

**The influence of social security system on poverty alleviation in Makhado  
Municipality**

**By**

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## DECLARATION

I, **THENGA TAKALANI ENOS**, hereby declare that the Research Proposal for the degree of Master of Management Science at University of Limpopo hereby submitted by me, has not been submitted previously for a degree at this or any other university; that it is my own work in design and execution, and that all reference material contained therein has been duly acknowledged.

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August 2020

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**THENGA TAKALANI ENOS**

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**DATE**

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## **DEDICATION**

I also dedicate my research project to my lovely wife Thenga Masala Joyce, for her simple spirited attitude towards my further education, her prayers and words of encouragement. This research project would not be a success without her support

## ABSTRACT

The overall aim of this study is to evaluate the impact of social security on poverty alleviation in rural areas of Makhado Local Municipality, Limpopo Province. Poverty is most stressing social problem in Makhado Local Municipality of Limpopo province. The Department of Social Development Business Plan (2013:3) supports this by a statement which says "poverty is distributed unevenly among the nine provinces of the country. The government has expended resources for the poverty alleviation programmes with so little achievement because poverty is continuing to be one of South Africa's burning social problems. The study was employed a mixed methods research design. This involves concurrent triangulation strategy which combines qualitative and quantitative approaches. The study used both quantitative and qualitative techniques for data collection and analysis. Quantitative techniques were mostly used in that they provided the researcher with an understanding of experiences and impact of social security on poverty alleviation in rural areas of Makhado Local Municipality, Limpopo Province. A simple random and purposive sample was used for selection of a sample population. Random sampling was done to the Household Head as well as the LED project member whereby selection of the sampling will be done randomly in the form of questionnaire distribution. A purposive sampling technique was employed in selection study participants of qualitative method. Purposeful sampling was done to the municipal officials, ward committees as well as traditional leaders. The interview data was transcribed, coded and then themes were looked for in the coded data. Data was obtained through questionnaires and interview. Data from questionnaires was analysed by means of using tables and figures. The data was entered from the spreadsheet was exported to the SPSS so that it could be analysed to yield the results. The findings revealed that some of the caregivers misuse the grant and do not utilise it in the best interest of children. Thus, the grant is sometimes not spent on the things it is intended for. Instead, it is utilised for gambling, and for purchasing alcohol. It was therefore recommended that there is need for South Africa to develop a comprehensive system of social protection which were enable caregivers to receive support in their own right. This would serve to ensure that the social grant is used specifically to meet the needs of children.

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## **CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY**

### **1.1 Introduction and Background of the study**

This chapter focuses on the rationale, the context, the problem statement and the purpose of this study. The background and legal grounding on which the research will be conducted also receive attention. The study's paradigmatic perspectives are discussed, together with the clarification of the key concepts. This introductory chapter sets out the background for this study. It clarifies its main research problem, the aims of the research, the main research question and the subsidiary research questions. It explains the purpose and objectives of the research, and it also outlines the structure of the report.

According to Samson, van Niekerk, and Mac Quene (2010), many countries around the world are increasingly adopting national social protection strategies in order to build a comprehensive social protection system that aims to tackle poverty, risk, vulnerability, exclusion, and other social problems. If implemented effectively, these strategies are likely to promote human security and development, and contribute to pro-poor and inclusive economic growth. Samson et al. (2010) further state that the success of such strategies, especially in the form of cash transfer programmes largely depends on the policy environment, the historical evolution, and institutional arrangements within the country.

Moreover, the identification, design, and implementation of cash transfer programmes within larger social protection strategies usually involves policy instruments that fall under the domain of different government ministries. Effective interventions usually require the involvement of several ministries, often including the relevant social welfare ministry; the ministry responsible for gender, women, children, older people and people with disabilities; the labour ministry; and ministries responsible for human capital services such as health and education. The finance ministry and the planning function within government also play a critical role (Samson, van Niekerk, and Mac Quene 2010).

Child Support Grant (CSG) is one of the policy strategies implemented by the South African government in order to address child poverty. The CSG is said to be a rare example in Africa of a comprehensive social grant programme for poor children. The grant was introduced in 1998 following a recommendation by the Lund Committee, which was established with the aim of exploring new alternative policy options targeting children and families as part of the ANC government's commitment to poverty reduction (Department of Social Development, 2011).

It is stipulated in the South African Constitution that every individual has the right to dignity. This right to dignity entails that persons must be protected against environmental hazards or external circumstances, such as poverty, unemployment, poor housing, education, health, malnutrition and others. This is constituted in a statement which says that "the state must respect, protect, promote and fulfil the rights in the Bill of Rights" (South African Constitution, 1996, Section 7(2)). According to the stipulation of the Reconstruction and Development Programme, the provincial governments are required to formulate, implement and evaluate the poverty alleviation policy programmes which are aimed at improving the lives of communities (Mamburu, 2001:87).

The government has expended resources for the poverty alleviation programmes with so little achievement because poverty is continuing to be one of South Africa's burning social problems. The White Paper on the Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994:21) states that South Africa is characterised by uneven development with extreme poverty in many parts of the country. Basic infrastructure is lacking in poorer areas of most provinces.

Poverty is a complex, multifaceted phenomenon which can be difficult to define. The definition of poverty determines its measurement. Although poverty is a global problem, due to the unique nature of apartheid in South Africa which was based on legislative segregation, poverty greatly affected Blacks, Coloureds and Indians in the country (Mamburu, 2001: 6). During this period, equal access to quality education, employment, resources and services were denied to these racial groups particularly Blacks, all as part of a deliberate attempt to retard their quality of life (Marcus, 2013: 12). As a result, the racial dimension of poverty is resilient amongst these racial

groups in the country. Furthermore, the rate of poverty is higher in rural areas, particularly former homelands due to unemployment, lack of access to basic services such as; quality education to gain lucrative jobs, health care, water and sanitation just to name but a few. According to Armstrong et al (2008: 11); Marcus, (2013: 60), the poorest 63% of households dwelled in rural areas as opposed to 37% in urban areas, at the time of Income and Expenditure Survey (IES) 2005/06. Most poverty reduction policies emphasized on the need for quantity and quality education, healthcare, housing and social security.

In 1993, equality was attained in the spending on social security, where the amount received by White and Black pensioners for social pensions was equal (Peck, & Dolch, 2001:121). The social security system was restructured by post-apartheid government, whereby, it introduced the Child Support Grant (CSG) and eliminated the State Maintenance Grants (SMG). These grants have greatly relieved many poverty-stricken households in the country. Peck, & Dolch, (2001:91) indicated that, in 1994 the new government considered education as one important tool to fight illiteracy and to provide the necessary skills required to move out of poverty.

## **1.2 Statement of the problem**

According to Article 26(1) of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), every child has the right to social security benefits. CRC further highlights that every child has the right to a standard of living adequate for his or her physical, mental, spiritual, moral and social development. Section 9 of the Children's Act no. 38 of 2005 provides that in all matters concerning the care, protection and well-being of a child, the child's best interest is of paramount importance. In addition, all children have the right to have their basic needs met, not only for survival and protection but also to be able to develop to their full potential, to participate as members of society (according to their age and development), and to grow up to be caring and responsible citizens. Section 28 of the South African Constitution has listed rights of children and among them is the right to basic nutrition, shelter, basic health care services, and social services.

Despite the provision of legislation in social security some caregivers fail in ensuring that the basic needs of children are met. For instance, although the CSG is meant to alleviate poverty among children, some of the caregivers who receive the grant on behalf of the children are reported to be misusing the grant and not utilising it in the best interest of the children. When they fail to do so, childhood poverty will persist and it is strongly associated with less schooling, lower educational attainment, malnutrition, and low standard of living. And therefore the study is to evaluate the impact of social security on poverty alleviation in rural areas of Makhado Local Municipality, Limpopo Province

### **1.3 Aim of the study**

The overall aim of study is to evaluate the impact of social security on poverty alleviation in Makhado Local Municipality, Limpopo Province

### **1.4 Objectives of the study**

- To identify strategies to enhance the social security in poverty alleviation to children in Makhado Local Municipality,
- To analyse the intervention's impact on the poverty level of the child social security,
- To determine the impact of the social security on poverty alleviation of children's,
- To establish the views of caregivers on how the social security can be utilised in the best interest of children
- To make recommendations regarding the evaluation of the children social security in order to enhance poverty alleviation in the Limpopo Province

### **1.4 Research questions**

- What are the strategies to enhance the social security in poverty alleviation in Makhado Municipality?
- What is the intervention's impact on the poverty level of the community?

- What is the impact of the project on poverty alleviation of community members?
- What are the views of caregivers on how the social security can be utilised in the best interest of children?
- How to make the recommendations regarding the evaluation of the social security in order to enhance poverty alleviation in the Limpopo Province?

## **1.5 Significance of the study**

This study was expected to contribute towards knowledge of the performance and impact of social security on poverty alleviation in rural areas of Makhado Local Municipality. Also, the aforementioned problems and challenges faced in Limpopo Province motivated this research. Finally, the results of the research are expected to be beneficial to policy makers, the people of Limpopo Province and the economy as a whole, since it was revealed the extent of poverty, social security and education in the study area. Thereby, indicating the percentage of the population that needs special attention by policy makers in Makhado Local Municipality.

## **1.6 Operational definition of the study**

The concepts relevant to this study need to be briefly classified as follows:

### **1.6.1 Social security**

International Labour Organisation (2000 p.29) defines social security as The protection which the society provides for its members through a series of public measures, to offset the absence or substantial reduction of income from work resulting from various contingencies (such as sickness, maternity, employment injury, unemployment, invalidity, old age and death of the breadwinner); to provide people with health care; and to provide benefits for families with children.

### **1.6.2 Poverty**

People are in poverty if they do not have the resources to physically maintain human life (Rono & Aboud, 2001:81). The concept 'absolute poverty' usually involves a judgment of basic human needs and is measured in terms of the resources required to maintain health and physical efficiency. Absolute poverty is often known as subsistence poverty since it is based on assessments of minimum subsistence requirements (Taylor, 2011:92). The second definition of poverty is based upon identifying those households whose income falls well below the average for households with the same composition (the same number of adults and children) (Rono & Aboud, 2001:296).

### **1.6.3 Development**

Development denotes a desirable on-going or intended process of change. It is applied in a societal context. Sullivan, & Thompson, (2009:10) refers to development as "a favourable change, a step from the simple to the complex, from the inferior to the superior, from worse to better." For the purpose of this study, the concept development means the change of the lifestyle of the poor people of the Vhembe District Municipality.

### **1.6.4 Livelihoods**

Poor people tend to be most dependent upon the environment and the direct use of the natural resources, and, as such, they are the most severely affected when the environment is degraded or their access to natural resources is limited or denied (Sullivan, & Thompson, 2009: 8). In this envisaged study, the concept refers to the strategy used to get a living

## **1.7 Delimitation of the study**

This study will primarily to focus on the impact of social security on poverty alleviation in rural areas of Makhado Local Municipality, Limpopo Province. The assessment will to cover the period from 2010 to 2015. The confines of this study is

in Limpopo province in poverty alienation specifically in the district municipalities namely Vhembe district municipality not in all district municipalities in Limpopo.

## **1.8 Chapter outline**

### **Chapter 1: orientation of the study**

This study consists of five chapters. Chapter 1 explains the background of the study, statement of the study problem, research objectives, research hypotheses, and significance of the study, delimitations of the study, limitation of the study, operational definitions and chapter overview.

### **Chapter 2: literature review**

Chapter 2 reviews related literature materials on impact of poverty, socio-economic activities and political factors cause poverty, impact of social security on poverty alleviation in rural areas.

### **Chapter 3: research design and methodology**

Chapter 3 provides the overall research design which outlines research methodology and methods of data collection and analysis.

### **Chapter 4: data interpretation, presentation and analysis**

Chapter 4 deals with data presentation, interpretations and analysis of the findings.

### **Chapter 5: findings, recommendations and conclusion**

Chapter 5 is a summary of findings, recommendations and conclusions, suggestions and issues for further research.



## CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 Introduction

Agénor, (2009:92) explains that literature review is a body of text that determines the aims to review the critical points of current knowledge including substantive findings as well as theoretical and methodological contributions to a particular topic. Most often associated with academic-oriented literature, such as a thesis, a literature review usually precedes a research proposal and results section. Its main goals are to situate the current study within the body of literature and to provide context for the particular reader. In the context of a research paper or thesis, the literature review is a critical synthesis of previous research. The evaluation of the literature leads logically to the research question.

In order to reduce poverty within communities, government must ensure that the poor are assisted through the provision of some forms of social security programmes. Borat and Kanbur, (2006:125) write that social security programmes comprise policy and programme instruments such as general food subsidies, targeted income transfers, public works, school feeding, social funds, small-scale credit and emergency feeding programmes which are designed to reduce or prevent poverty. Within the South African context, social security is meant to provide many poor households with a regular income which provides a basic level of food security and protection against seasonal and other fluctuations and shocks (Bhagwati and Srinivasan, 2010:34).

Bautista (2009:54) writes that poverty alleviation or reduction is the most serious problem facing South African policy makers today and that cash transfer was found to be the most effective and efficient way of addressing it. This author suggests the provision of the basic income grant to the unemployed will help them to climb the socioeconomic ladder because the unemployed by definition earn no income; they are the poorest in the labour force (Adeizadeh, 2011:23). Delivering social security programmes to communities is a governmental obligation because failure to do so poses more risk to it. The poor who are excluded from the socio-economic resources of their environment may pose danger to the society as a whole. This is supported by

Alcock, (2011:89) who contends that more of a problem than the extent of current exclusion would suggest: the population at risk is much larger than that already excluded. Public assistance programmes to the poor are a must for developed governments.

According to Alcock (2011:112) Individuals, groups and organizations representing those who receive public assistances should be given an opportunity to represent them. Active involvement of the poor in articulating their needs and how they should be addressed was highlighted by Abedian, (2012:224) when they explain how the Greater Montreal Anti-Poverty Coordinating Committee (GMAPCC) came into being and operated. This committee for the development of the citizenship for the poor entails "the assertion that there should be basic income entitlement for the poor and that they had a right to speak on their own behalf and have some control over the services that touched their lives" (Bautista, 2009:121). Social security fund is money which the departments of Social Development and Health and Welfare have budgeted for the programmes which are intended to assist the qualifying sectors in the communities, namely: the children, youth, the aged, the disabled, drug and alcohol abuse and crime prevention, rehabilitation and restoration.

## **2.2 Social security programmes and it impact of poverty alleviation**

In order to reduce poverty within communities, government must ensure that the poor are assisted through the provision of some forms of social security programmes. Mingione, (2013:125) write that social security programmes comprise policy and programme instruments such as general food subsidies, targeted income transfers, public works, school feeding, social funds, small-scale credit and emergency feeding programmes which are designed to reduce or prevent poverty. Within the South African context, social security is meant to provide many poor households with a regular income which provides a basic level of food security and protection against seasonal and other fluctuations and shocks (Mingione, 2013:34).

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Individuals, groups and organizations representing those who receive public assistance should be given an opportunity to represent them. Active involvement of the poor in articulating their needs and how they should be addressed was highlighted by Sullivan & Thompson, (2010:328) when they explain how the Greater Montreal Anti-Poverty Coordinating Committee (GMAPCC) came into being and operated. This committee for the development of the citizenship for the poor entails "the assertion that there should be basic income entitlement for the poor and that they had a right to speak on their own behalf and have some control over the services that touched their lives" (Sullivan & Thompson, 2010:49). Social security fund is money which the departments of Social Development and Health and Welfare have budgeted for the programmes which are intended to assist the qualifying sectors in the communities, namely: the children, youth, the aged, the disabled, drug and alcohol abuse and crime prevention, rehabilitation and restoration.

Early life receipt of the Child Support Grant (CSG) (in the first two years of life) increases the likelihood that a child's growth is monitored and improves height-for-age scores for children whose mothers have more than eight grades of schooling. Since children's cognitive development depends on receiving appropriate nutrition in the first few years of life, this result provides important evidence of the Child Support Grant's role as an investment in human capabilities a critical determinant of multi-dimensional poverty reduction. This also suggests that a mother's education

complements the Child Support Grant in strengthening important impacts. According to Naidoo (2012:54) cash grants directly reduce poverty of some of the most vulnerable and in so doing also reduce inequality. Payment of cash to poor households will reduce the poverty headcount or the poverty gap and also reduce inequality measures because they are typically funded from progressive taxation (in national scale programmes). Cash grants therefore directly improve the living standards (consumption) of the poor and increase consumption levels of the poor relative to those in higher income groups, directly reducing poverty and inequality.

In addition to directly reducing poverty (lower poverty headcounts and poverty gaps) cash grants also deal with some of the underlying causes of poverty and in so doing not only provide a safety net (allow people to cope with risk/ provide a minimum income level) but also generate positive dynamics through enabling risks to be mitigated and reduced over time. While poverty reduces resources that provide minimum living standards it also keeps households from consuming more productive consumption bundles, participating in economic activities and investing in physical, social, and human capital (i.e. education, health, nutrition) assets to ensure future income streams. Cash grants, in addition to funding consumption, enable poor households to make different consumption decisions, participate in productive economic activity and invest in the future productivity of the household and household members (Sullivan & Thompson, 2010:328).

### **2.3 Conceptualisation of social security**

International Labour Organisation (2000:29) defines social security as the protection which the society provides for its members through a series of public measures, to offset the absence or substantial reduction of income from work resulting from various contingencies (such as sickness, maternity, employment injury, unemployment, invalidity, old age and death of the breadwinner); to provide people with health care; and to provide benefits for families with children. According to Patel (2005), this definition by ILO affords both government and the private sector to intervene in order to ensure the protection of individuals who are unable to provide for themselves and to mobilise resources to take care of themselves due to the contingencies they have experienced which are beyond their control.

Patel (2005) believes that there is no agreement on how comprehensive social security should be, especially in developing countries due to resource constraints, limited formal employment, and inadequate institutional capacity and administrative systems to deliver services effectively and efficiently. This means that, in developing countries social security cannot be conceptualized looking only at the formal wage economy, since the majority of the people are employed in the informal sector and not all of them benefit from the current formal social security system.

In the SADC region, for instance, Charter of Fundamental Social Rights in SADC indicates that each Member State shall create an enabling environment so that every worker in the Region shall have a right to adequate social protection and enjoy adequate social security benefits, regardless of status and the type of employment. It further indicates that persons who are unable to participate in the labour market and are without a means of support shall be entitled to receive sufficient resources and social assistance (SADC quoted by Wright & Noble 2010). Every Member State is expected to maintain its social security system at satisfactory level at least equal to that required for ratification of International Labour Organization (ILO) Convention 102. However, every Member State should seek to improve its social security system, bearing in mind the realities and level of development in the particular Member State (Wright & Noble 2010).

Tshoose (2010) concurs that the Western orientated concept of social security may also not be able to capture the characteristics of the African context sufficiently. It recognises that social security is not a fixed concept. Thus, social security cannot be defined with regard to the content of the intended scheme because it will leave insufficient room for the development of social security and to provide for new answers to any new social problems that may arise.

Social security systems in the developed countries are based on a nuclear family wherein a male is regarded as the head and the only provider in a household. These countries experience limited social assistance coverage because most people have employment and work related social benefits in accordance with their full employment policies. This is not the case in South Africa due to prevailing

unemployment and poverty (Lund in Patel 2005). In South Africa, the majority of people are employed in the informal sector. The family structures have evolved over the years, with single parent-headed and child-headed families becoming dominant. Moreover, the country is also faced with a growing HIV and AIDS pandemic which continues to have devastating economic and social consequences for the country. For instance, HIV and AIDS related deaths are reflected in the growing number of AIDS orphans and the increasing number of households headed by children (Patel 2005:90).

Due to the challenges experienced by developing countries, the Taylor Committee saw a need for general social protection that supports the unemployed and the working poor (Committee of Inquiry into a Comprehensive Social Security System quoted by Patel 2005). The Taylor Committee broadened the vision of social security to integrate those people who are marginalised and excluded from coverage of the present social security system. For instance, the Taylor Committee recommended the introduction of a basic income grant (BIG). The proposed amount was R100 per person monthly for every South African citizen, regardless of age or income level (Samson et al. 2002 and Makino 2004). It was however debated if the amount of benefit paid under the comprehensive system will adequately meet the basic needs of healthy working-age adults. In response, EPRI authors argued that a BIG represents an effective, economically affordable and economically beneficial policy instrument to reach the poor in South Africa. It was further suggested that much of the expenditure could be recovered through careful use of the tax system, which the opponents of BIG argued was not sustainable (Samson et al. 2002).

According to Whitworth & Noble (2008), in terms of effectiveness, a BIG's ability to provide complete coverage and take-up was emphasised, although it may not be a guaranteed outcome, given the problems of delivery evidenced by the low take-up of other social grants such as a disability grant (DG). The committee's agenda was to locate social security within a human development and a social justice perspective, emphasising the relationship between social and economic development. It thus advocated for minimum standard of living for all citizens (Committee of Inquiry into a Comprehensive Social Security System cited by Patel 2005:9). Tshoose (2010:89) believes that there is a close interrelationship between the concept of social security

and several other related concepts that constitute the basis of specific fundamental rights, such as the right to have access to land, housing, health-care services and sufficient food and water. It can therefore be inferred that social security denotes programmes that ensure that people have a safety net in cases in which their earning capacity ceases to exist.

## **2.4 Poverty in Limpopo Province**

According to the National Census of 2011, Limpopo Province is a home to 11, 8% of South Africa's population. Measured by its total current income, Limpopo is ranked sixth of all the provinces in South Africa in terms of total income. In per capita income terms, however, the province is the poorest (SSA, 2011a). As in the case with most of the other provinces in South Africa, Limpopo is marred by high poverty rates, inequalities in the distribution of income between various population subgroups and unemployment.

The Limpopo Province has a strong rural basis and is divided into five district municipalities. About 89% of the provincial land surface is rural and underdeveloped. The poverty rate estimates in all the district municipalities in Limpopo are above the national average poverty rate. One of the central challenges of economic development in the province is poverty. It is estimated as many as 60% of households in the province fall below a nominal income level of R12230 per annum. A poverty reduction target in the province is that, by 2015, the nominal income level will have risen by R20000 and 33% of the households will fall under this nominal income level.

As a matter of fact, the province boasts the widest diversity of agricultural resources, tourism destinations and mineral reserves in South Africa. Tourism and agriculture together with their associated manufacturing industries are the additional driving forces for economic development (Statistics South Africa). Despite all the above achievements, poverty levels have not decreased as one would expect. Regarding to job creation, diversification and poverty reduction, much more still needs to be done to improve the quality of life and to stimulate economic activities (Development Index Framework: Limpopo).

Information pertaining to the labour market status reveals a high level of unemployment in Limpopo Province (48, 8%). This figure is higher than the national level of 41, 6%. The sex profile of labour market status shows unemployment to be quite high among females (56, 6%) compared to the 40, 6% level recorded among males. The high unemployment level partly explains the situation where at least two thirds (67%) of the provincial labour force has no monthly income; only 4, 5% of the provincial labour force earns at least R3201 per month (Confidential- Population and Development Directorate, Undated). Illiteracy remains high, as does malnutrition, child mortalities and deprivation of basic amenities such as water and electricity. Obviously, one of the province's priorities would be to implement programmes to alleviate poverty and social development (Kircher, 2011:12).

#### **2.4.1 Poverty in Makhado Local Municipality**

According to Statistics SA (Census, 2011), the total population of Makhado is estimated at 161 322. In Makhado Local Municipality, estimated that 65 percentage of total population they live in poverty, they depend on social security. A large percentage of the population of Makhado is still under 21 years of age. This will mean a lot of social spending. The said number of people will pose an economic challenge to the Municipality, as jobs will have to be created to absorb the ever-increasing number of the unemployed with a very high dependency ratio. A large section of the population is found in Makhado, My Darling and R293 Towns like Louis Trichardt, Vuwani, Elim and Makhado Town. Poverty level at Makhado is very high. This brings with a number of social factors. A large number of households survive with an annual income that is under R18 000. One of the biggest problems is the migrant labour system. In the past, women headed a substantial number of households as men had to go and make a living elsewhere, particularly in Limpopo Province.

The trend nowadays is for households to be headed by children, as women also tend to go after their husbands. This has had a negative social impact on the lives of the children as they have to grapple with independence and the effects of the moral decay that is prevalent today. A large number of settlements are rural areas in the form of villages. The majority of the people however do not have access to clean



water. Some sections of the Makhado population are below RDP standards. The majority of people receive their water from natural sources. The main concern is that the people who receive water from unspecified sources may be could lead to water-borne diseases.

## **2.5 South Africa s social security system**

De Paoli, Mills, and Gronningsteaer (2012:56) believe that South Africa has one of the largest non-contributory social security systems. Its social security system has been however, influenced by European and British social security systems. South Africa, like most sub-Saharan countries was colonised for many decades. It was a Dutch colony from the 17<sup>th</sup> century to the 18<sup>th</sup> century. The colonisers looked down upon the manner in which Africans do things; they judged the African people, their customs and viewed their traditional social organisation as being inferior (Patel 2005:78). Patel (2005:78) further states that the colonisers were interested in economic activities not considering the impact these may have on whom she termed indigenous inhabitants. Thus, citizens were expected to adapt to the technology, methods of production, forms of social organisation and welfare systems to meet the demands and worldview of the colonial powers (Patel 2005:66).

According to Patel (2005), before colonialism, there was social cohesion in South Africa wherein people s needs were met through communalism and mutual aid. Members of the society were concerned about each other s welfare and strived to meet each other s needs cohesively. These traditional modes of social provision were disrupted by the colonial society. The welfare policies developed by the colonial masters were distorted and had racial discrimination. Whites were regarded as the elite group. Services that were rendered were in favour of the whites and discriminated against other racial groups, mainly blacks.

As a developing country, South Africa adopted some elements from the British social security system to its social security system in order to deal with the injustices of the past, particularly the racial discrimination endured by the majority of South Africans during apartheid (Patel 2005:98). Barrientos and DeJong (2006:4) believe that South Africa has made significant strides in developing a comprehensive social security

system, particularly since the end of apartheid in 1994. Currently, South Africa has a fairly well developed social security system in place (Patel 2005:45). This is also provided for in section 27 of the constitution which states that everyone has a right to social security if they are unable to support themselves and their dependents.

According to Tshoose (2010:65), within the South African context, the concept of social security is viewed as an umbrella concept, which encompasses social assistance, social insurance, and a wide variety of private and public measures that provide cash or in kind benefits or both, in the event of an individual's earning power permanently ceasing, being interrupted and when a person cannot avoid poverty. Furthermore, the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) defines social security as policies which ensure that all people have adequate economic and social protection during unemployment, ill health, maternity, child rearing, disability and old age, etc. This can either be by means of contributory and non-contributory schemes providing for their basic needs.

South Africa's social security system is aimed at reducing poverty among the vulnerable groups, namely: older people, those with disabilities, and children who are not expected to participate fully in the labour market. The system also intends to improve health, education and nutrition, so as to increase economic growth and development (Samson, et al. 2006). This is also reflected in the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997:47) which states that a social security system is essential for healthy economic development, particularly in a rapidly changing economy, and will contribute actively to the development process. It is important for immediate alleviation of poverty and is a mechanism for active redistribution.

However, Samson et al. (2002:45) believe that the severity of South Africa's poverty persists in spite of the existing social security programme. This is because most of the poor live in households that receive no social security benefits at all, and the rest remain poor in spite of the benefits they receive. Nevertheless, South Africa's system of social security successfully reduces poverty, regardless of which methodology is used to quantify the impact measure. For instance, South Africa's social grants reduce the poverty headcount measure by 4.3 per cent, as measured against the Committee of Inquiry's expenditure poverty line (Department Social

Development 2004). South Africa's social security consists of social assistance and social insurance which will be elaborated below.

### **2.5.1 Social Assistance**

Patel (2005) states that social assistance refers to a range of benefits in cash intended to provide protection for the neediest people in the society. Social assistance benefits are non-contributory and they are means-tested. She further argues that South Africa's social assistance programme, commonly known as social grants is exceptional when compared to other developing countries. These social grants are aimed at ensuring that households meet their basic needs. They therefore play a significant role in alleviating poverty and improving access to food and education.

South African Social Security Agency (SASSA) was established in 2004 to act as the sole agent that will ensure the efficient and effective management, administration and payment of social assistance. Its purpose is to serve as an agent for the prospective administration and payment of social security and render services relating to such payments (SASSA Act No. 9 of 2004). Moreover, the Social Assistance Act addresses social security by regulating access to social grants namely; the Child Support Grant (CSG), Foster Child Grant (FCG) and Care Dependency Grant (CDG), State Old Age Pension (SOAP), Disability Grant (DG), Grant-in-aid, and War Veteran Grant.

Initially, women at the age of 60 and men at the age of 65 accessed the State Old Age Pension (SOAP). The age for men has been reduced gradually from 2009 in order to achieve gender equality (Kaseke 2010). Currently, all elderly persons at the age of 60 despite their gender are eligible for SOAP. The SOAP is the largest social assistance programme with over 2.5 million beneficiaries in 2010 (SOCPEN system 2010). In June 2012, the beneficiaries were 2 789 076 (SOCPEN system 2012). The important redistributive impact of this programme has been recognised by government, labour and academia. Patel (2005) and Samson et al. (2002) are both of the view that SOAP has a major impact in reducing poverty among poor households, especially those in rural areas. They both agree that households with

pensioners are less poor than those without a pensioner. The amount for SOAP increases every year and currently stands at R1 200 per month.

Patel (2005 p. 129) states that disability grant is the second largest programme in rand terms. Disability Grant beneficiaries were 1 232 502 in June 2010 (SOCPEN system 2010). The number has been reduced to 1 196 575 by June 2012 (SOCPEN system 2012). The beneficiaries have decreased by 15 per cent. This could be as a result of the medical model used currently to determine eligibility for access to disability grants which Tshoose (2010) argues is inefficient because it results in large numbers of people being marginalised from benefiting under the system of social security. Currently within the South African social assistance system, disability is measured and defined entirely by the medical profession. Its interpretation determines a person's eligibility to receive a grant. Eligibility for the grant is based on a medical diagnosis assessing the degree of disability, along with a means-test.

Kaseke (2010) states that persons above the age of 18 who have a disability are eligible for the grant as determined by the medical board. He further indicates that the degree of the disability should be such that it would not be possible for the individual to be self-reliant. There is temporary and permanent DG. The temporary DG is paid for up to one year and an individual can reapply for further support. For individuals whose condition is on-going for a continuous period of more than 12 months duration, permanent DG is awarded; usually renewal is required every five years (Department of Social Development in Whitworth & Noble 2008). In addition, in the context of South Africa's high rates of HIV and AIDS and tuberculosis, a potential moral hazard is created in that by gaining their health, individuals may lose eligibility to the DG. It is argued that some people opt to maintain a state of sickness as there are no other means by which they or their family can be provided for if they cannot find work (Whitworth & Noble 2008).

However, a survey conducted by de Paoli, Mills and Gronningsteaer (2012) reveals that people living with HIV and AIDS would not choose poor health over grant loss. Although some of the participants did not take their treatment on times scheduled, indicating that it was difficult to take the drugs on an empty stomach. Nevertheless, HIV and AIDS status alone does not give rise to entitlement to DG, entitlement is

conferred if the condition becomes disabling and affects ability to work. This is, however, a vague requirement and variably interpreted. The situation is exacerbated further by the lack of a national framework or set of detailed guidelines and assessment procedures (Whitworth & Noble 2008).

In terms of beneficiaries, DG is smaller than the CSG. The Children's Act defines a child as any person below the age of 18. The main objective of the act is to protect children's rights, which include the right to basic needs such as food, shelter, safety, and health care. This will therefore enable them to survive and develop to their full potential, to participate as members of society (according to their age and development), and to grow up to be caring and responsible citizens. Meeting the children's needs will also ensure that children have a happy and fulfilled childhood.

In addition, section 28 of the Constitution makes provision for rights relating to children; including the right to social security which is also regulated by the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC). The CRC expects the government to take necessary measures to achieve the full realisation of this right in accordance with its domestic laws. The CRC further affords every child the right to a standard of living adequate for his or her physical, mental, spiritual, moral and social development (Nkosi 2009). The CSG is provided for in sections 4 and 6 of the Social Assistance Act. It is payable to a needy primary caregiver of a child for the benefit of that child. The aim of the CSG is to support primary caregivers of children by making a contribution to supplement their resources to use towards providing for the adequate growth and development of children.

The meaning of a primary caregiver is not restricted to the biological parent of a child. It includes person related or not related to the child, who is responsible for meeting the daily needs of such child. Therefore, members of extended families who are primary caregivers of a child can apply for the CSG to help children in their care. To qualify for the grant, the primary caregiver is required to meet the income-based criteria set in the means test. Further, both the primary caregiver and the child must be resident in South Africa at the time of the application for the grant and they must both be South African citizens. The grant is payable to an unlimited number of one's biological children but it is limited to six non-biological children living with the primary

caregiver (Nkosi 2009). Section 8 of the Social Assistance Act 13 of 2004 stipulates that a foster child grant (FCG) is payable to a foster parent if the child is in need of care and protection. Thus, the child needs to be placed under foster care by a court order. Foster care is regarded as an alternative care for orphaned and vulnerable children. An increased number of orphans resulting from HIV/AIDS pandemic necessitate this type of alternative care. In terms of the Children's Act, if a child is found to be in need of care and protection, that is, if the child has no parent or caregiver or has a parent or caregiver but that person is unable or unsuitable to care for the child, the court may order that such a child be placed in foster care with a suitable foster parent. However, this is recommended after the social worker's investigation (Patel 2005).

Once a child has been found to be in need of care and protection, a foster parent becomes eligible to apply for a Foster Child Grant (FCG) in terms of the Social Assistance Act. To qualify for a FCG, the foster parent and the child must be resident in South Africa at the time of the application. The FCG is payable until a foster child turns 18, however it can be extended in terms of section 176 of the Act if the child is still attending school up to the age of 21. In comparison to the CSG, the amount of money received under the FCG is much higher. The FCG amount is currently R780.

The Care Dependency Grant supports parents taking care of a child living with disabilities at home. The grant can also be accessed by other family members looking after a child with disability who requires care at home (Kaseke 2010). Patel (2005) observes that there has been a rapid increase of CDG beneficiaries which she believes is associated with the number of people infected and affected by HIV/AIDS. At the age of 18, the child living with a disability can then apply for a Disability Grant.

In terms of the Social Assistance Act, a person is eligible for a War Veteran's Grant if he or she has attained 60 years and unable to provide for his or her maintenance due to physical or mental disability which resulted from naval, military or air force service during the Great War of 1914-1918 as a member of any Union or British Force, or was a member of any Force of government during war. The person should however be a South African citizen on the date on which he or she applies for the

grant. Patel (2005) is of the view that due to a decline in War Veteran Grants; they will be phased out gradually.

A person can apply for grant-in-aid if he or she has a physical or mental condition that requires regular attendance by another person (Social Assistance Act 2004). In most instances, this grant is added to the SOAP or DG for people who need ongoing care so that they can afford to pay someone to care for them if the family is unable to do so. Patel (2005) concurs with Kaseke (2010) in that social relief forms part of the social assistance that is short-term and assists people in cases of transient poverty or crisis situations such as flood. The state provides social relief of distress to needy people in the form of food parcels or a voucher. This assistance is supposed to be for a period of three months. However, due to monetary constraints it is not sustainable. Hence, some communities are receiving such services once or twice a year, or even none at all.

### **2.5.2 Social Insurance**

Patel (2005 p. 125) defines social insurance as the benefits organised by the state through specific contribution schemes by employers and employees. Patel further states that social insurance covers contingencies such as pensions, medical benefits, maternity benefits, illness, disability, unemployment, employment injury, and family benefits. It is also referred to as occupational insurance.

Unemployment insurance, the Compensation for Occupational Injuries and Diseases Fund and the Road Accident Fund are the main social insurance schemes in South Africa. According to Patel (2005), unemployment insurance covers employees when they are temporarily unable to perform their duties in cases such as illness, maternity, adoption, and termination of employment. It is mainly aimed at ensuring that employees are protected from financial burdens when they are involuntarily unemployed. Kaseke (2010) indicates that the unemployment insurance scheme is regulated by Unemployment Insurance Act 63 of 2001. It covers workers such as domestic workers against the risk of temporary unemployment, but excludes civil servants and employees who are not South African citizens. A contribution of 1 per

cent of the employee's monthly payment is made by both the employee and employer. This is then paid into the Unemployment Insurance Funds.

The Compensation for Occupational Injuries and Diseases Fund pays compensation for work related injuries and diseases. This compensation is in terms of the Compensation for Occupational Injuries and Diseases Act (COIDA) 130 of 1993. The scheme is funded out of employer's contributions, which vary from employer to employer depending on the risk inherent in their businesses. Domestic workers, those employed in informal sector and those who are self-employed are not covered by this scheme.

The Road Accident Fund is regulated by the Road Accident Fund Amendment Act of 2005. This scheme is not employment-based, rather it is financed out of fuel levy. The scheme provides protection against the risk of road accidents. Thus, it pays compensation to victims of road accidents. However, the benefits are low and not guaranteed (Kaseke 2010). Occupational retirement insurance in South Africa is not available to those who are in informal employment. Many workers who are doing casual labour are not covered by this scheme. Due to the low wages they receive, they are unable to pay for private insurance (Patel 2005).

Social insurance is also relevant for poverty alleviation. It ensures that individuals who may be exposed to a social risk are not impoverished. However, this scheme is limited by the fact that only unemployment and employment injury are covered. Kaseke (2010) believes that the South African social insurance system is not comprehensive enough which therefore limits its impact on the prevention of poverty. He states that the system falls short when considering the branches of social security provided by ILO Security (Minimum Standards) Convention No. 102 of 1952 which include unemployment benefit, old age benefit, employment injury benefit, maternity benefit, sickness benefit, invalidity benefit, medical benefit, survivors benefit and family benefit.



### 2.5.3 Informal and traditional social security systems

Tshoose (2010) defines informal social security as self-organised family, community, or informal sector coping mechanisms. She argues that informal social security represents a way of life within traditional Black African communities and it incorporates values that promote togetherness and a sense of belonging. Furthermore, within communities, informal social security is usually distinguished by informal social arrangements that can be divided into traditional support systems and self-organised systems. Self-organised informal social security comprises a particular group of people within the community, including families and neighbours. Examples of self-organised informal social security include *stokvels*, burial societies and rotation money schemes. The African traditional support system is based on the principles of solidarity and reciprocity. Under the traditional support system, the family serves as the line of defence to members who are unable to provide for themselves. The support provided may be in the form of cash or in kind. These informal safety nets have proven to play a significant role in mitigating the impact of HIV/AIDS at family and community levels (Tshoose, 2010).

Tshoose (2010), states that South Africa has the largest number of HIV/AIDS infections in the world. The HIV/AIDS pandemic continues to undermine the institutions and human capital development strategies on which future health, security and progress depend. An estimated 5.7 million people were living with HIV/AIDS in South Africa in 2009, which is more than in any other country in the world. It is believed that in 2008, over 250 000 South Africans died of AIDS. These households are often left to assume the primary role of taking care of members who are infected by the epidemic. Their vulnerability is linked in many instances to lack of income, poverty, unemployment, access to basic necessities of life, and social assistance. These households rely heavily on the informal social security as a safety net (Tshoose, 2010).

The traditional and informal systems of social security have arisen mainly in developing countries. They were developed in response to economic and social hardships experienced in these countries. Inaccessibility of formal social security systems was another reason why a need for informal social security system has

grown. Tshoose, (2010) have referred to the critical role played by these informal systems in providing a safety net. These informal systems are based on personal reciprocity, social solidarity, social networks of trust and direct face to face interaction between individuals, households and communities. They are aimed at poverty reduction, especially in rural areas (Patel, 2005:78).

Kaseke cited by Patel, (2005) states that in Africa, the extended family was an important social security institution providing support to its members based upon culturally determined patterns of mutual assistance. Due to industrialization and urbanization, the role of the extended family as a social security institution has been eroded. This paved a way for the development of mutual aid societies which are currently viewed as an effective mode of social security (Patel, 2005). According to Kasente in Patel, (2005) these informal social security arrangements have ensured the survival of people in adverse conditions. They are flexible and oriented towards meeting both immediate and future needs offering the best possibilities for both men and women.

## **2.6 Socio-economic characteristics of Poverty**

At a national level, there are copious social ills or characteristics that are associated with poverty. These include, inter alia, high population growth and high levels of inequality. This section will attempt to describe how these macro level characteristics can cause or aggravate poverty.

### **2.6.1 Rapid population growth and poverty**

Population growth per se is not a problem if the resources are available (or, even better, if it is accompanied by a commensurate increase in resources) to cope with the additional people requiring public services, employment, housing and so on. However, in a country such as South Africa, where the budget is already stretched and where there are high levels of poverty, population growth becomes an issue because not only does it exacerbate poverty, but it makes it harder for the government to address it. Based on this reality, it would be useful to discuss the link between poverty and population growth.

The links between rapid population growth and persistent poverty have been well established (Kingdon, and Knight, 2005; 109-110). Rapid population growth of 2% or higher per year (Kelso, 2011:19) hinders development for two interrelated reasons. Firstly, because it reduces growth in per capita incomes and thus savings, it reduces the funds available for investment in productive capacity. According to Leibbrandt, and Woolard, (2013:13) underinvestment, in turn, reduces overall economic growth and prospects for poverty reduction.

Secondly, at the aggregate level, rapid growth of a population increases the availability of labour in an economy, relative to land and physical capital (May, 2010:86). This is likely to worsen inequality and hurt the poor, who are more reliant on labour income. Moreover, rapid population growth, more often than not, outpaces the capacity of industries (particularly those that employ unskilled labour, i.e. the mining sector, the manufacturing sector and so on) to absorb new labour, thus compounding unemployment and underemployment. In 2003, the Philippine economy generated 566,000 new jobs, of which 60% were in the services sector. Despite this job creation, unemployment levels rose because the job market was inundated with 624,000 new entrants (Poverty and Inequality Report, 2012).

Similarly, between the years 1995 and 2002, the number of jobs generated by the South African economy increased by only 1 600 633 (16.75%), compared to an increase of 5 005 647 (37.24%) in the number of people of working age (StatsSA, 2001, 2011). In support of the above exposition, there are a number of empirical studies that have found an inverse relationship between rapid population growth and poverty. For example, Van der Berg, Louw, and Du Toit, (2007:137) identified high population growth as one of the reasons for poverty in the Philippines. They argued that high population growth aggravates poverty, as it disproportionately affects the poor, who tend to have larger families. Eastwood and Lipton (1999) showed in their study that high fertility not only retards economic growth, but also skews the distribution of income against the poor. Tshabangu, (2012:112) illustrated how demographic transition can have an impact on poverty via economic growth, concluding that the demographic structure of East Asia – slower population growth and a higher ratio of working age people was responsible for about a third of the region's increase in income per head.

## 2.6.2 Inequality and poverty

It is generally believed that when inequality increases (if other things are kept constant), poverty increases as well, thus dampening the beneficial effect of economic growth on poverty (Wilkins, 2009:51). This general consensus is based on the belief that in an economy where inequality is persistently low, the poor will naturally tend to obtain a higher share of the gains from growth than in an economy in which inequality is high (Ravallion & Datt, 1999). Hence, the same rate of economic growth might be less effective in reducing poverty in one setting than in another.

In essence, therefore, as White, and Killick, (2011:89) illustrated in their study on “Distribution of Income in South Africa”, where inequality is high, the rich usually become richer and the poor become poorer, thus further increasing the gap between the rich and the poor. Empirical evidence from a number of studies that have been conducted with regard to this issue substantiates the above view. For example, in the 1990s, Bangladesh experienced an average annual growth rate more than twice that of Ghana, yet the poor in Ghana saw their incomes rise substantially more than the incomes of the poor in Bangladesh (see Figure 2.1). While Senegal and Burkina Faso experienced the same average rate of annual growth between 1995 and 2002, the different rates of poverty reduction were such that it would take Senegal 28 years to halve poverty, while it would take Burkina Faso 40 years to achieve the same goal (Todaro, 2013:23). World Bank, (2010:23), in which provincial data from Thailand was used, it is suggested that, while economic growth has a strong positive effect on poverty reduction, income inequality has a sharply negative effect.

**Figure 1:** Growth and Poverty Reduction: Not a Simple Relationship



Source: World Bank, Operationalizing Pro-Poor Growth research program.

**Figure 2.1: Growth and poverty reduction** (World Bank. 2010)

### 2.6.3 Inflation and poverty

“Given the extent to which the vast majority of households rely on the market for their purchase of key commodities including food, inflation is clearly an issue of relevance to poor and non-poor alike” (World Bank, 2009:65). In the literature, inflation (i.e. an increase in the general level of prices for basic goods) is often viewed as a type of tax, and one that has a more severe effect on the poor than the rich. The essential a priori argument is that the rich are better able to protect themselves against, or benefit from, the effects of inflation than are the poor. In particular, the rich and more sophisticated are likely to have better access to financial instruments that hedge in some way against inflation, while the (small) portfolios of the poor are likely to have a larger share of cash (Seekings, 2010:89). Consequently, higher inflation is thus likely to decrease the purchasing power of the poor. This decrease in real income in turn exposes the poor to higher consumption burden/living costs, thus creating a fertile ground for a vicious poverty cycle if these higher costs are not accompanied by a commensurate increase in income (Ravallion, 2011:78)

#### **2.6.4 Stagnant/shrinking economic growth and poverty**

The theoretical relationship between shrinking/stagnant economic growth, measured by decreased output per capita, and the number of people below the poverty line, is fairly straightforward. As can be seen in Figure 2.1, it can be generally assumed that a decrease in economic growth affects poverty through two main channels: output reduction and domestic price increases or a higher inflation rate (the former will be elaborated on in the following sub-section). The first one is called the unemployment effect of an economic crisis: a fall in output reduces employment opportunity or creates a higher unemployment rate, and thus increases the poverty rate, *ceteris paribus* (Ravallion, 2011:89).

The rise in the poverty rate is also expected, provided that everything else remains the same, to have a positive correlation with the increase in domestic prices through the decline in real income this is the so-called real income effect. In support of this, most of the existing empirical studies on the impact of stagnant/shrinking economic growth on poverty in developing countries examined such impact through output fluctuation, though with different methods of analysis or different models (Seekings, 2010:54).

For instance, with a vector auto-regression technique, and by using annual data for the period 1981-1999 in Brazil, Kelso, (2011:88) examined whether or not output contractions have an asymmetric effect on poverty. The result indicates that poverty responds asymmetrically to a drop in output, showing less sensitivity when the economy is initially in a downturn. Various arguments have been proposed to explain why this is usually the case (May, 2010:55). The most important arguments are the following ones. Firstly, the poor often lack the means to protect themselves when an economy experiences a recession. They lack assets (such as bank deposits and land) and often have no direct access to credit markets (or face prohibitive borrowing costs when they do), in order to soften the impact of a recession. Secondly, due to their lack of education and skills, the poor tend to be less mobile (across sectors and regions) than better-educated workers, and are therefore often unable to switch jobs and capitalise on available employment opportunities. Thirdly, indirect sources of income and public transfers may decline during crises, because during such

episodes, the ability of relatives (or communities) to engage in income redistribution may be reduced, and governments may be forced to drastically adjust their fiscal accounts with across-the-board cuts in expenditure (Khan, 2012:89).

### **2.6.5 HIV/AIDS and poverty**

The HIV/AIDS pandemic is no longer only a symptom of poverty, but it has also emerged as one of the most obvious causes of poverty in recent times, particularly in developing countries such as South Africa. Substantively, many studies in South and Southern Africa have clearly demonstrated that HIV/AIDS contributes to a rise in poverty (May, 2010:55). This is largely attributed to the fact that this phenomenon is a major cause of ill-health (Khan, 2012:89).

Moreover, it is costly because many of the opportunistic infections associated with AIDS (TB, pneumonia, and others) are expensive to treat. As such, it has not only caused many people in the developing world to be unable to contribute productively to their households' livelihoods, but many of the infected have become a drain on their families' financial resources. Moreover, thousands have died as a result of this phenomenon, thereby imposing crushing shocks and stresses on the livelihoods of those remaining behind. In fact, many households have ceased to exist because of AIDS deaths (May, 2010:95). Those affected households that struggle on, often headed by old people or orphans, typically suffer poverty because they are usually epitomised by insufficient capacity to generate meaningful income.

### **2.6.6 Inadequate access to decent shelter**

Inadequate access to decent shelter by households may cause them to be unable to exploit the economic benefits that are associated with this productive asset, thus making them vulnerable to a myriad of adversities which could lead to poverty. Furthermore, homelessness can lead to malnutrition and exposure to infectious diseases such as flu, which could compromise the earning potential of working household members as a result of lower productivity. However, as is argued by Khan, (2012:89), what may contribute most to the ill health of the homeless is the fact that being homeless renders treatment for illness difficult. Without a permanent

residence, it is difficult for the homeless to be contacted or followed up on, and living on the street or in a shelter is not conducive to rest and recuperation. Even adhering to a medication regimen may be difficult when there is nowhere to store the medication.

### **2.6.7 Inadequate access to education**

According to human capital theorists, investment in education creates skills and credentials, which facilitate higher productivity that, in turn, increases the probability of obtaining higher future earnings amongst those who possess them, in comparison with those who do not. In fact, there is a strong and empirically verifiable positive relationship across most societies between the wages and salaries (or expenditures) people receive at work and the level of education which they have attained. For example, during the year of 1992 in Uganda, secondary school completers earned an average of 89% more from wage employment than primary completers did. University graduates earned five times as much as primary completers (Khan, 2012:112-118).

In Venezuela, during the year of 1989, the age (i.e. 40 years) earning profiles by educational level was as follows: university graduates earned four times more than those who were illiterate, high school completers earned 55% more than their illiterate counterparts, and primary school completers earned 30% more than those who were illiterate (Global Monitoring Report, 2006). In South Africa, a similar pattern was evident in 1995. On average, university graduates earned six times more than those with no education, matric completers earned four times more than illiterates, high school dropouts earned two times more than illiterates, and primary school completers earned about 10% more than those with no education (Global Monitoring Report, 2006). Furthermore, numerous development analysts (Gao, 2013:123) argue that the acquisition of education greatly increases a person's skills and capacity to enter the employment market. Hence, there is a positive relationship between educational attainment and employment in South Africa



## **2.7 Different types of poverty in South Africa**

Policy is directly influenced by the way in which poverty is defined. Moreover, the extent of poverty is determined by the way in which it is defined. The aim of this section will therefore be to identify the different types of poverty (i.e. absolute poverty, relative poverty, transient poverty and chronic poverty).

### **2.7.1 Chronic and transient poverty**

The transiently poor (short-term) and chronically poor (long-term) are overlapping but distinct groups. According to Gao, (2013:89), the latter is characterised by a deep-rooted, impoverished condition, which is the consequence of multiple deprivations over time, such as poor health, substandard nutrition and inadequate access to productive assets, and is often associated with persistent, intergenerational<sup>30</sup> poverty. As a result, chronic poverty is usually the more difficult one to address. For instance, Harrison, (2009:97), note that a particular problem in contemporary poverty analysis, seeking to rapidly reduce poverty headcounts in an era of globalisation, is to see the poor as those who are not effectively integrated into the global market economy. Thus, as a result, the therefore, chronically poor are likely to be neglected in such an era, given the multiple factors that constrain their prospects, and the likelihood that market-based factors may contribute to their continued deprivation.

On the other hand, transient poverty normally results from a one-time decline in living standards, from which a household gradually emerges. Alternatively, it may show itself in fluctuations in well-being that result in frequent declines in living standards. For example, seasonal variations in food security may result in some households periodically falling in and out of poverty, sometimes quite regularly, over time (Hunter, May, and Padayachee, 2013:27).

### **2.7.2 Absolute and relative poverty**

There is a long tradition of debate about relative versus absolute definitions of poverty. Relative and absolute definitions of poverty tap into fundamentally divergent notions of difference and deprivation (Gupta, Davoodi, and Tiongson. 2011:15).

Hence, absolute and relative standards typically produce different policy implications and accounts of the experience of poverty, and differ somewhat in terms of the extent of poverty determined (Hunter, May, and Padayachee, 2013:91). Nevertheless, poverty scholars increasingly conclude that in developed countries, a relative definition is more appropriate, whereas in developing countries, an absolute definition of poverty is relevant (Harrison, 2009:32).

Absolute poverty is viewed as an objective and scientific definition that is based on the notion of subsistence<sup>25</sup>. In a narrow sense, it is a state in which a person cannot secure his long-term physical survival (Epaulard, 2010:89). This measure is universal and not time bound, and has the advantage of international comparability.

However, in a broader sense, the definition of absolute poverty includes various needs besides pure physical survival, i.e. a state in which a person does not have enough to live on, based on socially acceptable living conditions, which include other essential goods besides nutritional requirements, e.g. clothing and shelter in hostile climates. It should be noted that the broader definition includes a certain amount of relativity. Fields, (2009:53), an example of this has already been provided by Epaulard, (2010:52), who assesses that the ownership of certain things such as leather shoes might be necessary in one society to achieve social acceptance, while in another their possession is not relevant. Therefore, based on this view, the concept is considered to be absolute, in that it is derived from unfulfilled minimum needs which are relatively stable in a given society. This explains why some of the rich countries, such as the United States (that use an absolute poverty datum line) have higher poverty datum lines than poor countries.

Examples of poverty definitions in this category include people in the lowest 20% of the income distribution or people earning less than 50% of the mean income. Based on the above exposition, it would therefore be safe to assume that the applicability of a relative vs. an absolute poverty definition depends on the need for comparability between countries and the overall wealth of a country (for instance, if the average person cannot even sustain physical survival, the relative poverty definition becomes meaningless). Furthermore, in attempts to illustrate the global progress in poverty reduction, preference is usually given to absolute poverty criteria in a narrow sense,

while in the assessment of national or regional poverty, absolute poverty in a broader sense or relative concepts are preferred (Fields, 2009:109-112).

## **2.8 Household Demographic characteristics of poverty**

According to Kingdon, and Knight, (2005:78) household (or individual) level, demographic factors (i.e. household size with a high dependency ratio; age structure; and the gender of the household head) usually play a significant role in determining the poverty status, as measured by household consumption per person, of the members therein. In fact, the inverse relationship between these demographic factors and poverty is a common finding in the literature. Against this background, it would be appropriate to provide a brief explanation of how these factors are correlated with poverty.

### **2.8.1 Gender of the household head and poverty**

As is suggested in the literature (May, 2010:78), due to the fact that they typically have less access to productive resources and assets such as land, credit, financial, physical and human capital, women make up a majority of the world's poor, and South Africa is no exception in this regard. One of the main reasons why this phenomenon is prevalent in South Africa lies in past apartheid policies, such as the draconian 'Urban Labor Preference Policy' of the 1950's, whereby most women in rural areas often headed their respective households with a very limited asset base to rely on, thus creating a fertile ground for these households to be trapped in poverty for protracted periods of time. Nowadays, issues such as the mortality of male heads, resulting from Aids and high levels of unemployment, perpetuate this phenomenon even further (Kelso, 2011:112).

Against this background, it is only natural that female-headed households are often suspected to be poorer than male-headed households (World Bank, 2010). As a matter of fact, in line with this suspicion, evidence from studies that have been done pertaining to the profile of the poor in South Africa suggests that the incidence of poverty is indeed higher in female headed households. For example, May's 1998 Poverty and Inequality Report showed that the poverty rate among female-headed

households was 60%, while it was 31% among male-headed households. Similar findings are found elsewhere. For example, in their review of sixty-five household studies on headship and poverty in Africa, Asia and Latin America, Kelso (2011:167) found female-headed households to be disproportionately represented among the poor in cases, with the greatest concentration of over-representation occurring in Latin America during the eighties.

### **2.8.2 A large household size with a high proportion of dependants**

It is generally believed that larger households, particularly if they possess a high proportion of dependants (that is, children under 15 years and adults of 65 years and over), are more likely to be poor relative to smaller ones. This belief is based on the idea that children and the elderly are a distinct threat to the financial security of a family (May, 2010:145). Additional children and the elderly do not only increase the need for more income, but also limit the ability of parents (or other members who are in the work force) to earn it. More children imply a greater demand for homemaker services such as childcare, meal preparation, transportation and other household activities. The same goes for the elderly, who can no longer participate in the labour force because of their age. They also need to be given special attention, especially with regard to medical care. As the burden of caring for these dependants grows, it becomes more difficult for the economically active household members to supply their labour to the outside job market (Poverty and Inequality Report, 2012:88).

If they choose to pay someone else to provide these household services, they may find that the net income from outside employment is too small, especially if the household has a low or non-existent asset base. In a case where a household resides in a rural area, where subsistence farming or a subsistence economy is predominant, the large household size tends to increase competition for land resource use between food crops and cash crops, which may be coupled with declining soil productivity. This may result in low output, low household income and the perpetuation of poverty (Seekings, 2010:13). In light of the aforementioned, the general belief that larger households (with a high proportion of dependants) are more prone to poverty is plausible. In fact, there are a number of empirical studies that show an inverse relationship between household size and poverty.

For example, the Cambodian CSES of 1993/94 shows that the poor tend to live in larger households, with an average family size of 6.6 persons in the poorest quintile, compared to 4.9 in the richest quintile (Seekings, 2010:172). Tshabangu (2012:78) also found that poor households in Uganda have bigger household sizes compared with non-poor households. In Southern Africa countries, Todaro, (2013:90) reported that 29% of all families had 6 or more members, and over half of such families fell below the poverty line. Similarly, for Limpopo Province, Seekings (2010:13) noted that the incidence of poverty rose with family size, ranging from 24% in a household of one to 46% in households with ten or more people. The World Development Report (World Bank, 2010) observed that in Pakistan in 1984, the poorest 10% of households had an average of 7.7 members, while the corresponding national average was 6.1. In a micro-level study of poverty in Makhado area, Todaro, (2013:90) found a significantly positive effect of household size on the incidence of poverty.

### **2.8.3 Age of the household head and poverty**

The well-being of the elderly, in this day and age, is largely a function of their productivity and ability to save during their prime years of productivity. In light of this, it is to be expected that poverty will increase amongst the elderly. This is because the productivity of these individuals decreases, and they usually have few savings to compensate for this loss of productivity and income. This is more likely to be the case in developing countries such as South Africa, where savings are low, mainly because of low income and a poor savings culture. However, the relationship between age and poverty might not be linear, as it would be expected that incomes would be low at a relatively young age, increase during middle age, and then decrease again (Tshabangu, 2012:23).

Therefore, according to life-cycle theories, one expects to find that poverty is relatively high at a young age, decreases during middle age, and then increases again in old age. In light of this, it is understandable why it is a common finding in the literature that the poor tend to live in households that are headed by either young people or the elderly. For example, the Cambodian CSES of 1993/94 found that the poor tend to live in younger households, with the bottom quintile having twice as

many children under 15 per family as the top quintile (Tshabangu, 2012:90). In their study of the determinants of poverty in Southern Africa Countries White, and Killick (2011:66) also found similar results. They found that household living standards increase with the age of the head up to 62 years in rural areas and 74 years in urban areas, and decline thereafter 63 years.

## **2.9 Public corruption and poverty**

There are a number of channels through which corruption causes poverty. These can be broadly categorized into two groups, namely: - (i) economic factors and (ii) governance factors.

### **2.9.1 Economic factors**

Corruption affects poverty by first impacting economic growth factors, which, in turn, impact poverty levels (World Bank, 2010:89). Economic theory and empirical evidence both demonstrate that there is a direct causal link between corruption and economic growth (Poverty and Inequality Report, 2012). Corruption impedes economic growth by discouraging foreign and domestic investment, taxing and dampening entrepreneurship, lowering the quality of public infrastructure, decreasing tax revenues, diverting public talent into rent-seeking, and distorting the composition of public expenditure. In addition to limiting economic growth, there is evidence that corruption also exacerbates income inequality; regression analysis has shown a positive correlation between corruption and income inequality (Gupta, Davoodi, and Tiongson, 2011:77-85).

Gupta, Davoodi, and Tiongson (2011:109), explanations for this link are that corruption distorts the economy and the legal and policy frameworks allowing some to benefit more than others; there is unfair distribution of government resources and services; corruption reduces the progressivity of the tax system; corruption increases the inequality of factor ownership; and lower income households (and businesses) pay a higher proportion of their income in bribes than do middle or upper-income households. As it has been demonstrated in the preceding sub-sections, economic growth and income inequality are important because they link corruption to poverty.

The absence of economic growth (or negative growth) increases poverty. Inversely, an increase in GDP produces an increase in the income of the poor. However, income distribution is an important mediating factor because economic growth may not always benefit the poor (Kingdon, and Knight, 2005:77).

### **2.9.1 Governance factors**

According to Gupta, Davoodi, and Tiongson (2011:15) assert that corruption also affects poverty by influencing governance factors, which, in turn, impact poverty levels. In line with the view held by the World Bank (2000/2001), they contend that corruption reduces governance capacity, that is, it weakens political institutions and citizen participation and leads to lower quality government services and infrastructure. The poor suffer disproportionately from reduced public services. When health and basic education expenditures are given lower priority, for example, in favour of capital-intensive programmes that offer more opportunities for high-level rent taking, lower income groups lose services on which they depend. Also, corruption is consistently correlated with higher school dropout rates and high levels of infant mortality (Kircher, 2011:88).

### **2.10 Conclusion**

This chapter has presented a review of relevant literature on the definition and measurement of poverty, an analysis that will prove to be a cornerstone in understanding the remainder of this study. Some of the important aspects that were covered in this chapter include the following: concepts closely related to poverty, different types of poverty, and the definition and measurement of poverty. This chapter has noted that, just like defining poverty, there is no ideal or correct way to measure the extent of poverty in a society, because a crucial role is played by value or ethical judgements. In parallel with this controversy, this chapter has established that there are two schools of thought that have emerged on measurement issues. The one has defined poverty primarily in financial terms, and has sought a more broad-based definition of poverty that is not solely based on financial resources. Generally speaking, in developing countries, most development analysts have been concerned with measurement in terms of the former approach. This is due to the fact

that this particular approach entails dimensions of poverty that are easily and objectively measurable. When using this approach, there are generally three ingredients that are required in order to compute a poverty measure. These are choosing the relevant dimension and indicator of well-being; selecting a poverty line; and later, selecting a poverty measure to be used for reporting on the population as a whole or a population subgroup (and these only include the headcount ratio and the poverty gap ratio, because these are the measures which are commonly used to measure poverty when using the traditional approach). However, because these measures of poverty do not necessarily capture how other non-monetary dynamics of poverty (such as being illiterate, having a short life-span, lacking access to adequate healthcare, and having an indecent standard of living) affects the poor.



## **CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 Introduction**

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the research design and the process of investigation based on the two research paradigms, namely the quantitative and the qualitative research paradigms (Babbie, & Mouton, 2011:89). A suitable research paradigm for this study was selected after the two paradigms were studied and discussed. A justification for the research paradigm chosen is provided. The data collection method including ethical measures is discussed. The procedure employed for data analysis is provided. In general, this chapter was illustrate an overall methodology together with the methods used to achieve the objectives of this research as stated in chapter one. It also describes the overall methodology adopted, population identification, sampling procedures and unit of analysis, the means to study site methods for data collection and analysis.

### **3.2 Research Design**

In the present study, the research design discussed was based on Leedy and Ormrod (2012:91-92). According to these writers, in planning the research design, it is extremely important for the researcher not only to choose a viable research problem but also to consider the kinds of data an investigation of the problem will require and feasible means of collecting and interpreting those data. No research has meaning without proper validation. Details about the planning and execution of the research, being critical components of research design are therefore presented in this paragraph. There are two paradigms that determine the direction of a research project from its commencement to the last step of writing the research report. These paradigms are qualitative and quantitative research was approached. Research design is the overall approach to the research process, from the theoretical underpinning to the collection and analysis of the data. The study is positioned in the pragmatism paradigm. This paradigm allowed for understanding the context-specific and subjective meanings regarding the topic.

A case study approach was used in this research. It was chosen on the basis of trying to gain a comprehensive understanding of the impact of social security on poverty alleviation in rural areas of Makhado Local Municipality, Limpopo Province. Babbie and Mouton (2004:640) refer to a case study as an intensive investigation of a single unit or component which can differ from social groups, organisations, and institutions, events and countries.

### **3.3 Research Methodology**

Research methodologies refer to the rationale and the philosophical assumptions that underlie a particular study (Babbie, & Mouton, 2011:23). This is therefore, was informed by both quantitative and qualitative approaches.

#### **3.3.1 Quantitative research methodology**

Quantitative research methods include the implementation of statistics to measure data. Statistics, according to Maxwell (2013:244), are a very simple matter but are a powerful tool in the hands of the researcher who is able to view their nature and interrelationships more understandably. Through statistics, therefore the researcher is able to conceptualize what otherwise might be incomprehensible (Neuman, 2012:244) hence the advantages of this study. The facts gathered from questionnaires were translated into tabular form. This was done so that the facts (statistics) would speak more clearly.

#### **3.3.2 Qualitative research methodology**

Neuman (2012:240) defines qualitative research as a multi-perspective approach making sense of interpreting or reconstruction this interaction in terms of meanings that the subjects attach to it. The research design is therefore flexible. Inductive logic is employed in the quest to derive meaning from subjects. These are meanings people attach to everyday life. Applied qualitative methodologies allow the researcher to know people personally and to see them as they are, to experience their daily struggles when confronted with real situations. Using a qualitative

research methodology, the researcher interprets and describes the actions of people when confronted with life situations.

Qualitative research is aimed at establishing the „why“, „what“ and „how“ of the research problem through the analysis of unstructured information. Based on the qualitative research methodology, the researcher designed and compiled semi-structured interview questions in order to collect information from Makhado community. In this regard information was collected through the use of open ended interview. The qualitative research methodology was used because it provides a framework for a subject to speak freely out in his or her own terms about a case which the researcher brings to the interaction.

(Babbie (2011:85) mentioned that “the primary goal of studies using this approach is defined as describing and understanding rather than explaining human behaviour”. Qualitative research was embarked on mainly to gain insight into the knowledge, behaviour and attitude of the the impact of social security on poverty alleviation in rural areas of Makhado Local Municipality. The researcher employed this approach because interested in getting involved in the process of poverty alleviation in this municipality.

### **3.4 Population of the Study**

The population of this research was a group of people about whom this research wanted to draw conclusions (Leedy, & Ormrod, 2012:109). Not all the members of the population were studied, only those who were selected by means of purposive sampling were involved. The research population was consisted of local and district municipals managers, Ward committees, Heads of Household, Traditional leaders in Makhado Municipality. The population in this study is made of 2500 including Head of household, municipal officer, Heads of Household, ward committee; Traditional leader and LED project members in the Makhado Local Municipality.

### **3.5 Sampling**

Mouton further mentions that the aim of sampling is to produce representative selection of population elements. With regards to presentation Leedy, & Ormrod (2012:58) mentioned that a sample that is not representative of population, regardless of its size, is inadequate for testing purposes. The results cannot be generalised for the population. Sampling is therefore a process utilized by researchers in order to minimize resources for the research projects. It is also the selection of a small, representative and manageable number of respondents from the population for a research purpose.

#### **3.5.1 Sampling Methods**

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2012:218), in non-probability sampling, the researcher has no way of forecasting or guaranteeing that each element of the population was presented in the sample. Furthermore, some members of the population have little or no chance of being sampled. A simple random and purposive sample was used for selection of a sample population. Simple random and purposive samplings were used in different contexts for the selection of a population sample.

In the quantitative part of the study, probability simple random sampling procedure was used. The researcher was conducting a simple random sampling technique to select the sample. The aim of sampling was saved time and effort, but also obtains consistent and unbiased estimates of the population status. The researcher was used simple random sampling for quantitative approach. In simple random sampling, every member of the Makhado Local Municipality has an equal chance of being selected. Random sampling was done to the household head as well as the LED project members whereby selection of the sampling was done randomly in the form of questionnaire distribution in community members therefore total selection were 79 participants.

The researcher was used purposive sampling for qualitative approach. Purposive sampling gathers data on specific descriptors. A purposive sampling technique was

employed in selection study participants of qualitative method. Purposeful sampling was done to the municipal officer, ward committee and Traditional leader therefore total selection was 10 participants.

### **3.5.2 Sampling Size**

According to Neuman, (2013:68), determining an adequate sample size is one of the most controversial aspects of sampling. How large a sample should be in order to be representative of the population has no simple answer. McMillian, & Schumaster, (2011:19) stated that there is no fixed number or percentage of subjects that determine the size of an adequate sample. It may depend upon the nature and the population of interest or data gathered and analysed. In this study, there are two sample sizes which are Interview and questionnaires sampling size. The interview sampling size will be comprised of 10 participants and questionnaires will be comprised of 79 participants.

### **3.6 Data collection techniques**

According to Leedy, & Ormrod, (2012:67) data collection involves applying the measurement to the sample or cases selected for the investigation. "We must constantly remind ourselves that the human senses (our eyes, ears, and occasionally even our taste and touch) are our "first-order" measuring instruments if they are qualitative. On the basis of our visual auditory and tactile observations and perceptions, we begin to classify responses, people, actions and events.

However, because we aspire to truthful representations of the social world, we have to augment our observations by more reliable and valid measuring instruments, such as scales, questionnaires and interview schedules. If properly constructed and validated such instruments assist in collecting data that are more likely to be reliable than they would be had instruments not been used.

### **3.6.1 Questionnaires**

According to Creswell (2011:128) survey questionnaires may be used to obtain the following kinds of information from respondents: biographical particulars (their age, educational qualifications, income etc.) typical behaviour (which brand of toothpaste they use or which television programmes they favour, etc.), opinions, beliefs and convictions (about any topic or issue, e.g. the present state of the economy), and attitudes (e.g. towards affirmative action). However, attitudes should preferably be assessed by means of attitude scales rather than survey questionnaires.

In this study 35 questionnaires will be structured questions were divided and distributed to the households to solicit for household demographic information, information on present traditional leadership, Social characteristics, livelihood activities, Inequality and poverty and Rapid population growth and poverty, Rapid population growth and poverty, economic growth and community participation. These were also used in collecting data on the characteristics of the respondents, education level and employment.

### **3.6.2 Interviews schedule**

Creswell (2013:167) state that interviews are a method of collecting data in which selected participants are asked questions in order to find out what they do, think or feel. They acknowledge that interviews are associated with both positivist and phenomenological methodologies. Babbie, & Mouton, (2011:163) classifies interviews as either structured (closed, forced-choice responses) or unstructured (open-ended responses). De Vos (2010:88) suggest unstructured interviews are suitable for a phenomenological (qualitative) approach, which this study has adopted. The targeted populations for this study will 10 people, inclusive of all interviews.

## **3.7 Data analysis**

Babbie, & Mouton (2011:161) points out that the term analysis basically means the resolution of a complex whole into the parts. It involves reducing to manageable proportions the wealth of data that one has collected or has available.

### **3.7.1 Analysis and interpretation of qualitative data**

The interview data was analysed using content analysis which, according to Creswell (2013), is comparing of the words used in the answers of the respondents. Initially, the researcher was study the field notes, reduce the tapes into transcripts, and carefully read through them. This was done to look for themes and similar ideas or responses to the questions posed to the respondents, of which the respondents' information or speeches was translated into specific categories for purposes of analysis. Steps on how to process and analyse qualitative data was documented by several authors who wrote on research methods.

The data was transcribed, coded and then themes were looked for in the coded data (De Vos, 2010). First, all the data was transcribed. It was needed to be read and re-read for the researcher to become familiar with the data, and notes was made to capture recurring concepts, common themes, events, and other patterns in the data. These were then be labelled and referred to as open coding. Next, the coded data was sorted and categorised. Then the analysed categories was need ready to be written up in a report, or as in this case.

### **3.7.2 Analysis and interpretation of quantitative data**

Quantitative studies emphasise the use of numerical measures to arrive at specific findings. The obtained information from questionnaires was first be coded for each and every question and then entered into a Microsoft Excel spread sheet in words and numbers. The statistical software SPSS version 25 was used to analyse the generated data. Statistics was based on percentages and frequencies. Data from questionnaires was analysed using tables and figures. The percentage of the total sample responding to each question was given. The data was presented according to the responses and/or the views of the respondents. Numerical scores were assigned to them to indicate a possible relationship between responses of the

respondents, and then frequency lists was drawn. The two outside categories was combined in the analysis. For instance, the researcher was combined “strongly agree” and “agree” and also “strongly disagree and disagree” to project a unique response. In addition, themes, patterns and behaviour were used. A matrix table was developed to accommodate the understanding of themes and gauge perceptions. The purpose of the use of various qualitative tools (triangulation) was to ensure the validity and reliability of the data analysis tools.

### **3.8 Ethical Consideration**

The previous sections have dealt with the technical side of social research, with issues of research methodology up to data collection techniques. Besides these technical aspects, there is another dimension to the social science that must be considered i.e. the moral dimension. When researchers think about how to conduct research, they must think not only of using the right techniques they have learned. They must think about research ethics (De Vos, 2010:144). There are some vital non-scientific concerns that shape the activities of social researchers.

These are the ethical considerations that must be kept in mind as the researcher learns the logic and techniques of social research (Creswell, 2013:84). According to Babbie and Mouton (2006:520), an ethical issue arises out of our interaction with other people, other beings (such as animals) and the environment especially where there is potential for, or is, a conflict of interests. The scientist has the right to the search for truth but not at the expense of the rights of other individuals. For example, researchers have the right to collect data by interviewing people but not at the expense of the interviewees’ right to privacy. Just as practical considerations can prevent researchers from implementing research design or obtaining as large or diverse a sample as possible, so too can ethical considerations constrain scientific enquiry.

Ethics may prohibit researchers from using experimental treatments that could harm research participants, from asking questions that would prove extremely embarrassing or threatening, from making observations that would deceive or place subjects under duress, and from reporting information that would constitute an



invasion of privacy. In addition, researchers are expected to be completely honest in observing, analysing, and reporting findings, and to be responsible about the limits and application of scientific knowledge (Leedy, & Ormrod, 2011:344). Some of the ethical considerations were briefly outlined.

### **3.8.1 Protection from harm**

Researcher should not expose research participants to unnecessary physical or psychological harm. Participants should not risk losing life or limb, nor should they be subjected to unusual stress, embarrassment, or loss of self-esteem. In cases where the nature of study involves creating a small amount of psychological discomfort, participants should know this ahead of time, and any necessary debriefing or counseling should follow immediately after the participation.

### **3.8.2 Informed consent**

According to Babbie, and Mouton (2011:101) they say when people are intentionally recruited for participation in a research study; they should be told the nature of the study to be conducted and given the choice of either participating or not participating. Furthermore, they should be told that, if they agree to participate, they should have the right to withdraw from the study at any time. Any participation in a study should be strictly voluntary.

### **3.8.3 Right to privacy**

Leedy, & Ormrod, (2011:102), further say that any research study involving human beings should be respect participants right to privacy. Under no circumstances should a researcher report, either oral or written, be presented in such a way that others become aware of how a particular participant has responded or behaved. In generally, a researcher must keep the nature and quality of participants' performance strictly confidential.

#### **3.8.4 Honesty with professional colleagues**

Researchers must report their findings in a complete and honest fashion, without misrepresenting what they have done or intentionally misleading others about the nature of their findings. And under no circumstances should a researcher fabricate data to support a particular conclusion, no matter how seemingly “noble” that conclusion may be.

In this study, respondents were assured of anonymity and that information provided by the participants would be regarded as confidential unless agreed upon by the participant and the researcher.

#### **3.9 Conclusion**

In this chapter the research methodology has been discussed for this study. The researcher concluded that the population and sampling procedures as well as research instruments, data collection techniques and data analysis were more appropriate in the methodology. Population and sampling procedures indicated all respondents involved in the research and how they were selected to form a sample. Questionnaires and interview schedule were used as data collection instrument to guarantee the success of this research.

## **CHAPTER 4: DATA PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS**

### **4.1 Introduction**

Chapter four begins with an explanation of how the ordinal data in the survey was displayed and analysed. The “Strongly Disagree” and “Disagree” number of responses for each question was added together; likewise with the “Agree” and “Strongly Agree” sub-continuum. The total averages of all the responses in the survey for disagree and agree number of responses were calculated. The resulting averages were then taken as a standard response, against which, all the survey responses (for all question responses and sub-category averages) are displayed for comparison purposes.

The interpretation and discussion of results was supported by tables, which display the survey data that was being analysed within each sub-category. Specific explanations with regards to validity test will be presented. For analysis purposes, all questionnaire responses were found to be reliable. Analysis of data obtained from individual interviews was done through identifying common themes from the respondent’s description of their experiences. Irrelevant information was separated from relevant information in the interviews.

### **4.2 Analysis of data collected through questionnaires**

This section will provide the analysis and interpretation of the data collected through questionnaires

#### **4.2.1 Biographical profile of respondents**

One of the questions articulated in the questionnaire was to determine the demographic profile of the respondents; this was presented in a manner in which the percentages of males could be compared to the percentages of females. In doing so, the gender in the majority could easily be identified, as well as generally determining the sum total of the whole population.

**Figure 4.1: Distribution of respondents by gender**

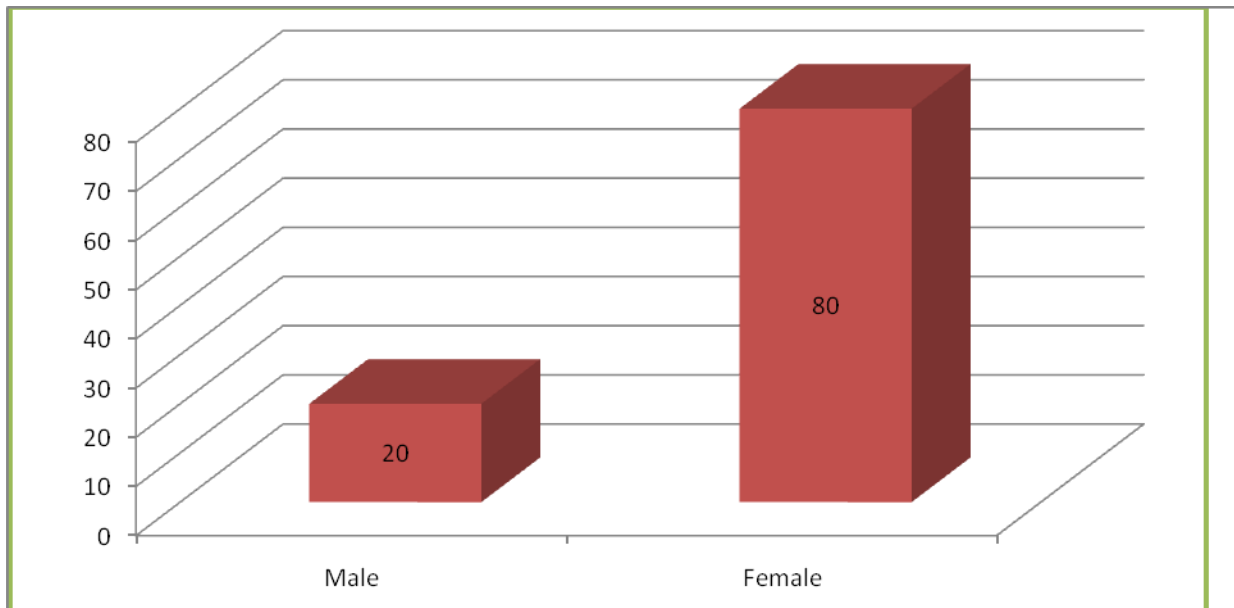


Figure 4.1 reflects that out of the 79 questionnaires which were distributed. Figure 4.1 shows that (80%) were females while (20%) were males; hence the majority of respondents were females. Females show concern to the future of their children than males.

**Figure 4.2: The frequencies and percentage of respondents by parents' education level**

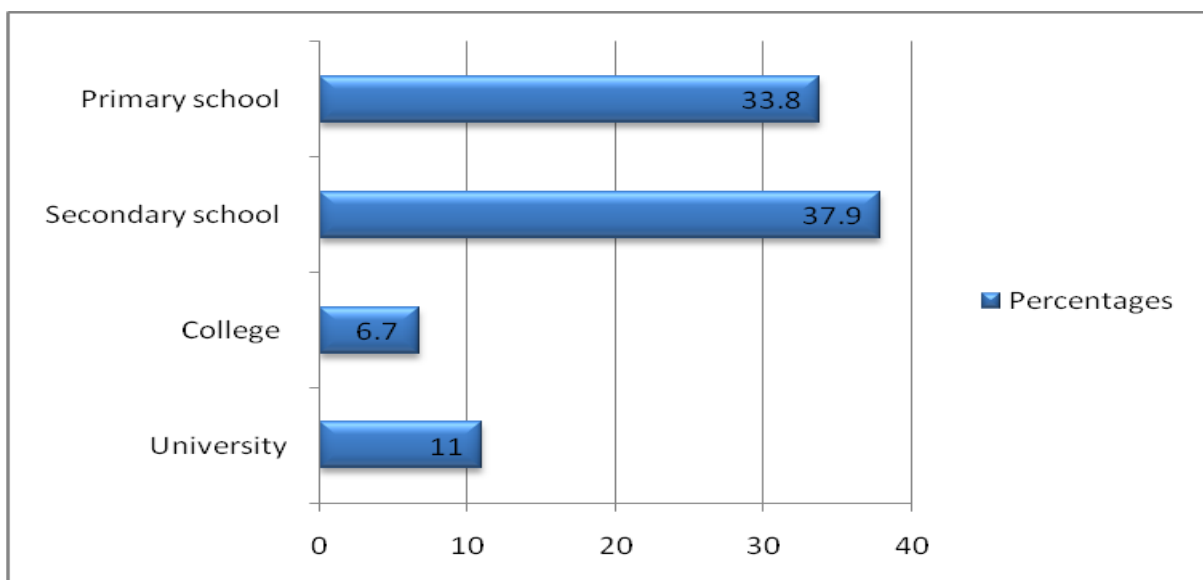


Figure 4.2 shows the frequencies and percentage of respondents by parents' education level. Almost half of their parents had their education up to secondary level, which was 37.9 percent followed by primary school with 33.8 percent. While, 11% had their parents' did not attend school, 6.7 percent (5 respondents) and 1.1 % had their parent' education level at colleges and universities. And therefore Figure 4.2 revealed that 9 respondents which constituted 11 percent of the total sample were having university qualification and they are principals and sampled educators. Figure 4.3 reveals that the majority of participants interviewed have education levels above grade 12

**Figure 4.3: Frequency distribution of subjects by age groups**

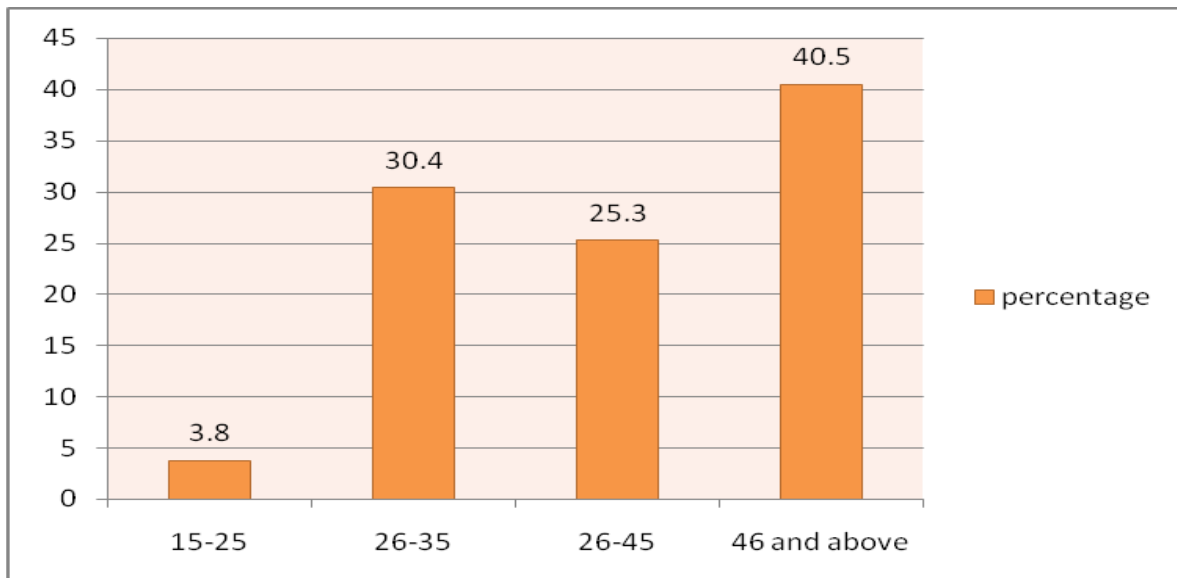


Figure 4.3 indicated that 3.8 percent of the total samples are within 15-25 year range. Most respondents in the study sample fell within 46 and above year's age range. They made 40.5% of the sample. Only 30.4percent of the sample was between 26-35 years of age. Respondents of various ages were well distributed in the final study sample.

**Figure 4.4: Marital status of participants**

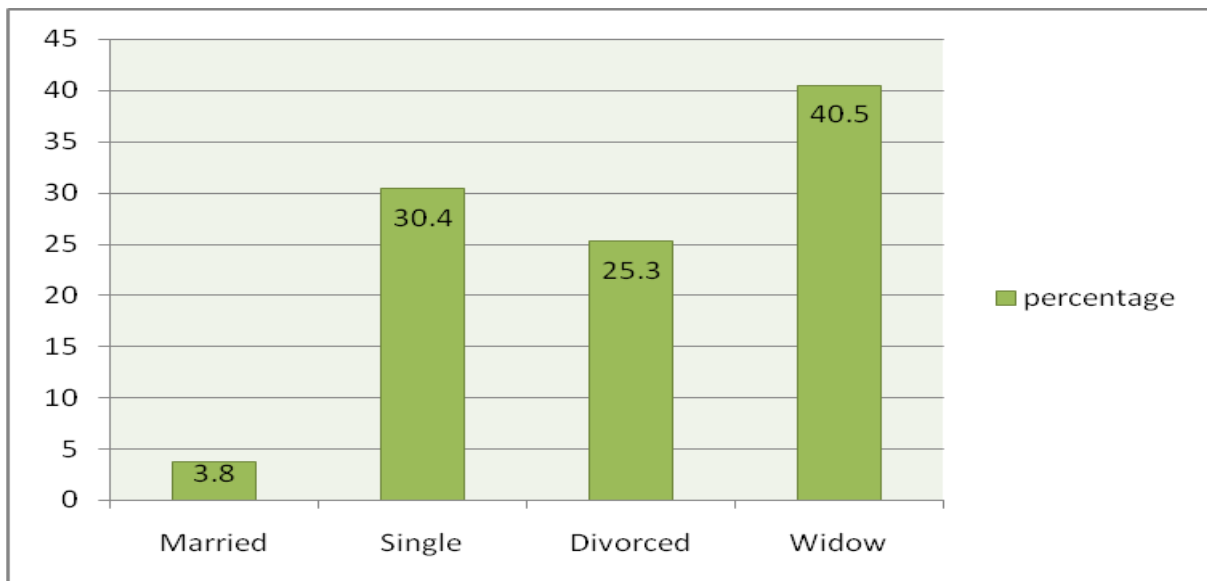


Figure 4.4 reveals that 30.4 percent of the participants were single. According to results (3.8%) of these women have never been married and are not living with their partners. Figure 4.4 shows that 85 per cent of the respondents have full parental responsibilities to ensure the welfare of their children. This includes procuring child social grant and utilising it in the best interest of the children.

#### **4.2.2 Social economic status of the respondents**

This section was aimed at providing the information of social economic status of the respondents

**Figure 4.5: Employment status of respondents**

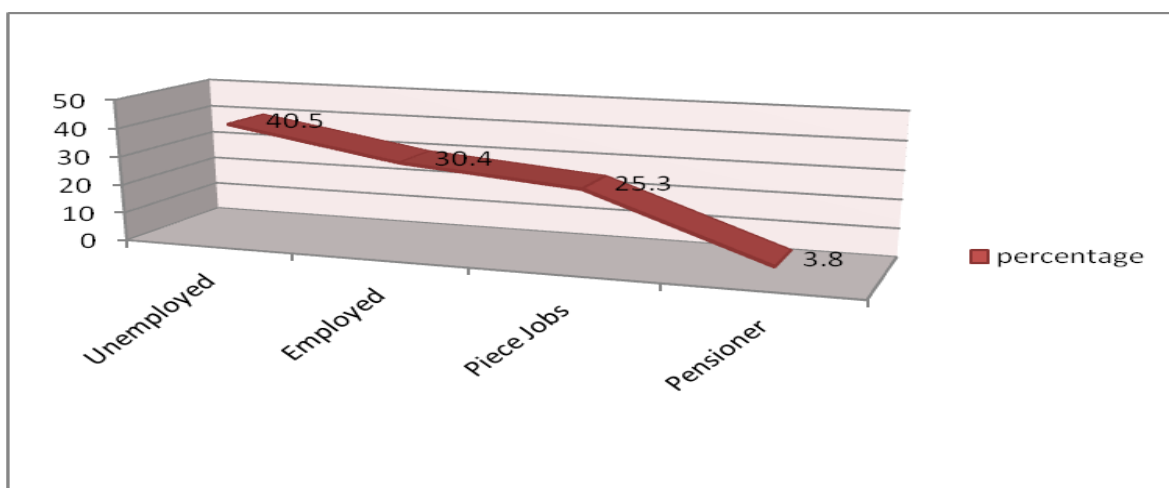


Figure 4.5 reveals that 69.6 per cent of the participants were unemployed and the majority of the participants depended on CSG due to their unemployment status.

**Figure 4.6: Type of grant respondents receive**

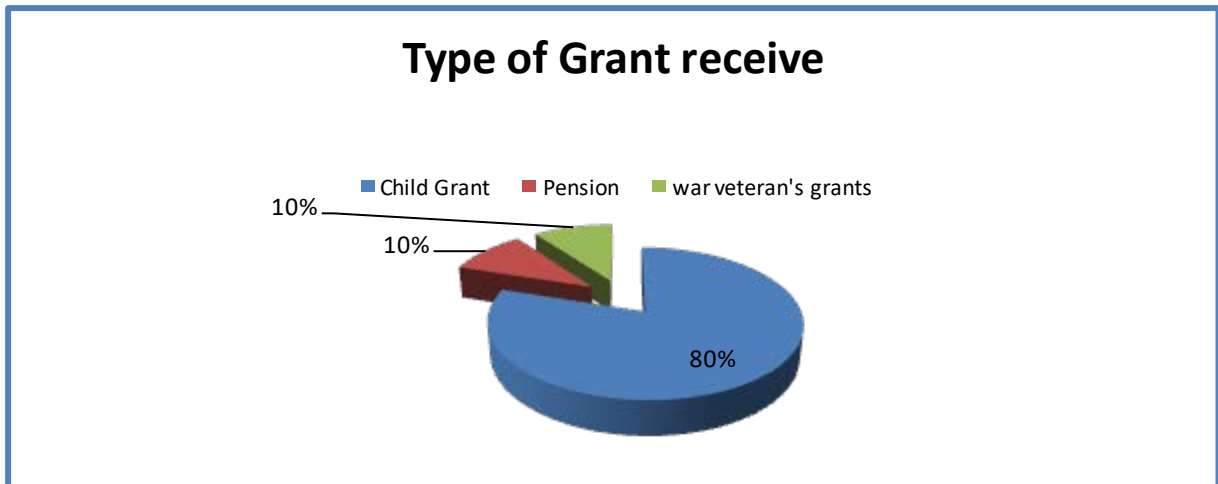


Figure 4.6 revealed that 80% of the respondents receive child support grants, 10% pensions and 10% war veteran's grants. This indicates that there are many more people receiving child support grants than other types of grants in Vhembe District Municipality

**Figure 4.7: How long have you been receiving grants?**

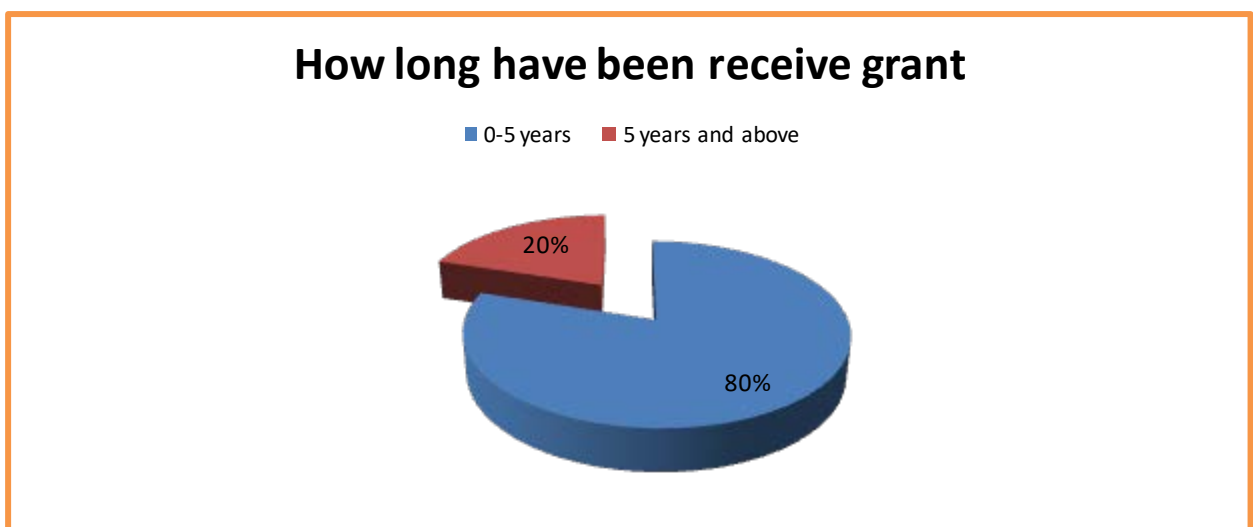


Figure 4.7 shows that 80% of the respondents have been receiving grants for less than five years and only 20% of the respondents have been receiving grants for longer than five years. It is interesting to note that more people are receiving grants; this indicates that more people are benefiting from the system than before.

**Figure 4.8: The distance beneficiaries travel to their pay points**

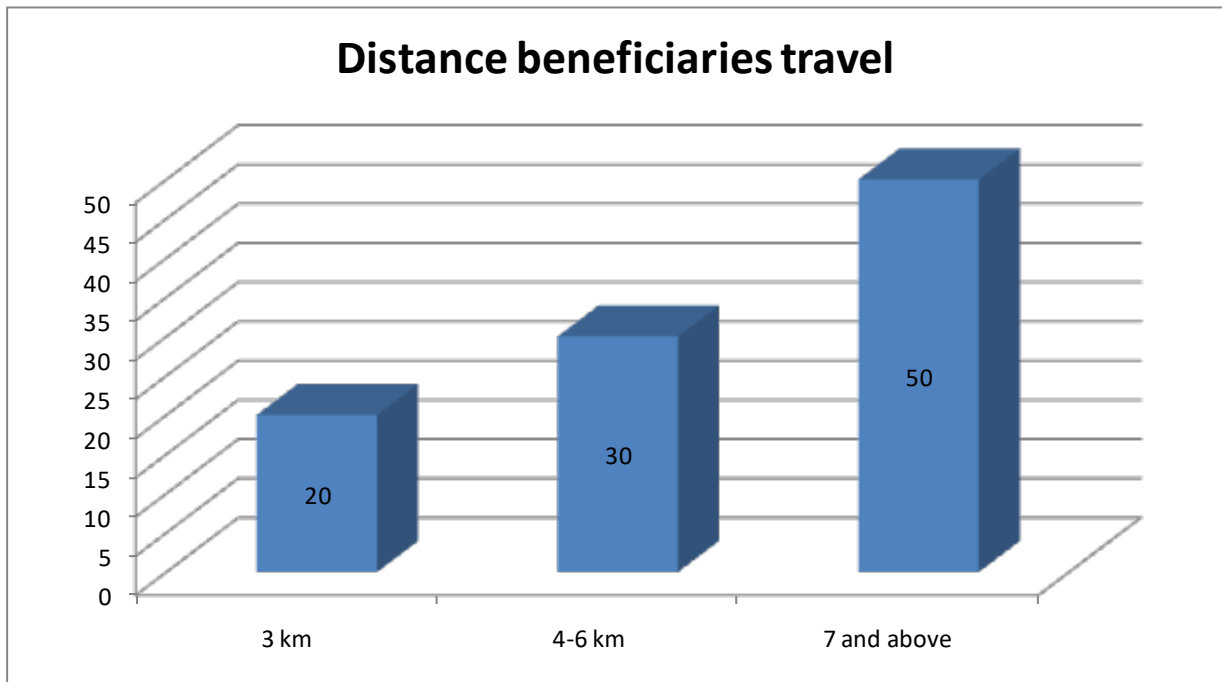


Figure 4.8 revealed that 50% of the respondents travel more than twenty kilometres to their pay points, with 30% travelling four to ten kilometres and only 20 Percent travelling less than three kilometres to their pay points.



**Figure 4.9: How respondents receive their grants**

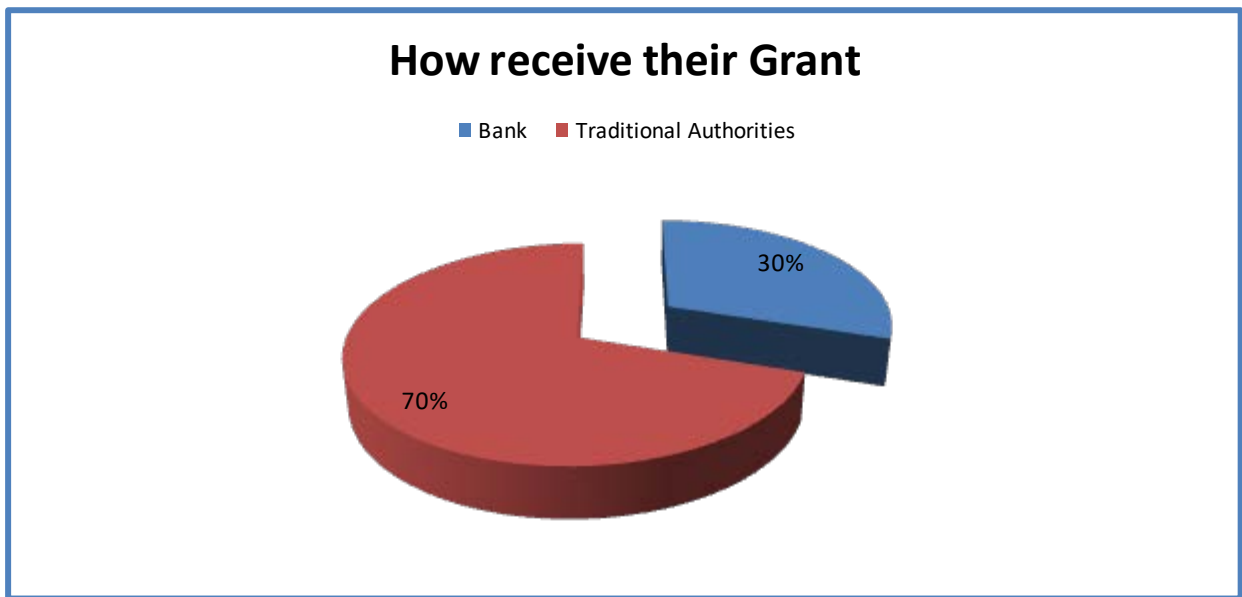


Figure 4.9 revealed that 70% of the respondents receive their grants from the traditional authorities, while only 30% receive theirs from the bank. Therefore 70% is the majority of the respondents still prefer standing in long queues to getting their money from the bank

### **4.2.3 Poverty alleviation**

The above section were discussed the data interpretation collected during questionnaire with the impact of social security on poverty alleviation. The study used the Statistical Package of the Social Sciences (SPSS) to analyze quantitative data from the questionnaires

**Figure 4.10: The government has expended resources for the poverty alleviation programmes**

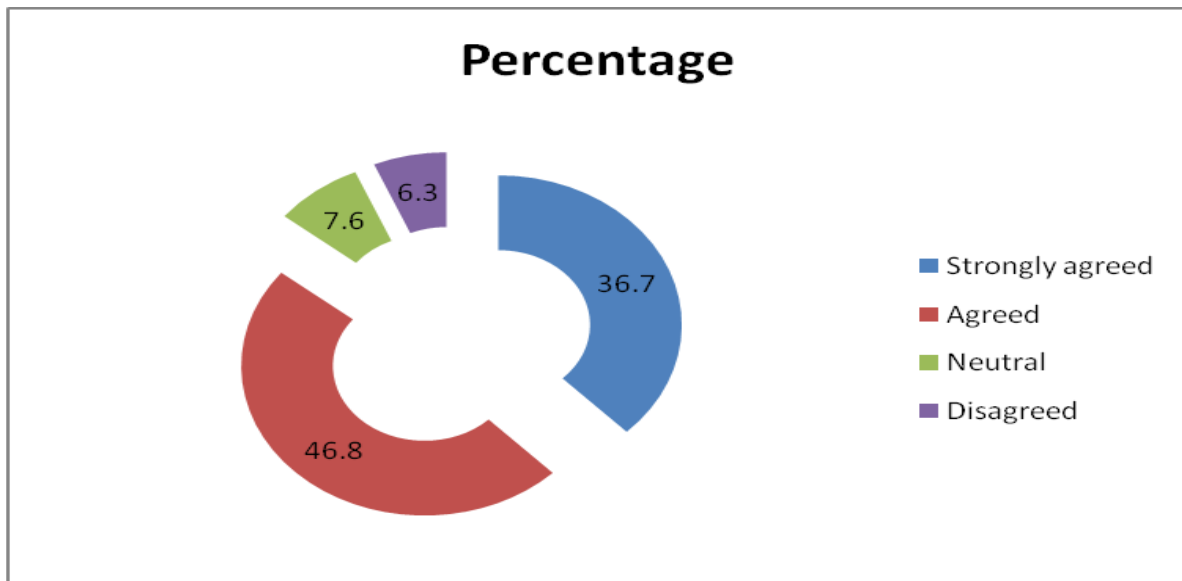


Figure 4.10 indicates that 6 respondents which constituted 7.6% of the total sampled were neutral to this statement. The government has expended resources for the poverty alleviation programmes. Nearly 85% of the total sample strongly agreed with the statement that “The government has expended resources for the poverty alleviation programmes” while just over 8.8% disagreed with the statement.

**Figure 4.11: The rate of poverty is higher in rural areas, particularly former homelands due to unemployment**

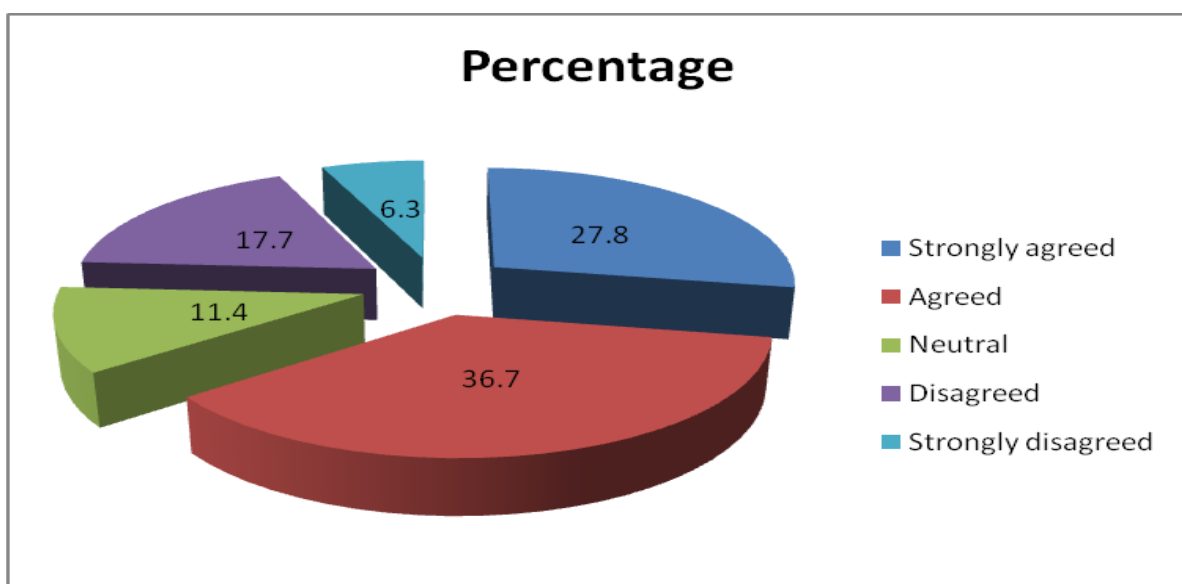


Figure 4.10 also support this idea as 51 respondents constituting 63.8% of the total sample strongly agreed with the statement that the rate of poverty is higher in rural areas, particularly former homelands due to unemployment. This idea is not supported by all as 19 respondents constituting 24% of the total sample disagreed with the statement while 9 respondents constituting 11.4% were neutral towards the statement due to the lack of the information. As a result the majority of the respondents (63.8%) agreed with the statement that the rate of poverty is higher in rural areas, particularly former homelands due to unemployment.

**Figure 4.11: Most poverty reduction policies emphasized on the need for quantity and quality education, and social security**

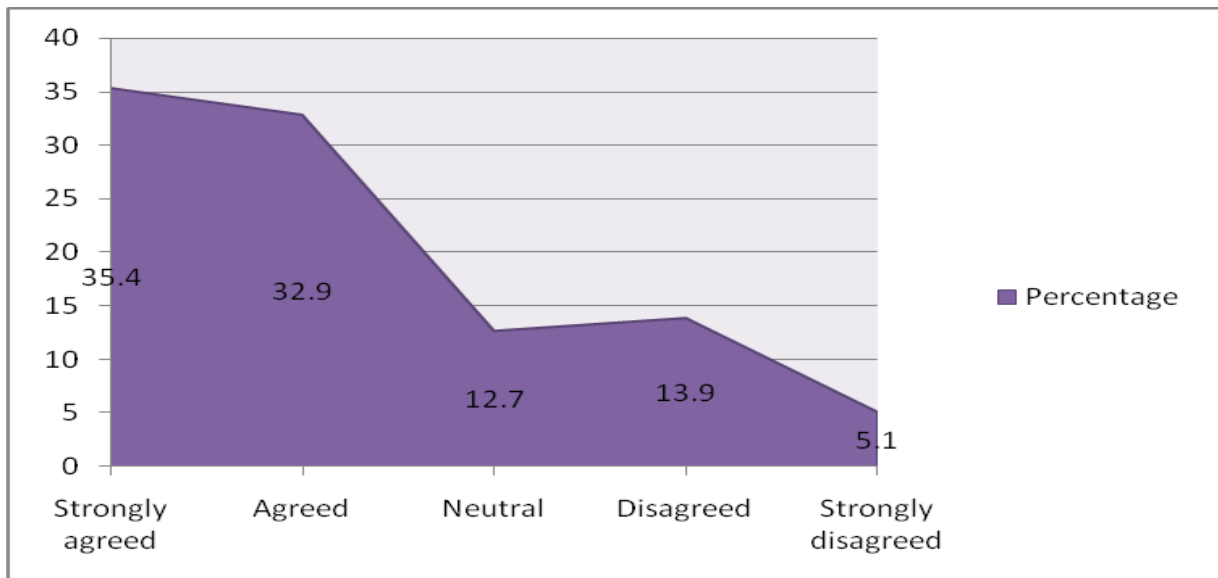


Figure 4.11 also indicate that 54 respondents constituting 68.3 % of the total sample agreed with the statement that most poverty reduction policies emphasized on the need for quantity and quality education, and social security while only 10 respondents constituting 12.7% were neutral with the statement due to the lack of the information. Further 15 respondents constituting 19% of the total sample strongly disagreed with the statement the statement that most poverty reduction policies emphasized on the need for quantity and quality education, and social security. And therefore majority of the respondents (63.3%) agreed with the statement that the most poverty reduction policies emphasized on the need for quantity and quality education, and social security

**Figure 4.12: Poverty is most stressing social problem in Makhodo Local Municipality of Limpopo province**

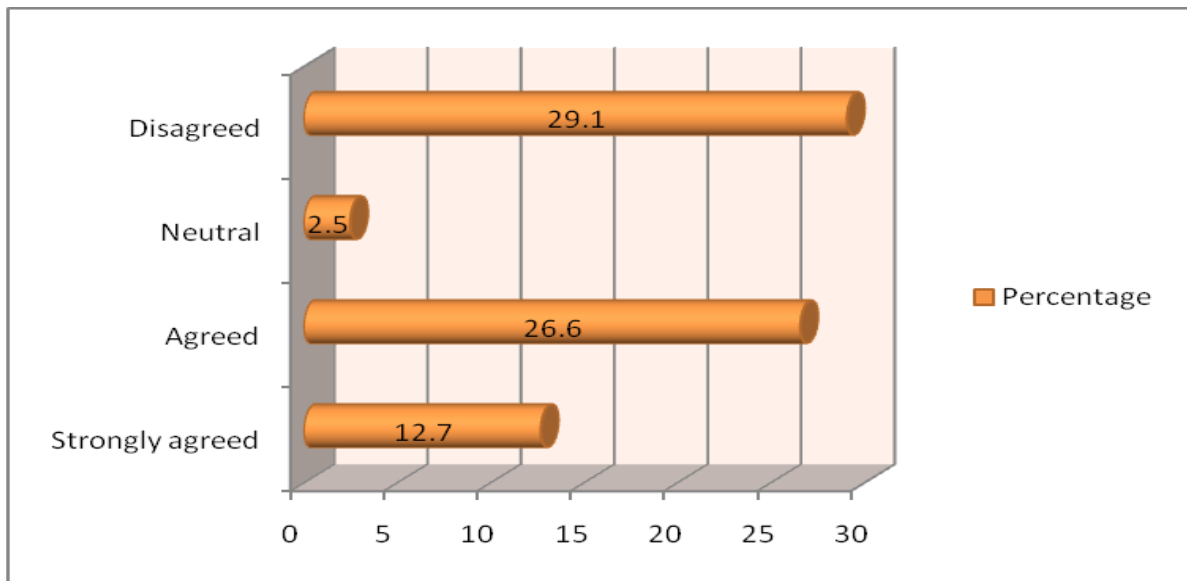


Figure 4.12 indicate that 31 respondents which constituted 39.3 percent of the total sample strongly agreed with the statement that “Poverty is most stressing social problem in Makhodo Local Municipality of Limpopo Province”. Again 2 respondents constituting 2.5% of the total sample was neutral with the statement due to the lack of information. Figure 4.12 revealed that 46 respondents constituting 58.2 percent of the total sampling were in disagreement with the statement that “Poverty is most stressing social problem in Makhodo Local Municipality of Limpopo Province”. From the above statistical analysis majority of the respondents (58.2%) were in disagreement with the statement.

**Figure 4.13: The central objective of LED is to alleviate poverty**

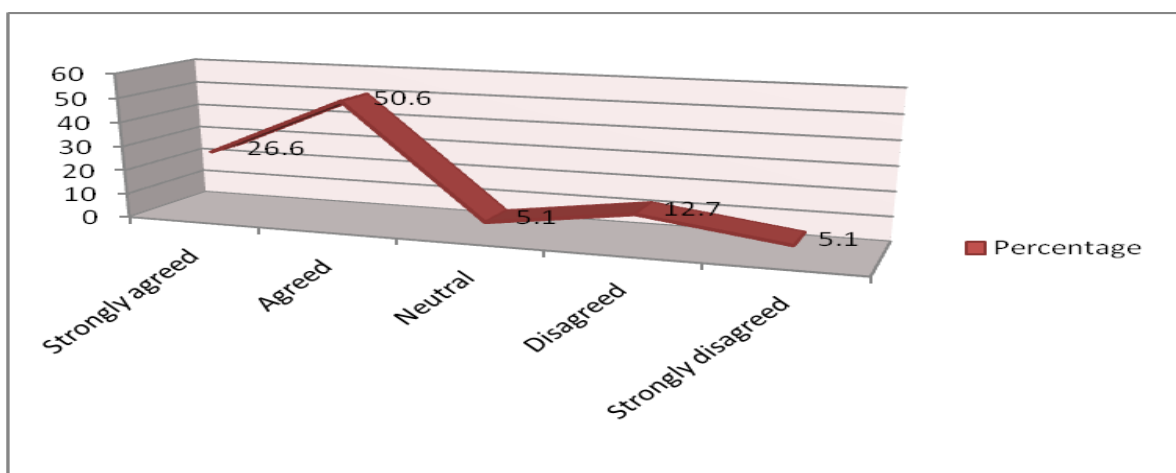


Figure 4.13 shows that 61 respondents constituting 77.2% of the total sample strongly agreed with the statement that the central objective of LED is to alleviate poverty while 4 respondents constituting 5.1% percent were neutral it was a clear demonstration of lack of information of how the central objective of LED is to alleviate poverty. Only 14 respondents constituting 17.8% of the total sample strongly disagreed with the statement that the central objective of LED is to alleviate poverty. As result the majority of respondents (77.2%) agreed with the central objective of LED is to alleviate poverty

**Figure 4.14: Poor households are characterised by low levels of education and social security**

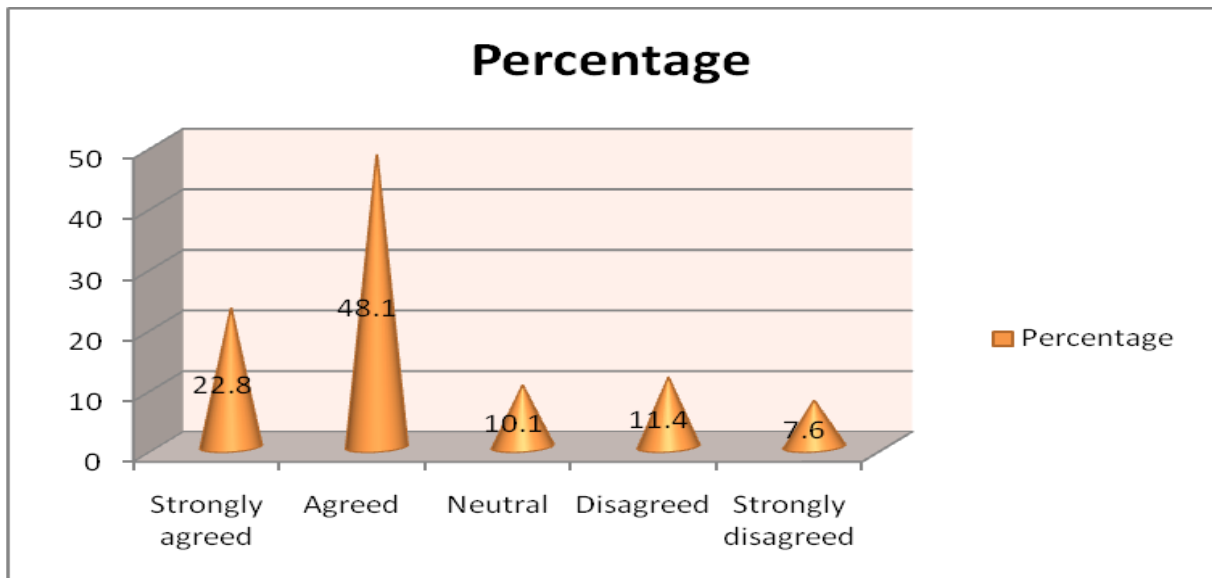
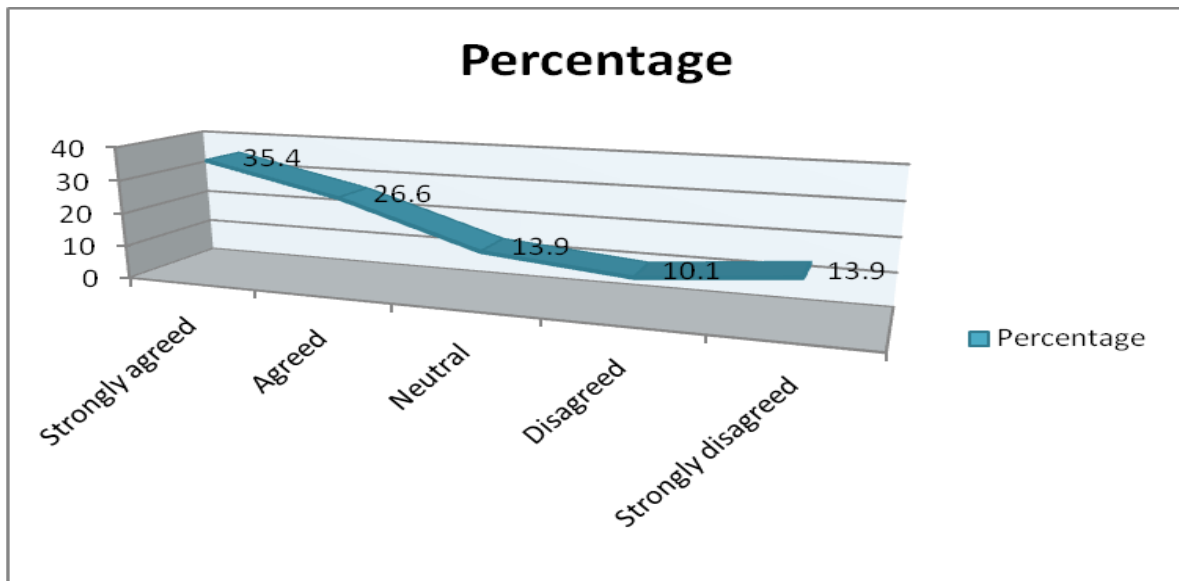


Figure 4.14 also support this statement as 56 respondents constituting 70.9% of the total sample strongly agreed with the statement that “Poor households are characterised by low levels of education and social security” while 8 respondents constituting 10.1% were neutral to the statement due to the lack of the information. Contrary to that 15 respondents constituting 19% of the total sample strongly disagreed with the statement

**Figure 4.15: Poverty continued amongst those left behind due to; skills shortage, financial constraints to relocate**



As pointed Poor households are characterised by low levels of education and social security. Figure 4.15 also support this idea as 54 respondents constituting 62% of the total sample strongly agreed with the statement that Poverty continued amongst those left behind due to; skills shortage, financial constraints to relocate while 11 respondents constituting 13.9% were neutral due to the lack of the information. Further this idea is not supported by all as 18 respondents constituting 24% of the total sample strongly disagreed with the statement.

**Figure 4.16: In order to reduce poverty government must ensure that the poor are assisted through the provision of some forms of social security programmes**

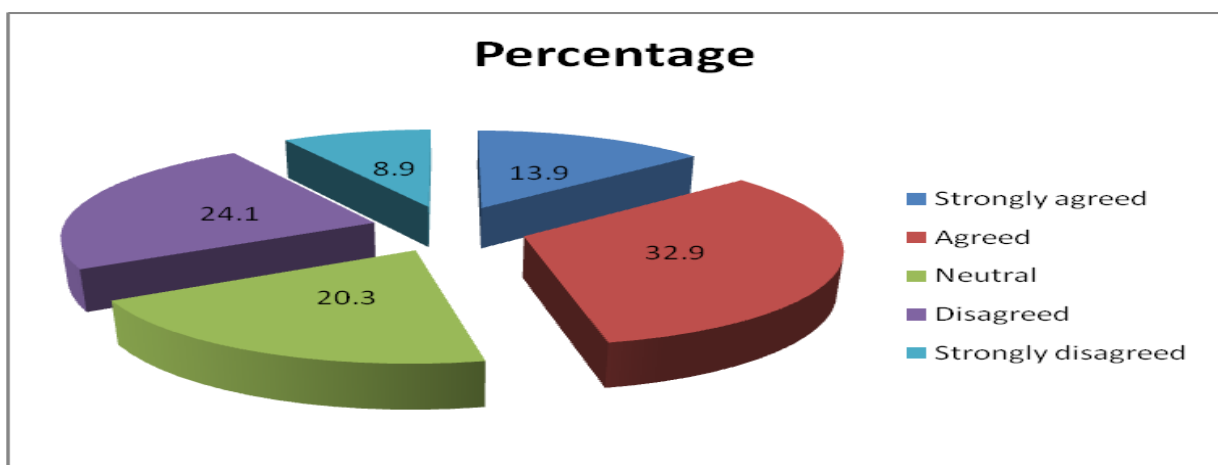


Figure 4.16 also support this idea as 37 respondents constituting 46.8% of the total sample strongly agreed with the statement that in order to reduce poverty government must ensure that the poor are assisted through the provision of some forms of social security programmes. This idea is not supported by all as 26 respondents constituting 33% of the total sample strongly disagreed with the statement while 16 respondents constituting 20.3% were neutral and it is therefore due to lack of information.

**Figure 4.17: social security is meant to provide many poorhouseholds with a regular income which provides a basic level of food security**

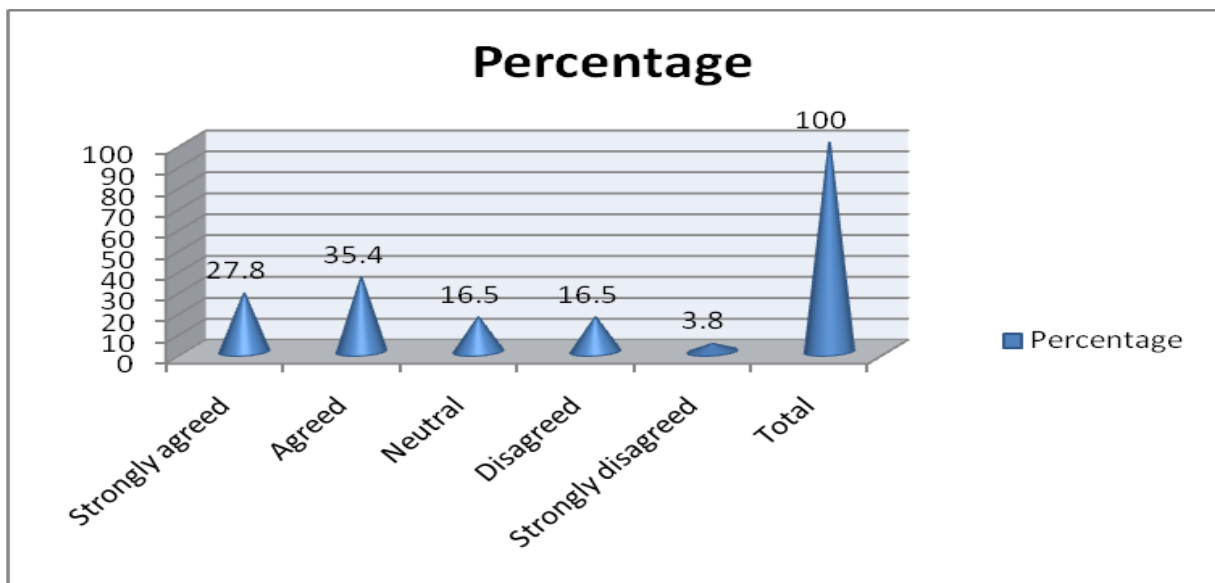


Figure 4.17 also supports these statement 50 respondents constituting 63.2% of the total sample strongly agreed with the statement that social security is meant to provide many poorhouseholds with a regular income which provides a basic level of food security. This idea is not support by all as 16 respondents constituting 33% of the total sample strongly disagreed with the statement that social security is meant to provide many poor households with a regular income which provides a basic level of food security while the neutrality demonstrated by 13 respondents who constituted 16.5 % of the total sample reveals confusion by the respondents who were in the minority.

**Figure 4.18: The provision of the basic income grant to the unemployed will help them to climb the socioeconomic**

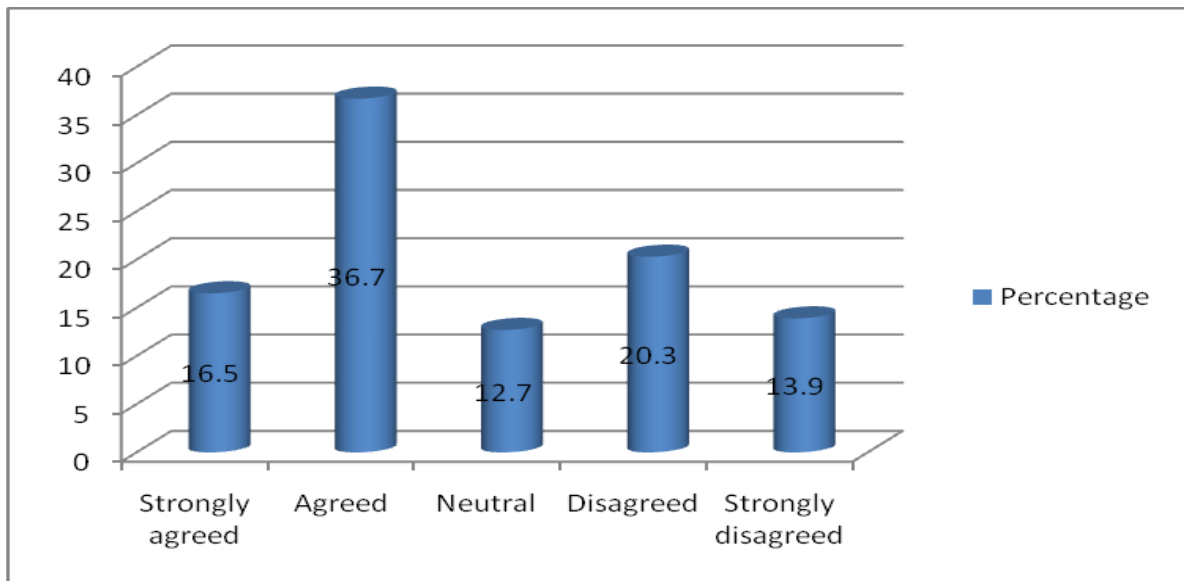


Figure 4.18 also supports these statement 42 respondents constituting 53.2% of the total sample strongly agreed with the statement that The provision of the basic income grant to the unemployed will help them to climb the socioeconomic. This idea is not support by all as 27 respondents constituting 34.2% of the total sample strongly disagreed with the statement that The provision of the basic income grant to the unemployed will help them to climb the socioeconomic while 10 respondents constituting 12.7% were neutral and this could be necessitated by lack of knowledge and misconception by a group of people in the study population.

**Figure 4.19: The absence of economic growth (or negative growth) increases poverty**

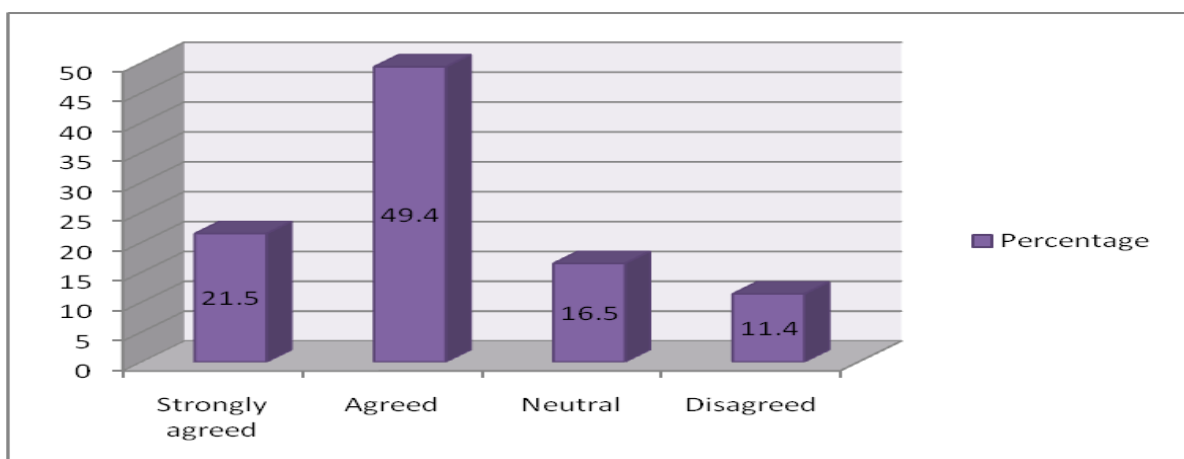




Figure 4.19 also supports these statement 56 respondents constituting 70.9% of the total sample strongly agreed with the statement that the absence of economic growth (or negative growth) increases poverty. This idea is not support by all as 10 respondents constituting 12.7% of the total sample strongly disagreed with the statement that the absence of economic growth (or negative growth) increases poverty while 13 respondents constituting 16.5% were neutral this could be necessitated by lack of knowledge in the study population.

**Figure 4.20: Low earnings are usually not enough for the underemployed to elude poverty**

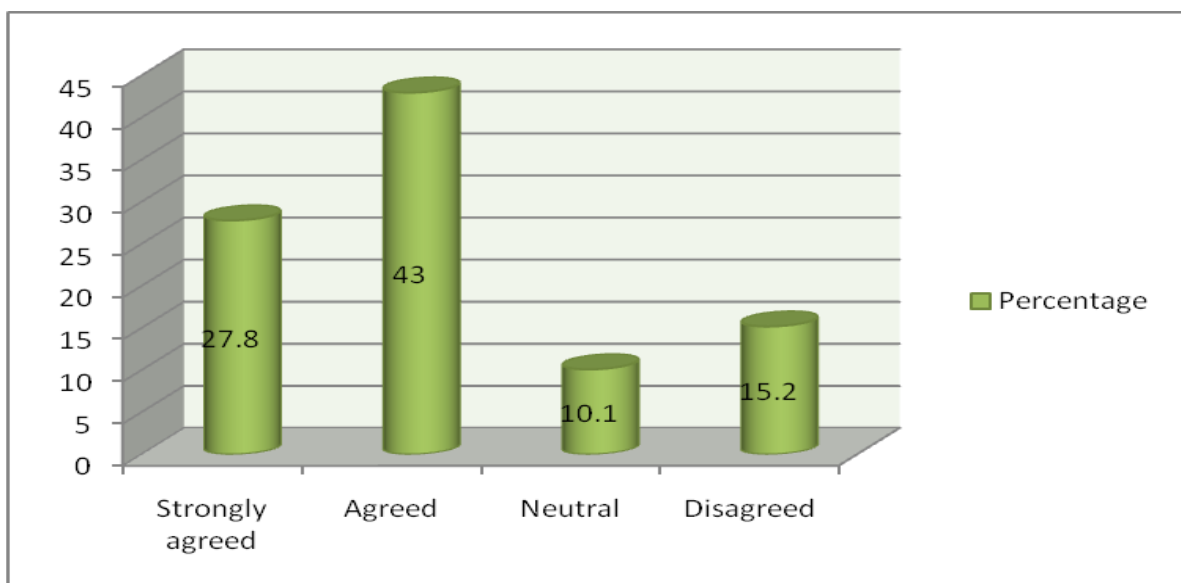


Figure 4.20 also support this idea 56 respondents constituting 70.8% of the total sample strongly agreed with the statement that the Low earnings are usually not enough for the underemployed to elude poverty while 8 respondents constituting 10.1% were neutral. This idea is not supported by all as 15 respondents constituting 19% of the total sample strongly disagreed with the statement that the Low earnings are usually not enough for the underemployed to elude poverty.

**Figure 4.21: Underemployed are usually epitomised by illiteracy, lack of experience, lack of advanced skills**

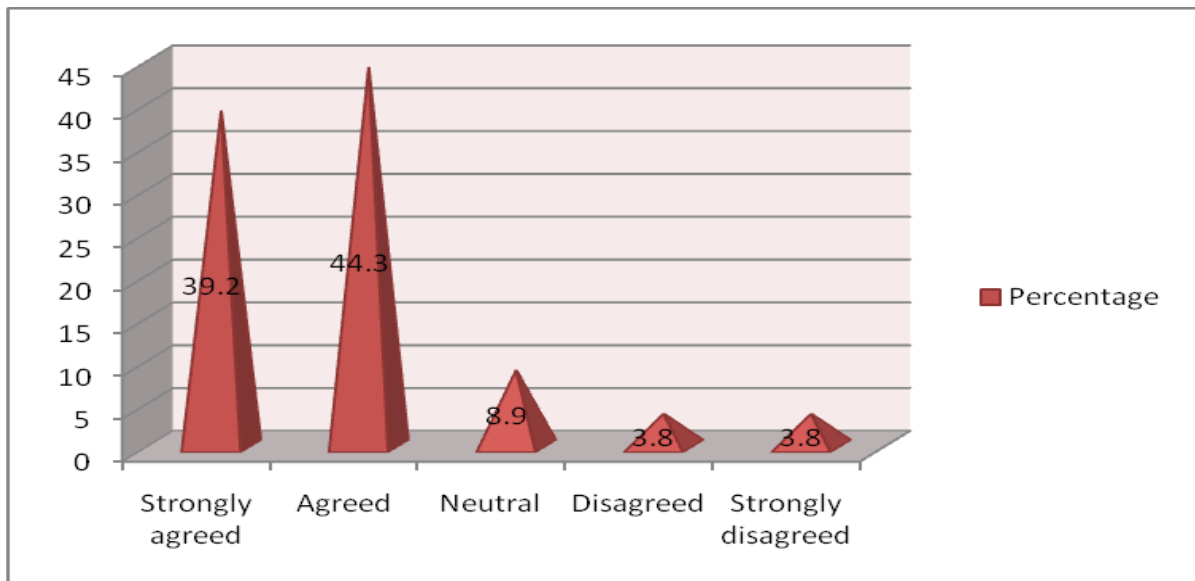


Figure 4.21 also support this idea 66 respondents constituting 83.5% of the total sample strongly agreed with the statement that underemployed are usually epitomised by illiteracy, lack of experience, lack of advanced skills while 7 respondents constituting 8.9% were neutral due to lack of information. And again this idea is not supported by all as 6 respondents constituting 7.6% of the total sample strongly disagreed with the statement underemployed are usually epitomised by illiteracy, lack of experience, lack of advanced skills

**Figure 4.22: An increase in GDP produces an increase in the income of the poor**

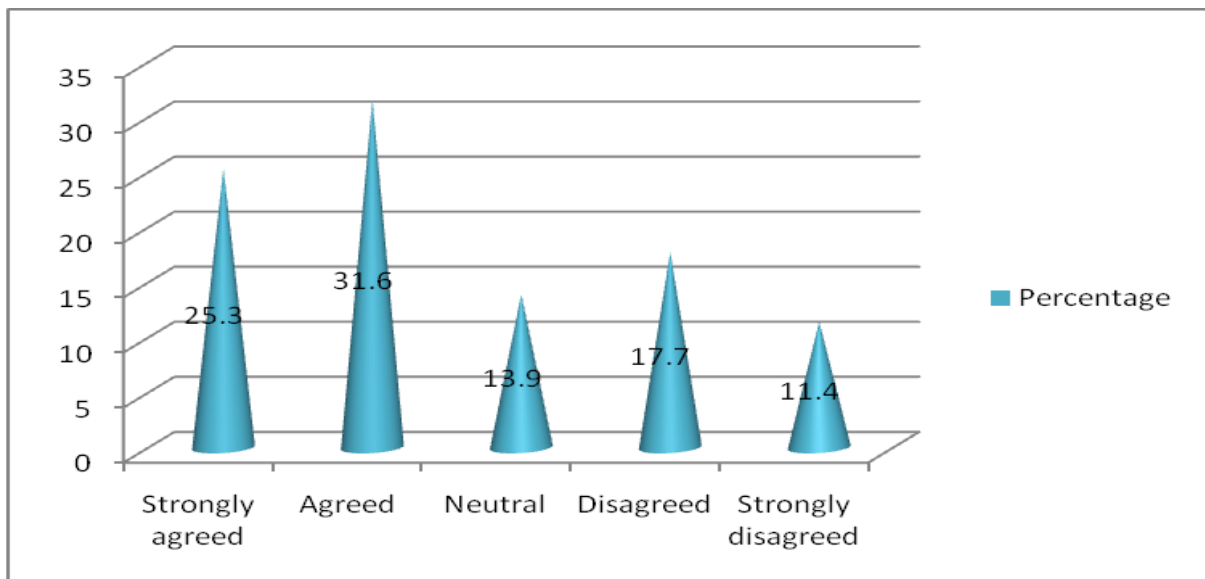


Figure 4.22 also support this idea 45 respondents constituting 56.9% of the total sample strongly agreed with the statement that increases in GDP produces an increase in the income of the poor. This idea is not support by all as 23 respondents constituting 29.1% of the total sample strongly disagreed with the statement that an increase in GDP produces an increase in the income of the poor while 11 respondents constituting 13.9% were neutral something which could have been influenced by lack of knowledge with regard to what increase in GDP produces an increase in the income of the poor.

**Figure 4.23: Corruption affects poverty by first impacting economic growth factors**

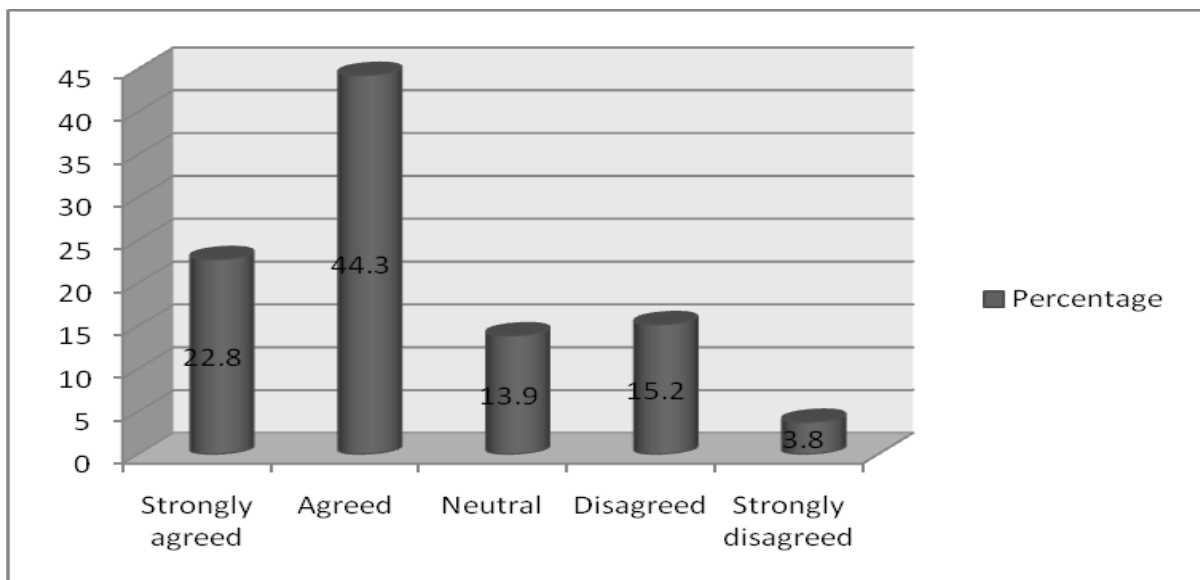


Figure 4.23 also supports this idea 53 respondents constituting 67.1% of the total sample strongly agreed with the statement that corruption affects poverty by first impacting economic growth factors. This idea is not supported by all as 15 respondents constituting 19% of the total sample strongly disagreed with the statement that corruption affects poverty by first impacting economic growth factors while 11 respondents constituting 13.9% were neutral and it is a clear demonstration of lack of information the lack of knowledge by a certain group of participants on the study population.

#### 4.2.4 Social grants as poverty alleviation strategy

The Figure below were discussed the data interpretation collected during questionnaire with the social grants as poverty alleviation strategy.

**Figure 4.24: Grants providing for daily needs**

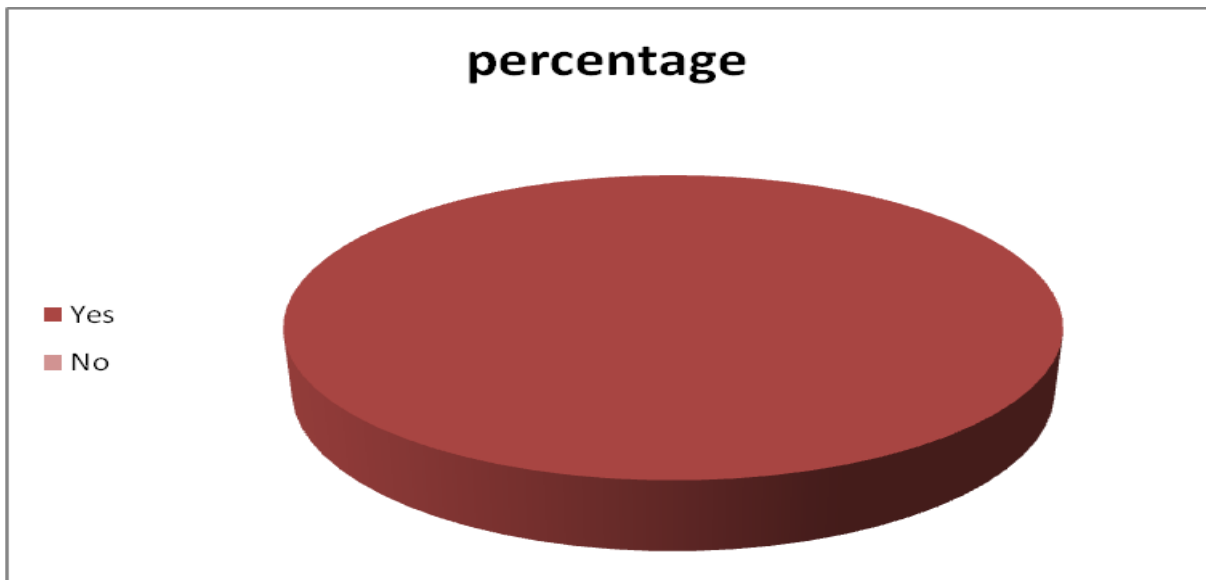


Table 4.20 indicated that 100 percent of the respondents indicated that grants do not provide for their entire daily needs. Beneficiaries do not seem to understand that they have to supplement their grants.

**Figure 4.25: Family members depending on the respondent's grant**

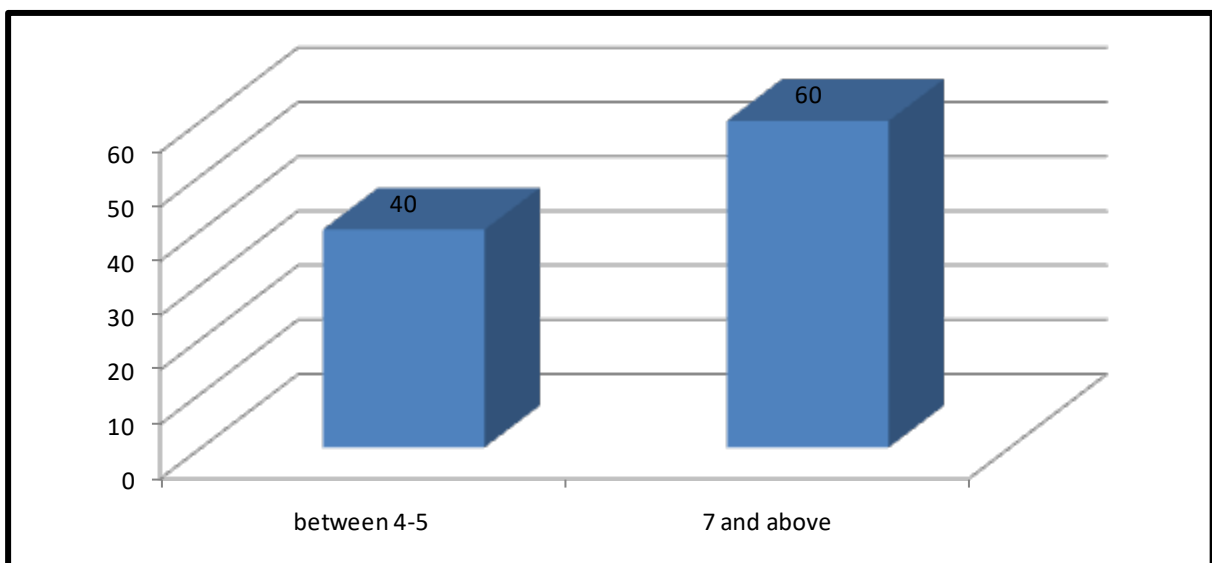


Figure 4.25 revealed that 60 Percent of the respondents have six and more family members depending on their social grants and only 40 Percent have four to six family members depending on their grants. This indicates that there is a need for these grants to reach most people who are living in poverty.

**Figure 4.26 : How much do respondents pay for their services?**

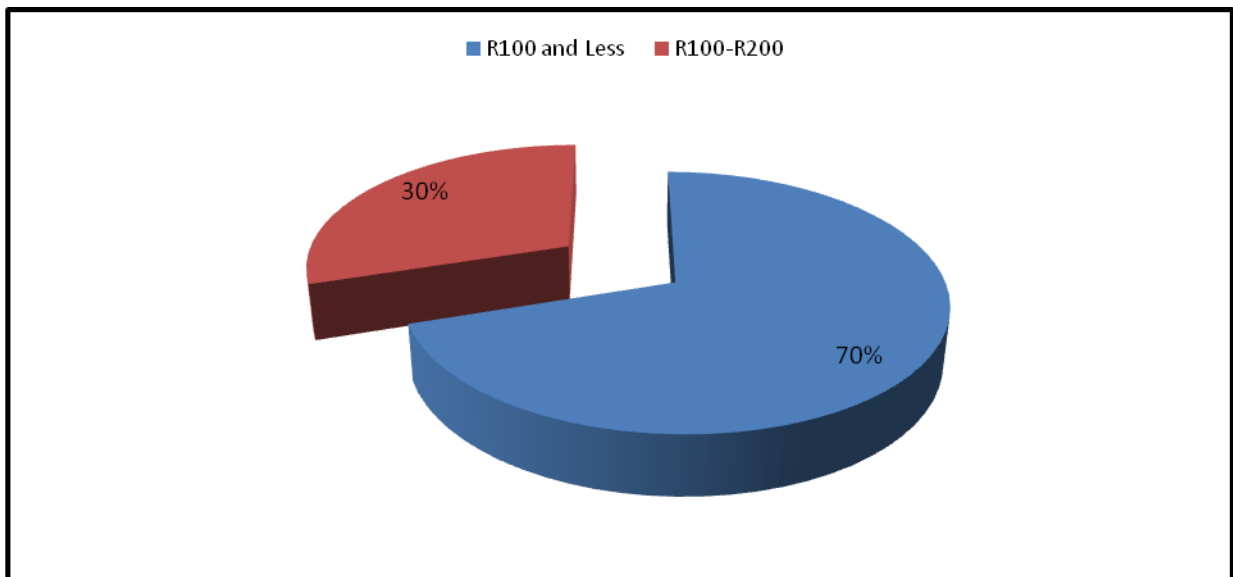


Figure 4.26 revealed that 70 Percent of the respondents pay R100.00 or less for their services, while 30 Percent pay from R100.00 to R200.00 for their services. This indicates that the majority of the respondents live in low cost houses and squatter camps

**Figure 4.27: How much do respondents spend on their medical bills?**

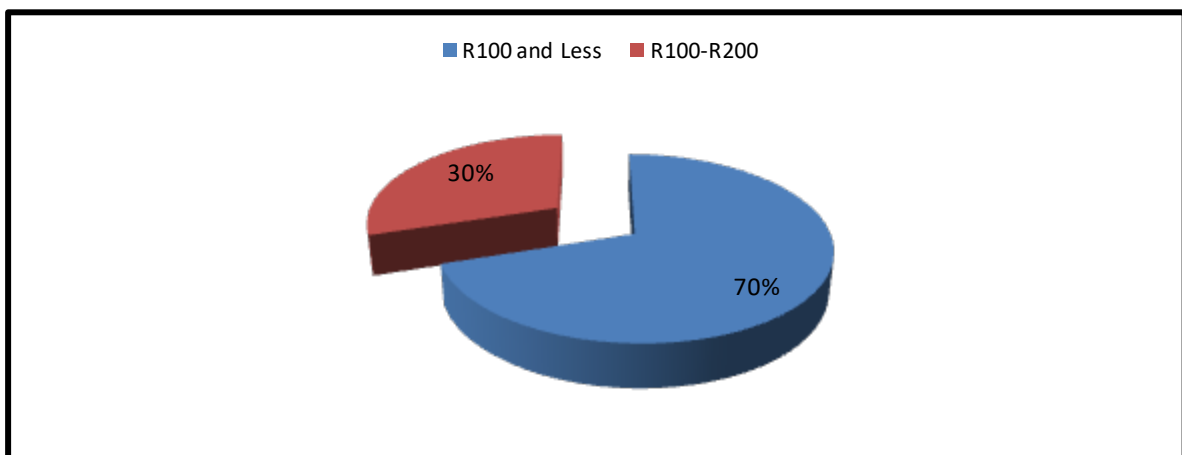


Figure 4.27 indicated that 70 Percent of the respondents pay R10000 or less on their medical bills, while 30 Percent pay from R100.00 to R200.00 for theirs. This indicates that most respondents depend on subsidised medical services provided by the provincial hospitals

**Figure 4.28: Do respondents get their grants every month?**

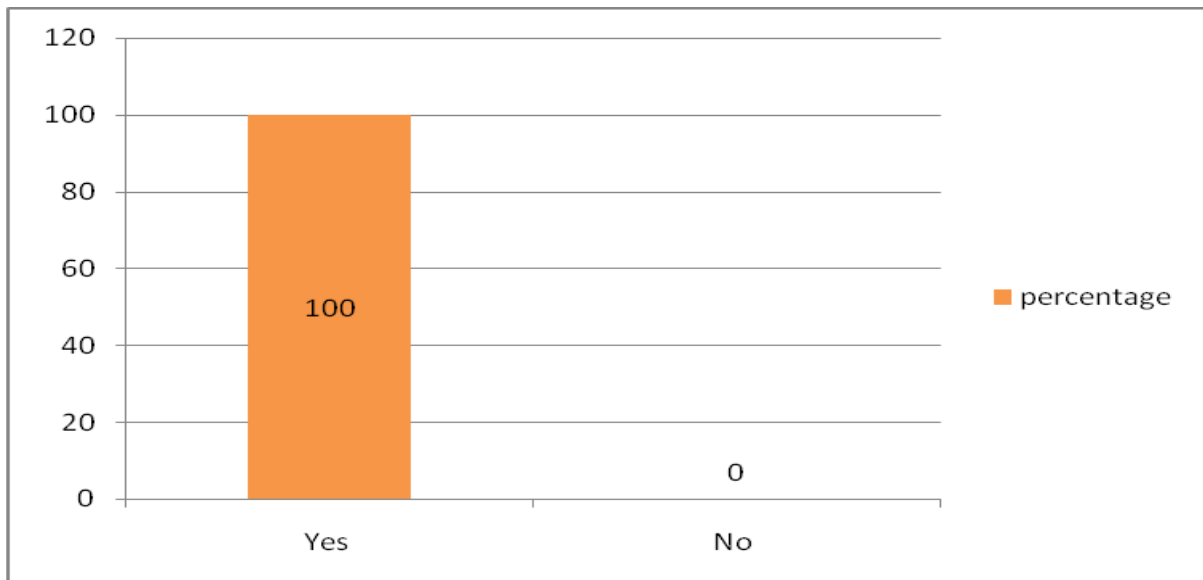


Figure 4.28 show that overwhelming 100 Percent of the respondents they receive their grants every month. It is impressive that the Department of Social Development seem to be delivering and meeting the needs of the people.

**Figure 4.29: Do respondents think that training would be of help?**

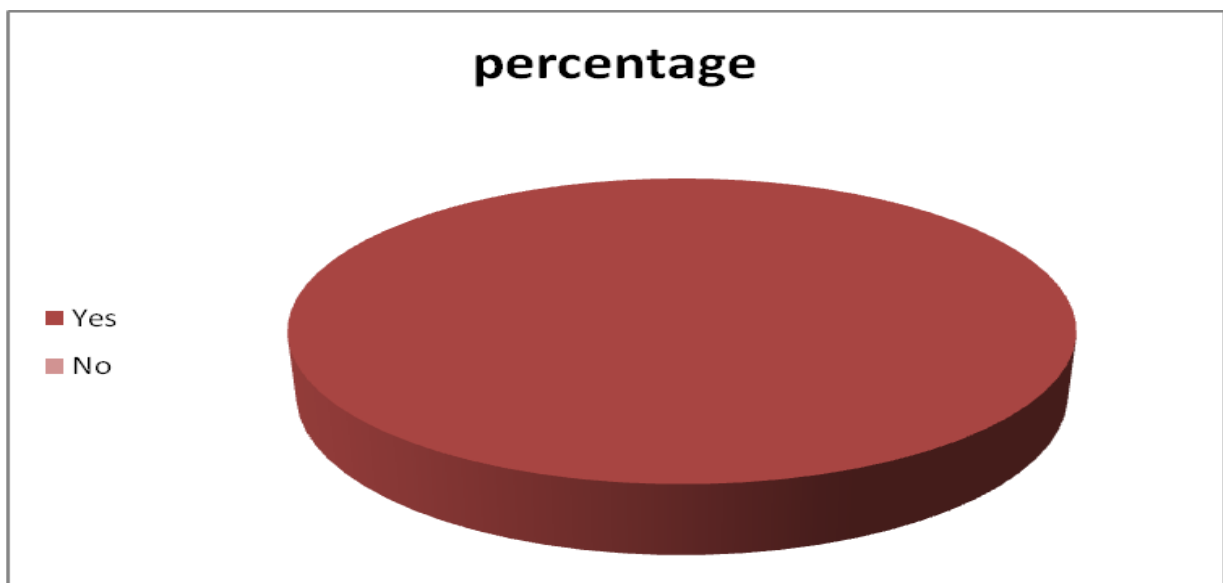


Figure 4.29 indicated that all 100% of the respondents they think training in grant expenditure would benefit them. The Department of Social Development needs to be proactive in providing beneficiaries with training in how effectively they can spend their grants.

**Figure 4.30: How do respondents get information about social grants?**

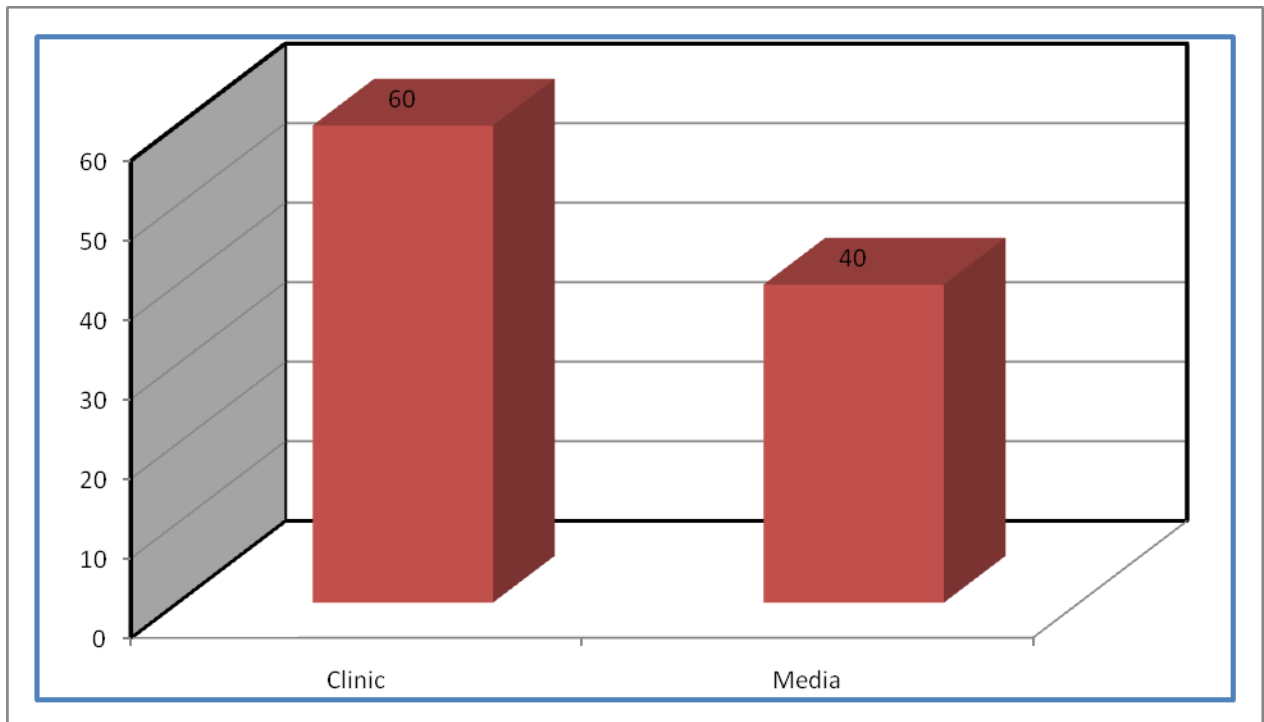


Figure 4.30 indicated that 60% of the respondents they receive information about social grants from the clinics and only 40% of the respondents receive information from the media. This is an indication of a partnership between The Department of Social Development and the Department of Health.

**Figure 4.31: Are most people in their communities informed about social grants?**

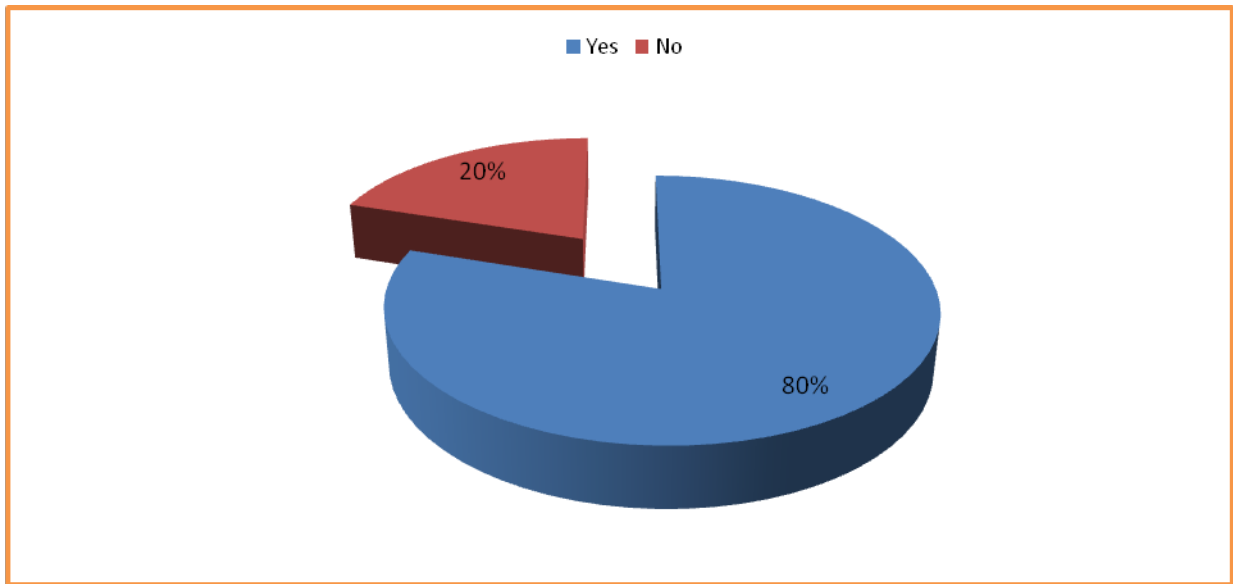


Figure 4.31 indicated that 80% of the respondents the people in their community are informed about social grants, but only 20% indicated that it is easy for them to go to municipal offices to apply for these grants. It is good that people have information about social grants.

**Figure 4.32: Is it easy for people to go and apply for grants at Makhado municipal offices?**

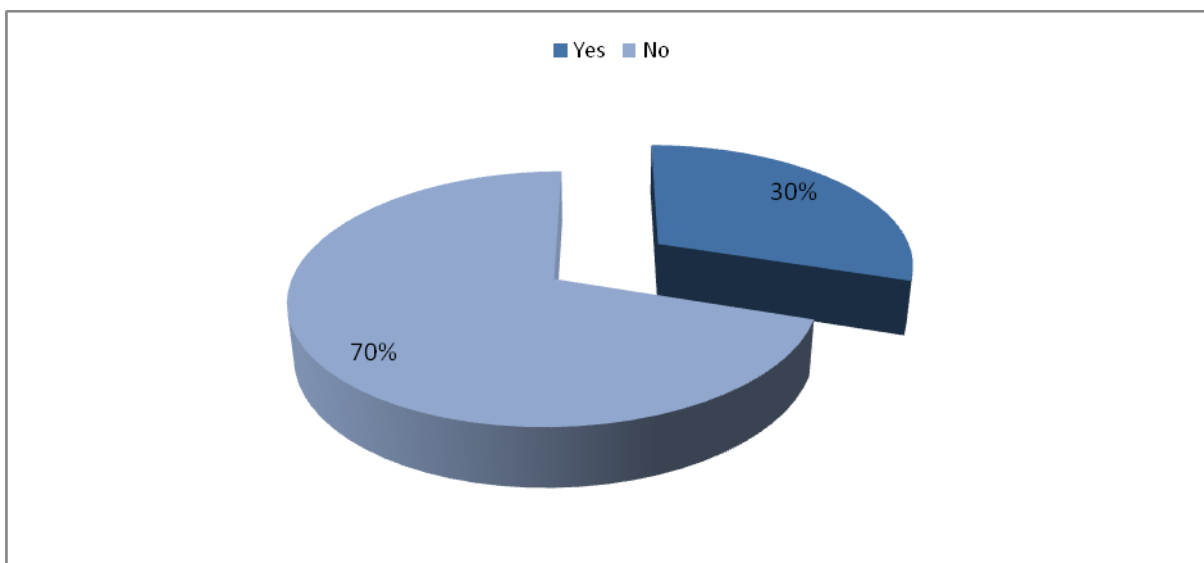




Figure 4.32 revealed that 70% of the respondents it is not easy to apply for social grants and only 30% indicated otherwise. The lack of ID documents and birth certificates is the only reason given by all 70% who indicated that it is difficult to apply for the grants. Although it seems to be easy to get information about social grants, there seems to be a problem when it comes to actually applying for those grants.

### **4.3 INTERVIEW DATA ANALYSIS**

This data collection procedure was preceded by an introduction of me, followed by a comprehensive explanation of the purpose of the meeting. The importance of free participation and contribution was also highlighted. The researcher asked for participants' consent to participate in the study and for interviews to be written. The researcher promised the participants confidentiality and anonymity and further indicated that a copy of the interview transcript may be available for them if they so deem necessary.

- **Question: What do you think would improve delivery of social grants?**

Respondents responded differently to this question, most of them indicated that there are few offices where they can apply and receive their grants; others highlighted the problem of few clerks working in the offices

- **Responses to questions on the utilisation of Social grant by caregivers**

Furthermore, the increased spending on food is associated with better nutritional outcomes that reduce the chances of social grant beneficiaries to suffer hunger. For example, it has been found that there is a decrease of 8-14 per cent in the probability of any child going hungry in households receiving the social grant. This view was confirmed by one participant who noted that the grant assists many families in the community because they do not suffer hunger. The participant further indicated that most families can afford to buy food with the grant, although she felt that it is

insufficient. Another participant observed that, *The grant assists the children with food. They do not suffer from hunger due to the grant.*

Other participants however did not specify whether the food is for children or for adults. It can be assumed that the food purchased with the social grant is not only meant for the children benefiting from the grant, but also other members of the family, since the majority of the participants rely on social security to support their families.

One participant commented that, *many families depend on the grant.* Another participant indicated that, *Even though the grant is little, it's helpful because it's the only source of income.*

Results from the participants confirmed that some families relied solely on the grant as their source of income and that the grant improved their ability to care for their children, particularly in terms of purchasing food. Only a few participants specified the type of food they can afford to buy and mentioned bath soap, toothpaste, and washing powder as some of the major items that are included in their grocery lists. For instance, one participant said, *We buy maize meal, canned fish and bath soaps.*

Respondents also highlighted some of the food expenses purchased with the grant which included eggs, biscuits, maize-meal, polony, yoghurt, as well as child-specific food, such as formula milk, baby food and food for lunch boxes. Pampers and soap were also reported to be some of the items mainly purchased with the grant.

Spending on clothing for both children and adults was mentioned, but not frequently. Similarly, the respondents found that clothing was one of the items rarely purchased with the grant. Some of the participants in this study were concerned about their inability to purchase winter clothes such as jackets, tracksuits, jerseys and school shoes for their children. One participant said that, *I struggle with their clothing as well as their school needs such as warm tracksuits in winter.*

Another expenditure item was electricity. This item was rarely mentioned because some of the participants resided in areas where electricity had not yet been

connected. They therefore relied on other alternatives for energy such as firewood and candles.

One of the participants remarked that *my husband has piece jobs, when he gets paid he adds to the grocery and buys electricity.*

Some of the participants expressed relief that they are no longer expected to pay school fees. This therefore reduces their financial burden and they are able to direct the money to other needs of their children. Crèche fees payment was mentioned by only few of the participants. For instance, one participant said, *I pay for the child s day care centres fees and also pay for her transport.* Although transport costs to school were rarely mentioned, one participant observed that, *I buy food and school uniform for the children and also pay for transport to crèche for one child.*

In the social security grant evaluation report by the respondents some of the primary caregivers mentioned school-related expenses to include crèche fees, pre-school fees, pens, bags, calculators, transport, soccer trips and clothes. This was confirmed by one participant who reported that, *I buy food, clothes and also pay school trips* the majority of the participants mentioned school uniforms as a priority.

Some even added that they make sure that their children have pocket money to school. One of the participants pointed out that, *I buy school uniform, school stationery, clothes for the children and also ensure that they have pocket money when they go to school.*

In addition, the respondents also noted that grants are frequently used for payments to burial societies, especially in the Limpopo Province. The area of this research study was a black community in the Limpopo Province and this type of system is commonly practiced. It was therefore not surprising that some of the participants utilised a large amount of the grant to contribute to these burial societies. These contributions are made to enhance solidarity within communities and in return for a support system which can be provided in the form of cash or in kind.

Only two participants indicated medical health treatment in their expenditure. This could be due to the fact that medical care is freely provided in government health care facilities such as clinics which are easily accessed within the community. Section 28(1) (c) of the Bill of Rights provides that all children have a right to basic health care services.

The South African government has made sure that children have free access to these services. Some of the social grant recipients however prefer to utilise private health care services. The reason is that, better quality services are provided in private facilities and the queues are not long. The social grant is sometimes utilised to pay for private health care, although it may be expensive.

- **Responses to questions on the perceived impact of appropriate social grant utilisation on school attendance**

School attendance was one of the identified themes which was deemed significant and needed to be explored further so that it can be linked to the social grant expenditure. The majority of the participants reported that they spend the grant mainly to meet their children's educational or school needs.

One of the participants said that, *I'm also able to buy whatever they need for school.* Another participant stated that, *I buy school uniform for the child and make sure the child has pocket money to school.* It was added by one participant that, *it is helpful because I'm able to take my child to crèche and pay for her fees and transport. If it was not for the grant she would not be attending crèche.*

It has been found that children in households that receive social grants, particularly State Old Age Pension (SOAP) and Child Support Grant (CSG) are more likely to attend school. Although the grant's impact on school attendance is the same for boys and girls, the effect is decidedly larger for children that are living with their mother. Thus, from this study it was anticipated that the children's school attendance should be high since the participants were mothers. For instance, one participant

reported that, *the children are enrolled at school and attend school regularly.* Additionally, another participant confirmed that, *all the children attend school.*

Respondent indicate that primary school enrolments have increased to 90 per cent in South Africa. The social grant increases primary school enrolment by roughly 2.4 percentage points from a base of 95.6 per cent, decreasing non-attendance by 54 per cent. The grant also appears to help overcome the impact of poverty on school enrolment. Previously some children did not attend school because their families could not provide food for them, buy school uniform and others could not afford to pay school fees. This is despite the fact that learners cannot be denied admission because of their parent's failure to pay fees.

In addition, one respondent said that, *I'm able to buy clothes for them (children) so that they go to school being neat.* These show that, when the grant is utilised to benefit the children directly, positive outcomes such as regular school attendance are likely to be observed. When children are fed, cleaned and cared for, chances of absenteeism and poor attendance are limited.

Among the children of the participants who received social grant, there were children of school going age as well as those who were still too young to attend school. Some of the children also qualified to attend crèche. It was reported by one participant that, *only one child goes to school. The other one is young to attend, but goes to crèche.* During the interviews, it was found that all children who qualified to go to school did attend school. This shows 100 per cent school attendance from the participant's school-going children.

For example, one participant said that, *The grant assists the child because I'm able to pay crèche fees for him.* Another respondent added that *... I am able to take my child to crèche and pay for her fees and transport. If it wasn't for the grant she would not be attending crèche.* This certainly confirms that the social grant plays a vital role in securing access to ECD services for young children from low-income households.

- **Responses to questions on what options do people have of receiving social grants?**

All the respondents indicated that people are aware of the following options for receiving social grants: banks, Post Offices, municipality offices and pay points.

- **Responses to questions on are beneficiaries aware of these options?**

The majority of the beneficiaries are aware of the options but they still prefer to get their grants from the municipal offices as they say they are avoiding the interest they pay at the bank.

- **Responses to questions on how the grant can be utilised in the best interest of children**

The last objective of the study was to establish the views of caregivers on how social grant can be utilised in the best interest of children. The participants were asked how the grant can be utilised to benefit children. The majority of the participants indicated that food should be the major item purchased with the grant.

One participant observed that, *the grant should be utilised to buy food and clothes for children*. In addition to food and clothes, one participant stated that the grant should also be used to pay school fees for children. This however can only be applicable to a few children because the majority of children are not expected to pay school fees due the government policy on school fees-exemptions.

Another participant pointed out that the grant should be utilised to buy school uniform. She stated that, *food is the greatest priority to me*. Some of the participants reported that they can only afford to buy food with the grant. They further observed that not all their children s needs are met through the grant. For instance, it was said by one of the participants that, *the only need which is met through the social grant is food*. None of them however complained that their children were living without food.

Therefore, it can be inferred that food is the most basic need that the grant should be utilised for in order to benefit children.

Some of the participants stated that educational needs should be a priority. These participants were of the view that a small amount of the grant should be saved on a monthly basis to help the children in future, especially when they go to tertiary institutions.

One of the participants observed that, *an amount of R50 has to be saved per month which could be used for tertiary fees.* Another participant added that, *Some of the grant s amount should be saved in order to assist the children in future on their educational needs, since the grant gets terminated at 18 years.*

The Department of Social Development (2015) found that many adolescents think the grant should be spent on their clothes and school, while others are of the opinion that the money should be saved in the bank to pay for university education. Other participants however said that it is desirable to save money, but it is not always possible.

One participant commented that *the amount we receive is not sufficient. I cannot save some of the money for the children; I only afford food and clothes.* These participants therefore believe that it is in the best interest of children to invest in their future through savings so as to enable them to have a brighter future.

Moreover, another factor that could contribute to future investment as highlighted by one of the participants would be to *ensure that children have a lunch box when they go to school and that they also carry pocket money to school, in that way the children will be benefitting.*

Another participant had a different opinion that *those who have additional income despite the social grant, they should at least save an amount of R100.00 from the grant.* According to this participant, it is only possible to save money if there is another source of income other than the grant.

They said that the only way the grant can be utilised effectively and benefit children is if the government increases the social grant amount. A variety of increased social grant amounts was proposed. Some suggested that the amount be increased by R20.00 annually rather than R10.00 as compared to the current amount of R10.00. Some of the suggestions ranged from an amount of R350 to R600 per month. These participants argued that an increase in the social grant amount will make a huge difference in their lives. For example, one participant indicated that, *Government should increase the social grant to R500.00. This will make a huge difference and impact positively to many families which depend on the grant.* Another participant was of the view that, *Government should at least increase the CSG with R20.00 instead of R10.00.*

Another participant had a similar view that the social grant amount should be increased even though she believes that, *when it increases even the price of food and goods increases.* In addition, these participants pointed out that the increased amount will be spent mainly on children who are the primary beneficiaries of the grant, but also on the recipient and on household needs. Specifically, some indicated that the money would be spent on the educational needs of the children, food or groceries for the household, clothes for the children and also on the future needs of the children.

Despite the amount increment, one of the participants even suggested that the age be extended up to 21 years. This particular participant believes that in most cases, children become independent at the age of 21 and not 18. Therefore, the grant should support them until they are independent.

One respondent, however, showed caution in the fact that whatever the government distribute depends on fiscal resources. She supported the suggestion that the social grant amount be increased, but with awareness that there might be financial constraints and that it may not always be to the recipient's satisfaction.



- **Responses to questions on how do you inform people about social grants in your area?**

Two respondents indicated that they do not inform people about social grants in their area, while the others use the following media: clinics, media, social workers, radio and billboards

#### **4.4 Conclusion**

The chapter provided findings, the interpreted information based on the data collected. In conclusion one can say that the strength of the current system lies in its ability to put most needed but still very much limited cash resources into the poorest households in South Africa, by doing so severe poverty and deprivation are alleviated. However, given the severity of the poverty situation in South Africa and the limitation of the support, the system is far from being able to break the poverty cycle and from pushing people above the subsistence level. Many people lack the adequate resources to meet their basic needs. In addition, the system mainly relies on the support for the elderly, leaving children and working age adults with little support and dependent on the State Old Age Pension as well. This gap in coverage is severe and will be aggravated by the impact of the HIV/AIDS epidemic as exactly the latter groups are most affected and in need of assistance. Furthermore, the analysis is based on the assumption that the system works with 100% efficiency and therefore a very positive picture has been painted. However in reality, the system has severe administrative problems to reach the intended beneficiaries, not only of the Child Social Grant, but in certain areas also those of the State Old Age Pension.

## **CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **5.1 Introduction**

In this chapter, a summary of the findings from the literature study as well as the empirical design and important deductions are presented. Recommendations for the practical implementation of these findings and for further research are also included.

### **5.2 Summary of chapters in the research**

This study is made up of five chapters.

This study consists of five chapters. Chapter 1 explains the background of the study, statement of the study problem, research objectives, research hypotheses, and significance of the study, delimitations of the study, limitation of the study, operational definitions and chapter overview.

Chapter 2 reviews related literature materials on impact of poverty, socio-economic activities and political factors cause poverty, impact of social security on poverty alleviation in rural areas.

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the research design and the process of investigation based on the two research paradigms, namely the quantitative and the qualitative research paradigms (Leedy, 2004:89). A suitable research paradigm for this study was selected after the two paradigms were studied and discussed. A justification for the research paradigm chosen is provided. The data collection method including ethical measures is discussed. The procedure employed for data analysis is provided. In general, this chapter will illustrate an overall methodology together with the methods used to achieve the objectives of this research as stated in chapter one.

Chapter 4 deals with data presentation, interpretations and analysis of the findings. The chapter discussed the results obtained and possible interpretations to the data

collected by the researcher. Each section of the data collection instrument was discussed and each specific hypothesis was presented and also be analysed in this chapter. The data was then transcribed and analysis was done by means of content data and statistical analysis. Categories and themes emerged throughout the analysis process.

Chapter 5 is a summary of findings, recommendations and conclusions, suggestions and issues for further research. This chapter presents the discussion and conclusion following the findings in the previous chapter 4. Conclusions are informed by data analysis done in chapter four and literature review in chapter two of the study

### **5.3 Major findings of the study**

In the literature study it was found that between 20 and 28 million South Africans are currently living in poverty, depending on which poverty line is used; social security has a vital role to play in alleviating this poverty and ensuring that everyone has a minimum income to meet their basic needs. In the South African context of deep poverty and inequality inherited from the past, social grants in the form of old age pensions, disability grants and maintenance grants represent a vital lifeline to millions of poor people until the effects of longer term development strategies can be felt.

The study revealed that the social grant is spent mainly on food, clothes for children, and contributions to burial societies. The findings further revealed that most families can afford to buy food with the grant, which serves to ensure that children do not suffer from hunger. Some of the items that were likely to be purchased with the grant included bath soap, toothpaste, washing powder, maize meal, and canned fish. The findings further showed that a positive relationship exists between the social grant and improved health care among children. This was also confirmed by the researcher through observation during the interviews wherein it was found that the majority of the participant's children were in good health and there was no malnourishment observed. Therefore, the grant allows poor children the opportunity to access resources.

The grant was also used to purchase clothes. There were however concerns presented by some of the participants that they fail to purchase winter clothes such as jackets, tracksuits, jerseys and school shoes for their children with the grant due to the fact that the money received is not enough. The findings revealed that another expenditure item was electricity, though it was not mentioned by the majority of the participants since some of them resided in areas where electricity had not yet been connected. They therefore relied on other alternatives for energy, such as firewood and candles.

Another key aspect which the grant was utilised for was contributions to burial societies. This is a common practice in Black African communities. It was therefore not surprising that some of the participants utilised part of the social grant amount to contribute to burial societies. These contributions are done to enhance solidarity within communities and in return for a support system which can be provided in the form of cash or in kind.

The findings revealed that the majority of the participants argued that food, clothes, and school related necessities should be the major items purchased with the grant. The findings also revealed that the participants were of the view that a small amount of the grant needs to be saved on a monthly basis so that it will help the children in future, especially when they go to tertiary institutions. Other participants argued that although the idea of saving was desirable, it was not always possible.

The participants complained about the inadequacy of the grant. Most of them observed that the social grant amount was insufficient to meet basic needs or to cover the costs of even the child on whose behalf the grant was received. They suggested that the grant amount be increased regularly and not at a scale of R10.00 as it currently is. The participants argued that an increase in the social grant amount would make a huge difference in their lives. However, participants were very aware that the increase in the social grant amount depended on fiscal resources and not on what recipients want.

The empirical investigation revealed that, on the whole social grants are received promptly, but there are serious defects in the delivery of this service, i.e. it takes 2-6

months for applications and renewal of grants to be approved, delays at Home Affairs obstruct the possession of necessary documents, information does not get through to everybody, as some members of the community do not attend clinics, do not possess radios, are illiterate or do not understand English. Many beneficiaries have to travel more than 20 kilometres to their pay points and grants are not sufficient to fulfil basic needs.

The findings revealed that some of the caregivers misuse the grant and do not utilise it in the best interest of children. Thus, the grant is sometimes not spent on the things it is intended for. Instead, it is utilised for gambling, and for purchasing alcohol. As a result, participants end up accumulating debts. Money which could have been used to meet basic necessities is spent on gambling and alcohol. The findings showed that playing cards is the dominant form of gambling observed in the area and it is common among unemployed females.

The study revealed that a portion of the social grant amount is spent on medical treatment, although this was found to be negligible. This could be attributed to the fact that medical care is freely provided in government health care facilities such as clinics which are easily accessed within the community.

The findings revealed that the grant was utilised for the children's educational needs. Utilising the grant, especially on school related items was perceived to have a positive impact on the children's schooling. Furthermore, the findings showed when the grant is utilised to benefit the children directly; positive outcomes such as regular school attendance are likely to be realised. When children are fed, cleaned, and cared for, chances of absenteeism and poor attendance are limited.

The findings revealed that some of the participants utilise the grant to pay crèche fees and transport for school-going children. The majority of the participants mentioned school uniforms as another major priority on their expenditure list. Some even added that they make sure that their children take pocket money to school. This certainly confirms that the social grant plays a vital role in securing access to ECD services for young children from low-income households.

Some of the participants acknowledged that they do not always utilise the grant to benefit children. Instead, they sometimes use it for their own needs because they do not have any other source of income. The social grant is the sole source of income for many poor families, and this explains why some of the caregivers utilise the grant for their own needs.

#### **5.4 Discussion**

Patel (2012) believes that there is no agreement on how comprehensive social security should be, especially in developing countries due to resource constraints, limited formal employment, and inadequate institutional capacity and administrative systems to deliver services effectively and efficiently. This means that, in developing countries social security cannot be conceptualized looking only at the formal wage economy, since the majority of the people are employed in the informal sector and not all of them benefit from the current formal social security system.

Patel (2012) states that social assistance refers to a range of benefits in cash intended to provide protection for the neediest people in the society. Social assistance benefits are non-contributory and they are means-tested. She further argues that South Africa's social assistance programme, commonly known as social grants is exceptional when compared to other developing countries. These social grants are aimed at ensuring that households meet their basic needs. They therefore play a significant role in alleviating poverty and improving access to food and education.

South African Social Security Agency (SASSA) was established in 2004 to act as the sole agent that will ensure the efficient and effective management, administration and payment of social assistance. Its purpose is to serve as an agent for the prospective administration and payment of social security and render services relating to such payments (SASSA Act No. 9 of 2004). Moreover, the Social Assistance Act addresses social security by regulating access to social grants namely; the Child Support Grant, Foster Child Grant and Care Dependency Grant, State Old Age Pension, Disability Grant, and War Veteran Grant.

Initially, women at the age of 60 and men at the age of 65 accessed the State Old Age Pension (SOAP). The age for men has been reduced gradually from 2009 in order to achieve gender equality (Kaseke, 2010). Currently, all elderly persons at the age of 60 despite their gender are eligible for SOAP. The SOAP is the largest social assistance programme with over 2.5 million beneficiaries in 2010 (SOCPEN system 2010). In June 2012, the beneficiaries were 2 789 076 (SOCPEN system 2012). The important redistributive impact of this programme has been recognised by government, labour and academia. Patel (2005) and Samson et al. (2002) are both of the view that SOAP has a major impact in reducing poverty among poor households, especially those in rural areas. They both agree that households with pensioners are less poor than those without a pensioner. The amount for SOAP increases every year and currently stands at R1 200 per month.

Unemployment insurance, the Compensation for Occupational Injuries and Diseases Fund and the Road Accident Fund are the main social insurance schemes in South Africa. According to Patel (2012), unemployment insurance covers employees when they are temporarily unable to perform their duties in cases such as illness, maternity, adoption, and termination of employment. It is mainly aimed at ensuring that employees are protected from financial burdens when they are involuntarily unemployed. Kaseke (2010) indicates that the unemployment insurance scheme is regulated by Unemployment Insurance Act 63 of 2001. It covers workers such as domestic workers against the risk of temporary unemployment, but excludes civil servants and employees who are not South African citizens. A contribution of 1 per cent of the employee's monthly payment is made by both the employee and employer. This is then paid into the Unemployment Insurance Funds.

Social insurance is also relevant for poverty alleviation. It ensures that individuals who may be exposed to a social risk are not impoverished. However, this scheme is limited by the fact that only unemployment and employment injury are covered. Kaseke (2010) believes that the South African social insurance system is not comprehensive enough which therefore limits its impact on the prevention of poverty. He states that the system falls short when considering the branches of social security provided by ILO Security (Minimum Standards) Convention No. 102 of 1952 which include unemployment benefit, old age benefit, employment injury benefit,

maternity benefit, sickness benefit, invalidity benefit, medical benefit, survivors benefit and family benefit.

The traditional and informal systems of social security have arisen mainly in developing countries. They were developed in response to economic and social hardships experienced in these countries. Inaccessibility of formal social security systems was another reason why a need for informal social security system has grown. Patel (2012:44) have referred to the critical role played by these informal systems in providing a safety net. These informal systems are based on personal reciprocity, social solidarity, social networks of trust and direct face to face interaction between individuals, households and communities. They are aimed at poverty reduction, especially in rural areas.

Within the transformed welfare policy based on a social development approach, the CSG became an important means of poverty alleviation since social grants constituted the main income of many impoverished individuals and families. Therefore, the CSG may be the sole source of income for many poor families, and thus essential for their survival. This is primarily because research conducted on the CSG indicated that the grant is spent mainly on food. This increased spending on food is associated with improved nutritional outcomes. Each CSG a household receives is associated with a decrease of 8-14 per cent in the probability that any child goes hungry. These households are therefore likely to have lower prevalence rates of hunger for young children as well as older children and adults (Social Development, 2014).

Patel and Hochfeld (2014) concur that the CSG provides a valuable safety net to poor households, with significant benefits for both women and children. Since the majority of beneficiaries spend the grant on food, it contributes to household food security, and provides some financial security to women independent of their partners. The grant also provides women with the flexibility and choice in how the money is spent. This confirms previous assertions that money directed to women beneficiaries has had a positive multiplier effect on women's status and the well-being of the children in their care.



Williams, (2011) believe that the grant appears to be reaching those children living in the poorer households of the demographic surveillance area (DSA). They argue that children who received the grant are significantly more likely to be enrolled in school in the years following grant receipt than are equally poor children of the same age. However, they also allude to the fact that older brothers and sisters of grant recipients, when they were observed at younger ages, were less likely than other children to be enrolled in school. This perhaps reflects the greater poverty in grant-receiving households. The CSG increases primary school enrolment by roughly 2.4 percentage points from a base of 95.6 per cent, decreasing non-attendance by 54 per cent (Williams, 2011). In addition, CSG is used to pay for ECD services and children are the recipients of pocket money from the CSG. Hence, the grant appears to help overcome the impact of poverty on school enrolment

The CSG, as a strategy for alleviating childhood poverty faces a fundamental difficulty in its implementation, particularly when taking into cognisance the context of poverty, disempowerment and lack of infrastructure. For the grant to reach the most vulnerable households, simultaneous attention to three issues is required: access to government offices in rural areas; efficient coordination of services, particularly provision of official documents; and creative methods of communication targeting community members with low literacy levels. A promising mechanism for addressing these challenges could be collaboration between government and non-governmental partners promoting access to the application process. Coordinated action between relevant government departments, including the Departments of Social Security and Home Affairs, would go a long way towards promoting access to the Child Support Grant for those most in need (Twine, 2014)

Generally, the history of social security in South Africa is fraught with poor administration, an inefficient payment system, lack of infrastructure and insufficient human resources. The introduction of a national social security agency in 2003 with the task of administering the grants is a creative attempt by government to improve service delivery to social grant beneficiaries, but it has yet to be proven to be a successful mechanism. However, despite the administrative problems, CSG has had a significant impact on poor children and poverty stricken families. It is used mainly for food, clothes and education (Triegaardt 2014)

## 5.5 Conclusion

The South African government made a wise decision in introducing the social grant as a strategy for poverty alleviation because the results are magnificent. The social grant serve as the main source of income in many families. Most families would have been unable to meet their basic needs if it was not for the grant. When the grant was introduced in 1998, it was targeted mainly at impoverished children.

The grant was also meant to supplement income in families, but in actual sense the grant benefits the entire household and not children per se. However, it is of paramount importance that it be used in the best interest of children since they were the intended beneficiaries. Based on the research findings, it is concluded that the grant is utilised directly to benefit children by purchasing food, clothes for children, school related needs such as school uniforms, paying ECD centres and transport. Indirectly, the grant benefits other family members as well.

The researcher gathered from the community that the intervention had been successful in graduating the community of Makhado Municipality from extreme poverty. This view is based on the views expressed by community members taking into account the point where they were in terms of development before the intervention and to the present. The consultation conducted with community members was very minimal; the consultation was mainly about project identification, prioritising and implementation. Consultation for the purpose of programme and project packaging was never done with community members. For development to be sustainable, community members should be in the forefront of their own development. This is done for a number of reasons, including commitment to the development initiatives and to earn community buy in.

From this it can be concluded that the way has been paved for social welfare programs to promote human resource development, which will enable impoverished households to care for their members, especially children and those who are vulnerable

From these it can be concluded that there are practical flaws in the poverty alleviations system that need urgent attention and can be eradicated. One such an issue is the matter of training of clerks as capacity building and of beneficiaries in grant expenditure as empowerment.

This discussion of the costs for an extension of the current system raises the question whether South Africa can at all afford any new social programme of this scale. It is, for example, argued that an increase in income tax can potentially discourage economic activities and new investment.

The same arguments are brought forward against reprioritising the budget or increasing the deficit in favour of social expenditure. However, one has to be aware that the persistence of poverty and high inequality, high crime rates, and an impending AIDS epidemic likewise will have serious negative consequences for economic growth and investment. There is international consensus that the reduction of poverty is a prerequisite for successful economic development.

The developmental social welfare approach and the comparative sections have endorsed this view. Furthermore, they pointed to the important role social security has to play not only in reducing poverty, but in supporting economic development. It should further be considered to link any new social programme to economic growth, so that the system does not grow faster than the economy but that the system will not be eroded by inflation either. All the options discussed here would improve the current poverty situation whereas it has been shown that the Basic Income Grant performs best. The same is true when looking at the capacities of the different options to support economic growth and economic activities in a broader context. Factors that are of importance to make people economically active and productive are the provision of income security and an improvement of the health status.

The Basic Income Grant provides the most stable income source for people of working age. By doing so, it increases their opportunities to break out of the vicious circle of poverty and to take part in the economy. None of the other options is able to reach so many of the people with an income they finally can count on.

Even the Unemployment Benefit which targets the adult population exclusively leaves nearly 1.8 million people living in 'children with working age adults' households without support. Furthermore, it creates the perverse incentive not to join the formal labour market as then the benefit would be lost. Social security also increases productivity by improving the nutritional well-being of the people. The Basic Income Grant of R100 doubles the amount available for consumption in the first quintile, going a long way to improve the overall diet.

The support for children is of particular importance. While in theory that would speak in favour of the extension of the social grant, the model showed that a Basic Income Grant of R50 puts even more money into 'children with working age adults' households. The best result, improving the health status of the entire population including the children, can therefore be achieved by a universal grant. An even more direct and measurable impact in the economy of cash transfers into households is the increase and stabilisation of demand, consumption and savings.

Local and especially rural markets benefit greatly from these transfers as they have the potential to kick-start the economy in the underdeveloped rural areas. Again, the Basic Income Grant, by providing a universal, stable, and continuous income source, has the highest developmental potential as the people can count on it and better plan their economic activities. Furthermore, from an administrative point of view it is definitely the easiest and most effective way of putting cash into these areas.

Last but not least, the reduction of inequality has also been identified as a prerequisite for economic growth and investment in developing countries. Given the fact that South Africa has one of the highest levels of inequality in the world, a reduction is imperative. The analysis of the change of income distribution achieved by the different options revealed that both Basic Income Grant options perform best at reducing inequality and ensuring that nobody is left without any income.

## **5.6 Recommendations of the study**

The section discusses the recommendations arising from the study. Given the fact that there are recipients who misuse the grant, the following recommendations were proposed on how this matter can be dealt with:

Vouchers should be introduced that enable the recipients to purchase only what is needed for children. For example, if food vouchers are initiated it will reduce instances wherein children are found to be without food although they are social grant beneficiaries.

If it is found that the recipients misuse the grant, someone should be appointed to receive the grant on behalf of the child and to use it for the benefit of that child. This should be done in collaboration with social workers and SASSA officials.

Social workers should monitor the utilisation of social grant in order to ensure that the grant benefits children. Given the fact that the caseload for social workers is high, hiring other personnel (e.g. Auxiliary Social Workers) to deal specifically with the monitoring of the grant could be a solution. The Auxiliary Social Workers can also assist families who are unable to manage their finances, to draw budgets with the social grant.

There is need for South Africa to develop a comprehensive system of social protection which will enable caregivers to receive support in their own right. This would serve to ensure that the social grant is used specifically to meet the needs of children.

Therefore, in the war against poverty, the need for government to invest more on human capital development can never be over emphasized. As such, the government should attempt to ensure that every poor person in South Africa has access to basic education, primary health care, and other essential services. With such access, the poor and their children will have the opportunity to improve their economic status or even to participate fully in society. It is also necessary to ensure

that the relevance, quality, and quantity of education provided is designed to effectively increase participation, both in the workforce and in society at large

More often than not, corruption puts basic public services beyond the reach of those who cannot afford to pay bribes. By diverting scarce resources intended for development, corruption also makes it harder to meet fundamental needs, such as those for food, health and education. Moreover, corruption complicates sustainable development and hits the poor particularly hard. Therefore, the government should consider responsible administration, which respects the rules of democracy and creates a favourable environment for economic and social development, as a basic prerequisite for combating poverty in South Africa. Moreover, there should be an increase in the political commitment to fight corruption at the highest level of a state.

The study should be duplicated in other sub-districts of the Limpopo Province in order to establish how the grant is utilised to benefit children in the whole province.

An in-depth study, which will cover the children who are the beneficiaries of the grant, SASSA officials, teachers, and social workers as participants may yield more information on the utilisation of the grant. There is need for a study that assesses the impact of the grant.

## **5.7 Limitations of the study**

Lack of funding is also a factor, because it will impact negatively towards conducting the study. The study will therefore rely on one person who will distribute and collect the questionnaire throughout the identified district municipalities. A number of studies were conducted in the village and villagers were no longer keen to participate in further studies. These resulted in them participating after being coerced by the local leadership and it compromised the quality of their participation.

In qualitative research, a small sample is often used for data collection and the sample is not a representation of the larger population. In this study, a sample of 20 caregivers was used. Since the sample is small, thus the research findings may not be generalised. The study was also limited by the fact that some of the participants

may have given socially acceptable answers during the interviews in fear of the grant being terminated because they knew the researcher as a social worker. However, observations through home visits were done so that the researcher could adopt the role of an objective observer and link the participant's responses with what was observed.

## **5.8 Area for further study**

It is strongly recommended that comprehensive rural development be implemented - using the people-centred development approach. This approach focuses on improving local communities' self-reliance, social justice, and participatory decision-making. It recognises that economic growth does not inherently contribute to human development, and calls for changes in social, political, and environmental values and practices.

There is also a need for post-implementation targeted focus to allow for complete development of the village. A once-off deployment of resources in a rural area may not be enough a solution to graduate community from underdevelopment, meaning that continuous assessment of the effect of the intervention should be carried out.

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## APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY

### SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

#### Gender of the respondents

Female	
Male	

#### Frequency distribution of subjects by age groups

15-25	
26-35	
36-45	
46 and above	

#### Respondents highest qualifications

No formal education	
Primary level	
Secondary level	
Passed std 10	
Tertiary level	

#### Language used by the respondents

English	
Tshivenda	
Tsonga	
Sotho	

**Occupation of the respondents**

Professional	
Skilled	
Unskilled	
Unemployed	

**How much is the household earning per month**

R100-R500	
R501-R1000	
R1001-R1500	
R1501-R2000	
R2001-R2500	
R2501-R3000	
Above 3001	

**Number of Children**

1-2	
3-4	
5-6	
6-7	
8-9	
10-11	
12 and above	

**Total number of family members**

1-2	
3-4	
5-6	
6-7	
8-9	
10-11	
12 and above	



## SECTION B: QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY

*Questionnaire of the study on the impact of integrated social security on poverty alleviation in Makhado Municipalities.*

**Please complete all questions Mark with an “x” Mark from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree**

	<b>Strongly agree</b>	<b>agree</b>	<b>uncertain</b>	<b>disagree</b>	<b>Strongly disagree</b>
The government has expended resources for the poverty alleviation programmes					
the rate of poverty is higher in rural areas, particularly former homelands due to unemployment					
Most poverty reduction policies emphasized on the need for quantity and quality education, and social security					
Poverty is most stressing social problem in Makhodo Local Municipality of Limpopo province					
The central objective of LED is to alleviate poverty					
Poor households are characterised by low levels of education and social security					
Poverty continued amongst those left behind due to; skills shortage, financial constraints to relocate					
In order to reduce poverty government must ensure that the poor are assisted through the provision of some forms of social security programmes					
social security is meant to provide many poorhouseholds with a regular income which provides a basic level of food security					
The provisionof the basic income grant to the unemployed will help them to climb the socioeconomic					

The absence of economic growth (or negative growth) increases poverty					
Low earnings are usually not enough for the underemployed to elude poverty.					
Underemployed are usually epitomised by illiteracy, lack of experience, lack of advanced skills					
An increase in GDP produces an increase in the income of the poor					
Corruption affects poverty by first impacting economic growth factors					

**SECTION C: SOCIO-ECONOMIC INFORMATION**

**How many people are living in your household?**

Fewer than 3	
Between 4-6	
More than 7	

**Did the implementation of the integrated rural development strategy graduate the community from poverty?**

Yes	
No	

**Is there any other source of revenue in your household?**

Yes	
No	

**If yes, please specify from where?**

Government	
Spouse	
Relative	
Other job	

**SECTION D: IMPACT OF SOCIAL SECURITY ON POVERTY ALLEVIATION**

**Has the project helped to alleviate poverty in rural community (food)?**

Yes	
No	

**Are there any other benefits that you are deriving from social security?**

Yes	
No	

**Do you think LED project has alleviated poverty in your area**

Yes	
No	

**Do you think the social security enhance poverty alleviation had an impact on your livelihood?**

Yes	
No	

**How was the level and nature of poverty in the community before the intervention of social security?**

.....  
.....  
.....

**Did the intervention improve the quality of lives in the community?**

Yes	
No	

**APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (officials, Traditional leaders and projects managers)**

**Does the municipality have a credible LED Strategy in place?**

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

**What is the impact of the project on poverty alleviation among members of the community?**

.....  
.....  
.....

**How can you describe the level and nature of poverty in the community after the social security?**

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

**What is the impact of social security on poverty alleviation in rural areas of Makhado Local Municipality?**

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

**What are the strategies to enhance the social security in poverty alleviation in Makhado Municipality?**

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

**What are needs to be done in order to improve the poverty reduction rate in Makhado Local Municipality?**.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

**What is the impact of the project on poverty alleviation of community members?**

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

**How did the project impact positively on poverty in your area? If not, in your opinion what strategies can be used to enhance the project on poverty alleviation?**

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

**What improvement do you think should be made in the intervention strategy?**

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

**Would you recommend that similar intervention be done in the social security in order to enhance poverty alleviation?**

.....  
.....  
.....

## APPENDIX C: INFORMED CONSENT

I.....on this day of.....2016  
hereby consent to:

Being interviewed on the topic: **An evaluation of the impact of social security system on poverty alleviation in Makhado Municipality.** Follow-up interview if necessary

1. The use of data derived from these interviews by the interviewer in a research report as she deems appropriate
2. I also understand that;
  - I am free to end or to recall my consent to participate in this research at any time.
  - Information given up to this point of participation could however still be used by the researcher.
  - Anonymity is granted by the researcher, and the data will under no circumstances be reported in a manner that will reveal my identity.
  - I may refrain from answering questions should I see an invasion of my privacy.
  - I will be given an original copy of the agreement.

Interviewee

Interviewer

Date

.....

.....

.....

## **APPENDIXE D: REQUET FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH**

Faculty of Management Sciences  
Department of Social Development and Social Security  
Date

Dear Participant

### **REQUET FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH**

My name is Thenga Takalani Enos and I am a student studying towards a Master's degree (Management Sciences) at Durban University of Technology. The research I wish to conduct for my master's involves the participation of informal business owners. The research is titled: An evaluation of the impact of social security system on poverty alleviation in Makhado Municipality, for this research. Attached is a copy of the participation information letter.

A hard copy of the full research will be provided upon completion of the research.

Thank you for your time.

Yours sincerelv.

Student: Thenga Takalani Enos  
Cell: 082 752 2541 / 015 962 7805  
Email: thengae@eskom.co.za  
Durban University of Technology  
Supervisor: PROF: W T CHINYAMURINDI  
Cell: 0818581494  
Email: WChinyamurindi@ufh.ac.za



## **APPENDIX E: LETTER OF INFORMATION**

### **Title of the Research Study:**

An evaluation of the impact of social security system on poverty alleviation in Makhado Municipality.

**Researcher:** Takalani Enos Thenga – B.Tech Management

**Supervisor/s:** Dr. W T Chinyamurindi

### **Brief Introduction and Purpose of the Study:**

The study is all about evaluation of the impact of social security on poverty alleviation in Makhado Municipality. The purpose of the study is to analyse the impact of the system whether it has had positive and negative effects on poverty in our country. The approaches which will be employed are both Qualitative and quantitative. It also clarifies its main research problem, aims of the research it explains the purpose and objectives of the research.

### **Outline of the Procedures:**

All participants are to complete or to fill in questionnaires which will be not that long to answer and it will be approximately 5 – 15 minutes, after completing the questions will be returned to the researcher for data analysis and interpretation.

### **Risks or Discomforts to the Participant:**

The participants are guaranteed that there are no foreseeable risks or discomforts meaning that they are not exposed to any harm, be it physical or emotional.

### **Benefits:**

**Participants:** The benefits will be involvement on the research process which lead to provide possible solutions to the problem. It also encourages the community on how to use social system properly.

To the researcher: To add literature to the body of knowledge and the completion of the study.

**Reason/s why the Participant May Be Withdrawn from the Study:**

Participants are voluntarily and they can choose to withdraw from the study as they wish and at any time, withdrawals by the participants do not have any consequences.

**Remuneration:** No remuneration which will be received to the participants on the study.

**Costs of the Study:** Participants are not expected to cover any costs towards involvement to the study.

**Confidentiality:**

It is very important because it helps to protect personal information, meaning keeping participant's information between myself and the participants, by surely stored and disposed. To besure they will be required to sign a confidential agreement which guaranteed to them that no information will be given out without their consent.

**Research-related Injury:**

The study design is a field study. And the study will not have any injuries and no remuneration.

**Persons to Contact in the Event of Any Problems or Queries:**

**Researcher:** Takalani Enos Thenga      **Supervisor:** Dr Chinyamurindi **DVC:** Prof F. Otieno

**Cell:**                      082 752 2541                                      081 858 1494                                      031 373 2382

Email: thengae@eskom.co.za                                      Email: [WChinyamurindi@ufh.ac.za](mailto:WChinyamurindi@ufh.ac.za)      Email: dvctip@dut.ac.za