CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

According to Patel (2008) the South African welfare model inherited from colonialism and apartheid was inequitable, discriminatory and relied on inappropriate and unsustainable methods of service delivery. Social policy was modelled on Western European institutional welfare for the white minority whilst a residual system of social welfare prevailed for Blacks. In 1994, when the ANC came into power one of its main objectives was to correct the inequalities instigated by the apartheid government through implementing the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) policy. Gray (2006) maintains that the RDP provided an important backdrop to the evolution of the developmental welfare system because its principles and ethos were central to the processes for transforming social welfare. So while welfare reform in many Western countries meant reduced government commitment to welfare, South Africa was carving new ground in developing an inclusive new welfare system based on the theory of social development (ibid).

The social development approach to social policy in South Africa was legitimised in the 1997 White paper for Social Welfare. Osei-Hwedie (2007) notes that social development ushered in an ideology that emphasized equality of all people, social justice, human rights, access to services, opportunity and resources and most of all a new and concerted drive towards poverty reduction. Much progress has been made in setting a new developmental policy agenda, legislation and institutional arrangements to change the character of social welfare in South Africa and the social security system has been overhauled and expanded to reduce mass poverty (Patel, 2008).

Social security remains one of the fundamental mechanisms for reduction of poverty, and there exist recorded accomplishments of the system. Samson (2009) adds that social cash transfers are emerging in many developing countries as a lead social protection initiative tackling poverty and vulnerability. Furthermore increasing evidence is suggesting that social cash transfers can contribute to pro-poor growth by providing an effective risk management tool, by supporting human capital development and by empowering poor households to lift themselves out of
poverty (ibid). In the South African context, social development is conceived of, first, as a pro-poor strategy promoting participation of the socially excluded in development activities to achieve social and economic justice, human rights, social solidarity and active citizenship (Patel, 2008). That is the correct implementation of social development in regard to social security could lead to sustainable development, where citizens are empowered.

Although there is a wide range of policies that can affect income distribution, the centre of the African National Congress (ANC) government’s fight against poverty has been income support through social grants (Makino & Chizuko, 2013). Social security through social grants in South Africa therefore came as a response to prevalent poverty and gross inequality evident in the country. The strategies to social security in South Africa include social insurance, social relief, private savings and social assistance or social grants. Woolard, Hartgen and Klasen (2010, p.3) maintain that social grants can provide transfers for the most vulnerable population groups, such as the elderly, the disabled, and children, while forms of social insurance such as unemployment benefit provide support to workers who lost their jobs. The study focused on social grants specifically on the CSG and DG.

According to Department of Social Development (DSD), South African Social Security Agency (SASSA) and United Nations Children’s Funds (UNICEF) (2012) the CSG is an important instrument of social protection in South Africa, reaching over 10 million South African children each month. It was introduced in 1998 after the racially discriminatory State Maintenance Grant was discarded and it is given to primary care givers of children between the ages of 0-18. It is the biggest social grant in SA in terms of beneficiaries. A study done by DSD, SASSA and UNICEF (2012) identified positive developmental impact of the CSG in promoting nutritional, educational and health outcomes. The study also revealed that adolescents receiving the CSG are more likely to have some positive educational outcomes, are somewhat less likely to experience child labour, and are significantly less likely to engage in behaviours that put their health and well-being at serious risk (ibid).

On the other hand, the Social Assistance Act (13 of 2004) defines a person with disability as someone who has attained the prescribed age and is, owing to his or her physical or mental
disability, unfit to obtain by virtue of anyservice, employment or profession the means needed to enable him or her to provide for his or her maintenance. The DG is therefore a grant given to people with disabilities of working age, who due to their disabilities cannot afford to work thus have no other economical means for living. Johannsmeier (2007) notes that the grant is not designed to compensate people for their disabilities per se, but rather to compensate them for the impact of their disability on earning potential.

South African social grant system is internationally highly acclaimed and regarded as the largest for a developing country and Kaseke (2010) agrees that South Africa has one of the most comprehensive social assistance systems in Southern Africa. With the number of beneficiaries increasing from 2.4 million in 1996/7 to over 16 million in 2013/14 grants have been very successful in not only providing homes with an income but also creating an environment where families are able to invest in human capital (National Treasury, 2013 in Mothiane, 2014, p.24). Van Driel (2009) adds that the social grants in South Africa make a difference in people’s lives and that they are a lifeline to recipients and their families, tottering on the brink of poverty.

Regardless of recorded successes of social grants in alleviating poverty by providing millions of household with an income, in 2013 at the Helen Joseph Memorial Lecture Patel said she believed that South Africa’s social assistance programme is becoming one of the most contested social policies in the post-apartheid society (Patel, 2013). This is because negative discourses continue to thrive about how social grants foster dependency on the state, create a culture of entitlement and a passive citizenry waiting for state hand-outs (ibid). Notwithstanding the fact that the social grants provided are targeted at people that are not expected to fully participate in the labour market, for example the children, the elderly and the PWDs.

Van Driel (2009) notes that social grants do not enable recipients to break the cycle of poverty, this makes the programme prone to critiques of unsustainability among others. For instance the South African Broadcasting Company (SABC) (2013) published that the former Governor of the Reserve Bank, Mr Tito Mboweni showed concern in the expansion of social grants, the increased age for CSG eligibility (0-18) previously (0-14) and declined age of the male recipients of SOAP from 65 to 60 years. He argued that the social grants programme was unsustainable and
therefore called for a total re-look at the country’s social security system. South Africa’s adoption of the social development model requires that social grants recipients be involved in economic activities but that is not the case as most of the recipients are unemployed, this limitation creates even more criticism in the provision of social security in South Africa among others.

Case and Deaton(1998) in Mutasa (2012, p. 3) observed that there is paucity of research in regard to the labour supply of DG recipients that specifically targets working age persons with disabilities. They attributed this to the lack of disability related data, but most importantly, the fact that the disincentive effect of disability cash transfers has long been assumed to be economically insignificant because of low take-up rates and high unemployment in the South Africa (ibid). However the country experienced a substantial increase in the take-up rate of DG recipients in the last decade following an expansion to include people infected with the HIV/AIDS.

In light of all the issues surrounding social grants, the researcher sought therefore to explore the validity of claims of a dependency culture in CSG and DG recipients in Bophelong\(^1\) and its informal settlements; if at all the system is sustainable including also the social development nature of the social grant as per the policy on social welfare. Van Driel (2009) notes that Bophelong which falls under the Emfuleni Local Municipality (ELM) remains a low income township even after apartheid, it is on this basis and others that it became an area of interest for this study.

1.2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The first democratic government of South Africa in 1994 inherited a legacy of challenges, which included among others, racially distorted development and imbalances in socioeconomic status

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\(^1\)Bophelong was built in 1950, as a dormitory township to house cheap black labour for the Iron & Steel Corporation (ISCOR), given the demands of industry, a white town sprang up nearby, called VanderbijlPark, housing white unskilled, semi-and skilled workers (Van Driel, 2009).
of its “Black” and "White”² citizens. In an effort to close the poverty gap introduced by the apartheid regime, the government through the interim constitution, sought to heal the divisions of the past and establish a society based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights (The constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). It therefore adopted a plethora of policies which ranged from the redistributive RDP in 1994, to the neoliberal Growth Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) in 1996, and the White Paper of Social Welfare in 1997.

Despite these reforms, 20 years since the transition to democracy, the adoption of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by the United Nations (2000) and the National Development Plan (NDP) (2012). President Jacob Zuma acknowledged that South Africa is still faced with poverty and underdevelopment challenges in his State of the Nation Address in February 2014 (Zuma, 2014). South Africa is also characterized by escalating numbers of grant recipients, despite the lack or little provision of grants for unemployed people of working age and limited cover on the social insurance pillar of social security (Noble, Ntshongwana & Surrender, 2008).

Additionally, Bhorat, Van der Westhuizen and Jacobs (2009, as cited by Makino & Chizuko, 2013, p.34) note the gini coefficient of South Africa in 1995 stood at 0.65 but there was a sharp increase in 2005 when it was 0.72. Furthermore, the Organisation for Economic Corporation and Development (OECD) (2013) records that South Africa’s gini coefficient is at around 0.70, making it one of the most unequal countries in the world. It is on these bases that the extent to which social development approach has been successful in enhancing people’s lives including the sustainability of social security was explored. Moreover the study also sought to answer questions about social security role in poverty alleviation whether it causes dependency and further widens inequality or provides a safety net for recipients to avoid falling into a deeper poverty trap.

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² During apartheid races were categorized and classified as Black, Coloured, Asian and White. For the purpose of this report, these categories are used in order to highlight privilege, disadvantage and demographic trends.
Although studies in social work and social development have examined the extent to which social welfare services have been valuable in reducing poverty, notwithstanding the constitutional right of social security, concerns and debates continue to emerge about dependency syndrome amongst social grant recipients. This study therefore explored the validity of these claims by probing grant recipients’ perceptions in regard to these claims. Moreover, existing studies like Potts (2012) have examined the degree to which social welfare recipients may be dependent on the state but failed to address how social security may have helped recipients circumvent sinking into further poverty. This study thus attempted to contribute to knowledge, the perceptions of recipients on the role of social security services in relation to persistent poverty in South Africa.

Recent studies about social security and dependency by Noble, Ntshongwana and Surrender (2008) aimed at obtaining evidence about whether social grants act as a disincentive to the unemployed from engaging in employment activities and as such fostering a dependency culture. They sought to explore the views of South African citizens about paid work, social grants system and the relationship between paid work and social grants. These researchers regrettably failed to address service provider’s role in empowering welfare recipients as a way to practically implement developmental social welfare as entrenched in the White Paper for Social Welfare 1997, which states “social welfare policies and programmes will be developed which will be targeted at poverty prevention, alleviation and reduction and the development of people's capacity to take charge of their own circumstances in a meaningful way” (White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997, p. 18). Thus, the study endeavoured to add to literature by recommending implementation strategies for empowering and providing opportunities to grant recipients. It is envisaged that the study will assist policy makers in the evaluation of claims of an existence of a dependency syndrome in social grants recipients. Research findings will also try to shed light on the various debates around welfare and workfare.
1.3 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

Social Security

The White Paper for Social Welfare (1997, p. 48) defines social security as “a wide variety of public and private measures that provide cash or in-kind benefits or both, never developing, or being exercised only at unacceptable social cost and such person being unable to avoid poverty and secondly, in order to maintain children”.

Social Development

Midgley (1995, p. 25) states that social development is “a process of planned social change designed to promote people’s welfare in conjunction with a comprehensive process of economic development”.

Dependency Syndrome

Dependency syndrome is also referred to as a “hand-out Mentality”. According to Harvey and Lind (2005, p. 9), dependency syndrome refers to “an attitude and belief that a group cannot solve its own problems without outside help”. Donors and governments that are sceptical about making firm, long-term commitments to social assistance programmes, often raise concerns about recipients of social transfers becoming permanently dependent on ‘hand-outs’ and losing any inclination to improve their circumstances (Regional Hunger and Vulnerability Programme (RHVP), 2010). For the purpose of this study dependency syndrome refers to a perceived culture of reliance or dependence on state for welfare services.

Social Welfare

Social welfare is a nation’s system of programs, benefits and services that help people meet those social, economic, education and health needs that are fundamental to the maintenance of society (Zastrow, 1995, p. 5). Patel (2005) notes that social welfare focuses on income protection, attaining autonomous livelihoods and minimum living standards and meeting the needs of populations at risks such as children, youth, women and families, the elderly and PWDs among other vulnerable groups.
Workfare

Workfare is an active linking of benefits to work requirements in order to make grant beneficiaries self-sufficient. In Norway it is referred to as work line and according to Kildal (1999) clients are obliged to accept the work or training programme offered by the authorities, or they run the risk of being denied the basic means for subsistence.

1.4 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.4.1 Main aim

The study seeks to explore the validity of claims of an alleged “dependency syndrome” among a group of “Black” South African social grant recipients.

1.4.2 Specific/secondary objectives

- To explore the perceived impact of social security on poverty alleviation among social grant recipients
- To elicit social grant recipients’ perceptions regarding grant dependency and economic support
- To explore the participation of grant recipients in economic activities
- To establish the availability of exit strategies for social grant recipients

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- What are the perceptions of social welfare recipients of the so-called “dependency syndrome”? 
- What is the perceived impact of social security on poverty alleviation social grant recipients? 
- Do the government and non-state actors provide economic opportunities for grant beneficiaries? 
- Are social grant recipients involved in economic activities?
1.6 OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study was qualitative in nature and utilized a case study approach. It was conducted in Bophelong and its informal settlements. A sample was drawn from the population of both CSG and DG recipients; eight CSG recipients and 10 DG recipients between the ages of 22 and 46 were therefore interviewed face to face, using an interview schedule. The interview was audio-recorded and transcribed for easier retrieval; however the researcher also took field notes in case the recording instrument malfunctioned. The data was analysed using thematic content analysis and it was presented in line with the objectives.

1.7 CHAPTER LAYOUT OF THE REPORT

Chapter one introduces the study by looking at the background of social grants and social development in South Africa, followed by the statement of the problem and the rationale behind the study. Furthermore it presents the main aim and objectives of the study and research questions including the definition of key concepts. Finally it gives an overview of the research methodology and the chapter layout of the report.

Chapter two discusses the literature review on social security with the focus on social assistance/grants in South Africa and the chapter concludes with an appraisal of social development and capabilities approach as the theoretical framework of the study.

Chapter three outlines the research methodology utilized in the study, including the limitations and the ethical considerations of the study

Chapter four presents the analysis of the research findings based on the interview questions asked to CSG and DG recipients.

Chapter five entails the summary of findings and conclusions reached from the study, furthermore it includes the recommendations for improvement of practice, policy consideration and proposed suggestion for further studies.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines literature pertinent to the study. This includes, the conceptualisation of social security with lessons from both developed and developing countries, issues related to legislation of social security in the new South Africa including an account of social security strategies in South Africa with the focus on CSG and DG. Furthermore, is a brief review of social welfare models, a discussion of debates around welfare and workfare and the contested issue of dependency syndrome. Lastly, is an appraisal of social development and the capabilities approach as the theoretical framework that informed the study.

2.2 SOCIAL SECURITY

2.2.1 Conceptualisation

According to Patel (2005), the most widely accepted definition of social security throughout the developed and developing world is that of the ILO. The International Labour Organisation (1989, p. 29), defines it as “the protection which society provides for its members through a series of public measures against the economic and social distress that otherwise would be caused by the stoppage or substantial reduction of earnings resulting from sickness, maternity, employment injury, invalidity old age and death; the provision of medical care and the provision of subsidies for families with children”. This ILO conceptualisation of social security, according to Kaseke (2000), revolves around the protection of persons employed in the formal sector, and while it may be appropriate for developed countries where unemployment levels are low, it is not appropriate for developing countries because of their high unemployment levels (ibid).

The social security strategies include but are not limited to social assistance, social insurance and indigenous informal or semi-formal systems, they however also differ depending on the countries’ ideological background and/or context. Haarmann (2000) notes that social security
was first coined by the United States with the first ‘Social Security Act of 1935’. Social security in the United States, therefore, refers to the benefits provided in this first Social Security Act, which covered insurance funded retirement, invalidity and survivor’s benefit. The term however does not refer to social assistance or unemployment benefits and schemes which in other countries like Britain, Sweden or South Africa are naturally included. Kaseke (2000) notes that the objective of social security is to guarantee income security as a line of defence against poverty, as thus income security enables individuals to have access to life sustaining goods and services.

2.2.2 Lessons from “developed” countries

When it comes to the provision of social security programmes, developed countries can be grouped according to their welfare regimes, Fenger (2007, p. 5) notes that Esping-Andersen (1990) work is most influential in the classification of the welfare regimes. Esping-Andersen’s (1990) typology of the welfare regimes includes the liberal, the conservative corporatist and the social democratic, and he distinguishes these three regimes by the degree of decommodification and the kind of stratification they produce in society. Schafer (2009) adds that all of them are aware of their responsibility to provide services to their population to secure a basic living standard.

According to Schafer (2009), in countries like the USA, Canada and Australia, the dominant welfare regime is the neo-liberal system, whereby the state intervenes minimally and the private institutions play the vital role in the delivery of social services. Germany, France and Italy among other countries, also called Bismarckian welfare states by Morel and Friedmann (2007) are characterized by the conservative corporatist. The model is rooted in the principle of subsidiarity which means that provision of welfare is devolved to the lowest possible level, that is the family, and the government is the last resort (Fenger, 2007; Morel & Friedmann, 2007). Lastly, the social democratic regime, also known as the institutional model, is influenced by the socialist perspective. It is underpinned by 3 values namely, equality, freedom and fellowship. It allows for universal provision and universal access of social security, whereby the state assumes the role of redistributing wealth (Fenger, 2007).
2.2.3 Lessons from developing countries

Before the colonial era, social security in developing countries was based on reciprocity and solidarity at both household and community level (Kaseke, 1997; Osei-Hwedie, 1998). However, Kabeer and Sabates-Wheeler (2003) note that de-agrarianization, proletarianization and expansion of wage labour, have led to the gradual reduction in the role of traditional community or family based safety nets that provided various forms of security in the past. Formal social security schemes were introduced in Africa during the colonial era as a response to the social security needs of expatriate white workers (Kaseke, 2000).

Detheir (2005, p. 4) observed that only four developing countries provide an unconditional, universal minimum pension to the elderly, and they are Bolivia, Botswana, Mauritius and Namibia. In these four countries, benefits are therefore for every elderly person, regardless of income, assets or work history. Furthermore, Chile, Uruguay, Brazil, Costa Rica also have a non-contributory, but means tested pensions which have a social assistance character in that they are targeted to the poor and the disabled who cannot afford to contribute (ibid). Kaseke (2000) states that social assistance schemes are prevalent in Southern Africa, for instance, Botswana, Malawi, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe administer public assistance schemes for the benefit of needy individuals. However, because of severe resource constraints, these schemes only target the neediest groups in society.

2.3 SOCIAL SECURITY LEGISLATION IN THE NEW SOUTH AFRICA

2.3.1 South African Constitution (1996) and Bill of Rights

According to Lombard (2008) the cornerstone and the premise for all policies and legislation in the South African democracy are entrenched in the Bill of Rights of the South African Constitution, Act 108 of 1996, which enshrines the rights of all people in the country and affirms the democratic values of human dignity, equality and freedom. Section 27 (1c) of the South African Constitution has a provision for social security. It reads “everyone has a right to have access to social security, including, if they are unable to support themselves and their dependants, appropriate social assistance” (The constitution of the Republic of South Africa p.
11). The government as a result has an obligation to provide for social security for its citizens and to continuously expand the coverage until everyone is able to enjoy this right.

2.3.2 Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP)

According to Visser (2004) during the apartheid era, social security benefits were paid to whites at a level higher than that paid to the other races, and so those groups were trapped in poverty. NDP (2012) confirms that apartheid constrained the development of skills. Thus, social policies that were adopted post 1994 were directed towards addressing poverty and inequality in South Africa. The RDP envisioned for its people: jobs, land, housing, water, electricity, telecommunication, clean and healthy environment, transport, social welfare, healthcare and nutrition.

The RDP as a policy was developed to address the problems of poverty and the gross inequality evident in almost all aspects of the South African society (RDP, 1994). As a macroeconomic policy the values and objectives of the RDP were driven by equity, democracy, redressing the social and economic burdens from the past and promoting reconstruction and development (Motala & Pampallis, 2009). These types of objectives are associated with high degrees of state intervention, as the state increases provision of social services to promote equity (ibid).

2.3.3 Growth Employment and Redistribution (GEAR)

Visser (2004) agrees that the RDP achieved remarkable results in terms of social security, although it was said to be ambitious. In 1996, South Africa encountered its first major currency crisis which was the final nail into the coffin of the RDP, so in order to calm the domestic capital and foreign currency markets, the government embraced a conservative macro-economic strategy (GEAR). Often when countries face economic crisis, the budget from social welfare services is the first to be cut. In agreement, Makino and Chizuko (2013) and Sewpaul and Holscher (2004) note that as a result of fiscal discipline, expenditure on social services declined in South Africa in 1996 for the sake of macroeconomic stability.
2.3.4 White Paper for Social Welfare 1997

In 1997 the White Paper for Social Welfare was adopted. According to Patel (2005), this new developmental model was extensively debated as the remedial model of service delivery, coupled with residential institutional care. The challenge was to address service needs in an integrated fashion with maximum developmental impact (ibid). The White Paper on Social Welfare, like the RDP, sought to reconcile economic growth with development and was shaped in a bottom up approach, meaning that there was a need for the communities to participate in agendas that involved them. As a developing country, South Africa sought to adopt the social development model of policy making.

Furthermore, Patel (2005) notes that social development policies must be bold in order to address the persistent unemployment, widespread poverty and inequality in South African societies. She assures that those policies and social programmes are needed to prevent the development of mass ‘underclass’ of poor people who are living on the margins of the society and trapped in poverty with no means or capability of escaping from it. However, Patel falls short of recommending strategies to formulating and implementing a “bold” policy.

2.4 SOCIAL SECURITY STRATEGIES IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.4.1 Introduction

South African social security strategies include redistributive social assistance which provides non-contributory although means tested grants, a contributory social insurance and private savings. In South Africa, social assistance grants refer to non-contributory and income-tested benefits provided by the state to vulnerable groups, such as the disabled, the elderly and children in poor households, financed out of general tax revenue, (Woolard, Harttgen & Klasen, 2010). Patel (2005) defines social insurance as benefits organized by the state through contributions by employers and employees. In South Africa, they include Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF), Compensations Funds and Road Accident Fund, while private savings refer to voluntary savings by individuals against unexpected contingencies and risks.
The provision of social assistance programmes also referred to as social grants were racially segregated during the apartheid era, but gradually extended to all South African citizens by 1992 through the Social Assistance Act. The South African Social Security Agency (SASSA) is responsible for the implementation of the social grants in South Africa. Patel (2005) identified different types of social grants, namely the War Veterans Grant which is intended to support those who fought in World Wars I and II, the Zulu uprising and the Korean War, social relief of distress - the only one that is needs tested, while others are means tested, and the Grant-In-Aid which is intended to support persons already in receipt of another social grant who require full-time care by another person as a result of physical and/or mental disability.

Others include the State Old Age Pension (SOAP), which provides support to men and women over the age of 60, then the Disability Grant (DG), which provides support to adults with disabilities. There is also the Child Support Grant (CSG), which provides support to families with children under the age of 18, followed by the Foster Child Grant, which provides support to families with children below the age of 18 who are in foster-care. Lastly, there is the Care Dependency Grant, which provides additional support to families with children, below the age of 18, with disabilities.

**2.4.2. Disability Grant**

The United Nations Declaration of Human Rights (1948) affirms its theme to guarantee a minimum livelihood in cases where an individual’s survival is threatened by his or her disability (Ong’olo 2009, p. 23). The government of South Africa cognisance to the human rights principles provides a DG to PWDs between ages 18-59, who due to their disability are unable to secure a job. This grant is later replaced by SOAP once a person turns 60. It is the only grant given to adults of working age, it is R1350-00 (as at April 2014) which is the same value as the SOAP. Eligibility for the grant is based on a submission of a medical report that confirms the disability and the applicant’s inability to enter a labour market due to the disability. The DG was expanded to include low-income persons living with HIV/AIDS however, there have been debates about adjusting the Amendment Act which would de facto tighten the definition of
disability thus excluding in particular those with chronic illnesses from claiming the DG (Brockhoff, 2013).

According to Natrass (2006) the DG experienced a rapid take up from 600 000 in 2000 to almost 1.3 million in 2004. Furthermore he states that the rapid increase was due to AIDS epidemic, though it was not the only consequence (see Patel 2005, p. 130) the increase was also facilitated by institutional changes to the disability grantsystem that enabled local decision-makers to respond to growing pressure from citizens to use the disability grant in part as a form of poverty relief (ibid).

Gatura (2014) adds that anecdotal evidence suggests that some individuals may opt to compromise their health by foregoing Highly Active Antiretroviral Treatment (HAART) to remain eligible for the grant. However research done by Venkataramani, Maughan-Brown, and Ruger (2009) in (Gatura, 2014, p. 660) records no evidence of people trading off their health income. Moodley (1997) in Johannsmeier (2007, p. 13) found that PWDs are more likely to rely on the DG because of their exclusion from employment and that they may be discouraged from finding work due to its potential loss.

The DG has been criticised for disincentivising PWDs to seek employment rather to be dependent on the grant, Ong’olo (2009, p. 28) observed that there exists a number of limitations to the provision of DG and they include the disincentive to work amongst those who are capable of finding gainful employment, enhancing negative stereotypes of the inability of people with disabilities and a failure to take a developmental approach. Potts (2012, p. 85) also maintains that the DG exacerbates poverty by providing individuals with a hand-out rather than a hand-up and offering perverse incentives that encourage DG recipients to undeservingly benefit from the system. These limitations however must not deter the government, for the primary objective of the DG is to provide a safety net to PWDs who by nature of their disability are unable to work and its importance to its recipients is recorded.

Ong’olo (2009) notes that there is evidence that shows that DG provides more than simply welfare to the poor, beneficiaries use the DG for a range of purposes beyond immediate consumption needs. The DG enables them to manage risks better; it reduces their vulnerability to
shocks and their need to sell assets (ibid). A number of studies including those of Johannsmeier (2007) and Ong’olo (2009), record that DG is very helpful in the lives of the recipients it empowers them in their roles as individuals or family members. The grant also helps them in addressing some of the barriers associated with their disability like paying double fare in the taxi for the wheelchair or paying for a sighted guide as accompaniment for a blind person.

Patel (2005, p.130) describes a study done by CASE in 1998 which revealed that most of the recipients of the DG are in the lowest income households with the lowest education levels. PWDs were previously excluded from economic development of countries, their participation in the labour market was constrained, they remain the group with a low employment rate due to barriers at workplaces, low levels of education and lack of skills. Johannsmeier confirms that before the 1990s disability was mostly excluded from development policies and institutions, PWDs were seen as passive recipients of, rather than full partners in the development process. The implication of the CASE research findings therefore was that developmental welfare and community based development including skills development programmes are needed to address the socio economic conditions of PWDs in poor households (ibid).

2.4.3 Child Support Grant

The CSG was introduced in April 1998 following the recommendations of the Lund Committee; it was launched amidst a great deal of controversy (Patel, 2005). It was criticised for being so low thus it would have a limited impact on poverty (ibid), however research has proved otherwise. It previously covered children from 0-6 years however it has gradually increased to cover children until the age of 18, this led to a huge increase in the take up of beneficiaries. It is currently the most important assistance given to children and largest grant by the number of recipients. It amounts to R320-00 per month, per child.

The CSG has been cited to have had a positive impact on child poverty, Budlender & Woolard (2006) agree that the Child Support Grant (CSG) and the State Old Age Pension (SOAP) reach millions of households and are widely believed to have made substantial contributions to reducing poverty in general and child poverty in particular. It has been found to have bolstered
early childhood nutrition (as measured by the children’s height-for-age), which could contribute to higher productivity and wages later in life (ibid). Eyal & Woolard(2011) have linked the CSG to higher attendance at school and likelihood of black female recipients participating in the labour market. They record that the CSG may help to ensure food security, aid parents in buying school uniforms and paying school fees, and thus support enrolment and attendance, increase access to credit by raising individual's trustworthiness, alleviate poverty in the household, raise women's bargaining power in the household, and possibly fund job search and or day care or crèche for the beneficiary, enabling the mother to work (ibid).

Potts (2012) states that the CSG is one of the greatest points of contention within the South African social assistance-dependency debate, this happens despite the recorded evidence of the importance and positive impact of CSG in poverty reduction, this grant has been condemned for fostering dependency and regarded as a contributing factor in teenage pregnancy. However studies by Makiwane (2010) and Kubheka (2013) did not find any relationship between teenage pregnancy and social grants, instead Makiwane found that teenage pregnancy had declined over the years despite the CSG. In regard to the primary care givers being reliant on the grant, Van der Berg, Siebrits and Lekezwa (2010) maintain that there are low levels of employment among the primary care-givers most of whom are women of children receiving CSG and many of the care-givers with jobs are either poorly paid or temporarily employed.

2.4.4 A summary of social grants in South Africa

Table 1 provides a statistical summary of social grants in the 9 regions (provinces) of South Africa which are: Eastern Cape (EC), Free State (FS), Gauteng (GP), KwaZulu-Natal (KZN), Limpopo (LP), Mpumalanga (MP), North West (NW), Northern Cape (NC) and Western Cape (WC) as at 31 May 2014. Social grants refer to Old Age grant (OAG), War Veteran’s grant (WVG), Disability grant (DG), Grant in Aid (GIA), Child Support grant (CSG), Foster Child grant (FCG) and Care Dependency grant (CDG).
Table one: Total number of social grants by grant type as at 31 May 2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>SOAP</th>
<th>WVG</th>
<th>DG</th>
<th>GIA</th>
<th>CDG</th>
<th>FCG</th>
<th>CSG</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EC</td>
<td>519,072</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>180,475</td>
<td>12,907</td>
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Source: SOCPEN system as indicated in Fact sheet: Issue no 5 of 2014 – 31 May 2014 by SASSA

2.4.5 Perceived impact of social grants in recipients lives

Theory of Change (ToC)

According to the International Network on Strategic Philanthropy (INSP) (2005, p. 6) a theory of change is the articulation of the underlying beliefs and assumptions that guide a service delivery strategy and are believed to be critical for producing change and improvement. It represents beliefs about what is needed by the target population and what strategies will enable them to meet those needs. Brown (2013) argues that while there is a large body of literature examining social protection and cash transfers’ impacts on poverty reduction and development, there is much less on understanding the mechanisms and pathways by which this happens. That is where the theory of change comes in, it assist in understanding pathways, causal relationships, and underlying assumptions about how change happens (ibid).

In the evaluation study done by DSD, SASSA, and UNICEF (2011) on CSG the following theories of change were tested. Cash grants directly reduce poverty of some of the most vulnerable and in so doing also reduce inequality. Payment of cash to poor households will reduce the poverty headcount of the poverty gap and also reduce inequality measures because they are typically funded from progressive taxation (in national scale programmes). Cash grants therefore directly improve the living standards (consumption) of the poor and increase...
consumption levels of the poor relative to those in higher income groups, directly reducing poverty and inequality (DSD, SASSA, UNICEF, 2011, p. 5). However, according to Brown (2013) there is no specific conclusion that the CSG either meets or does not meet these criteria, but that these descriptions show how the South African government conceptualises the purpose of the grant.

2.5 MODELS OF SOCIAL WELFARE

2.5.1 Introduction

Patel (2005, p. 22) cites Wilensky and Lebeaux (1965) who identified two conceptions of social welfare namely the residual and the institutional perspectives. These two conceptions have been widely cited in the conceptualisation of welfare systems. However, in the 1950s, social development also emerged as another approach to social welfare as a response to the distorted development especially in developing countries, (Midgley, 1995). Unlike residual and institutional models, social development is not static, remedial or maintenance oriented, it also does not separate economic from social policy but actively encourages the integration of the two, (Midgley, 1998). Midgley (1995) divided social development ideologies into three types of strategies namely the individualistic, communitarian and statist strategies. Lombard (1996) notes that these strategies link the residual-institutional models of social welfare to a developmental one.

2.5.2 Institutional Model of Social Welfare

According to Midgley (2003), the institutional model proposes that government social programs be universal, generous and, ultimately, be institutionalised in the cultural fabric of modern societies. Patel (2005) notes that this approach conceives social welfare as a normal first line function of modern industries societies. Furthermore, the government’s role in social welfare provision is substantiated and its interventionism is seen as a necessary step in meeting needs, (ibid). The institutional approach assumes that government agencies are best deliverers of social policies and that access to social provision and social rights should be institutionalised through
legislation, fiscal measures and comprehensive services among others. It takes the pessimistic view that the family and the market are inadequate for meeting human needs.

2.5.3 Residual Model of Social Welfare

According to Midgley (2003), the residual model posits that the government social welfare institutions should only come into effect when individual effort, family support, the market and non-formal welfare systems fail to meet human need. It requires that state provisions should be conditional, targeted and limited. This approach is associated with conservatism which is a philosophy that upholds individual responsibility for meeting needs. This preposition presumes that social welfare provision should be of short term, emergency nature and should tide people over crisis period, provision should cease once the crisis is over (Patel, 2005). It views social welfare also as a limited and temporary response to human need when all else fails, as it targets those most in need (ibid). Residual model of social welfare has been and continues to be adopted by most countries, to avoid dependency on the state, it has however been criticized for being expensive and characterized by errors of exclusion and inclusion.

2.5.4 Social Development Model of Social Welfare

According to Midgley (1995, p. 25), “social development is a process of planned social change designed to promote the well-being of the population as a whole in conjunction with a dynamic process of economic development”. Social development and economic growth are two reinforcing terms since a country cannot be economically well off if it does not address the social welfare of its citizens. In conformity, Midgley states that social development not only recognizes the importance of economic development in raising standards of living, but it also seeks to harness economic development and social goals (ibid). Kothari and Minoque (2002) note that social development in general terms refers to planned development outcomes that prioritise social impacts often through social sectors of health and education.
As a model of social welfare, social development seeks to improve the well-being of people, to integrate social improvements with economic growth, and to ensure that all people participate in the process and the benefits of development (Beverly & Sherraden, 1997). Furthermore, Khoda (2006) notes that unlike the traditional models of social welfare, social development is not selective rather development is for the population as a whole, as it also seeks growth, rather than simply returning people to an existing level of well-being.

### 2.6 Dependency Syndrome

The concept of “dependency syndrome” is a contested one. Arguments thus exist for and against such a concept. Murray (1984) and Mead (1992), as cited by Noble, Ntshongwana and Surrender, (2008, p. 3) argue for the existence of dependency syndrome and define it as predicated on the emergence of communities where the adults have little or no attachment to the labour market, where paid work is not valued and individuals are content with the income from the state.

According to Samson (2009) dependency in the context of social cash transfers can be defined as the choice by a social transfer recipient to forego a more sustaining livelihood due to the receipt of the cash transfer. In other words the grant may act as a disincentive to the recipients to look for work or get involved in any economic activities. However various authors as cited by Samson (2009, p. 47) note that a number of studies have found that workers in households receiving social grants look for work more intensively and extensively and find employment more successfully than do workers in comparably poor households that do not receive the grants.

Fraser and Gordon (1994) define welfare dependency as evoking the image of a “welfare mother”, and that in the United States of America policy discourse, dependency usually refers to a condition of poor women with children who maintain their families with neither a male breadwinner nor an adequate wage and who rely on the economic support from state funding (ibid). This author puts a woman’s face to welfare dependency, especially a woman with children. This
is a subsidiary view to the conservatives, who oppose social welfare because they claim it encourages women to have babies outside wedlock, families to break and eliminates the need for absentee fathers to contribute.

In her study, Potts (2012) argues that dependency on the state is not very clear-cut and that it varies across the different grants in South Africa. She therefore explored the three major social grants in South Africa namely, the Child Support Grant (CSG), the Disability Grant, and the State Old Age Pension (SOAP), to explore which grant promoted dependency on the state. In her findings, she records that both the disability grant and state old age pension encourage dependency syndrome by demotivating the beneficiaries to look for work and be responsible for their own well-being and as a result every month they await “their” pay checks from the government. Potts, however, believes the CSG in contrast helps many children by buying them school uniforms and meeting their daily needs. Conservatives nevertheless argue that the CSG perpetuates poverty across generations.

While Potts makes a legitimate argument, she falls short to attend to the role of social security in reducing poverty amongst both the DG and SOAP and further ignores the claims that SOAP in particular, despite having diverted from its objective of addressing poverty amongst elderly people, has demonstrated positive effects in poverty alleviation. Makino and Chizuko (2013), in opposition to Potts, note that the importance of pension grant for the survival of impoverished African households had already been pointed out by the Second Carnegie Inquiry into poverty in 1980s and recent studies reveal that it has contributed to the poverty alleviation of the entire household rather than that just of supporting the elderly persons.

Many adversaries of social welfare provision argue that social grants foster people to be dependent. Daguerre (2008) maintains that conservatives have argued that increased expenditure on social programs has created a greater dependency on state support, more specifically, there are propositions that welfare programs have reduced individuals' incentives to acquire the human capital necessary to avoid poverty and may even have led to irresponsible parenting decisions. According to Noble and Ntshongwana (2008), the opponents call for a “hand up” not a “hand
out”; their view is that social grants are anti-development and antipathetic to home-grown poverty solutions.

It can however be argued that there are those individuals that are expected to depend on social grants because they are unable to get other forms of income. The RHVP (2010) refers to this dependency as the “positive dependency” it is for those economically inactive these include the young, the old, the chronically ill, and the severely disabled. By definition they are dependent on others however social protection (social grants) can relieve this burden on poor communities. There is also the “negative dependency” which is for those who are economically active; here social transfers induce negative behavioural changes, which should be avoided.

Brockerhoff (2013) notes that several academics, the South African Human Science Research Council, UNDP and the Department for Social Development have conducted studies that show that grants have not created dependency in South Africa and instead facilitated local economic development and finding employment. Nonetheless, this continues to form part of the everyday rhetoric and debate on social security. Lund (2011, p.8) confirms that many people, including senior government officials believe that grants create dependency and encourages people to leave work, or not to work at all.

Patel (2013) adds that there is a dispute that social grants create perverse incentives, such as increasing teenage pregnancies, discouraging work seeking and a reluctance to take Anti-Retroviral medication in order to access the disability grant. Some have argued that beneficiaries of the CSG care for additional children in order to access the grant. She agrees that while there is a range of factors shaping teenage pregnancy, there has been no evidence to support the claim that grants influence teenage pregnancy. Rather teenage pregnancy rates continue to decline despite the availability of the CSG (ibid).

2.7 WELFARE AND WORKFARE

Many governments introduced the concept of workfare to reduce the number of beneficiaries on welfare but most importantly to discard claims of dependency. World Bank (2006) in Van der
Berg, Siebrits and Lekezwa (2010, p. 23) maintains that to discourage dependence on social grants, many OECD countries have reduced the amounts and duration of benefits and tightened requirements that beneficiaries should seek work actively. South Africa is characterized by a high rate of unemployment among potentially employable people as its economy is not able to absorb everyone into the labour market. Instead of adopting a BIG the government decided to establish an Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) in 2004 in order to tackle unemployment and poverty by absorbing asignificant number of unemployed people (Brockerhoff, 2013).

However, according to Makino and Chizuko (2013), the programmes have not been able to cover all unemployed people who wish to participate. Despite the unemployment challenge, there is a growing media and political concern that social grants might act as a disincentive to the unemployed in seeking and obtaining work, and as a result creating a dependency culture (Noble, Ntshongwana & Surrender, 2008). The concern or debate is that social grants create a non-work mentality among able bodied or potentially employable persons. In accord, Kildal (1999) notes that social grants nurture an irresponsible and dangerous welfare ethos, and moreover the lack of an obligation to work in return for welfare benefits represents a most significant problem for society as well as for benefit recipients.

According to the study by Noble, Ntshongwana and Surrender (2008) the assertion that social grants undermine work motivation was not supported as people would rather be in employment than to receive state money. Their argument was that paid work promotes dignity; however, other studies by Surrender (as cited by Noble, Ntshongwana & Surrender, 2008, p. 18) state that unemployed people had not used labour consultants, either public or private, due to unaffordable fees. It could be argued that the Basic Income Grant, contrary to the claim of fostering dependency, would come in handy in cases as this and other financial constraints. Standing (2002), cited in Handler (2004, p. 22), states that a basic income guarantee could serve multiple functions, including providing a basic means of subsistence, restoring social citizenship as a status, and by giving clients an exit option.

Arguments about ‘workfare’ arise from a different ideological position. Workfare takes its roots from the Work First Approach which was endorsed by conservatives and based on the idea that
welfare recipients should be pushed into paid employment as quickly as possible regardless of the quality of the job offer (Daguerre, 2008). Workfare is about making beneficiaries work for their benefits, otherwise they are denied the right to income support. Kildal (1999) however states that all democratic welfare states have guaranteed a safety-net for their citizens, and that no one should be denied the basic and necessary goods needed to live a decent life and to enjoy other non-basic opportunities. Nonetheless social rights have never been entrenched in the same way as civil and political rights, as the duty to work has taken a place among politicians and academics, on the left as well as on the right (ibid).

According to Kirdar (1999), human rights must be recognized as the first basic human concern. South Africa as a signatory to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948 is obliged to promote, protect and monitor the human rights and fundamental freedoms including but not limited to freedom from fear and freedom from want. Freedom from want among others makes it clear that feeding people will not solve the problem of hunger, because feeding programs can only be remedial, the real solution thus lies in empowering the poor. Governments, in particular, must ensure that their people face enabling conditions that allow citizens to provide for themselves (Kent, 2005).

2.8 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.8.1 Social Development and Capabilities Approach

The study employed both the social development and capability approach in that both theories advocate for human development in the midst of economic growth. According to Beverly and Sherraden (1997), social development assumes that human development is the ultimate objective of economic development and consistent with the theoretical perspective of Amartya Sen, underdevelopment is viewed as a lack of basic capabilities rather than simple lack of income and commodities. From this perspective, development strategies should therefore seek not merely to produce more goods and services but also to increase the capabilities of people to lead full, productive, and satisfying lives.
The capability approach was advanced by Amartya Sen and Martha Nussbaum (Martins, n.d). According to Deneulin and McGregor (2010), it emerged to challenge the constricted utilitarianism which was dominant in the discipline of economics, as it was concerned with rebutting the tendency to conceive of poverty and inequality in terms of the income that households command or the commodities they possess. Alkire (n.d) notes that Sen’s capability approach is a moral framework that proposes that social arrangements should be primarily evaluated according to the extent of freedom people have to promote or achieve functionings they value. This approach contains three main concepts namely, functionings, capabilities and agency, where functionings are the valuable activities and states that become a person’s wellbeing such as a healthy body, being safe and many others (Deneulin & McGregor, 2010). Freedom is the ability to shape one’s own destiny as a person and a part of various communities, and agency is the person’s ability to act on what they value and have reason to value (Alkire, n.d.).

For Alexander (2008), some capabilities involving nutrition, education and healthcare are more a social responsibility than merely individual merit and achievement and the realization of these capabilities requires one safety net or the other. However these safety nets can only be justified if they are not meant to replace or undermine agency and personal responsibility rather facilitate them. Social security as a safety net increases standard of living of individuals, especially those living below a certain minimum standard of living, as such it also has as its function and the capacity to increase someone’s abilities to achieve certain basic functionings (Leliveld, 1991). Social security policies should as a result be developmental to assist recipients in reaching their full capabilities by providing opportunities for growth.

Criticisms of the capabilities approach nonetheless do arise from Dworkin (2000) (cited in Alexander, 2008, p. 71), who observes that Sen’s capabilities approach regarding happiness, self-respect and community participation turn out to be subjective and vary from person to person and from one community to the next. Thus, it is unacceptable to suggest that government takes steps to bring about equality in these capacities. Macarov (1995) also notes that there are those incapable people who cannot fend for themselves, atleast not completely owing to some
characteristics that put them at a disadvantage and they include children, frail elderly and people with mental, physical disabilities.

The social development approach to social policy, on the other hand, according to Patel (2005) was first introduced by the United Nations to address human development needs in the world’s poorest nations. It emerged to address the unequal and distorted development and was endorsed by the United Nations Summit for Social Development in 1995. Several scholars, including Midgley, Gray and Patel, have been influential in this developmental paradigm. According to Gray (2006, p. 53), social development is a theory and approach to social welfare that posits a macro-policy framework for poverty alleviation that combines social and economic goals. Integration of both the social and economic aspects can be significant in enhancing the welfare of everybody in the society. While Midgley (1998, p. 91) defined it as a distinctive approach for the enhancement of the human well-being which can be distinguished from other institutionalized approaches, such as philanthropy, social work and social policy.

Social development like most theories has been criticised. Payne (1997) and Beverly and Sherraden (1997), in Patel (2005 p. 31), have criticized social development for being a relatively new and evolving approach, hence it still needs to be strengthened at a theoretical level and its application in different contexts. This is supported by Patel (2008), who notes that the fact that practice implications of developmental social welfare have not been fully explored and thus it serves as a major limitation to the South African context. Furthermore, Payne (1997) (as cited by Patel, 2005 p. 31) also criticized it for not paying sufficient attention to the development of models of action and for promoting a form of action to be incorporated into social work.
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines the methodological aspects of the research which includes the research strategy and design, study population, sampling procedures and research instruments that were utilized. It will further consider methods of data collection and data analysis. A subject on ethical considerations is included and briefly discussed to observe the fundamental aspects of research, lastly will be the discussion of the limitations of the study.

3.2 RESEARCH STRATEGY AND DESIGN

According to Creswell (2009), qualitative design is a means for exploring and understanding the meaning of how individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. Trochim (2006) adds that qualitative research does not only excel at generating information but at “telling the story” from the participant’s viewpoint, providing the rich descriptive detail that sets qualitative results into their human context. Qualitative research design was useful for this study because the study sought to explore the issue of dependency syndrome in social grant recipients; it therefore allowed the participants to express themselves without limitation. A case study approach was appropriate for this study. Case study is regarded as an intensive investigation of a single unit that enables a researcher to closely examine the data within a specific context (Zainal, 2007). This approach was employed because it permitted the researcher to get and give a detailed account of the perceptions and views of social grant recipients regarding provision of social grants and if there is a dependency culture.

3.3 POPULATION SAMPLE AND SAMPLING PROCEDURES

3.3.1 Population

Babbie and Mouton (2001) state that population is the aggregation of elements from which the sample is actually selected, while Neuman (2000) defines it as the name of the large general group of many cases from which a researcher draws a sample. Bophelong is a township
characterized by two informal settlements one of which is called “Joko Tea” and the other which is located in the middle of the township. Bophelong falls under the Emfuleni Local Municipality in the Sedibeng District. According to Gaffney Group, (2009), 52% of the people in Sedibeng district do not earn any income which means that most of them rely on the government for support. The population will therefore be the recipients of social grants residing in Bophelong and its informal settlements.

3.3.2 Sample and sampling Procedures

Non-probability sampling was employed in this study as it is commonly used in qualitative research. Neuman (2000) states that qualitative researchers tend to use non-probability or non-random sampling methods because qualitative researchers rarely determine the sample size in advance and have very limited knowledge about the larger group or population from which the sample is taken. Among the types of non-probability sampling, purposive and snow ball selection were used for the purpose of this study.

The sample consisted of eight CSG recipients residing in the informal settlements and 10 DG recipients from Bophelong. The researcher used snow ball sampling to recruit 15 participants, eight of which were recipients of CSG and live in the informal settlements and seven participants who received the DG and reside in Bophelong. The outstanding three DG recipients were recruited at Multipurpose Disability Centre in Asedi Community Center through purposive sampling. Three of the DG participants are termed “vulnerable”\(^3\), the people accompanying them (Aunt, Grandmother and Mother) were treated like the participants by also signing the consent forms (Appendices C & D).

Participants were identified by their age, race, geographical setting and being in receipt of either a Child Support Grant or Disability Grant. The researcher only interviewed the population over the age of 18 as it is important to talk to people who have been on grants for some time in order

\(^3\)PWDs who due to their disability needed someone preferably a family member to assist in answering questions.
to explore their grant trajectory. The participants were aged between 22 and 46 and they were asked for their views on the alleged culture of dependency.

3.4 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTATION

3.4.1 Semi-Structured Interview Schedule

Data was collected by means of a semi-structured interview schedule. The semi structured interview schedule was used in this study as opposed to structured interview which limits the respondents to how they should answer their questions. According to Creswell (2003) semi structured interviews are in-depth interviews, often called a conversation with a purpose because they have some pre-set questions, but also allows more scope for open ended questions. A semi structured interview provided the researcher with a clear set of instructions of what to ask, it also acted as a guide as other questions arose during the interview. It was useful because it allowed the participants the freedom to express their views regarding social grant dependency among other questions. These questions were formulated based on the objectives in order to answer the research questions and thus get reliable data. The interview schedule was translated to “Sesotho”4 to accommodate participants who were not comfortable with speaking English and to allow for easier communication.

To avoid misinterpretation of the data due to possible poor note taking, the interview was recorded and later transcribed for analysis, the participants therefore gave their consent by signing the audio tape-recording informed consent form (Appendix D). The use of the interview schedule made information to be reliable because the questions that were asked reflected what the researcher sought to explore. The researcher was also able to clarify questions that the participants could not understand to ensure that all responses essentially represented what the researcher was investigating. Furthermore the researcher was able to accurately describe the perceptions, experiences and opinions of the participants without generalizing it to the either models or theories.

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4Sesotho is the dominating language in Bophelong
3.5 PRE-TESTING OF THE RESEARCH TOOL

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), reliability is a matter of whether a particular technique applied repeatedly to the same object may yield the same result each time, however, it does not ensure accuracy. To maximize reliability, reduce and avoid errors the interview questions were pre-tested to ensure they were answerable and to avoid unreliable data. Two CSG recipients from “Joko Tea” informal settlements were therefore interviewed however they did not form part of the study. These participants were encouraged to give feedback regarding the questions and how best to ask and changes were made to the interview schedule.

3.6 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

3.6.1 Individual face to face interview

South Africa is characterized by low levels of literacy especially in non-urban areas according to Babbie and Mouton (2001), thus, face to face interviews are the most common method of data collection due to the low levels of literacy in the South African population. The interview schedule was therefore administered in an individual face to face interview sessions which took place commonly at the homes of the participants and lasted between 15-45 minutes. This interview was appropriate because it helped maximize reliability by decreasing the numbers of “I don’t knows” and “no answers”, for whenever the participant did not clearly understand the question the researcher was able to break it down to him or her. According to Creswell (2009) the limitation of this interview is that it provides indirect information filtered through the views of the interviewees.

3.7 METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

According to De Vos (2002, p. 339), data analysis refers to the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data. Thematic content analysis was employed to interpret themes and trends in the data, with elements of narrative data analysis in order to attempt to understand the lives of social grant recipients. According to Anderson (2007),
thematic content analysis is a descriptive presentation of qualitative data, and a satisfactory thematic content analysis portrays the thematic content of interview transcripts or any other texts by identifying common themes in the texts provided for analysis (ibid).

The researcher was guided by Creswell (2009, p. 185-186) method of data analysis and pursued the suggested steps which are:

1. Organize and prepare the data for analysis: the researcher transcribed the interviews, typed them and compared them to the field notes
2. Read through all the data so as to get the general sense of the participants
3. Begin detailed analysis with a coding process: the researcher followed the following steps as recommended by Creswell
   
   Step 1. Get a sense of the whole by reading all transcripts carefully and jot down notes that come to mind
   
   Step 2. Pick one interesting transcript, go through it and understand it, writing down thoughts at the margin and then do the same thing with all transcripts
   
   Step 3. Cluster together similar topics
   
   Step 4. Code the topics: abbreviate the topics as codes and write the codes next to the appropriated segments of the text. Instead of abbreviating the researcher made use of highlighters and colour coded topics relating to segments in the transcript.
   
   Step 5. Turn your topics into categories
   
   Step 6. Make a final decision on the abbreviation for each category and alphabetize these codes. The researcher highlighted the topics in the appropriated segments in the transcript.
   
   Step 7. Assemble data material belonging to each category in one place and do a preliminary analysis
   
   Step 8. Recode the existing data

   In this study the researcher was recurring themes like “seeking employment”, “government support” and “history of social grant in the family” among others.

Themes like “actively seeking employment”, “perceptions about other social grants recipients regarding dependency” and “preferring to work than receive the grant” were evident in the findings among others.
3.8 TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE STUDY

Babbie and Mouton (2001) define validity as the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration. That is to say the concept is valid if it is able to measure what the researcher is eager to know. In this study the findings obtained are valid because data collected unveiled that dependency syndrome does exist for those individuals who are unable to work due to their disability and this is termed positive dependency syndrome. However dependency syndrome, in relation to disincentive to work does not exist because of the high unemployment rate in South Africa, thus recipients cannot be blamed for not working. The data collected therefore corresponded with the actual facts.

The study employed Guba’s (1981) model for evaluation of trustworthiness or merit of a qualitative study as outlined in Krefting (1991, p 214-216). The four criteria used were: truth value, applicability, consistency and neutrality. Krefting explains truth value as establishing how confident the researcher is with the truth of the findings based on the research design, informants and context. In 1985 Lincoln and Guba termed this as credibility, (ibid). To ensure credibility the researcher conducted face to face interviews to different participants: those living in the informal settlements and in the township, receiving CSG or DG. Literature from other studies on social grants was also incorporated in the findings. According to Krefting (1991, p. 216) applicability refers to the degree to which the findings can be applied to other contexts and settings or with the other groups; it is the ability to generalise from the finding to a larger population. However it is not the nature of a qualitative study such as this one to generalise as it seeks to explore a phenomenon in a unique setting. Transferability is the criterion against which applicability of qualitative data can be assessed; transferability is more the responsibility of the person that wants to transfer to another situation or population than that of the researcher of the original study. To ensure applicability the researcher should provide a detailed description of the research methodology utilised, ensure thorough literature control and quote verbatim from the interviews.

The third criterion which is consistency, considers whether the findings would be consistent if replicated with the same subjects or in similar contexts. Because qualitative research understands
and emphasises the variation and uniqueness of the human nature, variability is expected in
qualitative research (Krefting, 1991). Consistency can therefore be defined in terms of
dependability. Triangulation involves the use of multiple and different methods, investigators,
sources and theories to obtain corroborating evidence (Anney, 2014). In this case, dependability
was enhanced through the use of various informants, namely both CSG and DG recipients.

The fourth criterion of trustworthiness is neutrality. According to Guba (1981) in Krefting (1991,
p.216), neutrality refers to the degree to which the findings are a function solely of the
informants and conditions of the research and not other biases, motivations and perspectives.
Confirmability is the criterion of neutrality and according to Anney (2014) various studies
suggest that confirmability of qualitative inquiry is achieved through an audit trial, reflexive
offers visible evidence from process and product and that the researcher did not simply find what
he or she set out to find. To ensure confirmability in this study, the researcher kept written field
notes, memory card of the audio recording and the transcribed data.

3.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study was limited to only Black South Africans since this group forms the majority of grant
recipients and also limited to only two social security services, namely the Child Support Grant
and Disability Grant excluding other services like Foster Care Grant or the contributory medical
aid and Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF), as they are not relevant to the study in question.
The literature review on legislation was restricted to RDP, GEAR and the White Paper for Social
Welfare because they are the first social policies following the democratic dispensation; the
study therefore did not review the Accelerated Shared Growth in South Africa (ASGISA), New
Growth Path and The National Development Plan (NDP).

The accuracy of the findings may have been affected during translation of the interview schedule
and also in the transcribing of the data from English to Sesotho and back during data analysis.
However the researcher tried to the best of her abilities to translate. Furthermore the researcher
observed that the participants were more comfortable and open speaking off record, there is therefore a possibility that they gave acceptable responses because they were recorded. Additionally caution was used in generalizing the results as interviews were restricted to only 18 households in Bophelong. It is not intentional however, for a study such as this to make generalization, as its qualitative nature seeks to explore in depth understanding. It is also possible that other areas share different experiences that could be interpreted differently; it is therefore a limitation that the study was confined in one Township.

3.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

3.10.1 Introduction

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), ethics are typically associated with morality as both deal with matters of right and wrong, as they continue to define ethical consideration as conforming to the standards of conduct of a given profession or group and in this case the social work profession. The ethics discussed below were prominent in this study.

3.10.2 Voluntary Participation and informed consent

Bless and Higson-Smith (2000) assert that participants have the right to privacy and voluntary participation. Voluntary participation requires that people not be coerced into participating in the study. According to Bryman (2008), closely related to voluntary participation is the requirement of an informed consent, and essentially this means that participants must be fully informed about procedures and risks involved in the research and must therefore give their consent. Participants were given the participant information sheet which entailed the procedures and possible risks of their participation to take home and understand, it was made in a manner that is clear (in lay terms), in a language they understand and upon their agreement to participate they signed the informed consent.
### 3.10.3 Anonymity and confidentiality

In anonymity the information should not be linked with a particular person, thus the names of the participants can be omitted altogether or participants can be identified by numbers instead by their names (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000). Participants were promised that their information will be treated with absolute confidentiality. The study will preserved these principles by using pseudonyms for participants and their location in the report. When it comes to the vulnerable individual the person accompanying them was also treated like the participant by signing the consent form with the understanding that their names, location or any other compromising information about them will not be known to anyone except the researcher and the supervisor.

### 3.10.4 No harm to participants

According to Babbie and Mouton, (2001), no harm to participants and their associates is a promise not to reveal information that will endanger and embarrass them, their families, jobs and social life. The researcher assured the participants that no harm will befall them. Care was also taken to ensure that no emotional or physical harm befell participants and to adhere to this principle, the interview took place in a safe and convenient environment for the participants for most of the participants it was their homes while for some it was at Asedi Community Center.
CHAPTER FOUR
PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reflects on the findings of the research carried out in Bophelong and its informal settlements. The presentation and discussion of the findings will be set against the objectives of the study. Thematic content analysis and narrative analysis were used to analyse the data. Narrative analysis was used to capture the background information and thematic content analysis was used to analyse the views and perceptions of the participants. This chapter is divided into two sections of which section A will cover the biographical information of the participants followed by section B which will discuss and present the general responses of the participants.

4.2 SECTION A

4.2.1 Biographical information of the participants

Table two: Demographic summary of the participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Level of education</th>
<th>Reason for lack of progress</th>
<th>Employment status</th>
<th>Social grant</th>
<th>Place of Residence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>Grade 10</td>
<td>Financial difficulties due to death of breadwinner</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>DG</td>
<td>Bophelong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>Grade 10</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>DG</td>
<td>Bophelong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>Grade 9</td>
<td>There was no secondary education</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>DG</td>
<td>Bophelong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Grade 7</td>
<td>Moved to a special school</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>DG</td>
<td>Bophelong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Grade 11</td>
<td>Experienced trauma due to</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>CSG</td>
<td>Informal settlement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>Reason for Leaving School</td>
<td>Employment Status</td>
<td>Town</td>
<td>Location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>Grade 10</td>
<td>Death of mother &amp; left school</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>CSG</td>
<td>Informal settlement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>DG</td>
<td>Bophelong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>DG</td>
<td>Bophelong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td>Failed and gave up</td>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>DG</td>
<td>Bophelong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Grade 11</td>
<td>Parents &amp; she was unable to continue with school</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>CSG</td>
<td>“Joko tea” informal settlement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Grade 10</td>
<td>Fell pregnant &amp; was unable to go to school because she had to raise child</td>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>CSG</td>
<td>“Joko tea” informal settlement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Grade 6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>CSG</td>
<td>Informal settlement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Grade 11</td>
<td>Fell pregnant &amp; was unable to complete</td>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>CSG</td>
<td>“Joko tea” informal settlement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>Grade 6</td>
<td>Principal referred him to a psychologist who suggested that he moves to disability workshop</td>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>DG</td>
<td>Bophelong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>Financial stress due to conflict with sponsor (brother)</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>DG</td>
<td>Bophelong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>Grade 11</td>
<td>Financial problems</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>DG</td>
<td>Bophelon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The study consisted of 18 participants, eight of which received Child Support Grant (CSG) and resided in either of the two informal settlements in Bophelong whilst the other 10 participants were in receipt of Disability Grant (DG) and lived in Bophelong Township. There were more females than males (12 females and six males). Most participants were in their 20s (10) and the rest ranged between 35 to 46 (eight). Two of the participants had been unable to go to school because of their disability; three of them had reached only primary level, while ten participants were unable to complete secondary education, (“Matric” or Grade 12). Reasons for this included financial stress, pregnancy or failure. One of the participants that had passed matric could not afford fees for tertiary education and the other did her first year in college but was unable to continue due to lack of funds.

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5 Bophelong consists of two informal settlements one named after a supermarket located outside it, called “Joko tea” and the other is based in the middle of the municipal hostels that were built in the 1950s for steel workers and this is where the CSG participants were recruited. The DG participants live in either the municipal hostels or the “RDP” houses that were build following democracy as an extension to Bophelong Township.

6 South African term for the final year in high school, which is grade 12.
The majority of the participants (14) were unemployed and the grant is their only income. Only four were employed.
Most of the participants had some aspirations about what they would do when they ‘grew up’, however their chosen careers had been hindered by various reasons including not being able to finish Grade 12, having to find work to look after someone and being disabled therefore needing to be placed in a special school. Common to the participants also was the fact that their support systems were their mothers who like them were in receipt of some government safety net (pension grant). Majority of the participants in receipt of DG were permanent recipients and were still living with their families in Bophelong. The common reasons were that the grant money is too little to maintain a home and for some the severity of the disability needs a family member to be there to take care of them.

The interviews revealed that most of the informal settlement dwellers were from Free State and they relocated to Gauteng in search of jobs with their parents during the time when the farms were being closed. They have since been living in the informal settlement while awaiting the government to allocate them “RDP” houses as they are commonly called. The “Vaal” region was historically the heart of development of South Africa with firms such as the Iron & Steel Corporation (ISCOR), the SA Oil and Gas Corporation (SASOL) and ESKOM, it therefore became popular and people moved there in search of jobs. However ISCOR and SASOL were privatized in 1979 and 1989 respectfully and that led to the declining of the workforce (Van Driel, 2009). Besides Mittal Steel the company that bought ISCOR work opportunities in the Vaal are few, people that still relocate to the Vaal with the hope of getting employed are therefore faced with challenges and informal settlements therefore remain a safe harbor for most people in search of jobs.

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7Vaal triangle as it was called was formed by the city of Vereeniging, VanderbijlPark and Sasolburg, these three cities formed the industrial basis for the Vaal region in the 1980s
### 4.3 SECTION B

Table three: An overview of categories, themes and the supporting sub-themes in the interview responses of Child Support Grant and Disability Grant recipients of Bophelong and its informal settlements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Sub-themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Motivation for being a grant recipient</strong></td>
<td>Provision for grant in specific circumstances</td>
<td>Unable to work due to disability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Having a child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Struggling to survive</td>
<td>Unemployment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Unable to cope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prefering to work than to receive the grant</td>
<td>The grant does not afford all the required needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The perceived utilization of the grant</strong></td>
<td>The grant covers the basic needs</td>
<td>Food and clothes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Other costs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Feelings about being a recipient</strong></td>
<td>Negative feelings about being a recipient</td>
<td>Feelings of shame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive feelings about being a recipient</td>
<td>Happiness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Feelings of transformation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Adequacy of the grant</strong></td>
<td>The grant is not enough</td>
<td>Unable cover all the monthly needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The grant is adequate</td>
<td>Covers the basic needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Struggle without the grant</td>
<td>No other income</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Circumstances for grant withdrawal</strong></td>
<td>Never withdraw from being a recipient</td>
<td>Permanent disability grant recipient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment seeking</td>
<td>Actively seeking employment</td>
<td>Involved in strategies of job hunting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not seeking work</td>
<td>Unable to work because of disability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Waiting for the child to grow up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions regarding grant dependency</td>
<td>Perceptions about other recipients regarding grant dependency</td>
<td>Laziness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Incapable of working due to disability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perceptions about self regarding grant dependency</td>
<td>No dependency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of job opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Views regarding responsibility of the government to social welfare</td>
<td>It is the government responsibility to ensure welfare</td>
<td>Poverty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Disability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative opinions towards grant provision</td>
<td>Not the government responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service providers role in helping out grant recipients</td>
<td>Government roles</td>
<td>No government initiatives to aid grant recipients</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Government initiatives to aid grant recipients</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non state actors roles</td>
<td>Non-profit making organizations initiatives</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3.1 PERCEIVED IMPACT OF SOCIAL SECURITY ON POVERTY ALLEVIATION AMONG SOCIAL GRANT RECIPIENTS

4.3.1.1 Motivation for becoming a grant recipient

The researcher sought to determine the motivation for receiving the grant from the participants and the following themes were unveiled.

Provision for the grant in specific circumstances

Social security is one of the most important means by which states can ensure a measure of economic security through redistribution of income including an assurance that people have income through their lives (Ridge & Wright, 2008). One of the reasons the South African government provides social grants is to reduce poverty for those people not expected to fully participate in the labour market and as a result are vulnerable to low income. The participants therefore explained that they received the grant because it was there and they felt they were entitled to receive it. For some participants it was because they were disabled while others mentioned that they had kids and they were therefore eligible to receive the grant.

For example one participant mentioned:

“I received the grant because I had a child, one ought to get it I mean its money you get without working” (24 years old female, 14/12/14)

This participant among others felt a sense of entitlement to the grant because of having a child, although divergent, her perception for receiving the grant included also the fact that she received the money without having to work for it.

Another participant asserted:

“My reason for receiving the grant was because I got injured and was disabled after I was beaten up” (37 year old male, 31/01/15)
Struggling to survive

Other participants asserted that they were struggling to survive because of lack of income, they therefore received the grant as a form of survival. The initial nature of social grants was to help people out of poverty so that they can be able to help themselves, however there were no exit strategies for the recipients, the grant has therefore become a form of survival. Nonetheless in 2006 as a rejection to the BIG, Meth (2008, p. 11) records that the Cabinet suggested rather to ways to find exit strategies to reduce reliance on social grants. The sub-themes apparent in this theme are “unable to cope” and “unemployment”. Among the conditions of the social grant includes earning less than R2500.00 or having no income at all. Unemployment and lack of income thus served as the reason some of the participants became recipients of the grant.

One participant when asked why he received the grant stated:

“Because I was disabled, I did not have any income” (42 years old male, 16/01/15)

Another participant added:

“I received the grant because I was disabled and I found it to be very helpful to receive it as person who was used to having a monthly paycheck when working I was now struggling a bit”(40 years old female, 11/12/14)

Preferring to work than to receive the grant

According to Noble, Ntshongwana and Surrender, (2008) dependency is predicated on the emergence of communities where the adults have little or no attachment to the labour market, where paid work is not valued and individuals are content with the income from the state. In their study, Noble, Ntshongwana and Surrender, (2008) found that respondents would rather work than receive the grant refuting any notion that the grant demotivated recipients to look for work. The participants were therefore asked to choose between working and receiving the grant, the findings of this study also revealed that most participants would rather work than receive the grant.
One participant said:

“*I would choose work with the hope that I would be able to afford a whole lot of things with the salary than I do with the grant*” (42 years old Male, 16/01/15)

On the other hand various authors in (Johannsmeier, 2007, p. 12) observed that the South African DG is seen as an income replacement benefit for those with an inability to engage in paid work. Thus for some of the participants mostly DG recipients the grant was the only alternative to them receiving any income, they therefore would rather receive the grant than work.

One participant said:

“*I would rather receive the grant because I might struggle at work and people in the workplace may not understand that some other duties I will not be able perform and they might not be happy about it*” (37 years old male, 31/01/15)

4.3.1.2 The utilization of the grant

The researcher saw the need to investigate what the grant money was used for, to identify the perceived impact of the grant usage in assisting the recipients to live better. Patel (2013) observes that a wide range of studies on the utilization of the grant money disclose that it is spent mainly on food and this is to be expected because food is the largest expenditure item in poor households. The study also revealed this although there were other costs like clothes, household bills and for the PWDs, disability related costs.

The grant is used to cover the basic needs

There has been a growing body of literature that shows the positive contribution of social grant in alleviating poverty. DSD, SASSA and UNICEF (2012) confirm that cash grants directly improve the living standards of the poor and increase their consumption levels relative to those in higher income groups, directly reducing poverty and inequality. There was a unanimous response when it came to the question of what they could afford which they could not afford
before the grant, which was to buy food and basic clothing, although there were those participants who added the electricity and transport for check-ups among other expenditures.

One participant maintained:

“*I am able to buy electricity, to eat and clothe, to have transport to get my shoes and also pay the society*” (46 years old female, 17/12/14)

Lund (2011) records that the CSG in particular, has been found to have positive impacts on child nutrition and school enrolment among other things and several participants mentioned using the grant money to pay for crèche and buy school uniforms.

In support a participant said:

“*I am able to pay for school fees, buy food and a whole lot of other necessities*” (26 years old female, 17/12/14)

### 4.3.2 Perceptions regarding grant dependency and economic support

#### 4.3.2.1 Perceptions regarding grant dependency

Regional Hunger and Vulnerability Programme (RHVP) (2010) defines dependency syndrome as a tendency for recipients of regular social transfers to become permanently reliant on these ‘handouts’, and to lose any incentive to improve their circumstances using their own initiative and resources. In order to achieve the objective above the researcher sought to obtain the perceptions of grant recipients regarding the dependency syndrome, with the aspiration to find out whether the participants were dependent on the grant or not. Participants had perceptions about both themselves and other recipients.

**Perception about others**

Underlying this theme are two sub-themes, some of the participants attributed the dependency (disincentive to work) on laziness.
One participant said:

“You know there are those people who do not want to think further, I have seen them depending on the grant, they accept it as for me it does not satisfy me, I have bigger dreams” (46 years old male, 08/12/14)

Another participant added:

“In my opinion people who do not look for work do not want to work because they receive the free grant money while just sitting around without even trying, they are many people like that like my neighbours beautiful ladies relying on Child Support Grant they do not work they are just sitting at home while I *Matilda* take my bag and crutches and go to work.” (46 years old female, 17/12/14)

According to the RHVP (2010) all societies accept that certain members must be supported, this includes young children, older persons, the chronically ill and severely disabled. Dependency must therefore differentiate between those who are genuinely unable to care for themselves, and those who require temporary support but can be assisted to become self-reliant. In line with the RHVP other participants noted that sometimes disability led PWDs to rely solely on the grant because they were unable to work due to the severity of their disability.

Another participant argued:

“Sometimes there are people who believe that, yes and I also believe that because there are those people who are unable to work and therefore have to rely on the grant but as for others it is the lack of job opportunities which serves as the main reason some of the grant recipients are not working” (42 years old male, 16/01/15)

When it comes to DG recipients the expectation is that because the grant compensates for their inability to work they are bound to rely on it alone. Various authors in Johannsmeier (2007, p.13) state that the PWDs are more likely to rely on the DG because of their exclusion from

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8 Pseudonym
employment and that they may be discouraged from finding work due to its potential loss, a DG therefore provides a reliable standard way of living.

**Perceptions about self**

Most participants believed that there is nothing like dependency on grants, with CSG recipients arguing that grant was too meagre to depend on and other asserting that lack of job opportunities is the main source that people are unemployed. Patel (2013, p. 5) argues that R300 per child per month is a rather small amount to act as an incentive not to work and that other studies have revealed that unemployment among women is 1.2 times higher than that of men. This could therefore be the reason why most women in this case, (CSG recipients) are unemployed.

One participant agreed:

“That is not the truth, that money is just too little for one to not look for work, R300.00 is nothing. ” (24 years old female, 14/12/14)

While another added:

“There is nothing like that, the grant does not discourage people to find work, when one does not find work it is not because they are receiving the grant” (26 years old female, 17/12/14)

**4.3.2.2 Employment seeking**

The researcher sought to find out whether the participants were looking for jobs, with this question the researcher wanted to find out if the participants were relying on the grant alone or whether they were involved in any job seeking strategies and were just not finding work.

**Actively seeking employment**

Msimanga (2013) records that the ELM has experienced the highest unemployment rate relative to other municipalities and the highest level of unemployment rate is within the females between
the age of 18-59 and they end up depending on social grants to support their households. Majority of the participants said they had looked for jobs but in vain.

One participant said:

“*I have tried to look for work but to no avail, I am distributing my CVs.*” (24 years old female, 14/12/14).

Patel (2013) asserts that a lack of viable and available employment options in a situation of unusually high unemployment is a significant factor that explains the low labour market participation rates of women grant beneficiaries. A few of the DG recipients also showed commitment to work, the only reason they were unemployed was because of lack of jobs. Patel adds that employment amongst PWDs remains low despite active labour market legislation such as the Employment Equity Act. South Africa’s level of unemployment has been recorded to be very high in the last few years; however, in the 2015 State of the Nation Address, President Zuma said that in the year 2014 more jobs had been created. He said: “Two days ago StatsSA released employment figures for the last quarter of 2014. The report shows that there are now 15.3 million people who are employed in South Africa. Jobs grew by two hundred and three thousand” (Zuma, 2015). It does not appear however that many grants recipients are absorbed by these work opportunities as unemployment remains very high amongst them.

**Not seeking work**

Social grants are paid to people who cannot access employment by virtue of their age or disability; however, there is a growing belief that some of the people in receipt of either CSG or DG forego employment on account of the grant. In the case of CSG recipients Patel (2013) notes that factors like lack of skills and low levels of education limits women’s access to low paid jobs or temporary casual work, including child care, some women may weigh the decision of whether to seek employment or provide care in the home. A number of unemployed CSG participants said that they were waiting for their children to grow up so that they could actively look for work.
In support a participant said:

“At the moment I am waiting for my child to grow up so I can start looking for work” (25 years old female, 17/12/14)

According to Johannsmeier (2007) PWDs face physical and attitudinal barriers to participation in education, the labour market and development processes in general. The combination of poverty and high unemployment therefore increases reliance on DG by PWDs and their household. Some of the DG participants said they would not look for jobs mostly because they would need people at the workplace to be more patient with them because of their disability and in most cases they would not be given any special attention.

A participant stated:

“I have not because I am being careful not to put any pressure on the leg, it gets worked up after a hard days’ job” (46 years old Male, 08/12/14)

The researcher also observed that other DG recipients due to the severity of their disabilities were incapable of working.

4.3.2.3 Adequacy of the grant

The participants were asked if the grant was able to meet all their needs. The following themes emerged.

Inadequacy of the grant

Most of the participants felt that the grant was unable to meet all the monthly needs, with others stating that a few days before pay day they eat porridge with “sugar water” because they would have run out of food. The moments of normality for most grant recipients are short-lived, when the grant is paid out, but the money does not last long, and is mostly spent on food (Van Driel, 2009). Drawing from Van Driel research most families are unable to live on the social grant, and food security is a daily preoccupation (ibid). Furthermore, Kaseke (2010, p. 164) maintains that
although theoretically, social assistance raises the floor for those living below the poverty line, some of the grants provide income that is below the poverty line. There is therefore no argument that the CSG R320.00 (as at October 2014) per child per month is inadequate for covering all the needs of a child. Brockerhoff (2013) argues that the increase of grant amounts is meant to keep pace with inflation, but that has largely not been the case. In the 2013 Budget, the increase percentage increase ranges from 3.6% for the CSG to 5.0% for OAG, CDG and DG which has not kept in line with inflation, which treasury predicts will average at 5.8% in 2012/13.

One participant supported:

“It does not cover the monthly expenses but it does cover the basics, given that life gets more expensive annually and you find that food or clothes increase is not on par with the grant increase, food and clothes may increase 2 or 3 times more than the previous year but not the grant, however it does come in handy because if it was not there we would be poverty stricken” (Mother on behalf of a 27 years old female, 17/12/14)

**Grant sufficiency**

Few of the participants however felt that the grant was enough, with others asserting that they ought not complain about the grant because it is the government’s way of meeting them half-way.

One participant added:

“For now I think the grant is enough, although I would not have a problem if it was increased” (40 years old female, 11/12/14)

The researcher observed that most CSG recipients who were content with the grant money had more than one child.

**Struggle without the grant**

The participants were asked about their survival leading to grant withdrawal, the researcher wanted to find out the extent of reliance on the grant by the recipients. Most participants showed remorse when the researcher asked the question of how they would survive if the grant was to be
withdrawn. For some of the households grants served as the only income, where one parent would be on pension grant and the participant either a CSG or DG recipient. The apparent sub-theme was “no other income”, they maintained it would really be a struggle to live without the grant as some of them were not working.

One participant uttered:

“ I would struggle, it would really be a hassle because when you ask someone for money they get irritated so I do not want to be begging people for money, I want to do things on my own” (37 years old male, 31/01/15)

Another participant added:

“If I am still working I would continue with my life without the grant actually the only reason I ever received it was because I was not working and was financially supported by my mother and sister. Sometimes there would be no maize meal and they had to feed everyone while they too had their needs so that’s why I had to get the grant” (22 years old female, 17/12/14)

Very few participants said that they would endure without the grant; others said that they would try harder to find work while others noted that because they were working it would not really be that much of a difference.

4.3.2.4 Circumstances for grant withdrawal

Participants were asked to name circumstances where they would find themselves giving up the grant, the researcher asked this question as a way to identify the best possible” exit strategies” as suggested by the grant recipients themselves.

Never give up the grant

Most of the DG participants were permanent recipients of the DG they therefore said they would never give up the grant unless they were to be normal and able to work. Other CSG participants
also refuted any chance of giving up the grant for as long as they had children. One participant said:

“As long as I have kids I will not give up the grant but when they are adults, I will have no choice” (25 years old female, 17/12/14)

Another participant added:

“I would never give up the grant unless I were to be normal but as long as my hand is still like this I would never give up the grant” (39 years old male, 16/01/15)

**Employment is the only reason for grant withdrawal**

Other participants cited employment as the only reason they would give up the grant, which is logical given the only reason of receiving the grant is because of income insecurity. Johannsmeier (2007) notes that even though some PWDs have expressed the desire to work, their attempts have been frustrated by barriers (physical, attitudinal and lack of education) faced and because of high general unemployment. The researcher also discovered that even some of the DG recipients would withdraw from the grant if they were to be employed.

One participant said:

“I would give it up the grant if I get a permanent job” (46 years old female, 17/12/14)

**4.3.3 THE PARTICIPATION OF GRANT RECIPIENTS IN ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES**

In his State of the Nation Address of 10th February 2011, the president announced “since we are building a developmental and not a welfare state, the social grants will be linked to economic activity and community development, to enable short-term beneficiaries to become self-supporting in the long run” (Zuma, 2011). The research investigated the progress of the practical implementation of social development in social grant recipients.
4.3.3.1 Involvement in economic activities

The researcher sought to explore the involvement of grant recipient in economic activities, so as to supplement the grant.

No involvement in economic activities to supplement the grant

Most of the participants had not been involved in any economic activities, with others citing the lack of money as the main reason why they cannot open up fruit markets or any other initiatives.

One participant said:

“I have not tried because of lack of money and everything needs money this days if I want to open a business I need to have money” (42 years old male, 16/01/15)

Others said they had thought and at times planned to do something.

Another participant added:

“Sometimes I do think of using this grant money to buy stock in Johannesburg and sell things” (37 years old male, 31/01/15)

Previously involved in economic enhancements

Other participants said that they were previously involved in some economical activities like stockvels, lending money to people, selling clothes, but they had to stop on various reasons.

One participant said:

“I used to sell things, I love doing business since I realized I will not be going to school, I used to buy stock in Johannesburg and sell them at Vaal mall, but the heavy luggage and using public transport put pressure on my foot and I stopped.” (46 years old male, 08/12/14)
4.3.4 AVAILABLE EXIT STRATEGIES FOR SOCIAL GRANT RECIPIENTS

4.3.4.1 Views regarding responsibility of the government to social welfare

It is the government responsibility to ensure social welfare

The role of the government in the social welfare of its people has always been a contested issue. The findings also revealed mixed emotions when it comes to the states’ involvement in the welfare of its people with most people referring to the social grants. The most common views regarding the responsibility of the government in ensuring welfare to its people were positive, arguing that due to the social problems evident in the country it is the governments’ responsibility to make sure that people are well taken care of. The CSG recipients were mostly concerned about poverty while the DG recipients stated that the PWDs should be given grants because they do not have as much job opportunities as normal people do, for those who can work and for those that are incapable of working they have no other means of income and therefore rely on the government grant.

One participant said:

“It is their responsibility and it is a good thing because we even abandon our kids because of lack of money” (37 years old female, 17/12/14)

Another participant added:

“It is the government responsibility especially for people with disabilities through grant provision but to some people it could create more job opportunities” (42 years old male, 16/01/15)

Negative opinions regarding the government provisioning grant

Although not universal there were still those participants who were against social welfare with claims that it fosters laziness.

One participant said:

“It is not a good thing that the government provides us with grants, we were raised without the grants our kids can do the same” (24 years old female, 14/12/14)
4.3.4.2 Service providers’ role in helping out grant recipients

In an attempt to gather up some of the exit strategies designed to reduce the number of grants recipients the researcher asked the participants if there had been any service providers’ initiatives in their receiving the grant.

Government initiatives

Kaseke (2010) suggests that the government should put in place measures that enable poor people to exit poverty, thus, the provision of social assistance should be part of programmes that empower the beneficiaries of social security benefits to achieve self-reliance. He says that developmental function will enhance the effectiveness of social security as an instrument for poverty reduction. In 2007 in line with the Cabinet suggestion of exit strategies the DSD South Africa published a discussion document on “Linking Social Grants Beneficiaries to Poverty Alleviation and Economic Activity”. According to Johannsmeier (2007) the discussion document is based on concerns about the sustainability of rising numbers of grant recipients, as well as concerns that there may be in particular DG recipients who may be able to work. It acknowledges the lack of initiatives to help PWD/DG-recipients among others to enter into and remain in employment, and that the macro-economic growth in South Africa has failed to produce any significant growth in employment (ibid). In 2013 a cooperatives project for grant beneficiaries was launched, Sabinet Cape Town Office (2013) said this was the first initiative in South Africa to Link social grants beneficiaries with socio economic opportunities which was also in line with the developmental agenda of the government.

In the Annual Report 2012-2013 the DSD reported to have created 100 permanent jobs for women receiving CSG, with other employment opportunities created through the EPWPs and the Social Infrastructure Programme (DSD, 2013). The Department also confirmed that it had put in place additional initiatives aimed at moving beneficiaries from welfare to self-sustenance. In this regard the Department has trained 900 Child Support Grant beneficiaries and microretailers who now own small businesses. Furthermore 315 of the 900 women were linked to employment opportunities mainly in the service sector such as hospitality industry (ibid).
The apparent sub-themes under this theme are “no government initiatives to aid grant recipients” and “government initiatives to aid grant recipients”. Most of the participants said that the government had not linked them to any economical activities, so while the DSD has been helping other recipients it has not done so for people of Bophelong.

One participant said:

“The workshop at the center and the church helped him by getting him the wheelchair, he goes to church every day, the church does help him he is really passionate about it, however the government only provides us with grant.” (Grandmother on behalf of a 24 years old male, 17/12/14)

Nonetheless other participants mostly DG recipients mentioned that the government does come through for them in terms of learnerships, although some saw them as a waste of time because there are never new opportunities after the learnerships for they are back to being unemployed. Others however also mentioned the feeding schemes at schools for their children and the bursaries for higher learning that the government offers.

One participant mentioned:

“The government does come through for us with learnerships although they only take about 12 months and after that one is back home they do not employ you so it is just a waste of time. The government also funds our workshop through the department of social development” (42 years old Male, 16/01/15)

**Non-state actor’s roles**

According to Patel (2012) South Africa’s developmental social welfare policy relies largely on non-profit organizations (NPOs) to deliver social welfare services to poor and vulnerable persons and populations at risk. The researcher therefore sought to explore the role of the non-state actors in helping out the grant recipients, either through exposing them to jobs for example in house training or learnerships and/or internships. Under this theme is a sub-theme of “non-governmental organization initiatives to grant recipients”. Bophelong is home to a few NGOs working together to ensure welfare to the low-income people, among the most common was the
Protective Workshop in Asedi Center under the leadership of Mr De Beers, this workshop offers skills and training to PWDs and they also get breakfast and lunch because of the government support. Most of the DG recipients who formed part of the study had joined the workshop, with most of them appreciating the workshop, while others most of which were not members asserted that it was not making money and rendered it a waste of time.

One participant said:

“When it comes to “De Beers” organization I no longer get involved in societies because they do not economically help me, there are no skills development, no training and no salary I find it to be a waste of time to go there and just eat” (46 years old female, 17/12/14)

However other participants noted that although the workshop was not supplementing their grant financially they were learning some skills, so they were thankful.

Another participant said:

“The government also funds our workshop through the department of social development, the workshop does make money but we do not have enough material but we survive. But we have not yet reached a level where we can make enough money to take home” (42 years old male, 17/12/14)

The CSG participants stated that there was an organization that gave out groceries for a maximum of three months, the groceries however were not for employed CSG recipients. The researcher learned that the organization is Dirang Ka Kagiso basic HIV/AIDS; it’s an organisation that deals with the prevention of HIV infection and/or the distribution of information relating to HIV/AIDS, they also give out food packages to unemployed mothers in the informal settlements.

One participant added:
“Yes there are those organizations that give out groceries, I have heard if you have orphans it takes longer, I was on one where they asked if I was receiving the grant and then for six months they gave me groceries and then cut it I asked that lady why it was cut they said they will be back again”  (25 years old female, 17/12/14)

4.3.5 ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE GRANTS

Negative feelings

A minority of the participants revealed that they were not happy to receive the grant, with others argued that there is nothing pleasing about receiving and that it is a real shame although it is very helpful in meeting needs. For most DG recipients it had been a long time since they were recipients, they therefore recalled that to receive the grant during apartheid was not a good thing because grant recipients were hindered from entering the labour market. Others further argued that grants were attached some stigma for example one would die once they started receiving the grant, this was mostly because most of the pension grant recipients died subsequent to receiving the pension and this was not because of the grant it was because of old age. They therefore felt bad about being recipients.

One participant recalled:

“I didn’t want to receive it because in those times the grant was a hindrance to finding work, when looking for work you would be denied a job because you were a grant recipient” (39 years old Male, 16/01/15)

Positive feelings

Majority of the participants felt really good to be recipients of the grant. They showed that the grant was very helpful, and they were therefore happy to receive it as it meant an income every month.
A participant said:

“I was happy to receive the grant because it is very helpful; I am able to buy my children food and clothes.” (25 years old female, 17/12/14)

Several studies for example Van Driel (2009) revealed that grants were the only income in most households, in this study almost all the recipients with the exception of those that are working had no other income. Kaseke (2010) adds that many of the grant recipients are so poor that the grant is their only source of income, however there seems to be an inherent assumption that caregivers can supplement the grant with other sources of income. This study confirmed that most grant recipients have no other income except the grant, with a few participants getting maintenance from the fathers’ of the children and others sharing in the pension grant with their parents.

**Feelings of transformation**

Several studies have used the Theory of Change (ToC) in understanding how social grants or cash transfers brought about change in people’s lives. For example a study done by DSD, SASSA and UNICEF (2012) revealed that analysis of the CSG impacts originates from a ToC that recognizes the global effectiveness of social cash transfers in tackling poverty and vulnerability for children, while promoting broader developmental impacts.

This study analysis showed that household income increased due to social grants, participants noted that they were able to put food on the table and perform other households’ needs with the grant. Brockerhoff (2013) notes that unemployed adults of working age who cannot access social security can only hope to live off the grants awarded to a member of their household, typically an oldage grant or a Child Support Grant. In line with this argument it was found that the grant was used as a household income in some families because no other income was available; it thus came in handy for most participants.

One participant stated:
“My life did change as I was able to continue with life even after the accident, as a working mother you will understand how it changed given I was working and now I had to sit at home” (40 years old female, 11/12/14).

Some participants did not regard the grant as having any positive impact on their quality of life and this is because they felt the grant was not enough to match the standard of life they had whilst working, their needs therefore had to be limited to suit the grant. In support Brockerhoff (2013, p. 10) observes that although social grants are important they can never fully compensate for the lack of employment and a decent income through wages.

One participant confirmed:

“*My life did change although not in good way because previously, when I was working I could afford more things than I do now with the grant*” (37 years old Male, 31/01/15).

However other participants said the grant brought no change in their lives, mostly due to its inadequacy to cover their needs or the children’s.

“*Not so much, it did not because I was supposed to be working*” (42 years old male, 16/01/15).

“*My life has not changed, the money is just for the kids*” (24 years old female, 14/12/14)
CHAPTER 5
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter concludes the study by presenting the main findings of the research, including the conclusions reached and recommendations for the improvement of policy and practise including implication for further research.

5.2 SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS

5.2.1 Objective 1: To explore the perceived impact of social security on poverty alleviation among social grants recipients.

The findings generally set forth the importance of social grants in the recipients’ lives, it became clear that the choice to receive social grants was mainly influenced by socio-economic factors, for instance unemployment thus lack of income. Their inability to provide for their families served as the main reason why they happily accepted the grant in order to meet their various needs and this was deemed the greatest factor as to why people receive grants. Some participants however, felt they had to receive the grant based on specific circumstances for example; having a child or being disabled and this was based on the fact that there was a provision of grant for these circumstances.

Unemployment proved to play a huge role in the lives of the participants as a result majority of people would easily slip into poverty if the government did not provide any social grants. In most participants’ households the grant is the sole source of income, without which these households would not be able to meet their basic needs. Irrespective of the type of grant and irrespective of where the participants are situated (Informal settlement or Bophelong Township) each of the individuals are equally affected by the prevailing economic conditions. The findings of this study also revealed that most participants would rather work than receive the grant. This was because they regarded the social grant as inadequate they would, therefore, afford more
things than they were with the grant if they were working. Nonetheless some of the participants felt that they would rather receive the grant, recipients of the DG argued that because of the barriers at work (attitudinal, physical or environmental) they preferred to just receive the grant so as to avoid being “misunderstood” at work. The study also indicated that food and clothes remain the primary expenses of social grant recipients although some participants also use the grant to pay for crèche, disability related costs and even pay the household bills.

5.2.2 Objective 2: To elicit social grant recipients’ perceptions regarding grant dependency and economic support.

When it comes to the perceptions of a dependency syndrome in social grants recipients, the participants held two perceptions, one about other social grants recipients and the other about themselves. The participants believed that other social grants recipients were dependent on the grant and were therefore not looking to get employed for they felt that the grant was enough, other participant however mentioned that it was inevitable for other recipients to not rely on the grant because their capacity to get employed was limited due to their disability. In regard to themselves and the claims of dependency syndrome some of the participants mentioned that lack of jobs was the motive behind their reliance on the grant as their only income. The findings thus unveiled that the participants were not discouraged to find work because of the grant rather the lack of jobs served as the object behind the why most social grant recipients were unemployed. The findings further revealed that there is a culture of dependency amongst some of the DG recipients, this is because they are unable to work due to the severity of their disability, and the grant therefore serves as the main income, without which their lives would really be hard.

The findings also reflected that most PWDs are discouraged from seeking employment not only because of their disabilities but because of the barriers surrounding them at work. The economic state of affairs within this environment can only create more dependence on grants. Other DG recipients however felt it was necessary to for them to find work as a way to complement their grant, they however argued that the only way they would withdraw from the grant was if they were to be “normal” again. Their main argument was that they were not afforded the same job
opportunities as “normal” people, so the grant compensates for that. The results further indicated that although most participants deemed the grant inadequate they were able to meet their basic needs especially food although at worst the grant was not able to sustain them till month end.

Regardless of the increased financial support, political dedication and expansion of both CSG and DG most of the participants felt that the grant was inadequate, this is because the increase in social grant was not on par with food increases. The study also unveiled that although women are at the forefront of poverty alleviation measures like social assistance, they remain the hardest hit by poverty; and this can be in part attributable to the low levels of access to education and income generating work including the fact that when they do work they receive little pay compared to their male counter part.

5.2.3 Objective 3: To explore the participation of grant recipients in economic activities

With regard to the economic strategies undertaken by participants to enhance their livelihoods and supplement the grant, the majority of the participants were not involved in any economic activities. The main argument was that they did not have enough money to start and maintain a small business, however others said they had been previously involved, although they had to stop due to various reasons including being unable to sustain the business. Grants are therefore used as the main household income with no other supplementing income. The findings also unveiled that although social welfare policies are rooted in a developmental model, the social grants system only involves provision of cash transfers with no economic strategies designed to aid the recipients out of poverty to self-sustaining individuals.

5.2.4 Objective 4: To establish the availability of exit strategies for social grant recipients

Evident from the study was the importance of service providers’ initiatives in the lives of the recipients. In regard to the government, study revealed that majority of the participants felt that it was the government’s responsibility to ensure social welfare to its citizens arguing behind cases
of poverty and unemployment caused by lack of job opportunities. Some of the participants mentioned that the government only provided them with grants, this is despite the fact that the government of South Africa was supposed to link social grant recipients to poverty alleviation and economic activities as per the discussion document released in 2007. Participants therefore suggested that the government should rather provide them with work than grants. However for most of the DG recipients the government was funding the organisations that they belonged to, furthermore they were exposed to jobs through the learnerships provided by the government through non-state actors. Although the learnerships provided them with an income, they argued that the learnerships were not sustainable because they only last for a year or less after which they are back to being unemployed. For the DG recipients there were organisations that provided them with opportunities, like skills training and/or exposure to work opportunities through learnerships. For the CSG recipients there was an organisation that provided them with food packages, for three months or more depending on the household situation.

Another trend evident from the study was the positive feelings felt by recipients towards being in receipt of the grant, this was mainly because the grant was helpful and guaranteed an income at the beginning of every month. Other recipients felt a sense of transformation after receiving the grant as they felt better off than they were prior to being recipients. However there were still those participants who held negative feelings towards being grant recipients arguing that it was inadequate and embarrassing.

5.3 CONCLUSIONS

Case, Hosegood and Lund (2005) in Gatura (2013, p. 660) argue that social security benefits play a critical role in the survival of households, especially those most in need, this is because they target them directly and reverse the bias of earlier, apartheid-era social security programmes. In addition, they have a holistic effect on household welfare and health by bringing income into the household, thereby acting as a preventive rather than a palliative intervention. Social grants are of great importance in the lives of the recipients, in some families they are a basic income, there is no argument that they have an impact on poverty, however negative
discourses about social grants continue to emerge. Social grants are criticized for demotivating recipients to actively seek employment, as such it does not allow for true financial independence. There have also been allegations that CSG in particular is being misused therefore not reaching the targeted population (children).

The regime pre-1994 believed in the concept of separated development as such there was a distinct gap between the rich and the poor. The economic disparity between the rich and the poor continues to be in effect thus regressing the fight against poverty. Social security therefore remains the main measure used in reducing this economic gap. The reason why the poor largely depend on social grants for survival is because the “resources’ pie” is getting smaller and smaller simply because the economy is becoming more and more competitive due to inflation and further unemployment. The economic inequality found in this specific environment seems to keep the previously disadvantaged under the breadline.

The primary aim of the research was to investigate the validity of claims of a “dependency syndrome” amongst a group of “Black” South African social grants recipients. It sought to capture the different perceptions and feedback about social grants dependency from both CSG and DG recipients residing in Bophelong and its informal settlements. Social assistance is one of the many mechanisms used to guarantee that people faced with poverty and unemployment among other social problems have something to live on, although some of them are excluded (unemployed adults).

The study concludes that social security does have an impact on poverty alleviation; this is because social grants form the social protection floor for most recipients, that is, a minimum standard below which people should not fall. They provide the ability for recipients to meet their basic needs and often this ability economically enhances their lives from living in abject poverty to being able to go to sleep having eaten something. Social grants therefore go a long way in poverty alleviation they provide a reprieve for recipients whilst they build a capacity to earn their own income and be financially secured. The grants also proved to be a valuable support base for
the recipients; they offer financial assistance and compensation for deficient in regular basic income for both the primary care givers and the PWDs most of whom were unemployed. Women account for the most beneficiaries and are at the forefront of poverty, thus social grants minimize the extent to which poverty would be extreme in women.

Recipients are aware that there are various ways of making money that does not only include formal employment although they did not engage in any. The study also concludes that the recipients of social grants are reliant on the grant and it is due various reasons. They include the fact that some of the recipients are discouraged job seekers who attribute this to both attitudinal, physical and environmental barriers at the workplace, some of the participants would rather raise their children first before they work and significantly the lack of jobs results in recipients needing the grant for survival because the grant serve as the only source of income in most families. The recipients are attached to the grants to an extent that they would never give it up, and for most of them because they are unemployed it would be a struggle to live without it.

The expectation is that government should not only provide people with social grants, but to also put measures in place that will assist the recipients to transition from grant dependency to financial independence. This can be made possible through their partnership with non-state actors, both Non Profit Organizations (NPOs) and the business sector. Although the majority of social grants recipients would not willingly give up their grants, most of them agree that employment would be the main reason and motivation for them to move from grant dependency to financial independence also called “graduation”. Clearly, the best exit strategies for social grant recipients would be employment and self-employment (engaging in economic activities for profit).

Based on the research findings the study concludes that to some extent a culture of dependency on social grants does exist especially among DG recipients, however this dependency is due to inevitable causes and it is termed “positive dependency”. Some of the DG recipients have no
other alternative to income, grants therefore provide the basic income, however there are those DG recipients who can access the labour market but are too discouraged to do that because of the barriers at work. They therefore rely on the grant and avoid the workplace. Some participant however felt that the grant was too minute to cause a dependency syndrome, instead lack of jobs caused the reliance on the grant, that there were not working because of the grant is untrue.

Even though South Africa has adopted the social development route to social welfare the findings of the study suggest another reality. The practical implementation of social development with regard to social grants recipients is lagging behind consequently leading the recipients to feel a sense of helplessness and hopelessness, with a sense of inevitability about being entitled to social grants. The whole idea of a developmental model is based on the premise that social and economic aspects are reinforcing in this case linking social grant recipients to economic activities. The implication therefore is that social grants do not disincentivise people to seek work but rather lack of job opportunities remains the cause for the widespread unemployment amongst social grants recipients.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.4.1 POLICY IMPROVEMENT

The legal impetus for social grants which is the Social Assistance Act, (Act 13 of 2004) does not provide strategies of involving social grants recipients in economic activities, social service professionals (social workers and social auxiliary workers) are therefore faced with a dilemma on how to practically implement the social development model. Furthermore the Act has no provision for unemployed people of working age, this in turn may be the main reason why there is an influx of recipients in both the CSG and the DG and why the grant is at times not used for the targeted beneficiaries. The policy does not have exit strategies for grant recipients this limitation may lead to recipients having a sense of entitlement to the grant, and further encourage claims of dependency syndrome and unsustainability. As advocates of disempowered members especially those living in informal settlements and townships, social workers need to lobby the
government to pass and actively implement legislation that best address the needs of grant recipients. For example, an increase to the 2% minimum PWDs to be employed by the public service as per the Employment Equity Act, this way more PWDs will be exposed to work opportunities.

5.4.2 IMPROVEMENT OF PRACTICE

It is evident that most people residing in Townships lack the necessary skills to run and maintain small businesses, community social workers have a duty therefore to help the community to be equipped with necessary skills. Social workers need to encourage and emphasise economic development in the communities, this include exposing them to available opportunities like grants and funding for small businesses. Social workers through the help of social auxiliary workers can encourage and motivate social grants recipients to be involved in economic activities, this include also encouraging them to be involved in semi-formal social security initiatives and other income generating schemes. Exposing social grants recipients to skills development workshops and entrepreneurial workshops through formally inviting them to attend such initiatives would encourage them to be confident enough to engage in economic activities for profit. Specific skills workshops targeting social grant recipients must be developed so as to bring them closer to financial emancipation.

There is need for social workers to be cognizant of the principle of positive regard especially around social grants recipients and dependency; they therefore need to change their attitudes and positions around grant recipients not necessarily being dependent on the social security system. Social action adopts a commitment to the capacity of all people to take action to improve their life circumstances, social workers therefore need to first carry out studies to root out causes of social problems in communities after which the community will collectively participate in dealing with the social problems they are faced with.
5.4.3 FURTHER RESEARCH

The study identified areas for further research, there is lag in literature of PWDs especially that deals with those who can access the labour market, focus should therefore be on the DG recipients and their inclusion in the labour market, the commissioned research will provide evidence-based adjustments when it comes to dependency and employment seeking behaviour of DG recipients. Furthermore, the focal point of literature in social security in South Africa has always been through social grants, there is therefore limited literature on semi-formal social security and its importance in poverty alleviation, the proposed research can help encourage self-reliance in citizens thus poverty reduction.
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APPENDICES

Appendix A

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (Semi-Structured Interview)
(Child Support Grant and Disability Grant recipients)

SECTION A

Biographical information

1. Age
2. Gender
3. Where do you come from?
4. What led you to live at the informal settlement?
5. The level of education attained
6. Aspirations when growing up
7. Support system
8. History of grant in the family or involvement in any economical activities

SECTION B

Grant trajectory

9. When did you first receive the grant?
10. Why did you receive the grant and how did you feel about it?
11. How has your life changed after receiving the grant?
12. What can you afford that you were not able to before the grant?
13. Is the grant enough?
14. How long are you going to be receiving the grant?
15. In what circumstances would you be able to give up the grant?

16. How would you survive without the grant?

17. When you first received the grant were you told about its conditions including the circumstances under which the grant will be taken away?

18. What are your perceptions regarding claims that grants demotivate people to seek employment?

**Work history**

19. Is there any other income you receive apart from the grant?

20. Are you currently working?

21. Have you looked for work?

22. Would you rather receive the grant or work?

23. What are the economic activities that you have been involved in?

**Service provider’s role**

24. Do you feel that the government is responsible for its citizen’s welfare? Why?

25. What are your views regarding the role of the government in grant provision?

26. What has the government and/or non-state actors done to complement your grant?
Appendix B (1)

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Good day,

My name is Dineo Tseeke, and I am a postgraduate student registered for a degree MA Social Development in Social Work at the University of the Witwatersrand. I am conducting a research on the validity of claims of a dependency syndrome amongst ‘Black’ South Africans, in fulfilment of the degree. It is envisaged that the study will bring insight information about the role of social security in poverty alleviation, make recommendations towards developmental and sustainable approaches to social grants and assist policy makers in the evaluation of claims of an existence of a dependency syndrome in social grants recipients.

I kindly invite you to participate in this study, you are chosen because you are a recipient of a Child Support Grant; I therefore inquire your cooperation. Your participation is entirely voluntary and refusal or withdrawal to participate will not involve any penalty or loss. If you agree to participate, the interview which will take approximately an hour, will take place at the time and location suitable for you. With Your permission the interview will be audio recorded, and no one other than my supervisor will have access to them. All the information that will be collected about you during the course of the research will be kept confidential, the memory card and interview schedules will be locked in briefcase for two years if it is published and six years if no publications are made. Please be assured that information you provide will not be traced to you as I will use false names, therefore your identity will be kept confidential and will not be used in the final report.

There are no known expected risks or discomfort to be experienced from your participation, however should you experience fatigue or stress during the interview, you will be given as many breaks as you require.

Please contact me on +27719417192 or my supervisor, Dr Linda Smith on 011 717 4483 if you have any questions regarding the study. We shall answer them to the best of our ability. Should you wish to receive a summary of the results, an abstract will be made available on request.

Thank you for granting the time to consider participating in the study.

Yours Sincerely

Dineo Tseeke
PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Good day,

My name is Dineo Tseeke, and I am a postgraduate student registered for a degree MA Social Development in Social Work at the University of the Witwatersrand. I am conducting a research on the validity of claims of a dependency syndrome amongst black South Africans, in fulfilment of the degree. It is envisaged that the study will bring insight information about the role of social security in poverty alleviation, make recommendations towards developmental and sustainable approaches to social grants and assist policy makers in the evaluation of claims of an existence of a dependency syndrome in social grants recipients.

I kindly invite you to participate in this study, you are chosen because you are a recipient of a Disability Grant; I therefore inquire your cooperation. Your participation is entirely voluntary and refusal or withdrawal to participate will not involve any penalty or loss. If you agree to participate, the interview which will take approximately an hour, will take place at the time and location suitable for you. With Your permission the interview will be audio recorded, and no one other than my supervisor will have access to them. All the information that will be collected about you during the course of the research will be kept confidential, the memory card and interview schedules will be locked in briefcase for two years if it is published and six years if no publications are made. Please be assured that information you provide will not be traced to you as I will use false names, therefore your identity will be kept confidential and will not be used in the final report.

There are no known expected risks or discomfort to be experienced from your participation, however should you experience fatigue or stress during the interview, you will be given as many breaks as you require.

Please contact me on +27719417192 or my supervisor, Dr Linda Smith on 011 717 4483 if you have any questions regarding the study. We shall answer them to the best of our ability. Should you wish to receive a summary of the results, an abstract will be made available on request.

Thank you for granting the time to consider participating in the study.

Yours Sincerely

Dineo Tseeke
Appendix C

CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPATION IN THE STUDY

I hereby consent to participate in the research study. I understand what the study is about including its purpose and procedures. I am aware that my participation is voluntary and that I am subject to refuse to answer particular questions or withdraw from the study without any negative consequences. I am also aware that there are no risks and/or benefits associated with my participation. Furthermore I understand that there will be use of direct quotes when writing up the study’s report, however none of the information I provide will be linked to me and my responses will be kept confidential.

Name of participant: ____________________________

Date: _________________________________________

Signature: _____________________________________
Appendix D

CONSENT FORM FOR AUDIO RECORDING OF THE INTERVIEW

I hereby consent to audio recording of the interview. I am aware that there will be use of direct quotes when writing up the study’s report, however none of the information I provide will be linked to me. I understand that my confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained at all times and the tapes will be destroyed two years after any publication emanates from the study or six years after the completion of the study and no publications are made.

Name of participant: ____________________________

Date: _________________________________________

Signature: _____________________________________