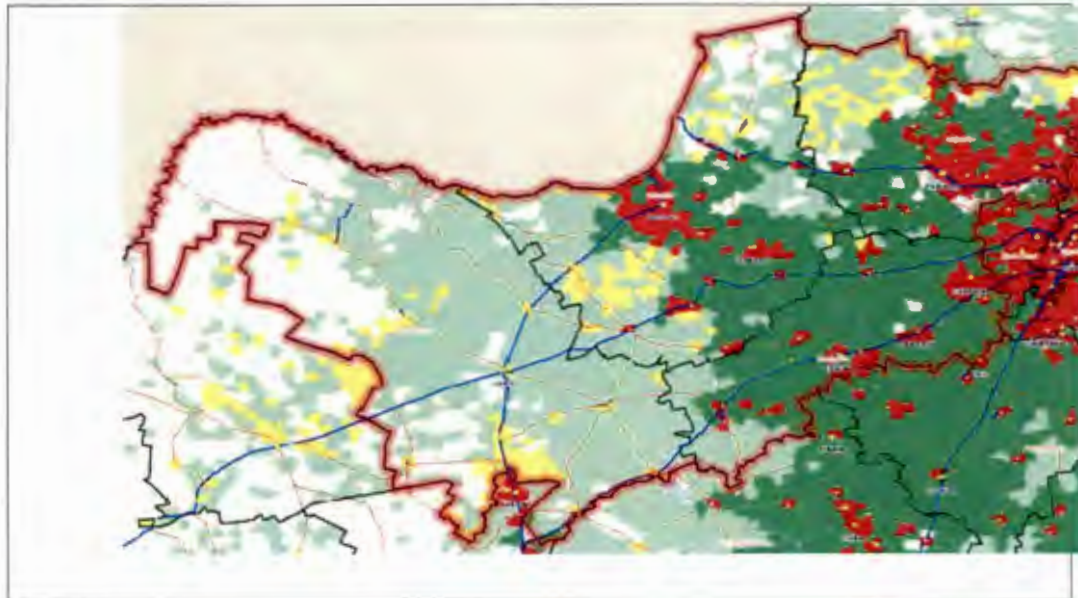
Population

According to the 2001 census, the Province contained a population of 3 669 349 million¹ which was also about 8.2% of South Africa's population of approximately 44 million by that census date. South Africa's population has now grown to 48.5 million by mid-2006 estimates. Due to new and on-going provincial border demarcations that started in 2005, many changes in the size of population in all the South African Provinces since census 2001 have resulted. Table 4.1 provides the sizes and changes. As a result, the Province's population now stands at 3 271 945. The Province is characterised by a low population density particularly in the west but high in the east where more than 83.3% of its economic activities take place (STATSSA, 2007). Map 4.2 demonstrates NWP population density and accessibility. It is home to 794352 households which is 7.3% of South Africa's total households (STATSSA, 2007).

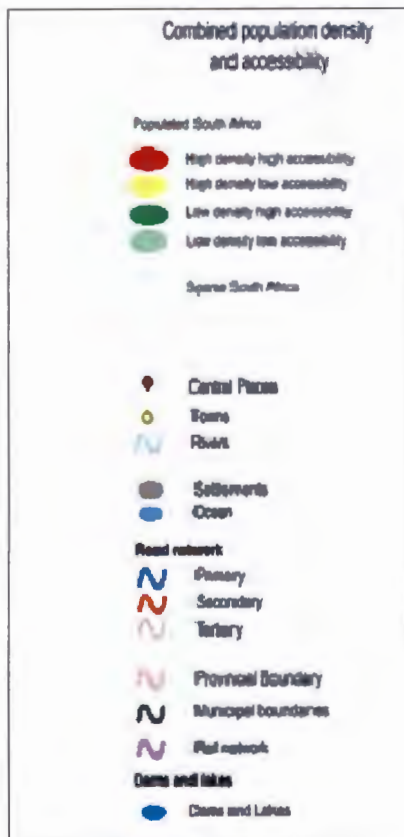
The NWP's 1996 census population was 2 936 554, in 2001 it is indicated as 3 193 676 which shows a percentage change of 8.8%. STATSSA's community Survey of 2007 gives the current population as 3 271 945 with a percentage change of 2.5. The overall population growth in North West Province is estimated to have decreased from 1.4% in 1997 to 1.1% by 2005. The current growth rate is 1.2% (STATSSA, 2007). The figures imply annual fluctuations. This could imply a slowdown of the rate of population growth, which in real terms, is caused by border re-demarcations that have moved some populations to other provinces, or intra provincial migration, or the impact of HIV/AIDS (Punt, Pauw, & Van Schoor, 2005; STATSSA, 2007).

¹ Based on the new provincial and municipal boundaries of 2006 the current population of NWP according to STATSSA (2007) CS is 3 271 945 and that of SA is 48 502 063. North West Population has decreased due to loss of the Kgalahadi district to Northern Cape. It must be noted that North West past population figures seem to be conflicting with census 2001 figures. This is due to the fact that some areas especially Thaba 'Nchu which was part of North West by 2001 was added to Free State and this had influenced the population figure given by CS 2007 shown in Table 4.1.

Map 4.2: Population density and accessibility



Legend



Source: NWPSDF, 2008

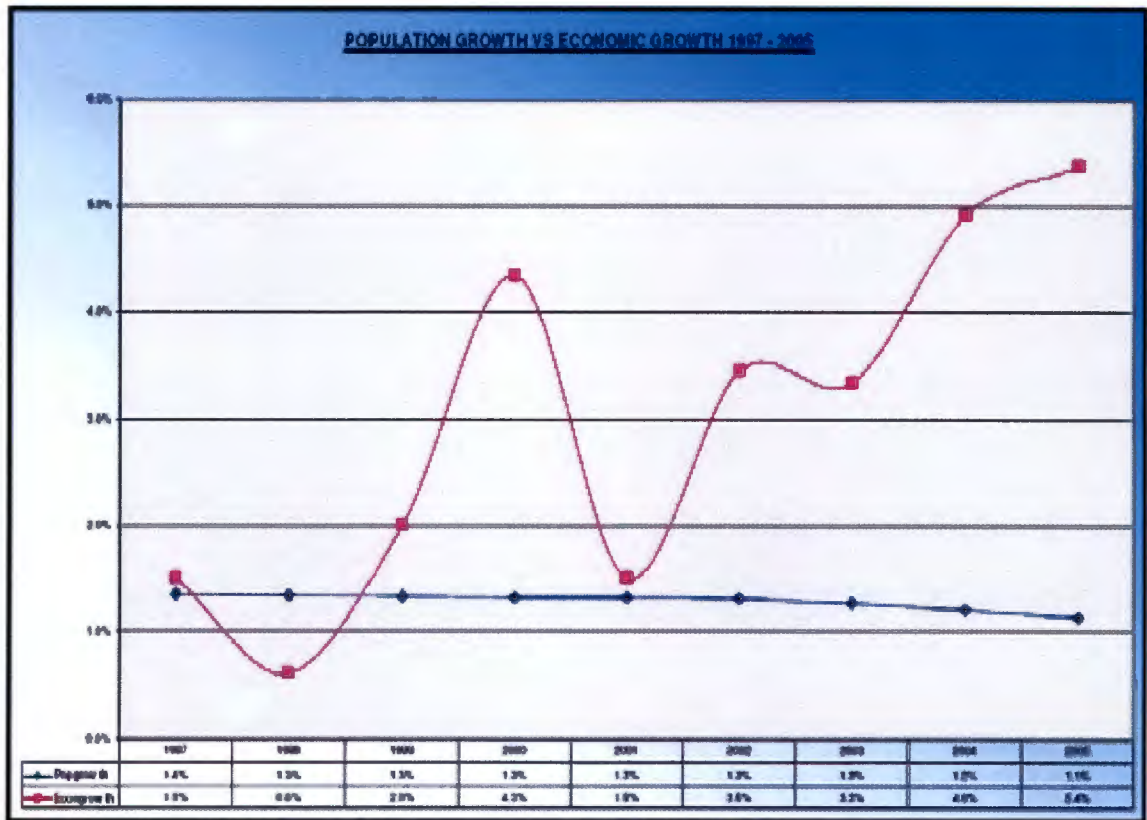
Table 4.1 Total population by provinces – Censuses 1996, 2001, and CS 2007

Province	Census 1996	Census 2001	% Change 1996/2001	CS 2007	% Change 2001/20 07
Eastern Cape	6 147 244	6 278 651	2,1	6 527 747	4,0
Free State	2 633 504	2 706 775	2,8	2 773 059	2,4
Gauteng	7 624 893	9 178 873	20,4	10 451 713	13,9
Kwazulu- Natal	8 572 302	9 584 129	11,8	10 259 230	7,0
Limpopo	4 576 133	4 995 534	9,2	5 238 286	4,9
Mpumalanga	3 124 203	3 365 885	7,7	3 643 435	8,2
Northern Cape	1 011 864	991 919	-2,0	1 058 060	6,7
North West	2 936 554	3 193 676	8,8	3 271 945	2,5
Western Cape	3 956 875	4 524 335	14,3	5 278 585	16,7
South Africa	40 583 573	44 819 778	10,4	48 502 063	8,2

Source: STATSSA, 2007

The NWP experienced estimated migration streams from all provinces with an out flow of 55 500 persons by 2006. Fig 4.1 demonstrates population growth rate vis-a-vis economic growth. While economic growth has upward swings and fluctuations, population growth shows a steady slow decline. This decline signifies an annual economic growth rate in excess of population growth rate. What implication does this have for poverty? All else being equal, the implication is that government has sufficient income to bridge the poverty gap and to invest in poverty reduction projects, and that the incidence of poverty is also low. But this has not been the case due to the extent of the backlog of services to be delivered.

Figure 4.1: NWP Population growth compared with economic growth for the 1997- 2005 period



Source: Schoeman, 2008

Thus, a summary of the population structure of NWP reveals the following characteristics:

- The NWP has a total population of approximately 3.2 - 3.3million.
- The current annual population growth rate is 1.2 % per annum.
- The NWP population is predominantly rural, with 65.1% residing in rural areas and 34.9% residing in urban areas.
- The majority of the NWP population is located in the Bojanala Platinum District which also has the densest demographic distribution (208 people per square kilometre).
- Dr Ruth Mompati District has the least population and also the lowest demographic density (10.43 people/km²).
- About 30.0% of the adult population is illiterate, constituting the highest

figure amongst all provinces in South Africa.

- More than 33% of the population is younger than 14 years old.
- The official unemployment rate in NWP is 27% (the fourth highest at national level).
- It is estimated that over 55.0 % of people in NWP live in poverty (the third highest rate nationally (STATSSA, 2007; Punt et al, 2005; Schoeman, 2008).
- The proportion of female to male is 49.2% to 50.8%. Alternatively this can also be expressed as sex ratio. The sex ratio is the ratio of males to females in a given population, usually expressed as the number of males for every 100 females. The sex ratio at birth in 1996 was 102 and 101 in 2001 as well as 2007. This means in 2007 there were 101 males for every 100 females in the NWP (NW Pop Unit, 2009). As a result of some demographic processes such as migration etc. women may outnumber men in some age categories. For example, the elderly whose sex ratio is 69, i.e. for every 100 elderly women there are 69 elderly men.
- There is in existence a large labour force which constitutes 65% of the population and a dependency rate of 35%. About 40% of the labour force is unemployed. This in part, accounts for the number of poor people in the province (NW Pop Unit, 2009).

4.2.1 The Districts

The province has four District Municipalities made up of 21 Local Municipalities which Table 4.2 and Map 4.3 depict. These are Bojanala to the east, Ngaka Modiri Molema district which is at the centre of the province, Dr Kenneth Kaunda (Southern) district to the South and Dr Ruth Segomotsi Mompati (Bophirima), to the West (see Map 4.1). These districts have recently been redemarcated as directed by the Local Government Municipal Structures Act (1998) and renamed as Bojanala Platinum, Ngaka Modiri Molema, in which the provincial Capital Mafikeng is located, Dr Kenneth Kaunda, and Dr Ruth Segomotsi Mompati districts respectively (Statistics SA, 2004).

Map 4.3: The Districts of NWP

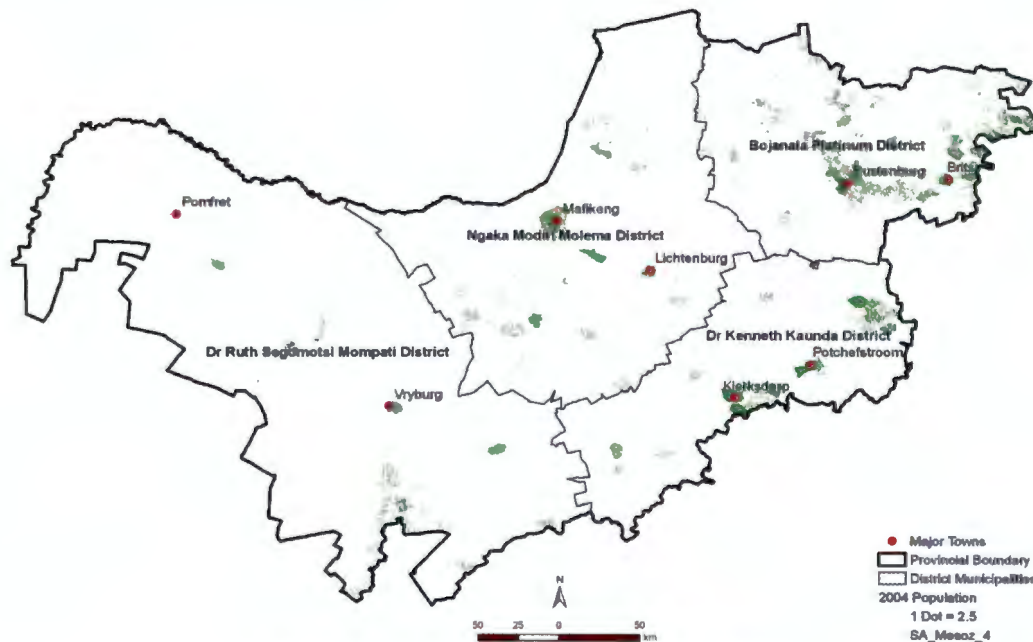


Figure 2-2: Population distribution and density for 2004 (CSIR, 2007)

The Table 4.2 shows that Bojanala Platinum district consists of five local municipalities – Moretele, Madibeng, Rustenburg, Kgetleng River and Moses Kotane. The Ngaka Modiri Molema district is formed by Mafikeng, Ratlou, Tswaing, Ditsobotla and Ramotshere Moiloa local municipalities. Dr Kenneth Kaunda district consists of Klerksdorp, Ventersdorp, Potchefstroom and Maquassi-Hills. Dr Ruth Mompati has under it Molopo, Kagisano, Naledi, Lekwa Teemane, Greater Taung and Mamusa local municipalities.

According to STATSSA (2001; 2005; 2008c) and as can be seen in Table 4.3 the largest proportion of the NW population (36%) lived in Bojanala Platinum, followed by Ngaka Modiri Molema (23%), Dr Kenneth Kaunda (18%) and Dr Ruth Mompati (13%) by 2005. The 2007 Statistics South Africa's estimates indicated in Table 4.3 show changes with some districts either gaining or losing population.

Table 4.2: District and Local municipalities within NWP

District Municipalities (DM)	Local Municipalities (LM)
Ngaka Modiri Molema	Tswaing Mafikeng Ditsobotla Ratlou Ramotshere Moiloa
Bojanala Platinum	Moretele Madibeng Rustenburg Kgetlengrivier Moses Kotane
Dr Ruth Mompati	Kagisano Molopo Lekwa Teemane Greater Taung Naledi Mamusa
Dr Kenneth Kaunda	Merafong Ventersdorp Potchefstroom City of Matlosana Maquassi Hills

STATSSA. For example, Ngaka Modiri Molema district, the second highest populated district by 2005 took the third position by the 2007 estimates, though it had 24% share of the total Provincial population. North West Province thus has a large surface area housing a scattered community, with different kinds of settlements spread across the province. There are large urban areas such as Brits, Klerksdorp,

Table: 4.3 North West Provincial Population by District for 2005 and 2007

DISTRICT	POPULATION			
	2005	%	2007	%
Bojanala Platinum	1644289	44.8	1 268 619	39
Dr Kenneth Kaunda	682360	18.6	849 987	26
Ngaka Modiri Molema	763000	20.8	798 785	24
Dr Ruth Mompoti	579701	15.8	354 554	11
Total	3 669 350	100	3 271 945	100

Source: STATSSA, Jan. 2005 & 2007.

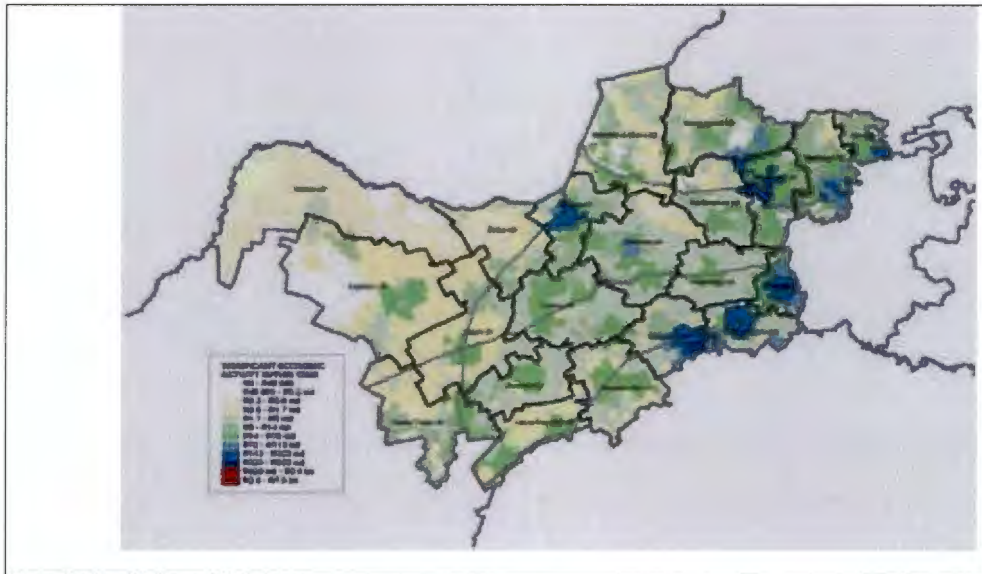
Rustenburg and Mafikeng, none of which has reached a Metropolitan status. Hence all urban areas are classified as cities or towns. There are also many rural villages, informal settlements and farming communities, as well as mining communities. The population of villages around the platinum mines, like other rural areas is impoverished. Rural poverty and rural-urban income differences exacerbate social problems such as violence, crime and HIV infection.

4.2.2 The Economy of NWP

The Province, though endowed with agricultural and mineral resources, has a relatively small economy, contributing approximately 7% to the South African National Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The economy is based on natural resources, mainly platinum. The province has a higher economic growth rate than all the other provinces. Its economic growth rate of 3.8% is contributed to greatly by the mining sector (STATSSA 2005, 2006). Yet North West Province is one of the poorest provinces in South Africa. The provincial GDP per capita of R3 964 is well below the national average of R6 498. Income inequalities are high with a Gini coefficient of 0.68 placing it among one of the most unequal countries in the world (South Africa, 2009; Punt, Pauw, Schoor, 2005).

The main sectors contributing to the economy and employment are mining (35.5%) and agriculture (35%). Mining contributes 42% to NWP's GDP. This sector is dominated by platinum mines and smelters in the Rustenburg and Brits areas which provide 94% of the country's and 70% of the World's platinum output.

Map 4.4: Provincial economic concentrations



Source: Schoeman 2008

The mining sector provides $\frac{1}{3}$ of the total employment in North West. Gold mines are found in Merafong, Orkney, Klerksdorp, and Kraaipan near Mafikeng. The output is about $\frac{1}{4}$ of that produced in the country (South Africa, 2009). In the other economic sectors, commerce and administration contribute 54.9% to the NWP's economy while manufacturing contributes only a little above 10% (STATSSA Jan 2005).

Agriculture is the second most important economic sector, though it contributes 13% to GDP and 18% to employment. The province is an important food basket in South Africa. Crops such as maize, sunflower and peanuts are extensively grown on the fertile plains of the Ngaka Modiri Molema district as well as Dr Ruth Mompati district, while cattle and game farms are prevalent in the Western region

of the province i.e. Dr Ruth Mompati district (South Africa, 2009; Schoeman, 2008). Map 4.4 shows areas of economic concentrations. It can be seen that economic concentration is high in the east and correlates with the population density shown in Map 4.2.

In recent years, however, there has been a significant increase in the manufacturing, retail and tourism sectors. Consequently, diversification and upswing in the economy with a significant growth rate have been reported. Although the economic growth rate figures have been fluctuating, there has been an overall increase in economic growth rate from 1.5% in 2001 to between 4% and 5% by 2006 (NWPG, 2009). Yet this has not also translated empirically to increased employment and reduced poverty as expected. The population Unit of the Office of the Premier (2009) reports that 40% of the large labour force in the Province is not economically active. Throughout the province generally, there had occurred an average employment of 133 000 annually from March 2001 to September 2006, but at the same time job losses of 50 000 annually were recorded. The losses of jobs were bound to have a devastating effect on living conditions of thousands of people.

Incomes

From the income accruing to the province, a breakdown of monthly household income per magisterial district (or per local municipality, particularly the rural ones) indicate that in the majority of the districts of the North West Province more than 60% of households earn less than R1 500-00 per month. In addition more than 80% of all households in most districts earn less than R3 500-00 per month. Phokwani, Huhudi, Schweizer-Reneke, Delareyville and Ratlou local municipalities have the highest proportion of households earning less than R1 500-00 per month. The Rustenburg local municipality has 50% of its households earning less than R1 500-00 per month. These are the households in the rural areas where earning is less and are hard hit with poverty. The income earnings

are indicative of the size of unemployment and underemployment. In many households the governments' social grants are the main source of income.

Land Ownership

The status of land tenure in the province is complex, with the majority of good arable land (60%) being owned privately by Whites. Only 10% is state owned, and large areas are under tribal administration, especially those that were in the former Bophuthatswana, found in the municipalities of Ngaka Modiri Molema, Ruth Momphati and the eastern regions of Bojanala. Very few Africans in those areas own land and the available lands are unproductive. With the current land redistribution programme, government's efforts to give the disadvantaged some land is on track and many emerging black farmers have obtained some footholds on land.

Given that 60% of the population live in rural areas, where they eke out their living from the largely unproductive land, and the majority did not own their own land, unemployment and poverty logically follow. This provides the assertion that poverty is high in the province and in the Ngaka Modiri Molema district. There is therefore the need for increased action on the land reform programme and its delivery.

4.2.3 Employment and unemployment in NWP

The magisterial districts with the highest proportion (43%) of economically active population are Klerksdorp, Brits and Rustenburg. Areas with the lowest proportion of economically active populations are Delareyville, Madikwe, Phokwani, and Huhudi. These areas have only about 20% to 30% of the population economically active. Punt et al (2005) note that by 2005, 97 402 people in the North West were classified as agricultural workers. This represents only 11% of the North West work force.

The 2008 third quarter STATSSA Labour Force Survey (LFS) (Table 4.6) shows that, in the NWP, the labour force at that time, for those aged between 15 and 64yrs, was 1,185,000 out of the total population of 2,171,000. A total of 868 000 out of the labour force were employed, 317 000 unemployed and 987 000 were not economically active. This shows an unemployment rate of 26.8%, higher than the national average of 23.2%. Labour force participation rate was 54.6% and the ratio of the employed to the population was 2 to 3. This ratio indicates that as many as 60% of the population is unemployed and is indicative of the scale of poverty among the population.

Table 4.4 NWP unemployment rate 2008-2009 –Quarter on Quarter

	2008	2009
Quarter 1	22.3	26.9
Quarter 2	22.9	27.7
Quarter 3	26.8	27.9
Quarter 4	25.7	27.0

Source: STATSSA (2010)

Tables 4.4 and 4.5 also show that the unemployment rate has been increasing every quarter such that the rate at the third quarter of 2009 in the province had reached 27.9% compared to 26.8% in 2008. This trend of increasing unemployment rate can be attributed to the global recession. However, by the fourth quarter of 2009, the unemployment rate had declined to 27.0% but higher than the national rate of 24.5% in the third quarter of 2009 (STATSSA, 2008d; 2009; 2010). This decline in the fourth quarter might be attributable to the increases in construction work brought about by the 2010 World Cup project. One important thing to note in Table 4.6 is that while the unemployment rate is increasing (from 22.9% to 26.8%) labour force participation rate (LFPR) is also increasing (from 53.9% to 54.6%) instead of decreasing.

Table 4.5 Unemployment rate by province (%) 2008

	W.Cap e	Gauten g	Kwazulu Natal	N. Cape	Free State	MP	RSA	NWP	EC	LF PR
Q1:08	18.1	22.7	22.7	24.9	25.0	23. 7	23.5	22.3	28.1	31.7
Q2:08	19.1	21.8	22.2	24.7	25.9	23. 1	23.1	22.9	24.8	30.6
Q3:08	19.7	21.8	22.0	22.7	22.9	23. 2	23.2	26.8	27.4	29.5

Source: STATSSA, LFS (2008)

Table 4.4 and 4.6 indicate that the 2008 first quarter unemployment rate was 22.3%, 22.9% in quarter 2 and 26.8% in the 3rd quarter (STATSSA, 2008b: XIV, 5).

Table 4.6 Labour Force characteristics of the NW Province

	Apr—June 2008	Jul-Sep. 2008	Qrt to Qrt change	Qrt to Qrt change
	'000	'000	'000	%
Population 15-64 yrs	2167	2171	4	0.2
Labour Force	11.68	1185	17	1.5
Employed	900	868	-32	-3.6
Unemployed	268	317	49	18.3
Not economically active	999	987	-12	-1.2
Rates%	%	%	%	
Unemployed rate	22.9	26.8	3.9	
Employed/population ratio	41.5	40	-1.5	
Labour Force participation rate	53.9	54.6	0.7	

Source: STATSSA LFS, 2008

Unemployment levels have appreciably improved compared to 2005 when they stood at 27.4%. But the current trend shows that it would be surpassed soon if job creation efforts are not stepped up. The unemployment rate thus vividly portrays the rate of incidence of poverty in the NW Province.

When Table 4.7, depicting unemployment rates by population groups in 2008 is also analysed we find that generally, in the country, the African population, especially African women, have the highest unemployment rate (30.9%), more than 8 times that of white men (3.6%). In the North West there is a large differentiation between male and female unemployment levels which are 33% and 57% respectively. This is verifiable from the Table 4.7 and also confirms the theoretical assertion in chapter 2 that poverty is found more often among women. An interesting scenario is that the white female unemployment rate which is 4.8% in the North West is the highest among white females in all the nine provinces. Among the black female counterparts in the country, North West ranks second in unemployment estimated at 62% (STATSSA, 2008).

A district level comparison of unemployment rates among the various population groups in the North West Province (NWP) also indicates that the unemployment rate amongst the African population is significantly higher than the other population groups.

Table 4.7 Unemployment rate by population group, Q3:2008

Gender	Africans	Coloureds	Indians	White	Average
Male	24.3	18.8	9.9	3.6	20.6
Female	30.9	19.5	14.7	4.8	26.3
Both gender	27.4	19.1	11.7	4.1	23.2

Source: STATSSA (LFS), Q3: 2008b (narrow /official definition)

This is true in the Ngaka Modiri Molema district and in the western part of the province where a concentration of the unemployed is found. In the same vein,

among the female population, the rate far outstrips that of the male population in all the municipalities especially in the mining areas. This is understandably so since mining is predominantly a male domain.

As more people become unemployed, household incomes become diminished. A breakdown of monthly household income per Local Municipality in the Province also indicates that in the majority of the Local Municipalities, more than 60% of households earn less than R1 500.00 per month. In addition, more than 80% of all households in most Local Municipalities earn less than R3 500.00 per month. Phokwani, Huhudi, Schweizer-Reneke and Delareyville Local municipalities have the highest proportion of households earning less than R1 500.00 per month. In the Rustenburg Local Municipality the 50% of households earning less than R1 500.00 per month, are households in the rural areas where earnings are less than R1 500.00. They cannot therefore afford basic necessities.

4.2.3.1 Decline in job creation

Despite the high unemployment rate of 26.8% (refer to Table 4.6), in its 15 years review, the NWPG (2009) points out that the Province's economic sectors have provided employment to a large section of the population (NWPG, 2009). As already noted, although the North West Province's economy is dominated by the tertiary sector, the primary sector (mining) plays a crucial role in job creation, generating 27.2% of the provincial GDP. The second largest economic sector, which is the community and general government services sector, employs 21.1%, while the financial services sector employs 14.2% and the trade sector employs 13% (NWPG, 2009:10). All these sectors have not consistently created employment sufficient enough to reduce poverty. From March 2001 to September 2004, mining for example, employed over 150 000 annually but this declined from September 2004 to below 100 000 (NW Pop Unit, 2009). This decline has been a concern to NWPG as it brought economic hardships to many families.

4.2.4 Education and literacy levels

The NWP has a relatively young population. The ages of about 1 882 428 (50.4%) of the province's total population are between 1 and 29 years (as indicated in section 3.2.1). In 2006, 94% (762,000) of the population of school going age, between 7 and 17 years, was attending school. From Table 4.8 we find that at the end of 2001, NWP had 2337 schools, the fifth highest percentage of schools in the country. This means that approximately 8.6 % of South Africa's schools are located in the province.

Table 4.8 Number of Schools by Province

Province	1995	1997	Rank	2000	Rank	2001	Rank
Eastern Cape	5973	5442	2	6260	1	6087	1
Kwazulu Natal	5039	5573	1	5734	2	5751	2
Limpopo	4026	4614	3	4261	3	4631	3
Free State	3050	1850	7	2500	4	2459	4
North West	2268	2175	4	2304	5	2337	5
Gauteng	2172	1823	8	2204	6	2213	6
Mpumalanga	1924	1967	5	1810	7	1926	7
Western Cape	1743	1873	6	1593	8	1602	8
Northern Cape	533	516	9	482	9	478	9
South Africa	26730	26833		27148		27458	

Source: Statistic South Africa (1997; National Dept. of Education 2000)

However, the education system of NWP is still struggling to overcome problems of the apartheid legacy. These include lack of basic infrastructural services such as water, electricity and toilets, insufficient number of classrooms, poorly resourced schools, and a generally poor provision of education in schools, or fundamental inequalities in access to a better education (Hartley, 1998). Furthermore, there is gender disparity in school attendance. Between 2001 and 2007 there was a higher percentage of males than females in the 5-24 year age

group. The NW Population Unit (2009) reports that in 2001, there were 68.2% males in school as against 67.9% and in 2007, there were 71.4% males against 70.9% females. The challenges facing rural schools are even more complex and intractable. Addressing these challenges requires multi-faceted integrated strategies which are contained in the Government's development policies implemented.

Literacy levels

The latest figures on literacy indicate that the functional literacy rate for NWP, that is, the proportion of the population older than 20 years of age who have completed Grade 7 is approximately 70.0 %. This means that 30 % of the adult population is functionally illiterate, the fifth highest figure among all provinces in South Africa. A careful study of Table 4.9 reveals a trend of increasing functional literacy rate in the NWP. So it has been for every province in the country yearly. The increase has not been high enough in the NWP compared to other provinces such as Gauteng. Unfortunately at the end of this study the latest figures of this trend by 2009 (although sought) were not available to the researcher.

Table 4.9: Functional Literacy rate per province in South Africa

PROVINCE	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2008	RANK
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	
Gauteng	78.9	80.6	81.8	83.2	83.1	83.6	85.4	1
Western Cape	77.6	78.3	79.4	80.1	80.7	81.8	82.5	2
Kwazulu Natal	59.3	61.5	63.3	65.3	67.9	68.5	69.5	3
Free State	61.4	63.5	64.8	66.4	67.3	68.0	68.6	4
North West	57.1	59.2	60.6	62.2	63.1	65.4	65.7	5
Mpumalanga	55.6	58.3	60.1	62.3	64.7	64.7	65.3	6
Eastern Cape	57.4	59.2	60.3	61.5	62.6	64.2	64.8	7
Northern Cape	57.8	58.9	59.6	60.5	61.8	63.0	64.3	8
Limpopo	50.6	53.5	55.9	58.7	62.0	64.1	63.9	9

Source: North West Barometer, 2003

In the NWP there is a small proportion of the population in rural areas (especially the western parts) who have completed at least primary education. The areas with the highest proportions of the population that have completed primary education or higher include the Tshwane Metro areas within (Bojanala) the North West (approximately 47%), as well as the Dr Kenneth Kaunda District Municipality at 45%. The corresponding figure for the Dr Ruth Mompoti District is only 27%. The lowest functional literacy rates are found at local municipality level which are within Huhudi (37%) and Schweizer- Reneke (38%), as well as the Wolmaranstad and Delareyville. These are all in the Dr Ruth Mompoti District Municipality. Another local municipality with a low functional literacy rate is Ratlou within Ngaka Modiri Molema District Municipality. The areas with the highest rates of functional literacy are the Ga-Rankuwa and Potchefstroom districts with 72%, followed by Rustenburg with 67%. These are in the Bojanala District Municipality (www.NWPG.gov.za/s de/stquo.asp). Thus, the literacy rate is high within the urban areas but low in the rural areas, which include the study area.

4.2.5 Health and related issues

Most rural communities in the province are poor and do not have easy access to health service facilities. They have to travel long distances to access health services. There is a huge back log of health service infrastructure provisioning that needs to be attended to. If neglected it will be difficult for the government to contain any outbreak of communicable and infectious disease. As a result the province is experiencing a high rate of HIV/AIDS infection and related deaths. HIV infection rate is estimated to be between 30 - 40% among some population groups. According to the Department of Health, using HIV prevalence estimates based on antenatal clinic attendees, NWP is the fifth highest infected at 29 % after Gauteng (30.8%); Free State (31.1%); Mpumalanga (32.1%); and KwaZulu-Natal leads with 39.1%. The most infected age group is between 16 and 35 (PCAS, 2009).

Hope (1999) points out that as HIV/AIDS takes hold, school drop-out rates and absenteeism among infected and affected workers and learners is bound to rise as a result of illness, lack of motivational support and trauma. Learners may be forced to drop out of school due to shortage of funds or to take care of their sick parents. In the case of educators, and other workers, when they become ill, their working capacity decreases further limiting their quality of work and productivity. As HIV progresses into full blown AIDS employees infected are forced to take long leave to recuperate from long illness. As stated earlier, child headed households and orphans, single parenthood, and street children become the order of the day. All these have resulted in abject poverty among many households in the province. In addition, abject poverty leads to the spread of HIV/AIDS as children, in some instances, are forced to have sex with adults in exchange for money to buy food for their younger siblings (Barnett & Whiteside, 2002).

The Breakdown of the rate of infection by districts reveals that Dr Ruth Mompoti district has the highest prevalence of HIV, with increasing rate of infection (PCAS, 2009; NW POP UNIT, 2004). Dr Kenneth Kaunda has the lowest prevalence rate. Ngaka Modiri Molema and Bojanala Platinum have same prevalence rates, but while the rates in Ngaka Modiri Molema district are decreasing, those in Bojanala Platinum are increasing. This is attributable to increasing migrant labour into the mines in Bojanala district (NW POP UNIT, 2004). Unfortunately, while the population faces the HIV/AIDS pandemic and ill health, access to health services in the rural communities is a problem. The problems of HIV and lack of readily accessible clinics have increased poverty in the Province.

4.2.6 Poverty in the Province

In spite of a relatively small population (approximately 8% of the national total population), it is estimated that 4.6% of all poor people in South Africa live in NWP. That percentage is the third highest in the country. The national poverty rate is estimated at 49.2%, while the rate for NWP is 56.3%. This figure is made

up of 56.7% of the African population in poverty, 4.6% of the White population, 28.8% of the coloured population and 8.8% of the Asian population respectively (NWPG, 2009; STATSSA, 2007).

With the small exception of Mafikeng local municipality, poverty levels and experience in the rural communities are particularly severe in all the local municipalities in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District. In real terms, in all the rural local municipalities in the Province where about 75% of the population live, poverty is deeply entrenched. The areas least affected by poverty are the Rustenburg, Potchefstroom and Brits local municipalities which have poverty rates of approximately 35%. These are the industrial and mining areas of the province.

It has been established in the Province, since 1994 that, the number of households living in poverty and the depth of poverty are increasing annually. NWP is thus challenged by severe poverty and deprivation and other related health issues. It has also been established that rural poverty and rural-urban income inequalities often aggravate social problems such as violence, crime and spread of HIV/AIDS noted above.

The socio-economic indicators of most households presented above, especially in rural areas, fundamentally show that the number of households living in poverty has not only increased but also the depth of poverty is increasing. It is also evident from the above discussion that the socio-economic environment presents the greatest challenge to poverty reduction and infrastructure provision in the North West Province and the Ngaka Modiri Molema District Municipality (NMMDM), in particular.

4.2.7 Human Development Index (HDI)

The HDIs for the nine provinces from 1996 - 2002 are summarized in the Table 4.10 below. In chapter two, HDI was considered as a relative index that attempts

to quantify the extent of Human Development or quality of life based on life expectancy, literacy levels, income and analysis of people's ability to live a longer life. The living levels or quality of life in the North West Province, therefore, can be determined using the figures already discussed on literacy levels, and in the Table 4.10 and others given under socio-economic conditions by Statistics South Africa. The figures for the province can then be compared to that of the country as a whole.

Table 4.10 Human Development Indices (HDIs) per Province.

PROVINCE	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2008	RANK
Western Cape	0.66	0.66	0.66	0.67	0.67	0.68	0.68	2
Gauteng	0.67	0.67	0.67	0.68	0.68	0.69	0.69	1
Free State	0.53	0.53	0.53	0.55	0.55	0.56	0.55	5
Northern Cape	0.54	0.54	0.54	0.56	0.56	0.57	0.57	3
Kwazulu Natal	0.52	0.52	0.53	0.55	0.56	0.57	0.56	4
Mpumalanga	0.50	.51	0.51	0.53	0.54	0.55	0.54	6
North West	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.52	0.52	0.54	0.53	7
Eastern Cape	0.49	0.49	0.49	0.52	0.52	0.53	0.53	8
Limpopo	0.45	0.45	0.46	0.49	0.52	0.52	0.51	9
South Africa	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.58	0.58	0.60	0.60	

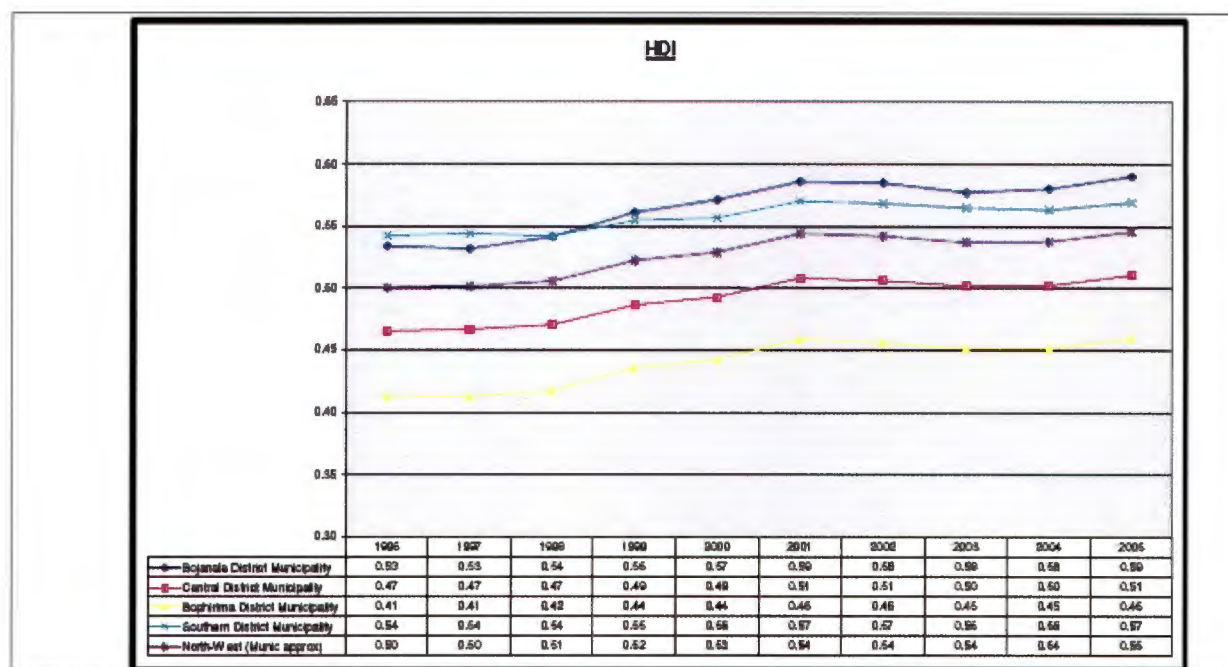
Source: North West Barometer, 2003

The country as a whole belongs in the medium range of HDI scale (0.5 – 0.8) of human development. The Human Development Index (HDI) for NWP was about 0.53 in 2008, but had risen to the available figure of 0.55 in 2009. By 2009 the HDI of South Africa improved to 67.4. The NWP's HDI in relation to the country is low. It is the third lowest of all the provinces and it ranks 7 amongst the 9 provinces of South Africa. This therefore implies that many residents experience poverty.

At the local municipality level, the lowest HDI rates are prevalent in the Huhudi Local municipality (0.38), Delareyville and Phokwani with 0.42. The highest HDI rates are prevalent in the Potchefstroom local municipality (0.61), with Brits, Klerksdorp and Rustenburg ranging between 0.56 and 0.59. Fig 4.2 demonstrates this as HDIs for the various districts.

Recent figures as found in Fig 4.2 reveal that the overall Human Development Index (HDI) for NWP improved from 0, 50 in 1996 to 0, 55 in 2005 (NWPGDS 2007). The districts Bojanala Platinum (value of 0.59) and Dr Kenneth Kaunda (value of 0.57) have the highest average Human Development Index values. The values for Ngaka Modiri Molema (0.51) and Dr Ruth Mompati districts (0.46) are below the provincial average of 0.55 (NWPGDS, 2007).

Fig 4.2 Figures showing HDI for NWP District municipalities from 1995-2005



Source: Schoeman 2008

The levels of HDI inequality between the different population groups is clearly indicated by the HDI of 0.47 for African population, 0.84 for whites, 0.57 for the Coloured and 0.80 for the Asian population. Using the low HDI levels as indicator

of poverty, and again with the knowledge that the province is populated largely by Africans we can without doubt, state that there is a significant level of poverty in the NWP.

4.3 SERVICE DELIVERY and POVERTY CONDITIONS IN THE NMMDM

Drawing from the socio-economic conditions in the province, it can be stated that in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District Municipality (NMMDM), the socio-economic conditions are similar to those obtaining at the provincial level. The current accurate statistical figures for the villages are difficult to come by, however based on empirical evidence and data available noted in sections 4.2 to 4.2.7, it can be confidently stated that economic activity in the district is limited and slow although it hosts the provincial capital.

One of the primary economic activities in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District, which is mining, is limited to the goldmines at Kraaipan-Setlagole (in the Ratlou Local Municipality) and the cement works at Slurry and Lichtenburg (in the Ditsobotla Local Municipality). This provides some employment. The tertiary sector is the main contributor to the municipal economy. However, agricultural practice is of great importance and contributes a great deal to the economy of the NMMDM, and assists in the solution to the unemployment problem. Agricultural lands and farming in the District are found mostly around Lichtenburg and Zeerust areas of the Ramotshere Moiloa and Ditsobotla local municipalities. Pockets of commercial agricultural activities are also found in the Ratlou Local Municipality. In the Province however, productive agricultural practices are found in pockets of agricultural lands in Ngaka Modiri Molema district; Stella and Taung in Dr Ruth Mompoti district and Rustenburg in the Bojanala Platinum District Municipality.

The productive commercial agricultural sector is largely in the hands of a small minority of whites in the district together with a few emerging Black commercial farmers. Thus a large number of the population do not have access to productive agricultural land and so do not work and are poor. High unemployment coupled

with high levels of illiteracy exists. The high illiteracy levels affect productivity and the ability to compete for jobs (NWPG, 2004a). This puts pressure on the government to become proactive in promoting growth and development that would facilitate greater private sector participation and partnerships focused on the second economy, the creation of jobs for the rural communities and the reduction in the backlog of services in the district.

4.3.1 Backlog of services

The province and the district under focus are faced with an enormous number of poverty challenges. This is because, as stated earlier, the province, especially the Modiri Molema District is mostly rural in nature with a low density of population. Available resources are unevenly distributed and services are poorly delivered to the rural areas (NWPG, 2009). In 2001, the NWPG reported an inequality coefficient of 0.6 in terms of income, wealth and basic services delivery (STATSSA, 2001). Due to the past apartheid institution, community infrastructure is inadequate and an enormous backlog of basic services (such as water, energy, shelter, primary health care, land, transportation, jobs etc.), that would take time to deliver, continues to exist in many areas (North West 2001, NWPG, 2004a; 2009). The municipalities have not been able to fulfill their constitutional obligation of providing the basic services needed. Table 4.11 depicts this. This is attributed to capacity deficits at the municipalities as shown in Table 4.12 (NWPG, 2009).

The office of the Premier, based on data from DWAF, provides the following information as can be seen in the Table 4.11 regarding backlog of basic services in the Province and the NMMDM. On water delivery and backlog, it is reported that since the inception of the PGDS the Province delivered safe water to 54 302 households (HH) and had a (cumulative) backlog of 114 402 households (HH) between 2004 and 2007. In the NMMDM during the same period, cumulative safe water delivery shortfall was 42 009 HH. Thus the Province had by the end of

2007 delivered 87.6% of its target whilst NMMDM delivered water to 79.3% of targeted households.

Table 4.11 Basic service delivery backlog: NWP & NMMDM (2004-2007)

		2004/5	2005/6	2006/7	2004-2007
	SERVICE	%Level of access	%Level of access	% Level of access	Cumulative HH backlog
	Water				
NW		73.35	82.79	87.6	114409
NMMDM		58.0	77.7	79.3	42009
	Sanitation				
NW		43.5	60.4	62.7	343521
NMMDM		20.6	50.3	54.0	93465
	Energy				
NW		81.2	81.3	82.3	172,411
NMMDM		78.0	77.8	77.9	43,364
	Housing				
NW		90.3	91.0	75.5	221192
NMMDM				58.1	958

Source: NWPG, 2009

Sanitation delivery analysis shows that the percentage of HH with access to sanitation provincially was 62.7 by 2006/2007. The service delivery backlog stood at 343 521HH. In the NMMDM, the percentage was 54.0 and a cumulative shortfall of 93 465HH. In addition (not illustrated in the table), the Province set itself a goal in 1994, to eradicate the 'bucket system' toilet by 2008 in towns that had them. In March the backlog in the Province was 5268HH. The majority of the backlog, 5 028HH, was in Kenneth Kaunda DM while 33HH was in NMMDM. By November 2007, 3004 bucket systems were eliminated. By December 2007 the system had been eradicated in the NMMDM and in the Province (NWPG 2009; SAIRR, 2009).

Regarding energy, data from the Office of the Premier (NWPG, 2008) shows that the percentage of households that had access to electricity in their dwellings increased from 81.2% in 2004/5 to 82.3% in 2006/7. The number of HH backlog provincially was 172 411HH. In the NMMDM 77.9% had access to electricity while 22.1%, which constitutes 43 364HH did not.

Similarly on housing, the 2004 and 2005 percentages of households' access to shelter were 90.3% and 91% respectively. Yet by 2007, 75.7% of HH were living in formal housing and 24.3% or 221 192HH in informal housing. In the NMMDM 1 328 houses were delivered by the Provincial Government but it fell behind its target by 958 units.

In other service areas such as health and education backlogs were reported by 2007. The Province fell short of its target of only 13 clinics by 8, while the district delivered 2 of its target of only 3 clinics. At the same time the province delivered only 38 out of 442 beds targeted to be delivered. In education, 288 out of the target of 318 classrooms were built by 2007. The 2009 figures provided by the office of the premier point out a huge backlog of services to be provided. Data shows that there are 175 359 Households with water backlog, 437099HH with Sanitation backlog, and 174223HH with electricity backlog.

4.3.2 Municipal capacity challenges

It is evident from the next Table 4.12 that municipalities are faced with financial management challenges that are not likely to be resolved soon. The vacancy rates of 20% for Municipal Managers and 88% for Chief Financial Officers as indicated in Table 4.12 are a concern and explain some of the above constraints and backlogs of service delivery.

Table 4. 12 NWP Municipal Challenges (2007-2008)

Municipal Managers (MM)	Mar-07	Sept-07	Mar-08	Sept-08
Municipal Manager Posts filled	17	18	23	20
No of Vacant Posts	8	7	2	5
Vacancy Rate (%)	32	28	8	20
Number with signed Performance Agreements (PAs)	7	14	16	18
% of MMs with signed PAs	28	56	69	90
Section 57 Managers				
Total Sect 57 Posts	No info	144	152	152
Total Sect 57 Posts Filled	No info	115	No info	123
Vacancy Rate (%)	No info	20.1	No info	19
Employment Equity Appointments	Nil	17	Nil	22
% of appointees	0	No info	0	18
Chief Financial Officers Appointed	No info	No info	19	22
% Vacant	No info	No info	76.0%	88.0%

Source: NWPG 2009

Specific intervention strategies are required to overcome the capacity deficit in municipalities in order to effectively transform the quality of life in the rural communities.

4.4 THE STRATEGIES IMPLEMENTED WITHIN THE PROVINCIAL & NATIONAL SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT FRAMEWORK: THE PGDS

To reduce poverty through the provision of the backlogs of basic services as well as sustainable livelihoods in the Province and the NMMDM the Provincial Government adopted strategies in accordance with the national policy framework analysed in Chapter Three. In order to effectively facilitate the implementation of the strategies in both the Province and NMMDM, various provincial and municipal growth and development *Indabas* (summits) were held and attended by various stakeholders. The *indabas* reviewed and developed strategies (based

on national policy frameworks) that were to push back the frontiers of poverty, solve the unemployment problem, and ensure that the agenda of poverty reduction was steadfastly implemented throughout in the province. Of particular importance were the provincial summits held under the auspices of the Department of Social Development in 2004 at Sun City (NWPG, 2004b) and in November 2006 in Mafikeng that reviewed earlier development strategies and adopted new ones. From these Indabas the government outlined its plans for people development and poverty reduction, focused on priority areas of education, health, rural development and the creation of decent work and sustainable livelihoods.

Relevant offices in the Premier's Department, directorates of government departments, led by the Department of Social Development, and development partners such as the Independent Development Trust (IDT) and Municipalities were obliged to implement the strategies adopted at the PGDS *indabas*. They have undertaken programmes reflected in the provincial growth and development strategic (PGDS) documents of 2005 and 2006. In the Provincial document (NWPG, 2006) which the Province's poverty situation and strategies have been elaborated and from which much has been drawn for the purpose of this thesis, a wide range of strategies were proposed.

The NWPG since 2001 has felt that the solution to the poverty problem lies in the integration of the various strategies into one comprehensive growth and development policy that rests on four main interdependent pillars. The main strategic pillars for poverty reduction identified are, the provision of basic services, creation of jobs, maintenance of social security systems and crossfield programmes of skills development, community awareness and integrated nutrition programmes (NWPG, 2006: 8-9). All the strategic policies discussed in chapter three have been the cornerstones of the province's development strategies.

4.4.1 Provincial Strategic pillars for poverty reduction and development.

In this sub-section we discuss what the province has adapted to suit its strategic development goals of poverty reduction. As can be found in the NWPG's (2006) documents on strategies to reduce poverty in the province, focus has not only been on the general national policy guidelines, investment and job creation but also as the government says, it is a "...commitment to a comprehensive and integrated strategy in partnership with all stakeholders..." (NWPG, 2006). This integrated planning and delivery are all encapsulated in sub sections 4.4.2 and 4.5 and they are to be promoted with renewed vigour based also on seven strategic pillars which are, Growth and Investment, Agricultural and Rural development, Mining and Energy, Tourism, Construction and Infrastructure, SMME, and Training and Skills Development (NWPG 2004, 2006).

Since 2004 the premier has continually brought together all stakeholders to provincial and municipal growth and development summits (NWPG, 2004). Furthermore, a ten-year strategic plan from 2004 to 2014 was developed and financial as well as human resources were allocated to it to ensure the achievement of the development objectives. This culminated in the training, appointment and allocation of Community Liaison Officers (CLO's) and Community development Workers and practitioners (CDW's/P) to various municipalities and service delivery centre's to ensure that the strategic pillars were achieved. In addition communities have been mobilised towards the provision of sustainable livelihoods.

By 2006 the NWPG's adopted a two-front approach to growth and development which it described as support-led and growth-mediated². The support-led front was a strategy effected within the second economy i.e. the informal sector, where

² For a detailed discussion on this see Amartya Sen's 1999 work on 'Development as Freedom' chapter two, where he indicates that the success of both approaches depend on the state's ability and income. While the growth-led waits for a sizeable capital and infrastructure before implementation, the support-led proceeds with any little available income. However the scale of progress depends on income availability.

priority projects were to become the focus for financing. The second economy consists of mainly the informal, marginalized and unskilled sector of the economy populated by the unemployed and those unemployable in the formal sector. It is characterized by "high levels of unemployment, low skills base, limited job opportunities, people living in margins and largely reliant on social grants and money transfers" (NWPG, 2006:6). It risks falling farther behind if government does not intervene decisively. This strategy has been deliberately adopted, particularly in the rural areas where absolute poverty prevails. It has enabled Government to intervene in various ways to reduce poverty. Government has intervened in some communities which have been seriously affected by underdevelopment by mobilizing and financing projects from conceptualisation to implementation (NWPG, 2006: 6).

The second approach, referred to as growth-mediation (or capitalist growth-led), takes the route of modernisation and its theoretical conception. It is technocratic in essence. This has been effected within the first economy, the formal sector, which is characterized by capital intensive massive industrialization and mass producing enterprises, employing mostly skilled labour. The government is encouraging this approach and ensuring the provision of a viable climate as the economy grows. It is envisaged that jobs would trickle-down to the second economy. Though considerable wealth would be created in the first economy (benefiting the already advantaged wealthy) long before any trickle-down could be felt by the poor, that approach should be considered as appropriate so long as in the long run, benefits would accrue to the poor. If the trickle-down does occur, poverty reduction could be achieved during this period of economic growth. This has been referred to elsewhere in chapters 1 and 2. However, evidence from the UN development decades of 1960-1980's in some developing world countries suggests that the trickle-down effect is not effective and might not lead to a plausible poverty reduction in the way envisaged by the NWPG.

Noting the duality of the economy and its characteristics, the call is for a holistic approach by all stakeholders of poverty reduction to focus on the second economy. The support-led approach is therefore what would drive the PGDS to achieve its mission and vision of reducing poverty by half by 2014 and achieving self-reliant sustainable communities where jobs are created through a growing economy. It is very important for the NWPG to follow this approach because the objectives of poverty reduction may not be achieved or may take too long to be achieved if the growth-led approach is followed, given the current world economic recession or downturn.

4.4.2 Approaches and programmes of the PGDS

In the support-led approach, the North West poverty reduction strategic documents (NWPG, 2006 and NWPG 2001, 04), identify problem areas within which one can fully identify the causes of the poverty problem and strategic approaches to address them. The causes of the poverty problem were discussed generally and related to NWP in chapter 2. In the province, these poverty problems are found in the areas of Health, Housing, Agriculture, Funding, Education Skills, Basic Infrastructure, Social Infrastructure, Mining, Tourism, Social Security, Delivery Mode, Institutional Framework, Monitoring and Evaluation and Community Awareness (NWPG-DSD, 2006). Table 4.13 highlights these. It provides a comprehensive tabulation of micro-strategies and features that could be used to confront the problems inherent in the dimensions given. On the dimension of mandate, the strategic approach of Government is mandating a lead department – the Social Development Department – to give financial support for the 4 main pillars of poverty alleviation strategy from the Poverty Alleviation Fund, that is, to provide basic services, job creation, and maintenance of Social Security Systems, and implement programmes which cut across departments (NWPG, 2009).

On health, a comprehensive programme of prevention, voluntary counseling and testing (VCT) for HIV, medical treatment, nutrition, and care have been rolled out. Housing's focus is in areas of greatest backlog which was earlier highlighted. For

Table 4.13 Salient features of the PRS Problem Areas

Dimension/Sectors	Features of the Strategy
Mandate	▪ Government intervention ▪ 4 Poverty alleviation pillars ▪ Lead department ▪ Incubation ▪ Off-take agreement and procurement support ▪ Financial support
Health	▪ HIV/Health, TB AND Child malnutrition focus ▪ Comprehensive programme of prevention, VCT, medical treatment, nutrition, counseling, care
Housing	▪ Focus on areas of highest backlog ▪ Focus on BNG ▪ Implement through EPWP
Agriculture	▪ Focus on beneficiation projects ▪ Support cooperatives ▪ Facilitate Adopt-A-Project ▪ Incubation
Mining	▪ Focus on beneficiation projects ▪ Support cooperatives ▪ Facilitate Adopt-A-Project ▪ Incubation ▪ SMME development
Funding	▪ Poverty Alleviation Fund ▪ Leverage partner and donor funding on a rand-for-rand basis
Delivery Model	▪ Cooperatives ▪ Monitoring & Evaluation ▪ Partner centered ▪ PMO
Education/Skills	▪ Focus on youth and adults ▪ Emphasis on fundamentals ▪ Partnership with SETA's and FET/HET ▪ Apprenticeship at government institution ▪ Coaching and mentoring
Social Infrastructure	▪ Focus on areas of highest backlog ▪ Implement through EPWP
Basic Infrastructure	▪ Focus on areas of highest backlog ▪ Implement through EPWP
Tourism	▪ Support cooperatives ▪ Community based cooperatives ▪ Eco-and cultural tourism ▪ Off-take agreement
Social Security	▪ Maintain social security ▪ Find ways to minimize dependence on grants
Community Awareness	▪ Community forum ▪ Community Liaison Officers ▪ Awareness campaigns
Monitoring & Evaluation(M&E)	▪ Regular M & E ▪ SLA ▪ Performance contract
Institutional Framework	▪ Political champion ▪ Lead department ▪ Owning agent ▪ Work groups ▪ Partners ▪ Beneficiaries

Source: NWPG-DSD 2006: 8

agriculture, beneficiation projects and support for cooperatives rank high. Many livelihood co-operative projects have been established.

Education is being enabled by partnering SETA's and FET/HET's and the focus is on both youth and adults. Social and Basic infrastructure will be tackled through EPWP and co-operatives focusing on areas of greatest backlog (NWPG, 2009:20-23). Eco-and cultural tourism would also be promoted to grow the rural economy, while community awareness campaigns through Community Forums and CLO's are being enhanced. The maintenance of Social Security and finding other ways of minimizing dependence on grants are also on-going.

4.4.2.1 The four main strategic pillars and related approaches

The main strategic pillars for poverty reduction identified by the North West government are, the provision of basic services, creation of jobs, maintenance of social security systems and Crossfield programmes of skills development, community awareness and integrated nutrition programmes (NWPG, 2006: 8-9). Strategies related to these pillars are firstly, the adoption of the support-led intervention where government's intervention is deliberate to ensure that poverty reduction takes place. This strategy focuses on specific needs.

Since the economy of the province has grown to a high of 3.8% (point of departure on NWP growth in the context of this thesis), the second approach of growth mediated strategy is being pursued to ensure that a minimal level of economic growth continues to be achieved to support four main pillars of PR strategies. The third strategy emphasises beneficiation programmes and opportunities within the industry sectors of agriculture, mining and tourism. This is within the policy context of the ISRDS and LED.

An example of such beneficiation is illustrated in Figure 4.3, adapted from the NWPG (2006) document to demonstrate beneficiation's benefits in job creation and entrepreneurial opportunities in a value chain. In this strategy, using breeding livestock

as an example, various job opportunities would be created for producers of animal feed, jobs in the retailing and auctioneering fields and the abattoirs. These sectors will in turn create employment opportunities in hide trade, manure or organic fertilizers etc. Further job opportunities would be found in the production of organic fertilizers, beef stock, and tannery etc. Next in line will be those in the leather goods production and trade. It can be noted that this beneficiation strategy offers numerous job opportunities.

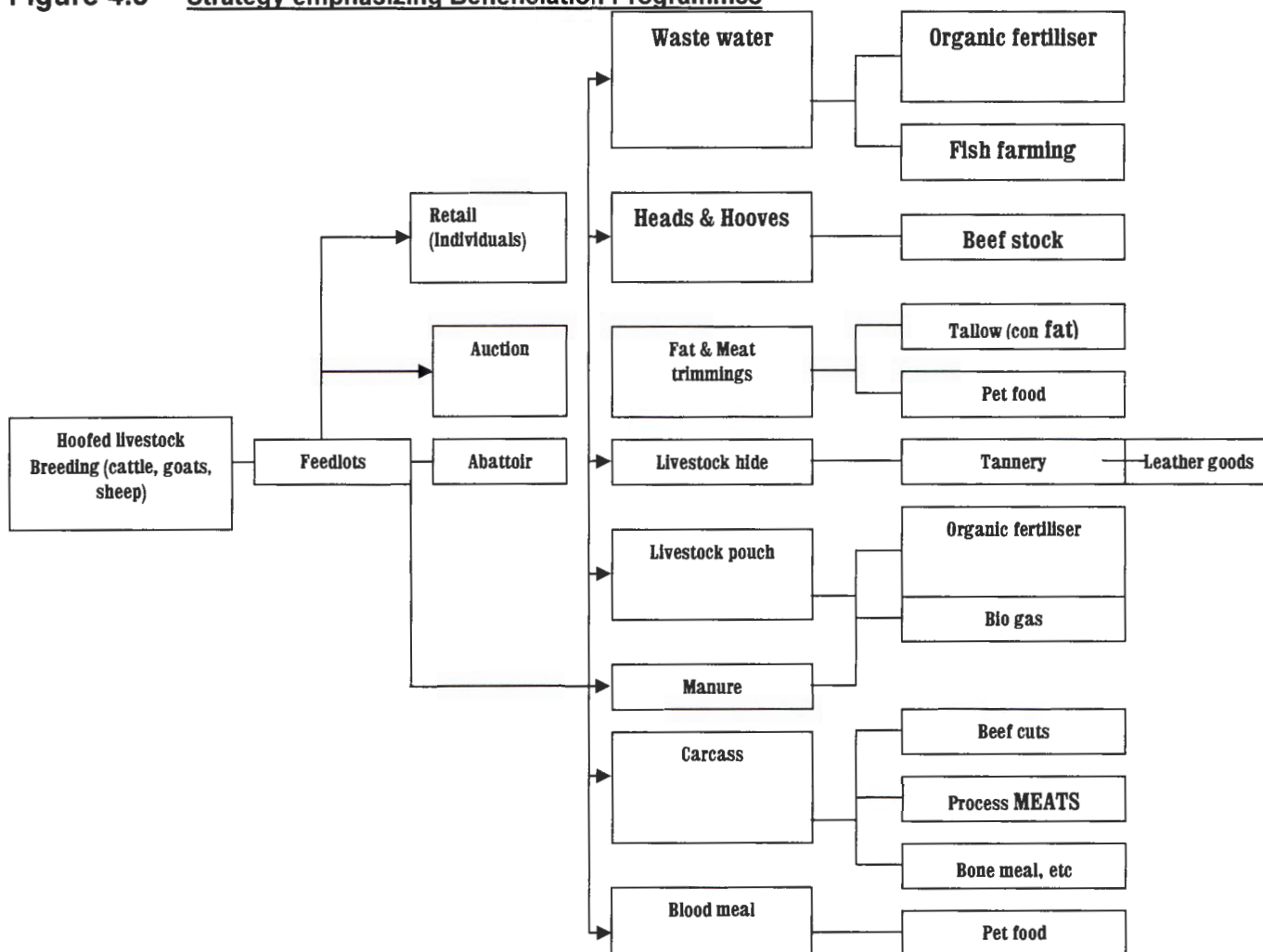
The fourth strategy has been the promotion of community based co-operatives as a form of ownership and job creation. It is believed that this has the potential to create jobs to fight poverty. This is achievable based on LED programmes and framework. The fifth strategy emphasises skills development for adults who, when equipped with job market skills would be able to access jobs or run their own businesses. As already noted, the lack of skills is one of the major causes of poverty in the province. Skills development is entailed in the ASGISA and JIPSA programmes being implemented in the province. Under this strategy are the learnership programmes being run by various government departments.

The sixth strategy is the implementation of Nutrition Programmes that are centrally co-ordinated. Included in this nutrition programme are the Primary Schools nutrition, nutrition for needy pregnant women, children and the old aged. Typical sites for this programme are the drop-in centres typified by the Lahabane Drop-in-centre at Dibate near Mafikeng. Another is assistance to vegetable growers who have been structured into horticulture community co-operatives. These are found in various sites in Ngaka Modiri Molema district, for example, the vegetable farm at Mathateng, and the poultry and vegetable farm at Mayaeyane

The seventh strategy deals with the need to centralise the planning and decentralise the implementation or the execution of poverty reduction projects. Centralisation here refers to an oversight department that would deal with the monitoring and evaluation, the exercise of effective control, distribution, financial disbursements and coordination. This central planning is being led by the DSD in the province, while the office of the premier

is politically championing the PR strategies. DSD, the lead department on poverty reduction in the province, therefore, requires capacitating and resources for them to be able to discharge their responsibilities. Many Community Liaison Officers (CLOs), Community Development Workers (CDWs) and Social Workers (SWs) have been trained to implement livelihood projects and care giving programmes for the needy and to carry out various facilitation works in the entire district

Figure 4.3 Strategy emphasizing Beneficiation Programmes



(Source: NWPG-DSD, 2006:9)

The eighth strategy deals with the roll-out of the comprehensive social security system (SSS), earlier discussed in chapter three under the policy of social grants. By 2008 the province's total beneficiaries of social grant peaked at 978 490, the breakdown of which can be seen in Table 5.9 of chapter 5 (SASSA, 2008). Child support has the greatest number of beneficiaries, followed second by the old age and third, the disabled. More than 50% of the beneficiaries of social grant are recipients of child support. This number represents adults who are not working. Though social grant as national policy should be pursued, care needs to be taken to reduce dependency on SSS and its perpetuation. This should be through job creation and promotion of community awareness that dependency on SSS is counterproductive. By awareness programmes such as family planning and the use of condoms, for instance, teenagers falling pregnant or (rumoured) infecting themselves with HIV virus in order to access the government grant could be reduced or stopped.

The ninth strategy is the provision of basic services through the EPWP. It is envisaged that provision of basic services such as water, sanitation, electricity, health, housing and educational infrastructure would be labour intensive. Participants would be capacitated and become skilful entrepreneurs. Implementation of the EPWP has taken place and it is on-going in the province. Chapter 3 has dealt with that in detail.

The tenth strategy is community involvement, full-scale popular participation and awareness. A call here has been for the mobilization and involvement of all stakeholders in the various communities for livelihood projects such as poultry, piggery etc. To be able to realize this objective, Community Poverty Alleviation Forums (CPAF) have been formed in many communities and Community Liaison Officers (CLOs) have been recruited at local municipality levels, in consultation with ward councillors, to facilitate the programme.

These ten provincial strategies have been devised within the framework of the national strategic policies of RDP, GEAR, ASGISA, ISRDP, RD, EPWP etc. However the strategies cannot be implemented without identified programmes. The provincial

government has therefore identified a number of programmes that are being implemented in accordance with the strategies.

4.4.2.2 Programmes identified as basic pillars for poverty reduction

In accordance with the strategies, a number of developmental programmes have been implemented in many municipalities in the province particularly in the NMMDM. These are indicated in Fig. 4.4. Current programmes implemented as found in Fig 4.4 are:-

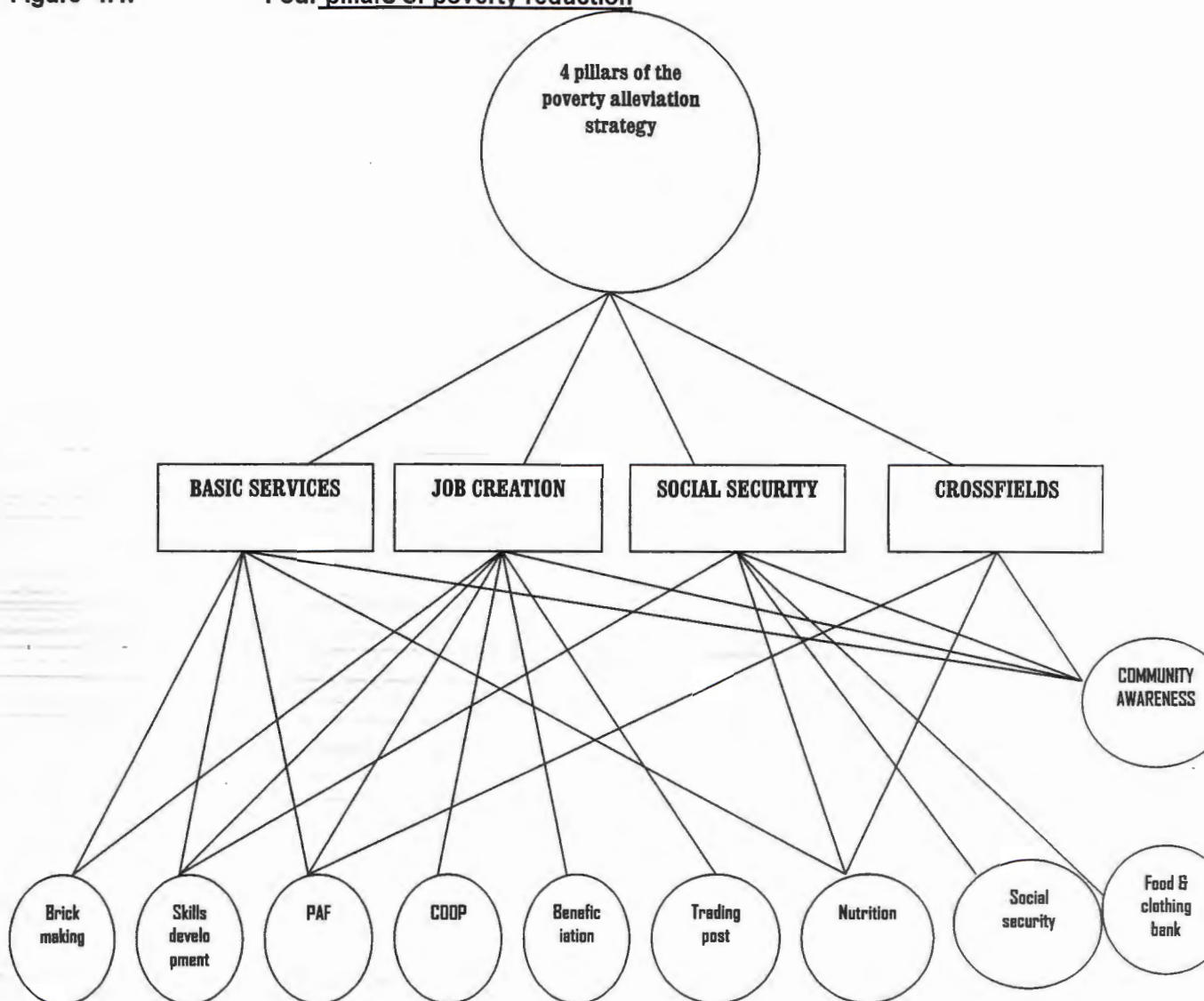
- Adult Skills Development programme.
- Job Creation through beneficiation.
- Poverty Alleviation funds provision.
- Integrated Nutrition Programme.
- Co-operatives Set up.
- Brick making for the Construction Industry.
- Comprehensive Social Security System.
- Tourism Trading Post.
- Community Awareness.
- Food and Clothing Bank.

From all the general strategies and the specific ones in the North West Province as well as programmes adduced in this chapter, poverty reduction strategies can be seen to be premised on four main Pillars which are Basic services delivery, job creation, Social Security and Crossfield strategies. The programmes considered above are all well aligned with the 4 pillars as can be seen in Fig 4.4 below. In Figure 4.4, it can be observed that targets within the first pillar are brick making, skills development, use of poverty alleviation fund and community awareness.

Job Creation is addressed through brick making, skills development, poverty alleviation fund (PAF), cooperatives, beneficiation, trading post and community awareness. As should be noted, this job creation is the major pillar among the rest. The pillar of social security embraces community awareness, food and clothing bank, social security – social grants, nutrition, and skills development

Figure 4.4:

Four pillars of poverty reduction



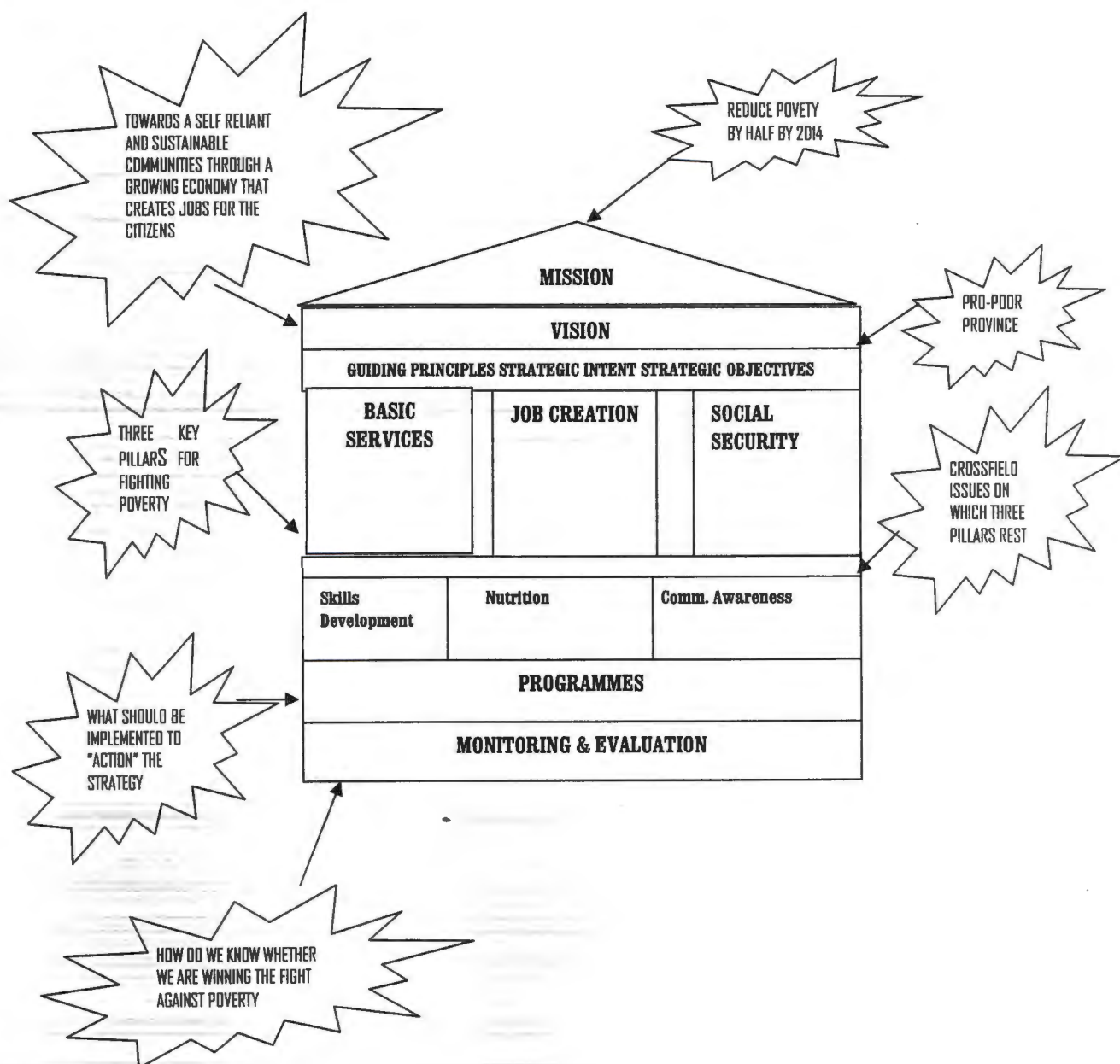
Source: NWPG -DSD 2006

The crossfields programme tackles community awareness, nutrition and use of the poverty alleviation fund.

Finally, using again the strategic pillars the poverty reduction components can be summarized as illustrated in the poverty reduction 'pyramid house' in Fig 4.5. In this pyramid house, Government has a mission of reducing poverty by half by 2014, and, being pro-poor, it has the vision of building self-reliant and sustainable communities through growing the economy. This would create jobs and provide basic services and

social security. To achieve these, action programmes, such as food production co-operatives, have been implemented in the Ngaka Modiri Molema district, specifically in the villages of Mathateng, Mayaeyane, Uitkyk and rural suburbs of Mafikeng.

Fig 4.5: Poverty Reduction Pyramid



Adapted from: NWPG – DSD 2006:16

The final question which comes back to be put here is that: Considering that these projects have been implemented using the identified strategies, what has been their

impact on the people with respect to poverty reduction? The answer to this question can be found by looking at various projects implemented and the analysis of chapter 5 together with outcomes of the implemented national policies, provincially and within the NMMDM.

4.5 SUMMARY

This chapter has focused on the North West Provincial development framework. It has given the socio-economic background of the Province in general and has reviewed its socio-economic status and poverty reduction policies being followed by the Provincial Government. It has established that the province spatially covers an area of 106 512 km² which is 8.7% of total South Africa surface area and is predominantly a rural orientated spatial entity with 65.1% of the population residing in rural areas and 34.9% residing in urban areas. The official unemployment rate in NWP is 27.4%, the fourth highest in the country (Stats SA 2007).

The chapter further notes that, Provincial Growth and Development Strategic conferences (PGDS) have been held at municipal and provincial levels which have defined various practical strategies to reduce poverty based on four strategic pillars indicated as: Basic Services provision, Job Creation, Social Security, and Cross fields strategies of skills development, nutrition and community awareness programmes which are all informed by those of the National strategies and development policies. Various government departments, the Social Development in particular, the Department of agriculture, the District and Local Municipalities and other parastatals and independent institutions such as the IDT, have all spearheaded the implementation of the provincial poverty reduction programmes and strategies in poverty ridden villages in the Ngaka Modiri Molema district. In the next chapter some of the poverty reduction projects implemented in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District Municipality of North West Province are examined and their impact on poverty reduction assessed.

CHAPTER FIVE

POVERTY REDUCTION PROJECTS AND BASIC SERVICES DELIVERY IN THE NGAKA MODIRI MOLEMA DISTRICT

“...the longer you have to travel to access health services for a mere headache, the longer your household members have to walk or travel to fetch drinking water, the poorer that community is” (Focus Group, 18 July 2008).

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines specific livelihood projects implemented at Mathateng, Mayaeyane, Uitkyk and Mafikeng in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District. Secondly, it analyses service delivery initiatives in the district and provides perceptions on the projects and services by households and individuals which were gathered from interviews. Finally it evaluates the impact of the projects and service delivery.

5.2 RATIONALE FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF POVERTY REDUCTION PROJECTS IN THE NGAKA MODIRI MOLEMA DISTRICT

Food security is considered as one of the major indicators of poverty and vulnerability. It is one level of support which rural people need, and it is estimated that over 60% of the population in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District are vulnerable to food insecurity (NMMDM, 2007; DSD, 2002). Secondly, unemployment is high and opportunities for self-employment in the rural sector are virtually non-existent (NWPG, 2006). Many households are, accordingly, unable to meet their daily requirements of food and other essentials satisfactorily (RLM, 2008). Employment in livelihood projects which should result in future self-employment has become an important option in many parts of most deprived local municipalities in Ngaka Modiri Molema District (NMMDM, 2007). Hence the implementation of many livelihood projects in the district.

The specific objectives of the livelihood projects are as follows:

1. To develop household food security and support through the establishment of food production clusters in communities, with a particular focus on households in absolute poverty, women and the youth.
2. Encourage the establishment of Co-operatives and sustainable livelihood projects that would create employment, provide income for communities and reduce their poverty in accordance with the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (DSD, 2008; NWPG, 2006).

The following section examines four projects in the study area.

5.3 PROJECT 1: THE MATHATENG TLHABOLOGO DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

5.3.1 Background of the project

Tlhabologo Development Project was implemented at Mathateng village in 1998. Mathateng village is located about 125 kilometres North West of Mafikeng and falls within the jurisdiction of Ratlou Local Municipality. The project covers an area of 3 hectares on land provided by the community.

Geographically, the project is located in a semi arid area which experiences harsh climatic conditions and where vegetation consists of tall grass interspersed with thorn bushes. The annual rainfall is less than 6mm and temperatures are hot in summer which sometimes may rise to 38 degrees Celsius. Winters are cold and temperatures fall to as low as 6 degrees Celsius and sometimes below zero degrees (South Africa, 2009). Soil is mainly sandy and porous which does not support much arable production (i.e. crop farming) with the exception of livestock. There are approximately 120 households with a population of about 1082 in this community whose socio-economic conditions are below the poverty line (Stats SA, 2001; Kopano, 2008). The demographic breakdown shows 326 children under

5years, 334 of school going age, and 422 adults of which 213 are females (MTDP, 2008).

Historically, this village started as a cattle outpost but due to changing climate and vegetation, cattle rearing has virtually ceased (Kopano, 2008). According to the chief most residents were people who had lost employment on White commercial farms located some distances away. Consequently most of the population have been unemployed with the exception of very few people who still cling on to cattle farming at the mercy of the climate.

The lack of employment opportunities in the village led to the establishment of the Mathateng Tlhabologo Development Project. This poverty reduction project also known as livelihood project was initiated by the Department of Social Development in collaboration with the Department of Agriculture. It emanated from the 2004 livelihood flagship programmes that were piloted by the National Department of Social Development for the poorest of the poor communities. When the implementation of this pilot programme, in the form of livelihood Co-operative projects, at North West provincial level took place in March 2004 under the auspices of the Provincial Department of Social Development, Mathateng was identified as a node for this programme (MTDP, 2008).

According to Kopano (2008) the Chief of Mathateng and Mathe (2008), officials from DSD at a meeting with the village community together with the ward councillor put the idea of a Co-operative project to them. Since there was no existing CBO, community members were requested to form groups for the implementation of projects of their choice. The flagship projects were to become centres of excellence in food production and job creation for the village. The community was to take ownership of the projects and let them grow to become self-sustaining (DSD, 2008). The groups were to be assisted by the DSD. It was as a result of this meeting that Tlhabologo Development Project came into existence. A village development committee was subsequently formed to monitor the project but it later collapsed because they were not paid which was contrary to their expectations.

It could be seen that the implementation of this project in the village was in line with the NWPG's strategic rural development programmes and policies as described in chapter three. It was therefore as a testing ground for the policies of Local Economic Development (LED) and Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (ISRDP) implementation.

5.3.2 Objectives of the project and target population

The objectives of the project are:

- To develop and support developmental programmes that would create employment for the unemployed women who would eventually be self-reliant and be able to care for their children in the Mathateng village.
- To build the capacities of 30 unemployed women to become economically independent to meet their family's basic needs by undertaking poultry and vegetable gardening and other ventures.
- To ensure that these unemployed women receive additional social services like life skills training.
- To provide livelihoods for other members of the community (MTDP, 2008; DSD, 2008).

The above objectives were in line with those of the NWPG. To achieve them, the project's target population were to be mainly poor women and the youth but men were also allowed to be members. This is verifiable from the project's business plan which stated that the project was to "...enable Mathateng women to realize and identify their social needs and hence suggest means of meeting those needs, improve their skills, economic status as well as effective parenting skills" (MTDP, 2008:2). The Mathateng Tlhabologo Development Project (MTDP) thus started with a group of fifteen people (8 women and 7 men) and by March 2009 it had peaked to 30 people (20 women and 10 men). The project, accordingly, was to be developmental in nature and income generating, engaging in activities such as

chicken farming i.e. poultry, vegetable gardening and the production of tomatoes in tunnels (MTDP, 2008).

In the project's business plan (2008) five outcomes were to be achieved. The first outcome was the achievement of food security i.e. availability of farm produce of broilers, eggs and vegetables for the community and other markets. The second was skills gained in poultry and food production by beneficiaries who were project members. The third was the ability of participants to generate sufficient income to improve their quality of life, and in the long run be self-sufficient. The fourth was the project's ability to provide employment and income for households in the community. The fifth outcome was that members of the community would set up similar livelihood projects through MTDP's motivation (MTDP, 2008: 4).

5.3.3 The implementation of the project and its phases

There were two main clusters of the project, Poultry farming and Vegetable gardening. The implementation of these consisted of five phases. The first phase was Management and administrative structure set up; the second was the drawing up of a Business plan; the third, opening of Bank Account; the fourth, operation and production, while the fifth was training, infrastructure construction and restart of production (MTDP, 2008). Let us look at these phases.

In phase 1, management and administrative structures were set up. It was initially temporarily managed and coordinated by Mr. Patrick Seithhobogeng who was a former youth organiser. The group felt they had to utilise his past experience as a youth organiser. His experience and good leadership notwithstanding there had to be an administrative structure in place before the project could be considered as a Co-operative entity and to be fully sponsored by the Department of Social Development (DSD).

Table 5.3.1: Elected Management team

OFFICE	INDIVIDUAL	GENDER	AGE
Chairperson	Poppy Phosa	F	41
Vice Chairperson	Peter Ramokele	M	35
Secretary	Tebogo Maruping	F	28
Vice Secretary	Doris Mosiapo	F	45
Treasurer and Coordinator:	Patrick Seithobogeng	M	42

Therefore with the assistance of DSD's Community Liaison Officers (CLO's), Mr Mmusiyane and Ms Boitumelo, a management team of 5 executive members (refer to Table 5.3.1) was democratically elected by all members at a meeting held in the community hall, in accordance with the Business plan to manage the project (MTDP, 2008). The elected officials were Poppy Phosa, Peter Ramokele, Tebogo Maruping, Doris Mosiapo and Patrick Seithobogeng. Their designations are as found in Table 5.3.1. With the project's management team in place four other phases followed.

In phase two, the target was to draw up a Business Plan and by-laws for funding. The Business plan was drawn up and submitted to the DSD for approval and funding. As a result of the business plan the DSD funded it with R1, 427 000-00. In the case of by-laws the management team could not draw up appropriate project specific by-laws due to limited capacity. According to the team, the DSD had taken the initiative to write it up for them.

By the time this research was completed they had no project-specific by-laws but were governed by the existing general Co-operative bye-laws. The DSD had not returned any written by-Laws to them. Enquiry about this from the DSD revealed that all chairpersons of projects in the District or their representatives met at the DSD district office and drew up a general constitutional framework for the Co-operatives facilitated by DSD officials in accordance with existing Co-operative by-

Laws. The representatives were then requested to meet their groups to change certain portions to meet their particular context and submit for approval. The DSD was not writing bye-laws for them but facilitating it for approval (Mathe, 2008).

In phase 3 a bank account was opened with Standard Bank of South Africa. Three officials, Ms. Poppy Phosa, Ms. Tebogo Maruping and Mr. Patrick Seithobogeng who held positions of chairperson, secretary and treasurer–coordinator respectively, had signing mandate. Another target in this phase was on-farm skills training. This was not initially undertaken due to lack of funds and was deferred to phase 5.

The fourth phase was operationalisation and overcoming challenges. The Co-operative started with an operating fund of R125 000-00 provided by the Department of Agriculture. The DSD at this phase was only facilitating (as lead department in the NWPG poverty reduction programme) and did not provide immediate funding. The Agriculture department did provide funds because the project was essentially an agricultural undertaking. The funds were used to acquire land, put up the first infrastructure (a chicken house) and to purchase inputs for the Poultry cluster. By the time this research started the poultry production process had long begun. Five hundred day-old-chicks purchased were found on site. The project undertook 3 production cycles which, from its books, brought a turnover of R24 600-00 before it came to a halt for restructuring in April 2009. Table 5.3.2 depicts the production cycles. The third cycle shows a higher chicken mortality or loss of 250 chickens and lower income as a result compared to the first cycle where the same amount of chicks was purchased with a loss of 200. This led to the restructuring. The vegetable production was still in its planning stages waiting for funding for the construction of hydroponic structures.

If one compares Table 5.3.2 with estimates in phase 5, one could realise that targets of income reached were very low. In this phase, 1000 chicks purchased yielded R36 000.00 while estimates in phase 5 was to yield R47 880 per cycle.

There was therefore the need for re-evaluation of their production techniques hence phase 5.

Table 5.3.2 Three production cycles' outputs (Jun 2008 - March 2009)

Period	Chicks purchased	Cost @ R13.50pc	Chickens produced & sold	Sale @R45.00	Monthly sales	Gross Profit/Loss per cycle	Gross Monthly profit
		R		R	R	R	R
Jun 2008 – Sep 2008	1000	13500.00	800	36 000.00	12000.00	22 500.00	7 500.00
Oct 2008 – Dec 2008	1200	16200.00	1 050	47 250.00	15750.00	31 050.00	10 350.00
Jan 2009 – Mar 2009	1000	13500.00	750	33 750.00	11250.00	20 250.00	6 750.00
TOTAL	3200	43200.00	2 600	117 000.00	39000.00	73 800.00	24 600.00

Source: MTDP Outputs records

Phase 5 dealt with training, construction of new Infrastructure and re-start of Production. In this phase the poultry production was suspended (by 3 April 2009) for training and infrastructural construction funded by the DSD. Table 5.3.1 is the budget for this phase that was submitted to the DSD for funding .

The temporary suspension of production was to address the major challenges facing them. Addressing those challenges was crucial for the sustainability of the project and the achievement of the objectives of the project and that of NWP Government. That was the skills development and training aspect. A training provider, Thuto ya Sechaba, was contracted to provide them with both theoretical and practical aspects of poultry and vegetable farming. Thuto ya Sechaba provided 7 training modules in Financial Management, Handling of Stock, Committee Management, Conflict Resolutions, Marketing, Vegetable Production (both hydroponic and open field), and Poultry farming (boilers and Layers).

Further, new structures for layers and egg production were also put up in this phase. Thus the chicken farm had two chicken houses constructed, each with a capacity to accommodate 1000 chickens. One house was for broilers and the other for layers. Drinkers and feeders were to be purchased and placed in appropriate structures. The cost of these was estimated to be R173 400.00. Estimates were made in this phase for the restart of production. The production period for broilers per cycle was estimated to be 64 days, including 45 days of rearing and 19 days of cleaning and resting periods. The average live-mass of a broiler for 45 days and cost was calculated at 1.6 kg at R13.30. Thus the project's budget for broilers was to yield income of R 47 880 per cycle of production; while layers were estimated at R21 800.00 per cycle (MTDP, 2008: 5).

Concerning the Vegetable farming, structures for hydroponic vegetable farm production were also put up. The current size of the area to be used for vegetable gardening is one hectare out of the total of about 3 hectares for the project donated by the Tribal Authority. The project had been granted permission to utilize the adjacent vacant site for extension if the need arose. The capital requirement to sustain the activities of the vegetable cluster was put at R250 000.00 (MTDP, 2008).

The project re-started its production activities in September 2009 after participants had received training and structural constructions were completed. Broilers and layers were then purchased for the restart of production activities. According to the project's management team and in a report (MTDP, 2008) to the DSD for funding, Poultry farming was currently taking place but the project's initial fund was exhausted (refer to Table 5.3.3). The allocated grant was used to purchase cages and other capital equipment. It was also used for skills training. Funds were therefore needed to purchase poultry equipment, chicken feed, chicks and drinkers in order to revive and put the project on a sound footing.

The next cluster was vegetable gardening. The business plan (MTDP, 2008) and the Project's monthly Report to the DSD (MTDP). 2009) indicated that communal vegetable garden had been operating for commercial purposes. However, the vegetable garden had not been successfully implemented due to the sandy nature of the soil which demands a very huge investment in fertilizers and irrigation. Though a Hydroponic structure was in place, the type of soil did not support any crops planted, even if there was sufficient water available. These problems demanded further financial support. That support was given in accordance with the project's budget as contained in the business plan submitted. From the National Poverty Relief Programme's Fund (NPRPF), funds were obtained to finance the budget. Table 5.3.3 shows that funds for the project were obtained from the DSD, Department of Agriculture, Environment and Tourism (DEAT) and NPRPF for the purchasing of farm inputs, infrastructure development, training and stipends.

Table 5.3.3 Sponsors of MTDP Amounts and purpose

SPONSOR	AMOUNT	DATE	PURPOSE
National Poverty Relief Programme(NPRP)	R 400 000.00	October 1998	Food parcels & Structural Development
Department of Agriculture Environment and Tourism (DEAT)	R 125 000.00	November 2000	Initial farm inputs, & stipends
Department of Social Development (DSD)	R1 427 000.00	April 2009	Infrastructure upgrade, training, stipends & farm inputs
TOTAL	R1 952 000.00		

Source: MTDP (2008)

Table 5.3.4 also shows the breakdown of the project's budget for 2009 submitted for the 5th phase. All these are indicative of the importance and support the NWPG, through its lead department in poverty reduction, the Department of Social Development, had given the project. It is also indicated in Table 5.3.3, that the

DSD has, accordingly, contributed R1 427 000.00 which is more than what all the sponsors have put into the project.

Table 5.3.4 The Project's Budget for Funding - 2009

ACTIVITY / ITEM	BUDGET in R
Administration cost & stationery	10 000.00
Transport and delivery fees	11 000.00
Stipends (R900 x 31 pp x12 months)	330 900.00
EQUIPMENT	
Tunnels	250 000.00
Broiler houses, cages & feeders	200 000.00
Netting Shelters for open garden	92 000.00
MATERIAL	
Vegetable garden(pesticides and fertilizers)	18 000.00
Poultry (feed and medicines)	93 000.00
Protective clothing	20 000.00
Backup Generator and Diesel	32 000.00
Mentoring, coaching, aftercare & capacity building over 6 months	180 000.00
Signboard	6 000.00
Audit fees	15 000.00
Water and Electricity & electrification of tunnels	42 000.00
Equipment Borehole	30 000.00
Insurance (structure, equipment, and stock)	21 000.00
Maintenance and repairs	20 000.00
Security (R500x2ppx12 months)	12 000.00
Contingencies, emergency and legal fees	38 000.00
GRAND TOTAL	1 427 000.00

5.3.4 Challenges facing the project

There were as many as five challenges found facing the project. The sub-sections below examine the challenges.

5.3.4.1 Absence of CBOs and VDCs

From information provided by the project's management, field observation, the socio-economic conditions of the area discussed in chapter 3, and also from the SWOT analysis in the project's business plan it came out clearly that the Co-operative faced many challenges. The first of these was the absence of Community Based Organisations (CBOs) and Village Development committees (VDCs). These organisations are rural development and project facilitators. Usually they are the initial facilitators of development projects. However, before the project came into being there were no VDCs or CBOs in existence. It emerged that the VDC which was formed later to assist and monitor the organisation of the Co-operatives after a while did not play the roles required of them and dissolved shortly after. This was because the formation of the group was not originally initiated by the communities themselves. Members were also expecting to receive some stipends which were not realised. Thus there existed no community organisation to monitor and assist the project in the village.

For the MTDP to be effective, sustainable and participatory (like any other village project), the setting up of Village Development Committees (VDCs) or Community Based Development Organisations (CBO's) that would be the focal point for which people could be mobilized or rallied around was very important. Through the CBO's, Co-operatives and other economic enterprises and livelihood projects could emerge or be initiated. But the village did not have one in existence. Therefore through the ward councillor, the DEAT and Department of Social Development requested the community to form a VDC. After that, according to the project's participants, they were requested to form a Co-operative by the Departmental officials.

CBOs and other village organisations should emerge spontaneously and voluntarily not because it had been required of them but that the community felt it needed it for its development. We can thus find that in this community the idea of Co-operative formation as part of poverty reduction strategy within the context of

LED was initiated by the Department of Social Development and Department of Agriculture, Environment and Tourism (DEAT) when they realised the critical poverty situation and food needs of the village and not by any village committee. This was contrary to community development principles which recommend that village development initiatives were to be taken by the community itself (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2006).

According to the World Bank (1996), projects that were externally initiated usually have problems of members not actively participating as well as sustainability. The fact that the DSD, an external change agent or stakeholder, brought the idea of Co-operatives to the rural people brings in those questions on ownership, participation and sustainability. The Bank however points out that for the avoidance of such problems, the external initiators should understand and have special arrangements with the stakeholders. This is because the stakeholders are often illiterates, and may not understand the strategic process and implications of the project.

In the context of this study, the project's sponsor which is the DSD was to have ensured that the community felt committed to taking ownership of the project. The question is:

How was this to have been ensured and what special arrangements ought to have been made? One view point here is that before the start of the project's implementation, the participants should have first been given education and skilled in the business they were going to be involved by means of workshops. Such workshops were to motivate and point out what were expected of them. Workshops would also have demystified the high and incorrect expectations that the communities harboured before they were engaged. The second is that, the felt and real needs of the community ought to have been identified and given priority over those of the sponsors. From the discussions and analysis of the activities of the project it could be seen that the DSD did not strongly consider lack of commitment to participate, and ownership as challenges to be faced.

5.3.4.2 Low education and lack of capabilities

The second challenge was overcoming the low literacy levels and lack of capabilities of members. The majority of the members were illiterate and the others too had obtained very little formal education. The illiteracy of some members made them to take too long to understand the technicalities in poultry keeping and in the management of the group. As a result of this, they have not been able to control the mortality rate of the chicken. This was clearly evident in phase four and as demonstrated in Table 5.3.2.

Quite a number of the birds died, while marketing procedures and control of members were problematic. In Table 5.3.2 one can find that the initial 1000 chicks purchased brought in an income of R10 000.00 and the third purchase of 1000 chicks in March 2009, brought in an income of R6 000.00. This is a demonstration of diminishing returns due to high mortality of the chicks resulting from lack of capabilities in poultry keeping by the members. This was also noted in the SWOT analysis of the project's business plan as their weakness (MTDP, 2008). Though in phase five training was given to members, the challenge was not completely overcome.

5.3.4.3 Stipends and expectations of project participants

The third challenge was meeting the expectations of project participants. Participants had the expectation of receiving higher incomes in the form of monthly stipends or wages upon joining the Co-operative. In addition, food parcels were provided and they thought it was going to be a continuous practice. When it was later stopped they became dissatisfied (DSD, 2004). This shows that little or no education was given to them to understand the working principles of Co-operatives and the intentions of government.

5.3.4.4 Availability of services and poor soil quality

The fourth challenge was the availability of services which include water, transport and marketing, electricity and storage. In the background for this project it was noted that this is an arid area and therefore the problem of water for irrigation was expected (NMMDM, 2007). The project depends on borehole water which may dry up in winter. Related to water is the poor soil quality and texture. The porosity of the sand is so high that unless a new solution is found, much of the scarce water may go into waste when irrigated (MTDP 2008:3). The soil is very sandy and not suitable for arable farming.

Another challenge was finding transport and markets for their produce. The project did not have its own means of transport to send its produce to other markets. Public transport that they could use was also not regularly available due to the poor gravel road that leads to Mathateng (RLM, 2008). In addition, electricity was not available at the project's site. Electricity was to assist with the future processing of the poultry birds. There is the need also to keep the place lighted at night to ward off thieves that pose threats (MTDP 2008). Even though electricity was available in some parts of the village the project's site was not supplied. Despite the management's application for electricity supply and continuous reminders, Eskom, the electricity supplier, has not yet provided power. Currently a small generator is being used for lighting.

The need for electricity ushers in the final challenge of non-availability of storage facilities (MTDP, 2008). A storage facility is essential in order to keep processed ready-for-market-broilers, and meat in packages that met the pockets of the community. It was also needed for the storage of eggs from the layers. Such a facility was not budgeted for and they therefore would be unable to process poultry products until they could acquire one.

5.3.5 Meeting the challenges

In the documents of the Project (MTDP, 2008), with the exception of training, no answers to these problems were proposed. However, on the basis of interviews conducted, observations made and from the project's records some analysis could be made and solutions to the challenges offered.

To overcome the first challenge, VDCs/CBOs and other village organisations should in principle be encouraged to emerge voluntarily instead of the community being requested to form it because a project was to be implemented. That is, their formation should not be a specific project linked. The community should feel the need for a village organisation that would spearhead its development. Members should also be educated on the roles of such organizations and their voluntary nature. After they have been firmly established with committed members who know their roles, development initiatives could emerge, properly monitored and sustained.

On the second challenge there is the need for continued skills training and education for the project's members as well as the management team. Luckily, encapsulated in their business plan and budget had been on-farm-skills training. It was seen by them as crucial because it was to give them broad knowledge and practical skills which the individuals could utilise to obtain livelihood were they to leave the Co-operative. Therefore the training budget ought to be used effectively in order to overcome their low literacy levels, limited skills and capabilities.

The next problem which is on transport and marketing arose from lack of effective demand in the village and the need to sell fresh vegetables to consumers located far from Mathateng. The Co-operative needed to procure their own means of transport to sell the farm products to nearby villages and towns. It was indicated to the researcher that for them to be able to purchase their own means of transport, they were to revise the business plan and to disclose how, why and when to

purchase a vehicle for the project. DSD was to assist on the basis of that. It is hoped this would be done.

The solution to the next problem of expectation of stipends is very critical. Stipends were safety nets and temporary, so joining members should be educated on this. Though the budget in the Business plan and funding provided for this project included the provision of stipends of R900 a month to each individual (MTDP, 2008), they needed to realise its temporary nature so that they could work hard for the project to become profitable so as to earn higher sustainable incomes. On the other hand it can be argued that a perception was being created that even when productivity and production were low they were assured of stipends. Indeed stipends would not encourage hard work and it is not cost-effective. It can be argued that though it is government's social responsibility to ensure that no one sleeps without a meal and all should have a better life, members of the Co-operative should be encouraged to increase their productivity for the sustainability of the project and a secured employment.

Finally, the project has a 'layer house' but with no storage facility for the eggs to be produced. A place of safety is to be found urgently for the eggs. The CLO (i.e. DSD official) responsible for this project indicated that the storage facility was not budgeted for in the current funding programme and it would be considered when profits accrued from production. This should have been foreseen for its inclusion in the Business plan. Coupled with all the problems is water for irrigation the solution of which could be found in the purchase of powerful water pumps. But even when this had been obtained the problem of poor soil would waste the water because of the very low water retention of the sandy soil. Solutions to all these problems require a greater financial investment and special arrangements. Greater funding was required for the success and sustainability of this project.

5.3.6 The impact of the Mathateng project

The Mathateng project has the major objective of creating employment and ensuring self-reliance while providing livelihood and life skills training to a target population of mainly women and the youth (MTDP, 2008). Comparing its objectives in the founding business plan (MTDP, 2008) and current status (DSD, 2009) it can be stated that the project has achieved its objective of creating employment for the unemployed, mostly women. Its membership structure of 20 women and 10 men together (with 1 security man who is a youth) bears testimony. Thus its impact on households in the community in terms of employment creation is high, and that, poor people from 31 households employed were no more idling at home. In terms of income, participating members were receiving stipends which would translate into higher wages as the production and sales increased.

The objective of providing life skills and training has also been achieved. The project members received training organized by the Department of Labour through the 'Thuto ya Sechaba' training organization in management, food and poultry production. They now have skills in the production of poultry broilers and layers as well as vegetable production. The project's management team has now obtained knowledge in financial and banking procedures.

The project has also ensured that meat and eggs were readily available and easily accessible to not only participating members but all poor households in that community. These have brought some observable changes in the health status and living levels of project participants. It is also deducible from their perceptions analyzed that their well-being has improved. Majority of them acknowledged noticing some changes in their socio-economic status. Their poverty situation had slightly changed (to a position above the lower-bound poverty line) such that they were able to access meals twice and sometimes thrice a day. Thus, with respect to project participants one could easily point out some benefits that had accrued to them but not in the same manner when it comes to the general community.

Regarding the specific objective of providing food security from Poultry and Vegetable farming, one could say that it has been met to a limited extent. Though the project has met its initial objectives, its sustainability is in doubt due to the problems and challenges it is faced with.

5.4 PROJECT 2: THE MAYAEYANE FOOD SECURITY PROJECT

5.4.1 Background of the project.

The Mayaeyane Food Security Project (MFSP) which operates on 50 x 50 hectares of communal land area (provided by the Makgobi Tribal Authority) is located at the southern end of Mayaeyane village in the Ratlou Local Municipality, Ward 2 (MFSP, 2009)). Mayaeyane is about 90 kilometres from Mafikeng and thirty kilometres South of Mathateng. To reach Mayaeyane from Mafikeng one travels for about 74 kilometres on the main road from Mafikeng to Tshidilamolomo then branches off west for about 16 kilometres on a gravel road until Mayaeyane is reached.

The geographic conditions at Mayaeyane are similar to that of Mathateng. Mayaeyane (in an arid zone) experiences harsh climatic conditions where the vegetation consists of tall grass interspersed with thorn bushes. The annual rainfall, like Mayaeyane, is less than 6mm and temperatures are hot in summer which sometimes may rise to 38 degrees Celsius. Winters are cold and temperatures fall to as low as 6 degrees Celsius and sometimes below zero degrees (South Africa, 2009). Soil is mainly sandy and porous which does not support much arable production (i.e. crop farming) with the exception of livestock. Accurate statistics of this village are difficult to obtain but the current estimation by the VDC (2009) and the Project's document (MFSP, 2004) is that there are approximately 64 households and a population of about 600 people whose socio-economic conditions are even worse than at Mathateng. Available Statistics South Africa (2001) figures, which are eight years older show 51 households and a population of 326. Due to the age of the Stats SA's figures the estimation can be

considered as more reliable. The community is made up of two groups, one at Sehatlhane and the other at New Site. These live in absolute poverty (RLM, 2008).

Historically, this is a community of retired mine and farm workers and residency for farm workers from distant and nearby white farms who could not be accommodated on the farms. The location was also formerly serving as cattle post. Ironically, majority of residents are women who are old aged. Majority are women because the retired mine workers had died leaving widows and children behind with no employment and as a result have fallen into extreme poverty (Leepile, 2009). The young men have all left to look for employment in the mines and nearby towns as gardeners and domestic employees who are lowly paid. Consequently their remittances home are very small and some do not remit at all (NMMDM, 2007; Focus Group 2, 2008).

As a result of the above, the Department of Social Development (DSD) in 2001 initiated the setting up of Mayaeyane Food Security Project at Mayaeyane. In the updated Business Plan of Mayaeyane Food Security Project (MFSP, 2009), the project came into existence when various Television and Radio Stations in 2001 widely publicised the plight of Mayaeyane community with respect to its socio economic difficulties. The NWPG's Executive Committee responded to the revelations by sending a fact-finding delegation to the area. It later mandated the Department of Social Development to intervene. Since there was no existing poverty alleviation proposal with a budget allocated to Mayaeyane, the DSD submitted a funding proposal to the National DSD for the establishment of an Integrated Food Security Project at Mayaeyane. The funding proposal was in line with the objectives of the National Poverty Relief Programme and was therefore accepted. Mayaeyane was allocated R240 000 for a two year period (2002-2003) to establish a food security project. After the two year period a second budget of R250 000.00 for 'Financial Strengthening' to ensure the successful implementation of the second phase was submitted in 2004 by the provincial DSD (MFSP, 2009). During that period, the Departments of Social Development and Agriculture

collaborated and ensured that this Co-operative food security project got implemented successfully in the village. The Department of Agriculture provided technical services while DSD handled the monitoring and evaluation aspect to ensure that the project operated within the technical prescriptions and according to budget (Mathe, 2008).

Subsequently, by 2004, when the National Department of Social Development decided to establish food security flagship projects throughout the country at identified extremely poor villages which were critically in need of intervention, Mayaeyane became one of the identified villages in North West Province and its food security project became a flagship (Mathe, 2008; DSD, 2002). It was thus merged with the National Department's initiated projects (MFSP, 2004).

Mr. Leepile, the Ward Councillor, and the Village Development Committee (VDC) were all drawn in to provide support for, and participate in this initiative. The DSD engaged its CLOs in monitoring the day-to-day activities while the Department of Agriculture provided a hydroponic infrastructure for the vegetable farm. This was located next to a water tank (that supplied the village with water) and therefore has the advantage of reticulating it for irrigation.

5.4.2 The project's objectives and outcomes

The objectives of the project were as follows:

- To alleviate poverty by creating jobs to provide income for members of the project
- To improve quality of life by providing food security for 64 households located in the poverty stricken village (MFSP 2004).
- To undertake vegetable-gardening in order to provide households in the community with food security.
- To undertake income generating ventures, produce for the market and become a profit making organisation.

- To promote self-reliance of project members
- To assist in improving the local economy (MFSP, 2009; DSD, 2007).

From MFSP (2009) it was noted that the above objectives conformed to the government's objective of reducing poverty through livelihood projects.

In the business plan (MFSP, 2009) the project envisaged direct and indirect outcomes which were not elaborated. But from interview with project's management and by analysis, these were qualitative outcomes that were to improve the targeted 64 households' quality of life.

Direct outcomes indicated were:

- Jobs created.
- Improved household income of about R500.00 a month
- Availability of cultivated vegetables and food
- Improved health status
- achievement of farming skills by project participants

Indirect outcomes included:

- Improved rural quality of life arising out of service delivery by the municipality
- Improved social interaction amongst community members.

5.4.3 The target population

The target population was mainly women and the youth. The number of households targeted was 64 or at least 90 individual members in the community (MFSP 2004:12). This meant whole village was to be involved. When the MFSP fully started operating in 2004, 22 households (18 women and 4 men) were involved. However, by 2007 when the researcher went there on observation, membership had reduced to 15 (1 man and 14 women). By November 2009 only 6 members (one man and five women) were participating in the project. The rest had resigned because of a claim of low stipends paid to them (MFSP, 2004).

5.4.4 The project's implementation processes and phases

The implementation of this project was also in phases. It started with the organisation of management structures. The following formed the management team as found in Table 5.4, Mr. Edward Sereo, Ms Poppy Mogaudi, Ms Dithebe, Ms Dinkwetse Makutle and Ms Rachel Sereo. According to MFSP (2009) the Ratlou Local municipality (service point) designated a project manager to the project for the purpose of providing implementation support for the project. A project task team was also appointed from the Department of Agriculture to ensure correct implementation and to provide technical advice. Table 5.4.1 shows the task team members and their designations.

Table 5.4 The MFSP Management team

NAME	DESIGNATION	GENDER
Mr. Edward Sereo	Chairperson	M
Ms Poppy Mogaudi	Deputy Chairperson	F
Ms. Dithebe	Secretary	F
Ms Dinkwetse Makutle	Deputy secretary	F
Ms Rachel Sereo	Treasurer	F

Source: MFSP business plan (2004)

Table 5.4.1 The project task team

NAME	DESIGNATION
Solomon Mohapi	Project coordinator
Waltons Moseje	Project leader
Sello Lephoi	Crop specialist
Gilbert Nesane	Crop specialist
Tshegofatso	Food security
Perseverance Madoda	Food security
Solomon Ditshwene	Engineering

Source: MFSP 2004

These structures thereafter drew up a business plan for the project and implementation plan as can be seen in Table 5.4.2.

The phase 2 was started with food parcels distribution in the village by the DSD. This was because the community was experiencing severe economic hardships and food crisis (refer to subsection 5.4.1 on background of the project). The DSD distributed food parcels (containing maize meal, rice, beans and other energy providing foods) to all households in the village monthly. It became an on-going process until 2007.

In phase 3, food production in the form of goat farming and indigenous free range fowls rearing was undertaken. According to Mr Mathe, the District Deputy Director of Community Development and the Village Development Committee Secretary (Focus Group 2, 2008) they were tackled simultaneously with the training of the youth in goats and animal production. Training in animal health management, breeding, poultry rearing and milking was conducted at workshops in Mafikeng organized by the Department of Agriculture (MFSP, 2004).

As training was being provided, each of the 64 households was provided with 2 Goats and 10 free range layer hens to start the community goat and indigenous fowls' production. In addition, 2 male goats which were to rotate to mate with all the females were provided. The female goats were to provide them with milk and as they multiplied they were to obtain meat. According to the Department of Agriculture and DSD officials, each household was provided with wire-netting which was used as enclosures for the goats and chicken pens. Initial animal and chicken feed were also provided at no cost to the households.

By the time the production trainee team qualified to impart their knowledge and skill to the community the supplied goats and chicken had been slaughtered for domestic consumption. That programme of goat and free range fowl production in phase 3 therefore stalled contrary to initial expectations. It was to be tackled again later in phase 5 but had not yet taken off. The animals were supplied as capital

input for animal rearing which, with time, would have provided them with food and income but failed. This failure would be discussed later under problems.

After the failure of the phase 3, phase 4 which is vegetable farming, was carefully planned by the task and management teams (MFSP, 2004). It started operating in May 2006 with 16 participants (4 males and 12 females). The team's implementation plan and time lines are given in Table 5.4.2. It indicates what activities were performed, action taken, by whom and time frames.

Table 5.4.2 Implementation Plan

ACTIVITY	WHAT/ACTION?	RESPONSIBLE PERSON	TIME FRAME
EQUIPPING	- Erection of engine house - Fitting Engine tank and tank stand	Ditshwane and Engineering section	28 Feb 2006 28 Feb 2006
WATER RETICULATION	Layout of pipes from the engine to the water pipes	Ditshwane and engineering section	28 Feb 2006
LAND PREPARATION	- Enquiry for assistance with implements. - Primary and secondary soil preparation	Gilbert and Sello Gilbert, project leader and participants	28 Feb 2006 07 March 2006
PLANTING PROGRAMME	- As recommended by the task team, winter crops to be planted are spinach, cabbage, beetroot and onions - The summer crops which will be planted in the summer season are green papers, tomatoes and green beans - Sweet potato, pumpkin/potato/maize will be planted in the remaining portion that is not used at their respective growing seasons.		
ERECTING OF NETS	- Enquiries on the quality of material needed for a quarter hectare - Erection of the net	Gilbert and Sello Project participants, Supplier, Project leader	01 March 2006 September 2006 (Summer crops)
TRAINING	- Erection of the net - Soil preparation - Vegetable production - Record keeping	Task team	Ongoing
PLANTING	- Acquiring quotes from nursery - Plot demarcation - Planting	Project participants, Gilbert and project leaders	Mid march 2006
FEEDBACK	A regular feedback in terms of report will be done on every activity	Project leader & Task team	Ongoing

Source: MFSP, 2004

In this plan the identified plot size was indicated as 2.5 hectares and only a hectare was to be used for growing vegetables. A quarter of the vegetable plot was to be under a net and the remaining on open field. Training was to be hands-on and ongoing basis. Irrigation system to be used was the furrow and sprinkler system and in future it was to be determined by the soil type and the progress of the planting schedule. It could be seen in subsection 5.4.6 and Table 5.4.4 concerning the project's budget (MFSP, 2009) that the current farming activities revolve around five main types of produce: Spinach, Beetroot, Carrots, Onions, and Cabbages. This gardening is the only livelihood project actively functioning in the Mayaeyane village.

5.4.4.1 Progress of the project

On production, three monthly reports that had been submitted to the DSD, Ngaka Modiri Molema District office, as found in Table 5.4.3 were obtained (MFSP 2009). In these reports, one could find that the Mayaeyane Food Security project had progressed in its fourth phase according to its planned activity. Currently, spinach and cabbages were the major products. Other products being sold to the community (which the researcher found but were not included in the report in Table 5.4.3) were carrots, beetroots, and onions. Though production and sales were high, one finds in the income and expenditure pattern that the project was operating at a loss. The total income from production for the three months period, which was R3778.00, was far below the expenditure of R5776.00 for the same period. There was a loss of R1998.00. That expenditure does not include stipends of R500.00 per person for that period that amounted to R9500.00. Gross total expenditure which produced an income of R3778.00 was R13, 278.00. As could be found in this table, production and income did not meet expectation. The project was progressing albeit with financial losses.

By the end of November 2009, participating membership had dwindled to six. Some members had resigned because the amount of stipends being paid,

according to them, was not enough. Though the project is a long term one, participants were expecting short term rewards. This did not augur well for its long run growth prospect. The project requires committed participants who would remain very passionate about it and be satisfied with the little income that accrued in the short run. Another reason that the researcher obtained was that there was a conflict in the community regarding the site of the project. The village consists of two locations, the old and new sites. Residents of the old site were not in favour of the project's location at the new site. Instead of other members undertaking a similar project elsewhere, they had requested the chief to let them come on board the existing one and relocate it elsewhere at the old site. It is partially as a result of this also that some members have resigned and hence, the refusal of others to participate. Thus despite the numerous job opportunities the project has, the community members were not availing themselves. Its job creation objective was not being realised. To this point we could say that out of the 64 households expected to benefit from it only 22 had. Currently only six households continue to actively participate and benefit from it.

Regarding food security through vegetable production, participants and a number of community members, had been assured of daily vegetable supply to some extent over the period of the project's existence. This is evidenced by the fact that there was active food production going on and products were being sold to the community members. The perishable vegetables which were left unsold and were going to waste at the end of the day were often distributed free to the needy ones in the village. This was observed by the researcher and was confirmed by officials and members of the project.

Because of consistent demand for fresh produce in towns, the project had identified the following customer groups to supply; Green grocery stores, Supermarkets (in large urban areas such as Mafikeng) and direct sales to consumers in the village and at project site. It currently sells its vegetables to Pick and Pay at Mafikeng (MFSP, 2009).

Table 5.4.3 Mayaeyane Food Security Project - Monthly Report

MAYAEYANE FOOD SECURITY PROJECT						
Monthly Report : September to November 2009						
Year of Funding: 2003/2004						
Objectives: 1. Job Creation						
2. Food Security						
Date	Produce	Income R	Expenditure R	Stipends R	Members participating	Target Pop
Sept.	Cabbages & Spinach	1250	680	4000	8	64 househ olds
October	"	860	3080	2500	5	"
November	"	1668	2016	3000	6	"
Total		3778	5776	9500	6	"
Signed: PR Sereo						
Treasurer						
Date 01/12/2009						

Source: MFSP 2009b

In its current financial strengthening document (MFSP, 2009) to the DSD the project's management had proposed that after re-funding, the DSD should hand it over to the Department of Agriculture by the end of 2010 since it is essentially an agricultural project. Should this transfer occur the DSD was to continue to maintain its social responsibility in the village.

5.4.5 Challenges facing the Mayaeyane food security project

The project faces a number of challenges in the areas of finance (funding), transport, marketing and conflicts. The first challenge is financial. In sub-section 5.4.4 it was seen that the project was initially sponsored with funds from the National Poverty Relief Fund (NPRF). The DSD's Provincial Department subsequently (in terms of financial strengthening) in 2004 increased the project's budget to R250 000 and provided that fund. The project currently is faced with

financial problems. Its income is below its expenditure and is unable to purchase inputs such as transport and agricultural machinery needed for its sustenance.

Table 5.4.4 Budget for financial strengthening in 2009

ITEM DESCRIPTION	AMOUNT (in Rand)
Admin cost & stationery	2 000.00
Tunnels x2	280 000.00
Electrification	80 000.00
Diesel	30 000.00
Coaching and Mentoring	300 000.00
Signboard	10 000.00
Insulated Cold Room	30 000.00
Transport and delivery fees	20 000.00
Seedlings	30 000.00
Pesticides and fertilizers	15 000.00
Project handover event	70 000.00
Contingency & legal fees	50 000.00
GRAND TOTAL	R917 000.00

Source: MFSP 2009.

Due to its limited finances it is also unable to increase the stipends paid to participants. This had resulted in its current request for financial strengthening of R917 000 (as found in their 2009 budget in Table 5.4.4) from the DSD (MFSP, 2009).

A second problem related to finance is the payment of stipends and on-going resignations. Members of this project though are producing for the market and obtain free supply of vegetables for their households continue to complain about their R500.00 monthly stipends. These complaints, in addition to others, have resulted in resignations from the project. As at October 2009, the membership had dwindled to 6 active ones. Unfortunately in the budget in Table 5.4.4 there is no provision for stipends to forestall the resignations.

Another irony is that the resigned members were home not working and receiving no income. The preference of staying home with no income to working for stipends

makes one wonder whether those members wanted to come out of their poverty or they had resigned themselves to it. Judging from their actions one could realise that some members claimed no ownership of the project and misunderstood the objectives of the project's sponsors and the expected outcomes. They might have thought it was a Provincial Government project in which they were merely employees. They could be understood in the context of their illiteracy and the lack of the culture of entrepreneurship in the village as well as poor attitude to work.

A third problem relates to transport and marketing of produce. It is in need of a vehicle to be used for marketing and purchasing of inputs (the same problem was pointed out at Mathateng). The objective of obtaining a vehicle was to ensure rapid movement of fresh produce to supermarkets and other customers. Without a reliable project-owned transport the perishable vegetables being produced cannot reach the market fresh and therefore would not be sold. Currently, a vehicle belonging to one of the members (the Secretary) was being used to carry their farm products for sale in nearby bigger locations of Makgobistad and Pitsane villages which are 16 and 40 kilometres away respectively. She had volunteered the use of the vehicle by the Co-operative. But the Co-operative bears the fuel cost any time they used it. It had been their internal arrangement and was not to be seen as a permanent feature. If the vehicle owner withdraws the service the project would face a big problem.

The fourth problem is the conflict among the community members regarding the site and membership of the project. This project is seen by the whole community as a development process yet it was bringing feud among the inhabitants as to who should be the main beneficiaries. A solution has to be found which is indicated in the recommendations.

5.4.5.1 The challenge of Animal production

Another problem which was deferred to this point is the failure of the animal production programme in the third phase. The question among others that first

arose which the researcher tried to find out later was the purpose for supplying the animals to the households. According to information gathered through interviews, the officials of DSD and the community as well as background on the origin of MFSP given, before the intervention programme, the community was in severe food crisis and needed urgent intervention both short and long term. The goat and chicken project was therefore a long term intervention to ensure food security for the community. Secondly, they were to rear them to generate regular income. These households understood this purpose which was explained to them by officials. But due to the severity of their food problem they were forced to eat the animals, the capital which they were provided. A statement from Madam Segoje when asked about her reason to use the animals for food confirms this. "...I had no food for three days, what could I do when I have a chicken which can feed me and my children?" Another stated "I had no alternative than to do what could save us" These responses from some household members explain their actions. Again respondents reported that some individuals were stealing from others. This made them use their capital because it served no purpose keeping them for others to steal.

The next question is whether the Department of Social Development assessed correctly the community's capabilities to rear the animals and whether they could continue to purchase the feed needed after the initial supplies. From the very beginning if the causes of their conditions were assessed correctly it would have been clearly noted that their lack of capabilities had been the cause of their poverty and food crisis situation. The literature in chapter 2 clearly depicts this. To give them animals to rear without considering their capabilities in animal rearing meant the officials did not understand the fundamentals of the community's problem. Though a training programme had been instituted, it was premature to have given out the animals to households at that stage. They should first have been made to complete the programme before supplying the animals. Considering the type of vegetation described in the background of this chapter and in this subsection, a forensic assessment should have brought out clearly that they were incapable of

caring for those animals and that if officials thought that the community was going to allow the animals to roam wildly in search of pasture, they were mistaken.

Again being frustrated for not having animal feed together with their own food situation made the community resort to slaughtering those animals for food (to feed themselves). They considered the animals also as gifts and as their property which they could or had the freedom to do anything with.

The other question is who was to blame for the failure? In the allocation of blame, both sides should share responsibility. The department did not do its homework of finding effective method for this project. Instead of allocating the goats and chicken to each household, the animals could have been allocated in bulk to the community and a command ownership structure found for keeping and rearing them at a time when the animal breeding training programme would have been completed. Secondly, the department should have started with identifying, and engaging them in the type of livelihood activities that they knew best. From Korten (Monaheng, 1995)) and World Bank (1996) the advice is to "Start with what the people know" and "Build on what the people have".

On the other hand since the community understood the purpose for which they were given the animals, they should have exercised some care and restraint. However some informants felt the failure could be blamed on conflict between the youth and local officials during the implementation of this project and the community should bear responsibility. Objectively a reason one could put forward for the conflict and failure could be lack of understanding of the objectives of what was taking place and insufficient training workshops for participants that would have given them operational awareness and the principles and practice of Co-operatives.

When one analyses the usefulness of the expenditure incurred, one could conclude that the expenditure on the animals was not wasteful because it met one

of the objectives of the department, ensuring that no one went to bed without a meal (DSD, 2006). The animals provided food for the households in the village which were in dire need of food. However it did not provide the main expected sustainable outcome of food security.

5.4.6 The impact of the Mayaeyane project

The Mayaeyane Food Security Project also has the general objectives of creating jobs and providing food security. Its specific objectives (as found in subsection 5.4.2) are to undertake vegetable gardening in order to provide households in the community with food and also promote self-reliance of participants by providing farming skills.

For the general objectives, it had created employment for some households and job opportunities. For the specific one, food production has taken place in the vegetable garden which had been sold to the community. Since its inception it had engaged about twenty participating members but currently has a membership of six (5 women and a man). It had engaged its target population, mainly women. From the Business Plan approved by the DSD all the households in the village (64 households) were to be involved but this has not been the case. Only six (6) households were currently participating or represented. The NWPG (2004) and DSD's (2004) objectives of providing as many people as possible with employment opportunities have therefore not yet been fully met in this community regarding this project.

Regarding income, vegetables from this project were being sold to the immediate communities and as far as to the Mafikeng Pick 'n Pay Supermarket, which was bringing income to the project and its members. From the perceptions of interviewees quality vegetables were being produced which were fetching the project the much needed income. This is a great achievement as it has fulfilled the objective of food security for project participants and a number of households. Yet from the project's available three months reports to the DSD (MFSP 2009), its

income was very low. As a result, members were unable to transfer much of their income to dependant relatives. This may mean that the project is not effectively increasing production outputs or addressing its production and financial problems. It is reasonable therefore to point out that though the project is income generating it is yet to make some profit and be self reliant as found in its objectives.

On skills development, on-the-job skills training in vegetable farming was being offered to its members by the Department of Agriculture's extension officers. It has met that outcome, albeit for the benefit of less than a tenth of the targeted households. Finally, the fact that the project has not been able to attract more members is indicative of its low impact in this community. The objective of reducing a large number of people's poverty and making them self-reliant, by implementing the project, is far from being met.

5.5 PROJECT 3: THE RADITHUSO FOOD PRODUCTION PROJECT AT UITKYK

5.5.1 Background of the project

The Radithuso Food Production project is located at Uitkyk in the Ditsobotla Local Municipality, about 70 kilometres south of Mafikeng. Its site at Uitkyk is on the Mafikeng, Gelukspan and Mareetsane road intersection which is also about three kilometres to the Gelukspan hospital. This location also has similar geographical characteristics as the areas where the other projects already described are but the vegetation slightly differ. Instead of thorn bushes the vegetation of the area is mainly of tall grass with pockets of medium height trees. This is indicative of a higher annual rainfall average (of a minimum approximately 10mm) than that at Mathateng and Mayaeyane (NMMDM, 2007). A few areas therefore support crop farming such as maize and vegetables. This is evidenced by the researcher's personal observation and interviews and experience of the place. This location thus has a slight geographical advantage over the other locations described. An added advantage is its nearness and easy access to Mafikeng, the provincial

capital, and other big towns such as Lichtenburg and to the Gelukspan Community hospital. It has a better tarred road leading to it. Demographically it has a total population of 1155 comprising 564 males and 591 females and also 220 households (Stats SA, 2001).

Despite the community's nearness to large towns it faces serious problems of unemployment and poverty. Their nearness to large towns had contributed greatly to teenage pregnancy, single parenthood by these teenagers which had exacerbated the poverty problem in the area. The need for poverty intervention projects was therefore urgent.

In this village of Uitkyk and other surrounding villages are found a huge unemployed young population, uncontrolled teenage pregnancies and mass poverty (Stats SA, 2001; NMMDM, 2007). These problems had been the worry of the ward councillors and the community in general. They found out that the solution to these problems rested with the establishment of food security projects that would occupy the youth and the unemployed with work, provide income and sustenance. They therefore in 2001 initiated a food production project at Gelukspan now referred to as Radithuso Food Production (RFP). The project started at a temporary location in Gelukspan in 2001 and later relocated to Uitkyk, its current and permanent site, and covers a farm land area of about 3 hectares.

Unlike the other projects dealt with above, the RFP project was initiated by Ward Councillors and Social workers of the area. Their initiative emanated from the unacceptably high growth of teenage pregnancy among the youth who had no work or received no incomes to be able to care for the children and themselves. There was also a high growth of youth who had either completed high school or dropped out of school and who had no suitable skills to be able to find work or be self employed.

Having noted these socio economic problems plaguing their area, the ward councillors brought representatives of Gelukspan, Uitkyk and Naauwpoort villages

together in May 2001 and put across the idea of a co-operative project that would provide employment and livelihood for the youth, women and the disabled in the community and reduce their poverty. The idea was widely accepted when its objectives were explained to them. In June 2001, sixty members (comprising 20 members selected by each of the three villages) initially started the project. The numbers grew to 104 by December. These consisted of 80 females and 24 males aged between 25 and 50 years (RFP, 2002; Focus Group3, 2008). The Departments of Agriculture and Social Development were contacted and a business plan was thereafter drawn and submitted for funding in March 2002.

Expectations of participants in the project were that members would receive sufficient income from sponsors before the project generated income. The perception was that the project would bring them out of poverty within a short period of working. Again this was seen as the solution to the unemployment problem of many households there (Focus Group 3, 2008).

5.5.2 The objectives of the Project and target population

This project, like the others, targeted women and the youth. The specific objectives of the project were:

- To undertake poultry farming and vegetable gardening for sustenance and provide livelihoods for other members of the community.
- To Develop and become a profit making organisation providing employment and income for its members while reducing mass poverty within the community.
- To provide the community with meat and vegetables.
- To provide livelihood to women and the youth (DSD, 2002; Radithuso, 2002).

The first proposed outcome of this project was food security i.e. availability of farm produce of broilers and vegetables for the community and its environs. The second was skills to be gained in poultry and food production by project participants. The third was the ability of participants to generate sufficient income to improve their

quality of life, and in the long run be self sufficient. The fourth was the project's ability to provide employment and income for households in the community. The fifth outcome was that other members of the community would be able to set up similar livelihood projects (Radithuso, 2002).

5.5.3 Implementation of the project and its phases

The project was also implemented in phases. In the first phase, a management team of five was appointed by the community. The project's historical records containing the original management team could not be traced. However it is currently well managed by its executives who were selected from among participants themselves. The team is reflected in the Table 5.5. Going by its objectives, women form the majority.

Table 5.5 Radithuso Project Management Team

NAME	DESIGNATION	GENDER	AGE
Philda Sedumedi	Chairperson	F	34
Dorcas Tshotshwe	Vice Chairperson	F	42
Agnes Tshotshwe	Secretary	F	35
Daniel Mafebe	Treasurer	M	48
Sara Koko	Vice secretary	F	36
Philip Molete	Manager	M	38

Source: Radithuso, 2008

A bank account was opened at the Standard Bank of South Africa. The chairperson, secretary and treasurer were the signatories to the account. This was followed by the writing of a business plan by the elected executives and was lodged with the Department of Agriculture for funding. The business plan had two clusters of activities; vegetable production in the south and poultry farming in the north of the project's allocated land. The vegetable garden was to produce Cabbages, Spinach, Carrots and Sunflower. The poultry farm was to produce broilers.

Since the project was a community initiative, the community provided it with a large track of land of about four hectares at Gelukspan. It started with a vegetable garden and other food production activities in phase 2 in 2001. The Department of Agriculture provided farming inputs (seeds and fertilizers, refer to Table 5.5a) and the project started to grow vegetables until they found that the land was unsuitable for the kind of production that they were engaged in. By 2004 activities of the project were suspended due to difficulties in obtaining funding, and non-payments of stipends to members. During this phase they were able to obtain an average income of R46 000.00 per annum which was below an expected income of R145 000.00 from sales. A breakdown of production activities was not obtained from the records but an expenditure of R62 000.00 per annum was found recorded.

In this phase participants were provided with food parcels as stipends until the project could sustain them. Later, cash payments of R500.00 per month substituted for the food parcels. The Chairperson of the project received R1000.00 per month. However this did not meet the expectations of many who wanted higher monetary payments or wages. Being dissatisfied they left in trickle. By the end of 2004 only about 20 members remained on site (Focus Group 3, 2008). Unfortunately, detailed written primary records of their initial activities at Gelukspan could not be traced by the researcher because as the project moved from its original location at Gelukspan to Uitkyk, a few kilometres away, documents apparently got lost and could not be traced (Sedumedi, 2008).

In September 2007 the project was rejuvenated with the injection of funds of R577 400.00 by the Department of Agriculture (RFP, 2009). This marked phase 3. They then moved to Uitkyk the current location at which point in time their production objectives put emphasis on poultry production. The Poultry broiler production had become the main focus of this project (Moleté, 2008). The Sixty members, 40 women and 20 men, remaining moved to the new location to continue with the project.

To sustain the broiler production activity, the Department of Social Development further provided a grant of R420 000.00 towards infrastructure development in 2008 (as indicated in Table 5.5.1). Table 5.5.1 shows much greater contribution by the Department of Agriculture. A total amount of R947 400.00 had been expended on the project by the time this researcher visited the site in 2008. The project thus has 2 large structures (chicken houses) for poultry broilers production. These are bigger than those at Mathateng. Two other building structures are there for the storage of feed, office and freezers for the storage of processed chicken for sale. A water-storage tank has also been provided on site.

The project and the community have an advantage of being on Eskom electricity grid and therefore receive electricity supply. As a result of the availability of electricity Radithuso Food Production has diversified its activities by processing its farm products. The electricity has enabled the project to sell live as well as frozen chicken. This is further discussed under production and sales in sub section 5.5.4.

Table 5.5.1 Funding of the project

FUNDING ORGANIZATION	TYPE OF FUNDING		PURPOSE
	CASH AMOUNT	MATERIAL/INPUTS	
Department of Agriculture	R 577 400.00	Seeds and fertilizers	Inputs for planting
			Infrastructure & stipends
Social Development	R 420 000.00		Infrastructure, Stipends & Poultry production inputs (i.e. Day old chickens, feed & medication etc.)
Total	R 997 400.00		

The management team has effectively controlled production and marketing activities. They were receiving no income though the project was making average monthly gross turnover of over R20 000 (RFP, 2009). At the time this researcher first visited the project site, participants' numbers had reduced to 15, made up of 5 men and 10 women. One major problem with these projects is that of record

keeping. The researcher could not obtain any credible record of sales for the first phase. Efforts were made unsuccessfully to obtain production figures for that period from the Department of Agriculture and DSD.

The group understood and agreed, among themselves, that all incomes accruing to the project were to be left to accumulate for them to get a sizeable running capital after which they were to give themselves defined wages out of accruing profits should their production and profit grow. Currently they called themselves “volunteers” as they received no cash income or stipends. This is contained in the December monthly report to the DSD (RFP, Dec 2008; Focus Group 3, 2008). The Project’s monthly report to the DSD for December 2008 clearly states that: “We thought we could compensate ourselves but because of high mortality of our chicken we think it wouldn’t be a good business decision at this time.” This is an indication that they had not yet fixed wages for themselves.

5.5.4. Production and Sale of poultry products

From the project’s production records, the poultry farm started with 500 day-old-broiler chicks in its first month in 2004 and by the end of the first cycle they had an input of 2200 chicks and output of 2067 which fetched R93 086. Table 5.5.2 shows the input output records. In January 2007 when the researcher first visited the project site, poultry production (broilers), was actively going on and they had in stock 3000 broilers of which 1000 was ready for sale. The workers were satisfied with their production output as they were able to have a monthly average cash flow of ± R 20 000. Refer to Tables 5.5.3 and 5.5.4 of sales emanating from Cash book & sales records from 2007 to 2009 (RFP, 2009).

According to Molete (2008) who is the project’s manager, by the nature of the business, it was difficult to fix time lines for production activities. Sometimes a batch of chicken stayed for only three months, and in other times they could stay for six months before they were all sold out. Further, they do not have to be necessarily sold out before replenishing stock. However the chairperson Ms

Sedumedi (2008) indicated that for every 4 months cycle they could buy and sell averagely 2500 chicken as indicated in the Table 5.5.2.

For the period of its third phase (September 2007 - December 2009) it had had seven production cycles (four months each) with an input of 17 200 chicks and output of 15 833 chickens. Table 5.5.2 clearly shows this. Output was lower than input due to mortality. However in monetary terms, the output of R656 171 far outweighs input amount of R232 200 showing a gross profit of R507 749 over the period. This is very significant because it is here seen to be achieving its income generation and food production objectives. A careful scrutiny also reveals that inputs and outputs were down during the seventh cycle though the price of the project's chicken had been raised.

Table 5.5.2 Production cycles showing inputs and outputs of chicken (Sep 2007 –Dec 2009).

Period of 4 months per cycle	QUANTITY PURCHASED (INPUTS)	Cost @ R13.50 per chic	QUANTITY PRODUCED (OUTPUTS)	SALE AMOUNT	Gross Profit/Loss
		R		R	R
Sept 2007 – Dec 2007	2200	29 700	2067	93 086	63 386
Jan 2008 Apr 2008	3000	40 500	2870	129 180	88 680
May 2008 – Aug 2008	3000	40 500	2929	131 840	91 340
Sep-Dec 2008	3000	40 500	2 831	141 595	101 095
Jan-Apr 2009	3000	40 500	2514	113 123	72 623
May-Aug 2009	2000	27 000	1892	94 600	67 600
Sep-Dec 2009	1000	13 500	730	36 525	23 025
TOTAL	17 200	232 200	15 833	656 171	507 749

Source: RFP sales /outputs records 2009

To be able to increase and maintain their income flow they also process and sell frozen whole chicken, chicken pieces, chicken necks and feet. These were packaged and sold at prices to meet the pockets of the poor community members.

There was a freezer on site for that purpose. A full live or frozen chicken was selling for R45.00 by 2008 but increased to R50 by December 2008 due to cost. The chickens were being sold to the surrounding communities as well as people from far distances. At the time of interviews in June 2007, this was proved to be true as the research team observed customers arriving to make purchases.

Referring to Tables 5.5.3 and Table 5.5.4 and using monthly totals of income and expenditure per year for analysis (to determine profit and loss without considering any other factors that might have brought in income or expenditure) one can find that though little profit accrued in 2009 (average of R1238.94 per month) the project's expenditure had been high and they had incurred losses in the past years. This was attributed to feeding cost and maintenance.

Table 5.5.3 Sales Cash flow (Income) per month from 2007-2009

ITEM	Month	Year		
		2007 R	2008 R	2009 R
SALE OF CHICKEN				
"	January	Nil	28 980	36 133
"	Feb	Nil	31 480	34 650
"	Mar	Nil	33 120	19 170
"	Apr	Nil	35 600	23 170
"	May	Nil	31 200	33 900
"	June	Nil	34 100	35 200
"	Jul	Nil	32 640	23 500
"	Aug	Nil	33 900	Nil
"	Sep	23 706	32 000	11 155
"	Oct	21 300	35 900	10 320
"	Nov	22 410.	30 500	9 800
"	Dec	25 670	43 195	5 250
TOTAL		93 086	370 615	242 248
Av. Sale pm		23 217.5	30 884.58	20 187.33

Source: RFP Cashbook 2007-2009

Though the project was functioning well it was not without challenges for which the executives were managing.

Table 5.5.4 Expenditure Pattern per month from 2007-2009

ITEM	MONTH	YEAR		
		2007 R	2008 R	2009 R
Purchase of chickens, feed & Maintenance	January	Not Available	45 567	15 512.65
"	February	"	39 048.30	35 210
"	March	"	65 786.34	25 350
"	April	"	51 889	21 230
"	May	"	17 000	24 320
"	June	"	17 346	21 360
"	July	"	28 272.95	11 650
"	August	"	21 921.15	9 200
"	September	60 366.00	33 698	25 300
"	October	11 644.00	32 728	19 360
"	November	51 093.63	35 635	10 600
"	December	13 789.85	36 120	8 300
TOTAL pa		136 893.48	385 963.74	227 392.65
Av monthly Expenditure		34 224.12	32 163.65	18 949.39

Source: RFP Cashbook, 2007-2009

5.5.5 Challenges facing the project

One major challenge which the project was facing was the non-availability of a vehicle for their purchases of feed, medicines and other inputs and sales outside the locality (RFP, 2008b). This challenge has recurred in all the projects studied. A lot of time was therefore spent by the procurement officer looking for transport to travel to make purchases of day old chicks and other inputs. Without the projects' own means of transport they could not compete effectively in other markets.

Another challenge was the temperature increases in the chicken houses and its control. According to the 2008 December report, their thermostat rose to 40 degrees in two of the chicken houses. This led to the death of one thousand and thirteen birds (1013) (RFP, 2008b). Another challenge was the drying in June of water in the project's borehole. Rainfall was low and scarce. That had caused the delay in the operational activities of the vegetable farming wing. The farm needed sufficient water for constant irrigation. This was a threat to the vegetable wing (RFP, 2008b).

The project functioned for only a few years i.e. from 2001 to 2004 and stalled. A reason provided by Molete (2008) was that participants did not receive stipends, because there were no funds. As a result, many participants withdrew from the project. The provision of stipends to maintain and attract people to the project has become a problem not only in this particular project but in all those that have been examined in this study. It needs to be properly addressed to maintain the progress of the project.

Another problem with this project was that of record keeping. The researcher could not obtain any credible record of sales for the first phase. Efforts were made unsuccessfully to obtain production figures for that period from the Department of Agriculture and DSD. The problem of record keeping needs to be addressed.

5.5.6 The impact of the Uitkyk Project

The Radithuso Food Production Project at Uitkyk like the others, has the objectives of job creation, skills development and food security for its community. Specifically it was to undertake poultry and vegetable farming that would provide the community with meat and vegetables; become profit making and provide employment so as to reduce poverty with women and the youth as its target population (refer to subsection 5.5.2).

Accordingly, the project had employed and provided job opportunities to the target population, the women and the youth. As many as one hundred and twenty (120) household members, majority being women, have benefitted from it (Focus Group 3, 2008). Currently 15 households were participating and from their perceptions their living standards had changed from being idle, dissatisfied domestic workers to satisfied self employed members of a Co-operative (Focus Group 3, 2008). However, the project has not effectively engaged sufficient number of community members in its production activities. It has not provided sufficient employment to the community. Due to the skills participants had gained from the on-the-job

training in poultry farming, the project has managed to obtain a turnover rate of over R20 000 per month (RFP, 2008).

From the perceptions of the interviewees in the community, their meat production had been of great demand within and outside the community. It had brought a change in the community's food security situation. The presence and easy accessibility of the project's produce has also saved the community members the cost of travelling to purchase meat in nearby towns.

From the objectives in the Business Plan as found in sub-section 5.5.2 and from the perceptions of interviewees one could find that all the objectives of the Radithuso Food Production Project have been met to some extent. It is profit making and providing income to participants, providing meat from the farm and providing livelihood to the target population whose well-being has been uplifted. No doubt, it has had a good and significant impact on participants and the entire surrounding rural communities regarding the provision of meat. However, the project had failed to provide the community with vegetables as proposed.

In sum, from the discussions on implementation and production activities, the objectives of this project have largely been met. Employment has been created for 120 people and job opportunities still exist in this project. Livelihoods have been provided for women and the youth while the community is being provided with poultry meat. Thus the effects of the poverty reduction project were being felt in this community.

5.6 PROJECT 4: ANIMAL FEED AND MEDICAL DISTRIBUTORS AT MAFIKENG

5.6.1 Background of the project

This project is located in Mafikeng town next to Ngaka Modiri Molema District Municipality offices but serves the rural suburbs. Rationale for this location is not based on any factor other than availability of office space. However centrality and accessibility by its target clients have been considered as additional reasons (Seboletswe, 2008). This project's clients come from Dibate and Montshiwastadt in the Mafikeng Local Municipality and the Ngaka Modiri Molema Municipality in general. Mafikeng, the Provincial capital falls within the Mafikeng Local Municipality. It is therefore accessed by people from all municipalities both district and local due to its status. But it is particularly accessed by those of the rural urban fringe of the Mafikeng town.

Though Mafikeng enjoys urban status and economic growth, its rural sector experiences poor economic growth, poverty and a backlog of socio-economic services (NWPG, 2009). Within the city are found a large number of unemployed school leavers seeking employment which is hard to find.

The project was the initiative of the Department of Agriculture which found that livestock farms or animal production centres were far from the feed and medicine producing factories located further away from the district. Emerging commercial and small farmers needed products from these factories for their stock. They had problems accessing the long distance factories to purchase feed and livestock medicines. It was also time consuming and not cost effective travelling long distances to purchase a few items.

Secondly, there was among the emerging black farmers, lack of awareness and knowledge of where to obtain medical and stock feed as well as how to deal with animal health. Due to the lack of knowledge in animal health, mortality rate of their

animals was high. There was the need for an SMME to fill that gap of livestock feed and medical supplies and awareness (Seboletswe, 2008). A third reason that led to this project, like others, was youth unemployment in Mafikeng (Seboletswe, 2008). Hence the emergence of Animal Feed and Medical Distribution project in Mafikeng to take care of those three issues of access, knowledge and youth unemployment.

The project was started in January 2005 by a group of 10 young unemployed men who had knowledge in Animal health and had approached the offices of the Department of Agriculture for employment (AFMD, 2005). They were informed of this programme and the need for a business plan for a project in this respect. They accepted the proposal, prepared a business plan and submitted it for approval and funding. They again approached the Department of Social Development for sponsorship. These took advantage of the government's interest in SMME establishment and development under LED policy.

5.6.2 Objectives of the project and target population

The main aim of the project was to develop long term skills in entrepreneurship for young individual participants. It was to create jobs, in the form of SMMEs, for 10 young urban dwellers (6 males and 4 females) who had dropped out of school or had completed school /college and were still seeking employment (NWPG, 2006).

Specific objectives

The specific objectives of the project were:

- To provide employment and livelihood to the poor unemployed within the Mafikeng local municipality who live on the fringes at Motlhabeng, Montshiwastad and Dibate.
- To supply small rural and emerging farmers in the district with animal feed and livestock medicines.
- To provide awareness and knowledge of animal health maintenance skills to young school leavers and small farmers.

- To serve as animal health (veterinary) extension service to needy farmers in the NMM district.
- To purchase animal feed and medicines in bulk and retail to clients (AFMD, 2005).

The following were its stated outcomes found in its business plan:

- To grow and open at least six branches within the Ngaka Modiri Molema District.
- To develop animal health skills such as vaccination and drug administration among 10 urban youth who were to assist farmers with the knowledge of administering medicines to livestock.
- To distribute products to all parts of the district and to nearby areas in Botswana in order to earn more income.
- To employ at least 10 more youths in the project (AFMD, 2005).
- The project's target population were the unemployed youth and emerging small scale commercial as well as subsistence farmers.

5.6.3 Project's implementation

The project was implemented through three phases as follows:

Phase1

Phase one of the project began with the appointment of its management team from among the members and the sponsors. The team consists of the Chairperson Vice chairperson, Secretary, and Treasurer. The DSD has a CLO who monitors the process, while the Department of Agriculture has a technical personnel assigned to it. Table 5.6 shows the team, designation and gender.

Table 5.6: Mafikeng Animal Feed Management Team

INDIVIDUALS	DESIGNATION	GENDER	DEPARTMENT REPRESENTING
Mr. Joseph Seboletswe	Chairperson	Male	AFMD Member
Ms Dimakatso Tshesane	Vice Chairperson	Female	"
Ms Dimakatso Sechele	Secretary	Female	"
Mr. Kgosi G	Treasurer	Male	"
Ms Yvonne Pooe		Female	Social Development
Mr. S. Digwamaje		Male	Agriculture

Source: AFMD, 2005

Upon its appointment, the management team was tasked with the writing of a business plan and the opening of the project's bank account. The business plan when completed was submitted to the DSD for funding. It was considered to be in line with that Department's objectives and requirements. Accordingly the department of Social Development funded them with R252 000.00. That fund was to be used to hire premises and to purchase inputs such as animal feed, livestock medication etc. Refer to Table 5.6.1. The Department of Agriculture provided technical support. (DSD, 2008).

Table 5.6.1: Funding and Sponsors

Sponsor	Type of sponsorship		Purpose
	Amount	Materials/other	
Social Development	R252 000.00		To purchase inputs – medicines, Feed & hiring premises
Dept. Of Agric	Nil	Technical support	Capacity building

Phase 2

In this phase the executive committee hired premises adjacent to the Ngaka Modiri Molema District Offices for the project. It began orientating members regarding daily routines and customer care. The initial members were people that had qualifications in animal health from the university and therefore did not require training in that line but needed training in salesmanship. However, other members

who joined later were given on-the-job training on animal health and medications as required. The Department of Agriculture through the North West Veterinary services provided on-the-job training to project members in animal health products and animal health management. Salesmanship training was to be on-going and done on the job.

Phase 3

After training, the project started operating in phase three. It did purchase inputs such as livestock medication, animal feed etc in bulk from the factories and stocked them in its premises for retail to clients. It began advertising and identifying its customers from farms at Montshiwastad, Dibate and Motlhabeng in the immediate vicinity of Mafikeng. Having found customers it operated by allowing the project's participating members to sell animal feed and livestock medicines either to customers at the warehouse or go directly to customers' farms to sell to them.

With knowledge gained from training, participants also offered assistance and training in the administration and dispensing of animal health medicines to its farmer-customers within the Ngaka Modiri Molema District Municipality. The training of farmers entailed animal vaccination, early detection of diseases and how to correctly administer medications to different stocks. The result of these has been the reduction of animal mortality in the target farms by 80% (AFMD, 2009).

The animal health products' dispensing and management skills obtained from the training had enabled them to also to provide essential skills to at least ten small and emerging farmers within the Mafikeng Local Municipality (in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District) (AFMD 2009). According to Seboletswe (2008), the farmers had gained enough knowledge and experience to be able to inoculate the stock themselves. The project was progressing at a slow pace. Its activities and services to the farmers were not as robust as before. Currently, it has in its employment 5

participants out of the original 10 who started. The other five left because the remuneration was low (AFMD, 2009).

5.6.4 Challenges facing the project

This project faces a number of common problems. Its major problem has been that it has no truck of its own for bulk purchases from the factories and to the farms. The available vehicle is not spacious enough to be used for large stock purchases. They therefore buy in small quantities which has giving rise to constant insufficient stocking of supplies.

Another problem is finance. Though the DSD had funded it with R252, 000.00, the available capital to purchase stock was not enough (AFMD, 2009). Since purchases from suppliers were not large enough, suppliers gave neither discounts nor credit contracts to the project. They were thus faced with stiff competition from large established feed and medicine suppliers who buy in greater quantities, have credit contracts and therefore receive discounts on their purchases (AFMD, 2009). Due to these, the project's prices were a little higher than their larger competitors. They have less market share in the business. Their only strength was in the direct sale to farmers at the farms (on-farm sales).

The other problem facing this Co-operative is resignation by members due to low income and low stipend distribution. This was noted earlier and 5 out of the 10 participants had resigned. The high rental paid for the business premises also poses a problem. Due to these problems and low turnover, the viability or sustainability of this project is in doubt.

5.6.5The impact of the Mafikeng Animal Feed and Medical Distribution Project

The objectives of the Mafikeng Animal feed and Medical Distribution Project, (the fourth project under study), were to create jobs and provide skills to participating

members and target population, the youth and the emerging farmers. It was also to provide emerging farmers with feed and vet medical supplies. (Refer to sub-section 5.6.2). It achieved these objectives by creating jobs for its target of at least ten initial participants who earned some income (AFMD, 2009; Focus Group 4, 2008). Its current status of 5 members has resulted in its low turnover which in turn has led to the project's inability to purchase large stock at a discount.

The Department of Agriculture, through the North West Veterinary services, provides on- the- job training to project members in animal health products and animal health management. The animal health products' dispensing and management skills obtained by 10 participants from this type of training has enabled them to transfer their skills to at least 10 other small and emerging farmers within the Mafikeng local Municipality in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District. According to Seboletswe (2008), the farmers themselves have learnt to inoculate their animals against diseases and to correctly administer medications. The result of these has been the reduction of animal mortality in the target farms by 80% (Seboletswe, 2008). Furthermore the 10 project participants also received on- the- job training skills in marketing and book keeping.

To this end, one could say that since the project could provide some 10 small farmers the skills of immunising their stock, and that more farmers have been requesting for the provision of services of this Co-operative regularly, an inference of some achievement and impact of their services on the small emerging farming communities can be made. Again, as a result of the project's direct sale to the farmers in their farms, the emerging farmers have easy and quick access to feed and medicines. The direct sale to farms has cut down the farmers' transport cost. Farmers again spend more time on the fields than before. In terms of employment, although the number of participants had reduced to five the objective of giving employment to the youth has been realised to a limited extent. The participants had been empowered with the knowledge of animal health, book keeping and salesmanship.

Yet, despite the above, not all the measurable target outcomes have been reached. It had failed to open branches and the project's activities have not been extended to neighbouring Botswana. Furthermore, it has not expanded its employment focus for the youth.

5.7 NMMDM-SPECIFIC SERVICE DELIVERY PROJECTS INITIATED

In addition to livelihood projects, service deliveries aimed at poverty reduction have been initiated in the district. However, very few have been initiated in the study area. The services delivered are in response to the service delivery backlogs noted in chapter 4. The basic services which continue to be provided in the urban segments at the district level include the provision of safe water; sanitation, refuse collection, ablution facilities, sewerage, electricity and housing. A few of these are being initiated in the study area which are villages in the Ratlou Local Municipality (RLM). Table 5.7 and 5.8 depict services initiated in the Ratlou Local Municipality, where the study area is located, between 2004 and 2007. They include electricity, water, housing, sanitation, cemetery and parks and refuse removal. These services were provided over the period from 2003 to 2007 (RLM, 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007). Table 5.7 shows the targets, actual performance (quantities provided) and budgets allocated to them.

Analysis of the table reveals that the RLM provided water services at Setlagole, the Local Municipality's capital, and other areas such as Disaneng, Makgobistad and Selosesha. Table 5.8 indicates that this enabled 25 400 households to have access to free basic water of 36kl per month. It also indicates evidence of service delivery in Electricity connection which had also been extended to 1000 households at Madibogopan. But this is under half of the 2208 households proposed and budgeted for the seven towns and villages. In actual performance electricity was supplied to only two villages, namely, Madibogopan and Diolwane. Table 5.7 shows that street lighting was to be provided but this was not delivered.

On sanitation, out of the targeted 4830 beneficiaries in RLM, only 863 benefited from the provision of VIP type of toilets. The target was not reached due to municipal capacity deficiency which was earlier noted as the cause of service delivery backlogs. The villages in the study area were excluded in all these services provision. Although Mayaeyane was included in the proposal for electricity provision, it did not receive street lights. What was provided for at Mathateng was perimeter fencing and supply of electricity to the community hall. The hall was fenced but electricity was unfortunately not supplied.

Table 5.7: Services Delivered (Performance) for the Function of Infrastructure, Water, Roads and Housing etc at Ratlou Local Municipality

OBJECTIVES	Year	Project or Initiative	Baseline/P revious Year's Performan ce	Actual performance	Budget	Actual Expenditu re in Rand
Provision of Water Services	2004	Setlagole Water Scheme	Service over 200m working distance.	Entire budget spent for the project	2 800 000.00	2 800 000.00
		Connection to Municipal Offices	Amount set aside to augment budget	Installation of 20000 litres overhead storage, connection	102,000.00	102,000.00
		Augmentation to water projects	New	Nil	1,600 000.00	0.00
	2004	Disaneng Water	New	Construction completed	6,753,023.00	6,194,603.08
		Sewage Plant	New	Open tender	400,000.00	0.00
	2005 - 2007	Makgobistad Water Supply Upgrade	New	Installation of 5km pipeline, 45 new communal standpipes and a 207kl overhead Steel reservoir	2,631,579.00	2,689,067.02
	2005 - 2007	Selosesha/ Semashu Water Supply	New	Installation of 4,64km pipelines, 8 communal standpipes and 2*10kl overhead plastic reservoir	1,491,228.00	1,310,922.66
	2005 -	Madibogopan Water Supply	10 convention	Installation of 5km pipeline, 36 new pre-paid	2,631,579.00	2,173,194.39

	2007	Scheme Upgrade	al communal standpipes	communal standpipes and a 207kl overhead Steel reservoir		
Provisi on of Housi ng	2004 - 2007	Mathateng Housing	New	Construction of 250 low cost houses of 35m ² floor area size. 1000 houses secured.	5,075,000.00	7,001,157.60
Provisi on of Cemet ery and Parks	2006 - 2007	Mareetsane Fencing and Upgrading	New	Installation of 800m perimeter fence and construction of Public Ablution block	100,000.00	81,426.50
		Makgori Fencing and Upgrading	New	Installation of 800m perimeter fence and construction of Public Ablution block	100,000.00	118,500.00
Provisi on of Street Lightin g	2005 - 2007	Street Lights on Tarred Road	New	Not achieved	0.00	0.00
Mainta in and Upgra de Roads		Roads	New	Not achieved	466,000.00	0.00
Provision of Building Services		Logageng Comm. Hall	New	Construction of 320m ² community hall	1,004,586.00	1,028,522.91
		Moshawane Comm. Hall	New	Construction of 320m ² community hall	1,157,454.00	1,125,448.19
		Madibogo Comm. Hall	New	Construction of 320m ² community hall	1,123,313.00	1,074,169.74
		Makgobistad Comm. Hall	New	Construction of 320m ² community hall	1,174,312.00	1,216,732.98
		Fencing and Electrification of Comm. Halls	New	Installation of perimeter fence for Masamane and Mathateng community halls	120,000.00	26,118.70
		Municipal Offices	New	Construction of part of the new municipal office space	4,743,068.00	4,743,068.00
		Kraaipan Clinic	New	Construction of clinic facilities and nurses home	3,667,661.00	3,116,390.71

Source: RLM Annual Reports 2004 - 2008

From the Table 5.7 and the Ratlou Local Municipality report of 2007 as well as field observations, it is clear that though services were being provided for the poor, they

were concentrated in a few larger villages and towns and not widespread throughout the municipality.

In the study area, services proposed and provided, as found in the annual reports, were electricity for 70 households at Mayaeyane and housing at Mathateng for 250 households. At Mayaeyane, power lines can be found along poles on the main road but they have not been connected to the national grid. However at Uitkyk, due to its location about three kilometres away from the Gelukspan hospital, electricity is available to the community.

The provision of the 250 free houses at Mathateng has led to the development of two settlements. The original settlement of traditional dwellings (consisting of mud houses and shacks), is referred to as the 'old site' while the 'new site' constitutes the area of government's free RDP houses. However the residents are unable to maintain the houses due to their limited disposable incomes.

At Mayaeyane the RDP housing programme of the government began in 2005. Since then only the foundation platforms have been constructed next to each household's old residence. The platforms are there and no further development has taken place (Focus Group2, 2008). The IDP of the Ratlou Local Municipality for the year 2008 and that of the NMMDM for 2007 are silent on this issue. The housing situation there manifests poverty. Discussions with the various households at Mayaeyane revealed that they had lost hope of the promised housing delivery (i.e. houses being erected on the platforms). At Uitkyk no public housing development has taken place and the community confirmed this during focus group interviews (Focus Group 3, 2008).

The study found a few other basic service deliveries in these villages. In the following sub-section we examine the available services, such as Education, Social Security Grants, Water supply, and health care services and how they have affected the poor in the study area.

Table 5.8: Summary and General Key Performance Indicators of Service Delivery at Ratlou Local municipality for 2005-2007

Key Performances	Objectives	Target and Number of Beneficiaries	Actual Performance Achieved	Budget	
				Budget in Rand	Actual Expenditure in Rand
1. Services Provided					
• Water	To provide 36kl free basic water to communities	25 400 households	25 400 households provided with free basic water (36kl)	6754386.00	6173184.07
• Sanitation	To coordinate the provision of VIP type toilets to all the communities	4830	863	Budget figure not provided in report	Expenditure figure not provided in report
• Electricity	To facilitate the provision of 1108 electricity connection to households without electricity	Madibogopan-1740 Diolwane-100 Moshawane-120 Ditlounge-60 Mayaeyane-70 Sasane-60 Frenchdale-58	1000 – Madibogopan 120-Diolwane	Budget figure not provided in report	Expenditure Figure not provided in report
• Refuse removal and solid waste Disposal	The municipality is not performing this function		N/A	N/A	N/A
• Housing	To provide Low Cost housing	Provision of 1000 houses	1000 houses secured	5 075 000.00	6 860 497.34

Source: RLM Annual Report 2008

5.7.1 The provision of Educational facilities

To overcome illiteracy which has caused poverty in the study area, Crèches were simultaneously established with the livelihood projects by the DSD in collaboration with the Department of Education (DoE) at Mayaeyane and Mathateng (MFSP, 2004, MTDP, 2008). The crèche at Mayaeyane is run in a permanent building located next to the Food Security Project. It provides day care and nursery education to thirty local children with a staff of 5. The crèche at Mathateng unlike that at Mayaeyane does not have a building of its own. It is located in the

community hall which was recently built by the Ratlou Local Municipality in conjunction with the DSD (RLM, 2008). There were 40 children attending with a staff of four. The salaries of the educators are paid by the Department of Education. There is no crèche at Uitkyk.

An examination of the activities of these educational institutions shows that both crèches provide food, day care and nursery education for the little kids from the villages. The food provided thus supplements the child support grant and ensures food security for the young kids. The crèches charge a token fee of R20.00 per month for feeding which parents were expected to pay from the child support grants they receive monthly. The problem with the crèche at Mathateng was that whenever the community met in the hall, the crèche had to suspend its activities for the day. The schools available at Mathateng, Mayaeyane and Uitkyk go up to primary education level only. There is one school in each of these villages provided by the Department of Education. These schools have recently been renovated by the Education Department. At Mathateng, the school has only four classrooms which are not spacious enough, with five educators handling grades R to 6. The Mayaeyane School has a block of six classrooms and another room serving as Office and Staff rooms. Six educators are available handling Grades R to 6.

Unfortunately, continuation schools after grade 6 are not available in these villages. The Grade 6 graduates are expected to register in nearby towns where they either have to commute to school daily or rent accommodation. Due to their parents' limited means of income, many are usually unable to do either and they tend to drop out of school complicating the poverty problem in the villages, as these drop outs remain semi-literates with no skills.

It is only at Uitkyk that a primary and a middle school are available. The primary school has 8 classrooms with ten educators and the middle school has five classrooms with eight educators. The advantage enjoyed by these schools is that they are near high schools at Gelukspan and Moifontein villages.

5.7.2 Social Security Grant

A major and effective poverty reduction programme in the Ngaka Molema District Municipality (NMMDM) is the provision of social grants. It is perhaps the Government's most essential and effective poverty reduction strategy. This is because a large number of the poor are benefiting from it (SASSA, 2009). Table 5.9 shows the distribution of grants and the number of beneficiaries in the NMMDM by 1st October 2009 (SASSA, 2009b). In the NMMDM a total of 193 305 people (i.e. 24.2%) were beneficiaries out of a population of 798 783 by October 1, 2009; and in the Ratlou Local Municipality, 26 675 (i.e. 21.5%) residents out of a population of 123 000 have benefited (SASSA, 2009b). The number of persons receiving child support grant in the district which adds up to 100 585 (i.e. 52%), constitutes the largest among other grant types followed by the grant for the aged, 51,695 (27%), and that for the disabled is 30,881 (16%), in that order.

Similarly, in the Ratlou Local Municipality, child support recipients total 12 744 (48%) which is almost half of the total grant recipients in the local municipality followed by the grant for the aged, 8 222 (31%), and that for the disabled, 4 393 (16.5%), in the same order. Had it not been for this service the recipients' socio-economic conditions would have been worse. The DSD is responsible for the improvement in these people's wellbeing through its disbursement agency, the South African Social Security Agency (SASSA).

It stands to reason therefore that SASSA's Social Grant provision which is widely disbursed for those who qualify is greatly improving the well-being of poor residents. During the interviews, as will be seen later, the households benefiting from Social Grants in the study area expressed their appreciation of grants and indicated how these grants are helping them to access food. They indicated that they had no problems accessing the grant due to the assistance given by the CLOs.

Table 5.9 Number of grant beneficiaries per local municipality in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District

MUNICIPALITY	GRANT FOR THE AGED	GRANT FOR THE DISABLED	WAR VETERAN GRANT	FOSTER CARE GRANT	CARE DEPENDENCY GRANT	COMBINATION	GRANT-IN-AID	CHILD SUPPORT GRANT	TOTALS
MAFIKENG	13,364	8,663	3	2,608	993	73	53	30,026	55,783
DITSOBOTLA	10,296	7,007	2	1,366	464	34	122	21,859	41,150
TSWAING	7,489	4,433	2	757	358	16	21	15,382	28,458
RATLOU	8,222	4,393	2	840	414	25	35	12,744	26,675
RAMOTSHERE MOILOA	12,324	6,385	1	1,042	489	29	395	20,574	41,238
DISTRICT TOTALS	51,695	30,881	10	6,613	2,718	177	626	100,585	193,305

Source: SASSA (2009b)

5.7.3 Water and Health Care Services

Water

Water, one of the most essential needs, especially in this arid location, is difficult to come by. In the district, the main source of safe water supply is from pipes in individual homes. There are approximately 161 199 households in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District Municipality (Stats SA, 2007) and out of these (Table 5.10), 17.9% or 28 854.6 have pipe water in their dwellings (NMMDM 2009). The situation is worse in Ratlou where only 1.4% or 330.3 households have water in dwellings, while 34.7% or 8 186 households have access to community pipe stands as well as boreholes some of which are over 200m away from their dwellings (NMMDM, 2009; Mwafrika, 2009). Table 5.10 shows that Ditsobotla has the highest percentage of households with water inside their dwellings (28.6%) while Ratlou has the lowest with 1.4%. In total, among the 5 local municipalities in the District, only two – Ditsobotla and Mafikeng - have the greatest percentage of households with easy access to water inside and within 200m reach. This shows

that in the rural areas where most of the poor live, water is obtained mainly from bore holes, privately owned and located on the compounds of individual households. Where public water stand pipes are provided, the stands are over 200m away from dwellings and water is supplied still from boreholes. For example, in Mathateng water is obtained from seven public standpipes which are more than 200 meters away from many households. Water to these pipes is pumped up from a borehole (RLM, 2008; 2007).

Table 5.10: Access of Households (%) in the NMMDM to Water Services

Water Access	Local Municipalities						NMMDM
	Mafikeng %	Ditso botla %	Ratio u %	Tswana ing %	Ramotshere Mollo	Census 2005 Figure	%
Inside the House	23.5	28.6	1.4	12.6	10.6	32279	17.9
In the Yard	21.7	29.3	5.7	32.2	33.1	44417	24.7
Community Stand	11.2	13.9	25.4	27.1	25.9	32981	18.3
Community stand over 200m	9.8	10.6	34.7	18.3	23.9	30133	16.8
Borehole	22.6	13.1	20.0	8.0	2.6	26586	14.8
Spring	0.2	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	244	0.1
Rain Tank	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.1	748	0.4
Dam/Pool/Stagnant Water	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.1	0.1	525	0.3
River/Stream	0.4	0.2	3.1	0.1	0.5	1261	0.7
Water Vendor	4.4	1	3.0	0.1	0.4	4032	2.2
Other	5.4	2.3	5.6	1.0	2.7	6688	3.7
Total	100	100	100	100	100	179894	100

Source: NMMDM (2009); Stats SA (2005)

Though the Local Municipality provided one engine that pumps the water (RLM, 2008), the pump was not powerful enough and consequently, the taps were often dry. Because the water are frequently dry due to the weak capacity of the pumping engine and the drying of underground water sources, residents are often forced to collect water from Masamane, a village 4 kilometres away by means of donkey carts. This was observed and verified as true by the researcher and also confirmed during interviews (Focus Group 1, 2008).

As can be inferred from the frequent drying of bore holes water is one of the challenges facing sustainable economic development projects such as the livelihood Co-operative farms in the district. The non-availability of water is a big challenge yet the delivery of water in these villages under study was not provided for in the IDPs of either the District municipality or the local municipality (NMMDM, 2009; RLM, 2008). However, it is claimed in the RLM annual reports of 2005-2007 that 25 400 households had been provided with free 36kl water per month at Setlagole, Disaneng, Dingateng and many other communities (RLM, 2007) which is not the case.

Health-care Service

Finally, another service delivery which is very important but not readily available to some parts of the study area is Health service provision in the form of clinics and hospitals. Though a number of clinics can be found in the district, they are not available and readily accessed by the remote villages under study with the exception of Uitkyk which has the advantage of being closer to Gelukspan hospital. Mayaeyane and Mathateng communities have to travel to clinics located at great distances and even to Mafikeng about 120 kilometres away to access medical attention, or primary health care service. This shows that the farther a village is from an urban area, the more difficult it finds itself receiving and accessing basic service delivery; the closer it is the easier it can access basic services. In order to address this issue North West Department of Health is providing mobile clinics to remote places in the study area. However this service is still irregular. The communities only receive such service once a month (Focus Groups1&2).

5.7.4 Summary of the section

This section examined and analysed poverty intervention projects and delivery of basic services in the study area. In the study area it has been found that although intervention projects have been undertaken, few basic services are provided. The next section provides an analysis of responses and perceptions of community

members on the livelihood co-operative projects and basic service delivery in the study area.

5.8 PERCEPTIONS OF PEOPLE ON THE LIVELIHOODS PROJECTS AND SERVICE DELIVERY

This section provides the perceptions of interviewees and analysis of information gathered from households in both quantitative and qualitative terms. It provides information on respondents regarding their profiles and how they view service delivery in their localities. The purpose is to assess the effects of the projects and service delivery.

5.8.1 Personal profiles of responding Households

The basic unit of analysis in this study as with many social, microeconomic and government models is the household. This is because the basic demographic unit in a community is the household. The term refers to all individuals who live in the same dwelling. Thus, by establishing a household's profile one will be in a position to understand and assess the individuals in them.

The first question put across was to find the profiles of households and individuals.

Length of stay in the locality

During the interviews and observations almost all individuals and households interviewed answered that they had lived in the villages throughout their lives, or had long contact with the villages with the exception of a few who had lived there for periods ranging up to five years. This is demonstrated in Table 5.11. In Table 5.11 where 305 respondents were interviewed 24.4% of females had lived there for more than 10 years and 63.4% since birth (a combined total of 87.8% for these two groups). A total of 80% males also were in the same category; 55.5% of households had been there since birth and 22.2% had lived there for more than

10years. Only 3% females, 4% males and 2% households had lived there for less than one year.

Table 5.11: Length of stay of respondents in the study area

Years	No of Individuals & in %				Households	
	Females	%	Males	%	Numbers	%
Less than 1	6	2.9	4	4	3	1.66
Between 2-6	11	5.3	6	6	7	3.88
Between 7-10	8	3.9	10	10	30	16.6
More than 10	50	24.4	50	50	40	22.2
Since Birth	130	63.4	30	30	100	55.5
Total	205	100	100	100	180	100

These interviewees showed that they had good knowledge and background of the socio economic conditions of the study area's villages to be able to provide valid and authentic information.

Age structure of Household heads

When they were asked about their ages, Table 5.12 was obtained. It shows the number of respondents and their age ranges. What is found in the table is that respondents' ages range from 15 to 65. The majority of the people interviewed were aged between 15 and 35 and a greater number of them were females and youth, who were the target group of the projects and more vulnerable to poverty.

Table 5.12 : Age structure of Respondents

Gender	Age range			
	15- 35	36 - 55	56 - 65	TOTAL
Females	107	54	34	195
Males	56	28	26	110
Total	163	82	60	305

Gender structure of household heads

When a question was put to 305 respondents to find out about the gender of their household heads, it was found as indicated in Table 5.12.1 that, adult female-headed households was as high as 42.6%. Adult male-headed households constituted 31.1%, while a high percentage of 26.3% was child-headed whose majority was also female-headed.

Table 5.12.1: Percentages of household heads and gender

STATUS	Number and % of Interviewee's responses	
	NUMBER	%
ADULTS		
Females	130	42.6
Males	95	31.1
CHILDREN		
Males	31	10.2
Females	49	16.1
Total	305	100

Sizes of households

When respondents were asked about their household sizes, household sizes according to ages as in Table 5.12.2 were given. When computed, an average size of 5.6 was obtained. Figures obtained from the district (NMMDM, 2007) as demonstrated in Table 5.12.2a indicates that the average size of households in the district was 4.2 by 2007. The Table 5.12.2a shows that a total of 73.5% of NMMDM's population have household sizes of 5 (NMMDM, 2007). When the figure obtained from respondents in Table 5.12.2 is compared to what is pertained in the IDP of NMMDM (2007) as found in Table 5.12.2a and in particular, the Ratlou local municipality where most of the interviewees were based, there is no substantial difference found between them. This shows how large a household's size in the district's rural sector is and its negative impact on their poverty or economic status.

Table 5.12.2: Average Household size of Respondents

Age of Households	Size of Female Headed HH	Size of Male Headed HH	Total average size of HH	NMMDM
15	3	2	2.5	
16-26	6	4	5	
24-37	8	6	7	
38-48	5	7	6	
49-59	8	7	7.5	
Above 60	5	6	5.5	
Average size	5.8	5.3	5.6	4.2

These figures pose concern for the well-being of households that have no livelihoods to cling to and therefore some deductions can be made based on the personal profiles provided by respondents. Some conclusions one can draw from their personal profiles (from Tables 5.12.1 to 5.12.2c) are that generally, individual members of households in the study area are unemployed, have very limited income and live below the poverty threshold. The Social grants for the aged and children have been the main sustainable income (refer to sub section 5.7.2). Since the age at which a family can access child support grant has now been increased to 18 (SASSA, 2009a), and as children form a greater percentage of the households (NMMDM, 2007), family incomes will be mainly from the government grant which would put a huge strain on the Provincial budget in future. Furthermore the majority of household heads were females. It is astonishing that a large number of child-headed households were found in the area. Statistic South Africa (2000), the only source of authentic statistics of the area, records an age as low as 4 years heading a household.*The implication of this is the existence of child poverty in the study area, the discussion of which is beyond this study.

5.8.1.1 Household Structure in Ngaka Modiri Molema District Municipality

Table 5.12.2a shows the distribution of household sizes in the NMMDM area. The table indicates that about 74% of the households in the NMMDM consist of five members or less. The average household size in the NMMDM is 4.2 persons per household (NMMD 2007:20). In the Ratlou Local Municipality, more than 50% of

households have more than 5 members by 2007 (RLM, 2009:19-20; Stats SA, 2007). This is a big size for households in an area with limited employment opportunities.

Table 5.12.2a: Distribution of Household Sizes in the NMMDM

Household Size	Local Municipalities					NMMDM	
	Mafikeng %	Ditsobotla %	Ratlou %	Tswaing %	Ramotshere Moiloa %	Census Figures	%
1	23.7	17.7	19.4	15.3	18.7	35843	19.9
2	13.5	15.5	11.5	13.7	13.9	24710	13.7
3	14.1	14.2	12.1	12.7	13.6	24416	13.6
4	14.8	15.3	13.0	13.6	14.2	25939	14.4
5	11.8	12.1	11.3	12.2	11.9	21331	11.9
6	7.8	8.5	9.7	9.3	9.1	5474	8.6
7	5.1	5.8	6.9	7.4	6.2	10743	6.0
8	3.2	3.8	4.7	5.4	4.1	7192	4.0
9	2.1	2.5	3.4	3.5	2.8	4832	2.7
10 and over	3.9	4.7	8.0	7.0	5.3	9415	5.2
Total	100	100	100	100	100	179895	100

Source: NMMD IDP (2007); Stats SA Mid-Year Population (2005)

Comparing percentage figures for 2001 and 2007 for Ratlou Local Municipality in Table 5.12.2b, it is clear that there are no significant changes at all in the family sizes even though the number of households might have changed. The only changes one could point out are the mere fractional changes in household sizes for 2001. When put in absolute figures one finds changes only in household size of 1 and 8. This is but the same for the district.

In chapter two it was pointed out that the general theoretical conception in the literature was that females, female-headed households, children and child-headed households were more vulnerable to poverty than adult males. The high percentage of female-headed and child-headed households in this study area (refer to Tables 5.12.1 & 5.12.2a), confirms this theoretical assertion (Aliber, 2003; Du Toit, 2005a; 2005; Klugman, 2002).

Table 5.12.2b: Percentage of Household sizes in Ratlou Local Municipality (2001 and 2007)

Number of households (2001= 22 508; 2007= 48 843)

Household size	2001	2007
	%	%
1	19.4	20
2	11.5	12
3	12.1	12
4	13.0	13
5	11.3	11
6	9.7	10
7	6.9	7
8	4.7	4
9	3.4	3
10 and over	8.0	8
Total	100	100

Source: RLM 2009: Stats SA 2007

As to why there is a high percentage of child-headed households, though this was not envisaged at the beginning of this study and was not investigated, it could be attributed to the prevalence of parents seeking employment elsewhere and leaving the children to the upkeep of others who might have left them alone or the children themselves running away from their caretakers (NMMDM, 2007). Another reason could be that the parents have died leaving no one to care for them. It was therefore no surprise when they all described themselves as very poor when they were asked to describe their socio economic status. The socio economic status of these villages can safely be categorised under extreme poverty in terms of subjective measurements of poverty (SMP) explained in chapter 2 and their HDIs.

5.8.2 Employment and Income status

Employment status

When they were asked what they were doing for a living and of their occupations, as many as 275 or 90% answered that they were not employed, and the 30 or 10%

that were employed mentioned domestic services and gardening as their main types of employment. These are jobs they previously did or usually do when they go to nearby bigger towns or urban centres and commercial farms of White farmers.

Thus in Table 5.12.3a and 5.12.3b a greater majority, 90% or 275 out of 305 of respondents indicated that they were unemployed or economically inactive. Ten percent or 30 indicated that they had no special skills and could therefore not find any lucrative employment. They were either doing domestic services or working as unskilled farm labourers.

Table 5.12.3a Employment Status of 305 respondents

Status	Yes		No	
	Number	%	Number	%
Employed	30	10	275	90
Unemployed /Never Worked	275	90	30	10

Table 5.12.3b Types of occupation respondents were engaged in

Type of Occupation	Number. Employed	% of Total	Number. Previously Worked	% of total
Professionals	0	0	0	0
Clerks	0	0	0	0
Crafts and Related Trade	0	0	0	0
Unskilled Agricultural workers	6	2	0	0
Domestic Service	9	3	0	0
Livestock Keeping	15	5	5	2
Poultry keeping	54	18	8	3
No occupation (not economically active)	221	73	0	0
Ex Mine workers	0	0	91	30

Of the number interviewed in the village of Mayaeyane, only two households had members working on a nearby white commercial farm at Setlhagole village. At Uitkyk, 3% of those interviewed were livestock keepers, while at Mathateng, 2% of the households indicated keeping livestock as their occupation. Males constituting

about 30% (91 in number) had previously worked in the mines but had now retired and were unemployed. Only 54 respondents or 18% have now found employment in the Co-operative projects in the various villages. This, by no means portrays the enormity of unemployment and the severity or depth of the incidence of poverty in the study area.

Household income Status

When they were asked whether they derived any monthly incomes and their sources, it was revealed that the largest group (25%) of the respondents received an average maximum income of R200-00.

Table 5.12.3c Respondents' Household Incomes and Sources

Monthly income in Rand	% of Respondents	Sources
Less than R100	5	Remittances from relative
Between R101 and R250	25	Social grant-Child support
Between R251 and R500	05	Remittances & Child support grants
Between 501 and 1000	None	None
Between 1000 and R1500	20	Old age/Disability grants
Above 1500	15	Stipends & Domestic work
None and Dependent	30	Unknown & Irregular

From Table 5.12.3c, about 30% received incomes amounting up to R200-00 as remittances from relatives or from child support grant. Five percent received between R251 and R500 from similar sources. Another large group of 20% that received R1000-R1500 consisted of the aged and disabled who received government grant.

However, 15% respondents mentioned amounts above R1500-00, which came from domestic work or stipends. But a greater percentage of 30 received no income nor had any source of income. The majority's sources of income were

mainly the government's social grant and remittances from relatives outside the villages, as well as stipends from the Co-operative projects. This demonstrates that within the study area one type of quantitative poverty – income poverty – referred to in chapter 2 subsection 2.7.3 is high in addition to other types. Since a greater number of the population is without any form of occupation, dependency should be expected as a logical consequence.

5. 8.3 Focus Group interview: responses and perceptions

5. 8.3.1 Perceptions on well-being

Three Focus group interviews were conducted at Mathateng, Mayaeyane and Uitkyk villages. These were participants of the livelihood projects. At Mathateng the group of twenty consisted of 12 females and 8 males. 13 of these were youth. At Mayaeyane, the group consisted of 8 females and 2 males; while the Uitkyk group consisted of 4 males and 8 females. The focus group interviews were to find out about what they felt constitutes well-being and dignity. Various questions were posed to which they gave various answers.

Physical and non-physical possessions that made one to feel dignified and respected in the community

Table 5.12.4: Items bestowing dignity and well-being

Social Items	Mathateng Numbers & % preferring		Mayaeyane Numbers & % preferring		Uitkyk Numbers & % preferring	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Decent Clothing	6	30	2	20	2	16.7
Possession of a house	5	25	2	20	3	25
Water in the house	4	20	2	20	2	16.7
Education	2	10	1	10	2	16.7
Electricity in the house	1	5	1	10	2	16.7
Political participation	1	5	1	10	1	8.2
Television/Refrigerator	1	5	1	10	0	0
Total	20	100	10	100	12	100

Their views on dignity when they were asked were concerned with the availability and possession of some few social goods and services as contained in Table 5.12.4. These included appropriate and dignified clothing, housing, piped water in the house, electricity, education, a household television or refrigerator in that order of preference. When asked again which items they considered as essential and why these were essential, participants often referred to items such as houses, clothing and water because those items enabled one to live with dignity and respect while political participation bestowed the idea of importance on them.

Education, a social theme, scored lower than clothing in all the groups. Yet they all constantly referred to social themes such as living with respect (or respectability), peace of mind, inclusion and high political voice as very essential in order to move away from poverty. When asked to give reasons for their choice, participants indicated that dignity and decency were to be bestowed on them by the possession of such items and they could be seen as not poor. Even when seen as being poor, political participation bestowed importance on them. One could note here that though the materialistic aspect was of concern to them, the non-material obliterates the idea of poverty in their mind set. The multidimensional or qualitative and quantitative nature of poverty discussed in the literature was apparent here, when they were asked to give answers that were not listed in Table 5.12.4. Some people raised issues beyond just income or material possession to inequality, lack of dignity and decency and illiteracy as indicators of poverty or absence of wellbeing. Therefore, in their perspectives, they had many views, meanings, concepts and constructs of poverty and development.

5.8.3.2 Perceptions on essential needs and indicators of the community's poverty

Essential social needs in the community

When participants in the focus groups were asked what they considered as the community's essential social needs in their context, they selected electricity for lighting and cooking, availability of clinics, schools, water, good roads, decent low-

cost government (RDP) houses, employment and land for agricultural purposes. These were to provide dignity, decent and acceptable standards of living. Table 5.12.5 shows their order of preference according to weights given to the items in numerical ascending order: 1 carries the least weight and 8 the greatest weight.

Table 5.12.5 Essential preferential needs of the various groups by weight. '8' being 1st order of preference, and '1' as last order of preference.

Essential social needs	Weight given to Preferences by Respondents at Mathateng	Weight given to Preferences by Respondents at Mayaeyane	Weight given to Preferences by Respondents at Uitkyk
Electricity	4	5	1
Clinics	7	6	2
Water	6	7	6
Political participation	1	3	3
RDP house	3	4	7
Income from employment	8	8	8
Land for farming	2	2	5
School	5	1	4

Again, there appeared to be a broad agreement about what constituted necessities e.g. employment, water, housing, a clinic, electricity and political participation, without which one can be considered poor. Their preferences again varied as to what constituted the most essential. The poorest respondents' (by observation) idea of what constituted acceptable standards of living was similar in many respects to what was put forward by seemingly relatively better-off respondents. We can find in Table 5.12.5 that income from employment was first preferred by all with the greatest weight of 8 and thereafter variations occurred. While Mathateng group had clinic as 2nd order, the Mayaeyane group had water as their 2nd order with Uitkyk selecting RDP housing as their 2nd order of preference. Political participation was the sixth order of preference for the Uitkyk group while it was the last preference for the Mathateng group. This affirms the conception also that poverty is subjective, depends on the individual experiencing it and what the individual perceives as constituting poverty if it is lacking.

Poverty and its effects on the village community

When a focus group of 42 respondents was asked about the effects of the general poverty in the villages, all the numbers were in agreement (as indicated in Table 5.12.6) that they were facing starvation, idleness, high rate of crime, alcohol abuse, domestic violence etc. While 31% perceived that poverty has resulted in starvation, 21% perceived that crime in their community was caused by poverty and 19% perceived that poverty had made high schooling unaffordable while 14% felt it had brought alcohol abuse and idleness to the youth. While 10% attributed domestic violence to poverty, 5% attributed the high teenage pregnancy to it.

Table 5.12.6: Percentage responses on the effects of persistent poverty in the villages

Perceived Effects of poverty by respondents	Responses	
	Numbers	%
Starvation	13	31
Crime	9	21
Inability to afford schooling	8	19
Alcohol abuse & idleness	6	14
Domestic violence	4	10
Teenage pregnancy	2	05
Total	42	100

When these perceptions were scrutinized and matched with what was observed with respect to their attitudes and behaviour, it was found that a number of the North West Provincial Government's poverty intervention strategies had by-passed a substantial number of people in this study area. This is because of the non-implementation of some projects in the area. Though they had benefitted from some services, they had not enjoyed the maximum they expected from the general services provided. Hence their responses during the focus group discussions. They indicated that most services were urban based, benefitting people in big towns and cities. The few projects that have been belatedly initiated were therefore necessary and welcome. The perception was that the presence of the livelihood projects currently initiated could cut down the rate of crime and idleness and other

effects of poverty if they were adequately funded. Among the youth who were widely being suspected of orchestrating crime due to their idleness, the initiation of a livelihood project was a welcome relief. From their responses one could safely say that the primary causes of crime contextually were poverty and idleness of the youth. It was important for them to be occupied with work which they could not find. The livelihoods projects therefore attracted the youth. Their needs of some employment and income were catered for by their participation in the projects. Thus the co-operative projects provided job opportunities and created jobs for at least an average of 20 youths some of whom must have been drawn from those doing crime.

The future and objectives of the on-going Projects

The question on the future prospects of the poverty reduction projects was posed to a focus group of 20 people in each of the villages. The responses as found in Table 5.12.7 below indicate that all groups generally perceived to a limited extent, of a better future prospect. While 50% answered 'Yes' at Mathateng, as low as 25% answered 'Yes' at Mayaeyane, while 60% answered 'Yes' at Uitkyk. A low 30% answered 'no' at Uitkyk and Mathateng while 45% responded 'no' at Mayaeyane. It was only at Mayaeyane that a high percentage responded 'no' and 30% did not know. Numerically 27 people were positive and 21 were negative while 12 did not know of the prospects facing the projects. The number of respondents who saw no future for the projects was high enough for one to doubt the projects' prospects. This scepticism expressed is as a result of the number of challenges facing them particularly in the area of finance. However the number of respondents that are positive is quite significant for one to concede that the projects are beneficial and have a future.

Though quite a significant number agreed that the projects had positive prospects, they felt that they were not completely meeting their objectives. They perceived that projects were benefiting only a few participating households in the communities. That was the reason for the high negative response at Mayaeyane.

Although the projects were open to all residents, some chose not to participate, while others initially joined but later resigned from them. Initial enthusiasm had been lost

Table 5.12.7: Responses on future prospects of the livelihoods projects

Responses to question posed	Mathateng		Mayaeyane		Uitkyk	
	Number.	%	Number.	%	Number.	%
YES	10	50	5	25	12	60
NO	6	30	9	45	6	30
Don't know	4	20	6	30	2	10
Total	20	100	20	100	20	100

When focus groups (from the community who were not necessarily working on the projects) were asked whether they were enthusiastically participating in the programmes initiated in their areas (as stakeholders) and whether those projects were on track and meeting the objectives of poverty reduction and food security, all groups responded that although many national and provincial projects did not involve them, they were generally positive that the on-going projects were beneficial. However their reservation was that the projects had not come early enough to them and they had been by-passed by some other income generating projects which were found in urban areas. This is deducible from Table 5.12.8 where at Mathateng, a total of 30% strongly agreed and 20% agreed to the question posed. So also did 30% strongly agree and 40% agree at Uitkyk. While at Mayaeyane only 15% strongly agreed and 30% agreed.

Yet it is clear in Table 5.12.8 that a sizeable percentage of 25, 55 and 25 disagreed in the groups at Mathateng, Mayaeyane and Uitkyk respectively. Even as many as 25% at Mathateng and 5% at Uitkyk could not offer any view. It makes one to point out that there are some uncertainties amongst some sections of the community regarding the projects achieving their objectives. Their uncertainty had made them to refrain from participating. From their oral presentations it is clear that

the objectives of the projects have not been fully met but they are however beneficial and on track.

Table 5.12.8 : Number & Percentage of responses indicating perceptions of groups on projects' being on track meeting objectives.

Response to question on objectives	Mathateng		Mayaeyane		Uitkyk	
	No.	%	No	%	No.	%
Strongly agree	6	30	3	15	6	30
Agree	4	20	6	30	8	40
Disagree	3	15	7	35	3	15
Strongly Disagree	2	10	4	20	2	10
Don't know	5	25	0	0	1	05
Total	20	100	20	100	20	100

Experience of changes in social and economic status since the implementation of the projects

Referring to Table 5.12.9, for the answer to the question posed as to whether they had experienced socio-economic changes since the implementation of the projects, 30% of the 60 respondents maintained that they had experienced some changes in their socio-economic status while 20% had experienced little change, and 30% had not experienced any changes in their socio-economic status. Surprisingly 5% did not believe that there was any brighter future for them in the livelihood projects. Further, a small group of 5% had no idea of the projects' prospects for them and they did not know whether there had occurred any change in their socio-economic status. This reveals that there was a positive direction of change in socio-economic status as a result of the implementation of the projects.

Table 5.12.9 Responses to Changes in status of all groups combined

Direction of change in socio-economic status	Responses	
	%	No
Experienced some positive changes in socio-economic status	30	18
Have experienced a little positive change	20	12
Have not experienced any change in socio-economic status	30	18
Will not provide any positive change	10	6
Project has no brighter future for me	5	3
Don't know	5	3
Total	100	60

From the views expressed by some group members on perceptions number 9 and 10, there appears to be some doubts about the prospects of the projects achieving their objectives. In Table 5.12.9 as many as 30% perceived that they have not had any positive changes in their social and economic lives, but 50% had had some or a little positive change. One can without doubt, point out that the projects have had some conceivable positive impact on the communities.

But, holistically, from the overall views presented, the majority of the groups had no doubts about the initiated projects achieving their objectives such as providing employment opportunities and food security. That would be possible only if members of the communities show enthusiasm, do actively participate and embark on other projects and external agents commit themselves to providing greater funding.

The negative sentiments expressed by the Mayaeyane group in particular, while being interviewed (from the deep expressions of anger by some respondents that were observed and noted by the researcher), revealed the existence of nepotism among recruiting community leaders who had not transmitted sufficient information to all local residents about the project. Evidently not all community members were involved or were knowledgeable about the projects and the NWPG's poverty intervention strategies.

5.8.3.3 Knowledge of Local and external facilitators' involvement in projects

On the question of knowledge about CBOs and NGOs helping with the implementation of projects, a majority of 80% answered 'NO'. Table 5.12.9.1 portrays this.

Table 5.12.9.1: Respondents' knowledge about the existence of local and external organisations.

Knowledge about CBOs / NGOs	% & No. Responding	
	%	No.
YES	20	12
NO	80	48
DON'T KNOW	00	00
Total	100	60

Those who had knowledge about them were a few, 20% from Mayaeyane. Objectively, the lack of information and knowledge about projects mentioned by some individual respondents when interviewed (subsection 5.8.4.4) can be attributed to the lack of strong local leadership and Self Help Groups or Community Based Organizations(CBOs) and the absence of Non-Governmental Organizations(NGOs) within the localities. These organisations are noted to be champions of development projects for poverty alleviation. They were noted to be absent in many villages. Where one (CBO) existed such as at Mayaeyane, the leadership was weak, not knowledgeable in organisational activities as well as conflict resolutions and therefore could not control the dynamism of the youth nor turn such dynamism into constructive activities.

Again the researcher was informed that the DSD's Community Liaison Officers (CLOs) who were facilitators of the projects visited the villages or projects once a week. They could not have sufficient time to disseminate information to all community members. This was because they were engaged in similar projects in different villages located elsewhere. Therefore, the need for a strong local

organisation i.e. a Community-Based Development Organization (CBO) with knowledgeable leadership to continue the CLO's efforts while away was very essential.

5.8.3.4 Perceptions of the Impact of projects on households.

Benefits of the projects to households in the community as a whole.

When the question on benefits was put to respondents their qualitative responses were that those engaged in the projects had benefited most from incomes generated by the project in the form of stipends, produce and gained new skills. Thus income poverty was being reduced to some extent. They also talked about employment created for some members in their households. Furthermore it was agreed that some members of the community were benefiting indirectly from those engaged in the project. There was therefore a ripple effect or trickle-down effect of benefits such as income from the projects to households in those communities.

Again the expectations were that both participants in the project and households members would have relief in their poverty and improved well-being. They were expecting very substantial immediate personal gains from the project and not long term ones. This was revealed in the focus group discussions at Mayaeyane Food Security and Mafikeng Animal feed project sites, where due to delays in obtaining direct and immediate personal well-being many participants had withdrawn from the projects.

Participants indicated that though some were empowered and could access some basic needs, they were still excluded from accessing quality health services, good road network, housing and electric power. The literature in chapter two indicates that exclusion and deprivation had caused poverty in the study area. This was still continuing but not as deliberate and systematically being enforced as it was (a policy of separate development) under the past apartheid government.

5.8.3.5 Perceptions on basic services

Basic services as indicators of households' well-being.

Respondents were asked to point out major services the absence of which had made them to consider themselves poor or the availability of which would improve their well-being.

Responding to what could improve their well-being, 60 interviewees speedily pointed to transformation and availability of what is indicated in Table 5.12.10; from employment, income, food security, formal housing, proper sanitation and piped water, clinic (even if it were a mobile one), electricity, to tarred roads with buses plying them. Table 5.12.10 shows their preferences in a descending order quantified in percentages.

Table 5.12.10: What 60 Respondents' perceived as indicators of poverty in their households

POVERTY INDICATORS IN THE HOUSEHOLDS	RESPONDENTS AGREEING PER INDICATOR	
	No of respondents	%
Unemployment	60	100
Unsustainable food supply	60	100
Lack of income	54	90
Poor Housing	53	89
No readily available clean drinking water	48	80
Vulnerability to illness and diseases	48	80
Not being able to vote	48	80
No Clothing	45	75
Illiteracy	44	73
Poor gravel roads	44	73
No Electricity	42	70
Unavailable Clinics	39	65
Poor lifestyle	38	63
Identity and Recognition	36	60
Having peace of mind	36	60
Unable to afford children's higher education	33	55
No schools for kids	30	50
No bus services	29	48

On the point of water, the group at Mathateng complained about their water supply. Pipe stands that connected boreholes stood some 500 meters away, flowed intermittently, and would for months be dry. That was a similar complaint at Mayaeyane. However, at Uitkyk, a large number of households had boreholes in their yards.

From the responses above it was clear that their poverty stemmed from lack of physical basic needs to the non-physical ones such as 'identity' and 'peace of mind'. Poverty was seen by them and understood to be based not only on food security alone but also on non-recognition and exclusion from basic social services which had affected their psychological state of wellbeing and made them more vulnerable to diseases and illnesses such as "stroke" and "hypertension". Earlier, it was shown that respondents considered the absence of certain goods such as houses and clothing as indicators of poverty (refer to Table 5.12.5 in sub section 5.8.3.2). In addition some focus groups pointed at poor lifestyle, inability to afford education together with unemployment and lack of participation in politics as indicators of the multidimensional nature of their poverty and that all households in the villages had poor lifestyles, were mostly illiterate and unemployed. These perceptions confirm the theoretical conceptions of qualitative and quantitative aspects of poverty in chapter two.

One major qualitative indicator of their poverty, which was agreed to and pointed out at Mathateng, was vulnerability to illness and diseases. Ironically the indicator, nearby "clinics", where they could easily and quickly access health care when needed was given a lower priority. A large percentage (73%) gave poor gravel roads a higher priority than access to a clinic. Nonetheless, deducing from their statements that they usually travelled long distances, as far as 120 kilometres to access healthcare at Mafikeng, easy access to a clinic was an important indicator for them to move away from poverty or break the poverty trap. They stated that, "...the longer you have to travel to access health services for a mere headache the poorer you are" (Focus Group1, 2008). Again, "... the longer your household

members have to walk or travel to fetch drinking water the poorer the community". All these show the different indicators of poverty perceived by different households in the study area.

Furthermore, respondents maintained that services were inadequate and whatever they had did not fully serve their needs. One could easily see how important these basic services were to them. For example, the dry water taps at Mathateng and Mayaeyane, as well as the poor roads and overcrowded primary schools. The Mayaeyane group talked of decent houses that were not available. Though the NWPG's had made attempts to address these areas of service delivery, they were seen as too little and not fast enough. The housing condition at Mayaeyane described earlier bares testimony to the inadequacy and delays in the service delivery system.

5.8.4 Perceptions of individuals on basic services

There was the need to find out about the activities of the local municipality as well as other government departments in the villages. It was also to find out about the number of benefits that have been derived from the Provincial Government's poverty reduction strategies and how satisfied respondents were. Hence the need for questions on basic services delivery (15, 16, 17,18).

Services that have been provided in respondents' village.

When individual respondents were questioned on basic service delivery, they pointed out the services being provided by the local municipality and government departments such as Human Settlement and Social Development. Table 5.12.11 shows a list of services such as community hall, housing etc. which have been provided in whole or partially, where they were found and their sponsors.

Table 5.12.11 Basic service delivery perceived to have been provided in the villages

SERVICES delivered	VILLAGE	SPONSOR
Community Hall	Mathateng	Ratlou Local Municipality (RLM) & DSD
RDP Houses	Mathateng	RLM, DSD & Human Settlement Department
Primary school	Mathateng; Mayaeyane & Uitkyk	RLM / DoE
		Ditsobotla Local Municipality (DLM)
Water – Bore hole	Mathateng; Mayaeyane	RLM
Social grant	Mathateng; Mayaeyane; Uitkyk	DSD/SASSA
Crèches	Mathateng; Mayaeyane	DSD; DoE
Electricity	Mathateng; Uitkyk	RLM; Ditsobotla Local Municipality via Eskom

Adequacy of the services being provided in the community

On the question of adequacy of services in the community, individual respondents indicated that services provided were not enough.

Table 5.12.12: Responses on adequacy of services

RESPONSE	NO. OF RESPONDENTS	% RESPONSES
Very adequate	10	8.3
Adequate	30	25
Not adequate	60	50
Very insignificant	10	8.3
Don't Know	10	8.3
Total	120	100

From Table 5.12.12, as much as 50% indicated the inadequacy of services being provided in the community and only 25% felt they were adequate. If these answers were analysed in conjunction with those of Table 5.12.11, one could state that only a few services were being provided in these rural villages. It shows that there is a backlog of services that were needed to be provided in the villages.

Benefits from infrastructure and basic services such as housing, water, education, social grants and electricity provided

When 120 individual respondents were asked of the extent to which they had benefitted from the implemented poverty reduction services such as water, social grants, housing, education etc. , majority of them were of the view that they had received some benefits. Thus, where basic services such as water or electricity were available they had shared in those benefits. This was a positive response. Table 5.12.13, shows that in areas where borehole water had been provided it had had impact on 58% of respondents, indicating that they had had their lifestyle changed from travelling long distances to fetch water to stepping three meters away to draw water; 42% had benefited from housing; 50% from electricity; 58% from education; 33% from community hall; and 30% from crèches. The percentage of beneficiaries of social grant was as low as 25% because fewer respondents qualified for it.

Table 5.12.13: Number and percentage of Respondents who have benefited from infrastructure/services (120 Respondents).

INFRASTRUCTURE/SERVICES	RESPONDENTS WHO HAVE BENEFITED	
	NO.	%
BORE HOLE WATER	70	58
HOUSING	50	42
SOCIAL GRANTS	30	25
ELECTRICITY	60	50
EDUCATION	70	58
COMMUNITY HALL	40	33
CRECHES	60	30

Yet there was much evidence to show that households in these communities have not had their poverty reduced as expected. From what was observed and according to the perception of the respondents, evidence of the poor roads, lack of public transport, lack of clinics (with the exception of Uitkyk that was located only three kilometres from Gelukspan hospital and a primary health care centre), poor

housing, shortage of or the lack of quick access to safe drinking water, unemployment, illiteracy and the sort of clothing that they wore (which they had earlier indicated was reducing their dignity), all bore testimony to this fact.

Extent of Satisfaction with basic services provided

Respondents answers to the question on their satisfaction with the use of services (indicated in Tables 4.12.11 & 4.12.13) being provided were positive.

Table 5.12.14 Responses on satisfaction with use of services provided

Responses on use of service	No. of Respondents satisfied	% Responses
Very Satisfied	12	10
Satisfied	50	41.7
Not Satisfied	50	41.7
Don't Know	8	6.7
Total	120	100

From responses in Table 5.12.14 one can generally say that respondents were generally satisfied with the use of the available services provided. A significant percentage of 51.7 were satisfied while 41.7 were not. 6.7% of respondents could not offer any view.

5.8.5 Perceptions on Government's Social grant

As one of the major strategies to reduce poverty, questions were asked on Social Grant provision to find out the extent to which it was benefiting recipients and non-recipients and how accessible it was to qualified recipients.

The Government's Social Grant and its improvement of well-being.

A question was asked regarding how the Social grants had improved their well-being. Answers to this question revealed clearly that SASSA's efficient distribution

of all forms of Social Grant, in the study area, was helping to reduce their poverty and providing food security. Table 5.12.15 demonstrates interviewee's responses. Out of the 30 grant receivers that were interviewed, 53.3% or 16 people answered that the grant had improved their living levels; 26.7% said it had not completely improved their living levels. While 3.3% did not know, 16.7% indicated that their living levels have not improved. From their answers, one could realise that though some may not have had complete transformation the grants had gone a long way in relieving them of poverty (if answers of those who were not even grant receivers were anything to go by). For, as many as 51% or 23 out of the 45 non-grant receivers responded having had improved living conditions because they were depending on those grant receivers.

Table 5.12.15: Responses on living levels from Government's Social grants provision (30 grant recipients & 45 non-grant recipients)

Responses	Grant recipients			Non Grant recipients,	
	No	%	Grant type	No	%
Living levels have improved	16	53.3	Old age	23	51
Living levels have not completely improved	08	26.7	Child support /Old age	10	22
Living levels have not improved	05	16.7	Child support	12	27
Don't Know	01	3.3		0	0
Total	30	100		45	100

From these, one finds that the Social grant for the aged and children was the main sustainable income that most rural residents depended on. Recipients of the old aged grant in particular used that income to cater for whole households and to pay for school fees of children and grand children.

Despite the positive effect of the grant many households interviewed [where these grants are received], consider the grant to be not enough to meet their needs. Some households reported that the grant only provided them with a meal a day

while others reported that it provided them with non-nutritious two meals a day. On analysis, it is found that the social grants have brought the recipients above the current poverty line of US\$1.25 a day. But considering the purposes for which it serves one would side with the perception of interviewees that it is insufficient.

Experiences with collecting grants at pay points

Respondents were also asked about difficulties that they were experiencing in collecting grants at pay points. Answers to the question posed indicated that all the 30 grant recipients interviewed had no problems with the distribution of the grants at pay points with the exception of one respondent who said she did not know. They indicated to the researcher that they spent few hours queuing for it. They attributed this to the efficiency of the paying agency's representatives.

However, some recipients of old age grants were with complaints that were unrelated to the payment delays but rather to the reduction of take home amounts due to them. They complained that they had been 'tricked' by some insurance agents or brokers to buy funeral policies which had reduced their take home amounts. Those affected parted with as much as a third of their grants. On the other hand, some interviewees' perceptions were that the policies were beneficial to the insured because when death occurred in the village they often faced difficulties raising funds for the funeral.

The issue here is the policy contracted meant reduced income and welfare which is a negation of government's objectives for instituting the grants. In chapter 3 when the institution of the social grant was dealt with it was indicated that the North West Government employees were provided with Government pensions and medical aid support. If the NWPG was to ensure that the aged and other grant recipients made full use of their grants for the purpose it was meant for, that is, maintaining well-being and ensuring food security, then allocation of money for social insurance support such as funeral policies have to be looked into.

5.8.6 Benefits obtained from the projects

Enumeration of benefits obtained from the projects in order of importance

Answers provided from 120 respondents for their enumeration of benefits from projects in order of importance were put together. The following seven major items, in Table 5.12.16, were listed in a descending order of magnitude based on the number of the interviewees that selected an item. It was then weighted in percentages.

Table 5.12.16: List of benefits in order of importance

Benefits	Number that selected the benefit	% of respondents that selected the items in a descending order
Employment	84	70
Income/stipends	72	60
Food security	60	50
Social grant payments	48	40
Poultry & Vegetable farming skills	36	30
Management & other skills transfer	24	20
Child's education at crèche	12	10

From the list, employment was the most favoured, scoring a weight of 70% followed by Income, Food security, down to child's education at Crèche, which had a weight of 10% score. These were outcomes contained in most projects' business plans and they seem to have been achieved by the projects for their target populations.

The impact of the poverty reduction projects on well-being

When asked about the impact the projects and other services had had on their quality of life in terms of inclusivity, living levels, sustenance and well-being, quite a significant percentage (30%) of individuals and 10% of households in Table 5.12.17 saw no changes in their living levels and wellbeing.

However, a large majority after reflecting on the past and comparing their current state agreed that the NWPG's poverty reduction strategies had made more positive impact on their quality of lives now than in the past though government actions were slow in reaching them. The situation would have been worse without the interventions. Table 5.12.18 illustrates their responses showing that 30% of individual respondents engaged in projects had experienced very great changes in their well-being.

Table 5.12.17: Percentage of responses regarding impact of Government's poverty reduction strategies

		Experience d Very great changes in well-being & sustenance	Experience d great changes in well-being & sustenance	Experience d some changes in l well-being & sustenance	Experience d very little changes in well-being and sustenance	Experience d no changes at all in well- being & sustenance
	No.	%	%	%	%	%
Individual Respondent s engaged in projects	50	30	50	15	4	1
Individuals not engaged in projects	180	5	15	30	20	30
Focus groups	42	15	30	50	5	0
Households	120	20	40	10	30	10

They could afford two (2) meals a day which they could not earlier and 50% of individuals that responded have had either no changes or very little change in sustenance and wellbeing while the other 50% had experienced change. For households, 20% had had a very great change in their well-being, living conditions and sustenance while as much as 40% had experienced great changes in their well-being and sustenance. As much as 50% of focus groups had experienced some changes in well-being and 5% experienced very little change. What were alarming concerned households' responses because of their sizes. While 40% experienced great changes in well-being and sustenance, as much as 30% experienced very little changes.

While individual community members not involved in the intervention programmes were not experiencing improved wellbeing, those groups engaged in the projects had high hopes of their projects' sustainability and improvements in their well-being. However, sifting and analysing from the Municipal IDP documents (NMMDM, 2009; RLM, 2009) and reports (RLM, 2005,2006, 2007), perceptions of interviewees (Focus Group 1,2,3) and observations, the NWPG's widely publicised strategies had had limited positive impact than expected particularly at the micro (village) level. This is because implementation activities were widely and effectively being promoted at the macro levels than at the micro levels. At the micro levels, service delivery leaves much to be desired particularly in their quality and quantity.

5.8.7 Perceptions on the possession of income generating assets

Ownership of land asset.

When the question on ownership of assets was posed to 120 individual heads of households very few could claim to be in possession of any income generating land or asset.

Table 5.12.18: Responses on land or assets

Responses	Have cultivable land	Have private grazing land	Use communal land	Have land only on yard	Have both cultivable and private grazing land
	%	%	%	%	%
YES	15	20	100	90	10
NO	80	75	00	05	80

In Table 5.12.18 above, the responses of 120 heads of households questioned indicate that only 15% possessed cultivable land and 20% had private grazing land. Only 10% of the households possessed both cultivable and private grazing lands. These households were found mostly within the Uitkyk community. A large percentage of 80 and 75 of the households had neither cultivable nor private grazing land respectively. All of the respondents specified that they were using communal Tribal land that was available when needed by anyone in the village for cultivation and grazing purposes but this was not sufficient for all of them. In addition the land was infertile.

These responses show that asset that could generate wealth and sustainable income noted in the literature in chapter two, was lacking in the study area. Though there was communal land, the lack of individual asset base had negatively affected their economic and social conditions.

5.8.8 General evaluation of perceptions on the impact of the livelihood projects

The literature noted that poverty is indicated not only by material deprivation but also by non-material aspects. That is, the wellbeing of a household is measured, in addition to economic and material possessions, by its psychological state, health

status and other non-material goods. Human development is thus not measured typically in terms of material goods and possessions (quantitative) but things non-material, endogenous or exogenous (qualitative) such as health status, literacy and life expectancy. It is also measured objectively by the outsider or external observer (using HDIs and HPIs) and subjectively, where individuals rank their own poverty situations in terms of their basic needs. Based on the responses from interviewees these facts are proven as correct.

5.8.8.1 Poverty perceived as material deprivation

From the interview responses, in quantitative terms, wealth in the form of an asset moves one away from poverty because it provides income. In other words, poverty is reduced by the acquisition of wealth and income and affirms the above in the literature. The responses suggest that the majority of households in the NMMDM and Ratlou Local Municipality in particular do not possess assets (land in particular) though they reside in the rural areas where land should have been a major asset for income generation and wealth accumulation. Of the 120 households questioned on the possession of cultivable and grazing land, only 15% (or 18 households) claimed they had land and 10% (or 12 households) had both cultivable and grazing lands. The lack of asset had led to their poverty.

The material conception of poverty was also brought up when they were asked about improvements in their well-being as a result of benefits obtained from the municipal services provided in the area as well as from the livelihood projects. They rated employment and income from social grants and the projects highly.

5.8.8.2 Poverty perceived as non-material deprivation

The respondents showed that non-material benefits of the poverty reduction strategies and projects were of great significance to them though they rated it low. Those who responded in the line of qualitative (non-material) benefits such as education for their children and political inclusion were passionate and strongly

vocal in their motivations. Similarly, they motivated strongly that the causes and indicators of their ill-being were vulnerability to ill-health and diseases, not being able to vote, illiteracy, loss of identity and lacking peace of mind. As many as 36 and 48 households or 60% and 80% respectively considered these as indicators of their household poverty. The argument here is that they felt that the absence of qualitative benefits and improvement in their living levels had rendered them poor. The few services provided in the area have not had any qualitative impact on some households' well-being. Clearly, in the field and within households and communities, poverty is perceived as both quantitative, and qualitative and also subjective. They were deeply affected by the absence of the qualitative indicators.

The above leads to the conclusion and affirmation in the literature that the conception of poverty is subjective and depends on the individuals experiencing it (Lister, 2005; Narayan, 2000). Groups and individuals had preferences and priorities different from the others. It also affirms that poverty is conceived and measured both quantitatively and qualitatively. This is clearly noted in subsection 5.8.3.5 and Table 5.12.10 where poverty was understood to be based not only on food security but also on the non-recognition of identity and exclusion from basic social services that had affected their psychological state of well-being making them vulnerable to illness such as "stroke" and "hypertension". This qualitative aspect was pointed out at Mathateng, in particular, as a major indicator of poverty.

5.8.8.3 Perceived necessities

There appears to be a broad agreement about what constituted necessities to the respondents without which they considered themselves poor. These include food, employment, quality water that is readily obtainable, clinics, electricity, political participation, social grants, housing and inclusion in all development activities. Among a large number of individual respondents and groups, housing, other government services and livelihood projects have had no quantitative or qualitative impact on them. Poverty was thus having on them, detrimental effects, such as starvation, domestic violence, and alcoholism. In addition, the large sizes of their

households were a contributory factor to their ill-being. Household sizes were noted to be averaging 5.5. This was too high for a community that has no asset base, which is considered as wealth and capital, to generate income for sustenance. However, among the majority of the project participants who were about 52 households representing about 300 individual members, the contention is that the projects have had, to a limited extent, positive impact on them. The projects have provided them with employment, income (stipends) and food security.

5.9 SUMMARY

This chapter has examined and analysed poverty reduction projects and basic service delivery in NMMDM, Mayaeyane, Mathateng, Uitkyk and Mafikeng. It has also evaluated the impact of intervention policies and strategies implemented in the study area. Four projects and other service deliveries were identified for that purpose. The chapter has identified many challenges that the projects were facing which threaten their sustainability and which need to be addressed quickly. These include absence of electricity supply, lack of readily accessible water and transportation.

The impact of those projects (based on their objectives), were evaluated via the perceptions of the projects' participating members, some sampled community members, focus groups and other relevant stakeholders. One important thing that the chapter has established is that though the implemented projects have the potential to reduce poverty the illiteracy and lack of capacities by the local communities and delays in the provision of funds by sponsors were delaying the full impact of the projects on poverty in the study area and it is stalling full participation. Another is that implemented policies were mostly urban based with the exception of Social grant provision which has had a wide coverage in the rural areas and was thus helping a great deal in reducing poverty. The phasing in of child support grant for instance has contributed significantly to reducing child

poverty. As a result of these analysis and evaluations, findings and conclusions have been arrived at which are discussed in chapter six.

CHAPTER SIX

FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the main findings of the study, conclusions arrived at and recommendations made. The chapter begins with the statement of the main objective of the study and is followed by the findings and conclusions drawn from data gathered from the communities, officials, community elders, documents and the literature reviewed and analysed. Thereafter, recommendations and an overall summary of the study are provided. The overall summary concludes the study.

6.2 FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The following was the main objective formulated for the study among others found in chapter one:

To evaluate the impact of the North West Government's poverty reduction strategies on the poor in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District. The specific focus areas are Mayaeyane and Mathateng within the Ratlou Local Municipality, Uitkyk in the Ditsobotla local municipality and Dibate and Montshiwastadt in the Mafikeng local Municipality

On the basis of the objectives, the assessment of the poverty reduction policies and strategies implemented revealed the findings and conclusions that follow.

6.2.1 The relevance of development policy and strategic frameworks aimed at poverty reduction

The study found that poverty is widespread in the country and has deeply afflicted the population at all levels. In the North West province, poverty, defined as the deprivation of one's well-being is widely experienced particularly at the district and

local levels. This is manifested multidimensionally, as indicated in the literature, by lack of basic necessities such as food, safe drinking water and sanitation, housing, unemployment, isolation, vulnerability to ill-health and low literacy levels. To reduce the poverty phenomenon (or eliminate it completely if possible), the National Government put in place multidimensional anti-poverty development policies and strategies at the national, provincial, district and local levels. The policies and strategies put in place include the RDP, GEAR, ISRDS, EPWP, IDPs, LED, Social Grants, Land Reforms and ASGISA. Premised on these national policies the NWPG developed Provincial Growth and Development Strategies (PGDS), which on average, have guided the Provincial and Municipal Governments in the North West in their quest to achieve improved well-being of the citizens as well as the province's socio-economic conditions. These were elaborated upon in Chapters three and four. The Provincial anti-poverty economic strategies adopted were on two fronts, support-led and growth-mediated. The NWPG's focus has been more on support-led strategy (not losing sight of growth-mediated), which concerns itself more with the second economy. It is in this type of economy that the marginalised and unemployed are found. Since a greater majority of the NWP's population is in this economic category the support-led strategy is a relevant option that the NWPG is following to reduce poverty.

It was also found that the NWP Government's PRS are deliberate interventions focussed on specific needs of communities. Thus micro-strategies such as community-based co-operative projects initiatives, job creation through beneficiation, skills development for adults through SETAS, and assistance to vegetable growers have all been adopted and implemented in the NMMDM based on four strategic pillars of job creation, basic service delivery, social security and cross field programmes. Furthermore, based on the analysis of these policies and strategies in chapters three and four, it was found that unemployment had been reduced to 27% in the province by 2009 from the 2003 levels of as high as 60%. These show that the policies and the Provincial Growth and Development Strategies (PGDS) implemented have had good or positive impact as

demonstrated in sub-section 6.2.2 and should be acknowledged as appropriate, innovative, relevant and capable of reducing poverty considerably in affected areas.

6.2.2 The impact of the Government's poverty reduction strategies on the poor

Having established the relevance of the policies and strategies to the NWPG anti-poverty programme in sub section 6.2.1 and from the evaluation of development policies and projects in chapters three and four, their conclusions as well as the analysis of the implemented projects and perceptions of communities and stakeholders, the study found that the policies have had a profound positive impact on poverty reduction nationally, provincially and in some district municipalities. Assessment of the implementation of the RDP revealed that some basic needs and services such as schools (education) clinics (Primary Health Care), safe water, refuse removal and sanitation as well as households' electrification were available and a large number of people have access to them. As a result of these what constitutes poverty has been reduced to a limited extent in both the urban and rural areas. However the impact is more felt in the urban than the rural areas.

Education under the RDP policy has, to a large extent, addressed the human capital needs and the causal factor of poverty. The exclusive and multiple educational systems in the country have given way to a unitary non-discriminatory system, even though there are pockets of schools that are exclusive, not by policy, but by language and prohibitive exorbitant fees charged. As a result of this policy the gross enrollment ratio in primary schools increased to 106% by 2009. The current annual enrollment increase stands at 15%. Matriculation pass rate has also increased. Although the pass rate has not been of continuous upwards trend as expected and has been oscillating between 60% and 70%, it is clear that the education system has improved. The current, 2009, Matriculation pass rate stands at 67.5% in the NWP and 60.7% nationally. Adult literacy rate increased to 89% in the province and 78% nationally. In the NMMDM, its 2009 IDP puts it at 60%. This

has enabled many previously disadvantaged black people find employment or become employable. The increased literacy rate has helped with the reduction of the unemployment rate from 60% as at 1994 to 27% in the province and to 24.5% nationally by 2009.

In the case of safe water, government provides 25 litres of free basic water per person per day nationally and provincially to every poor household. The NW Provincial government's 15 year review indicates that access to piped water is fast improving with the number that accessed it standing at 460 885 households by 2006 which is more than 60% increase. While free water is being provided to the poor, other basic services, such as electricity and healthcare are also being provided to many of the indigents. By 2008, 751 670 households had electricity connections. This was an increase of households with electricity from 32% to 70%. The health care system has ushered in the Primary Healthcare (PHC) services whereby the poor can now access free healthcare service at the many clinics opened. That has ensured healthy living and increased TB cure rate in the province to 65.5% or from 469 per 100 000 persons (in 1999) to 702 per 100 000 persons by 2009. However, the average life expectancy has decreased from 53.1 years in 1996, in the province, to 50.0 years and to 51 years in the country. This has been attributed greatly to the HIV pandemic.

On housing, available figures show that by 2006, 1 935 087 people had benefited from 2 358 667 units either completed or in progress in the country. The province has also increased the provision of housing to the poor. The office of the premier indicates that by 2004, 91.5 percent of NPW residents had access to formal dwelling, 89.9% had electricity in their homes, 60.2 with piped water while 45.1 had access to refuse removal and 93.1 had sanitation above the bucket system. In the NMMDM the study found that the bucket system was eliminated in 2009.

Other policies such as land reform have also contributed to the decrease in the unemployment rate. Land reform policy has enabled 16 263 beneficiaries to obtain

412 928 hectares of land for use as well as become employed in the province. Yet, the expectations of many landless of receiving redistributed land have not been met fast enough. The delay is caused by the long processes and slow pace of settlement of claims, cost of land and unwillingness of land owners to sell their land. Concerning GEAR, expectations were not met. Instead of creating jobs, jobs were rather lost annually. In the North West, 10 000 jobs were lost by 2004. The strategy of local economic development (LED) also saw the establishment of small businesses in the province in the areas of tourism, vegetable gardening, waste collection, street trading, and crafts. By 2009 LED had provided employment for some 12 000 people. The EPWP, in response to job creation for the poor, created 3,056 jobs for poor women and 1,385 jobs for the youth. The annual job opportunities of 7 798 created in the Province was far below the target of 20 000. Even those jobs created were of temporary nature. In the NMMDM only 1175 jobs were created under the policy. The outcome of this strategy has also been below expectation in the Province and in the NMMDM.

A critical assessment of the implementation of these strategies, based on the data collected, and the figures provided in chapters three, four and five, leads to a conclusion that many of the policies have been effective on poverty reduction while others have not. Furthermore, the impact of basic services provision has been felt more in the urban areas than in the rural areas where this study was done. They have addressed the causes of the poverty problem by strengthening human capacities through education and reducing adult illiteracy rate; provision of free dignified housing, water and other basic needs, elimination of exclusion and ensuring free primary healthcare. However, a backlog of these services such as the provision of free electricity, water, RDP housing and land for the poor in the rural areas still remain.

Nevertheless, one policy that has been found to have had a sustaining effect and is seen as reducing poverty particularly at the local level is the provision of Social Grants. This policy has enabled the most vulnerable to poverty to have leverage. It

was found that in the NMMDM, a total of 193 305 beneficiaries received the grant by October 2009 out of a population of 798 783. Out of these, 30 881 grant recipients were disabled. In the study area about 52 sampled households or over 250 individuals receive the grant. In the case of child support grant the numbers receiving it nationally, which stood at 34 471 by 1999 had jumped more than 228 times to 7 873 314 by 2007(see Table 3.18, page 177), while the number of disability recipients doubled at the same time. As cash transfers to the poor to enable them obtain their material needs in the NW Province, a total amount of R49 515 198.50 was paid out to 744 236 grant beneficiaries by 2009 (Table 3.18.1, page 178).

Again this study found that in the absence of the grants, 55.0% of the elderly would have been in poverty and 38.2% would have been in ultra poverty. With the grants provision, the figures fall to 22.9% and 2.5% respectively. On the basis of these, the policy stands out as one whose coverage spreads to the rural households and has reduced poverty considerably in the villages. The overall impact of the grants is made clear by the Finance Ministry and SASSA figures, noted in chapter three, which show that, by 2008 social grant beneficiaries nationally stood at 12.4million, amounting to cash transfer of R75.3 billion. The amount of transfers increased to R88.5 billion in 2009 (Manuel, 2009). In the province it was a total of R440.5million for 733 903 beneficiaries in 2008 and R496.96 million for 745 221 beneficiaries in 2009 (SASSA 2010).

Assessment of the implementation of NWPG's anti-poverty strategies at the local level found that the village Co-operative livelihood projects have the potential to reduce households' poverty, particularly the agricultural ones. The livelihood projects were found to be the major potential and sustainable source of income second to the Government's social grant. Furthermore, employment was created for participants of the projects some of whom have empowered other emerging farmers with knowledge in animal health and skills in immunisation against cattle diseases.

Regarding Participation in the Project, it was found that the initial objective was to involve as many households as possible in the Co-operative livelihood ventures. However, data collected shows that very few household members got engaged in the Co-operatives although initial enthusiasm to participate by all members in the communities was high. The number of participants has continually been dwindling. The reduction in numbers shows that although Co-operative projects are the potential sources for the improvement of well-being they have generally had a limited impact or attraction in the communities. They have not been able to draw in more participants as anticipated. Many of those that started the projects have left. This is because the project did not satisfy their immediate or urgent financial needs. They had high hopes of receiving high remuneration or being on the pay roll of Government instead of the low stipends distributed. In such poverty stricken villages one expected whole communities to engage or embrace these livelihood projects. This is because participation in a project brings about learning and skills acquisition. As the community learns it would be able to secure its future (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2006). But unfortunately this has not happened as expected.

Another important finding is that although the projects were more beneficial to participants, the trickle down of benefits such as income, to other households in the community was not being strongly felt. This is also borne out of the fact that incomes or stipends of the participants in the projects were low. However, one important impact that should be clearly noted is the realisation by some of the communities, especially at Mathateng, that, Co-operative farming projects were the only important means of employment open to them and for income generation in the foreseeable future. This is because individually they cannot undertake such ventures.

In most parts of the study area where the projects were implemented, the general communities have not benefited as much as they should have from the poverty reduction strategies regarding basic services. Services such as clinics and high

schools are located far from the communities. Only primary schools can be found in the villages which show that illiteracy is high and the people there have very limited capabilities. Only 200 housing units have been built for the community at Mathateng. Sanitation is not being provided, water is not easily accessible and electricity is a problem. Little benefits from the generous policies have trickled down to them. A backlog of services remains to be provided. A reason that is adduced for this non-delivery of services is the capacity deficit of the NMMD municipal administration, discussed in chapter 4. The poverty gap (amount of money needed to bring the poor to the poverty line) is therefore very high in the area.

The projects have the potential to reduce poverty but currently the status quo of some village community members remains, to some extent unchanged. Yet the projects cannot be written off as they are in their infant stages and require more support. For example, the Mathateng project which started its full broiler production when this research was nearing its completion by October 2009. The financial support given by the DSD rejuvenated it. The projects are potentially relevant for any conception on poverty reduction. Given time and full commitment by all stakeholders to their obligations they will be firmly established and expand. The full objectives of the projects would then be achieved and their impact concerning well-being, as well as employment and income accruing to poor women and the youth would be fully and positively realised. This is based on the current status of the Mathateng Tlhabologo Development Project and that of Radithuso Food Production project at Uitkyk.

To sum the policy impact up, the study overall found that as a result of Government policies and strategies, some development projects have been actively implemented to address the poverty problem, both quantitatively and qualitatively, in the province and in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District Municipality. However, very few of the basic services and projects from the poverty reduction strategies are found in the rural areas and the study area in particular. The

effected strategies have been more urban based and have had more positive impact on households in urban areas than in the rural areas where poverty is more entrenched and the majority of the poor reside.

6.2.3 The nature of poverty

One specific sub-objective was to undertake a review of the literature on poverty its measurement and causes. The following are what were found about the nature of poverty.

In the literature, different conceptualisations of the nature of poverty were reviewed but the conceptualisation of poverty in terms of *the absence of well-being* (i.e. *ill-being*) was seen as more appropriate to the devastating phenomenon. The conclusion arrived at is that poverty ought to be conceptualised as ill-being, identified, measured and solved multidimensionally, in qualitative and quantitative terms. This conception should be from the perspective of the poor themselves and, to a limited extent, from the perspective of the external observer

The multidimensionality means that the state of poverty is not the same for all the poor. Therefore, poverty is being conceptualised as a state of being deprived of income leading to one's inability to access basic needs. To be poor does not necessarily mean one lacks income or cannot obtain his or her basic needs but also means one is deprived of a voice or the means to put his/her views across as happened in the North West during the apartheid period. It means to be deprived and excluded from participating in social action and access to what would bring wellbeing. It also refers to the lack of capabilities to access and achieve one's psychological, political, social or economic needs or being excluded from anyone of them. All these mean simply that *poverty is the deprivation of people's 'well-being' in any one of the dimensions above.*

Clearly, as demonstrated in the field and within households and communities, poverty is perceived as either a quantitative, qualitative or subjective concept, or a

combination of these three dimensions. Many respondents were deeply afflicted by poverty due to the absence of the qualitative indicators. From their perceptions it was found that groups and individuals had preferences and priorities different from the others. This is clearly evidenced in subsection 5.8.4.7 and Table 5.12.10 where poverty was understood to be based not only on food security but also on the non-recognition of identity and exclusion from basic social services that had affected their psychological state of well-being, making them vulnerable to illness such as “stroke” and “hypertension”.

6.2.4 Types of poverty in the study area

Another sub-objective was to examine various types of poverty among the target population in the study area and to find out the extent to which the people have been afflicted. In other words, how widespread and deep is their poverty.

Although poverty is multidimensional it affects individuals and groups differently. Individuals and groups also experience various types of poverty identified according to their causal factors. It is upon the identification of the type of poverty that people are experiencing that specific, appropriate and sustainable interventions can be directed at them. The following types of poverty were firmly established as being experienced in the study area:

The first to be dealt with is Income poverty. As a result of the lack of skills coupled with illiteracy and unemployment, income poverty was being experienced, particularly in the rural areas. There are very few job opportunities from companies, enterprises and even from government initiated public works programme in the villages. In addition there are no cottage or village industries that could provide employment and income. Fertile or agriculturally productive land was scarce. The lack of employment and agricultural production had brought about **food poverty** in the area. Food poverty is the inability of an individual to obtain one nourishing meal a day, and is not sure when his/her next meal would come from.

Even though the Uitkyk and the Mathateng projects are producing chicken and thereby have reduced food poverty for project participants, a substantial number of households in the communities are unable to access regular food supply. It was as a result of this that the Department of Social Development undertook to distribute food parcels in the area in the early 2000s. This service has come to an end.

Child Poverty is another type of poverty found to be in existence in the area based on the many child-headed households. Child headed households might not necessarily be poor in an affluent society where the deceased parents would have bequeathed assets and substantial amounts of money to the surviving children. But that is not so within these poor communities where the parents of child-headed households themselves might have died early due to food poverty. The literature reveals that childhood poverty is associated with visible malnutrition, under-nutrition and stunting. There is thus a relationship of this type of poverty with food poverty. This has led to the conclusion that *child poverty* is also being experienced in the study area.

The next type of poverty found is **Community poverty**. From the literature, this is the situation where general communities lack services and infrastructure and almost everyone in the community is poor. Generally communities in the study area lack basic infrastructure. The roads in the area are poor; readily available safe water is lacking; electricity is not available everywhere and difficulties are encountered in accessing clinics. Poor housing and many other disadvantages manifest this kind of poverty in the area.

Another major type of poverty being experienced is **absolute poverty**. From observations, interview responses on income and their own perceptions, as well as data from Statistics South Africa life in many of the villages are below the minimum socio-economic requirement or threshold of the society. A large number of the community is unable to procure a basket of minimum food per day. It means they

are poor throughout their lives and they transmit their conditions to subsequent generations. Such conditions mean also that they are **chronically poor**.

They are chronically poor because they have no capabilities or support mechanisms to break from the poverty trap. In addition the households are being headed by women, children and older persons. This is also exacerbated by their illiteracy and long distance locations from the big towns or district capitals as well as their location in semi arid zones in the periphery of the province. Households in long distance locations are unable to access vital urban services such as higher education and hospitals. The implication is that the further a location is from an urban centre, the more chronically poor are its residents. The above statements conform to the findings in the Kwazulu Natal Income Dynamics Study (KIDS) data which states that the incidence of chronic poverty tends to be higher amongst rural households particularly female-headed households and households headed by older persons. These rural households are farther away from urban centres, hence the chronic deprivation of their well-being.

Regarding the extent and depth or severity of the poverty situation, conclusions reached are that, these major types of poverty identified are widely rooted among the population particularly, among women and children and older persons. From the data gathered, more than 60% of the study area's population in the rural sector are absolutely and chronically poor. All the types of poverty considered are correlated and they manifest themselves in the study area.

6.2.5 Expectations and dependency on Government by the poor

The type of development approach adopted by sponsoring departments of the projects for the implementation of the livelihood projects was 'top-down' rather than 'bottom-up'. It was found that many rural Co-operative projects implemented were initiatives of the North West Government and had not evolved voluntarily from the grassroots. As such, participation had not been active or as popular as expected but rather passive.

Popular participation is broadly understood as active involvement of majority of the target population in a project from its initiation through to the share of benefits and end of project monitoring. The people take the initiative, control and assert their autonomy over the project. They assert ownership over the project and remain in it. They see to its growth in order to reap the benefits from it. Herein resides empowerment and sustainability. This understanding of participation is not what has taken place within the livelihood projects in the study area. Participation there falls short of the description above. As data collected shows, very few household members (about 56 out of 300) of the communities were engaged in the Co-operatives. The enthusiasm has waned and few have continued to participate.

Secondly, the rural people were brought in at the implementation stage and households were attracted to participate in the projects because of the stipends attached to them. When stipends were stopped at certain stages participants withdrew from the projects. Those that withdrew had not considered the projects as their own, if it were not so they would have acted otherwise. They expected the government to continuously provide stipends. So also is the thinking of some of those still participating. They had not understood the reasons for their participation in the first place and were not committed to the course of the projects. Officials also failed to communicate the objectives of the projects properly to the participants for them to fully comprehend that stipends were a temporary stop gap measure and the participants needed to take ownership and control of the projects and make them run effectively and efficiently.

The conclusions deduced are that the few Government development projects that have trickled down to the study area face sustainability threats since some members think that the projects belong to government and not to them. They were participating in order to earn stipends (income from government) rather than to produce and earn their own livelihoods and improve their well-being. Perceptions from the project participants at the various sites confirm this view.

Participants that chose to stay in the projects have been apparently clamouring for increases of stipends. Others have resigned from the projects due to unsatisfied and unmet expectations from stipends. They seem not to realize that projects were to be income generating, and that the harder they worked the more would income be generated and become accrued to the project to provide them with more sustained individual incomes rather than would stipends. That state of mind also emanates from the perception that it is the government departments that have initiated and provided the finances and, therefore, have ownership of projects. They were not part of the initial decision. It implies that participants were not fully conscientised or did not fully understand the rationale for the implementation of the projects. The situation at Mayaeyane where animals provided for the project were consumed by households serves as a practical example.

The legitimacy of expectations and entitlement of daily provisioning have been based not only on stipends but on politicians' engagements in rhetoric of promises of a better life for all and the strategy of free provisioning such as RDP houses and Social Grants. This Social Grants provisioning has re-enforced an "entitlement mentality". These communities have come to expect and rely on government handouts.

A final conclusion one draws from this is that, in these rural villages where the poor have no capacities or skills to obtain livelihoods and assets and where the land is so poor, reliance on government for provisioning would continue for a long time unless there occurs rapid and consistent re-education and huge intervention in investments by both government and the private sector. Intervention should be by establishing relevant village industries that could provide employment and the revitalisation and funding of Co-operative projects.

Though it is the duty of politicians to seek the welfare and wellbeing of their constituents who had given them the right to govern, the promise of free provisioning of services without qualification has generated and would continue to

generate entitlement expectations in all aspects of life by the poor. The failure to fulfil the promises has had the consequences of continued service delivery revolts not only in some parts of the district but the Province as a whole. Even though no revolt has occurred in the villages studied it is possible for the villages in context also to imitate those service delivery revolts.

6.2.6 Challenges facing the poverty reduction projects

The fourth sub-objective of the study was to determine the challenges facing the poverty reduction projects, whether the projects have achieved successes or failures according to stated objectives for establishing them and whether these strategic projects could be replicated elsewhere.

It was found that the livelihood projects in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District Municipality and in the specific areas of this study were facing many challenges. The first of these is financial. The monthly reports from the projects to their sponsors indicated the need for substantial funding that would enable them to purchase inputs such as vehicles to market their outputs and to purchase other inputs. The lack of inputs is contributing to their unsustainability.

A second major challenge is the non-availability of water for crop production and safe piped water for domestic use. Water from boreholes was available but in addition to their inability to serve the whole population, the boreholes dried up in winter, thus threatening the survival of the initiated projects. Finding a solution to this water problem was vital for the projects' success and the wellbeing of the communities. Thirdly, the non-availability of electricity posed a great challenge to the communities and the projects as power was needed to pump water from the boreholes and for the storage of farm produce from the projects.

A fourth challenge is lack of capacities and skills. The lack of these had led to financial losses through the high mortality of chickens. Capacitating project

participants in record keeping and providing skills training in farming and in other disciplines was vital.

A fifth major challenge is lack of local organizations that could effectively initiate, coordinate and facilitate village development programmes and projects. The research also found that there were no NGO's active in the local municipality and in particular, the villages of Mayaeyane, Mathateng and Uitkyk. NGOs are more effective in the facilitation of the projects and would have been able to educate project participants of the importance of the projects. Without these organizations government's efforts at poverty reduction faced an uphill task of achieving sustainability. But the question is whether CBOs, as village level institutions, can become effective instruments for participatory development in these villages where illiteracy is high, even if they are democratically elected. Monaheng (1995) is positive that the intention of establishing CBOs is to stimulate interest among villagers to play active role in their own community's development and to assist them to develop administrative skills which can be harnessed or used for effective and efficient administration and mobilisation for community projects. It is also believed that if the interests in CBOs are stimulated among the community's youth in particular they can become active instruments in rural upliftment projects and development.

The existence of a strong community organisation to encourage participation in rural development can be effective if and only if it does not serve only the interests of some powerful groups in the village. Considering the nature of these rural villages and the types of development programmes taking place it can be argued that though a CBO is essential, the formation of small action groups would be more effective to encourage participation and to drive the individual projects ahead than a whole CBO. The ineffectiveness of CBO's mobilisation is exemplified by what happened with respect to Radithuso Food production Co-operative where as much as three quarters of members resigned and could not be brought back. Action groups' effectiveness is noted by Swanepoel (1992) and Monaheng (1995) who

argue that action groups are a group “concerned about a particular problem and which contain no more people than can be actively involved in an activity”.

This means that action groups are targeted specifically at small groups and small projects with a specific problem to deal with. These could liaise with the local municipality for the delivery of a specific service. Action groups here are the organisational structures at project level. At the municipal level, action groups are the directorate of LED and IDPs of local municipalities. They could also be ward committees. The experience and skills of these would assist the facilitation of projects and they need to be involved in the on-going projects. These action groups can therefore assist with the facilitation process of the DSD's CLOs but they need some hands on training. Interviews with groups revealed that though action groups exist within the projects they lacked skills for disseminating information among group members and households within the communities. The lack of skills among Action Groups had currently resulted in information gap at the community levels that needed urgent rectification.

A sixth challenge is that of management and record keeping. When searching for records of production and other data, the researcher in some instances was unable to obtain them implying poor management of the projects and poor record keeping by the sponsoring agencies.

Thus, even though the strategies have been well conceived, are innovative, and potentially well targeted, the issue of effectiveness and efficiency in service delivery, financial constraint[~] as well as limited administrative capacities of participants have constrained the achievement of the expected well-being of people in these rural areas within the Ngaka Modiri Molema District Municipality. However, despite the challenges concerning the initiation and the implementation of these programmes, the projects were of critical importance to the study area. An indisputable fact is that even though some of the projects were not effectively and efficiently running, others like the Radithuso Food Production project at Uitkyk and the Tlhabologo Development Project at Mathateng have been efficient and beneficial, to some extent, to the communities where they serve participating

households and individuals. Their objectives on food production and employment were achieved.

This was confirmed by the perceptions of the participants in these projects who indicated that their lifestyle and well-being have, to some extent, improved. Yet, other community members still continue to struggle daily due to the limited number of projects initiated in these areas. The projects are appropriate and have had positive impact on poverty reduction. It implies that they need to be replicated within the same villages and elsewhere that face similar experiences.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

This section conforms to an objective of the study which is to make some recommendations to strengthen the existing strategies for an effective poverty reduction in the study area. The following recommendations are made in line with the objectives.

6.3.1 Ensure awareness of the objectives of Government's development policy frameworks

It was found that although Government's anti-poverty strategies and policies are laudable they are not fully acknowledged by the rural poor in the study area where only a few poverty reduction projects from the policies have trickled down. The programmes being implemented in the field cannot change the conditions of the poor because many of the citizens are oblivious or not well informed of the government's programmes and intentions. It is therefore recommended that a viable communication strategy should be designed by government (both provincial and municipal) and implemented to ensure that the target population understands the purpose of policies and initiated projects. That could lead to active participation of all community members in the projects. That means, vigorous educational and information campaigns should be undertaken. This could be done through the establishment of village institutional structures such as Ward Committees, Community Based Organizations (CBOs) and Village Development

Committees (VDCs) for development initiatives. Ward committees, being political institutions, may exist in the rural villages but are not much geared towards development programmes. The formation of Village Development Committees (VDCs) should be encouraged to fill this gap, without hesitation, in all the villages where they do not exist. The VDCs, together with ward councils and committees, should massively mobilise and educate the target population on advantages to be gained from participating in the establishment of sustainable development projects.

Furthermore, community awareness programmes on self-initiated development projects in villages where these VDCs already exist should be stepped up in collaboration with Ward Councils and committees. The youth and women who are more vulnerable to poverty should be largely mobilized and encouraged by the committees to actively participate in the existing livelihood programmes. Care should be exercised such that the campaign becomes non-political otherwise participation would be limited to only party supporters and would not achieve positive universal poverty reduction objective.

Secondly, delays have occurred in the phases of implementation of the programmes. They have been due to poor planning and lack of knowledge. Therefore, proper project planning and implementation strategies (business plans) should be formulated and agreed on by sponsors and the participating target population before any project implementation is initiated. By embarking on this, a learning process and capacity building will take place for the poor participants.

6.3.2 Required solutions to the types of poverty identified

Since people are afflicted by different types of poverty and in different dimensions, it is hereby recommended that the type of poverty alleviation strategy to adopt should conform to the identified types of poverty being experienced in a particular community. Thus before any anti-poverty policy is implemented in the study area, and for that matter any other poverty stricken area, a poverty audit to determine

the type of poverty being experienced should be undertaken to ensure the appropriateness and relevance of projects to be implemented. From the conclusion drawn in subsection 6.2.4, the types of poverty identified as being experienced in the study area were income poverty, child poverty, community poverty, absolute and chronic poverty. These are also experienced elsewhere. The poverty audit could come up with other types. The following steps could then be taken to solve them.

Firstly, it was found that the nature of identification and implementation of the livelihood projects in the villages was a top-down approach. A sustainable solution to the income poverty being experienced should therefore be approached bottom-up. That is, the communities themselves should identify a wide range of livelihood projects that could provide them with employment and sustainable income. They could then with the cooperation and encouragement of sponsors, select and implement those that they would be capable of pursuing.

Secondly, in the Ratlou Local Municipality report of 2007/2008, the non-provision of sanitation in the villages was highlighted. To solve this problem would have a spinoff of income earnings. These lines of action are recommended.

The first line of action is through engaging the youth on the sanitation of the villages. The municipality should consider tackling the management of refuse in the villages in line with the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) which should be referred to as 'Waste Management Project'. This project should be carefully planned and implemented in the villages in the following way. Since the main means of transport, the donkey driven cart is not expensive, the local municipality should acquire them and release to the youth for the collection of refuse to prepared dumping sites. The cost involved will be very low and cost effective. A commensurate remuneration package could then be planned for those involved. It will keep them occupied whiles they earn some income and at the same time fulfil the municipality's service delivery objective. Villages will be healthier and neater

(an aspect of unmet need) through this programme in the process of poverty reduction.

A second one which is in line with LED is 'community Co-operative livestock farming'. It was found at Mayaeyane that a community goat or livestock project faced many challenges and ended unsuccessfully. That venture failed because there was no careful and proper planning, no capability and project management skills audit. It is recommended that a community Co-operative livestock farming, where all the stock will be at one common kraal and participating community members take turns in caring for the stock should be undertaken. The project should be preceded by proper planning and well thought-out strategies in managing it. Such efforts could reduce their poverty to some extent.

Thirdly, regarding child poverty, all child-headed households have to be identified and registered for special socio-economic support in addition to the provision of child support grant (CSG). The 2001 Stats SA's census data is outdated therefore a special census on child-headed households ought to be undertaken in the study area. That could reveal the number of all child-headed households in the area, their locations and their needs for the necessary support. It is recommended that since there are pockets of children who are still not receiving the CSG, an awareness campaign should be launched (by using social workers and community development practitioners) to encourage and assist parents and guardians of all children that qualify for child support grant to come forward to register or apply for the appropriate grant. Continuous efforts should be made to maintain currency of numbers in need of the grant.

Fourthly, there may be efforts by NGOs, other private sectors as well as the public sector which are seeking to engage in development activities that could help overcome the community's poverty. It is recommended that the local municipalities and the Department of Social Development should identify these agencies and form partnership with them for the purpose of promoting more livelihood projects in

the villages. Finally, since the identified poverty types exist elsewhere and not confined only to the study area these recommendations are applicable to those areas experiencing similar types of poverty.

6.3.3 Reduce dependency on Government

Many poor people have been looking up to government for the solution of all their problems and do not attempt to pursue other means open to them that would address their poverty. They expect government to provide them with their daily needs and have become completely dependent on government. For example, in the study area, the poor had become reliant on food parcels and stipends from government to the extent that when they were withdrawn, they refused to participate in projects which were meant to transform them. Perhaps they believe (rightly or wrongly) that it is their constitutional right to demand from government what they cannot themselves provide. For instance, the Bill of Rights stipulates that no one should go to bed without a meal (South Africa, 1996). Yet, although the South African democratic Constitution (1996) and the Bill of Rights have provisions for such entitlements and rights, government's resources are limited. As such, government cannot and has failed to provide the most basic needs of the poor with the expected speed. Relying completely and waiting on government, as some communities do for sustenance, would sink them deeper into poverty. Therefore, a mass mobilisation and education of the poor on development participation and taking full responsibility for their well-being into their own hands while exercising their rights should become imperative. This is what, in this context, Dahl's theory on democracy considers as, 'Social training' (Pateman, 1970: 8-9) which entails the development of good attitudes of individuals and groups for the provision of their own life support or sustenance.

It is therefore recommended that 'social training' which conscientises households and individuals on attitudinal change and self-reliance rather than reliance on external provisioning should be embarked on by the NWP Government. The

government should use the schools, churches, newspapers etc. to embark on this campaign.

Finally, it is recommended that food parcels and stipends which have been used to entice project participants should only be provided for the indigents who are incapable of doing anything for themselves and without which they face destitution and possible death. This is to discourage dependency on government for subsistence.

6.3.4 Solutions to the challenges that face the poverty reduction projects

The fourth objective of this study was to determine whether there were problems facing the projects. It has been concluded in sub section 6.2.6 that there are many problems and challenges facing the livelihood projects in the study area. These have been identified as poor management and record keeping; financial or the need for more funding; lack of and insufficient water and electricity available; the lack of capacities and skills in marketing of project participants. The existence of these challenges hinders the progress and sustainability of the projects and undermines the NW Government's poverty reduction programme. It is therefore recommended that NWPG should take the following steps to meet the challenges posed.

Firstly, on the challenge of management capacities and record keeping, the NWP Government, including the local and district municipalities should draw the private sector and NGOs into its programmes. NGOs, by their long experience and expertise in community development programmes in remote areas, are well placed for the proper management of such development activities. The government should then ensure proper coordination of activities of all the institutions involved in the poverty reduction programmes. These institutions should ensure that the local executives of the projects have management capabilities of the specific projects by giving them management training prior to and during the implementation of projects.

This training programme should include record keeping. Good record keeping is a reflection of good management, progress and effectiveness of a project. As such all management committees of the projects should be made to keep proper records of their projects by submitting regular quarterly or monthly returns to their sponsors such as the DSD, who must file and keep copies for reference.

Although the PR programmes were sponsored by government departments on whom the communities greatly rely, the autonomy of the local structures at project site level should be respected. A precaution is being sounded that government agents should be wary of imposing political functionaries and traditional leaders on the projects' teams as managers.

Secondly, there is the challenge of unavailability of water and electricity in the villages. The problems of water and electricity supply are threats to the survival of the established projects. With power in the villages, borehole water pumps could function to capacity to provide the needed water for the projects and the village communities. Current electricity supplied by generators is not adequate. Their solutions should be considered as a matter of urgency by all stakeholders. It is recommended that Eskom should as a matter of urgency be actively involved or brought on board the development process as an important stakeholder so that it could play its role as required (if it was not earlier consulted). The fact that projects have existed for more than three years and running without electricity suggests that either Eskom was not consulted to be a partner of these poverty reduction projects or was consulted but has reneged and should be reminded of its role.

Thirdly, for the avoidance of failures of the projects and the assurance of sustainable assistance to the livelihood projects, it is recommended that Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) of the municipalities should not only contain water and electricity as needs, but identified as first priority needs which have to be provided with urgency.

Fourthly, there exists skills challenge. It is recommended that before the implementation of any project, adequate pre-production services such as skills training (referred to under management challenges) of project participants should be undertaken. In addition to this, regular workshops on how to manage and facilitate development projects as well as their monitoring and evaluation, for official who would be in charge, such as, the Community Development Workers and Practitioners (CDW/Ps) and Community Liaison Officers (CLOs) should be routinely provided. The workshops should be locally conducted and contextualised, interactive, practical and geared towards problem solving in the communities.

Fifthly, it is recommended that adequate funds must be made available to projects until they are self-sustaining after which they could be weaned off. This is because when projects are deprived of funds before becoming self-sustained they collapse. With reference to the financial aspect, it was indicated that it is very important for all the projects to be fully funded, especially at the initial implementation stages where infrastructural set up takes place. This means funds should be released in phases according to the design of the projects and on time. Action should be taken to remove all impediments or bottlenecks that delay the approval and release of funds for development projects.

A second recommendation on funding is that government at municipal and provincial levels should encourage the private sector, NGOs, and other Development and donor agencies to invest and fund projects in the rural communities. While engaged in Poverty Reduction Programmes they have to be flexible in their funding requirements and be mindful that rural problems are different from the complex urban ones.

Sixthly, it is recommended that a realistic monitoring and evaluation policy that will deal with assessing the impact of projects and other outcomes should be drawn by both project administrators and target groups (or project owners). After that, a

system of monitoring and evaluation should be introduced. Though this must be on-going it must be measured or evaluated and reported on quarterly, half yearly and yearly. In evaluating them, project owners and administrators must be made to realize that weaknesses that emerge should be regarded as pointers for future improvement and not only as signs of incompetence. Monitoring or evaluating projects would reveal gaps existing that need to be filled. It would enable project team members or participants and administrators to correct their mistakes (if any) and improve on their performances as they proceed with their poverty reduction programmes. It would also enable the NW Government to readily assess the impact of their strategies not only in terms of measurable growth targets but also in terms of changes found in the lives and well-being of the poor.

Finally it has been found that in South Africa it is more tempting to use the quantitative figures of Statistic South Africa's household surveys, Community Surveys and Quarterly Labour Force Surveys to measure well-being because they are readily available and they easily portray numbers of people or percentages of the population that have gone out of poverty or that have entered and re-entered it. The readily available STATSSA figures have tempted the researcher to base this thesis' statistical figures more on those provided by STATSSA than others. But those numbers do not reflect those people's psychological well-being, values and dignity which are in the realm of the quality of life. Those statistical figures do not also reflect local area conditions but reflect the averages of provincial or national conditions.

Therefore, it is recommended that, to holistically address the challenges, there should be close collaboration between the target communities, Government, donor agencies, NGO's, Universities and Research Institutions in the implementation of Poverty reduction strategies in the study area. These groups could undertake poverty audit of the area which would enable the North West Government to know their exact needs and budget correctly for them. The NGO's have experience, and are less bureaucratic in management. They would provide the management

experience required by government to ensure the successful implementation and facilitation of projects in the study area. By collaboration, delays which are often experienced in the implementation of projects would be overcome. Furthermore, Universities and Research institutions are sources of ideas which when harnessed would bring understanding and clarity to proposed development strategies and the knowledge of development studies. In fact the success or failures of projects implemented in the study area would invigorate knowledge in development discourse and Development studies in practice. It must be re-emphasised that in the province the prime responsibility for poverty reduction rests with the Provincial Government which must assume visible leadership roles and co-ordinate the efforts of both the private and public sectors regarding food security and wellbeing of citizens particularly in the study area.

6.3.5 The need for further research

In this study there arose some areas that appear to be still in need of further research for a deeper understanding as well as ensuring that the North West Provincial Government's poverty reduction efforts have a stronger impact in the province as well as the Ngaka Modiri Molema District.

Firstly, it was pointed out in the conclusion regarding Social grant that some individuals at the Social Security Agency and grant receivers were finding several dubious means to maximise their access to the grant. For instance in the study area there is the unproved perception that teenagers and adults were intentionally falling pregnant or not preventing pregnancy and others were increasing the numbers of their children in order to gain access to or be allocated more of the social grant. They see the child support grant as income. Others were said to be changing their age status while others were feigning to be permanently indisposed. It is recommended here that:-

Research is needed to establish the veracity of these perceptions as well as how and to what lengths people legally or illegally go to access the Social Grant.

Thereafter a determination of the feasibility of providing basic income grant (BIG) for all rural dwellers in the North West Province as a major effective way of combating poverty in the long run should be made. The BIG was proposed by organisations such as Black Sash, COSATU, and SACC (founding members of the Basic Income Grant Coalition), eminent people such as Arch Bishop Desmond Tutu, some scholars and economists such as Dr. Ingrid Woolard, Dr. Anna McCord as well as the Taylor committee (referred to as Committee of inquiry into Comprehensive Social Security System (CICSSS)). They all agree that it has the potential to eliminate destitution and should be nationally implemented. It has yet to be seen by the National Government as a feasible proposition to embark on. The rural poor such as those at Mayaeyane and Mathateng are in deep poverty and therefore research regarding the feasibility of a basic income grant (BIG) for the rural poor in the North West Province and how to finance it, is urgently needed.

Secondly, it was concluded that the Co-operative livelihoods projects that had been implemented faced management and marketing challenges. A research is therefore needed to thoroughly study and determine how to effectively manage projects in rural villages such as those in the research area and how produce from livelihood projects can be effectively marketed.

Thirdly, it was also found that without stipends it was difficult to attract the poor to participate in the livelihoods projects. Research is thus needed to determine weaknesses and strengths of the provision of stipends and food parcels and to determine whether there could be other ways to adopt to motivate future recruits to the livelihood projects.

Fourthly, research is needed to determine how effective basic services can be sustainably rendered to rural communities located far from urban centres to ensure that their wellbeing is not compromised. Fifthly, it is also recommended that skills needs audit of rural dwellers should be conducted to determine the types of

projects the rural poor were capable of working on profitably and how to effect village based skills training that could empower and sustain rural livelihoods.

Finally, little research has been done in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District Municipality concerning poverty. As such statistical and other forms of information were difficult to come by during this study. The only available source of informative data was from Statistics South Africa's population census of 2001 which is dated. Unfortunately that is what the District and local municipalities were depending on for their IDPs. All Statistics South Africa's current surveys provide provincial figures and no details of the District or local municipalities are provided. Local area information is all lumped up to generate provincial figures. This makes it hard to micro plan for the poor. It is therefore recommended that research should be commissioned for both qualitative and quantitative socio economic data of the district and local municipalities. All these areas of research would count towards effective poverty reduction through income generation, assurance of self confidence, gainful employment and self-reliance.

6.4 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

This section provides a summary of the study to conclude the research report. In chapter 1, the problem which formed the basis of this study was discussed. A note was made of the fact that the World Bank, UNDP and other institutions had found that globally the percentages of those in poverty were decreasing. This percentage by no means constitutes a large number in absolute terms. The Bank states that 45% of the world's population was receiving an income of less than US\$1.25 a day. This percentage accounts for a huge figure of over 2.9 billion people. In South Africa the absolute numbers of people in poverty are also increasing due to either population growth or the economic recession. Reducing poverty therefore, has been embraced and embodied in all developing countries' development policies in general and in those of South Africa and its North West province in particular.

The challenge therefore has been whether the North West Provincial Government's policies on poverty reduction that have been implemented have been effective and had any impact on the poor people. In the light of this problem, six objectives were formulated for study. The major amongst them was: To evaluate the impact of the North West government's poverty reduction strategies on the poor in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District. The specific focus areas are Mayaeyane and Mathateng within the Ratlou local Municipality, Uitkyk in the Ditsobotla local municipality and Dibate and Montshiwastadt in the Mafikeng local Municipality.

In the pursuit of the objectives and the solution to the problem of this study, the chapter identified both quantitative and qualitative methodologies which were followed in the search for data and analysis. The study went on to review the dominant theoretical conceptions and perspectives of poverty in chapter two. The review has shown that in the literature one specific definition cannot effectively portray the concept poverty otherwise it would be narrow and would ignore other forms of poverty. It is therefore to be defined and conceived broadly and multidimensionally; quantitatively and qualitatively, from the perspectives of the poor themselves and to a limited extent the perspectives of the external observer.

It has been established in this chapter two that poverty is not only the lack of income by which one could obtain one's needs (the economic dimension) but also the condition of ill-being, voicelessness and lack of decency (the psychological and political dimensions). Furthermore, it has theoretically been conceived as 'deprivation' with respect to capabilities and political action. In fact, poverty has been seen as the inability of one to obtain quantitative sustenance – income, employment, food and other material basic needs - as well as the qualitative non-material aspects of living that include political voice, rights and social inclusion. It is therefore opined that the political perception directs or obliges governments to take actions to eradicate poverty.

The chapter continued to identify who were the poor as well as where they were generally found and their distribution in North West Province and South Africa. To correctly identify the poor, the use of some measuring instruments such as, Poverty Line, HDI, HPI, and Lorenz Curve were discussed. The chapter further discussed, in the context of South Africa generally and the North West province in particular, many causal factors that have been identified as being the genesis of the poverty phenomenon. One of them is the historical circumstances in the country prior to the 1994 political dispensation. It again discussed other relevant causal factors, such as geographical location of the province and communities, unemployment, the migrant labour system and others. The chapter then concludes that many factors have played roles in making communities poor in the Province. The solutions to these demand the attention of the government that has sought the people's mandate to improve their welfare.

After dealing with the theoretical expositions of poverty, it was noted that conditions in the NWP and the country as a whole show that inequality and exclusion have made the poor poorer. To overcome poverty and its ramifications, chapter three has sought to examine and evaluate implemented development policies and strategies of the country (RDP, GEAR, Land Reform, EPWP, LED, Social Security, ASGI-SA etc) geared towards poverty reduction and their impact on the poor in South Africa generally, North West Province and its Ngaka Modiri Molema District in particular. The policies were found to have empowered a great deal of the poor through education provision and access, basic services delivery, elimination of exclusion and reduction of inequalities and the provision of income for the most vulnerable in the South African society through Social Grant distribution in particular. From the analysis, majority of the implemented programmes and services have all been urban based and have benefited the urban poor mostly. They have therefore, with the exception of Social Grants, had limited influence on poverty reduction in the rural sector of the study area.

In chapter four, the main socio-economic conditions in the North West Province and within the Ngaka Modiri Molema District were discussed and analysed. In keeping with the dynamism of development of the National Government the NWPG also focused on the national development policies and strategies geared towards poverty reduction. The North West Provincial Government repositioned itself on these national policies and through Provincial Growth and Development Summits (PGDS), embarked on programmes and projects such as Co-operative food production, Basic services delivery, as well as efficient Social Grant administration to effect poverty reduction in the province and Ngaka Modiri Molema District Municipality.

Chapter five discussed specific implemented livelihood projects and other poverty reduction activities that have emerged from the policies. Data collected from community members, elders and officials through interviews and from observations in the study area were analysed. On the basis of the data collected and analysed, the effectiveness and impact of the government's strategies were evaluated against their stated objectives. On the basis of this evaluation and perceptions of interviewees findings were exposed. It was found that though the North West Provincial Government's poverty reduction programmes were being fully implemented and are achieving good results at the macro level of society that is at provincial level, very little was being done at village levels. As a result, in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District, very little observable and reported positive changes were taking place in the lives of the poor at the micro level. Even the few antipoverty projects emanating from policies implemented at the micro level particularly at Mathateng, Mayaeyane and Uitkyk were faced with many challenges such as water, electricity and finance. Among other findings child poverty was gravely on the increase, evidenced by the large number of households headed by children and the increasing numbers of people seeking child support grant.

In Chapter six findings and conclusions that were arrived at in the study were reported and recommendations made. One important finding is the realisation by

the communities that Co-operative farming projects were means of employment open to them and for income generation in the foreseeable future in the villages since individually they could not undertake such ventures. However their implementations were top-down. A bottom-up approach has therefore been recommended. It has also been recommended that, for the Co-operative projects to be successful and have greater impact on the poor, proper implementation and management plans have to be drawn with the participation of all stakeholders. Again the research found that government policies were more effectively and efficiently being implemented at the Provincial and District levels (i.e. in the urban areas) and have had substantial positive impact on poverty reduction at that level, but at the local level (i.e. in the rural areas) very few projects emanating from the policies were being implemented and so the benefits of the generous policies have not been fully felt at this level.

The research finally recommends that close collaboration should be encouraged between the Government Departments, Donor Agencies, NGO's, Universities and Research Institutions in the Province to come out with a provincial best practice of poverty reduction that ensures building of capacities in the rural communities and enables households within them to initiate development projects themselves. Such practices should help avoid delays and bottlenecks in the implementation of Poverty reduction strategies in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District and the Province in general.

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