

**EVALUATION OF THE IMPACT OF THE INTEGRATED FOOD AND
NUTRITION PROGRAMME IN KUNGWINI**

by

Vasanti Pillay

**A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
degree**

DOCTOR PHILOSOPHIAE (Social Work)

in the

Department of Social Work and Criminology

at the

UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

SUPERVISOR: DR C.E. PRINSLOO

OCTOBER 2010

DECLARATION

I declare that the dissertation, which I hereby submit for the degree DPhil (Social Work) at the University of Pretoria, is my own work and has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at another university.

Where secondary material is used, this has been carefully acknowledged and referenced in accordance with university requirements.

I am aware of university policy and implications regarding plagiarism.

SIGNATURE:

DATE:

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

“Sing to the Lord a new song, for He has done marvellous things”

“He has compassion on the poor and needy”

(Ps 98:1; 72:13)

I gratefully acknowledge the following people for their support during this research process:

- My husband, Sathivan Pillay. Without your invaluable support and encouragement this work would not have been possible.
- My daughters, Vanida, Nadine Nalini, Sandia, Roshila and Verashni, as well as my sons-in-law, Steve and Ivan, who have been my greatest supporters.
- My grandchildren, Kylarsen and Shalia (and my future grandchildren): Strive always for the best, without losing your unique qualities.
- The Department of Social Development, for enabling me to undertake the research.
- Mr. Engenas Senona, Department of Social Development, for the graphical representation of the quantitative data.
- Mr. Mike van der Linde and Ms. Judy Coetzee, Department of Statistics, University of Pretoria, for the quantitative data analysis.
- Mrs. Adelaide Pecko, for her assistance during the field research in Kungwini.
- Mrs. Delene Slabbert, for editing the manuscript.
- Finally, but most importantly, my promoter, Dr Reineth Prinsloo, for her skilled guidance, valued assistance and loyal support during this arduous journey. I am deeply grateful.

EVALUATION OF THE IMPACT OF THE INTEGRATED FOOD AND NUTRITION PROGRAMME IN KUNGWINI

ABSTRACT

Student: V Pillay
Supervisor: Dr CE Prinsloo
Department of Social Work and Criminology
University of Pretoria

The poor in South Africa encounter many obstacles that impact negatively on their wellbeing. These include high rates of unemployment and a lack of financial and material resources. The poor living in informal settlements dwell in conditions that have an adverse impact on family health, due to malnutrition and food insecurity. Post 1994, many poverty alleviation programmes, including the Integrated Food and Nutrition Programme (IFNP) sought to improve the lives of the poor.

The objective of the IFNP was to address poverty in Kungwini by increasing household food and income to enable poor households to attain a better standard of living. The purpose of this research is to evaluate whether the IFNP had achieved its objective to reduce poverty in Kungwini and whether programme implementation was effective.

Social development, a process of planned social change to promote the well-being of the population, including economic development, formed the theoretical base for the research study. Social development aims to link the promotion of human welfare and economic development, and to make development socially relevant. Policies and programmes such as the IFNP aim to enhance people's welfare and contribute to economic development.

The literature study included the impact of global and national poverty on poor households in terms of poverty levels and unemployment. Gender discrimination and the social marginalization of vulnerable groups which include children, the youth, the aged and the disabled poor, social justice for the poor and the gap between the formal and informal sectors informed the research process. The crucial need for collaborative partnerships to address poverty issues is stressed, including the involvement of the

poor in policy processes that impact on their wellbeing and the importance of reviewing policy implementation processes through regular programme evaluation.

Poverty challenges include skills development for employment; food security; and policy reforms to ensure effective service delivery. Appropriate skills development should be identified in consultation with the poor. It is imperative that policy makers are equipped with adequate policy development skills to develop stakeholder participation. Efficient communication between relevant departments and community organisations will maintain the collaborative partnership. Public policy implementation and project management remain inter-dependent processes. Public poverty policies are based on the specific Department's focus. Consequently, fragmented services are rendered by various public sectors, targeting the similar beneficiaries.

The IFNP is evaluated against essential policy requirements to create an enabling service delivery environment and programme coordination. This includes good governance, transparency, public participation, and sustainable policy implementation. Achieving a balance between effective service delivery; adequate resources, and efficient monitoring and evaluation processes highlight the principles of successful poverty policies.

Evaluation research with a combined qualitative and quantitative research approach was utilized to gather data to evaluate the impact of the IFNP to reduce poverty in Kungwini. The collective case study design was used for the qualitative research and data was collected through focus group interviews. A questionnaire was the data collection method for the quantitative research. The research results indicated that the IFNP's objective to address poverty in Kungwini required interactive participation from relevant departments and community organisations. The collaborative partnership is essential to address poverty effectively.

Research findings include the need to equip the poor with relevant skills for the job market, or to develop their own businesses. Youth mentoring is essential to enable the youth to pursue future goals. Small scale farmers should be trained with improved farming methods. Access to financial institutions and trading markets would improve the economic circumstances of the informal sector.

Collaborative partnerships with a range of stakeholders, including the poor, would ensure effective service delivery through shared responsibilities. Service delivery should be based on achievable goals and effective communication strategies. Public policy developers require adequate policy development knowledge and policy implementation skills to ensure cost-effective policy processes.

The research recommendations indicate that the Integrated Model is more cost effective than the Organizational Model to reduce poverty as it includes stakeholder involvement in policy development and policy advocacy. Maintaining communication between relevant departments and community organizations remain key policy requirements. Ensuring personnel training in practical project management skills is an essential policy necessity.

Appropriate skills development should be identified in consultation with the poor. Efficient communication between relevant departments and community organizations will maintain the collaborative partnership. Policy implementation processes should be regularly reviewed to address policy constraints. Personnel training include policy and practical project management skills to ensure transparency and cost-effective service delivery. Addressing policy constraints through alternative policy options will ensure programmes are on track to achieve policy goals and objectives.

KEY WORDS

Poverty alleviation

Unemployment

Socio-economic challenges

Food and nutrition

Social justice

Service delivery environments

Policy intervention

Public transparency

Programme implementation

Collaborative partnerships

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	I
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ERROR! BOOKMARK NOT DEFINED.
KEY WORDS	VI
LIST OF GRAPHS	XVI
LIST OF TABLES	XVIII
CHAPTER 1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.2 PROBLEM FORMULATION	6
1.2.1 Kungwini population profile	9
1.2.2 Household dependency status	10
1.2.3 Employment status	10
1.3. PURPOSE, GOAL AND OBJECTIVES	12
1.3.1 Purpose	12
1.3.2 Goal and objectives	12
1.4 RESEARCH QUESTION	13
1.5 RESEARCH APPROACH	13
1.6 TYPE OF RESEARCH	15
1.6.1 Applied research	15
1.6.2 Sub-type research	16
1.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	16
1.7.1 Informed consent	16
1.7.2 Confidentiality	17
1.7.3 Deception	17
1.7.4 Violation of privacy	17
1.7.5 Harm to respondents	18
1.7.6 Actions and competence of the researcher	18
1.7.7 Co-operation with contributors	19
1.7.8 Release or publication of the findings	19
1.8 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS	20
1.8.1 Evaluation	20

1.8.2	Impact.....	21
1.8.3	The Integrated Food and Nutrition Programme	21
1.8.4	Programme.....	21
1.8.5	Poverty	22
1.8.6	Poverty alleviation	22
1.9	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY.....	22
1.10	PRESENTATION OF THE RESEARCH REPORT	23
1.11	CHAPTER SUMMARY	24
CHAPTER 2: GLOBAL AND NATIONAL POVERTY.....		26
2.1	INTRODUCTION	26
2.2	THE IMPACT OF GLOBAL POVERTY ON THE POOR	27
2.2.1	Millennium development goals and poverty reduction	27
2.2.2	Challenges to addressing poverty	29
2.2.3	Global politics and poverty	31
2.2.4	Creating a conducive environment to address poverty.....	32
2.2.5	Concluding remarks.....	32
2.3	THE IMPACT OF POVERTY IN AFRICA	33
2.3.1	Consequences of poverty in Africa.....	33
2.3.2	Consequences on children	34
2.3.3	Socio-economic consequences.....	34
2.3.4	Concluding remarks.....	35
2.4	THE IMPACT OF POVERTY IN SOUTH AFRICA.....	36
2.4.1	Poverty challenges	36
2.4.2	Socio-economic challenges.....	37
2.4.3	Socio-economic challenges and the South African Constitution.....	38
2.4.4	Socio-economic challenges versus the Growth, Employment and Redistribution Programme (GEAR)	38
2.4.5	Socio-economic challenges for the working poor	39
2.4.6	Addressing socio-economic challenges.....	40
2.4.7	Concluding remarks.....	41
2.5	THE IMPACT OF POVERTY ON WOMEN	41
2.5.1	Socio-economic constraints.....	41
2.5.2	Socio-economic challenges and social justice.....	42

2.5.3	Socio-economic constraints and gender discrimination.....	42
2.5.4	Concluding remarks.....	43
2.6	THE IMPACT OF POVERTY ON CHILDREN	44
2.6.1	Status of poor children.....	44
2.6.2	Health status of children from poor families.....	44
2.6.3	Family dysfunction.....	46
2.6.4	Concluding remarks.....	47
2.7	THE IMPACT OF POVERTY ON THE YOUTH.....	47
2.7.1	Socio-economic constraints.....	47
2.7.2	Environmental influences	48
2.7.3	Concluding remarks.....	50
2.8	THE IMPACT OF POVERTY ON THE AGED	50
2.8.1	Dealing with insecurity	50
2.8.2	Socio-economic constraints.....	51
2.8.3	Future prospects for the elderly.....	51
2.8.4	Concluding remarks.....	52
2.9	THE IMPACT OF POVERTY ON THE DISABLED.....	53
2.9.1	Socio-economic status of the elderly	53
2.9.2	Intervention strategies	54
2.9.3	Concluding remarks.....	54
2.10	CLIMATE CHANGE AND THE IMPACT ON POVERTY	55
2.10.1	Effects of climate change	55
2.10.2	Consequences of climate change	55
2.10.3	Consequences of climate change in South Africa	56
2.10.4	Concluding remarks.....	57
2.11	THE IMPACT OF HIV/AIDS ON POVERTY	58
2.11.1	The consequences of HIV/AIDS.....	58
2.11.2	Consequences of HIV/AIDS on children.....	58
2.11.3	Socio-economic consequences.....	59
2.11.4	HIV/AIDS and social exclusion	60
2.11.5	HIV/AIDS and social rights	61
2.11.6	Concluding remarks.....	62
2.12	THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACT OF POVERTY	62
2.12.1	The economy and wealth distribution	62

2.12.2	The economy and human development	64
2.12.3	Recognising degrees of poverty	64
2.12.4	Breaching the economic gap	65
2.12.5	Economic development constraints	66
2.12.6	Health status of the poor	67
2.12.7	The gap between the informal and formal economies	68
2.12.8	The economy and unemployment	69
2.12.9	The economy and health insurance.....	69
2.12.10	Concluding remarks.....	70
2.13	THE IMPACT OF THE MDG ON POVERTY	71
2.13.1	Reducing global poverty	71
2.13.2	International trade relations	72
2.13.3	International trade challenges	73
2.13.4	Agricultural trade challenges in Sub-Saharan Africa	73
2.13.5	International socio-economic assistance	74
2.13.6	Measuring the MDG achievements	75
2.13.7	Concluding remarks.....	76
2.14	POVERTY PROJECTIONS AND SOCIAL JUSTICE	76
2.14.1	Reducing global poverty	76
2.14.2	Addressing social justice in poverty policies.....	77
2.14.3	Social justice and poverty reduction	78
2.14.4	Social justice and third world development.....	79
2.14.5	Social justice and community development.....	80
2.14.6	Social justice and public service delivery constraints	81
2.14.7	Policy intervention	82
2.14.8	Policy limitations	83
2.14.9	Policy success and policy failures	84
2.14.10	Policy considerations for the future.....	86
2.14.11	Concluding remarks.....	86
2.15	ADDRESSING POVERTY EFFECTIVELY IN SOUTH AFRICA	87
2.15.1	Public transparency	87
2.15.2	Effective public service delivery.....	88
2.15.3	Ensuring socio-economic development.....	89
2.16	CONCLUDING REMARKS.....	90

2.17	CHAPTER SUMMARY	91
CHAPTER 3: PUBLIC POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND POLICY ANALYSIS		94
3.1	INTRODUCTION	94
3.2	HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES ON PUBLIC POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND POLICY ANALYSIS PROCESSES	95
3.2.1	Historical perspective following the Second World War.....	95
3.2.2	Process and skills that informed public policy	96
3.2.3	Addressing gender issues in public policy processes.....	96
3.2.4	Effective public service delivery.....	97
3.2.5	Policy development and service delivery in Africa and South Africa.....	98
3.2.6	Concluding remarks.....	99
3.3	HISTORICAL BACKGROUND TO PUBLIC POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND POLICY ANALYSIS IN SOUTH AFRICA	100
3.3.1	The South African Constitution and the Bill of Rights	100
3.3.2	Policy development and implementation	102
3.3.3	Policy implementation and resource constraints	102
3.3.4	Concluding remarks.....	104
3.4	THE NEED FOR EFFECTIVE PUBLIC POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND POLICY ANALYSIS.....	105
3.4.1	A collaborative process	105
3.4.2	Addressing health issues.....	107
3.4.3	Addressing gender equity	108
3.4.4	Concluding remarks.....	109
3.5	THE ROLE OF POLICY ANALYSIS AND POLICY ADVOCACY	110
3.5.1	Policy analysis and policy advocacy processes: Lessons from relevant research initiatives.....	110
3.5.2	Policy development constraints: Lessons from relevant research initiatives 112	
3.5.3	Community involvement in public policy development: Lessons from research initiatives.....	114
3.5.4	Concluding remarks.....	115
3.6	A REVIEW OF SELECTED NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL SERVICE DELIVERY MODELS.....	116

3.6.1	Policy constraints in Africa and South Africa	116
3.6.2	Policy success in Costa Rica and Cuba	118
3.6.3	Policy success and constraints in Europe and New Zealand	118
3.6.4	Concluding remarks.....	120
3.7	POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND POLICY ANALYSIS CHALLENGES FOR GOVERNMENT	120
3.7.1	Pressure group and implementation challenges.....	121
3.7.2	Globalisation challenges.....	122
3.7.3	Informal sector challenges.....	124
3.7.4	Formal sector challenge	125
3.7.5	Trade reform and grassroots challenges	126
3.7.6	Health insurance and unemployment compensation challenges.....	128
3.7.7	Concluding remarks.....	130
3.8	AGRICULTURE POVERTY POLICIES	130
3.8.1	The role of the agriculture sector to address poverty in South Africa ...	130
3.8.2	International and national adverse agricultural models.....	132
3.8.3	Concluding remarks.....	133
3.9	ADDRESSING THE CHALLENGES OF PUBLIC POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND POLICY ANALYSIS	134
3.9.1	Policy development lessons from Africa and South Africa.....	134
3.9.2	Concluding remarks.....	135
3.10	THE IMPERATIVE FOR COLLABORATIVE PARTNERSHIPS TO ADDRESS POVERTY POLICY ISSUES.....	136
3.10.1	Effective political institutions and environments	136
3.10.2	Developing public services to address poverty in South Africa	138
3.10.3	Effective collaborative partnerships	139
3.10.4	Technology collaboration.....	140
3.10.5	Concluding remarks.....	141
3.11	CHAPTER SUMMARY	142
	CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	144
4.1.	INTRODUCTION	144
4.2	RESEARCH DESIGN.....	145
4.2.1	Quantitative design.....	145

4.2.2	Qualitative design: collective case study	146
4.3	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	147
4.3.1	Literature study.....	147
4.3.2	Pilot study	148
4.4	RESEARCH POPULATION, SAMPLE AND SAMPLING METHOD.....	152
4.4.1	Description of the research population	152
4.4.2	Research sample.....	152
4.4.3	Sampling method.....	153
4.5	EMPIRICAL RESEARCH	155
4.5.1	Data-collecting methods	155
4.5.2	Qualitative data collecting.....	155
4.5.3	Quantitative data collecting	159
4.5.4	Document analysis	159
4.6	DATA ANALYSIS	160
4.6.1	Quantitative data analysis	160
4.6.2	Qualitative data analysis.....	160
4.7	CHAPTER SUMMARY	161
CHAPTER 5: QUALITATIVE RESEARCH		163
5.1	INTRODUCTION	163
5.1.1	Research setting.....	163
5.1.2	Beneficiary profile	164
5.1.3	Informal settlement	165
5.2	PHASES OF QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTING	165
5.3	QUALITATIVE DATA.....	165
5.3.1	Focus group interviews.....	165
5.3.2	Extended household interviews.....	166
5.3.3	Data-collecting method.....	166
5.4	QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS	167
5.5	RESPONSES TO QUESTIONS	168
5.5.1	Question 1: “How were you assisted to improve your household food needs?”	168
5.5.2	Question 2: “How were you assisted to establish food gardens?”	173
5.5.3	Question 3: “How were you assisted with skills development?”	177

5.5.4	Question 4: “How were you assisted to access child or pension grants?”	182
5.5.5	Question 5: “How were you assisted to form community organisations?”	186
5.6	SUMMARY	190
CHAPTER 6: QUANTITATIVE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH FINDINGS.....		193
6.1	INTRODUCTION	193
6.2	RESEARCH SETTING	194
6.3	PHASES OF QUANTITATIVE DATA COLLECTING.....	194
6.4	MEASURING INSTRUMENT - QUANTITATIVE DATA COLLECTING	195
6.5	QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS	196
6.6	FINDINGS OF THE QUANTITATIVE DATA.....	196
6.6.1	Biographical data.....	196
6.6.2	Achieving the IFNP objectives	199
6.7	ACHIEVING THE SUB-OBJECTIVES OF THE IFNP	203
6.8	IMPROVING HOUSEHOLD NUTRITION AND HEALTH	208
6.9	ESTABLISHING SAFETY NETS AND FOOD EMERGENCY	210
6.10	SUPPORT FOR COMMUNITY INCOME AND JOB OPPORTUNITIES	215
6.11	DEVELOPING EFFECTIVE AND EFFICIENT FOOD MARKETS	218
6.12	IMPROVED INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION.....	219
6.13	INTEGRATED STAKEHOLDER INVOLVEMENT	220
6.14	PROVINCIAL STEERING COMMITTEE ROLES.....	223
6.15	LOCAL STEERING COMMITTEE ROLES.....	224
6.16	CONCLUDING REMARKS.....	226
6.17	CHAPTER SUMMARY	228
CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....		231
7.1	INTRODUCTION	231
7.2	CHAPTER 1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION	232
7.2.1	Summary	232
7.2.2	Research goal and objectives	234
7.2.3	Research question.....	235
7.2.4	Chapter 1: The research process	236
7.2.5	Recommendations Chapter 1: the research process.....	236

7.3	CHAPTER 2: GLOBAL AND NATIONAL POVERTY.....	237
7.3.1	Summary	237
7.3.2	Conclusions Chapter 2: Global and national poverty.....	238
7.3.3	Recommendations Chapter 2: Global and national poverty	239
7.4	CHAPTER 3: PUBLIC POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND POLICY ANALYSIS.....	241
7.4.1	Summary	241
7.4.2	Conclusions Chapter 3: The research process.....	244
7.4.3	Recommendations Chapter 3: The research process	244
7.5	CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	245
7.5.1	Summary	245
7.5.2	Conclusions Chapter 4: The research process.....	246
7.5.3	Recommendations Chapter 4: The research process	247
7.6	CHAPTER 5: QUALITATIVE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH.....	247
7.6.1	Summary	247
7.6.2	Conclusions Chapter 5: The research process.....	248
7.6.3	Recommendations Chapter 5: The research process	249
7.7	CHAPTER 6: QUANTITATIVE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH	249
7.7.1	Summary	249
7.7.2	Quantitative data analysis	250
7.7.3	Conclusions Chapter 6: Empirical research.....	259
7.7.4	Recommendations Chapter 6: Empirical research	260
7.8	CONCLUDING REMARKS.....	261
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	262
	ANNEXURE A: INFORMED CONSENT MANAGERS	289
	ANNEXURE B: INFORMED CONSENT MINORS.....	291
	ANNEXURE C: QUESTIONNAIRE.....	295
	ANNEXURE D: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE.....	296

LIST OF GRAPHS

Graph 1:	Gender distribution of respondents.....	196
Graph 2:	Age distribution of respondents	197
Graph 3:	Qualifications of respondents.....	197
Graph 4:	Province employed	198
Graph 5:	District employed	198
Graph 6:	Involvement in the IFNP	199
Graph 7:	Increase household food production.....	199
Graph 8:	Improve safety nets and food emergency systems.....	200
Graph 9:	Increase community income and job opportunities	201
Graph 10:	Improve the effectiveness and efficiency of food markets	202
Graph 11:	Improve information and communication management systems	202
Graph 12:	Establishing functioning household food gardens.....	203
Graph 13:	Establishing food garden trading	204
Graph 14:	Establishing school feeding programmes	205
Graph 15:	School gardens established and functioning	206
Graph 16:	Empowering beneficiaries to understand their nutritional needs	206
Graph 17:	Formulating a basic food basket for different household compositions.....	207
Graph 18:	Education and awareness campaigns undertaken	208
Graph 19:	Supplementary nutrition programmes established.....	209
Graph 20:	Food safety information systems created	209
Graph 21:	Pension support established.....	210
Graph 22:	Disability support established	211
Graph 23:	Monetary savings from household food garden trade established	212
Graph 24:	Community food gardens established.....	213

Graph 25:	Food emergency support established	214
Graph 26:	Land for community farming identified	215
Graph 27:	Grain reserves established	216
Graph 28:	Community food markets increased	216
Graph 29:	Promotion and support for non-farming income generating activities	218
Graph 30:	Comprehensive support for agriculture development	218
Graph 31:	Food security and information mapping established	219
Graph 32:	Integrated planning and implementation	220
Graph 33:	Community based partnerships established	221
Graph 34:	Clear stakeholder roles established	221
Graph 35:	Short-, medium-, long-term interventions established	222
Graph 36:	Maintaining representation on the National Steering Committee	223
Graph 37:	Utilising the policy framework for strategic guidance	224
Graph 38:	Beneficiaries assisted to form community organisations and co- operatives	224
Graph 39:	Community organisations assisted with technical, financial and administrative matters	225

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Unemployment by gender (2008-2009)	3
Table 2: Unemployment rate by population group (2008-2009)	4
Table 3: Phases of the quantitative and qualitative methods:	10
Table 4: Phases of the quantitative and qualitative methods	154

CHAPTER 1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Poor communities in South Africa are subject to a plethora of adversities which include ill health and community violence (May, 1997:133). The high rate of unemployment amongst the poor contributes to their plight. In addition, a lack of clean water and sanitation, affordable energy sources, transport as well as poor communication structures are added problems for the poor. The disparity between the rich and the poor in South Africa is one of the highest in the world (Barberton, Blake & Kotze, 1998:25). The Gini coefficient, which indicates a country's levels of income from various occupations, shows a skewed distribution in South Africa, compared to similar countries such as Poland and Thailand, which have an equitable income distribution.

Setai (1998:25, 35, 110) expands on the problems encountered by the indigenous people in South Africa since the arrival of the Dutch settlers in the fifteenth century, the various Anglo-Boer Wars, the discovery of gold in South Africa and the protection laws which prevented Africans access to appropriate skills for the job market. Further literature on this aspect (May, 1997:133; Barberton *et al.*, 1998:18; Setai, 1998:7) state unequivocally that the apartheid situation in South Africa during the past four centuries contributed in a large measure to poverty. Presently, the poor in South Africa are not faring better. Fitzgerald, McLennan and Munslow (1999:41) argue that the government's initial concern to implement development programmes for the poor during 1994 was abandoned. In addition, the pursuit of Gear (Growth, Employment and Redistribution – An Economic Strategy for South Africa) by government during 1996 to develop a competitive economy to benefit the poor did not materialise.

Whilst the government wrestles with poverty issues in South Africa, social researchers have their own difficulties in measuring poverty as a social phenomenon. They rely on traditional income instruments, which fail to explain the complex socio, cultural and political aspects that have a negative influence upon poverty. Seipel (2003:191) maintains that owing to a lack of standardised data-collection methodologies accurate figures for global poverty are not available.

In light of the above aspects, this research focuses on how poverty alleviation is addressed in South Africa. More specifically, it focuses on an evaluation of the Integrated Food and Nutrition Programme (IFNP) in Kungwini, which is situated in the Metsweding Municipal District on the border between Mpumalanga and Gauteng. The IFNP was a joint effort between the National and the Gauteng Provincial Departments of Social Development. The IFNP was established as a result of the second United Nations World Conference on Sustainable Development held in South Africa during 2002. One of the goals of the conference was the reduction of world hunger, malnutrition and food insecurity by 50% by 2015 (United Nations Progress Report: Millennium Development Goals 2004/2005). Towards this end, the IFNP aimed to increase household food production and income generating initiatives to assist poor communities. This research was guided by theory and a research question about the presumed relationship between the IFNP and poverty alleviation in Kungwini.

The researcher was motivated to choose poverty alleviation as her research topic as she is of the opinion that effective service delivery to the poor needs to be addressed urgently by government and non-governmental agencies. Employed by the National Department of Social Development, the researcher had to contend daily with the adverse situation of the poor. The current socio-political climate prevailing in South Africa and its adverse impact upon the poor was an added impetus for the researcher to choose poverty alleviation as her topic.

During 1994 the poor were provided a glimmer of hope, as the new government was committed to addressing poverty alleviation through the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP). The RDP held much hope, as many homes were built for the poor. However, the backlog in housing could not be addressed by the RDP. In addition, there were inadequate resources to address the needs of the poor. The government then focused on the economic growth of South Africa through GEAR (Growth, Employment and Redistribution) during 1996. The rationale was that through an improved economy, the benefits would filter down to the poor. The good intentions of the government were not realised, as there were other pressing problems in South Africa apart from poverty alleviation. These included HIV/AIDS and spiralling crime.

The situation facing the poor in South Africa remains grim, despite government's poverty alleviation efforts, which include extending the qualifying ages of the child

support grant programme and creating employment through the Extended Public Works Programme. The poor however, remain poor (Barberton *et al.*, 1998:15-35; Bhorat, Leibbrandt, Maziya, Van der Berg & Woolard, 2001:36-55). Relative to poverty, unemployment in South Africa remains an acute problem.

A comparison of the unemployment statistics for the period 2008 to 2009 provides a synopsis of the unemployment situation in South Africa. The annual report of Statistics South Africa, 2008-2009 (11-16) provides the following gender unemployment rates:

Table 1: Unemployment by gender (2008-2009)

Unemployed	Oct-Dec 08	July-Sept 09	Oct-Dec 09	Qrt-to-Qrt change	Year-on-year change	Qrt-to-Qrt change	Year-on-year change
	Thousand					Percent	
Total	3 873	4 192	4 165	-27	292	-0,6	7,5
Women	2 070	2 080	2 033	-47	-37	-2,3	-1,8
Men	1 804	2 113	2 131	18	327	0,9	18,1

(Statistics South Africa, 2009:11-16)

Table 1 above indicates that during the third quarter in 2009, the number of unemployed women decreased by 47 000, while the number of unemployed men increased by 18 000, resulting in an overall decrease of 27 000 unemployed persons. The year-on-year comparisons indicate that the number of unemployed persons increased by 292 000, with the annual increase of 18,1% (327 000) among men and a decrease of 1,8% (37 000) among women.

Table 2: Unemployment rate by population group (2008-2009)

	Black/African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	South Africa
Q4: 2008	25,9	17,9	11,7	3,0	21,9
Q3: 2009	28,8	21,6	12,7	4,8	24,5
Q4: 2009	28,6	20,8	11,1	4,9	24,3

(Statistics South Africa, 2009:11-16)

Table 2 indicates that between the third quarter of 2009, the unemployment rate remained unchanged for the Black/African population and White population, while it decreased among the Indian/Asian and coloured population by 1,6% and 0,8% respectively.

The above figures suggest that unemployment and poverty are linked and cut across all racial and gender groups in South Africa. The black population group is most affected by unemployment and the poverty rate is therefore higher amongst this population group.

The researcher is of the opinion that public service delivery to the poor should be strengthened to address their plight. The current socio-political climate prevailing in South Africa does not benefit the poor, as they remain a marginalised group in society. In addition to poverty, the scourge of HIV/AIDS impacts negatively upon the poor, who have to contend with a disease that devastates families and communities.

The social development paradigm formed the theoretical base for the research study. Social development empowers welfare clients to improve their adverse circumstances despite the structural adversities that have a negative impact on their lives. This is accomplished through planned social change that promotes their welfare in conjunction with economic development. In terms of modernizing welfare services, social development enables clients to take decisions that affect their wellbeing in an enabling environment. The strengths of the social development paradigm is based on intervention strategies that address the macro, meso, and micro levels which include local communities in public strategies to address social issues.

Social development as a principle was widely recognized following the United Nations Copenhagen Declaration-World Summit for Social Development in 1995. The premise of social development was that communities should live in peace and their basic rights respected. Social development would ideally be individually based, where a number of persons would be enabled through capacity building and development, to reach out to their communities and, together, strive to achieve social and economic development.

Social development is linked to social work, both in theory and practice. However, where social work has a narrow function in terms of being reactive and clinical in its approach to assisting individuals and groups to cope with their problems, it can become a dynamic force for social change when it takes on a proactive function through social development to maximize their potential to change their

circumstances. As the developmental welfare paradigm redefines welfare as social development, national policies and initiatives should therefore be broadly aligned accordingly (Homefeldt & Reutlinger, 2011:1-3; Gray, 2005:53-5).

Strydom and Delport (2002a:337) claim that the contributions of experts will add valuable information in qualitative research. The knowledge and experience of experts in the field of poverty alleviation assisted the researcher to gain a broader perspective and to review and refine the research question. The Gauteng Department of Social Development established the IFNP in Kungwini without broader consultation with experts in the poverty alleviation field. The researcher has shared the goal and objectives of this research with the following experts.

An interview with Dr. Andrew Paterson, Chief Research Specialist, Human Resource Development Research Programme, and Human Sciences Research Council was conducted on the 14th May 2005. Dr. Patterson was of the opinion that the IFNP provides an ideal vehicle to develop the capacity of the poor in Kungwini. This depends, however, on effective policy implementation and the working relationship between the various government departments involved in the programme and the sustainability of the programme.

Prof. O Akinboade is the co-ordinator for research regarding economics and poverty alleviation at the University of South Africa (UNISA). During the 1990s, Prof. Akinboade was actively involved in the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in Gambia on poverty alleviation issues. His experiences in Gambia are being utilised in the South African context regarding economic development in poor communities. A telephonic interview was held with Prof Akinboade on the 16th May 2005. Dr. Akinboade expressed the opinion that poverty alleviation policies require an integrated approach with the active involvement of poor communities. The IFNP's policy implementation should therefore be viewed in this light to ensure its impact.

Dr. Sheryl Hendriks is the co-ordinator for the Food and Security Programme, School of Agricultural Sciences, Pietermaritzburg Campus, University of KwaZulu-Natal. A telephonic interview was held with Dr. Hendriks on the 11th June 2005, in which she proclaimed that poverty alleviation programmes require practical policy approaches in order to make an impact on poor communities. Though the IFNP appears to be a

practical approach by government to alleviate poverty in Kungwini, there is a need for a concerted effort by all stakeholders to ensure the sustainability of the programme.

During the above interviews with Dr. Patterson, Dr. Akinboade and Dr. Hendriks, they agreed unanimously that the IFNP should ensure sustainable implementation.

This research will assist the National and Provincial Departments of Social Development to review their strategies regarding poverty programmes, in order to render effective services to the poor. In addition, the research findings may assist the poor in the community of Kungwini to attain an improved quality of life, as the National and Gauteng Provincial Departments of Social Development will assess the research recommendations.

1.2 PROBLEM FORMULATION

In addition to the dire plight of the poor in South Africa, which is expanded upon in the introduction to this research report, social researchers have their own conceptual difficulties to measure poverty. They rely on traditional income instruments to measure poverty, which do not explain the complex social, cultural and political aspects that have a negative influence upon poverty. As a result, the methodological and conceptual difficulties with the measurement of poverty remain. According to Estes (1999:17), there is a need for a comprehensive measurement of poverty, which utilises instruments that combine social, political and traditional economic indicators. The following authors expand on this issue:

Bonser, McGregor, Clinton and Oster (1996:165) refer to the Orshansky poverty index, developed by an American economist, Mollie Orshansky in the 1960s. The index is currently used to measure absolute poverty based on a family's basic food budget. This measurement provides a statistical measure to assess poverty, which falls above or below the poverty line. The poverty line serves as a base to evaluate the impact of public government poverty programmes on impoverished households. The absolute poverty line indicates over a period, the effect of the economy and inflation upon poor families.

Seipel (2003:192) mentions the two concepts used globally to define poverty. These include income poverty, which has two variations, namely absolute poverty and

relative poverty and the Human Poverty Index, which was developed by the United Nations Development Programme to indicate deprivations such as malnutrition, illiteracy and access to health care and safe water.

Estes (1999:14) outlines the spatial distribution of poverty most commonly used by comparative researchers. These include case poverty (inability of families to satisfy their basic needs), collective poverty (inability of large groups of people to meet their basic needs), widespread poverty (25% of the population experience poverty), concentrated poverty (ghettos in cities), rural poverty (isolation from urban centres) and urban poverty (income poverty in large cities and towns).

The Orskansky Poverty Index and the Human Poverty Index are not applicable instruments to measure poverty in South Africa as the former is based on a family's daily food budget. Poor communities in South Africa do not receive a stipend for their daily food allowance. The latter does not address social issues such as skills development and employment opportunities.

The Spatial Distribution of Poverty could be utilised in the social science field as it indicates degrees of poverty applicable in Kungwini. The area experiences case poverty (inability of families to satisfy their basic needs), widespread poverty, which according to the Metsweding District Municipality IDP Review (2008-2009:23-26), the majority of the population is very poor. Notwithstanding the value of the Spatial Distribution of Poverty, an urgent need remains for the development of a holistic South African poverty index for the social science field that would address income, social and cultural aspects of poverty.

Regarding service delivery to poor clients, Lowe (1999:106-141) argues that an urgent need exists for social service agencies to renew their historical commitment to the poor. Dowling (1999:96, 143-145) is of the opinion that inferior social service delivery must be replaced with a dynamic relationship between service providers and poor clients. Community organisations and advocacy groups express grave concern that the plight of the poor would be placed on the back burner, as the government pursues globalisation to establish a sound economic base for South Africa (May, 1997:51-57; Barberton *et al.*, 1998:38; Bhorat *et al.*, 2001:45). In addition, there are inadequate resources to alleviate the plight of the poor. Taking cognisance of the

above factors, the researcher is of the opinion that government social service departments will be able to effectively address poverty through a unified effort between departments.

Dunn (2003:65) defines social policy as an analytical framework that gauges public service delivery regarding poverty alleviation and improves government's performance, while Jansson (1994:3) characterises social policy as a collective strategy to address barriers to effective service delivery and wastage of resources. Bonser, McGregor, Clinton and Oster (1996:407) contend that there is an urgent need to decentralise public service delivery to local level to ensure efficiency. In this respect, the sector will require radical changes to effectively address poverty alleviation and empower poor communities. An objective of this research correlates with Dunn's (2003:65) policy framework, namely to evaluate the impact of the IFNP. In light of the above facts, it is essential that relevant poverty alleviation programmes be based on a policy framework that include long-term planning which provide sustainable benefits to poor communities.

The White Paper for Social Welfare (1997:15), the policy framework for social welfare, states the following:

Social welfare is intrinsically linked to services that meet the needs and aspirations of people. These services provide a range of social development through adequate health, education, housing, employment, rural and urban development and land reform. The welfare of the population will be enhanced by economic growth through the equitable allocation of resources.

Following the development of the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997), the government hosted the second United Nations World Summit for Social Development in 2002, which mandated the governments of one hundred and eighty six (186) countries to strengthen policies to reduce poverty. The first World Summit on Social Development was held in 1992 in Rio, Brazil. There was collective agreement at both Summits that employment creation would be the focus of government policies and strategies globally (United Nations Progress Report: Millennium Development Goals 2004/2005).

King-Dejardin and Berar-Awad (2003:13-14) state that both the 1992 and 2002 World Summit for Social Development set targets for developing countries by 2015. These include the reduction of world poverty by 50% and the reversal of environmental resources. South Africa has committed itself to the above targets.

The IFNP was established by the Gauteng Department of Social Development, in collaboration with the National Department of Social Development, to address the three poverty pockets in Gauteng, namely, Kungwini, Sebokeng and Westonaria. The distribution of food packages to poor households was a precursor to the implementation of the IFNP's short-, medium- and long-term goals. This research assessed the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini for the 2006 cycle to reduce poverty.

1.2.1 Kungwini population profile

The Metsweding District Municipality IDP Review (2008-2009:23-26) provides the following information pertaining to the Metsweding District Municipality:

Kungwini is situated in the Metsweding District Municipality, which borders Gauteng in the North East, the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to the West and Mpumalanga Province to the East. Metsweding consists of two local municipalities, namely Nokeng Tsa Taemane Local Municipality and Kungwini Local Municipality (in Bronkhorstspuit) and has a population of 40 151. According to the Department of Statistics (2005:48), the poverty index is 31,3% and the poverty population is 37,3%.

The population within the Metsweding District Municipality was estimated at 196 341 by 2008, compared to 162 266 in 2001. The increase is based on the annual district growth rate of 3%. The population estimates for 2008 include 58 007 (Nokeng Tsa Taemane Local Municipality – compared to 53 202 in 2001, with a growth rate of 1%); 139 600 (Kungwini Local Municipality – compared to 109 063 in 2001, with a growth rate of 4%). There are 85 091 males and 77 179 females in the entire district. Households within the district total 51 004 (Kungwini – 34 170, Nokeng Tsa Taemane – 16 834). Household size in Metsweding is largely between 1-5 persons per household.

1.2.2 Household dependency status

Nokeng has a much larger portion of working age persons (69.2%) than Kungwini (64.7%). Kungwini has a more youthful population (30.1%) than Nokeng Tsa Taemane (26.1%) and Metsweding (28.8%). Kungwini also has the largest component of elderly people above 65, compared to Nokeng Tsa Taemane and Metsweding, which means that Kungwini has a higher age-dependency ratio (0.6%) than Nokeng Tsa Taemane (0.4%) and Metsweding (0.5%), which indicates an average lower quality of life for the residents of Kungwini.

The above figures for Kungwini indicate that on average, every working-aged individual has 0.6 other people (the youth and the elderly) to support, compared to 0.4 dependents in Nokeng Tsa Taemane.

Kungwini has the largest concentration of adults (20.4%) who did not have any form of formal education, while 31.6% had at least a Grade 12 qualification. Nokeng Tsa Taemane had a higher literacy rate (87.5%) than Kungwini (79.6%). The levels of skills that determine levels of employment in Metsweding indicate that 12.2% have some form of craft and trade-related skills (Metsweding District Municipality IDP Review, 2008-2009: 23-26).

1.2.3 Employment status

The largest category of the employed in Metsweding (35.0%); Kungwini (36.1%) and Nokeng Tsa Taemane (33.3%) are employed in elementary occupations that can be regarded as low to semi-skilled. The following table provides the income per month amongst the employed:

Table 3: Income amongst the employed

Income	Gauteng	Metsweding	Kungwini	Nokeng Tsa Taemane
R1-R400	6.5%	13.8%	15.1%	11.9%
R400-R800	13.3%	26.6%	28.5%	23.8%
R801-R1 600	24.5%	22.6%	23.5%	21.1%
R1 601-R3 200	20.8%	13.6%	11.1%	17.4%
R3 201-R6 400	16.1%	10.5%	8.5%	13.6%
R102 401-R204 801	0.3%	.3%	.4%	.2%

(Metsweding District Municipality IDP Review, 2008-2009:30-31).

The figures in the last two rows above relate to technicians, associated professionals, managers and senior officials.

From the above figures, it is evident that the largest share of the employed population in Metsweding earns less than R3 200 per month. This is the same for Nokeng Tsa Taemane and Kungwini, where 74.2% and 78.2% of the economically active population earns less than R3 200 per month respectively.

It is evident that the majority of the population in Metsweding is very poor and is experiencing relatively low living standards and a poor quality of life. These low income levels indicate that the majority of the population of Metsweding is less able to afford basic services such as water, sanitation and other essential services, compared to the rest of Gauteng Province (Metsweding District Municipality IDP Review, 2008-2009: 30-31).

The IFNP was to be implemented in partnership with the Departments of Health, Education, Agriculture, the local municipality and community organisations. There is a lack of information regarding the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini. The three experts who were consulted for this research (refer 1.1 p.5) concurred with the above statement as follows:

- Paterson (2005) is of the opinion that it is imperative that the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini is evaluated. This will ensure that gaps in the programme are identified and the relevant policy reviewed.
- Hendriks (2005) holds that generally, there is a severe lack of evaluation of government's poverty alleviation programmes. There is an urgent need to evaluate the IFNP to establish the need for a policy review. This could have consequences for other government poverty alleviation programmes in the Gauteng province.
- Akimboade (2005) believes that government's efforts to alleviate poverty require a holistic approach. Effective planning and implementation of the IFNP as a poverty alleviation project requires a parallel skills training process to ensure the impact of the programme.

1.3. PURPOSE, GOAL AND OBJECTIVES

1.3.1 Purpose

Fouché (2002a:107) defines purpose and aim (which are used as synonyms) as the broader abstract conception towards which a researcher directs his or her efforts. May (1997:8) describes aim (or purpose) as the researcher's pursuit to gain understanding regarding a social phenomena, the structured endeavour to attain conclusive results of an investigation. The purpose of this research is to evaluate whether the IFNP had an impact on poverty alleviation in Kungwini.

1.3.2 Goal and objectives

Fouché (2002a:107) describes a goal as the dream that a researcher conjectures and objectives as the measurable steps taken to attain the goal, while Collins (1999:2) defines a goal as the identification of problems and objectives as the planned steps that a researcher takes to gain new knowledge regarding the issue. A goal is a researcher's efforts to bring change in a troublesome social situation and objectives are the well-planned steps taken to solve the problem.

In the researcher's opinion, a goal is the researcher's efforts to transform adverse social situations and objectives as the focused well-planned strategies to solve the problem. Fouché (2002a:108-109) maintains that the goal of applied research is aimed at solving specific policy problems or to accomplish tasks. It is focused on solving problems in practice. This research is applied research, which according to Dunn (2003:65) will improve service delivery by focusing on policy problems and policy performance.

The goal of this research is stated as follows: To evaluate the impact of the IFNP on the poor in Kungwini. The objectives of this research are the following:

- To formulate a conceptual framework through a literature study regarding poverty in South Africa, poverty relief programmes within the context of the policies of the RDP, the White Paper for Social Welfare, GEAR and ASgiSA.
- To evaluate the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini.

- To draw conclusions and provide recommendations regarding the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini to policy makers at the National and the Gauteng Provincial Departments of Social Development.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTION

This research utilised a research question to search for answers regarding the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini. Pole and Lampard (2002:12) define a research question as that which identifies and provides the context for the research process and the manner in which the topic may be explored. Holliday (2002:36-49) describes a research question as the researcher's endeavour to establish a research setting and to identify the specific direction of the investigation. The research question directs a research investigation to search for answers to questions regarding the effectiveness of a specific social intervention.

The research question for this research is stated as follows: What is the impact of the IFNP upon the poor in Kungwini?

1.5 RESEARCH APPROACH

Babbie, Mouton, Vorster and Prozesky (2001:47-49) identify three dominant methodological approaches in social research. These include the quantitative, qualitative and participatory action approaches. Babbie *et al.* (2001:49-53) assert that social scientists use the above approaches to develop methods, underlying principles and assumptions in social research. The quantitative approach measures the properties of a phenomenon. The qualitative approach is based on the social scientist's insider perspective on social action, which describes and understands rather than explains or predicts human behaviour. The emphasis in the qualitative approach is on observation, unstructured interviewing and studying personal documents.

This research utilised a combined quantitative and qualitative approach. According to De Vos (2002b:365), the combined approach provides the following advantages:

- The qualitative perspective provides a first hand, holistic understanding of a phenomena.

- The quantitative perspective provides objective observance of social reality based on specific questions.

De Vos (2002b:365) continues by stating that a combination of the quantitative and qualitative methods complement each other and provide a better understanding of human nature and social reality.

Rosnow and Rosenthal (1999:81) stipulate that qualitative data exists in non-numerical form (reports and conversations) and in quantitative form (observer ratings). The following are the reasons for using the combined approach to evaluate the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini:

- The qualitative aspect of the research is closely identified with evaluative research and will provide in-depth information to policy makers regarding the impact of the IFNP.
- The quantitative aspect of the research will focus on the effectiveness of the IFNP. This has important implications for policy implementation.
- Both methods in the combined approach will assist in identifying the constraints regarding the impact of the programme (De Vos, 2002b:369).
- De Vos (2002b:369) states further that the quantitative and qualitative methods are inextricably intertwined, although each represents a different perspective. The combination will assist the analysis, conclusions and generalisations of the research (De Vos, 2002b:269).

The combined qualitative and quantitative approach for this study was accomplished through the following:

- Formulating the research problem qualitatively to evaluate the impact of the IFNP from the participants' viewpoints.
- Describing the experiences of the poor in Kungwini for the qualitative method regarding the impact of the IFNP.
- Capturing statistical (quantitative) and descriptive (qualitative) data to gather comprehensive information regarding the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini.

- Labelling and coding the data on a computer system for the quantitative method.

The quantitative method investigated the observations of management regarding the implementation of the IFNP as a poverty alleviation programme in Kungwini and to evaluate whether the goals of the IFNP have been achieved. These include an increase in household food production, establishing income-generating and marketing initiatives, and diverting impoverished households to appropriate social security and skills training programmes.

The qualitative method describes the experiences of the poor in Kungwini regarding the impact of the IFNP to alleviate household poverty. The complementary nature of the combined approach provides an investigative evaluation of the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini. This in turn assisted the researcher to attain the objectives of this research, namely to formulate a conceptual framework, evaluate the IFNP policy and provide recommendations to policy makers.

1.6 TYPE OF RESEARCH

The following types of research were utilised for this research:

1.6.1 Applied research

Fouché (2002a:108) states that the goals of professional research are either basic or applied. Basic research provides a foundation for knowledge and understanding, i.e. to extend the theoretical knowledge base. Applied research on the other hand, is the scientific planning of induced change in a problematic situation or to assist practitioners to accomplish tasks through empowerment, awareness and political action.

Bailey and Burch (2002:1-4) specify that applied research refers to a specific approach to study human behaviour, developing empirically based interventions at individual level to gauge the reason for the specific behaviour. The data obtained through applied research is used for effective interventions to improve social conditions. Applied research does not express general statements regarding a population. The focus is on individual actions to comprehend human behaviour. For

the purposes of this research, applied research enabled the researcher to attain an objective of this research, namely to evaluate the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini.

1.6.2 Sub-type research

The sub-type research chosen for this research is evaluation research. According to De Vos (2002:373), evaluation research assesses and improves the management of social service policies and programmes. Evaluation research dovetails with the objectives of this research, namely to evaluate the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini.

1.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Strydom (2002:63) defines ethics as a set of moral principles that provide rules for behavioural expectations regarding the researcher's conduct towards experimental subjects, employers, sponsors, fellow researchers, assistants and students, while Rosnow and Rosenthal (1999:57) characterise the term ethics as the moral and character values that govern conduct. In the researcher's opinion, ethics can be defined as the attitude and responses of the researcher in the research setting that convey exemplary conduct above reproach. The researcher carefully observed the following important aspects in respect of ethical considerations:

1.7.1 Informed consent

Strydom (2002a:65) explains that respondents' informed consent includes the provision of all necessary information regarding the goal of the investigation including the advantages and disadvantages. The researcher's credibility and the respondents' voluntary participation are ensured. Rosnow and Rosenthal (1999:59) allude to respect and the respondent's right to choose whether to participate in the research. For the purposes of this research, the researcher was aware of the above aspects and ensured that the respondents and research participants were fully informed on all aspects of the research, including the aims and objectives and their freedom of choice to participate in the process. Respondents and research participants were free to withdraw from the research at any time. In this respect, the respondents and the research participants signed the informed consent form. Children from the extended households signed a separate informed consent form, accompanied by the parent's signature agreeing for the child to participate in the research.

1.7.2 Confidentiality

According to Wagenaar and Babbie (1999:284), the researcher might have confidential knowledge about respondents, which may indicate deviant behaviour, unpopular attitudes and demeaning personal characteristics. In addition, the researcher may identify a respondent, who was supposed to be anonymous, through particular responses. Strydom (2002a:63) emphasises that the researcher has an obligation to safely guard all information confided in trust. For this research, the researcher ensured that at all times, all information entrusted to her was held in confidence. All written material and taped conversations were kept in a safe place. In addition, confidentiality was inculcated in the community worker who assisted with the qualitative research. The informed consent forms ensured information confidentiality. All research data will be stored in the safe of the Department of Social Work and Criminology for a period of 15 years.

1.7.3 Deception

Strydom (2002a:66) indicates aspects of deception by the researcher, which includes deliberately misrepresenting facts, violating respondents' respect, withholding information or providing incorrect information to enlist their participation. Wagenaar and Babbie (1995:285) refer to social scientists that identify themselves as researchers but fail to inform respondents of the true nature of the research. Pole and Lampard (2002:24) suggest data collection, which may be overt or covert, which reflects either transparency or deceit.

As the goal of this research is to ensure effective service delivery to poor clients, the researcher ensured that she was honest and transparent in her dealings with the respondents. The letter attached to the consent form outlining the purpose of the research, further assured the researcher's accountability in this regard.

1.7.4 Violation of privacy

Strydom (2002a:67) views violation of privacy, the right to self-determination and confidentiality in the same light. This concerns the right of the individuals to decide whether to reveal their beliefs, behaviour or attitudes. While privacy implies personal privacy, confidentiality requires that the researcher ensure that all information is strictly off-bounds to others and that no hidden cameras, microphones, video cameras

or one-way mirrors are utilised without the respondents' prior knowledge. For this research, the researcher was sensitive to the above aspects, especially regarding the respondent's right to privacy regarding the divulging of personal information. The researcher was honest regarding the manner in which information was to be collected and ensured that information was gathered in an objective manner and not as a result of a pre-determined response.

1.7.5 Harm to respondents

Pole and Lampard (2002:23-25, 60) state that to ensure no harm comes to respondents during the course of the research process (and even after the conclusion of the research) the researcher should ensure the confidentiality of information and anonymity of the respondents. In addition, the researcher should anticipate at the outset the constraints that may impact physically or emotionally upon the respondents. Rosnow and Rosenthal (1999:979) agree and state that the researcher is obliged to undertake research that is beneficial and produces valid results, not at the expense of causing physical or psychological harm to respondents.

The researcher concurs with the above aspects and during the course of this research, was aware of and avoided at all costs, any potential risks, both physically or emotionally that could have a negative impact upon the respondents. The focus groups were hosted in a secure venue and the questions from the interview schedule focused on the impact of the IFNP and not on personal questions that caused discomfort. In addition, the researcher ensured that individuals in the focus group meetings did not feel vulnerable in a group setting, by allaying their fears and being observant to their non-verbal communication.

1.7.6 Actions and competence of the researcher

Strydom (2002a:69) declares that the whole research process should be conducted in an ethically correct manner. This includes the obligation the researcher has toward colleagues in the scientific community to provide an accurate report regarding the analysis of the data and the results of the study. Wagenaar and Babbie (1999:285) agree and state that ethical obligations to colleagues call for accurate reporting of the shortcomings and negative findings of the research.

The researcher worked with respondents across cultural boundaries. This required objectivity and restraint in making value judgements (Strydom, 2002a:70). The researcher remained focused on the research process and conducted the study in a competent professional manner. This included informing the community worker of all aspects pertaining to the research. The community worker's commitment to the research process was assured through regular meetings, personal contact and teamwork.

1.7.7 Co-operation with contributors

According to Strydom (2002a:70-71), the researcher has an ethical responsibility to disclose the actual findings of the research to sponsors, colleagues, or to fellow researchers involved in the investigation. Their contributions to the research should be acknowledged. To further ensure ethical considerations in dealing with contributors, the researcher should be aware of the following:

- Not disclosing the results of the research to suit a sponsor's expectations
- Not acknowledging the contributions of colleagues and/or fellow researchers
- Not involving all participants in planning the research.

For the purpose of this research, the researcher was careful to abide by the following:

- Ensure that a formal contract between the researcher and the community worker was signed that states clearly the extent of her contributions and role in the research.
- Acknowledge the contributions of persons who assisted in the analysis of the research data and the compilation of the research report.
- Ensure that the research report to the National and Gauteng Provincial Departments of Social Development accurately outlined the impact of the IFNP and did not gloss over pertinent shortcomings of the IFNP.

1.7.8 Release or publication of the findings

Strydom (2002a:71) believes that the findings of the study should be made available to the reading public in a written report in order to convey the importance of the study

as a scientific investigation. In addition, the onus of an accurate, clear report, without any ambiguity or misrepresentations will assist other researchers who may use the findings in other areas of study. The researcher should ensure that there is no bias, plagiarism, shortcomings or errors. Subjects should be informed objectively regarding the findings, without breaking confidentiality.

The thesis will be submitted to the Department of Social Work and Criminology at the University of Pretoria and two articles will be available for publication in scientific journals. In addition, the research report will be forwarded to the National and Provincial Departments of Social Development regarding the outcome of this research. Strydom (2002a:70-71) asserts that in the same manner, the researcher is obligated to the respondents and community leaders to provide the results of the study. This aspect will be duly undertaken in terms of distributing the research report to the relevant departments and organisations that participated in the research.

1.8 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

De Vos (2002c:29) defines a concept as a specific term utilised by science to provide meaning to abstract ideas. A scientist conceptualises problems in a scientific inquiry using concepts, which may be true or false, valid or invalid. A concept gives meaning to a statement and the experiences and perceptions of participants regarding a particular phenomenon. Graziano and Raulin (2000:175) describe a concept as the process that is followed by a researcher from the initial refining of an idea into a problem statement. The problem statement is then converted into specific procedures for measurement or manipulation, namely into operational definitions of concepts.

In the researcher's opinion, a concept can be defined as the concretising of an image or mind picture that a researcher desires to pursue in a study. The concretised images (concepts) then become the focus around which scientific enquiry flows, in order to seek solutions to social problems. The following concepts were incorporated in this research:

1.8.1 Evaluation

Rosnow and Rosenthal (1999:94) define evaluation as the purpose to determine the usefulness of a procedure or intervention used in a real world setting, while De Vos

(2002a:373) defines evaluation as the process of weighing or assessing, in a general sense, the value of a commodity. In the researcher's opinion, evaluation can be defined as a critical assessment to determine whether a specific programme or service is achieving the purpose that it set out to accomplish.

The above definitions aptly describe evaluation as a critical tool to assess the effectiveness of service delivery to poor communities, in order to ensure that poverty alleviation programmes are effective to reduce poverty.

1.8.2 Impact

Du Toit, Van der Walt, Bayat and Cheminais (1999:145) describe impact as effective service delivery to improve the quality of life of poor communities. Gildenhuis and Knipe (2000:128) state that impact is dependent upon government's capability to deliver effective services. The researcher defines impact as the extent to which the programme has brought about positive consequences for individuals and communities. These definitions aptly describe the manner in which government should deliver services to poor communities to ensure that poverty is drastically reduced.

1.8.3 The Integrated Food and Nutrition Programme

The Gauteng Department of Social Development defines the IFNP as the strategy to address poverty through the establishment of community food gardens in order to generate wealth for poor communities. An integral aspect of the programme concerns skills development to enable communities to attain a better standard of living.

1.8.4 Programme

According to Gildenhuis and Knipe (2000:125), a programme is the response by public institutions to an individual and a specific group's problems, needs and values. These responses should be increased and secured through public decision-making based on programme effectiveness and social equity. Du Toit *et al.* (1999:175) define a programme as the planning that identifies potential problems and formulating objectives to solve the problems. In the researcher's opinion, a programme is a blueprint for a plan of action to address a specific problem, where the plan of action is

based on specific goals and objectives that are aligned with the appropriate resources to address the problem effectively.

The above definitions describe the responsibility of policy makers and programme managers to ensure that public programmes targeting the poor are effective to alleviate poverty.

1.8.5 Poverty

Barberton *et al.* (1998:18) describe poverty as the inability of individuals to attain a minimum standard of living in terms of basic needs or income, while Dowling (1999:5) defines poverty as the lack of money and resources for the poor to control their situation. This includes the lack of opportunities to make choices for their lives. The researcher defines poverty as the inability of a marginalised group of people to improve the quality of their lives.

The above definitions outline the adverse experiences of the poor in South Africa, ranging from a lack of food to unemployment and helplessness.

1.8.6 Poverty alleviation

Barberton *et al.* (1998:18) claim that poverty alleviation is a multi-faceted approach that links the reduction of hunger, unemployment, exploitation, lack of access to water, sanitation, health care, vulnerability to crises and homelessness. Dowling (1999:5) defines poverty alleviation as the provision of resources and opportunities for the poor to enable them to attain a better living standard. The researcher defines poverty alleviation as the efforts by government to assist individuals, groups of people and communities to attain an acceptable standard of living that will restore their personal worth and dignity.

The above definitions describe government's need to address various crucial issues pertaining to the poor, in order to ensure their well-being.

1.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The researcher identified the following limitations of the research. These limitations, however, were not major obstacles to the research.

There was much reluctance from certain managers of the IFNP to provide information, documents, or to participate in the research investigation, despite being encouraged to do so by senior management. This reluctance however, was only limited to a very small group of four possible respondents out of 129 respondents, which translates into 3%.

Four field workers who were involved with the IFNP in Kungwini could not be traced. This did not, however, have an impact on the research processes. Three field workers who were to assist at the focus group meetings were present only at the last meeting. Prior arrangements were made with the local social service office for their involvement at all the focus group meetings. This did not however, have any impact on the research processes, as the community worker provided an excellent service at all the focus group meetings and the extended household interviews.

According to the Strategic Plan of the IFNP, relevant government departments were to be an integral part of the programme in Kungwini. The respondents for the quantitative approach therefore included individuals from the related government departments that implement separate poverty programmes in Kungwini. These parallel processes that contribute to departments seldom working together on common poverty projects is a limitation. To overcome this limitation, the researcher spent a considerable amount of time on making telephone calls, paying personal visits and sending e-mails to the relevant departments to explain the purpose and objectives of this research.

1.10 PRESENTATION OF THE RESEARCH REPORT

The thesis is divided into the following seven chapters:

Chapter 1: General Introduction

Chapter 1 includes the problem formulation, goals and objectives of the research, the research design and methodology, ethical issues and definition of key concepts.

Chapter 2: Poverty: A Global and National Phenomenon

Chapter 2 includes the literature study on poverty issues. The impact of poverty on the poor is discussed at length, as well as the role of relevant government departments in supporting the poor.

Chapter 3: Poverty Alleviation Policies and Programmes

Chapter 3 discusses poverty policies from the literature study and highlights selective poverty alleviation programmes, with special focus on the IFNP within the context of the RDP, the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997), GEAR and ASgiSA.

Chapter 4: Research methodology

Chapter 4 focuses on the development of the measuring instruments for the qualitative and quantitative methods, planning and undertaking the pilot study and collecting data for both the qualitative and quantitative methods.

Chapter 5: Analysis and Interpretation of Data for the Qualitative Approach

Chapter 5 includes the analysis of data to obtain answers to the research question and to test the research question, namely, what is the impact of the IFNP upon the poor in Kungwini? The interpretation of the data assisted to find meaning to the research question and to draw conclusions. The analysis and interpretation of data was compared to theories from the literature study.

Chapter 6: Analysis and Interpretation of Data for the Quantitative Approach

Chapter 6 includes the analysis of data to obtain answers to the research question and to test the research question, namely, what is the impact of the IFNP upon the poor in Kungwini? The interpretation of the data provided answers to the research question and reaching conclusions. The analysis and interpretation of data was compared to theories from the literature study.

Chapter 7: Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

Chapter 7 includes a summary of the main points of the research as well as the findings of the research. Answers are provided to the research question regarding the goals and objectives of the research and recommendations formulated to improve service delivery to the poor.

1.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 1 introduced the research and includes an overview of poverty from the literature study, including the high rates of unemployment in South Africa. Expert

views on poverty include integrated stakeholder involvement, programme sustainability and poverty policy review.

The problems formulation includes the conceptual difficulties to measure poverty and definitions of relative poverty and absolute poverty. The goal of the research is to assess the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini. The objectives are to formulate a conceptual framework through a literature study regarding poverty in South Africa, draw conclusions and provide recommendations regarding the programme's impact.

The research question states: What is the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini?

The type of research is applied research to evaluate the impact of the IFNP to reduce poverty in Kungwini. Ethical considerations include informed consent, confidentiality, deception, violation of privacy, harm to respondents, actions and competence of the researcher, co-operation with contributors, as well as release of research findings.

Definitions of key concepts include evaluation, impact, IFNP, programme, poverty, poverty alleviation and limitation of the study.

CHAPTER 2: GLOBAL AND NATIONAL POVERTY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Poverty is a global phenomenon that continues unabated and remains socially challenging for most governments. The causes of poverty are many and varied and the poor universally experience deprivation and hopelessness. In most countries, the poor do not have access to clean water, sanitation or daily food to ensure their wellbeing. Public service delivery is largely inadequate or non-existent and the shortfall is aggravated by political instability, regional wars and conflicts. Poverty leads to a lack of material needs, education, health care and social exclusion, and links to conflicts, violence and social dependency.

Poverty is prevalent in both rural and urban areas, where there are degrees of poverty. Absolute poverty includes a deprivation of food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health care, shelter and education. Extreme poverty includes living on less than USD1 per day, regarded as the international poverty standard measure. Public service delivery to the poor is extremely inadequate. The poor travel vast distances to access education and health care facilities.

Economically, the poor fare no better. They cannot obtain bank loans for trading purposes, as they do not have the collateral to guarantee repayment. They are deprived of health care, food and safe environments, and live in informal settlements in slum conditions without access to safe water and sanitation facilities. This affects family health, especially young children where malnutrition and food insecurity result in poor health.

Poverty is rife in both urban and rural communities. Urbanisation is increasing in the developing world and the majority of the poor live in rural areas. Absolute poverty is higher in rural areas than in urban areas. The poverty profiles in urban-rural areas are different, which have an impact on national statistics on poverty in terms of consumption per capita or income. Urban poverty is increasing and the rural poor are urbanising at a fast rate.

Problems associated with social exclusion are not adequately addressed in social policies. Policy makers should review their understanding of complex psychosocial

problems associated with the socially excluded. As continued social exclusion perpetuates social problems, it is important that policy makers envisage a future where the socially excluded are included in the mainstream of society. The future should mark a period of greater tolerance and understanding for those who live on the edges of society. Consensus between service providers is urgent regarding structural and cultural changes that address the needs of the most vulnerable members of society.

Poverty is regarded as a global phenomenon, and the scope of global poverty hinders public efforts to adequately address the situation. The poor experience a lack of basic needs, clean water and sanitation. In most cases, public service delivery is hopelessly inadequate to address the needs of the poor. The consequences of poverty include poor health and social exclusion. Further problems for the poor include the lack of infrastructures to deliver basic services and social and health care. Exclusion from policy processes reinforces their adverse socio-economic circumstances.

The impact of global poverty, poverty in Africa, poverty in South Africa, the impact of climate change, the impact of HIV/AIDS, the Millennium Development Goals and poverty projections are further discussed in this chapter.

2.2 THE IMPACT OF GLOBAL POVERTY ON THE POOR

2.2.1 Millennium development goals and poverty reduction

The United Nations Report on the First Decade for the Eradication of Poverty (FDEP) 1997 to 2006 set the stage for global governments to assess their respective poverty status. The FDEP was followed by the establishment of the United Nations Millennium Developmental Goals in 2000, which further mandated global governments to reduce poverty by 50% by 2015. The global focus on addressing poverty is viewed against global statistics that range from absolute poverty to extreme poverty. Cornia and Court (2001:1), Accorsi, Fabiani, Lukwya, Ravera, Costanzi, Ojom, Paze, Manenti, Anguzu, Dente and Declich (2001:214), Serageldin (2002:54), Fuentes (2008:139) and Sacks (2008:17) are of the opinion that the poverty situation in developing countries as well as in affluent countries is incredibly difficult for the poor.

Minot and Daniels (2005:453) and Ravallion, Chen and Sangraula (2008:667) state that poverty is rife in both urban and rural communities. Ravallion *et al.* (2008:667-669) provide the geographical impact of poverty in their study on urbanisation in 90 developing countries, which indicates that urbanisation is increasing in the developing world and the majority of the poor live in rural areas. Absolute poverty is higher in rural areas than in urban areas. The poverty profiles in urban-rural areas differ and have an impact on national statistics in terms of consumption per capita or income. Urban poverty is increasing and the rural poor are urbanising at a fast rate (Scanlon & Adlam, 2008:520, 542). Approximately three quarters of the world's poor live in rural areas, adding to urban poverty, with large numbers of rural migrants seeking employment in cities.

Serageldin (2002:54-56) argues that despite global scientific advances, conflicts, economic uncertainty, poverty and insecurity remain acute, especially in developing countries. Affluent countries continue to ignore the plight of poor countries. The future seems daunting as environmental pollution and hunger continue unabated. Although there were vast improvements in school enrolments and reduced infant mortality over the past 40 years, global poverty remains acute, as indicated by the huge numbers of poor who experience various forms of depravity.

Globally, 1.2 billion people continue to live on less than USD 1 per day, while 1 billion have no access to clean water. More than 2 billion have no access to adequate sanitation and 700 million, mostly women and children suffer from biomass fuel pollution. Millions of poor farmers struggle to eke out a living from poor soil conditions. Additional challenges include global population growth of approximately 80 million people per annum, which places further pressure on fragile eco-systems and scarce water resources (Serageldin, 2002:54-56).

A comparison of the above figures for 2002 by Serageldin (2002:54-56) is provided by the World Bank Development 2007 Indicators (2007:16-18). The proportion of people living on less than USD 1 per day decreased from 40,3% in 1984 to 18,4% in 2004. This is further compared with the World Bank Development 2008 Indicators (2008:16-18) for extreme poverty, which was set at USD 1.25 per day during 2005 by the United Nations International Comparison Programme. The new measurement indicates that there are additional numbers of people living in

extreme poverty, which is prevalent in middle-income countries. Globally, 1.4 billion people are living in extreme poverty. Those countries that reduced their poverty rates with the previous poverty measure, have not been able to reduce their current poverty rates with the new poverty measure, which indicates that 42% of the population in developing countries live on less than USD 1.25 per day.

Fuentes (2008:139) adds to Serageldin's (2002:54-56) account above that the loss of biodiversity and wild life affects impoverished households who depend on natural sources for water, shelter and medicine. Fuentes (2008:139-140) states that the needs of the poor should be included in the world economy to ensure that they escape the poverty trap and are no longer totally dependent on natural resources to preserve the environment. Fuentes (2008:139-140) mentions that there is an urgent need to plan for wealth creation for the poor through urbanisation.

2.2.2 Challenges to addressing poverty

Changes in poverty, inequality and economic growth since the mid-1980s have risen tremendously in most countries (Cornia & Court, 2001:1-3). The traditional causes of poverty focused on inequality in education and urban development. The new focus links liberal economic policies and economic reforms. High levels of inequalities are difficult to address through economic growth, further hindered by crime and political instability. Nor is economic growth attributed to technological change and globalisation, as both Canada and Taiwan provide examples of the successes of slow positive economic growth (Cornia & Court, 2001:1-3). Policies should address inequality by regulating international financial growth to avoid a global currency crisis, which adversely affects income distributions to the poor.

A rather ambitious statement, in light of the extent and hopelessness of the poverty situation globally is provided by Sacks (2008:17-19), who states that eliminating poverty remains an ethical commitment that includes the collaboration of social scientists, public health practitioners and economists. Their specialist knowledge could assist to end poverty by 2025. Sacks (2008:17-19) argues that poverty is furthermore a result of crop failures due to droughts and HIV/AIDS,

where numerous children are in the care of grandparents following the demise of their parents.

Malaria, a killer disease that caused the deaths of between one to three million globally during 2008, is treatable with appropriate medication. Protective nets for beds cost USD 5 for two children. This translates into 50 cents per child per annum, yet the poor cannot afford this amount, as they do not have any income. In addition, food crops are insufficient to feed families. Most poor villages are based on non-cash economies similar to the circumstances of millions of poor globally.

Accorsi *et al.* (2001:214-216) claim that the effect of insecurity, the HIV/AIDS pandemic and poverty affect negatively on the health of the poor. There has been a large intake of poor patients at hospitals, including children with various illnesses, due to HIV/AIDS, malaria, tuberculosis and civil war injuries. Cohen (2002:2324), Orr (2002:288), Block (2003/2006:168), Alesina and Glaeser (2005:25,184), Wacquant (2005/2007:66) and Preston (2007:484) agree with Accorsi *et al.* (2001:214-216) and state that opportunistic diseases, such as HIV/AIDS as well as the adverse global economic situation have added to the problems of the poor in developing countries.

Block (2003:168-170) maintains that although the first world may not be indifferent to the plight of poor countries, their situation is heightened by their poor socio-economic circumstances which he calls “deserts”. The first world has the moral responsibility to address the economic deserts through policies that address fair systems of entitlements not based on rewards. There are 1.5 billion people in poor countries that do not have adequate health care and live in appalling conditions, with no skills to participate in the global economy. Northern countries are required through their commitment to the United Nations Millennium Development Goals to address the socio-economic conditions that plague poor countries. Helleiner (2001:3) and the United Nations Country Co-operation Framework Report 2002-2006 (2006:1), which will be referred to in this research as the UN Report 2006, agree that developing countries require assistance to overcome poverty. Northern countries are morally obligated to assist Southern African and Asian countries.

Poverty in developing countries leads to hunger, malnutrition, limited education, and limited access to basic services, social discrimination, social exclusion and a lack of participation in decision-making processes. Helleiner (2001:3-4) declares that developed countries should assist developing countries, especially those that are in crises, which affect regional and global systems. This includes stabilisation funds that operate independently from donor funding to support their entry into global trading markets.

2.2.3 Global politics and poverty

The research by Ljubotina and Ljubotina (2007:5-7) concludes that structural poverty is one of the main causes of poverty. This includes political and economic instability, which hinder development in third world countries. Orr (2002:288-290) calls for an assessment of political events post 9/11, regarding global political tensions and poverty. There is an urgent need to end political violence in the Middle East, the Balkans and in other violence-strewn countries, and to find long-term solutions for underlying problems.

In an unequal society marked by abject poverty, the poor remain vulnerable and desperate. Orr (2002:288-290) states that global corporations have control over the world's economic, political and technological spheres. Unaccountable international corporations and agencies like the World Trade Organisation tightly control the emerging third world. In order to address the above issues, it is imperative that socio-economic policies include global economic trade, energy sources, security and the environment.

Global partnerships to reduce poverty by half by 2015 should include the eradication of tuberculosis, which in 2002 claimed nearly 2 million lives (Cohen, 2002:2324). The disease, including malaria and HIV/AIDS has further impoverished poor countries. During 2002, the United Nations launched the global HIV/AIDS fund to address the pandemic, including tuberculosis and malaria, but various governments globally have not taken relevant processes forward due to financial and technical limitations. This includes disputes over existing funds. Cohen (2002:2324-2325) claims that there is an urgent need to use allocated resources effectively and to set realistic expectations for developing countries.

The personal experiences of particular groups in specific societies provide the best descriptions of poverty (Wacquant, 2005:66-68). An example in this respect is the ghettos of the American north-east and mid-west, and the dilapidated cities of the 'red belt' – areas in France where workers strongly identify with unions and municipal organisations. These regions represent future contemporary societies marked by labour disputes, remaining detached from national and global economies (Cohen, 2002:2324-2325).

2.2.4 Creating a conducive environment to address poverty

A review of welfare handouts in respect to the above aspects indicates the difference between the United States of America and Europe (Alesina & Glaeser, 2005:25,184,189). Both are democratic wealthy countries but differ in their redistribution policies. The USA is less willing to redistribute wealth from the rich to the poor than its European counterpart that favours the disadvantaged through employment opportunities, health care and income transfers to vulnerable groups. The USA spending on poverty equals to 30% of the GDP, whilst the European expenditure is 45% and more than 50% in Scandinavia. The differences are attributed to the prevailing economic, political and social conditions. Europe is more exposed to left wing socialism, whilst the USA is more rightwing-based, focusing on available opportunities for individuals to improve their lives.

Preston (2007:484-486) in turn, examines the contribution of economic factors for increased life expectancy during the twentieth century in several countries. A growth in life expectancy was evident in individuals with both low and high-income levels. This was attributed to better health care by respective governments. In Japan, the Philippines, France, Australia, Spain and tropical African countries, individuals with adequate income could access quality health care facilities and an improved lifestyle. In many Western countries, improved education, higher living standards and the prevention of diseases were only available from 1938 to the present.

2.2.5 Concluding remarks

The alarming global statistics and information above provide the stark reality of poverty for the majority of the world's citizens, including women and children, who

remain the most vulnerable groups. The global poverty line, which indicates that the poor earn less than USD 1 per day does not bode well for the world's poor. Women and children continue to be the prime casualties of poverty, especially in countries that are politically unstable, which seriously affects the nutritional health of children. The United Nations Report on the First Decade for the Eradication of Poverty, 1997-2006, was the first international effort to address global poverty, followed by the Millennium Development Goals in 2000, which committed various countries globally to reduce poverty by 50% by 2015.

Global poverty includes absolute and extreme poverty. The former includes a lack of the basic requirements for living, while the latter includes a total lack of the basic requirements for living. Poverty is more prominent in the South, which includes the Asian and African continents. The causes of global poverty are many and varied, and include a deficiency of work-related skills, inadequate public service delivery and low levels of education. The impact of global poverty includes marginalisation from formal economic activities, and living in isolation and exclusion from decision-making processes. The rising unemployment rates and lack of skills continue to entrench poverty globally.

2.3 THE IMPACT OF POVERTY IN AFRICA

2.3.1 Consequences of poverty in Africa

Poverty in Africa is brutal and includes severe malnutrition, a lack of adequate health care and a serious lack of safe drinking water. Life expectancy is short and many children do not have access to primary education. Various regional wars add to the plight of the poor. Poverty remains entrenched in Africa. Pelto (2000:1300), The UN Report (2006:5-6), Food 4 Africa (2006:1) and Mutandiva and Gazirayi (2007:3) are of the opinion that political instability in Africa has contributed to poverty on the continent. The UN Report (2006:5-6) states that Africa faces a myriad of economic challenges, where most of Sub-Saharan Africa has the lowest income. One hundred and eighty four (184) million citizens, translating into 33% of the population, suffer from malnutrition. Three hundred and fifteen (315) million people, translating into one in two people in Sub-Saharan Africa, survive on less than USD 1 per day. Ethiopia and Burundi fare the worst, with USD 90 per person per year. Middle-income countries such as Gabon and Botswana have huge numbers of people living in poverty.

North Africa fares better than Sub-Saharan Africa (UN Report, 2006:5-6). In the former, the economy is stable, trade is relatively high and HIV/AIDS is not as prevalent. Less than 50% of Africa's population has access to health care. The average life expectancy in Africa is 41 years. Only 57% of African children receive primary education and one in six children dies before the age of five. Five point three (5,3) million hectares of forest was lost during the 1990s and less than one in five persons has access to electricity. Fifteen people out of every 1 000 have access to telephone lines and 7,8 persons out of every 1 000 have access to the Internet.

2.3.2 Consequences on children

Food 4 Africa (2006:1), an international aid organisation, indicates that one in 10 infants dies within 12 months. One in five suffers from chronic malnutrition and one in 10 suffers from severe malnutrition. Fifty percent have calcium, iron and zinc deficiency and more than 2,2 million children under the age of 17 are orphans. Sixty-five percent live in households headed by teenagers and more than one in five children is physically stunted due to malnutrition.

Pelto (2000:1300) concurs with Food 4 Africa (2006:1) and adds that early childhood malnutrition is attributed to inadequate family income. Adequate nutrition determines the good health of children. Low growth rates lead to poor cognitive development. In many developing countries, integrated nutrition and early childhood education are not available to all children in the 3-5 age group. The caregivers of children aged 6-30 months are not equipped with relevant education to prevent a lack of development in children. Pelto (2000:1300) suggests that multidisciplinary interventions will enable children to develop normally.

2.3.3 Socio-economic consequences

Mutandiva and Gazirayi (2007:3-6) agree with both Pelto (2000:13000) and Food 4 Africa (2006:1) and are of the opinion that the poor in most developing countries in Africa live in abject poverty, on less than USD 1 per day. Poverty is compounded by HIV/AIDS, which has devastated many socio-economic systems in developing countries. It is estimated that 31 million persons were infected with HIV in Southern Africa during 2003. This has since increased to 37.8 million during 2004. The disease has widened the gap between rich northern countries and developing countries in

terms of socio-economic development. Agriculture remains Africa's key strategy to enhance the livelihood of the poor, but pestilence and diseases account for only 40% to 60% crop yields. According to Mutandiva and Gazirayi (2007:3-6), Africa requires indigenous knowledge, adequate health care, natural food preservation and resource management to ward off starvation.

Steward (2002:243), McCoy (2001:2) and Manjengwa (2006:13) suggest that political instability hinders the socio-economic development of the poor in Africa. Steward (2002:243-245) maintains that political stability in Africa is vital for sustained development and outlines the four hypotheses that assess conflicts in developing countries in Africa. The Group Motivational Hypotheses focuses on conflicts between groups based on religious, cultural and geographical differences, where specific group identification results in group ambitions, leading to war. The Private Motivation Hypotheses outlines the accumulation of benefits for specific groups, which leads to conflicts.

The Failure of the Social Contact Hypotheses views the failure of the state to provide reasonable social services and access to employment. The Green War Hypotheses views environmental degradation as a leading cause of poverty and conflict, due to rising population rates and reduced agricultural productivity. Steady (2000:26) is of the opinion that socio-economic policies should address poverty, inequalities and environmental degradation, which are the main sources of conflict in Africa.

McCoy (2001:2, 8) agrees with Steward (2003:243-245) and states that many countries in Africa have not developed an environment conducive to attaining political and social progress that matches that of western nations. Ethnic divisions continue to spread turmoil, which further perpetuates external conflicts and civil wars. Manjengwa (2006:13) affirms the above statements by stating that the majority of conflicts in Africa centre on land ownership. This is acutely observed in Zimbabwe, where the Fast Track Land Reform Programme has resulted in a scramble for land that has displaced many legitimate owners.

2.3.4 Concluding remarks

The above accounts indicate the extreme poverty in many developing countries in Africa. Women and children withstand the worst of poverty in Africa. The acute lack of

basic health care and safe drinking water is compounded by an extreme lack of food in some countries. Average life expectancy is short, leading to high death tolls. Children especially, experience extreme poverty, marked by inadequate nutrition and stunted growth. Africa has one of the lowest levels of income and malnutrition is widespread in some countries.

The economic woes of Africa add to the plight of the poor. The various conflicts and wars in Africa are added burdens on the poor. Human suffering remains acute. There is scant economic development in Africa owing to various factors, notably high birth rates and government inefficiency and corruption. Africa requires global partnerships to develop economically.

2.4 THE IMPACT OF POVERTY IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.4.1 Poverty challenges

The impact of poverty in South Africa is viewed against the background of 17 years of democracy. Whilst there has been some progress in the socio-economic spheres, poverty remains a harsh reality for many communities and individuals. The Department of Foreign Affairs Report (2006:1), the UN Report (2006:5-6) and Frost and Hoggett (2008:438) are of the opinion that the poverty situation in South Africa is profound.

The Department of Foreign Affairs Report (2006:3-4) states that the question of poverty is viewed in relation to South Africa's commitment to the United Nations Decade for the Eradication of Poverty, 1997-2006. There was global consensus that eradicating poverty was an ethical, social, political and economic imperative by third world and developed countries. The Department of Foreign Affairs Report (2006:4) states further that despite the above commitment, poverty in South Africa remains acute.

Socio-economic policies should focus on social exclusion and its consequences, rather than the traditional focus on well-being and the distribution of resources, in order to gain insight to social suffering (Frost & Hoggett, 2008:438-440). Policy makers will then be able to reach an understanding of the inhibiting nature of social structural oppression. Political and social systems do not include the poor in decisions

that affect them. It is therefore imperative that the policy focus shifts to the experiences of the poor and their perceptions of poverty.

The UN Report (2006:5-6) outlines its midterm country programmes in South Africa to address poverty. This includes the United Nations Development Assistance Framework to address poverty and inequality through the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development (ISRDP) and HIV/AIDS programmes in KwaZulu-Natal, Limpopo and Eastern Cape. The 1995 Participatory Poverty Assessment (which can be compared to the current situation) indicated that millions of South Africans experienced ill health and high stress levels. Women and child abuse is rife. Workers earned low salaries for unsafe work and the poor experienced ill health and discrimination. Ignorance and superstition were added problems for the poor. The UN Report (2006:6) states that although there has been a measure of improvement for the poor in terms of housing and primary health care, wealth creation for the poor remained elusive.

2.4.2 Socio-economic challenges

Adato, Carter and May (2006:226), Hunt (2007:1) and Richardson (2007:2) conclude that the poor are socially excluded from the socio-economic spheres in South Africa. Adato *et al.* (2006:226-228) provide a succinct account in respect of the above aspects in their study on poverty and exclusion, and state that South Africa is identified as two worlds in one, with a high human development index in one (formal economy) and a low human development index in the other (informal economy). Following the post apartheid years, poverty and inequality in South Africa remain serious problems. Economic capital is crucial to ensure upward mobility, but unemployment has remained static and is increasing, diminishing the prospects for many poor South Africans. Adato *et al.* (2006:226-231) suggest that the Growth, Employment and Redistribution Programme (GEAR) failed to meet the expectations that a growing economy will address inequality in South Africa.

Hunt (2007:1-2) expands on poverty and inequality in South Africa and states that there is no adequate understanding of the complexity and magnitude of poverty. For the majority of the poor, the situation before 1994 was a reality in terms of poverty, exclusion and a total sense of hopelessness. Post 1994, inequality remains central to

the socio-economic situation in South Africa. Hunt (2007:2) proclaims that this is further evident in the HIV/AIDS issue, where there is a disproportionate concern over health issues than on the impact of the disease on the economy.

2.4.3 Socio-economic challenges and the South African Constitution

Although the South African Constitution is regarded as a remarkable legislative process in terms of its rights based focus, South Africa does not appear to apply basic human rights to the poor (Richardson, 2007:2-4). The example of the Constitutional Court's decision as reflected in the Grootboom, Treatment Action Campaign (TAC) and the Soobramoney cases were however hailed as a breakthrough for the poor and disadvantaged. Irene Grootboom lived in a squalid squatter settlement called Wallacedene in the Cape, where a quarter of the population has no income, two thirds earn less than R500,00 per month and children constitute half the population. The settlement has no water, sewerage or rubbish removal facilities. There is a waiting list of 7 years for subsidised low-income houses.

The court's decisions in the above case that the state was to provide access to housing as a constitutional right were viewed legally, as being reasonable. In both the TAC and Soobramoney cases, the court ruled in favour of providing universal treatment for mother to child transmission of the HIV virus and for emergency medical treatment respectively. Richardson (2007:4) strongly argues for the same response of reasonable justice for the poor, by enforcing social and cultural rights as legal rights, especially in terms of scarce resources. The above cases illustrate that the legal imperative rests on the state to take reasonable measures to eliminate or reduce severe deprivation amongst the poor and needy.

2.4.4 Socio-economic challenges versus the Growth, Employment and Redistribution Programme (GEAR)

Stavrou (2002:3), Bond (2004:3), Du Toit (2005:3), De Swart, Puoane, Chopra and Du Toit (2005:2) and Callaghan and Wistow (2008:166) are of the opinion that the socio-economic situation in South Africa is not conducive to assist the poor to surmount their circumstances. GEAR as a wide-ranging strategy for South Africa was not widely consulted before implementation (Bond, 2004:3-5). The purpose for GEAR was to create 400,000 new jobs each year as the South African economy

grows at a rate of 3-4% per annum. Bond (2004:5) refers to the above assumptions as distortions, as there was no stability in South Africa over four decades and the exchange rates kept fluctuating. The expected 3-4% economic growth per year did not materialise, while unemployment levels increased.

Subsequent to Gear, the government sought ways to enable the poor to acquire an asset base that would provide access to economic markets (Bond, 2004:3-5). The problem, however, is that economic markets continue to trade; they do not wait for the poor to build their asset base. As the business world has evolved over time, it may be impossible for emerging poor entrepreneurs to conduct business with major companies. To address economic social exclusion, social services should be linked to community and family support to enable the poor to participate in the formal economy. Bond (2004:5) however claims that it will require more than social service assistance for poor entrepreneurs to break through the economic market barrier.

The GEAR strategy sought to achieve four objectives, namely a competitive growing economy, the redistribution of income to the poor, health, education and related services and productive employment. The above aspects did not materialise, as there was a need for accelerated economic growth, increased infrastructure development and service delivery, a stable environment for investor confidence and restructuring the public sector for efficiency and human capital development (Stavrou, 2009:4).

2.4.5 Socio-economic challenges for the working poor

What is the poverty situation in many communities in South Africa in terms of the socio-economic situation regarding the poor? By way of an answer, the study on the causes of poverty in Khayelitsha and Nyanga, two of the poorest suburbs in the city of Cape Town, was undertaken by De Swart *et al.* (2005:3-5) and provides a grim picture of similar experiences in many poor communities across South Africa.

Khayelitsha and Nyanga are surrounded by rich northern and southern suburbs that vividly portray the stark inequality in an urban setting. The causes of poverty are complex and multi-faceted. A steady stream of migrants from the Eastern Cape seeks employment opportunities. The majority do not have the necessary skills for formal employment.

Half of the households in Khayelitha and Nyanga do not have a working income. Two-thirds (64%) of the adults are unemployed and only 23% of adults earned a permanent salary, mostly as factory workers, which is the main occupation. Nine percent constituted the general skilled workforce and 6% were employed as domestic workers. Fifty-two percent males and 72% females did not have paid work. Two thirds of young people (67%) aged 18-25 were unemployed and were not pursuing further education, while 57% of the unemployed were in the age group 26-30 years. Working income was the main source of total household income, which averaged R1 463,00 per month, compared to R502,00 per month for households with no wage income.

Half the breadwinners (53%) received less than R1 000, 00 per month. Despite multiple sources of income per household, 82% fell below the line of R560,00 per adult-equivalent per month. Twenty two point six percent had less than R100,00 per household member per month. For 50% of households, the monthly income amounted to less than R241,00 per month adult-equivalent. Only 15% of households generated R600,00 per adult-equivalent per month. The above study illustrates that the poverty status in South Africa is not being adequately reduced to enable the poor to surmount their adverse circumstances.

2.4.6 Addressing socio-economic challenges

Callaghan and Wistow (2008:166) agree with Stavrou (2002:3-4) and Bond (2004:3-5) regarding the socio-economic constraints on the poor in South Africa, and are of the opinion that community involvement in public service planning and implementation is essential to ensure collective benefits to poor communities. Callaghan and Wistow (2008:166-167) state that fragmented health and social services compromise socio-economic development.

Du Toit (2005:3-4) concurs that the protracted poverty situation in South Africa indicates that poverty was not being reduced consistently. Reliable data on the circumstances of the poor should be developed and the nature and extent of poverty in South Africa established which has been inadequately captured in national census and survey data. Du Toit (2005:4) asserts that an overall estimate of current data indicated that poverty reduction has been minimal, inequality has increased and economic growth has not benefited the poor.

2.4.7 Concluding remarks

Policy challenges in South Africa include the social exclusion of the poor from the economic and policy processes. Although there are some achievements in housing and primary health care, serious issues regarding poverty have not been addressed, including high unemployment and access to basic services for the majority of the poor in South Africa. The poor have reasonable access to services, according to the Constitution. However, resource constraints impede the right of the poor to service delivery. The socio-economic challenges regarding GEAR include an environment that is not conducive to enable the poor to improve their circumstances. Government's rationale that GEAR would create employment through economic growth did not materialise.

An added problem for the poor includes the wide gap between the informal and formal sectors. The socio-economic challenges for the poor continue, as they do not have the appropriate working skills for better-paid work. Addressing socio-economic challenges in South Africa include community involvement in service delivery initiatives.

2.5 THE IMPACT OF POVERTY ON WOMEN

2.5.1 Socio-economic constraints

Women throughout the ages have been subjected to discrimination in terms of their social and economic status. Yet they perform menial economic work to ensure the survival of their families. During 1995, the social and economic status of women universally received serious consideration because of the United Nations Beijing Conference that paved the way to addressing issues that influence women negatively. Following the Beijing Conference, women globally continue their uphill struggle to achieve economic equality with men, but remain for the most part, disempowered both socially and politically.

The Education and Training Unit, South Africa (2006:1), Martin and Roberts (2006:129) and McEvan (2007:4) assert that women are not active participants in the socio-economic spheres in South Africa. The Education and Training Unit, South Africa (2005:1-3) an international NGO working among the poor in South Africa, states that poor women are affected by a lack of access to education and appropriate

employment. Consequently, they acquire poorly paid work as farm labourers or domestic workers. Overall, they earn less than men for both unskilled and skilled work.

2.5.2 Socio-economic challenges and social justice

McEvan (2007:4-5) states that following the move towards rights-based approaches towards the poor, gender inequalities were addressed in South Africa through citizenship participation. However, citizen participation may just be a hollow concept without social justice. McEvan (2007:6) provides a contrary opinion to the meaning of citizenship in the South African context through his research, namely that citizen participation include access and control over resources. Gender activism promotes gender equity in policies. Citizen spaces are therefore required to debate various issues, including gender inequality. These spaces include the active participation by the poor to challenge adverse conditions and create alternative circumstances.

Problems associated with social exclusion are not adequately addressed in social policies, as there are no simple solutions (Scanlon & Adlam, 2008:520,542). Policy makers should review their understanding of complex psychosocial problems associated with the socially excluded. As continued social exclusion perpetuates social problems, it is important that policy makers envisage a future where the socially excluded are included in the mainstream of society. The future should mark a period of greater tolerance and understanding for those who live on the edges of society.

Martin and Roberts (2006:129) in turn, maintain that the National Women and Employment Survey (WES) conducted in the USA in 1980, proved groundbreaking for key research and policy questions in terms of the socio-economic issues pertaining to women. Post 1980, surveys on women's issues were on a much smaller scale than the WES. Consequently, there are vast areas to be covered in term of improving the status of women. This includes an assessment of their economic activities, remuneration equity, and the available support for women caring for children and frail elderly family members.

2.5.3 Socio-economic constraints and gender discrimination

Beall (2005:253), Chant (2006:201) and Fernandez and Mors (2008:1061) are of the opinion that gender discrimination remains a root cause of poverty amongst women in

South Africa. According to Beall (2005:253-256), local government should actively engage citizens regarding gender issues. However, competing public interests in terms of power politics and resources exclude women at local level. The challenges to promote gender equity in the policy and political arenas remain problematic in government as well as societal structures. Beall (2005:256) states that women face greater obstacles at the local than the national level. Centralising government services at local level will ensure broader citizen participation, efficiency and gender equity.

Chant (2006:201) concurs with Beall (2005:253) and states that the term “feminisation of poverty” which focuses on female poverty in monetary terms, does not highlight those aspects that are relevant to women at grassroots level. Nor does the United Nations Development Programme indices in respect of women include gender poverty gaps which poor women experience. The term “feminisation of poverty” applies to common beliefs of poverty that do not represent the large percentage of global poor women who experience excessive suffering.

Feminisation of poverty is not about a lack of income, as there is no adequate data to provide a breakdown of female and male monetary poverty. There is a need to address the feminisation of poverty as both income poverty and restriction of choices, which is further compromised by the abuse of women and their disempowerment. Chant (2006:203) states further that improvement in women's circumstances remains essential in terms of the feminisation of poverty, especially for female households.

Fernandez and Mors (2008:1061) investigated the open market hiring processes to determine the extent of discrimination in employment practices against females. The study aimed to determine the job matching mechanisms in terms of gender equity. Their investigation indicated that there was a disproportionate allocation of males to higher salaried jobs and that gender inequality was entrenched in the work place. Women were preferred over males in jobs that paid by the hour, whereas the choice jobs were reserved for males.

2.5.4 Concluding remarks

Poor women are for the most part, excluded from the socio-economic and political spheres. They are neither active in the economy, nor do they share equally in terms of earning power with their male counterparts. Gender inequality is entrenched in the

work place. Without appropriate skills, women work as poor paid farm labourers or domestic workers. Even with appropriate skills, women earn less than men for the same work.

Following the 1995 United Nations Beijing Conference, women's socio-economic rights came to the fore in global political agendas. The National Women and Employment Survey during 1980 highlighted crucial issues pertaining to women, for further debate. However, subsequent to the above survey, there have not been any major socio-economic achievements for women. Poor women especially have a long struggle ahead to surmount their low socio-economic status in society.

2.6 THE IMPACT OF POVERTY ON CHILDREN

2.6.1 Status of poor children

Poverty has a negative impact upon children, who are the most vulnerable group in society. The consequences of poverty have dire effects upon their physical and emotional development. The status of poor children remains an indictment on society, especially in terms of effective service delivery to ease their plight and ensure their wellbeing. Poverty affects the health of children, leading to infant mortality because of inadequate nutrition and basic health care. Millions of children in South Africa live in poverty-stricken circumstances, which are against their constitutional right to adequate care and protection. The reasons for child poverty include high unemployment levels and the HIV/AIDS pandemic (Boyle, 2003:374; Pharoah, 2005:3).

2.6.2 Health status of children from poor families

The Education and Training Unit, South Africa (2000:10), Boyle (2003:307), Featherstone (2006:294) and Gakidou, Oza, Vidal Fuertes, Li, Lee, Sousa, Hogan, Van der Hoon and Ezzati (2007:1876) concur that a lack of adequate nutrition has a negative impact on children. Boyle (2003:307) indicates that childhood development is a critical period. Nutritional problems include iron deficiency that is important for growth. Millions of children die each year from parasitic and infectious diseases associated with poverty and deprivation. A combination of childhood diseases and poor nutrition results in a vicious cycle of childbirths and deaths. Protein-energy

malnutrition is the most widespread form of malnutrition globally, because of long-term food deprivation, which impact on children's physical growth.

Gakidou *et al.* (2007:1876) concur, stating that the prevalence of underweight children younger than five years indicates the rationale of the Millenium Development Goals (MDG) to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger. Effective interventions for clean water, sanitation and clean household energy will address the MDG requirements. In this regard, Featherstone (2006:296) calls for welfare transformation regarding economic independence, autonomy and social justice for women and children, as most policies do not heed the needs of children in family policies. Gakidou *et al.* (2007:1876) agree that an urgent analysis of all relevant children's policies is required, especially implementation processes to address the plight of children, as policies that strengthen families indicated an improved status for children.

The report from the Education and Training Unit, South Africa (2000:10) adds to the above accounts and states that the causes of children's poverty are due to the ill health or morbidity of parents because of HIV/AIDS, resulting in poor homes headed by children. Malnutrition affects the physical and mental health of children, who may not have access to educational opportunities, especially early childhood development and consequently, they are unable to complete their formal education.

Goldson (2002:255), Pharoah (2005:1) and Kalil and Ziol-Guest (2008:260) agree that parental neglect because of illness and economic factors, leads to adverse behaviour in children. Kalil and Ziol-Guest (2008:260-262) provide their research findings regarding involuntary employment separation when one or both parents are employed, or when both parents are unemployed and the impact on children. When a parent or both parents are unemployed, there are future negative implications for children from impoverished households. Lower family earnings translate into material lack. This in turn leads to family stress and ineffective parenting.

Kalil and Ziol-Guest (2008:265) state that family unemployment limits income for adequate food, housing, education, as well as a safe environment for a child's emotional and cognitive development. Involuntary employment separation is more difficult for low-income families when the mother is the sole breadwinner. Poverty

increases in impoverished households when an income earner has to resign to care for a family member due to disability or illness.

Pharoah (2005:3) proposes that children affected by HIV/AIDS will be traumatised and marginalised. Without parental care, they do not have positive role models and consequently, develop anti-social behaviours. In addition to being primary caregivers to their siblings, they have to deal with economic problems, irregular school attendance, and lack of food, exploitative labour, sexual abuse and living on the streets.

2.6.3 Family dysfunction

Goldson (2002:255) provides research findings regarding children in the penal system aged 15 to 17 from a sample of 49 children. The data indicated that 26% lived with both parents, 39% lived with one parent, while one in three (31%) lived with neither parent. The majority (73%) lived in households with no adults in paid employment and 22% had no contact with a parent. The above statistical profile indicated that impoverished family backgrounds and challenging social circumstances led to incomplete school attendance, unemployment as well as health-related problems associated with drug and alcohol abuse. The negative social circumstances had a detrimental effect upon the children.

The question regarding child neglect, especially for children from impoverished households, is whether childhood deprivation will continue into adulthood. Daniel and Taylor (2006:426), Goodvin, Gustavo and Torquati (2006:591) and Clark (2006:699) concur. Daniel and Taylor (2006:426-428) assert that parental neglect affects children in the short and long term. Social welfare policies should therefore focus on the role of fathers in child development and child rearing. This is especially important for children from impoverished households who experience gross neglect in terms of their emotional and physical needs.

Goodvin *et al.* (2006:591) confirm Daniel and Taylor's (2006:428) viewpoint regarding childhood neglect and state that a mother's negative emotional attitudes are reflected on the child's behaviour and responses. This in turn leads to personal distress and subsequent aggressive behaviour in children, who may develop negative coping mechanisms. The environment and the family's influence contribute to the child's

emotional well-being. Adverse living conditions will compromise their future social standards and economic prospects. The above aspects illustrate most importantly the implications of neglect for children living in poverty-stricken conditions.

Clark (2006:699) agrees with Daniel and Taylor (2006:428) and Goodvin *et al.* (2006:591) that interventions on behalf of children will address their future social exclusion because of juvenile crime, unemployment and teenage pregnancies. This will also address the cyclical nature of poverty in impoverished households and communities. Effective parenting and practical early childhood education will end the trans-generational poverty cycle.

2.6.4 Concluding remarks

Children from impoverished households experience a lack of adequate nutrition, which further affects their physical development. Poverty is a primary cause of infant and child mortality in most developing countries. In order to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, the MDG depends on intervention strategies that include clean water, sanitation and clean sources of energy. As the above necessities are not available to many poor families, children continue to suffer deprivation.

High levels of unemployment do not enable poor families to provide adequate care for their children. The HIV/AIDS pandemic has affected poor children, as valuable family finances are diverted to the care of sick members. Drug and alcohol abuse further compromise dysfunctional family circumstances because of poverty.

2.7 THE IMPACT OF POVERTY ON THE YOUTH

2.7.1 Socio-economic constraints

The impact of poverty on the youth of South Africa is grim, with high unemployment rates a serious factor which mitigates against the youth to live fulfilled lives and contribute to the economy. Female youth especially, remain the most vulnerable group in terms of health and reproductive issues. The Education and Training Unit, South Africa (2006:14), the Human Sciences Research Council Report (2006:22) and Swift, Taal, Beck and Heyer (2006:33) concur that the socio-economic factors confronting the youth from impoverished households remain challenging.

According to the Education and Training Unit, South Africa (2006:14-15), youth from impoverished households are deprived of education and employment opportunities. The high unemployment rate in South Africa is a contributing factor to youth unemployment. Consequently, they are vulnerable to criminal activities and substance abuse.

The Human Sciences Research Council Report (2006:22-25) indicates that the social and economic conditions regarding the youth are bleak. The above report includes the 2002 National Youth Commission Report, which indicates that unemployment, poverty, as well as health issues, including HIV/AIDS, remain the biggest challenges for the youth. Youth poverty and low levels of education are inter-linked. Unemployed youth are mainly from impoverished households that experience high levels of unemployment, where inter-generational poverty is entrenched.

In addition to the above factors, the above report includes the 2003 national survey undertaken by the Community Agency for Social Enquiry, which indicates that only one in ten youth could secure employment in the formal sector. A subsequent 2004 investigation by the Co-operative Research Programme on South African Youth indicated that a large proportion of the youth continue to be unemployed.

Swift *et al.* (2006:33-36) agree with the above accounts in terms of general poverty and youth poverty, and are of the opinion that 'vulnerable' and 'vulnerability' are vague terms to denote the poor or poverty. It does not adequately indicate the conditions of poverty that denote a state of insecurity and exposure to risks and shocks. Vulnerability therefore refers to exposure to poverty conditions that renders the poor incapable of coping with the related difficulties.

2.7.2 Environmental influences

Boyle (2003:314), Mosher and Trubeck (2003:63), McDonald, Erickson, Kirkpatrick and Elder (2007:1328) and Musik, Seltzer and Schwartz (2008:138) allude to negative environments that entrench youth poverty. Boyle (2003:314-317) views youth as a time of change, marked by physical, intellectual and emotional growth. However, many young adolescents especially from impoverished households, experience health and nutritional problems, which in some cases relate to risky social behaviours and drug abuse.

Musik *et al.* (2008:138-140) take the above aspect further and state that adverse environments give rise to concentrated pockets of poverty. A poor environment is conducive for low paid employment and fewer role models for the youth. Poor neighbourhoods tend to be isolated from mainstream society, which hinder socio-economic development and community stability, creating the climate for crime, drug abuse and risky sexual behaviour.

Youth mentoring is just as important for McDonald *et al.* (2007:1328-1331), who state that it is essential that the youth are properly mentored to equip them for adulthood. Positive role models pave the way for the youth to strive for success in the academic and employment environments. In addition to role model mentoring, peer group and family mentoring are important aspects in youth development to enable them to pursue personal life goals. Conversely, youth who do not have positive mentorship are left to their own devices. Consequently, they face bleak futures with few career and employment opportunities. McDonald *et al.* (2007:1331) state that the above issues have implications for youth policies.

As mentoring is important to enable the youth to develop future goals, so it is important that their vulnerable circumstances be addressed. McDonald *et al.* (2007:1331) indicate further that the failure to distinguish between the above two concepts ingrains stereotype perceptions regarding the poor. Unlike poverty, vulnerability lacks a developed theoretical base and accepted methods of measurement to improve the circumstances of the poor. The entitlement theory of economist, Amartya Sen to turn assets into investments is an example in this respect.

McDonald *et al.* (2007:1331) are of the opinion that poverty programmes identify the poor in terms of income and consumption, which are then addressed in relevant poverty programmes to raise income and consumption. There is a need, however, for policy makers to change this mode of policy analysis and to note the definitions of poverty from the perspectives of the poor in order to reduce vulnerability and enhance security.

Following through on mentorship and vulnerability, Mosher and Trubeck (2003:63-66) focus on creative environments that favour a flexible approach in dealing with social policy issues, rather than the top-down approaches that include tight governance and

control. Their research regarding the European Employment Strategy indicates a departure from the traditional regulatory controls to the “open method of co-ordination,” which combines broad participation in decision-making processes.

The research results indicated that the overall goal of the strategy is to reform welfare spending to ensure higher employment rates for the youth. This in turn will address the problem of population ageing, where there is a large elderly group and an insufficient working youth group to boost economic growth. Most importantly, all workers, including the youth, were motivated to develop appropriate skills and to continue gaining additional skills throughout their working careers.

2.7.3 Concluding remarks

The youth of South Africa remain one of the most vulnerable groups in terms of their socio-economic status. Youth from impoverished households cannot access educational opportunities or appropriate skills for the job market. As a result, a huge youth population remains unemployed. Adverse environmental influences have a detrimental effect upon the youth, leading in some instances to drug and alcohol abuse, promiscuous sexual behaviour and criminal activities. Furthermore, youth from impoverished households have fewer role models to guide them in life. Youth mentoring is important to prepare the youth for young adulthood and to achieve academic success to attain suitable employment.

2.8 THE IMPACT OF POVERTY ON THE AGED

2.8.1 Dealing with insecurity

The main concerns for the elderly include health, education, self-esteem and quality of life. Poverty amongst the elderly is endemic to both First and Third world countries. Older people are among the poorest in all societies and their primary concern centres on material security. The problems experienced by the elderly aged seventy-five and older include economic insecurity, a lack of access to essential health services, inadequate housing and personal safety (Makiwane & Kwizera, 2006:297).

Boyle (2003:342), Makiwane and Kwizera (2006:297) and Spira and Wall (2006:390) believe that the aged are beset by many illnesses, especially the aged poor, who have to contend with the adverse effects of illnesses and diseases and the lack of

inadequate medical and family care. Makiwane and Kwizera (2006:297-299) state that the quality of life for the elderly includes general health, basic food needs, housing and emotional wellbeing. Added factors include transport, safe water and security. The adverse factors that affect the quality of life for the aged include the shortage of housing, living in rural areas where poverty levels are higher, limited access to education and the adverse impact of HIV/AIDS, which renders most poor homes poorer.

2.8.2 Socio-economic constraints

Makiwane and Kwizera (2006:306) indicate from their study regarding the profile of the aged in Mpumalanga, that 71% of the aged were widowed, confirming the high mortality rate among elderly males. The majority had no basic education or work related skills. The elderly above 80 years experienced deterioration in health, leading to anxiety, loneliness and depression. Forty-six percent cared for children aged 6-18, while 20% cared for children younger than 6 years and 9% cared for sick adults. According to Makiwane and Kwizera (2006:306), the role of the elderly as caregivers should be addressed in relevant policies and programmes.

A related, but opposite viewpoint to Makiwane and Kwizera (2006:297-299) above, is provided by Spira and Wall (2006:390-393) who state that frail elderly grandparents contribute to stressful situations in families when responsibilities for their care fall on young adults and grandchildren. As inter-generational families become the norm for the future, family stresses will increase.

On a positive note, the presence of elderly grandparents as part of family households imparts familial cohesion and family understanding for the life cycle stages leading to old age. The increase in the numbers of elderly persons in Latin America, Asia and Africa is attributed to the decline in the mortality rates, due to the treatment and prevention of diseases that previously led to premature deaths among the elderly. However, despite the above positive aspects, adverse socio-economic situations account for high morbidity rates amongst the elderly (Spira & Wall, 2006:393).

2.8.3 Future prospects for the elderly

Appropriate interventions for the elderly include reducing the risks associated with chronic diseases and promoting healthy living through appropriate policies (Boyle,

2003:342). The aging process is aligned with frailty, illness and disabilities, leading to changes in the physical body that contribute to heart disease, hypertension, osteoporosis, dementia and diabetes. The aged therefore require a policy that promotes health and home-based care for the chronically ill.

Loewenberg, Dolgoff and Harrington (2000:27) and Cavanaugh and Blanchard-Fields (2006:505) agree that the future holds both positive and negative aspects for the aged poor. Cavanaugh and Blanchard-Fields (2006:515) focus on a future scenario for the aged post 2030, which ushers in older adults who are educated and technically skilled and have accrued social security and health care benefits. Health and social welfare costs for the future will be reduced by promoting health and quality of life that address the present challenges facing the elderly. These include employment opportunities, social security and social insurance for retirement.

The aging population will increase rapidly in the near future (Loewenberg *et al.*, 2000:35). This in turn will bring in its wake an increase in the number of disabled persons, as morbidity and diseases are prevalent among the lower socio-economic groups. It is essential for social work practice that the ethical dilemmas regarding the above aspects include elderly clients' self-determination and utilising limited resources effectively.

2.8.4 Concluding remarks

The elderly are primarily concerned with their health and security status. The problems for the aged include economic insecurity and a lack of access to essential services. Taking care of frail elderly family members places additional stress on families. The mortality rate is higher among elderly males. Many aged grandparents assume the role of primary caregivers of grandchildren, following the deaths of either one or both biological parents. A major portion of the aged does not have basic education or work related skills. On the other hand, there are many aged persons who live healthy independent lives, whose skills can be utilised in society in a positive way.

2.9 THE IMPACT OF POVERTY ON THE DISABLED

2.9.1 Socio-economic status of the elderly

The disabled poor have to contend with poverty as well as physical limitations. Poverty is an added burden for the disabled poor who cannot access appropriate services. Acquiring appropriate skills and employment are problematic and they continue to remain a marginalised group in society. There is an urgent need to incorporate the needs of the disabled poor into appropriate policies and programmes that address their marginalisation. In order to reduce poverty amongst the disabled poor, it is necessary to empower them to take decisions for their well-being. The social model of disability, which focuses on the person and not on the disability, will ensure that human right abuses and poverty are addressed. Conversely, the medical model focuses only on the physical aspect of disability (Goodley, 2001:2, 5; Thomas, 2004:3-5).

Dunlop, Manheim, Song, Lyons and Chang (2005:8), O'Day (2006:1) and Seekins (2006:1) are of the opinion that the disabled are marginalised from the mainstream of society. Disability has huge economic and societal costs, as more money is spent on disabilities than on the quality of life for the disabled.

A research study by Dunlop *et al.* (2005:35-38) regarding the relationship between disability and depression for the disabled aged 54 to 65 indicates that depression is prevalent among those who live alone and experience chronic ill health and have few sources of income. This is contrary to the disabled who live with family and who are not depressed. Added constraints for the depressed disabled living alone include increased health problems and fewer economic resources (Dunlop *et al.*, 2005:38).

O'Day (2006:1) agrees with Dunlop *et al.* (2005:38) regarding the loneliness of the disabled who live alone and outlines the role of centres for independent living, which are non-profit organisations that integrate the disabled into their respective communities. The centres staffed by the disabled, advocate for accessible transport and deinstitutionalised care. The centres were invaluable as the disabled accessed appropriate services, promoted advocacy and peer support, and participated in community activities. Prior to the establishment of the centres, they

relied largely on social grants. It is estimated that 74% to 91% of clients are involved in matters that concern their wellbeing at these centres.

2.9.2 Intervention strategies

Seekins (2006:1-3) concurs with O'Day (2006:1-3) above and states that the centres for independent living have promoted the concept of independent living for the disabled. Their active involvement has ensured policy changes to housing, transport and employment. The centres are a key factor to ensure the independence of the disabled.

Maisel (2006:1-3) in turn states that the disabled should be empowered towards independent living and to be an integral part of community life. An aging population increases population disability rates and, in turn, impacts on future housing and community design structures. There is an urgent need to address affordable and accessible housing for both the aged and the disabled to ensure their independence and dignity. The term 'visitability' describes the new paradigm that seeks to provide affordable housing for the aged and the disabled, which call for removing the barriers that impair their mobility. Visitability in related community structures will enable the disabled to interact freely with the larger community (Maisel, 2006:3).

2.9.3 Concluding remarks

Disabled persons are for the most part, marginalised from the mainstream of society. Those who live alone, experience chronic health problems and have lower sources of income in contrast to those who live with families. In many instances, depression in the disabled leads to increased health problems. The centres for independent living have provided the disabled a platform to participate in community affairs meaningfully and to live independently. As an aging population increase disability rates, it is imperative that future housing and community structures are designed to ensure their dignity and participation in community life.

2.10 CLIMATE CHANGE AND THE IMPACT ON POVERTY

2.10.1 Effects of climate change

Global warming has serious implications especially for poor communities. In South Africa, the threat of changing weather patterns will influence agriculture and natural resources upon which the poor depend. Soil degradation reduces crop food production, further affecting the plight of the poor. There is an urgent need to address environmental changes and the state of the poor in order to sustain the environment for future generations.

Ghai (2000:128), Steady (2003:24) and the Interafrica Group NGO Networking Service (2007:28) maintain that climate change has negatively affected food sources and the living conditions of the poor. Steady (2003:24-26) states that global warming has affected valuable sources of food for poor communities, that depend on forests for food, water, medicine and building material. Deforestation has resulted in a loss of bio-diversity and watersheds, leading to deterioration in the quality of life for the poor. Increasing desert areas in many parts of the world, notably in Africa, affects one sixth of the earth's population. Soil fertility is declining and irrigated croplands are reduced. This leads to widespread poverty.

Furthermore, it is predicted that 32 million people in Africa will face famine in the near future. The majority of the poor live in low lying coastal areas, which account for approximately 70% of marine pollution through human, agriculture and industrial waste. An estimated 20% of the world's poorest populations, namely, 80% in Latin America, 60% in Asia and 51% in Africa, live in ecologically fragile areas. The scarcity of food and water leads to declining health. Diseases will become rampant as floods are experienced on a large scale in South Africa (Steady, 2003:130).

2.10.2 Consequences of climate change

The Interafrica Group NGO Networking Service (2007:28), an international aid organisation, states that Africa will withstand the worst of climate change during this century. In the future, a severe lack of food and drinking water will be a common scenario, and will be more intense in Sub-Saharan Africa. Rising sea levels due to the collision of the Indian and Atlantic oceans will affect plant

kingdoms, fish stocks and unprotected coastal areas. The Western Cape Province will become warmer and drier in the future and scarce water will lead to food shortages. Floods will affect informal settlements on the Cape Flats and malaria and other diseases will be acute in the interior.

Ghai (2000:128-136) adds that the stark reality of environmental degradation in Africa has led to soil erosion, deforestation and water pollution. There is a close correlation between scarcity of water, fuel sources and suffering. Women and children are affected the most, as they are primarily responsible to gather water and fuel from the environment. Due to droughts, many farmers seek employment in cities, further perpetuating urban poverty.

2.10.3 Consequences of climate change in South Africa

Christian Aid (2006:1), the UN Report (2006:5-6), Adam (2008:145) and O'Riordan, Nicholson-Cole and Milligen (2008:154) concur that the future prospects of climate change for South Africa is foreboding, especially for poor communities who live in threatened areas. Christian Aid (2006:1-2) states that global climate changes pose a serious threat to development programmes for the poor. One hundred and eighty two million people in Sub-Saharan Africa could die by the end of this century, due to various diseases.

The UN Report (2006:5-6) is in accord with the above statements and adds that South Africa ratified the Convention on Biological Diversity in 1995, the Framework Convention on Climate Change in 1997 as well as the Convention to Combat Desertification in 1997 and is presently ratifying the Bio-Safety Protocol. During 2002, South Africa hosted the World Summit on Sustainable Development, indicating its commitment to the environment and development. Regardless of the above progress, the effects of soil erosion and depletion of natural resources are not being addressed (Christian Aid, 2006:1-2).

O'Riordan *et al.* (2008:154) indicate that rising sea levels are associated with green house gases. There is an urgent need to protect coastlines, especially in low-lying villages. Urgent risk management by government will address environmental changes, resulting in flooding and soil erosion. Risk management includes protecting coastlines to ensure future socio-economic protection. This

includes assessing the removal of the most vulnerable households to alternative accommodation. It is essential to base current time-print decisions on action that will influence future ecological footprints (O’Riordan *et al.*, 2008:154).

Continuing the above line of thought, Adam (2008:145) focuses on prospects for the future in terms of global hopes and fears. The prognosis for the environment remains grim, especially with regard to the degradation and destruction of valuable natural resources. The environmental crisis calls for urgent resource management and community responsibility. Global warming affects many poor people who live near coastal areas and major water sources. Environmental degradation is due to firstly, the depletion of natural sources of food and fuel, and secondly, global climate changes which wreak havoc in many countries, where floods had taken a toll in loss of lives and property damage.

To ensure a better future for all citizens requires that responsible decisions are made now. South Africa will not escape climate change in the near future, as dire consequences are predicted for coastal areas as well as the interior of the country. There is an urgent need for government to address climate change in South Africa to protect vulnerable groups.

2.10.4 Concluding remarks

Climate change has depleted natural sources of food for many poor communities. As arable land turns into deserts, the quality of life of the poor is deteriorating because of insufficient food. Future predictions for climate change include millions of poor families experiencing famine, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa, where scarce food and water will lead to a decline in health.

Opportunistic diseases will spread over large areas of Africa, which will add to the problems facing the poor. A further impact of climate change includes arid soil conditions, where starvation will be rampant. Rising sea levels will swamp the land, leading to loss of homes and lives. Climate change is a serious threat, especially for poor families who do not have adequate financial resources.

2.11 THE IMPACT OF HIV/AIDS ON POVERTY

2.11.1 The consequences of HIV/AIDS

The impact of HIV/AIDS on the poor is an added burden, as they have to cope with a devastating disease in addition to dealing with the consequences of poverty. Seth, Kalichman, Simbayi, Kagee, Toefy, Jooste, Cain and Cherry (2005:1), The Education and Training Unit, South Africa (2006:9) and the UNDP Report (2006:6) agree that HIV/AIDS have an adverse impact on impoverished households. According to Seth *et al.* (2005:1), the majority of global HIV infections occur in abject poverty situations, as their studies in an impoverished African community, a racially integrated township and an urban middle class neighbourhood indicate. HIV/AIDS risks relate to poor education, unemployment, discrimination, violence and crime. HIV infection links to poor health care services, socially dense areas, social isolation, substance abuse and the sex for survival trade.

2.11.2 Consequences of HIV/AIDS on children

Seth *et al.* (2005:1) state that children in impoverished households do not have adequate nutrition, as scarce income is spent on medication for the terminally ill. Child-headed households increase when children lose both biological parents and a young sibling takes on the role of primary caregiver, or elderly grandparents assume the role of primary care-givers for grandchildren. By 2015 the population of African countries most affected by the pandemic, including South Africa, would be reduced by 84 million (or 10%). HIV/AIDS aggravate poverty-stricken conditions, reducing household income due to the illness of breadwinners. Seth *et al.* (2005:3) indicate that the cost on the health system is greatly increased and the impact of the disease is acute in societies with socio-economic and gender inequalities.

The Education and Training Unit, South Africa (2006:9) adds to the above list, focusing mainly on children and state that more than 11 million children have lost one parent to HIV/AIDS. Sub-Saharan Africa has nine of the highest HIV/AIDS prevalence rates in the world, and 25 million people are HIV positive. Impoverished households affected by HIV/AIDS have an additional economic burden, when the breadwinner is stricken and is cared for by an economically

active member, further reducing the family's income. Grandparents care for orphans affected by HIV/AIDS, which places additional burdens on poor families. HIV/AIDS is common among economically active young adults who are financially responsible for children and the elderly, leading to additional impoverished households.

2.11.3 Socio-economic consequences

The UN Report (2006:6) concurs with the above statements and states that HIV/AIDS negatively influence the social and economic situation in South Africa. An estimated 22,8% of the population is infected and the disease has affected mostly women and the poor. The pandemic is affecting human development and decreasing life expectancy from 65 years to 40 years. This has a direct effect upon economic productivity. The disease has devastated impoverished households, as indicated in the number of child-headed households and the estimated 1 million children under the age of 15 orphaned by AIDS.

Rau (2002:4), Moatti, Coriat, Souteyrand, Barnett, Dumoulin and Flori (2003:34) and Cederbaum (2008:117) agree that the social impact of HIV/AIDS has devastated impoverished households. Rau (2002:11) expands on the socio-economic impact of HIV/AIDS and states that the disease is the fourth most common cause of deaths globally. The impact of the disease varies between regions, depending on the country's ability to provide adequate nutrition and medical treatment, which in developing countries is costly. Sub-Saharan Africa fares the worst in terms of the disease, where 70% of adults and 80% of children are affected.

HIV/AIDS has a negative impact on population growth as low prevalence rates contribute to a marginal decrease in population, compared to high prevalence rates, which contribute to negative population growth. The disease generates a vicious circle of poverty, as impoverished individuals engage in risky sexual behaviour to fulfill survival needs. The impact of the disease on women, children and the elderly is greater, as rates in Eastern and Southern Africa are higher among younger women than among younger men.

Moatti *et al.* (2003:34-35) add their perspectives to the social impact of HIV/AIDS and agree with Rau (2003:40) that the disease was dealt with effectively in the northern countries during the first two decades of the pandemic, through prevention and treatment. The Brazilian National Aids Programme, which provided universal antiretroviral treatment for the medium term, illustrates that the same measure of effectiveness could be achieved in developing countries through appropriate public policies. The Ivory Coast, Senegal and Uganda have also shown improved results in addressing the disease through effective government intervention.

Moatti *et al.* (2003:35) observe that the arguments by social scientists and economists regarding the costs of drugs versus survival rates remain a moot point. Cost-effectiveness is a strong ethical issue concerning the value of human lives. The economic costs to poorer countries, for example Botswana, Eastern Europe, the Russian Federation and the Baltic States have shown that as HIV/AIDS increases so poverty levels rise. Appropriate policies will ensure resource allocation to address the ethical and economic issues related to the disease.

2.11.4 HIV/AIDS and social exclusion

With regard to the poor most affected by HIV/AIDS, Cederbaum (2008:117) is of the opinion that a critical aspect in dealing with the pandemic concerns the matter of privacy and trust. Her study on name-based and code-based reporting indicated that there are presently major debates on open disclosure to maintain strict confidentiality. Cederbaum (2008:117-121) states that there is a need for name-based proponents to disclose information for the helping professions to deal with cases at the early stages of the disease and for research purposes.

There are, however, fears among some professionals that many affected individuals will not seek help if there is open name-based disclosure. The dilemma will be partially resolved if clients, especially those from impoverished households are allowed to take informed decisions regarding the above aspects. Whilst this debate continues, it is essential that service delivery should be related to the protection of the individual. This in turn will generate data that will inform policy for better protection and advocacy, especially for poor clients.

How do HIV/AIDS affect the lives of the poor living on the margins of society? The future in terms of the disease and poverty is bleak, as the effects of HIV/AIDS continue unabated. Gilbert and Walker (2002:1), Fenton (2004:2) and Castro and Farmer (2005:40) add that gender inequality and stigmatisation are added burdens for the poor. Gilbert and Walker (2002:1-2) state that social and cultural factors were two primary forces that determine health outcomes and exert a powerful influence on life expectancy. Society is divided along gender lines, which affects the health and wellbeing amongst males and females. Gilbert and Walker (2002:6) indicate that South Africa has high gender biases, especially towards young African women, who are the most marginalised, least educated group, which render them vulnerable to HIV/AIDS.

2.11.5 HIV/AIDS and social rights

Poverty and gender remain the primary factors that determine the nature of available resources (Gilbert & Walker, 2002:6). This includes the lack of entitlement and political and economic power at the national level, a lack of social and cultural capital (empowerment) at community level, and the inability to mobilise family and personal resources at the individual level.

Castro and Farmer (2005:40) expand on Gilbert and Walker's (2002:1-2) views regarding social and cultural factors that impact on HIV/AIDS and state that stigmatisation attached to HIV/AIDS violates human rights and should be addressed in broad bio-social understanding in terms of discrimination regarding the disease. This will provide a better understanding of the pandemic in order to develop integrated prevention and care. Stigmatisation should be analysed within the concepts of power, dominance and oppression entrenched in social, political and economic inequality, leading to rejection and exclusion.

HIV/AIDS has devastated the lives of millions globally (Fenton, 2004:3-4). Earlier interventions included identifying risky behaviours and preventing new infections. Current interventions treat the disease within the socio-economic-cultural context. Fenton (2004:4-7) contends that 80% of the global population live in developing countries, where 95% of HIV/AIDS infections have been recorded. There is a positive correlation between HIV prevalence and poverty. Poverty may increase

susceptibility to HIV/AIDS as it is associated with a lack of education and as prevention strategies may not reach many impoverished communities. Conversely, HIV/AIDS increases poverty, which affects households with extreme poverty and income and gender inequalities. Policy strategies to reduce poverty will address the adverse environments that create vulnerability to HIV/AIDS.

2.11.6 Concluding remarks

HIV/AIDS has devastated many impoverished households, where scarce finances are spent to take care of terminally ill family members. HIV/AIDS affects especially children, as many families have lost either one or both parents to the disease. Sub-Saharan Africa has one of the highest prevalence rates globally. Elderly grandparents take care of orphaned children, placing further burdens on poor families. The disease has affected mostly women from impoverished households. Family income is further drained when a breadwinner succumbs to the disease.

Stigmatisation has led many poor families to live in isolation, which further compounds their poverty status. High HIV/AIDS risks include poor education, poor health and poor service delivery. Social isolation, substance abuse and the sex trade are added risks for the poor and many poor child-headed households become the norm, as the disease takes its toll amongst adult family members.

2.12 THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACT OF POVERTY

2.12.1 The economy and wealth distribution

Minot and Daniels (2005:453-458) illustrate the effects of a falling economy on impoverished households. Their study on cotton farming in Benin indicates that falling prices during 2001 to 2002 affected rural poverty directly and indirectly. The decline in the economy was part of a larger trend in the economy since the 1990s, partly due to the use of synthetic fibres in manufacturing.

A 40% reduction in prices resulted in an increase of 8% in rural poverty in the short term and 6% to 7% in the long term, which affected living conditions and poverty levels. This included the income of households that did not grow cotton, but where family members were employed as labourers in the cotton fields. The poverty

increase of 8% in the short term meant that 334 thousand individuals from poor families were below the poverty line.

Dollar and Kraay (2004:22) and Scanlon and Adlam (2008:520) discuss the impact of trade, globalisation and social exclusion on the poor. Dollar and Kraay (2004:22-25) provide the impact of globalisation on inequality and poverty and state that over half of the developing world live in globalising economies where trade has increased at a tremendous rate due to lower trading tariffs. The rest of the developing world is lagging far behind.

The increase in economic growth leads to disproportionate rates in the incomes of the poor. Globalisation increases economic growth, poverty reduction and welfare reforms in poor countries. Rapid trade growth links to improvements in wellbeing for the poor. Dollar and Kraay (2004:25) state that 50% of developing countries have shown increased economic growth since the 1970s to the 1990s, while the rest have declined in economic growth over the same period. In contrast, absolute poverty in globalising developing countries has declined rapidly during the past 20 years.

The poor continue to eke out a living in the informal economy, which has rapidly increased following the new dispensation in South Africa since 1994. However, three crucial questions remain, according to May (1997:3), namely, "How have the poor fared over the years from 1994 to the present?"; "How has the government succeeded to incorporate the poor into the South African economy?"; and most importantly, "How have poor women fared in terms of economic growth?" The following authors provide their perspectives on the above questions.

Galbraith (2000:55), Aliber (2003:473), the Department for International Development Report (2006:1), Hill, Felice and Ainscough (2007:372) and McEvan (2007:1) agree that there is a huge chasm between the poor and the rich in terms of socio-economic development. The Department for International Development Report (2006:1-3) provides its perspective on the socio-economic situation in South Africa, namely that South Africa remains highly unequal in terms of the economy and wealth distribution. There is a huge discrepancy between a first world vibrant economy and a third world informal economy. Galbraith (2000:55-58) believes that the benefits of economic

markets serve human needs and aspirations. Ensuring economic opportunities through job creation or entrepreneurship will ensure participation in the global economy. This in turn will ensure economic justice in terms of fair labour practices and gender equity.

2.12.2 The economy and human development

There are differences in the Human Development Index (HDI) and access to basic commodities across countries, based on economic progress (Hill *et al.*, 2007:373-374). The HDI for developed countries is 0,911 and the life expectancy, education and GDP indices are 0,873, 0,959 and 0,900 respectively. The corresponding HDI for developing countries are 0,729, 0,916 and 0,680. For least developing countries the HDI are 0,489, 0,448 and 0,450. The Gender Development Index (GDI) in developed countries is 0,914; in developing countries 0,704; and in least developed countries it is 0,450.

Hill *et al.* (2007:374) state further that the above figures indicate the scope of inequality and disparities amongst various countries and alternative perspectives of poverty, not based on HDI include the concerns of the poor and the absence of opportunities to develop their full potential. This includes Amartya Sen's viewpoint that optimum human development includes being well nourished, adequately clothed and sheltered, preventing morbidity and partaking in community life.

2.12.3 Recognising degrees of poverty

There are two critical constraints to addressing poverty (Aliber, 2003:473-476); service delivery and financial resources are not the main constraints, rather the lack of understanding by policy makers regarding the nature of the problem, and the appropriate measures to address degrees of poverty. Research indicates significant gaps in the causes of poverty, including practical measures to address the problems.

There is a need for further information regarding the chronically poor who are likely to remain in poverty and those categories of poor who are difficult to assist (Aliber, 2003:473-376). It is essential to distinguish between the chronically poor and the transitory poor to maximise valuable resources. The rural poor, the elderly and female-headed households represent the diverse circumstances of the chronic poor. In order to reduce poverty in South Africa, it is imperative that a number of crucial

issues affecting the poor are addressed through a collaborative partnership between government and stakeholders. Aliber (2003:376) argues that economic growth, a favourable environment for foreign investment, adequate housing and health services and ensuring social protection for vulnerable groups will alleviate poverty.

McEvan (2007:1-3) agrees with Aliber (2003:473) regarding female-headed households and states that gender inequalities were specifically addressed in citizen participation in government, following the rights-based approaches that came to the fore in socio-economic politics. McEvan (2007:5) however, is of the opinion that citizen participation may just be a hollow concept without social justice for women. A contrary opinion to gender equity includes the meaning of citizenship in the South African context and the marginalisation of the majority of Black women. Citizen participation includes control over and access to resources and gender activism to impact mainstream policies. McEvan (2007:5) calls for citizen action spaces to debate various issues, including gender inequality, which allows the poor to challenge adverse conditions and create alternative circumstances.

2.12.4 Breaching the economic gap

The Department of Foreign Affairs Report 2006 (2006:1), Oosthuizen (2006:37), the Education and Training Unit, South Africa (2006:5) and Aglietta (2008:61) concur that the huge chasm between the poor and the rich in terms of socio-economic development, referred to above, includes high rates of unemployment.

The Department of Foreign Affairs Report 2006 (2006:1-3) identifies key factors in reducing the gap between the formal and the informal economies, namely increasing economic growth by 6% and promoting investment through improved infrastructure and technology. Further improvements include developing the agricultural, forestry, mining and textile sectors, as well as the chemical and service industries. The Department of Foreign Affairs Report 2006 (2006:3) states that addressing crime and increasing social security to vulnerable groups will reduce poverty.

Oosthuizen (2006:37) claims that shared growth and integrated development depend on labour market performance, enhanced economic development and the participation of poor communities. The high unemployment rates in South Africa has entrenched poverty and the gap between the informal and formal markets. Workers in

the formal market have better social security protection than those from the informal sector who do not have any social security networks.

The Education and Training Unit, South Africa (2006:5-7) provides a further focus on the social impact of poverty, which describes the global inequalities between different classes of people and between urban and rural communities. The gap between the skilled and unskilled workers is enormous. A common factor in most countries includes the inequality between regions and urban and rural areas, where manufacturing and service industries are prominent in the former and agriculture in the latter.

The Education and Training Unit, South Africa (2006:7) states that inequality is evident in poor counties, especially the South and East, contrasted by rich countries in the North and West. Europe, North America and Japan are industrialised societies, which have the capacity to produce material goods to ensure a strong economy. Most of the population in developing countries are involved in local agricultural economies. Aglietta (2008:61-63) in turn asserts that the essence of capitalism is inequality and the pursuit of economic success. Global capitalism includes power politics based on financial hierarchical interdependence in international relations.

2.12.5 Economic development constraints

High birth rates compound the problems for the poor in developing countries (Aglietta, 2008:63). Unmanaged population growth affects food shortages, environment pollution and deforestation. Developed countries have lower birth rates and their populations are shrinking. Half the population in developing countries are below twenty years of age. This translates into half the population being young and the other half being older. The middle working group is therefore far too small to support children and older persons. Older persons live much longer and are therefore more dependent on governmental support. In developed countries, the largest portion of the population falls between the ages 15 and 40, which translates in a healthy middle working group that is able to support children and the aged.

Rogerson (1996:5), Wood (2000:209), Droughin and Touze (2003:384), Russel (2004:174), Chen (2005:6) and Zalk (2006:75) agree that the social, economic and political climates in South Africa are further hindrances to the poor to attain a better

quality of life. Droughin and Touze (2003:384-386) outline the impact of HIV/AIDS in Africa on long-term economic development, based on the following models, namely the Impact Model, the Standard Growth Model and the Comprehensive Model.

- The Impact Model is marked by decreasing returns based on scarce resources, namely medical expenditure, preventative interventions and scientific research. The Impact Model focuses on high health expenditure and a reduction in government savings.
- The Standard Growth Model focuses on marginal productivity that inhibits growth, based on reduced labour.
- The Comprehensive Model focuses on various negative consequences of the above models, namely, decreased production rates, public and private investment rates in terms of public spending and the imbalance of the national economy, and savings rate based on available capital in the long term. The Comprehensive Model illustrates the impact of the HIV/AIDS crisis on economic development in Africa.

2.12.6 Health status of the poor

Russel (2004:174) views ill health as a contributing factor to impoverishment, broadly defined as the decline in household assets and income, resulting in consumption levels dropping below minimum family needs. The human immunodeficiency virus/acquired immunodeficiency virus (HIV/AIDS) further heightens impoverishment. There are links between ill health and impoverishment and the cost of caring for ill family members stricken by malaria, TB or HIV/AIDS, which are three of the main causes of morbidity in developing countries. The severity of the illness and diseases has different economic implications for health services, the economy and families. This includes increased health costs and the loss of income when the breadwinner becomes ill, which places additional burdens on poor families, who have to pay for costly private treatment due to inadequate public health care. This consumes the bulk of the income in impoverished households.

Rogerson (1996:5) in turn, adds that policy makers should address the long-term growth of the informal economy, which would lower the rates of poverty in South Africa. Constraints for rural markets include travelling to distant commercial centres to obtain goods. Over-traded products and limited sales entrench poverty.

The example of a group-sewing project, which employs 20 people at a salary of R500.00 per person per month, illustrates the difficulties experienced by rural traders. The business would have to generate R40 000 per month in sales to offset costs. Competition from similar markets is a further business risk. In order to empower poor communities through a common activity, as in the sewing example above, the formal business community should provide mentorship to rural enterprises to generate viable incomes and diversify into broader markets.

Rogerson (1996:6) argues that owing to the dire straights of the poor, social protection grants and appropriate infrastructure are required to close the gap between the informal and formal markets.

2.12.7 The gap between the informal and formal economies

Chen (2005:6) explores the relationship between the informal and formal economies and the regulatory environment that is a key feature in the latter. The informal sector comprises of various forms of employment. It is not a short-term phenomenon, but a permanent fixture of modern capitalist traditional economies, associated with growth and global integration. It is not merely a marginal or peripheral sector, but also a basic component of the total economy.

The informal sector operates outside the legal regulatory framework and is deprived of secure work, worker's benefits, social protection and representation (Chen, 2005:6). Self-employment represents 81% of the informal sector in Sub-Saharan Africa, including South Africa, with 60% in Latin America and 59% in Asia. Strong economic links exist between the informal and formal sector, which includes supplying and purchasing trade goods, catering transport, as well as construction services. Chen (2005:7) maintains that appropriate policy responses will promote equitable linkages between the informal and formal economies.

Zalk (2006:75) states that global trading restrictions impact on maximising business success, minimising business risks and spurring economic development for South Africa. Appropriate industrial policies are required to mitigate risks in relation to market failures and alternative economic activities. This calls for close co-operation between the state and the private sector to increase employment through macroeconomic policies and skills development.

2.12.8 The economy and unemployment

Dror (2001:80) and Klosen and Woolard (2008:14) concur that there are high numbers of unemployed individuals in South Africa who cannot access employment nor health insurance. Klosen and Woolard (2008:21) examine the relation between unemployment and unemployment compensation, based on an analysis of household surveys from 1993, 1995, 1998, 2004 and 2006. Their analysis indicates that the unemployment rates in rural areas in South Africa are amongst the highest in developing countries. The unemployed sustain themselves by attaching themselves to households with adequate private or public support to ensure their survival. This private safety net ensures basic access to resources for most of the unemployed.

Klosen and Woolard (2008:25) provide several policy considerations from their study above, namely, that unemployment can persist at high levels even in the absence of unemployment support. The burden of supporting the unemployed pushes many households into poverty. State pension transfers provide the means for private safety nets that indirectly supports the unemployed, while reliance on private safety nets prolongs unemployment. Klosen and Woolard (2008:25) propose policy options that complement private safety nets.

2.12.9 The economy and health insurance

Dror (2001:80) in turn, states that health insurance in the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development countries (OECD) is confined to employees in formal employment. Health insurance is not extended to individuals who are not in formal employment. Further constraining factors to access health insurance include inadequate taxation to redistribute wealth to the poor, poor education and health status, ethnic or tribal affiliation, gender inequality and travelling long distances to access medical care. The question then remains whether and in which way the informal sector is able to manage the financial costs of illness.

According to Dror (2001:110), universal insurance coverage is an insurmountable challenge for government. The financial instability of the informal sector does not provide access to paid health services. Dror (2001:112) proposes government

partnership with community structures to render health services, using community micro-insurance units to pool financial resources from the informal sector. The process would then be linked with larger insurance schemes. The government could provide the administrative costs.

Summarising the above facts, Wood (2000:209) provides a positive view for South Africa regarding the economic problems facing the poor by drawing parallels between the South African experiences prior to 1994 and that of El Salvador and Guatemala. Though the respective political climates were different, all three countries shared common class struggles. Whilst the El Salvador struggle was based on a strong militant movement, the South African and Guatemalan struggles were less militant. Yet in all cases, the support at grassroots level was crucial to usher in democracy and political change for the poor. The political settlement between the ruling elite and the democratic government-in-waiting was based on political trade-offs that changed the political climate from oppression to democracy.

Wood (2000:212) argues further that in South Africa, the change in the political climate was crucial in terms of addressing rampant poverty. The socio-economic climate in South Africa has not improved largely since 1994 in terms of redistribution of economic opportunities for the poor. The parallel processes of consolidating democracy and creating extensive economic reforms are complicated by the unequal distribution of wealth and opportunities, grassroots expectations and the lack of institutional reforms (Wood, 2000:213). The socio-economic impact of poverty is more profound in rural areas and the informal sector cannot be incorporated into the formal business environment due to inadequate business skills and lack of funding.

2.12.10 Concluding remarks

The above accounts signify the adverse socio-economic impact of poverty on the poor in South Africa. Unemployment is a serious problem for the majority of the poor, hence their need to develop informal businesses to eke out a daily living. Rampant crime is a further socio-economic constraint, with a consequent negative impact on foreign investment and development in the country. To bridge the huge disparity between the poor and the wealthy in terms of human development and the

economy, the call is for government to develop the agricultural and manufacturing sectors and to ensure adequate social security measures for the poor.

The disparity between the informal and formal business sectors is equally significant, which further entrenches the unequal socio-economic status of the economy in South Africa. The need exists for a collaborative partnership to address the total needs of the poor that will not be met only by a strong economy. The collaborative partnership includes adequate housing and health services and social protection for vulnerable groups.

Women's socio-economic needs should receive special attention to address gender inequality. Rural communities should be included in economic development. The devastation of HIV/AIDS on the work force and the subsequent adverse impact on families should be addressed. Importantly, high levels of unemployment should be addressed, which will not be an easy task for the government.

2.13 THE IMPACT OF THE MDG ON POVERTY

2.13.1 Reducing global poverty

According to Haines and Cassels (2004:1-2), 189 countries internationally have committed themselves to addressing poverty since 2000, as a result of the United Nation's MDG to reduce global poverty by 50% by 2015. The MDG provides the framework for implementing measurable poverty solutions at national level. This includes promoting sustainable development, improving income generation, promoting education, protecting the environment and ensuring access to global markets. A key aspect of the MDG includes monitoring each country's progress through the United Nations's Development Programme Country Framework Reports. The following MDG and targets pertain to poverty:

Goal 1, target 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger by reducing by half the proportion of people whose income is less than USD 1 per day, between 1990 and 2015, and to reduce by half the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.

Goal 7, target 9: Ensure environment sustainability by integrating sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reversing the loss of environmental resources.

Goal 7, target 10: Reducing by half by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and sanitation.

Goal 7, target 11: To achieve by 2020 a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million urban slum dwellers.

Goal 8, target 12: To develop a global partnership, based on non-discriminatory trading and financial systems through good governance, development and poverty reduction. To address the special needs of least developed countries, which includes tariff and quota-free exports, debt relief, cancellation of official bilateral debt and generous donor assistance.

2.13.2 International trade relations

McGrew (2000:360), Rieger and Leibfried (2003:5), Roberts (2006:7), the UN Report (2006:5-6) and Love, Twomlow, Mupangwas, Van der Zaag and Gumbo (2006:731) agree that international trade relations for wealth creation in developing countries will lower the poverty rates. Rieger and Leibfried (2003:133-134) focus on the period before the development of the MDG targets, which ensured wealth creation for countries in the North through effective trade relations.

Following the three decades after the Second World War, industrialised countries in the north lowered import barriers to trade that led to the explosive economic global growth during the latter part of the twentieth century and its dependence on social politics. Governments in the north became increasingly aware of the reciprocal role of social politics and the global economy and the challenges this posed, namely to reform state policies for global trade and to develop global market conditions locally. The complementary relationship between a welfare state and a global economy depended on national, social and political conditions that ensured the welfare of citizens.

The above example of industrialised states illustrates their dependence upon an autonomous social policy that ensured the social protection of significant groups in

society (Rieger & Leibfried, 2003:133-134). The question arises as to whether the social protection of citizens and the preservation of an open national economy can be met. The pursuit of globalisation by industrialised countries brought in its wake the replacement of social security by social insurance schemes, resulting in insecurity and unemployment for the labouring class. Rieger and Leibfried (2003:134) suggest that there is a need to regulate trade through social policies that ensures worker protection and higher taxes for international trade versus the costs to maintain policy objectives. The above factors have relevance for South Africa in terms of the economy, poverty and the MDG.

2.13.3 International trade challenges

McGrew (2000:360) in turn, states that the 1990s marked a transformation for the new order of world politics and the primary challenge included the needs of poor nations. Political strategies are needed that foster North-South relations, based on an independently managed global economy. Poverty is no longer confined to third world countries, but is increasing in affluent northern countries due to the increasing inequality between the affluent and the poor. Third world countries that do not pursue a global economy are becoming poorer.

Roberts (2006:77-78) concurs with the above aspects and outlines the crucial need for advanced technology to boost national and local economies. The adaptation of old technology, which is prominent in developing countries, hinders growth. Investment in modern technology ensures rapid economic growth. McGrew (2000:364) states that the MDG to reduce global poverty would entail eradicating world hunger, preserving the environment, providing safe drinking water, developing local economies, establishing global partnerships and pursuing good governance. The UN Report (2006:6) indicates that although various poverty efforts were undertaken in South Africa, there is still a huge gap to reach the MDG to reduce poverty by half by 2015.

2.13.4 Agricultural trade challenges in Sub-Saharan Africa

Love *et al.* (2006:731) suggest that the MDG to target hunger is extremely important in Southern Africa, where food scarcity has been acute over the past 20 years. Agro-hydrology and agro-economic studies suggest that new approaches

and interventions are required. Studies in Zimbabwe and Mozambique indicate that increased crop yields require effective soil management. Dry spells cause low crop yields. Urgent interventions for sustainable food security include access to fertilizers, establishing markets, technology transfer and closer co-operation between the state, the NGO sector, agronomists and water engineers.

In order to achieve the above MDG it is important to ensure soil health, soil-water conservation, supplementary irrigation, improving fish stocks and improving services to small-scale farmers (Love *et al.*, 2006:735). The challenges for Africa for 2020 include a projected population of 1,2 billion of which 25% will be undernourished and living in arid areas of Southern Africa, where 70% of the world's poorest communities presently dwell, and where the average per capita food production has been declining for the past 40 years. Yet agriculture continues to be the main economic activity. Despite technical advances in recent years, poverty, food insecurity and malnutrition remain acute in Africa.

2.13.5 International socio-economic assistance

Haines and Cassels (2004:394), Attaran (2005:318), Morel, Lauer and Evans (2005:7528) and the UN Report (2006:6) agree that it would require a concerted effort for developing countries to reduce global poverty by half in line with the MDG. Haines and Cassels (2004:394) state that the MDG on development and poverty eradication include fair trade, developmental assistance, technology transfer, debt relief and access to essential medicines. In respect of health, the MDG includes empowering women to reduce child mortality, combating HIV/AIDS, malaria, tuberculosis and other prevailing diseases, and ensuring environment sustainability.

Haines and Cassels (2004:395) state further that there is a need to assess the impact of global partnerships in third world countries. This includes fewer women dying during childbirth, more children surviving early childhood, and dealing effectively with HIV/AIDS. Fair trade, debt relief and the gross national 0,7% which was committed by various countries toward local development are generally disappointing. Haines and Cassels (2004:395) maintain that developing countries are not on track to achieve the above MDG, as they are not able to treat or prevent pneumonia, diarrhoea in children, delivering babies safely, or to prolong life for HIV/AIDS victims.

Morel *et al.* (2005:7528) state that malaria related mortality in developing countries has increased since 1990 due to increased drug resistance and lack of new health interventions. To achieve the above MDG there is a need to accelerate interventions through prudent use of available resources. Sub-Saharan Africa has shown disappointing MDG goal attainment in the health care system. The effectiveness of spraying and using bed nets to combat malaria is debatable, as their efficiency depends on controlling large mosquito infestations (Morel *et al.*, 2005:7528).

2.13.6 Measuring the MDG achievements

Attaining the MDG to reduce poverty by half as well as reducing malaria and TB have no scientific valid data to determine whether measurable improvements were achieved in these areas and not based on subjective speculations which are immeasurable (Attaran, 2005:318). There is no certainty that the MDG regarding malaria and childhood mortality are reduced, as these aspects are not adequately measured in global household surveys. As baseline measures are important to measure trends, the MDG for health were set without measurements from the 1990 baseline. The MDG targets and indicators should be amended to be feasibly measurable (Attaran, 2005:318).

The UN Report (2006:6) on the other hand, provides the progress of the MDG in developing countries, which does not indicate specifics in respect of measurements, as discussed by Attaran (2005:318) above, but provides an overall assessment regarding the status of reducing poverty by 50% by 2015. Asia leads the decline in eradicating extreme hunger, but the incidence of hunger remains high. The MDG to promote gender equality indicate that women's political power is growing, though men still dominate in this area.

The UN Report (2006:6) states further that the reduction in child mortality rates indicates that more children are surviving their first years of life. Improving maternal health indicates more mothers are receiving skilled assistance in childbirth. Combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases indicate mixed progress against life threatening diseases. Ensuring environmental sustainability indicates that world targets for safe drinking water are in sight, but problematic in

rural areas. Developing global partnerships for development and aid continues to increase but falls short of targets. The above accounts indicate that the MDG to reduce global poverty by 50% by 2015 fall short of full achievement. The question remains whether the MDG will be achieved in the remaining years.

2.13.7 Concluding remarks

One hundred and eighty nine countries globally indicated their commitment to reduce poverty by 50% by 2015 through development, income generation, education, environment protection and accessing global trading. International trading is regarded as a way to reduce poverty in developing countries. Allied to international trade is the call for technical assistance to boost national and local economies. In line with the above aspects, the MDG seek to eradicate world hunger and provide safe drinking water. There is still a long road ahead for South Africa to achieve the MDG to reduce poverty by 50% by 2015. This includes addressing hunger through agricultural production. There are however, many problems in the agricultural sector, including poor soil, unpredictable weather conditions and low crop yields.

2.14 POVERTY PROJECTIONS AND SOCIAL JUSTICE

2.14.1 Reducing global poverty

In order to grapple with the phenomenon of poverty, it is essential to understand the processes that influenced the poor and vulnerable over the past decades. This includes the economic, political and philosophical perspectives that contributed to the worldview regarding the developing world. The following authors expand further on these issues.

Beetham (2000:51-66), Galbraith (2000:65), Fong (2001:225), and Lund (2002:160) are of the opinion that reducing poverty in developing countries remains an essential element of social justice for the poor. Fong (2001:226) states that individuals with low-means high variance incomes are those with financial self-interest. They foresee that they may require safety nets in the future and therefore demand more income redistribution for the poor. Individuals with higher means lower-variance income believe in self-determination and have less interest in income redistribution. Fong (2001:225) claims that the two opposing debates regarding the prevalence of poverty,

gender and race issues continue unabated, regardless of the actual needs of the poor. The above pertinent issues illustrate the intellectual discourse regarding poverty and vulnerability.

Poverty reduction and inequality is based on equal opportunities for all to attain their full human potential (Galbraith, 2000:65). The increasing marginalisation of the poor threatens political stability. There have been vast improvements in material deprivation for most countries in terms of improved infant mortality rates, increased life span and lower morbidity rates. However, over the past twenty years, the number of poor persons in Latin America and Africa has increased and poverty conditions have worsened in terms of morbidity, mortality rates and maternal deprivation.

2.14.2 Addressing social justice in poverty policies

Beetham (2000:51) discusses two viewpoints of civil society from social theory. The first view focuses on a free market that is part of a democratic social order seeking the pursuit of the common good. The second view focuses on a free market that caters essentially for those who strive for the pursuit of material goods. The causal relationship between a democratic regime and a market economy is based on co-dependency. Free market competition intensifies economic and social inequalities, leading to social isolation and an economically repressive state.

Beetham (2000:55) states further that neo Keynesian economic policies protect economic and social rights by reforming the public service through free market regulations (Neo Keynesian economic policies are outlined further in Chapter 3). The South African Constitution and international commitments ensure that the rights of the poor are upheld. This is an emotive issue for many social scientists and social commentators, based on the global plight of the poor. Beetham (2000:66) suggests that an understanding of the theoretical social framework is important when dealing with poverty issues, especially for policy development in South Africa, which includes the involvement of diverse groups with different agendas.

Lund (2002:160) in turn, refers to distributive justice, whereby society allocates scarce resources among individuals with equal needs. This refers to the efforts by a liberal capitalist economy to counter the socialist view in distributing resources to address human needs. Leading liberals and social theorists promoting social justice

for the poor include Henry George, economist (1879) who regarded land ownership versus an expanding population as benefiting the rich. Leonard Hobhouse (1864-1929) and John Hobson (1858-1904) promoted the redistribution of social surpluses to ensure the rights of the poor to receive an adequate income through taxing underserved surplus. Lloyd George (1906-1911) regarded the payment of pensions, school meals and child welfare from land sales as just redistribution.

2.14.3 Social justice and poverty reduction

Lund (2002:160) refers to a further group of prominent liberalist and social theorists that included the views from the Fabian Society's Economic Theory (1884), which called for the profits from skilled labour to be redistributed to the working classes. The Labour Party's Manifesto of 1945 viewed common ownership of production as social justice. By 1994, the Labour Party viewed taxation as the redistribution of wealth and income. John Rawls (1971), viewed social co-operation as equal rights and benefits to all persons through a four tiered government system that included competitive pricing, employment, minimum levels of social benefits and equity in property taxation. Rawls's model of a welfare state has been used in most industrial democracies since 1945.

Robert Nozick (1974) regarded the rights of individuals as just, whereby resources, goods and services obtained through force should be restored to rectify historical injustices. Nozick's viewpoints (above) were contrary to Britain's conservative policy between 1979 and 1997, whereby income tax was reduced, universal benefits decreased and state services privatised. Waltzer's spheres of justice, which evolved during the 1980s, specified the need for social justice within institutional frameworks.

This was in opposition to the mainstream philosophical approach, which viewed the individual as the basic unit of society subject to abstract rules of distribution. Need is regarded as the principal criterion when assessing a distributive system of justice, where needs are universal and not specific to any group or community (Lund, 2002:160). Iris Young (1990) regarded social justice as the allocation of material goods, resources and income or work opportunities.

Lund (2002:160) is of the opinion that Young's views (above), do not take note of decision-making powers and divisions of labour that determine distributive outcomes for minority communities. The central issue for Young was the empowerment of the oppressed through additional rights for their advancement. Individual rights do not automatically provide equal rights for minority cultures because the majority takes economic and political decisions. Only group-differentiated rights will address inequality. A recent focus on distributive justice includes the "third way" in politics, which views the participation of the excluded as vital to ensure their share in the global economy (Lund, 2002:160).

2.14.4 Social justice and third world development

McGrew (2000:255), Chaskin (2001:291), Cronrath, Livingston, Michell & Werhwath (2005:10), Development Gateway (2006:11) and Wolf (2008:181) agree that social justice includes issues that affect vulnerable groups. Focusing on capitalism versus communism and the impact on the developing world, McGrew (2000:255) states that following the Cold War during the 1960s and 1970s, the member states of the North Atlantic Alliance and Warsaw Pact met during November 1990 to end four decades of conflict and division. This gave rise to a unified world order, including third world countries to participate in the global arena. McGrew (2000:266) is of the opinion that global political and economic forces have conditioned third world development. During the 1990s, there was limited third world development in the areas of trade, finance and technical assistance as agreed upon by the Group 77, which at that stage comprised of 77 states in the third world.

McGrew (2000:255-266) states further that the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank were more concerned with the interests of western states, thereby entrenching the above problems, resulting in a deepening rift between the North and the South. In addition to the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, international organisations such as the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the World Health Organisation, the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) regulate international relationships and western domination of third world countries through a dominance-dependency relationship.

2.14.5 Social justice and community development

Where do the above aspects leave the poor? Moving forward from practical implications of social justice to initiatives to assist the poor, Chaskin (2001:291) maintains that in order to reduce poverty, it is important to link individuals with diverse agendas to a common understanding of social problems. The Definitional Community Framework includes local commitment, organisational skills and problem solving abilities. The framework is dynamic and multi-faceted, based on six dimensions.

The first three dimensions include commitment, resources and networking. The fourth dimension includes strengthening community capacity. The fifth dimension provides community support, while the sixth dimension includes achieving programme objectives. Chaskin (2001:296) states that capacity building should be a continued effort, especially in poor communities to address pertinent issues through collaborative governance.

Wolf (2008:181-183) in turn declares that neighbourhood planning should involve communities in open dialogue with planners. Improved governance at neighbourhood level should involve the participation of residents that will assist the poor to attain a better quality of life. Urban planning renewal transforms city neighbourhoods when undertaken in collaboration with community-based organisations. Cronrath *et al.*, (2005-2006:10-11) agree with Wolf (2008:181-183) and states that rebuilding communities that have suffered natural disasters such as that in New Orleans following hurricane Katrina in 2005, requires co-operative community planning.

Development Gateway (2006:11-14) states that community based networks empower the poor. This includes community driven enterprises to improve service delivery and maintain business initiatives. The challenges to address extreme poverty and hunger include a partnership between government and civil society to ensure sustained initiatives. Civil society's experiences, skills and networks should be utilised to develop alternative policy models. The rights of vulnerable groups to freedom from hunger and economic development remain crucial factors. The plight of all vulnerable persons should be addressed. This includes women, children, older persons, refugees, retrenched workers, people living with HIV/AIDS, and

people living in disaster-prone areas. Development Gateway (2006:14) further states that civil society participation in policy development will ensure that the root causes of poverty are addressed.

2.14.6 Social justice and public service delivery constraints

Ghai (2000:1), Edwards and Kinyua (2000:226), Jain (2002:432), Boyle (2003:113), Farnsworth (2006:817) and The UN Report (2006:6) focus on social justice and the socio-economic circumstances of the poor. Shifting the focus to government initiatives to address poverty, The UN Report (2006:6-8) provides the 2000 poverty statistics, which indicated that the poverty rate for South Africa was 45%, which translates into 18 million citizens living below the poverty line, based on an income of R353,00 per month. In rural provinces, the poverty rate rose to 50%. The Human Development Index (HDI) varied country wide, with Gauteng having the highest at 0,712% and the Northern Province the lowest at 0,531%.

The national poverty rate of 45% for 2000 (above) can be compared to the 2006 national human development index for South Africa, which was 62,8%. An analysis of the above figures indicates that poverty in South Africa increased by 17,08% for the period 2000 to 2006, which provides a grim picture for the poor. The government faces a daunting task to improve a large number of undeveloped communities. The UN Report (2006:6-8) states further that the multi-billion rand Poverty Relief Fund did not deliver on socio-economic upliftment for the poor, as many job losses were experienced due to a slow growing economy and the negative impact of globalisation.

The UN Report (2006:8) refers to the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (ISRDS) that operates as a parallel process to the Urban Renewal Programme (URP) to ensure effective resource co-ordination through local government. The implementation of the ISRDS and the URP at national, provincial and local levels remains problematic due to complex inter-governmental relations, provincial autonomy and inadequate skilled personnel. Poverty can only be effectively addressed through target setting, sustained economic growth, good governance and grassroots participation.

The question then arises as to how women can attain a level of improvement in their poverty status. In response, Jain (2002:432-434) claims that poverty reduction strategies require an assessment of current programmes that operate on the micro or meso level, in order to develop collective strategies for implementation. The resilience of the poor when faced with adversity is remarkable. This is illustrated by the economic development in India and Sri Lanka, where women have escaped the poverty trap through their involvement with the Grameen Bank and the Self-employed Women's Association, which provided loans for small business development. Jain (2003:85) is of the opinion that the pro-active stance above shows the remarkable change in the economic status of women and their standard of living.

Further opinions regarding poverty and social justice include Galbraith's (2000:127) Institutional Framework that views economic and social development through co-operative networks across public, private and international spheres to address the deficiencies in the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank and the World Trade Organisation, which regulate global capitalism. Falk (2000:156) concurs; stating that international justice for developing countries will address their marginalisation and promote their participation in the global economy.

Boyle (2003:113-114) adds to the above factors and states that food security remains a crucial lack for the poor, who do not have basic food requirements for good health. Food security provides sufficient food to lead healthy lives. The causes of hunger include low wages and rising living costs that entrench poverty. Adequate nutrition reduces infant mortality, premature death and disability in adults. Boyle (2003:114) believes that cost effective health care includes alternative interventions and practical policy guidelines.

2.14.7 Policy intervention

Edwards and Kinyua (2000:226), Ghai (2000:1) and Farnsworth (2006:817) agree that an important focus on social justice for the poor in Africa, as well as South Africa, includes policy interventions for marginalised groups in society. Ghai (2000:1-4) provides the worldview of Africa as one of failure due to economic crises, political disorder, civil wars and corruption. However, not all countries in

Africa are in crises. Ghai (2000:5) states further that a realistic view of Africa should be based on the continent's prospects for the future based on experiences and the changing global environment. During the 1970s, the economy of many African countries declined. During the 1980s, less than six African countries were stable and did not experience industrial, agricultural and employment decline.

The decline was more evident in the economic sector and the environment, as population growth depleted natural resources, leading to rapid deforestation (Galbraith, 2000:65). The downturn in industrial export goods, higher interest rates and lack of capital funding had an adverse impact on most African countries. Further deterioration included political instability, resource misuse and the mismanagement of economic policies that prevented Africa from achieving international economic status. Ghai (2000:7) maintains that urgent interventions are required to address the economic collapse of Africa, including survival strategies.

The researcher's comment on Ghai's (2000:6-7) statements above include adding transparency to address rampant corruption, maintaining sustainable poverty alleviation programmes that are tracked from inception to implementation, and entrusting responsibilities to committed people who are not motivated by self-interest. Policy makers initiating intervention strategies for the poor should revisit the above factors.

According to Edwards and Kinyua (2000:226-228), negative economic factors hinder development in Africa and appropriate reforms will reverse the decline. Following the struggle for liberation in many African countries during the 1960s, a reconstruction period followed to achieve a better life for all through economic reforms. This included reforms in education, primary health care and infrastructure, aided by donor funding.

2.14.8 Policy limitations

Edwards and Kinyua (2000:228) state further that Africa sought foreign investment to ensure a strong economic base, which resulted in both successes and failures as newer problems arose, namely rapid population growth, greater demand for social services and increased military spending. These demands placed a huge

burden on limited resources. On a positive note, fertility and infant mortality rates declined, life expectancy improved and education for males and females improved. These reforms were, however, at the expense of investment and job creation.

Socio-economic policies and implementation plans should be linked. Strategies for economic reforms should address rampant corruption. Regional co-operation to strengthen a global African economic base will accelerate structural reforms and sustainable economic growth. This includes future expenditure that does not depend on international loans (Edwards & Kinyua, 2000:228). Farnsworth (2006:827) concurs that policies that pursue formal economy growth have a ripple effect on the poor through adequate welfare spending. However, this aspect singularly does not produce real benefits for the poor if the above processes do not translate the entrepreneurial skills, efficiency and knowledge of the poor to improve public services. Public policies and strategies have failed to produce measurable improvements in service delivery, as assumptions regarding the poor are based on unrealistic expectations from government (Farnsworth, 2006:828).

Ake (2000:189), The World Bank Development Report (2003:26) and Argriades (2006:159) agree that communities entrenched in poverty should be assisted to surmount their adverse circumstances through appropriate interventions. The World Bank Development Report (2003:44-45) concurs with Farnsworth (2006:827) above regarding poverty reduction strategies and views improved public spending as the gateway for basic health care, education and socio-economic growth. Institutional relationships among key stakeholders will improve service standards. In accordance with the international endorsement of the MDG, public service responsibility to alleviate poverty is based on addressing fundamental human rights.

2.14.9 Policy success and policy failures

Breaking the vicious cycles of poverty depends on the ability of the poor to demand service delivery based on their constitutional rights, which galvanises public action, resulting in reforms. The World Bank Development Report (2003:44-45) states that there is no blueprint to ensure effective service delivery, as technical and institutional structures vary in each country. It is therefore essential

to match appropriate policies with each country's circumstances. Where programmes are not successful due to resource constraints, it is imperative to find alternative policy solutions.

Argriades (2006:59-161) concurs with the above aspects and states that good governance is dependent on institutional capacity related to social policy. Development is unique to each country in terms of its size, level of income, ethnic makeup and political systems. Yet the concentration of power, wealth, knowledge and resources resides with a small number of persons, corporations and nationalities. Argriades (2006:161) illustrates the situation in Kerala and Uttar Pradesh in India, which have 32 million and 175 million citizens respectively. In Kerala, public services delivery is efficient and well maintained. The model in Kerala is based largely on human development, which began during the 1950s, by social movements.

Donor funding and skills development were pursued, adult literacy rates rapidly increased followed by a decline in the birth rate. Reforms were achieved in gender equity, basic services, health care and equitable social security. In contrast, the failure of citizen action was acute in Uttar Pradesh. This resulted in limited reforms in education, burgeoning population growth and oppressive gender equity. Traditional caste and power divisions, especially in rural areas, persisted for the past 50 years and entrenched poor service delivery.

Argriades (2006:161-163) states further that higher expenditure for socio-economic improvements were allocated in Kerala than for state administration, in contrast to Uttar Pradesh, where allocations for state administration were higher than those for education and health. Argriades (2006:163) maintains that in order for the poor to break out of their vicious cycle of poverty, it is imperative to learn from the experiences in Kerala and Uttar Pradesh, where, in the former, the commitment to human development ensures a progressive society, despite their poor economic conditions. Uttar Pradesh on the other hand, is an example of the social failure of a state that can only lead to higher costs in terms of human suffering.

2.14.10 Policy considerations for the future

Finally, the statements by Ake (2000:189) hold true for South Africa in terms of addressing the challenges on behalf of the poor. Policy makers seek a changed environment in a society divided by class, power and wealth, which is concentrated in a minor elite group. It is imperative that the interests of the poor are placed on policy agendas for wealth redistribution. However, there may be interest groups who may not want to change the status quo.

The question therefore remains in which way a changed environment can be established. By way of a response, Ake (2000:191-192) states categorically that though liberal democracy is evident in most of Africa, the value systems reflect the leadership value systems and not the value systems at grassroots.

The African democracy movement will mature to incorporate the collective grassroots value systems based on the social upliftment of society (Ake, 2000:189). This will reflect their economic and social rights, based on the historical struggle for democracy rather than on abstract political rights. Ake (2000:191) claims that Africa can pursue social and economic rights in two ways, namely, where it continues with little political change, degenerating into further violent conflicts and chaos, or it can utilise the strengths of its citizens to ensure enduring political change.

2.14.11 Concluding remarks

The above accounts bring into focus the question of social justice for the poor, which for the past few decades has been one of the main issues regarding income distribution to the poor to address absolute and extreme poverty. In addition, social justice for the poor is an important aspect of poverty alleviation in South Africa. Poverty reduction closely aligns with social justice for the poor to provide equal opportunities to all citizens. The economy is a central issue in social justice issues, as wealth creation is viewed either from a capitalist point of view in terms of accumulation of individual wealth, or from a socialist point of view, in terms of wealth creation for the common good.

Social justice is also viewed as the assistance provided by the Northern countries to countries in the South. Social justice is part of policy processes and community

participation in issues pertaining to the wellbeing of the poor. Successful policy processes strengthen community capacity to achieve socio-economic development. Policy failures hinder public initiatives on behalf of the poor, due to poor planning, inefficient service delivery and ineffective programme implementation.

2.15 ADDRESSING POVERTY EFFECTIVELY IN SOUTH AFRICA

The statistics and information presented in this chapter indicate that poverty reduction initiatives in South Africa have achieved a certain measure of improvement for impoverished households. However, present efforts need to be accelerated to comply with the MDG to reduce poverty by 50% by 2015. The poverty situation in South Africa is viewed against the global poverty status. The dynamics involved in poverty alleviation is presented in terms of the present circumstances of the poor and their prospects for the future, as well as the responsibility of government to address the myriad problems experienced by the poor. The road ahead is an uphill climb.

2.15.1 Public transparency

Andreasen (1995:10), Boyle (2003:374), the World Bank Development Report (2003:26), the UN Report (2006:5-6) and Michaelman (2008:13) concur that transparent governance will address poverty effectively in South Africa. Michaelman (2008:13) agrees that transparent governance is based on the Bill of Rights, strategic policy planning and effective partnerships. The Bill of Rights is based on national ideals. It is however, steeped in legal interpretations that outline the obligation by the state to provide progressively the specific needs of vulnerable groups. Michaelman (2008:18-22) states that the Bill of Rights is imperfect, as it fails in its moral purpose to guarantee the social rights of particular groups, even though it fully supports their specific concerns. Adequate planning is needed to effectively address poverty in South Africa.

The UN Report (2006:5-8) outlines the review for South Africa, based on sustainable livelihoods and sound governance. According to the above report, there were positive gains in the political, economic and social environments. It is, however, essential that the partnership between civil society and government promote opportunities for the poor through appropriate policies.

The UN Report (2006:6-8) states that anti-poverty programmes should include a range of projects, instead of focusing on several independent strategic plans to achieve concrete outcomes based on specific targeting, effective monitoring and evaluation. A well-planned and executed poverty reduction project will exceed current attempts that target a few households or individuals. Furthermore, most poverty programmes operate independently or are funded by international donors, who duplicate services to the poor (UN Report, 2006:6-8). Poverty should be viewed as a multi-dimensional problem requiring integrated multi-sectoral intervention.

2.15.2 Effective public service delivery

Boyle (2003:374) affirms the above viewpoints and is of the opinion that sound management skills will achieve policy objectives through effective planning, goal setting and a public environment that promotes optimum service standards. The policy development process begins with policy evaluation and continues to the implementation stage to determine whether a programme has achieved its stated goals and reached its intended target.

Before terminating a programme it should be assessed whether the need was met; whether the nature of the need changed; or whether public support waned. The crucial question remains: At what point do policy makers decide that a need has been met? The response is that policy analysts should consider related policy issues and the decision to expand the existing policy to address additional concerns.

The opinions of Andreasen (1995:12) still holds sway today in respect to service delivery to the poor, which is based on business principles to ensure success. This involves a business marketing mindset and values. The public service mindset is based on organisational objectives rather than clients' needs. To ensure that a specific programme is on the right track, it is imperative to move from an inside-out approach to an outside-in approach that focuses on the wellbeing of poor clients. The outside-in approach adapts services to address unique poverty needs, based on research and effective communication to establish target markets.

A tracking programme will ensure programme sustainability. Social marketers with the appropriate mindset should be chosen who have empathy and organisational

skills to review long term planning strategies, including taking calculated risks. Andreasen (1995:14) is of the opinion that an effective social marketing approach will influence behaviour and co-operation between government agencies, donor agencies and stakeholders.

The World Bank Development Report (2003:26) expands the above viewpoints, confirming that efficient service delivery should improve the circumstances of the poor. During the past few decades there has been enormous improvement in service delivery globally, which has improved life expectancy, living standards and adult literacy. These successes were not based solely on economic growth, public spending, or new technology. The key was the improvement of institutional arrangements that addressed the present needs of the poor and their long-term human development. This will ensure their contribution to society in the future, versus addressing present costly poverty programmes that burdens society.

The World Bank Development Report (2003:29) states further that although various poverty programmes in South Africa have been successful, there remains an enormous task to include the poor in the social, economic and political spheres. Collaborative government includes private sector and civil society intervention. Monitoring, evaluation and efficient management skills remain key aspects. Specific targeting, maximising resources and effective communication throughout the policy processes remain vital. Most importantly, the need to identify and sympathise with the plight of the poor will ensure policy success.

2.15.3 Ensuring socio-economic development

Walters and Aydelotte (2000:349), Rahaman and Varis (2005:16), and Davoudi, Hall, and Power (2008:229) agree with Andreason (1995:10), Boyle (2003:115), the UN Report (2006:9) and Michaelman (2008:13), and assert that socio-economic policies that are centred on effective service delivery will vastly improve the poverty situation in poor communities in South Africa.

Rahaman and Varis (2005:16-18) provide the example from previous conferences on water resource management from the United Nations Mar del Plata Conference in 1997 to the World Summit On Sustainable Development in 2002 and the Third World Water Forum of Kyoto in 2003, which has implications for all poverty

programmes for the future. Effective poverty approaches include sustainable development, which meet the security needs of the poor. Decentralising services and establishing new partnerships will ensure a holistic approach. It is essential to integrate related policy issues that fall through policy gaps. This remains an acute shortcoming in most policy development processes.

Future policy challenges include addressing various poverty conditions that differ enormously from those that currently confront policy makers (Rahaman & Varis, 2005:20). Davoudi *et al.* (2008:229) agree on how the socio-economic environment is likely to alter in the future as well as the implications for policy planning and addressing urban growth. For social science, this includes the art and science of futurism, which addresses key issues over the next 20 years, and to evaluate spatial planning solutions that balance various issues. Davoudi *et al.* (2008:231) maintain that further important consideration includes the type of policies that will ensure resource and service delivery that match future living trends.

Policy analysis does not include democratic processes that include public participation and debate, remaining inclusive of expert analysis, which view current problems as too complex for the public to understand, or that they may not be interested in dialogue (Walters & Aydelotte, 2000:349). Rational decision-making goals in public service are geared towards efficiency. The two aspects remain at odds with each other. Public officials may view that their roles would be redefined, and that public participation is time consuming, expensive, complicated and emotionally draining. Walters and Aydelotte (2000:352) declare that public participation includes aligning the selected strategy to the purpose for participation and the nature of the problem. This includes defining the problem and identifying the criteria for alternative solutions and recommendations. The above aspects will provide the social analyst with steps to develop effective public policies.

2.16 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Poverty reduction in South Africa requires transparent governance, strategic policy planning and implementation. Effective partnerships remain the cornerstone of poverty policy processes. In order to achieve measurable poverty reduction levels, it is essential to rather address a range of issues that have a negative impact upon

the poor, than to only focus on a few specific issues. Service delivery based on business principles will ensure a measure of success for the poor. A business marketing mindset that centres on an outside-in approach is based on research initiatives, effective communication and focusing on the needs of poor clients. Tracking programme processes remain crucial components to policy success. This will also ensure that crucial issues do not fall through policy gaps.

The science of futurism is an essential component to address key issues over the next 20 years. This includes designing spatial spaces that include the needs of poor clients through appropriate policies that consider resource and service delivery implications.

2.17 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Poverty is a global phenomenon that affects the poor negatively. The factors contributing to poverty include a lack of basic needs, including adequate clean water and sanitation and inadequate service delivery infrastructures. The impact of global poverty is staggering, especially on vulnerable women, children, the youth, the aged and people with disabilities.

The universal poverty line is set at USD 1 per day. The United Nations First Decade for the Eradication of Poverty 1997-2006 was the first international effort to address global poverty, followed by the United Nations Millennium Development Goals in 2000, which committed various countries to reduce poverty by 50% by 2015.

The levels of poverty include absolute poverty and extreme poverty. The former indicate a lack of the basic needs for living, whilst the latter includes a total lack of the basic needs for living.

Poverty in Africa remains acute. It is estimated that 350 million people survive on less than USD 1 per day and the average life expectancy is 41 years. Political instability and ethnic strife contribute to the displacement of many poor people. One in ten children dies within twelve months while one in ten suffers from malnutrition.

Regarding South Africa, it is estimated that 35% of the population are very poor. Twenty-eight percent in the formal sector are unemployed, while 40% in the informal sector are unemployed. South Africa has one of the highest HIV/AIDS rates in the world. Women and children bear the brunt of poverty in South Africa as well as the aged poor and the disabled poor.

The impact of climate change on the poor is a serious threat. Future climate change predictions indicate severe suffering for the poor who live in vulnerable fragile areas that are prone to future devastating natural disasters, including floods and famine, which will affect subsistence farmers.

The impact of HIV/AIDS on the poor is profound, as the disease has devastated many impoverished households, leaving many children orphaned.

The socio-economic impact of poverty is more severe in the informal trade sector in South Africa. The poor do not have the necessary business skills to expand their enterprises to enter the formal business sector. The formal business sector in turn, is pursuing a global economy. Government established the Accelerated Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASgiSa), which followed the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) initiative to enable the informal economy to function on a par with the formal business sector.

The impact of the Millennium Development Goals to reduce poverty in South Africa indicates some progress to address poverty. There are concerns, that the pace of service delivery is too slow to reduce poverty by 50% by 2015. Poverty projections and social justice address the question of human rights for the poor. It is essential to include the poor in decision-making processes to ensure effective service delivery to address poverty.

Recommendations include broad-based partnerships and sound management skills, as well as continued policy monitoring and programme evaluation. Specific targeting and adherence to time-frames, as well as an outside-in approach will achieve policy goals and objectives. Income support to individuals and families will address their social and economic exclusion.

The South African economy is linked to government efforts to address poverty, but there are a number of problems in this regard, as the formal and informal economies operate independently from each other. The informal economy is marked by various constraints, including producing and marketing goods. The formal economy is based on first world standards and practices, which is severely lacking in the informal economy. Many poor individuals are unemployable due to the lack of relevant skills.

Women and children are the most vulnerable groups amongst the poor. Employment opportunities for women are scarce as most are not skilled for the work environment. HIV/AIDS adversely affects children and many are orphans due to the pandemic. The poor youth experiences high unemployment rates and engage in risky behaviour in terms of drug abuse, criminal activities and unsafe sexual practices.

Family care for older persons is reduced as younger family members succumb to HIV/AIDS, leaving grandchildren in the care of elderly grandparents. Frail elderly care and dependency are added costs to the national health system, as most elderly persons do not have health cover.

Finally, the disabled poor experience a lack of access to education and employment. The social model is promoted to address the total needs of the disabled, versus the medical model, which focuses on their physical limitations.

CHAPTER 3: PUBLIC POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND POLICY ANALYSIS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Policy development and policy analysis remain two important concepts to address various social needs. There are, however, no specific guidelines to steer policy processes on behalf of the poor, as most poverty policies include inherent weaknesses and strengths. It is therefore essential that policy processes do not remain inclusive public sector initiatives. Policies debated in the wider public domain will ensure a measure of success, as relevant insights of a wide range of stakeholders are incorporated.

Effective communication and dissemination of information in policy development processes will strengthen public poverty policies. Including gender issues in policy processes will ensure that women's adverse socio-economic plight is addressed. Effective poverty policies include the total socio-economic needs of the poor. Policy development and policy analysis include problem identification, policy response and policy implementation. Government poverty policies are not meeting policy goals and objectives to affect necessary social changes, due to various challenges. These include inadequate policies, weak service delivery, the lack of an enabling environment for socio-economic growth, pressure group agendas, socio-economic constraints, inadequate resources and ineffective co-ordination strategies to link government structures and key stakeholders, including the poor, in policy processes.

The above aspects require urgent intervention to enable poor families and poor communities to surmount their adverse circumstances. Commitment to public service delivery remains a key aspect in most public poverty policies. However, the space and quality of service delivery do not have a positive impact on the circumstances of the poor. An additional aspect includes the lack of close co-operation between the three tiers of government. An enabling political environment and political commitment contributes immeasurably to effective policy processes.

Chapter 3 focuses on the historical background of policy development, the need for public policies to address various social issues, and a review of selected public policy models and policy challenges for government.

3.2 HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES ON PUBLIC POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND POLICY ANALYSIS PROCESSES

3.2.1 Historical perspective following the Second World War

In order to understand policy development and policy analysis processes, it is important to reflect on the historical perspectives to gain a holistic understanding. It was widely recognised by the social science professions that social problems required public policy decisions. Consequently, the need for specific skills was viewed as essential for policy processes and effective service delivery, including gender equity (Heineman, Bluhm, Peterson & Kearny, 1997:14, Potter & Subrahmanian, 1998:23, Van Niekerk, Van der Walt, & Jonker, 2002:86-87).

Policy development received significant attention following the Second World War, as analytical approaches to social problems were integrated into formal policy processes. Social science as a profession recognised the importance of rigorous analysis by various disciplines, including sociology and economics to gain a better understanding of policy processes, in order to make informed decisions. During the 1960s, economists developed various cost-benefit analysis theories as an approach to problem solving. Related disciplines provided further inputs, which added various perspectives to address social ills through the systems approach (Heineman *et al.*, 1997:14-17).

Over the next two decades, during the 1950s and 1960s, the policy process followed a broader policy analysis approach, which included a political focus by sociologists and economists, based on the Keynesian Economic Model, which incorporated socio-political and prevailing historical ideals that remained the dominant model prior to the 1960s. For the social science profession it was vital that the policy process included measurable indicators, especially during programme implementation, when it became apparent that there was a lack of tangible results. This argument led to policy analysts adopting the rational choice approach, which focused on attaining maximum social gains that exceeded costs (Heineman *et al.*, 1997:14-16).

3.2.2 Process and skills that informed public policy

Specific skills inform policy makers and include process investigations at various stages during the policy process to ensure effective interactive communication. The policy process then continues to develop into a dynamic investigative framework that includes four parameters, namely the concepts underpinning policy change, policy change in terms of the environment and the complex reality, which requires intervention, the institutional capacities for change and the experiences of change on the beneficiaries. The alternative process that excludes the above processes is based on a linear mode, which progresses from the initial stage of policy design to policy implementation without stakeholder participation (Potter & Subrahmanian, 1998:23-26).

Policy goals are not directly aligned to social needs, as various stakeholders have different expectations. A shift in policy as a process approach to the rational approach is required to understand the causes and the likely impact of new policies. The process approach reflects public policies bound by related legislation to ensure the well-being of citizens. Both public and private interests shape public policy. Dunn's 1984 definition of public policy as a series of government choices to act or not to act regarding specific issues alludes to policy makers' responses or non-responses regarding pertinent issues (Van Niekerk *et al.*, 2002:86-87). It is difficult, however to pinpoint government's non-responses, as it is based on perceived behaviour. Dunn's 1984 definition remains relevant to the present discourse on public policy (Potter & Subrahmanian, 1998:35-39; Van Niekerk, *et al.*, 2002:86-87).

3.2.3 Addressing gender issues in public policy processes

The historical development of the policy processes included a number of policy approaches, which provided theoretical conceptualisations. Women were not visible in public policy processes. In fact, the majority of male policy planners viewed their presence dimly (Karl, 1995:94-96; Cioffi-Revilla, 1998:150). A number of additional approaches were added to the process approach, including the sequential logic mode approach as a theoretical framework, which views a political event taking place in the same space as several other events, which have passed through different nodes. This meeting place, or causal perspective, illustrates the manner in which all political events occur, beginning with historical roots and continuing into a sequential

branching process. In the same manner, public policy development is viewed as a probabilistic outcome based on sequential policy changes (Cioffi-Revilla 1998:150).

The historical policy development approaches above did not include women in policy processes to ensure their economic and social development. During 1976 to 1985, development policies addressed gender issues in terms of childcare, health, fertility and poverty. The role of women in the economic spheres was totally ignored. During the mid 1970s and 1980s, gender needs were integrated into development issues, focusing on equity, anti-poverty and efficiency. This new development brought opposition from traditionalists, especially in third world countries (Karl, 1995:94-96).

The equity approach promoted women's strategic needs in policy development. This included equal relations between men and women and their economic independence. The equity approach was consequently abandoned, owing to the opposition by traditionalists and replaced by the efficiency approach, which viewed women as a cheap form of exploitive labour. Men who had no perception of the needs of women in the policy-making processes spearheaded the above approaches. Since the 1980s, gender issues were brought into the mainstream of public debate in both first and third world countries, which allowed women to participate in policy development. This included their expertise throughout the policy cycle and gender training to male policy planners, based on the efficiency approach, which was less threatening in terms of female empowerment (Karl, 1995:94-96).

3.2.4 Effective public service delivery

Moving forward from the 1980s to the present in terms of policy development processes, the focus shifted to public service delivery based on appropriate policies. There are, however, many policy constraints regarding transparent processes and efficient resource utilisation (The World Bank Development Report, 2003:160-162; May, 1997:1-3).

The public sector remains accountable for policy processes in respect of funding service delivery and monitoring poverty programmes. An inefficient public sector will not deliver effective services. Good governance is a crucial aspect of public service delivery, and includes prudent financial expenditure, co-ordination and efficient local management. Public accountability will ensure policy success. A lack of human and

financial capital adversely affects public sector reform and accountability. It is imperative to balance diverse group interests by strengthening organisational capabilities through alternative policy options and adequate finances.

Government has the legitimacy to enforce socially approved governance. Public structures shape the political and economic agendas in terms of service delivery. The strengths and weaknesses of the service environments affect policy efficiency. A successful environment is evaluated against four criteria, namely efficiency, equity, adaptability and accountability. Whilst national government is responsible for establishing service norms and standards, the responsibility for service delivery rests with provincial and local government (May, 1997:1-3). Local municipalities are mandated to provide social and economic development through the Development Facilitation Act (Act 67 of 1995). This may prove difficult to achieve, as the poor experience poverty as a short-term, long-term or permanent condition. It is therefore important to understand and address poverty from this vantage point.

3.2.5 Policy development and service delivery in Africa and South Africa

Moving forward from the development of public policy as a dynamic evolving process which includes theories of policy development, stakeholder participation, effective communication, gender involvement and efficient environments, the focus shifts to policy development in Africa and South Africa, where there have been sound policy development, but implementation constraints (Kayizzi-Mugerwa, 2003:15; Stasavage, 2005:343).

Since the 1990s, there have been no major economic reforms in Africa, despite various governments' efforts to comply with the donor community's conditions for good governance through transparent administration, rural development and protecting vulnerable groups in appropriate policies. Following the initial focus on economic development in Africa during the 1980s, the focus shifted towards reforming public administrations. However, good governance, policy development and implementation as well as sustainability require political and legal environments for socio-economic growth, wealth distribution and civil society representation. Public policy development and policy analysis is a well-planned process that includes clear

definitions, goals and objectives, the positive attitudes of policy makers, and local government's mandate and ability to implement policies (Kayizzi-Mugerwa, 2003:15).

Democracy in many African countries contributed to improved public service delivery, especially in health and education through economic growth, which in turn improved human capital. These gains were at the expense of essential needs, as illustrated by the cross-country data in Malawi and Uganda to assess overall public spending on primary education. The above research study by Stasavage (2005:343) indicates that public spending was higher for primary education than for university education. The study indicated too, that weak institutions have low impact on public policies, as most African countries increased government spending since the 1990s to the detriment of economic policy reforms.

3.2.6 Concluding remarks

The historical development of public policy development and policy analysis from the 1940s to the present provide the basis to understand the process over the decades. Various theoretical approaches, namely the process approach, the rational approach, the sequential mode approach, the equity approach, the anti-poverty approach and the efficiency approach bring into focus the various poverty dimensions that are not adequately addressed in public poverty policies. The above aspects highlight the need for a holistic understanding of the dynamics involved in public policy development.

The influential presence of women in policy development processes in terms of gender equity is lacking largely. Women add value to public policy processes from their female perspectives, by strengthening the needs of families and communities. This will ensure that the poor will not continue to receive piecemeal services from public sector service delivery. Similarly, public policy development as an evolving process could remain a problematic process, if it remains inclusive, or it could become a dynamic instrument for social change, if the process includes the contributions of all key stakeholders.

It is vital that public policy development incorporates the interests of all social groupings. Good governance remains a key factor, especially in reforming public structures to create enabling environments that are conducive for effective policy

development, policy implementation and policy monitoring. Policy successes depend entirely on effective implementation strategies. Sound policy strategies will be useless without the latter aspect.

3.3 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND TO PUBLIC POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND POLICY ANALYSIS IN SOUTH AFRICA

The South African government post 1994 has the arduous task to address the consequences of preceding years of domination and neglect and the present plight of the poor who represent the majority of South Africans.

3.3.1 The South African Constitution and the Bill of Rights

In view of the high levels of poverty in South Africa, there is an urgent need for socio-economic policy reforms in South Africa, based on human rights. The South African Constitution ensures that the poor have redress to their plight, as relevant public sectors undertake to provide for their socio-economic needs (Richardson, 2007:2-4).

South Africa's history of racial domination, social injustice and economic exploitation influenced human rights negatively. The years 1935 to 1994 marked a period of entrenched political instability in South Africa, which had an adverse impact on property rights, political rights and civil freedoms. Post 1994, religious freedom and freedom of movement were ensured by the Bill of Rights. The question remains whether the Bill of Rights is effectively translated into appropriate policies for the poor in South Africa (Fedderke, De Kadt & Luiz, 2001:22; O'Faircheallaigh, 2002:1-4, 23; Environmental Monitoring Group, 2005:31; Baumann, 2007:10; Michaelman, 2008:13).

A response to the above question is that globally, the Bill of Rights is fraught with legal consequences, even though it may reflect national ideals and values. The Bill of Rights affirms reasonable access to material needs by specific groups. Although the Bill of Rights supports a particular concern, it is flawed as it fails to guarantee comprehensive social rights (Baumann, 2007:10; Michaelman, 2008:13).

Practical insights to the above aspects include government's socio-economic policies that focus on formal sector development, which excludes the vast majority of informal traders in the socio-economic spheres. The public sector may naively believe that

their institutional reforms and development policies are addressing poverty concerns. However, the problem with this perception includes the increasing needs of the poor, which will require continuous socio-economic policy assessment to ensure sustainable services.

Following years of isolation, South Africa lacks appropriate statistical tools to monitor the living conditions of the poor, especially in terms of the MDG. Prior to 1993, there were no benchmark measures regarding the exact nature and conditions of South Africa's poor. The poverty status in South Africa can only be determined against accurately recorded sustainable development (Environmental Monitoring Group, 2005:31).

The above aspects indicate that the public sector as a whole is not fully geared to deliver appropriate services to the poor to reduce the high levels of poverty in South Africa. As an evolving process, public policy development does not remain static, as it has to absorb the situations that are endemic to the policy focus. This includes both the positive and negative political influences as well as the challenging needs of target groups. This melting pot represents the conundrum of societal life, which can be both interesting and taxing to policy makers. This is apparent especially during policy implementation, which has been problematic since the historical development of policy processes. According to O'Faircheallaigh (2002:1-4), related policy implementation problems include identifying policy objectives aligned to programme evaluation, the vested interest of various groups, institutional agendas and lack of concrete implementation outcomes. Additional constraints include formulating specific criteria to ensure programme success, identifying the specific intervention that brought about a particular outcome and changing agendas to appease various interest groups.

It is vital that public policy addresses issues in the economic, social and political fields that influence the public and private sectors. An example in this respect is the Keynesian Economic Policy Model, established during the depression of 1930 to stimulate the economy to reduce unemployment. The model was utilised to address unemployment, but the business sector was unwilling to enlarge their enterprises, as there were no profit guarantees on investment. Incentive approaches replaced the Keynesian Model during the 1960s, as the former was not feasible in terms of raising

taxes to a level that would decrease government spending (O’Faircheallaigh, 2002:23).

It is apparent that public service delivery to the poor would be constrained by various problems ranging from compliance to the Bill of Rights, socio-economic problems and stakeholder interests. Further policy implementation constraints are listed below.

3.3.2 Policy development and implementation

Policy implementation is the practical arm of the policy development process and remains a crucial aspect in terms of efficient service delivery to the poor. This is aptly illustrated by the three research investigations undertaken by Rivera, Monterrubio, Gutiérrez and González-Cossio (2005:168-169, 171) to assess the impact of income and inequality on child nutrition globally, to determine the relationship between poverty and under-nutrition in a mid-income country, and to evaluate the inequity in food distribution and targeting. The research findings, which have relevance for policy development and policy analysis in the South African context, indicate that there is a relationship between income inequality and the prevalence of under-nutrition.

The above research indicated that the number of stunted growth cases in children is about three times higher in rural areas and higher in socio-economic poorer areas. Targeting in the three investigations was inadequate as the focus was on urban areas. The food packs were not suitable for infants and young children and lacked nutritional value. Communication strategies were inadequate and interventions were duplicated, due to a lack of co-ordination. The food distribution did not include primary health care. In addition, there were no established monitoring strategies.

The preparation for policy implementation cannot be neglected in policy development processes. This aspect links closely to the initial phases of policy planning but is neglected largely in public policy processes to the detriment of effective service delivery to the poor, as illustrated by the following authors.

3.3.3 Policy implementation and resource constraints

Pro-poor development policies provide excellent examples of inadequate implementation, which do not meet the specific policy criteria (Moller & Devey, 2003:458; Nel & Rogerson, 2005:15).

The research outcome regarding Local Economic Development (LED) in South Africa serves as a case in point. As part of the Millennium Development Goals to promote pro-poor development, local government initiated LED to address urban poverty across cities in South Africa. The study investigated applied interventions and outcomes of the correlations between LED policy and LED implementation, based on a 2004/2005 World Bank sponsored study in twenty of the largest cities in South Africa. The results indicated that although the political climate in South Africa is helpful to the upliftment of the poor and strengthened by the Constitution, the Reconstruction and Development Programme, the Local Government White Paper, the Local Government Municipal Systems Act and the political will of government, numerous obstacles were encountered. These include a lack of understanding regarding local economies, unsustainable community projects and a lack of capacity and resources (Nel & Rogerson, 2005:15, 18).

LED is pro-poor in policy but not in practice. The challenges included policy implementation, the parallel processes of LED's pro-poor and pro-growth initiatives, national macro-economic strategies and the Department of Trade and Industry's pro-growth interventions. LED mandates South African municipalities to address poverty, but human and financial resources are acute. The lack of appropriate definitions regarding economic growth, poverty relief and resource allocation are further obstacles. The low budgets allocated to LED and the lack of monitoring and evaluation strategies will not have a positive impact on local poverty (Nel & Rogerson, 2005:15, 18).

Regarding the above aspects, a succinct overview of the historical perspective of South Africa in relation to the commitment to the poor, follows the negotiated settlement during 1994. The government was tasked to address the needs of the poor. Subsequently, a million new houses, clean water and health services were delivered by 1999. This attested to positive achievements in service delivery, following the first five years of democracy, especially the provision of 50,000 new homes, electrifying 2.5 million homes, as well as providing free health care and school feeding for poor children. However, macro-economic strategies did not create jobs despite the economic stability in South Africa at the time (Moller & Devey, 2003:458).

There is still much to do to lower the poverty levels in South Africa. As local government is primarily responsible for service delivery implementation, it is imperative that skilled personnel and financial resources strengthen their efforts and policy implementers are an integral part of policy processes.

3.3.4 Concluding remarks

The above accounts outline the historical background to policy development and policy analysis in South Africa. Following years of deprivation and utter poverty during apartheid, South Africa post 1994 began its socio-economic reconstruction programmes based on human rights and social justice. The biggest challenge is to ensure that these rights are upheld. This remains a daunting task for government in light of the tremendous socio-economic needs of the poor.

The interests of the large numbers of informal traders did not guide subsequent economic policies. This was a grave omission and widened the gap between the formal and informal economic sectors, and deepened the poverty status of the poor.

As there are no guidelines to steer policy processes, an accurate reflection of poverty in South Africa cannot be determined. Added policy problems include vague policy objectives, vague policy implementation plans and inadequate monitoring and evaluation mechanisms. The three aspects above remain essential components of policy processes. Yet to a large degree, many public poverty policies continue from policy development to policy implementation with disastrous results. The foremost problem is policy failure that neglects to address poverty issues prudently, taking into consideration all possible consequences.

As various interest groups change policy goals, adding to policy development problems, it is essential that a well-planned and well-executed poverty policy remains the primary goal of all poverty policies. Research initiatives regarding poverty issues should serve to guide policy processes. Evidence based research initiatives will serve as guidelines for policy development and policy implementation. This aspect is a crucial component for poverty policies in South Africa. It will also assist to identify costly constraints that deter service delivery.

Children living in poverty remain a mute point for policy makers, who need to address the serious plight of many children from impoverished households headed by single, mostly female caregivers (Chant, 2006:201). Inter-generational poverty remains problematic in respect of children who grow up to be poor adults (Clark, 2006:699; Daniel & Taylor, 2006:426). Their plight as well as the plight of poor women, the youth, the aged and the disabled, will continue as long as local government experiences funding and personnel constraints to implement poverty policies effectively. As the South African economic situation continues to remain bleak in terms of employment creation, the circumstances of the poor will prevail.

3.4 THE NEED FOR EFFECTIVE PUBLIC POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND POLICY ANALYSIS

3.4.1 A collaborative process

Public policy development and policy analysis include public participation, which is individual, group or collective involvement, transparency and effective communication. The exclusion of any of the above aspects would render the process ineffective and unsustainable. Stakeholder involvement remains a primary aspect as common goals are nurtured. It is therefore essential to understand the various situations that impinge on policy development, including external variables that could boost or hinder relationships (Lodge, 2003:31, Hudson, 2005:1).

Hudson (2005:25-30) refers to policy relationships as the actor-general theory, which includes a host of players in the decision-making process to address a particular problem. The social enquiry centres on problem recognition, problem framing, goal prioritising, policy options and policy assessment. The above factors influence policy decision-making, based on variables from the micro and macro levels.

The intellectual insights from the fields of psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics and other related fields enable the policy analyst to collate complex information regarding the attitudes, experiences and perceptions of all stakeholders regarding the presenting problem. The specific collaboration represents a microcosm of the diverse variety of experiences in a given society. Hudson (2005:30) adds that the actor-specific theory enables the policy analyst to gather the views of all

participants to address common issues, clarify the decision-making process, and proceed to usher in social change.

It is evident from the above aspects that the linear mode of policymaking, referred to by Potter and Subrahmanian (1998:26) and the viewpoint of Van Niekerk *et al.* (2002:86-87) that policy makers should take cognisance of stakeholder expectations remain essential policy processes.

The example of the control of invasive species in nature illustrates the importance of relevant public policy to address specific socio-economic problems in South Africa. Environmentalists and scientists disagree on invasive species and the changes in the eco-systems, which affect crop production. This has a ripple effect on the circumstances of the poor. The figures of 13-138 billion USD annual loss of global food production may seem incompatible, but the confusion and tensions relating to conflicting value systems remain, especially in public policy, when it is important to distinguish between the natural environment and environmental changes brought about by other factors (Lodge, 2003:33-37).

The natural manner in which species move along bio-geographic regions within continents contributes to economic global trading that benefit millions of poor. This applies as well to flora that is not endemic to a region, which is dispersed widely. The current debates however, have led to two opposing sides with competing goals regarding the protection of natural resources from invasive species. Although there are different opinions regarding the benefits of invasive species, there is a need, however to control their spread. Public policies should therefore balance the conflicting opinions of ecologists and environmental ethicists, based on environmental ethics. The major policy challenge includes balancing conflicting opinions based on probability outcomes (Lodge, 2003:33-37).

The above aspects confirm the viewpoints of Cioffi-Revilla (1998:150) and the World Bank Development Report (2003:1-3) that policy processes include the gathering of divergent opinions into a central common flow of shared interests regarding a social problem.

3.4.2 Addressing health issues

Health policies can be problematic if a specific medical need arises which is a national health threat for the population at large. This is aptly illustrated by the following research study that illustrates the case in point for effective policy development and policy analysis. Mugisha, Kouyate, Gbangou and Sauerborn (2002:187-190) investigated the burden of out-of-pocket expenditure in households in Burkina Faso. Health care fees were utilised to finance health services, as government budgets declined due to macro-economic problems and population growth. Consequently, many patients were self-diagnosing and administering their own medication that led to acute medical conditions that could not be treated effectively. A further problem included the resistance to certain drugs in treating malaria and related illnesses.

The findings of the above survey, which included 800 households, indicated that individuals living in urban areas with higher income sought medical help for malaria, which illustrated geographical and monetary access. Malaria was therefore less severe in urban areas. As the main cause of morbidity and mortality in the population, public spending was, however, less-out-of-pocket than the amount spent on other illnesses. As a result, the poor continued to self medicate. The research conclusion was that public policies should focus on education regarding the risks associated with malaria complications and the associated risks of inappropriate diagnosis and treatment (Mugisha *et al.*, 2002:187-190).

Health policies should assist the poor to access public health services. This requires a partnership between health institutions and poor communities. The poor need to be informed regarding medical issues that influence their wellbeing and finances. In the example above, appropriate policy responses should include interactive processes that were established from the outset of the policy development process. Consequently, in the event of a national medical emergency, poor communities would be armed with knowledge to seek appropriate assistance. Where no assistance is available, the strengths of communities should be tapped to seek appropriate solutions.

Regarding the above aspects, South Africa is presently engaged in the establishment of a National Health Insurance scheme (NHI). The National Health Insurance Advisory Committee (NHIAC) was established in 2009 to advise government on policy

and legislation relating to the NHI. The NHIAC's brief was to steer the health agenda to ensure full implementation of the HIV and AIDS Plan, improve the quality and efficiency of health services, and develop policy proposals for universal health care through local health care systems. The first phase of the project should be in place by 2012. There is still a road ahead for the full realization of the NHI scheme in respect of support from medical aid schemes, public understanding and support, funding from increased taxation, and skills training for medical personnel at grassroots. The positive spin-offs for the poor, however, are enormous (International Insurance and Healthcare Industry News, 2010:3-6; McIntyre, Goudge, Harris, Nxumalo, Khosi, 2009:5-7; Govender; Grabe, 2010:1).

3.4.3 Addressing gender equity

Historically, women have not been actively engaged in public processes regarding issues that influence their socio-economic rights (Karl, 1995:94; Walters & Aydelotte, 2000:349-350; Fedderke *et al.*, 2001:22; Zedlewski & Anderson, 2002:6, UNESCO-EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2006:1). Gender equity in policy processes includes their active participation to address unemployment and related issues. Public policies should focus on legislative reform to ensure gender equity by promoting female education, non-discrimination in primary and secondary education, the protection of property and inheritance rights, gender equity in family law, and addressing conflicts and violence (UNESCO-EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2006:1).

The lack of gender participation in policy processes has an impact on women in general, and on poor women in particular. Women's recourse to the Constitution and the Bill of Rights does not imply that their rights to equality and justice are immediately available. Their struggle in the socio-economic spheres remains, for the most part, unchanged. Relevant public sectors, however, are attempting to address the needs of poor women, as illustrated in the following research investigation, which identify the constraints of inadequate policy development and implementation.

Zedlewski and Anderson (2002:6, 9) investigated mainly female welfare recipients from impoverished households for the job market. During 1996, the Temporary Assistance for Needy Families Programme (TANF) in the U.S.A. was introduced to reduce welfare caseloads and raise employment levels among disadvantaged

women. This was due to the economic boom of the 1990s, which assisted millions of welfare recipients to enter the job market. The positive aspects of the programme waned, resulting in job losses when economic growth declined. Poor health, limited education, minimal work experiences and family responsibilities were barriers to employment amongst welfare recipients. Policies that remove specific employment barriers include intensive mental health programmes that provide marketable job skills for those with little education. The TANF programme would create self-sufficiency for beneficiaries in the long term.

Most public policy processes do not include public participation and debate and remain exclusive entities (Walters & Aydelotte, 2000:349-350). Public officials are reluctant to engage community interaction, as they view social problems as too complex for the public to understand. They view citizen participation as time-consuming, expensive, complicated and emotionally draining. To ensure public involvement, the selected strategy should be aligned to citizen participation and the presenting social problem. This includes defining the problem, identifying and specifying the criteria for alternative solutions and recommending alternative solutions. The above framework will assist the policy analyst to develop effective public policies.

Incorporating the diverse needs of the poor in policy processes remains a challenging task, as illustrated by the examples above. The issue of poverty is complex and requires much more than intellectual deliberation by policy makers. The perception from policy makers that the poor may not be able to understand complex social problems does not have a basis, as their experiences of poverty are vital in policy processes.

3.4.4 Concluding remarks

The processes outlined above provide critical aspects to policy development in respect of poverty issues in South Africa. The essential need for public participation, open lines of communication and dissemination of information in the policy development process remains a crucial component. Gender equity is vital in terms of women's unique plight. This will ensure that their adverse socio-economic needs are addressed in policy issues.

The model of the Temporary Assistance to Needy Families Programme highlights the need for policy caution in terms of implementing a policy decision without understanding the external circumstances that may derail policy objectives. Relevant public sectors responsible to distribute resources to address social needs should be held accountable for efficient service delivery. The combined wealth of knowledge, experience, values and attitudes of a wide range of stakeholders should be elicited prior to embarking on any policy processes regarding the poor in South Africa.

3.5 THE ROLE OF POLICY ANALYSIS AND POLICY ADVOCACY

Policy analysis and policy advocacy are two crucial aspects emanating from policy development. Policy analysis enables policy makers to conceptualise social problems in terms of scientific understanding of fundamental beliefs of policy development to address social needs across a diverse spectrum of interest groups. In this manner, policy analysis and policy advocacy provide the weakness and strengths of specific policies that have either negative or positive implications for the target groups.

3.5.1 Policy analysis and policy advocacy processes: Lessons from relevant research initiatives

The panel data research by Ederveen, De Groot and Nahuis (2006:17) assessed the European Union policy decisions to promote economic growth in thirteen member states. The Structural Funding was a key policy instrument for income transfer that was co-funded by the recipient country to be invested in specific projects. A model simulation, case studies and an econometric evaluation were utilised to study the effectiveness of the Structural Funding on regional economic growth. The research results indicated that the funds contributed to economic growth among member states in different ways.

In the above research, funds allocated to “good” institutions and quantified on inflation, openness and being corruption free, were conditionally effective, depending on the recipient government's policy outcomes, inflation and government savings. The Structural Funding did not improve economic growth in countries with the “right” institutions, but assisted those with sound institutional arrangements. The research indicated too the need for a re-design of the European Union Cohesion Policy in light of additional member states to the European Union. The funds should be allocated

primarily for institutional reforms to stimulate economic growth. Ederveen *et al.* (2006:35) state that the Structural Funding was in line with previous research investigations regarding the effectiveness of donor funding to less developed countries, with similar results.

The above aspect illustrates a well-planned policy development process that identifies effective public institutions to implement allocated funding for socio-economic change. A policy constraint, however, included the lack of economic growth for the recipient countries. This could be because of a lack of understanding the dynamics of poverty and economics in different countries. Whilst policy makers' intentions are good, they may not have adequate knowledge of the circumstances surrounding the specific problem in another region or another country. It is therefore essential that policy processes do not remain inclusive, but incorporates the inputs of relevant experts in their fields to guide policy processes.

The important role of stakeholders in policy development is imperative. Brugha and Varvasovszky (2008:239) add that health policy makers and researchers recognised the crucial role of individuals and groups during the past decade to enable social analysts to understand policy issues from stakeholder perspectives and influences. Brugha and Varvasovszky (2008:240-241) allude to Laswell's 1958 Polity Model whereby decision-making processes are concentrated in a few powerful influential people, and Bachrach and Baratz's 1962 Pluralism Model, where power is distributed through various interest groups in society. The two above models provide further understanding of stakeholder involvement in policy processes.

The policy agenda and decision making process is shaped by networking which focuses on formal and informal relationships. This is in contrast to the sole networking between and within organisations. Over the past decade, civil society's inputs have been incorporated into policy processes. This marked a shift from the rational policy model to stakeholder inclusion in policy decision making. The support or opposition of stakeholders is important in terms of policy success or failure. As a strategic part of research and policy processes, stakeholders are a part of the political and interest mapping groups (Brugha & Varvasovszky, 2008:242).

From the above aspects it is evident that the closed policy-making processes of the past did not contribute to major changes in the lives of the intended target groups for whom the policy had been developed and implemented. Public service delivery sectors exert important influences on the manner in which policy develops to suit organisational needs and to control financial costs. The open system of policy development processes that includes active stakeholder participation refines policy processes through negotiation and pay-offs that serve diverse needs.

3.5.2 Policy development constraints: Lessons from relevant research initiatives

The following examples illustrate aptly the successes and constraints of various policy models. Orphanides (2003:991-995) undertook a study on John B. Taylor's essay, "Discretion Versus Policy Rules in Practice," which was presented at the 39th Carnegie Rochester Conference on Public Policy during 1992. Taylor's Policy Rule Framework has a major influence on policy issues. The framework is based on precise algebraic formulae. The study investigated the framework's effectiveness on monetary policies in the USA. A key component of the study included an assessment of interest rate decisions in Federal Reserve monetary policies. The emerging themes in the study indicated that the Federal Reserve economic policies were consistent in terms of Taylor's framework. However, a recurrent source of error has been the misconceptions of the state of the economy and incorrect assessments of the economy's productive potential in terms of inflation, which prompted tightening or easing of monetary spending that were counter-productive.

The Taylor Rule Framework described a policy for economic conditions that were exemplary, but not ideal to address social problems effectively. It is a useful device to interpret past policy discussions, but is impractical to prevent present policy mistakes. The study also concluded that policy implementation details should be left to policy makers, who have comprehensive policy development knowledge. The Taylor Framework serves as a guide to policy when human behaviour is systematic. As monetary policies do not stay on a predicted course, an appropriate framework should include an accurate description of the trends in the economy and economic predictions that impact on social issues (Orphanides, 2003:991-995).

A cautionary note in the above processes outlines the necessity to assess a particular policy model for its appropriateness before adoption to develop and implement any particular policy framework. Most policy models have their strengths and weaknesses (Raphael & Bryant, 2002:189; Orphanides, 2003:983; Ederveen *et al.*, 2006:17). It is therefore imperative to adopt an integrative model from a range of available frameworks that are available.

May (1997:5-9) outlines the impact of the National Spatial Development Framework Policy and cites the South African migrant labour policy as a case in point that has impacted negatively upon the economies of the poor in terms of income, education, health and related socio-economic needs. May (1997:5-9) states that the onus rests on government to target broader policy concerns, not only spatial issues to address the total needs of the poor. Poverty is severe in small towns and rural areas and further impeded by the lack of economic opportunities and access to commercial markets. The National Spatial Policy should be redressed to strengthen micro non-farming enterprises and provide alternative livelihoods for the informal sector.

May (1997:9) states further that additional policy problems include the non-operational policy proposals of the Broadening Access to Agriculture Thrust that included rural communities in agriculture development. There is a need to establish peri-urban agriculture in small towns and community gardens in rural areas to provide livelihood opportunities. The housing policy is problematic due to the demand for low-cost housing and government budget and administrative constraints. Low income and high unemployment limit access to credit facilities (May, 1997:9).

Public policies neglect rural development. However, recommending that non-farming enterprises be strengthened and developing community gardens would involve more than assuring the livelihoods of impoverished households. This includes the socio-economic challenges for the informal sector in terms of access to finances and wider markets (Bond, 2007:216; Edwards & Stern, 2007:111; Mapadimeng, 2007:257) and the adverse problems experienced by the agricultural sector (London & Bailie, 2001:569; Hansen, 2002:314-320; Thirtle, Piesse & Gouse, 2005:56).

3.5.3 Community involvement in public policy development: Lessons from research initiatives

Raphael and Bryant (2002:194-196) on the other hand, investigated the Canadian Institute Advanced Researcher Analysis (CIAR) to determine how variables within the system influenced population health. The results indicated that CIAR's health concepts do not take into account evidential data from social theory that could improve population health. The World Health Organisation's concepts of health are focused on behavioural or lifestyle changes, which are pertinent discussions among health and social professionals. This aspect is not a part of the CIAR focus. A further limitation includes the dominance of medical issues. A major concern is the fact that American policy makers review the CIAR model for possible inclusion in their health policies. The problems with the CIAR model are the two-fold perception that the main determinants of health include cultural, social and economic factors, where equitable wealth distribution provides optimum health. The social environment on the other hand, provides adequate coping skills to ensure health wellbeing.

Raphael and Bryant's (2002:194-196) critique of the foregoing aspects include their viewpoints that there should be broader multi-sectoral views on health issues, which requires a critical examination of negative life experiences that impact on the health of communities. The CIAR views are consistent with health promotion theory and practice. An alternative approach is required that improves the health of the entire population and reduces health inequities among population groups. This includes a range of related factors that determine health. A conceptual framework that takes into account collaboration among relevant stakeholders will ensure allocated resources for optimum health based on both qualitative and quantitative needs assessment and evaluation, which is not a part of the CIAR processes.

The above example provides a policy success that is one-sided, neglecting related social problems. Institutional policies tend to have an organisational focus highlighted throughout policy processes to the detriment of effective service delivery. Subsequently, piecemeal services are rendered by related public sectors, targeting the same beneficiaries. This does not bode well for holistic cost effective public service delivery.

Hanney, Gonzale-Block, Buxton and Kogan (2003:45-51) concur with the above aspects and state that policy analysis and policy advocacy processes are important to establish effective health systems. There are many obstacles to utilise evidence-based research findings during the policy-making process which are influenced by industry, health professionals and the public. Research-based policies include a wider range of validation and are better options than decisions based on politically constrained stakeholder deliberations.

The Rational Model is an example of a policy model that identifies problems, seeks alternative solutions and selects the best option that matches the policy goals. The Incremental Model provides for policy debates and acknowledges diverse sources of information. The Networks Approach highlights relationships between groups and policy makers, including established positions within institutions and personal ambitions. The “Garbage Can” Model includes solutions that should have been discarded, which continues in the policy-making system and remains attached to current problems. This diverts the policy process (Hanney *et al.*, 2003:45-51).

Sound knowledge of policy processes remains a prime prerequisite for policy makers, prior to embarking on any policy planning. This will serve to bring together important stakeholder collaboration and human and financial resources.

3.5.4 Concluding remarks

The above accounts indicate the important role of policy analysis and policy advocacy, which remain two important concepts to address various social needs and determine the weakness or strengths of specific social policies. Effective policy analysis and policy advocacy ensured the effectiveness of the European Union's Structural Funding Framework based on funding institutions with the right institutional arrangements, as opposed to those that were not institutionally sound. This distinction has enormous benefits for the poor. The problem with effective policy implementation is the fact that policy implementation plans are not well planned during the policy development processes. This includes efficient monitoring and evaluation processes to identify and address policy challenges. Weak public institutions tasked with service delivery entrench the adverse social circumstances of the poor. This hopeless situation can, in most instances continue for long periods, with no redress.

Committed policy analysts should note Laswell's Polity Model as well as Bachrach and Baratz's Pluralism Model that outline the influence and power yielded by various stakeholders in policy development, with concern. It is therefore essential that absolute transparency guide those tasked to bring in social change (Brugha & Varvasovszky, 2008:340-342). John Taylor's Policy Rule Framework provides the algebraic formulation to determine trends in the economy, but does not provide solutions to social problems (Orphanides, 2003:991). This aspect will be resolved, when the separate roles of economist and social scientists remain complementary.

The National Spatial Development Framework Policy will not address the needs of the poor in terms of agriculture and housing in South Africa, as long as the respective services, including relevant services from other public sectors, are not integrated and implemented as a holistic effort (May, 1997:5). The CIAR Model is not an inadequate policy framework to address the total socio-economic needs of individuals and communities. This model provides a perfect example of a narrow policy focus, which excludes addressing related social problems. It is important to note that research based evidential data provides a sound basis for policy making decisions, as this is based on rational scientific facts (Raphael & Bryant, 2002:194).

The respective research initiatives above indicate the strengths and constraints in policy development processes. A perfect public poverty policy cannot therefore, be developed, as there are no foolproof methods that deal effectively with the various policy development dynamics. Policymakers have to work from high levels of organisational strengths and stakeholder participation to ensure policy successes.

3.6 A REVIEW OF SELECTED NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL SERVICE DELIVERY MODELS

The following selected national and international policy models provide an overview of the constraints and successes of various public service delivery efforts. Policy constraints include external variables that are beyond policy makers' control and ensuring basic services to all citizens (May, 1997:9-12; Kayizzi-Mugerwa, 2003:45).

3.6.1 Policy constraints in Africa and South Africa

The economic growth in Africa during the 1990s marked a positive effect on the political climate to the reversal of economic gains a decade later, due to weather

conditions, external shocks, civil wars and declining foreign investments. Botswana has effective institutions based on the rule of law and democracy, which is in stark contrast to Somalia and Liberia, where civil wars have destabilised surrounding countries, namely Guinea-Bissau and Sierra Leone. The civil wars in Angola and the Republic of the Congo (DRC) displaced populations, causing political problems for neighbouring countries. Conversely, countries which have not experienced civil wars, such as the Ivory Coast, Kenya, Tanzania, Malawi and Zambia, experienced negative economic growth, leading to weak institutions, due to civil service inefficiency, corruption and political exclusion (Kayizzi-Mugerwa, 2003:45-50).

Good governance in South Africa will ensure efficient service delivery through appropriate policy frameworks. The National Spatial Development Framework Model (NSDF) ensures service equity in local service delivery to alleviate poverty and economic growth through national, provincial and local co-ordinating expenditure. The Rural Development Framework provides for institutional development to develop local economies. The Municipal Infrastructure Investment Framework (MIF) ensures basic minimum services to all citizens. The Consolidated Municipal Infrastructure Programme (CMIP) and the Municipal Infrastructure Programme (MIP) address unemployment and housing development (May, 1997:9-12).

Obstacles to effective service delivery by the above public sectors are attributed to low service payments, subsidies and tariffs, which hinder sustainable service delivery. The constraints in implementing a rural development policy include a lack of clarity between the roles of National and Provincial Departments. National departments are not mandated to promote rural development and provincial and local departments may not have the capacity to address rural issues (May, 1997:12).

As there is a lack of co-ordination between public sectors, it is vital that role clarification between national, provincial and local public sectors is clearly defined. This includes collaborative efforts to address grassroots problems collectively. Policy makers should remain focused on the presenting problems and investigate alternative policy options that would best meet the needs of target groups. Stakeholder and community participation in adverse circumstances will strengthen policy decisions.

3.6.2 Policy success in Costa Rica and Cuba

Globally, models of service delivery usually share common constraints in terms of human and monetary resources. Some models reflect well-planned policy processes, while policy development problems stall other models. The Costa Rica and Cuba models reflect policy successes.

Costa Rica and Cuba are poor countries that have achieved low infant mortality rates for the past fifty years. Costa Rica experienced rapid economic growth that translated into improved public health services. Cuba in turn, has maintained a low infant mortality rate, eliminated diseases and moreover, it was rated the best in developing countries. The successes in both countries were attributed to a community based health system that was adequately staffed with highly motivated personnel and programmes that were carefully monitored and evaluated (World Bank Development Report, 2003:157-163).

The Cuban Health Model is based on three premises, namely, clear guidelines to service providers, effective communication systems, and monitoring and evaluating service delivery. Data collection, site inspections and external evaluations are undertaken on a regular basis. Dissemination of information is on target and citizen involvement is included in policy processes. Annual reporting to the National Assembly gauges policy implementation processes (World Bank Development Report, 2003:160-161).

The above models from third world countries provide excellent examples of well-planned policy processes, based on sound socio-economic principles. The balance between effective service delivery, adequate human and financial resources, and planned monitoring and evaluation processes highlight the basic foundational principles of policy development, policy analysis and policy advocacy. This aspect correlates with the views of Moller and Devey (2003:463-465) and O'Faircheallaigh (2002:1-4) regarding institutional reforms.

3.6.3 Policy success and constraints in Europe and New Zealand

Research regarding governance in Australia, Britain, the Netherlands and New Zealand provides interesting perspectives of restrictive governance that hinder service delivery (Lewis, 2003:131; Sapir, 2006:369-375). Theories on public governance

propose organisational models in which officials act impartially and accept clear lines of accountability and supervision. Over the past decade, however, critics and reformers who favoured a mixed economy model challenged the organisational model. Consequently, an emerging new government system based on non-bureaucratic organisation has influenced government efforts at grassroots level. Bureaucracy complaints received by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development Frameworks in the respective countries above, included public service departments that were too large, too costly and too rigid (Lewis, 2003:131).

The above research indicates that institutional reforms included good governance based on corporate rules, set targets and performance management. As in the private sector, network governance relies on strategic partnerships and organisation economics to meet targets. Corporate governance that combined business and network models were the emerging management style in the above countries that had advanced government systems (Lewis, 2003:140).

Opposite findings to the research above, in terms of equity and efficiency in the European economic system, indicate failure to achieve growth performance and social reforms. The research indicated an innovative economy to develop technology and human capital. An earlier research study in Europe in 2003 indicated a similar socio-economic situation to the findings above. There were no changes in the interim period. The poor economic situation continued in 2006, which should be viewed against global economic challenges and opportunities (Sapir, 2006:369-375).

The European economy should utilise global opportunities to protect its economic policies through efficient and sustainable reforms. The global challenge includes a future competition from a one world global economy, which includes China, India and the former Baltic Bloc. Developing countries are the new suppliers of global goods. The stable European policies of the 1950s and 1960s are not economically viable for the twenty first century. Dysfunctional labour markets and weak social policies are a threat to local and global economies. There is a need for a common global monetary policy that ensures market related flexibility (Sapir, 2006:385-390).

Rigid forms of governance will deter policy success. The process will plod along without achieving gains for the intended target groups. The ability of the public sector

to change track and adopt policy alternatives based on shared decision taking will breathe new life into policy processes deadlocked and serving no purpose. This is a much-needed process in public service delivery in terms of alleviating poverty.

3.6.4 Concluding remarks

The above accounts indicate the successes and constraints of various national and international service delivery models. National, provincial and local initiatives should be linked to enable local government to strengthen local municipalities to render effective services. The question then remains: Precisely in what manner would national, provincial and local service delivery integration take place in South Africa to alleviate poverty? Public policy models should focus on a holistic approach that includes grassroots involvement. This aspect is imperative in policy processes, as the obstacles to service delivery are evident in all three tiers of government.

However, there has been improvement in service delivery in international models, based on innovative management style, which is hugely lacking in South Africa. Added challenges for effective service delivery include the global economy in terms of creating employment. As the socio-economic situation in South Africa remains presently unfavourable, the need for a global economy to combat poverty remains a distant reality.

3.7 POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND POLICY ANALYSIS CHALLENGES FOR GOVERNMENT

Political parties and various interest groups present huge challenges for government to ensure that diverse group interests are met. Further challenges include managing the policy processes, and allocating the required personnel and finances. A most important consideration concerns the fine juggling act to ensure that the policy process stays on track and is not derailed or sidetracked to cater for the whims of specific groups. Environment change and population growth that impact on policy processes are added challenges. There is therefore, an urgent need for vigilance by policy makers.

3.7.1 Pressure group and implementation challenges

May (1997:3); Ball and Peters (2005:224); Baumann (2007:13); Delmonica and Mehrotra (2006:13); and Zedlewski, Holcomb and Loprest (2007:8) concur with the above aspects and indicate the need for policy makers to be constantly aware of the involvement of pressure groups in policy processes. Ball and Peters (2005:224) state that pressure groups are vocal activists who are part of the political landscape and who have a vital role in policy development and policy analysis processes. Their influence is determined by their value systems and the nature of the presenting problems.

Baumann (2007:13), Delmonica and Mehrotra (2006:13) and Zedlewski *et al.* (2007:8), take the above discussion onto another level, namely, the challenges for government to utilise resources in a cost-effective manner to address the multitude of societal problems. Promoting the well being of citizens and improving economic conditions is a further challenge. Socio-economic problems, rampant crime, widespread poverty and unemployment are further challenges for government. The above challenges are part of policy processes that have moved from the linear mode of policy development (Potter & Subrahmanian, 1998:23-26) to include a wide range of stakeholders, including the targeted beneficiaries (Ballard, Habib, Valodia, & Zuern, 2005:628).

Poverty and inequality challenges require effective policy co-ordination (May, 1997:3-6). A spatial policy should prioritise rural areas through national, provincial and local service delivery integration. The 1996 Provincial Development Growth Plan was not operational. A further challenge includes public sector corruption, which directly affects service delivery to the poor. The National Economic Development and Labour Advisory Council (NEDLAC) facilitate information between government, organised labour, business and community groups. NEDLAC reviews labour legislation and social and economic policy, but is not involved with policy implementation and service delivery. This presents a major challenge as it creates a gap between policy development and policy implementation processes (May, 1997:3-6).

Related challenges regarding the above aspect include the absence of livelihood strategies for the self-employed as part of socio-economic development. This would assist the second economy to access economic and financial resources (Baumann,

2007:13-17). Government assistance in the United States of America, which centred on cash payments to needy families, provides an additional example. During the 1990s, public welfare limited dependency on cash transfers and promoted a work ethic. This proved challenging for many families, as there was a need to address health and social issues and skills for the job market through appropriate programmes.

Subsequently, the Temporary Assistance for Needy Families Programme (TANF) was expanded in 2005 to include the above support programmes to ensure a 50% work rate among families on welfare programmes, including hard-to employ parents who have health problems, language constraints and limited work skills. Various public sectors are mandated to address barriers to employment to ensure that hard to employ parents are skilled for employment opportunities. This includes creating socio-economic safety nets (Zedlewski *et al.*, 2007:8).

Lessons from the above accounts indicate that employment related training would ensure the decline of poverty and inequality. Effective policies in respect of social, economic and environmental development include the Employment Guarantee Act in India that assures at least one hundred days per year of regular employment for the poor, which has the potential to raise two-thirds of the population above the poverty line (Delamonica & Mehrotra, 2006:13-15).

The question remains whether this would apply to South Africa to reduce poverty significantly. Related poverty programmes such as the one above, are the Public Works Programmes that may assist a number of impoverished households to generate income. The problem centres on the vast majority of impoverished households not provided with work opportunities through the Public Works Programmes.

3.7.2 Globalisation challenges

Webster and Von Holdt (2005:3) and Rosegrant and Cline (2003:1917) provide a detailed synopsis regarding global trade versus the local economy in South Africa, which impacts on poverty. Business reforms and employment in post apartheid South Africa has increased global economic production for the formal sector. This was not the initial intention of government, which sought to enhance domestic capital and job

creation. However, the formal sector's pursuit of globalisation and the government's restructuring of the economy ensure free trade for both the formal and informal sectors (Webster & Von Holdt, 2005:24-29).

Subsequently, government attempted to effect changes in the formal sector through the National Economic Development and Labour Council (NEDLAC), and the Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) through the Labour Relations Act, the Skills Development Act, the Employment Act, and the Employment Equity Act. These Acts have had little effect on workers, as there is a need to reinforce a work place culture that includes the informal sector (Webster & Von Holdt, 2005:10-15, 20-23). These economic challenges affect the unemployment rates in South Africa, as local economies are not developed. This in turn entrenches poverty in poor communities.

Added global challenges include food security over the next fifty years that will continue into the future. Crop yields have fallen, investments in research and infrastructure have declined and there is a scarcity of water. The concern for future generations includes the ability of agriculture to support growing populations. One of the targets of the Millennium Development Goals is to halve the proportion of people who suffer from hunger between 1990 and 2015. Meeting this global challenge would be a major feat. Climate change in tropical countries may give rise to periods of heavy rainfall and prolonged drought, which intensifies crop and livestock disease (Rosegrant & Cline, 2003:117-119).

According to the baseline projections of the International Model for Policy Analysis Commodities and Trade (IMPACT), global maize production is expected to increase by 56% between 1997 and 2050, and livestock production by 90%. Developing countries will account for 85% of meat consumption. Income growth and rapid urbanisation will result in higher demands for meat and fresh produce. International agricultural trade will increase rapidly, with maize imports from developing countries doubling by 2025 and tripling by 2050 (Rosegrant & Cline, 2003:117-119).

The above concerns do not bode well to address poverty effectively in South Africa. The poor, always marginalised in terms of socio-economic development, would withstand the worst of global economic crises. These aspects should be the primary concern for policy makers dealing with poverty issues. Hence, policy processes in

respect of the poor in South Africa take on an added dimension, namely a bleak global financial system that influences local economic conditions. It becomes apparent that the policy processes which included equity, co-ordination and stakeholder participation amongst other relevant factors should include a future perspective for poverty policies, which includes efficient service infrastructures and skills training. Policy efforts to assist the poor in meagre ways to place food on the table have to cease and be boosted by greater government efforts to radically reduce poverty.

3.7.3 Informal sector challenges

The informal economy in South Africa is beset by many problems, including accessing credit facilities and marketing goods (Ballard *et al.*, 2005:615; Bond, 2007:216; Edwards & Stern, 2007:111; Mapadimeng, 2007:257). The two economies discourse aligns to micro-credit and the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASgiSA). The enthusiasm following the grassroots experiences of the Grameen Bank, whose founder, Muhammad Yunus won the 2006 Nobel Peace Prize for assisting the poor in Bangladesh to access micro loans, was hailed a success story globally.

However, South Africa's enthusiastic acceptance of the Grameen Bank Model to establish ASgiSA to address the economic plight of the poor raises critical questions. Government's commitment to the development of the formal and informal economic sectors was guided by perceptions that the industrial, mining, agricultural, financial and service sectors would respond positively to the informal economy (Bond, 2007:216-218).

The economic problems of the informal economy include macro-economic stability and the value of the rand, which has fallen by more than a quarter since mid 2006. Importation of cheaper Eastern goods reduced the production of manufacturing companies, leading to many job losses. ASgiSA foresaw the promotion of small businesses through access to finances and expanding women's access to micro economic opportunities. Five billion rand from government and the private sector was earmarked to assist small and medium enterprises to transfer dead assets such as land, houses and livestock into economic value. The goal of ASgiSA is to utilise micro

credit to enable the poor to translate the above assets firstly into investment capital, and secondly into successful entry to the market economy (Bond, 2007:220-222).

The reservations regarding ASgiSA's goals is viewed in light of the difficulties experienced globally by the Grameen Bank, which despite its high success rate, experiences misappropriation of micro-credit loans by family members. The loans do not necessarily translate into successful small businesses to alleviate poverty, and some women reacted negatively to the time and energy that would be required to establish micro economic enterprises. The problem in South Africa includes the failure of micro-credit business enterprises to expand, leading to further unemployment and income insecurity. Moreover, micro-credit has not aligned the formal and the informal sectors as ASgiSa had intended (Bond, 2007:222-223).

Concerning the above aspects, ASgiSA was established following the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) and the Growth, Reconstruction and Development Programme (GEAR) initiatives in South Africa, post 1994 to address poverty through socio-economic development. ASgiSA was hailed as an assured initiative to guarantee economic growth, whereby benefits would filter down to the informal economy to address grassroots poverty. Presently, ASGISA is receiving much criticism for the lack of fulfilling its mandate. The question is if three major government initiatives (RDP, GEAR and ASgiSA) cannot eradicate poverty in South Africa, what more will be required to do so? This remains a foremost challenge for government, for which there are no easy answers.

3.7.4 Formal sector challenge

The principle of *Ubuntu* in the workplace and the relationship between the formal and informal economic sectors in terms of unemployment remains a sensitive issue. *Ubuntu* is defined as a philosophy that encompasses respect, group solidarity, compassion, dignity and collective unity as a universal brotherhood that binds individuals and groups. The principle of *Ubuntu* can contribute to socio-economic development in the work place and government spheres and is particularly helpful in the two economies discourse. Government's programme of action to achieve economic growth and development include the dependency of the informal economy

on the formal economy to enable the former to thrive in the business world (Mapadimeng, 2007:257-262).

Regarding the above aspects, there are serious misgivings regarding the formal economy operating at lower costs with cheap labour from the informal economy, despite government's attempts to include the poor into the business environment. The indigenous African culture of *Ubuntu* could contribute positively to the economic development of South Africa, and, on the other hand, can lead to worker exploitation as the pursuit for profits is promoted at all costs. In addition, the principle of Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) goes against the principle of *Ubuntu* by promoting the wealth of one person and not a group of persons (Mapadimeng, 2007:257-262).

Regarding the above aspects, it becomes apparent that the public focus remains on boosting the South African economy, even if it means that the low-cost labour of the informal sector can be utilised towards this end. This in itself brings additional problems to the fore, namely the resentment from poor paid workers, which increases the tension between the formal and the informal sectors.

3.7.5 Trade reform and grassroots challenges

Trade reforms and economic growth remain key factors to address high unemployment rates in South Africa. Government pins its hopes on the realisation of both aspects to address poverty. The slow pace of service delivery remains a sensitive issue at grassroots level (Edwards & Stern, 2007:118-126; Ballard *et al.*, 2005:628). Edwards and Stern (2007:118-126) focus on the relationship between trade reforms and poverty in their research analysis regarding a research project by the Southern Africa Labour and Development Research Unit (SALDRU) which focused on the linkages between reforms, price controls, consumption, production and employment.

SALDRU's research project concluded that trade related changes affect the poor in terms of employment and that poverty is severe in South Africa. The term "poor" in the study referred to individuals in the first two quintiles (each quintile containing 20% of households) and in some instances, those in the first quintile, were referred to as the ultra poor. The research further indicated that 56% of South Africans are classified as poor, half of whom were ultra poor.

Edwards and Stern (2007:118-126) in turn, state that the poor are concentrated in rural areas. Thirty five to forty percent of adults in impoverished households are unemployed. Sixty percent of the employed from impoverished households are either in low-skilled occupations or subsistence farming. The share of poor employees in skilled occupations is less than 10% compared to 72% in skilled occupations in the richest quintile.

The conclusions from the above research indicate that trade reforms contribute to an increase in production, but do not significantly influence the unemployment status. Economic benefits were not equal across households and business enterprises, where some households had shown some benefits, while others did not show any benefits. Trade reforms could increase production and economic growth. The overall assessment regarding SALDRU's research project includes the crucial role of policy development and policy analysis to mitigate the costs of trade reforms to ensure economic benefits for the poor through skills development.

Ballard *et al.* (2005:628-634) provide a brief review of the study of social movements in South Africa, post 1994. This led to grassroots protests against the lack of basic service delivery and land redistribution. Consequently, the partnership between government, labour, business, civil society and the National Economic Development and Labour Council (NEDLAC) was established to assess service delivery. Government's failure to deliver effective services was evident in the slow pace of land redistribution and in responses to HIV/AIDS. This gave rise to the Landless People's Movement, the Treatment Action Campaign, the Concerned Citizen's Group, and the Anti-Eviction Campaign.

The above social struggles were viewed against the background of various socio-economic limitations. This included the unequal division between skilled Black professionals, who were able to assimilate into the formal economy, which was in contrast to those who were not skilled. Global economic opportunities and constraints further indicate the differences between the two groups, where the less skilled experience high unemployment and live in abject poverty. This entrenches the unequal society that harks back to the period before 1994 (Ballard *et al.*, 2005:634).

Van der Berg, Burger, Burger, Louw and Yu (2005:1-3) pose the question: “Has poverty and inequality been reduced in South Africa since the political transition?” The above authors outline the situation in South Africa during the late 1990s which marked a period of increased poverty. The years 2000 to 2004, however, have had an impact on poverty due to the expansion of social grants and the child support grant for impoverished households. Increased access to housing, electricity, water, sanitation, and improved service delivery during this period further reduced social deprivation.

Sampson, Lee, Ndlebe, MacQuene, van Niekerk, Gandhi, Harigaya & Abrahams (2004:1-4) agree that social grants in South Africa play a critical role to reduce poverty, promote social development, and enable the poor to seek employment, thereby diminishing poverty further. Leibbrand, Levinsohn and McCrary (2010:7-10; 18-21) in turn, assessed the national household survey data for the period 1993 to 2008 to examine the changes in real per capita incomes in South Africa. Their conclusions indicate that social grants play an important role in increasing incomes for poor households and providing access to basic services.

Leibbrand *et al.* (2010:30-33) however, state that the income from grants did not reduce high levels of inequality. Rising unemployment increased, regardless of education and social endowments to the poor, which did not increase real incomes. Though social grants do not fully meet the economic and social needs of poor households, they continue to be a crucial lifeline to many poor households mired in poverty.

3.7.6 Health insurance and unemployment compensation challenges

For the unemployed and the informal sector in South Africa, there are many challenges in terms of health insurance and unemployment compensation, which are benefits that are available for those in formal employment. Public social security nets do not apply to the large numbers of unemployed persons. These are crucial aspects that need to be addressed in appropriate policies (Dror, 2001:80; Lund, 2002:117; Klasen & Woolard, 2008:14). Social security is assured for workers in the formal sector. The high HIV/AIDS rates in the workplace place excessive pressure on private health and social security systems. However, work-related risks are covered by employer contributions. Post 1994, the government began to reform the informal

sector, which remains insecure in terms of unsafe working conditions. In addition to the present needs of the poor and those in the informal sector, there is the urgency to assess their long-term social security needs, including savings for old age and retirement (Lund, 2002:117-119).

A framework for the social protection of workers in the formal and informal economy includes identifying vulnerable workers, developing a gender analysis, and ensuring free health care and social benefits. The basic income grant advocated by the Taylor Commission focuses on the working poor and the unemployed. This aspect should form part of the social protection framework (Lund, 2002:120-121). The hesitancy of government regarding the basic income grant, above, relates to the high costs to public coffers. A phased in approach was recommended. This matter has not been resolved.

The example of health insurance in the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development Countries (OECD) illustrates that some benefits are primarily for the employed. Because of low tax deductions, resources cannot be distributed to address unemployment, in terms of universal insurance coverage. The financial costs of medical care for the informal sector remains an insurmountable challenge for the public sector (Dror, 2001:80-95).

The financial instability of the informal sector hinders access to paid health insurance. A possible solution centres on community-based health care, which utilises micro insurance units (MIUs) to link up to larger corporate insurance schemes. This raises concerns, however, regarding the stability of MIUs. The public sector could take responsibility to strengthen the income and expenditure costs of MIUs (Dror, 2001:110-112).

The relation between unemployment and unemployment compensation, based on an analysis of household surveys from 1993, 1995, 1998, 2004 and 2006 indicates that unemployment rates in rural areas in South Africa are amongst the highest in the developing world. The unemployed sustain themselves by living in households with adequate means of private or public support to ensure their basic survival and to meet their daily economic needs (Klasen & Woolard, 2008:14-16).

Private safety nets ensure access to resources for the unemployed. The conclusions from the above study indicates that unemployment persists at high levels, with or without unemployment support and that many poor families remain in poverty, due to supporting unemployed family members. This is evident in cash transfers to pensioners that provide safety nets that indirectly support unemployed family members. Private safety nets on the other hand, prolong unemployment. Policy options for individuals without private safety nets include public assistance (Klasen & Woolard, 2008:123-125).

3.7.7 Concluding remarks

Public safety nets for the unemployed will have an impact on poverty in South Africa. The status of the economy cannot provide employment for the huge numbers of the unemployed, who represent the majority of impoverished households in South Africa. The need for health insurance for the informal sector remains a crucial issue. This remains a focus for policy makers. The problem however, is the fact that not many persons in the informal sector may be able to afford the high costs of private health insurance for the main member as well as dependents. Added problems include fluctuations in business that affects directly the income levels in the informal sector. The struggle for daily survival may exclude the notion of health insurance for future illnesses.

3.8 AGRICULTURE POVERTY POLICIES

The agricultural sector remains a key factor to addressing poverty in South Africa in terms of subsistence farming and food security for impoverished households, which in turn present many challenges to agriculture policies (Hansen, 2002:309; Vink & Kirsten, 2001:96; Thirtle *et al.*, 2005:37).

3.8.1 The role of the agriculture sector to address poverty in South Africa

Agricultural policies in South Africa from 1970 to 2000 were marked by mechanised harvesting, tight controls over marketing and ill consideration for the environment. During the 1970s and 1980s, the agriculture sector was highly commercialised. The restructuring of the agriculture sector commenced during the 1990s, which included a collective effort between commercial farmers and the Black Farmers Union, initiated through the Strategic Plan for Agriculture Framework. A United Nations research

project conducted in eleven countries, including South Africa, focused on the impact of macro economic policies on agricultural production, export potential, the rural economy and the environment. The research findings indicated that soil degradation influenced reservoirs, rivers, estuaries and land and water based ecosystems negatively. Loss of firewood for the poor and a loss of bio-diversity led to an invasion of alien plants (Vink & Kirsten, 2001:112-115).

The above research indicated that impoverished households supplemented their income from community and household agriculture. Subsistence farming however, led to food insecurity. Agricultural policies did not contribute significantly towards social and cultural upliftment, as extensive farming land was required to expand subsistence farming. Strategic agricultural policy support will enable subsistence farmers to provide agricultural produce for wider commercial markets (Vink & Kirsten, 2001:117). The above statement is highly optimistic and will only be feasible if there is a major shift in agriculture policies to include appropriate skills training to enable subsistence farmers to acquire knowledge and understanding of formal market processes.

Agricultural economics and policies have the potential to reduce unemployment, poverty and inequality. However, agricultural policy makers may not be in possession of relevant information to increase produce and market outlets for subsistence farmers. Further constraints include narrowing the gap between subsistence farming and the formal farming sector and fostering the interdependence between the two sectors through appropriate agricultural policies that includes technology to improve subsistence production to reduce poverty (Thirstle *et al.*, 2005:37). The above aspect though, is dependent on ensuring sustainable improvement of subsistence farming.

Globally, the farming sectors have been at the mercy of inclement weather patterns. Rural communities especially, are vulnerable to changing weather patterns that influence agricultural production. The variations in climate change are due to atmospheric and sea temperature fluctuations. Climate forecasting reduces the negative impacts on agriculture. Responsible policy decisions should utilise favourable weather conditions for successful farming. Effective weather forecasting includes adequate communication and appropriate institutional policy support to address incremental weather patterns and agricultural disaster. It is therefore

imperative that policy decisions are compatible with policy goals to address changing weather patterns timeously (Hansen, 2002:321-325).

It is essential that agricultural policy makers take note of the vagaries of weather patterns for subsistence farmers, in order to assist the informal sector to meet these specific challenges. This will require working closely with rural and urban subsistence farmers to ensure that possible solutions to adverse climatic conditions are in place. The above aspect is a huge undertaking and includes appropriate skills training. The question remains whether agriculture policy makers would be able to undertake this enormous task alone. The collaborative effort of key stakeholders, including poor communities involved in subsistence farming will go a long way to ensure that agricultural policies do make an impact on poverty in South Africa.

3.8.2 International and national adverse agricultural models

The agricultural sector faces many challenges that are often beyond its control. It is imperative for policy makers to have an in-depth understanding of the dynamics inherent in agricultural production, for policy considerations. This include the informal farming sector, which does not have the sophisticated knowledge that is required to undertake farming based on proven scientific methods, but rely on traditional, labour intensive methods (London & Bailie, 2001:568; Robertson, Broome, Chornesky, Frankensberger, Johnson, Lipson, Miranowski, Owens, Pimental, & Thrupp, 2004:61).

The American agricultural sector is an example of a well-organised system, which brought about unintended environmental problems, which policy makers began addressing during the 1930s. Over the ensuing 75 years, agricultural research has added to the monetary costs of production and preservation of the environment. Currently, a third of agricultural research addresses environmental degradation, ranging from nutrient contamination of surface waters to harmful effects of invasive species. Environmental science incorporates economic, social and biophysical approaches to understand the various eco-systems. There remain, however, many challenges to the USA agricultural sector (Robertson *et al.*, 2004:61-65).

The above challenges include maintaining food chains, pesticide usage, silted rivers, lakes and reservoirs, degraded pasturelands and nitrate-enriched ground water. Researches have developed appropriate remedies for the above situations, not fully

addressed in appropriate policies due to complex environmental, socio-economic and political issues. As a result, researchers are not able to assess whether a particular solution is effective in the absence of policy monitoring (Robertson *et al.*, 2004:65).

The results of an agricultural intervention project in the Western Cape was undertaken by London and Bailie (2001:564-570) and included a public health tool for the control of pesticide poisoning. The results were compared to the pattern of reported poisonings for a control farming district contrasted with policy based on routine notifications to regional poison centres. The study indicated that poisoning rates increased almost tenfold during the intervention period. Health authorities underestimated the proportion of cases to occupational poisoning and over-estimated the rate of suicide cases due to pesticide poisoning.

The conclusions from the study above indicate that the public health tool does not provide accurate data, and that policy assumptions were not precise, as pesticide deaths were attributed to suicide. Improvements to the public health tool should restructure the type of data collected and facilitate inter-governmental collaboration. The present monitoring system based on report writing should be substituted with intervention methodologies. This aspect is important in developing countries, where inferences from flawed data may lead to mistaken policy decisions, which, in turn, will influence poor subsistence farmers.

3.8.3 Concluding remarks

The above accounts outline the many challenges in both the informal and formal agriculture sectors. A primary challenge includes improved production to alleviate poverty. As many poor farmers rely on subsistence farming to feed their families, climate variations will affect agricultural production. This aspect will require focused attention from policy makers.

Added problems include poor soil, water scarcity and traditional methods of farming that are labour intensive for subsistence farmers. These difficulties must be surmounted to enable impoverished households dependent on subsistence farming to adopt better farming methods. This will provide improved crops that could become viable business enterprises for impoverished households. These aspects require extensive public funding aligned to relevant expertise and resources.

3.9 ADDRESSING THE CHALLENGES OF PUBLIC POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND POLICY ANALYSIS

3.9.1 Policy development lessons from Africa and South Africa

The challenges outlined above may seem in some instances to be insurmountable, which further add to the many and varied problems facing policy makers in terms of addressing poverty issues. However, the political will to improve the circumstances of the poor will assist policy makers to develop appropriate policies to ensure institutional change (May, 1997:5; Kayizzi-Mugerwa, 2003:23-27; Kaufmann, Kraay & Mastruzzi, 2008:103).

Policy challenges include monitoring processes, disseminating policy information and dealing effectively with corruption. The local Spatial Development Initiative policies will reduce poverty by strengthening productive and social capital. The Manufacturing Development Programme will encourage the poor to migrate to commercial centres. The Spatial Development Initiative Policies will develop local economies through local government, private sector and NGO partnerships. Local Government grants should be based on efficient management, effective communication and community participation. Importantly, programme monitoring and programme evaluation remain crucial issues, which is lacking in public service delivery. A national co-ordination process is vital to ensure policies are on track (May, 1997:5).

As a case in point, the 1997 government assessment to measure programmes impact indicated no uniform development standards at provincial and local levels. Subjective measures were included in income and expenditure figures to enhance project impact. The definitions of poverty and inequality were too narrow and there was no community participation during project implementation and assessment (May, 1997:5)

Research data from Kaufmann *et al.* (2008:103-105) for 23 unnamed African countries, indicated that 19 were categorised as “much to be done.” Africa is further divided into four cluster categories. Pacesetters include countries with good policies, institutions and outcomes. Pragmatists include countries with good outcomes, although their policies and institutions are less impressive. Conventionalists include those countries that appear to have good policies and institutions, but with less impressive outcomes. Much-to-be-done countries include countries with weak or non-existent policies and institutions and poor outcomes.

Kaufmann *et al.* (2008:103-105) state that the challenges for Africa and South Africa include policy reforms, skills development, effective service delivery and socio-economic security. The above research data indicates that Government institutions should address poverty through basic income security, which remains a major source of income. Poverty rates for Africa are underestimated due to inappropriate measurement procedures. In South Africa, a third of households have insufficient income to attain their basic food requirements. Kaufmann *et al.* (2008:105) are of the opinion that economic growth will ensure socio-economic security for the poor, as international free trading is established. Globalisation in developing countries will only be effective if there is local institutional development to ensure economic stability.

Public service reforms will facilitate socio-economic growth. Appropriate skills training for public personnel are required to implement policy decisions. Effective financial management will decentralise services to local government. Civil society participation in policy formulation will ensure an inclusive political environment that does not cater for political elitism, but includes multi-party politics. Sustainable development includes the implementation of appropriate policies and effective communication between government departments to ensure poverty reduction (Kayizzi-Mugerwa, 2003:23-27).

Public policy implementation and project management are inter-dependent processes. It is essential that policy implementation test the hypotheses that a policy will include inputs and conditions to produce certain outputs. Methodological policy defects will contribute to project failures, related to human failure, or bad project management, which in turn relate to badly designed policies. Policy frameworks determine the environment within which change takes place. The Public Policy Impact Chain Model outlines the economic, political and demographic environments for inclusive policy processes (Cloete & Wissink, 2005:191).

3.9.2 Concluding remarks

The challenges for public policy makers include addressing weak institutional structures to ensure co-operative governance. Manageable initiatives will enable policy implementers to address policy constraints timeously. Policy successes can then be positively replicated on larger cost-effective scales. Further challenges include upgrading business opportunities in disadvantaged communities and providing an

enabling environment for economic and social growth. Macro economic policies include income-generating opportunities for the poor. However, this remains problematic, as government's previous initiatives, namely the RDP, GEAR and the current ASgiSA initiatives have not achieved their stated goals of alleviating poverty to a measurable degree in South Africa.

Expanding human and social capital is viewed as two key factors to reduce poverty and inequality. This aspect requires appropriate skills training, which are not in place for the large numbers of economically disadvantaged. Effective communication and co-ordination strategies are viewed as crucial components linking government and key stakeholders, including the poor in policy processes. Programme monitoring and evaluation are important aspects to gauge policy success and constraints. Government's commitment to address poverty is evident by the numerous policies developed by various public sectors. However, public service sectors tend to operate independently from each other, holding a tight reign on their monetary resources.

The slow pace and quality of services impedes assistance to the poor. A political environment that is acutely concerned with poverty issues would contribute immeasurably to the success of policy processes. This is not a debatable issue and remains a crucial component of policy implementation.

3.10 THE IMPERATIVE FOR COLLABORATIVE PARTNERSHIPS TO ADDRESS POVERTY POLICY ISSUES

While there seems to be many efforts by government to address the needs of the poor, especially those in the informal economy, the bigger picture in terms of poverty alleviation looks grim. Concerted efforts in a multi-sectoral stakeholder partnership will achieve a considerable measure of success in alleviating poverty in South Africa (Institute for a Democratic Alternative Annual Report, 2006:6; May 1997:5-6).

3.10.1 Effective political institutions and environments

Effective service delivery in South Africa is dependent upon the optimum functioning of institutions, supported by a flexible and effective environment. A holistic Strategic Framework for the reduction of poverty and inequality strongly advocates for specific changes in the socio-economic environments on behalf of the poor. A key component of the Strategic Framework should link economic growth to human development

through macro-economic and fiscal policies. Institutional reforms will address inter-provincial and local government disparities (May 1997:5-6).

Whilst government has achieved a degree of effectiveness in terms of policy formulation, many challenges remain in terms of policy implementation. A strategic service delivery framework ensures income re-distribution to enable poor households to optimise their asset base in the short term and sustainable economic development in the long term. Poverty will be effectively addressed in South Africa when economic growth is shared equitably and under-development in the second economy is addressed (May, 1997:29).

As South Africa has lowered its budget deficit and public debt, because of institutional and regulatory reforms, economic growth could be utilised to address socio-economic inequalities and high unemployment. Social benefits to poor and marginalised communities are based on sharing economic growth through pro-poor policies (Takahashi & Smutny, 2002:165; Stilwell, Diallo, Zurn, Dal Poz, Adams, & Buchan, 2003:12; Selsky, 2005:489; Institute for a Democratic Alternative Annual Report, 2006:6-8).

The Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASgiSA), is viewed as a catalyst for economic development, through six broad categories to meet the Millennium Development Goals to halve poverty and unemployment by 2015. ASgiSA strives to achieve economic growth from 4,5% between 2006 and 2009 to 6% between 2010 and 2014. The economic benefits would then cascade to the majority of South Africans trapped in the second economy (Institute for a Democratic Alternative Annual Report, 2006:6-8).

ASgiSA's strategic interventions address constraints in economic growth relating to production, income and ownership in respect to the poorest and most vulnerable groups. The complex problems ASgiSA will experience in the socio-economic spheres include co-ordination, implementation and monitoring. A cluster framework of developmental policies should address the foregoing problems in order to maximise the efficiency of ASgiSA. ASgiSA would then attain economic success through targeted growth to re-distribute wealth, ensure basic services for all citizens, and bridging the inequality gaps among social groups. The redistribution of political power,

wealth creation and a stable political climate will encourage foreign investments, a key impetus for economic growth in South Africa (Institute for a Democratic Alternative Annual Report, 2006:30).

3.10.2 Developing public services to address poverty in South Africa

Public service capacity is a paramount consideration to address poverty in South Africa. However, the migration of skilled health professionals directly affects the health care system. This in turn affects the workload and stress levels of the remaining workers, which further impacts services to poor communities. Poor pay, inadequate supervision and limited career opportunities are added stresses. Consequently, public sector responsibilities are neglected, leading to high staff turnover. The net loss of human capital is a concern in most countries, where emigration exceeds immigration, the migration from rural to urban areas and the movement from the public to the private sector (Stilwell *et al.*, 2003:22-29).

The health system depends on adequate staff components to ensure efficient service delivery. An inadequate staff component may render ineffective services, which requires specific professional expertise. The educational cost to train and replace the loss of human capital is high. The lack of medical staff in developing countries has resulted in nursing aids rendering unskilled services. The above situations adversely affect the health of the poor, if illnesses are not adequately treated (Stilwell *et al.*, 2003:22-29). Relevant policies should focus on improved service conditions, which will prevent the loss of human capital from the third to the first world.

Takahashi and Smutny (2002:170-176) agree with Stilwell *et al.* (2003:26-29) and outline their research based on three community organisations that collaborated to provide social services to persons living with HIV/AIDS. Public officials should open a collaborative window of diverse perspectives relating to the problems, the specific policies, the specific stakeholders, as well as the relevant social, political and economic factors. Governance should correspond to the conditions characterising the window. A rigid form of governance loses the value of collaborative government and community partnerships to improve service delivery.

Agency collaboration enhances service capacity to provide comprehensive social services. Temporal partnerships are not conducive for long-term community impact

and include territorial issues, differences in norms and procedures, restricted communication flow, autonomy and power relations, and maintaining community accountability. The collaborative window must be utilised to create multi-organisational alliances before that window closes (Takahashi & Smutny, 2002:170-176).

3.10.3 Effective collaborative partnerships

Chopyak and Levesque (2002:155), Selsky (2005:849) and Koontz (2008:459) concur with the above aspects. Cross-sector collaboration (CSSPs) are defined as partnerships to address social issues on an ongoing basis, which may be short term and common interest based, or long term and developmental. Collaborative partnerships are also referred to as social partnerships, or strategic partnerships to address social issues in four areas, namely, business-profit, business-government, government–non-profit organisations and government–private sector. Cross-sector collaboration is based on multi-disciplinary team activities to ensure institutional change and transparent governance. Collaboration between government, business and civil society address complex social issues (Selsky, 2005:861).

CSSPs have been the focus of research globally. A number of models legitimise critical stakeholders, institutional structure, leadership characteristics, behavioural dynamics and relationship development. Collaborative research initiatives include measurable capacity for change, stakeholder roles, power play and trust. Research conclusions indicate that CSSPs are utilised more in advanced economies than in developing economies (Selsky, 2005:870-873).

There is a growing movement towards collaboration and stakeholder involvement in environmental issues. Government officials are no longer attempting to solve environmental problems on their own and rely on community stakeholders for meaningful collaboration. Research investigators indicated the value of collaboration for empirical studies that include the interests of various stakeholders to develop plans for land use, watershed management, habitat protection and farmland preservation. As collaboration shifts the balance of power between government and citizen, it is important to assess whether the collaboration or the programme planning affected policy outcomes (Koontz, 2008:459).

Participative forums and task teams enable communities to share common interests. The above author's research study on land use to assess policy impact was based on available research studies that identified the factors that influenced policy processes. The research assessed the manner in which citizen advisory committees affect government policy. The research indicated that stakeholder perspectives affect public institutional decisions. Fifteen case studies from non-planting to major harvesting areas were analysed to determine policy influences by key stakeholders. Major harvesting areas indicated communities knowledgeable in networking, who liaised with public officials regarding concrete policy outputs (Koontz, 2008:163).

3.10.4 Technology collaboration

Advances in technology have shifted the focus from an economy based on physical capital to an economy based on interactive knowledge. The same shift is observed in science and technology decision making. The social contract between science and society that emerged in the 1950s is undergoing a major change, which has implications for related policies globally. The above framework extends beyond previous policies that focused on the traditional mix of government, industry and university for mutual interests (Chopyak & Levesque, 2002:155-157).

The above authors assessed science and technology decision making by relevant institutions in the USA, Canada and Europe to determine policy efficiency. The results indicated that following the Second World War, the USA decision-making processes were based on an informal relationship between science and society. During the 1970s and 1980s, policymaking included the relationship between science, technology and industry. During the 1990s, participatory urban planning with key stakeholders was the norm, which fostered a range of policy options based on innovation and creativity, leading to improved scientific decisions.

Further policy considerations emanating from the above processes include the contribution by conglomerates and key industrial players who fund collaborative research for commercial interests. There is therefore a need for a policy framework that incorporates national and international funding institutions to interact between science, technology and society. This remains one of the key issues for the twenty first century (Chopyak & Levesque, 2002:164-166).

3.10.5 Concluding remarks

A primary challenge in terms of developing effective poverty policies is the political will of policy makers. Additional challenges include close co-operation between the three tiers of government to render focused service delivery. In order to strengthen institutional arrangements to ensure policy processes are on track, it is important to develop co-operative partnerships to closely monitor policy progress and address policy constraints. Proactive community participation remains vital. However, national, provincial and local government may not, for the major part, work in a collaborative effort to solve crucial social problems. This is a serious limitation in the public sector.

A holistic strategy to reduce poverty includes addressing socio-economic challenges to generate income and legislative protection for micro enterprises and the necessity to assist the poor to develop an asset base to expand their economic activities (May, 1997:9). This aspect involves a range of collaborative efforts by various public sectors. This begs the question whether the respective public service delivery sectors can co-operate meaningfully to deliver holistic services to poor communities. The finding of this research study will provide some answers to this question.

The relationship between science, technology and society is the future for poverty policies to move away from the sole monetary concerns in the economy to the incorporation of interactive knowledge that includes technological advances to assist with skills training, for example, in the agricultural sector to assist subsistence farmers and training skills for employment. A sizeable resource allocation is required from national and international sources to address poverty meaningfully in South Africa.

The goals of ASgiSA will continue to be viewed with some misgivings, as there is a need for effective co-ordination, implementation and monitoring to ensure that economic gains in the formal sector would cascade to the poor in the informal sector. The economic climate prevents the informal sector from improving their economic situation, as they are trading purely for survival reasons and are therefore not able to create wealth for themselves. Science and technology development in South Africa should be aligned with ASgiSA's economic policy.

3.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The historical development of public policy development and policy analysis from the 1930s to the present provides the basis to understand the process over the past eight decades.

Various theoretical approaches are outlined. The role of women in the policy development process is outlined, emphasising their crucial involvement in the socio-economic spheres. As an evolving process, public policy development is viewed as either a problematic process if it remains inclusive, or a dynamic instrument for social change, if the process includes the contributions of key stakeholders. Good governance remains the key factor to reforming public structures for effective policy development and policy implementation.

Post 1994, the South African government began its socio-economic reconstruction programmes based on human rights and social justice. However, economic policies tend to be guided by a top down government bureaucracy, without implementation plans to include the large numbers of informal traders into the formal economy.

Research studies on various social issues, which have relevance for South Africa, indicate the importance of policy analysis and policy advocacy. Research based evidential data is promoted as a sound basis for policymaking decisions. A number of selected policy models are outlined which link national, provincial and local initiatives. Effective government policy models are identified that focus on a holistic approach that has an impact at grassroots level.

Challenges for government are many and include interest and pressure group dominance in the political arena. Further challenges include inadequate personnel and funding for specific programmes to ensure sustainable service delivery. The hallmark of policy development processes includes transparency and public participation. The role of pressure groups is an important contribution in terms of gauging the effectiveness of policy processes.

The two views of policy decisions are the classic view, based on government discretion and the modern view, based on innovation and proactive approaches. The importance of policy processes to assist unemployed workers through skills training is

promoted. Reform in the agricultural sector is a key poverty alleviation strategy to assist the majority of subsistence farmers to partake in formal agricultural processes. The interdependence of the formal and informal sectors is a further point for policy considerations.

Further challenges for public policy makers include weak institutional structures to ensure co-operative governance. Macro economic policies are income-generating opportunities for the poor. Further reforms include expanding human and social capital to reduce poverty and inequality. Effective communication and co-ordination strategies remain crucial components linking government and key stakeholders, including the poor in policy processes.

Monitoring and evaluation are critical processes to gauge policy successes and to address problems. Government's commitment to address poverty is clearly spelt out. However, the pace and quality of service delivery is impeding the status of the poor. There is unanimous agreement from literature that an enabling political environment will contribute immeasurably to the success of policy development and policy analysis.

Finally, a holistic strategy to reduce poverty includes addressing socio-economic challenges that restrict access to income generation for micro enterprises. There is a need for effective co-ordination, implementation and monitoring to ensure that economic gains in the formal sector cascade to the poor in the informal sector. Incorporating technology advances into policy processes will assist with skills development for the poor. Policies should include national and international funding to implement large-scale programmes to reduce the high poverty levels in South Africa.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 outlines the research methodology for the research, which enabled the researcher to explore the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini. According to Schenck and Louw (2008:369-370), a well-planned research methodology assists the researcher to obtain information regarding specific concepts pertaining to the problem. The research methodology creates the context and involvement of participants to achieve specific purposes relating to the research. Aligned to the research methodology, the literature study guides the research activities and gives meaning to the research concepts. The data analysis links the concepts and general theoretical principles for practical applications and further scientific discussion.

Lalwani and Gardner (2004:572) state that the research methodology utilises systematic procedures to develop grounded theory in a study on human behaviour relating to a phenomenon. The grounded theory enables the researcher to analyse research information. The techniques for the research methodology include data collecting, data coding and data analysis. Frequent data reference adds vital information to the grounded theory aligned to the research approach.

The research methodology for this research includes the qualitative and quantitative methods to gather data regarding the impact of the IFNP. The type of research is applied research, which enabled the researcher to scientifically plan the research methodology to obtain information regarding the research population in Kungwini that can be used directly in practice to address poverty alleviation programmes.

Fouché (2002b:120) states that the research methodology includes a description of the specific activities and measuring instruments that would be utilised. Graziano and Raulin (2000:41) view research methodology as the type of observations and statistical methods the researcher chooses to record data. The researcher describes research methodology as a well-planned process that utilises appropriate measuring instruments to collect and analyse data. The research methodology for this research

includes the research design, the literature study, the pilot study and the data analysis, which are further outlined in Chapter 4.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Fouché and De Vos (2002d:137-138) define a research design as the selection of a specific design chosen from a group of small worked-out formulas to enable the researcher to reach specific goals and objectives. Graziano and Raulin (2000:223) define a research design as the blueprint, which guides the researcher's activities. Babbie *et al.* (2001:76) state that the main types of designs include experiments, surveys and evaluation research. These designs attempt to answer various research questions through a combination of methods and procedures, sampling, data collection and data analysis. The researcher defines a research design as the chosen method selected from existing research designs that will enable her to investigate the research question and to gather, analyse and interpret data.

The two main theoretical approaches to research include the quantitative and qualitative methods. Each method is independent in terms of theory and practice. The research design for this research includes a combination of both research methods that provides deeper insight into research problems (Eldabi, Iran, Paul & Love, 2002:64-65; Lalwani & Gardner, 2004:565-566). The combined quantitative and qualitative research design provides the structure to attain the objectives of this research (De Vos, 2005a:363).

4.2.1 Quantitative design

Quantitative research is logical and linear in structure, focusing on the causal links in the hypothesis, which inform research decisions to either accept or reject the hypothesis. The quantitative method emphasises methodology, statistical measures of validity and statistical data measurement to determine relationships between groups of data (Eldabi *et al.*, 2002:64-65). Lalwani and Gardner (2004:565-566) state that logistics research is dominated by the quantitative method, which is a methodological approach utilised in surveys, models and simulation studies. The quantitative method includes assumptions about the nature of social science and provides an overview of facts for broad-based decision-making.

The quantitative design for this research requires a questionnaire as data-collecting tool. According to Fouché and De Vos (2002e:144), the quantitative design applicable to this research study is a post-test-only design. There is only one group and only one test, and no comparison with a control group or with a pre-test. Two managers from the IFNP in Kungwini were requested to pre-test the measuring instrument (questionnaire). The respondents for the quantitative method included government officials from the Departments of Social Development, Health, Education and Agriculture, as well as community organisations in Kungwini. The questionnaire included questions informed by the literature study, the objectives of the IFNP as well as the objectives of this research.

4.2.2 Qualitative design: collective case study

Lalwani and Gardner (2004:565) state that qualitative research focuses on the assumptions regarding the nature of society, especially the action and behaviour of humans. The involvement of multiple cases in a qualitative study is referred to as a collective case study. Fouché (2002c:275) states that a qualitative case study provides an explanation of a system bound by time, and includes processes, activities and events involving an individual or multiple individuals over a period of time.

Exploration and description of the qualitative case study includes gathering multiple sources of information which are rich in context and include interviews, document studies and observations. The focus of qualitative case studies is to gather in-depth information regarding the presenting problem within its context. There are three types of qualitative case studies, namely, an intrinsic case study to gain a better understanding of an individual case, an instrumental case study to gain knowledge regarding a social issue, and a collective case study to gain further understanding regarding a social issue or population being studied (Fouché, 2002c:275).

Qualitative case study research includes stating questions, which evokes relevant behaviours. The researcher then proceeds to systematically gather, analyse, interpret and communicate observations. The qualitative case study is conducted in a specific setting, focusing on limited types of behaviour. A qualitative case study takes note of emerging observations during the interviews. Participant observation allows the

researcher to be unobtrusive, reducing the chances of influencing participants' behaviour (Graziano & Raulin, 2000:123-125; 130-131).

4.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Fouche (2002b:120) states that the research methodology includes a description of the specific activities and measuring instruments that would be utilised. Graziano and Raulin (2000:41) view research methodology as the type of observations and statistical methods the researcher chooses to record data. The researcher describes research methodology as a well-planned process that utilises appropriate measuring instruments to collect and analyse data. The research methodology for this research includes the literature study, the pilot study and the empirical data analysis.

4.3.1 Literature study

The data collection was guided by a literature study and an empirical study. According to Fouché and Delport (2005:127), the literature study provides information regarding the research problem and the research question. The literature study enables the researcher to draw conclusions about the research investigation. Schenck and Louw (2008:369) state that conceptual research represents uncharted ground which requires a research methodology that utilises observations, a literature review and data collection. The literature study for this research (Chapter 2 and Chapter 3) indicates that poverty is a complex phenomenon. The literature study was based on the aim and objectives of the study and provided the following critical information for this research:

- Poverty is a global phenomenon.
- The causes and consequences of poverty on the poor are many and varied.
- A growing economy has a positive impact in addressing poverty.
- Poverty remains acute in Africa, including South Africa.
- There are many challenges to addressing poverty affectively in South Africa.
- An environment conducive to service delivery will alleviate poverty to a large degree.
- Poverty has a negative impact on vulnerable children, women, the youth, the aged and the disabled.

- Poverty has a negative socio-economic impact on the poor.
- An adverse environment, including climate change, has a detrimental impact on the poor.
- HIV/AIDS has devastated many poor communities in South Africa.
- South Africa remains committed to the Millennium Development Goals to reduce poverty in South Africa.
- There are many challenges in the agricultural trade to reduce poverty.
- Poverty reduction is aligned to securing social justice for the poor.
- Efficient public service delivery requires appropriate policy development and policy implementation processes.
- There is a crucial need for collaborative partnerships to effectively address poverty.

4.3.2 Pilot study

A researcher who undertakes a scientific research study should have thorough background knowledge on the matter (Strydom, 2002b:210-211). The pilot study orientates and guides the researcher regarding the formulation of the research problem and the framework for the investigation. Rosnow and Rosenthal (1999:122) state that the pilot study assists in the development of the questionnaire.

Strydom (2002b:214) further describes the pilot study as the exposure of a few cases that are similar to the cases that would be utilised for the main inquiry, utilising the exact procedures in order to modify the measuring instrument. Strydom (2002b:216) states that testing a measuring instrument during the pilot study will ensure that problems are avoided during the main investigation.

For this research, the pilot study provided an understanding of the background regarding the research undertaking in Kungwini. The researcher became acquainted with the research process, as the pilot project served as a dress rehearsal for the main investigation. In addition, the pilot study supported the formulation of the research problem and the framework for the research investigation (Rosnow &

Rosenthal, 1999:122; Strydom, 2002b:214, 216). Strydom (2002b:215-221) includes the following aspects in the pilot study, which served as a guideline for this research:

4.3.2.1 Pre-test: Qualitative measuring instrument

Pre-testing the semi-structured interview schedule enabled the researcher to assess the suitability of the measuring tool. The pilot study assisted the researcher to orientate herself with the dynamics of the IFNP. Consequently, the effective planning for the main investigation could commence. This included the establishment of the various focus groups and extended household interviews.

Interview schedule – focus groups

Piloting the interview schedule allowed the researcher to expose a few beneficiaries who were similar to those for the main enquiry. The exact procedures were used in order to assess whether the interview schedule should be modified and to ensure that problems are avoided during the main investigation. (Strydom; 2002b:216).

The interview schedule was pre-tested with beneficiaries purposively chosen. These beneficiaries were not part of the main investigation in Kungwini. The pre-test group consisted of three adult females and four adult males. Each member of the group understood the questions clearly, as the wording was straightforward and focused on the IFNP in Kungwini. This obviated the need to adapt the interview schedule.

Interview schedule – extended household

The interview schedule was pre-tested with a purposively chosen extended household in Kungwini. The extended household consisted of four young adults, three of whom were employed on a casual basis, and four grandchildren, three of whom were at primary school and one at high school. This extended household was not part of the four extended household focus group interviews.

The above beneficiaries easily understood the questions and there was no need to adjust the schedule. The interview schedule assisted the researcher to gain a detailed account of the respondents' perceptions regarding the IFNPs initiative to address poverty in Kungwini. The interview schedule was flexible and allowed the researcher and the respondents to explore relevant areas pertaining to the problems regarding the IFNP (Greef, 2002:302; Fouché, 2002c:275).

4.3.2.2 Pre-test: quantitative measuring instrument

The suitability of the measuring instrument (questionnaire) was tested during the pilot test with two individuals who were not a part of the respondents for the quantitative data collecting. The two individuals were chosen purposively from the managerial component of the IFNPs in Gauteng. The two managers easily understood the questionnaire and there was no need to adjust the measuring tool.

The pre-testing of both the semi-structured interview schedule and the questionnaire enabled the researcher to assess the suitability of the instruments. The pilot study orientated the researcher to the problems and dynamics involved in the IFNP in Kungwini. Consequently, the effective planning of the main investigation was ensured. This included the development of the questionnaire and the establishment of the focus groups.

4.3.2.3 Training field workers

Strydom (2002b:218) states that the pilot study includes the training of field workers to deal with questions regarding the measuring instrument and provide the appropriate responses without introducing errors into the investigation. For this research, in addition to pre-testing the data-collecting instruments, the training of the community worker – who was the primary source of assistance during the qualitative data collecting – was pursued during the pilot test. The community worker was invaluable to interpret the proceedings where necessary at the focus group interviews and the extended household interviews.

According to Strydom (2002b:71), the researcher should ensure that the collaborative fieldwork process is conducted in an ethical manner and that there are no misunderstandings. Babbie *et al.* (2001:52) refer to anonymity and confidentiality of research subjects, which for this research had implications for the community worker. To ensure that she complied with ethical considerations, she was trained to understand the objectives of this research, the purpose of the measuring instruments and the focus groups' appropriate responses without introducing errors into the investigation.

As the researcher and the community worker spent so much time together during the qualitative data collecting, the training was ongoing during this period. The researcher

ensured that the focus group interviews were conducted in an ethical manner and that there were no misunderstandings between her and the community worker regarding the beneficiaries' anonymity and confidentiality (Babbie *et al.*, 2001:52; Strydom, 2002b:218). The researcher personally conducted each focus group interview as well as the extended household interviews.

The community worker's role was to observe only to clarify questions and interpret from English into Xhosa and Zulu, when required. The researcher ensured that the collaborative field work process was conducted in an ethical manner and that there were no misunderstandings regarding confidentiality or influencing the participants' responses (Strydom, 2002b:218).

4.3.2.4 Assessing the feasibility of the study

Strydom (2002b:219) outlines two important aspects in any research, namely time and money. The pilot study indicated the estimated cost required for the main investigation. This research was feasible as the Gauteng Department of Social Development supported this research (Annexure A). In this respect, the local service office was to provide three field workers to assist with the focus group interviews.

4.3.2.5 Estimating the research cost

In addition to pre-testing the data-collecting instruments, the feasibility of the research study was conducted (Strydom, 2002b:219). The researcher was able to travel to the research site and to stay in Kungwini for block periods to gather the qualitative data. The costs for the qualitative and the quantitative investigation were borne by the researcher.

The pilot study guided the researcher to focus on the objectives of this research, namely to formulate a conceptual framework, evaluate the impact of the IFNP and provide recommendations to policy makers. The pilot study also guided the research methodology in respect of the suitability of the questionnaire and the interview schedule.

The pilot study oriented the researcher to the dynamics that would be involved during the focus group and extended household interviews. This included conducting the interviews in English and translating into Sotho and Zulu, if necessary. The

beneficiaries, including the children, were conversant with English, which provided a smooth flow of the interview processes. In instances where there was a need for clarification, the community worker provided the necessary interpretation. Consequently, the researcher began planning the main investigation.

4.4 RESEARCH POPULATION, SAMPLE AND SAMPLING METHOD

4.4.1 Description of the research population

Strydom and Venter (2002:198) define a research population as the boundary that is set within a universe, which comprises all potential subjects who possess the attributes required by the researcher. Graziano and Raulin (2000:207) define a research population as the larger group of interest from which a sample is selected. The researcher defines a research population as the group of individuals chosen from the universe from which a sample of individuals is then drawn, who fulfil all the attributes required for a specific study. The population for this research included the beneficiaries of the IFNP in Kungwini, government officials from the Departments of Social Development, Health, Education and Agriculture who initiate and implement poverty programmes in Kungwini and members of community organisations who work with impoverished households in Kungwini.

4.4.2 Research sample

Strydom and Venter (2002:199) define a sample as the elements of a population considered for actual inclusion in the study; the subset of respondents drawn from a population of interest. Rosnow and Rosenthal (1999:203) define a sample as the fraction drawn from the population to generalise the results to a larger specified group of individuals. The researcher defines a sample as a specified portion of individuals taken from a larger population group that a researcher earmarks for a focused study. For this research, the researcher used non-probability sampling, applied when the odds of selecting a particular individual are not known as the researcher does not know the population size or the members of the population (Strydom & Venter, 2002d:206-208).

Non-probability sampling includes accidental sampling (the inclusion of any individual who is affected by the phenomenon), purposive sampling (the sample is composed of elements most representative of the population), quota sampling (choosing a sample

that is the closest replica of the population), target sampling (using controlled lists of specific populations to recruit individuals within each target), dimensional sampling (specifying and ensuring the representation of all variables of interest), snowball sampling (identifying a single case and being subsequently referred to similar cases) and spatial sampling (when the population is of a specific and temporary nature).

For the purpose of this research, the sample for the six focus group interviews was purposively selected and consisted of participants from the four districts in Kungwini, namely Zithobeni (a township), Rethabisent (a township) and Kanana (an informal settlement). The focus groups interviews totalled six groups, comprising ten members in each group. The participants chosen for the focus group interviews were available to participate in this research, based on the following criteria:

- Permanent residents in Kungwini
- Identified as impoverished households who participated in the IFNP programme

For the purpose of this research, the respondents for the quantitative method were chosen purposively from the Departments of Social Development, Health, Education and Agriculture. The community organisations were chosen purposively from organisations based in Kungwini. The participants from the six focus group interviews, the respondents from the four extended household focus group interviews and the respondents from the relevant government departments, as well as the selected community organisations in Kungwini ensured the inclusion of all interest groups.

4.4.3 Sampling method

The following sampling methods were utilised for this research:

A. Quantitative sampling

A sample of 129 respondents was utilised. The quantitative sampling frame included personnel from the following government departments:

- National Department of Social Development
- Provincial Department of Social Development, Gauteng
- Department of Social Development, Kungwini

- Department of Health, Kungwini
- Department of Education, Kungwini
- Department of Agriculture, Gauteng
- Community organisations, Kungwini

Two managers not involved in the main research were selected to pre-test the questionnaire. The respondents for the quantitative sampling were representative in terms of generalising to the larger population (Delport & De Vos, 2002e:51-52) for the following reasons:

- Experience in working with poor communities
- Experience in developing and implementing poverty policies and programmes
- Understanding South Africa's commitment at the World Summit for Sustainable Development Conference (2002) to reduce poverty by 50% by 2015

The above respondents were available to participate in this research based on the following:

- Employed by the above government departments in poverty programmes in Kungwini
- Members of local community organisations residing in Kungwini

B. Qualitative sampling

The qualitative sampling frame included six focus group discussions and four extended household focus group discussions. The above groups were chosen according to purposive sampling. The semi-structured interview schedule was pre-tested with one purposively selected focus group and one purposively selected extended household. The participants for both the focus group interviews and the extended household interviews indicated their willingness to participate in the research by signing the informed consent forms.

4.5 EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

4.5.1 Data-collecting methods

The data-collection methods for this research included both the quantitative and qualitative methods to evaluate the impact of the IFNP. The data collection was guided by the objectives of this research, namely to formulate a conceptual framework, evaluate the impact of the IFNP and provide recommendations to policy makers. The phases for the quantitative and qualitative methods for the data-collection process are clarified in the following table:

Table 4: Phases of the quantitative and qualitative methods

Phase 1:	Pre-test questionnaire with 2 respondents – who are not a part of the main investigation – chosen purposively.	Pre-test semi-structured interview schedule with a focus group comprising 5 participants chosen purposively, which is not a final sample of the 6 focus group discussions.	Pre-test the semi-structured interview schedule with 1 extended household, chosen purposively, which is not a final sample of the 4 extended households.
Phase 2:	Distribute the questionnaires to the respondents		
Phase 3:		Conduct the focus group interviews with 6 groups of 10 participants per group.	
Phase 4:			Conduct the focus group interviews with the 4 extended households.

4.5.2 Qualitative data collecting

Graziano and Raulin (2000:13) describe qualitative data-collecting procedures as lower-constraint research planning, which is less formal and fluid than the quantitative method. Observations and field notes are chronologically recorded to draw a single conclusion. Graziano and Raulin (2000:131) include open-ended narratives, checklists, field guides, in-depth interviewing, document study and secondary analysis as methods of data collection.

Fouché (2002c:273) states that data collection in a case study includes observations of the process, activity or programme that is bound in a specific time and setting. The case study examines groups of cases, comparing cases and concepts and thereby

extending and validating existing theories. For the purpose of this research, observations and the experiences of the focus groups regarding the IFNP's efforts to alleviate poverty in Kungwini were explored. The meanings, themes and general descriptions of the participants' experiences were analysed within the above context.

According to Greef (2005:299), focus groups provide an interviewing method for collecting information during qualitative research. Greef (2002:299) states that focus groups are group interviews to better understand how respondents feel regarding a specific issue or service. Krueger (1998) as cited by Greef (2005:300) defines the focus group as a carefully planned discussion designed to obtain information on a defined area of interest, in a permissive, non-threatening environment. The researcher creates a tolerant environment that encourages the sharing of perceptions, points of views, experiences and concerns without bringing pressure to reach consensus. Participants are selected on the basis that they (i) share common characteristics relating to the topic of interest, and (ii) share a common activity. Focus group interviews assist the researcher to explore participants' thoughts and feelings, not only their behaviour.

Morgan (1997) as cited in Greef (2002:300) defines the focus group in qualitative research as a research technique that collects data through group interaction regarding a specific topic. Greef (2002:301) states that the focus group provides for the sharing of information and generates a large volume of data in a short period. The focus group is a powerful method to expose reality and investigate complex behaviour, motivation and diverse experiences.

Marczak and Sewell (2007:1-2) define a focus group as a group of interacting individuals having some common interest or characteristic, brought together to gain information regarding a specific issue. Focus groups are therefore useful in understanding how and why people hold certain beliefs regarding a topic of interest. The collective case study design for this research utilised focus group interviews as follows:

- Six focus group interviews were conducted.
- Four individual extended household focus group interviews were conducted.

A collective case study provides the opportunity to learn through exploration and detailed description (Fouché, 2002c:275). For this research, six focus group interviews comprising ten participants in each group were conducted. In addition to the above six focus group discussions, four extended household focus group interviews were conducted. Both the focus group and extended household interview participants were chosen purposively. The extended households were chosen according to certain criteria (namely unemployed parents, grandparents living with the family and school-going children).

The same semi-structured interview schedule that was used with the focus group interviews was utilised with the four extended household focus group interviews (see Annexure A). After the sixth focus group interview, it was apparent that no new information was forthcoming. The focus group interviews had reached a saturation point where the dialogue between the researcher and the participants elicited the same responses, and the interview was not going forward to gather new information. At this stage, it became clear that all relevant information pertaining to the IFNP was obtained.

The above focus group interviews enabled the researcher to evaluate the participants' collective experiences regarding the impact of the IFNP. The interview schedule (see Annexure A) assisted the researcher to identify the themes and sub-themes of the interview processes. The themes and sub-themes were categorised according to the consistent recurring experiences and opinions that the beneficiaries expressed during the focus group and extended household interviews. The interview schedule guided the interview process and elicited the participants' experiences regarding the impact of the IFNP. The interview schedule focused on the following questions:

1. How were you assisted to improve your household food needs?
2. How were you assisted to establish food gardens?
3. How were you assisted with skills development training?
4. How were you assisted to access child or pension grants?
5. How were you assisted to form community organisations?

The focus groups interviews assisted the researcher to develop inductively – i.e. from the bottom up rather than from the top down – concepts, generalisations and theories that reflect intimate knowledge of the participating group (Schurink, Schurink & Poggenpoel, 1998:314). The focus group discussions continued until a saturation point was reached at the sixth focus group interview and no new categories of information was forthcoming. The beneficiaries provided information regarding their experiences of the IFNP to reduce poverty.

The focus group interviews assisted the researcher to gather material that provided a rich perspective regarding the impact of the IFNP. The four extended household focus group interviews provided rich sources of information that were not revealed at the six focus group interviews. This included observing poverty in family homes marked by poor furnishings, broken chairs, poorly clothed children, busy mothers looking after a number of young children (some their own, others grandchildren) and dusty yards where children would play with a dog or two running after them.

The researcher was attentive to watch and record what the participants did and what they said. This allowed for gathering material that was rich in content and revealed consistent themes of poverty, hunger, unemployment and a sense of hopelessness. The number of focus group meetings depended upon the depth of information generated, until a saturation point was reached when no new information was forthcoming. Greef (2002:312) recommends four group meetings, where re-evaluation takes place after the third meeting. For this research, evaluation took place during the fourth focus group meeting, when it became apparent that no new information would be offered.

The focus groups continued to the sixth group, as there were so many people milling around, eager to be included in the research process. The fifth and sixth sessions did not elicit any new responses and evidently, a saturation point had been reached. The focus group discussions and the extended household focus group interviews assisted the researcher to achieve the objectives of this research, namely to evaluate the impact of the IFNP and provide recommendations to policy makers.

4.5.3 Quantitative data collecting

A questionnaire was utilised as the data-collecting tool for the quantitative method. Holliday (2002:140) describes the questionnaire as a survey instrument to determine the respondents' knowledge and attitudes to presenting problems. Burns (2002:11) describes the questionnaire as the summarising of large quantities of data using easily understood measurements. The researcher describes the questionnaire as the method by which information is gathered in a set format to allow for numerical interpretation of data. For this research, a questionnaire was developed based on the literature review, the objectives of the IFNP as well as the objectives of this research.

The questionnaire consisted of questions that elicited responses that are measurable in statistical terms. The questionnaire focused on the effectiveness of the programme from the managers' point of view. The respondents received a consent form indicating their willingness to participate in the research. The questionnaire was pre-tested with two individuals who were not involved in this research.

For this research, the managers of the IFNP were purposively selected from the Departments of Social Development, Health, Education and Agriculture. The community organisations were purposively chosen from selected organisations based in Kungwini. The above respondents provided information for the quantitative method to enable the researcher to evaluate their observations regarding the IFNP's impact to reduce poverty in Kungwini.

The motivation for selecting the above respondents was that they were involved in poverty programmes in Kungwini. Their responses provided responses to evaluate the effectiveness of the IFNP in Kungwini, focusing on the following question: "Did the programme achieve the objectives of the IFNP to alleviate poverty and create income generating initiatives?"

4.5.4 Document analysis

Cozby (1997:86-88) states that for document analysis, a researcher utilises previously compiled information to answer research questions. Strydom (2008:392) states that accessibility to research information reinforces scientific activities and develops the scientific practitioner. The researcher assessed the following documents to gain a perspective on poverty in Kungwini:

- The IFNP Strategy Plan to address poverty in related poor communities in Gauteng.
- Relevant policy documents and poverty alleviation programmes at the National Department of Social Development.

The above documentation assisted the researcher to pursue the objectives of this research, namely to formulate a conceptual framework, evaluate the impact of the IFNP and provide recommendations to policy makers.

4.6 DATA ANALYSIS

4.6.1 Quantitative data analysis

De Vos, Fouché and Venter (2002:223) state that quantitative data analysis entails dividing data into its constituent parts in order to obtain answers to research questions. The interpretation of data is undertaken through data analysis. This requires categorising, ordering, manipulating and summarising data into an interpretable form to draw conclusions.

The questionnaire is tailored to specifications, which are chosen prior to administration to include the methods of data analysis. This requires the specific computer package and statistical consultation that would be utilised (Delpont, 2002:178).

4.6.2 Qualitative data analysis

Baptiste (2001:3-4) states that qualitative data analysis includes capturing, recording, interpreting and coding information in a continuous process. Qualitative data analysis begins at the conception of the research study and proceeds through the data-collecting phases, culminating in the writing of the report.

Qualitative data analysis may be inferred, or explicit, as the researcher investigates the best description of reality through knowledge, meaning and truth. Qualitative analysis focuses on individuals' beliefs, perceptions, intentions and revelations, and includes the mechanisms to store data. The researcher observes whether the phenomenon confirms existing theory (Baptiste, 2001:3-4). Qualitative case research interprets and attaches meaning to classifications of data through

the researcher's comprehensive understanding of data collection and data analysis. Qualitative data analysis provides insights into specific problems and social environments, setting the stage for the following research process.

De Vos (2002d:339-340) adds that qualitative data analysis comprises structuring the mass of collected data. Qualitative data analysis requires a search for general relationships among categories of data. The method of data analysis for this research was based on Creswell's model in De Vos (2002d:340) and included the following:

- Managing data by recording and transcribing data onto computer files
- Undertaking repeated readings of the data to become familiar with the content
- Writing memos, which are basically short key concepts or phrases to describe specific aspects of the data
- Classifying and interpreting the data by identifying themes or categories of information
- Analysing the interview sessions and tape transcriptions
- Representing the data in text form

The above aspects assisted the researcher to analyse the qualitative data in order to achieve the objectives of this research, namely to formulate a conceptual framework in order to evaluate the impact of the IFNP and provide recommendations to policy makers.

4.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 4 presented the research methodology for this research, which included the research design, the research methodology, the pilot study, data collecting and data analysis. The research methodology enabled the researcher to gather relevant data pertaining to the IFNP in Kungwini, and created the positive environment to engage the respondents concerning poverty issues in Kungwini.

The literature study provided essential information regarding poverty issues and included the causes and consequences of poverty, the challenges to addressing poverty effectively in South Africa, the need for a conducive political environment,

the Millennium Development Goals to reduce poverty by 50% by 2015, poverty policy successes as well as poverty policy failures.

The research methodology included the qualitative and quantitative methods to gather data regarding the impact of the IFNP. The quantitative method provides an overview of research information to guide needed changes in Kungwini. The qualitative method provides an insight into human behaviour and their experiences of poverty. The type of research includes applied research to bring about change to the poverty situation in Kungwini.

The qualitative research method includes the focus group and extended household interviews. The quantitative research method utilises a questionnaire as a data-collecting tool. The research population included the respondents of the IFNP, government officials responsible for implementing poverty programmes in Kungwini and community organisations working with impoverished households in Kungwini.

The quantitative data was analysed utilising the SAS Version 9.2 and the Microsoft Excel programme.

Chapter 5 outlines the qualitative data collecting for this research.

CHAPTER 5: QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 describes the data-collecting phase for the qualitative approach to the research study and outlines the research setting, developing the measuring instrument, the pilot study, and the focus group and extended household interviews, involvement of field workers, and the emerging themes and sub-themes formulated from the focus group and extended household interviews. The assistance of a community worker from a local NGO was invaluable in contacting the beneficiaries of the IFNP, moving amongst the people in the various areas in Kungwini, and assisting with the interpretation at the focus groups and extended household interviews. The researcher was pleasantly surprised at how much information was forthcoming from the community members in Kungwini. As a close-knit community, they knew exactly who received the IFNP food packages and who did not and were able to distinguish between the IFNP and related poverty programmes prior to and following the IFNP.

The questions for the focus group and extended household interviews were based on the IFNP policy framework. The IFNP sought to develop home, community and school food gardens to meet the daily nutritional needs of impoverished households. The process would then broaden into marketing the surplus garden produce. Key objectives of the IFNP included reducing the number of households that did not have adequate food, and developing employment opportunities through income-generating initiatives.

5.1.1 Research setting

Kungwini is a rural area situated on the border between the Gauteng and Mpumalanga provinces. The area is presently experiencing economic growth, with large-scale development in the business centre of Bronkhorstspuit. However, many impoverished households did not benefit from local economic growth and remain in poverty. The stark contrast between poverty and economic development in Kungwini is measured against South Africa's commitment to the MDG to alleviate poverty through sustainable development and improving income generation.

Poverty in Kungwini can be broadly defined as the decline in household assets and income that are inadequate to meet a family's physical and material needs (World Bank Development Report, 2003:26; Ljubotina and Ljubotina, 2007:1; Olderwage-Theron & Slabbert, 2008:3). The IFNP sought to alleviate poverty in Kungwini by aligning the programme with related poverty programmes. This has however not taken place, as indicated in the focus group and extended household interviews.

5.1.2 Beneficiary profile

The participants for the research study were chosen purposively from the beneficiary list. They were all from impoverished households comprising extended family members living in small crowded houses. Most of the roads in the townships are dirt tracks, apart from the main tarred road leading to the townships of Zithobeni, Rethabiseng, Thembisile, and Kanana, the informal settlement. Electricity, water supply and sewage removal are provided to the formal households, but not to the informal settlement where households share a communal street tap. Many streets do not have communal taps and purchase water from householders in the formal settlement across the street.

The overall impression of poverty in Kungwini is one of neglect and people disempowered to improve their lives. Yet in spite of this, they are able to laugh spontaneously, as was observed during the focus group and extended household interviews and the random visits to various homes in the community. Even among the many people who came out of curiosity and who were not part of the focus group discussions, laughter was spontaneous. Their patience was indescribable, as they waited for hours to provide their contributions to the research. This was one of the touching aspects of the research investigation.

Another important feature was the responses to the questions. There was no anger or emotional outbursts, but clearly thought out responses to the questions posed. It appeared as if participants were resigned to their lot in life. During the focus group and extended household interviews, the researcher observed that a need existed to mobilise the community for socio-economic change, as they were willing to participate in programmes that brought change in their circumstances.

5.1.3 Informal settlement

The Kanana informal settlement is close to Zithobeni, in the municipality of Kungwini. Dirt roads meander between the corrugated iron, wood and mud homes. Water gathers in stagnant puddles in the streets. A visit to one of the homes revealed a thriving vegetable garden. Water was brought by bucket from the street tap to water the garden. The toilet is a drop pit. A further household that the researcher visited in Kanana was the wattle-and-daub home of an informal chicken and goat farmer.

5.2 PHASES OF QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTING

The phases of the qualitative data collecting included the following:

Phase 1: Pre-test the semi-structured interview schedule with a purposively chosen focus group that is not part of the main research investigation.

Phase 2: Pre-test the semi-structured interview schedule with a purposively chosen extended household that is not part of the main research investigation.

Phase 3: Conduct the focus group interviews.

Phase 4: Conduct the extended household interviews.

Phase 5: Analyse and interpret the research data.

5.3 QUALITATIVE DATA

5.3.1 Focus group interviews

The focus group interviews were conducted at the local municipal offices in Kungwini, a safe venue with tight security control. The participants walked to the venue, as they lived in the surrounding areas. The research purpose and process was clearly outlined at each focus group meeting, including their willingness to participate in the research process and their prerogative to withdraw.

The focus group questions included the following:

- How were you assisted to improve your household food needs?
- How were you assisted to establish food gardens?
- How were you assisted with skills development?

- How were you assisted to access child or pension grants?
- How were you assisted to form community organisations?

A total of six focus group meetings were held. It was clear at the last two meetings that a saturation point was reached and no new information would be forthcoming. The responses were recorded on tape and by taking notes. The qualitative data was analysed in terms of the literature review (De Vos, 2002d:343).

5.3.2 Extended household interviews

The criteria for the four extended household focus group interviews included unemployed parents and grandparents living with the family and school-going children. The interview schedule for the four extended household interviews was the same as that used in the focus group interviews.

At the first extended household interview, the grandchildren had arrived from school. There were nine children ranging from three babies to learners in different grades. Even the youngest learners, aged seven and eight, understood the purpose of the data-collecting process and solemnly provided their consent to partake in the research investigation.

The second extended household interview included a family consisting of the grandparents, four unmarried adolescents and four grandchildren.

The third extended household interview included a widow and her three children living with extended family members.

The fourth extended household interview included a large family living in the informal settlement of Kanana, which consisted of the father, mother, five young adolescents and three grandchildren.

5.3.3 Data-collecting method

The focus group and extended household interviews enabled the researcher to gather rigorous data through exploration to gain a deeper understanding of the impact of the IFNP (Greef, 2002:319). The qualitative data-collecting procedures were informal, free flowing, but remained focused on the questions and collecting the appropriate data

(Graziano and Raulin (2000:49-52; 123-125). Observations, open-ended narratives and field notes were key data-collecting methods. The observations of the processes were viewed against the activities that took place in a specific time and setting that focused on the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini. The qualitative data enabled the researcher to draw specific conclusions. The six focus group interviews as well as the four extended household interviews examined specific groups in two different settings, compared with each other, and validated with theories from the literature study.

The participants for both the focus group interviews as well as the extended household interviews have similarly experienced a particular phenomenon, namely, the IFNP's efforts to alleviate poverty in Kungwini. This was extensively explored in the interviews. The meanings, themes and general descriptions of the participants' experiences were analysed within the above context (Graziano & Raulin, 2000:131; Fouché, 2002c:273).

Throughout the qualitative data collecting in Kungwini, the researcher was aware of her responsibilities towards the participants and endeavoured to create a tolerant environment that encouraged the sharing of perceptions, points of view, experiences and concerns without bringing pressure upon the participants to reach consensus (Greef, 2002:313). The experiences of the participants regarding the IFNP guided the data-collecting process and focused on the objectives of this research, namely to evaluate the impact of the IFNP and to provide recommendations to policy makers.

The focus groups provided multiple viewpoints regarding the impact of the IFNP to alleviate poverty in Kungwini. The researcher was attentive to observe and to record what the participants did and what they stated. This allowed for the collecting of material that was rich in content and revealed consistent themes. Each participant in the focus group and the extended household interviews signed a consent form, indicating their willingness to participate in the research. The consent form outlined the purpose of the research as well as the confidentiality of information. The tape recorder was used with the participants' permission.

5.4 QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

The researcher gathered the qualitative data with a semi-structured interview schedule. Various themes and sub-themes were identified from the focus group and

extended household interviews. The questions and the appropriate responses were taken directly from the transcripts. The data was interpreted according to De Vos (2002d:340), using Creswell's data-analysis spiral, whereby the researcher moves in analytical circles, rather than using a fixed linear approach. This includes frequent revisions in data collection to incorporate emerging data, integrating the data into a linear form, undertaking a preliminary data analysis, writing the memos, identifying the emerging themes and searching for alternative explanations.

The data analysis included structuring the accumulated data into categories and searching for general relationships, based on the specific questions (De Vos, 2002d:344). The data was transcribed into short memos that identified key phrases to describe the participants' experiences regarding the impact of the IFNP. The data analysis assisted the researcher to achieve the objectives of this research, namely to evaluate the impact of the IFNP and provide recommendations to policy makers. The participants' responses from the six focus group interviews and four extended household interviews are outlined as follows:

5.5 RESPONSES TO QUESTIONS

5.5.1 Question 1: "How were you assisted to improve your household food needs?"

5.5.1.1 Focus group responses

Focus group 1	
Participant 1:	<i>"The food parcels were okay. But we need a better place for growing vegetables. There are not enough vegetables for selling".</i>
Participant 2:	<i>"The food parcels were good. But I need help for my brother to complete his studies. There is no bursary for him."</i>
Participant 3:	<i>"The food parcels were good. I rear chickens and I need assistance and training."</i>
Participant 4:	<i>"The food parcels were good. Since my mother passed away, the grant has been cut."</i>
Participant 5:	<i>"The food parcels helped. We need more."</i>
Focus group 2	
Participant 1:	<i>"The food parcels were good. I like gardening, planting spinach, carrots, beetroot and morogo (a type of spinach). It all grows well."</i>
Participant 2:	<i>"I did not know that the food parcels would stop. I thought that I</i>

	<i>would receive it more often.”</i>
Participant 3:	<i>“I received the seed packets only, not the food parcel.”</i>
Participant 4:	<i>“The food parcels were good. I love gardening, but I did not receive any help.”</i>
Participant 5	<i>“The food parcel helped me to budget to make it last.”</i>
Focus group 3	
Participant 1	<i>“The food parcels were good. I have a chicken business. I need a bigger place.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“The food parcels were not enough. There are 7 people in my family. It was not much help.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“The food parcels helped. We are 3 adults and 6 children. We need more help.”</i>
Participant 4:	<i>“The food parcels helped. We do not receive any grant or anything. Our children are grown and out of school. Our 2 grandchildren live with us with their mother.”</i>
Participant 5	<i>“The food parcel with the grant was okay.”</i>
Focus group 4	
Participant 1	<i>“I have work recycling paper and scrap iron. I do not earn much. I am the only one working. The food parcels helped my children and grandchildren.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“I have no work, so the food parcels helped me.”</i> <i>“The food parcels helped at the time. Now I am dependent upon my disability pension.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“I received the food parcel. It was good for my children.”</i>
Participant 4:	<i>“The food parcels helped. We are 7 adults and 4 grandchildren.”</i>
Participant 5	<i>“The food parcels helped. We are 8 adults and 6 grandchildren.”</i>
Participant 6	<i>“I live with my family. I have 2 children and my 2 sisters each have a child. My mother is the only one working as a domestic. We depend on her pension, as well as the child support grant. The food parcels were very helpful.”</i>
Focus group 5	
Participant 1	<i>“The food parcels were too small for a family of 8.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“The food parcels helped. But then it stopped.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“I am a single parent with 5 children. The food parcels helped.”</i>
Participant 4:	<i>“Before the food parcels, I had no income. Once the food parcels stopped, I decided to rear chickens for a living. I am doing well.”</i>
Participant 5	<i>“The food parcels helped. I have a very big family. I receive the old</i>

	<i>age pension and 3 of my grandchildren receive the child support grant. I have 5 other family children, some receive the foster care grant.”</i>
Focus group 6	
Participant 1	<i>“The food package helped my family.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“The food parcels helped a lot. I sell vegetables from home, which I buy. There are 14 family members in the house. Four children receive the child support grant. This is our only income.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“The food parcels helped. I have 5 children and 2 receive the child support grant. My husband has no work.”</i>
Participant 4:	<i>“We are 8 people in the family. The food parcels were too small.”</i>
Participant 5	<i>“The food parcels helped. Other items should have been included, like soap and washing powder.”</i>

5.5.1.2 Extended household responses

Extended household 1	
Participant 1	<i>“The food parcels helped my family. I work sometimes, helping as a volunteer to cook food for the poor at the dumping site. My husband works repairing cars, but does not get paid regularly, as the people do not always have money. There are 6 adults and 12 children, including 7 grandchildren and 2 foster children, who are not getting the grant.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“I was not working at the time. The food parcels helped the family a lot. I did not receive the child support grant at the time, as I did not have an ID.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“The food parcels helped, as two family children are living with us, as their mother has passed away. They are not receiving the grant, as we need to get their birth certificates.”</i>
Child participant 1	<i>“I remember the food parcels. It helped my family.”</i>
Child participant 2	<i>“The food parcel was not enough. We do not have enough food.”</i>
Extended household 2	
Participant 1	<i>“The food parcels was okay. I work as a domestic, when I can get work. We need more assistance.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“Although the food parcels were okay, I need a job, even to open my own business.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“I agree that the food parcels were okay, but I need to work to help my family.”</i>
Child	<i>“I am at school. Sometimes we do not have enough food. Especially</i>

participant 1	<i>school uniforms.”</i>
Child participant 2	<i>“I want the government to help my family with the grants.”</i>
Extended household 3	
Participant 1	<i>“The food parcels were good. My husband and I owned a small supermarket. Since he died, his family took away the business. I am not working.”</i>
Child participant 1	<i>“It was a difficult time for us when my father died. The food parcels helped us.”</i>
Child participant 2	<i>“The food parcels were good. We need more food. And also school uniforms.”</i>
Child participant 3	<i>“I also want a school uniform to go to school. We also need food. When I grow up I want to be a pilot.”</i>
Extended household 4	
Participant 1	<i>“The food parcels were very good, my husband and I do not work.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“The food parcels were very helpful, especially for the children.”</i>
Child participant 1	<i>“The food parcels were a great help.”</i>
Child participant 2	<i>“I remember the food parcels. I am 8 years old. I want more food to eat.”</i>
Child participant 3	<i>“The food parcels were good. I am 12 years old. I want a school uniform.”</i>
Child participant 4	<i>“The food parcels helped my family. I am 16 years old. I want to work in the mines as an administration manager.”</i>
Child participant 5	<i>“I remember the food parcels. They helped the family. We still need more food to help us.”</i>
Child participant 6	<i>“I remember the food parcels. They helped our family.”</i>
Child participant 7	<i>“Yes, the food parcels were good. They helped.”</i>

5.5.1.3 Main theme from Question 1

The main theme from question 1 is the **appreciation of the food packages** that were distributed and that the **food parcels contributed** to the needs experienced at that specific time.

5.5.1.4 Sub-themes from Question 1

The sub-themes from question 1 is **inadequacy of the food packages** to meet the participants' daily food needs, which is aligned to **unemployment** and the inability to take care of their families. Overall, the participants indicated that the family's daily food needs was inadequate. Financially, they were not able to make ends meet. They could barely support their immediate family members, as well as several extended family members and a number of grandchildren.

Poverty reduction is based on opportunities to enable the poor to attain their full human potential. As it is difficult for the poor to deal with their poverty situation, they should be assisted to overcome their adverse circumstances (Galbraith, 2000:65; Chaskin, 2001:1; Mutandiva & Gadzirayi, 2007:3-6). Kungwini is similar to many poor communities in South Africa, where social justice for the poor is compromised by scarce resources (Hunt, 2007:1-2; Richardson, 2007:2). The poor are deprived of health care, food and safe environments (Ljubotina & Ljubotina, 2007:1; Oldewage-Theron & Slabbert, 2008:3).

The extended households experienced insufficient food for family members and children living under one roof. It was costly to buy food on a daily basis. Employment was scarce, including domestic work. The male family members could not obtain permanent employment. Some had employment in the building trade as casual labourers, which ended on the completion of the specific contract. Casual work was becoming scarce. The children especially, indicated that they were always hungry.

5.5.1.5 Concluding remarks

The recurring themes in the focus groups and extended household interviews included inadequate food provision. Sound management skills were required to achieve the IFNP's objective to ensure an integrated approach to increase household food production (Rahaman & Varis, 2005:15; Boyle, 2003:374). In the absence of a collaborative team effort, adequate food for impoverished households was not attained. Consequently, the development of sustainable household food gardens was not achieved.

According to the IFNP policy framework, adequate household nutrition was part of the food packages, especially for households with children, the elderly and the disabled

who may have special food needs, through a food basket for specific household compositions. This was to be the responsibility of the Department of Health. The Department of Agriculture was to assist impoverished households to establish food gardens to supplement their daily food needs. The above objectives of the IFNP were not familiar to the focus group and extended household participants.

The majority of the beneficiaries were only aware of the food packages. The researcher only became aware of the distribution of school uniforms by the local Social Development office during the focus group and extended household interviews. This aspect came up frequently during the interviews, especially from the children during the extended household interviews, who did not receive any school uniforms.

5.5.2 Question 2: “How were you assisted to establish food gardens?”

5.5.2.1 Focus group responses

Focus group 1	
Participant 1	<i>“We need a nice space. The space is too small to grow vegetables to sell.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“I grow spinach, carrots, beetroots. They grow very well. I did it on my own. I did not receive any help.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“I received the groceries only. Not any help for gardening.”</i>
Participant 4:	<i>“I do not have the space for a garden.”</i>
Participant 5	<i>“I only received seed packets. I did not receive any food parcels.”</i>
Focus group 2	
Participant 1	<i>“I received both the food parcels and the seed packets.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“I want assistance to grow vegetables.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“I want more training with gardening.”</i>
Participant 4:	<i>“We work very hard to grow our own vegetables. Then we sell them. We did not receive any training.”</i>
Participant 5	<i>“I want a bigger place for my chicken business, not for growing vegetables.”</i>
Focus group 3	
Participant 1	<i>“I planted a garden, but I need more training.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“I need training to grow vegetables and also training to sew clothes.”</i>

Participant 3	<i>"I received a hosepipe. But I need training to start the vegetable garden."</i>
Participant 4:	<i>"The space is not enough to grow my daily food needs."</i>
Participant 5	<i>"Nobody came to train me in growing vegetables."</i>
Focus group 4	
Participant 1	<i>"I need more space to plant seeds and to repair shoes at home."</i>
Participant 2	<i>"I need the space to expand my sewing business."</i>
Participant 3	<i>"I need the space to expand my baking business."</i>
Participant 4:	<i>"I live alone. My children are grown up. I do piece jobs for a living. I would like assistance to plan a repairing business or some other business."</i>
Participant 5	<i>"I did not receive any help to establish a vegetable garden. No one came to help me."</i>
Focus group 5	
Participant 1	<i>"I received a hosepipe, a spade, a fork, but no wheelbarrow."</i>
Participant 2	<i>"I received the food parcels only, but no assistance with the vegetable garden."</i>
Participant 3	<i>"I received a week's training with some other people at the clinic, on how to plant the seeds at home in beds."</i>
Participant 4:	<i>"I could not continue with the vegetable garden, as I ran out of seeds. I did not collect the seeds. Was I supposed to?"</i>
Participant 5	<i>"I received the fork, the hosepipe and the spade, but no seeds. I still have the tools. I did not use them."</i>
Focus group 6	
Participant 1	<i>"I have a small garden, but no plants growing. There is only hard ground."</i>
Participant 2	<i>"I used the tools given to me to plant spinach and onions. We ate this very nicely."</i>
Participant 3	<i>"I did not receive any tools, or any training."</i>
Participant 4	<i>"I received a spade, a hosepipe and only one training session."</i>
Participant 5	<i>"I did not receive any training."</i>

5.5.2.2 Extended household responses

Extended household 1	
Participant 1	<i>"We did not receive any assistance to develop a food garden. Nor did we receive any training."</i>

Extended household 2	
Participant 1	<i>“No government official came to train us.”</i>
Extended household 3	
Participant 1	<i>“No one came to train us.”</i>
Extended household 4	
Participant 1	<i>“We received the food parcels as well as the training for a vegetable garden. We received a hosepipe and the seeds. The people came to train us at home.”</i>

5.5.2.3 Main theme from Question 2

The main theme from Question 2 is the **fragmented service provision** to assist impoverished households to establish food gardens. Equipment and seeds were handed out but the participants did not receive comprehensive guidance in utilising what was given to them.

5.5.2.4 Sub-theme from Question 2

The sub-themes from Question 2 include **the need for specific training** that the participants wanted that did not have a bearing on growing vegetables for household needs and for selling surplus vegetables.

Overall, several members indicated that they had received training for a week by the Department of Agriculture. The rest indicated that they were not assisted to improve their household food needs through the establishment of food gardens. Fragmented service provisioning was apparent in the distribution of tools and training to establish food gardens. In reply to the question whether a household food garden would assist them to supplement their daily food needs, they agreed that it would. However, the researcher observed from the group’s non-verbal communication that they were not so interested in establishing household gardens. They did not appear to be very enthusiastic about this aspect as they related how difficult it is to ensure food production from poor soil, small backyard spaces and the long wait between planting and harvesting.

The extended household visits provided a better visual response to the question than at the focus groups. Three of the extended households did not receive any agricultural implements to establish food gardens. They were not aware that the IFNP was

aligned with the establishment of home and community food gardens. The researcher observed that their back and front yards consisted mostly of baked earth which would have required much hard work to improve the soil in order to establish a home garden.

The researcher observed several gardens in the neighbourhood (which were not part of the extended household interviews) assisted through the Department of Agriculture. Most were in a state of neglect. In one case, the mother of the household, who was disabled, could not manage the food garden. Her husband, who was elderly, could not assist either. The remains of plants which once sprouted were withered. Weeds had overtaken the speck of ground that previously yielded vegetables. Yet in this particular home, the front fence boasted a splendid yellow rose hedge which was tenderly cared for.

One other house was the exception to all those in a state of neglect. The householder had extended his vegetable garden onto the vacant land. There were rows of vegetables, carefully nurtured, a veritable small scale farmer on a micro scale. This particular household member had received training and continued to implement the knowledge he received. This initiative was not operating on high profit margins, but helped the family with their food needs and brought in some income. Surplus vegetables were sold to neighbours. This was seasonal, when the produce was ready.

A stark difference was evident between the withered, the non-existing and the flourishing gardens. Evidently the flourishing garden required labour intensive effort to bear fruit. This is an important factor in establishing food gardens, where poor communities require ongoing training to maintain the synergy between the gardener, the environment and the produced crops.

5.5.2.5 Concluding remarks

Gardening difficulties included using scarce water, inadequate spaces for gardening and inadequate returns for daily household provision. Many poverty policies and strategies neglect agricultural production and markets (London & Bailie, 2001:569; Robertson *et al.*, 2004:62). The correlation for Kungwini was the need for the IFNP to establish household and community gardens that simultaneously allowed for the

trading of the goods produced. As agriculture remains a key policy strategy to reduce poverty, it is important to address arid soil conditions and pestilence and crop diseases through effective management (Ghai, 2000:128; Steady, 2003:24; O' Riordan *et al.*, 2008:154). Without the foregoing aspects, subsistence farming leads to food insecurity without skilled assistance (Hansen, 2002:321; Vink & Kirsten, 2001:117).

Appropriate agricultural training was crucial in Kungwini to enable small scale farming initiatives to balance good crop yields and reduce crop diseases. One flourishing garden made a visual difference in Kungwini. There may be other similar initiatives in the rest of the community. This indicates the willingness of some impoverished households to learn and apply new skills. With additional numbers of impoverished households developing productive food gardens, there would be an improvement in the lives of the poor in Kungwini. The above aspects illustrate the need for inter-departmental collaboration to sustain poverty programmes.

5.5.3 Question 3: “How were you assisted with skills development?”

5.5.3.1 Focus group responses

Focus group 1	
Participant 1:	<i>“I am rearing chickens to sell. I need assistance to grow my business.”</i>
Participant 2:	<i>“I need skills training to sew clothes to sell.”</i>
Participant 3:	<i>“We want skills training to get jobs, as we are not working. No one came to train us.”</i>
Participant 4:	<i>“We are struggling, we are poor; we are not educated and we need skills training to get jobs.”</i>
Participant 5:	<i>“I already own a small business, selling chickens. I need to improve my business. Nobody came to help.”</i>
Focus group 2	
Participant 1	<i>“I would like to have a business that hires out tents and chairs. But nobody came to help me.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“I have a business selling fruit juice. I want to improve my business. Nobody came to help me.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“I am 45 years and I want a job. I need skills training.”</i>

Participant 4	<i>“I sew clothes for people. I need training to improve my business.”</i>
Participant 5	<i>“I have a disabled arm. My disability is no problem. I have a small business that I need to expand. I need training.”</i>
Focus group 3	
Participant 1	<i>“We work very hard to sell various goods. We need training to make our business better.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“We do not have vegetables from our gardens to sell. We need skills training to help us to get work to care for our families.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“We have a small business, selling our vegetables that we grow ourselves. We need skills training to grow better vegetables and to sell them at a profit.”</i>
Participant 4:	<i>“We live in poverty, because we do not have the skills to get work to help our families.”</i>
Participant 5	<i>“We are two ladies who have a successful chicken business which we started after the food parcels stopped. We came here to share with you how well we are doing. We rear day old chicks for resale. From 600 chicks, we end up with 500, which we sell in about 5 to 6 weeks at a profit. We hope our story encourages the group. We too want skills training to expand our business and also to create employment opportunities.”</i>
Focus group 4	
Participant 1	<i>“My partner and I used part of the money she received from the foster care grant and the money my husband gave me to begin a business which is now successful.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“The government should empower the youth, especially in skills development. The government should assist in any way they can to improve our lives.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“We need further training for the food gardens we planted.”</i>
Participant 4:	<i>“I need a certificate as I am doing home baking and selling. This will help to improve my skills and also to get better work.”</i>
Focus group 5	
Participant 1	<i>“As youth, we have no jobs. We have completed our schooling, but do not have the skills to go out and get work.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“I have a business selling food near the school. I need to improve my business to make it better.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“I have a business repairing shoes at home. I need help to expand my business and also to improve my garden to get better vegetables.”</i>
Participant 4	<i>“I sell food on the street in town to the labourers. I need help to improve my business, like a caravan.”</i>

Focus group 6	
Participant 1	<i>“Skills training will help the youth to get jobs. My brother wants to go further with his studies. He had a space at university, but did not have a bursary to attend.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“I did not finish my matric. I need help to complete my education and to get some skills to get work. I live with my parents with my children.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“If I expand my business, we can have a better life.”</i>
Participant 4	<i>“We run a shelter for children. We need training in management and organisation to improve our services.”</i>

5.5.3.2 Extended household responses

Extended household 1	
Participant 1	<i>“No, we were not provided with any skills training.”</i>
Extended household 2	
Participant 2	<i>“No, we did not receive any skills training. I would like to receive training in sewing clothes.”</i>
Extended household 3	
Participant 1	<i>“No, we did not receive any skills training. I would like to develop a business where I could earn more money, as I am working part-time as a domestic.”</i>
Extended household 4	
Participant 1	<i>“I have a business selling chickens and some goats. I need training and more help to expand my business for better income. The young ones in the family especially need more work opportunities.”</i>

5.5.3.3 Main theme from Question 3

The main theme from Question 3 is the participants’ **eagerness to learn new skills** to overcome their poverty situation.

5.5.3.4 Sub-themes from Question 3

The sub-themes from Question 3 are the need of many impoverished households that were engaged in various low paid jobs **to earn a better living**. The participants required **training to improve their businesses** as well **as work opportunities** to enable them to take financial responsibility for their families.

Some home businesses have some success, such as the chicken farming and shoe repair businesses, whilst for others it was a daily struggle to earn a living by selling goods at schools and on the streets. For all, there is the challenge of hard work, with no high returns for their labour.

This specific question encouraged more lively discussions amongst the participants in all the focus groups than the previous questions. The groups became animated and contributed freely towards the discussion. The members were, without exception, eager to acquire new skills for employment or to begin their own business enterprises. Even among the elderly, there were many requests to be trained. This was paramount to them. It appeared to surpass the need for adequate food. The researcher observed from this particular discussion at the groups, that the participants felt that if only they could do something for themselves, they would. This was a poignant moment during the group discussions.

There was unanimous agreement that no skills training was provided for any of the group members and that they did not know of any such training having taken place in Kungwini in relation to the IFNP. The exception was the few cases that received a week's training to establish home food gardens by the Department of Agriculture. The majority of the group members had no knowledge that any skills training was provided by the Departments of Social Development, Education, Health and Agriculture in relation to the IFNP.

Three female group members had come to the group to specifically share their experiences in developing their own business all on their own. Two have established a poultry business and the third a bakery. One male stated that he was assisting a person who owned a shoe repair business to learn the trade. He would establish his own business shortly. A few days later, during a walk-about in Kungwini, the researcher came across the same poultry business and was pleasantly surprised to observe that the business was established along sound business principles. A huge lamp was suspended over the feeding area, surrounded by dozens of day old chicks. Various feeding enclosures held a number of older chickens, some ready for sale in a few days. It was a well-run operation. The women sourced poultry farming methods from magazines and in discussions with local poultry farmers.

The question regarding skills training drew a blank from most of the family members in the extended households. It appeared that the hopelessness of their poverty situation excluded a prospect such as skills training. They all agreed that they would participate in any skills training programme that was presented. They too, were not aware that the various departments provided skills training. The children (girls) indicated that they would like to pursue careers as teachers, social workers and nurses, while the boys indicated that they would pursue careers as pilots and IT technicians.

This question did not elicit any lively discussions in the extended households as it did in the focus groups. The researcher observed the poverty-stricken conditions of the extended households and became aware of the irrelevance towards skills training in this context. It appeared that skills training and their immediate need for adequate food and a better quality of life could not be reconciled. The female head of the household's non-verbal gestures appeared to indicate resignation and hopelessness.

The adolescent and young adult females in the households appeared to be hesitant in their responses, although they viewed skills training as a good idea. In three of the extended households, the young female adolescents and adults carried a young child, while two other family children who may have been their own, or family children, held onto them. It appeared as if skills training would require further effort in addition to taking care of the family daily, with the associated burdens of poverty. The young males on the other hand, expressed interest in skills training and indicated that they would participate in these endeavours.

5.5.3.5 Concluding remarks

Kungwini may be described as two worlds in one, which, according to Adato *et al.*, (2006:226), is viewed as social exclusion with a high human development index in one (formal economy) and low human index in the other (informal economy). The question remains whether the IFNP would have been able to address the socio-economic needs of impoverished households in Kungwini. The response is found in the correlation between the IFNP and the Growth, Employment and Redistribution Programme (GEAR). GEAR failed to address the serious lack of socio-economic

development in poor communities in South Africa (Institute for a Democratic Alternative Annual Report, 2006:6-8).

The two-worlds-in-one description of Kungwini describes the lack of an asset base that would have assisted the poor to gain access to economic markets. The gap between the informal and the formal sectors in Kungwini is so wide that it may be impossible to close the chasm between the two sectors. Even with social assistance, the poor in Kungwini may not be able to overcome socio-economic barriers without considerable assistance from related spheres of government. Radical intervention strategies aligned to human and financial resources are required to assist impoverished households in Kungwini to overcome their adverse circumstances (Chen, 2005:6; Adato *et al.*, 2006:226).

As part of the MDG, developing countries undertook to apportion 0,7% from the national gross savings towards local development (Love *et al.*, 2006:731). This aspect needs to be tracked by government to ascertain whether the 0,7% from economic growth was indeed being filtered down to grassroots level in Kungwini to reduce poverty.

5.5.4 Question 4: “How were you assisted to access child or pension grants?”

5.5.4.1 Focus group responses

Focus group 1	
Participant 1	<i>“Since my mother passed away, the grant has been cut. Her grant helped the family to buy food. We need assistance now.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“My children are going to school. We have problems getting grants for them.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“There was no one working at home. The food parcels helped a little. Now my disabled pension helps my family.”</i>
Participant 4	<i>“We do not have work and my mother’s pension helps the family.”</i>
Focus group 2	
Participant 1	<i>“I receive a disability pension. I want to learn to make things to earn an income.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“I am disabled and receive a grant. I also have a small home business.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“My child is 18 and still at school. The grant was stopped.”</i>

Participant 4	<i>"I have 2 small children who receive the child support grant. Their papers were right."</i>
Focus group 3	
Participant 1	<i>"The grants help us."</i>
Participant 2	<i>"The grants are okay, especially the disabled grant."</i>
Participant 3	<i>"I look after 6 children. For those under 18, we receive the child support grant."</i>
Participant 4	<i>"We do not receive any grants for the children who are old and do not qualify."</i>
Focus group 4	
Participant 1	<i>"I am disabled and in pain. The clinic could not find out what was the problem. I went to the office with a medical certificate, but was not assisted. I will go again and take the medical certificate to see what happens."</i>
Participant 2	<i>"I have 10 grandchildren, including orphans. I receive the old age pension. Three of the grandchildren and the 5 orphans receive the grants."</i>
Participant 3	<i>"I have 5 children and one grandchild. I have no work. My mother's pension and the child support grant is the only income."</i>
Participant 4	<i>"My grandmother's pension is the only income, including the 2 child support grant we receive."</i>
Participant 5	<i>"I am 23 years old with 2 children. My two sisters each have a child. My mother works as a domestic. The child support grant and my mother's salary are the only family income."</i>
Focus group 5	
Participant 1	<i>"My grandmother's pension is the only income, including the child support grant for my 2 children. There is no other income."</i>
Participant 2	<i>"We are six in our household, including 4 children. My sister and I are employed as domestic workers. The last child receives the child support grant. The others are too big."</i>
Participant 3	<i>"I receive the child support grant for my two young children. My 15 year old is too big for the grant."</i>
Participant 4	<i>"I have 3 children and my daughter has 2 children. Two of the children receive the child support grant. The other one, who is over 15 does not."</i>
Focus group 6	
Participant 1	<i>"We are struggling. Government to please assist us."</i>

Participant 2	<i>“I am disabled as I suffer from epilepsy. My grant is on and off. Sometimes I get the grant, sometimes I do not get the grant. The two young children get the child support grant.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“I have 3 children and 2 family children who are orphans. The two orphans do not receive the grants, as they are in their early 20s. I understand this. I went to the office for some help with the orphans, but they could not help me.”</i>
Participant 4:	<i>“I am 22 years old with 2 children and I receive the child support grant. My mother receives the old age pension.”</i>

5.5.4.2 Extended household responses

Extended household 1	
Participant 1	<i>“I take care of 13 children, including 7 of my own, 4 grandchildren and 2 foster children aged 4 and 5. Only my husband works when he can get work. I receive the disability grant. Three of the children receive the child support grant, but not the two foster children, because of their birth certificates. Their mother, who is my niece, is mentally ill and has no ID. We applied a year ago for the ID at Home Affairs. Five years ago we applied for the one foster child’s birth certificate. One came back, but they put in male instead of female. We are still waiting for the 2 birth certificates.”</i>
Extended household 2	
Participant 1	<i>“My child is 5 years old and cannot go to school or receive the child support grant because of the birth certificate. I need help with this.”</i>
Extended household 3	
Participant 1	<i>“My two young children receive the child support grant. My 16 year old does not. I am now a single parent, as my husband passed away. The child support grant is the only regular income.”</i>
Extended household 4	
Participant 1	<i>“I receive the old age grant and the younger ones in the family receive the child support grant. The two older grandchildren do not receive any grants. They are over 15. My wife has a disability and we would like to apply for a disability grant. We need help with this.”</i>

5.5.4.3 Main theme from Question 4

The main theme from Question 4 is the **benefit** of the old age pension and the child support grant to **assist poor households financially**.

5.5.4.4 Sub-themes from Question 4

The sub-themes from Question 4 are the **inability of the participants to access** the childcare grant and the disability grant due to lack of appropriate documentation. They do not have information regarding social security processes.

The child support and pension grants take the edge off poverty in most impoverished households. Assisted through the child support and pension grants, families will be strengthened to take care of family members, despite the limitations of poverty (Lund, 2002:177; Fong, 2001:225).

Social assistance ensures that impoverished families are able to bring up their children in adverse circumstances plagued by community instability and drug abuse. (Goldson, 2002:255; Kalil & Ziol-Guest, 2008:500). Children who are neglected, especially those from poor households, may remain deprived for most of their adolescent and adult years. The IFNP's objective to steer poor households in Kungwini to appropriate social security programmes was a positive strategy goal, to address their gross neglect in terms of their emotional and physical needs. (Daniel & Taylor, 2006:426; Goodvin, *et al.*, 2006:591).

The above aspects illustrate the implications of neglect for children living in poverty-stricken conditions, as outlined in the extended household interviews. The IFNP did not, however follow through on the diversion programmes aligned to the food distribution in terms of social security. The children who participated in the extended household interviews indicated that they were always hungry. The concern is that these children may suffer from calcium, iron and zinc deficiencies. Consequently, their physical and mental health may be compromised (Education and Training Unit, South Africa, 2006:10; Food 4 Africa.org, 2006:1).

In most instances, poor household income is spent on taking care of sick family members, especially in households affected by HIV/AIDS. The children therefore do not have adequate nutrition. The additional numbers of unemployed family members lead to severe poverty, evident in Kungwini. The unemployment situation in Kungwini is marked by low and irregular household income, apart from those homes that receive the child support grant and old age pension. The old age pension meets part of the daily food needs in poor homes (Cloete & Wissink, 2005:359).

Both the focus group and extended household interviews indicated the resilience of the poor when faced with adversity, especially some of the women, who undertook low paid work to feed their children and families, whether or not the family was in receipt of the child support grant or the old age pension. They were prepared to receive skills training to improve their circumstances. There was a need for the IFNP to have tapped this source of community strength (Jain, 2002:79; Rieger & Leibfried, 2003:133) to reinforce its objectives in relation to the socio-economic situation in Kungwini and the goals of the MDG.

5.5.4.5 Concluding remarks

The focus group and extended household participants were similar in that the old age pension and the child support grant assisted their families to provide household food and to pay for medical emergencies, lights and water. The social grants enabled many impoverished households to acquire some of the basic food commodities. However, it was apparent that the social grants did not meet all the needs of impoverished households.

As a result, the food that could be bought with grant money was inadequate for large extended families. Some of the participants expressed unhappiness with accessing the disability grants, where applications were unsuccessful. Some disability pensions were terminated, without the individuals being informed. The same applied to the child support grant. The lack of birth certificates and identification documents prevented some participants from accessing the grants. There is clearly a lack of understanding regarding the various grant processes.

5.5.5 Question 5: “How were you assisted to form community organisations?”

5.5.5.1 Focus group responses

Focus group 1	
Participant 1	<i>“We were not told. We will need a big place and also to create jobs.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“We did not know. With the right training, we can have many businesses.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“The youth will be assisted.”</i>

Participant 4	<i>“My poultry business would encourage others to do something. It can be done. See even the young people are nodding.”</i>
Focus group 2	
Participant 1	<i>“We will need money, some donation. Then it will work.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“It is not about establishing community organisations. We need a clinic in extension 2. When it rains, the dirt roads are very bad. The children are always hungry. In my house, only one person works, earning R500.00 a month. We do not receive any grants. We have to pay for electricity, for food and to wash clothes for the children.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“We also have to pay the children’s school fees, which is too much.”</i>
Participant 4	<i>“The community organisation is an important point.”</i>
Participant 5	<i>“We are from a community organisation and have a shelter at my house. We also have a site. The social workers say that we must have a house built on the site before the children can be in foster care. We are not being helped to do this or to get the finance.”</i>
Focus group 3	
Participant 1	<i>“No one came. We need management training to establish a community organisation.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“We were not told. We need skills to do so.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“We were not told about any community organisations. We will need big spaces.”</i>
Participant 4	<i>“We need training, but nobody came to train us.”</i>
Focus group 4	
Participant 1	<i>“We did not know about this. Although we have a small business at home, we can expand into new businesses like sewing, planting and baking.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“Nobody came to assist us.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“Nobody came to assist us or told us about this.”</i>
Participant 4:	<i>“We were not told about this.”</i>
Participant 5	<i>“We did not hear about this.”</i>
Focus group 5	
Participant 1	<i>“A community organisation? No I did not know.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“No.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“I do not know anything about this.”</i>
Participant 4:	<i>“No one came to us.”</i>

Focus group 6	
Participant 1	<i>“No one told us. No, we did not know.”</i>
Participant 2	<i>“No, I did not know about this.”</i>
Participant 3	<i>“No, we did not know about this. We need a big place. We can also create jobs and employ others and expand businesses.”</i>
Participant 4	<i>“Nobody told us about this. The government needs to provide a big ground for the community.”</i>

5.5.5.2 Extended household response

Extended household 1	
Participant 1	<i>“Nobody came. Yes I can be involved in community projects.”</i>
Extended household 2	
Participant 1	<i>“Nobody told me about this. We can get involved in community projects, even if my wife is disabled.”</i>
Extended household 3	
Participant 1	<i>“No, I did not know about this. I do not think that I can get involved in any community activities. My situation is difficult for me.”</i>
Extended household 4	
Participant 1	<i>“I do not know about this. As I am farming with chickens and goats, I can see that we will need a big place. For me, I need to have a big place to start other businesses, also for a bigger house and office space.”</i>

5.5.5.3 Main theme from Question 5

The main theme from question 5 is that the **community was not informed or assisted** to establish community organisations.

5.5.5.4 Sub-themes from Question 5

The sub-theme from question 5 is the **willingness of the community** to become involved in establishing community organisations. They have specific ideas, however, of what assistance they require to develop community businesses versus the community gardens as proposed by the IFNP.

Two key constraints to addressing poverty effectively in Kungwini include the lack of understanding regarding the nature of the problem and the appropriate measures to address various types of poverty. It was important to distinguish between the chronic

poor who are likely to remain in poverty and the transitory poor, who need assistance to overcome poverty (Aliber 2003:473; McEvan, 2007:1) in order to maximise valuable IFNP resources in terms of establishing community organisations that would mainly create community food gardens to address food insecurity in Kungwini.

Apart from service delivery and resource allocation based on a linear mode, which according to Potter and Subrahmanian (1998:23), proceeds from hasty programme planning to programme implementation, there is a need to gather facts and information regarding the specific targets for which the services are intended before establishing community organisations to assist impoverished households. During the focus group and extended household interviews, it was evident that the above aspects were not pursued prior to establishing the IFNP.

The IFNP did not use specific criteria to identify elderly and female-headed households who represent the diverse categories of the chronic poor. A blanket decision was taken to distribute food packages to random households visited by local politicians, which indicates pressure groups agendas in policy processes and programme implementation.

Because of improper targeting, the IFNP's primary objective to address poverty effectively was compromised. During the food distribution in 2006, the researcher observed a number of individuals in threadbare clothes, milling around the distribution points and waiting in vain for food packages. They were not part of the process. A further observation during the focus group discussions were the elderly, the disabled and those who have a severe lack of skills, who could be classified as the chronically poor. The youth, some elderly members including the disabled and those persons who do not have any skills, could be classified as the transitory poor (Aliber, 2003:473-476). Members from these groups could be appropriately skilled to participate in community organisations.

In order for community organisations to ensure food security to address poverty, it is imperative that crucial issues influencing the poor are addressed through a collaborative effort by various government departments. This includes creating the environment for economic development, upgrading social and health services and ensuring social protection for vulnerable groups (Chaskin, 2001:291; Cronrath *et al.*,

2005:10). The various strengths of the communities in Kungwini should be harnessed to reduce poverty through various community organisations that address a range of issues.

5.5.5.5 Concluding remarks

The participants' non-verbal cues appeared to register a sense of hesitancy regarding food security through the establishment of community organisations to address poverty in Kungwini. The vulnerable circumstances of the poor should be addressed in a sensitive manner to ensure that they are not exposed to further vulnerability (Wacquant, 2007:66; Sacks, 2008:177). It was imperative to have enlisted their co-operation to reduce their vulnerability. Creating a positive environment that ensured a co-ordinated effort to address poverty in Kungwini would have assisted the IFNP to achieve its objectives (May, 1997:5; Kayizzi-Mugerwa, 2003:23; Cloete & Wissink, 2005:191).

Various adverse factors that affect poverty in Kungwini should have been thoroughly assessed before assisting impoverished households to develop community organisations. This includes the health status of the elderly and promoting home-based care for the chronically ill. Community networks empower the poor and include community driven enterprises to improve service delivery, based on grassroots experiences and skills (Boyle, 2003:342; Spira & Wall, 2006:390).

The partnership between government and civil society in Kungwini was crucial to address extreme poverty and hunger. Vulnerable groups have the right to receive assistance to address their need for adequate food and wealth distribution from economic development. These remain crucial issues in establishing community organisations (Gailbraith, 2000:65; Development Gateway, 2006:11).

5.6 SUMMARY

The data for the qualitative approach to the research study was gathered through focus group interviews and extended household interviews. The researcher used the same set of questions in both cases. Data was enriched through observation.

The responses from the focus group and extended household interviews indicated that the IFNP required interactive participation to reduce poverty in Kungwini. A

number of crucial factors adversely affected the IFNP's objective to address poverty effectively in Kungwini. These include the lack of inter-departmental and civil society collaboration and programme sustainability. This aspect aligns with the main theme in Question 5, namely that the community was not informed or assisted to establish community organisations that would take responsibility for the IFNP programme.

Inequalities between urban and rural communities have been clearly identified in Kungwini. A common factor includes the inequality in rural areas, where farming is the primary economic activity. In Kungwini, the primary focus of the IFNP was on agricultural development through household and community food gardens, which would then be expanded to include socio-economic activities.

This aspect aligns with the sub-theme in Question 1, namely the inadequacy of the food packages to meet the participants' daily food needs and the failure to address the adverse socio-economic circumstances in Kungwini

Finding employment however, remains a huge problem for the majority of the poor in Kungwini, who continue to eke out a daily living through menial labour. In order to bridge the wide gap between the poor and the wealthy in terms of human development and the economy, there is a need to fast track socio-economic development, including agricultural initiatives.

The question remains whether agricultural initiatives will address poverty adequately in Kungwini in terms of establishing food and community gardens, as climate change impacts negatively on the environment. This aspect aligns with the sub-theme in Question 2, namely the need for specific training that the participants preferred, rather than the focus on developing household food gardens to provide for their family needs.

Anti-poverty programmes should therefore include a range of related projects to achieve concrete outcomes, based on specific targeting, and effective monitoring and evaluation. A well-planned and executed poverty reduction project will ensure policy success. Most public poverty programmes operate independently and in the process, services to the poor are duplicated. Poverty should be viewed as a multi-dimensional problem requiring integrated multi-sectoral intervention. This was crucial for the IFNP processes in Kungwini. This aspect aligns with the theme in Question 2, namely

fragmented service provisioning that did not assist impoverished households to establish food gardens.

Sound management skills will achieve policy objectives through effective planning, goal setting and a public environment that promotes optimum service standards. This aspect aligns with the theme and sub-themes in Question 4, namely the benefits of various social security grants, which aligns with the inability of the participants to access the grants.

The policy development process includes continuous policy evaluation to determine whether a programme has achieved its stated goals and reached its intended target. Terminating a programme requires an assessment to determine whether the problem was effectively dealt with. By terminating the IFNP, the crucial question remains: At what point did policy makers decide that the needs of impoverished households in Kungwini were met? This aspect aligns with the theme in Question 4, namely that the participants were not able to access social security grants prior to and after the implementation of the IFNP.

Government's commitment to the poor should be translated into effective policy management by those entrusted to bring change to millions of poor in South Africa. The above aspects paint a gloomy picture for Kungwini, which illustrates on the one hand the right motives in establishing the IFNP, and on the other, that the programme was placed on shaky ground without considering low economic growth in South Africa and the difficulties the poor have to access capital funding to establish their own business. The key factor for policy equity and efficiency continues to be collaboration and programme sustainability based on alternative solutions if the current programme is not achieving its objectives. This aspect aligns with the sub-theme in Question 5, namely the willingness of the community to be involved in programmes to alleviate poverty in Kungwini.

CHAPTER 6: QUANTITATIVE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH FINDINGS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this research, statistical data measurements were used in line with quantitative methods to determine the impact of the IFNP. As quantitative research is used mainly in logistics research, it provided the assumptions regarding the research question namely, “What is the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini?” The quantitative method is based on systematic procedures to study human behaviour, and provides deeper insights into social problems (Eldabi *et al.*, 2002: 64-65; Lalwani & Gardner, 2004: 565).

A questionnaire (a post-test-only design) was used to gather data. There was only one group and one test and no comparison with a control group or with a pre-test (Fouché & De Vos 2002:144). The questionnaire was pilot tested with two managers who were involved with the IFNP in Kungwini. The respondents for the quantitative method included officials from the Departments of Social Development, Health, Education and Agriculture, as well as members from community organisations in Kungwini. The questionnaire included questions informed by the literature study, the objectives of the IFNP and the objectives of this research.

In this chapter, the quantitative data-collecting phases are described, as well as the development of the measuring instrument, the pilot study and the respondent profile. The measuring instrument is based on the IFNP’s policy framework that guided programme implementation. The questionnaire was structured to assess the impact of the IFNP to reduce poverty in Kungwini, and is in line with the IFNP’s focus on the MDG to reduce hunger, malnutrition and food insecurity by 50% by 2015. In this respect, the IFNP sought to develop household food gardens to meet the daily nutritional needs of the poor in Kungwini. The programme would then broaden into marketing surplus household and community garden produce. The key objectives of the IFNP included reducing the number of households that did not have adequate food and establishing income-generating initiatives.

6.2 RESEARCH SETTING

The geographical research setting included the municipal districts of Johannesburg, Tshwane and Kungwini. The respondents were chosen purposively from the Departments of Social Development, Health, Education, Agriculture and community based organisations in Kungwini. The criteria in the choice of respondents included the following:

Respondents from the relevant government departments

- Involvement in their respective department programmes in Kungwini to address poverty
- Experiences in addressing poverty in Kungwini.

Respondents from community based organisations

- Permanent residents in Kungwini
- Personal experiences of poverty
- Involvement in addressing poverty in Kungwini.

The above sampling includes various groupings in Kungwini involved in service delivery to impoverished households.

6.3 PHASES OF QUANTITATIVE DATA COLLECTING

The phases for the quantitative data collecting included the following:

Phase 1: Pre-testing the measuring instrument (questionnaire) with two former managers of the IFNP in Kungwini, purposively chosen.

Phase 2: Arranging meetings with the relevant heads of departments for the involvement of their personnel in the research.

Phase 3: Meeting with the above individuals and outlining the aim and objectives of the research.

Phase 4: Meeting with members of community based organisations in Kungwini and outlining the aim and objectives of the research.

Phase 5: Distributing the questionnaires to the respondents.

Phase 6: Collecting the distributed questionnaires from the various groups above for analysis.

6.4 MEASURING INSTRUMENT - QUANTITATIVE DATA COLLECTING

The measuring instrument (questionnaire) included the following categories of questions and sub-questions relating to the IFNP (Annexure C).

Section A: Bibliographical data

This section included personal details regarding the respondents in terms of age, education qualifications and employment status during the implementation of the IFNP.

Section B: Involvement in the IFNP

This section focused on the respondents' specific involvement in the implementation of the IFNP.

Section C: Achieving the objectives/sub-objectives of the IFNP

This section was divided into two sections, namely assessing to what extent the objectives and the sub-objectives of the IFNP were achieved.

The sub-objectives formed the core of the questionnaire to assess the impact of the IFNP and focused on the following categories of questions:

- Increasing household food production
- Improving household nutrition and health
- Improving safety nets and food emergency systems
- Promoting community income generating initiatives
- Promoting non-farming activities
- Improving information and communication
- Establishing integrated stakeholder partnerships
- Providing policy guidance to achieve programme objectives

6.5 QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

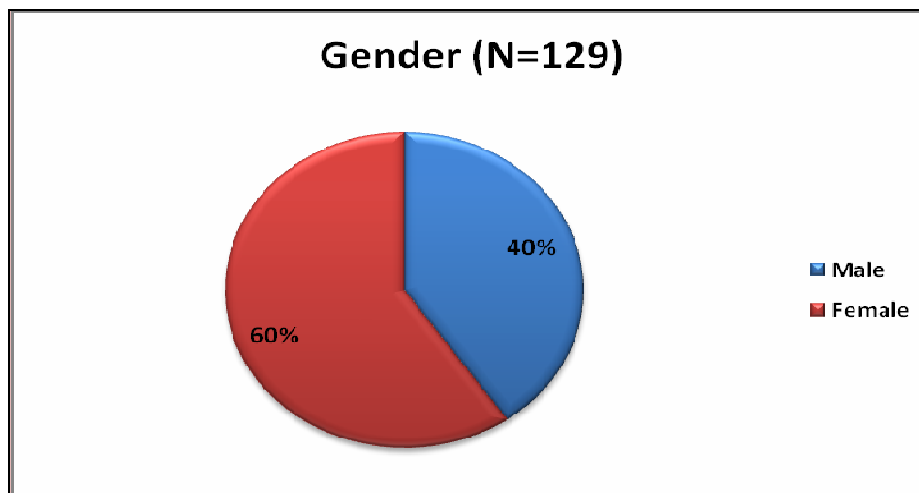
The data was captured in statistical format by the Department of Statistics at the University of Pretoria. This provided the cumulative frequencies for the responses to the questionnaire. The Costing, Financial Forecasting and Modelling Directorate at the National Department of Social Development then captured these frequencies in graphical format. The graphical representation of data provides the statistical information regarding the impact of the IFNP.

6.6 FINDINGS OF THE QUANTITATIVE DATA

The statistical data analysis below indicates the key findings of the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini:

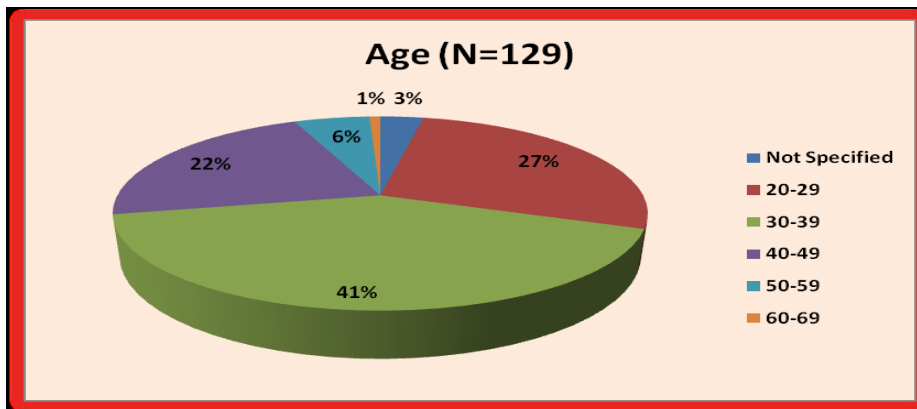
6.6.1 Biographical data

The respondents' biographical data is as follows:



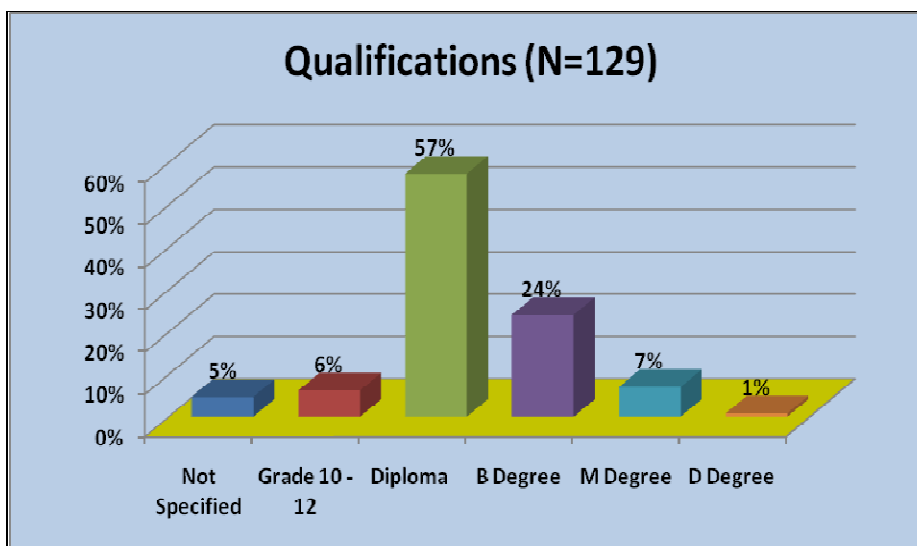
Graph 1: Gender distribution of respondents

The gender distribution above indicates that 40% of the respondents were male and 60% were female. This correlates with the general gender profile in social services where more females are employed in service delivery.



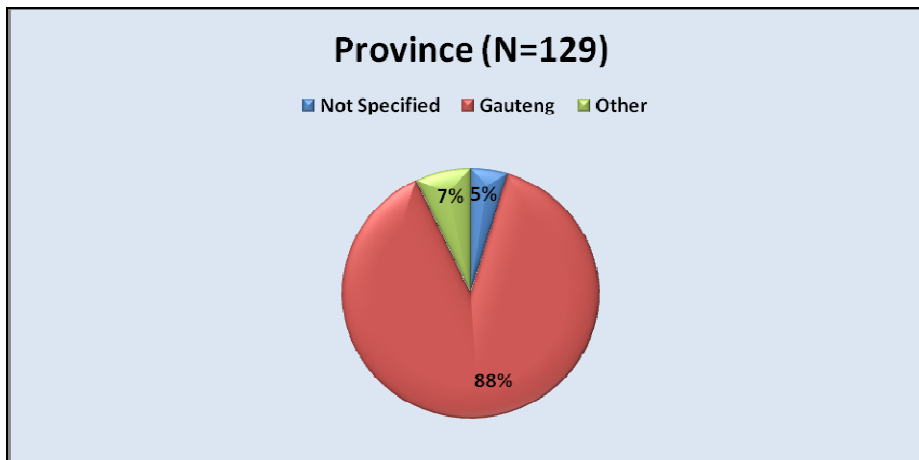
Graph 2: Age distribution of respondents

The age group 30-39 includes the largest portion (41%) of the respondents. This group is an important age cohort responsible for public service delivery in Kungwini, followed by the age cohort 20-29 (27%) and the age cohort 40-49 (22%).



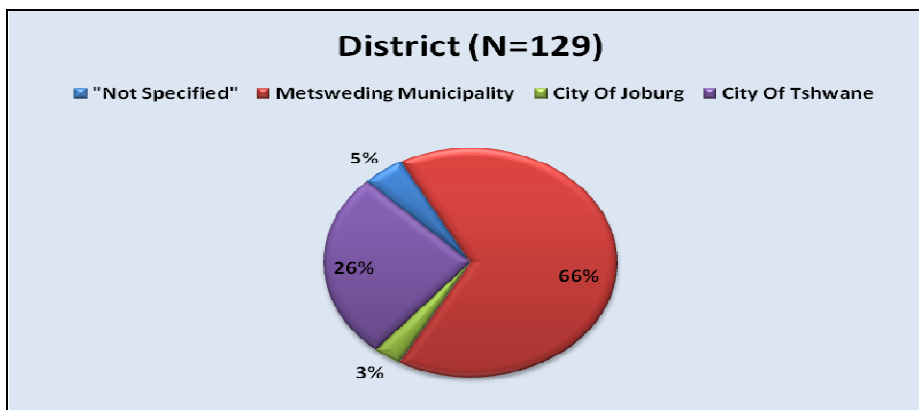
Graph 3: Qualifications of respondents

The majority of respondents responsible for service delivery to the poor in Kungwini include individuals who have a diploma (57%) and individuals who have degrees (32%). The respondents with degrees (32%) probably have knowledge on policy processes and programme implementation, whilst the respondents with certificates would have more practical field training. This is an appropriate combination of skills to address poverty in Kungwini.



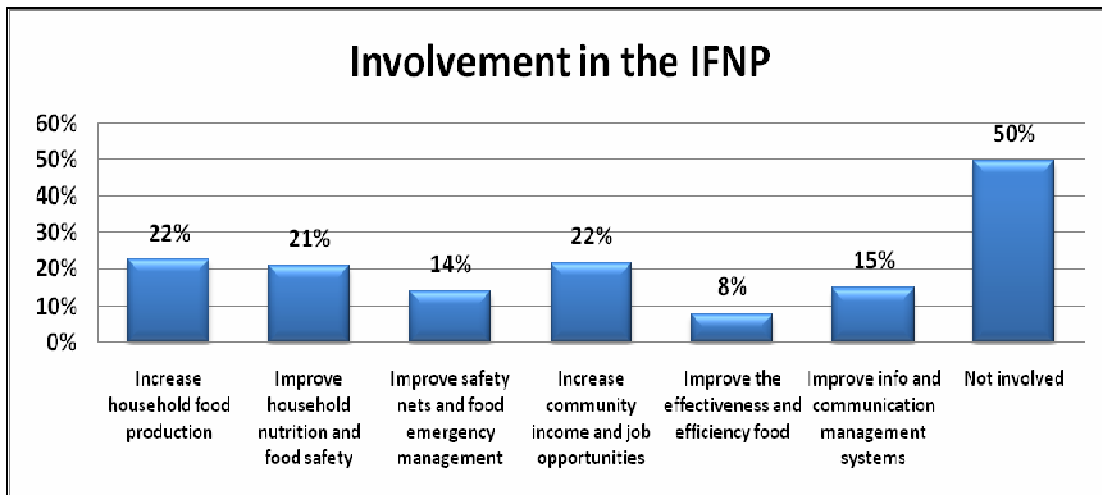
Graph 4: Province employed

The majority of the respondents reside in the Gauteng province (88%). Inter-provincial movement of public officials is limited (12%). The figure of 88% above indicates that the large majority of the respondents are employed in the Gauteng province.



Graph 5: District employed

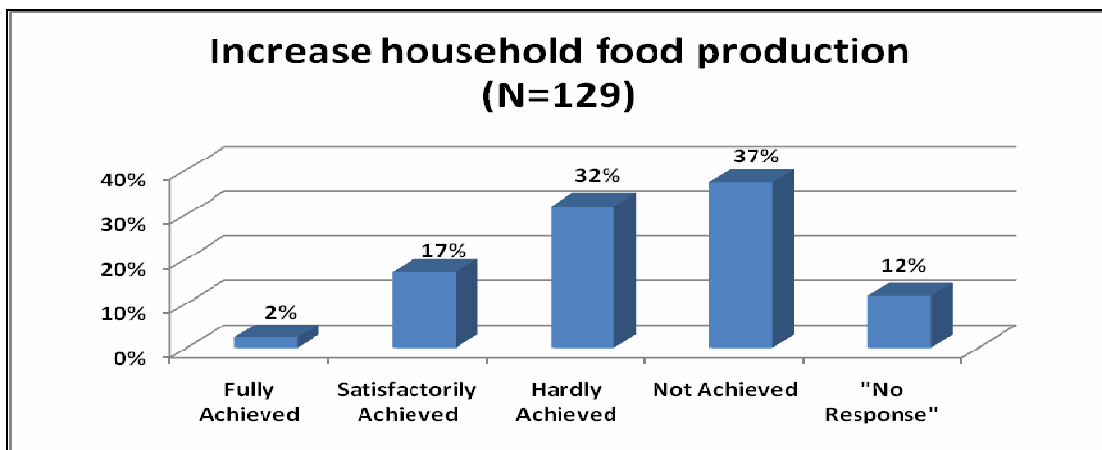
The majority of the respondents (66%) are based in the Metsweding Municipal District, rendering services in the Local Kungwini Municipality, while 26% reside in the City of Tshwane Municipal District. Being locally based provides a realistic view of the poverty situation.



Graph 6: Involvement in the IFNP

Fifty percent of the respondents were not involved in any of the above areas of the IFNP in Kungwini, although they were supposed to have been involved. A comparison of the 22% who indicated that they were involved in increasing household food production, and the 15%, who indicated their involvement to improve information and communication management systems, indicates that the respondents were not fully involved in achieving the above objectives of the IFNP. This further indicates a lack of inter-departmental planning and co-ordination, resulting in fragmented services.

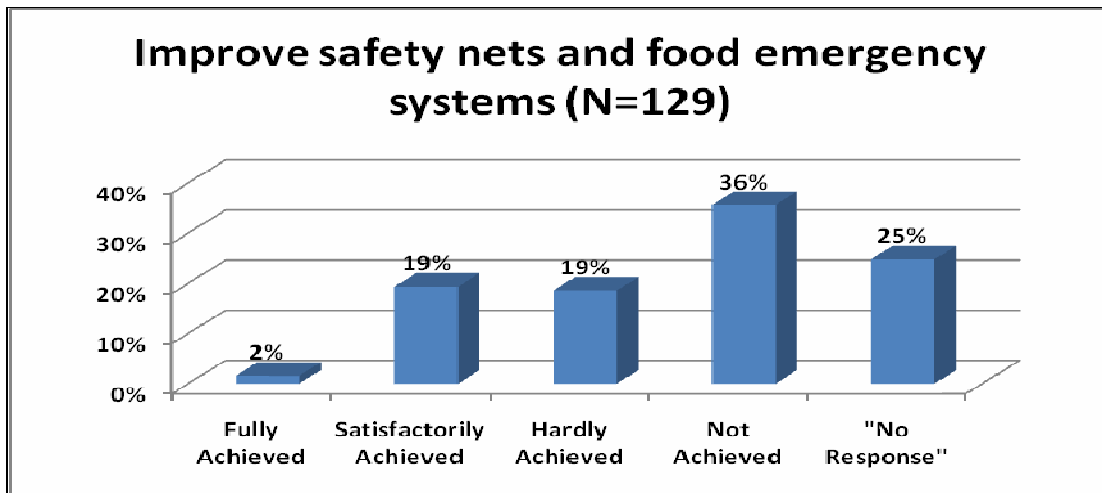
6.6.2 Achieving the IFNP objectives



Graph 7: Increase household food production

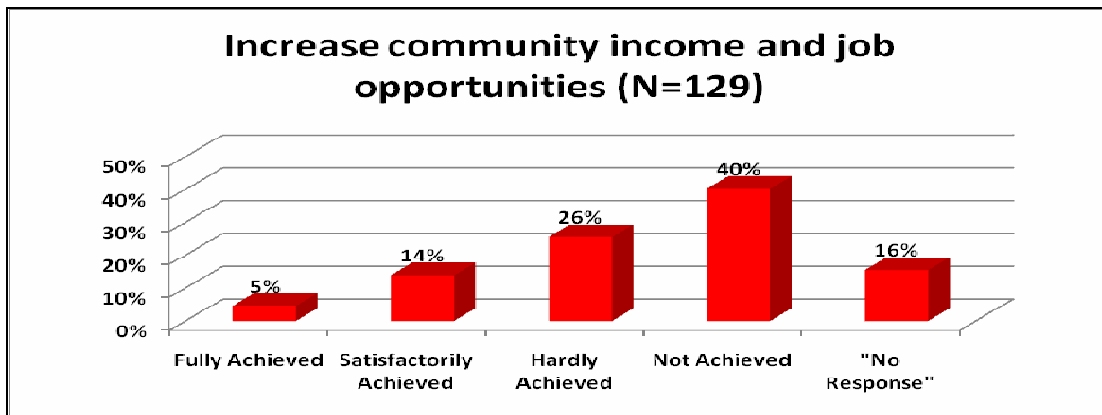
The high figures of 32% and 37% indicate that increasing household food production was hardly or not achieved at all. Conversely, the 2% and 17% indicate

it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 32% and 37% indicate that before implementing the objective to increase household food production, it was essential for the IFNP policy developers to understand the extremely difficult circumstances of the poor, especially those living in rural areas. In general impoverished households have to contend with uncertainty and insecurity in terms of food, shelter and related constraints that hinder their wellbeing (Cornia & Court, 2001:1; Serageldin, 2002:54; Fuentes, 2008:139; Sacks, 2008:17). Addressing food needs apart from other daily struggles will not reduce poverty significantly.



Graph 8: Improve safety nets and food emergency systems

The high figures of 19% and 36% indicate that improving safety nets and food emergency systems was hardly or not achieved at all. Conversely, the 2% and the 19% indicate it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 19% and 36% indicate that there are gaps in the social security and food emergency systems that need to be addressed to ensure the constitutional right of the poor to social pensions and food assistance. The figures of 19% and 36% further indicate that there were no monitoring and evaluation systems in place to measure the IFNP's impact to improve safety nets and food emergency systems. Inadequate programme monitoring and evaluation will have a detrimental impact on policy implementation. Monitoring and evaluation remain important components of policy processes to ensure institutional reforms for effective service delivery (World Bank Development Report, 2003:157; Moller & Devey, 2003:463; Nel & Rogerson, 2005:15).

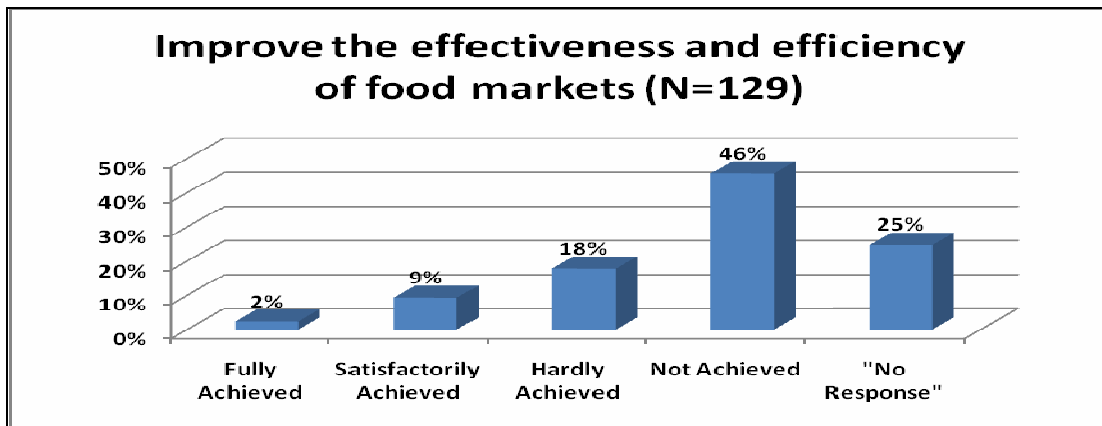


Graph 9: Increase community income and job opportunities

The high figures of 26% and 40% indicate that community income and job opportunities were hardly or not achieved at all. Conversely, the 5% and 14% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 26% and 40% indicate that creating work opportunities requires skills training to equip respondents for the job market. Skills training enable the poor to develop economic initiatives to reduce poverty. Similarly, appropriate skills training equips public personnel to implement policy decisions effectively (Kayizzi-Mugerwa, 2003:23; Delmonica & Mehrotra, 2006:13; McDonald *et al.* 2007:1327).

The informal economy provides appropriate markets to generate income. High levels of inequality, however, are difficult to address through economic growth. Because of their low household income and unemployment status (May, 1997:9), the poor do not have ready access to credit facilities to improve or expand their economic initiatives. Consequently, the informal sector cannot fully participate in local or global economic markets (McGrew, 2000:266; Ballard *et al.*, 2005:615; Bond, 2004:216; Edwards & Stern, 2007:111; Mapedimeng, 2007:257).

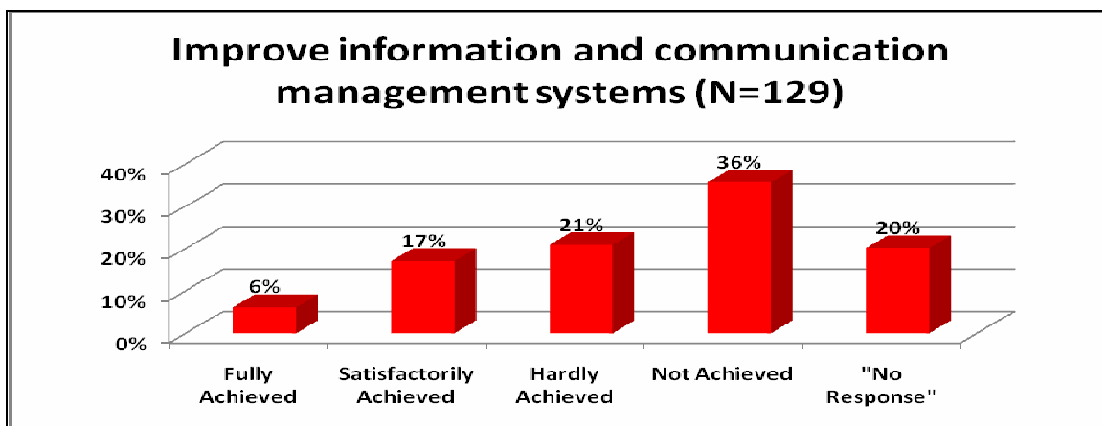
Further constraints which do not guarantee immediate returns for improving living standards for the informal sector include firstly, their inability to participate in formal business activities as they lack adequate marketing skills, and secondly, the decline in the South African economy (Cornia & Court, 2001:1; Ballard *et al.*, 2005:615). This aspect should have been investigated prior to including the economic objective to increase community income and job opportunities.



Graph 10: Improve the effectiveness and efficiency of food markets

The high figures of 18% and 46% indicate that improving the effectiveness and efficiency of food markets was hardly or not achieved at all. Conversely, the 2% and 9% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 18% and 46% correlate with Graph 13, where skills training is imperative to equip the IFNP beneficiaries to successfully develop household and community food gardens, and consequently to apply the knowledge gained to develop efficient trading markets in the formal sector.

As indicated in Graph 9, the informal sector cannot participate in the formal sector, which requires sound business and marketing expertise (Block, 2006:168; Ljubotina & Ljubotina, 2007:5). The marginalisation and helplessness of the historically disadvantaged poor in Kungwini should have been the primary overall focus of the IFNP, before addressing their economic plight.

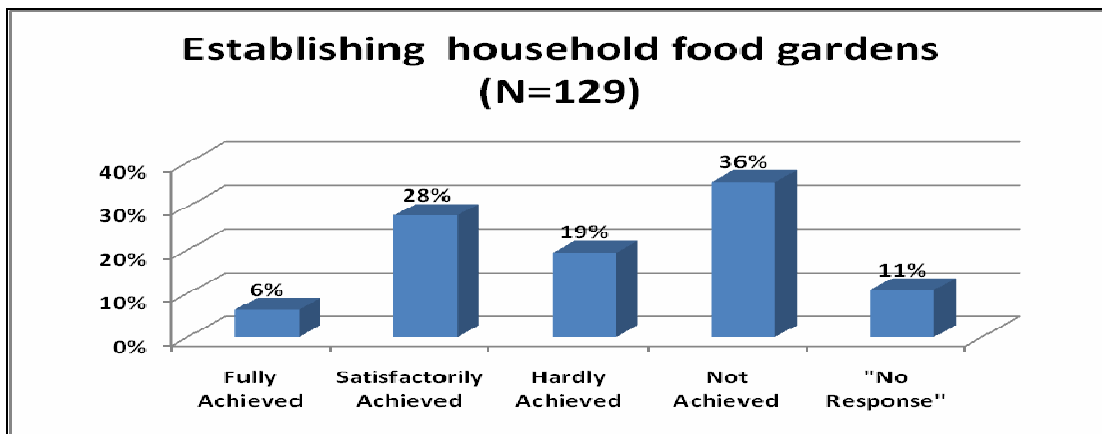


Graph 11: Improve information and communication management systems

The high figures of 21% and 36% indicate that information and communication management systems were hardly or not achieved at all. Conversely, the 6% and 17% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 21% and 36% indicate a large number of respondents who were not involved in an essential objective of the IFNP. Poor clients should have been made aware of the objectives of the IFNP through adequate communication. The Departments of Social Development, Health, Agriculture as well as community organisations have independent poverty programmes in Kungwini. In terms of empowering the poor in Kungwini through various intervention strategies, it was essential that a collaborative partnership be established through effective communication (Takahashi & Smutny, 2002:170; Patel & Hochfeld, 2008:195).

6.7 ACHIEVING THE SUB-OBJECTIVES OF THE IFNP

The sub-objectives of the IFNP included seven broad categories, namely, establishing functioning household food gardens, improving household nutrition and health, establishing safety nets and food emergency systems, supporting community income and job opportunities, developing effective and efficient food markets, improving information and communication systems, as well as establishing stakeholder roles. Each of these sub-objectives included related focus areas, outlined as follows:



Graph 12: Establishing functioning household food gardens

The high figures of 19% and 36% indicate that establishing functioning household food gardens was hardly or not achieved at all. Conversely, the 6% and 28%

indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 19% and 36% show a need for collaboration between the Departments of Social Development and Agriculture as well as the involvement of impoverished households. An essential aspect to establishing food gardens was to ascertain the views of impoverished households in Kungwini. This correlates with the researcher's observations during the focus group and extended household interviews regarding the participants' reluctance to establish household food gardens. It was essential to implement a policy decision that was widely consulted with all relevant stakeholders in Kungwini (May, 1997:5; Institute for a Democratic Alternative Annual Report, 2006:6).

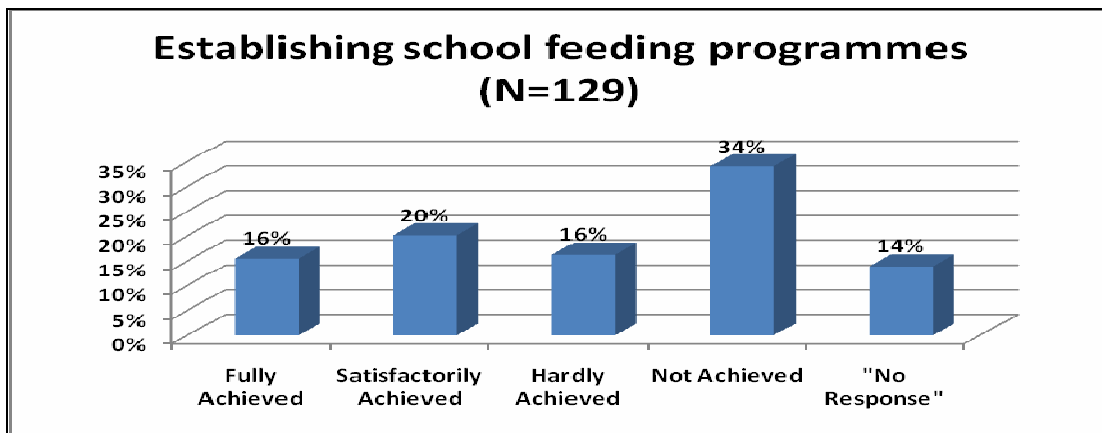


Graph 13: Establishing food garden trading

The high figures of 23% and 36% indicate that establishing food garden trading was hardly or not fully achieved. Conversely, the figures of 2% and 22% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 23% and 36% indicate that there was a lack of focus on the economics of marketing to ensure household income from garden produce. This correlates with Graph 9, regarding skills training to equip the IFNP beneficiaries to develop household and community food gardens, and consequently to apply the knowledge to develop trading markets.

As agriculture remains the main occupation for the poor, appropriate training is a key component to improve their circumstances. Training in agricultural skills equips impoverished households and subsistence farmers to address poor soil conditions and crop disease to ensure productive harvests (Ghai, 2000:18; Love *et al.*, 2006:735; Mutandiva and Gadzirayi, 2007:3). Consequently, it would be an

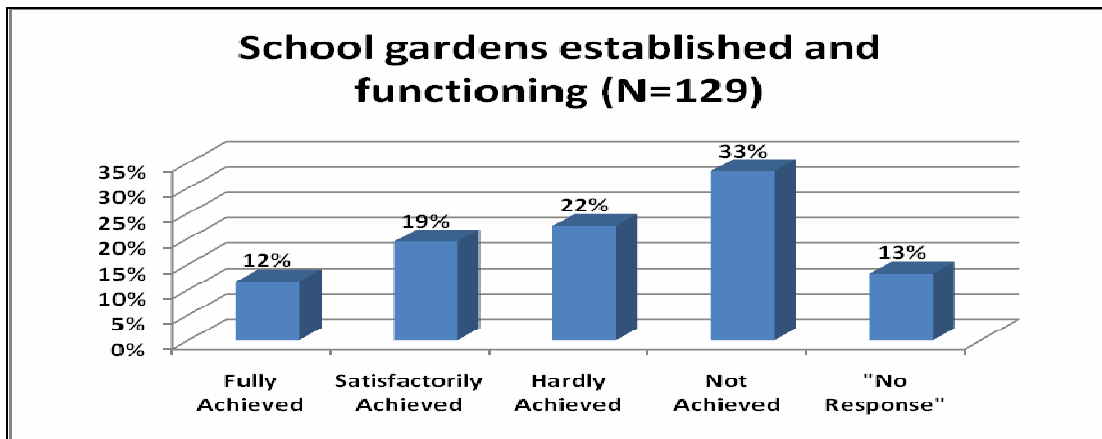
achievable objective to establish functioning household food gardens whereby surplus produce could be sold (Hansen, 2002: 321; Vink & Kirsten, 2001:112).



Graph 14: Establishing school feeding programmes

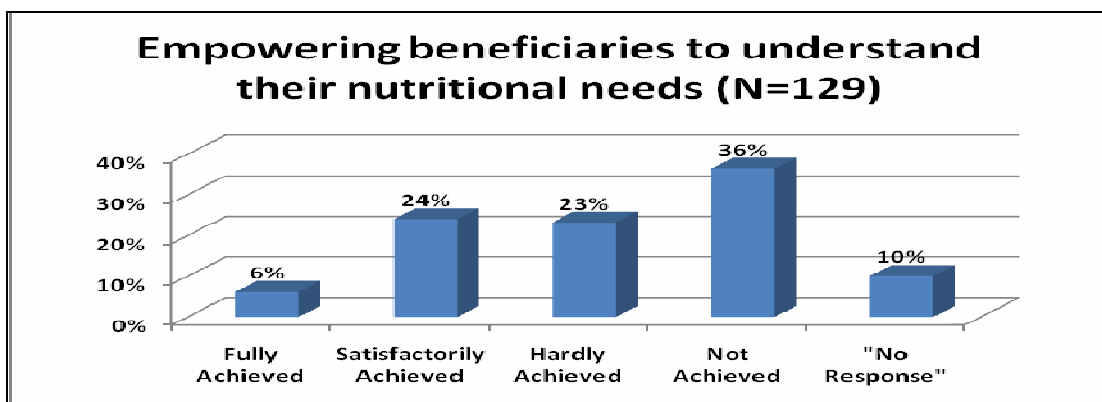
The figures of 16% and 34% indicate that establishing school feeding programmes was hardly or not achieved at all. These are slightly higher (14%) than the figures of 16% and 20% indicating that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 16% and 34% show that it would have been prudent for the IFNP policy developers to strengthen existing school feeding programmes through a collaborative partnership with the Departments of Education and Agriculture, as some schools have established school feeding schemes in Kungwini. It was essential to determine the status of the feeding schemes to identify any gaps. This would have addressed the need of children from impoverished households who stated in the extended household interviews that they were always hungry.

It is imperative to assess the needs of the poor to enable them to surmount their poverty. Welfare transformation calls for social justice for women and children, especially in poverty policies. Children from impoverished households especially experience extreme neglect in terms of their physical and emotional needs (Featherstone, 2006:296; Daniel & Taylor, 2006:428; Fuentes, 2008:139). The IFNP included a key objective which required broader consultation with the Departments of Education and Health, and community organisations.



Graph 15: School gardens established and functioning

The figures of 22% and 33% indicate that establishing functioning school gardens was hardly or not achieved at all. This is slightly higher (by 24%) than the figures of 12% and 19% indicating it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 19% and 36% indicate yet again that the collaborative partnership indicated in Graph 14 was essential during the planning phases of the IFNP. As poverty remains acute in South Africa, the impact is most severe on children from impoverished households (Pelto, 2000:1300; Food 4 Africa, 2006:1; Featherstone, 2006:294; Gakidou *et al.*, 2007:1876). The IFNP should have been supported through a collaborative partnership to strengthen existing school gardens. The relevant expertise and commitment from the Department of Agriculture was crucial.

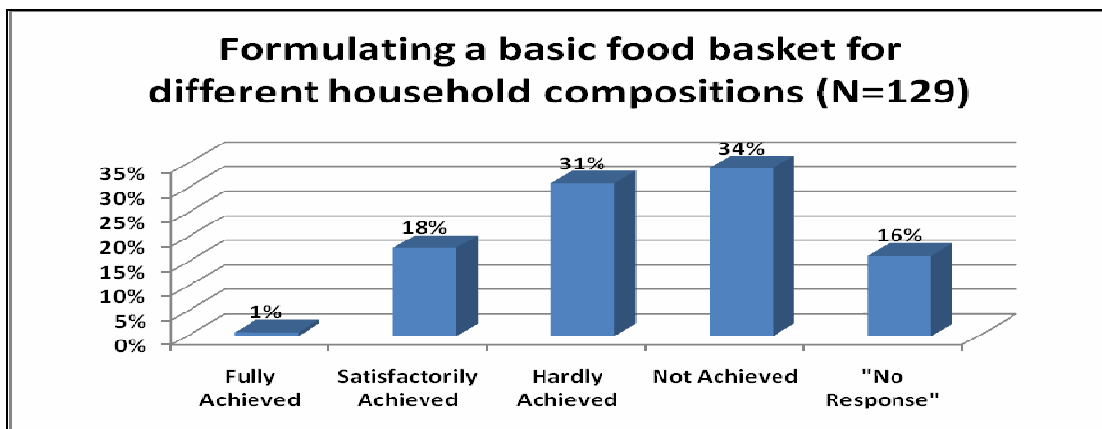


Graph 16: Empowering beneficiaries to understand their nutritional needs

The high figures of 23% and 36% indicate that there was hardly or no achievement in empowering beneficiaries to understand their nutritional needs. Conversely, the

6% and 24% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 23% and 36% show that it was essential to have included the participation of impoverished households during this phase of the IFNP in order to empower them regarding their nutritional needs, including the nutritional needs of young children. This again correlates with the findings from the extended household interviews, where the children stated they were always hungry. This indicates that they require adequate nutrition for their physical and emotional development (Education and Training Unit, South Africa, 2006:10; Food 4 Africa, 2006:1).

The involvement of the Department of Health was a crucial aspect. The above aspects again correlate with Graph 14 regarding school feeding schemes. The collaborative partnership between the Departments of Education and Health and community organisations was important to ensure that children and adults from impoverished households receive adequate nutrition through appropriate poverty programmes.

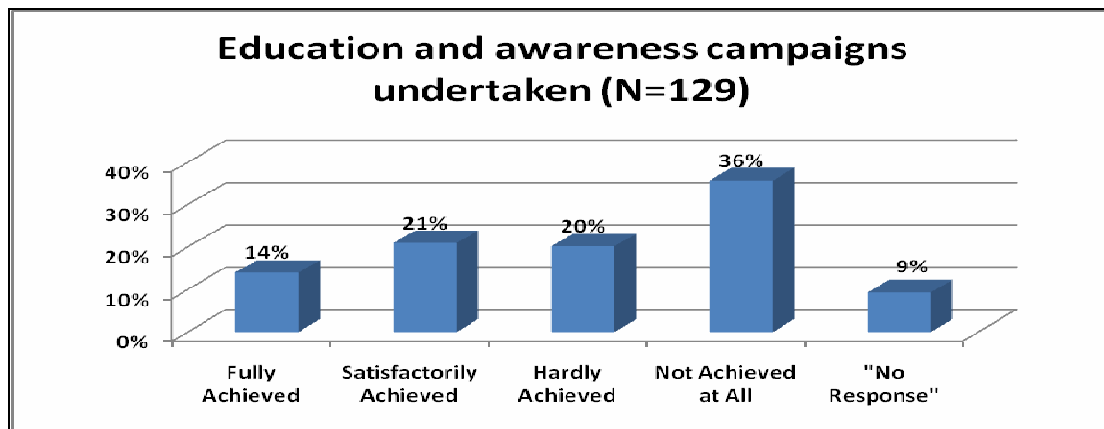


Graph 17: Formulating a basic food basket for different household compositions

The high figures of 31% and 34% indicate that formulating a basic food basket was hardly or not achieved at all. Conversely, the 1% and 18% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 31% and 34% indicate that the involvement of the Department of Health was crucial to formulate the different food baskets. A further consideration is the fact that each poor household differs from the next in its family composition. This aspect should have been an objective for the medium to long-term IFNP process.

The physical needs of the poor should have been linked to the factors that contribute to their social exclusion in order to address poverty significantly in Kungwini, rather than the distribution of resources to ensure their well-being (Frost & Hoggett, 2008:438-440). An insight into the hardship experienced by the poor was essential before embarking on any poverty programme. There was a need to review available poverty data in Kungwini to gain an overall understanding of the circumstances of impoverished households. Subsequent research initiatives through a collaborative partnership would have added to the knowledge base to strengthen the implementation of the IFNP (Selsky, 2005:489; Koontz, 2008:163).

6.8 IMPROVING HOUSEHOLD NUTRITION AND HEALTH

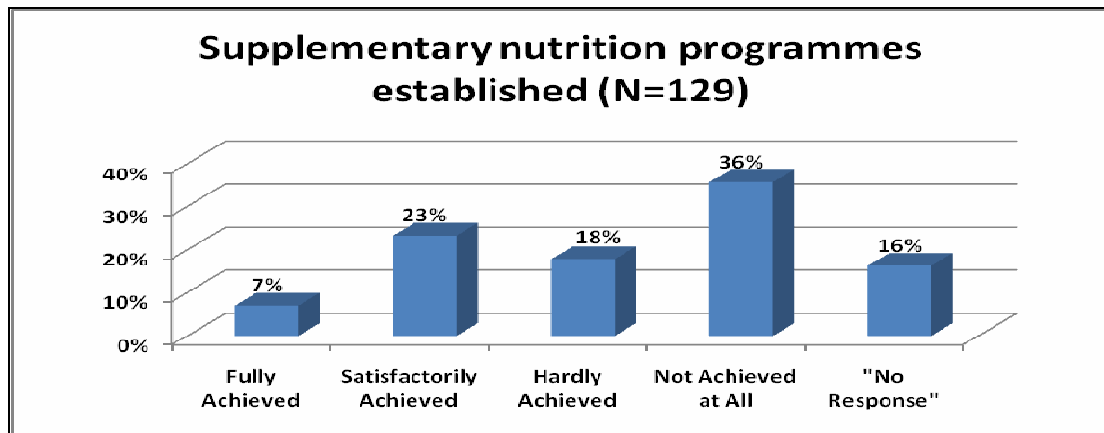


Graph 18: Education and awareness campaigns undertaken

The figures of 20% and 36% indicating that education and awareness campaigns were hardly or not achieved at all are slightly higher (21%) than the 14% and 21% showing that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. According to the figures of 20% and 36% it was essential that education and awareness campaigns conveyed the objectives of the IFNP. This correlates with the findings from the focus group and extended household interviews where participants stated that they were not aware of the objectives of the IFNP, other than the food packages that they had received.

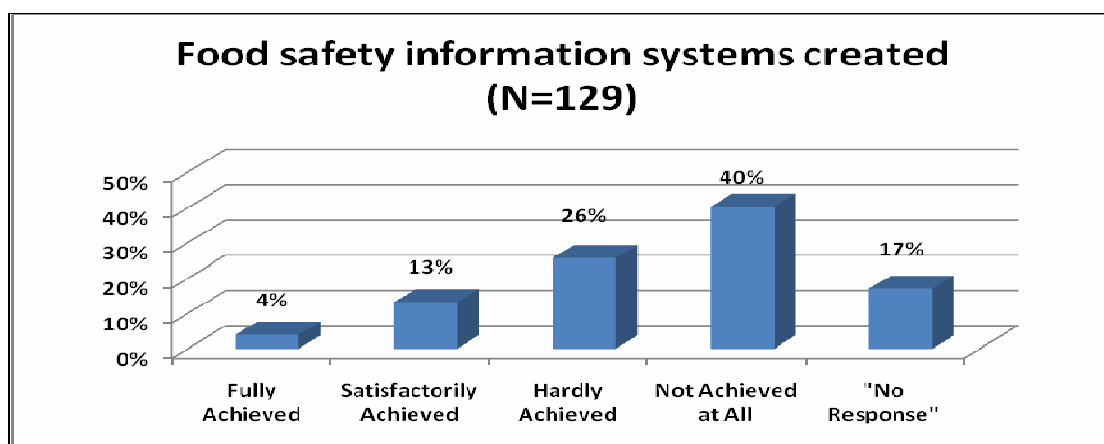
It was crucial that poor communities in Kungwini were provided information regarding the roles of the respective departments. In addition, discussions at community forums would have identified relevant stakeholder roles relating to the IFNP. Community participation would have sustained the IFNP as the collaborative capacity is further strengthened through ongoing technical and financial support.

Community participation during the planning and implementation phases of the IFNP would have ensured a better quality of life for the poor in Kungwini (Chaskin, 2001:291; Wolf, 2008:181).



Graph 19: Supplementary nutrition programmes established

The high figures of 18% and 36% indicate that establishing supplementary nutrition programmes was hardly or not achieved at all. Conversely, the 7% and 23% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 18% and 36% correlate with Graph 16 regarding the empowering of beneficiaries to understand their nutritional needs. The expertise of the Department of Health and Education as well as community involvement was essential, and further illustrates the value of the collaborative partnerships.



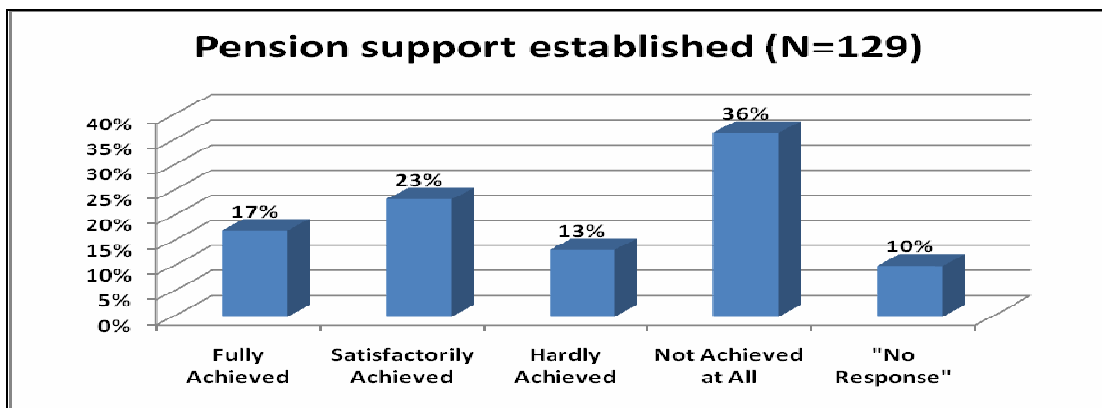
Graph 20: Food safety information systems created

The high figures of 26% and 40% indicate that creating food safety information systems was hardly or not achieved at all. Conversely, the 4% and 13% indicate

that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 26% and 40% point to a lack of collaborative networking between relevant departments. This corresponds with Graphs 14 and 16 that refer to school feeding schemes and empowering beneficiaries to understand their nutritional needs. Creating food safety information systems would assist impoverished households comprising children, the elderly and the sick to improve their health status.

The IFNP could have contributed positively to the above aspects had it been strengthened through the collaborative partnership with the Department of Health and relevant community organisations. The collaboration of relevant stakeholders ensures specialist knowledge to address poverty. The involvement of community organisations is an essential aspect of collaboration, which brings together diverse viewpoints to deal with poverty. Research assessment and evaluation contribute to shared resources between stakeholders (Raphael & Bryant, 2002:194; Hudson, 2005:30; Cronrath *et al.*, 2005:10; Sacks, 2008:177).

6.9 ESTABLISHING SAFETY NETS AND FOOD EMERGENCY



Graph 21: Pension support established

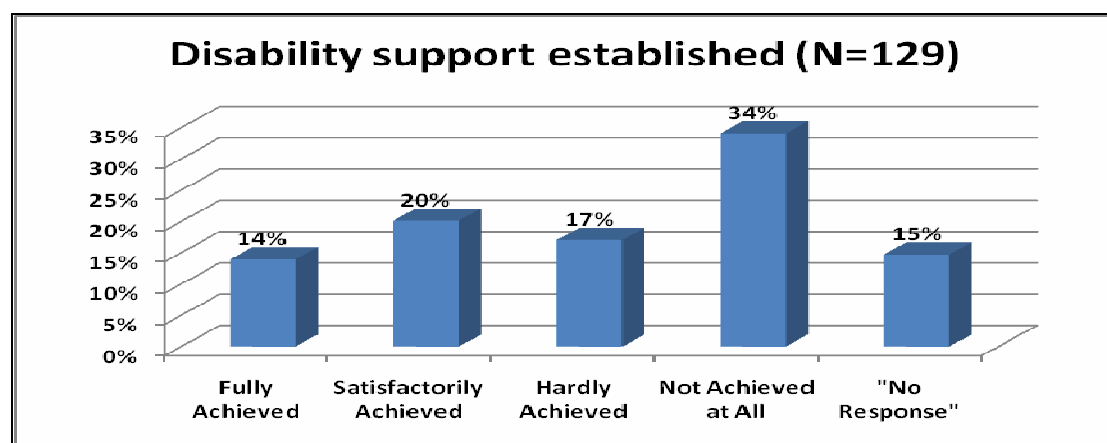
The high figures of 13% and 36% indicate that establishing pension support was hardly or not achieved. Conversely, the 17% and 23% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 13% and 36% correlate with the focus group and extended household interviews where some participants indicated that the disability pension and the child-care grant were difficult to access.

The participants at the focus group and extended household interviews indicated further that they required food and clothing. The IFNP did not follow through on the diversion programmes (referrals) aligned to social security. The children who participated in the extended household interviews indicated that they were always hungry. This in turn correlates with Graph 8 that refers to the gaps in the social security system to improve safety nets.

Social security enables impoverished households to adequately care for young children (Goldson, 2002:255; Kalil & Ziol-Guest, 2008:500). The IFNP's objective to enable impoverished households to access social security programmes was a positive approach. However, social security programmes should be aligned to relevant social programmes to enable poor families to function optimally and prevent family dysfunction (Daniel & Taylor, 2006:426; Goodvin *et al.*, 2006:591).

The above aspects (correlating with Graph 18 that refers to improving household nutrition and health through education and awareness) should have included information regarding access to applicable grants. The latter aspect includes an enabling environment that empowers clients to obtain the necessary documentation. Consequently, the IFNP would have strengthened the resolve of poor families to cope better with their poverty situation (Lund, 2002:177; Fong, 2001:225).

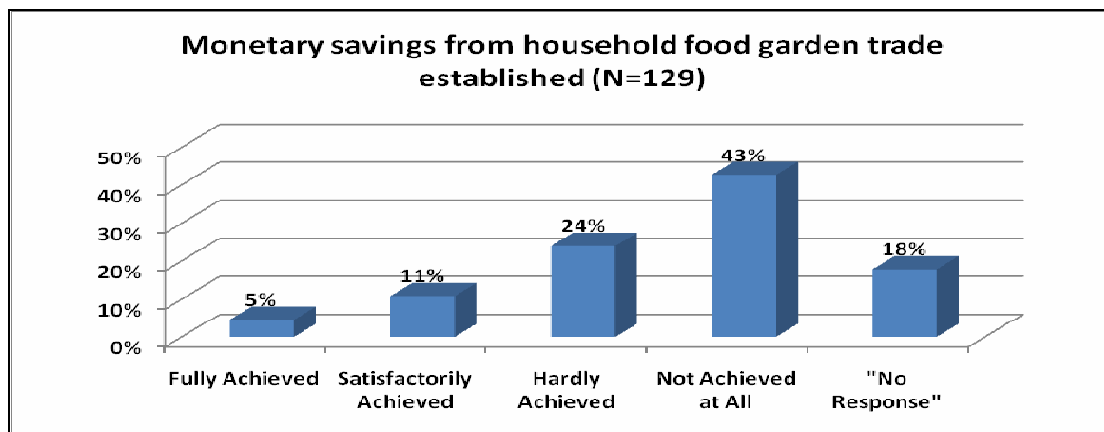
In the absence of the collaborative partnership, the above gaps in the social security system in Kungwini were not adequately addressed through the IFNP.



Graph 22: Disability support established

The figures of 17% and 34% indicate minimal or no achievement at all in establishing disability support are slightly higher (16%) than the 14% and 20% showing that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 17% and 34% correlate with Graph 21 in terms of social security to vulnerable groups. There was a need for the IFNP to assess the criteria presently utilised to access the disability pension. Overall, the IFNP should have established the status of social security to vulnerable poor children, the aged and the disabled. The social security offices and the offices of the Department of Social Development are next door to each other in Kungwini. This collaboration was essential to address the plight of these vulnerable groups.

High unemployment rates are related to social security issues in Kungwini. Impoverished households have low and irregular household incomes, apart from the child support grants and old age pensions. The old age and disability grants meet some of the needs of the poor, but have not significantly reduced poverty, due to the high rates of unemployment and massive inequality in South Africa (Lombard, 2008:156). Overall, innovative planning and community dialogue is needed to make an impact on poverty, in addition to social security (Chaskin, 2001:291; Development Gateway, 2006:11; Wolf, 2008:282).

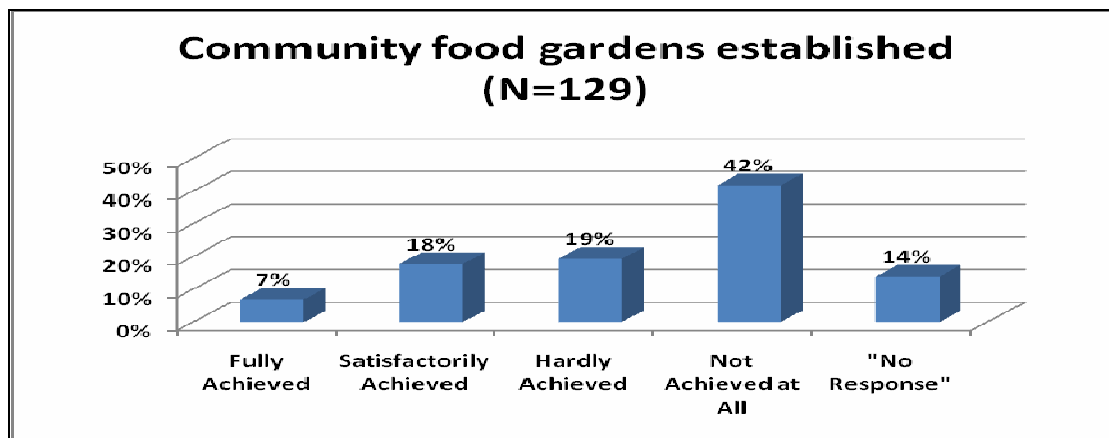


Graph 23: Monetary savings from household food garden trade established

The high figures of 24% and 43% indicate that there was hardly or no achievement in establishing monetary savings from household food gardens. Conversely, the 5% and 11% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 43% and 24% correlate with Graph 13 in terms of skills training to ensure profits from

food garden trading. This includes enabling beneficiaries to develop astute business skills, which in turn will ensure monetary savings. The informal sector purely trades for survival needs and not to ensure high profits (Ballard *et al.*, 2005:615). The expectations for monetary savings from household food gardens were based on the sale of surplus garden produce.

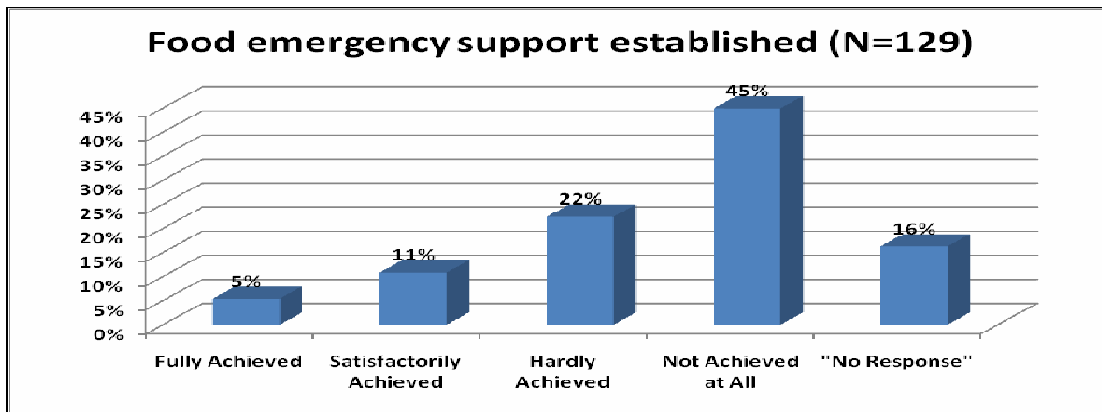
Had there been collaborative consultation with relevant stakeholders as well as with impoverished households in Kungwini, the IFNP policy makers would have noted their reluctance to develop household food gardens. However, monetary savings from household food garden trade could have been an objective for the IFNP mid-term goals, based on the success of the short-term goal of firstly establishing functioning food gardens (refer Graph 12). The above aspects correlate with the viewpoint by Potter and Subrahmanian (1998:23) who refer to the linear mode of policy development and implementation without stakeholder consultation.



Graph 24: Community food gardens established

The figures of 19% and 42% indicate that there was hardly or no achievement in establishing community food gardens. Conversely, the figures of 7% and 18% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 19% and 42% show that collaborative planning is required with the Department of Agriculture, including the poor in Kungwini. Community food gardens build on the foundation of successful household food gardens to apply lessons learnt. Agricultural science remains a key component to successful community food gardens. This is a long-term project in collaboration with key stakeholders.

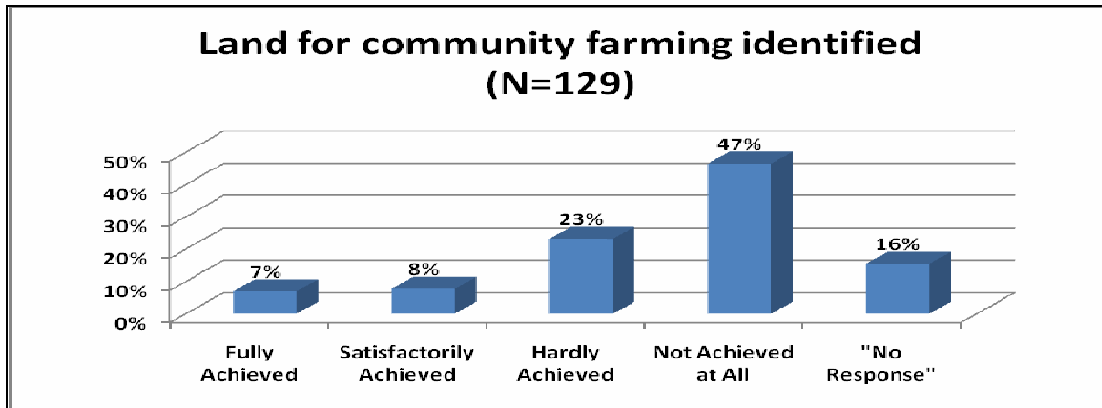
It is essential that poverty policies prioritise agriculture production and markets (London & Bailie, 2001:569; Robertson *et al.*, 2004:62). The correlation for Kungwini in terms of establishing community farming was the need to establish successful household and community gardens that simultaneously allowed for the trading of the goods produced. As agriculture remains a key policy strategy to reduce poverty, it was important that this sector applied its expertise to address arid soil conditions in Kungwini as well as pestilence and crop diseases (Ghai, 2000:128; Steady, 2003:24; O'Riordan *et al.*, 2008:154). Without the foregoing aspects, subsistence farming in Kungwini such as household food gardens leads to food insecurity without skilled assistance (Hansen, 2002:321; Vink & Kirsten, 2001:117).



Graph 25: Food emergency support established

The high figures of 22% and 45% indicate that establishing food emergency support was hardly or not achieved at all. Conversely, the figures 5% and 11% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 22% and 45% show that the chronic poor were not adequately targeted in an effort to efficiently utilise scarce resources (Aliber, 2003:473-476). The foregoing aspects require collaborative planning and implementation from related government departments. These are mid- to long-term projects that include community support for sustainability.

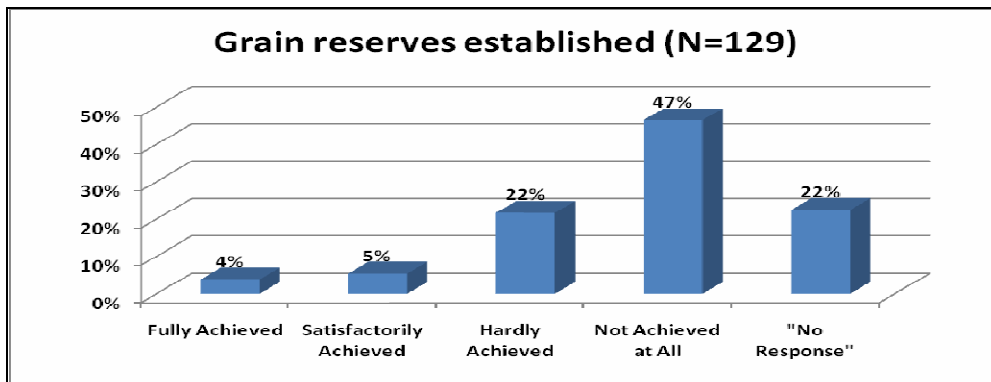
6.10 SUPPORT FOR COMMUNITY INCOME AND JOB OPPORTUNITIES



Graph 26: Land for community farming identified

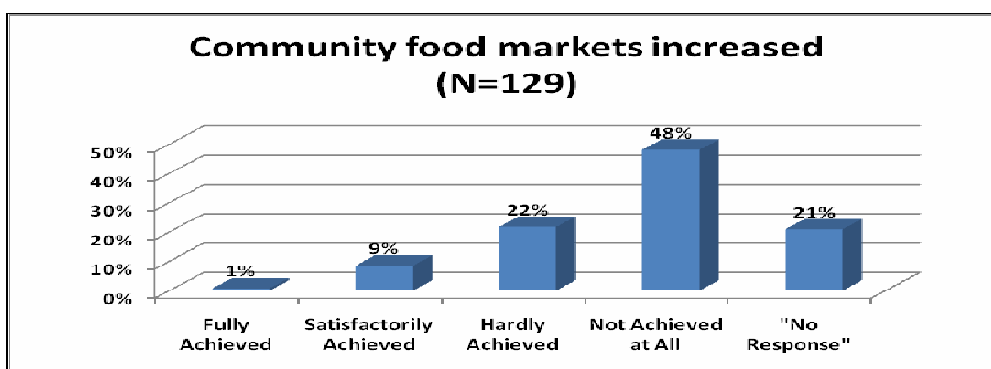
The high figures of 23% and 47% indicate that identifying land for community farming was hardly or not achieved at all. Conversely, the figures of 7% and 8% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 22% and 45% show that this is a long-term project, which the IFNP would not have been able to deal with during its short life cycle. Identifying land for community farming indicates that the IFNP policy makers had a vision for the future to address poverty in Kungwini. However, this should not have been a focus during the short-term phase of the program.

It was essential for the IFNP policy makers to ascertain the views of the poor in Kungwini pertaining to community farming, as the focus group and extended households interviews indicated their reluctance in this regard. The strengths of the community should have been tapped through a developmental approach that invests in social capital, which in turn provides for active citizen participation in policy processes. Citizen participation remains an essential element of the collaborative partnership (Patel & Hochfeld, 2008:195-196).



Graph 27: Grain reserves established

The high figures of 22% and 47% indicate that establishing grain reserves were hardly or not achieved at all. Conversely, the figures of 4% and 5% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 22% and 47% show a long-term project that was not within the ambit of the IFNP. This aspect could be taken forward on the successful completion of establishing effective household food gardens to firstly, ensure that the nutritional needs of impoverished households are met, and secondly, to enable beneficiaries through appropriate skills to establish informal businesses from garden produce. Establishing grain reserves remains a part of the vision for the future. This falls within the mid-term to long-term planning with the active involvement of all relevant stakeholders.



Graph 28: Community food markets increased

The high figures of 22% and 48% indicate that community food markets were hardly or not achieved at all. Conversely, the figures of 1% and 9% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 22% and 48% correlate to Graph 27, which is a long-term project to establish functioning food trade markets, as well

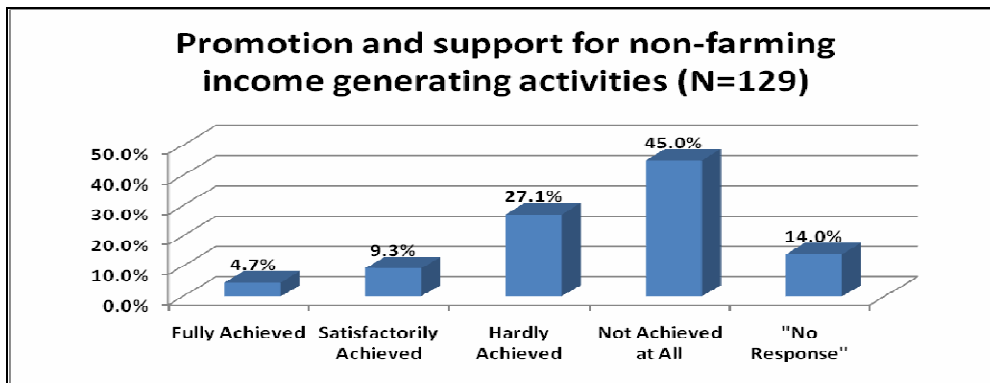
as Graph 23 regarding monetary savings from food garden trade, and Graph 24 regarding the establishment of community food markets.

Increasing community food markets correlates with the poor being actively involved in the socio-economic spheres in South Africa. A huge informal economy has to compete with a thriving formal economy. As socio-economic inequality and the adverse socio-economic situation in South Africa are closely linked (Adato *et al.*, 2006:226, Hunt, 2007:1; Richardson, 2007:2), there was a crucial need for the IFNP policy developers to understand the impact of these issues before embarking on any prospective business initiatives on behalf of the poor. This includes knowledge of formal and informal business and marketing practices to ensure feasible income generating initiatives.

During the focus group interviews, the elderly beneficiaries indicated their desire to acquire skills training for the job market. The majority of the elderly have no basic education or work related skills. The IFNP should have promoted home-based care for the frail elderly (Boyle, 2003:342; Makiwane & Kwizera, 2006:306; Spira & Wall, 2006:393) and simultaneously identify the healthy elderly and disabled who could be specifically skilled for prospects in the job market (Loewenberg *et al.*, 2000:27).

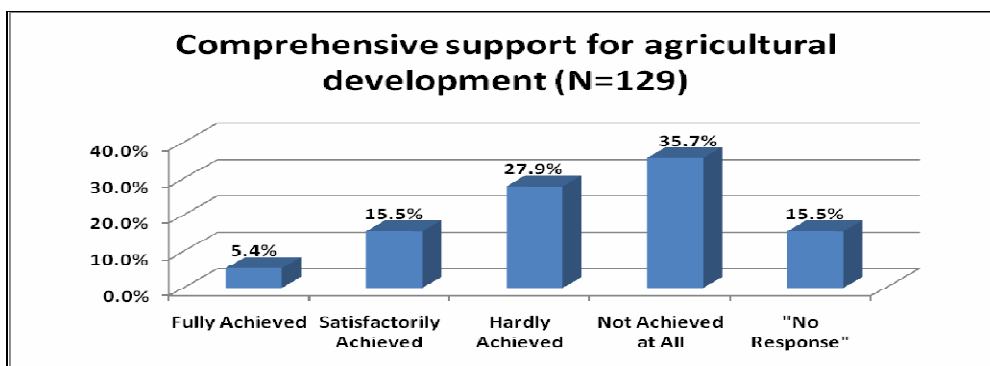
An additional noteworthy factor regarding community food markets is that during the focus group and extended household interviews the researcher observed reluctance toward the establishment of household and community gardens.

6.11 DEVELOPING EFFECTIVE AND EFFICIENT FOOD MARKETS



Graph 29: Promotion and support for non-farming income generating activities

The high figures of 27,1% and 45,0% indicate that there was hardly or no achievement in promoting and supporting non-farming income generating activities. Conversely the 4,7% and 9,3% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The IFNP's focus on an aspect apart from agricultural production was a good motive, as not all impoverished households are keen to establish food gardens to generate income. The figures of 27,1% and 45,0% show that alternative income generating activities should have been explored in a collaborative effort with relevant stakeholders as well as impoverished households in Kungwini to determine feasible income-generating prospects. This in turn, would have involved addition numbers of impoverished households in Kungwini through community participation.



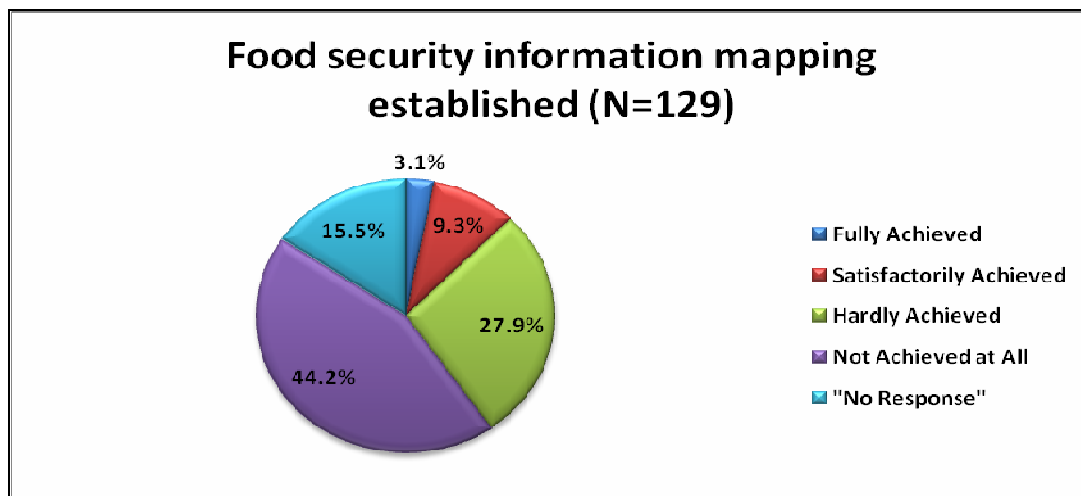
Graph 30: Comprehensive support for agriculture development

The high figures of 27,9% and 35,7% indicate that there was hardly or no achievement for comprehensive support for agricultural development. Conversely,

the 5,4% and 15,5% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 27,9% and 35,7% correlates with Graph 26 regarding the identification of land for community farming, Graph 27 regarding the establishment of grain reserves, and Graph 28 regarding increasing community food markets.

In order to establish comprehensive support for agricultural development, it is imperative to develop successful collaborative partnerships which tap into the relevant skills for agriculture production. This is a long-term project that begins initially with agricultural skills training to develop successful household food production, leading to the bigger project of community agricultural development.

6.12 IMPROVED INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION



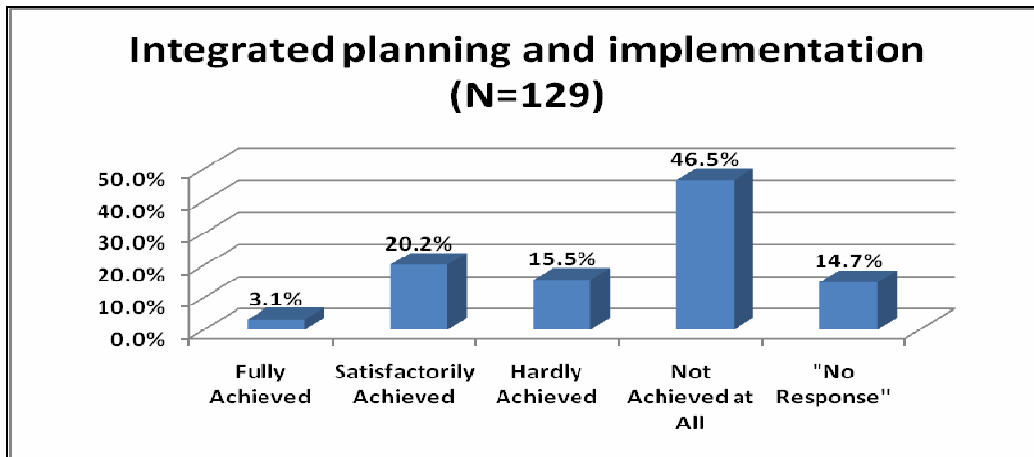
Graph 31: Food security and information mapping established

The high figures of 27,9% and 44,2% indicate that food security and information mapping was hardly or not achieved at all. Conversely, the figures of 3,1% and 9,3% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. Information mapping to ascertain the status of poverty and to inform processes is a sound motive. However, the figures of 27,9% and 44,2% indicate it was important before the IFNP implementation process, that extensive stakeholder consultation was established to link various parallel poverty processes in Kungwini.

Moving from policy blueprints to policy implementation remains problematic for most public service delivery initiatives. In order to ensure the IFNP's sustainability, it was imperative that essential food security and information mapping included

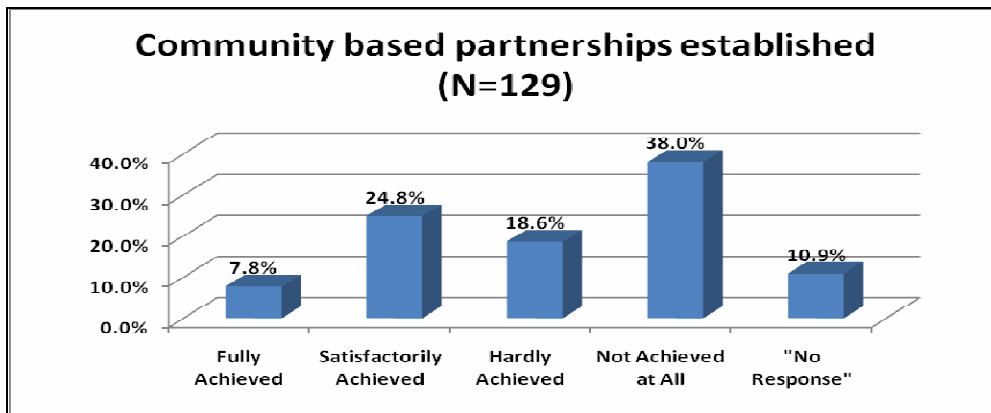
effective communication strategies between government departments and community organisations. Integrated stakeholder involvement was essential to maintain sustainable development through the IFNP to reduce poverty in Kungwini (Kayizzi-Mugerwa, 2003:23).

6.13 INTEGRATED STAKEHOLDER INVOLVEMENT



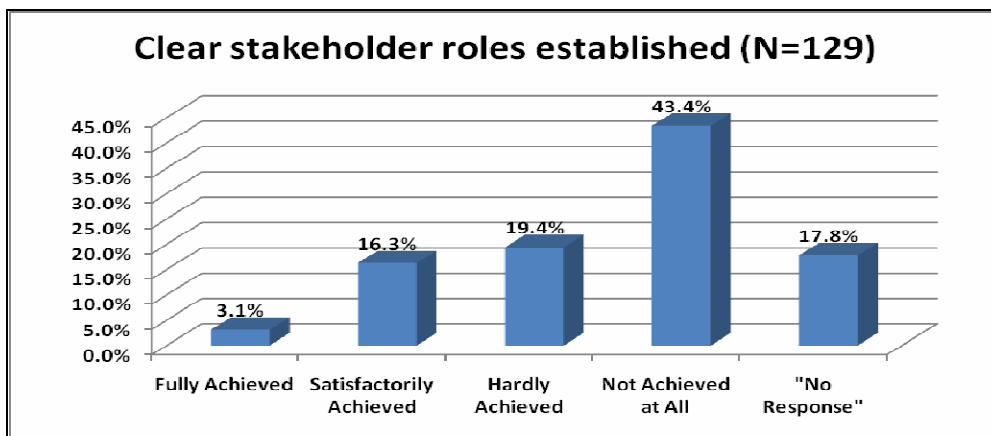
Graph 32: Integrated planning and implementation

The high figures of 15,5% and 46,5% indicate that integrated planning and implementation was hardly or not achieved at all. Conversely, the figures of 3,1% and 20,2% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 15,5% and 46,5% indicate that in order for the IFNP to have established roles and linkages with relevant stakeholders, there was a need during the planning phase of the IFNP to have included inter-departmental collaboration with the Departments of Health, Education and Agriculture. The collaborative partnership could have been either short-term or long-term to address common poverty issues (Chopyak & Levesque, 2002:155). Effective roles and linkages could have led to the establishment of Community Forums and Task Teams in Kungwini that would have influenced the implementation of the IFNP positively as a common community interest by the above stakeholders (Koontz, 2008:459).



Graph 33: Community based partnerships established

The high figures of 18,6% and 38,0% indicate that the establishment of community-based partnerships was hardly or not achieved at all. Conversely, the figures of 7,8% and 24,8% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 18,6% and 38,0% indicate that establishing community based partnerships correlate with Graph 32 above, regarding integrated planning and implementation. Collaborative partnerships were critical for the successful planning and implementation of the IFNP. Government departments have a pivotal role in the partnership model between civil society, donor organisations, development agencies and the private sector to promote development and equity for the poor (Patel & Hochfeld, 2008: 195).

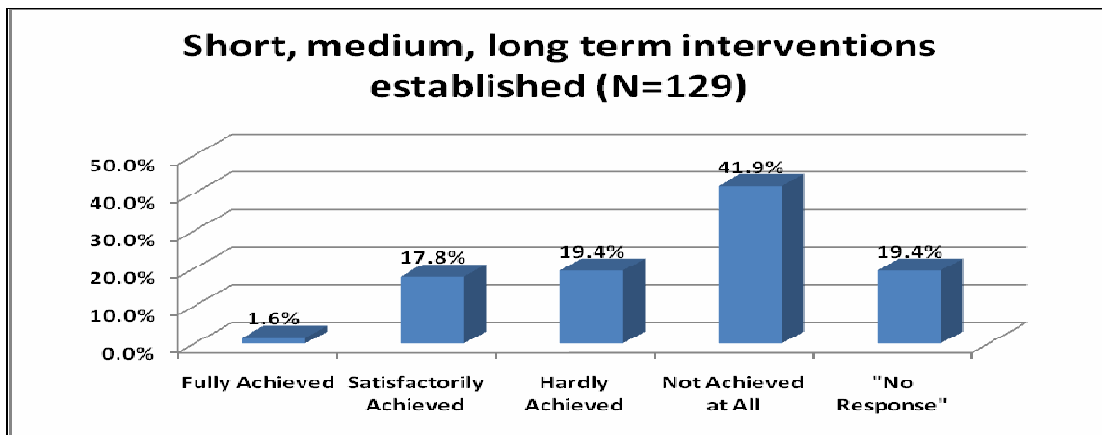


Graph 34: Clear stakeholder roles established

The high figures of 19,4% and 43,4% indicate that clear stakeholder roles were hardly or not achieved at all. Conversely, the figures of 3,1% and 16,3% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 19,4% and 43,4% indicate that

collaboration across public sectors to address social issues is ongoing, based on common interests for the short-term, or developmental for the long-term. The collaboration between government and civil society serves to address complex poverty issues that affect the poor (Chopyak & Levesque, 2002:155; Aliber, 2003:376).

In order to ensure that the IFNP had an impact on poverty in Kungwini, the collaborative partnership was essential to ensure institutional change and effective service delivery. Collaborative partnerships include efficient institutional structures, dynamic leadership and appropriate relationships. Research initiatives form an important aspect of the collaborative partnership to gauge measurable changes in problematic situations. This is an essential aspect of the MDG to reduce poverty (McGrew, 2000: 364; Selsky, 2005:870).



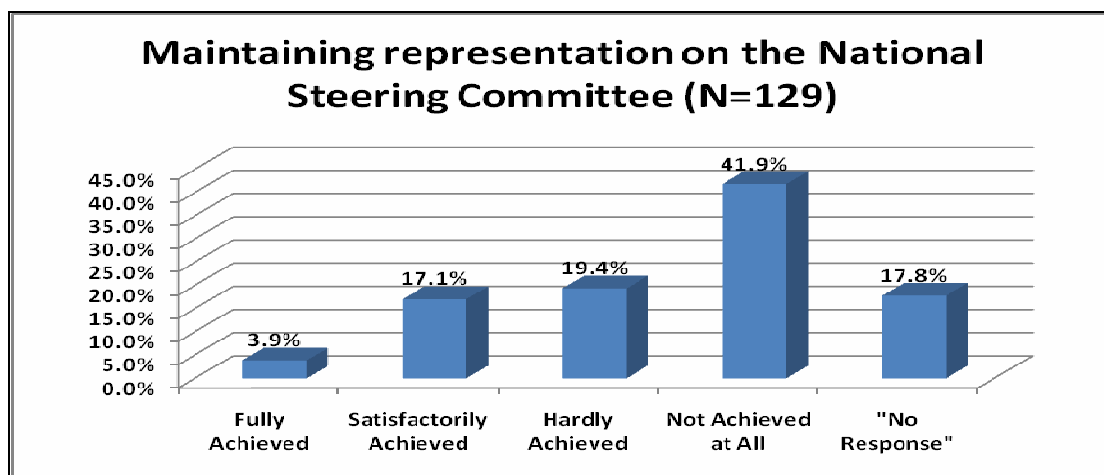
Graph 35: Short-, medium-, long-term interventions established

The high figures of 19,4% and 41,9% indicate that there was hardly or no achievement to establish short-, medium- and long-term interventions. Conversely, the figures of 1,6% and 17,8% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 19,4% and 41,9% indicate that in order for the IFNP to have established roles and linkages with relevant stakeholders, as indicated in Graph 32 regarding integrated planning and implementation, inter-departmental collaboration with the Departments of Health, Education, and Agriculture should focus on both short and long-term processes (Chopyak & Levesque, 2002:155). Short and long-term interventions would have further involved Community Forums and Task Teams in Kungwini that could have influenced the IFNP as an effective public

policy instrument. Public officials cannot solve socio-economic problems without the expertise of various stakeholders. Significant collaboration includes efficient planning to achieve policy objectives (Koontz, 2008:163).

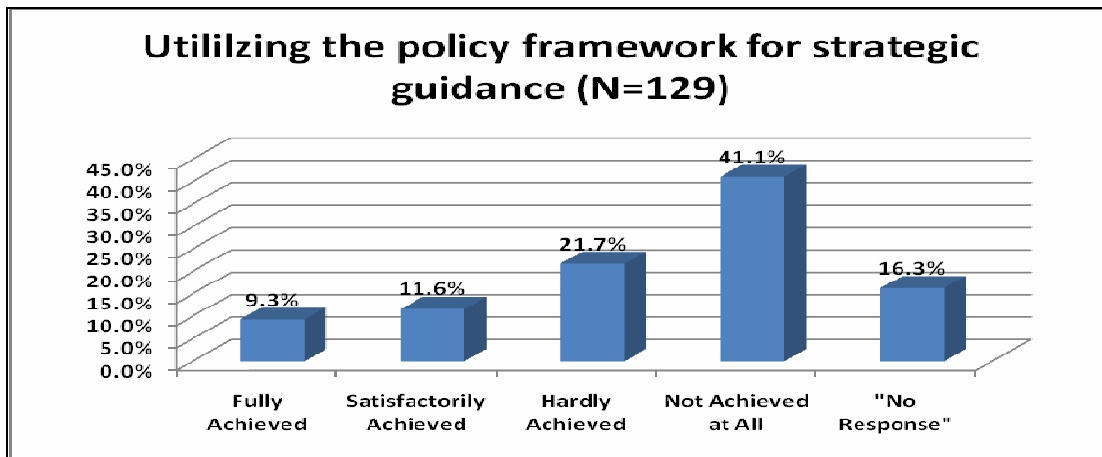
The above collaborative partnership would have ensured that effective monitoring, evaluation and reporting systems were in place to guide the IFNP. Additional roles and linkages for the short- and long-term interventions include the expertise of researchers and funding from the private sector (Chopyak & Levesque, 2002:155).

6.14 PROVINCIAL STEERING COMMITTEE ROLES



Graph 36: Maintaining representation on the National Steering Committee

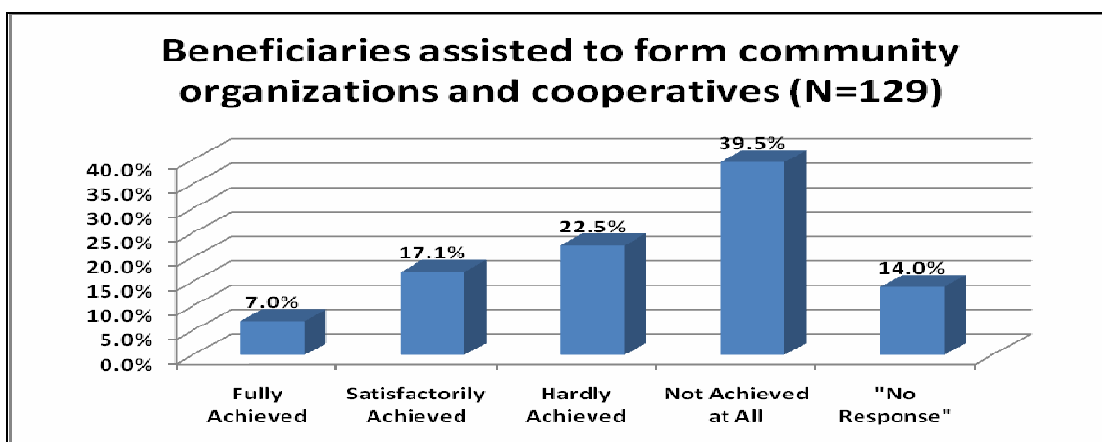
The high figures of 19,4% and 41,9% indicate that representation on the National Steering Committee was hardly or not achieved at all. Conversely, the 3,9% and 17,1% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 19,4% and 41,9% indicate there was a need to refine the IFNP policy framework prior to implementing the programme in Kungwini. Policy makers require specific investigative and communication skills that guide the various stages of the policy process. Based on the above skills, the policy framework transforms negative environments (Potter & Subrahmanian, 1998:23).



Graph 37: Utilising the policy framework for strategic guidance

The high figures of 21,7% and 41,1% indicate that the IFNP policy framework for strategic guidance was hardly or not utilised at all. Conversely, the 9,3% and 11,6% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily utilised. The figures 21,7% and 41,1% show that public service capacity is a paramount consideration to address poverty in South Africa. The lack of expertise negatively influences services to poor communities. It was important that the IFNP policy makers identified the required expertise to ensure programme success. Skilled staff ensures efficient service delivery whereas unskilled staff render ineffective services (Stilwell *et al.*, 2003:22).

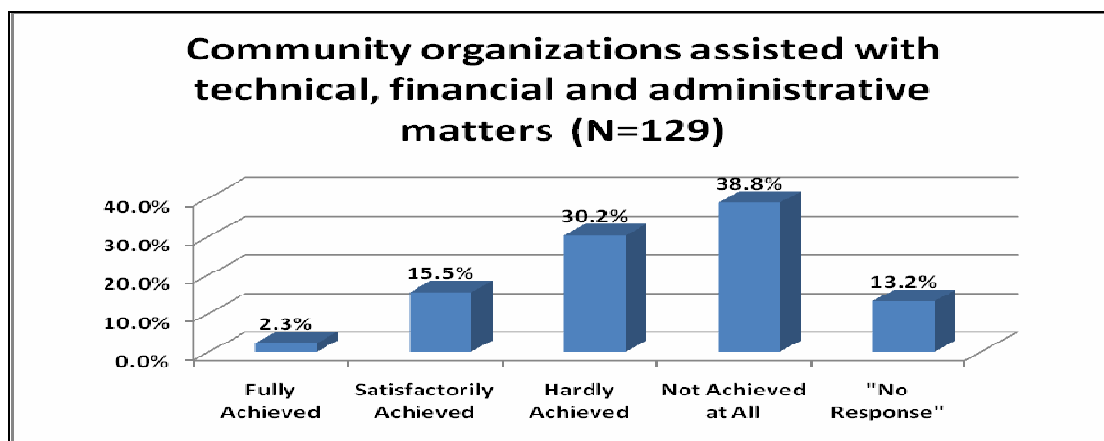
6.15 LOCAL STEERING COMMITTEE ROLES



Graph 38: Beneficiaries assisted to form community organisations and co-operatives

The high figures of 22,5% and 39,5% indicate that assisting beneficiaries to form community organisations and co-operatives was hardly or not achieved at all. Conversely, the 7,0% and 17,1% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 22,5% and 39,5% indicate that the collaborative partnership provides effective programme planning and positive policy outcomes (Koontz, 2008:459; Haines & Cassels, 2004:395). Collaboration was the key component for the IFNP as a public service delivery mechanism. The collaborative partnership includes stakeholder interests for a specific policy framework. Should the IFNP have been based on a sound collaborative basis, the responsibility for the IFNP would have been shared between the public service and civil society as each sector assumes specific responsibilities. This in turn, would have ensured transparent governance (Selsky, 2005:861; Koontz, 2008:459).

In view of the latter aspect, it was essential that the IFNP had alternative policy options and adequate finances to strengthen the impact of the programme. Inadequate budgets and a lack of monitoring and evaluation deter effective service delivery. An added problem included the lack of definitions regarding poverty relief and resource allocations. This was an essential aspect for the IFNP policy makers to consider, which would have guided a specific intervention, collaboration, and provided sound implementation procedures (Koontz, 2008:459).



Graph 39: Community organisations assisted with technical, financial and administrative matters

The figures of 30,2% and 38,8% indicate that assisting community organisations with technical, financial and administrative matters was hardly or not achieved at

all. Conversely, the figures of 2,3% and 15,5% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 30,2% and 38,8% show that in order to assist community organisations to take responsibility for the IFNP, it was essential to maintain good governance – a crucial component in public service delivery – which includes prudent financial expenditure, co-ordination, and efficient local management. In addition, it was important to acknowledge the constraints in public service delivery, which include maintaining transparent processes, utilising resources efficiently, and addressing the lack of human and financial capital (May, 1997:1; The World Bank Development Report, 2003:160).

As local government is responsible for service delivery, it was essential that skilled policy implementers were available to drive the IFNP in Kungwini (May 1997:3; Moller & Devey, 2003:458; Nel & Rogerson, 2005:15). It was imperative that the short-term partnerships for the IFNP was translated into long-term community impact, by identifying and addressing possible partnership conflicts, addressing the specific department's focus, ensuring that effective communication structures are in place, dealing with power relations, and maintaining community accountability. Despite the differences between departments and community organisations, the IFNP collaborative partnerships would have ensured long-term gains for the poor in Kungwini (Takahashi & Smutny, 2002:170).

6.16 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Chapter 6 focused on the quantitative empirical data analysis to investigate whether the objectives of the IFNP, namely increasing household food production, improving safety nets and food emergency systems, increasing community income and job opportunities were achieved. The IFNP sought to increase family income through household and community gardens, which would be expanded into community food gardens in order to supply wider food markets.

The above objectives of the IFNP illustrate the political commitment to address poverty in Kungwini and are commendable, but the programme was not based on sound policy planning and implementation principles that included the involvement of key stakeholders, including the poor in Kungwini.

The IFNP policy should have been reviewed every step of the way prior to and during implementation. This is in itself is a major undertaking that requires collaboration between the Departments of Social Development, Health, Education, Agriculture, as well as community organisations.

Appropriate skills training was required to enable the poor to form community organisations to take responsibility for the IFNP. It was essential that the IFNP implementation process was based on a favourable environment to reduce poverty in Kungwini. As policies create the right environment in which change can occur, the collaborative partnership was crucial to achieve the IFNP's objectives rather than allowing the programme to fail because of weak project management (Cloete & Meyer, 2006:191).

Impoverished households in Kungwini were not assisted to develop income-generating activities, or to establish community based organisations or community co-operatives. Community involvement remains a crucial process in policy development and policy implementation processes. Without community involvement, service delivery remains fragmented (De Swart *et al.*, 2005:3; Stavrou,:3; Bond, 2004:3; Callaghan & Wistow, 2008:166).

In order for the national, provincial and local government structures to work effectively on common policy projects, the interaction between science and technology should be noted. Utilising innovative scientific decisions to address poverty include funding from the private sector to establish collaborative research initiatives. This marks a shift from purely focusing on the distribution of monetary or material resources. The above aspects have relevance for economic development for impoverished households in Kungwini. There was a need for interactive knowledge sharing between national, provincial and local government, including relevant stakeholders to address mutual concerns in Kungwini (Chopyak & Levesque, 2002: 155-157; 164-166).

Vulnerable impoverished households should not be exposed to further vulnerability. In this respect, it was imperative to have enlisted the co-operation of impoverished households in Kungwini to ensure that poverty was being effectively addressed rather than the top-down approach marked by a lack of co-ordination and sustainability

(May, 1997:5; Wacquant, 2007:66; Sacks, 2008:17; Kayizzi-Mugerwa, 2003:23; Cloete, Wissink & Meyer, 2005:191). Poverty interventions should lead to positive change for the poor, based on dialogue, incentives, organisational reforms, innovation, and capacity building (Lombard, 2008:207).

The quantitative data indicates that the IFNP would have been strengthened to achieve its stated objectives through a collaborative partnership.

6.17 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 6 presented the quantitative data-collecting phase of the research process and included the research setting, the measuring instrument, the pilot study and respondent profile. The questionnaire assessed the impact of the IFNP to reduce poverty in Kungwini. The objectives of the IFNP included reducing the number of households that did not have adequate food, increasing food production through household food gardens, meeting household nutritional needs, and developing employment and income generating opportunities.

The quantitative data analysis was captured in statistical format that provided the cumulative frequencies for the responses to the questionnaire. The cumulative frequencies were then captured in graphs. The conclusions of the quantitative data analysis indicate that the IFNP required interactive participation to reduce poverty in Kungwini. The research findings were compared to the literature study, which further indicated that it was not feasible for one specific department to reduce poverty in Kungwini. The collaborative partnership would have strengthened the IFNP as an important poverty alleviation mechanism.

Improving the circumstance of the poor in Kungwini requires an in-depth understanding of their extremely difficult circumstances. The majority of the poor in Kungwini live in appalling conditions with no skills to participate in local or broader economies. Kungwini is identified by an informal economy that has to compete with a thriving formal economy. The former requires knowledge of sound business practices to compete in the formal business spheres.

The impact of poverty is most severe on children from impoverished households.

It was important for the IFNP to focus on social exclusion. This would have provided insight to the hardship experienced by the poor in Kungwini and would have guided the planning and implementation of the IFNP. The majority of the aged have no basic education or work-related skills. The healthy elderly and disabled should be specifically skilled for prospects in the job market.

Community involvement in policy development and implementation are crucial processes that would have enabled the IFNP to avoid fragmented service delivery, which has a detrimental effect upon the poor in Kungwini. Sustainable development alleviates poverty through effective communication between relevant government departments. Cross-sector collaboration includes multi-disciplinary teams to address complex social issues. Collaborative partnerships include the expertise of researchers, relevant technicians, and the involvement of the private sector. Government officials are unable to solve problems on their own apart from the collaborative partnership, which is essential during the policy planning and policy implementation stages. Policy makers should have specific skills to render effective services to poor clients.

Good governance remains a paramount consideration in public service delivery, and includes prudent financial expenditure, co-ordination, as well as efficient local government management. Inefficient public services will not deliver efficient services. A key policy constraint includes inadequate human and financial capital.

The IFNP sought to alleviate poverty in Kungwini by aligning the programme with related poverty programmes. This aspect was not taken forward during programme implementation. Two key factors to reduce poverty in Kungwini include expanding human and social capital, which requires appropriate skills training for the mainly large numbers of economically disadvantaged households. It was essential that a needs analysis and beneficiary targeting were undertaken in a collaborative effort by the Departments of Social Development, Health, Education, Agriculture, and community organisations. The combined expertise from the above departments and community organisations would have ensured that the IFNP was strengthened to reduce poverty in Kungwini.

The challenges for the IFNP include weak institutional structures, developing co-operative relationships, managing policy constraints, and replicating cost-effective policy successes. It was essential that the IFNP policy makers were equipped with specific skills to render effective services to poor clients. These skills include knowledge regarding socio-economic development for the poor, and providing an enabling environment for economic and social growth. The slow pace and quality of public service delivery hinders assistance to the poor. It was essential that the National, Provincial, and Local Steering Committees operated collaboratively regarding the above aspects.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of the research was to explore the impact of the IFNP in the local municipality of Kungwini, situated on the border between Gauteng and Mpumalanga. The research investigated whether the IFNP was effective to reduce poverty in Kungwini. The researcher sought to gain a perspective of the IFNP's implementation processes, which were key components to achieving the programme's objectives.

The IFNP aimed to increase household food production and income-generating initiatives to assist impoverished households. This research was guided by theory and a research question concerning the presumed relationship between the IFNP and poverty alleviation in Kungwini.

Chapter 1 included the planning of the research process, incorporating a preliminary literature review regarding poverty issues and establishing the research goal and objectives. The research question was clearly defined. The research included the qualitative approach to assess the impact of the IFNP on impoverished households. The quantitative approach was chosen to assess the expectations of public service delivery personnel to reduce poverty in Kungwini.

Chapter 2 presented the literature study on global and national poverty, the impact of poverty in Africa and South Africa, the impact of climate change on poverty, the impact of HIV/AIDS on the poor, the socio-economic impact of poverty, the impact of the Millennium Development Goals, poverty projections and social justice, and addressing poverty effectively in South Africa.

Chapter 3 presented the literature study on the historical perspective on public policy development, public policy development in South Africa, a review of service delivery models, policy challenges, and the value of collaborative partnerships.

Chapter 4 included the qualitative and quantitative research designs, research methodology, the research population, sample and sampling method, ethical aspects, definition of key concepts, the pilot study, qualitative and quantitative data collection, and the qualitative and quantitative data analysis.

Chapter 5 discussed the research setting for the qualitative study, beneficiary profile, phases of the qualitative data collecting, focus group interviews, extended household interviews and the qualitative data analysis. The data was gathered through a semi-structured interview schedule and the themes and sub-themes were compared with the literature study in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3.

Chapter 6 discussed the research setting, phases of the quantitative data collecting, the quantitative measuring instrument, the quantitative data collecting, quantitative data analysis and the quantitative data conclusions.

Chapter 7 outlines the contents of Chapters 1 to 6, how the goal and objectives of this study were achieved, and how the research question provided the framework for the formulation of the recommendations to improve service delivery to poor clients. The conclusions and recommendations for this study, based on the data analysis of the qualitative and quantitative studies, informed the recommendations to improve service delivery to poor clients.

An overview of Chapters 1-6 follows in terms of chapter summary, chapter conclusions and appropriate recommendations based on these conclusions.

7.2 CHAPTER 1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 outlined the preliminary literature review, the goal and objectives of the research and the research approach, summarised as follows:

7.2.1 Summary

7.2.1.1 Historical plight of the poor

The historical plight of the poor in South Africa goes back over several centuries and prevented the indigenous population to acquire a better standard of living. Post 1994, following the establishment of a democratic government in South Africa, attention was paid to the dire plight of the poor who live in difficult circumstances marked by high levels of unemployment. The huge gap between the rich and the poor in South Africa entrenched their marginalisation.

7.2.1.2 Problems with measuring poverty

In addition to government's efforts to address poverty, social researchers grapple with measuring poverty as a social phenomenon, as it includes complex socio-cultural and political aspects that have negative consequences for the poor. The Orshanksy poverty index measures absolute poverty, based on a family's basic food needs. This provides a statistical measure, which falls either above or below the poverty line to evaluate the impact of public poverty programmes. The Orshanksy Poverty Index gave rise to two concepts used globally to define poverty, namely, income poverty which describes absolute poverty (complete lack of basic necessities) and relative poverty (standard of living significantly lower than that of the majority of the population) and the Human Poverty Index, based on malnutrition, illiteracy, access to health care, and safe water.

The spatial distribution of poverty commonly used by comparative researchers include case poverty (inability to satisfy basic needs), collective poverty (inability of large groups to meet their basic needs), widespread poverty (25% of the population experience poverty), concentrated poverty (neighbourhoods entrenched in poverty), rural poverty (isolation from urban centres) and urban poverty (income poverty in cities). Although the spatial distribution of poverty assists comparative researchers to assess poverty levels to a certain degree, a holistic South African index to assess income, cultural, and political aspects of poverty is not available.

7.2.1.3 Accelerating services to the poor

Poverty programmes should be based on policy frameworks that include long-term planning and adequate resources. Following the development of the White Paper for Social Development (1997), the policy framework for social welfare, the government hosted the second World Summit for Social Development in 2002, which followed the first World Summit in Brazil in 1992. At both summits, employment creation was the focus of public policies and strategies globally.

This research is based on the above commitment by South Africa, through the evaluation of the IFNP in the local municipality of Kungwini, a rural area in the Metsweding Municipal District, situated on the border between Gauteng and Mpumalanga.

7.2.2 Research goal and objectives

7.2.2.1 Research goal

The research goal is to bring change in a problematic social situation, and to seek solutions to improve service delivery through appropriate alternative policy strategies. The research goal for this research was to assess the manner in which the IFNP utilised its policy framework to reduce poverty in Kungwini. The goal of this research is stated as follows: To evaluate the impact of the IFNP on the poor in Kungwini. The study aimed to identify the challenges experienced by impoverished households in Kungwini and to provide recommendations to solve policy problems relating to the IFNP in order to strengthen public service delivery.

7.2.2.2 Research objectives

The research objectives focused on policy problems and policy performance relating to the IFNP. To pursue these objectives, the researcher undertook measurable steps to evaluate the impact of the IFNP on impoverished households in Kungwini. To ensure that the objectives formed the axis of the research investigation, the researcher developed steps to gain new knowledge regarding the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini. This included formulating the research question to search for answers regarding the impact of the IFNP and choosing the research design, namely the combined qualitative and quantitative approach to gather appropriate research data.

The following objectives were identified to attain the goal of the research study:

▫ Objective 1

To formulate a conceptual framework through a literature study regarding poverty in South Africa, poverty relief programmes within the context of the policies of the RDP, the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997), GEAR and ASgiSA.

The above objective was achieved through a literature study, presented in Chapters 2 and 3, which respectively describe global and national poverty issues, and policy success and policy constraints.

▫ **Objective 2**

To evaluate the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini

The above objective was achieved through the combined qualitative and quantitative approach (refer Chapters 5 and 6) which provided research data to assess the impact of the IFNP.

▫ **Objective 3**

To draw conclusions and provide recommendations regarding the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini to policy makers at the National and the Gauteng Provincial Departments of Social Development.

The above objective was achieved through an in-depth literature study and the qualitative and quantitative data, which provided research information for the recommendations to the National and Gauteng Departments of Social Development. The researcher will ensure that this research is made available to the above departments and the research participants and respondents.

Where feasible, the researcher will make presentations at senior management meetings of the above departments, as well as the Departments of Health, Education, and Agriculture, including community organisations in Kungwini, which participated in the research.

7.2.3 Research question

This research utilised a research question to search for answers regarding the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini. The research question identified the research process in which the topic should be explored, established the research setting, and directed the research investigation. The research question for this research is stated as follows:

“What is the impact of the IFNP upon the poor in Kungwini?”

The above research question was answered through the empirical investigation utilising focus group and extended household interviews for the qualitative approach, and a questionnaire for the quantitative approach. The focus group and extended household interviews were conducted with the IFNP beneficiaries, who provided rich

sources of information regarding the impact of the programme to reduce poverty in Kungwini.

The questionnaire provided data from personnel from the Departments of Social Development, Health, Education and Agriculture, as well as from members from community organisations who are involved in respective poverty programmes in Kungwini.

The research question can be answered as follows: Chapter 5 outlines the responses from the focus group and extended households regarding the impact of the IFNP from the participants' experiences. Chapter 6 outlines the quantitative data, indicating the impact of the IFNP from the respondents' expectations.

7.2.4 Chapter 1: The research process

The conclusions regarding the research process are as follows:

- The literature overview provides information regarding the problem under review, guides the formulation of the research goal and objectives, assists to state the research question and the selection of the research design to gather empirical data to answer the research question.
- The literature overview assists to define ethical concepts regarding the researcher's conduct towards research subjects and to conceptualise problems into a scientific enquiry, in order to seek solutions to social problems.

7.2.5 Recommendations Chapter 1: the research process

The recommendations with regard to the research process are as follows:

- A preliminary literature study should be utilised to obtain information regarding the presenting problem in order to gain a better perspective on poverty and to guide the formulation of the intervention goal and objectives.
- The preliminary literature should also guide the selection of appropriate research designs to gather empirical data regarding the nature and extent of the problem.

- The preliminary literature study should be used to conceptualise the presenting problem through appropriate concepts that clarify the problems experienced by the poor.
- The preliminary literature study should assist to conduct transparent processes with service delivery recipients and stakeholders.
- The preliminary literature study should assist to plan the foundational groundwork work for intervention and to clarify stakeholder roles.

7.3 CHAPTER 2: GLOBAL AND NATIONAL POVERTY

7.3.1 Summary

7.3.1.1 The economy and poverty levels in South Africa

The United Nations' MDG in 2000 committed various countries to reduce poverty by 50% by 2015. South Africa would not be able to meet this goal due to the slow pace of service delivery. Although the South African Constitution guarantees that the basic needs of the poor are addressed, poverty levels continue to increase.

Socio-economic challenges include the inability of the Growth, Employment, and Redistribution Programme (GEAR) to provide the projected 3-4% economic growth to create 400 000 new jobs each year. The poor continue to become poorer. It is imperative to create an enabling service delivery environment to address fragmented service delivery.

7.3.1.2 Gender discrimination and social marginalisation of vulnerable groups

Poor women lacking appropriate education and work-related skills are excluded from the socio-economic and political spheres. Women generally are subject to gender discrimination in the workplace and lack support for childcare and the elderly. Poverty influences children negatively in terms of their physical and emotional development.

Child poverty is linked to high rates of unemployment and the HIV/AIDS pandemic. Youth poverty and low levels of education are interlinked. A large number of youth are not skilled for employment. A lack of adequate health care and negative social

environments entrench youth poverty. There are fewer role models to assist the youth to achieve life goals and career success.

The aged poor are among the most impoverished group in society. The majority do not have basic education or work-related skills. In the absence of biological parents, elderly grandparents care for many young children. The frail elderly do not have access to the necessary care they require. The disabled poor cannot access appropriate skills, employment, or social and health services. Consequently, they are marginalised from the mainstream of society.

7.3.1.3 Adverse environments and poverty

Changing weather patterns have a negative impact on small-scale farmers, who have to contend with poor soil conditions and reduced crops. The future prospects for impoverished households who depend on subsistence farming remain grim.

7.3.1.4 The gap between the informal and formal sectors

There is a huge gap between the informal and formal sectors in South Africa. The informal sector trades mainly for survival needs, while the formal sector is based on sound business and effective marketing strategies.

7.3.1.5 Collaborative partnerships

The collaborative partnership to address poverty includes a range of stakeholders with the necessary expertise in South Africa to ensure public transparency and effective service delivery. It is essential to incorporate community strengths in the collaborative partnership. The participation of the poor in policy processes is vital to ensure programme sustainability and ensures social justice for the poor.

7.3.1.6 Developing effective policies

Policy success depends on adequate human and financial resources. Policy considerations for the future include addressing the present challenges experienced by the poor to ensure a changed environment for their well-being.

7.3.2 Conclusions Chapter 2: Global and national poverty

The following conclusions are based on the literature study in Chapter 2:

- The South African economy is not conducive to reduce poverty, as inflation has not risen over the past several years to ensure wealth distribution to the poor.
- There is a huge gap between the informal and formal sectors, and the two economies operate independently from each other.
- The informal sector does not have the necessary skills to compete with the formal sector. The formal sector is based on sound business practices and participates in global markets.
- Changing weather patterns influence farming produce, especially for subsistence farmers who depend on agriculture produce for their livelihood. Future weather predictions indicate increased difficulties for subsistence farmers in South Africa
- Poor women, children, the youth, the aged, and the disabled comprise the vulnerable groups which continue to be marginalised from policy processes and poverty programmes.
- A working youth group is able to support the elderly and children through taxation. The youth in South Africa however, form a large component of the unemployed. This places a huge burden on social security for the elderly and vulnerable children. This situation will persist over the next few decades if the prevailing conditions are not addressed urgently.
- The poor are not actively involved in policy processes that affect their wellbeing.
- Collaborative partnerships are essential to ensure effective service delivery to the poor. Poverty includes complex social, cultural, and political issues that cannot be addressed by a specific department and requires related expertise to ensure programme success.
- Successful policy implementation is based on the above collaborative partnerships that provide various perspectives to policy problems.
- Policy development and policy implementation processes should be ongoing and constantly reviewed to address policy constraints.

7.3.3 Recommendations Chapter 2: Global and national poverty

The recommendations based on the research are as follows:

- Despite the South African economy not being conducive to reduce poverty to significant levels, it is important to equip the poor who are able to work with the necessary skills for the job market. This serves to address their sense of helplessness.
- Prospective unemployed women, the youth, the aged and the disabled should be identified, who could be trained with relevant skills for the job market, or to develop their own business.
- Youth mentoring should be ongoing at educational institutions or appropriate community organisations to enable the youth to pursue future goals and to avoid negative social situations.
- Skills training for women should include appropriate support services that assist with family responsibilities.
- Small-scale farmers should be trained with improved farming methods to deal with poor crop production.
- Access to financial institutions and trading markets would improve the economic circumstances of the informal sector.
- Involving the poor in policy development and policy implementation processes would ensure transparent policy procedures to reduce poverty levels.
- Developing collaborative partnerships with a range of stakeholders would ensure effective service delivery through shared responsibilities.
- Addressing poverty issues through stakeholder partnerships would ensure a measurable impact on poverty and prevent fragmented service delivery.
- Reviewing policy implementation processes through regular programme monitoring and evaluation would address policy constraints timeously.
- Programme monitoring and evaluation should be introduced at the inception of a poverty programme.
- Service delivery should be based on achievable goals and effective communication strategies.

7.4 CHAPTER 3: PUBLIC POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND POLICY ANALYSIS

7.4.1 Summary

7.4.1.1 Importance of policy development and policy analysis

Policy development and policy analysis are two key concepts to address social needs. Specific policy skills include continual process investigations, effective communication, institutional capacity for change, and the experience of change by the beneficiaries. Various stakeholders have different policy expectations. Their role in policy however, is crucial. Historically, women were excluded from public policy processes, especially in the economic spheres.

The public sector is accountable for policy processes, including funding, service delivery and monitoring and evaluating programmes. There are however, many constraints regarding transparent processes and efficient resource utilisation.

7.4.1.2 Public policy development constraints in South Africa

Socio-economic policies focus on the formal sector, excluding the large numbers of informal traders and the increasing needs of the poor who require sustainable services. The public sector is not fully geared to deliver appropriate services to reduce poverty in South Africa. Related policy implementation problems include vested group interests, institutional agendas and lack of concrete implementation plans.

Policy implementation is crucial to the policy development process. The lack of knowledge regarding local economies is a further barrier to align the economy to poverty programmes. Policy constraints in South Africa include the lack of co-ordination between public sectors and role clarification between national, provincial and local spheres of government. Inadequate human and monetary resources are added constraints. Further constraints include policy makers' lack of comprehensive policy development knowledge and policy implementation skills.

7.4.1.3 Effective public policy development and policy analysis

Effective public policy development and policy analysis include public participation, communication, transparency and stakeholder involvement. The linear mode of policymaking excludes the above aspects.

Historically, women have been excluded in policy issues. Gender participation includes addressing employment, education, non-discrimination in the workplace, property rights and protection from violence.

Policy analysis and policy advocacy enable policy makers to conceptualise policy problems to address the social needs of diverse interest groups. Institutions that are corruption free provide the right environment to address poverty through appropriate policies. A well-planned policy identifies effective public institutions and key stakeholders to implement allocated funding for socio-economic change.

7.4.1.4 Importance of collaborative partnerships

The collaborative partnership enhances services delivery to the poor. Long-term collaborative partnerships have a positive impact on poor communities. The collaborative partnership includes multi-disciplinary team initiatives, civil society participation and community networking. Interactive knowledge includes technology and research contributions.

Community involvement in policy processes includes broad multi-sectoral involvement that critically examines the presenting problems. Policy processes without stakeholder participation have a detrimental impact on service delivery. Validated research based policies provide the best options for policy decisions and ensures stakeholder participation for policy success.

7.4.1.5 Policy success

Policy success includes institutional reforms based on sound economic principles, efficient service delivery, adequate human and financial resources and effective monitoring and evaluation strategies. Institutional reforms include good governance based on networking with strategic partners and allocating resources to meet set targets. Corporate governance combines business and network models. Innovative technology and improved human capital address economic

growth and social reforms. Rigid forms of governance influences policy processes negatively.

7.4.1.6 Policy challenges

Various interest groups may hinder public policy processes. Pressure groups, however, influence policies on behalf of the poor. Utilizing resources in a cost-effective manner is a further challenge. Effective policy co-ordination requires effective networking between the three tiers of government and assisting the informal economy to access economic opportunities and financial resources.

Globalisation challenges include the pursuit of global trading for the formal sector. The informal sector, however, cannot compete with the formal sector. Government sought to increase job creation to meet globalisation challenges through the labour Relations Act, the Skills Development Act, the Employment Act and the Employment and Equity Act, which had little impact to align the informal and formal sectors. The high rates of unemployment in South Africa entrench poverty.

Added economic problems include food security over the next fifty years, which will continue into the future due to low crop yields, scarcity of water and increased population growth. Meeting the MDG to reduce poverty by 50% by 2015 will require reducing the number of people who experience hunger, exacerbated by prolonged heavy rainfall and droughts, which affect crop and livestock farming.

Trade reforms and economic growth are two key factors to address the high rates of unemployment in South Africa. The poor are mostly in rural areas, where 60% of the employed are either in low-skilled employment or subsistence farming. Trade reforms increase production, but do not necessarily raise employment levels. Appropriate policies address economic benefits for the poor through skills training.

7.4.1 7 Informal sector challenges

Informal sector challenges include accessing credit facilities and trading markets, as well as the importation of cheaper goods, which affect local manufacturers negatively. The Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASgiSA) to address the economic plight of the poor, including women's access to

micro-economic activities, was not achieved as the informal and formal sectors did not merge as ASgiSA had intended.

Further challenges include the financial instability of the informal sector that hinders their access to group health insurance. Unemployment rates in rural areas in South Africa are amongst the highest in the developing world, where the working poor have to support a large number of unemployed family members living in one household.

7.4.2 Conclusions Chapter 3: The research process

The conclusions in respect of the research process are as follows:

- A lack of concrete implementation plans hinder effective services to the poor.
- Specific policy skills include maintaining effective stakeholder communication.
- Policy constraints include a lack of policy development knowledge and policy implementation skills.
- Stakeholder participation and transparency remain two important components of policy processes.
- The integrated model includes broad multi-sectoral participation.
- Lack of transparent processes and efficient resource utilisation hinder service delivery.
- Scarcity of water and population growth affects global food security.
- Skills training equip the poor to participate in economic spheres.

7.4.3 Recommendations Chapter 3: The research process

With regard to the research process, the following is recommended:

- Public policy developers require effective communication skills and the ability to transform negative service environments to ensure effective service delivery.
- Public policy developers require adequate policy development knowledge and policy implementation skills to ensure cost-effective policy processes.

- Public policy developers should utilise resources efficiently in order to maximise benefits to the poor.
- Gender issues should be included in policy processes in terms of skills training and employment.
- Monitoring and evaluation strategies should form a key component of the policy process to track policy achievements.
- Adequate human and financial resources are required for effective policy implementation.
- Informal sector challenges should be addressed through stakeholder partnerships.
- An Integrated Policy Model should be developed to maintain stakeholder partnerships and ensure policy success.
- Research expertise should be utilised to strengthen policy decisions.

7.5 CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

7.5.1 Summary

Chapter 4 outlines the research design and methodology and includes the qualitative design, the quantitative design, the literature study, the pilot study, data collecting, and data analysis. The following aspects of the research were described in detail:

The research utilised the combined qualitative and quantitative approach to assess the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini. The qualitative method utilised the researcher's insider perspective to describe and understand, rather than explain or predict human behaviour to provide enriched explanations of the research problem. The quantitative method measured the properties of the phenomenon under investigation.

The qualitative method included gathering multiple sources of information through focus groups, extended household interviews and participant observations. This allowed the gathering of in-depth information regarding poverty issues in Kungwini. The qualitative method utilised relevant questions pertaining to the IFNP, which provided systematic data collecting and analysis.

The data collection was guided by a literature study and an empirical study. The literature study provided information regarding the research problem and the research question. The literature study enabled the researcher to draw conclusions regarding the research investigation.

Data-collecting methods included a semi-structured interview schedule for the qualitative method and a questionnaire for the quantitative method. The pilot study orientated the researcher to the research process and assisted to formulate the research problem and the framework for the research. Exposing a few cases that were similar to those that would be used for the main investigation assisted to modify the measuring instruments for both the qualitative and quantitative methods. The pilot study served as a dress rehearsal for the main investigation.

7.5.2 Conclusions Chapter 4: The research process

The conclusions regarding the research process are as follows:

- The qualitative and quantitative methods enabled the researcher to gather data on the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini.
- The qualitative method provided data on the experiences of beneficiaries regarding the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini.
- The quantitative method provided the expectations of service providers regarding the impact of the IFNP to reduce poverty in Kungwini.
- The combined qualitative and quantitative approach provided guidance to establish the required changes needed for effective service delivery.
- The literature study provided valuable information regarding poverty and related issues, as well as the non-verbal observation cues that presented further sources of valuable information.
- The pilot study served as a dress rehearsal for the main investigation and assessed the suitability of the measuring tools. The necessary changes were then affected accordingly.

7.5.3 Recommendations Chapter 4: The research process

The recommendations from the research process are as follows:

- A qualitative research study should be undertaken to gather information regarding the beneficiaries' experience of a specific poverty programme, to indicate whether the programme has achieved its objectives to reduce poverty.
- A quantitative research study should be undertaken to gather information regarding the programme managers' expectations concerning a specific poverty programme to indicate whether the programme has achieved its objectives to reduce poverty.
- A literature study should be undertaken to gain an understanding of the presenting problem, guide the qualitative and quantitative processes, and develop the respective measuring instruments.
- The literature study should be utilised to guide the policy development and policy implementation processes.
- A pilot study is necessary to determine the suitability of the measuring tools that would be utilised in the qualitative and quantitative methods.

7.6 CHAPTER 5: QUALITATIVE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

7.6.1 Summary

The data for the qualitative method was gathered through focus groups and extended household interviews. The researcher utilised questions based on the interview schedule and participant observation to gather rich sources of information for the qualitative data. The following information was collated regarding the impact of the IFNP:

- The food packages distributed through the IFNP was appreciated, but did not meet the participants' daily household requirements.
- High rates of unemployment are experienced in Kungwini. Consequently, impoverished households cannot take adequate care of their families.
- Impoverished households were not assisted to establish community food gardens, or to form community organisations. There was a need for

appropriate skills training to obtain employment that did not relate to household or community gardens.

- Many impoverished households earned an income from low paid jobs, when work was available.
- Some impoverished households in Kungwini cannot access the child support grant or the disability grant, due to a lack of appropriate documentation.
- The community was not informed of any awareness or educational programmes regarding the IFNP.

7.6.2 Conclusions Chapter 5: The research process

The conclusions regarding the research process are as follows:

- The qualitative method detailed the participants' personal experience regarding the IFNP. They were not aware that the food packages were for a specific period only.
- Unemployment in Kungwini is a constant feature for the poor. The participants were not familiar with the IFNP to reduce poverty in Kungwini.
- The participants were not aware that the IFNP was aligned to the broader goal to establish community organisations and food gardens.
- There was a need for appropriate skills training to obtain employment, unrelated to household or community gardens.
- There are high rates of unemployment in Kungwini. Many impoverished households earned an income from low-paid jobs, when work was available.
- Some families could not access the child support grant or the disability grant due to the lack of appropriate documentation.
- There was no awareness or educational programmes regarding the IFNP.
- The above conclusions answer the research question: What is the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini?
- The above conclusions indicate that the IFNP required interactive participation to reduce poverty in Kungwini.

7.6.3 Recommendations Chapter 5: The research process

The recommendations regarding the research process are as follows:

- A consultation process with the intended beneficiaries should be established before the distribution of material aid to ascertain their specific needs.
- Appropriate targeting mechanisms should be developed to ensure the intended beneficiary group is included in a poverty programme.
- Beneficiary targeting should be based on specific criteria to ensure cost-effective distribution of resources.
- Material aid should be linked with long-term skills development and related socio-economic interventions.
- Effective communication strategies should be established that provide information regarding the goal and objectives of a specific programme and networking between relevant departments and organisations.
- Awareness programmes should be established to enable beneficiaries to access specific poverty programmes.
- Sound management skills should be developed to ensure effective programme planning, goal setting and achieving programme objectives.
- Alternative policy options should be developed to address policy constraints and to ensure policy goals and objectives are on track.

7.7 CHAPTER 6: QUANTITATIVE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

7.7.1 Summary

Chapter 6 outlined the quantitative empirical research as follows:

The quantitative method utilised statistical data measurements to determine the impact of the IFNP. The quantitative method provided the presumptions and the answers based on an overview of facts regarding the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini.

A questionnaire (the measuring instrument) was utilised to gather data. The questionnaire was pre-tested with two managers who were involved in the IFNP in Kungwini. The questionnaire was based on the IFNP policy framework that guided programme implementation, which is in line with the MDG to reduce hunger, malnutrition and food insecurity by 50% by 2015.

The objectives of the IFNP were to develop household food gardens to improve the daily nutritional needs of impoverished households. The programme would then expand to community food gardens. Surplus produce would be sold to increase family income. Aligned to the above aspects, the IFNP beneficiaries would be referred to appropriate poverty alleviation programmes in Kungwini. The key focus of the IFNP was firstly, to reduce the number of households that did not have adequate food and secondly, to establish income-generating initiatives through surplus garden produce.

The sampling frame included participants chosen purposively from the Departments of Social Development, Health, Education, and Agriculture and included members of community based organisations. The participants from the above departments and community organisations were chosen as they had established independent poverty programmes in Kungwini.

The questionnaire was divided into two broad categories, namely, to achieve the objectives and sub-objectives of the IFNP. The objectives included increasing household food production, improving safety nets, increasing community income and job opportunities and improving information and communication.

The sub-objectives included establishing household food gardens, establishing safety nets, supporting community income and job opportunities and establishing integrated stakeholder involvement.

7.7.2 Quantitative data analysis

The quantitative data analysis indicated the following regarding the impact of the IFNP in Kungwini:

7.7.2.1 Involvement in the IFNP

Fifty percent of the respondents indicated that they were not fully involved to increase food production. Conversely, 22% indicated they were involved in food production, 21% to improve household nutrition, 14% to improve safety nets, 22% to increase community income, 8% to improve food markets and 15% to improve information and communication. The high figure of 50% who indicated that they were not fully involved indicates that the respondents were not a part of the IFNP process to increase food

production as they were supposed to be, which further indicates a lack of inter-departmental planning and co-ordination, resulting in fragmented services.

The Departments of Social Development, Health, Education and Agriculture, as well as community organisations in Kungwini have independent poverty alleviation programmes, targeting the same clients. Although their service focus differs, it is important that the above departments and community organisations work together on common programmes to reduce poverty levels to ensure cost-effective and sustainable service delivery.

7.7.2.2 Achieving the objectives of the IFNP

▫ Increasing household food production

Thirty-five percent indicated that increasing household food production was not achieved at all and 19% indicated that it was hardly achieved. Conversely, 15% indicated that it was satisfactorily achieved.

The poor in rural areas have to contend with food insecurity and related constraints. The focus on addressing food insecurity apart from related issues that negatively affect the poor will not reduce poverty significantly. A holistic approach is required to address poverty that focuses on various aspects that impact negatively on impoverished households. This includes family stresses and the lack of adequate household income to take care of family needs.

Increasing household food production is related to subsistence farming and food security. Subsistence farming does not provide food security, as appropriate skills are required by subsistence farmers to provide adequate household food and to participate in broader agricultural markets.

▫ Improving safety nets and food emergency systems

The high figures of 36% and 19% indicate that improving safety nets and food emergency systems was not achieved at all or hardly achieved. Conversely, 2% and the 19% indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved.

Inadequate monitoring and evaluation systems to assess the IFNP processes and programme constraints were further obstacles to measure the IFNP's impact to improve safety nets and food emergency systems.

There are gaps in the social security and food emergency systems that need to be addressed to ensure the constitutional rights of the poor to social pensions and food assistance. In many impoverished households, the social grants are the only source of income. There are many poor families in Kungwini who are not able to access the various grants due to a lack of appropriate documentation (refer Chapter 5).

▫ **Increasing community income and job opportunities**

The high figures of 40% indicate that community income and job opportunities were not achieved at all, while the 26% indicating it was hardly achieved is contrary to the 5% and 14%, which indicate that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved.

Skills training is necessary to enable the poor to seek work opportunities. The informal sector operates for survival purposes and requires skills to tap into broader marketing enterprises. The current state of the economy hinders the distribution of wealth to enable the poor, including the informal sector to surmount their adverse circumstances.

The informal sector is saturated with various business initiatives, where the poor are desperate to earn a living. As dependence on a depressed economy to distribute wealth is currently futile, the informal sector requires appropriate skills training to improve their operations through financial and open market access.

▫ **Improving the effectiveness and efficiency of food markets**

The high figure of 46% indicates that improving the effectiveness and efficiency of food markets was not achieved at all and the 26% indicating it was hardly achieved, are contrary to the 2% and 9% that indicate it was fully or satisfactorily achieved.

This corresponds with the above question regarding skills training to successfully develop household food gardens and enable the informal sector to participate in the formal sector. It is important to address the helplessness of the poor in Kungwini

through an assessment of their living conditions and daily struggles. When there has been a measure of improvement in their living conditions, then their economic plight can be addressed.

▫ **Improving information and communication management systems**

The high figures of 36% indicating that information and communication management systems were not achieved at all, and the 21% indicating that it was hardly achieved are contrary to the 6% and 17% indicating that it was fully or satisfactorily achieved. The figures of 21% and 36% indicate a large number of participants who were not involved in a key component of policy implementation processes.

Communication is vital to inform impoverished clients regarding specific services that are available to assist them to surmount their poverty circumstances. Information rendered by specific departments is important to enable the poor to make informed decisions to access relevant services. Effective communication links services from various departments, ensuring collaborative partnerships.

7.7.2.3 Achieving the sub-objectives of the IFNP

The sub-objectives included a number of related aspects, as indicated below:

▫ **Establishing functioning household food gardens; food garden trading; school feeding programmes; empowering beneficiaries to understand their nutritional needs; and formulating a basic food basket for different household compositions:**

The high figures of 36% and 19% indicate that establishing functioning household food gardens was not achieved at all or hardly achieved; while 36% and 23% indicate that establishing household food garden trade was not achieved at all or hardly achieved; and 34% and 16% indicate that establishing school feeding programmes was not achieved at all or hardly achieved.

Thirty-six percent and 23% indicated that empowering beneficiaries to understand their nutritional needs had not been achieved at all or hardly achieved; and 34% and 31% indicated that formulating a basic food basket for different household compositions had not been achieved at all or hardly achieved.

It was important to address the social exclusion of impoverished households in Kungwini before attempting to establish household food gardens and trading. This would have provided a holistic understanding of the desperate circumstances of the poor.

The high figures above indicate that the status of school feeding schemes should have been established before the implementation of the IFNP in Kungwini, in order to develop a collaborative partnership to address these issues effectively. As the children from impoverished households stated that they were always hungry during the extended household visits (refer Chapter 5) it was essential to strengthen existing poverty programmes in Kungwini. The involvement of the Departments of Education, Agriculture, and Health was crucial.

▫ **Undertaking awareness campaigns; establishing supplementary nutrition programmes; and creating food safety information systems:**

Thirty-six percent indicated that undertaking awareness campaigns was not achieved at all, while 20% indicated it was hardly achieved.

Thirty-six percent indicated that establishing supplementary nutritional programmes was not achieved at all, while 18% indicated it was hardly achieved. Forty percent indicated that creating food and safety information systems was not achieved at all, while 26% indicated it was hardly achieved.

It is crucial that education and awareness campaigns be undertaken to enlighten impoverished households regarding nutrition and health as well as food safety, especially as the children in the extended household interviews indicated that they did not have adequate nutrition (refer Chapter 5). Supplementary nutrition programmes would assist impoverished households taking care of children and the elderly who are prone to various illnesses. The above aspects relate to policies based on collaborative partnerships including community involvement to address poverty issues.

▫ **Establishing safety nets and food emergency programmes; pension and disability support; monetary savings from trade; community food gardens; and food emergency support:**

Thirty-six percent indicated establishing safety nets and food emergency programmes were not achieved at all, while 19% indicated it was hardly achieved.

Thirty-six percent indicated that establishing pension support was not achieved at all, while 13% indicated it was hardly achieved.

Thirty-four percent indicated establishing disability support was not achieved at all, while 17% indicated it was hardly achieved. Forty-three percent indicated that establishing monetary savings from household food gardens was not achieved at all, while 24% indicated it was hardly achieved.

Forty-two percent indicated that establishing community food gardens was not achieved at all, while 19% indicated it was hardly achieved. Forty-five percent indicated that establishing food emergency support was not achieved at all, while 22% indicated it was hardly achieved.

Social assistance remains a key income initiative for impoverished households to meet their basic food needs and emergencies. It enables children to attend school regularly and avoid negative social situations. A vast number of people are unemployed in Kungwini and many impoverished households do not have regular income, apart from the child support grant, and the old age and disability pensions.

The above grants may be the only source of income in many impoverished households. Monetary savings, which the IFNP presumed would develop from surplus food garden trading, was in contrast to the focus group and extended household interviews, where beneficiaries indicated that they were not keen to establish household or community food gardens (refer Chapter 5).

The poor in Kungwini require access to appropriate documentation to access the child support grant and the old age and disability pension. Food emergency support requires the involvement of relevant collaborative partnerships including grassroots involvement.

▫ **Identifying land for community farming; establishing grain reserves; and increasing community food markets:**

Forty-seven percent of the participants indicated that identifying land for community farming was not achieved at all, while 23% indicated it was hardly achieved. Forty-seven percent indicated that establishing grain reserves was not achieved at all, while 22% indicated it was hardly achieved. Forty-eight percent

indicated that increasing community food markets was not achieved at all, while 22% indicated it was hardly achieved.

The poor remain a marginalised group in society, especially in the socio-economic spheres. The informal sector has to compete with a thriving formal sector and cannot access finances to establish or expand trading or to partake in wider open markets. The poor do not have adequate skills to generate household income.

The above aspects do not correlate with the IFNP's objectives to develop community farming, to establish grain reserves, or to increase community food markets. The gap between the community's short-term needs clashes with the bigger goal of community farming, which can only be taken forward in the long term with the collaborative partnership developed during the initial phases of programme intervention. In addition, community farming involves the agriculture sector, which is a key partner to provide the expertise to address poor soil conditions and crop disease.

▫ **Promoting non-farming income generating activities; and comprehensive support for agriculture development:**

Forty-five percent of the participants indicated that promoting non-farming income generating activities was not achieved at all, while 27,1% indicated it was hardly achieved. Thirty-five point seven percent indicated that comprehensive support for agriculture development was not achieved at all, while 27,9% indicated it was hardly achieved.

Poverty in poor communities is marked by inequality. The focus group and extended household interviews indicate that the poor were not assisted to develop income-generating initiatives (refer Chapter 5). As a policy strategy to reduce poverty in Kungwini, the IFNP did not include the poor in the policy planning and implementation processes. This resulted in fragmented service delivery based on a lack of adequate targeting, where some beneficiaries received food parcels and others did not.

▫ **Establishing food security and information mapping; and establishing an early warning food emergency system.**

Forty-four point two percent indicated that establishing food security and information mapping was not achieved at all, while 27,9% indicated it was hardly achieved. Forty-six point five percent indicated that establishing an early warning food emergency system was not achieved at all, while 22,5% indicated it was hardly achieved.

Policy implementation remains problematic for most public service delivery initiatives. Establishing and maintaining communication systems between stakeholders is essential. Food security information mapping requires a needs analysis and beneficiary targeting. In addition, monitoring and evaluation systems are crucial indicators of policy processes, keeping track of intervention constraints and achievements. Apart from the essential role of continual monitoring and evaluation, it is difficult to achieve the above objectives in the absence of the collaborative partnership.

▫ **Establishing integrated planning and implementation, community based partnerships, clear stakeholder roles and short-, medium-, and long-term interventions:**

Forty-six point five percent (46,5%) of the participants indicated that establishing integrated planning and implementation was not achieved at all, while 15,5% indicated it was hardly achieved. Thirty-eight percent indicated that establishing community-based partnerships was not achieved at all and 18,6% indicated it was hardly achieved.

Forty-three point four percent indicated that establishing clear stakeholder roles was not achieved at all and 19,4% indicated it was hardly achieved. Forty-one point nine percent indicated that establishing short-, medium- and long-term interventions were not achieved at all and 19,4% indicated it was hardly achieved.

Roles and linkages with relevant stakeholders are crucial to achieve policy goals and objectives. The collaborative partnership begins with short-term engagement and continues for the long term to accomplish specific policy aims and objectives.

The collaborative partnership would have ensured that the IFNP was based on sound planning and policy implementation processes that included monitoring and evaluation strategies from the outset of policy development.

The IFNP could not be fully affective without the collaborative partnership. Poverty alleviation efforts require the full involvement of a range of stakeholders combining their expertise.

▫ **Maintaining representation on the National Steering Committee; and utilising the policy framework for strategic guidance:**

Forty-one point nine percent indicated that maintaining representation on the National Steering Committee was not fully achieved at all and 19,4% indicated it was hardly achieved. Forty point one percent indicated that utilising the policy framework for strategic guidance was not achieved at all and 21,7% indicated it was hardly achieved.

The IFNP policy framework should have been refined before implementation. It was essential to strengthen the IFNP policy makers and implementers with specific policy development and policy analysis skills to address weak institutional structures, develop the collaborative partnership, address policy constraints and ensure policy success.

Additional skills included knowledge regarding economic principles and operations and creating an enabling environment for the poor to access relevant services.

▫ **Beneficiaries assisted to form community organisations, co-operatives and community organisations; and assisted with technical, financial and administrative matters:**

Thirty-nine point five percent indicated that assisting beneficiaries to form community organisations and co-operatives was not achieved at all, while 22,5% indicated it was hardly achieved. Thirty-eight point eight percent indicated that assisting community organisations with technical, financial, and administrative matters was not achieved at all, while 30,2% indicated it was hardly achieved.

Public service delivery generally, is compounded by a lack of transparent processes, co-ordination, efficient utilisations of resources and a lack of human

and financial capital. Inadequate budgets and a lack of monitoring and evaluation systems deter effective service delivery. The IFNP required skilled personnel and policy implementers to drive the process in Kungwini.

The collaborative partnership was essential to the IFNP process. Dealing with partnership conflicts is an essential component of policy processes. This includes understanding and working with different norms and policy procedures and maintaining communication and collaborative relationships.

The above aspects were integral to assisting beneficiaries to form community organisations and providing technical, financial and administrative support.

7.7.3 Conclusions Chapter 6: Empirical research

The conclusions with regard to the empirical research include the following:

- The IFNP sought to increase family income through household food gardens, which would then be expanded into community food gardens, which in turn, would supply wider food markets. The IFNP should have been based on sound policy planning and implementation principles that included the involvement of key stakeholders, including the poor in Kungwini.
- The IFNP process should have been reviewed step-by-step prior to and during implementation. This in itself is a major undertaking that requires collaboration between the Departments of Social Development, Health, Education, Agriculture, as well as community organisations.
- Appropriate skills training was required to enable the poor to form community organisations to take responsibility for the IFNP. It was essential that the IFNP implementation process operated in a favourable environment to reduce poverty in Kungwini.
- Impoverished households in Kungwini were not assisted to develop income-generating activities, or to establish community based organisations or community co-operatives. Community participation remains a crucial process in policy development and policy implementation processes. Without community involvement and stakeholder contributions, service delivery remains fragmented.
- The IFNP sought national, provincial and local involvement, but did not actively pursue this partnership for programme success. There was a need

for interactive knowledge sharing between national, provincial and local government, including relevant stakeholders to address mutual concerns in Kungwini

- Impoverished families should not be exposed to further vulnerability. In this respect, it is imperative to enlist the cooperation of the poor to address poverty. This is in contrast to the linear mode of service delivery, which progresses from policy development to policy implementation without stakeholder participation.
- The lack of adequate monitoring and evaluation strategies impeded the IFNP to provide effective service delivery. Appropriate poverty definitions and resource allocations would have guided the IFNP to achieve its objectives, develop specific interventions, establish stakeholder collaboration and ensure effective programme implementation.
- It was crucial to include the required expertise to ensure programme success, including appropriate research knowledge.
- The research findings were compared to the literature study, which provided guidance to reduce poverty in Kungwini.
- The above conclusions answer the research question: “What is the impact of the IFNP upon the poor in Kungwini?”
- The conclusions from the quantitative data analysis indicate that the IFNP required interactive participation to reduce poverty in Kungwini.

7.7.4 Recommendations Chapter 6: Empirical research

The recommendations regarding the empirical research are as follows:

- Improving the circumstance of the poor in Kungwini requires a comprehensive understanding of the difficulties they experience.
- The lack of basic needs in terms of adequate food and employment should receive attention in appropriate policies and programmes. This includes specific assistance to establish food gardens and trading markets.
- Appropriate skills development should be identified in consultation with the poor.
- Involving the poor in policy development and implementation processes would ensure programme sustainability.

- Transferring responsibility for the continuation of a specific programme to community organisations should include technology and administrative support.
- Efficient communication between relevant departments and community organisations would maintain effective stakeholder partnerships.
- Personnel training should include policy and practical project management skills to ensure transparency and cost-effective service delivery.
- Addressing policy constraints through alternative policy options would ensure that programmes are on track to achieve policy goals and objectives.
- Integrating appropriate poverty programmes would maximise benefits to the poor.
- Evaluating various options to maximise stakeholder participation would achieve policy success.
- Utilising grassroot experience and knowledge enhances the collaborative partnerships.

7.8 CONCLUDING REMARKS

A literature study is essential to gather information regarding the challenges experienced by the poor. The literature study guides the formulation of the research goal and objectives and the selection of the research design to gather empirical data to address poverty. The qualitative and quantitative research methods confirm the impact of a particular poverty programme. Collaborative partnerships are essential to ensure effective service delivery to the poor. The integrated model is more cost effective than the organisational model to reduce poverty as it includes active stakeholder involvement in policy development and policy implementation.

It is vital that policy makers are equipped with adequate policy development skills to maintain stakeholder communication and to transform negative service delivery environments. Policy implementation processes should be regularly reviewed to address policy constraints.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Accorsi, S., Fabiani, M., Lukwiya, M., Ravera, M., Constanzi, A., Ojom, L., Paze, E., Manenti, F., Anguzu, P., Dente, M.G. & Declich, S. 2001. Impact of Insecurity, the Aids Epidemic and Poverty on Population Health: Disease Patterns and Trends in Northern Uganda. *The American Journal of Tropical Medicine*, 64(3):214-221.

Adam, B. 2008. The Future Matters: Futures Known, Created and Minded. *Journal of the Academy of Social Sciences*, 3(2):145-157.

Adato, M., Carter, M.R. & May, J. 2006. Exploring Poverty Traps and Social Exclusion in South Africa Using Qualitative and Quantitative Data. *Journal of Development Studies*, 42(2):226-244.

Aglietta, M. 2008. Into a New Growth Regime. *New Left Review*, 54:62-63.

Ake, C. 2000. *The Feasibility of Democracy in Africa*. Great Britain: Anthony Rowe.

Akinboade, O.A. 2005. Interview with Prof. Akinboade, Research Coordinator, Department of Economics.
8 February. Pretoria. {Transcript}.

Alesina, A. & Glaeser, E.L. 2005. *Fighting Poverty in the USA and Europe. A World of Difference*. United Kingdom: Oxford University Press.

Aliber, M. 2003. Chronic Poverty in South Africa: Incidences, Causes and Policies. *World Development*, 31(3):473-490.

Andreasen, A.R. 1995. *Marketing Social Change: Changing Behaviour to Promote Health, Social Development and the Environment*. San Francisco: Josse-Bass Publishers.

Argriades, D. 2006. Good Governance, Professionalism, Ethics and Responsibility. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 72(2):155-167.

Attaran, A. 2005. An Immeasurable Crisis? A Criticism of the Millennium Developmental Goals and why they cannot be measured. *Plos Medicine*, 2(10):318.

- Babbie, E., Mouton, J., Vorster, P. & Prozesky, B. 2001. *The Practice of Social Research*. South African Edition. London: Oxford University Press.
- Bailey, J.S. & Burch, M.R. 2002. *Research Methods in Applied Behaviour Analysis*. California: Sage Publications.
- Ball, A.R. & Peters, B.G. 2005. *Modern Politics and Government*. 7th ed. New York: Palgrave MacMillian.
- Ballard, R., Habib, A., Valodia, I. & Zuern, E. 2005. Globalization, Marginalization and Contemporary Social Movements in South Africa. *African Affairs*, 104(417):615-634.
- Bapiste, I. 2001. Qualitative Data Analysis: Common Phases, Strategic Differences. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 2(3):3-41.
- Barberton, C., Blake, M. & Kotze, H. 1998. *Creating Action Space: The Challenge of Poverty and Democracy in South Africa*. Claremont, Cape Town: David Philip Publishers.
- Baumann, T. 2007. South Africa as a Developing Country. Implications for Socio-Economic Policy in the Second Decade. [O]: Available:
<http://www.brcs.co.za>
Accessed on 07/12/06
- Beall, J. 2005. Decentralizing Government and Decentralizing Gender: Lessons from Local Government Reform in South Africa. *Politics and Society*, 33(2):253-276.
- Beetham, D. 2000. *Democracy and Human Rights*. USA: Blackwell Printers.
- Berg, B. 2001. *Qualitative Research Methods for Social Sciences*. 4th ed. USA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Berry, L. & Guthrie, W. 2003. Assessment of Circumstances Facing Contemporary Families. UNDP Poverty Report. USA: United Nations Publication.
- Bhorat, H., Leibbrandt, M., Maziya, M., Van den Berg, S. & Woolard, I. 2001. *Fighting Poverty – Labour Markets and Inequality in South Africa*. Lansdowne, South Africa: University of Cape Town Press.

Birkland, T. 1997. *Agenda Setting, Public Policy and Focusing Events*. Washington, USA: Georgetown University Press.

Block, G. 2006. Global Poverty and Deserts. *Wiley InterScience*, 26(3):168-175.

Bond, P. 2004. South Africa's Frustrating Decade of Freedom: From Racial to Class Apartheid. *Monthly Review*, 55(10):1-20.

Bond, P. 2007. Two Economies, Microcredit and the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa. *Africanus*, 37(2):216-230.

Bonser, F., McGregor E., Clinton, H. & Oster, C.V. 1996. *Policy Choices and Public Action*. USA: Prentice Hall, New Jersey.

Boyle, A. 2003. *Community Nutrition in Action: An Entrepreneurial Approach*. 3rd ed. United Kingdom: Wadsworth/Thomson Learning.

British Department for International Development Report. 2006. South and Southern Africa. [O]. Available:

http://www.dfid.gov.uk/countries/africa/south_africa.asp

Accessed on 20/07/06

Brugha, R. & Varvasovszky, Z. 2008. Stakeholder Analysis. *Health Policy and Planning*, 15(3):239-246.

Burns, R.B. 2000. *Research Methods*. London: Sage Publishers Ltd.

Callaghan, G. & Wistow, G. 2008. Can the Community Construct Knowledge to Shape Services in the Local State? A Case Study. *Critical Social Policy*, 28(2):165-183.

Castro, A. & Farmer, P. 2005. Understanding and Addressing Aids-Related Stigma: From Anthropological Theory to Clinical Practice in Haiti. *Journal of Public Health*, 95(1):53-59.

Cavanaugh, J.C. & Blanchard-Fields, F. 2006. *Adult Development and Aging*. Belmont, U.S.A: Thomson Learning.

- Cederbaum, J. 2008. Name-based HIV Reporting: Current Status and Advocacy Needs. *Journal of HIV/AIDS & Social Services*, 7(3):117-130.
- Chant, S. 2006. Re-thinking the Feminization of Poverty in Relation to Aggregate Gender Indices. *Journal of Human Development*, 7(2):201-220.
- Chaskin, R. 2001. Building Community Capacity. *Urban Affairs Review*, 36(3):291-323.
- Chen, M.A. 2005. Rethinking the Informal Economy Linkages with the Formal Economy and the Formal Regulatory Environment. New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- Chopyak, J. & Levesque, P. 2002. Public Participation in Science and Technology Decision Making: Trends for the Future. *Science Direct*, 24(1-2):155-166.
- Christian Aid. 2006. The Climate of Poverty: Facts, Fears and Hope. [O]. Available: <http://www.christian-aid.org.uk/indepth.605caweek/index.htm>
Accessed on 26/07/06
- Cioffi-Revilla, C. 1998. *Politics and Uncertainty. Theory, Models and Applications*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Clark, K. 2006. Childhood, Parenting and Early Intervention: A Critical Examination of the Sure Start National Programme. *Critical Social Policy*, 26(4):699-718.
- Cloete, F. & Wissink, H. 2005. *Improving Public Policy*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Cloete, F. & Meyer, I.H. 2006. Policy Agenda-setting. In Cloete, F., Wissink, H. & De Coning, C. (Eds.). *Improving Public Policy: from Theory to Practice*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik.
- Cohen, J. 2002. The High Cost of Poverty. *Science Magazine*, 296(5577):2324.
- Collins, K. 1999. *Participatory Research - A Primer*. South Africa: Prentice Hall (Pty) Ltd.

Cornia, G.A. & Court, A. 2001. *Inequality, Growth and Poverty in the Era of Liberalization and Globalization*. UNU World Institute for Development Economics Research. Helsinki: Hakapaino Oy.

Cosby, A. 2005. International Investment Agreements and Sustainable Development: Achieving the Millennium Development Goals. [O]. Available: <http://www.mfdr.org/Marketplace/Posters-final/07>

Accessed on 7/01/09

Cozby, P.C. 1997. *Methods in Behavioural Research*. London: Mayfield Publishing Company.

Cronrath, D., Livingston, D., Michell, R.J. & Werwath, P. 2005. Report from the Acorn Community Forum on Rebuilding. *Social Policy*, 36(2):9-13.

Daniel, B.M. & Taylor, J. 2006. Gender and Child Neglect. *Critical Social Policy*, 26(2):426-430.

Davoudi, S., Hall, P.H. & Power, A. 2008. Key Issues for Planning Futures and the Way Forward. *Journal of the Academy of Social Sciences*, 3(3):229-247.

De Swart, C., Puoane, T. & Chopra, M. 2005. Urban Poverty in Cape Town. *Environment & Urbanization*, 17(2):101-111.

Delamonica, E., Mehrotra, S. 2006. A Capability-centred Approach to Environmental Sustainability: Is Productive Employment the Missing Link Between Micro and Macro Policies? [O]. Available:

<http://www.undp.org/povertycentre>

Accessed on 7/12/06

Delport, C.S.L. 2002. Quantitative Data Collection Methods. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Delport, C.S.L. & De Vos, A.S. 2002. Professional Research and Professional Practice. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Department of Foreign Affairs. 2006. *Eradication of Global Poverty*. [O]. Available:
<http://www.dfa.gov.za/docs/2006pq/pqp>

Accessed on 20/07/06

Department of Statistics. 2003. *Census 2001: Census in Brief*. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa Printers.

Department of Welfare. 1997. White Paper for Social Welfare. *Government Gazette*. (Volume 386, No. 18166). Pretoria: Government Printer.

Department for International Development Report 2006.

Country Profiles/Africa/South Africa. [O]. Available:

<http://www.dfid.gov.uk/countries/africa/south africa.asp>.

Accessed on 19/04/09

Development Gateway Foundation. 2006. *Food Security for Africa. Environment and urbanization*, 17(2):101-111. [O]. Available:

<http://topics.developmentgateway.org/foodsecurity.rc.itemdetail>

Accessed on 30/07/06

De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. 2002. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

De Vos, A.S. 2002a. Combined Quantitative and Qualitative Approach. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

De Vos, A.S. 2002b. Programme Evaluation. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

De Vos, A.S. 2002c. Scientific Theory and Professional Research. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

- De Vos, A.S. 2002d. Qualitative Data Analysis and Interpretation. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- De Vos, A.S., Fouché, C.B., Venter, L. 2002. Quantitative Data Analysis and Interpretation. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Dollar, D. & Kraay, A. 2004. The Effect of Globalization on Inequality and Poverty. *The Economic Journal*, 114(493):F22-F49.
- Dowling, M. 1999. *Social Work and Poverty: Attitudes and Actions*. Ashgate, Aldershot: University of London Publishers.
- Dror, D.M. 2001. Reinsurance of Health Insurance for the Informal Sector. *Bulletin of the World Health*, 79(7):7-79.
- Droughin, N., Touze, V. & Ventelou, B. 2003. Aids and Economic Growth in Africa: A Critical Assessment of the Base-Case Scenario Approach. In Moatti, J.B., Coriat, B., Souteyrand, T.B., Barnett, T., Dumoulin, J., Flori, Y.A. 2003. *Economics of Aids and Access to HIV/AIDS Care in Developing Countries. Issues and Challenges*. Paris: Le Publmieur.
- Du Toit, A. 2005. Chronic and Structural Poverty in South Africa: Challenges for Action and Research. [O]. Available:
<http://www.sarpn.org.za/documents/d0001562/p1912-DuToitJuly2005>
Accessed on 1/04/09
- Du Toit, D.F.P., Van der Walt, G., Bayat, M.S. & Cheminais, J. 1999. *Public Administration for Effective Governance*. Pretoria, South Africa: Juta and Company.
- Dunlop, D., Manheim, L.M., Song, J., Lyons, J.S. & Chang, R.C. 2005. Incidence of Disability among Pre-Retirement Adults: The Impact of Depression. *American Journal of Public Health*, 95(11):1-53.
- Dunn, W. 2003. *Public Policy Analysis*. New York: Englewood Cliffs.

Dunn, W.N. 2004. *Public Policy Analysis. An Introduction*. 3rd ed. Pearson New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Dye, T.R. 1995. *Understanding Public Policy*. 8th Edition. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Earth Institute Report 2006. [O]. Available:

<http://www.earth-institute.columbia.edu/mvp/about/communityparticipation>

Accessed on 20/07/06

Ederveen, S., De Groot, L.F. & Nahuis, R. 2006. A Panel Data Analysis of the Conditional Effectiveness of Europe Cohesion Theory. *Kyklos*, (59):17-42.

Education and Training Unit, South Africa.

Understanding Poverty and Development. [O]. Available:

www.etu.org/toolbox/docs/development/poverty.html

Accessed on 26/07/06

Edwards, F. & Kinyua, S.J. 2000. Roads to Regionalism: Survival and Security Efficiency. *Progress in Development Studies*, 2(1):73-74.

Edwards, L. & Stern, M. 2007. Trade and Poverty in South Africa: Lessons and Policy Recommendations. *Econometrics*, 31(2):111-126.

Eldabi, T., Irani, Z., Paul, R.J. & Love, P.E.D. 2002. Quantitative and Qualitative Decision-Making Methods in Simulation Modelling. *Management Decision*, 40(1):64-65.

Environmental Monitoring Group. 2005. What Is The Status of the MDGs in South Africa? [O]. Available:

<http://www.info@emg.org.za>

Accessed on 7/12/06

Estes, R. 1999. The Poverties: Competing Definitions and Alternative Approaches to Measurement. *Social Development Issues*, 21(2):11-21.

Farnsworth, K. 2006. Capital to the rescue? New labour's business solutions to old welfare problems. *Critical social policy*, 26(4):817-838.

Featherstone, B. 2006. Why Gender Matters in Child Welfare and Protection. *Critical Social Policy*, 26(87):294-314.

Fedderke, J.W., De Kadt, R.H.J. & Luiz, J.M. 2001. Indicators of Political Liberty, Property Rights, and Political Instability in South Africa: 1935-1997. *International Review of Law and Economics*, 21(1):103-134.

Fenton, L. 2004. Preventing HIV/AIDS through Poverty Reduction: The Only Sustainable Solution. *The Lancet*, 364(9440):1186-1187.

Fenyess, T. & Campbell, W. 2003. Debt Relief Initiatives and Poverty Alleviation: Lessons From Africa – 22nd Southern African Universities Social Science Conference. *Development Southern Africa*; 20(4):546-549.

Fernandez, R.M. & Mors, M.L. 2008. Competing for Jobs: Labour Queues and Gender Sorting in the Hiring Process. *International Social Science Review*, 83(1-2):1061-1080.

Ferreira, M. 2006. The Differential Impact of Social Pension Income on Three South African Ethnic Groups. *Ageing and Society*, 26(2006):337-351.

Fitzgerald, P., McLennan, A. & Munslow, B. 1999. *Managing Sustainable Development in South Africa*. 2nd ed. South Africa: Oxford University Press.

Fong, C. 2001. Social Preferences, Self-Interest, and the Demand for Retribution. *Journal of Public Economics*, 82(2):225-246.

Food For Africa. *Malnutrition in Africa*. [O]. Available:

<http://www.food4africa.org.za>

Accessed on 7/25/06

Fouché, C.B. & De Vos, A.S. 2002. Quantitative Research Designs. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. 2002. Introduction to the Research Process. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass*

Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. 2005. In-depth review of literature. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 3rd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Fouché, C.B. 2002a. Collective Case Studies. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Fouché, C.B. 2002b. Problem Formulation. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Fouché, C.B. 2002c. Research Strategies. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Fouché, C.B., & De Vos, A.S. 2002. Quantitative Research Designs. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Frost, L. & Hoggett, P. 2008. Human Agency and Social Suffering. *Critical Social Policy*, 28(4):438-465.

Fry, I. 2007. The "Second" Economy as Intellectual Sleight of Hand. *Africanus*, 37(2):175-190.

Fuentes, M. 2008. Biological Conservation and Global Poverty. *Wiley InterScience*, 40(2):139-140.

Gakidou, E., Oza, S., Vidal Fuertes, C., Li, A.Y., Lee, D.K., Sousa, A., Hogan, M.C., Van der Hoon, S. & Ezzati, M. 2007. Improving Child Survival Through Environmental and Nutritional Interventions. The Importance of Targeting Interventions towards the Poor. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 298(16):876-1887.

Galbraith, J.K. 2000. *Building a World Community. Globalization and the Common Good*. Denmar: Fihl-Jensen Grafisk Produktin.

Ghai, D. 2000. *Renewing Social and Economic Progress in Africa*. New York: St Martin's Press.

Gilbert, L. & Walker, L. 2002. Trading the Path of Least Resistance: HIV/AIDS and Social Inequalities – A South African Case Study. *Social Science and Medicine*, 54(7):1093-1110.

Gildenhuys, J.S.H., Knipe, A. 2000. *The Organisation of Government: An Introduction*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Goldson, B. 2002. "Children in Need" or "Young Offenders?" Hardening Ideology, Organizational Change and New Challenges for Social Work with Children. *Child and Family Social Work*, 5(3):255-265.

Goodley, D. 2001. Pedagogies: Matters of Social Exclusion. *Disability & Society*, 16(2):207-231.

Goodvin, R., Gustavo, C. & Torquati, J. 2006. The Role of Child Emotional Responsiveness & Material Negative Emotion Expression in Children's Coping Strategy Use. *Social Development*, 15(4):591-609.

Govender, S. & Grabe, R.P. 2010. National Health Insurance in South Africa. *S.A. Orthopedic Journal*, 9(3):1-2.

Graziano, A. & Raulin, M.L. 2000. *Research Methods – A Process of Enquiry*. USA: Allyn and Bacon.

Gray, M. 2006. The Progress of Social Development in South Africa. *International Journal of Social Welfare*, 15(53-64).

Greef, M. 2002a. Information Collection: Interviewing. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Gummesson, E. 2000. *Quality Methods in Management Research*. California: Sage Publications.

Haines, A. & Cassels, A. 2004. Can the Millennium Goals be Attained? *BMJ Medical Journal*, 329(7462):394-397.

Hansen, J.W. 2002. Realizing the Potential Benefits of Climate Prediction to Agriculture: Issues, Approaches, Challenges. *Science Direct*, 74(3):309-330.

Heilleiner, G. 2001. *Poverty Reduction in Small Countries*. Department of Economics and Munk Centre for International Studies, University of Toronto.

[O]. Available:

<http://www.caribank.org/titanweb/cdb/webcms.msf/aidsdoc/>

Accessed on 12/02/09

Heineman, R.A., Bluhm, W.T., Peterson, S.A. & Kearny, E.N. 1997. *The World of the Policy Analyst. Rationality, Values, and Policitics*. New Jersey: Chatham House Publishers.

Hendriks, S. 2005. Interview with Dr Hendriks, Co-ordinator Food and Security Programme, School of Agricultural Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg Campus.

10 August. Pretoria. {Transcript}.

Henney, S., Gonzalez-Block, M.A., Buxton, M.J. & Kogan, M. 2003. The Utilization of Health Research in Policy Making: Concepts, Examples and Methods of Assessment. *Health Research Policy and Systems*, 1(2):39-53.

Hill, R.P., Felice, W.F. & Ainscough, T. 2007. International Human Rights and Consumer Quality of Life: An Ethical Perspective. *Journal of Macro-Marketing*, 27(4):370-379.

Holliday, A. 2002. *Doing and Writing Qualitative Research*. London: Sage Publishers.

Homfeldt, H.G; Reutlinger, C. 2009. Social Development. *Social Development-Social Work and Society*, 6:1-5

Hudson, B. 2000. Research Highlights in Social Work: The Changing Role of Social Care. London: Kessica Kingsly Publishers.

Hudson, V.M. 2005. Foreign Policy Analysis: Actor-Specific Theory and the Ground of International Relations. *Foreign Policy Analysis*, 1(1):1-30.

Human Sciences Research Council Report. 2006. [O]. Available:

<http://www.hsrcpress.ac.za>

Accessed on 23/05/06

Hunt, D.R. 2007. The Politics of Inequality: South Africa Then and Now. *African Studies Quarterly*, 9(4):1-5.

IDASA Annual Report. 2006. *Budgetary Perspectives on Shared Growth Policy Interventions in South Africa*. [O]. Available:

<http://www.idasa.org.za/incBottom.asp>

Accessed on 2007/03/09.

Interafrica Group NGO Networking Service. [O]. Available:

<http://www.oerafrica.org/sharedfiles/i36160/3547/33527/research>

Accessed on 19/04/09

International Association of Schools of Social Work/International Federation of Social Workers Report. 2001.

International Insurance and Healthcare Industry News. 2010. South African Health Insurance Scheme commences in 2012. [O]. Available:

<http://www.globalsurance.com/blog/south-africa-national-health-insurance-commences-in-2012>

Accessed: 20/06/11

International Labour Office Report. 1995. Geneva Publication: Geneva, Switzerland.

International Labour Organization n.d. Report – Africa: *Insecurities compound poverty*. [O]. Available:

http://www.ilo.org/public/English/bureau/inf/features/o5/afr_insecurity.htm

Accessed on 25/06/06

Jain, A. 1998. Do Population Policies Matter? Fertility and Politics in Egypt, India, Kenya and Mexico. New York: Population Council.

Jain, A. 2002. Do Population Policies Matter? Fertility and Politics in Egypt, India, Kenya and Mexico. *Indian Sociology*, 36(1-2):432-434.

Jansson, S. 1994. *Social Policy: From Theory to Policy Practice*. 2nd ed. U.S.A: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

Johnson, C.M., Duerst-Lahti, G. & Norton, N.H. 2007. *Creating Gender – The Sexual Politics of Welfare Policy*. Colorado: Lynn Rienner Publishers.

Kalil, A. & Ziol-Guest, K.M. 2008. Parent's Employment Circumstances and Children's Academic Progress. *Social Science Research*, 37(2):500-515.

Karl, M. 1995. *Women and Empowerment. Participation and Decision Making*. London and New Jersey: Zed Books.

Kaufmann, D., Kraay, A. & Mastruzzi, M. 2008. Governance Matters V11: Aggregate and Individual Governance Indicators, 1996-2007. World Bank Policy Research Paper No. 4654, The World Bank Development Research Group, and Macro-Economics and Growth Team. [O]. Available:

<http://econ.worldbank.org/WEBSITE/EXTERNAL/EXRESEARCH/ETSRES/EXTWD>

Accessed on 14/05/09

Kayizzi-Mugerwa, S. 2003. *Reforming Africa's Institutions. Ownership, Incentives, and Capabilities*. New York: United Nations University Press.

Kehler, J. 2008. Women and Poverty: The South African Experience. *Journal of International Women's Studies*, 3(1):13-35.

King-Dejardin, A. & Berar-Awad, A. 2003. *Gender, Poverty and Employment: Turning the Capabilities into Entitlements*. Italy: Valeria Morrar, International Training Centre.

Klasen, S., & Woolard, J. 2008. Surviving Unemployment without State Support: Unemployment and Household Formation in South Africa. *Journal of African Economics*, 18(1):1-51.

Klosko, G. 2005. *Political Obligations*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Koontz, T.M. 2008. We Finished the Plan, so now what? Impacts of Collaborative Stakeholder Partnership on Land Use Policy. *Policy Studies Journal*, 33 3):459-481.

Krueger, R.A. 1998. Focus groups: A Practical Guide for Applied Research. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 3rd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Lalwani, C. & Gardner, B. 2004. Combining Quantitative and Qualitative Methodologies in Logistics Research. *International Journal of Physical Distribution and Logistics Management*, 34(7):565-578.

Leibbrand, M; Levinsohn, J. A; McCrary, J. 2010. Incomes in South Africa after the Fall of Apartheid. *Journal of Globalization and Development*, 1(1):1-36.

Le Roux, M.M., Boonzaaier, M.I., Bredell, A.M., Cronje, J.I., Mitchell, W.A., Van Rooyen, I.J.J. & Blignaut, D. 2001. *New Dictionary of Social Work*. Parow, Cape Town: CTP Book Printers.

Lewis, J.M. 2003. Bureaucracy, Network, or Enterprise? Comparing Models of Governance in Australia, Britain, the Netherlands and New Zealand. *Public Administration Review*, 63(2):131-140.

Ljubotina, O.D. & Ljubotina, D. 2007. Attributions of Poverty Among Social Work and Non-social Work Students. *Croatian Medical Journal*, 48(5):741-749.

Lodge, D.M. 2003. Non-indigenous Species: Ecological Explanation, Environmental Ethics & Public Policy. *Conservation Biology*, 17(1):31-37.

Loewenberg, M., Dolgoff, R. & Harrington, D. 2000. *Ethical Decisions for Social Work Practice*. Itasca, Illinois: Peacock Publishers.

Lombard, A. 2008. The Implementation of the White Paper for Social Welfare: A Ten-Year Review. *The social work practitioner-researcher*, 20(2):154-168.

London, L. & Bailie, R. 2001. Challenges for Improving Surveillance for Pesticide Poisoning: Policy Implications for Developing Countries. *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 30(3):569-570.

Love, D., Twomlow, S., Mupangwas, W., Van der Zaag, P. & Gumbo, B. 2006. Implementing the Millennium Development Food Security Goals - Challenges of the Southern African Context. *Science Direct*, 31(15-16):731-737.

Lowe, R.L. 1999. The Professionalization of Poverty. Social Work and the Poor in the Twentieth Century. New York: P. Nelson Reid, Walter de Gruyter Inc.

Luiz, J. 2007. The Battle for Social and Economic Policy. *Discourse/Diskoers*, 35(2):1-10.

Lund, F. 2002. Social Security and the Changing Labour Market: Access for Non-Standard and Informal Workers in South Africa. *Journal of African Studies*, 28(2):177-206.

Maisel, J.L. 2006. Toward Inclusive Housing and Neighborhood Design: A Look at Visitability. *Journal of the Community Development Society*, 37(3):1-10.

Makiwane, M. & Kwizera, S.A. 2006. An Investigation of Quality of Life of the Elderly in South Africa, with Specific Reference to Mpumalanga Province. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, 1(3-4):297-313.

Manhein, L.M., Song, J., Lyons, J.S. & Chang, R.C. 2005. Incidence of Disability Among Pre-retirement Adults: The Impact of Depression. *American journal of public health*, 95(11):1-53.

Manjengwa, J. 2006. Natural Resource Management and Land Reform in Southern Africa. Harare: University of Zimbabwe Publication.

Mapadimeng, M.S. 2007. Ubuntu/Botho, the Workplace and Two Economies. *Africanus*, 37(2):257-271.

Marczak, M. & Sewell, M. 2007. *Using Focus Groups for Evaluation*. [O]. Available: <http://ag.arizona.edu/fcs/cybernet/cyfar/focus.htm>

Accessed on 17/05/07

Martin, J. & Roberts, C. 2007. Putting Women on the Research Agenda: The 1980 Women and Employment Survey. *Journal of the Academy of Social Sciences*, 1(2):129-148.

- Martins, J.H. 2007. Household Budgets as a Social Indicator of Poverty and Inequality in South Africa. *Social Indicators*, 81, 203-219.
- May, J. 1997. *Poverty and Inequality in South Africa: Meeting the Challenge*. Cape Town, South Africa: David Philip Publishers.
- May, T. 2001. *Social Research*. 3rd ed. London: Open University Press.
- McCoy, S. 2001. The African Paradox: The Tribalist Implications of the Colonial Paradox. *Drake Undergraduate Social Science Journal*, 00:28:22-0400 (EDT):2-18.
- McDonald, S., Erickson, L.D., Kirkpatrick, J. & Elder, G.H. 2007. Informal Mentoring and Young Adult Employment. *Social Science Research*, 36(4):1328-1347.
- McEvan, C. 2005. New Spaces of Citizenship? Rethinking Gendered Participation and Empowerment in South Africa. *Science Direct*, 24(8):969-991.
- McGrew, A. 2000. *Governing Globalization: Power, Authority and Global Governance*. United Kingdom: Polity Press.
- Mcintyre, D; Goudge, J; Harris, B; Nxumalo, N; Khosi, N.M. 2009. Prerequisites for National Health Insurance in South Africa: Results of a National Household Survey for National Health Insurance in South Africa. *SAMJ: South African Medical Journal*, 99(10):1-7.
- MDM IDP Review 2008-2009 [O]. Available:
<http://www.metsweding.com/documents/MDM%25201>
Accessed on 9/11/10
- Michaelman, F.I. 2008. The Constitution, Social Rights and Liberal Political Justification. *Institutional Journal of Constitutional Law*, 1(1):13-34.
- Minot, N. & Daniels, L. 2005. Impact of Global Cotton Markets on Rural Poverty in Benin. *Agricultural Economics*, 33(3):453-466.
- Moatti, J.P., Coriat, B., Souteyrand, Y., Barnett, T., Dumoulin, J. & Flori, Y.A. 2003. *Economics of Aids and Access to HIV/AIDS Care in Developing Countries. Issues and Challenges*. Paris: Le Publieur.

- Mohr, L.B. 1992. *Impact Analysis for Program Evaluation*. London, New Delhi: SAGE Publications.
- Moller, V. & Devey, R. 2003. Trends in Living Conditions and Satisfaction Among Poorer Older South Africans: Objective and Subjective Indicators of Quality of Life in the October Household Survey. *Development Southern Africa*, 20(4):458-476.
- Morel, C., Lauer, J.A. & Evans, D.B. 2005. Cost Effectiveness Analysis of Strategies to Combat Malaria in Developing Countries. *BMJ Medical Journals*, (331):7528.
- Morgan, D.L. 1997. Focus Groups as Qualitative Research. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 3rd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Mosher, J.S. & Trubek, D.M. 2003. Alternative Approaches to Governance in the EU: EU Social Policy and European Employment. *Journal of Common Market Studies*, 41(1):63-88.
- Mubangizi, J.D. & Mubangizi, B.C. 2005. Poverty, Human Rights Law and Socio-Economic Realities in South Africa. *Development Southern Africa*, 22(2):276-289.
- Mugisha, F., Kouyate, B., Gbangou, A. & Sauerborn, R. 2002. Examining Out-of-Pocket Expenditure on Health Care in Nouna, Burkina Faso. *Tropical Medicine and International Health*, 7(2):187-190.
- Musik, K., Seltzer, A. & Schwartz, C.R. 2008. Neighborhood Norms and Substance Use Among Teens. *Social Science Research*, 37(1):138-155.
- Mutandiva, E. & Gadzirayi, C.T. 2007. Comparative Assessment of Indigenous Methods of Sweet Potato Preservation among Smallholder Farmers: Case of Grass Ash and Soil-based Approaches in Zimbabwe. *African Studies Quarterly*, 9(3):1-20.
- Nagel, S.S. 1990. *Policy Theory and Policy Evaluation*. USA: Greenwood Press.
- Nagel, S.S. 1998. *Research in Public Policy Analysis and Management – Super-Optimizing Policy Analysis*. London: Jai Press Incl.

Nel, E.L. & Rogerson, C.M. 2005. Pro-Poor Local Economic Development in South Africa's Cities: Policy and Practice. *Africa Insight*, 35(4):15-20.

Neuman, W.L. 2000. *Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. USA: Allyn and Bacon.

O'Riordan, T., Nicholson-Cole, S. & Milligen, J. 2008. Designing Sustainable Coastal Futures. *Journal of the Academy of Social Science*, 3(2):145-157.

O'Faircheallaigh, C. 2002. A New Approach to Policy Evaluation. Mining and Indigenous People. England: Ashgate Publishing.

O'Day, B. 2006. Centres for Independent Living. *Journal of the Community Development Society*, 4(9):1-8.

Oldewage-Theron, W.H. & Slabbert, T.J.C. 2008. Impact of Food and Nutrition Interventions on Poverty in an Informal Settlement in the Vaal Region of South Africa. *Cambridge Journals*, 67(01):3-28.

Olowu, D. & Sako, S. 2002. Better Governance and Public Policy. Capacity Building and Democratic Renewal. U.S.A: Thomson-Shore.

Oosthuizen, M. 2006. Employment Dynamics in the Western Cape. *Tips Trade and Industry Monitor*, (37):37-71.

Orphanides, A. 2003. Historical Monetary Policy Analysis and the Taylor Rule. *Journal of Monetary Economics*, 50(5):983-1022.

Orr, W. 2002. A View from the Margin. *Wiley Interscience*, 16(2):288-290.

Palumbo, J.D. & Calista, D.J. 1990. *Implementation and the Policy Process. Opening up the Black Box*. U.S.A: Greenwood Press.

Patel, L. & Hochfeld, T. 2008. Indicators, barriers and strategies to accelerate the pace of change to developmental welfare in South Africa. *The Social Work Practitioner-Researcher*, 20(2):192-209.

Patterson, A. 2005. Interview with Dr Patterson, Chief Research Specialist, Human Resource Development Research Programme. Human Sciences Research Council.

17 June. Pretoria. {Transcript}.

Pelto, G.H. 2000. Improving Complementary Feeding Practices and Non-responsive Parenting as a Primary Component of Interventions to Prevent Malnutrition in Infants and Early Childhood. *Pediatrics in Review*, 106(5):1300.

Pharoah, R. 2005. Aids, Orphans and Crime. *Crime Quarterly*, (13):1-41.

Pillay, D. 2007. The Stunted Growth of South Africa's Developmental State Discourse. *Africanus*, 37 2):198-215.

Pole, R. & Lampard, R. 2002. Practical Social Investigation. Quantitative and Qualitative Methods in Social Research. England: Pearson Education Ltd.

Potter, S. & Subrahmanian, R. 1998. Information Needs and Policy Change. In Thomas, A., Chattaway, J., Wuyts, M. (Eds.). *Finding out Fast – Investigative Skills for Policy Development*. London: Sage Publications

Preston, S.H. 2007. The Changing Relation between Mortality and the Level of Economic Development. *International Journal of Epidemiology*, (36):484-490.

Rahaman, M.M. & Varis, O. 2005. Integrated Water Resource Management: Prospects and Future Challenges, *Journal for Sustainable Solutions*, (4):15-21.

Rahaman, M.M. & Varis, O. 2005. Integrated water resource management: Evolution, prospects and future challenges. *Sustainability: Science, practice and policy*, 1(1):15-21.

Raphael, D. & Bryant, T. 2002. The Limitations of Population Health as a Model for a New Public Health. *Health Promotion International*, 17(2):189-196.

Rau, B. 2002. *Combating Child Labour and HIV/AIDS in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Geneva, Switzerland: International Labour Organization Press.

Ravallion, M., Chen, S. & Sangraula, P. 2008. New Evidence on the Urbanization of Global Poverty. *Population and Development Review*, 33(4):667-701.

Reddy, P.S., Naidoo, P. & Pillay, P. 2005. Local Democracy and Developmental Local Government in South Africa beyond the First Decade: Quo Vadis? *Africanis*, 35(2):40-52.

Rich, A. 2004. Think Tanks, Public Policy, and the Politics of Expertise. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Richardson, H. 2007. Patrolling the Resource Transfer Frontier: Economic Rights and the South African Constitution Courts Contribution to Justice. *African Studies Quarterly*, 9(4):1-4.

Rieger, E. & Leibfried, S. 2003. *Limits to Globalization*. United Kingdom: Polity Press.

Rivera, J.A., Monterrubio, E., Gutiérrez, J.P. & González-Cossio, T. 2005. Poverty and Nutrition Relationships: Lessons for Nutrition Policy and Programmes. *Instituto Nacional de Salud Publica, SAJCN*, 18(2):168-171.

Roberts, S. 2006. Smart Industries. The Importance of Technology and R&D for Industry Performance. *TIPS trade and Industry Monitor*, (37):77.

Robertson, G.P., Broome, J.C., Chornesky, E.A., Frankensberger, J.R., Johnson, P., Lipson, M., Miranowski, J.A., Owens, E.D., Pimental, D. & Thrupp, L.A. 2004. Rethinking the Vision for Environmental Research in US Agriculture. *BioScience*, 54(1):61-65.

Rogerson, C. 2003. Towards "Pro-Poor" Urban Development in South Africa: The Case of Urban Agriculture. *Acta Academica Supplementum*, 1, 130-158.

Rogerson, C.M. 1996. Urban Poverty and the Informal Economy in South Africa's Economic Heartland. *International Institute for Environment and Development*, 8(167):1-13.

Rosegrant, W. & Cline, S.A. 2003. Global Food Security. *Science Magazine*, 302(5652):1917-1919.

Rosnow, R.L. & Rosenthal, R. 1999. *Beginning Behavioural Research. A Conceptual Primer*. 3rd ed. U.S.A: Prentice Hall.

- Russel, S. 2004. The Economic Burden of Illness for Households in Developing Countries: A Review of Studies Focusing on Malaria, Tuberculosis and Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency. *Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, 71(2):147-155.
- Sacks, J. 2008. The End of Poverty: Economic Possibilities for Our Time. *European Journal of Dental Education*, 12(1):17-21.
- Sampson, M; Lee, U; Ndlebe, A; MacQuene, K; Van Niekerk, I; Gandhi, V; Harigaya, T; Abrahams, C. 2002. The Social and Economic Impact of South Africa's Social Security System. *South African Journal of Economics*, 70(7):1-27.
- Sapir, A. 2006. Globalization and the reform of European Social Models. *Journal of Common Market Studies*, 44(2):369-390.
- Scanlon, C. & Adlam, J. 2008. Refusal, Social Exclusion and the Cycle of Rejection. *Critical Social Policy*, 28(4):529-545.
- Schenck, R. & Louw, H. 2008. Conceptual Research on the Term Facilitation: Reducing an Elephant to Chewable Chunks. *Social work/Maatskaplike werk*, 44(4):369-378.
- Schurink, W.J., Schurink, E.M. & Poggenpoel, M. 1998. Focus Group Interviewing. Audio Visual Methodology in Quantitative Research. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Seekins, T. 2006. Disability and Community Development. *Journal of the Community Development Society*, 37(3):1-4.
- Seipel, M.O. 2003. Global Poverty no Longer an Untouchable Problem. *International Social Work*, 46(2):191-206.
- Selsky, J.W. 2005. Cross Sector Partnerships to Address Social Issues: Challenges to Theory and Practice. *Journal of Management*, 31(6):849-873.
- Serageldin, J. 2002. World Poverty: The Challenge for Science. *Science Magazine*, 296(5565):54-58.

- Setai, B. 1998. *The Making of Poverty in South Africa*. Mount Pleasant, Harare, Zimbabwe: Southern African Printing and Publishing House Ltd.
- Seth, A., Kalichman, S.C., Simbayi, L.C., Kagee, A., Toefy, Y., Jooste, S., Cain, D. & Cherry, C. 2005. Associations of Poverty, Substance use and HIV Transmissions Risk Behaviours in three South African Communities. *Social Science and Medicine*, 62(7):1641-1649.
- Shiffman, R. 2005-2006. New Orleans & New York: Planned Shrinkage vs. the Self-Regeneration of Neighbourhoods. *Social Policy*, 36(2):14-19.
- Spira, M. & Wall, J. 2006. Issues in Multigenerational Families: Adolescents' Perceptions of Grandparents' Declining Health. *Child and Adolescent Social Work Journal*, 23(4):390-406.
- Stasavage, D. 2005. Democracy and Education Spending in Africa. *American Journal of Political Science*, 49(2):343-358.
- Stavrou, A. 2001. The Role of Communication in Key National, Regional, Provincial and Local Government Development. *The Southern African Journal of Information and Communication*, 1(1):1-30.
- Steady, F.C. 1993. *Women and Children First. Environment, Poverty and Sustainable Development*. Vermont, U.S.A: Schenkman Publishers.
- Steward, F. 2002. Root Causes of Violent Conflict in Developing Countries. *BMJ Medical Publication*, 2002(324):342-345.
- Stilwel, B., Diallo, K., Zurn, P., Dal Poz, M.R., Adams, O. & Buchan, J. 2003. Developing Evidence-based Ethical Policies on the Migration of Health Workers: Conceptual and Practical Challenges. *Human Resources for Health*, 1(8):12-29.
- Strydom, H. 2008. The Social Work Research Modules from a Social Welfare Perspective. *Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk*, 44(4):381-393.
- Strydom, H. 2002a. Ethical Aspects of Research in the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Strydom, H. 2002b. The Pilot Study. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Strydom, H. & Delport, C.S.L. 2002. Sampling and Pilot Study in Qualitative Research. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Strydom, H. & Venter, L. 2002. Sampling and Sampling Methods. In De Vos, A.S. (Ed.), Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. *Research at Grass Roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Swift, J., Taal, H., Beck, T. & Heyer, J. 2006. Vulnerability, Coping and Policy. *Institute of Developmental Studies*, 37(4):33-40.

Takahashi, L.M. & Smutny, G. 2002. Collaborative Windows and Organizational Governance: Explaining the Formation and Demise of Social Service Partnerships. *Non-profit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 31(2):165-185.

The World Bank. 2005. Sustainable Development in a Dynamic World: Transforming Institutions, Growth and Equality of Life. [O]. Available:

<http://econ.worldbank.org/WEBSITE/EXTERNAL/EXTDEC/EXTRESEARCH/ETSR/EXTWDR2003/O>

Accessed on 6/05/09

Thirtle, C., Piesse, J. & Gouse, M. 2005. Agricultural Technology, Productivity and Employment: Policies for Poverty Reduction. *Agrekon*, 44(1):37-56.

Thomas, A., Chataway, J. & Wuyts, M. (Eds.) 1998. *Finding out Fast. Investigate Skills for Policy and Development*. London: Sage Publications.

UNESCO-EFA Global Monitoring Report 2006. [O]. Available:

<http://www.portal.unesco.org/education/en/ev.php-URL>

Accessed on 2007/03/09

Ungvarski, P.J. & Lfaskerud, J.H. 1999. *HIV/AIDS a Guide to Primary Care Management*. USA: WB Saunders Company.

United Nations Country Co-operation Framework Report 2002-2006.

[O]. Available:

<http://www.unfem.org/resources/listingbysection.php?WebSectionID=8>

Accessed on 20/10/06

United Nations Millennium Development Goals Report 2006. [O]. Available:

<http://www.mfdr.org/Marketplace/Posters/final/07.pdf>.

Accessed on 7/01/09

United Nations Progress Report. 2004-2005. Millennium Development Goals to Eradicate Extreme Poverty and Hunger. [O]. Available:

<http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/.htm>

Accessed on 18/03/05

United Nations Report on the First Decade for the Eradication of Poverty (1997-2006). Division for Social Policy and Development. [O]. Available:

http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/social/poverty/ist_decade.html

Accessed on 9/03/09

United Kingdom Department for International Development. *Country Profiles: Africa*.

[O]. Available:

<http://www.dfid.gov.uk/countries/africa/southernafrika.asp>

Accessed on 20/07/06

Van Dyk, A. 2001. *HIV/AIDS Care and Counselling. A Multidisciplinary Approach*. Cape Town: CTP Book Printers.

Van der Berg, S; Burger, R; Burger R; Louw, M; Yu, D. 2005. Trends in Poverty and Inequality Since the Political Transition. Working Paper 01/2005. [O]. Available:

<http://www.tips.org.za/files/782.pdf>

Accessed: 21/06/11

Van Niekerk, D., Van der Walt, G. & Jonker, A. 2002. *Governance, Politics, and Policy in SA*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Vandersluis, O. & Yeros, P. 2000. *Poverty in World Politics*. Great Britain: MacMillan Press.

Vink, N. & Kirsten, J. 2001. Policy Successes and Policy Failures in Agriculture and Land Reform in South Africa in the 1990s. *South African Journal of Economic History*, 21(18):96-117.

Wacquant, L.J.D. 2007. Territorial Stigmatization in the Age of Advanced Marginality. *Thesis Eleven*, 91(1):66-77.

Wagenaar C. & Babbie, E. 1999. *Practicing Social Research. Guided Activities to Accompany the Practice of Social Research*. USA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Walters, L.C. & Aydelotte, J. 2000. Putting More Public in Policy Analysis. *Public Administration Review*, 60(4):349-359.

Webster, E. & Von Holdt, K. 2005. *Beyond The Apartheid Workplace – Studies in Transition*. Scottsville, South Africa: University of KwaZulu-Natal Press.

White Paper for Social Welfare. 1997. (Volume 386 No. 18166):18-23. Republic of South Africa Government Gazette: Government Printer, Pretoria, South Africa.

Wissink, F.C. 2000. *Improving Public Policy*. Pretoria, South Africa: Van Schaik Publishers.

Wolf, P. 2008. Expanding Planning's Public Sphere. *Journal of Education and Research*, 28(2):180-195.

Wood, E.J. 2000. *Forging Democracy From Below. Insurgent Transitions in South Africa and El Salvador*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.

World Bank Development Report 2003. Sustainable Development in a Dynamic World: Transforming Institutions, Growth, and Quality of Life. [O]. Available: <http://econ.worldbank.org/WBSITE/External/extdec/extresearch/extwdrs/extwdr2003/0>
Accessed on 6/04/09

World Bank Development 2007 Indicators. [O]. Available:

<http://www.Forum-urban-futures.net/files.statistics>

Accessed on 9/04/09

World Bank Development Indicators 2008. [O]. Available:

<http://www.worldbank.org/WBsite/EXTERNAL/DATASTATISTICS/O>

Accessed on 9/04/09

World Health Organization (WHO). 1999. *Management of Severe Malnutrition: A Manual for Physicians and Other Related Health Workers*. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization Publishers.

Yebo, R. & Ferguson, C. 2000. *Realizing Human Rights for Poor People*. London: DFID Publications.

Zalk, N. 2006. The Untold Story of Global Industrialization. *Tips Trade and Industry Monitor*, (37):75.

Zedlewski, S.R. & Anderson, D.W. 2002. Before and After Reform - How have Families on Welfare Changed. *Urban Institute – Non-Partisan Economic and Policy Research*, 6:1-9.

Zedlewski, P., Holcomb, P.A. & Loprest, J. 2007. Hard-to-employ Parents - A Review of their Characteristics and the Programmes Designed to serve their Needs. *Urban Institute*, 1-5 (827):2-23.

ANNEXURE A: INFORMED CONSENT MANAGERS



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Department of Social Work and Criminology

Faculty of Humanities

Telephone: (012) 420 2325

Fax number: (012) 420 2093

INFORMED CONSENT

1. NAME OF RESEARCHER

Mrs V Pillay

13 Mozart Street

Vorna Valley

Midrand

Tel: 011-4661186

2. NAME OF INSTITUTION

Department of Social Work and Criminology

University of Pretoria

Pretoria 0002

Contact person:

Dr C.E. Prinsloo

Tel: 012-4202601

3. RESEARCH TITLE

Evaluation of the impact of the Integrated Food and Nutrition Programme in Kungwini.

4. PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

The purpose of the research is to evaluate the impact of the Integrated Food and Nutrition Programme in Kungwini, to determine whether this programme was beneficial to poor households.

5. ACTIVITIES INVOLVED IN THE RESEARCH STUDY

The research activities include focus group discussions and gathering information through a questionnaire. The focus group discussions will be approximately two hours long.

6. RISKS INVOLVED IN THE RESEARCH STUDY

The focus group discussions will be conducted in a safe secure environment. Any information provided by you for the focus group discussions and the questionnaire will be treated in strict confidence. You will not be required to furnish your personal particulars.

7. BENEFITS OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

The recommendations of the research will enable relevant Departments to address poverty service delivery effectively.

8. RIGHTS OF THE PARTICIPANTS

Your participation in the research is on a voluntary basis. You may, if you wish to, withdraw at any time that you prefer. Upon your withdrawal, the information you provided for the research will be destroyed.

9. CONFIDENTIALITY

All information gathered for the research will be treated in strict confidence. The only person who will have access to the information will be the researcher. The research data will be stored for fifteen years in a secure place to ensure information confidentiality and for future research purposes.

10. CONTACT DETAILS REGARDING THE RESEARCH

The researcher is available for any queries regarding this research. Her contact details are as follows:

Mrs V Pillay	PO Box 3287
13 Mozart Street	Halfway House
Vorna Valley	Midrand
Midrand	1685

Tel: 011-4661185

Cell: 0726649101

11. AGREEMENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEARCH STUDY

This document was signed at _____ on the
_____ day of _____ 2009.

Signature: _____

Your participation in the research is highly appreciated.

Kind regards

Mrs V Pillay

ANNEXURE B: INFORMED CONSENT MINORS



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Department of Social Work and Criminology

Faculty of Humanities

Telephone: (012) 420 2325

Fax number: (012) 420 2093

INFORMED CONSENT

(This means that you are freely giving your permission to take part in the research study).

1. NAME OF RESEARCHER

(This is the person who is the leader of the research study and the place where she lives).

Mrs V Pillay

13 Mozart Street

Vorna Valley, Midrand

Tel: 011-4661186

2. NAME OF the UNIVERSITY

(This is the name of the university where the researcher is doing her research)

Department of Social Work and Criminology

University of Pretoria

Pretoria 0002

Contact person:

Dr C.E. Prinsloo

Tel: 012-420-2601

3. RESEARCH TITLE

(This is the name of the research study).

Evaluation of the impact of the Integrated Food and Nutrition Programme in Kungwini.

(This means that the researcher will gather information to see in what way the Integrated Food and Nutrition Programme benefited poor households in Kungwini).

4. PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

(This explains the reasons for the research study).

The main reason for doing the research is to inform the Gauteng Department of Social Development, which was responsible for the Integrated Food and Nutrition Programme, what the benefits were to poor families in Kungwini.

5. WHAT IS INVOLVED IN THE RESEARCH STUDY

(This explains the way in which you will be involved in the research study).

The research study will gather information in 3 ways:

- Interviews with eight groups of 10 people in each group, who are from households in Kungwini.
- Interview with family members from 4 households in Kungwini, including the children who are under 18 years. This form is for the children to sign, to give their permission for the researcher to obtain information from them.
- Through a set of questions for adults to answer. These adults were responsible for the Integrated Food and Nutrition Programme in Kungwini.

6. RISKS INVOLVED IN THE RESEARCH STUDY

(This indicates whether you will be harmed in any way by taking part in the research study).

You will be involved in the household information-gathering process. This part of the research study will take place in your own home. You are therefore in a safe place with your family present. The information that you give will be kept in a safe place for a period of fifteen years. You will not be identified through what you share. Your name will not be used in the research study.

7. BENEFITS OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

(This indicates what the good things are that will come out of this research study).

The Gauteng Department of Social Development will receive the recommendations of this research to consider improving poverty alleviation services in Kungwini.

8. WHAT ARE MY RIGHTS?

(This means that you are not being forced to give information).

You will take part in the research study freely. This means that you may, if you wish, walk away from the research process at any time. Should you prefer to walk away the

information that you may have given will be destroyed and not be used. In this manner, your rights to freely take part in the research study are protected.

9. CONFIDENTIALITY

(This means that your identity and the information that you give will be protected).

The information you give will not be available to any person who is not involved in the research study. The only persons who will look at the information that you give are the researcher and approved persons who will assist with the research. The information that you give cannot be traced to you as your name will not be used. The only time that your name will be used is when you sign this form to indicate that you are willing and not being forced to take part in the research study. The research information may be used again for future research purposes. Here again, the information that you gave as well as your identity will be protected. The research information will be stored in a safe place for a period of 15 years.

10. CONTACT DETAILS REGARDING THE RESEARCH

(This means that you have the researcher's details, should you need to contact her for any reason regarding the research).

Mrs V Pillay
13 Mozart Street
Vorna Valley
Midrand
1686
Tel: 011-4661185
Cell: 0726649101

11. AGREEMENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEARCH STUDY

(This means that you freely give your permission to participate in the research study. It also means that you are not being forced to give information against your will).

This document was signed at _____ on the

_____ day of _____ 2007.

SIGNATURE OF PARENT/GUARDIAN ON BEHALF OF A MINOR:

This document was signed at _____ on the

_____ day of _____ 2007.

Thank you for taking part in the research study.

Mrs V Pillay

Date:

ANNEXURE C: QUESTIONNAIRE

ANNEXURE D: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

- Question 1:** “How were you assisted to improve your household food needs?”
- Question 2:** “How were you assisted to establish food gardens?”
- Question 3:** “How were you assisted with skills development?”
- Question 4:** “How were you assisted to access child or pension grants?”
- Question 5:** “How were you assisted to form community organisations?”